# RESEARCH

# An Ecoregional Approach to the Economic Valuation of Land- and Water-Based Recreation in the United States

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ABSTRACT / This paper describes a framework for estimating the economic value of outdoor recreation across different ecoregions. Ten ecoregions in the continental United States were defined based on similarly functioning ecosystem characters. The individual travel cost method was employed to estimate recreation demand functions for activities such as motor boating and waterskiing, developed and primitive camping, coldwater fishing, sightseeing and pleasure driving, and big game hunting for each ecoregion. While our ecoregional approach differs conceptually from previous work, our results appear consistent with the previous travel cost method valuation studies.

The USDA Forest Service manages vast tracts of publicly owned land and water resources across the United States, especially in the South and the West. The Forest and Rangeland Renewable Resources Planning Act of 1974 (RPA), as amended by the National Forest Management Act of 1976 (NFMA), was passed to make resource management by the US Forest Service rational and accountable. The planning has been perceived at two levels: national and local. Resource assessment under this legislation describes the current forest and rangeland situation, which includes timber and human recreation, and analyzes the environmental, social, and economic trends that will likely affect the situation over the next 50 years. Based on the findings of the assessment, the Secretary of Agriculture recommends to Congress a 50-year RPA program for the Forest Service. The recommended RPA program is a strategic plan that establishes long-term resources management goals. In the planning process, alternative plans are developed to reflect different emphasis on the various resource management goals and different strategies for meeting societal needs over next 50 years (US Department of Agriculture, Forest Service 1989).

For the 1980 and 1990 RPA efforts, recreation activity values were based primarily on values reported by previous studies of outdoor recreation demand. Comprehensive reviews of previous outdoor recreation demand studies are provided by Sorg and Loomis (1984), Walsh and others (1988), McCollum and others (1990), and Bergstrom and Cordell (1991). In some of these studies, the authors reviewed the demand for a single activity provided at a single site. Bergstrom and Cordell (1991) estimated a multiregional, multisite outdoor recreation demand model for the United States. They used a regional zonal travel cost model (ZTCM) to analyze the general demand for and value of publicly provided outdoor recreation in the United States. The modeling results provide insight into the effects of regional variations in population characteristics and recreation opportunities on outdoor recreation demand in the United States.

Our main purpose in this paper is to provide a methodology for estimating recreation values in the United States using an ecoregional approach. The paper begins with an ecoregional classification description. Next, the methodology and estimation procedure using the individual travel cost model (ITCM) is discussed. Results and implications are then highlighted.

## Ecoregion Classification

The classification of land and forest sites is a major challenge. Not only is more intensive multiple-use resource management anticipated, but enacted legislation in the United States (such as the National Environ-

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mental Policy Act of 1970, the Federal Land Policy and Management Act of 1976, and the National Forest Management Act of 1976) mandates a structured ecological data base to facilitate decision making. Ecoregions are large ecosystems of regional extent that contain a number of smaller ecosystems. They are geographical zones that represent geographical groups or associations of similarly functioning ecosystems. An ecoregional classification is one that expresses interrelationships between (1) vegetation and physiography, (2) vegetation and soils, and (3) physiography and soils (Barnes and others 1982). In developing the classifications, the complex gradients of an area are divided into ecosystem units that recur in landscape units and can be distinguished by major differences in physiography, soils, and vegetation. Each of these three ecosystem factors provides information for building the classification and mapping the ecosystem units. Regional boundaries may be delineated on the basis of analysis of the environmental factors that most probably acted as selective forces in creating variation in ecosystems (Bailey 1983).

The purpose of the ecological land classification is to divide the landscape into variously sized ecosystem units that have significance both for development of resources and for conservation of the environment. More specifically, such units are the bases for estimating ecosystem productivity and the probable responses to management practices. Thus, ecoregions have at least two important functions for management. First, a map of such regions enables the establishment of site-productivity relationships derived from field experiments and experiences between different ecoregions. Second, they provide a geographical framework in which similar responses may be expected within similarly defined sites. Methods of site classification involving such a geographical framework have been employed with success for over 50 years in Europe.

