Tourism Trip Decision Making at The Sub-Regional Level: with Special Reference to Southern England

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Abstract

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The research investigated aspects of the decision making processes which influenced the choice of day trip tourism destinations for a sample of the population within the Southern Tourist Board area. The aims were to understand characteristics of day trip activities, to assess the effect of socio-demographic constraints on day trip behaviour, to examine the reasons for day trips, to develop household profiles and to reveal likely patterns of day trip activity. The final aim was to construct a model of day trip decision making. The research is based on two questionnaire surveys which produced a range of quantitative and qualitative information. Results from the first survey indicated that social class, age, group type and location of residence were important in understanding general trip characteristics because of their particular influence on activities, cost, distance and reasons for a trip. The second survey was a longitudinal study of residents of the sub-region. The results showed that there were seven dominant reasons for a day trip, namely, for exercise, to visit friends and relatives, to act as host to friends and relatives, to be with the family, for the children, for a specific purpose and for personal reasons. The results of the diary survey allowed the production of household profiles based on day trip types. Socio-demographic variables which were found to be important influences on trip behaviour were social class, age of the household and the presence of children. A final development of the research was the construction of a model of decision making which showed the relationships of the various aspects which led to a day trip visit.

For my parents.

Thus have I politically begun my reign
And 'tis my hope to end successfully.

Shakespeare, 1594.

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Introduction

Over the last twenty years, leisure in Britain has become a major focus of interest of the population, with a large proportion of household income now spent on leisure-related items (Gratton and Taylor, 1987). Annual holidays, short breaks, day trips, sport and home-centred recreational activities have all become more commonplace in the 1980s. In 1984 it was estimated that spending on leisure accounted for 30 per cent of national consumer expenditure (Central Statistical Office, 1984).

The growth of leisure, recreation and tourism has not proceeded unchecked. Since the 1970s the entire western economy has suffered a series of jolts, arguably starting with the oil crisis of 1973, followed by consequential rises in fuel costs and inflation. All of these macro-trends affected the context of leisure in the 1980s (Roberts, 1988). However, the main trend over the past twenty five years has been an increase in the amount of leisure time, by reductions in working hours and increases in holiday entitlement. Since 1961 the normal basic weekly hours worked by full time manual employees has fallen from 42.8 to 38.9 hours. Holiday entitlement has risen, with 97 per cent of the working population having two weeks in 1961 and 99 per cent having four weeks or more by 1987 (Central Statistical Office, 1989). Spending on leisure has also risen more rapidly than other forms of spending in Britain since 1978 (Martin and Mason, 1986). Leisure has been a growth sector in terms of jobs (Corley, 1982). Between 1960 and 1980, in the UK, its share of employment rose from 3.9 to 5.6 per cent.

The nature of leisure is however changing. A number of trends can be distinguished, relating to what people do with their leisure time. The home remains the centre of most people's leisure. It has been suggested that *'for as long as information has been collected, most leisure time has been spent at home'* (Roberts, 1988). The main growth areas in money spent on leisure since 1979 has been on sound and vision reproducing equipment, telecommunications and computer technology (Martin and Mason, 1986). By 1987 the average weekly time spent watching television had reached 25 hours

25 minutes per person (Central Statistical Office, 1989). In addition, the video recorder has now become a mass domestic product rather than a specialised branch of communications technology as it was in 1979. Between 1983 and 1987 the number of households with a video cassette recorder rose from 18 to 46 per cent (Central Statistical Office, 1989). Whilst watching TV is the most popular leisure activity in Britain, Table 1 shows that several passive home-based and social activities dominate the leisure activities of British adults. Nearly all adults watch TV, visit or entertain friends, and listen to the radio. The majority drink or eat out, listen to records or tapes, read and do some gardening.

Table 1

Most popular leisure activities in England and Wales 1980

Activity	**% Participation Rate**
Watching TV	98.1
Visiting/Entertaining friends	92.1
Listening to radio	89.4
Drinking/Eating out	68.2
Listening to records/tapes	66.5
Gardening	59.1
Reading books	57.4
D I Y	39.9
Knitting/sewing	30.2
Visiting historic buildings	17.0
Visiting seaside	15.5

Source: General Household Survey, (1984).

Out-of-home leisure activities have also grown but growth has not occurred across the full range of activities. Out-of-home activities which have declined have mainly been in areas where replication is possible within the home. For example, annual cinema admissions have continued to fall in the UK, from 1,181 million in 1955 to 75 million in 1987 (Central Statistical Office, 1989), as TV and video in the home has become more popular. A similar pattern is observable for attendances at spectator sports, with marked decreases at football, cricket and greyhound racing events. At the same time televised sport in the home has grown in importance with one sixth of BBC programmes now dedicated to sport (Gratton and Taylor, 1987).

Participation in many sporting activities out-of-home has increased in recent years, along with a widespread concern for health and fitness as a phenomenon discernible during the 1980s (Roberts, 1988). Table 2 shows the main growth areas to have been swimming, snooker, keep-fit, squash and cycling.

Table 2

Participation in the most popular sporting activities, 1977 and 1986

Great Britain	Percentages	
% engaged in activity	**1977**	**1986**
Walking (2 miles or more)	22	23
Swimming	13	18
Snooker	6	11
Darts	10	7
Keep-fit/Yoga	1	4
Golf	4	4
Fishing	4	3
Football	3	3
Squash	2	3
Cycling	1	3
Tennis	3	3

Source: General Household Survey (1989).

This type of growth has occurred because most sports cannot take place at home. The growth of sport participation has in part been made possible by provision of new facilities, but it is not clear whether these new facilities caused the growth, or that the trends in increased supply reflected the growth of demand.

Tourism is another area of growth. Whilst the percentage of the population not taking a holiday has remained constant at about 40 per cent since 1971, there has been a general trend towards an increasing number of holidays[1] taken each year by the other 60 per cent. In 1971 7 million overseas holidays were taken by British adults. By 1987 this had risen to 20 million. The numbers of short

Footnotes

1 A holiday in this context is defined as a period in excess of 3 nights spent away from home, normally involving leisure activities.

holidays[2] within Britain has also increased, by 37 per cent from 1975 to 1987. (Central Statistical Office, 1989). The numbers of day trips to attractions has grown - but not to all locations - during the 1980s. For instance, whilst attendance at Madame Tussaud's in London rose to 2.4 million visitors in 1987, admissions to the Natural History Museum fell by 40 per cent between 1986 and 1987 (British Tourist Authority/English Tourist Board Research Services, 1988). Overall however, more day trips are being made to the countryside, historic buildings and coastal resorts. Theme parks have been developed and have become increasingly popular (Roberts, 1988).

Participation in holidays and day trips varies for different groups of the population. For example out-of-home recreation or tourism is not available to all. The poor, the infirm and unemployed have often not shared in the positive shifts outlined. Households under such circumstances experience real recreational disadvantages and can find themselves trapped in the home without the means and motivations to venture out.

The nature and development of leisure as it has expanded in amount and complexity in the 1980s has received increasing interest from academics and planners alike. In explaining such trends Patmore (1983) has noted that they can be related to changes in national attitudes, and are also constrained by the availability of national resources. The investigation of such a wide ranging topic is obviously a suitable area of study and many studies from a variety of disciplines have examined different aspects of leisure, recreation and tourism. One topic area which has received little attention, and is the focus of the present study, is the area of day trips and their related decision making. However, before attention can be paid to this particular topic, it is first necessary to examine the nature of leisure, recreation and tourism, and review the various approaches which have been taken in their study.

Footnotes

2 Short holidays are defined as a period away from home of at least 1 night and up to 3 nights for leisure activities.

The evolution of research into leisure, recreation and tourism

One of the most contentious issues in the study of leisure, recreation and tourism has been in the use of the terminology involved, and since some of the terminology is relevant to the present study it deserves some consideration here. A relatively early definition of leisure suggested that:

> *"leisure consists of a number of occupations in which the individual may indulge of his own free will - either to rest, to amuse himself, to add to his knowledge and improve his skills disinterestedly and to increase his voluntary participation in the life of the community after discharging his professional, family and social duties".*
>
> (Cosgrove & Jackson, 1972).

This rather grandiose definition in effect adds little to a standard dictionary definition, for example, that leisure is *"spare time provided by cessation of activities"* (Webster's Third New International Dictionary, 1981). Indeed an earlier and shorter definition may to be more usable, such as *"leisure may be defined as the time available to us when the disciplines of work, sleep and other basic needs have been met"* (Hookway & Davidson, 1970).

All of these definitions, while universal, remain inconclusive and it may be more realistic to observe that *"leisure is more readily experienced than defined"* (Patmore, 1983). A true understanding of the term leisure lies in the context with which it is used. Leisure can be related to the residual time spent after the needs of work and basic human functions are over, and may also be related to the activities being undertaken. Whatever definition is used (or combination) the

> *"differing concepts of leisure are important in any understanding of the role of leisure in society and in the life of the individual".*
>
> (Patmore, 1983).

It could be argued, therefore, that it is difficult to isolate a definition of leisure from the recreational activities with which it may

necessarily be involved. This is because recreation is often defined as embracing *'the wide variety of activities which are undertaken during leisure'* (Mathieson and Wall, 1982).

The problem of defining leisure is further compounded when consideration is given to the definition of tourism. Tourism clearly involves leisure and recreation but is also a "*spatial, social, economic and environmental phenomenon*" (Mansfield, 1987), in being;

> *"the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created for their needs"*
>
> (Mathieson and Wall, 1982).

With leisure, recreation and tourism so closely related there remains the problem of separating the activities and demands of tourists from those of participants in other forms of recreation and leisure. Indeed as *"tourism and recreation often share the same facilities"* (Mathieson and Wall, 1982) the demands and effects of recreation and tourism are closely inter-related. Burkart and Medlik (1974) see *"tourism represents a particular use of leisure time and a particular form of recreation, but does not include all uses of leisure time nor all forms of recreation. It includes much travel but not all travel."*

Because attempts to differentiate between tourism and recreation have only met with mixed success, Colton (1987) has suggested that researchers involved should study them in terms of a *"symbiotic interaction"* , but as yet no single approach could be said to have received full acceptance. Fedler (1987) has noted that *"leisure and recreation research has proceeded on the one camp, while tourism research has proceeded on the other"*. It is perhaps then that the *"development of multi-disciplinary research should be stimulated in order to come to a full understanding of the interrelationship"*, (Jansen-Verbeke and Dietvorst, 1987). As such it is without doubt that tourism, recreation and leisure are not the *"prerogative of any one discipline"*, (Mathieson and Wall, 1982) and approaches from geography, sociology or psychology may be equally acceptable. Each of these disciplines has contributed to work in this area. In

anticipation of an integrative approach which is universally suited, it is perhaps more useful to recognise simply that leisure, recreation and tourism is a *"multi-faceted phenomena"* and *"it will be up to future research efforts to define the leisure, recreation and tourism relationships and properly specify their order"*, (Fedler, 1987).

Although problems of definition occur, as well as other problems of theory and methodology, it is, however, relatively easy to defend leisure as a suitable area of study. For instance,

> *"If people spend as much time at leisure as they do at work, then the study of the distribution of recreational behaviour as an economic activity is as important to the geographer as the study of coalmining".*
>
> (Cosgrove & Jackson, 1972).

Whilst *"geographers have made substantial contributions to research and methodology in the field of leisure"* (Coppock, 1982) others, like Burdge (1974) have suggested that this study area could benefit more by being 'inter-disciplinary'. This would enable further justification of the study area to be more fully *'accepted as a legitimate and identifiable research area'* (Stockdale, 1987).

Although it is without doubt that there remains a *'substantial field for research enquiry'* (Glyptis, 1981), that it is necessary to defend leisure research as a separate field of study reflects the early stage of development. As Coppock (1982) has stated *'studies in this rapidly expanding field are at an early stage of development, that they lack a clear theoretical framework, that the subject matter is both highly diverse and lacking in soundly based data, and that the coverage of contributions has been somewhat haphazard".*

Currently, whilst it can be said that *'leisure, recreation and tourism are indeed interrelated'* (Fedler, 1987), topics vary in nature so widely that no integrative approach is possible. As such it is therefore likely that leisure research will remain *'pluralistic in terms of both theoretical orientation and empirical perspective'*, (Stockdale, 1987). However, some workers have begun to identify basic areas of research.

Glyptis (1981) states that much *"emphasis of past research has been on recreation, the active use of leisure"*. She identifies that recreation research has been concentrated in three distinct approaches, which remain useful for categorising recent research. The first approach is demand-orientated, consisting of home-based participation surveys, conducted at a national or regional level. An early example of this approach at a regional or sub-regional level was the study by Wall (1971) of car owners in Hull, where home-based interviews examined pleasure trip patterns from Hull to local resorts. Recent examples of similar surveys at a larger scale include the "National Countryside Recreation Survey 1984" (Countryside Commission 1985), "Leisure Destination Survey" (Applied Leisure Marketing Ltd., 1987) and "Sightseeing in 1986", (British Tourist Authority/English Tourist Board Research Services, 1987).

The second approach Glyptis identified is the resource - or facility-based study focussing on the usage and users of a particular site. One of the first of these which set a framework for future studies was a small scale study of Box Hill, Surrey by Burton (1966). In the decade following Burton's study, Elson (1977) calculates that as many as 500 questionnaire surveys have been carried out on the usage and/or users of particular sites, but he sub-divided these into *"descriptive studies, monitoring studies, case studies, site management studies, and planning studies"*. All however have a degree of commonality in that primary attention is paid to particular sites. Indeed Bardon and Harding (1981) have demonstrated the importance of site questionnaire surveys by analysing the Countryside Commission Research Registers, which shows that approximately *"20% of all entries used site-based questionnaire surveys"* (Bardon and Harding, 1981). A recent typical example of this type of survey was carried out at Sherwood Forest and Rufford Country Parks on behalf of Nottinghamshire County Council by the Countryside Commission (Locke, 1985). The aim of this survey was to enable the County Council to develop a data-base of information by which it could measure and subsequently monitor park use and *"to improve the way it managed and promoted its country parks"* (Locke, 1985).

Glyptis identifies supply inventories as a third approach which combined elements of the other two approaches to enable local authorities to see what facilities are available. A supply inventory approach is often useful in County Structure plans and two such examples are the Structure Plans of Dorset (1976) and West Sussex (1976) whose sections on recreation deal with what facilities are available, and recommendations are made on additional facilities. Other examples include the National Park surveys such as the North Yorkshire Moors National Park Plan (1984) which identified future policy based on a careful consideration of local facilities. Regional Tourist authorities have produced "supply inventories" in their "Fact Sheets" (British Tourist Authority/English Tourist Board Research Services, 1988) and in strategy plans (Southern Tourist Board, 1983). A final example of this type of approach is a study that could be termed a "present state survey" is by the Countryside Commission (Countryside Commission, 1982). Following concern over the nature of recreational use of the countryside, the Commission decided to monitor countryside recreation at a national level, through two home-based surveys in 1977 and 1980. This type of survey differs from the National Countryside Recreation Survey, (1984) (Countryside Commission, 1985), in that it was the first to undertake the development of a data-base to enable analysis of the level and frequency of participation in countryside recreation. It also allowed the Countryside Commission to note the effect of trends in the national economy on recreation participation.

Many of the studies referred to so far, take a geographical approach. Other areas of recreation have been researched concurrently by academics whose training was in sociology and psychology rather than geography. One such work area is the link between the family and leisure but more needs to be done in this area. Carlson (1979) noted that, *"little research or theory focuses on the interaction patterns associated with family recreation"*. Rapoport and Rapoport (1975) describe aspects of the family life cycle as a variable with which to predict or explain leisure activity, and their case study indicates that the amount of time devoted to leisure changes in the stages of the family life cycle. If leisure is accepted as being associated with the "family" and the "home", then in a wider context of leisure *"a fuller*

understanding of leisure behaviour demands rigorous enquiries into home-based leisure" (Glyptis and Chambers, 1982). They argue that scant attention has been given to leisure in the home, household or family arena, to challenge *"traditional concepts of leisure developed in the context of outdoor recreation"* (Glyptis and Chambers, 1982).

Leisure time activities have been seen by other researchers as meeting a psychological need. London et al., (1977) developed a method of clustering leisure activities which attempted to take into account individual personal differences. The general aim of this and other such studies (see Wahlers and Etzel, 1985) has been to provide *"knowledge about the needs of both users and non-users of leisure facilities ... to modify leisure services to maximise need fulfilment, and as a consequence, participation"* (London et al., 1977). In attempting *"to discover what people want from recreation, i.e. the needs themselves"* (Kassioimis, 1981) this type of research sees leisure as meeting a psychological need and that for some at least *"quality of life in this context may depend entirely on the quality of leisure"* (Burton, 1977).

Other research has focused on community satisfaction with leisure provision (Allen and Beattie, 1984; Beard and Ragheb, 1980; Francken and Van Raaij, 1981; Hawes, 1978; Tinsley et al., 1977). Empirical research has shown that community satisfaction is a complex area of study, but the extent to which individuals participate in leisure activities may be seen as a suitable predictor of overall community satisfaction (Allen and Beattie, 1984). As individuals use their leisure time in different ways, an allied research area is the study of leisure motivation (see Crandall, 1980; Beard and Ragheb, 1983). Individuals (and to the same extent households) seek leisure for different reasons, and the understanding of these reasons or motivations is an important aspect of leisure behaviour.

Just as the study of leisure and recreation has been approached in a variety of ways in terms of subject matter and the methodologies used, so the study of tourism has been approached in many ways. Often however, tourism studies have been conducted in isolation from leisure and recreation research. Until recently much research

involved with tourism has tended to concentrate on economic impacts (Mansfield, 1987). These include increases in foreign currency, the generation of income and employment, and socio-economic changes (Mill and Morrison, 1985). Mathieson and Wall (1982) see in this subject that there have been a *"disproportionately large number of studies examining the economic benefits of tourism"*. The reason for this is that governments have realised some of the positive economic advantages which can be experienced from tourism and have therefore encouraged such studies.

More recently there has been a growing realisation that one must balance the economic benefits of tourism against possible detrimental effects such as overcrowding, degradation of culture , social change and impacts on the physical environment. During the 1970s more studies developing an environmental, social or psychological perspective represented *"a reorientation of tourism research"* (Mansfield, 1987), and show that a diverse range of approaches have now appeared.

Research involved with the socio-psychological aspects of tourism have included a study by Crompton (1979) attempting to identify motives for pleasure vacations and arguing that the satisfaction of socio-psychological motives is more important to the tourist than the tourism destination itself. Young (1973) adopted a more environmental standpoint, arguing that *"there is a saturation level for tourism in a given locality or region, and if that level is exceeded the costs of tourism begin to outweigh the benefits"*. Other researchers such as Cohen (1972, 1979) have argued for the *"formulation of a sociological approach to tourism"* (Cohen, 1972).

Whilst these approaches begin to illustrate the diversity of the subject area, further evidence points to the study of tourism remaining *"highly fragmented"*, (Mansfield, 1987). Three examples selected from recent issues of the Journal of Tourism Management in 1986 emphasize this fragmentation.

At the general level, Krippendorf (1986) sees tourism as an integral part of the whole industrial social system with tourism inextricably

linked to work, habitat, recreation and life as a whole. At a rather less general level Haywood (1986) has considered the life cycle of a tourist area in terms of the detrimental effects of tourism on the physical environment over time. From this he argued that this need not necessarily be the case and that tourism planners need to evaluate the *"economic and political forces"* (Haywood, 1986) at play in an area with intelligent planning to prevent the stagnation of an area. At a more specific level, Phelps (1986) uses an empirical study of Menorca to assess the effect of secondary images of holiday resorts. By the use of discriminant analysis, it is concluded that the actual holiday destination is relatively unimportant in the choice of a holiday rather than factors such as the quality of accommodation. These three recent examples aptly illustrate the diversity of subject matter involved in the study of tourism, and in the methods of approach undertaken.

This diversity need not be a bad thing and Cohen (1979), in discussing a sociological approach to tourism, stated that *"tourism is not a sub-field of sociology"* and that *"diverse theoretical approaches can be applied to its investigation"*. Others have argued for a more multi-disciplinary approach (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Mansfield, 1987). The emphasis of economic studies and lack of multiple approaches has meant that few studies go beyond the measurement or monitoring of individual sites. Studies of a "predictive nature" are *"very much in the minority"*, (Bardon and Harding, 1981). Research studies of recreational behaviour at the PhD level have been few (Elson, 1979). As such it is not surprising that in a review of this subject area it is implied that *"there is a need for further work"*, (Bardon and Harding, 1981).

The main area where prediction has been attempted is in recreational travel patterns, (Elson, 1979). Spurred on by a need for *"understanding of the factors governing recreational trip generation and trip distribution .... and predicting the impact of recreational travel"* (TRRU, 1980), models involved with trip generation and trip attractiveness have been developed and evaluated (TRRU, 1980) to answer questions such as how many trips will be generated from a particular origin zone; and, what is the ability of each possible

destination area to attract trips. Research includes work by Wolfe (1972) who proposes an Inertia Model to better evaluate the distance-decay functions of recreational travel from a particular origin zone; and Cheung (1972) who attempted to develop a model to measure the attractiveness of a destination zone with his *"day-use park visitation model"*. In this, the park visitor figures were a dependent variable set against a list of *"explanatory variables*" which include population, distance, alternative recreational facilities and attractiveness. The model purports to explain *"91 per cent of the diversity in the dependent variable"* (Cheung, 1972).

Other researchers (Ewing, 1978; Flegg, 1976) have investigated such areas as trip distribution and recreational cost benefit. In reviewing various trip distribution models to interpret the *"origin effect"* Ewing (1978) argues that origin is of vital importance in the assessment of trip distribution. Flegg, (1976) in discussing methodological problems implicit in the evaluation of recreational benefits, has argued against the aggregation of data in the development of a recreational benefit model.

These examples are good illustrations of some of the modelling work carried out, however, the findings of these studies and similar work have been heavily criticised. The criticisms range from the inherent problems in the modelling process to a complete condemnation of the whole perspective. Miles and Smith (1977), for example, refer to major difficulties in measurement of attractiveness. Elson (1977) states that travel models are an *"over simplified conceptualization of the real world of recreational travel"*. In a later comprehensive review (Elson, 1979) he concludes that many researchers are aware of these problems and concludes that *"the conventional transportation modelling process is inadequate in its representation of the variety and character of recreation trip behaviour"*.

In any study of subjective human behaviour, it is perhaps not surprising that aggregate models have been widely criticized. In a large scale participation study Smith and Munley (1978) conclude that *"our results indicate that with a somewhat vague conception of the determinants of decisions, and the pretesting of decisions alone*

for selecting independent variables in conditional probability models, we may not be successful in understanding the full influences on individual behaviour".

Recreation involves so many activities that the analysis of recreational trips is more complex than is the study of journeys to work. For some the enjoyment is the travel itself and the day trip in the countryside has been described as a *"kaleidoscope of places visited and scenic experiences combining a range of natural and manmade resources"* (Duffield and Long, 1978).

In short, it has been shown that the models of trip generation and trip distribution are useful in understanding aspects of recreation at an aggregate level. However, *"conceptual and data deficiencies appear to leave many observed variations in behaviour unexplained"*, and as a consequence there is a strong need for work to focus on *"countryside activity and trip choice situations and decision making"* (Elson, 1979). This represents a different perspective in the explanation of patterns as of overt human behaviour, and in the following section this is examined.

The growth of a behavioural approach to leisure, recreation and tourism studies.

The origins of this shift to a cognitive-behavioural perspective are complex, but came from within the social sciences as a challenge to the theoretical constructs which prevailed with large aggregate data-bases and macro-scale models in the 1960s. Such models did not concern themselves with individual choices, and this led to *"a plea for a cognitive-behavioural approach which seeks to understand the decision making process of individuals with respect to their environment"* (Golledge and Timmermans, 1988).

It was out of a general dissatisfaction with such a reductionist approach that expression of behaviouralism came into being. Golledge (1985) identified seven elements in its initial origins;

a) *"the behavioural approach was an attempt to base the explanation of human spatial activities on a foundation of human behavioural processes;*
b) *it was an attempt to define models of man that were alternatives to classical economic rationality;*
c) *it was an attempt to discover kinds of environments other than that of objective physical reality and to interpret people's decision, choices, and behaviours in the context of these new (as well as more traditional) environmental representations;*
d) *it reflected a general surge of interdisciplinary interest in which boundaries between subject areas had become eroded and cross-disciplinary fertilisation took place;*
e) *it was an expression of dissatisfaction with the usefulness of large aggregate data-banks, reflecting a shift of interest from macro- to micro-scales of analysis;*
f) *it represented a new interest in the variability associated with man's activities, equally as much as in the conformity that was the focus of earlier research;*
g) *it represented a change of focus from the use of data collected by government agencies to the use of data sets collected by individuals using survey research procedures".*

A cognitive-behavioural perspective that delves into *"the complexities of behaviour"* (Gold, 1980) in leisure, recreation and tourism studies, does not appear, as yet, to have been widely utilised but some moves have been made in this direction. This may partly be because researchers from the various areas of the social sciences are working at a time of *"competing paradigms"* (Elson, 1979) and thus rigorous methodologies have yet to gain full acceptance. Elson (1979) has identified various shifts in the approaches of research into countryside trip making. These include the following;

- *"from an emphasis on aggregate level travel characteristics to explanation of the individual;*
- *from discussion of the problem as one of travel and facilities to one of the social and cultural predeterminants of leisure activity;*
- *from analysis of the trip maker as a 'rational' thinker to 'probabalistic' explanations;*
- *from the view that recreational travel is channelled by constraints to a search for rationales based on choice;*
- *from cross sectional correlational analyses of countryside trip activity using common profile variables to a search for the needs, motivations and values which underlay such summary indices"*

(Elson, 1979).

The application of such an approach to the studies of leisure, recreation and tourism may reflect a considerable opportunity to explain further situations which have not been possible by use of conventional modelling processes. There has since been a vigorous growth of behaviouralism which may be pronounced in *"rude health"* if *"simply judged by weight of publication"* (Goodey and Gold, 1985). But *"surprisingly, although there is a common interest, streams of research are relatively isolated"* (Golledge and Timmermans, 1988).

Perhaps one of the reasons why research adopting a behavioural perspective in the leisure field is rare is because the development of behaviouralism has been off-set by a *"growing atmosphere of schism and controversy"* (Gold and Goodey, 1984). There has certainly been

much criticism (Bunting and Guelke, 1979; Graham, 1976; Ley, 1981; O'Riordan, 1973; Svart, 1974; Tuan, 1975), ranging from *"blanket condemnation"* (Rushton, 1979), Bunting and Guelke (1979), to other views that *"the results of behavioural and perception research are of little value in the explanation of real-world human geographical activity"* (Bunting and Guelke, 1979). However, others leapt to the defence of behaviouralism (Downs, 1979; Saarinen, 1979; Rushton, 1979; Golledge, 1981), and, Saarinen (1979) wrote of the critics, *"I disagree with their generally negative assessment of the first phase of research in this field. Their assertions are too sweeping, their treatment is unbalanced, and errors abound".*

The criticisms levelled at behavioural approaches in general could be applied equally to the use of this approach in leisure, recreation and tourism studies. The *'bewildering variety'* (Gold and Goodey, 1984) of negative assessments appears to focus on two distinct areas. First there is concern on the links between behaviouralism and behaviourism, and secondly on the relationship between cognition and behaviour.

In connection with the first set of criticisms, the studies of behaviouralism and behaviourism must be seen as quite distinct. Behaviourism views *"human behaviour in terms of stimulus - response relationships in which specific responses could be attached to given antecedent conditions and in which cognitive processes, indeed consciousness itself, played little part "*(Gold and Goodey, 1984). However, such a reductionist theory of behaviour is contrary to the approaches mentioned at the outset (Gold, 1980; Golledge, 1985), and would seem to be *"precisely that brand of theory that behaviouralism seeks to replace"* (Gold and Goodey, 1984). Whilst few would dispute these definitions of the two approaches, there are those (Ley, 1981; Hall, 1982) who suspect that behavioural approaches within social science are to a certain extent derived from the traditions of behaviourism.

The second set of criticisms which Gold and Goodey (1984) identify are also the concern of others (O'Riordan, 1973; Svart, 1974; Tuan, 1975; Graham, 1976). Bunting and Guelke (1979) questioned the

validity of the methodologies used in typical studies at an individual level and cast doubt on any possible link between environmental image and perception and patterns of actual behaviour. This consequently raised the issue of whether such studies could be incorporated into *"geographers' legitimate interests"* (Gold and Goodey, 1984). Other problems associated with behavioural research have been raised. Golledge (1981) identified a problem in the *"variety of concepts"* from different fields of enquiry and a *"lack of concern with rigor in gathering data"*, (Golledge, 1981). Whilst behavioural and perceptual studies in geography and elsewhere have been given a *"mixed bill of health"* (Goodey and Gold, 1985), research continues in various behavioural fields from regional perception and the perception of urban form to the development of the child's spatial perception.

It was shown earlier that there are difficulties in the conventional transportation modelling process in representing all the complexities of recreational trip behaviour (Elson, 1979). Concern over the deficiencies in such modelling processes led to calls for more plausible models of recreation trip making. This might involve the examination of the social and economic characteristics of recreation trip makers and the constraints acting upon them, thereby perhaps becoming allied to a behavioural approach.

Several large scale surveys have in part utilised this rationale in the analysis of results (Patmore and Rodgers, 1972; Fitton, 1978). It is clear that numerous factors constrain recreational activities. Patmore (1983) shows that the *"physical constraints of season, climate and weather inhibit demand by curtailing the periods of time over which a particular resource can be used for the activity concerned"*. Moreover, there are biological and social constraints, which can be categorised into gender, age, occupation, income, car ownership and education. The concept of constraints has been described as a *"useful intermediate stage of analysis"* (Elson, 1979) and is undoubtedly useful. However, the complex socio-psychological, attitude, preference and choice factors remain unexplained.

A further development in understanding recreational behaviour has been the rationale of time constraints or time-budgeting, although there have been a few attempts to examine the time patterns of leisure activities. A full understanding of leisure time behaviour requires *"vigorous enquiries into home-based leisure"* (Glyptis and Chambers, 1982), but the analysis of leisure patterns within an individual's time budget are difficult and costly to measure (Burton, 1971). Nevertheless they emphasize the complexity of leisure patterns and there is a need to study home-based recreation in order to understand recreational behaviour out-of-the-home.

Whilst the study of physical, social, biological and time constraints are important, they can only be a partial explanation of the whole process of recreation trip-making. This is because once a household's constraints have been recognised - and perhaps the dominant constraint of lack of mobility has been overcome - then recreational activities may still proceed. Hence, at this stage there is still a need to understand recreational decision-making processes. When an individual household decides to overcome constraints and undertake out-of-home recreation the decision to visit a particular place on a day trip, for example, is the outcome of a choice among several potential destinations which are regarded as acceptable for the pursuit of the chosen recreational activity (Elson, 1979). In the following section approaches to the understanding of decision-making in the context of out-of-home recreation are discussed.

The understanding of decision making in a recreational context

The recreational decision making process has been shown to follow several stages. Mercer (1971) states that *"in simple terms, the process of making a decision involves following six steps:*

i) problem recognition
ii goal specification
iii) procedure selection
iv) information gathering
v) evaluation and choice
vi) implementation".

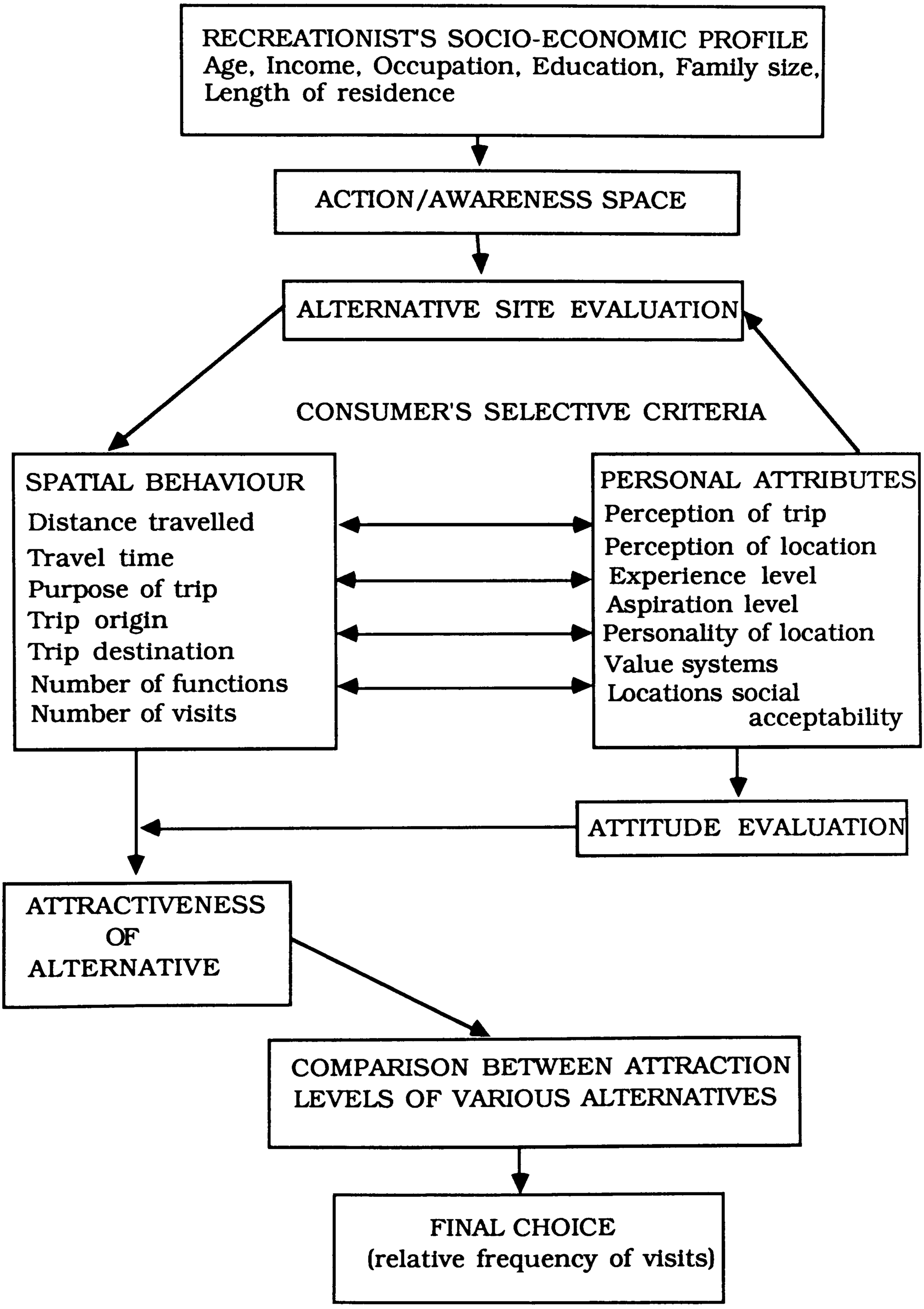
These stages may be *"conscious or unconscious"* and can be set against the physical, social and economic environment constraints in which the individual operates. It could be argued that these steps while logical could be applied to decision making generally in other contexts. Murphy (1975) however, developed a model for direct application to the "recreationist's decision making process" (see Figure 1).

