US Army Corps of Engineers Walla Walla District

FINAL DRAFT Willingness-To-Pay and Expenditures for General Outdoor Recreation In the Snake River Basin in Central Idaho

Contract No. DACW68-96-D-003 Delivery Order 0010, Modification 01

Prepared For:

Department of the Army
Corps of Engineers
Walla Walla District
201 North Third Avenue
Walla Walla, Washington 99362

Prepared By:

Agricultural Enterprises, Inc. PO Box 120 Masonville, Colorado 80541

University of Idaho
Department of Fish and Wildlife
Moscow, Idaho 83444

UNDER SUBCONTRACT TO:

Normandeau Associates 1921 River Road, PO Box 10 Drumore, Pennsylvania 17518

June 1999

Preliminary Draft Document - Subject To Change For Informational Purposes Only - Not For Comment

Table of Contents

Executive Summary

Purposes of the Outdoor Recreation Demand and Spending Surveys

The Study Area

Measurement of Economic Value

The Snake River Reservoir Demand Survey

The Importance of Avoiding Travel Time Valuation

The Disequilibrium Labor Market Model

<u>Differences Between Disequilibrium and Equilibrium Labor Market Models</u>

Problems with Foregone Income Measurement

The Importance of Including All Closely Related Goods Prices

The Travel Cost Demand Variables

The Prices of a Trip From Home to Site

Closely Related Goods Prices

Other Exogenous Variables

Estimated Demand Elasticities

Price Elasticity of Demand

Price Elasticity of Closely Related Goods

Elasticity for Income and Time Constraints

Elasticity With Respect to Other Variables

Tests of Statistical Significance

Estimating Consumers Surplus Per Trip From Home to Site

<u>Consumers Surplus Per Trip From Home to Site, Assuming Travel Cost of 7.6 Cents Per Mile Per Recreationist</u>

Total Annual Consumers Surplus For Outdoor Recreation in the Snake River Basin

Comparison of Willingness-To-Pay With Other Studies

The Outdoor Recreation Expenditure Survey (Excludes Primary Anglers)

Geographic Location of Recreation Economic Impacts

Expenditure Per Visitor Per Year, and Total Annual Spending

Recreation Expenditure Rates by Town

Recreation Lodging

Mode of Transportation

Importance of Recreation Activities During the Trip

References

Appendix I - Statistical Concerns for Demand Curve Estimation

Appendix II - Questionnaire

Appendix III - Code Form for Spreadsheet Data Files

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Two surveys were conducted on recreationists in the Snake River Basin in central Idaho for the purposes of: 1) measuring willingness-to-pay for recreation trips; and 2) measuring expenditures by recreationists. The surveys were conducted by a single mailing using a list of names and addresses collected from recreationists in the Snake River Basin and surveys distributed by guides during April 15, 1998 through November 30, 1998. The recreation demand survey resulted in 190 usable responses. In comparison to the lower Snake River reservoir surveys and surveys in the unimpounded Snake River immediately upstream of Lewiston, the central Idaho survey was hindered by a lack of central sites where recreationists could be contacted by clerks to obtain the names and addresses of those willing to participate in the survey. The inclusion of a two dollar bill as an incentive payment also was not allowed for the central Idaho surveys but was used in the prior surveys. One result was that a much larger share of the returned surveys were incomplete. About 34 percent of the returned surveys were missing critical information and could not be used for the demand analysis although they were useful to estimate averages. The response rate for the travel cost questionnaire was not measurable because of the diverse methods used to distribute surveys.

The recreation demand analysis used a travel cost model that assumed persons did not (or could not) give up earnings in exchange for more free time for outdoor recreation. This model requires extensive data on recreationists' time and money constraints, time and money spent traveling to the river recreation sites, and time and money spent during the recreation trip for a variety of possible activities. The travel cost demand model related recreation trips (from home to site) per year by groups of recreationists to the dollar costs of the trip, to the time costs of the trip, to the prices on substitute or complementary trip activities, and other independent variables. The dollar cost of the trip was based on reported travel distances from home to site times the cost per person of 7.6 cents per mile.¹

The primary objective of the demand analysis was to estimate willingness-to-pay per trip for recreation in the Snake River Basin in central Idaho. Consumer surplus (the amount by which total consumer willingness-to-pay exceeds the costs of production) was estimated at \$87.24 per person per travel cost trip. The average number of recreation trips per year from home to the Snake River Basin in central Idaho was 2.76 (sample of 288 recreationists) resulting in an average annual willingness-to-pay of \$241 per year per recreationist. The total annual willingness-to-pay for all recreationists in the Snake River Basin of central Idaho is estimated at \$25.1 million.

The recreation expenditures survey yielded 402 completely usable responses. A response rate could not be calculated. Less than 15 percent of the sample lived within 100 miles of the recreation sites, whereas 45 percent of the sample lived more than 400 miles from the recreation site. An estimated \$136 million was spent by non-angler river recreationists in 1998. Annual spending in 1998 was estimated at \$755.55 per recreationist. The principal activities pursued by non-anglers were rafting, camping, and sight seeing.

PURPOSES OF THE OUTDOOR RECREATION DEMAND AND SPENDING SURVEYS

The recreation "demand" survey provided detailed information on samples of individuals who recreated in the Snake River Basin in central Idaho. The information provided by these samples was used to infer the spending behavior of recreationists in the Snake River Basin in central Idaho. In capsule, the data collected by the demand survey provided information that was used to estimate the "willingness-to-pay" (marginal benefits) by consumers for various amounts of outdoor recreation. Estimation of the marginal benefits (demand) function allowed calculation of "net economic value" per recreation trip (measurement of economic value is discussed in a following section). The outdoor recreationist spending survey showed spending patterns useful in estimating the stimulus to jobs and business sales in the region created by recreationists attracted to the Snake River Basin in central Idaho. The surveys also provided information on transportation, lodging, and outdoor recreation activities enjoyed by recreationists.

THE STUDY AREA

The mail surveys were distributed using names and addresses collected in person from recreationists by clerks in central Idaho or reported by guides in the Snake River Basin in central Idaho. Figure 1 locates the study region in central Idaho relative to other regional areas.



Figure 1. Locator map for the study region in Central Idaho

The principal areas within central Idaho where respondents were contacted were centered in the towns of Salmon, Riggins, and Orofino. These towns were the focus of recreation on the upper Salmon River, main fork of the Salmon River and the Little Salmon River, and the Clearwater and Lochsa rivers, respectively.

MEASUREMENT OF ECONOMIC VALUE

A public good like the Snake River Basin differs in two significant ways from a competitive firm. First, the public good is very large relative to the market that it serves; this is one of the reasons that a government agency is involved. Because of the size of the project, as output (recreation access) is restricted the price that people are willing to pay will increase (a movement up the market demand curve). Price is no longer at a fixed level as faced by a small competitive firm. Second, the seller (government) does not act like a private firm which charges a profit-maximizing price. A public project has no equilibrium market price that can easily be observed to indicate value or marginal benefit.

If output for recreation in the Snake River Basin in central Idaho was supplied by many competitive firms, market equilibrium would occur where the declining market demand curve intersected the rising market supply curve. A competitive market price would indicate the marginal benefit to consumers of an added unit of outdoor recreation. However, calculation of total economic value produced would require knowledge of the market demand because many consumers would be willing-to-pay more than the equilibrium price. The amount by which total consumer willingness-to-pay exceeds the costs of production is the total net benefit or "consumers surplus." If output was supplied by many competitive firms, statistical estimation of a market demand curve could use observed market quantities and prices over time.

Economic value (consumers surplus) of a particular output (outdoor recreation) of a public good also can be found by estimating the consumer demand curve for that output. The economic value of recreation in the Snake River Basin in central Idaho can be determined if a statistical demand function showing consumer willingness-to-pay for various amounts of recreation is estimated. Because market prices cannot be observed, (recreation is a non-market good), a *surrogate price* must be used to model consumer behavior toward outdoor recreation (U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, 1995; Herfindahl and Kneese, 1974; McKean and Walsh, 1986; Peterson *et al.*, 1992).

The recreation demand survey collected information on individuals at the river showing their number of recreation trips per year and their cost of traveling to the recreation site. The price faced by recreationists is the cost of access to the recreation site (mainly the time and money costs of travel from home to site), and the quantity demanded per year is the number of recreation trips they make to the Snake River Basin. A demand relationship will show that fewer trips to the river are made by people who face a larger travel cost to reach the river from their homes (Clawson and Knetsch 1966). "The Travel

cost method (TCM) has been preferred by most economists, as it is based on observed market behavior of a cross-section of users in response to direct out-of-pocket and time costs of travel" (Loomis, 1997)³ "The basic premise of the travel cost method (TCM) is that per capita use of a recreation site will decrease if the out-of-pocket and time costs of traveling from place of origin to the site increase, other things remaining equal" (Water Resources Council, 1983, Appendix 1 to Section VIII).

Figure 2 shows a market for outdoor recreation. (It is a convention to show price on the vertical axis and quantity demanded on the horizontal axis). A market supply and demand graph for outdoor recreation shows the economic factors affecting all recreationists in a region. The demand by persons for recreation trips is negatively sloped, showing that if the money cost of a recreation trip (round trip from home to site and back) rises, recreationists will take fewer trips per year. Examples of how money trip costs might rise include: increased automobile fuel prices, recreation regulators close nearby sites requiring longer trips to reach other sites, entrance fees are increased, boat launching fees are raised, or nearby sites become congested requiring longer trips to obtain the same quality outdoor recreation. The supply of recreation opportunities is upward sloping. The upward slope of recreation supply is caused by the need to travel ever further from home to obtain quality recreation if more people enter the "regional outdoor recreation market." Increased recreation trips in the region can occur when a larger percentage of the population becomes interested in recreation, when more non-local recreationists travel to the region to obtain quality recreation, or if the local population expands over time. The market demand/supply graph is useful for describing the aggregate economic relationships affecting recreationist behavior, but a "site-demand" model is used to place a value on a specific recreation site.

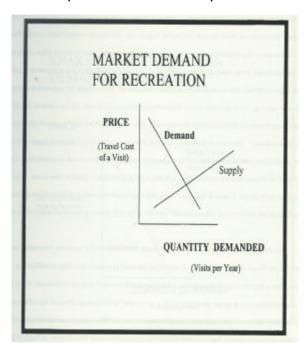


Figure 2. Market demand for recreation

Preliminary Draft Document - Subject To Change For Informational Purposes Only - Not For Comment

Figure 3 describes the demand by a typical recreationist for outdoor recreation in the Snake River Basin in central Idaho. Recreation demand is negatively sloped indicating, as before, that a higher cost or price to visit the recreation site will reduce recreation visits per year. The supply curve for a given person to visit a given site is horizontal because the distance from home to site, which determines the cost of access, is fixed. The supply curve would shift up if auto fuel prices increased but it would still be horizontal because the number of trips from home to recreation site per year would not influence the cost per trip.

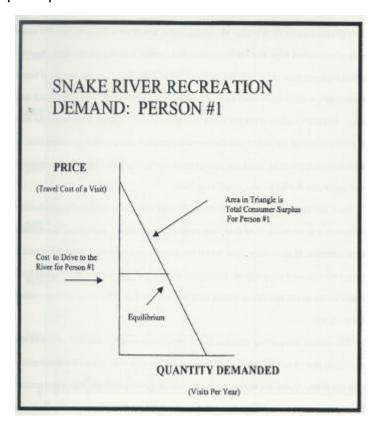


Figure 3. Recreation demand for an individual

The vertical distance between the recreationist's demand for recreation and the horizontal supply (cost) of a recreation trip is the net benefit or consumer surplus obtained from a recreation trip. The demand curve shows what the recreationist would be willing-to-pay for various amounts of recreation trips and the horizontal line is their actual cost of a trip. As more recreation trips per year are taken, the benefits per trip decline until the marginal benefit (added satisfaction to the consumer) from an additional trip equals its cost where cost and demand intersect. The recreationist does not make any more visits to the river because the money value to this recreationist of the added satisfaction from another recreation trip is less than the trip cost. The equilibrium number of visits per year chosen by the recreationist is at the intersection of the demand curve and the horizontal travel cost line.