Based on Bailey's classification by geomorphology, stratigraphy, soil types, climate, altitude, wildlife, and other characteristics and on subsequent modifications, ecoregions in the continental United States are classified as follows: Marine, Tropical/Subtropical Desert, Tropical/Subtropical Steppe, Temperate Steppe, Temperate Desert, Mediterranean, Rocky Mountains, Hot Continental, Eastern Warm Continental, Western Warm Continental, Appalachian Mountain, Subtropical, Savanna, and Prairie. Using the above classification, with necessary modifications, and combining some of those small ecosystems with similar attributes, ten ecoregions in the continental United States were defined for the purpose of input into the RPA program assessment. Table 1 provides a description of ecoregion classification in the continental United States. Figure 1 provides a map of the continental United States with the boundaries for these ecoregions.

Table 1. Ecoregional classification in the continental United States

| Ecoregion | Description (states and parts of states) |
|---|---|
| 1. Pacific Northwest Marine | Washington, Oregon, and California |
| 2. Desert Southwest | California, Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas |
| 3. Great Basin Steppe | Nevada, Oregon, and Idaho |
| 4. Rocky Mountains | Colorado, Wyoming, Montana, and New Mexico |
| 5. Midwest Prairie and Steppe | North Dakota, South Dakota, Minnesota, Iowa, Illinois, Nebraska, Missouri, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas |
| 6. Ozark and Ouchita Mountains | Arkansas |
| 7. Northeast and Great Lakes | Wisconsin, Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, Michigan, Kentucky, Tennessee, West Virginia, and Pennsylvania |
| 8. Southeast, Subtropical and Southern Florida | Mississippi, Louisiana, Alabama, Georgia, Florida, South Carolina, North Carolina, and Virginia |
| 9. Appalachian Mountains | Maryland, West Virginia, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, Georgia, and Alabama |
| 10. New England and Warm Continental | Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania |

## Methodology

There is general agreement among economists that the appropriate measure of the value of outdoor recreation to an individual is consumer's surplus or net economic value (Dwyer and others 1977, US Water Resource Council 1983, Rosenthal and others 1986, Stoll and others 1987). Economists have devised various ways to obtain these surplus measures empirically. In general, the travel cost method (TCM) is one of most widely used nonmarket valuation techniques, particularly for estimating the value of outdoor recreation activities. This method is based on reported behavior and an assumed complementary relationship between the travel consumer's surplus and the site consumer's surplus, i.e., where travel and resource demands interact so that when travel prices are high travel demand is driven toward zero. Originally, the TCM was developed to provide values for recreation sites. Subsequent applications have been directed to predicting changes in