This model consists of three sub-systems. First, the socio-economic profile of the individual includes factors such as income and occupation which may determine the amount of disposable money for leisure and the quantity of free time available for leisure pursuits. Secondly, the individual's spatial relationship to the recreation system is specified as travel and represents an extremely important part of many recreational activities. Finally, the cognitive attributes of the individual make up a third sub-system where the motivations or "goals" of the individual are of vital importance in understanding how recreational decisions are made.

Figure 1

Proposed model of a recreationist's decision- making process

(Murphy, 1975).



The decision making process behind individual choices of day trip destinations has also been examined by Aldskogius (1978) in a study of day trip behaviour in Sweden. The conceptual model developed for this is similar in nature to Murphy (1975) in terms of making a *"choice among several potential day trip destinations"* (Aldskogius, 1978), but it differs slightly in that attention is centred on two interdependent decisions. One determines the nature of the activity involved and the second selects the actual destination.

These models have many similarities, particularly in the spatial factors such as the location of the individual's permanent residence; the socio-economic factors including the limits of time constraints and mobility; and the personal characteristics which reflect individual needs, preferences and intentions. Consequently, a common theme of these models is that

> *"decision making in the context of repetitive recreational day trip behaviour is assumed to be characterised by cognitive rationality and satisficing behaviour".*
>
> (Aldskogius, 1978).

The same theme has been applied in the context of tourism trip decision making for trips involving larger amounts of time and money than day trips. Satisficing rather than optimizing concepts also appear important in tourist trips. Mathieson and Wall (1982) state that behavioural models of tourist decision making in which *"tourists acting rationally but on the basis of limited information, seek satisfactory rather than optimal experiences"* are common. They saw a sequence of five principal phases in this model:-

i) felt need or travel desire
ii) information collection and evaluation
iii) travel decisions
iv) travel preparations and travel experience
v) travel satisfaction evaluation

(Mathieson and Wall, 1982).

This sequential decision process is influenced by factors such as *"the tourist profile"*, *"travel awareness"* ,*"trip features"* and *"characteristics of destinations"*, (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). These are in turn affected by factors such as socio-economic constraints, needs, motivation, and attitudes. In this largely probabilistic random decision approach the decision maker attempts to satisfy rather than optimise travel benefits.

Summary

The spatial patterns of recreation activity reflect a *"multitude of individual decisions to visit particular places and to participate in specific activities"* (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). To understand recreational decision making one needs to adopt a cognitive-behavioural perspective (Elson, 1979; Mathieson and Wall, 1982) which can rectify the deficiencies of the normative, 'economic man', approach. Recreationists act rationally but on the basis of limited information about the environment as they perceive it, and seek satisfying as opposed to optimal or maximising experiences. They are also influenced by household constraints which play an integral role in mediating between spatial cognition and spatial behaviour. Indeed, Desbarats (1983) suggests that an approach that explicitly accounts for the effect of constraints must be utilized. Behavioural decision making is applicable in the understanding of how people reach decisions and act upon them (Rostron, 1972; Mathieson and Wall, 1982). In short, the study of the topic of recreational day trip behaviour is ideally suited to an approach which attempts to recognise the complexities of human behaviour, reflects the differences in an individual's or household's constraints, and pays particular attention to the decision making processes by which the selection of a destination amongst competing alternatives is made.

CHAPTER TWO

BACKGROUND AND AIMS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to examine what research has so far revealed of the nature of day trips by the investigation of several studies carried out at different levels of analysis. For convenience it is divided into four sections, beginning with the national context.

Day trips in a national context

The number of day trips undertaken within the UK has grown steadily since 1983 (Euromonitor, 1987). Findings from several recent reports on the growth of day trips are presented in the following sections, in order to understand the scope and nature of day trips within the UK. First, however the definition of a day trip is outlined to provide the basis for day trips referred to hereafter.

For the purposes of this study, and for ease of comparison the definition of a day trip is that used by the English Tourist Board (1983), namely:-

They are trips made by adults (aged 16 and over) and by accompanying children that start and end on the same day. They are trips from any base which is usually the home, but may equally be from a holiday address or occasionally a place of work, that are started from and ended at the same place or from work place to home and vice versa. They are not trips for business, regular work, education or the evidently non-leisure activities. All trips must last at least three hours and take place within Great Britain.

A major national survey of day trips was carried out by the English Tourist Board (1983) based on data collected in the summer of 1982. Its main findings showed that 600 million day trips were undertaken by British adults and accompanying children between June and September 1982, and over £1,650 million was spent on day trips during this period. At this time 39 million adults (92 per cent of all adults) in Great Britain undertook at least one day trip during the study period, while 20 million adults (48 per cent of all adults) took ten or more trips. 71 per cent of the trips were by car, covering an

average round trip distance of 39 miles. In terms of the activities involved with trip making, the study found that the majority of leisure day trips are based on visits to particular places or activities. These include visits to commercial and non-commercial outdoor centres and outdoor activities, heritage attractions, indoor entertainment (out of the home) and sport. The remaining trips related to visiting friends and relatives (13%) and general driving or touring (3%). These results are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3

Main day trip activities (Summer 1982)

ACTIVITY	MILLION TRIPS	% OF TOTAL
Heritage (Includes historic buildings, churches and museums).	49	8
Outdoor Non-Commercial (Parks, commons, picnics, walks, hiking).	81	14
Outdoor Commercial (Zoos, wildlife, theme parks, steam railway, fairs).	53	9
Sport (Taking part and watchings outdoor or indoor sport).	86	14
Indoor Entertainment (Theatres, cinema, pub, restaurant, disco).	147	25
Bathing/Sunbathing	47	8
Taking or Collecting Someone	24	4
Other Activities	8	1
Visiting friends & relatives (only)	80	13
General Tour or Drive Around	18	3
All Adult & Child Day Trips	593	100

Source: 'Leisure Day Trips in Great Britain', (ETB 1983).

The study also indicated the relative importance of the type of area to which day trips were made. Table 4 shows that inland towns or cities received more day trip visitors than seaside areas or villages.

Possible reasons for this are that there are more inland towns and cities to secure a higher incidence of trips to friends and relatives. They have more indoor entertainment centres, such as theatres and cinemas. The table demonstrates differences in the characteristics of day tripping activities from the home and from holiday accommodation. Day trips to the seaside were far more likely to be from 'holiday based' households.

Table 4

Type of location of day trips (Summer 1982)

Area	% All Trips	% Home-based Trips	% Holiday-based Trips
Inland Town/city	43	48	16
Seaside	25	19	56
Inland village	17	18	9
Open Countryside/farmland	7	8	4
Lakes/rivers/canals	4	4	6
Mountains/moorlands/hills	2	2	7
Woodland	2	2	3
	100	100	100

Source: 'Leisure Day Trips in Great Britain' (ETB, 1983).

The study by the ETB (1983) is one of the most comprehensive studies of day trips currently available. A more recent study of day trips undertaken from the home only was carried out by Applied Leisure Marketing Limited (ALM, 1987). Information for this study of day trips is based on a respondent base of 925. The main findings are not directly comparable to the ETB (1983) study, because results are grouped into different categories. For instance, in the context of trip frequency different categories are used which show that 27 per cent of respondents undertook six or more day trips during the 5 month survey period (April to August). This is shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Frequency of trips (April to August 1986)

No. of Trips	% of Respondents
Light trippers (1 or 2 trips)	32
Medium trippers (3 to 5 trips)	39
Heavy trippers (6+ trips)	27

Source: 'Leisure Destination Survey, Volume 2', (ALM, 1987)

There have been other surveys of day trip activity but the amount of information available is limited and the field has been described as *'not well documented'* (Martin and Mason, 1988). Notable among the other surveys is that by the Countryside Commission conducted throughout the whole of 1984 on countryside trips, (Countryside Commission, 1985). This survey found that 84 per cent of the adult population had visited the countryside at least once during the previous year, a figure that suggests that '*countryside recreation is an almost universal activity*' (Euromonitor, 1987). However, the majority of trips were made by a relatively small, keen section of the population, in that 68 per cent of all trips are made by 17 per cent of the people. The study also reveals strong seasonal and weekly variations. The total number of countryside trips ranges from 2 million on a typical winter weekday to 18 million on a Sunday in summer.

The Countryside Recreation Survey (Countryside Commission, 1985) evaluated what could be termed the socio-demographic constraints of countryside trips. Five aspects were found to be very influential on people's involvement in countryside recreation, namely car ownership, social class, housing environment, membership of a countryside organisation, and ownership of relevant equipment. Thus high frequency countryside trippers normally had a high living standard which allowed them to have the necessary resources and time, as well as an underlying interest in the countryside (Countryside Commission, 1985).

In the investigation of the recreational activities people pursue, the study found that whilst urban parks and the seaside are significant destinations, the countryside is by far the most important, because various activities such as drives, long walks, picnics, visiting friends and relatives in the country may be categorised as countryside recreation. It is interesting to note that specific sites managed for recreation, such as historic buildings, are less preferred. This is emphasized in Table 6, although it should be noted that the report combined urban activities with those in the countryside. It has been shown that *'people depend on the local countryside near to where they live for most of their trip making'*, (Countryside Commission, 1985). The Countryside Commission carried out similar surveys in 1977 and 1980. These surveys indicated that there had been a decline in the number of people visiting the countryside between 1977 and 1980 (Countryside Commission, 1982), but since then it has grown substantially.

Table 6
Urban and countryside recreation activities (1984)

Type of visit	
Park/Urban Open Space	20 %
Seaside Resort	11 %
Drives, Outings, Picnics	13 %
Long Walks	12 %
Visiting Friends/Relatives	10 %
Sea Coast	6 %
Informal Sport	8 %
Organised Sport	5 %
Pick Your Own	3 %
Historic Buildings	3 %
Country Parks	3 %
Watched Sport	2 %
Others	4 %

Source: National Countryside Recreation Survey,: 1984, Countryside Commission, 1985

Another group of day trip studies relate to visits to specific attractions. The British Tourist Authority and English Tourist Board have monitored admission figures to several thousand sight-seeing attractions in England, and statistics for 1987 have been published,

based on admission figures for 3,327 tourist attractions in England. Between 1986 and 1987 the report shows that there was an increase of 5 per cent in visits to a constant sample of sites, but taking in new attractions the overall increase was 6 per cent. Some sites increased their visitor numbers more than others. Within the overall rise was a 10 per cent increase in visits to historic buildings and wildlife attractions, an 8 per cent increase to gardens and a 3 per cent increase at museums and art galleries. A significant reason for the increases was a 21 per cent rise in visits by North American tourists.

Table 7

Attendances at the top 10 admission charged and admission free attractions in 1987

Admission Charged	('000 visits)	Admission Free	('000 visits)
Madame Tussaud's	2,439	Blackpool Pleasure Beach	6,450*
Alton Towers	2,300	British Museum	3,700
Tower of London	2,289	National Gallery	3,567
Blackpool Tower	1,523	Westminster Abbey	3,500*
Kew Gardens	1,336	Science Museum	3,166
London Zoo	1,304	Albert Dock	3,100*
Natural History Museum	1,291	St Paul's Cathedral	2,500*
Thorpe Park	1,060	York Minster	2,100*
Bembow Bros. Theme Park	1,000	Canterbury Cathedral	2,000*
Drayton Manor Park	972	Tate Gallery	1,725

* Estimated number of admissions

Source: Sightseeing in 1987, BTA/ETB Research Services, 1988.

67 new tourist attractions opened to the public for the first time in 1987, and these alone were responsible for the generation of 2,749,000 visits (BTA/ETB, 1988). The most popular attractions are shown in Table 7. It should be noted that the study went beyond the simple recording of admission totals for various types of attractions, by considering the problems of access, visitor capacity, admission charges, revenue, capital expenditure and employment as well as the regional distribution of tourist attractions.

Studies such as these have shown that within an overall growth trend, out-of-home recreation in recent years has seen shifts in patterns of participation with some forms of participation growing while others

decrease. A useful means of investigating this phenomenon is to examine three surveys of informal recreation undertaken by the Countryside Commission (1977, 1980, and 1984). All of these surveys, conducted on a national scale, have a degree of commonality making their comparison possible. Table 8 shows levels of participation in a range of informal activities during the summer months.

Table 8

Participation in selected informal recreation trips 1977-1984.

Type		% Participation (Summer) 1977	1980	1984
Urban parks & Open Spaces		36	38	39
Seaside resorts		34	23	32
Countryside		53	40	58
including	Drives/outings	41	26	41
	Long walks	19	17	23
	Coast	17	13	20
	Historic buildings	18	10	25
	Watched sport	5	9	10
	Zoos/wildlife	5	4	7
	Fishing	4	3	3
	Other sport	4	6	9

Source: Countryside Commission 1977, 1980, 1984.

The information provided in Table 8 is based on a survey of over 6,300 individuals aged between 12 and 75 years, conducted on three occasions so far; 1977; 1980 and 1984. Thus discussion can be based on actual shifts amongst this sample population.

Table 8 shows that between 1977 and 1980 several of these selected recreational activities suffered declines, probably as a result of the raised cost of motoring. Predominantly visits to seaside resorts fell by 11 per cent; the countryside by 13 per cent; and drives or outings by 15 per cent. However, by 1984 there had been a recovery in the percentage of people visiting these destinations. Visits to the countryside rose, for example, from 40 to 58 per cent between 1980 and 1984.

Not only were there fluctuations in the types of visit but also in the frequency of participation, thus, Table 9 uses information from the same surveys showing that the number of trips many people took fell between 1977 and 1980 and then recovered in 1984. The number of people not taking any trips rose from 47 to 58 per cent of the sample between 1977 and 1980 and then fell to 32 per cent in 1984. Over the same period the sample population taking more than 5 trips during the summer months doubled.

Table 9

Frequency of informal recreation trips 1977-1984.

	% of People		
Frequency	**1977**	**1980**	**1984**
Zero trips	47	58	32
1-4 trips	38	27	32
5 or more trips	15	13	26

Source: Countryside Commission 1977, 1980, 1984.

Many factors may have been responsible for this pattern. Gratton and Taylor (1987) suggest that declines in domestic holidays and rises in holidays abroad could be one cause for fewer day trips linked to the strong international value of sterling in 1984. The declines in day trips observable between 1977 and 1980 may also be attributed to the national recession at the time and a sharp rise in petrol prices during 1979. Another factor may also have been the better weather during the summer of 1984, causing an increase in that year. The reasons for the recovery in day trips by 1984, and their continued general increase, may also be related to the economy. By 1984 the British economy was slowly coming out of recession and domestic holidays as a percentage of all holidays had also risen from 19 per cent in 1977 to 23 per cent in 1984 (Gratton and Taylor, 1987). Fluctuations in the number and type of recreational day trips taken has been a characteristic of the 1970s and 1980s. Changes in patterns affect all age groups and social classes, but particularly the financially disadvantaged.

Day trips in a regional context: Southern England

The magnitude of day trips taken within the UK and their changing patterns suggest that there is a need for their closer examination, particularly of the individual decision-making that leads to the changing popularity of different types of day trip. In the context of the decision making processes few of the national surveys (ETB, 1982; ALM, 1987; BTA/ETB, 1988) go beyond a simple structured investigation relating to 'purpose of visit', because it was outside the remit of those surveys to go far beyond the measurement of visitor numbers and the like, and establishing reasons for visits requires a much deeper level of enquiry. In the case of the present study financial and time constraints meant that the topic could not be tackled at the national level. Thus it was decided that the spatial pattern of day trip activity, and decision making related to it could more realistically be studied in greater detail at the regional level.

The country has been divided into regions for many purposes, the most suitable region for this study would appear to be the Southern Tourist Board area for which information relating to day trip facilities is available. The Southern Tourist Board Region (STB) comprises Hampshire, the Isle of Wight, and six of the northern and eastern districts of Dorset (Wimborne, North Dorset, Purbeck, Bournemouth, Christchurch and Poole). Some 39 million nights were spent in the STB region by tourists in 1987, having a business value of £599 million (Southern Tourist Board, 1988).

As an indication of the importance of tourism in the region, in the 1980s this region generally accounted for approximately 10 per cent of all domestic holiday nights in the UK (STB, 1983; ETB/STB, 1988). In terms of its tourist resources the region has approximately a quarter of a million bed spaces which represents 10 per cent of the national total. Approximately 40 per cent of these are in serviced accommodation such as hotels and guest hotels, and the remainder are in self-catering establishments such as holiday flats or caravan sites.

The region's attractions for vacations and day trips are varied. For example, the Southern Tourist Board collects information from more than a hundred attractions and in 1987 it was estimated that they received some thirteen million visits (ETB/STB, 1988). The top twenty attractions in the region had some 4,891,040 visits in 1987 alone, as shown in Table 10.

Table 10
Visitor numbers to top 20 attractions in Southern Tourist Board Region, 1988

1	Needles Pleasure Park	600,000
2	Beaulieu House and Motor Museum	513,481
3	Paultons Country Park	372,930
4	Mary Rose Exhibition	362,105
5	Poole Pottery	307,000
6	Queen Elizabeth Country park	292,126
7	Compton Acres Gardens	280,000*
8	Marwell Zoo	248,052
9	Osborne House	240,149
10	Birdworld & Underwater World	220,000*
11	Robin Hill Zoo & Adventure Park	180,000*
12	Merley Bird Gardens	160,000
13	Carisbrooke Castle	152,459
14	Moors Valley Country Park	150,000
15	Corfe Castle	149,279
16	Studland	144,294
17	Shanklin Chine	134,000
18	Flamingo Park	130,000*
19	Broadlands House	128,475
20	Watercress Line	126,690

* Estimate
Source: Tourism Fact Sheets South of England BTA/ETB Research Services, 1988.

In addition to the attractions in Table 10 there are a further 137 with annual visits each in excess of 10,000 people and even these do not represent all attractions within the region. There are several others for which information is not available. Table 11 summarises the number of visits in 1987 for those attractions for which data is available.

Table 11

Number of visits by attraction type, Southern Tourist Board Region, 1987

Attraction Type	No . Attractions for which data is available	No . Visits 1987
Museums & Art Galleries	40	2,085,238
Historic Properties	25	1,923,196
Zoos & Wildlife	10	1,442,723
Gardens	6	572,376
Miscellaneous	20	2,252,695

NB: Includes some estimates
Source: Tourism Fact Sheets South of England BTA/ETB Research Services, 1988.

Apart from this range of attractions, more informal recreational activities are provided at country parks, forest trails, picnic areas, beaches, open countryside and woodland. Much of Dorset (both coast and countryside), as well as east Hampshire, the Isle of Wight and the south Hampshire coast are officially designated as Areas of Outstanding Natural Beauty. In the larger urban centres there are historic buildings with some in Poole, for example, dating back to the 12th century. Towns such as Bournemouth and Southampton are major shopping centres with good selections of art galleries, museums, theatres, concert halls, parks and open spaces. Amongst the region's attractive scenery and varied attractions there are several sites reflecting national heritage, military and maritime history which appeal to certain types of visitors. The Southern Tourist Board predicts further increases in day trips in the region from home and overseas as well as short breaks and conferences during the 1990s (Southern Tourist Board, 1983).

As for the national trends, the trends in day trips in the Southern Tourist Board Region during the 1980s have been characterised by annual fluctuations. In "A Strategy For The 1990s" (STB, 1983) personal disposable income, foreign exchange rates and unemployment were the main social and economic factors identified as affecting levels of tourist activity in the region. The effect of national events such as the petrol price rises between 1979 and 1981

led to a decline in visitor numbers to 33 attractions (STB, 1983), but overall the volume of day trips from home has risen in the 1980s. Fluctuations in day trip levels appear to be more susceptible to such external factors than are domestic holidays, which remains the mainstay of tourism in the region.

Table 12
Visits to selected historic properties 1982-1987

Historic Properties	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987
Beaulieu (PR)	501627	485682	487988	551879	500451	513481
Bembridge Windmill (NT)	23600	22218	23209	21938	22729	19096
Broadlands (PR)	218000	185000	160144	145122	137077	128475
Carisbrooke Castle (EH)	124300	132500	134271	159145	129987	152459
Hurst Castle (EH)	29800	29100	33024	33577	29446	33127
Jane Austen's House (TR)	27500	26000	26000	24902	25797	26391
Mottisfont Abbey (NT)	17400	19134	21282	25879	30511	28259
Osborne House (EH)	158500	168900	180990	209759	188255	240149
Portchester Castle (EH)	42600	50000	55544	49159	35525	43815
The Vyne (NT)	40100	46169	42150	41722	41042	43308

Key to Ownership/Administration/In Care Of
EH - English Heritage
NT - The National Trust
PR - Privately Owned
TR - In Trust

These trends and fluctuations in day trip activity can be illustrated by visit figures to various attractions within the region. For example, Table 12 displays the visitor figures to ten historic properties within the Southern Tourist Board Region. These examples are chosen because they have accurate figures for them for the six years between 1982 and 1987.

All ten sites reveal yearly fluctuations with seven having admission numbers which are higher in 1987 than they were in 1982. In only one case is the 1987 figure the highest number of visitors for these years. For instance, Beaulieu had its highest number of visitors in 1985, along with Carisbrooke Castle and Hurst Castle, whereas Broadlands had its peak year in 1982. Osborne House on the Isle of Wight had its best of these years in 1987. Detailed conclusions cannot be drawn from only six years of data but some of these sites seem to retain their popularity better than others. Thus whereas

Broadlands had its peak year in 1982 and has suffered a marked decline of some 41 per cent of its visitor numbers since, Jane Austen's House has attracted almost the same number of visitors each year.

Proposals for day trip research

Whilst it has been shown that studies at the national and regional levels indicates that there are discernible trends and patterns in day trips detailed interpretation of such trends is lacking. Gardner-Smith (1988) has noted that previous studies have tended to concentrate more on measurement than analysis, and even the recent large scale survey by Applied Leisure Marketing Ltd. (1987) already referred to, *"was not designed to examine why people take trips"*, (Gardner-Smith, 1988). Gerry (1988) has noted that *"operators in the leisure industry put too little effort into understanding consumer motivations. We have a growing volume of information on how many, who, and where, but know much less about why"*. Over a decade ago, Elson (1979) concluded that research was needed to understand *"the social situations in which decisions are made"* and identified a particular need for research on countryside trips as a family activity trip choice situations and decision making.

To understand why trips are made it is necessary to investigate decision making processes and this puts the emphasis on the study of human behaviour itself as outlined in Chapter 1. For many years behavioural research has attempted to explain various aspects of subjective human behaviour and this type of approach has proved appropriate in the area of leisure, recreation and tourism studies. The writer believes that the recreational day trip forms a useful topic of study in that it lies between the leisure activities at home at the one extreme and extended tourism vacations at the other. It forms an important part of the general area of leisure, recreation and tourism, but little is known as to why people go on day trips either when they are on holiday and staying away from home or when they are travelling from their normal place of residence.

To undertake this task, reference needs to be made to the following:-

i) the role of the family as a unit in day trip activities
ii) the social situations in which choices for destinations are made
iii) the decision making processes involved with destination selection.

Since the study of human behaviour is basic to this approach it is necessary to assume that:-

i) explanations should be founded upon human behavioural processes,
ii) human spatial activities arise from individual decisions, and therefore attention must be centred on the individual household rather than the aggregate level,
iii) destination choices may be made on the basis of limited information, and may reflect satisficing as opposed to optimizing experiences.

In summary, the examination and evaluation of recreational day trip behaviour seem ideally suited to a cognitive-behavioural perspective in order to see how the complexities of human behaviour and the differences between individual household social situations and constraints affect trip making. Particular attention also needs to be paid to the decision making processes which lead to the selection of one particular destination amongst competing alternatives.

Specific research aims

In order to reach some conclusions on day trip decision-making the thesis examines:-

a) The characteristics of day trip activity of a sample population of day trippers in the Southern Tourist Board area.
b) The socio-demographic background of households involved with day trips to assess the effect of various socio-demographic characteristics on the nature of their day trips.
c) The apparent reasons why a specific day trip was undertaken.
d) The patterns of household day trip behaviour over a longer time period.
e) On this basis household profiles are developed to enable investigation of the likely patterns of day trips made, and a new model of day trip decision-making is put forward to augment existing models.

In order to develop these themes of the research, the next chapter outlines the methodology of the fieldwork.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to develop a methodology suitable for the satisfaction of the research aims. First, the general nature of recreation site surveys is reviewed, followed by a discussion of alternative techniques and the method selected. As leisure, recreation and tourism are necessarily involved with people and their activities, appropriate methodologies have often sought information on these activities including such elements as the recreationist's frequency of participation, needs, motivations and opinions. As a consequence of the growth of recreational activities in recent years there has been a widespread use of questionnaire surveys in recreation and tourism research to obtain this type of information, (Burton, 1971). Consequently, site surveys have assumed increasing importance, these developments are now examined.

Recreation site surveys

The origins of the use of recreation site surveys within the UK are unclear. Burton's (1966) modest study of Box Hill, Surrey, appears to have been one of the earliest and very influential. This was followed by a surge of large scale participation surveys and household based surveys . Some five hundred were carried out between 1965 and 1975 (Elson, 1977). The surveys which were undertaken can be classified according to their principal purpose, and Elson (1977) identifies four main types:

a) Single-site studies: these are often descriptive, monitoring and site management studies. Several sites may in fact be covered in a study of this type, but they are not considered as a whole;
b) Planning studies: these include area studies, studies of designated countryside areas, and studies of recreation and its interaction with other countryside uses;
c) Predictive and modelling studies: these include the prediction of recreation demand, and the recreational 'value' of sites;
d) Research studies: these have been primarily concerned with the development and testing of hypotheses about recreation behaviour.

Full reviews of these various types of studies have been made by Elson (1977; 1979) and Bardon and Harding (1981). Early site surveys mainly fall into the first of the categories. A typical example is the study of sites in Worcestershire and Staffordshire by Duffell and Goodall (1969). This survey was comparatively innovative at the time by introducing simple hypothesis testing concerning the activities and preferences of visitors. The survey extracted data on visitors, their origins, group size and type, method of travel, activities, and preferences. Site studies have continued to be important as the information gained is vital for monitoring and planning. Some of the larger recent studies (Countryside Commission, 1985, British Tourist Authority/English Tourist Board Research Services, 1987, 1988) evidently have their roots in the simpler site surveys of the 1960s in that the same basic information is obtained, only now the methodologies differ in technique and scale.

Examples of studies that fall into Elson's (1977) latter categories are less widespread. Bardon and Harding (1981) have classified some of the work of the Countryside Commission (1973, 1979) into these categories, primarily on their predictive properties concerning future recreational demand. There is some justification for this in that the Countryside Commission continue to take measures to combat *'uncertainty about future prospects of leisure and recreation'* (Countryside Commission, 1982) by constantly carrying out research to *'monitor what is happening to countryside recreation at a national level'* (Countryside Commission, 1982).

The uses of varied survey methods in sites studies has been well documented (Oppenheim, 1966; Moser & Kalton, 1971; Hoinville and Jowell, 1978; Marsh 1982; Bailey, 1987) but in most cases these texts consider general survey methods rather than those specific to recreation. On-site recreation surveys are then a single type of application within a larger topic area of survey research. Nevertheless the benefits of general social survey methods are as applicable to recreation surveys as any other type of survey.

In a general context Hoinville and Jowell (1978) state that *'systematic sample surveys can give more accurate measurements of a*

population's characteristics, attributes and behaviour patterns than could be obtained by casual observation'. Further, Moser and Kalton (1971) conclude that, *'the value of social surveys has also been established beyond all question and in widely different fields'.*

These general comments are applicable to recreation surveys in that basically such surveys are able to gain the opinions of individuals who would perhaps be neglected by other methods. There are scientifically accepted principles governing the use of surveys to gain representative information about a larger population. Within recreation, surveys are useful for planning or management purposes in the examination of patterns to assist in future needs or alternative opportunities and in the simple measurement of carrying capacities. Beyond this, survey methods can be utilised within the field of recreation in the appraisal of the social or economic benefits derived from recreation. In this particular area of study much of the subject matter is of a subjective nature and particular interview techniques may be applied to maximise the accurate collection of data on areas such as behaviour, perceptions, preferences and attributes. The nature of survey research therefore enables the development and testing of hypotheses and models and thereby helps *'to establish a closer relationship between theory and practice'* (Bardon and Harding, 1981). In theoretical terms there is much literature to assist in the design of surveys (Oppenheim, 1966; Tourism and Recreation Research Unit, 1983).

On-site recreation surveys can assist as a public-relations exercise. With a well designed questionnaire and trained interviewers, the respondent can be left with a sympathetic feeling towards a governing authority. In addition, the interviewee may be informed about pending proposals or existing management strategies. Finally, on-site surveys in recreation can be flexible in both the nature of the survey and the way in which it is carried out. Adaptations can be made to suit budget and time constraints and yet ensure that sufficient is learnt to meet survey needs.

The advantages of site surveys have certainly led to their widespread acceptance and they *'will continue to be of major importance, in*

recreation and tourism research' (Bardon and Harding, 1981), yet the survey approach is not without its problems and shortcomings. Specific problems such as their cost can be addressed and this is often a problem for the individual survey. However, concerns of a more general character exist. Some surveys are inconclusive and poorly designed. As Oppenheim (1966) illustrates, *'survey literature abounds with portentous conclusions based on faulty inferences from insufficient evidence wrongly assembled and misguidedly collected'.* Hoinville and Jowell (1978) indicate that *'so many unseen factors can affect the accuracy of a survey that its validity must be demonstrated rather than accepted as an act of faith'.* In short, not only do surveys need to be well designed but the results need to be interpreted in the context of inherent social and environmental conditions. Within the survey design, a particular problematical area is that of sampling. *'Sampling is probably the most neglected area of site survey design but the selection of the sample is of paramount importance if the results of the survey are to be accurate and reliable'*, (TRRU, 1983).

Overall, whilst there are difficulties in operating a site survey, it has been suggested that, as long as surveys attempt to *'apply scientific disciplines to the measurement of social phenomena'* (Hoinville and Jowell, 1978) they can be an invaluable tool to the social researcher. Within the Social Sciences this type of empiricism can enable explanations of social structures and processes, but the findings of an empirical study must be related to precise hypotheses. With this in mind surveys *'provide a context for better informed judgements and better directed decisions'*, (Hoinville and Jowell, 1978).

Site survey proposal and techniques

If one is to understand day trip decision-making it is necessary to gain information direct from site users relating to the characteristics of the trips, frequency of visits, socio-demographic aspects of the persons concerned and their attitudes. As such it was felt that site surveys were more applicable than random household surveys in the present study because:-

i) Respondents interviewed at a site had made a decision to visit the site on the survey day and the factors involved with their decision would be relatively easy for them to remember.
ii) It would be possible to ask respondents why the particular site had been selected above other alternatives.
iii) Households and groups could be easily observed and questions could be directed to individuals most suited to answer about their groups.
iv) High response rates could be achieved by directly approaching people on site.
v) A range of different types of site could be utilised, thus reflecting a range of recreational activities within the study region.

The alternative, the use of household surveys, was considered as being simpler to design and in terms of sampling. Both non-users and potential users of recreation sites could be contacted (Smith, 1983). But a random household survey demands a larger sample size, there are problems of recall about recreational visits, and low response rates are likely. These disadvantages of household surveys were particularly influential in the eventual decision to select a site survey approach.

It was realised however that 'on-site' surveys have certain disadvantages:-

i) Expectations of the recreational experience before arriving on site might be distorted by the eventual experience.
ii) Administration and selection of the sample selection poses difficulties.

iii) Non-users are missed.
iv) Small sample size may limit the ability to generalise about day trip characteristics (Smith, 1983).
v) Requires respondents to give up some of their leisure time to answer.

These possible disadvantages can however be minimized. First, in that the site survey would be related to the decision-making processes determining site selection, views concerning the quality of the individual site were not considered of upmost importance. Further, respondents could be approached on their arrival, so as to determine reasons for their choice. By doing this on arrival reasons for site selection would be most easy to ascertain, as their experience of the visit could affect the accuracy of answers in this context. Secondly, it was felt that problems associated with administration and sampling were not insurmountable because reference could be made to suitable published material (TRRU, 1983; Fink and Kosecoff, 1985) to ensure the sample was a fair one. Thirdly, the fact that non-users were missed was again not seen as being of critical importance, because the survey was to determine the actual decision-making processes of site users. However, this factor did indicate the need for a second follow up survey of a longitudinal nature to understand more about the sequence of trips. Fourthly, pilot surveys demonstrated that respondents were prepared to answer questions and more likely to give up leisure time on-site to answer questions than at home. Finally, any survey is done in the absence of perfect knowledge of a subject area, and must address its own limitations. However, every effort was made to minimise the difficulties by pre-testing and reference to published material.

The main techniques used to collect data in other recreational site surveys has included mechanical techniques, observation techniques, and questionnaire techniques (TRRU, 1983). Other less commonly used types of information gathering utilise mail questionnaires and telephone interviewing.

For an initial survey, mail questionnaires are not suitable to gain information about sites within a region. Whilst a large geographical

area can be covered, low response rates must be expected. As an alternative to a household survey however, there are some advantages in mail questionnaire, but the detail required of the proposed survey, the accuracy of answers necessary, and the need for a high response rate, led to this technique being rejected at this stage.

Telephone interviews have grown in popularity in the 1980s (Bailey, 1987), in that they have been shown to be suitable for quick, short social surveys such as in opinion polls. However, as an initial method of data collection this technique was also deemed inappropriate for the purposes of this research. The anonymity inherent with this technique as a first contact would tend to discourage the individual from answering questions related to household characteristics. In addition, the use of a telephone eliminates the value of a checklist or visual materials to help probe how recreational trip decisions are made. Prompt cards, which have been widely utilized in recreation research would be difficult to explain over the telephone. Further, it was felt that the respondent would be less interested with a telephone interview and might become distracted by other activities in the home, and consequently the essential rapport between interviewer and respondent would be severely hindered. Thus whilst there has been growing acceptance of telephoning in social research a site survey approach was selected for the reasons outlined earlier. Thus the techniques utilised in site survey research now need to be discussed.

Mechanical techniques such as traffic counters, people counters, aerial photography or time lapse photography, can be useful in site surveys for measuring such aspects as level of site usage. However, as the nature of this survey was to go far beyond simple measurement of numbers these techniques were not considered viable. Observational techniques such as manually recorded observations, dispersion surveys, turnover surveys and limited counts have many advantages for the measurement of site density. Whilst several aspects of day trip decision-making might be obtained in these ways the relatively low level of information provided led to the rejection of these techniques.

Personal interviews conducted on-site was the method of data acquisition finally chosen for an initial stage of the site survey. The interviews would be controlled by the use of a questionnaire. The main advantages of an interview technique in this context are as follows:-

a) It provides a satisfactory level of information. An interview allows the interviewer to meet the respondent which is probably the most effective way to enlist co-operation. (Fowler, 1984).
b) The rapport developed between the respondent and the interviewer would also be of assistance in the use of any follow-up survey using a different technique.
c) The interview allows the use of a variety of question types. Open-ended questions are particularly useful in probing to gain sufficient detail and to enable the respondent to qualify or elaborate on an earlier response or to crystalize their views on a particular issue.
d) The interview offers advantages of administration. This includes answering structured questions, probing for adequate answers, ensuring the accuracy of complex instructions or sequences (Fowler, 1984).
e) The interview permits the use of multi-method data collection, and allows the interviewer to enhance both the accuracy of answers and rapport by use of observations, prompts, visual clues, and self-administered sections. (Belson, 1986).
f) It ensures that high response rates are achieved. Low response rates bias the sample towards 'responsive' individuals which may invalidate any conclusions.