Each recreationist has a unique demand curve reflecting how much satisfaction they gain from recreating at the river, their free time available for outdoor recreation, the distance to alternate comparable recreation sites, and other factors that determine their likes and dislikes. Each recreationist also has a unique horizontal supply curve at a level determined by the distance from their home to the recreation site of their choice, the fuel efficiency of their vehicle, access fees (if any), etc.

The critical exogenous variable in the travel cost model is the cost of travel from home to the recreation site. Each recreationist has a different travel cost (price) for a recreation trip from home to the river. Variation among recreationists in travel cost from home to recreation site (i.e., price variation) creates the Snake River Basin site-demand data shown in Figure 4. The statistical demand curve is fitted to the data in Figure 4 using regression analysis. (It is possible that some anglers might select a residence location close to the reservoirs to minimize cost of travel (Parsons, 1991). The travel cost model assumes that this doesn't happen. If anglers locate their residence to minimize distance to the reservoir fishing site then the assumption that travel cost is exogenous is invalid and a simultaneous equation estimation technique would be required.) Nonmonetary factors, such as available free time and relative enjoyment for outdoor recreation, will also affect the number of river visits per year. The statistical demand curve should incorporate all the factors which affect the publics' willingness-topay for recreation at the river. It is the task of the Snake River Basin recreation survey to include questions that elicit information about persons that explains their unique willingness-to-pay for outdoor recreation.

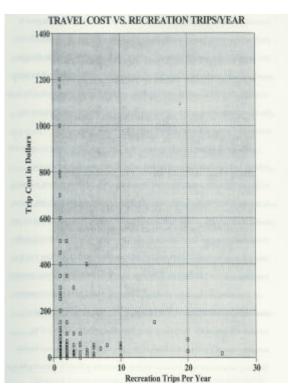


Figure 4. Travel cost versus recreation trips per year

Preliminary Draft Document - Subject To Change For Informational Purposes Only - Not For Comment

The goal of the travel cost demand analysis is to empirically measure the triangular area in Figure 3 which is the annual net dollar value of satisfaction received or recreationist willingness-to-pay in excess of the costs of the recreation trips. The triangular area is summed for the total number of recreationists used in our statistical model and divided by their average number of trips per year. This is the estimated consumer surplus per recreation trip or, i.e., net economic value per trip. The estimated average net economic value per trip derived from the travel cost model can be multiplied times the total recreation trips from home to the river in a year to find annual net benefits of the Snake River Basin in central Idaho for outdoor recreation.

In summary, each price level along a down-sloping demand curve shows the marginal benefit or recreationist willingness-to-pay for that corresponding output level (number of recreation trips consumed). The gross economic value (total willingness-to-pay) of the recreation output of a public good is shown by the area under the statistical demand function. The annual net economic value (consumer surplus) of recreation is found by subtracting the sum of the participants access (travel) costs from the sum of their benefit estimates. This is equivalent to summing the consumer surplus triangles for all recreationists at the river.

THE SNAKE RIVER BASIN DEMAND AND SPENDING SURVEYS

Persons were contacted at multiple recreation sites over the period from April 15, 1998 through November 30, 1998 and requested to take part in either the recreation demand or recreation spending mail surveys. Most persons contacted on-site were agreeable to receiving a mail questionnaire and provided their name and mailing address. Persons on guided tours or guided rafting trips were not directly accessible and tour guides mailed or handed out surveys to their clients.

The Snake River Basin recreation demand survey included detailed socio-economic information about recreationists and data on money and physical time costs of travel, recreation, and other activities both on and off river recreation sites. The questionnaires used for each survey are shown in Appendix II and are similar to the recreation and sportfishing questionnaires used on the lower Snake River reservoirs and on the unimpounded Snake River above Lewiston (Normandeau Associates *et al.*, 1999). The questionnaire used in this study is also similar to those used previously to study sportfishing demand on the Cache la Poudre River in northern Colorado and for Blue Mesa Reservoir in southern Colorado (Johnson, 1989; McKean *et al.*, 1995; McKean *et al.*, 1996). Both of the latter surveys were by personal interview, while the Snake River Basin survey was by mail.⁴ The demand survey resulted in 190 completely usable responses.

Figure 4 shows unadjusted sample data relating recreation trips from home to site per year and dollars of travel expense per trip at the river for 288 respondents. (Only 190 of the 288 returned surveys contained adequate information to use in the statistical estimation of recreation demand.) Figure 5 shows the sample data relating recreation trips per year to the hours required to travel between home and the river recreation site. The data shown in both graphs reveal an inverse relationship between money or time required for a recreation trip to the river and trips demanded per year. Both out-of-

pocket cost per trip and hours per trip act as prices for a recreation trip. Even before adjustment for differences among persons' available free time, recreation experience, and other factors affecting recreationist behavior, it is clearly shown by Figures 4 and 5 that persons with high travel costs or high travel time per trip take fewer recreation trips per year. Therefore, observations across the total usable sample of 190 recreationists can reveal a recreation demand relationship. The Snake River Basin (input-output) spending survey provided a list of potential spending choices and requested the amount spent and the location for each of the spending categories. Separate forms were provided for spending during travel to the site, spending while at the site, and spending on the trip home. The recreation spending survey resulted in a sample of 402 completely usable responses. Because of the varied ways in which surveys were distributed it was not possible to calculate a response rate. The recreation spending survey data are expanded to show the direct economic effects on spending, earnings, and employment in central Idaho.

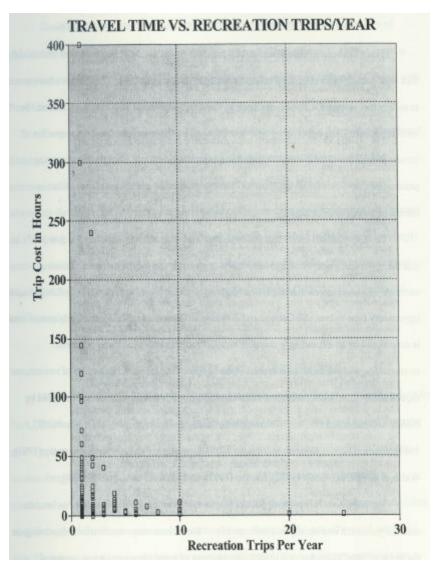


Figure 5. Travel time versus recreation trips per year

Preliminary Draft Document - Subject To Change For Informational Purposes Only - Not For Comment

THE IMPORTANCE OF AVOIDING TRAVEL TIME VALUATION

There has been disagreement among practitioners in the design of the travel cost model, thus wide variations in estimated values have occurred (Parsons, 1991). Researchers have come to realize that nonmarket values measured by the traditional travel cost model are flawed. In most applications, the opportunity time cost of travel has been assumed to be a proportion of money income based on the equilibrium labor market assumption. Disagreements among practitioners have existed on the "correct" income proportion and thus wide variations in estimated values have occurred.

The conventional travel cost models assume labor market equilibrium (Becker, 1965) so that the opportunity cost of time used in travel is given by the wage rate (see a following section). However, much dissatisfaction has been expressed over measurement and modeling of opportunity time values. McConnell and Strand (1981) conclude, "The opportunity cost of time is determined by an exceedingly complex array of institutional, social, and economic relationships, and yet its value is crucial in the choice of the types and quantities of recreational experiences." The opportunity time value methodology has been criticized and modified by Bishop and Heberlein (1979), Wilman (1980), McConnell and Strand (1981), Ward (1983, 1984), Johnson (1983), Wilman and Pauls (1987), Bockstael *et al.* (1987), Walsh *et al.*, (1989), Walsh *et al.* (1990a), Shaw (1992), Larson (1993), and McKean *et al.* (1995, 1996).

The consensus is that the opportunity time cost component of travel cost has been its weakest part, both empirically and theoretically. "Site values may vary fourfold, depending on the value of time" (Fletcher *et al.*, 1990). "... the cost of travel time remains an empirical mystery" (Randall, 1994).

Disequilibrium in labor markets may render wage rates irrelevant as a measure of opportunity time cost for many recreationists. For example, Bockstael et al. (1987) found a money/time tradeoff of \$60/hour for individuals with fixed work hours and only \$17/hour with flexible work hours.

The results from our previous studies and this study on the Snake River Basin in central Idaho suggest using a model specifically designed to help overcome disagreements and criticisms of the opportunity time value component of travel cost. We use a model that eliminates the difficult-to-measure marginal value of income from the time cost value. Instead of attempting to estimate a "money value of time" for each individual in the sample we simply enter the actual time required for travel to the recreation site as first suggested by Brown and Nawas (1973), and Gum and Martin (1975) and applied by Ward (1983,1989). The annual income variable is retained as an income constraint.⁵

THE DISEQUILIBRIUM LABOR MARKET MODEL

The travel cost model used in this statistical analysis assumes that site visits are priced by both 1) out-of-pocket travel expenses; and 2) opportunity time costs of travel to and from the site. Opportunity time cost has been conventionally defined in economic models as money income foregone (Becker, 1965; Water Resources Council, 1983). However, a person's consideration of their limited time resources may outweigh money income foregone given labor market disequilibrium and institutional considerations. Persons who actually could substitute time for money income at the margin represent a small part of the population, especially the population of recreationists. Retirees. students, and unemployed persons do not exchange time for income at the margin. Many workers are not allowed by their employment contracts to make this exchange. Weekends and paid vacations of prescribed length are often the norm. Thus, the equilibrium labor market model may apply to certain self-employed persons (i.e., dentists or high level sales occupations) where individuals 1) have discretionary work schedules; and 2) can expect that their earnings will decline in proportion to the time spent recreating. (Many professionals can take time off without foregoing any income.) The equilibrium labor market subgroup of the population is very small. According to U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics and National Election Studies (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1993), only 5.4 percent of voting age persons in the U.S. were classified as selfemployed in the United States in 1992. The labor market equilibrium model applies to less than 5.4 percent of recreationists who are over-represented by retirees and students.

Bockstael *et al.* (1987), hereafter B-S-H, provide an alternate model in which time and income are not substituted at the margin. B-S-H show that the time and money constraints cannot be collapsed into one when individuals cannot marginally substitute work time for leisure. Thus, <u>physical travel time</u> and <u>money cost</u> per trip from home to site enter as separate price variables in the demand function. (Figures 4 and 5 show actual money cost and time cost plotted against recreation trips demanded per year). <u>Discretionary</u> time and income enter as separate constraint variables. Money cost and physical time per trip also enter as separate price variables for closely related time-consuming goods such as alternate recreation sites. The B-S-H travel cost model can be estimated as shown in the following equation:

$$r = b_0 + b_1c_0 + b_2t_0 + b_3c_a + b_4t_a + b_5INC + b_6DT$$

where the subscripts o and a refer to own site prices and alternate site prices respectively, *c* is out-of-pocket travel cost per trip, *t* is physical travel time per trip, *INC* is money income, and *DT* is available discretionary time.

Differences Between Disequilibrium and Equilibrium Labor Market Models

The equilibrium labor market model makes the explicit assumption that opportunity time value rises directly with income. Thus, the methodology that we have rejected assumes perfect substitution between work and leisure. McConnell and Strand (1981, 1983) (M-S) specify price in their travel cost demand model as the argument in the right hand side of the following equation:

$$r = f[c + (t)g'(w)]$$

where, as before, r is trips from home to site per year, c is out-of-pocket costs per trip, and t is travel time per trip. The term g'(w) is the marginal income foregone per unit time. It is assumed in the M-S model that any increase of travel cost, whether it is out-of-pocket spending or the money value of travel time expended, has an equal marginal effect on visits per year. The term [c + (t)g'(w)] imposed this restriction because it forces the partial effect of a change in out-of-pocket cost (?f/?c) to be equal in magnitude to a change in the opportunity time cost ?f/? [(t)g'(w)]. An important distinction in model specification is demonstrated by M-S. The equilibrium labor market model requires that out-of-pocket and opportunity time value costs be added together to force an identical coefficient on both costs. In contrast, the B-S-H disequilibrium labor market model requires separate coefficients to be estimated for out-of-pocket costs and opportunity time value costs.