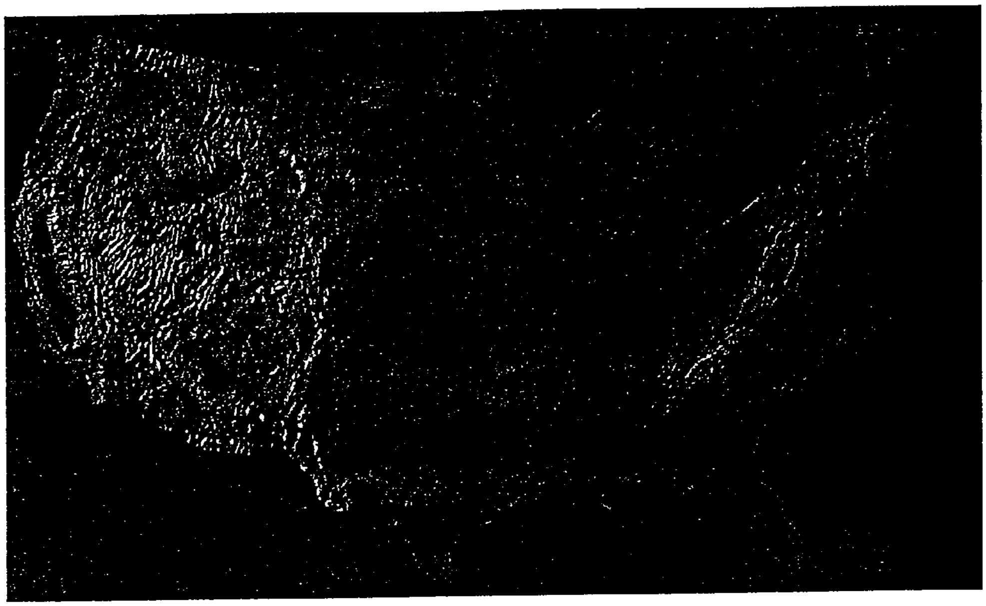

**Figure 1.** An ecoregional classification in the continental United States.

recreation behavior, valuing changes in site attributes, and valuing specific recreation activities.

TCM approaches include the zonal and individual methods. The empirical procedure for the zonal method is usually broken into two stages. In the first stage, per capita participation rates are regressed on travel cost and other relevant socioeconomic variables. Stage one parameters are then used to derive trip/travel cost functions for each zone, which may in turn be summed across price intervals to obtain an aggregate or second-stage demand function. The aggregate demand function may then be used as the basis for obtaining Marshallian consumer's surplus estimates. A crucial requirement for using the zonal method is to have relatively homogenous populations in each zone and to know with considerable certainty the amount of visitation at each site. Recent applications of the zonal approach include those of Hellerstein (1991), Bergstrom and Cordell (1991), and English and Bowker (1996). In this study, we use the individual rather than zonal method. The individual method is conceptually similar to the zonal method. However, the travel cost relationships are based solely on individual observations. The unit of observation is an individual's consumption of trips. An individual demand curve is derived by estimating the statistical relationship between an individual trip and the distance traveled from place of residence to a recreation site. By focusing on individual observations, the individual method allows for more statistically efficient and theoretically consistent analysis of individual recreation consumption behavior. The individual approach has been used in recent literature by a number of economists including Adamowicz and others (1989), Creel and Loomis (1990), and Bowker and others (1996).

The individual travel cost method is quite often employed to estimate the recreation demand for the whole site, which provides many recreation activities to a visitor. However, management at a larger scale often requires more aggregate information about activities across landscapes or ecoregions. In the present study, demand functions are estimated for various activities within a number of ecoregions. The basic conceptual model is specified as:

$$TRIPS_{ij}^{ke} = f\,(INC_i,\ TC_{ij},\ SUBST_i,\ NON) \qquad (1)$$

where, $TRIPS_{ij}^{ke}$ represents annual trips by individual $i$ to site $j$ in ecoregion $e$ for activity $k$, $INC_i$ is annual household income of individual $i$, $TC_{ij}$ is travel cost per trip from individual $i$'s origin to site $j$, $SUBST_i$ is the price of a logical substitute, and $NON$ is dummy variable to classify observation as local or nonlocal. For each individual, definition of a trip depends on the declared main activity. During onsite surveys, individuals were asked about the number of trips taken in a year to the site for their main activity.

Ten ecoregions were defined following Bailey's classification scheme as explained before. Over 300 sites were grouped into specific ecoregions. Each ecoregion contained up to a maximum of 28 activities. Empirical individual demand functions were estimated using truncated count data estimators as described in Creel and Loomis (1990) and Grogger and Carson (1991). These models were chosen because the dependent variable, the number of trips taken over the season or year, is a nonnegative integer. Moreover, the data were collected onsite excluding nonusers and potential users. Creel and Loomis (1990) have found that accounting for truncation at zero for the dependent variable makes a substantial difference in the coefficient estimates, and subsequently benefit estimates, regardless of the choice statistical model.