Despite the wide ranging advantages which this approach presents, there are several disadvantages:

a) The number of interviews is limited by the time constraints of the interviewer and respondent.
b) Extra transport costs are involved, although these were minimised by conducting all interviews within the study region.
c) Interviewing bias may occur by unnecessary prompting which can affect the response of the interviewee. Every effort was made to

reduce this. Consistency was also maintained by the writer conducting all interviews at each site and by adopting a uniformity of dress.

Questionnaire design

There is a considerable amount of literature within the general area of social or marketing surveys to assist in the design of questionnaires (Oppenheim, 1966; Moser and Kalton, 1971; Hoinville and Jowell et al., 1978; TRRU, 1983; Fink and Kosecoff, 1985). Since *'no survey can be better than its questionnaire'* (Moser and Kalton, 1971) considerable time was spent in deciding what to include in the survey.

Several draft versions of the questionnaire were developed at this early stage, from which the final form emerged. After gaining comments and criticisms a pilot questionnaire was developed for the purposes of testing. After revisions at the pilot stage a final version was printed for use throughout the survey period.

The relevant literature emphasises the necessity for conciseness, clearness and relevance with regard to question design (Moser and Kalton, 1971; Belson, 1986). The TRRU Recreation Site Survey manual gives useful examples of different types of questions, whilst Fink and Kosecoff (1985) provide examples of particular words which can be ambiguous in meaning or interpretation in interviews. The writer examined each question for evidence of ambiguity, and this was further tested at the pilot stage.

The questionnaire consisted of a mixture of structured questions, open questions and rating scales;

i) Structured Questions
Questions which were structured with pre-set answers provided a uniformity of information across the different sites where interviewing took place. This was particularly useful for questions relating to the socio-demographic characteristics of respondents and would facilitate the use of quantitative analysis.

In addition, structured questions enabled the interviewer to have a clear format to the interview, and prevented its deterioration into a friendly discussion.

ii) Open-ended Questions:
Open-ended questions were also used to allow the interviewer to develop issues raised in structured questions. Some of the information obtained in this way did not lend itself easily to quantitative analysis but nevertheless was of vital importance. Open questions at certain stages of the interview allowed the respondents to elaborate their own ideas, and this appeared to assist in maintaining interest.

iii) Rating Scales:
A selection of rating scales was used to add depth to some of the open questions by asking how strongly a respondent felt over particular issues. It was found that the ability to give a numerical value to various judgements both eased the difficulty of answering certain questions and probably enhanced the accuracy of answers.

Each of these question methods has problems. Structured questions limit the number of possible answers to those which essentially are the researcher's 'a-priori' assumptions. It may also be the case that respondents may answer a structured question inaccurately because there is no suitable answer which properly applies. However, some straight forward questions are best answered in a structured fashion; careful pre-testing of questions can minimise these effects.

The problems of open questions mainly result from the information they provide which is not comparable with that from other respondents. Worse, it is possible that the respondents may not understand the questions and answer in a way which is wholly irrelevant. Similarly the use of rating scales requires careful design. Extreme values can upset an individual's own perceptions, and cause him to misuse the scale. It was therefore most important to state exactly the frame of reference for each question which utilized a rating scale.

The advantages and limitations deemed important for each type of question was critically evaluated before use, in order to get a combination of question types which provided a degree of flexibility in the operation of the interviews. The order of questions was carefully tested because it is important for the respondent to understand and appreciate the nature of the interview and the direction in which questions are leading. Clear instructions were read out to each respondent at the start of the interview. Sensitive personal questions were left to the end to allow time for rapport between interviewer and respondent to develop.

Pilot site survey

Much pre-testing and a pilot survey before the main site survey data collection period was undertaken during May/June 1987. As Fowler (1984) states, *'every questionnaire should be pre-tested, no matter how skilled the researcher'*. The purpose of the pilot stage can best be discussed under three headings; questionnaire design, interview techniques and practicalities of survey operation. Specific factors within each category will be mentioned.

1. Questionnaire Design

i) The pilot survey can help to ensure that the sequence of questions are logically arranged, and can test the validity of each question (Moser and Kalton, 1971). To enable a more logical sequence of questions to be developed it was decided to run from a general level of factual, easy to answer questions which better captured the respondent's interest, through to more specific questions. Some questions at this stage were dismissed as their inclusion proved invalid, or the respondents were not able to answer them accurately.

ii) The pilot survey also tested the effectiveness of the structure of questions; filters; skip instructions; and coding procedures (Hoinville and Jowell, 1978).

It became clear that instructions and the introductory statement of the survey needed refinement. This was finally achieved by having all instructions written out on the questionnaire itself with the introductions necessary to invite the respondent to take part. The pilot survey also enabled a better layout of questions to help later coding. A copy of the questionnaire is laid out in Appendix 1.

2. Interview Techniques

i) Length of Interview

Every effort had been made in the design of the questionnaire to keep the length of the interview in check and this particular aspect provided very few problems. Although the questionnaire was considered to be at the maximum length for an on-site survey, respondents seemed quite happy to complete the interview, and most interviews took fifteen minutes.

ii) Test use of language

This particular aspect of questionnaire design is closely related to the design of the questions. In general the language used appeared to be satisfactory. In some instances, in the interest of brevity, the language had used words which were too lengthy, and these points were adjusted. Further, the use of phrases to encourage respondents to discuss various aspects raised from questions were also tested. To avoid 'don't know' answers, respondents were not offered this as a category. Alternatively, a 'no opinion' category was available and this encouraged respondents to consider the question posed in greater detail. In many instances this led them to give a more positive answer rather than take the 'opt-out' category. As others have found, to admit to having 'no opinion' appeared far more difficult than simply stating 'don't know', (Converse and Presser, 1986).

To assist respondents to comment on open questions it was found that a direct approach was most successful. At a practical level this meant for example, that the respondents were asked 'what are the

additional facilities needed' rather than 'are there any additional facilities needed'?

3 Practicalities of survey operation

One major aspect of the pilot survey previously not considered in detail was the fact that the site survey approach would allow contact with both residents and non-residents of the study region. By definition a day trip may be initiated from a holiday address or the home (ETB, 1983). Thus, people who were not resident in the study region may legitimately be on a day trip either while on holiday in the region or as residents from outside the study region. They should be classed as valid respondents just as were respondents living in the region but day tripping on holiday obviously differs from that undertaken from home, and it was felt that this distinction would provide a useful element of analysis. As such however, the questionnaire needed to be adjusted to clearly indicate the nature of the respondent's residence. Despite this, other questions were equally applicable as the nature of decision-making itself was the focus of the survey.

The findings of the pilot survey in terms of actual operation suggested that few problems would occur. The operation and management of questionnaires on site, together with the necessary contact with the organisations involved with the sites proved satisfactory. The pilot survey also helped plan other procedures such as the number of interviews that could feasibly be undertaken in a day. The response rate for the pilot survey was found to be 100%, and a high response rate was therefore expected in the main survey.

Initial trial interviews were carried out during the various stages of questionnaire development amongst colleagues. Following this twenty five face to face interviews were carried out at the Upper Hamble Country Park, Hampshire. For the purposes of the pilot survey this site represented a typical country park, similar to many others within the study region. These interviews were successful in that the changes necessary, outlined above, were easily incorporated.

Following the success of the pilot survey the sampling needs were focussed on two areas. First, because a site survey approach had been opted for it was necessary to develop a justifiable method of selecting a suitable range of sites for the surveys. Secondly, a sampling frame would need to be developed for the actual operation of the interviews at the selected sites. These two areas of sampling will be discussed separately.

Method of site selection

The initial method of site selection was to consult available sources to develop a comprehensive resource base of day trip facilities within the Southern Tourist Board Region. The main sources included the Southern Tourist Board's own fact sheets, pamphlets at Tourist Information Centres and various documents and lists produced by Hampshire County Council Recreation Department. What this amounted to was a basic list of all sites which had a minimal degree of management and also had definable boundaries. Thus open countryside, like areas of the New Forest could not be included, nor could stretches of beaches. By this means a possible 177 sites were identified.

It was felt that sites located on the Isle of Wight could not easily be compared to sites on the mainland. For instance the extra expense of travelling to the Isle of Wight meant that a household living in Hampshire was more likely to remain within car travelling distance on a day trip rather than incur the extra expense of a sea crossing. Thus to ease comparisons and to make the survey operation more straight forward the Southern Tourist Board region was further reduced to a smaller spatial unit, hereafter known as the sub-region. The sub-region comprised of three structure plan areas. As only part of Dorset is included in the Southern Tourist Board Region, one structure plan area, East Dorset, was selected to cover that area. As the whole of Hampshire lies within the Southern Tourist Board Region, two structure plan areas, the New Forest and South Hampshire, were included.

The effect of limiting the area of study to the defined sub-region was to reduced the number of possible recreation sites to 68. Given that the purpose of the site selection was to investigate decision-making processes, characteristics of the actual site were of less importance than the range of sites available. In terms of actual site selection it was decided to select a range of sites which would best reflect the various day trip possibilities of the sub-region. As such, a range of criteria was developed to help in this selection procedure so that each site would have different characteristics based on these criteria.

The site criteria considered were:

1 Site ownership, whether by a local authority, The National Trust or privately owned sites.

2 Sites which fall into various categories of the Southern Tourist Board attractions, namely; historic, wildlife, gardens, museums and miscellaneous.

3 Admission charges.

The intention was to choose sites that differed from each other in one of these criteria. In terms of visitor figures to possible sites it was realised that these would also vary but it was decided that each would have at least 10,000 visitors a year. For practical purposes a minimum of four sites were needed to cover the specified criteria. It was also decided that four sites were the correct number in terms of a satisfactory sample size at each site achievable by the researcher. Permission for conducting the survey had finally to be obtained from various sites, and the following four were therefore selected:

i) Kingston Lacy:

A property owned by the National Trust and located in the East Dorset Structure Plan area. The site represents an historic property with gardens and high admission charges for non-National Trust members, (£3.50 per adult). The number of visitors for 1986 was 108,284.

ii) Upper Hamble Country Park:

This is a large informal country park to the north east of Southampton, within the South Hampshire Structure plan area. It contains a mixture of farmland and woodland, with frontage to the quiet upper reaches of the River Hamble, covering 161.4 hectares in total. As such, it is an example of a miscellaneous attraction type category, where a minimal car parking charge of

50p is made. The number of visitors for 1986 was estimated at 300,000.

iii) Hampshire Farm Museum:

Located near Botley, within the South Hampshire Structure plan area. This is a museum site, administered by the local authority, with car parking charges of 50p, and entry charges of £1 per adult. The number of visitors for 1986 was 54,593.

iv) New Forest Butterfly Farm

Located near Ashdown in the New Forest Structure plan area, the site is a privately owned wildlife attraction. Admission is charged at £2.50 per adult and the number of visitors in 1985 was 138,000. (Figures for 1986 were not available).

These four sites represent a range of the attractions available in the region in terms visitors numbers and types of management. In addition, the layout of each site has distinct boundaries and a car park where interviews could take place, this eased the operation of the survey and was consistent at each site.

Method of conducting the site survey

Following the selection of the four sites it was necessary to plan the procedural arrangements for the actual surveys. Attention was paid to the sequential stages suggested by TRRU (1983);

i) Selection of Survey Days

It was decided that all interviews would be carried out during late July, August and early September of 1987, that is entirely within the school holiday period. This would mean that the sites would be at peak use. Bank holidays were avoided as it was not possible to interview at all sites on a particular bank holiday. A sample frame was developed so that the number of interviews conducted at each site fell equally over weekday and weekends. In addition, a 'rolling

programme' of surveys was developed so that each site had an equal number of survey days at the start, middle and end of the school holiday period.

It has been indicated in the literature that the minimum number of survey days for a summer season site survey should be eight, equally divided between weekdays and weekends (TRRU, 1983). This avoids daily fluctuations. A total of ten survey days for each site in this survey was decided upon. After discussion with site personnel, the duration of the survey day at each site was established as from 12:00 to 17:00 hours.

ii) Selection of Respondents

Only persons who were visiting the site for recreation purposes were deemed acceptable for interview. In that no information existed which could be used to calculate a realistic weighting to ensure that each group of visitors was adequately represented, random sampling was employed based on a next-to-pass technique. This method minimises interviewers bias, in that the interviewer has no choice over who to interview next.

iii) Location of Interview and Timing

As the decision-making processes involved with day trips, was the focus of the interview, the location of the interview point within the site was of crucial importance. It was felt that the nature of answers relating to the decision-making undertaken by respondents could vary if they were interviewed on arrival, during or on completion of their visit. Whilst it has been shown that as visitors leave is the most suitable time to interview (TRRU, 1983), it was felt this was not appropriate for this study. This was because respondents may forget or alter their answers relating to their decision to visit the site, in the light of the visit itself. Thus the method adopted was to interview, using a next-to-pass technique, as visitors arrived on site. The most suitable place for this to occur at each site was the car park. Visitors to the site were therefore approached on arrival before their first

impressions of the site could affect the accuracy of their answers relating to how they had decided upon the site visit.

Sample size

Selecting the size of sample is thought of as one of the most important questions relating to site surveys, (TRRU, 1983). With an inadequate sample size sampling error can seriously affect the way in which results can be used. Despite this it is commonly acknowledged that '*deciding what sample size to use is almost always a matter more of judgement than of calculation*', (Hoinville and Jowell, 1978).

In statistical terms, the most suitable method of sampling is a random one. Random sampling allows a researcher to choose a sample that represents the various characteristics of a population and to mathematically assess aspects of it such as standard error in statistical terms (Fink and Kosecoff, 1985). In some instances, however, random sampling techniques are difficult to operate because considerable information is required about the total population concerned in order to develop an accurate sampling frame. Glyptis (1979) points out that '*such a framework is not available at a recreation site*' and therefore a truly random selection process is not possible.

Alternatives to random sampling have included quota sampling as used by Burton (1974) at Cannock Chase. The aim of this is to attempt to represent spatial variations but this was not applicable in the present study. This is because in attempting to evaluate the decision making processes involved it is perhaps of greater importance to interview on arrival to maintain consistency rather than during the visit.

As random sampling was not possible, sample size could not be determined by use of standard error formulae. Thus alternatives were investigated to try to maintain both adequacy of the sample in terms of actual numbers and a best estimate to its representativeness. Practical criteria were developed in an attempt to reduce bias and

determine sample size. This centred on the minimum number of observations needed for statistical validity in the analysis of results by non-parametric tests such as chi-square. For example, variables comprising of four or five elements could easily constitute a twenty cell table when cross-tabulated, requiring a sample size of two hundred if a minimum requirement per cell was arbitarily set at ten observations, (Glyptis, 1979).

This was set as a guideline and as an absolute minimum so that the resultant sample size was set at 200 persons per site, thus giving a total of 800 interviews to be conducted. This was also considered the maximum achievable within the relatively short survey period available and within the financial constraints of the study. It was felt that sample sizes of this order would provide adequate information for this part of the study.

The follow-up diary survey

Interviewing respondents at a particular site on a survey day has several limitations. The pilot survey at the sites showed that the period of recall relating to other trips was only about four weeks. Beyond that answers became inaccurate so that only a limited amount of information could be obtained from each respondent on trip decisions over recent weeks. The site surveys at the four sites could only provide a limited understanding of some of the characteristics of other day trips within the study region and the context of those trips in relation to the socio-demographic constraints acting upon households. Because little information could be gained about other day trips taken by the same household over a longer time period, there seemed to be a need for a follow-up survey of a longitudinal nature. Diaries appeared to be the most satisfactory method to achieve this.

The use of diaries in social surveys appears to have had a mixed reception. Some have criticised them in that reliance is placed on respondents to complete the questionnaire, aided only by written instructions. Further there is often only an introductory letter to motivate people to complete and return the questionnaire and thus

low response rates can be expected (Hoinville and Jowell, 1978). Such criticisms may be equally true of any self-completion or mail questionnaire, and further problems such as authenticity, representativeness, and design may also be important. Indeed Oppenheim (1966) concludes that *'the diary technique is attended by so many difficulties that it will only be used when requirements can be met by no other way'*. However, where there are problems of recall, such as in the case of day trip activities, the choice of survey method *'depends on the subject matter, and in particular, on the ability of respondents to recall accurately the necessary details of the information required'*, (Moser and Kalton, 1971). In this instance, *'diaries can represent a valuable source of information'*, (Stacey, 1969) especially as the nature of such an approach allows the *'avoidance of reliance on memory'* (Moser and Kalton, 1971).

In terms of the present survey, a diary approach which would take account of these various limitations was thought well suited to provide details of day trips. The diaries would provide information relating to trips taken outside the survey period and four selected sites, thus illustrating the extent of day tripping of selected households over an extended period. They would show the extent and variety of day tripping so that the context of differing types of day trips within households could be established.

Adopting this method depended on asking respondents during the site survey if they would participate in a longitudinal study and agree to complete the diaries. The pilot study indicated that on average half of the respondents would agree. Only respondents actually resident in the study region were to be approached for this so that suitable comparisons could be made between them. In fact initially 177 out of the 292 respondents living in the area agreed, and 77 completed a minimum of two diaries, representing a 26.4 per cent response rate.

A major problem with this method was in the self-selection process. A self-selected household that offered to keep a diary may not be representative in terms of the demographic characteristics of the sample population. Thus the representativeness of a self-selected

sub-group of the total sample population could only be established at a later date. Nevertheless, it was felt that information from the site surveys combined with that of household diaries would offer both depth and a run of data on trip decisions and thereby satisfy the aims of the study. Using the opportunity of the site survey interview to explain the nature of the diary survey, followed by a letter to volunteers shortly afterwards, allowed the problem of low response rates for such a survey approach to be avoided. How representative the diary sub-group was in terms of socio-demographic characteristics would have to be determined afterwards and any limitations in it acknowledged.

At a practical level the diary survey would ask respondents to record where they had been on their day trips each month for a maximum of a seven month period. In addition, reasons for the day trips and comments would be included. Full instructions as to the definitions of a day trip were provided to those completing diaries. To avoid difficulties, other questions were kept to a minimum, and sensitive information such as the socio-economic group of the diary keeper was not asked for as it had been provided at the site survey interview. At a later stage a profile of information relating to each household was drawn up from the site survey questionnaire, and combined with each diary. An example of a typical monthly diary is set out in Appendix 2. The results of the diary survey are discussed in Chapters Six and Seven. First, the site survey results are considered in the next two chapters.

Chapter Four

Description of Site Survey Results

Introduction

The results presented in this chapter are based on findings from the interview surveys carried out during the summer of 1987 at the Upper Hamble Country Park, Hampshire Farm Museum, New Forest Butterfly Farm and Kingston Lacy. Discussion of the results at this stage is purely descriptive using the frequencies observed at the individual sites, together with other general characteristics. The questionnaire contained two major sections and these form the basis of the results laid out in the following passages. First, background information relating to such aspects as where the respondents live, their social class, and details of the visit made on the survey day are given. The second section introduces the methods and variables used to investigate the respondent's reasons for a visit.

Part 1 - Background Information

Home county

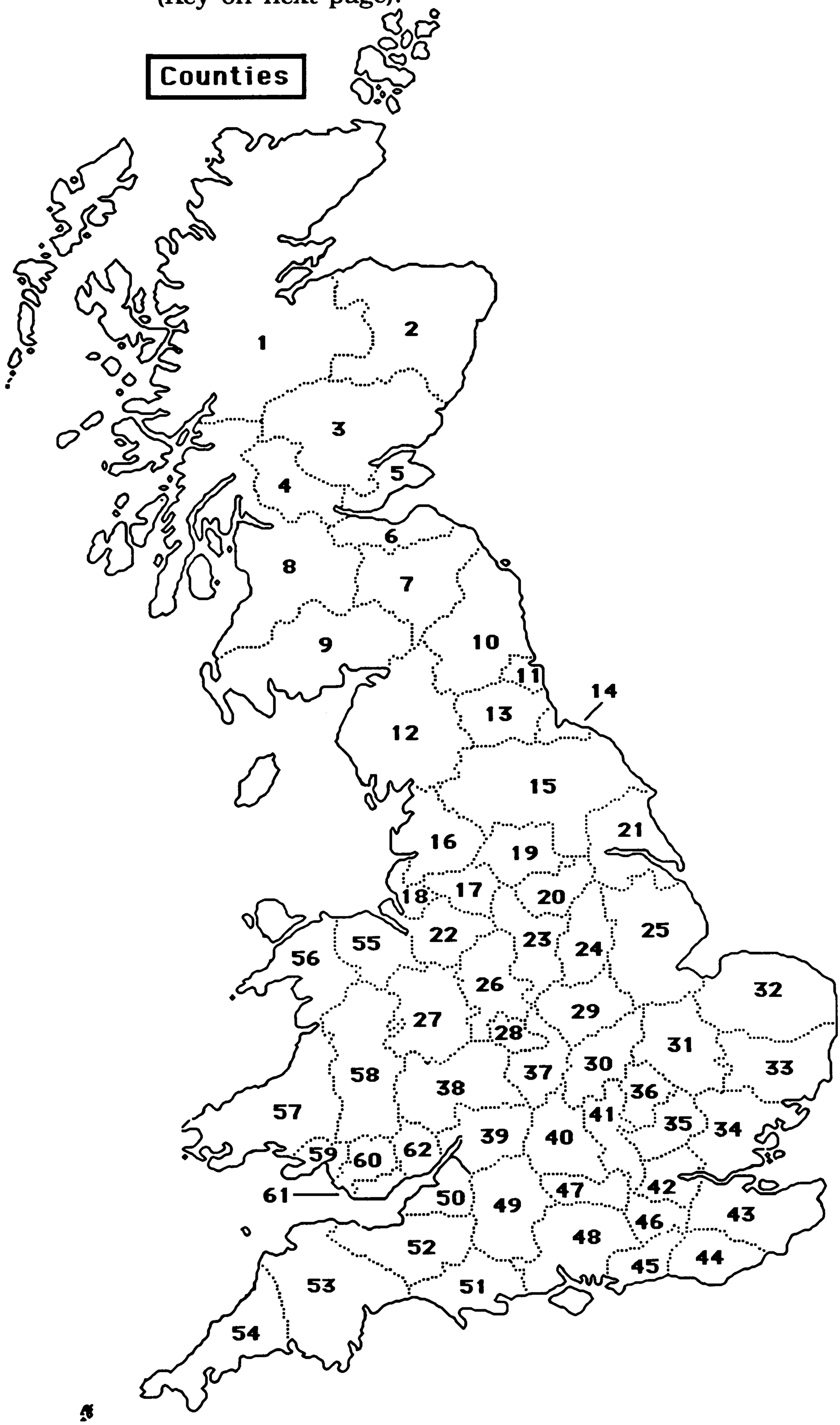
The 800 respondents interviewed were asked to indicate their normal place of residence. The results showed respondents came from 44 English counties, 6 Welsh counties, 4 Scottish regions and included a few from both EEC and non-EEC residents. A total of 37.8 per cent of respondents were resident in Hampshire (32.1%) and Dorset (5.7%) the two counties covered by the Southern Tourist Board area, while 11.8 per cent lived in the adjoining counties of Devon, Wiltshire, Berkshire, Surrey and West Sussex. A further 29.5 per cent came from the remainder of the South East or South West economic planning regions (see Figure 2). The remaining 20.9 per cent were from other parts of the country, or abroad.

Whilst the results may indicate a distance decay pattern, a number of the county frequencies cannot be fully explained by this. For example, the large numbers who came from Avon, Kent and East Sussex represent coach trip members who accounted for disproportionately high numbers of respondents from these areas on particular survey days. Further, counties such as the West Midlands and Greater London reflect areas of dense population and consequently more respondents might be expected from these areas than other equidistant counties with smaller populations.

Amongst the individual survey sites, a number of differences can be identified regarding place of residence. At Kingston Lacy the largest number of respondents came from Dorset, while numbers from Avon and East Sussex were disproportionately high due to coach visitors. In contrast the New Forest Butterfly Farm had more visitors from Kent and Avon than from Hampshire, within which it is located, as a direct consequence of coach visitors on organised trips. At the Hampshire Farm Museum and Upper Hamble Country Park few organised trips occur, and thus a distance decay pattern in terms of place of residence is more clearly seen there.

Figure 2 **Site survey respondents' place of residence (percentage)**

(Key on next page).



Nos	County	% of respondents
1	Highland	0
2	Grampian	0
3	Tayside	0
4	Central	0.7
5	Fife	0
6	Lothian	0.1
7	Borders	0
8	Strathclyde	0.4
9	Dumfried and Galloway	0.1
10	Northumberland	0
11	Tyne and Wear	0.6
12	Cumbria	0.5
13	Durham	0.1
14	Cleveland	0.4
15	North Yorkshire	0.5
16	Lancashire	2.4
17	Greater Manchester	0.6
18	Merseyside	0
19	West Yorkshire	0.7
20	South Yorkshire	0.9
21	Humberside	0.1
22	Cheshire	1.0
23	Derbyshire	1.0
24	Nottinghamshire	0.6
25	Lincolnshire	0.2
26	Staffordshire	0.2
27	Salop	0.1
28	West Midlands	2.2
29	Leicestershire	0.6
30	Northamptonshire	0.2
31	Cambridgeshire	1.0
32	Norfolk	0.2
33	Suffolk	0.5
34	Essex	1.5
35	Hertfordshire	0.6
36	Bedforshire	0.1
37	Warwickshire	0.5
38	Hereford & Worcestershire	0.5
39	Gloucestershire	0.9
40	Oxfordshire	1.0
41	Buckinghamshire	0.6
42	Greater London	7.9
43	Kent	7.0
44	East Sussex	3.6
45	West Sussex	3.2
46	Surrey	5.9
47	Berkshire	0.6
48	Hampshire	32.1
49	Wiltshire	0.7
50	Avon	5.1
51	Dorset	5.7
52	Somerset	0.9
53	Devon	1.4
54	Cornwall	0.9
55	Clwyd	0.1
56	Gwynedd	0.2
57	Dyfed	0.1
58	Powys	0
59	West Glamorgan	0
60	Mid Glamorgan	0.1
61	South Glamorgan	0.2
62	Gwent	0.2

Local district

Of the 800 respondents, 292 lived within the sub-region of the Southern Tourist Board (STB). The administrative districts of Portsmouth, Southampton and Fareham (see Table 13) accounted for 68.1 per cent of respondents resident in the Southern Tourist Board region.

Table 13 shows distinct local catchment differences for the four sites. In all cases a sub-regional distance decay pattern is apparent. With Kingston Lacy, Bournemouth is the district from where the highest number of respondents came and a similar pattern emerges for the New Forest Butterfly Farm, where most respondents came from the nearby Southampton District. The Upper Hamble Country Park and the Hampshire Farm Museum, differ somewhat in that higher proportions of very local respondents are observable. However, in each case districts which are close to the sites, such as Southampton and Portsmouth, provide the highest percentages of respondents since they are the largest concentrations of populations near to them.

Table 13

Place of residence of STB respondents

STB District	Frequency KL	BF	UH	FM	Total	%
Bournemouth	9	2	0	1	12	4.1
Christchurch	0	0	1	0	1	.3
N. Dorset	5	0	0	1	6	2.1
Poole	4	1	0	1	6	2.1
Purbeck	1	0	0	0	1	0.3
Wimborne	5	0	0	0	5	1.7
Basingstoke	1	2	6	2	11	3.8
East Hants	1	0	0	3	4	1.4
Eastleigh	0	0	4	7	11	3.8
Fareham	0	3	19	12	34	11.6
Gosport	0	0	3	6	9	3.1
Havant	0	0	2	1	3	1.0
New Forest	0	1	1	2	4	1.4
Portsmouth	2	4	28	15	49	16.8
Southampton	3	10	62	41	116	39.7
Test Valley	1	0	0	0	1	0.3
Winchester	0	2	5	12	19	6.5
	32	25	131	104	292	100.0

Key

KL Kingston Lacy
BF New Forest Butterfly Farm
UH Upper Hamble Country Park
FM Hampshire Farm Museum

As mentioned earlier the survey made no distinction in the selection of respondents between those resident within the STB region and those from elsewhere. Of the total sample population, 36.5 per cent were resident in the region, and the interview required further information on which district they lived in. The information from the remaining 63.5 per cent who were not resident in the region was still used in this survey but other data to find out whether they were on a day visit or on holiday was also obtained in the interview. Here it is only necessary to note that each site received different numbers of visitors from outside the region. Kingston Lacy and the Butterfly Farm had more than 80% of their sampled visitors from outside the region, whilst the Upper Hamble and Farm Museum received more visitors who are local residents. Table 14 shows this breakdown.

Table 14

Comparison of STB and non-STB respondents at the sites

Type	Frequency (percentage) KL	BF	UH	FM	Total
STB Resident	32 (16)	25 (12.5)	131 (65.5)	104 (52)	292 (36.5)
Non-STB Resident	168 (84)	175 (87.5)	69 (34.5)	96 (48)	508 (63.5)
	200	200	200	200	200

Social class

Social class has been shown elsewhere to be an important factor in terms of the likelihood of a household undertaking a day trip. As Patmore (1983) indicates *"social and economic disadvantages (can) seriously inhibit mobility and leisure opportunities".* Social class relates to an individual's occupation, and in this survey every respondent was asked to indicate what his/her occupation was, or had been in the case of the retired. Often probing was necessary so that each respondent could be allocated to a social class using the guidelines provided by the Office of Population Censuses and Surveys (1981). Social Class A (employers and professionals) were the most highly represented group, with an average of 30.1 per cent of the sample across the four sites. In comparison with the national average, as indicated by Locke (1985), this group is the smallest part of total population, accounting for only 2 per cent nationally. In fact the top two social classes (see table 15) formed almost half of the total number of respondents even though they account for only 15 per cent of the national population. Classes 'D' and 'E' are considerably under-represented in comparison with their national population proportions.

Amongst the individual sites, notable differences in social class representation occurred. At Kingston Lacy and the Upper Hamble Country Park, class A formed the largest single class, followed by class B. At Kingston Lacy these two social classes combined formed 68.5 per cent of the total sample. In contrast, at the New Forest Butterfly Farm, whilst some 38 per cent of respondents were from social class A and B, 43.5 per cent were from C2. Further analysis of this factor will be discussed later, but is indicative of more coach trippers to this site. The highest proportion of visitors at the Hampshire Farm Museum were from social class D, (29.5 per cent) although 25.5 per cent were in social class A.

Table 15

Social class of site survey respondents

Class	Percentage KL	BF	UH	FM	Total of all sites	National proportion (Countryside Commission 1985)
A	46.0	21.0	28.0	25.5	30.1	2
B	22.5	17.0	22.0	7.5	17.3	13
C1	5.0	6.5	13.5	10.0	8.8	23
C2	17.0	43.5	16.0	13.5	22.5	27
D	5.0	7.0	12.0	29.5	13.4	16
E	0	0	2.0	0.5	0.6	12
Others	4.5	5.0	6.5	13.5	7.4	7

Group type

Table 16

Group type

Type of Group	Percentage KL	BF	UH	FM	Total % of all respondents
Family only	68.0	44.5	66.0	71.5	63.1
Family only on Org trip	14.5	41.5	0	0	13.4
Family & Relatives	3.0	2.5	11.5	7.0	6.2
Family & Friends	4.0	4.0	14.0	9.5	7.9
Family & Rels on Org trip	0	0.5	1.0	0	0.1
Group of Friends &/or Relations	10.5	7.0	7.5	11.5	9.2

The initial questions on the survey sheet allowed group make up to be analysed and Table 16 summarises the nature of the groups with which the respondents were visiting the sites. The largest single group was the family only not on an organised trip. These accounted for almost two thirds of cases. At Kingston Lacy and the New Forest Butterfly Farm, families travelling on an organised trip also formed an important group, amounting to 13.4 per cent of all respondents, and over 40 per cent of respondents who went to the New Forest Butterfly Farm were families on an organised trip. However, overall when the family only category is combined with families visiting a site

with additional individuals, be they relatives or friends, then 90.8 per cent of responses are covered. Thus the importance of the family unit cannot be overstated in relation to the day trip.

Table 17
Group size

Number in Group	Percentage KL	BF	UH	FM	Percentage total at all sites
1	0.5	1.0	0.5	1.5	0.9
2	50.5	49.5	23.0	19.5	35.6
3	21.5	14.5	10.5	17.5	16.0
4	21.5	25.5	39.5	46.0	33.1
5	5.5	9.0	13.0	8.0	8.9
6	0	0.5	8.0	3.0	2.9
7	0	0	2.0	1.5	0.9
8	0.5	0	1.5	1.0	0.7
9	0	0	0.5	1.5	0.5
10	0	0	1.0	0.5	0.4
11	0	0	0.5	0	0.1

In the calculation of group size, respondents were asked to state how many people were in their group visiting the particular site. In the case of large groups on organised trips respondents were asked to state how many people were in their immediate party, as opposed to the total number of passengers on the coach. Table 17 shows group sizes in the samples for each of the four sites

The common group sizes were two and four, which together accounted for more than two thirds of the totals. A distinction can be made between group sizes at the sample sites. At Kingston Lacy and the New Forest Butterfly Farm, approximately half of the respondents were in a group size of two. This may be explained to a certain extent by the fact that these two sites received organised coach trips which appear to typically attract older couples. At the Upper Hamble Country Park, and Farm Museum, the most common group size was four because the sample included more 'younger' families and fewer coach trips are run to these sites. Few groups exceeded five persons, the normal maximum car load.

Age type of party

No specific question was asked of the respondents relating to the stage in the life cycle of the family, but the ages of the party were sought and the data is presented in Table 18. From this data and the relative ages of the members of the party it was possible to establish the family's stage in its life cycle. This type of approach was used by Morgan (1976), adapted from earlier work by Abu-Lughod and Foley (1960). The stage in the family life cycle have also been shown to have an important effect on leisure activities, (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1975), in that, for example, people's awareness and interests change as they age and this has a consequential effect on the leisure activities pursued. In this research it was found that 52.9 per cent of respondents were with groups which included some children (aged under 15), and 47.1 per cent were adult only groups of various types.

The categories presented in Table 18 are all mutually exclusive, thus it is not possible for a party to be placed in more than one category. In order to understand the table and the use of this variable in later chapters it is useful here to outline how these categories were devised.

The first five classes include parties where children were members. The first class (1) proved to be the largest and in this case both parents were aged between 25 and 44 years with at least one child aged 5 to 15 years. For inclusion in class 2 instead of class 1 one of the two parents had to be aged between 16 and 25, or one of the children was under five years (or both). Class three was distinguished by a single adult aged 16 to 44 years with at least one child. Class four included one or two adults over 45 years again with at least one child. The mixed groups of adults in class five indicated that there was at least one adult aged 16 to 44 and at least one aged over 45 visiting a site with at least one child.

The remaining classes reflected adult only parties. Class 6 represented two adults both aged over 45. Class 7 represented two or more adults in the 16-44 age bracket or also including those in the

45 or over bracket who were visiting a site with at least one other adult in the 16-44 age bracket (thus distinguishing classes 6 and 7).. Class 8 represented a party of 3 or more adults aged over 45 years and class 9 were adults visiting a site alone.