Problems With Foregone Income Measurement

Measurement and statistical problems often beset the full price variable in empirical applications. Even for those self-employed persons who are in labor market equilibrium, measuring marginal income is difficult. Simple income questions are unlikely to elicit true marginal opportunity time cost. Only after-tax earned income should be used when measuring opportunity time cost. Thus, opportunity cost may be overstated for the wealthy whose income may require little of their time. Conversely, students who are investing in education and have little market income will have their true opportunity time costs understated. In practice, marginal income specified by theory is usually replaced with a more easily observable measure consisting of average family income per unit time. Unfortunately, marginal and average values of income are unlikely to be the same.

The Importance of Including All Closely Related Goods Prices

Ward (1983,1984) proposed that the "correct" measure of price in the travel cost model is the minimum expenditure required to travel from home to recreation site and return since any excess of that amount is a purchase of other goods and is not a relevant part of the price of a trip to the site. This own-price definition suggests that the other (excess) spending during the trip is associated with some of the closely related goods whose prices are likely to be important in the demand specification. For example, timeon-site can be an important good and it is often ignored in the specification of the TCM. Yet time-on-site must be a closely related good since the weak complementarity principle upon which measurement of benefits from the TCM is founded implies that time-on-site is essential. Weak complementarity was the term used to connect enjoyment of a recreation site to the travel cost to reach it (Maler, 1974). It is assumed that a travel cost must be paid in order to enjoy time spent at the recreation site. Without travelling to the site, the site has no recreation value to the consumer and without the ability to spend time at the site the consumer has no reason to pay for the travel. With these assumptions, the cost of travel from home to site can be used as the price associated with a particular recreation site (Loomis et al., 1986).

The sign of the coefficient relating trips demanded to particular time "expenditures" associated with the trip is an empirical question. For example, time-on-site or time used for other activities on the trip have prices which include both the opportunity time cost of the individual and a charge against the fixed discretionary time budget. Spending more time-on-site could increase the value of the trip leading to increased trips, but time-on-site could also be substituted for trips. Spending during a trip for goods, both on and off the site, consist of closely related goods which are expected to be complements for trips to the site. Finally, spending for extra travel, either for its own sake, or to visit other sites, can be a substitute or a complement to the site consumption. For example, persons might visit site "a" more often if site "b" could also be visited with a relatively small added time and/or money cost. If the price of "b" rises, then visits to "a" might decrease since the trip to "a" now excludes "b." Conversely, persons might travel more often to "a" since it is now relatively less expensive compared to attaining "b" (McKean et al., 1996).

Many recreational trips combine sightseeing and the use of various capital and service items with both travel and the site visit, and include side trips (Walsh *et al.*, 1990b). Recreation trips are seldom single-purpose and travel is sometimes pleasurable and sometimes not. The effect of these "other activities" on the trip-travel cost relationship can be statistically adjusted for through the inclusion of the relevant prices paid during travel or onsite and for side trips. Furthermore, both trips and on-site recreation are required to exist simultaneously to generate satisfaction or the weak complementarity conditions would be violated (McConnell, 1992). A relation between trips and site experiences is indicated such that marginal satisfaction of a trip depends on the corresponding site experiences. Therefore, the demand relationship should contain site quality variables, time-on-site, and goods used on-site, as well as other site conditions. Exclusion of these variables would violate the specification required for the weak complementarity condition which allows use of the TCM to measure benefits.

In this study of outdoor recreation in the Snake River Basin, an expanded TCM survey was designed to include money and time costs of on-site time (McConnell, 1992), onsite purchases, and the money and time cost of other activities on the trip. These vacation-enhancing closely related goods prices are added to the specification of the conventional TCM demand model. Empirical estimates of partial equilibrium demand could suffer underspecification bias if the prices of closely related goods were omitted. Traditional TCM demand models seemingly ignore this well known rule of econometrics and exclude the prices of onsite time, purchases, and other trip activities which are likely to be the principal closely related goods consumed by recreationists.

THE TRAVEL COST DEMAND VARIABLES

The definitions for the variables in the disequilibrium and equilibrium travel cost models are shown in Table 1. The dependent variable for the travel cost model is (r), annual reported trips from home to the recreation site. Annual recreation trips from home to the Snake River Basin recreation site is the quantity demanded. The average recreationist took 2.76 trips from home to the recreation site in the Snake River Basin during the period April 15, 1998 - November 30, 1998.

Table 1 Definition of Variables ⁸		
r	Annual trips from home to the Snake River Basin recreation site (dependent variable)	
Co	The recreationist's out-of-pocket round trip travel cost to the Snake River recreation site, in dollars	
L(t _o)	Round trip travel time to the recreation site, in hours	
L(t _{ar})	The recreationist's time spent at an alternate recreation site during the trip in the Snake River Basin, in hours	
L(INC)	Annual family earned and unearned income, in dollars	
L(DT)	The recreationist's discretionary time available per year, in days	
L(<i>EXP</i>)	The recreationist's total recreation experience in the Snake River Basin, in years	

The Prices of a Trip From Home to Site

The money price variable in the B-S-H model is c_r , which is the out-of-pocket travel costs to the recreation site. Our mail survey obtained travel costs for most of those surveyed. Reported one-way travel distance for each party was multiplied times two and times \$0.076 to obtain money cost of travel per person per trip. Cost per mile was based on average cost collected from the much larger lower Snake River reservoirs survey (Normandeau Associates $et\ al.$, 1999). Recreationist-perceived cost was used rather than costs constructed from Department of Transportation or American Automobile Association data. Recreationists' perceived price is the relevant variable when they decide how many recreation trips to take (Donnelly $et\ al.$, 1985). Money price of a trip had the expected negative sign in the estimated model.

The physical time price for each individual in the B-S-H model (disequilibrium labor market) is measured by to which is round trip driving time in hours. Average round trip driving time was about 19.65 hours with an average round trip distance of 905.9 miles. Thus, average speed was 46.1 miles per hour. The time price of a trip had the expected negative sign in the estimated model.

Closely Related Goods Prices

The B-S-H model calls for the inclusion of t_a , round trip driving time from home to an alternate recreation site, as the physical time price of an alternate recreation site. This variable was not significant and appeared to be highly correlated with the monetary cost of travel. Another alternate site price variable is c_a , which is the out-of-pocket travel costs to the most preferred alternate recreation site from the recreationists home. This substitute price variable also was not significant.

The variable to measure available free time is *DT*. The discretionary time constraint variable is required for persons in a disequilibrium labor market who cannot substitute time for income at the margin. Restrictions on free time are likely to reduce the number of recreation trips taken. The discretionary time variable has been positive and highly significant in previous disequilibrium labor market recreation demand studies and was highly significant in this study (Bockstael *et al.*, 1987; McKean *et al.*, 1995, 1996). The average number of days that persons in the survey were "free from other obligations" was 65 days per year.

The income constraint variable (*INC*) is defined as average annual family income resulting from wage earnings. The relation of quantity demanded to income indicates differences in tastes among income groups. Although restrictions on income should reduce overall purchases, it may also cause a shift to low cost types of consumer goods such as outdoor recreation. Thus, the sign on the income coefficient conceptually can be either positive or negative. The estimated coefficient on income was negative for this data set.

Four other closely related goods prices were tested in the model: t_{os} , time spent at the primary recreation site at the river; c_{os} , money purchases at the primary recreation site at the river; c_{as} , money spent during the trip at alternate recreation sites in central Idaho during the recreation trip; and recreation time spent at an alternate recreation site in central Idaho during the trip, t_{ar} . Only the latter variable was significant in this data set, meaning that the larger the amount of alternate site time during the trip, the greater the number of trips taken.

Other Exogenous Variables

An indicator of taste related particularly to the study region is the number of years that the recreationist has visited the Snake River basin in central Idaho. The variable *EXP* measures this aspect of taste. Recreationists had an average of 10.5 years experience visiting the Snake River Basin. The estimated coefficient on *EXP* was significant, and had the expected positive sign.

Age has often been found to influence the demand for various types of recreation activity. The average age of persons in the survey was 40.2 years. Age of the recreationist was tested in the statistical demand model and found nonsignificant.

ESTIMATED DEMAND ELASTICITIES

The estimated regression coefficients and elasticities from the truncated negative binomial regression estimation for the Snake River Basin recreation demand models are reported in Tables 2 and 3.⁹ Several of the exogenous variables in the truncated negative binomial regressions were log transforms. When the independent variables are log transforms the estimated slope coefficients directly reveal the elasticities. When the independent variables are linear the elasticities are found by multiplying the coefficient times the mean of the independent variable. Elasticity with respect to dummy variables could be estimated for at least three situations, the dummy variable is zero, the dummy variable is one, or the average value of the dummy variable. Given a log transform of the dependent variable, elasticity for a dummy variable is zero if the dummy is zero, the estimated slope coefficient if the dummy is one, and the slope coefficient times the E(dummy) if the average value of the dummy is used. We will report the elasticity for the case where the dummy is one.¹⁰

Table 2 Snake River Basin Demand

Travel Cost Per Mile Per Recreationist Assumed to be \$0.076

Truncated Negative Binomial Regression 11 , r = trips per year to the river ($r = dependent \ variable$)

mean r = 5.78. $R^2 = 0.30$ (estimated by a regression of the predicted values of trips from the truncated negative binomial model on the actual values).

Variable	Coefficient	t-Ratio	Mean of Variable	Elasticity
Constant	0.8961	0.32	na	na
C _o	-0.01146	-2.41	68.86	-0.79
L(t _o)	-0.4339	-1.93	19.65	-0.43
L(t _{ar})	0.2249	1.83	13.21	0.22
L(INC)	-0.3275	-1.29	62592.00	-0.33
L(DT)	0.4175	2.36	64.55	0.42
L(EXP)	0.7216	4.48	10.51	0.72

Table 3 Effects of Exogenous Variables on Recreation Trips Per Year		
Exogenous Variable	Effect on Trips/Year of a +10% Change	
Recreationist's Money Cost of Round Trip (dollars/trip)	-7.89%	
Recreationist's Round Trip Travel Time (hours/trip)	-4.34%	
Recreationist Time Spent at Other Recreation Sites During the Trip	2.25%	
Annual Family Income (dollars/year)	-0.33%	
Recreationist's Discretionary Time Available (days/year)	4.18%	
Recreationist's Total Years of Recreation Experience in the Snake River Basin (years)	7.22%	

Price Elasticity of Demand

Price elasticity with respect to out-of-pocket travel cost is -0.7891. A 10 percent increase in travel costs would reduce participation by 7.89 percent.

The elasticity with respect to physical travel time for recreationists was -0.4339. If the time cost of travel required to reach the site increased by 10 percent, trips would decrease by 4.34 percent.

Price Elasticity of Closely Related Goods

Time spent during the trip at alternate recreation sites in the Snake River basin, t_{ar} , has a price elasticity of 0.2249. Thus, increases in the amount of time spent at alternative recreation sites during the trip tends to increase the number of trips. The time spent at an alternate site acts as a complementary good to the overall recreation trip experience in central Idaho. Since both the primary site and the alternate site are in the Snake River Basin, it is desired to include both contributions to recreation demand.

Elasticity for Income and Time Constraints

Income elasticity was weakly significant for this data set. Quantity demanded (recreation trips from home to the Snake River per year) was lower for high income persons. The elasticity of -0.3275 indicates that a person with a 10 percent higher income level will take 3.28 percent less trips. It is not unusual to find that outdoor recreation is negatively related to income.

Elasticity with respect to discretionary time is 0.4175. As in past studies, the discretionary time variable was positive and highly significant. A 10-percent increase in free time results in a very large 4.18 percent increase in recreation trips to the Snake River Basin. As expected, available free time acts as an important constraint on the number of recreation trips taken per year.

Elasticity With Respect to Other Variables

The recreation experience variable, *EXP*, was highly significant. The coefficient showed that those who have recreated in the Snake River Basin over a long period of time tend to make more trips to the area. A 10-percent increase in years visited the river results in a very large 7.22 percent increase in annual trips to the river.