The statistical model fitted using the truncated Poisson (TP) is given by

$$P(Y_i = y_i | Y_i > 0) = \frac{\exp(-\lambda_i)\lambda_i^{y_i}}{y_i![1 - \exp(-\lambda_i)]} \quad (2)$$

$$y_i = 1, 2, \ldots, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, n$$

For maximum likelihood estimation, the loglikelihood function is

$$\ln L = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \{-\lambda_i + y_i x_i \beta - \ln(y_i!) - \ln[1 - \exp(-\lambda_i)]\} \quad (3)$$

Following convention, $\lambda_i$ is parameterized for estimation as

$$\ln \lambda_i = X_i\beta + u_i \quad (4)$$

where $Y_i$ is number of trips taken by a visitor. $X_i$ represents the vector of explanatory variables, $\beta$ is the parameter vector, and $u_i$ is random disturbance (Yen and Adamowicz 1993). Within this functional specification, mean consumer's surplus per trip and its variance may be approximated respectively as

$$CS = \frac{1}{-\hat{\beta}_{TC}} \quad (5)$$

and

$$var(CS) = \frac{var(\hat{\beta}_{TC})}{\hat{\beta}_{TC}^4} \quad (6)$$

## Data

Data for the study were obtained from the Public Area Recreation Visitors Study (PARVS) and the CUSTOMER survey. PARVS and CUSTOMER are ongoing multiagency efforts to collect data on the use of public areas for outdoor recreation. The major component of these efforts is on-site interviews of recreationists conducted at public recreation areas. The analysis reported in this paper was based on PARVS and CUSTOMER survey data collected at over 350 sites across the ecoregions of the US between 1985 and 1992. These sites included national parks, national forests, national rivers, US Army Corps of Engineers and Tennessee Valley Authority Reservoirs, and numerous state recreation areas (Bergstrom and Cordell 1991).

In the onsite interviews, respondents were asked to provide information about themselves and their recreation patterns. Data were collected on the respondent's personal and household characteristics, the main activity, origin, trip expenditures, distance and time of travel, and whether the current trip was multipurpose or not. Data were also collected on the respondent's 12-month trip profile. The 12-month trip profile includes number of trips taken, lists of sites visited and activities taken, and length of each trip. Origins for the individuals were recorded as both county names and zip codes. Recorded origins included almost 80% of all counties in the United States. Counties not represented were primarily very sparsely populated counties in the Midwest and those comprised mainly of public land located in the West.

In this study, per trip travel cost (*TC* in equation 1) is defined as a composite of variable operating costs and the opportunity cost of time in travel. The literature is ambiguous as to exact specification of travel costs. In general, most research supports the inclusion of variable operating costs and some measure of the opportunity cost of time in travel. Issues pertaining to the exact value of time in travel and time on site, along with such things as vehicle depreciation, recalled vs inferred expenses, and complementary spending continue to be the subject of considerable debate. Further research is needed to resolve these issues, which are beyond the scope of this paper. Variable operating costs were computed as the product of origin to site driving distance and a cost factor of 6.25 cents per kilometer. Driving distane was calculated using ZIPFIP software (ZIPFIP 1993). Following others such as Bowker and others (1996), the opportunity cost of time in travel was calculated as the product of 25% of the wage rate and the estimated time in transit (assuming 80 kmph average speed) from the origin to the site.