The categories presented were developed after data collection by analysing the most typical groups in the results. Thus these nine individual types of party whilst not necessarily representing a household do reflect respondents with groups made up of individuals of different ages.

The largest individual group accounted for 22.2 per cent of the total, and consisted of two adults both aged 25 - 44 years and at least one child aged between 5 and 15 years. This group (which does not includes very young children) reflects the importance of the family alone as a unit undertaking day trips. Other groups which include children, which together account for 30.7 per cent, represent families with very young children (aged 0 - 4 years), single adults and children, older adults (over 45 years) and children, and mixed parties of adults and children.

Of the groups without children, mixed groups of adults over 16 years of age account for 21 per cent. However, older couples alone (both over 45 years) amount to 20.1 per cent of the total.

Table 18

Age type of household or party

Class No	Type	Freq	%	Cumulative %
1	2 adults 25-44 & at least 1 aged 5-15	173	22.2	22.2
2	2 adults 16-44 & at least 1, 0-15	61	7.8	30.0
3	1 adult 16-44, & at least 1, 0-15	58	7.4	37.4
4	1 or 2 adults 45+ and at least 1, 0-15	28	3.6	41.0
5	Mixed group of adults 16+ &,45+ at least 1, 0-15	93	11.9	52.9
6	2 adults over 45	157	20.1	73.1
7	Mixed groups of adults 16-44 only and 45+	164	21.0	94.1
8	3 or more adults over 45	39	5.0	99.1
9	Single individuals	7	0.9	100.0
	Missing cases	20	--.--	
	TOTAL	800	100.0	

Journey and time spent on visit

Table 19
Method of travel

Method	Percentage KL	BF	UH	FM	Percentage total at all sites
Car	84.0	56.5	95.5	95.5	82.9
M Bike	0	1.0	0	0.5	0.4
Bicycle	0	0.5	2.0	2.5	1.2
Coach	14.5	42.0	1.0	0	14.4
Walk	1.5	0	1.5	1.5	1.1
S Bus	0	0	0	0	0

The site survey results emphasize the importance of the car as the most practical method of travel for day tripping. Table 19 shows that 82.9 per cent of respondents reported travelling to the site by car. In the cases of the Upper Hamble Country Park and the Farm Museum 95.5 per cent used a car to reach these sites. At Kingston Lacy, 84 per cent of respondents came by car, and 14.4 per cent arrived by coach. Whilst this site is a popular venue for organised coach trips, site management restricts the number of coaches to just two per day, so constraining the proportion of coach based respondents at this site. At the New Forest Butterfly Farm coach travellers formed a much larger proportion amounting to 42 per cent of the sample because there is no similar restriction.

In all cases other means of transport, including service transport, walking, bicycle, and motor cycle account for very small proportions of the sampled respondents. It was found that respondents who had walked or cycled to the site had their temporary or permanent residence close to the site.

Table 20

Journey time to site

Time (hours)	Percentage KL	BF	UH	FM	Percentage total at all sites
Under half	30.0	18.5	65.0	51.5	41.2
Half to 1	21.0	20.5	24.0	24.5	22.5
1 to 2	20.5	21.5	8.5	19.0	17.4
2 to 4	28.5	39.5	2.5	5.0	18.9

Information on the length of the journey time to reach the site was collected in the questionnaire and Table 20 shows that the results were varied. Respondents were given clear instruction that the answers related to the actual visit on the survey day, acknowledging that some may not have taken the most direct or quickest route to the site. Moreover, for many the journey may be an integral part of the recreational experience of the day trip. This was particularly applicable to the minority of respondents who walked or cycled to the site.

More than 40 per cent took less than 30 minutes to reach their chosen site and if those who took between 30 minutes and an hour are included almost two thirds of respondents took no more than an hour on the journey. This confirms that the catchment area of each site is largely local. However, the sizes of catchments do seem to vary from site to site.

Sites receiving no organised coach trips seem to have smaller catchment areas with more respondents taking a shorter time on their journey. This was particularly the case at the Upper Hamble Country Park, where 89 per cent of respondents had taken less than an hour to arrive at the site. At sites where organised trips do exist more, visitors came by coach from more distant counties and may take three hours on the journey. In the case of the New Forest Butterfly Farm, where there were many organised coach parties, 39.5 per cent were recorded for such conditions.

Table 21

Duration of visit

Time	Percentage KL	BF	UH	FM	Percentages total at all sites
Under 30	0	0	0.5	3.0	0.9
30 to 1	1.5	1.0	10.5	22.0	8.7
1 to 2	12.0	8.0	37.5	48.5	26.5
2 to 4	84.0	85.5	37.0	21.0	56.9
4 to 6	2.5	5.5	14.0	4.5	6.6
6+	0	0	0.5	1.0	0.4

In the site survey respondents were asked to indicate how long they expected to stay at the site. The results in Table 21 show that on average 56.9 per cent said that they would stay 2 - 4 hours while a further 26.5 per cent stated they would stay 1 - 2 hours. Thus the great majority would be away from home for three hours or more. This fits in with the previously given definition of a day trip.

The expected duration varied somewhat between sites and between groups. At Kingston Lacy and the New Forest Butterfly Farm where the recreational activities are more formal and entry more expensive, respondents tended to stay longer. Although at Kingston Lacy, entry to the house is on a timed ticket system, thus effectively managing the length of stay for most visitors and over 85 per cent expected to stay more than two hours. At the Hampshire Farm Museum, nearly three quarters expected to stay less than 2 hours. At the Upper Hamble Country Park, the type of activity planned varied from a short walk to a whole day spent on site perhaps involving a picnic. As the time spent at this site is not restricted (with a single parking charge regardless of time) respondents have more flexibility than at other sites in deciding how long they wish to stay, and consequently the expected duration appears to be more variable here than at the other sites.

Previous visits to site

Table 22

Previous visits to site

Visit Before	KL	BF	% UH	FM	Percentage total at all sites
Yes	22.0	12.5	56.5	37.0	32.0
No	78.0	87.5	43.5	63.0	68.0

In this first section of the questionnaire, respondents were also asked if they had been to the site before to see if repeat visits were common. Table 22 shows that the majority of respondents had not visited the site before except in the case of the Upper Hamble Country Park where 56.5 per cent had been on a previous visit. In fact the revisitation pattern between the sites means that little can be inferred from the overall percentage for all sites. Kingston Lacy and the New Forest Butterfly Farm had the greatest proportion of first time visitors. This is to be expected with their wider catchment areas. With the case of the New Forest Butterfly Farm 87.5 per cent had not visited the site before. Obviously the nature of the site is of uppermost importance in this context. The Upper Hamble Country Park is a convenient area of open space for local residents to visit frequently, whereas Kingston Lacy is an historic building of national importance where people from farther afield are less likely to revisit frequently.

Part 2 - Reasons for visit

Day reasons-overview

This section solely deals with question 8 of the questionnaire, namely 'why did you decide to go on a day trip today'. From the varied answers received twenty reasons were identified. Some respondents gave a single reason whilst others suggested multiple reasons as to why they had decided to go on the day trip. In total 1432 individual responses were given showing a mean of 1.794 reasons per respondent. A detailed analysis of the combinations of reasons will be discussed later in Chapter 5.

In this chapter the description of the results will concentrate upon the respondent's most important reason for deciding to go on a day trip on the survey day. Attention to the questionnaire itself (Appendix 1) will reveal that respondents who gave more than one reason for a day trip were required to specify their most important reason. At a purely descriptive level, it can be seen from Table 23 that the most popular response was a desire to 'see this site', with 13.0 per cent of respondents referring to this reason either individually, or within a reply including more than a single reason. Other common reasons given were, 'on holiday; (12.5%), wished to 'be with family' (10.3%), or on an 'organised trip' (7.8%).

Within the reasons given there is a marked difference in that there appears to be two general types of answer put forward by most respondents. The first type is characterized by such examples as 'on holiday', 'off work' or 'good weather', where a reason for a day trip did not include reference to the actual site. In the second type of answer, examples such as 'see this site', 'organised trip' or 'because we liked it last time' show that when asked the question, respondents linked their answer with particular reference to the location which they were visiting. These were the majority of respondents, and for these the decision to go on a day trip was apparently inextricably linked with site selection. In the former case the weather, being off work or on holiday was the most important reason for deciding on a

day trip, and subsequently a second decision was made concerning site selection.

Table 23

Day reasons - all sites

Reason	Count	Percentage of Cases
See this site, come here	186	13.0
Just wanted to go out somewhere	83	5.8
On holiday	179	12.5
Educational interest	12	.8
Access easy, nearby	37	2.6
Saw adverts/marketing	36	2.5
Good for kids	56	3.9
Good atmosphere, pleasant site	36	2.5
Be with family, take kids out	148	10.3
Recommended	39	2.7
Go for a walk, walk dog	93	6.5
Weather good	89	6.2
Weather poor	33	2.3
Been before, liked it last time	50	3.5
Visiting with friends, relatives	85	5.9
Have a picnic	65	4.5
Off work	21	1.5
Like nature	27	1.9
Historic, architectural interest	46	3.2
Organised trip	111	7.8
Total Responses	1432	100.0

2 missing cases
798 valid cases

When these different types of reasons for a day trip are cross-tabulated with the individual survey sites, reasons which are more specific to the sites become increasingly apparent. At Kingston Lacy (Table 24) the most common reason for respondents was to 'see this site' (22.2 per cent), closely followed by 'on holiday' (21.1 per cent). This particular site had a relatively low number of local resident visitors, so the 'on holiday' factor is to be expected to be high. Explanation of the 'see this site' answer requires some more qualification. The site itself is a relatively recent acquisition by the National Trust, and has been widely publicised within the Trust. Consequently, of the 200 interviewed at this site, 71 were National Trust members, and thus gain free admission. Typically, these

visitors express a particular interest to see the property. The third most popular reason given supported this factor in that 11.3 per cent of respondents at Kingston Lacy expressed an interest in the history or architecture of the building. These three reasons cover more than half of the answers for respondents at Kingston Lacy.

At the New Forest Butterfly Farm, a marked difference occurs. Being a popular, organised coach trip destination the most common answer as to why the respondent had decided to go on a day trip made reference to an 'organised trip' to the site. This individual answer accounts for 23.2 per cent of cases (Table 25). With the popularity of coach travel to this site and consider ing the number of interviews carried out, this is perhaps to be expected. The second most common answer revealed at this site was 'on holiday' accounting for 15.3 per cent of cases. This is again explained by the coach trips laid on for holiday-makers at nearby resorts and extensive advertising by the site management at local hotels, guest houses and holiday residences. It is interesting to note, however, that whilst advertising is considered important by the site owners only 15.9 per cent of cases specifically referred to it as an influencing factor.
Nevertheless, this proportion who said they were influenced by marketing/ advertising is far higher than for the same factor at the other three sites where it received scant attention.

Unlike Kingston Lacy, at the New Forest Butterfly Farm respondents gave more diverse reasons, and a second tier of reasons occurred between 6.5 and 9.6 per cent of cases. These include 'see this site' (7.6%), 'just wanted to go out somewhere' (7.9%), 'be with family' (8.2%), 'weather good' (9.6%) and 'like nature' (6.5%). It can be observed that this group include both site specific reasons such as 'Like nature', and non-site specific reasons like 'good weather'.

With the Upper Hamble Country Park, Table 26 shows a further distinction in the responses to this question. The three most common answers showed that family orientated informal recreation is characteristic at this site. This is revealed by the responses 'be with family' (14.5%), 'go for a walk/walk dog' (12.8%), 'have a picnic' (11.4%). Other significant responses included 'See this site' (9.7%),

'good for kids' (8.8%), 'visiting with friends' (7.4%) and 'just wanted to go out somewhere' (3.4%). This site being typically utilised by local residents the answer of 'on holiday' was of considerably less importance than for Kingston Lacy or the New Forest Butterfly Farm. Likewise no 'organised trip' characterize this site.

At the Hampshire Farm Museum (Table 27) most common reasons stated were 'be with family' (14.7%) or 'go for a walk' (13.2%). However, like other attractions, such as Kingston Lacy, 'see this site' (11.8%) was also an important response. The Farm Museum also attracts families 'with friends or relations' (9.2%) and people wanting to have a 'picnic' (6.9%).

Table 24

Day reasons - Kingston Lacy

Reason	Count	Percentage of Cases
See this site, come here	84	22.2
Just wanted to go out somewhere	16	4.2
On holiday	80	21.1
Educational interest	5	1.3
Access easy, nearby	10	2.6
Saw adverts/marketing	2	0.5
Good for kids	2	0.5
Good atmosphere, pleasant site	11	2.9
Be with family, take kids out	17	4.5
Recommended	6	1.6
Go for a walk, walk dog	2	0.5
Weather good	13	3.4
Weather poor	8	2.1
Been before, liked it last time	25	6.6
Visiting with friends, relatives	17	4.5
Have a picnic	0	0.0
Off work	10	2.6
Like nature	0	0.0
Historic, architectural interest	43	11.3
Organised trip	28	7.4
Total Responses	379	100.0

1 missing case
199 valid cases

Table 25

Day reasons - New Forest Butterfly Farm

Reason	Count	Percentage of Cases
See this site, come here	27	7.6
Just wanted to go out somewhere	28	7.9
On holiday	54	15.3
Educational interest	5	1.4
Access easy, nearby	5	1.4
Saw adverts/marketing	21	5.9
Good for kids	2	0.6
Good atmosphere, pleasant site	1	0.3
Be with family, take kids out	29	8.2
Recommended	5	1.4
Go for a walk, walk dog	0	0.0
Weather good	34	9.6
Weather poor	11	3.1
Been before, liked it last time	11	3.1
Visiting with friends, relatives	10	2.8
Have a picnic	1	0.3
Off work	5	1.4
Like nature	23	6.5
Historic, architectural interest	0	0.0
Organised trip	82	23.2
Total Responses	354	100.0

0 missing cases
200 valid cases

Table 26

Day reasons - Upper Hamble Country Park

Reason	Count	Percentage of Cases
See this site, come here	34	9.7
Just wanted to go out somewhere	12	3.4
On holiday	18	5.1
Educational interest	0	0.0
Access easy, nearby	13	3.7
Saw adverts/marketing	8	2.3
Good for kids	31	8.8
Good atmosphere, pleasant site	13	3.7
Be with family, take kids out	51	14.5
Recommended	15	4.3
Go for a walk, walk dog	45	12.8
Weather good	21	6.0
Weather poor	9	2.6
Been before, liked it last time	10	2.8
Visiting with friends, relatives	26	7.4
Have a picnic	40	11.4
Off work	2	0.6
Like nature	2	0.6
Historic, architectural interest	0	0.0
Organised trip	1	0.3
Total Responses	351	100.0

1 missing case
199 valid cases

Table 27

Day reasons - Hampshire Farm Museum

Reason	Count	Percentage of Cases
See this site, come here	41	11.8
Just wanted to go out somewhere	27	7.8
On holiday	27	7.8
Educational interest	2	0.6
Access easy, nearby	9	2.6
Saw adverts/marketing	5	1.4
Good for kids	21	6.0
Good atmosphere, pleasant site	11	3.2
Be with family, take kids out	51	14.7
Recommended	13	3.7
Go for a walk, walk dog	46	13.2
Weather good	21	6.0
Weather poor	5	1.4
Been before, liked it last time	4	1.1
Visiting with friends, relatives	32	9.2
Have a picnic	24	6.9
Off work	4	1.1
Like nature	2	0.6
Historic, architectural interest	3	0.9
Organised trip	0	0.0
Total Responses	348	100.0

0 missing cases
200 valid cases

Overall the response to this open question produced results which are quite varied. It would seen that for some there is an external impetus which prompts a day trip, such as the weather. Others, however, appear to bypass this stage and the reason for a day trip is closely related to the intended location of the visit. This is obviously the case for respondents who were 'on holiday', in that a decision to undertake day trips in their holiday area has already been made, at a much earlier stage. For these the decision to go 'somewhere' has largely been set, and hence their reasons for a day trip are more closely linked to the actual site, although external factors such as the weather on the day may be an important influence. At a descriptive level it can also be seen that variations occur between the sites which relate to the nature of activities and facilities at the individual sites. The way a site attempts to attract particular visitors, also has an effect

on responses as seen in the encouragement of organised trips to the New Forest Butterfly Farm.

Day factors - overview

During the pilot survey a number of broad factors had been identified as probably influencing day trip decisions. Therefore it was decided to question respondents on these. This was done by giving each respondent a card with nine factors listed on it to indicate which of the factors had been important in the decision to travel to the particular site on the survey day. The factors focus on the sources of information important in the selection of the site for a day trip. In addition, a distinction was made between respondents 'with family' and on an 'organised trip' to enable the writer to identify a wider range of factors. The factors identified as important sources of information appear in Table 28 as they were listed on the prompt card. This was in random order. Respondents were asked to indicate which factors had figured in their decisions to visit the site on the survey day. A total count of 1256 was made on these nine factors. In the following chapter more detailed analysis of these responses is made.

Two factors were recorded by more than a fifth of respondents. These were 'been before' (20.0%) and 'recommended' (20.2%). Other common factors were 'saw it in a guide book' (12.3%) and 'saw in a newspaper or magazine' (11.5%). Those indicating that 'with the family' was an important factor occurred with 10.8% of respondents, while 11.5% of respondents indicated that they were on an organised trip.

Amongst the individual sites marked differences were apparent. With Kingston Lacy whilst 'recommended' is the most common factor mentioned by 20.6% the use of guide books and magazines is important, 17.4 and 14.3 per cent respectively. Having 'been before' is an important answer, but little is left to 'chance', the lowest factor accounting for only 1.4% of responses. 'Organised trips' and 'being with family' at 10.1 and 10.8 per cent respectively, are moderately important at this site.

Table 28

Day factors - all sites

Factor	Count	Percentage of Cases
Been before	251	20.0
Recommended	254	20.2
Found by Chance	38	3.0
With family	136	10.8
On organised trip	117	9.3
Saw it in a guide book	154	12.3
Saw it on a map	53	4.2
Tourist info centre	108	8.6
Magazine/newspaper	145	11.5
Total Responses	1256	100.0

0 missing cases
800 valid cases

The New Forest Butterfly Farm again shows the marked effect of coach travel, with organised trip being the most common factor mentioned in 27.3 per cent of cases. Other factors such as having 'been before', is similarly important whilst 'found by chance' as at Kingston Lacy is the least important factor at this site.

With the Hampshire Farm Museum and Upper Hamble Country Park, the response were similar. Both reveal the importance of having visited the site previously, for example 34.1 per cent of respondents at the Upper Hamble Country Park referred to this factor. The usage of 'guide book; and 'newspaper or magazine' have some input, for instance in the latter, 11.2 per cent recorded the acknowledgement of a 'newspaper or magazine' at the Hampshire Farm Museum. Where these two sites differ is that at the Hampshire Farm Museum being 'with the family' is deemed to be more important, mentioned in 16.4 per cent of cases as opposed to 4.6 per cent at the Upper Hamble Country Park. At both sites 'organised trips' have negligible importance. The results of the frequencies of the day factors variables at each site are shown in the following tables.

Table 29

Day factors - Kingston Lacy

Factor	Count	Percentage of Cases
Been before	42	14.6
Recommended	59	20.6
Found by Chance	4	1.4
With family	31	10.8
On organised trip	29	10.1
Saw it in a guide book	50	17.4
Saw it on a map	12	4.2
Tourist info centre	19	6.6
Magazine/newspaper	41	14.3
Total Responses	287	100.0

0 missing cases
200 valid cases

Table 30

Day factors - New Forest Butterfly Farm

Factor	Count	Percentage of Cases
Been before	24	7.7
Recommended	23	7.4
Found by Chance	4	1.3
With family	36	11.6
On organised trip	85	27.3
Saw it in a guide book	53	17.0
Saw it on a map	18	5.8
Tourist info centre	28	9.0
Magazine/newspaper	40	12.9
Total Responses	311	100.0

0 missing cases
200 valid cases

Table 31

Day factors - Upper Hamble Country Park

Factor	Count	Percentage of Cases
Been before	112	34.1
Recommended	97	29.6
Found by Chance	16	4.9
With family	15	4.6
On organised trip	2	0.6
Saw it in a guide book	18	5.5
Saw it on a map	8	2.4
Tourist info centre	33	10.1
Magazine/newspaper	27	8.2
Total Responses	328	100.0

0 missing cases
200 valid cases

Table 32

Day factors - Hampshire Farm Museum

Factor	Count	Percentage of Cases
Been before	73	22.1
Recommended	75	22.7
Found by Chance	14	4.2
With family	54	16.4
On organised trip	1	0.3
Saw it in a guide book	33	10.0
Saw it on a map	15	4.5
Tourist info centre	28	8.5
Magazine/newspaper	37	11.2
Total Responses	330	100.0

0 missing cases
200 valid cases

Importance Factors - Overview

Question 10 on the site survey questionnaire referred respondents to another prompt card. On it was a list of numbers from one to seven printed vertically and against number 1 was written 'great importance' and against 7 'no importance'. Respondents were instructed that the card represented a scale of importance and they were going to be asked a series of questions which would require them to answer in the form of a score. As with the other sections in this chapter this section describes the basic results relating to these importance factors, more detailed analysis occurs in the following chapter.

Table 33
Importance factors - cost

Importance	KL	BF	% UH	FM	Percentage total at all sites
1	3.0	20.0	4.0	6.0	8.2
2	13.0	21.0	12.5	15.0	15.4
3	14.0	18.0	13.0	25.0	17.5
4	6.5	9.5	22.0	9.5	11.9
5	6.0	3.0	6.5	9.0	6.1
6	5.0	12.0	21.5	9.0	11.9
7	52.5	16.5	20.5	26.5	29.0
	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

The first of these questions related to the importance of cost. It is necessary to clarify at this point that the respondent's perception of cost includes all expenses incurred on the day trip. Thus comparisons between the sites with differing admission charges can be made. Table 33 shows that overall the highest single category for all sites is a value of 7 indicating no importance, selected by 29 per cent of respondents. 52.5 per cent of respondents at Kingston Lacy recorded a value of 7. This possibly relates to the fact that membership of the National Trust allows free admission and 71 of respondents were in fact members. In general, respondents were mixed in their views on cost with approximately equal numbers lying either side of a mid-point value of 4.

Cost seemed to be of little importance at the Hampshire Farm Museum, where 26.5 per cent of respondents indicated no concern for it. At the Upper Hamble Country Park respondents showed little importance to cost, as there was only a car parking fee. The pattern at the New Forest Butterfly Farm differed again in that many respondents here saw cost as of some importance. The single largest value of 2, one below the value of 1 meaning 'great' importance accounted for 21 per cent of New Forest Butterfly Farm visitors, and no less than 41 per cent put cost as a factor influencing their day trip decision.

Table 34

Importance factors - distance

Importance		KL	BF	Percentage UH	FM	Percentage total at all sites
1	Great	4.0	11.0	19.6	23.5	14.5
2		15.0	14.0	11.1	18.0	14.5
3		11.0	19.5	7.0	12.5	12.5
4		24.0	21.5	15.6	7.5	17.1
5		5.0	6.5	7.0	4.0	5.6
6		4.5	12.5	14.1	4.0	8.8
7	No	36.5	15.0	25.6	30.5	26.9
		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

1 missing case from (UH)

The reaction to the importance of distance as an influence on day trip decision making was similar for all sites. Taking a value of 4 as a mid-point, 41.6 per cent considered distance of some importance (that is a value of 1, 2 or 3), and 41.3 per cent indicated little or no importance (a value of 5, 6 or 7). However, as Table 34 reveals the largest single group (26.9%) chose the value of 7 indicating the strongest value for 'no importance' to distance in the decision making process.

Amongst the sites Kingston Lacy and the Upper Hamble Country Park have biases towards 'no importance' with the highest values for each being 7. With Kingston Lacy this single value accounts for 36.5% of

the interviewed respondents at this site. With the Hampshire Farm Museum, whilst the largest single value is again 7 'no importance' with 30.5 per cent, the overall trend is towards some importance. More than half the respondents at this site indicated that distance had some importance. At the New Forest Butterfly Farm the largest single value is 4, the mid-point of the scale with 21.5 per cent. Besides this, the reaction is towards an importance to the subject of distance at this site, with 44.5 per cent giving a value of 1, 2 or 3.

Table 35

Importance factors - few people at site

Importance		Percentage KL	BF	UH	FM	Percentage total at all sites
1	Great	6.5	5.0	17.5	16.0	11.2
2		31.0	19.5	22.5	22.0	23.7
3		25.5	28.0	21.5	20.5	23.9
4		20.0	20.5	24.5	15.5	20.1
5		8.5	9.0	8.0	7.5	8.2
6		2.5	11.5	4.0	5.0	5.7
7	No	6.0	6.5	2.0	13.5	7.0
		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Respondents were asked to indicate how important it was to them that there were few people at the site. Obviously respondents would not know how many people were at the site before they visited, but the pilot survey indicated that for some the decision to visit a site on a particular day was made because the perceived that the site would not be at full capacity. Overall whilst a minority were not especially perturbed by this factor the majority of responses were against overcrowding. 58.9 per cent rated the need for few people around them at a site with a value of 1, 2 or 3.

Table 35 shows that all the sites this trend is presented in some form. The strongest reaction against overcrowding and the importance of few people at the site occurred at Kingston Lacy where 37.5 per cent of respondents here gave a value of 1 or 2 indicating that few people at the site was of great importance to them. Similar patterns were evident at all the other sites, and in all cases more than

half of the respondents emphasized the importance of having few people around them to ensure a pleasant visit.

Table 36
Importance factors - value for money

Importance		KL	BF	Percentage UH	FM	Percentage total at all sites
1	Great	12.0	15.5	6.1	11.8	11.4
2		26.5	20.5	21.3	16.7	21.3
3		20.5	20.0	24.9	26.3	22.9
4		28.0	37.0	38.6	26.3	32.6
5		3.5	3.0	4.1	3.8	3.6
6		2.0	2.5	3.6	5.4	2.2
7	No	7.5	1.5	1.5	9.7	5.0
		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

UH - 3 missing cases
FM - 14 missing cases
All - 17 missing cases

In response to the question, 'how important was value for money today', only 10.8 per cent saw this as having little importance. While this may indicate that for these respondents value for money was neither really important or really unimportant to many more than half (55.6%) indicated that considerable importance could be attached to it. This factor was felt to be most important at Kingston Lacy and the New Forest Butterfly Farm. For example, Table 36 shows that 15.5 per cent of the New Forest Butterfly Farm visitors rated this factor as of great importance.

Table 37

Importance factors - having been before

Importance		KL	BF	Percentage UH	FM	Percentage total at all sites
1	Great	31.1	18.5	39.0	42.9	36.7
2		42.2	44.4	18.6	18.2	25.1
3		6.7	0.0	8.5	13.0	8.6
4		8.9	22.2	22.9	13.0	17.6
5		0.0	0.0	2.5	1.3	1.5
6		2.2	7.4	2.5	3.9	3.4
7	No	8.9	7.4	5.9	7.8	7.1
		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missing cases		155	174	82	123	534
Valid cases		45	26	118	77	266

The question of the importance of 'having been to the site before' was only relevant to 32 per cent of the total number of respondents interviewed across all sites so these were asked how important it was to them to visit again. This was certainly a significant factor in that as Table 37 indicates, within this sub-population 36.7 per cent felt that this factor was of great importance, and more than 70 per cent rated it with a value of 1, 2 or 3.

The importance of the previous visit in influencing the decision to come again for this sub-group of respondents varied somewhat from site to site. At Kingston Lacy, of the 16.9 per cent of respondents who had been before, 80 per cent stated that this had had a bearing on their decision to come again, recording scores of 1, 2 or 3.

At the Upper Hamble Country Park 44.2 per cent of respondents had visited before and of these 66.1 per cent indicated importance towards the factor. At the Hampshire Farm Museum 28.8 per cent had been to the site before and 74.1 per cent stated importance in the same way

Table 38

Importance factors - not been before

Importance		KL	BF	Percentage UH	FM	Percentage total at all sites
1	Great	43.9	17.2	22.0	23.6	27.2
2		22.6	17.8	17.1	10.6	17.4
3		6.5	14.4	17.1	17.9	13.3
4		16.8	32.8	29.3	20.3	24.7
5		5.8	5.7	0.0	7.3	5.2
6		2.6	6.9	4.9	2.4	4.3
7	No	1.9	5.2	9.8	17.9	7.9
		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Missing cases		45	26	118	77	266
Valid cases		155	174	82	123	534

The reverse to the previous question was relevant to 67 per cent of respondents. Here first-time respondents were asked to rate how important it was on the day that they had not visited the site before. Overall results in Table 38 show that this was of some importance to some 57.9 per cent (i.e. those scoring a value of 1, 2 or 3). A larger group, (though not the largest) expressed no opinion, accounting for 24.7 per cent.

Before discussion of the individual sites it should be emphasized again that this question is only applicable to respondents visiting for the first time. Thus it is important to note that the size of the sub-group is 29.0 per cent at Kingston Lacy, 32.6 per cent at the New Forest Butterfly Farm, 15.4 per cent at the Upper Hamble Country Park and 23.0 per cent at the Hampshire Farm Museum.

At the individual sites those expressing some importance towards the factor (a score of 1, 2 or 3) account for 73 per cent of Kingston Lacy respondents, 49.4 per cent of New Forest Butterfly Farm respondents 56.2 per cent of Upper Hamble Country Park respondents, and 52.1 per cent of Hampshire Farm Museum respondents. With the cases of the New Forest Butterfly Farm, Upper Hamble Country Park and Hampshire Farm Museum the single largest group was the mid-point with 32.8 per cent, 29.3 per cent and 20.3 per cent respectively. At

Kingston Lacy the largest group was the 43.9 per cent of visitors stating great importance (value 1).

Other reasons

Table 39

Other reasons

Reasons	Frequency/Count	Percentage of Cases
No Comment	422	49.5
Site	252	29.6
Kids/Family	91	10.7
National Trust	71	8.3
Other	16	1.9
	852	100.0

Valid cases 798
Missing cases 2

The final part of the questionnaire site survey asked respondents an additional open question: 'what are the other reasons which you think were important in your decision to come here today?' Analysis of the responses enabled five general areas to be categorized as shown in Table 39.

Table 40

Other reasons by site

Reason	Count KL	BF	UH	FM	Frequency toal at all sites
No comment	64	102	133	123	422
Site Reason	76	59	55	62	252
Family Reason	14	36	23	18	91
Nat Trust	71	0	0	0	71
Others	7	9	0	0	161
	232	206	211	203	852

These five categories included a 'no comment' category, relevant to approximately half the respondents. Those that did make comments were either related to the site or their families. At Kingston Lacy 71 respondents indicated that membership of the National Trust had been an important factor in their decision to visit the site, as shown in Table 40. Most of the reasons offered, and all of those in the

'others' category related to personal circumstances unique to the respondents. Family reasons, particularly those associated with children were also given, most notably at the New Forest Butterfly Farm.

Summary

This chapter has suggested that a description of the basic frequencies can be a useful tool preceding the fuller analysis of data. Differences amongst the respondents and the sites begin to emerge. These can help to guide the subsequent analysis. One of the major features of this survey is the two-fold distinction between respondents resident in the region and those who are normally resident outside its boundaries. These differences in day trip behaviour have not, so far, been considered. Those who were not residents of the region were typically either on holiday or a 'long distance' day trip. This group of respondents is likely to act differently from those on a day trip from home, and as such forms the focus of several independant variables in the subsequent analysis.

Other independent variables which might be important are social class, age, group size and group type. All of these could affect the nature of the day trip and how decisions are made and thus they require closer scrutiny in the next chapter.

Chapter Five

Analysis of Site Survey Results

Introduction

This chapter examines in more detail than was possible in the last chapter, the influence of five independent variables on the respondent's day trips focussed upon in the site survey. The variables highlighted are social class, age, group size, group type and residence. The information provided in the site survey interviews is tested against these independent variables by using the chi-square test to identify significant cross tabulations. Questions from the interview were grouped into five broad areas relating to different aspects of the day trip. These are hereafter collectively referred to as the dependent variables. The first set of dependent variables relate to questions involved with 'visit details'. Secondly, the day reasons refer to the question relating to why the respondent had decided to go on a day trip. Thirdly, the 'day factors' relate to a prompt card part of the interview where respondents indicate which of nine statements were relevant to their circumstances. Fourthly, seven questions known collectively as 'importance factors' required respondents to score various aspects of their visit. Finally, 'other reasons', or other statements given by respondents are considered.

Significant cross tabulations derived from each part of the analysis are discussed and short summaries flag those which can be identified as important characteristics of general day trip behaviour. Additionally, a general summary closes the chapter by discussing the implications of these results.

Before discussing the results of these cross tabulations, it should be noted that the place of residence of respondents seems crucial to the information they provided. As noted previously, of the total 800 respondents, 292 lived within the Southern Tourist Board region and travelled from home on their day trip. The remaining 508 were all from outside this region, and were either on holiday in the area, or were on a day trip from more distant locations.

As mentioned earlier the writer did not exclude non-residents because they are relevant to the total spatial pattern of day trip activity within the region. Thus the analysis of the sample of respondents in

the rest of this chapter will make use of all 800 respondents. However, it must be borne in mind that an analysis of the social class and age type of the resident and non-resident populations reveal certain differences between the two. This is shown in the following tables (41 and 42).

Table 41
Residence by social class

	Observed and Expected Values in brackets		
Social Class	**Residents**	**Non-Residents**	**Row Total**
A	84 (88.7)	159 (154.3)	243
B	40 (51.1)	100 (88.9)	140
C1	42 (25.5)	28 (44.4)	70
C2	51 (65.7)	129 (114.3)	180
D	39 (37.6)	64 (65.4)	103
E	5 (1.8)	0 (3.2)	5
Others	31 (21.5)	28 (37.5)	59
Column Total	292	508	800

Chi-square 41.38
Degrees of Freedom 6
Significance 0.0000
Cells with E.F. < 5 = 2 of 14 (14.3%)

Table 42

Residence by age type

	Observed and Expected Values in brackets		
Age type	**Residents**	**Non-Residents**	**Row Total**
2 adults 25-44 & 1+ 5-15	57 (62.1)	116 (110.9)	173
2 adults 16-44 &1 0-15	30 (21.9)	31 (39.1)	61
1 adult 16-44 &1+ 0-15	29 (20.8)	29 (37.2)	58
1 or 2 adults 45+ &1+ 0-15	13 (10.1)	15 (17.9)	28
Mixed adults 16+ &1+ 0-15	55 (33.4)	38 (59.6)	93
2 adults 45+	25 (56.4)	132 (100.6)	157
Mixed adults 16-44 & 45+	58 (58.9)	106 (105.1)	164
3 or more adults 45+	11 (14.0)	28 (25.0)	39
Single adults	2 (2.5)	5 (4.5)	7
Column Total	280	500	780

No of missing observations = 20

Chi-square 61.93
Degrees of Freedom 8
Significance 0.0000
Cells with E.F. < 5 = 2 of 18 (11.1%)

In both cases it will be noted that the null hypothesis has been confidently rejected suggesting that the resident and non-resident samples are different. In terms of social class, the resident group had fewer than expected in the social class categories of A, B and C2, but more than expected in C1, D and E. With the non-residents the converse was true. Here there were more than expected non-residents in social classes A and B. Such respondents of high income groups would perhaps be expected to be over represented. However, there was also a large proportion of non-residents in the C2 social class group.