Tests of Statistical Significance

The t-ratios for all important variables to estimate the value of outdoor recreation are statistically significant from zero at the 5 percent level of significance or better. The tests for overdispersion (Cameron and Trivedi, 1990; Greene, 1992) for the Poisson regression were negative. Thus, unlike the data sets for the lower Snake River reservoirs and unimpounded reach upstream of Lewiston, Poisson regression was appropriate. However, truncated negative binomial regression results are reported herein. A conservative approach uses the negative binomial model to eliminate any possible overstatement of the t-ratios that might occur with the Poisson regression. In fact, the t-ratios were somewhat higher for the Poisson regression (not shown) than for the negative binomial regression.

ESTIMATING CONSUMERS SURPLUS PER TRIP FROM HOME TO SITE

Consumers' surplus was estimated using the result shown in Hellerstein and Mendelsohn (1993) for consumer utility (satisfaction) maximization subject to an income constraint, and where trips are a nonnegative integer. They show that the conventional formula to find consumer surplus for a semilog model also holds for the case of the integer constrained quantity demanded variable. The Poisson and negative binomial regressions, with a linear relation on the explanatory own monetary price variable, are equivalent to a semilog functional form. Adamowicz *et al.* (1989), show that the annual

consumers surplus estimate for demand with continuous variables is E(r)/(- ß), where ß is the estimated slope on price and E(r) is average annual visits. Consumers surplus per trip from home to site is 1/(- ß). (Also note that the estimate of consumers surplus is invariant to the distribution of trips along the demand curve when surplus is a linear function of Q. Thus, it is not necessary to numerically calculate surplus for each data point and sum as would be the case if the surplus function was nonlinear.)

Consumers Surplus Per Trip From Home to Site Assuming Travel Cost of 7.6 cents per Mile per Recreationist

Estimated coefficients for the travel cost model with labor market disequilibrium and assuming travel cost per mile of 7.6 cents per mile per person are shown in Table 2. The assumption of 7.6 cents per mile per person is identical with that used in the fishing and recreation demand models estimated for the four reservoirs on the lower Snake River and on the unimpounded Snake River above Lewiston (Normandeau Associates et al., 1999).¹²

Application of truncated negative binomial regression, and using recreationist-reported travel distance times \$0.076 per mile per person to estimate out-of-pocket travel costs, results in an estimated coefficient of -0.011462 on out-of-pocket travel cost. Consumers surplus per recreationist per trip is the reciprocal or \$87.24. Average recreationist trips per year in our full 288-person sample was 2.76. Total surplus per recreationist per year is average annual trips x surplus per trip or 2.76 x \$87.24 = \$241 per year.

Total Annual Consumers Surplus for Outdoor Recreation in the Snake River Basin

An important objective of the demand analysis was to estimate total annual willingness-to-pay for recreation in the Snake River Basin. The total annual willingness-to-pay for all recreationists requires knowledge of the total population of recreationists which frequent the Snake River Basin. The number of nonangler recreationists visiting central Idaho was estimated to be 180,000 per year. The number of recreationists was derived from data collected in the companion spending survey and published information on traveler spending for the States of Idaho and Oregon. The detailed derivation is shown in the input-output spending survey section of this report. Total annual consumer surplus for nonangling recreationists in central Idaho is estimated to be $180,000 \times 241 = 43.4$ million per year.

Comparison of Willingness-To-Pay With Other Studies

Included below is a sample of other travel cost study results that measured demand for many of the types of outdoor recreation pursued in central Idaho. Comparisons of net benefits for outdoor recreation among demand studies is difficult because of differences in the units of measurement of consumption or output. Comparisons of value per person trip are flawed unless all studies compared have similar length of stays. Comparisons of

value per person per day are difficult because some sites and activities can occur all day (or even at night) and others only at certain hours. Conversion problems for recreation consumption data makes exact comparison among studies impossible. Many studies are quite old and the purchasing power of the dollar has declined over time. However, adjustment of values found in older studies to current purchasing power can be attempted using the consumer price index.

Another problem with older studies is the changes in both economic and statistical models used to measure value. Adjustment for different travel cost model methodologies, as well as contingent value methodologies, and inflation, is shown in Walsh *et al.* (1988a; 1988b; 1990a). Some of the more recent studies used higher cost per mile than we did for travel and also used income rate as opportunity time cost that was added to the monetary costs of travel. If these outmoded methods resulted in an overstatement of travel cost, a near proportional overstatement of estimated consumer surplus will occur. In addition, some of the studies used Poisson regression and obtained extremely large t-values. Although no test for overdispersion was mentioned, the very high t-values suggest that the requirement of Poisson regression that the mean and variance of trips per year be equal was violated. If that is the case, the Poisson regressions are inappropriate and should have been replaced with negative binomial regression.

Cameron et al. (1996), developed individual travel cost recreation models to predict the effect of water levels on all types of recreation at reservoirs and rivers in the Columbia River Basin (see Appendix J-1, COE Columbia River System Operation Review, CRSOR (1995). The baseline (1993 water levels) estimates of consumer surplus varied between \$13 and \$99 per person per summer month over the nine sites. Annual estimates per trip were not reported. The study included recreation at Lower Granite Reservoir with a sample of 168 persons. The results for Lower Granite Reservoir were extrapolated to the other three lower Snake River reservoirs. Consumer surplus per recreation day for summer recreation can be found using average visitor days shown in Tables 6.2a-6.2i and total summer consumer surplus shown in Tables 6.3a-6.3i (CRSOR). Division of total consumer surplus by average recreation days result in: Ice Harbor Reservoir, \$51.21 per recreation day; Lower Monumental Reservoir, \$40.33 per recreation day; Little Goose Reservoir, \$42.69 per recreation day; and Lower Granite Reservoir, \$35.40 per recreation day. Recreation days varied from 138,400 at Lower Monumental Reservoir to 1,670,600 at Lower Granite Reservoir. Values found for other reservoirs in the study included John Day Reservoir at \$20.14 per recreation day, Lake Roosevelt Reservoir at \$53.27 per recreation day, and Dworshak Reservoir at \$54.01 per recreation day.

The values found in *CRSOR* (Cameron *et al.*, 1996) are higher than estimated herein. Changes in consumer surplus estimated by the travel cost method are almost directly proportional to the changes in travel cost value that is used as price in the demand function. One reason for the high values in the *CRSOR* study is that the vehicle cost used in the price variable was \$0.29 cents per mile (Department of Transportation estimate), whereas our vehicle cost was \$0.202 per mile (based on our survey data).

The price perceived by travelers is the appropriate measure. DOT data include fixed costs that are not relevant when making incremental trip decisions (Donnelly et al., 1985). In addition, Cameron et al. (1996), added in an opportunity time cost of travel based on estimated travel time valued at the reported average wage rate (see CRSOR, Appendix J-1, bottom of Table 5,4). Our methodology did not include a money cost of time in travel cost and physical travel time was included as a separate site price variable. Their assumption that all recreationists give up earnings when traveling to the site is incorrect based on their own survey data. The fraction of persons who stated they gave up some income to visit the sites appears to be only about 10 percent (about 19 persons) in their sample of 186 at Lower Granite Reservoir (see CRSOR, Appendix B2 Survey Results, Part E, About Your Typical Trips). 13 The 10 percent of visitors that gave up some income probably did so either on the way to the site or on the return trip but not both ways. The appropriate foregone income amount would only apply to half the trip time and to only 10 percent of the visitors. Based on the survey characteristics of typical trips, the foregone income component of travel cost was overstated by about 95 percent. Their travel cost measure also included lodging costs which are discretionary and are not usually considered part of the cost of a recreation trip (CRSOR, Appendix C). Their average "round trip transportation cost" to travel to the lower Snake River reservoirs was about \$23.37 per trip per person whereas ours was about \$9.93 per trip per person.

English and Bowker (1996) estimated travel zonal cost models for outfitted rafting on the Chatooga River which forms the border between Georgia and South Carolina. The mail survey resulted in 331 useable responses which was reduced to 214 observations when organized groups were removed. They experimented with several definitions of travel cost, all of which excluded foregone income. If travel cost was assumed to be \$0.15 per mile, the consumer surplus per trip was \$31.66. At the other extreme, if all outfitter costs, transportation, lodging, activities, and food costs were included as part of the travel cost then consumer surplus increased to \$104.64 per trip.

Bowker *et al.* (1996), reported on two individual observation travel cost models which used truncated negative binomial regression. The study was on commercial guided rafting on the Chatooga and Nantahala rivers in Georgia, South Carolina and in North Carolina. The mail surveys resulted in 369 and 376 useable responses, respectively. They conclude that \$0.092 per mile per person is in line with reported variable travel expenses and caution against the very high values used in some studies. Consumer surplus estimates are also presented for various levels of assumed foregone income and for reported cost versus a fixed cost per mile. With no foregone income and imputed cost of 9.2 cents per mile per person, the consumer surplus per person per trip is \$119.16 on the Chatooga River and \$89.03 on the Nantahala River. The estimates of consumer surplus per person per trip can rise as high as \$286 dollars when it is assumed that 50 percent of the wage rate is foregone during the trip.

Michaleson (1977) used the individual observation travel cost method to estimate the value of camping associated with wild and scenic river recreation in Idaho. The imputed value of time was included in travel cost. He reported a value of \$9 per activity day in 1971 dollars. Similarly, Michaleson and Gilmour (1978) estimated the value of outdoor recreation trips associated with camping in Sawtooth Valley, Idaho. An imputed value of time was included in travel cost. The study method was individual observation travel cost, and used on-site interviews. The average value was \$3.73 per person per day in 1971 dollars.

Brown and Plummer (1979) used the hedonic travel cost method to find the value of camping in western Washington. The imputed value of time was excluded from travel cost. They found a value for camping of \$5.83 per person per day in 1976 dollars.

Sutherland (1980) used the zonal travel cost method to estimate the values of camping, swimming, and motorized boating in Idaho, Oregon and Washington. The imputed value of travel time was excluded from travel costs. Values of \$4.23 per person per day for camping, \$4.31 per person per day for swimming, and \$4.24 per person per day for motorized boating (all in 1979 dollars) were found.

Findeis and Michalson (1984) used a modified individual observation travel cost method to estimate the value of camping at developed sites in the Targhee National Forest in Idaho. An imputed value of time was included in travel cost. They found a value of \$8.60 to \$17.93 per person per day in 1974 dollars.

Daniels (1987) applied a zonal travel cost model in a study of visitors to four campgrounds in Lolo National Forest in Montana. An imputed value of time was included in travel cost. One-third of the sample were nonresidents and were all deleted on the grounds that the campgrounds were not their primary destination. An average value of \$17.82 per person per day was found (in 1984 dollars).

Brox and Kumar (1997) apply a multi-site travel cost model for camping at 48 provincial parks in Ontario, Canada. The imputed value of time was excluded from travel cost but the arbitrary (government reimbursement rate) value for travel cost per mile was overstated. They report values per trip varying by park from \$1.80 to \$7,000 with most values under \$300 per trip in 1990 dollars.

Knetch *et al.* (1976), used a zonal travel cost model to estimate the demand for day trips to California reservoirs where picnicking made up a large part of the activities. Truncation to day use only reduced the values significantly. An imputed value of time was included in travel cost. They found a value of \$3.33 in 1969 dollars.

Walsh *et al.* (1980), measured the value of camping, picnicking and fishing on high country reservoirs located along the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains in Colorado. They used noniterative open-ended contingent value questions in on site interviews. They found a value of \$10.90 per person per day in 1978 dollars.

Walsh and Olienyk (1981) applied an iterative contingent value survey on site to value picnicking at five recreation sites in national forests on the eastern slopes of the Rocky Mountains in Colorado. They found a value of \$6.22 per person per day in 1980 dollars.

Ward (1982) estimated the demand for recreation (picnicking, boating, swimming) at reservoirs in southeastern New Mexico. He used an individual observation travel cost for model. An imputed value of time was included in travel cost. The survey was truncated to neighboring counties which would understate value. He found a value of \$11.39 per person per day in 1978 dollars.