The substitute variable (*SUBST* in equation 1) was also calculated as a composite of distance and time costs. Here, a substitute site was identified for each individual. The site was determined as the site closest to the individual's origin which offered the opportunity for the same main activity. The calculation of variable

Table 2. Ecoregion demand equations for motorboating and waterskiing

| Regions (sample size) | Parameter estimates (standard error) | | | | | LRS[a] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Intercept | *INC* | *TC* | *SUBST* | *NON* | |
| Desert Southwest | 2.685 (0.262E-01) | 0.682E-05 (0.497E-06) | −0.700E-02 (0.725E-03) | −0.174E-01 (0.120E-02) | −0.360 (0.0415) | 4264 |
| Rocky Mountains | 0.815 (0.148) | 0.342E-04 (0.285E-05) | −0.730E-02 (0.907E-03) | −0.395E-02 (0.162E-02) | −0.0426 (0.1338) | 185.3 |
| Northeast and Great Lakes | 2.250 (0.323E-01) | 0.171E-04 (0.745E-06) | −0.338E-01 (0.152E-02) | 0.777E-02 (0.188E-02) | 0.3888 (0.0453) | 1114 |
| Appalachian Mountains | 3.450 (0.327E-01) | 0.318E-05 (0.828E-06) | −0.229E-01 (0.252E-02) | −0.138E-01 (0.394E-02) | −0.0985 (0.06012) | 835.1 |

[a]Likelihood ratio statistics.

Table 3. Ecoregion demand equations for developed and primitive camping

| Regions (sample size) | Parameter estimates (with standard error) | | | | | LRS[a] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Intercept | *INC* | *TC* | *SUBST* | *NON* | |
| Great Basin Steppe | 0.9092 (0.3213) | 0.253e-04 (0.612e-05) | −0.196e-01 (0.474e-02) | −0.626e-02 (0.135e-01) | 0.5027 (0.0720) | 126 |
| Rocky Mountains | 1.7161 (0.0794) | −0.300e-04 (0.175e-05) | −0.657e-02 (0.780e-03) | 0.907e-02 (0.133e-02) | 0.3818 (0.0711) | 573.7 |
| Ozark and Ouchita Mountains | 1.5920 (0.1113) | −0.194e-04 (0.222e-05) | −0.111e-03 (0.289e-02) | −0.234e-03 (0.299e-02) | 0.9257 (0.1117) | 340.6 |
| Southeast Subtropical, South Florida | 0.7086 (0.0816) | 0.762e-05 (0.173e-05) | −0.183e-01 (0.124e-02) | 0.863e-04 (0.162e-02) | 0.6172 (0.0794) | 630.3 |
| New England and Warm Continental | 0.10619 (0.1581) | 0.698e-05 (0.110e-05) | −0.385e-02 (0.110e-02) | −0.295e-02 (0.743e-03) | −0.308 (0.147) | 348.7 |
| Appalachian Mountains | 1.7681 (0.0453) | 0.342e-05 (0.152e-05) | −0.313e-01 (0.241e-02) | −0.573e-02 (0.412e-02) | 0.5033 (0.0677) | 971.7 |

[a]Likelihood ratio statistics.

mileage and time costs was the same as for the travel cost variable (*TC* in equation 1). In addition, a binary variable (*NON* in equation 1) to differentiate local from nonlocal participants was included. The classification was made based on the roundtrip distance of 160 km.

## Demand Model Results

The ITCMs were estimated using a maximum likelihood routine for the truncated Poisson models (LIMDEP 1991). Truncated negative binomial estimation was attempted but not presented as the maintained hypothesis of no overdispersion could not be rejected. A total of 28 equations across activities and ecoregions were estimated. Some of the land- and water-based activities in this study included motor boating and waterskiing, developed and primitive camping, coldwater fishing, sightseeing and pleasure driving, and big game hunting. Because of data limitations, all activities were not necessarily represented across all ecoregions. We included only activities for which ecosystem representation exceeded 100 observations.

Estimated demand equations are shown in Tables 2–6 for selected activities. Each table consists of parameter estimates with standard errors and likelihood ratio statistics. Likelihood ratio statistics (LRS) indicate that these models strongly explain recreation demand. The negative sign on the travel cost variable implies a negatively sloped demand function, which is consistent with economic theory. This variable was found highly significant in most of the activities and ecoregions except in the case of developed and primitive camping in the Ozark and Ouchita Mountains (ecoregion 6) and the Northeast and Great Lakes (ecoregion 7), for which the sign was correct but insignificant. The *INC* variable had an expected positive sign in water-based activities models in most of the ecoregions. It had a negative sign but is statistically insignificant in activity models such as developed and primitive camping. This indicates that the *INC* variable is perhaps not an important factor in explaining the demand for some outdoor activities.