A difference is also seen with age type, where every class is represented but on occasions the proportions of resident and non-resident groups are different. Later analysis will show that some of those differences can be explained by the dependent variables. For example, the high proportion of coach travellers to the New Forest

Butterfly Farm are in fact responsible for the higher proportion of C2 and couples over 45 in the non-resident group.

Whilst it is important to acknowledge that there are socio-demographic differences related to residence within the sample population, all 800 respondents have been given equal weight in the analysis. In the rest of the analysis, the effect of place of residence will only be referred to where particular dependent variables were affected.

Table 43

Visit details by independent variables, chi-square significance

Dependent Variables	Chi-Square Significance Independent Variables				
	Residence	Social class	Group size	Group type	Age type
Site	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0009
Method of travel	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Journey time	0.0000	0.0396	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Length of stay	0.0000	0.0009	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Been before	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000

The first aspect of the dependent variables to be examined are the basic details relating to the actual visit. These include the site, method of travel, time taken to get to the site, anticipated length of stay and whether a visit had taken place before. These were tested against the five independent variables to seek relationships. Table 43 shows that in each case the null hypothesis was confidently rejected. That is the characteristics of the respondents differed from site to site. The relationships suggested in the cross-tabulations will now be discussed for each independent variable in turn, beginning with residence.

In terms of the balance of residents to non-residents at the individual sites, there were more residents at the Upper Hamble Country Park and Hampshire Farm Museum. (Residents here account for 65.5 per cent and 52.0 per cent respectively). Conversely there were more non-residents at Kingston Lacy and the New Forest Butterfly Farm. At these sites non-residents accounted for 84 per cent and 87.5 per cent respectively of all respondents interviewed. This can mainly be attributed to the nature of the sites themselves with Kingston Lacy being a popular National Trust site of national importance. The New

Forest Butterfly Farm is privately owned and is advertised widely in Tourist Information Centres, hotels and guest houses. It is also a popular destination for organised coach trips from a wide area. In constrast the Upper Hamble Country Park and Hampshire Farm Museum do not advertise on such a scale and this may be the reason why more local residents are found at these sites.

The majority of respondents reached the sites by car and this accounted for 95.2 per cent of residents but only 75.8 per cent of non-residents. Some 21.7 per cent of non-residents arrived at the sites by coach. These non-residents were typically on holiday locally and had taken advantage of several privately run coach excursions, or were on an organised coach trip from outside the study region.

The effect of residence is also indicated in the length of time taken to reach the sites. In the case of residents, primarily using a car and necessarily living locally, 67.0 per cent took under 30 minutes to get to the site. With non-residents, those who were on holiday nearby took less time, with 48.3 per cent taking less than 1 hour to get to the sites. However, other non-residents travelled long distances to get to one of the sites in that 22.4 per cent took 1 to 2 hours, and 29.9 per cent took 2 to 4 hours. The length of stay at the sites differed little in conjunction with residence. However, non-residents who had taken longer to get to the site tended to spend longer at the sites. For instance, 47.9 per cent of non-residents who took over 2 hours to get to the site spent between 2 and 4 hours there.

Differences were found in relation to whether the respondent (or a member of the same party) had been to a particular site before. As might be expected many local residents had visited the site in question before (some 57.9 per cent). Only 17.1 per cent of non-residents had visited the chosen site before.

Social class was the next independent variable examined and in relation to the same visit details, a number of important distinctions can be made. In this context, the influence of the actual site appears to be important. At Kingston Lacy the social classes of A and B predominated, accounting for 68.5 per cent of all visitors questioned

there. This is perhaps mostly related to the cost of admission to the site (the highest of the four sites) and to the influence of National Trust membership. Members are largely drawn from higher social classes. All social classes were well represented at the Upper Hamble Country Park and Hampshire Farm Museum, but at the New Forest Butterfly Farm, C2s represented the largest single group (some 43.5 per cent). Further analysis showed that 51.7 per cent of these were coach travellers on organised trips. Indeed, in relation to the method of travel adopted to all sites, those who travelled by coach were predominantly in social class C2. Otherwise the majority of respondents used cars, and it would seem that car ownership could be regarded as a stimulus to day tripping.

There is little distinction to be made between the social classes in terms of the journey time to the site or whether they had been there before. In relation to the length of stay at the site, further analysis by a three way cross tabulation indicated that coach travellers, typically of C2 social class were more likely to spend between 2 and 4 hours on site. Thus the 45 coach travellers who were social class C2 all spent over 2 hours on site. However, it must be noted that this aspect does not represent a choice on the part of the respondents as it is normally the coach operator who determines the length of stay.

Group size was the third independent variable examined and is closely related to group type and age type. These are discussed in the following sections. The main distinction can be made between couples and those in larger groups. Couples accounted for the largest proportion of respondent groups at Kingston Lacy (50.5 per cent) and at the New Forest Butterfly Farm (49.5 per cent). At the other sites a group size of four was more common making up 39.5 per cent of respondents at the Upper Hamble Country Park.

Couples were the single most common group size travelling by coach although the car universally remains the most popular form of transport. Indeed, 61 per cent of couples had gone by car. However, the relatively large proportion of couples who travelled by coach generally took longer to get to the particular site and stayed there longer (typically 2 to 4 hours). Larger parties generally took

less time to get to a site and often stayed a longer time (especially in the case of groups over six in number). As to group size and whether the site had been visited before, almost all large parties included a member who had visited the site before. Approximately one third of other groups had visited the site before.

The fourth independent variable to be examined was group type. In the previous chapter it was revealed that the family is the most important day tripping unit and this was found to be the case at all four sites in this survey. Non-family groups accounted for small proportions of all surveyed visitors, varying from 7.0 per cent at the New Forest Butterfly Farm to 11.5 per cent at the Hampshire Farm Museum. In the length of time taken to journey to a site those families on an organised trip typically took longer. This is illustrated in that 87.6 per cent of families in these circumstances took 2 - 4 hours to get to the site. Families travelling without the constraints of an organised trip have more choice over length of stay but 89.8 per cent still remained on site for between 1 and 4 hours.

97.3 per cent of families who were on an organised trip had not visited the site before whereas two thirds of families visiting with relatives had visited the site before. Of the other groups, namely those made up of families only, and friends only, one third had visited the site before.

The final independent variable related to the visit details to be considered was the age type of respondent groups. This was derived from the results of the ages and membership of the party and is indicative of the stage in the life cycle of individual households. In terms of the individual sites Table 44 summarises the results found, by indicating where observed values exceeded expected values and vice versa.

Table 44
Age type by site

Age type		KL	BF	UH	FM
2 aged 25-44 & at least 1 5-15	0	<	<	>	>
2 aged 16-44 & at least 1 0-15	1	<	=	=	=
1 aged 16-44 & at least 1 0-15	2	<	=	>	=
2 aged 45-64 & at least 1 0-15	3	=	=	=	=
At least 2 adults and 1 0-15	4	<	<	>	>
Couples 45+	5	>	>	<	<
Mixed adults 16-44 only & 45+	6	>	=	=	=
3 or more 45+	7	>	<	<	>

Key
> Observed value greater than expected
< Observed value less than expected
= Observed value within a frequency of 3 to the expected

These results indicate that adult only parties, especially older couples, were more highly represented at Kingston Lacy. Parties with children appeared to be less common at this historic site. At the New Forest Butterfly Farm older couples (45+) were more highly represented than were other groups. Further analysis showed that the majority of these were on coach trips to the site. At the Upper Hamble Country Park and Hampshire Farm Museum, parties which included children were more highly represented. In addition, these sites attracted larger parties with children.

The method of travel used to get to the site has already shown the widespread use of cars. However, analysis shows that there was an exception to this with older couples (45+) where 47.1 per cent used a car and 51.6 per cent went by coach. Further, in the time taken to arrive at the chosen site children appeared to influence the results. The five categories introduced in the previous chapter showed that groups with children took less time to reach the site. Fewer groups with children than expected from the data took over two hours to arrive on site. Where different types of groups all have children they acted similarly in this respect as shown in Table 45. For instance, for all groups which took under 30 minutes, groups with children

accounted for between 45.1 and 66.7 per cent of them. Whilst other adult only parties also often took less than an hour to arrive on site, older couples (45+) were the largest single group in the 2 - 4 hour category. They accounted for 57.3 per cent of all in this category of travel time. They also represented the largest proportion of coach trippers in this age group.

Table 45

Age type and journey time to site

Observed and Expected Values in brackets

Age type	Under 30 mins		30mins -1 hr		1 - 2 hrs		2 - 4 hrs	
2 adults 25-44 & 1+ 5-15	78	(70.5)	41	(39.3)	43	(29.9)	11	(33.3)
2 adults 16-44 & 1+ 0-15	30	(24.9)	20	(13.8)	8	(10.6)	2	(11.7)
1 adult 16-44 & 1+ 0-15	31	(23.6)	20	(13.2)	5	(10.0)	2	(11.2)
1 or 2 adults 45+ & 1+ 0-15	12	(11.4)	7	(6.4)	6	(4.8)	3	(5.4)
Mixed adults 16+ & 1+ 0-15	62	(37.9)	21	(21.1)	5	(16.1)	5	(17.9)
2 adults 45+	25	(64.0)	21	(35.6)	21	(27.2)	90	(30.2)
Mixed adults 16-44 & 45+	66	(66.9)	35	(37.2)	37	(28.4)	26	(31.5)
3 or more adults 45+	12	(15.9)	10	(8.8)	7	(6.8)	10	(7.5)
Single adults	2	(2.9)	2	(1.6)	3	(1.2)	0	(1.3)

Table 46 overleaf, shows that people tended to remain on site for more than an hour, regardless of age type. However, parties which included children seemed to spend less time on site. On average 40 per cent of such parties remained for up to 2 hours, 40 per cent 2 - 4 hours, and 10 per cent more than 4 hours. Larger parties of older adults (3 or more over 45) and mixed groups of adults followed a similar pattern. However, older couples (45+) tended to stay specifically between 2 - 4 hours. Again the high incidence of coach trippers in this age group were responsible for this observation, with length of stay being controlled by the coach organiser.

Table 46

Age type and length of stay on site

Observed and Expected Values in brackets

Age type	Under 30 mins	30 - 1 hr	1 - 2 hrs	2 - 4 hrs	4 - 6 hrs	6+ hrs
2 adults 25-44 & 1+ 5-15	3 (1.6)	14 (15.5)	60 (45.2)	83 (98.5)	13 (11.5)	0 (0.7)
2 adults 16-44 & 1+ 0-15	0 (0.5)	6 (5.5)	16 (16.0)	34 (34.7)	5 (4.1)	0 (0.2)
1 adult 16-44 & 1+ 0-15	0 (0.5)	7 (5.2)	16 (15.2)	28 (33.0)	7 (3.9)	0 (0.2)
1 or 2 adults 45+ & 1+ 0-15	0 (0.3)	4 (2.5)	5 (7.3)	15 (15.9)	4 (1.9)	0 (0.1)
Mixed adults 16+ & 1+ 0-15	1 (0.8)	9 (8.3)	23 (24.3)	45 (52.9)	12 (6.2)	3 (0.4)
2 adults 45+	1 (1.4)	2 (14.1)	20 (41.1)	129 (89.4)	5 (10.5)	0 (0.6)
Mixed adults 16-44 & 45+	2 (1.5)	23 (14.7)	46 (42.9)	87 (93.4)	6 (10.9)	0 (0.6)
3 or more adults 45+	0 (0.3)	2 (3.5)	16 (10.2)	21 (22.2)	0 (2.6)	0 (0.1)

People aged 16 - 44 with children under 15 and coach tripping couples over 45 years old were less likely to have visited the site before. Conversely the results for mixed parties of adults, and all other groups which included children showed that the majority had visited the site before. In the case of those who had not visited the site before, and especially visitors to Kingston Lacy and the New Forest Butterfly Farm, these were more likely to be on holiday and resident outside the region.

Visit Details: Summary

In summary then, the results of the visit details showed that respondents with rather different socio-demographic backgrounds, differed in the details of their trips and seemed to require their trips to fulfill different needs. Using the evidence already presented

several statements can be made, by way of summary, which illustrate the nature of these requirements. For example, the Upper Hamble Country Park and Hampshire Farm Museum, were more likely to be visited by groups with children who have been there before and live locally. Those two sites therefore seem to meet the requirements for that sort of day trip. The New Forest Butterfly Farm has a wide sphere of influence and is visited more by people not resident in the Southern Tourist Board Region. They are either more likely to be over 45 years old, in social class C2 and to travel by coach, or they were families with children on holiday locally. Kingston Lacy was typically frequented by a high proportion of non-residents of social class A or B and most are older in age, especially couples over 45. Families with young children are less likely to visit this site. On a group basis coach travellers on organised trips are mainly couples over 45 are in social class C2. They often take 2 - 4 hours to get to the chosen site and remain there for 2 - 4 hours. Larger group sizes, which include families with relatives and children, often visit sites where they have been before and some stay much longer at the site. Groups with children generally take less time to travel to the site, and those with very young children often stay for shorter periods.

The visit details have provided background information relating to the respondents' trips to the sites. However, it can be seen that when related to the independent variables distinct differences occur between respondent groups. These differences are important to note because for example, as site selection may be related to social class, and children may affect length of stay at a site. Day trip opportunities may vary for families with different socio-demographic backgrounds.

Day reasons

The group of dependent variables which were termed 'day reasons' were derived from a single question posed in the interview, 'why did you decide to go out on a day trip today'? The purpose of this question was to get at the main reason for the day trip. But any answers to an open question of this type involve careful consideration at the coding stage. Some respondents offered more than one reason as to why they had decided to go on a day trip. When this occurred respondents were asked to indicate which of the reasons they had offered was the most important. This was, in the vast majority of cases, the first reason proferred, and subsequently this formed the basis of the factor used for analysis purposes. However, all the reasons offered were noted, and it is useful to reflect on these at this stage. Table 47 indicates how many reasons were recorded for the 800 respondents.

Table 47
Number of reasons offered

Number of Reasons per Respondent	**Frequency**
No comment	2
One reason only	309
Two reasons	363
Three reasons	112
Four reasons	13
Five reasons	1
Total	800

Valid cases	798
Missing cases	2

These results show that 84 per cent of respondents gave 1 or 2 comments and few respondents gave more than three. All of the combinations are shown in Appendix 3. In the majority of cases the 'add on' reasons after the main reason was given related to individual circumstances. For example, one respondent stated 'This was the

last day of our holiday and we decided that as the site was on our way home we would call in for a few hours'. In this instance further probing would reveal that 'on holiday' was the main reason for the trip and 'access easy/nearby' was a subsidiary reason. Similarly another respondent indicated 'Well we have often thought about visiting Kingston Lacy and as we were both off work today, we thought it would be a good idea'. Again, for this example probing was essential to distinguish whether wanting to 'see this site' or being 'off work' was the dominant reason.

More than half of the respondents gave more than one reason for their visit and these multi-reason comments took many different forms. There were, however, eight combinations of reasons that cropped up more commonly and these are shown in Table 48. Two sets of these paired reasons involved a basic decision to see the site, linked either to an interest in history or to a previous visit there, while another two sets of paired reasons referred to the fact that the respondents were on holiday.

Table 48

Repetitions of day reasons

1st Reason	**2nd Reason**	**Frequency**
See this site	Been before	14
See this site	Historical/architectural interest	15
Just out somewhere	Organised trip	9
On holiday	Be with family	14
On holiday	Weather good	12
Be with family	Go for a walk	9
Like nature	Organised trip	13
Good for kids	Be with family	11
		96

Too much should not be read into the combinations of reasons listed in Table 48. Much probing was necessary to get at them and some respondents had some difficulty in differentiating between the two

reasons they gave. They often needed to discuss with their parties which reason had been more important. Because of this the writer used various techniques with subsequent questions, such as the use of differential scales and prompt cards, to try to explore reasons for trips in more detail.

The main reasons given by each respondent were put into the twenty categories established in answer to this question and were cross tabulated against the same five independent variables used in the first part of this chapter. Table 49 summaries the results of the chi-square test applied in each case. It can be seen that in some cases the null hypothesis was accepted. However, 48 per cent of the cross tabulations rejected the null hypothesis at the 95 per cent level. The format for this section will focus on instances where the null hypothesis was rejected since those suggest the significant relationships. Again, each independent variable will be taken in turn in order to discuss the relationships of the dependent variables to it.

Table 49

Independent variables cross tabulated against day reasons

Day Reason		Independent Variables				
		Residence	Social class	Group size	Group type	Age type
See this site	1		√		√	√
Just out somewhere	2				√	
On holiday	3	√	√		√	√
Educational interest	4					√
Access easy/nearby	5					
Saw adverts/marketing	6					
Good for kids	7	√	√	√	√	√
Good atmosphere/site	8					
Be with family	9		√	√	√	√
Recommended	10			√		
Go for a walk	11	√	√		√	
Weather good	12	√			√	√
Weather poor	13			√		
Been before	14	√	√	√		√
Visiting with friends	15	√		√	√	√
Go for a picnic	16		√	√	√	√
Off work	17					
Like nature	18			√		√
Historical/arch interest	19	√	√		√	
Organised trip	20	√	√	√	√	√

Key
√ = Null hypothesis rejected at the 95% level
Blank = Null hypothesis accepted

The first independent variable to consider is the residence of the respondents. One third of all respondents who were not normally resident within the Southern Tourist Board region stated that the main reason for going out on a day trip on the survey day was that they were 'on holiday'. Other reasons that seemed more important to non-residents were 'historical or architectural interest' of the site chosen or that they were 'on an organised trip'. In contrast respondents who were residents of the region were more likely to

respond with the reason, to 'go for a walk'. The 94 responses to this question included 17.5 per cent of residents and 8.3 per cent of non-residents. In addition, residents commonly responded with 'good for children' as an important reason, in that of the 56 who responded in this way 42 were residents. Slightly more residents than non-residents gave 'visiting with friends and relatives' as a reason, although it would appear that a large proportion of respondents who were non-residents were also covered by this explanation.

Social class does have some effect on why the respondents decided to go on a particular day trip on the survey day. Of those who responded 'on holiday' 47.3 per cent were in social class A or B, with a further 22.5 per cent in C2. Of those that responded 'been before', 48 per cent were in social class A, and of the small number that stated 'historical or architectural interest', 46.3 per cent were in A and B class. 'Going for a walk' and 'having a picnic' were indicated by all social classes. Being on an 'organised trip' was very much a C2 class response. This agrees with findings in the visit details section, and is emphasized by the fact that of the 111 who responded in this way, 40.5 per cent were from C2 class alone.

Some reasons were commonly mentioned by all social classes, and any association with the independent variables is not easily explained. These reasons included 'see this site'; 'good for kids'; and 'to be with family'. Nearly 150 respondents said the reason for the trip was to be with the family and this type of answer came from people of all classes.

Group size is also an important variable that helps to account for behaviour. Essentially couples seemed to act differently from larger parties of four or more. A couple was more likely to be on an organised trip, in fact 82 per cent were couples. It was couples who responded to the reason of 'like nature', although there were only 27 responses to this reason. Couples were the largest single group size responding with 'been before' as a reason. In this instance, they accounted for 44 per cent of the 50 positive responses of this type.

On the other hand larger parties more often made reference to children as the reason for the day trip because these were more likely to be groups which contained children. For instance the group size of four accounted for 46.4 per cent of the 56 responses to 'good for kids' and 60.8 per cent of the 148 responses 'to be with family'. Other variables are not easily explained in that all group sizes are covered. These include 'recommended' and 'poor weather'. In relation to the reasons 'good for kids' and 'be with family' the family only group type as expected, accounted for 98.2 and 100 per cent of these types of responses.

Analysis of the age type independent variables shows that where children are visiting with adults, the nature of the trip appears to differ from that for adults only. This can be seen in several cross tabulations. Groups with children responded in larger than expected proportions with such reasons as; 'on holiday', 'educational interest', 'good for kids', 'be with family' and 'have a picnic'. Two reasons 'Be with family' and 'Good for kids' are, of course more likely for such groups. In the former case all groups with children produced observed values in excess of expected. Of the 146 responses with this reason, all of the groups which included children accounted for more than 90 per cent of the responses. Nearly all (93.6 per cent) of the 63 respondents who gave picnicing as a reason for a site visit were in groups which included children.

The adult only parties also gave certain reasons more frequently. These included; 'see this site', 'been before', 'visiting with friends or relatives', 'like nature' and 'on an organised trip'. Older couples and mixed parties of adults responded in larger relative proportions with the reason to 'see this site'. These two groups accounted for 50.6 per cent of these 182 responses. Mixed groups of adults in particular often responded 'been before'. Few older couples gave this reason, reflecting the high incidence of coach trippers in this group, and coach trippers were less likley to have visited the site before.

Visiting with friends and relatives was a reason for a site visit more obviously related to the larger group such as the mixed adults, and those made up of three or more persons aged 45+. This reason was

also often given by mixed adult groups with children. Other groups such as families made up of adults and children made no responses to this reason because, by their composition, they were not accompanied by friends or other relatives.

Day reasons: summary

In many ways then, the analysis of the responses provided in answer to why a day trip was undertaken agree with the results inferred earlier from the visit details. However, the main difference here is that it was the respondents themselves who offered the reasons. For instance, whilst the data had already established that more older couples travelled by coach on an organised trip, this part of the analysis suggests that it was the existance of an organised trip which was the main reason for a day trip on the survey day. That is, it seems that the coach trippers wanted to go on a trip and it was this that led to the decision to visit a site, not the existence of the particular site. The results of the analysis of day reasons may be summarised as follows:-

Those who gave their main reason for a visit to the site as 'on holiday', were mainly non-residents with children from social classes A and B.

Those who said their visit resulted from an 'organised trip', were mainly non-resident older couples of social class C2.

Those expressing an 'architectural or historical interest', as the main reason were non-residents with families, and in social class A.

Those who said that they came to a site to 'go for a walk', were mainly class C1 and C2 residents, some accompanied by relatives.

Those who said they visited in order to 'be with the family' or because it was 'good for kids', were either families and larger groups with children and were resident in the area.

Those on 'a picnic' were typically C2 families with children.

Those who said they were 'visiting with friends or relatives' were families with their guests, and, all included children.

Those who said they came to 'see this site' were mainly in parties of adults only.

Day factors

As the previous chapter indicated, another test, the day factor test was employed to gain further information on behaviour. This variable relates to the question which utilised a show card on which were nine statements. Three statements were of a general nature which included 'been before', 'organised trip' and 'with family'. Respondents who gave these reasons previously for their day trip now picked them out on the show card so that these parts of the results were virtually a repetition of results already reported. However, the remaining six factors on the show card related to sources of information which had not been covered by previous questions. These were therefore a new area of information. These now deserve some discussion.

These six statements on the show card included what could be loosely termed formal and informal sources of information. The informal included 'recommended', 'found by chance' and 'seen in a newspaper or magazine'. The more formal sources of information were 'seen it in a guide book', 'seen it at a tourist information centre' and 'seen it on a map'. The arbitrary nature of the distinction made between information sources was not conveyed to the respondents, and any of the statements of sources of information on the show card could be chosen by respondents as long as they were relevant to the individual's circumstances on the day. Thus it was perfectly feasible, for instance, for an individual family to 'be with the family' on a day trip which they had had 'recommended' and subsequently 'saw it on a map'.

These six sources of information were similarly cross tabulated against the same five independent variables used so far. Table 50 shows where the null hypothesis in the chi-square calculation was ultimately rejected.

Table 50

Day factors (sources of information) by the independent variables

Factor	Residence	Social class	Group size	Group type	Age type
Recommended	√		√	√	√
Found by chance				√	
Guide book	√			√	
Map	√	√		√	
Tourist Info centre Newspaper/magazine				√	√

Key
√ = Null hypothesis rejected
Blank = Null hypothesis accepted

Residence appeared to be important in three particular instances, with regard to the sources of information used on the day. An obvious distinction again occurred between the residents and non-residents, the latter being more likely to utilise more formal search methods such as a guide book or map than residents who knew the region better. For example, of the 154 respondents who said they used a guide book, 121 (or 78.6 per cent) were non-residents of the region. Similarly of the 53 respondents who said they used a map on the survey day, 42 (or 79.2 per cent) were not resident in the region.

A converse situation was the case for those who said they had come because the site was 'recommended' on the day. This reason was an important one, with 254 responses giving it, approximately equally shared between residents and non-residents. However, in terms of relative proportions, the observed value for residents was 28.3 per cent greater than expected. This is not surprising in that local residents were more likely to know other locals, who could recommend the site.

The results show that whilst all social classes made considerable use of maps to find the sites, those in social classes C2 and D were particularly well represented. This is because more of these were non-residents and had not visited the sites before.

When group type is used as the independent variable the overwhelming importance of families as the typical day trip unit is confirmed, but a distinction can be made between those families travelling alone and those on an organised trips in terms of sources of information. Families on an organised trip accounted for 95.7 per cent of those indicating 'organised trip' on the day factor show card. Alternative sources of information such as 'recommended', 'guide book', 'saw a map', and 'tourist information centre' were associated with families travelling alone, typically, as shown earlier, by private car. Several in this group said they came because the site was 'found by chance'. Not surprisingly, no groups on an organised trip stated this to be important.

The relative age of the group was important in two of the day factor, sources of information, namely 'recommended' and 'tourist information centre'. A total of 244 respondents indicated that the site had been recommended to them. The type of groups which revealed higher than expected values for this were families (adults under 44 and children under 15) but also mixed aged adult parties with or without children, and parties with three or more adults over 45. This supports a previous finding that such groups are less likely to visit a new site, and normally need good information if they do so. Moreover, where guests such as relatives are involved, the visit is often to a site where experiences have been found to be satisfactory previously.

The Tourist Information Centre as a source of day trip information was predominantly used by families with children, accounting for 57.4 per cent of the 108 responses to this factor. These groups are more likely to be on holiday and thus require a ready source of information to plan their time during their stay.

Day Factors: Summary

The day factors which relate to the information source of the day trip showed some findings which largely mirrored or emphasized those already presented. However, the use of a show card for this question helped to demonstrate the fact that guide books, maps and tourist

information centres were more likely to be used by family groups not on an organised trip, and by those who were non-residents. These in particular were more likely to use a guide book or a map in the selection of a suitable site. Residents not on an organised trip were less likely to use a guide book or map but more likely to have been recommended to the site. Family groups which included children under fifteen years were more likely to use a tourist information centre (regardless of their normal place of residence). Those who said that they had found the site 'by chance' were more likely to be adult only groups of friends aged under 25.

Importance Factors

The group of variables termed 'importance factors' which were employed in Chapter Four correspond with seven dependent variables. These were ones where respondents were asked to state how important that variable had been in their decision to visit the particular site on the survey day. To assist respondents, and to ease analysis, a show card was used with a 1 to 7 scale printed on it. Next to a value of one was written 'great importance', and next to seven was written 'no importance'. To apply this test respondents were asked, for example, 'How important was distance in your decision to visit this site today'? In reply the respondent was asked to give a score with the help of the guidelines on the card. This was repeated separately for each of the seven factors. Table 51 displays which of the factors revealed a level of association when cross tabulated with the independent variables.

Table 51

Importance factors by independent variables

Factor	Residence	Social class	Group size	Group type	Age type
Cost		√	√	√	√
Distance	√	√		√	√
Few people	√	√		√	
Value for money		√		√	√
Weather					√
Been before					
Not been before	√				√

Key
√ = Null hypothesis rejected
Blank = Null hypothesis accepted

The results in Table 51 show that the importance factor of having 'been before' displayed no association with any of the independent variables. The main reason for this is perhaps that this variable was only applicable to approximately one third of respondents. Consequently in the chi-square analysis the large number of empty cells inhibits the degree of association being established with the independent variables.

The variable relating to 'Cost' proved to be so crucial that discussion of it is best made separately. In terms of group size cost was important to all groups, but especially larger ones where admission charges were a particular concern. However, the group type variable emphasized its particular importance to families on an organised trip. This concern must be related to the high costs of such a day trip which previous discussion has shown to often include long journeys to the chosen site.

In terms of age type, cost can be an important factor to different types of group regardless of whether children are present or not. The main variable to which cost seemed related is social class. To show this effect more clearly the social classes were collapsed into three sub-divisions. Social class A and B were combined, as were C1 and

C2, and D and E. Further, the one to seven scale was re-defined to best express the result. A mid-point score of four was taken as an indifferent group. A score of 1, 2 or 3 indicating that there was 'much' importance attached to cost formed a second category. Subsequently the categories of 5, 6 and 7, indicating little or no importance, formed the third. The effect of collapsing the data in this way decreased the quantity of empty cells in the cross tabulations and therefore helped to get a result with the chi-square test.

Each of the eight age type categories were used to form a three way cross tabulation for social class to be tested against the importance of cost. The results shown in Table 52 give the observed and expected values for each case. A third column shows whether the observed values exceeded or were less than the expected. For each category of age type the null hypothesis in the chi-square test was rejected.

Table 52

The importance of cost by age type and social class

X^2	Age type	Social class	Much imp (1+2+3)			Mid-point (4)			Little imp (5+6+7)		
<0.5			OBS	EXP	+/-	OBS	EXP	+/-	OBS	EXP	+/-
√	0	A/B	12	37	LT	7	7.8	EQ	54	28.3	GT
		C1/C2	37	25.3	GT	5	5.3	EQ	8	19.4	LT
		D/E	32	18.7	GT	5	3.9	GT	0	14.3	LT
√	1	A/B	2	9.1	LT	6	4.4	GT	15	9.5	GT
		C1/C2	14	11/1	GT	5	5/3	EQ	9	11.6	LT
		D/E	7	2.8	GT	0	1.3	LT	0	2.9	LT
√	2	A/B	4	9.5	LT	2	1.8	EQ	18	12.7	GT
		C1/C2	12	8.3	GT	1	1.6	EQ	9	11.1	LT
		D/E	5	3/2	GT	1	0.6	EQ	2	4.2	LT
√	3	A/B	4	7.4	LT	No Case			9	5.6	GT
		C1/C2	9	6.9	GT				3	5.1	LT
		D/E	3	1.7	GT				0	1.3	LT
√	4	A/B	9	15/5	LT	6	7.8	LT	29	20.7	GT
		C1/C2	10	8.8	GT	6	4.4	GT	9	11.8	LT
		D/E	11	5.6	GT	3	2.8	EQ	2	7.5	LT
√	5	A/B	29	41.8	LT	8	7.9	EQ	55	42.2	GT
		C1/C2	32	21.8	GT	5	4.1	EQ	11	22.1	LT
		D/E	8	5.4	GT	0	1.0	EQ	4	5.5	LT
√	6	A/B	11	22.7	LT	18	14.9	GT	50	41.4	GT
		C1/C2	19	12.9	GT	6	8.5	LT	20	23.6	LT
		D/E	11	5.4	GT	3	3.6	EQ	5	10.0	LT
√	7	A/B	4	7.7	LT	1	1.8	EQ	17	12.5	GT
		C1/C2	4	3.2	EQ	2	0.7	GT	3	5.1	LT
		D/E	5	2.1	GT	0	0.5	EQ	1	3.4	LT

Key
Age type
0 = 2 adults 25-44 and 1+ 5-15
1 = 2 adults 16-44 and 1+ 0-15
2 = 1 adult 16-44 and 1+ 0-15
3 = 1 or 2 adults 45+ and 1+ 0-15
4 = Mixed adults 16+ and 1+ 0-15
5 = 2 adults 45+
6 = Mixed adults 16-44 only and 45+
7 = 3 or more adults over 45
Observed value greater than expected = GT
Observed value less than expected = LT
Observed value within frequency of 1.0 of expected value = EQ

The table in essence reveals the same basic results for each age type group. This is that less than expected As and Bs stated that cost is of much importance and more than expected state that cost is of little importance. The reverse was true for the C1, C2 combined group and the D, E group. In these cases more than expected state that cost has 'much' importance to them and less than the expected numbers stated that cost was of 'little' importance.

These results appear to mirror the findings of Phillips and Ashcroft (1987) who reviewed research carried out by the Countryside Commission. They further developed that 'frequent users' were more likely to be in a professional occupation; 'Occasional users' were more likely to be in clerical or skilled manual employment and 'people who go rarely or not at all' are more likely to be on low incomes, unskilled or unemployed, (Phillips and Ashcroft, 1987). If one assumes frequency of visits reflects the cost factor it does seem that cost is less important to those in higher social class. Social class is clearly directly related to income levels and consequently to the amount of disposable income a household can afford for day trip purposes. As such, the results of the site survey show that those respondents with higher incomes were less concerned about the importance of cost than are those on lower incomes. That is, lower social classes on relatively lower incomes regarded cost as having much importance in their decision to go on a day trip.

Social class as an independent variable was also associated to the other importance factors of distance, few people at the site and value for money. Distance was again found to be less of a concern to the

higher social classes (A and B) than for the remaining ones probably as a result of travel costs. Whilst owning a car has been shown to be indispensible for day trips, the cost of car travel and the distances to sites featured prominently in trip decision making. Travel costs weigh more heavily on the lower social classes, where there was less disposable income for day trips.

Evidence for this can be found by looking at respondents in social classes A and D. Only 9.5 per cent of thise in class A stated that distance was of great importance to them in site choice compared, to 25.2 per cent for those in D. At the other extreme 40.1 per cent of those in A stated that distance was of no importance compared to 12.6 per cent of those in D. Whilst other personal circumstances may differ between respondents in the same class the influence of distance on site choice does appear to suggest an observable pattern across the classes.

The nature of responses to the value for money question follow a similar pattern to that of cost, but was less marked in the extreme values. Whilst all social classes put value for money as a matter of uppermost importance the results display that it is less important for those in social classes A and B. Values of 1, 2 and 3 combined indicate that the factor was regarded as having much importance. These combined values account for 45.3 per cent of responses of people in social class B, but 62.7 per cent of those in D. The need to expect few people being on the site concerned all classes of respondents and the test of association did not identify it as being of more importance to any individual group.

As regards the remaining importance factors against the independent variables the place of residence was a contributory element in terms of a concern over distance to a site, the crowding at the site, and not having been to the site before. Non-residents, as expected, indicated that distance to the site was more important to them than to residents. This is because some non-residents, such as those on coach trips, had to travel long distances (2 - 4 hours from site) when distance becomes a serious consideration. Non-residents, as shown earlier, were more likely to choose a site because they had 'not been

to the site before'. Conversely residents did not indicate these factors as being high priorities in their decision making. Rather finding a less crowded site was more important to them.

The group type results showed that families on an organised trip put higher priorities on the factors of distance to the site and value for money. The longer distances involved and higher costs incurred by such respondents, who are generally in C2 class mean that they can be a deterrent.

The age type variable revealed some interesting results. With regard to value for money Table 53 shows that all groups were concerned about value for money but some more than others. The group of parents (16-44) with children (0-15), rated the need for value for money highly. In constrast, mixed adult groups and older adult groups (3 or more) had higher proportions of those indicating value for money was of little importance (15.3 and 16.7 per cent respectively). Whilst value for money could have been just as important to those with higher incomes it was these groups who had typically visited the chosen site before. These respondents often knew the site charges and had decided these would not deter them.