Rosenthal (1987) applied a zonal travel cost model to study recreation demand at 11 reservoirs in Kansas and Missouri. Recreation activities included picnicking, swimming, fishing and boating. The sample was limited to one-day trips which would understate value. An imputed value of time was included in travel cost. He found values of \$4.04 to \$7.10 per person per day in 1982 dollars, depending upon treatment of substitute sites.

Wade *et al.* (1988), used a zonal travel cost model to find the demand for swimming at 14 reservoirs in California. An imputed value for time was included in travel cost. The estimated value per person per day ranged from \$15.84 to \$35.04 in 1985 dollars. They also estimated the value of motorized boating on Lake Havasu in Arizona and at 12 reservoirs in California. An imputed value of time was included in travel cost. They found a value at Lake Havasu of \$34.64 per day in 1985 dollars. Lake Havasu is unique for a number of reasons including reconstruction of the original London Bridge. Motorized boating at the California reservoirs was double in southern California compared with reservoirs in the rest of the state. The average value for motorized boating on reservoirs in California was \$24.28 per person per day in 1985 dollars.

Brooks (1988) used a travel cost model to estimate the value of deer hunting in Montana. An imputed value of time was included in travel cost. The sample included both resident and nonresident hunters. Average value per person per day varied from \$20.88 to \$54.94 in 1986 dollars.

Offenbach and Goodwin (1994) estimate the demand for deer hunting in Kansas. They use an individual observation travel cost model estimated using the negative binomial regression technique. An imputed value of time was excluded from travel cost, but costs for food and lodging were added to transport costs. They found a value per trip of \$160.79 to \$176.55 in 1988 dollars. Data were not reported that allowed conversion of value per trip to value per person per day.

THE OUTDOOR RECREATION EXPENDITURE SURVEY (EXCLUDES PRIMARY ANGLERS)

The spending survey provided a list of potential spending choices and requested the amount spent and the location for each of the spending categories (see Appendix II). Separate forms were provided for spending during travel to the site, spending while at the site, and spending on the trip home. The outdoor recreation input-output spending survey resulted in a sample of 402 completely usable responses. Because of the varied ways in which surveys were distributed, it was not possible to calculate a response rate. The outdoor recreation spending survey data were expanded to show the direct economic effects on spending, earnings, and employment in central Idaho.

Geographic Location of Recreation Economic Impacts

Table 4 is based on the outdoor recreationist input-output spending survey that contained 402 usable observations on the variable trips by distance. The table shows that only 14 visitors, or about 3.5 percent of the sample, lived within a 50-mile radius of the recreation site, and that the number of visitors living between 50 and 100 miles from the recreation site comprised about 11 percent of the sample. About 55 percent of the sample lived within 400 miles of the sites in central Idaho where they recreated. The number of recreationists that traveled more than 1,000 miles to visit central Idaho was about the same as those that traveled 100 miles or less. 14

Table 4 Anglers and Recreationists by Distance Traveled			
Miles One Way	Anglers	Recreationists	
50	30	14	
100	38	44	
150	52	50	
200	31	49	
250	19	28	
300	14	19	
350	14	10	
400	14	6	
450	8	14	
500	4	12	
550	3	2	
600	6	12	
650	1	1	
700	0	2	
750	0		
800	1	4	
850	1	4	
900	1	4	
950	0	.1	
1000	1	15	
1050	0	0	
1100	0	0	
1150	0	0	
1200	1	6	
1250	1	0	
1300 1350	0	8 0	
1400	0	0	
1400	0	2	
>1450	0	43	
>1450	ı	1 43	

Expenditure Per Visitor per Year and Total Annual Spending

Summing the detailed expenditures collected in the spending survey and shown in Tables 5 through 7 results in a spending total of \$1,307.71 per recreationist group for the 402 recreationist groups in the expenditure survey.

Table 5 Expenditures Made By Recreationists Traveling to Central Idaho		
Type of Purchase	Average Expenditures Per Fishing Party	
County Government State Government Federal Government Bus/Taxi Tour Boat Airline Auto/Truck/RV Rental Service Station #1 Service Station #2 Grocery Store Auto Dealer Clothing Store Boat/Marine Store Sporting Goods Store Hardware Store Restaurant Department Store Other Retail Lodging Guide Services Equipment Rental Parking and Car Wash Auto Repair Other Repair Entertainment Health Services	\$1.84 \$8.23 \$0.97 \$4.16 \$50.69 \$108.19 \$16.29 \$24.98 \$8.27 \$25.27 \$61.34 \$9.32 \$126.00 \$8.19 \$1.24 \$37.64 \$2.30 \$3.32 \$57.91 \$144.73 \$9.98 \$1.25 \$6.53 \$1.13 \$9.80 \$0.65	

Table 6 Expenditures Made By Recreationists While Staying in Central Idaho		
Type of Purchase	Average Expenditures Per Fishing Party	
County Government State Government Federal Government Bus/Taxi Tour Boat Airline Auto/Truck/RV Rental Service Station #1 Service Station #2 Grocery Store Auto Dealer Clothing Store Boat/Marine Store Sporting Goods Store Hardware Store Restaurant Department Store Other Retail Lodging Guide Services Equipment Rental Parking and Car Wash Auto Repair Other Repair Entertainment Health Services All Other Purchases	\$1.86 \$3.76 \$0.74 \$11.94 \$56.27 \$3.36 \$2.79 \$8.69 \$1.55 \$12.39 \$0.45 \$4.31 \$1.47 \$2.69 \$0.76 \$31.10 \$0.27 \$13.81 \$52.79 \$248.07 \$0.99 \$0.99 \$0.29 \$6.49 \$0.00 \$3.37 \$1.23 \$8.64	

Table 7 Expenditures Made By Recreationists Returning From Central Idaho		
Type of Purchase	Average Expenditures Per Fishing Party	
County Government	\$0.00	
State Government	\$0.25	
Federal Government	\$0.00	
Bus/Taxi	\$0.01	
Tour Boat	\$1.54	
Airline	\$20.45	
Auto/Truck/RV Rental Service Station #1	\$3.98	
Service Station #1 Service Station #2	\$12.73	
Grocery Store	\$3.72 \$6.09	
Auto Dealer	\$0.09	
Clothing Store	\$0.03	
Boat/Marine Store	\$0.47	
Sporting Goods Store	\$0.27	
Hardware Store	\$0.08	
Restaurant	\$14.46	
Department Store	\$0.94	
Other Retail	\$0.12	
Lodging	\$10.13	
Guide Services	\$1.12	
Equipment Rental	\$0.00	
Parking and Car Wash	\$0.30	
Auto Repair	\$0.10	
Other Repair	\$0.00	
Entertainment	\$1.21	
Health Services	\$0.87	
All Other Purchases	\$0.00	

Total annual spending by all travelers visiting central Idaho was estimated at \$298.8 million per year (1998 dollars). Visitor spending by county was taken from reports prepared for Idaho Division of Tourism Development and for the Oregon Tourism Commission, Economic Development Department by Dean Runyan Associates. Data for 1996 and 1997 were inflated to 1998 using the consumer price index. We estimated that \$162.8 million per year was spent by anglers in the upriver economic subregion (which includes central Idaho) leaving \$136 million per year attributed to non-angler

river recreationists. Dividing the estimated annual river recreation spending (\$136 million) by our survey average annual spending per recreationist group derived herein (\$1,307.71) yields 104,000 nonangling recreationist groups. Group size was 1.73, resulting in $104,000 \times 1.73 = 180,000$ unique river recreationists. Annual spending per river recreationist is \$136 million/180,000 = \$755.55 per year.

Recreation Expenditure Rates by Town

The database collected by the outdoor recreation spending survey allows detailed measurement of spending by community or county, by type of purchase, and by travel to site, onsite, or return trip. For example, for every 100 recreationists visiting the recreation sites, a specified town or county will have so many dollars of sales by each economic sector during the trip to the recreation site, while on-site and on the return trip. Towns where outdoor recreationist spending occurred are identified in the database.

Recreation Lodging

The types of lodging used by recreationists were actually determined by a question in the travel cost survey, but are reported here because lodging is an expenditure category. About 87 percent of 317 recreationists in the travel cost demand survey stayed overnight at the recreation site (Table 8). However, of those recreationists that did stay overnight, only a small fraction (18.9%) stayed at motels or commercial campgrounds. Most of the overnighters stayed in campers, trailers, tents, or in other accommodations. Most lodging costs were incurred while traveling to or staying at the recreation site (Tables 5, 6, and 7).

Table 8 Overnight Lodging By Recreationists			
Camper	4.42%		
Trailer	4.73%		
Commercial Campground	6.31%		
Motel	12.62%		
With Friends	3.79%		
Public Campground	15.77%		
Didn't Stay Overnight	13.25%		
Other Lodging	39.11%		

Mode of Transportation

Method of travel used by the 402 recreationists in the input-output spending survey sample was classified into eight categories as shown in Table 9. As expected, personal car/van/truck dominated the transport method. Airplane was second most likely method to be used for transport (excluding the All Other category).

Percent of Sample
71.14 7.21 12.44 15.42 0.25 4.98 4.73 2.49 44.78
m

Importance of Recreation Activities During the Trip

Recreationists were asked to rate 17 recreation activities using a scale from one to five where one was most important and five was least important. The results of this survey question are shown in Table 10. The question was phrased, "what recreation activities were important to you and your group on this trip?" 18

Table 10 Importance of Recreation Activities During Recreation Trip			
Type of Recreation Activity While On Outdoor Recreation Trip	Number of Recreationists Responding To Question Out of 259 Surveyed	Average Rating To Group (1 = Most Important, 5 = Least Important) Nonresponses Excluded	
Steelhead Fishing Smallmouth Bass Fishing Trout Fishing Sturgeon Fishing Bull Trout Fishing Jetboating Camping Other Rafting Kayaking Canoeing Hiking Bird Watching Wildlife Watching Sightseeing Biking Nature Viewing	140 143 166 141 136 154 262 76 346 198 143 216 166 230 257 148 271	4.82 4.81 4.59 4.81 4.89 4.59 3.11 4.48 1.85 3.82 4.58 3.79 4.26 3.62 3.25 4.68 3.01	

Table 10 shows the number of recreationists responding for each recreation category. Many persons did not rate all of the types of recreation on the questionnaire. For example, only 76 persons out of 402 responded to the "other" category. Evidently recreationists avoided rating recreation activities that were undefined or irrelevant to them. It was assumed, therefore, that recreationists had a low opinion of the recreation categories that they left blank (blanks were set to 5) and thus the averages for most categories tend to be low. However, the category response rate itself may be an indicator of recreationist interest in different types of recreation. Six recreation categories drew a response from more than half the recreationists: rafting, nature viewing, camping, sightseeing, wildlife watching, and hiking. The activities with the highest rating included rafting (rated 1.85), camping (rated 3.11), and sight-seeing (rated 3.25). It is clear from the rankings that the non-angling recreationist group (which was selected to exclude primary anglers) visits central Idaho rivers mainly to engage in nature viewing, wildlife watching, camping, and sight-seeing while rafting or while hiking.

REFERENCES

Adamowicz, W.L., J.J. Fletcher, and T. Graham-Tomasi. 1989.

Functional Form and the Statistical Properties of Welfare Measures. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 71:414-420.

Becker G.S., 1965.

A Theory of the Allocation of Time. Economic Journal 75:493-517.

Binkley, D., and T.C. Brown. 1993.

Management Impacts on Water Quality of Forests and Rangelands. USDA Forest Service. GT Report RM-239. Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Experiment Station:Fort Collins.

Bishop, R.C., and T.A. Heberlein. 1979.

Measuring Values of Extra-Market Goods: Are Indirect Measures Biased? American Journal of Agricultural Economics 61(5):926-932.

Bockstael, N.E., and K.E. McConnell. 1981.

Theory and Estimation of the Household Production Function for Wildlife Recreation. Journal of Environmental Economics and Management 8:199-214.