The *SUBST* variable, as defined earlier, is the distance from individual *i*'s origin to the nearest alternative site offering the same activity. The variable has a

Table 4. Ecoregion demand equations for cold-water fishing

| Regions (sample size) | Parameter estimates (standard error) | | | | | LRS[a] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Intercept | *INC* | *TC* | *SUBST* | *NON* | |
| Rocky Mountains | 1.314 | 0.315e-04 | −0.158e-01 | 0.407e-02 | −0.8148 | 1077 |
| | (0.0654) | (0.155e-05) | (0.154e-02) | (0.231e-02) | (0.06835) | |
| Appalachian Mountains | 2.8279 | −0.415e-05 | −0.194e-01 | −0.201e-01 | 0.4386 | 255.5 |
| | (0.0514) | (0.169e-05) | (0.240e-02) | (0.376e-02) | (0.0748) | |

[a]Likelihood ratio statistics.

Table 5. Ecoregion demand equations for sightseeing and pleasure driving

| Ecoregions (sample size) | Parameter estimates (standard error) | | | | | LRS[a] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Intercept | *INC* | *TC* | *SUBST* | *NON* | |
| Desert Southwest (1210) | 1.0410 | 0.463e-05 | −0.457e-02 | 0.159e-02 | −0.2104 | 221.8 |
| | (0.0733) | (0.141e-05) | (0.759e-03) | (0.204e-02) | (0.0793) | |
| Ozark and Ouchita Mountains (353) | 2.8538 | −0.109e-04 | −0.124e-01 | 0.158e-01 | 0.4929 | 1368 |
| | (0.0620) | (0.178e-05) | (0.132e-02) | (0.200e-02) | (0.0628) | |
| Northeast and Great Lakes (1180) | 3.2014 | −0.100e-05 | −0.359e-01 | 0.181e-01 | 0.2217 | 5163 |
| | (0.03211) | (0.103e-05) | (0.122e-02) | (0.136e-02) | (0.0384) | |
| Southeast Subtropical, South Florida (955) | 3.0122 | −0.217e-04 | −0.461e-02 | −0.215e-01 | −0.4187 | 1516 |
| | (0.0472) | (0.133e-05) | (0.483e-03) | (0.227e-02) | (0.0515) | |
| Appalachian Mountains (525) | 3.9835 | −0.223e-04 | −0.421e-01 | −0.557e-02 | 0.0104 | 4028 |
| | (0.0371) | (0.147e-05) | (0.199e-02) | (0.262e-02) | (0.0534) | |

[a]Likelihood ratio statistics.

Table 6. Ecoregional demand equations for big game hunting

| Ecoregions (sample size) | Parameter estimates (standard error) | | | | | LRS[a] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Intercept | *INC* | *TC* | *SUBST* | *NON* | |
| Rocky Mountains (485) | 3.0695 | 0.642e-06 | −0.143e-01 | 0.550e-02 | −0.1349 | 1659 |
| | (0.0375) | (0.888e-06) | (0.779e-03) | (0.146e-02) | (0.0418) | |
| Northeast and Great Lakes (489) | 2.2927 | 0.164e-04 | −0.773e-01 | −0.338e-02 | 1.3699 | 1596 |
| | (0.0563) | (0.163e-05) | (0.425e-02) | (0.421e-02) | (0.0695) | |
| Appalachian Mountains (127) | 1.0230 | 0.259e-04 | −0.205e-01 | −0.161e-01 | 0.5690 | 152.7 |
| | (0.1364) | (0.291e-05) | (0.246e-05) | (0.127e-01) | (0.1711) | |

[a]Likelihood ratio statistics.

negative sign in 60% of the estimated equations, many of which are significant. This contradicts theoretical priors and merits further examination. It may well be that for certain recreation activities, activity rather than site substitution is the norm.