Table 53

Value for money and age type

Age type	% of Respondents in each age type group		
	Some importance Score 1, 2, 3	Mid-point 4	Little importance 5, 6, 7
2 adults (25-44) & 1+ (5-15)	57.3	34.5	8.2
2 adults (16-44) & 1+ (0-15)	52.6	42.4	5.1
1 adult (16-44) & 1+ (0-15)	60.4	25.9	13.8
1 or 2 adults (45-64) & 1+ (0-15)	60.7	28.6	10.7
Mixed adults (16+) & 1+ (0-15)	53.0	37.6	9.4
Couple (45+)	54.1	32.5	13.3
Mixed adults (16-44) only and 45+	54.2	30.5	15.3
3 or more (45+)	55.6	27.8	16.7

The influence of distance on the trip decision is a variable which relates closely to the ages of the party. Table 53 reveals that families with children (the first two groups in the table) were generally more concerned with this. 48 and 44.2 per cent respectively, in these two groups indicated this factor as having much importance to them. Obviously some respondents in these groups were less concerned about distances because their individual day trip circumstances could have varied on the survey days. But earlier findings showed that a large number of families categorized in these groups did live locally, and therefore quite often took less than 30 minutes to journey to sites.

Table 54

Age type and the importance of distance

Age type	% of Respondents in each age type group		
	Much importance Score 1, 2, 3	Mid-point 4	Little importance 5, 6, 7
2 adults (25-44) & 1+ (5-15)	48	19.7	32.4
2 adults (16-44) & 1+ (0-15)	44.2	23	32.8
1 adult (16-44) & 1+ (0-15)	36.2	13.8	50
1 or 2 adults (45-64) & 1+ (0-15)	42.9	7.1	50
Mixed adults (16+) & 1+ (0-15)	35.9	13.0	51.1
Couple (45+)	46.5	16.6	37
Mixed adults (16-44) only and 45+	35.5	19.5	45.2
3 or more adults (45+)	30.8	12.8	56.4

Distance was an important influence on older couples and again this can be related to earlier results. Of the older couples who were 45+ years of age and on an organised coach trip which took 2 - 4 hours to get to the site, it is not surprising that 46.5 per cent of then indicated that distance had the highest priority. To other groups however, the bias of responses in Table 54, lies towards the less important categories. Adult only parties were perhaps more able to consider visiting more distant sites without having the responsibilities of restless children in their parties.

Table 55

Age type and the importance of weather

Age type	% of Respondents in each age type group		
	Much importance Score 1, 2, 3	Mid-point 4	Little importance 5, 6, 7
2 adults (25-44) & 1+ (5-15)	51.8	30.8	17.5
2 adults (16-44) & 1+ (0-15)	47.6	23.0	29.5
1 adult (16-44) & 1+ (0-15)	46.6	27.6	25.8
1 or 2 adults (45-64) & 1+ (0-15)	50.0	17.9	32.1
Mixed adults (16+) & 1+ (0-15)	50.6	24.7	24.8
Couple (45+)	30.5	21.0	48.4
Mixed adults (16-44) only and 45+	51.0	20.2	28.9
3 or more adults (45+)	46.1	20.5	33.4

The show card enquired of respondents if the weather had influenced their trip decision. Age type was the only independent variable which had a significant degree of association when cross tabulated against weather. The results in Table 55 show that weather was regarded as having some importance to the decision on the day for the majority of groups. The major exception to this pattern were the older couples (45+). In this case 30.5 per cent indicated that weather was of 'much importance' but 48.4 per cent stated that weather was of 'little importance' to their trip decision. Explanation for this lies in the fact that, as shown earlier, a large proportion of this group were on organised trips. Under such circumstances the date of the trip is likely to have been planned and booked in advance. Thus on the actual day there is little choice as regards the weather.

Table 56

Age type and the importance of not having been to the site before

Age type	% of Respondents in each age type group		
	Much importance Score 1, 2, 3	Mid-point 4	Little importance 5, 6, 7
2 adults (25-44) & 1+ (5-15)	54.5	25.2	20.2
2 adults (16-44) & 1+ (0-15)	40.5	27.7	31.9
1 adult (16-44) & 1+ (0-15)	62.8	14.3	22.9
1 or 2 adults (45-64) & 1+ (0-15)	79.0	15.8	5.3
Mixed adults (16+) & 1+ (0-15)	55.0	35.0	10.0
Couple (45+)	61.1	32.2	6.7
Mixed adults (16-44) only and 45+	59.9	18.2	21.8
3 or more adults (45+)	74.1	14.8	11.1

Going to a new site was a deciding factor for many of the respondents. Of the total sample population of 800, 523 respondents (65.4 per cent) had not visited the site before. This was important for all groups in terms of their ages, but was particularly for older couples taking children (typically grandparents), where 79 per cent stated that a new site was of much importance in their site choice. This was similarly the case for larger parties of older adults (3 or more over 45), where 74.1 per cent indicated it had had much importance. Table 56 displays these results.

Importance Factors: Summary

The various importance factors which utilised a scale of preference have shown how important various reasons had been in the decision of respondents to visit a particular site. These may be summarised as follows:-

The importance of cost was overwhelmingly linked to social class. That the higher the social class the less was the concern for the cost of the day trip and conversely, the lower the social class the greater was the concern for the costs involved. Distance to site, which is related to cost, was less likely to be a concern of respondents in higher social class groups, although it was more important to older couples, non-residents, and those on an organised trip. Value for money was slightly less important to high social class groups than to those in other groups. Value for money was a general concern but not for those who had been to the site before presumably because of their previous experience of the site. Value for money was, however, more important to those on organised trips and to younger parents with young children where the total cost maybe a greater burden.

Respondents who were residents of the region were more bothered about how many people were expected to be at the site than others, and attached more importance to few people being there. All groups showed some concern for the weather on the day, except for those on organised trips. This group of respondents is likely to have paid in advance and thus had little choice whether to visit a site even if the weather was poor.

Other Reasons

Additional points were made by respondents in this part of the questionnaire and cross tabulations were carried out against these additional comments and this revealed some interesting results. These other reasons were grouped into site reasons, family reasons, National Trust membership, and a miscellaneous category. Table 57 shows which cross tabulations resulted in a rejection of the null hypothesis.

Table 57

Other reasons by independent variables

Reason	Residence	Social class	Group size	Group type	Age type
No comment	√	√			
Site reasons	√	√			
Family reasons		√	√	√	√
The National Trust	√	√	√	√	√
Others	√				

Key
√ Null hypothesis rejected
Blank Null hypothesis accepted

Residence appears to have had some bearing on respondents' desire to make further comments. More than 60 per cent of residents of the region made no additional comment whereas only 48.2 per cent of non-residents had nothing further to add. This may be because non-residents had more complex reasons for their site visits requiring additional information. Non-residents were responsible for the miscellaneous comments (relating to individual circumstances) in the 'others' category. Non-residents were also more likely to have mentioned their membership of the National Trust. However, membership of the National Trust was only relevant at Kingston Lacy, where non-residents were found to make up a higher proportion of visitors. Of the 71 respondents questioned at Kingston Lacy who were members, 59 were non-residents.

Results showing association with social class revealed the fact that lower social classes were less likely to make additional comments. A total of 64.1 per cent of the D class respondents made no comment, whereas only 43.6 per cent of social class A gave no comment. Many of the higher social classes seemed able to find additional site choice or family reasons which had been important to their decision. Of the 252 responses which referred to the site 38.1 per cent were solely from class A, and similarly of the 91 responses which were family reasons, 28.6 per cent were from this same class. Membership of the National Trust is more likely to be of persons in the higher social classes. Of the 71 who indicated membership 54.9 per cent were from social class A and 21.1 per cent were from
class B.

Those visiting in larger groups were more likely to indicate additional family reasons for their trip decision. Of the 91 responses in this category, 83.5 per cent came from groups which were made up of 4 or more people. Conversely, however, couples were more likely to be members of the National Trust. More than half had travelled in a group of two. This agress with earlier findings at Kingston Lacy where couples were more common and larger parties with children were not common.

Others reasons: Summary

Overall most of the additional comments made related to particular individual circumstances. However, it appears that non-residents were able to make more comments about their trip decisions and high social class groups are more likely to be members of the National Trust. Family reasons were more important in the decision making of larger family groups, especially where children were concerned.

Site Survey: Summary of results

The results of the site survey at the four sites have revealed findings which could help the understanding of day trip characteristics within the Southern Tourist Board region. Further, several key variables have been identified and give particular insights into household circumstances which influence the decision to visit a particular site. The survey results also go some way to begin to explain why people went on a day trip to one of the four sites. This general summary will evaluate three areas starting with what has been learned about the general characteristics of day trips to the four sites. This will be followed by consideration of the influence of the household's socio-demographic background and will then address the question of why respondents selected one of these sites for a day trip.

The site surveys brought to light several different aspects of day tripping activity which go to make up the larger spatial pattern observable within the study region. The results can also be related to the findings of other major studies carried out recently. For instance the use of a car was established as being very important to households undertaking out-of-home recreation in the study region. This finding concurs with the English Tourist Board study (1982) which found that '71 per cent of trips are made by car'. This survey found that a car was used by 82.9 per cent of respondents on their day trips.

One finding in this survey is that older couples formed a significant part of the total number of visitors to the sites. This finding was also the case for visitors to the countryside (Countryside Commission, 1985) but is in contrast to the results of the English Tourist Board survey (1982) which indicated that people over 55 are less likely to make trips.

Other aspects of the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents agree with the Countryside Commission's (1985) findings and that of the study by Applied Leisure Marketing Ltd. (1987). Such findings include the following:-

- Families are the main visiting unit to day trip sites.
- The car owning middle classes are most able to go on a day trip and make up the major share of day trippers because cost is less important to them and they are more likely to have membership of an organisation such as the National Trust.
- The overall spatial pattern of activity is made up of a mixture of group types though they are most commonly families with children or married couples with or without relatives.
- Some take part in specific activities whilst others are involved with informal recreation such as walking or picnics.
- Catchments of sites are fairly local. This agrees with the English Tourist Board survey (1982) which found that on average the total distance travelled on day trips was 39 miles.

In terms of the constraints acting on the household the results of this survey indicate that there are two distinct groups influential in participation. First, the incidence of trip making appears to be lower among the DE social groups where factors such as cost and value for money are more important to these respondents. It would seem that low income is seen to be a major obstacle when considering the expense of a day trip and may inhibit many from selecting sites such as some of those studied here where charges are applied.

The second group of constraints relates more to the individual respondents, their parties and personal aspirations. At the extremes of the household life cycle the older couple without children seem to act differently from those younger parents with children. Children appear to have considerable influence on the nature of day trips, and are more likely to be taken to sites geared to their enjoyment, such as the Hampshire Farm Museum. Moreover, comments relating to children were frequently mentioned by respondents in such circumstances. These included aspects such as journey time to the site. Length of stay at the site may be altered to suit the requirements of children. At the other end of the scale, older couples without children were more likely to visit sites such as Kingston Lacy that do not appeal to young families. Their travel arrangements are less restricted in terms of the travel time to the site and whether the trip was undertaken on a weekend or weekday.

While these aspects appear to affect the decision making processes very often personal circumstances actually dictate the reason for a particular visit and restrict the options available in the selection of suitable sites. Thus the twofold classification of reasons relating to personal circumstances, or the site specific reasons mentioned earlier, may be further sub-divided. Among the personal circumstances there are differences in individual behaviour which are related to whether the respondent is on holiday or at home. For those travelling from home, sites were visited because the respondents had been there before or because the site had been recommended. Conversely, for those on holiday an organised excursion was often the reason for the visit. Both groups were similar in their responses to family needs, such as wanting to satisfy the children.

The importance of friends and relatives in shaping day trips should not be neglected and has been seen as a typical characteristic of day trips and an influence on decision making. The English Tourist Board Study (1982) found that one in four trips involved going with friends or relatives. Similarly this survey showed a large proportion of families were with relatives, and many resident families were taking friends or relatives to sites where they have been before. It would seem that new sites are less favoured when taking family and relatives out because embarrassment may be caused if the visit to an unfamiliar site is not satisfactory.

The site survey results show that an understanding of the socio-demographic characteristics of respondent groups, together with inferences related to financial or access constraints, are vital in the understanding of the spatial characteristics of day trip activity. These aspects are also necessary to understand trip decision making because personal circumstances are so important to the way individuals consider day trip opportunities. Whilst a wish to visit a specific site is important in the decision it is coupled with evaluation of whether the facilities will satisfy the individual requirements of the respondent group.

Thus the site survey has gone some way in the study of day trips at the regional level. However, several aspects require further investigation. The site survey only looked at aspects of a single day trip and this needs to be put in the context of decisions to visit different places over a longer time period, to see what patterns may emerge over time. Thus, the number of day trips taken by individuals and the relative importance of the day trips analysed here amongst others requires further inquiry. Moreover, different types and frequencies of day trips over time will obviously involve various types of decisions, and these aspects require closer scrutiny to further satisfy the research aims.

Chapter Six

Description And Analysis Of Diary Survey Results

Introduction

The purpose of the diary survey was to further the investigation of day trip decision making by studying day trip characteristics over a longer time period than the days on which the site surveys were made. Furthermore, the diary survey was designed to develop issues such as social class and life cycle stage, as well as reasons for a day trip, in greater depth than was possible in the site surveys. The diary survey covered the months of August and September 1987, and continued from March to July 1988. The intention was that respondents would complete a questionnaire each month indicating where they had been on their day trips in that month and why they had selected a particular site and/or activity. All respondents who lived within the Southern Tourist Board region that were interviewed at the site survey stage were asked to take part in the diary survey. 77 of the 292 site survey respondents who were eligible agreed to take part and completed a minimum of two monthly diaries. This gave an initial response rate of 26.7 per cent who formed a self-selected group. Of these initial 77 respondents, 34 completed all seven diaries, that is, covering seven months. Possible effects of this self-selection for greater and shorter periods are discussed later.

Results from this part of the survey are discussed in this and the following chapter. In this chapter, the basic results are first described with particular reference to the nature of the participating households and the places they visited. The effect of different socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents are related to the total number and types of day trips undertaken by them. Investigation of reasons for the trips and further analysis of household types will continue in the following chapter.

Description of results

Table 58
Number in household

Number in Household	Frequency	Percentage	Total Number of Persons
2	27	35.1	54
3	18	23.4	54
4	23	29.9	92
5	8	10.4	40
6	1	1.3	6
	77	100.0	246

The diary survey differed somewhat from the site surveys with regard to the numbers found within each household family, or participating group. The site surveys had determined the size of the group visiting the site with the respondent and whether that group was a family, part of a family or included relatives and friends as well. With the diary survey, as Table 58 indicates, the number of persons normally resident with the respondent was ascertained. The results show that 23 couples accounted for the largest single category of household size. The largest household in this instance was one with six members.

Table 59
Age type of diary respondents

Type	Frequency	Percentage
2 adults 25-44 and 1 or more 5-15	21	27.3
2 adults 16-44 and 1 or more 0-15	19	24.7
1 adult 16-44 and 1 or more 0-15	1	1.3
Mixed adults 16+ and 1 or more 0-15	8	10.4
Couple aged 45 or more	23	29.9
Mixed group adults 16-44 and 45+	5	6.5
	77	100.0

Table 59 shows that the number of age type groups was less than with the site survey, because on the site surveys different types of group, including large parties made up of a family and relatives were also identified. In the case of the diary survey the actual age structure could be specified more closely. It was found that households with children accounted for 63.7 per cent of the sample. Within these, the largest group was families made up of two adults with at least one child aged between 5 and 15 years. All children younger than 5 years are accounted for in the remaining categories which specify children. In them there are two adults who may be under 25, but no more than 44 years of age. The diary survey also revealed one single parent family.

One of the categories which does not appear in the diary survey, which was present in the site survey, is that of older adults (more than 45 years old) with children. This is because these adults were often grandparents and would not normally be resident in the same household as the children. Older couples do, however, form an important category in themselves. In the diary survey 29.9 per cent of all diary respondents were aged 45 years or older with a partner of similar age. Further differences between the diary survey and site survey are discussed later.

Table 60
Social class of diary respondents

Social Class	Frequency	Percentage	National Proportions (Percentage *)
A	4	5.2	2
B	27	35.1	13
C1	27	35.1	23
C2	15	19.5	27
D	4	5.2	16
	77	100.0	

* Source Countryside Commission, 1985.

The results of the social class analysis of the households, by occupation of head of household, are similar to findings in the site survey (Table 60). In terms of the national proportions (using information from the Countryside Commission (1985) developed from the 1981 Census , people from the higher social class groups (A, B and C1) were more highly represented in the diary survey. Conversely, lower class groups, in this case C2 and D, were under represented in relation to their national proportions. That this has happened is not surprising in that it mirrors findings from other surveys such as by the Countryside Commission, which found that 'the most frequent trip makers are B class', (Countryside Commission, 1985). Social class E is not presented in the table as no respondents in the diary survey were from that group. In addition, unlike the site surveys which had a group of 'others', where incomplete information on occupations made it impossible to classify, this survey insisted on precise information so that each respondent could be allocated to a social class group.

Table 61
Number of diaries

Month	Number of Diaries	Number Respondents Dropped Out from Start
August 1987	77	0
September 1987	77	0
March 1988	50	27
April 1988	44	33
May 1988	41	36
June 1988	35	42
July 1988	34	43
	358	

While 77 respondents agreed to complete the diaries, not all were able to do this for all seven months. Table 61 lists the diaries received on a monthly basis and shows that a total of 358 diaries were

received during the seven month survey period. A minimum of two months[1] were required for any one respondent's diaries to be included in the survey. Thus all 77 respondents provided details of their activities for at least two months and 34 (44.2%) completed diaries for the whole period of seven months. It was expected that some respondents would fail to complete diaries for the whole period and the severest fall in respondents occurred during the winter gap between September 1987 and March 1988. When diary keeping resumed in March 1988, 50 respondents continued but 16 respondents dropped out before the end of the survey period in July.

Table 62

Number of trips

Month	Number of Trips	Number of Respondents	Average No of Trips per Respondent
August	366	77	4.75
September	235	77	3.05
March	207	50	4.14
April	188	44	4.27
May	191	41	4.66
June	138	35	3.94
July	144	34	4.24
	1469[2]	358	

The diary keepers were asked to note how many trips had been taken in the month, where these trips had been to, and why particular sites were selected. Table 62 reveals that a total of 1469 trips were recorded during the diary survey period. If this figure is divided by the number of diaries completed, then the average number of trips taken is 4.10 per respondent each month. The absolute number of trips taken in each month varies, of course, as the number of

Footnotes

1 5 respondents provided only 1 months information relating to August 1987. These five were not used.

2 The total number of trips relates to the 358 monthly diaries provided and makes no account of the changing nature of respondents during the survey period.

respondents declined during the survey period. However, examination of the average number of trips shows that more trips were taken in August and May, and fewer particularly during September. The fact that the months of greatest and least trip making were the first two of the diary months would suggest that there is some seasonal pattern, with the numbers picking up again after the winter months.

Table 63

Type of trip

Type	Number of Trips	Number of Respondents	No Trips per Respondent[3]	Percentage of all Trips
Culture:-				
Historic Building	62	24	2.58	4.22
Art	55	20	2.75	3.74
Gallery/Museum				
Churches	7	6	1.17	0.47
Other Culture	28	15	1.87	1.91
Nature:-				
Country Park	170	56	3.04	11.57
Zoo/Wildlife	61	31	1.97	4.15
Gardens	42	20	2.10	2.86
Urban Park	13	7	1.86	0.88
Other Nature	6	6	1.00	0.41
Fun:-				
Theme Park	54	30	1.80	3.68
Pleasure Beach	13	7	1.86	0.88
Other Fun	28	28	1.00	1.91
Countryside:-				
Country Walks	262	46	5.67	17.84
Woods/Forests	123	43	2.86	8.37
Coast	105	35	3.00	7.15
Other Countryside	2	2	1.00	0.14
Other:-				
Visit to Town/City	163	45	3.62	11.10
Visits to Friends/Relatives	109	38	2.87	7.42
Leisure Shopping	105	37	2.94	7.15
Organised Sport	59	12	4.92	4.02
Miscellaneous	2	1	2.00	0.14
	1469			100.01

Footnotes

3 The mean number of trips per respondent is for a seven month period. Thus the calculation is in part based on records kept for two months for some respondents.

Respondents were asked simply to list the places they had visited and the activity involved. The diary data was grouped to give a total of 21 different types of day trip categories (as shown in Table 63). The categories were devised during the coding procedure of the results and were not specified beforehand to the respondents. Some of these categories were based on the type of site visited, such as a theme park, whilst others represented a specific activity, such as leisure shopping. In a number of instances some categories included similar types of activity and the description of the day trip was not specific enough to allocate it to a particular category. These were grouped as 'other culture', 'other nature', 'other fun', or 'other countryside'. In some cases a day trip may have included more than one activity or place visited. Here the nature of the main part of the day trip was deduced from the information available and was recorded under one of these more general classes, as appropriate.

The most common trip revealed by the diary surveys was a walk in the countryside, undertaken by 46 respondents a total of 262 times. Such a walk had to satisfy the definition of a day trip, and thus short walks, where the trip was less than three hours in duration, were not included. Countryside walks were separated from trips to the coast or woods, because in these instances walking was not always the main activity. Visits in the countryside (including walks, coast and forest trips) accounted for 33.4 per cent of all trips, indicating the importance of informal rural recreation. Walking in the countryside appears to be a repetitive type of day trip for those participating in it. Whilst this generalisation is not the case for all, it would appear that those that walk do so regularly rather than infrequently. This is also the case for participants of organised sports. Only 12 respondents undertook organised sport yet went on 59 trips, on average of almost five trips per respondent.

Several of the other activities listed in Table 63 can best be examined in terms of groups. Churches, historic buildings, art galleries and museums can be combined with other cultural attractions. A total of 152 trips were made to such attractions, but the number of respondents participating was less than for countryside walks. Visits to zoos, country parks, urban parks, gardens can be combined into a

nature based category, accounting for 292 individual trips. Visits to country parks dominated this class with 170 trips made by the highest proportion of respondents, 56. The majority of respondents who visited country parks did so on a relatively regular basis, as inferred by the average figure of 3 trips per respondent (regardless of the number of diaries). Pleasure beaches, theme parks and other types of fun attraction were visited by a lower proportion of respondents fewer times. For example, the 30 respondents who visited a theme park did so 54 times, revealing an average number of visits of 1.8.

The remaining categories not already discussed include visits to friends and relatives, leisure shopping and sightseeing in towns or cities. These three day trip types together accounted for 25.7 per cent of the total number of trips. Moreover, between 37 and 45 respondents participated in these activities and did so quite frequently, approximately three times per respondent. Shopping as a leisure activity was not incorporated in the English Tourist Board study (1982) but responses from the diaries indicate that in many cases it was not regarded as work, or essential duties, and is therefore included here. Visits to friends and relatives were also common occurrences. Where a visit to the relative's home included a related trip which was seen by the respondent as being more important, such as a trip to the coast then for the purposes of this study it was recorded as a coast day trip and not a trip to relatives. Justification for this lies in the fact that the later analysis can still pick out the relatives as a factor important in influencing the day trip decisions.

Table 64

Actual places visited by respondents

Place	% Participation
Southampton	6.6
Upper Hamble Country Park	5.6
New Forest (General)	5.4
Royal Victoria Country Park	3.4
Winchester	3.2
Bournemouth	3.1
Southampton Common	2.7
Portsmouth	2.6
Southsea (and Front)	2.4
Paultons Park	2.3
Farley Mount Country Park	2.2
Lee-on-Solent	2.1
Warsash	1.9
Ocean Village	1.9
Wickham	1.6
Isle of Wight	1.3
Netley	1.2
Botley, Lymington, Lyndhurst	1.1 each
Hampshire Farm Museum	1.0
Leigh Park Farm, Eastleigh, Bolderwood, New Forest Butterfly Farm, Marwell Zoo, Poole, Soton Riverside Park, Titchfield (& Haven)	0.9 each
Rhinefield	0.8 each
Woolston, Queen Elizabeth Country Park, Gosport, Swanage, Forest of Bere, Hill Head Beach	0.7 each
Kingston Lacy, Bucklers Hard, Christchurch, Fareham, Marine Life Centre (Southsea), New Itchen Country Park	0.6 each
Portchester Castle, Petersfield	0.5 each
Romsey (Town), Sarisbury Green	0.4 each
Beaulieu (area), Basingstoke, Bosham, HMS Warrior, Watercress Line, Exbury Gardens, Lepe Beach, Corfe Castle	0.3 each

Place	% Participation
Hengistbury Head, Brockenhurst, Aviation Museum (Southampton), Calshot, Braemore House, Mary Rose, HMS Victory, D-Day Museum (Portsmouth), Havant, Hillier Arboretum, Bitterne Park, Romsey Park Hurst Castle, Butser Hill Country Park	0.2 each
Twyford, Bishopstoke, Hythe, Mansbridge, Mottisfont Abbey, Brownsea Island, Longdown Dairy Farm, Osbourne House, Fleet	0.1 each
Bovington Tank Museum, Beaulieu Abbey, Broadlands House, Highcliffe, Burley, Fishermans Walk, Lovedean, Bitterne, Chandlers Ford, Maritime Museum (Southampton), Southampton Tudor House, Stockbridge Down, Finkley Down Farm, Maiden Castle, Moors Valley Country Park, Badbury Rings, HMS Dryad, Ringwood	0.1 each

The places visited shown in Table 64 relate to locations reported by respondents in the diaries. Thus, the grouping sites from similar locations is not presented here. The reason for this is that respondents may interpret 'sites' differently, especially where towns or cities are concerned. Thus, Southampton may have been mentioned as a day trip location for leisure shopping, whereas Southampton Common, located near Southampton, may also have been mentioned for dog walking. The results presented here neither make no distinction nor group similar locations, but simply utilise the place names offered by respondents.

Analysis of the diaries in this way show that a total of 98 places in the region were used by the diary respondents for a day trip. Of the total of 1469 trips that were undertaken, throughout the survey, visits to

the listed places 98 represented 83.3 per cent of them, equal to 1223 visits. The remaining 246 visits were either to locations outside of the region (98) or were not named (148). For example, a respondent may have indicated a 'country walk', but did not state where. In some cases the respondent did not record a clearly defined site, such as 'Marwell Zoo', and only indicated a general location, such as 'Southampton'. Nevertheless, to include a visit in the diary it would have to satisfy the definitions of a day trip, an aspect clearly conveyed to all respondents.

The actual destination of a trip did not in all instances indicate the type of trip taken. For example, a visit to Winchester might be for sightseeing but could equally be to visit friends and relatives or for leisure shopping. It could be for this reason that Southampton was the most popular single destination stated accounting for 6.6 per cent of the total, or 97 actual visits. Similarly other major towns and cities were also important destinations. There were 47 visits to Winchester (3.2%), 46 to Bournemouth (3.1%) and 38 to Portsmouth (2.4%). The reason for their popularity lies in the fact that many different types of activity can take place in each location. This was also the case with locations such as the New Forest (5.4% of visits) and other more general locations where a variety of activities may take place.

Despite the obvious attraction of these towns and larger areas, a number of sites associated with specific recreational pursuits were important. The best example is the Upper Hamble Country Park, where 82 visits (5.6%) took place, but other places with wildlife, gardens and heritage attractions were all represented, such as the Hampshire Farm Museum (1.0%), Hilier Arboretum (0.3%) and Corfe Castle (0.3%).

Table 65

Number of holidays/weekends away

Number of Holidays	Number of Respondents	Number of Weekends or Short Breaks	Number of Respondents
0	44	0	65
1	16	1	6
2	11	2	3
3	3	3	2
4	3	5	1
	77		77

Whilst the diary survey required information relating to day trips, the diaries also showed instances where holidays or short breaks were taken. In practice respondents often provided information about a wide range of leisure activities other than simply day trips. The information provided in Table 65 may be incomplete as it was not specifically requested, and, of course some respondents may have taken a holiday but not recorded it, or even dropped out of the survey itself. Nevertheless from the 358 diaries provided, 16 of the 77 respondents had taken a holiday (defined as 4 or more nights away from home), and 3 respondents had been on 4 holidays in the survey period. Six respondents had had weekend or short breaks away (defined as 1 night and up to 3 nights away from home). One respondent had taken five breaks of this type.

Overall, the information discussed shows that the 77 respondents participated in a wide variety of day trip activities within the study region. However, as the site survey data found, socio-demographic constraints, such as social class and age, were an influence on day trips. In the following section such aspects are evaluated further with respect to the diary survey.

Analysis of household socio-demographic characteristics

Introduction

An important element of the methodology of the diary survey was that respondents self-selected themselves for inclusion, and it has already been pointed out that the sample was biased towards over representation of the higher social classes and older age households. It was therefore important to test any relationships that appeared to exist between day trip behaviour over the diary period against this household and class make up of the sample. Other variables tested in the site survey, such as group size, group type and residence are not applicable to the diary survey, in that the first two were already dealt with in the site surveys, and the latter was a constant in this survey because all respondents were chosen as being normally resident in the sub-region.

While the two surveys did appear to have a degree of commonality in terms of age type and social class it seemed useful to investigate the differences in these variables in each survey. However, comparison can only fairly be made between site survey respondents who were eligible (those resident in the region) to take part in the diary survey. A chi-square test was applied to each population in terms of these variables, and the results are shown in the following Table 66.

Table 66

Chi-square results for all site survey residents by diary respondents

Variable	Total No. of Respondents [4]	No. of Diary Respondents	Chi-square Value	Tabulated Value at 0.1%	Null Hypothesis
Social Class	261	77	47.4	20.52	Rejected
Age Type	280	77	52.4	26.12	Rejected

Footnotes

4 The total number of eligible respondents was 292, however in each case here there were missing cases where information was incomplete and thus could not form part of the chi-square test.

The results in Table 66 show that in both cases the null hypothesis was confidently rejected. This indicates that the probability of these results occurring by chance is less than 0.1 per cent, and therefore the two survey groups of respondents must be regarded as different. These differences are now scrutinised in order to see how to deal with them.

Table 67

Age type frequencies for diary and site survey (local residents) respondents

Age Type Category of Group	Frequency/Percentage			
	Site Survey		Diary Survey	
2 adults 25-44 and 1+ 5-15	57	20.4	21	27.3
2 adults 16-44 and 1+ 0-15	30	10.7	19	24.7
1 adult 16-44 and 1+ 0-15	29	10.4	1	1.3
1 or 2 adults 45-64 and 1+ 0-15	13	4.6	0	0
Mixed adults 16+ and 1+ 0-15	55	19.6	8	10.4
2 adults over 45	25	8.9	23	29.9
Mixed adults 16-44 and 45+	58	20.7	5	6.5
3 or more adults over 45	11	3.9	0	0
Single adult	2	0.7	0	0
	280*	100	77	100

*12 missing cases

A major difference between the two groups of respondents, with regard to age type, is that three of the categories which appeared in the site survey do not appear in the diary survey (see Table 67). These categories are the older adults with young children, parties of 3 or more adults over 45 years old and adults by themselves. The diary survey also threw up only a single case of one adult with children which was a common group in the site survey. The main reasons for these differences lie in the differing nature of the two surveys as has already been noted. The site survey approached groups of visitors and recorded the ages of all party members without regard to their family links. This data was subsequently used to calculate the age

type independent variable. The diary survey, however, addressed individual households specifically, and therefore family members only were normally included. For instance, older adults (over 45) with children typically represented in the site survey grandparents visiting with their grandchildren. In terms of the diary survey the grandparents are not normally in the same household as the children. The site surveys produced several larger parties of older adults which may reflect two couples visiting a site together. Such groups do not appear in the diary survey if they are from separate households. Similarly groups of mixed adults (as distinct from adults over 45) were much less common in the diary survey. This is because mixed adult groups appear unlikely to live in the same household. For example, a couple in their twenties visiting a site with another similarly aged or older couple formed a party but would live separately and thus the number of persons in households revealed in the diary survey is considerably lower than would seem to be indicated from the site survey. However, other categories such as two adults (25-44 years) with 1 or more children (5-15 years) are applicable to both surveys.

In order to try make the two survey groups more comparible, the age type variable was re-defined to only utilise categories applicable to both. This largely involved widening certain categories to reallocate persons in poorly represented categories in the diary survey. Further, some site respondents and one diary respondent were excluded in order to make each survey group more comparable. This produced four categories, three sub-groups with children and one without, as shown in Table 68. Those sites respondents excluded were single adults with children, 3 or more adults over 45 years, older adults (45+) and young children, and adults alone. This reduced the number of valid site survey respondents from 280 to 225.

Table 68

Collapsed age type categories

Category	Frequency	
	Site Survey	Diary Survey
2 adults 25-44 and 1+ 5-15	57	21
2 adults 16-44 and 1+ 0-15	30	19
Mixed adults 16+ and 1+ 0-15	55	8
Adults only	83	28
	225	76

A chi-square calculation was re-applied to this collapsed and reduced age type grouping and the results revealed a chi-square value of 10.0 compared to a tabulated value of 16.27 (three degrees of freedom at the 0.1 per cent level) so that the null hypothesis is accepted. It can now be argued that a self-selection procedure with some thinning of the samples has provided age type sub-groups in the diary survey which are more representative of the re-defined eligible households from the site survey. Before the analysis of the day trip behaviour of this sample is discussed it is necessary to explain how a similar procedure was used to ensure that the self-selected diary survey group was made comparable to the site survey group in terms of its social class make up.

Table 69

Social class frequencies for diary and site survey (local resident) respondents

Social Class	Frequency/Percentage			
	Site Survey		Diary Survey	
A	84	32.2	4	5.2
B	40	15.3	27	35.1
C1	42	16.1	27	35.1
C2	51	19.5	15	19.5
D	39	14.9	4	5.2
E	5	1.9	0	0
	261	100.0	77	100.0

Table 69 shows the social class make up of the valid respondents in the two surveys. It can be seen that most categories are represented. However, no diary respondents were in social class E. Moreover only 4 diary respondents were in the social class A, and the same number in D, so that the diary sample greatly over-represents social classes B and C1 compared with the site survey group. A straight forward chi-square test was not possible to test these frequencies in this case because 25 per cent of the cells had a frequency of less than 5 and one cell had a frequency of zero which invalidated the test. To overcome these limitations consideration had to be given to combining classes. The chosen method was to combine the classes into three groups by merging A and B, C1 and C2, and D and E. These social classes may be regarded as high, medium and low. The effect of this procedure was to produce a chi-square value of 11.7. The tabulated value at 2 degrees of freedom (0.1% level) is 13.81 and thus the null hypothesis is accepted. Thus via this procedure the results would indicate that the diary respondents now appear to be a more representative sub-group of the site survey respondents.

Even so it must be noted that social classes A and D are under-represented in the diary survey compared with the site survey, just as inherent age group differences also remain between the two groups. That is one can only safely conclude that each survey group includes a range of respondents in terms of social class and age and that their destination in the two survey groups has some comparability.