Bockstael, N.E., Strand, I.E., and W.M. Hanemann. 1987.

Time and the Recreational Demand Model. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 69:293-302.

Bowker, J.M., Donald B.K. English, and J.A. Donavan, 1996.

Toward a Value for Guided Rafting on Southern Rivers. Journal of Agricultural and Applied Economics 28, 2:423-432.

Brown, W.G., and F. Nawas. 1973.

Impact of Aggregation on the Estimation of Sportfishing Demand Functions. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 55:246-49.

Cameron, A., and P. Trivedi. 1990.

Regression Based Tests for Overdispersion in the Poisson Model. Journal of Econometrics 46:347-364.

Cameron, T.A., W.D. Shaw, S.E. Ragland, J. Callaway, and S. Keefe. 1996.

Using Actual and Contingent Behavior Data with Differing Levels of Time Aggregation to Model Recreation Demand. Journal of Agricultural and Resource Economics 21(1):130-149.

Preliminary Draft Document - Subject To Change For Informational Purposes Only - Not For Comment

Caulkins, P.P., R.C. Bishop, and N.W. Bouwes. 1985.

Omitted Cross-Price Variable Biases in the Linear Travel Cost Model: Correcting Common Misperceptions. Land Economics 61:182-87.

Clawson, M. and J.L. Knetsch. 1966.

Economics of Sportfishing. Johns Hopkins University Press: Baltimore.

Cramer, J.S. 1986.

Econometric Applications of Maximum Likelihood Methods. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge. 208pp.

Creel, M.D., and J.B. Loomis. 1990.

Theoretical and Empirical Advantages of Truncated Count Data Estimators for Analysis of Deer Hunting in California. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 72:434-41.

Creel, M.D., and J.B. Loomis. 1991.

Confidence Intervals for Welfare Measures with Application to a Problem of Truncated Counts. The Review of Economics and Statistics 73:370-373.

Crow, E.L., F.A. Davis, and M.W. Maxfield. Undated.

Statistics Manual. Research Department, U.S. Naval Ordnance Test Station. Dover Publications, Inc: New York.

Dhrymes, P.J. 1978.

Introductory Econometrics. Springer-Verlag: New York. 288pp.

Donnelly, D.M., J.B. Loomis, C.F. Sorg, and L.J. Nelson. 1983.

Net Economic Value of Recreational Steelhead Sportfishing in Idaho. Resource Bulletin RM-9. Rocky Mountain Forest and Range Experiment Station. USDA Forest Service. Fort Collins, Colorado.

Englin, J., and J.S. Shonkwiler. 1995.

Estimating Social Welfare Using Count Data Models: An Application to Long-Run Recreation Demand Under Conditions of Endogenous Stratification and Truncation. The Review of Economics and Statistics: 104-112.

Englin, J., D. Lambert, and W.D. Shaw. 1997.

A Structural Equations Approach to Modeling Consumptive Recreation Demand. Journal of Environmental Economics and Management 33:33-43.

English, Donald B.K., and J.M. Bowker, 1996.

Economic Impacts of Guided Whitewater Rafting: A Study of Five Rivers. Water Resources Bulletin 32(6):1319-1328.

English, Donald B.K., and J.M. Bowker, 1996.

Sensitivity of Whitewater Rafting Consumers Surplus to Pecuniary Travel Cost Specifications. Journal of Environmental Management 47:79-91.

Fiore, J., and F.A. Ward. 1987.

Managing Recreational Water Resources to Increase Economic Benefits to Recreationists in the Arid Southwest. Agricultural Experiment Station. Report No. 609. New Mexico State University, New Mexico.

Fletcher, J.J., W.L. Adamowicz, and T. Graham-Tomasi. 1990.

The Travel Cost Model of Recreation Demand: Theoretical and Empirical Issues. Leisure Sciences 12:119-147.

Greene, W.H. 1992.

LIMDEP, Version 6. Econometric Software, Inc.: Bellport, New York.

Greene, W.H. 1981.

On the Asymptotic Bias of Ordinary Least Squares Estimator of the Tobit Model. Econometrica 49:505-13.

Gum, R., and W.E. Martin. 1975.

Problems and Solutions in Estimating The Demand for the Value of Rural Sportfishing. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 57:558-66.

Hellerstein, D.M. 1991.

Using Count Data Models in Travel Cost Analysis with Aggregate Data. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 73:860-67.

Hellerstein, D.M., and R. Mendelsohn. 1993.

A Theoretical Foundation for Count Data Models. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 75:604-611.

Herfindahl, O.C., and A.V. Kneese. 1974.

Economic Theory of Natural Resources. Charles E. Merril Publishing Co.: Columbus, Ohio. 405pp.

Johnson, D.M. 1989.

Economic Benefits of Alternative Fishery Management Programs. Ph.D. Dissertation. Colorado State University. Fort Collins, Colorado.

Johnson, T.G. 1983.

Measuring the Cost of Time in Recreation Demand: Comment. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 65:169-171.

Kmenta, J., 1971.

Elements of Econometrics. The MacMillan Company: New York. 391-396

Larson, D.M. 1993.

Joint Recreation Choices and Implied Values of Time. Land Economics 69(3):270-86.

Layman, R.C., J.R. Boyce, and K.R. Criddle. 1996.

Economic Valuation of the Chinook Salmon Sport Fishery of the Gulkana River, Alaska, Under Current and Alternate Management Plans. Land Economics 72(1):113-28.

Loomis, J.B. 1997.

Recreation Economic Decisions: Comparing Benefits and Costs, Second Edition. With Richard Walsh. Venture Publishing, Inc.: State College, PA.

Loomis, J.B., Sorg, C.F., and D.M. Donnelly. 1986.

Evaluating Regional Demand Models for Estimating Recreation Use and Economic Benefits: A Case Study. Water Resources Research 22:431-38.

Loomis, J.B., B. Roach, F.A. Ward, and R. Ready. 1993.

Reservoir Recreation Demand and Benefits Transfers: Preliminary Results. Western Regional Research Publication. W-133 Benefits and Costs Transfer in Natural Resource Planning.

Maddala, G.S. 1983.

Limited Dependent and Qualitative Variables in Econometrics. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

Maddala, G.S. 1977.

Econometrics. International Student Edition. McGraw-Hill Book Company: Singapore.

Maler, K.G. 1974.

Environmental Economics: A Theoretical Inquiry. Johns Hopkins University: Baltimore.

McConnell, K.E. and I.E. Strand. 1981.

Measuring the Cost of Time In Recreational Demand Analysis: An Application to Sportfishing. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 63:153-56.

McConnell, K.E. and I. Strand. 1983.

Measuring the Cost of Time in Recreation Demand Analysis: Reply. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 65:172-74.

McConnell, K.E. 1992.

On-Site Time in Recreation Demand. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 74:918-25.

McKean, J.R., and D.M. Johnson. 1998.

Experiments with Equilibrium and Disequilibrium Labor Market Travel Cost Models. In Review. 34pp.

McKean, J.R., R.G. Taylor, G. Alward, and R.A. Young. Forthcoming 1998.

Adapting Synthesized Input-Output Models for Small Natural Resource-Based Regions: A Case Study. Society and Natural Resources, An International Journal.

McKean, J.R., and R.G. Walsh, 1986.

Neoclassical Foundations for Nonmarket Benefits Estimation. Natural Resource Modeling 1:153-170.

McKean, J.R., and C. Revier. 1990.

An Extension of 'Omitted Cross-Price Variable Biases in the Linear Travel Cost Model: Correcting Common Misperceptions. Land Economics 66:162-82.

McKean, J.R., D.M. Johnson, and R.G. Walsh. 1995.

Valuing Time in Travel Cost Demand Analysis: An Empirical Investigation. Land Economics 71:96-105.

McKean, J.R., R.G. Walsh, and D.M. Johnson. 1996.

Closely Related Good Prices in the Travel Cost Model. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 78:640-646.

McKean, J.R., and K.C. Nobe. 1983.

Sportsmen Expenditures for Hunting and Sportfishing in Colorado - 1981. Technical Report No. 39. Colorado Water Resources Research Institute, Colorado State University and Colorado Division of Wildlife.

McKean, J.R., and K.C. Nobe. 1984.

Direct and Indirect Economic Effects of Hunting and Sportfishing in Colorado - 1981. Technical Report No. 45. Colorado Water Resources Research Institute, Colorado State University and Colorado Division of Wildlife. Fort Collins, Colorado.

Mendelsohn, R., J. Hof, and G.L. Peterson. 1992.

Measuring Recreation Values with Multiple-Destination Trips. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 74:926-33.

Mullahy, R. 1986.

Specification and Testing of Some Modified Count Data Models. Journal of Econometrics 33:341-365.

Normandeau Associates, University of Idaho, and Agricultural Enterprises, Inc. 1999.

Sport Fishery Use and Value on Lower Snake River Reservoirs. Contract No. DACW68-D-0003. US Army Corps of Engineers, Walla Walla District, Walla Walla, Washington.

Olsen, D., J. Richards, and R.D. Scott. 1991.

Existence and Sport Values for Doubling the Size of Columbia River Basin Salmon and Steelhead Runs. Rivers 2(1):44-56.

Oster, J.M., D.T. Taylor, J.J. Jacobs, and E.B. Bradley. 1987.

Reservoir Entrophication and the Value of Recreation Activities: A Case Study of Flaming Gorge Reservoir. Department of Agricultural Economics and Wyoming Water Research Center. University of Wyoming. Laramie, Wyoming.

Palm, R.C., and S. P. Malvestuto. 1983.

Relationships Between Economic Benefit and Sport-Sportfishing Effort on West Point Reservoir, Alabama-Georgia. Transactions of the American Fisheries Society. Page 112.

Parsons, G.R. 1991.

A Note on Choice of Residential Location in Travel Cost Demand Models. Land Economics 67(3):360-64.

Peterson, G.L., C.S. Swanson, D.W. McCollum, and M.H. Thomas, Eds. 1992.

Valuing Wildlife Resources in Alaska. Westview Press: Boulder, CO. 357pp.

Randall, A. 1994.

A Difficulty with the Travel Cost Method. Land Economics 70(1):88-96.

Reading, Don. 1996.

The Economic Impact of Steelhead Fishing and the Return of Salmon Fishing in Idaho. Ben Johnson Associates. For the Idaho Fish and Wildlife Foundation.

Reading, Don. 1999.

The Economic Impact of A Restored Salmon Fishery in Idaho. Ben Johnson Associates. For the Idaho Fish and Wildlife Foundation.

Rosenthal, D.H. 1987.

The Necessity for Substitute Prices in Recreation Demand Analyses. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 69:828-37.

Shaw, W.D. 1992.

Searching for the Opportunity Cost of an Individual's Time. Land Economics 68:107-15.

Shaw, D. 1988.

On-Site Samples' Regression Problems of Non-Negative Integers, Truncation and Endogenous Stratification. Journal of Econometrics 37:211-223.

U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. 1995.

Columbia River System Operation Review, Final Environmental Impact Statement, Appendix O. Economic and Social Impact.

U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. 1995.

Columbia River System Operation Review, Final Environmental Impact Statement, Appendix J-1, Recreation Demand Model & Simulation Results.

U.S. Army Corps of Engineers. 1995.

Columbia River System Operation Review, Final Environmental Impact Statement, Appendix J, Recreation.

U.S. Water Resources Council. 1983.

Economic and Environmental Principles and Guidelines for Water and Related Land Resources Implementation Studies. U.S. Government Printing Office.

Wade, W.W., G.M. McColister, R.J. McCann, and G.M. Johns. 1988.

Estimating Recreation Benefits for Instream and Diverted Users of Waterflows of the Sacramento-San Joaquin Rivers Watershed. Presented at the W-133 Meeting. Monterey, California.

Walsh, R.G., D.M. Johnson, and J.R. McKean. 1988.

Review of Sportfishing Economic Demand Studies with Nonmarket Benefit Estimates 1978-1988. Colorado Water Resources Research Institute. Technical Report No. 54. Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado.