The nonlocal binary variable (*NON*) was significant in the majority of the activities and ecoregions. This implies an autonomous difference in the consumption behaviors of local and nonlocal visitors at most sites. Given the spatial nature of travel cost models and the need for distance variation, this issue is often overlooked in TCM studies. In general, inclusion of this variable induced price coefficients lower in absolute values, indicating a more elastic demand. Modeling difference in activity demand without compromising distance-based price variation is an important area for future research.

## Value Estimates

Consumer's surplus per day is calculated by dividing consumer's surplus per trip by average activity days per trip in each ecoregion. Per day estimates (assuming relatively uniform trip length) are reported in Tables 7 through 11 for selected activities along with their 90% confidence intervals. These per day estimates indicate average welfare impacts on individuals of increased

Table 7. Mean net economic value of motorboating and waterskiing across ecoregions

| Ecoregion | Surplus estimates with 90% confidence interval | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Surplus (day) | Lower bound | Upper bound |
| Desert Southwest | 28.56 | 23.70 | 33.43 |
| Rocky Mountains | 45.61 | 36.29 | 54.93 |
| Northeast and Great Lakes | 9.85 | 9.12 | 10.58 |
| Appalachian Mountains | 43.61 | 35.7 | 51.52 |

Table 8. Mean net economic value of developed and primitive camping across ecoregions

| Ecoregion | Surplus estimates with 90% confidence interval | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Surplus (day) | Lower bound | Upper bound |
| Great Basin Steppe | 7.25 | 4.38 | 10.13 |
| Rocky Mountains | 38.01 | 30.59 | 45.43 |
| Ozark and Ouchita Mountains | 22.49[a] | 12.86 | 32.12 |
| Southeast Subtropical, South Florida | 13.61 | 12.09 | 15.12 |
| Northeast and Great Lakes | 261.12[a] | 90.20 | High |
| New England and Warm Continental | 43.25 | 22.88 | 63.62 |
| Appalachian Mountains | 6.39 | 5.58 | 7.20 |

[a]Based on insignificant price coefficient.

Table 9. Mean net economic value of cold-water fishing across ecoregions

| Ecoregion | Surplus estimates with 90% confidence interval | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Surplus (day) | Lower bound | Upper bound |
| Great Basin Steppe | 61.73[a] | 0.00 | 1712.80 |
| Rocky Mountains | 20.97 | 17.62 | 24.31 |
| Appalachian Mountains | 25.70 | 20.47 | 30.92 |

[a]Based on insignificant price coefficient.

outdoor recreation days in the respective activities across ecoregions.

Net economic value per day in the case of motor boating and waterskiing ranges from $9.85 to $45.61. The per day values are noticeably higher in the Desert Southwest and the Rocky Mountains. This may be due to long driving distances to reach sites resulting in trips of longer duration.

Per day estimates in the case of developed and primitive camping range from $6.39 to $38.01 (excluding statistically insignificant estimates). Per day values are the highest in the Rocky Mountains. This may be due to the abundance of higher quality camping sites in this region relative to sites in other ecoregions.