It must also be acknowledged that the two surveys were different in other ways. The diary survey was less structured, with respondents free to complete their own diary, admittedly with guidelines, but without the assistance from an interviewer. As a result some kept their diaries for only the minimum two months, while others persisted for the full seven months. Some provided much more detailed and reliable information than others. Because it is difficult on a site survey to get information on trip behaviour over an extended time period it was felt that the best method was to approach potential diary respondents during the site survey. The interviewer could introduce the concept of the diary survey at the time and the personal contact and rapport generated after a successful interview greatly

enhanced the chances of getting respondents' interest in this type of longitudinal study. Detailed explanation of the nature of the diary survey could be provided and the requirements of the respondent could be tailored to match individual cases. Considerably more information can be given to potential respondents in this face to face contact than is possible in a letter, and more co-operation could be gained this way than by writing to a more random sample of the regional population. These benefits seemed to outweigh the problem of a self-selection procedure which was an unavoidable cost.

Socio-demographic differences during the survey

The problem of generating sufficient interest on the part of site respondents to take part in a diary survey was difficult but not insurmountable problem. However, the problem continues in maintaining interest throughout the duration of the survey. The diary survey began with 77 respondents who completed a minimum of 2 months diaries. But the number who completed all seven diaries progessively decreased to 34. Nothing could be done about this decline in record keeping. This could clearly affect the validity of the results so that it is necessary to examine the balance of these respondents in terms of their social class and age type.

Table 70
Social class frequencies throughout diary survey

	Frequency (Percentage)						
	Month						
Class	August	September	March	April	May	June	July
A	4 (5.2)	4 (5.2)	4 (8.0)	4 (9.1)	4 (9.8)	4 (11.4)	3 (8.8)
B	27 (35.1)	27 (35.1)	22 (44.0)	19 (43.2)	18 (43.9)	17 (48.6)	17 (50.0)
C1	27 (35.1)	27 (35.1)	14 (28.0)	12 (27.3)	10 (24.4)	7 (20.0)	7 (20.6)
C2	15 (19.5)	15 (19.5)	7 (14.0)	7 (15.9)	7 (17.1)	6 (17.1)	6 (17.6)
D	4 (5.2)	4 (5.2)	3 (6.0)	2 (4.5)	2 (4.9)	1 (2.9)	1 (2.9)
Total Respondents	77	77	50	44	41	35	34

Table 71

Age type frequencies throughout diary survey

	Frequency (Percentage)						
	Month						
Age Type	August	September	March	April	May	June	July
0	21 (27.3)	21 (27.3)	12 (24.0)	10 (22.7)	8 (19.5)	7 (20.0)	7 (20.6)
1	19 (24.7)	19 (24.7)	14 (28.0)	14 (31.8)	13 (31.7)	10 (28.6)	10 (29.4)
2	1 (1.3)	1 (1.3)	1 (2.0)	1 (2.3)	1 (2.4)	0	0
4	8 (10.4)	8 (10.4)	4 (8.0)	3 (6.8)	3 (7.3)	3 (8.6)	3 (8.8)
5	23 (29.9)	23 (29.9)	14 (28.0)	11 (25.0)	11 (26.8)	11 (31.4)	10 (29.4)
6	5 (6.5)	5 (6.5)	5 (10.0)	5 (11.4)	5 (12.2)	4 (11.4)	4 (11.8)
Total Respondents	77	77	50	44	41	35	34

Key
0 2 adults 25-44 and 1+ 5-15 years
1 2 adults 16-44 and 1+ 0-15 years
2 1 adult 16-44 and 1+ 0-15 years
4 Mixed adults 16+ and 1+ 0-15 years
5 2 adults over 45 years
6 Mixed adults over 16-44 only and 45+

Tables 70 and 71 show the number of completed diaries per month according to the social class and age type of respondents. With the exception of the single instance of a 1 parent family in the age type grouping no category fell to zero. Numbers of participants reduced monthly in an irregular way. If each group had ceased participation at the same rate the percentage should have remained stable in each month. It can be seen in Table 70 that the C1 class dropped out faster than the C2 so that the A and B classes were over-represented by the end of the survey period compared to the beginning. With the age type groups in Table 71, the families with older children (aged 5-15 years) dropped out rather faster than the others so that by the end the younger families and mixed adults were more fully represented.

A chi-square calculation was applied to these two sets of data to see whether the decreasing numbers reflected important shifts in the sample. Although frequencies in some instances were low by July,

the last month of records, no collapsing of the tables seemed necessary. The frequencies for August, the first month, were tested against those for the final month of July.

For the social class frequencies, the chi-square calculation was 3.8 to give a tabulated value of 18.5 (with 4 degrees of freedom at 0.1 per cent level). For age type frequencies the chi-square value was 1.8 and the tabulated value 20.5 (with 5 degrees of freedom at 0.1 per cent level). Therefore in both cases the null hypothesis could be confidently accepted indicating that the decreases in records over the diary period had not significantly altered the balance of emphasis observable in the frequencies.

However, it must be realised that respondents who dropped out of the diary survey early on may have felt that their limited day tripping did not warrant the keeping of their diary going, and a chi-square statistical test would not highlight this change.

Analysis of the socio-demographic characteristics of the diary respondents

The site surveys had already indicated that social class and age type were useful independent variables to help distinguish different patterns of household behaviour in relation to day trips. It seemed useful to investigate whether similar findings would appear amongst the diary respondents. Thus these same variables were tested against various dependent variables obtained from the diary data. A chi-square test was applied to each to seek any significant differences in trip behaviour amongst the respondents. Table 72 shows what happened to the null hypothesis in these tests, and the level of significance where it was rejected.

Table 72

Results of chi-square test for cross tabulations with social class and age type

Variable	Social Class		Age Type	
	Null hypothesis	Level of significance	Null hypothesis	Level of significance
Number in Household	Accepted		Rejected	0.0000
Number of Diaries	Rejected	0.0088	Accepted	
Total no of Trips	Rejected	0.0004	Accepted	
August Trips	Accepted		Accepted	
September Trips	Accepted		Accepted	
March Trips	Accepted		Accepted	
April Trips	Rejected	0.0179	Accepted	
May Trips	Rejected	0.0424	Accepted	
June Trips	Rejected	0.0308	Accepted	
July Trips	Accepted		Accepted	
No of Holidays	Rejected	0.0000	Accepted	
No of Weekends	Rejected	0.0000	Accepted	
Churches	Rejected	0.0412	Accepted	
Historic Buildings	Accepted		Accepted	
Art	Rejected	0.0233	Accepted	
Galleries/Museums				
Other cultural	Accepted		Accepted	
Zoo/Wildlife	Rejected	0.0307	Accepted	
Country Park	Accepted		Accepted	
Urban Park	Accepted		Accepted	
Gardens	Accepted		Rejected	0.0453
Other Nature	Accepted		Accepted	
Pleasure Beach	Rejected	0.0149	Accepted	
Theme Park	Accepted		Rejected	0.0121
Other Fun	Accepted		Rejected	0.0187
Countryside Walk	Accepted		Accepted	
Woods/Forest	Accepted		Accepted	
Coast/Cliffs	Rejected	0.0411	Accepted	
Other Countryside	Accepted		Accepted	
Organised Sport	Rejected	0.0085	Accepted	
Towns	Accepted		Accepted	
Leisure Shopping	Accepted		Accepted	
Visit friends/relatives	Rejected	0.0147	Accepted	

The analysis of the results using social class as an independent variable against various aspects of trip behaviour showed that high social class respondents (A and B) often acted differently from the others (C1, C2 and D). Those in A, while few in number and B social classes were more likely to take up the diary record and to maintain it. It is important that by July As and Bs respondents accounted for

58.8 per cent of the remaining diary respondents, having started at 40 per cent The high social classes were also shown to be the most frequent trippers. This is shown in Table 73 where respondents in A and B class are better represented in the group that took more than 11 trips and less well represented in the group that took fewer than 11 trips. This is perhaps to be expected in that As and Bs were more likely to keep diaries up, but the results appear to indicate that despite this the As and Bs went on more trips.

Table 73

Frequency of trips by social class

Number of Trips	**Observed Value in Comparison with Expected**	
	A/B	C1/C2
1 - 10	Fewer	More
11 - 20	More	Less
21 - 30	More	Less
31 or more	More	Less

Thus the pattern which emerges is basically that persons in the high social classes are more likely to take more trips in total than are social classes C1 and below. This tendency for higher class respondents to take more trips is also clear on a month by month analysis of the data.

In April 44 respondents completed a diary. Of these 37 reported they had been on at least one day trip. Of these 37, 23 (or 62.2%) were in social class A or B, even though they made up only 53.3 per cent of the sample that month. A total of 188 day trips were reported in April, and 140 of these trips were taken by respondents who were in social class A/B. A similar pattern was also seen in May and June as shown in Table 74.

Table 74

April, May, June (1988) trips by social class

Month	No. Respondents	No. Respondents on Trip/(%)	No. Tripping Respondents A or B / (%)	Total No. Trips	No. Trips by As or Bs / (%)
April	44	37 (84.1)	23 (62.1)	188	140(77.8)
May	41	39 (95.1)	22 (56.4)	193	123(63.7)
June	35	30 (85.7)	21 (70)	138	110(79.7)

Hence it can be seen that the respondents in the higher social classes were not only more likely to go on a day trip during these months but were also more likely to go on more trips.

The higher social classes were also more likely to go on a holiday or short break away from home. During the survey months respondents recorded a total of 59 holidays. Of these 46 (78%) were taken by respondents in social classes A or B. Similarly 12 respondents went on 23 weekend breaks, and 10 of these 12 respondents were in social class A or B.

Respondents from social classes A and B also behaved differently in the choice of places to visit on day trips. The 55 visits to art galleries or museums were recorded by 29 respondents. Of these 29, 20 were in class A or B, that is almost 70 per cent of those visiting such a site. Similarly, although only 6 respondents recorded a visit to a church or cathedral, 5 of them were in social class A or B and only one in C1. In the case of organised sport, a total of 12 respondents participated in sport on 59 occasions. The make up of these respondents was 3 As, 7 Bs, 2 C1s and no C2 or D. Visits to towns for sightseeing were also predominantly made up of respondents in the higher social classes. A total of 45 respondents went on 163 visits to various towns in the region and 26 of the 45 were A or B class people.

Some of the dependent variables in Table 72 for which a null hypothesis was rejected are the result of high social classes being under represented in that type of activity. 38 respondents visited friends and relatives a total of 109 times. Persons in classes A and B

were slightly more than expected in observation, C1 was as expected and C2 and D were only slightly below. With visits to the coast, which 35 respondents visited 105 times in the survey period, lower social class persons formed the largest group, 1 respondent in social class C2 visited the beach six times in three months.

With respect to the age type variable, where fewer of the null hypotheses were rejected, the importance of children in the household explained many of the differences in trip behaviour. For instance, households with children were more likely to visit a theme park or any other types of 'fun' attraction (including fun fairs, rides, circus etc.). For each of the attractions listed in Table 72 every age type category which included children was represented. Their observed values were in excess of the expected in every case but not always to such an extent as to be significant at the 0.1 per cent level in the chi-square test. The converse was true for adult only households, with fewer than expected visiting these types of sites. Adult only households (whether older couples or mixed adults) made more visits to gardens. In this case households with children were less commonly represented than expected.

In focussing on the activities of the higher social classes it does not necessarily follow that the reverse of these findings indicates what households of lower social class did, although they did appear to take fewer holidays and make fewer visits generally. A useful example is the case of a social class D household from Southampton. Six diaries were provided by the household, made up of a single parent, who is a waitress with three boys aged 5 to 15 years. Real financial difficulties limited the amount of day trips undertaken, so that no trips were taken in April, because 'sorry to say but my washing machine broke down and I had to buy a new one. So being a one parent family with 3 children all our belts were pulled in tight this month to buy the new machine. No outings, no treats but also no debts!' Lack of finances can not only affect the number of trips but also the nature of the trips. This is again illustrated in a subsequent diary by the same family. It was added in explanation that: 'Money always short so treats that are inexpensive and close to home can be done more often than further afield'.

In contrast a class B family from Fareham made up of two parents and two children (one 0-4 and one 5-15) went on 27 day trips over the same 6 month period. Ten of these trips were to wildlife attractions or theme parks where admission charges are high. But the head of the household is a managing director of an electronic engineering firm and is not faced with the same financial difficulties as the single parent family. This is further emphasized in that during the same six month period the Fareham family spent three weeks in Spain, had two separate week long visits to Rome and two long weekends away.

Not all respondents in the higher social classes went on as many day trips as this family however. Often the amount of available leisure time also dictates the number of day trips taken. One B class couple from Portsmouth aged 45-64 said they were involved in running a small consultancy business. In many cases the male (working partner) is occupied with work during the weekends, and thus the other partner visits day trip sites with friends. However, work did not prevent the couple spending the whole of September 1987 in Florida.

When the age type and social class variables are combined it is clear that retired couples have the most available leisure time. If they are of a high social class available finances allows them to go on day trips. This is clear from the diary survey. The top three households in terms of the total number of trips taken over the whole seven months were in this category of retired couple in class A. The three couples went on a total of 281 day trips or 117, 83 and 81 trips respectively. This represented 19.1 per cent of all day trips recorded in the diary survey. As one couple indicated in their diary that 'Since my retirement I have kept a brief calendar record of our outings and weather conditions. We try to get out daily whilst our health permits'.

The investigation of the effects of social class and age as presented here would seem to confirm the findings of the site surveys and of earlier surveys reported in the literature. Other studies (Countryside Commission, 1985) have found that the higher social classes are more frequent participants in all types of day trip recreational activities. In

contrast, those with less disposable income, as inferred in their lower social class status, are less able to enjoy the types of activities that those from a higher social class appear to be able to afford.

The effect of age type is simpler, in that by studying all trips for the whole survey period there is a threefold division. This centres on the activities of households with and without children and retired couples. Children carry considerable influence on the selection of suitable day trip sites, and their satisfaction often governs the nature of recreational activities involved. Retired couples have the most time for day trips.

Overall this chapter has attempted to describe the nature of the diary survey, and confirms that the socio-demographic aspects of social class and age are important factors influencing day trip behaviour. However, the results of the diary survey revealed other factors which help to explain why people go on day trips. This, together with other information on the respondents, now requires interpretation in the next chapter.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DEVELOPMENT OF DIARY SURVEY RESULTS

Introduction

The comments of the respondents in the diary survey provides much information which gives insight into why they took day trips within the Southern Tourist Board region. In addition, the data allows further analysis of the respondents themselves, in terms of the type of trips that households of a similar nature undertook. To cover this material this chapter is divided into two parts. Part 1 investigates the comments respondents presented in answer to why a particular destination was selected and/or the activities involved. In part 2, by focusing on the information overall, the characteristics of the respondents themselves are scrutinised to see how households with similar backgrounds act.

Part 1 Reasons for day trips

In order to examine why a specific visit had been undertaken, the diary respondents were asked to note the reasons for each day trip made. For the whole survey a total of 1016 useable comments were recorded. In many cases the reasons given by respondents relate to personal circumstances. Even so, analysis of the comments showed that there are a number of similarities in many of the reasons given. These have been classified into seventeen categories and cross tabulated against the twenty one types of site previously listed. The results are shown in Table 75.

Table 75 Matrix of diary respondent comments by type of site

TYPE of SITE \ REASON	Visiting friends & Relatives	Exercise	Host	Shopping	Fresh Air	Kids	Exercise with relatives	Sightseeing	Family Day Trip	Interesting Place	Not been for a while/before	Nice weather	Just wanted to	Something on at site	Recommended	Drive	Picnic
Churches	0.6		0.2					0.2									
Hist. Bld			1.8			0.2		1.2	0.4	0.4			0.2	0.2			
Art Museum			2.9			0.8			0.6						0.2		
Culture						.2											
Zoo	0.2		0.4			2.0	0.2	0.2	0.6	0.2			0.2	0.4			
Ctry Pk		12.3	1.6			1.0	0.2		1.4		0.2	0.2	0.6	0.2	0.2		1.0
Urban Pk	0.2	0.2				0.2											
Gardens			0.4			0.2			0.2				0.2	0.4			
Nature																	
Pls Beach						0.2											
Theme Pk			0.2			2.0			0.4		0.2		0.2				
Fun	0.2					0.2											
C Walks	0.2	10.2	0.8		0.2	0.6			0.4			0.2		0.4			0.2
Woods	0.4	7.6	1.2			0.6		0.2	0.4				0.2	0.6		0.4	0.4
Coast	0.4	5.2	1.6		0.2	1.6			2.0			1.4	0.2	0.8		0.6	0.8
Other Ctry														0.2		0.2	
Ogr Sport		1.2				0.6											
Town	4.1	2.8	2.8	6.0		0.2		3.0	0.6	0.2				1.4			
L Shops									0.6								
Total Percent	6.3	39.5	11.0	6.0	0.4	10.6	0.4	4.8	7.6	0.8	0.4	1.8	1.8	4.6	0.4	1.2	2.4

Overall the most frequent reasons given for a day trip were those which relate to exercise. These made up 39.5 per cent of all the comments raised illustrating that exercise acts as a cause for visits to a considerable range of sites. As would perhaps be expected exercise is a common reason for visits to informal types of sites like country parks, the countryside generally, woods and the coast. In all these cases a desire for exercise represented the single most important reason for visiting these types of site. Examples of the comments in this category included a retired couple, aged 45-64 from Southampton, who were visiting the Upper Hamble Country Park on Bank Holiday Monday, 1988 who indicated; 'afternoon out for a walk, recreational and exercise day'. Another couple in the same age bracket, who visited Bere Forest on the 10th July 1988, gave the reasons as: 'very pleasant place, nice walk and able to take the dog'. Children also need exercise, so that a family from Gosport commented on a visit to the Royal Victoria Country Park that gave 'plenty of room for the children to run around'. The coast is important for exercise purposes for many respondents. A recently retired couple from Bitterne, Southampton, indicated that during March, 16 of their 18 day trips were primarily walking, often along the shore of Southampton Water.

Visiting friends and relatives or hosting visits by friends and relatives are very important activities in relation to day trip activities. While 6.3 per cent of the comments on reasons for day trips referred to visiting relatives, even more important were the 11 per cent of comments where the reason for a day trip was because the respondent was acting as a host to visitors and needed to entertain them with a trip out. This may range from a very informal visit such as going to a country park, to a more formal day trip such as visiting a museum. For example, one family from Winchester went to Farley Mount one Sunday afternoon in August, to 'be with friends and children'. On the formal side, a retired senior nursing officer from Southampton indicated that during July 1988 she made visits to Southampton Maritime Museum, Southampton Tudor House, the Aviation Museum, Ocean Village (both in Southampton) and Bucklers Hard (New Forest) all because of the 'relatives visiting'. A sales

manager and family from Winchester visited the Hampshire Farm Museum as an outing for a guest from Norway, who is a farmer's wife.

Children were an important overt factor in relation to day trips, as shown in the 108 comments related to them, and the presence of children determined the nature of the day trip. Most notably trips to the coast, theme parks and wildlife attractions were to satisfy children. For example a family from Havant with two children aged 5-15 years visited Marwell Zoo simply because it was the 'boys' choice'. A young family from Portsmouth took a Sunday trip to Paultons Theme Park because they wanted to take 'our two year old daughter and friends with 18 month old daughter out for the day'. Indeed this family went on 18 day trips over the seven months covered by the diaries and every comment on each trip mentioned their daughter as a factor giving rise to the trip. The hidden importance of children in day trip decision making is often closely linked to a family day out, where the children's wishes may not be mentioned but are probably being indirectly met. In 77 instances (7.6 per cent of comments) 'being with the family' was the over-riding reason given for the trip but it seems likely that the needs of the children were considered in the choice of the trips. For example, a family of four from Gosport visited the Aquarium at Southsea in September, in order to have a 'family day out under cover in case of bad weather'. In a more informal context, a family from Southampton spent a Saturday in June on Lepe beach which they simply classified as a 'family day out'. A trip to the New Forest for a family from Southampton was regarded as a 'Day out for the children who wanted to see the ponies'. In some cases site specific reasons, regardless of special events, may be sufficient to prompt a family's visit. This was the case for the family of a coach builder from Southampton, who spent a Sunday at Riverside Park Miniature Railway, Southampton, because; 'we are all interested in trains and a good family atmosphere'.

A common type of trip is grandparents taking children out for a day. This is especially during the school vacations when retired grandparents can look after school-aged children with working parents. This was the case for a retired couple living in Totton,

Southampton, who during August took their grandchildren on six day trips on weekdays. One was to the New Forest Butterfly Farm to 'Relieve daughter, took grandchildren and found it very interesting'.

Shopping may not always be regarded as the basis for a recreational day trip because much of it, like food shopping, is an essential activity. However, some types of shopping may be considered a leisure time pursuit, as shown in the 61 comments reflecting this. For example, a couple in the 45-64 age bracket who spent a Saturday morning at Ocean Village in Southampton, combined their shopping with general sightseeing and commented; 'Interested to have a look at the new shopping area, also the boats. Spent a very pleasant morning strolling leisurely around the site'. This is illustrative of many comments where shopping and sightseeing were combined.

Some day trips are for much more specific purposes. In particular, the reasons given by respondents engaged in organised sport differed from those of other respondents in that the site selection was more fixed, as in the case of a general practioner from Horton Heath, in the New Forest, whose seven diaries included seven Saturdays spent rifle shooting in Portsmouth. Similarly a production manager from Chandlers Ford indicated that he had played golf a total of five times over six months, all at Fleming Leisure Park near Eastleigh.

In a similar way 4.6 per cent of visits were to sites selected specifically because of events being held there. One family with two children from Fareham visited the newly opened nurseries at the Swanmore Tropical Bird Sanctuary on Easter Monday 'To see Chris Packham from the Really Wild Show'. Another family from Wareham visited Swanage 'to see the steam engines because of Thomas the Tank Engine event day'.

Some visits are made perhaps because of a lack of anything more specific to do, or simply showing a need to get out. This was acknowledged by a family from Bournemouth who went to the New Forest Butterfly Farm because 'We just wanted something to do and it seemed different'. A retired couple from Hamble, Hampshire, indicated that with an infirm relative staying with them for a week in

May, they made a number of drives in Hampshire and Dorset, all of these visits were made by car, 'with frequent stops for viewing'. Another example comes from a couple from Titchfield Common, who went to Lee-on-Solent simply 'for fresh air'. Similarly, a retired general practioner took himself off one Wednesday in April for 'fresh air and to sit in relative peace!'

The weather is often responsible for initiating a trip, especially in an informal context, or as a last minute decision. A family from Southampton visited Southbourne beach, Bournemouth, five times in August because it was 'hot and sunny'. An air traffic controller and his family from Southampton visited Littlehampton beach because it was 'a nice day for a swim'.

Some trips are initiated by recommendation. For example, a family from Buckland near Portsmouth visited the Upper Hamble Country Park and Hampshire Farm Museum as a 'day in the country, recommended by workmates'. Similarly a family from Poole went to the Cranborne Chase area seeing it as 'a good day out. Wimborne St. Giles had been recommended by friends'.

Other trips may reflect personal decisions for reasons unique to the individual and include instances where repeat visits are made. Obviously earlier visits had been satisfactory, as was the case for a dry liner and family from Eastleigh who went to the Royal Victoria Country Park because: 'we hadn't been there for a while'.

In summary, reasons relating to exercise, visiting friends and relatives, satisfying children, going shopping, attending a site for a specific purpose, going out for no specific purpose, the weather and having a site recommended appear to be the main impetus for the day trip recorded in the diary survey. Such reasons are similar to those found in the Applied Leisure Marketing Ltd., Survey (1987) as shown in the following Table (76), involving trips to a variety of attractions.

Table 76

Reasons for visit (Applied Leisure Marketing Ltd., 1987)

Reason	Percentage*
Bringing children/relatives to leisure attraction	23
Undertaking particular recreation	14
Visiting friends/relatives	14
Special event	12
General day out	10
Enjoyed previous visit/recommended	10
Others	17

* Respondent base 485

Similar reasons have been recorded for visits to the countryside. Site specific reasons, undertaking an activity, and being with the family all figure prominently in the Countryside Commission survey, (Countryside Commission, 1985). However, there are other factors which seem important in the motivation to undertake a day trip, and the following section discusses those which came to light in the diary survey.

Others aspects important in the reasons to visit

The diary survey records provided the writer with much more information than simply a destination and the reason for a particular visit. Analysis of the records also indicated several patterns of behaviour which are important in understanding why destinations are selected amongst competing alternatives on an individual day. These wider patterns of behaviour can be categorised into three distinct areas all related to the destination selected. They are regularity of trips, distance and timing. Within each of these areas there seemed to be a twofold division with the patterns of working parents with children differing from those of retired couples without dependent children living at home. Each of the areas will now be discussed with respect to contrasting households at different stages in the life cycle.

At a general level the regularity of day trips is related to constraints such as disposable income and age. The amount of leisure time available may also dictate the frequency of trips. As already noted, one respondent who was self-employed found it difficult to justify leisure time as it was perceived to be a waste of time in economic terms. However, those who are retired and have sufficient funds for leisure, together with reasonable health, appear to be best able to take full advantage of their leisure time. As mentioned in the previous chapter, three couples under such circumstances accounted for 19.1 per cent of all day trips recorded in this survey. This finding is not unique. The large survey by Applied Leisure Marketing (1987) also found that 'heavy trippers' (more than six trips per annum) were characteristically in the over 55 years age bracket.

In the present survey, those respondents going on many day trips revealed regular patterns of behaviour. For example, one social class B couple who live in Southampton and who both retired in 1987 made 117 day trips during the seven month period of the survey. Because of their good health, walking in the local area was their main day trip activity. 59 of the recorded trips were countryside walks and a further 21 trips were visits to country parks. They acknowledged this emphasis by stating their diary: 'we are retired senior citizens and enjoy walking'. On average their walks were five miles long.

Scrutiny of their diaries, however, shows that certain walks were more common than others. For example, of the 59 countryside walks, 22 took place on Southampton Common, and 12 of the 21 visits to a country park were to the Royal Victoria Country Park also near Southampton, for walking. Southampton Common was visited on average 3 times a month and the country park almost twice a month. This couple stated that they attempt 'a daily walk' and few circumstances seem to prevent this happening. Those which do include poor weather, visitors staying or with visiting relatives, and their frequent short holidays. Interspersed with the walking trips are leisure shopping trips and these also appeared to average two a month. A similar pattern is observable for other respondents in this category. In the case of the retired couple from Bournemouth who went on 81 day trips, it appears that for every three countryside walks they made, a visit to a historic building was included. They visited Kingston Lacy four times in seven months.

Thus it would seem that many retired respondents visit certain places regularly, predominantly the countryside and cultural attractions such as historic buildings. This finding agrees with that of the Countryside Commission (1985) which whilst showing that the countryside is used by people of all ages, also showed that this extends 'well into retirement'.

In contrast, respondents with dependent children experience a different life style and a different pattern of day trips emerges. As with other day trippers disposable income may be an effective constraint, but employment also reduces the available amount of leisure time. Furthermore, children may be a constraining factor, as was also revealed by the Applied Leisure Marketing survey (1987). Thus the largest number of trips recorded by a family with children over the seven month period was 37, compared with 117 by the retired couple previously referred to.

For families with children of school age, almost all trips were made during weekends outside the school holiday periods. This effectively limited the possible number of trips to around eight per month. A typical family from Portsmouth, included two parents, one of whom

worked, and two children of school age. Their day trips (20 in total in the seven months) focused on weekends during term time. The choices of places to visit were centred on satisfying the children. Thus a theme park was visited four times and a zoo twice. In these cases, where admission charges are relatively high, a special event such as a child's birthday sometimes prompted the visit. This was the case for their visit to Paultons Theme Park in Hampshire in April 1988 which was for 'our daughter's birthday treat, it is one of her favourite places'. During the school holidays when at least one of the parents may be working grandparents may relieve them of the burden of making day trips. This was the case for the same family where during August 1987 the grandparents took the children on five day trips, four of which were to local beaches.

What this illustrates is that, as with retired couples, some types of destinations are visited regularly, and attractions such as theme parks, zoos, pleasure beaches and other fun attractions are particularly visited by families with children. The diary records show that in households with children, on average at least one attraction of this type has been visited in the survey period. For those respondents who completed all seven diaries the frequency appears higher at an average of one such visit a month. Other places such as the countryside, coast and visits to friends and relatives seemed to fill in the gaps between the regular visits to fun attractions.

Distance travelled on day trips is another area which appears closely linked to the regularity of visits. Recent research varies on the average distance travelled on a day trip. The English Tourist Board Survey (1982) calculated that for all day trips the average distance travelled was 39 miles but visits to the countryside appear to be becoming more localised. The Countryside Commission (1985) reported that 39 per cent of countryside trips were less than 20 miles from home in 1977, rising to 46 per cent within the same distance in 1984. Another survey by the Countryside Commission (1986) found that 72 per cent of visitors to two country parks in Nottinghamshire lived less than twenty miles away.

The findings of the present survey very much agree with these. At a general level the majority of day trips taken were within the boundaries of the Southern Tourist Board region possibly because most diary respondents lived in the Southampton/Portsmouth area of Hampshire and were therefore close to the centre of the region. They were therefore less likely to take trips outside the study region.

Instances where more distant trips were embarked upon generally involved an additional stimulus in the decision making procedure, and almost all were pre-planned and not left to the last minute. Amongst those respondents without children, more distant trips usually involved visiting relatives or taking organised coach trips. This was the case for a retired couple from Portsmouth who visited an elderly relative living in London on a monthly basis. Another couple from Bournemouth also travelled farther than normal each month with their local naturalist group who planned organised coach trips to sites of interest outside the region. Such visits, however, are in the minority, and for the two examples cited many more regular local visits were generally undertaken.

For families with children visits to sites that are far away again require a discernable prompt. It would seem that children are a major consideration when contemplating the travel distance in such trips. Longer journeys may occasionally be made to sites that are perhaps larger than those offered locally. This was the case for a family from Wimborne, Dorset, who travelled a total of four and a half hours to Thorpe Park theme park in Surrey. The reason for this visit was primarily for the children. The remaining trips this family took in that month (May 1988) were to local sites because they were 'closer to home, less far for the kids to travel'.

The timing of day trips also suggest distinct patterns of behaviour. At a first level of analysis the selection of a particular day may be important. Obviously, the retired have most choice over which day to visit a particular site. The general consensus amongst the retired is to avoid visits on days where overcrowding is likely. This was the case even for the couple mentioned earlier who walk daily. The Bank Holiday of May 30th, 1988 involved a walk on Southampton Common,

close to home, because 'Bank holiday, so always stay near home because of busy roads, so avoiding hold-ups'. Families with children, as mentioned earlier concentrated on weekend trips during school term time, and during the holidays they would often avoid busy sites.

The timing of day trips also involves a seasonal element. Evidence from the literature indicates that fewer trips are taken during the winter months, prompting the decision to not include these months in the survey. However, there is a seasonal pattern of trips observable in the months studied. August appears to have been the most popular month for trips in this survey, as has been noted in the previous chapter. Visits to beaches and the coast were more likely to take place from June to August. Obviously, weather conditions play an important part in the decision to go out of the home. Fine weather may prompt particular visits especially to beaches, whilst long periods of poor weather may also prompt a visit because of otherwise having to remain in the home.

These general patterns of behaviour can be important in the decision to visit a particular site. In some cases certain sites were not selected for a visit because of a recent previous visit. Other sites are regularly revisited especially when no other alternative is forthcoming, and particuarly if such sites are close to home. Alternatively visiting relatives, or having visitors to stay, may prompt a more pre-planned type of trip to a more expensive, but known site, that is possibly farther afield. The timing of visits plays another part in the decision making process. Some sites are avoided during peak periods where overcrowding is likely or the roads are busy, and some activities are only engaged in at certain times of the year.

Reasons for day trip: Summary

The analysis of the comments provided with the trip details over the diary months gave considerable insight into why individual trips had been taken. It provided a means of putting individual day trips into context. At one extreme, were very informal trips to local country parks, beaches or open areas which are taken because of the need to 'exercise', 'get some fresh air' or 'give the dog a run'. At the other extreme families spend considerably more money and effort to visit theme parks, historic buildings or museums often because 'we had visitors staying', or 'it was our daughter's birthday treat'. No two trips for the same family are necessarily decided upon in the same way. Although the constraints of cost and available leisure time are constantly influential it appears that seven reasons for this range of day visits were dominant. These are:

1. For Exercise
   As Roberts (1988) indicated concern for health and fitness is a phenomenon which has become more widespread in the 1980s. Comments which can be classified under the generic heading of 'exercise', accounted for the largest proportion of visits in this longitudinal study. The main exercise involved walking in the countryside, in the woods or along the coast. As so many of the respondents indicated this, it has been deliberately set apart from organised sport. This is also because the perception of exercise largely differs from that of sport in that few rules exist and there is no competition. Rather, the aim is relaxation of the mind whilst gentle exertion of the body predominates.

2. Visiting friends and relatives
   A major occupation of leisure time for the respondents in this survey was keeping in touch with friends and relatives. This often involves either travelling to the relatives home or to a suitable site where the two households meet, or being taken to a day trip site as part of the visit to friends and relatives.

3. To act as host to friends and relatives
   Closely allied to the previous reason, and even more important as

a generator of visits to day trip sites among the respondents, is the process of acting as a host to friends and relatives. In other surveys these have been combined, but in relation to day trip decision-making they are quite distinct. Acting as a host generally places the responsibility for a trip on the host household, who would live within the study region whereas visiting relatives usually involves travel to another household and conforming to the activities decided upon for the day or afternoon by the host household. This may lead to a trip outside the study region. Acting as a host often required precise decisions on day trips. In all cases sites were selected to which the host family had been before and which were known to be satisfactory. Whilst other studies indicate that visiting friends and relatives is an important trip generator, accounting for 15.5 per cent of visits in 1982 (English Tourist Board), this survey revealed that 6.3 per cent of all trips were as visitors, and 11.0 per cent were as hosts to friends and relatives. Thus it is the latter group which generates more trips to sites in this region.

4. To be with the family

The results of the survey showed that day trips can reinforce family ties. This is because during leisure time all household members are likely to make themselves available for a day trip. Consequently, wanting to be with the family on a day trip is important as it represents a short time when the family can all actually be together in one place. This finding conforms with that of Martin and Mason (1988) who revealed that 90 per cent of all day trips were undertaken by members of immediate families.

5. For the children

This reason is closely allied to the previous one yet distinct from it. Parent respondents in this survey often indicated a desire to please their children during their day trips. These choices may vary from special outings for birthdays, to visiting sites for a child's educational enhancement. Other trips had a less formal purpose but were intended in some way to provide for children. Obviously parents are unlikely to take children to sites where there is no interest for them, and for many parents the day trip

may be a compromise location for them for the sake of the children.

6. For specific purposes
Many day trips are undertaken with some other specific purpose in mind. This may range from a visit to go window shopping, to an outing for organised sport. Site specific reasons come into this category such as a visit to the Hillier Arboretum because of a person's particular 'interest in wildlife and trees generally'.
Some day trips were taken to a particular site because of what was known to be there at the time. These reasons include examples such as 'to see the ponies', 'we all like trains', 'because of the new exhibition'. All of these reasons relate back to a specific purpose which may not only prompt a day trip but also determine the actual site.