Walsh, R.G., J.R. McKean, and D.M. Johnson. 1988.

Benefit Transfer of Sportfishing Demand Studies, 1968-88. Water Resources Research 28(3):707-713.

Walsh, R.G., G.L. Peterson, and J.R. McKean. 1989.

Distribution and Efficiency Effects of Alternative Recreation Funding Methods. Journal of Leisure Research 21:327-47.

Walsh, R.G., J.R. McKean, and D.M. Johnson. 1990a.

Nonmarket Values from Two Decades of Research on Recreation Demand. In Advances in Applied Microeconomics, Vol. V. V.K. Smith and A.N. Link Eds. JAI Press, Inc.: Greenwich, Conn. Pp. 167-194.

Walsh, R.G., L.D. Sanders, and J.R. McKean. 1990b.

The Consumptive Value of Travel Time on Recreation Trips. Journal of Travel Research 29:17-24.

Ward, F.A. 1983.

Measuring the Cost of Time in Recreation Demand Analysis: Comment. American Journal of Agricultural Economics 65:167-68.

Ward, F.A. 1989.

Efficiently Managing Spatially Competing Water Uses: New Evidence from a Regional Recreation Demand Model. Journal of Regional Science 29(2):229-46.

Ward, F.A. 1984.

Specification Considerations for the Price Variable in Travel Cost Demand Models. Land Economics 60:301-5.

Whitehead, J.C. 1991-92.

Benefits of Quality Changes in Recreational Sportfishing: A Single-Site Travel Cost Approach. Journal of Environmental Systems 21(4):357-64.

Wilman, E.A. 1980.

The Value of Time in Recreation Benefit Studies. Journal of Environmental Economics and Management 7:272-86.

Wilman, E.A., and R.J. Pauls. 1987.

Sensitivity of Consumers' Surplus Estimates to Variation in the Parameters of the Travel Cost Model. Canadian Journal of Agricultural Economics 35:197-211.

APPENDIX I - STATISTICAL CONCERNS FOR DEMAND CURVE ESTIMATION

Truncated Poisson or truncated negative binomial regression is appropriate for dependent variables with count data (integer), and truncated negative binomial regression is used in this study (Greene, 1981; Creel and Loomis, 1990, 1991; Hellerstein and Mendelsohn, 1993). Because the data for the dependent variable (visits per year) are integers, truncated below one visit per year, equation estimation by ordinary least squares regression (OLS) is inappropriate. Truncation occurs when part of the data are excluded from the sample. The onsite survey excluded persons not consuming recreation at the study site. Maddala (1983) shows that the regression slopes estimated by OLS will be biased toward zero when the dependent variable data are truncated. The result is that the least squares method understates price elasticity and overstates consumers' surplus. ²⁰

Poisson and negative binomial regression functional form is mathematically equivalent to a logarithmic transformation of the dependent variable. Some of the independent variables are log transformed. The resulting functional form for these variables in the demand equation is double log. Out-of-pocket travel cost and several other independent variables are not transformed resulting in a semi-log functional form.

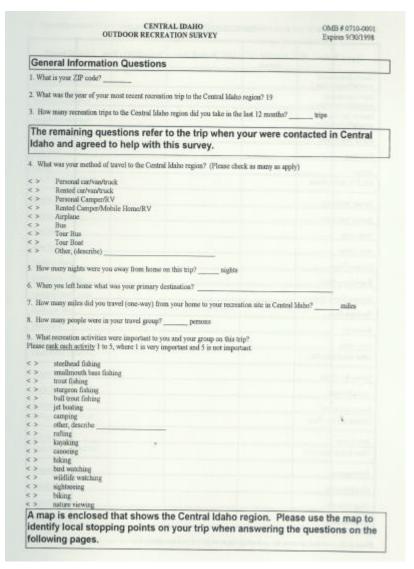
The significance of the coefficients in a Poisson regression can be greatly overstated if the variance of the dependent variable is not equal to its mean (overdispersion). The negative binomial regression does not have this shortcoming but the iterative solution process sometimes fails to converge. 21 Convergence was not a problem for this data set. Tests for overdispersion in the truncated Poisson regressions were conflicting. Tests developed by Cameron and Trivedi (1990), and shown in Greene (1992), were conducted. These tests did not indicate that overdispersion was present in the Poisson models estimated for this study. However, the t-values appeared inflated in the Poisson regressions. A second test is available by actually running the negative binomial regression. When the truncated negative binomial regression was estimated, the coefficient on the overdispersion parameter, a, was 0.86 with a t-value of 11.15. This result provided strong evidence of overdispersion because the negative binomial model implies $var(r)/E(r) = \{1 + a E(r)\} = \{1 + 0.86 E(r)\}\$ and our sample estimate of E(r) was 20.255 fishing trips from home to the reservoirs per year. The Poisson model assumption that var(r)/E(r) = 1 is clearly violated. The t-values found in the truncated negative binomial model were much smaller than in the truncated Poisson model. That result was further evidence that Poisson model had overdispersion. Therefore, the truncated negative binomial regression technique was used in place of truncated Poisson regression.

APPENDIX II - QUESTIONNAIRES

	June 22, 1999
FIELD(FirstName) FIELD(LastName) FIELD(Address) FIELD(City), FIELD(State) FIELD (PostalCode)	
Dear FIELD(FirstName) FIELD(LastName);	
Recently you helped the University of Idaho by participating in a FIELD(WhereContacted) on the Snake River. It is our understant member who was present on the first survey, would be willing to completing the attached "Follow-up" survey for a more in-depth of information you supply concerning the money you or your party so site, at the site, and returning home is of high importance for this site.	ding that you, or a household assist this project by view of the Snake River. The spent in soing to the recreation
Please find enclosed a stamped pre-addressed envelope for mailing	g to the project home office.
All information will be confidential and will be used only as totals information released to any person or agency.	s with no individual names or
Thank you for your assistance in completing the survey forms.	
Sincerely,	

	you for agreeing to participate in this recreation survey. This questionnaire pertains to the <u>Snake River</u> in <u>Idaho</u> , near where you were surveyed.
1.	Circle one {mainly recreate on boat} {mainly recreate on bank} {equal amount on boat and bank}
2.	Circle one stayed in: {camper} {trailer} {commercial campground} {motel} {with friends} {public campground} {didn't stay overnight} {other, describe:
3.	How many people are in your group? people
4.	Typically, how many days per year are you on recreation trips in central Idaho where you were surveyed? days per year
5.	Typically, how many days per year are you on recreation trips to places other than central Idaho? days per year
6.	Please rank the importance of the following activities. Where one is most important and ten is least important.
	Swimming < >, picnicking < >, camping < >, motor boating < >, sailing < >, wildlife viewing < >, hunting < >, fishing < >, other < >
7.	How many miles (one-way) is it from your home to the river where you were surveyed? miles one-way
8.	Circle all that apply How did you travel to the central Idaho recreation site? {car} {boat} {bus} {plane} {pickup truck}
9.	How many years have you recreated on the Lower Stake River in central Idnho? years
10.	How many days per year are you free from other obligations so that you could undertake recreation? days per year
11.	What is your total time (hours) away from home on a typical trip to the site where you were surveyed? —hours
12.	What is the typical total cost to you of a trip to the recreation site where you were surveyed including rou trip transportation, equipment, supplies, food, accommodations, entertainment, etc.? Scost to you
3.	Please enter your typical hours away from home and typical trip cost (answered above) in the last row of the table below.
Cohor	nn 2: please allocate hours away from home across the trip activities listed on the left.

	TRIP ACTIVITY	HOURS AWAY FROM HOME	(3) TRIP COSTS IN DOLLARS	
Roce	cating at the river			
	cating at other sites than the in central Idaho during the			
	el to and from the recreation from your home	the manager and the	*	
Othe	r recreation activities at the			
	eation at other places than the during the trip			
Othe	r Activities on Trip (explain			
		TOTAL HOURS =	TOTAL DOLLARS =	
		-		
Pleas	se describe other activities on tr	ip		
170	22.5	W 2 0		
4.	What is your occupation? Do school teacher, truck driver, o		dent, housewife, retired, unemployed,	
5.	How many days of vacation,	excluding weekends, do you typica	illy take each year? days per year	
6.	What is the one-way distance recreate in central Idaho?		erred alternative recreation site if you didn	
7.	What is the name & location of your most preferred alternative recreation site?			
8.	Circle one Will you typically leave the site where you were surveyed for alternative sites if recreation conditions are bad here? [yes] [no]			
9.	If the answer to question 18 above is yes, what is the distance one-way from the site where you were surveyed to the alternate site? miles one-way			
0.	For the kind of recreation you like to do, how many other sites besides the river where you were surveyed are available to you? other sites			
17	Typically, how many recreati	on trips per year do you take to cer	stral Idaho?trips per year	
2.	What is your age? Circle one (50-55) (55-60) (60-65)		0) (30-35) (35-40) (40-45) (45-50)	
2	Circle one Do you give while recreating at the si	ve up wage or salary income (i.e. nor	n-paid vacation) when traveling to this site or	
2		nestion 24 above, how much income	do you give up for a typical recreation trip to	
2	 What is your current way {0-10,000} {10,000-20. 	ne or subservinceme in S per year? C	ircle onc ,000} [40,000-50,000] [50,000-60,000]	
2	(0-10,000) [10,000-20.	usion, interest income, etc., in \$ per y 0003 {20,000-30,000} {30,000-40 00-80,000} {over 80,000}	ear? Circle one ,000} {40,000-50,000} {50,000-60,000}	
	general control of the	power to a service of the service of		



Type of Business	Dollar Amount	Name of Town or Nearest Major Town
County Government permits/licenses/fees		
State Government permits/licenses/fees		
Federal Government permits/licenses/fees		
Bus or Taxi Service		
Tour Boat		
Airline		
Car, P.U. or RV Rental		
Service Station (1)		
Service Station (2)		
Food Store		
Auto Dealer		
Clothing Store		
Boat/Marine Store		
Sporting Goods Store		
lardware Store		
Restaurant		
Dept. Store		
Other Retail (describe)		
Motels & Lodging		
Guide Services		
Equipment Rental		
Parking and Car Wash		
Auto Repair		
Other Repair (describe)		
Intertainment		
lealth Services		
Other (describe)		
Other (describe)	distance file	

Type of Business	Dollar Amount	Name of Town or Nearest Major Town
County Government permits/licenses/fees		
State Government permits/licenses/fees		
Federal Government permits/licenses/foes		
Bus or Taxi Service		
Tour Boat		
Airline		
Car, P.U. or RV Rental		
Service Station (1)		
Service Station (2)		
Food Store		
Auto Dealer		
Clothing Store		
Boat/Manne Store		
Sporting Goods Store		
Hardware Store		
Restaurant		
Dept. Store		
Other Retail (describe)		
Motels & Lodging		
Guide Services		
Equipment Rental		
Parking and Car Wash		
Auto Repair		
Other Repair (describe)		
Entertainment		
Health Services		
Other (describe)		
Other (describe)		

Type of Business	Dollar Amount	Name of Town or Nearest Major Town
County Government ermits/licenses/fees		
State Government sermats/licenses/fees		
ederal Government ermits/licenses/fees		
Bus or Taxa Service		
Four Bowt		
Airline		
Car, P.U. or RV Rental		
Service Station (1)		
Service Station (2)		
Food Store		
Auto Dealer		
Clothing Store		
Bost/Marine Store		
Sporting Goods Store		
Hardware Store		
Restaurant		
Dept. Store		
Other Retail (describe)		
Motels & Lodging		
Guide Services		
Equipment Rental		
Parking and Car Wash		- E
Auto Repair		
Other Repair (describe)		
Entertainment		
Health Services		
Other (describe)		
Other (describe)		