Table 10. Mean net economic value of sightseeing and pleasure driving across ecoregions

| Ecoregion | Surplus estimates with 90% confidence interval | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Surplus (day) | Lower bound | Upper bound |
| Desert Southwest | 109.19 | 79.40 | 138.98 |
| Ozark and Ouchita Mountains | 80.11 | 66.13 | 94.09 |
| Northeast and Great Lakes | 13.90 | 13.12 | 14.68 |
| Southeast Subtropical and South Florida | 108.38 | 89.69 | 127.06 |
| Appalachian Mountains | 23.73 | 21.88 | 25.58 |

Table 11. Mean net economic value of big game hunting across ecoregions

| Ecoregion | Surplus estimates with 90% confidence interval | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Surplus (day) | Lower bound | Upper bound |
| Rocky Mountains | 13.94 | 12.69 | 15.18 |
| Northeast and Great Lakes | 4.31 | 3.92 | 4.70 |
| Appalachian Mountains | 6.09 | 4.89 | 7.29 |

In the case of coldwater fishing, per day estimate ranges from $20.97 to $25.70 (excluding statistically insignificant estimates in the Great Basin Steppe). No identifiable differences were found among value estimates, either on a per day basis or across ecoregions.

Net economic value per day for sightseeing and pleasure driving ranges from $13.90 to $109.19. In general, these values are relatively high for all ecoregions, particularly the Desert Southwest and the Southeast Subtropical and South Florida. The upper range of these values appears to be unreasonably high and needs further investigation in the future.

Net economic value in the case of big game hunting ranges from $4.31 to $13.94 per day. The lower per day estimates are due to a high number of activity days reported (at least three activity days per trip) in all the ecoregions.

## Comparison to Previous Valuation Studies

Walsh and others (1988) provided a comprehensive review of previous studies that estimated the net economic value of outdoor recreation activities. Most of the studies reported by Walsh and others (1988) used a single-activity, single-site TCM modeling approach. They came up with an average value for each activity. The value estimate in the study by Bergstrom and Cordell (1991) represents the value of an activity to a typical site from a typical community across the United States, i.e., an aggregate value estimate of a particular activity. The present study uses an ecoregional approach wherein a surplus estimate, per trip as well as per day, represents the value of an activity from individual $i$'s origin to a typical site situated in a particular ecoregion. The estimates are given for all the ecoregions where sufficient data were available. The above three value estimates, thus, are fundamentally different. Taking these conceptual differences into consideration, the estimates generated by the present study appear reasonably consistent with previous studies in most cases. The final choice of which value estimates to use in a particular policy or a management situation depends on the nature of the policy or management question or issue of concern.

## Summary and Conclusions

As the popularity of outdoor recreation continues to grow in the country, resource management agencies, legislators, and nongovernment interest groups are becoming more interested in the demand for and value of outdoor recreation (Bergstrom and Cordell 1991). In the past, general outdoor recreation values developed on a national basis have been based on composite values such as average values calculated from previous single site demand studies.

A method for deriving ecoregional values of standard outdoor recreation is presented in this paper using the data from a particular ecoregion for a specific activity as unit of estimation. A sample of land- and water-based activity value estimation results using the individual travel cost method is presented in this paper. Several important determinants of the demand for outdoor recreation were identified. These include regional differences in the value of recreation, differences in recreation behavior between local and nonlocal visitors, and inclusion of a time value in the travel cost variable.

Resource management agencies, legislators, and other interested parties will continue to demand information on the general determinants and value of outdoor recreation in the United States. The consumer's surplus estimates and the demand equations reported in this paper provide a measure of the social welfare impacts of changes in outdoor recreation consumption. These results provide information that is useful for evaluating recreation policies, programs, and resource management alternatives.

Although subject to a number of limitations, the modeling approach presented in this paper provides a useful framework for estimating outdoor recreation values across ecoregions in the United States. The valuation results suggest that outdoor recreation values do vary across ecoregions in the United States. For policy and planning efforts, such as the US Forest Service RPA program, more research of the type reported in this paper is needed to improve ecoregional estimates of the economic value of outdoor recreation. The results of such studies can be used to help identify priorities for recreational planning and policy across ecoregions where the value of different recreational activities may be different. A major need for facilitating future research is to develop more comprehensive recreational use data sets across ecoregions. There also is a need for further research to address some of the problems in data collection and demand modeling. In particular, further research is needed to combine ecological, geographical, spatial, and economic attributes into recreation demand modeling.

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