APPENDIX III - CODE FORMS FOR SPREADSHEET DATA FILES

Snake River Recreation Travel Cost Code Page for Entry Into Microsoft Excel

Α	Control Number
	Mainly recreate from
В	1) Boat 2) Bank 3) Equal boat and bank
	Stayed in
С	1) Camper 2) Trailer 3) Commercial Camp 4) Motel 5) With Friends 6) Public Camp 7) Didn't stay over 8) Other
D	How many people in your group?
E	How many days per year are you on recreation trips to Central Idaho?
F	How many days per year are you on fishing trips to places other than Central Idaho?
	Please rank the importance of the following activities:
G	Swimming
Н	Picnicking
I	Camping
J	Motor Boating
K	Sailing
L	Wildlife Viewing
M	Hunting

N	Fishing
0	Other
Р	How many miles (one-way) to river?
	How did you travel to the recreation site? (Where 1 = circled and 0 = not circled)
Q	Car
R	Boat
S	Bus
Т	Plane
U	Pickup Truck
V	How many years have you recreated in Central Idaho?
W	How many days per year are you free from other obligations?
X	What is your total time (hours) away from home on a typical trip to the river?
Υ	What is the typical cost to you of a trip to the river where surveyed?
Z	14a1 Hours Away: Fishing at the river
AA	14a2 Dollars of Trip Costs: Fishing at the river
AB	14b1 Hours Away: Fishing at other sites than the river
AC	14b2 Dollars of Trip Costs: Fishing at other sites than the river
AD	14c1 Hours Away: Travel to and from the lower Snake region
AE	14c2 Dollars of Trip Costs: Travel to and from lower Snake region
AF	14d1 Hours Away: Other recreation at the river
AG	14d2 Dollars of Trip Costs: Other recreation at the river
AH	14e1 Hours Away: Recreation at other places than the river
Al	14e2 Dollars of Trip Costs: Recreation at other places than the river
AJ	14f1 Total Hours
AK	14f2 Total Dollars

	Occupation
AL	1) Retired 2) Student 3) Unemployed 4) Self-employed 5) Hourly wage earner 6) Professional 7) Housewife 8) Other
AM	How many days of vacation do you take each year?
AN	What is the one-way distance from home to most preferred alternative site?/TD
	Will you typically leave the site if conditions are bad?
AO	1) Yes 2) No
AP	If the answer is yes, what is the distance one-way from the site to the alternate?
AQ	For the kind of recreation you like, how many other sites are available to you?
AR	How many recreation trips per year do you take to the area where surveyed?
	What is your age?
AS	0) less than 20 1) 20-25 2) 25-30 3) 30-35 4) 35-40 5) 40-45 6) 45-50 7) 50-55 8) 55-60 9) 60-65 10) 65-70 11) 70-75 12) 75-80
	Do you give up wage or salary income?
AT	

- 1) Yes
- 2) No
- AU If yes, how much?

What is your current wage or salary income?

- 0) 0-10,000
- 1) 10,000-20,000
- 2) 20,000-30,000
- AV 3) 30,000-40,000
 - 4) 40,000-50,000
 - 5) 50,000-60,000
 - 6) 60,000-70,000
 - 7) 70,000-80,000
 - 8) Over 80,000
 - 0) 0 001 00,000

What is your current pension or interest income?

- 0) 0-10,000
- 1) 10,000-20,000
- 2) 20,000-30,000
- AW 3) 30,000-40,000
 - 4) 40,000-50,000
 - 5) 50,000-60,000
 - 6) 60,000-70,000
 - 7) 70,000-80,000
 - 8) Over 80,000

Central Idaho Recreation Input-Output Code Page for Entry Into Microsoft Excel

For Column Corresponding Question or Data From Survey

Α	Zip Code
В	What was the year of your most recent trip?
С	How many recreation trips to the Central Idaho region?
	What was your method of travel? (Where 0 = not marked and 1 = marked)
D	Personal Car/Van/Truck
E	Rented Car/Van/Truck
F	Personal Camper/RV
G	Rented Camper/Mobile Home/RV
Н	Airplane
I	Bus
J	Tour Bus
K	Tour Boat
L	Other
M	How many nights away from home on this trip?
N	Travel destination (1 = Central Idaho region, 2 = another destination)
0	How many miles one way?
Р	How many people in group?
	Importance of recreation activities [where 0 = only checked (without numerical value), scale from 1 = very important to 5 = not important]
Q	steelhead fishing
R	smallmouth bass fishing

S trout fishing

T sturgeon fishing

U bull trout fishing

V jetboating

W camping

X other

Y rafting

Z kayaking

AA canoeing

AB hiking

AC bird watching

AD wildlife watching

AE sightseeing

AF biking

AG nature viewing

Expenditures Traveling To Central Idaho

AH county government

Al nearest town

AJ state government

AK nearest town

AL federal government

AM nearest town

AN bus or taxi service

AO nearest town

AP tour boat

AQ nearest town

AR airline

AS nearest town

AT car, pickup, or RV rental

AU nearest town

AV service station (1)

AW nearest town

AX service station (2)

AY nearest town

AZ food store

BA nearest town

BB auto dealer

BC nearest town

BD clothing store

BE nearest town

BF boat/marine store

BG nearest town

BH sporting goods store

BI nearest town

BJ hardware store

BK nearest town

BL restaurant

BM nearest town

BN department store

BO nearest town

BP other retail

BQ nearest town

BR motels and lodging

BS nearest town

BT guide services

BU nearest town

BV equipment rental

BW nearest town

BX parking and car wash

BY nearest town

BZ auto repair

CA nearest town

CB other repair

CC nearest town

CD entertainment

CE nearest town

CF health services

CG nearest town

CH other

CI nearest town

CJ other

CK nearest town

Expenditures While in Central Idaho

CL county government

CM nearest town

CN state government

CO nearest town

CP federal government

CQ nearest town

CR bus or taxi service

CS nearest town

CT tour boat

CU nearest town

CV airline

CW nearest town

CX car, pickup, or RV rental

CY nearest town

CZ service station (1)

DA nearest town

DB service station (2)

DC nearest town

DD food store

DE nearest town

DF auto dealer

DG nearest town

DH clothing store

DI nearest town

DJ boat/marine store

DK nearest town

DL sporting goods store

DM nearest town

DN hardware store

DO nearest town

DP restaurant

DQ nearest town

DR department store

DS nearest town

DT other retail

DU nearest town

DV motels and lodging

DW nearest town

DX guide services

DY nearest town

DZ equipment rental

EA nearest town

EB parking and car wash

EC nearest town

ED auto repair

EE nearest town

EF other repair

EG nearest town

EH entertainment

El nearest town

EJ health services

EK nearest town

EL other

EM nearest town

EN other

EO nearest town

Expenditures on return trip

EP county government

EQ nearest town

ER state government

ES nearest town

ET federal government

EU nearest town

EV bus or taxi service

EW nearest town

EX tour boat

EY nearest town

EZ airline

FA nearest town

FB car, pickup, or RV rental

FC nearest town

FD service station (1)

FE nearest town

FF service station (2)

FG nearest town

FH food store

FI nearest town

FJ auto dealer

FK nearest town

FL clothing store

FM nearest town

FN boat/marine store

FO nearest town

FP sporting goods store

FQ nearest town

FR hardware store

FS nearest town

FT restaurant

FU nearest town

FV department store

FW nearest town

FX other retail

FY nearest town

FZ motels and lodging

GA nearest town

GB guide services

GC nearest town

GD equipment rental

GE nearest town

GF parking and car wash

GG nearest town

GH auto repair

GI nearest town

GJ other repair

GK nearest town

GL entertainment

GM nearest town

GN health services

GO nearest town

GP other

GQ nearest town

GR other

GS nearest town

¹Cost per person per mile was based on the much larger lower Snake River reservoirs sample.

²The competitive market equilibrium is economically "efficient" because total consumer benefits are maximized where marginal cost equals marginal benefits. If marginal costs exceed marginal benefits in a given market, "rational" consumers will divert their spending to other markets.

³Travel cost models are incapable of predicting contingent behavior, and involve current users. Another set of economic models, contingent behavior and contingent value models, are typically used for projecting behavior or measuring non-use demand.

⁴The personal interview surveys had sample sizes of 200 and 150, while this survey had 257 useable responses. Sample size has varied widely in published water-based recreation studies. Ward (1989) used a sample of 60 mail surveys to estimate multi-site demand for water recreation on four reservoirs in New Mexico; Whitehead (1991-92) used a personal interview sample of 47 boat anglers for his fishing demand study on the Tar-Pimlico River in North Carolina; and Laymen et al. (1996), used a sample of 343 mail surveys to estimate angler demand for chinook

salmon in Alaska. ⁵An added advantage of not using income to measure opportunity time value is that colinearity between the time value component of travel cost and the income constraint should be greatly reduced.

⁶Although the equilibrium labor market model requires that the marginal effects of out-of-pocket cost and income foregone on quantity demanded be equal, empirical results often fail to support the model if the two components of price are entered separately in a regression.

Bias in the consumer surplus estimate, created by exclusion of important closely related goods prices, depends on

the sign of the coefficient on the excluded variable, and the distribution of trip distances (McKean and Revier, 1990). Exclusion of the price of a closely related good will bias the estimate of both the intercept and the demand slope estimate (Kmenta, 1971). Both these effects bias consumer surplus. Since the expression for consumer surplus generally is nonlinear, the expected consumer surplus is not properly measured by simply taking the area under the demand curve. The distribution of trips along the demand function can affect the bias in consumer surplus, depending on the combination of intercept and slope bias created by the underspecification of the travel cost demand. Both intercept and slope biases and the trip distribution must be known in order to predict the effect of exclusion of the price of a related good on the consumer surplus estimate. ⁸L in front of the variable indicates a log transformation.

⁹Elasticity refers to the percentage change in the dependent variable (trips) caused by a 1-percent change in the independent variable (unless otherwise noted).

¹⁰Let the regression equation be $1n(r) = a_1 + a_2D + a_3 1n(Z)$, where Z represents all the continuous independent variables. The equation can be written as $r = e^{(a^1 + a^{2D)}} Z^{(a^3)}$. Elasticity of r with respect to D is defined as O = (%)change in r)/(% change in D) = (?r/?D)(D/r). $?r/?D = a_2e^(a^{1+}a^{2D)}Z^(a^{3)}$; D can be 0, 1, or E(D); and r is defined above. Elasticity reduces to $O = a_2D$. Thus, O becomes zero if D is zero, and O takes the value a_2 if D is one. ¹¹See Appendix 1 for a discussion of the statistical methodology.

¹²This assumes that anglers in the Snake River Basin and anglers on the four reservoirs on the lower Snake River use vehicles having similar fuel efficiency. Money travel cost per mile for a vehicle is based on the much larger

sample (537 observations versus 257 observations) collected for the reservoirs.

13 About 12.5 percent of recreationists in this sample indicted they gave up some income to travel to the recreation site. Our prior survey of anglers resulted in 11.9 percent indicating they gave up some income to travel to the fishing

¹⁴In contrast, the spending survey on the four lower Snake River reservoirs found that 64 percent of the sample lived within 50 miles of the reservoirs where they recreated.

¹⁵Based on the data from the spending survey for recreationists and estimates of the number of anglers visiting the Upriver Subregion.

¹⁶Our survey question for group size was misinterpreted as rafting group size, resulting in an overstated value. Average group size of 1.73 was from an economic impact study of rafting, a principal activity in our study, on the Middle Fork of the Salmon River in Idaho (English and Bowker, 1966).

The travel cost demand survey in central Idaho was conducted by AEI concurrently with the spending survey. ¹⁸The average group size question failed in this survey. Apparently, respondents thought it referred to the size of a guided raft or tour group instead of the household group.

An alternate approach is to separate the decision process into two parts. The potential visitor first decides whether or not to visit the site. For those who decide to visit the site, a second decision is made on the number of visits per year. Two-stage estimation techniques such as Tobit, Heckman, and Cragg models do not account for the integer nature of the recreation trips variable, resulting in significant error (Mullahy, 1986).

20 Price elasticity is defined as the percentage change in quantity demanded (trips) caused by a 1-percent change in

money trip price (out-of-pocket cost of a trip).

21 The distinguishing characteristic of many recent non-linear econometric estimation techniques is that they have no

explicit analytical solution. In such cases, an iterative numerical calculation approach is used (Cramer, 1986).