7. For personal reasons
Finally there may be particular circumstances which dictate whether a trip is taken on a particular day and considerably influence the nature of the activities involved. The following comments illustrate this: 'because my husband had the day off work', 'because we had to be back by four', 'my son is in a wheelchair' and 'because our car was off the road'. All of these are examples of highly individual reasons for the trips of these four respondent households trips. The first two in the selection of the site, and the latter two in influencing the activities involved.

These seven categories encompass all of the main reasons given for day trips coded from the 1016 comments in the diary survey. They are not mutually exclusive, and several may play a part in the decision to take a particular day trip. However, often one or two of them were given a higher priority by respondents.

Decision making can also be seen to be a multi-stage process. After a decision has been made to go out, another decision has to be made on a suitable place which satisfies the particular requirements of the day. As outlined in previous chapters constraints acting upon the

household can be important influences on these staged decisions. In the preceding section it was illustrated that general behaviour patterns which shaped the regularity, timing and distance travelled for trips. The next section develops these themes further by considering the profiles of the respondent households.

Part 2 Profiles of diary respondent households

So far the results of the diary survey have shown that various socio-demographic factors may constrain the number of day trips taken and the types of day trip afforded (Chapter Six). Further investigation of the comments recorded, showed that decision making may be a multi-stage process with underlying behaviour patterns and reasons which prompt specific trips. As an additional stage the writer decided to investigate whether general patterns of day trip behaviour were more closely linked to socio-demographic characteristics than had previously been thought. This would be indicating that socio-demographic characteristics can influence more widely patterns of behaviour, than simply be responsible for constraining against certain activities.

It was therefore necessary to more closely scrutinise the motivations behind individual trips and the general characteristics of the trips made. By using this information, together with what was known about respondents, the aim was to see if similar patterns of trips evolve from similar households.

Other research has already hinted at such relationships. The English Tourist Board Survey (1982) found that the incidence of trips was less for people aged over 55, and also lower amongst the DE social groups, especially where the household did not own a car. These findings are clearly related to physical and economic constraints and few would dispute that those without sufficient disposable income suffer real recreational disadvantages. However, the Countryside Commission (1985) found that age was of little or no importance to the level of countryside use. Another survey (Applied Leisure Marketing, 1987) found that the so called 'white knuckle' rides were biased towards younger families and the emphasis of visits to cultural sites was for age groups over 35 years.

However, the separation of age from social class in these surveys may conceal important patterns. By studying social class alone, the effect of age is obscured, as is that of age without reference to social class, as well as other possible variables such as the effect of children.

Moreover, none of these surveys have considered how respondents perceive their own social class or age, and this may be crucial to understanding recreational behaviour. The information from the diary survey only included basic details on all of these factors but, by combining the data together, additional information in relation to the characteristics of day trip activities seems to come to light. For instance, this survey found, as noted earlier, that the individual household which embarked on the most day trips, an average of 16.7 per month, was a retired couple from Southampton who had during their working lives been a lawyer (husband) and headmistress (wife). Now in their retirement this couple went on as many day trips as the weather and other commitments allowed. This particular finding is not unique, as that couple represent a large group of other similar retired respondents, with backgrounds from a high social class, and no dependent children. What this means is that this household has sufficient resources and available leisure time to make considerable use of the day trip facilities in their area, but perhaps more importantly they show a desire to venture out.

This selected example illustrates that the combination of finances, time and motivation, are crucial to the ability of the household to make full use of the recreational opportunities at their disposal in the area in which they live. The occurrence of similar household data from the diary survey warrants additional investigation. In the passages that follow emphasis is placed on the household and the places they visit. The basic method used was to profile the 77 respondents by combining the influences of social class, age and the presence of children in the household. By doing this five possible household categories emerge, as shown in Table 77.

Table 77

Classification of diary respondent households

Type	Social Class	Age of adults	Children under 15	Frequency	Percentage	Av nos of diaries
1	A/B	Under 44	Yes	18	23.4	5.2
2	C1/C2/D	Under 44	Yes	31	40.3	4.6
3	A/B	Over 45	No	11	14.3	5.1
4	C1/C2/D	Over 45	No	12	15.6	4.7
5	Not applicable	Under 44	No	5	6.5	6.2
				77	100.0	

By dividing the 77 respondents into these five distinct groups in this way, 63.7 per cent came from households made up of adults under 44 with at least one child under 15 years. These were then sub-divided in terms of social class, with those in A/B accounting for 23.4 per cent, and the remaining C1, C2 and D, 40.3 per cent. Couples over 45 years of age without dependent children accounted for 29.9 per cent. These were similarly divided into two groups in relation to their respective social class. The effect of this was to produce two groups of similar size, 14.3 per cent representing social classes AB and 15.6 per cent, classes C1, C2 and D. The remaining 5 respondents (6.5 per cent) were households of adults under 44 years without children. As a small group they were not further sub-divided in relation to social class because there were too few of them. By using all 77 respondents it was realised that there may be a bias in any analysis towards certain groups who were more likely to have completed the diaries. However, combining categories together in this way lessened the most serious imbalances. Table 77 also shows the average number of diaries completed by each group, and it can be seen that those in A/B social class groups completed more diaries. The participation of these groups in different types of day trip and activities is shown in Table 78.

Table 78

Participation in day trip types by profile groups

	Group				
Variable/ Type of Trip	1 Social A/B Class under 44 with children	2 S.C. C1/C2/D Under 44 with children	3 S.C. AB Over 45 no children	4 S.C. C1/C2/D over 45 no children	5 No S.C. under 45 no children
Overall Mean no Trip per month	4.2	3.2	8.1	3.1	3
Nos of Holidays (over 7 months)	1.2	0.3	1.9	0.1	1.4
No of Short breaks/ weekends (over 7 months)	0.6	0.0	0.8	0	0.4
No of cultural trips (over 7 months)	2.8	1.2	4.2	0.8	1.8
No of nature trips (over 7 months)	4.6	2.6	6.3	2.1	7
No of fun trips (over 7 months)	2.2	1.4	0.5	0.5	0.2
No of countryside trips (over 7 months)	4.8	3.1	21.5	3.3	5.2
No of Leisure shopping trips (over 7 months)	1.9	0.9	2	1.3	0.8
No of times visited friends or relatives or acted as host (over 7 months)	2.6	0.6	2.2	0.8	3

The Table 78 is arranged to illustrate particular findings from the diary survey. Each of the profile groups is given at the top of the columns. The rows represent the types of trip undertaken in collapsed categories. 'Cultural' trips includes all previous categories

of visits to churches, historic buildings, art galleries and museums. 'Nature' trips include the previously categorised visits to zoos, country parks, urban parks and gardens. 'Fun' trips include all visits to pleasure beaches and theme parks. 'Countryside' trips include countryside walks and visits to woods and the coast. The information in each cell is calculated from data extracted from the diary records. The first row reveals the average number of trips per month for each profile group. Taken into the calculation is a weighting factor for each profile group, as groups B and D were slightly less likely to complete all seven diaries. This enables each of the profile groups to be compared directly with each other. The remaining rows show the average number of times a particular type of trip was made by households in each profile group over a seven month period. Here again a weighting factor has been applied for comparative purposes. It should be acknowledged that use of a weighting factor to allow for respondents who did not maintain diaries for seven months is less effective where the membership of a profile group is only 5, as in the case of group E.

An analysis of the average number of trips taken by the different groups shows that older couples of a high social class profile (group 3) embarked on the highest number of day trips with an average of 8.1 trips per month. Nevertheless social class remains an important factor as parents with children of social class A or B also tend to go on average on one day trip a month more than similar households of lower social class. Similarly, older couples from lower social class households went on fewer day trips than did their counterparts from higher social classes. Adults without children went on the least number of day trips, on average three per month.

Although not strictly part of the day trip patterns, it is interesting to note that the Table shows that older couples of high social class also went on more holidays and short breaks. It would appear that again available resources and time permit this group to undertake these type of trips. However, younger adults without children also took more holidays. Each of the five respondents in this group (2 of social class AB and 3 of C1, C2, D) went on at least one holiday. Perhaps the fact that they are free of the extra expense of taking children is

influential. All those of high social class with children also took at least one holiday. This was true even for the 5 in this group who only completed two months of diaries.

Trips to any site which has a cultural element (churches, museums, art galleries and the like) again appeared to attract older couples more than others. However, this was not the case for all members of this profile group. In this instance the mean score is particularly affected by a couple from Bournemouth who recorded 22 trips to such sites in their seven diaries. Both partners were retired head teachers with a special interest in National Trust properties. They also attended 'Explore your district' classes at a local adult education centre, which prompted them to explore several destinations on their own.

Every high social class family with children visited at least one cultural attraction on a day trip during the survey period. Often respondents in that class referred to the possibile educational value of a trip and household heads placed in social class A normally have had a good education and wish their children to have the same. A typical instance was a trip made to the Mary Rose by the family of a retail manager for the 'educational enjoyment of our two boys'. In contrast, parents of lower social class appear less likely to take any educational value of a trip into consideration. Cultural trips were commonly made by adults without children as shown by a payments clerk and wife from Southampton, who went to Athelhampton House in Dorset 'To see how the other half live, and craft fayre'. On average, respondents in this group made at least one such trip in the survey period.

Attendance at wildlife attractions was popular with all groups. The mean score of 7 trips for the adult only group is the result of 24 trips being made to such sites by one couple in seven months. The respondent, an insurance official from Southampton, visited the Upper Hamble Country Park 16 times because it is 'close to home for good easy walking'. Similarly, a member of the same profile group, (lower social class with children), a maintenance officer from Portsmouth, visited the Royal Victoria Country Park with his family

once a month for six months as it is 'Relatively close, and a nice place for a good walk'. Nevertheless other respondents within this group took far fewer trips of this type and therefore reduced the average ratio for the group.

Going on a day trip to a site which could be termed 'fun' (to theme parks, pleasure beaches, and fairs) appeared strongly related to the presence of children. Of the 94 trips to such sites, 82 were made by households which included children. Although the results show that those of higher social class went more often on these trips it is not clear whether this was due to such households being more able to afford them. However, not every household with children went on a 'fun' day trip in the survey period. A plumber and his family from Gosport appeared to visit the Paulton's theme park almost on a monthly basis, as it is 'the children's favourite'.

Every couple over 45 years old without dependent children visited the countryside, woods or coast at some time during the survey period. The average frequencies for such couples in the higher social class were affected by a number of instances where such trips were frequently repeated. The high mean score was partly caused by a retired production manager from Pirreli and spouse from Fareham, who went on 71 countryside day trips in seven months. Similarly, a retired legal executive from Bitterne went on 67 countryside trips over the same time period. In both cases informal countryside walks occurred nearly every other day, as well as other trips coded under different categories. With the gentleman from Fareham, his dog always accompanied and often the aim is for 'dog tiring'.

Leisure shopping as a unique and distinct type of day trip was the least popular for all the profile groups. There appears to be an emphasis of higher relative participation by groups in the higher social class, as they perhaps have the greatest amount of disposable income. Nor was leisure shopping an activity which caused repeat visits. The highest number of day trips for leisure shopping was 9 over a six month period by a retired couple from Southampton (formerly a bank official). Having just moved to Southampton some of

their shopping trips were 'to look for things for the new house' and others were simply 'to find our way around'.

Visits to friends and relatives were occurrences for all types of respondent. Only included here were day trips out where the respondent household was acting as a host to visiting friends and relatives. Although the mean scores again indicate higher social groups were involved in more of this type of activity, the vast majority of respondents make at least one trip of this type either to relatives, or on a trip out with relatives from the respondents' home. For example, a coach builder and his family including children from Southampton, went on a 'fast train to Bournemouth to visit sister and to go to the beach'.

Profiles of diary respondent households: Summary

Overall the use of profile groups in the way presented here reveals some useful findings, but does not, of course, explain every single trip made. It would appear that those financially well off and retired have the highest likelihood of undertaking a day trip, especially for countryside walks and to cultural sites. Families with children are more likely to go to a theme park or pleasure beach than are adults without dependent children. Thus household profiles go some way to indicate how a particular household may act on a day trip.

What the use of profiles and their associated comments cannot show conclusively is how varied are the trip decisions within each class and age group. Nevertheless one can begin to infer several points, such as the higher likelihood of parents in social class A taking their children on educationally enhancing activities. A good example is that of adults under 44 without children, who do not have the financial burden of children's expenses. Their choice of day trip destination is not compromised by the need to satisfy children and as a consequence the survey showed that they are more likely to chose cultural destinations more frequently than similarly aged adults with children.

Overall the diary survey differed from the earlier site surveys by providing the context of different types of day trip. The survey has confirmed the importance of socio-demographic characteristics both as a constraint on day trips and as a motivation for certain types of household. Such information could only have been developed from a longitudinal study so that insights into the patterns of numerous visits could be ascertained. Information on these patterns of behaviour that arose out of the diary records could not have been realised from the study of a single trip.

Chapter Eight

Conclusions

Introduction

The discussion in this chapter is divided into four sections. First, the approach used in the research is reviewed. Secondly, the results are discussed in relation to the original aims. Thirdly, the implications of these results to existing theory are critically examined and a model of decision making is presented. Finally, some suggestions for future research are proposed.

Research method

The writer would claim that this research with its focus on behaviour at the household level is fully contemporary in its approach. The literature review of the research in the general area of leisure, recreation and tourism showed that there has been little work connected with recreational day trip behaviour. Much previous research has involved the measurement and monitoring of visits to different types of attraction. Few researchers have attempted to address the question of why day trips are made to particular sites. Work which has explored reasons for day visits (Gratton and Taylor, 1987) only argued that the purpose of any day trip is for leisure,. This alone cannot satisfactorily encompass the variety of motivations, attitudes and choices that characterise the nature of day trip activity. Yet the need to examine decision making in relation to the recreational day trip has been frequently stated in the literature (Mercer, 1971; Murphy, 1975; Aldskogius, 1978; Elson, 1979; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Mill and Morrison, 1985; Mansfield, 1987, Gerry, 1988).

The Southern Tourist Board region was selected for the study because financial constraints made it impossible to work at a national scale. But the Southern Tourist Board area also represented an ideal region in which to work. Over 10 million day trips are undertaken within its boundaries each year (English Tourist Board, 1987). On any particular day, thousands of individual decisions to visit the various recreational sites are being made. The need to understand these decisions led to the adoption of a behavioural perspective, to seek explanations of how households make day trip decisions. To detect

any resulting patterns of activity one must begin with the study of the individual families actually involved.

To fully develop this family behavioural approach two types of survey were undertaken. The aim of the first survey was to examine the general nature of day trip activity by sampling day trippers at four sites. For this sample the differences in the socio-demographic backgrounds of respondents were assessed. To describe the various frequencies for each group of respondents at each site five key independent variables - residence, social class, group size, group type, and age type - were cross tabulated against groups of dependent variables. These included variables relating to the visit details, twenty reasons why the day trip took place, sources of information on the site, importance factors and other important reasons. In all 230 cross tabulations were carried out by chi-square tests. In 115 cases the null hypothesis was rejected indicating that there were significant differences between the variables correlated.

Because the site surveys only provided information about single day trips, it was felt necessary to obtain other information from some respondents concerning their day trip activity over a longer period of time. Thus a longitudinal study was set up. From this, household profiles were developed to reveal likely patterns of trip activity for households of a similar nature over an extended period of two months or more. Because the main interest was the day trip activities of local people 292 who were resident in the region out of the total 800 site survey respondents were asked to take part. 77 who agreed to help kept a minimum of 2 months of diaries and 34 respondents completed diaries for 7 months.

The analysis of the diaries used different methods. First, information which could be easily coded was quantified and the basic frequencies of each variable discussed. The results relating to the actual places respondents had visited were also presented. Secondly, the independent variables of social class and age were used to further the investigation of the socio-demographic effects on day trip activity, begun in the previous survey. Thirdly, by analysing the 1016 comments made by the respondents in answer to why a trip was taken, a matrix of the different types of comment, by the places,

visited, was constructed. Further analysis of the comments themselves enabled the reasons for a day trip to be categorised into seven groups: exercise; visiting friends and relatives; hosts to friends and relatives; being with the family; for the children; other specific purposes; and personal circumstances. The diary analysis also revealed general patterns of day trip behaviour, and the regularity of trips, the distance travelled and their timing were investigated. Finally, by combining the effects of age, social class and the presence of children, household profiles were developed. These revealed some patterns of day trip behaviour, where the likelihood of participation could, at least in part, be explained by the nature of the household.

It also seems appropriate to consider the results achieved in relation to the aims first set up. The first aim of the research was to investigate the general characteristics of day trip activities using a sample of households at the four selected sites. The survey showed that the sample not only included people on day trips from their homes located within the region but there were many others who are not normally resident in the region. As well as respondents who were on holiday in the region, others came from locations outside the region for the day. An important group of these respondents were ones who had travelled by coach, especially to either the New Forest Butterfly Farm or Kingston Lacy. Differences of residence were found to be an important explanatory characteristic, because the nature of day trips undertaken by local residents in the site survey differs from those made by other respondents not normally resident in the region. Thus it was shown that the variety of attractions in the region prompted visits to them by different types of visitors.

The Upper Hamble Country Park was mainly visited by local residents whereas other sites, such as Kingston Lacy, had the majority of its visitors from people who were not normally resident in the region. This could partly be explained in that Kingston Lacy is advertised to all National Trust members and at other local National Trust sites, and a high proportion of its visitors were members.

In relation to the method of transport, the results showed the overall importance of the car and this confirmed findings from other surveys

(English Tourist Board, 1982; Countryside Commission, 1985; Countryside Commission, 1986). However, this survey found that coach travel was important to non-residents as a means of visiting places within the region. The method of travel and the distance the visitors had travelled to the sites had implications for the time taken to get to the site, which revealed that local residents spent less time on their journeys and some also stayed at the sites for shorter periods.

A large proportion were from the high social classes. In comparison to national averages it could be said that the sample was biased in this direction, although other research also found a similar likelihood of this happening (Applied Leisure Marketing, 1987). The results also confirmed that day tripping is an activity that people of all ages engage in but the retired couple formed an important group. This was in contrast to the English Tourist Board (1982) findings, but agreed with other surveys, such as some reviewed by Euromonitor Ltd. (1987).

Another research aim had been to investigate patterns of household day trip behaviour over a longer time period. The diary survey was designed with this specific aim in mind. Due to respondents not returning diaries towards the end of the survey there was a predominance of respondents from the higher social classes. However, the survey usefully showed that in an average household 4.15 day trips were made each month. The most popular type of day trip was a walk in the countryside, followed by visits to country parks and towns. Some respondents with particular interests visited the same sites many times, especially those involved with organised sports. Visiting friends and relatives, or acting as a host was also found to be an important reason for a day trip.

A third research aim had been to investigate the effects of different socio-demographic backgrounds on the nature and number of day trips made by the respondents. It was found in both surveys that social class and the ages of household members were key socio-demographic variables. Respondents of low social class appeared to have less disposable income which could be allocated to spending on day trips. This was revealed in the site survey where the cost of a day trip was given a higher priority by respondents from the lower social

classes than those of a higher social class group. A development of this in the diary survey indicated that fewer trips overall were made by respondent households of low social class over a longer time period. The diary survey also showed that high social class groups were more likely to visit cultural attractions than were respondents of lower social class. This was particularly so for older couples. However, attractions such as pleasure beaches were more popular with families that included young children.

The effects of socio-demographic characteristics were further examined in the development of the household profiles of day trip activity. These combined the variables of social class, age and the presence of children, and investigated their participation in different types of day trip. It was found that retired couples of high social class have the greatest opportunity for participation in recreational day trips as they have the financial resources necessary and the time available. The presence of children also greatly influenced the number and types of day trips undertaken.

Overall the results from the surveys can be related to the original aims outlined in Chapter Two. However, the implications of these results now require scrutiny and the final aim, that of model building needs attention. In the following section what the results mean is investigated from a theoretical and empirical context.

Implications of results

The results from this piece of research can be applied generally in three ways. First, in an empirical context the approach used may suggest how research of a similar nature could be approached in the future. Secondly, the findings could help to develop a model of recreational decision making. Lastly, the results of this research might have direct local application. They could benefit operators of tourist attractions within the Southern Tourist Board area by providing a general picture of day tripper characteristics at four different types of site. Information about the different proportions of trip makers from the local area and from other parts of the country and about their social class and age could help guide recreational provision and the better management of sites. The longitudinal survey provided additional information on the type of family visiting the various types of sites in the region. These results could be useful in directing marketing for particular locations and to certain age groups. The wide range of reasons for site visits might suggest that site management policies need to be flexible to meet a variety of individual requirements.

Whilst the results of the research are perhaps of only specific value to the four sites studied, the survey approach could have wider relevance to the study of the process of day trip decision making. The research showed that recreational day trip behaviour is dependent upon individual family make up. Allied to decision making is another research area in how the household perceives the local environment. Thus, the understanding of environmental cognition within the process of day trip decision making could be important in any further investigation of day trip behaviour.

In short it is the writer's belief that any future study which proposes to investigate recreational behaviour should adopt a methodology that can take account of individual and family experiences. In many cases categorisation of particular variables is best made in the coding stages.

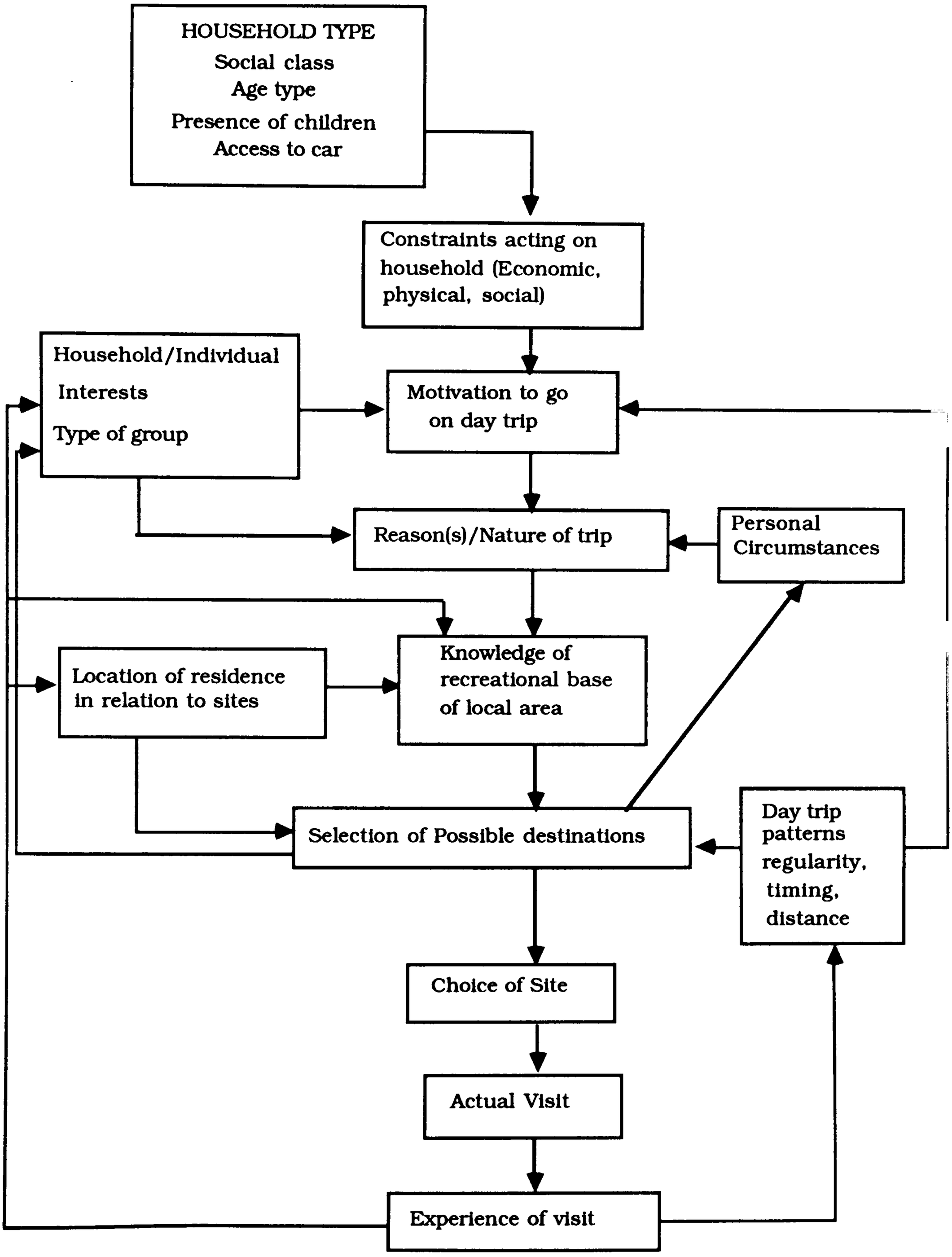
This study has focussed on why a sample of households decided to visit a range of sites. Future research should concentrate on how the

family makes day trip decisions, and perhaps investigate the effect of environmental cognition and the interaction between family members.

It is clear that day trip decision making is a complex field where it is not yet fully possible to conceptualise the process. Nevertheless Figure 3 attempts to portray a model of the process. Its construction and inputs reflect the fact that it is based on a sample of day trippers from this region.

It assumes that a decision to visit a particular destination on a day trip is the outcome of a comparison of several possible sites which the individual family or household is aware of in their locality. This awareness of the local area is similar in nature to the action space in Murphy's model (1975) and the potential opportunity set proposed by Aldskogius (1978). The final choice of destination comes after a series of interdependent decisions. These may or may not be on a conscious sequential path.

Figure 3 Proposed model of day trip decision making



The model begins with the household itself of which there can be a variety of types, ranging from young parents with children through to retired people. The presence of children has been shown to be an important influence on day trips and social class is also a crucial factor. The relevance of these factors are reflected in the next stage, that of constraints acting on the household. Economic constraints which largely restrict the amount of disposable income that can be afforded for recreational day trips are also important influences. Here, the research has shown that social class can affect the number and type of day trips undertaken. Social class can be used as an indicator of disposable income as people of higher social class generally have occupations which provide larger salaries than those of intermediate or lower social classes. Physical constraints in this context relate strongly to age, where older people generally do not undertake strenuous activities because of the gradual reduction in physical capacity caused by the ageing process. But social constraints may also be at play here because all activities need to be acceptable to society. What is meant by this is that some activities are more socially acceptable to one gender. For example, amateur football is more likely to be played by males because of physical and social reasons.

With the constraints set the next stages of the model deals with motivation within these constraints. Initially the motivation to venture out is often difficult to isolate from a more specific reason for a visit. However, the research, and in particular the diary records have shown that the reason for a day trip can take many forms. The motivation for day trips vary along with the nature of the day trip itself. For example, at one extreme fine weather has been shown to prompt an informal visit to a local country park, where the decision seems to be taken immediately before the visit. At the other extreme having friends visit, or a child's birthday treat, may involve much pre-planning before the visit takes place. In both instances, however, the motivation for a day trip must lie in the desire to satisfy either a personal need or those of others. The research indicates that children may be particularly influential here is that children may prompt a visit to provide a treat, or to take them somewhere which is considered educationally enhancing.

Some of these diverse range of reasons which prompt a visit can be closely linked to other factors such as the type of group and the interests of the party. With type of group, research showed that visiting with friends and relatives may be particularly important as this may not only be the reason for going on a day trip, but may influence the selection of sites. Research also showed that new sites are not favoured when acting as a host due to the possible embarassment should the trip not be satisfactory. The personal interests of those on a day trip are also influential on the reasons to visit. In many cases respondents in the surveys indicated that they had particular interests, such as in history or nature, which affected their reasons for a day trip. As well as these influences the personal circumstances unique to each household for the day are important, affecting both the reasons for the trip and the eventual selection of a destination. The case of the need to return home by a particular time, is a typical example of the type of personal circumstances found in the study.

The model assumes that those making the decision reflect on these various aspects of motivation and reasons. However, it is accepted that the variety of attractions and variability of household types will cause different priorities being placed on any of the general motivations or more specific reasons for each trip.

The next stage moving down the model is termed 'knowledge of the recreational resource base of the local area'. Earlier in the research when sites were selected by the writer for inclusion in the site surveys it was shown that the region had a wide variety of recreational resources. However, the diary research showed that the majority of trips were made to locations within the region, except in a minority of cases. Thus personal knowledge of the day trip opportunities must affect the subsequent stage of the selection of possible sites. Acting on both of these stages is the respondent's place of residence, as this determines both knowledge of the immediate area, and therefore the range of opportunities at the household's disposal.

The selection of possible destinations as the next stage in the decision making process is greatly affected by the personal circumstances uniquely important to the household on the day. In

addition, the research showed that wider day trip patterns may also affect this. Some sites are selected regularly predominantly because they are family favourites, whilst others may not be selected because a visit to a particular site was undertaken recently. Furthermore, distance may be important as well as a seasonal element, or sites being busy on certain days. There are important feed backs in the model at this stage as the selection of possible sites is related to the motivations and reasons for a visit as well as the recreational interests of those undertaking the trip.

Out of a recognition of these factors a particular site is chosen and the actual visit itself can take place. However, it is important to note that the diary records show that for some trips many of these factors are given serious consideration whilst for others a dominant reason for a particular visit may override special attention to other related factors. This has been shown to be the case where visits are made for specific purposes. Attendance at an event may only be possible on one day and if the decision is made to visit the event then all the other considerations carry much less weight than they might otherwise do for alternative day trips.

The experience of the visit itself is a final outcome which feeds back into subsequent decisions. The experience may motivate future trips to the same site, or never again. Furthermore, the visit adds to the general pattern of behaviour by adding to the knowledge of recreational opportunities in the area, which may affect the regularity of future visits. In conclusion, day trip decision making is a complex multi-stage process and the model shows the salient phases involved with it which have resulted from this research. However, the study of such an aspect of behaviour must take account of the subjective nature of human decision making. Despite this, the pattern of day trips which can be observed within the Southern Tourist Board region reflects a multitude of individual household decisions made in this way.

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Appendix One

Dorset Institute of Higher Education

Day Trip Recreation Survey

Time ☐

Site ☐

Weather:

Sunny ☐

Partly Cloudy ☐

Overcast ☐

Rain ☐

Interviewer _____

1 We are taking a survey of people visiting a number of day trip sites in the area, to find out how decisions are made to select a particular site.

Have you been interviewed before today?

Yes ☐

No ☐

If No, would you mind answering a few short questions about your visit?

Yes ☐

No. ☐

2 What is the nearest major town to where you live?

_____

3 Is this your permanent residence?

Yes ☐

No ☐

If No, where is your permanent residence?

_____

4 How long have you lived there? _____years

5 How did you travel here today?

1 Car ☐

2 Motorcycle ☐

3 Bicycle ☐

4 Service bus ☐

5 Coach ☐

6 Walked ☐

7 Other (specify) ☐

6 How long do you intend/did you stay at this site in total?
Let respondent reply and code answer below

How long did it take you to get here?

		Length of stay	Time to get here
1	Under 30 mins	_____	_____
2	30 mins to 1 hour	_____	_____
3	1 to 2 hours	_____	_____
4	2 to 4 hours	_____	_____
5	4 to 6 hours	_____	_____
6	More than 6 hours	_____	_____

7 Have you visited this site before?

Yes ☐

No ☐

8 Why did you decide to go out on a day trip today?

_____

_____

Open probing

If necessary, which of these reasons was the most important today?

---

9 Please read card A (pause)

Were any of the reasons on Card A important to you coming here today?

Please answer Yes or No

1 Been before ☐

2 Recommended by a friend or relative ☐

3 Found by chance ☐

4 Went along with family ☐

5 On an organised trip ☐

6 Saw it in a guide book ☐

7 Saw it on a map ☐

8 Found out about it at a tourist information centre ☐

9 Saw an advertisement for it in a newspaper or magazine ☐

10 Look at Card B please.

This is a grading table where 1 is of great importance and 7 is of no importance. Can you please tell me the number within this scale which you think corresponds best with your answer.

When deciding to come here today, how important were the following in your chice of this particular site?

NB At end of each question, ask respondent what his/her answer means.

Definitions

11 Cost ☐

12 Distance you had to travel ☐

13 Few people at site ☐

14 Value for money ☐

15 The weather ☐

16 That you had been before ☐

17 That you had not been before ☐

Note: Ask 17 if answer to 7 is No, ask 16 if answer to 7 is Yes

18 What are the other reasons which you think were important in your decision to come here today?

Open probing

---

19 Finally, how many people are there in your group?

Are the people with you:

Members of your family ☐

Relatives ☐

Friends ☐

Organised group ☐

Other (specify) _____

20 Look at the final card, can you please tell me the category number of the ages of the people with you.

0-4	☐
5-15	☐
16-24	☐
25-44	☐
45-64	☐
65+	☐

21 What is your occupation (before retirement)

Your assistance has been most helpful. We would like to follow up in the near future a small number of households to answer a few more questions. We would write to you at home explaining further details.

If needed, would you be prepared to help us further?

Yes	☐
No	☐

If Yes

Address

Telephone (STD code)

Appendix Two

Dorset Institute of Higher Education

Postal Survey Day Trip Decision Making

Notes for completion of Questionnaire

The survey is designed for you as a household to record where you have been on your day trips over the last two months.

Simply look at the dates and record where you visited on the day. A day trip is defined as any journey away from home lasting longer than 3 hours, thus long walks with the dog, country drives and outings may also be included.

If you can remember any reasons which were important to make you decide to visit the particular location, note these in the last column. It may be that you simply wanted to go out and have a quiet afternoon in the country, or perhaps you had visitors staying? Please write anything which was important to a decision to take a day trip.

Please use envelope provided to return questionnaire.

Thank you.

AUGUST

Date	Place Visited	Reasons Why
Sat 1		
Sun 2		
Mon-Fri 3-7		
Sat 8		
Sun 9		
Mon-Fri 10-14		
Sat 15		
Sun 16		
Mon-Fri 17-21		
Sat 22		
Sun 23		
Mon-Fri 24-28		
Sat 29		
Sun 30		

Appendix Three

Combinations of reasons given in answer to 'Why did you decide to go out on a day trip today?'

Key

Why 1 See this site
Why 2 Just out somewhere
Why 3 On holiday
Why 4 Education interest
Why 5 Access easy/nearby
Why 6 Saw adverts/marketing
Why 7 Good for kids
Why 8 Good atmosphere/site
Why 9 Be with family
Why 10 Recommended
Why 11 Go for a walk/walk the dog
Why 12 Weather good
Why 13 Weather poor
Why 14 Been before
Why 15 Visiting with friends/relatives
Why 16 Go for a picnic
Why 17 Off work
Why 18 Like nature
Why 19 Historical/architectural interest
Why 20 Organised trip

Respondents giving single answer only

Why number	Frequency
1	52
2	21
3	36
4	0
5	5
6	5
7	11
8	3
9	29
10	12
11	22
12	8
13	2
14	4
15	30
16	7
17	3
18	0
19	0
20	57
	309

Respondent combination of two reasons

1st reason	2nd reason	Freq
1	3	2
1	5	2
1	6	2
1	7	3
1	8	4
1	9	5
1	10	2
1	11	5
1	12	6
1	13	5
1	14	16
1	15	5
1	16	4
1	17	3
1	18	3
1	19	15
1	20	1
2	3	16
2	5	1
2	6	2
2	8	1
2	9	5
2	10	1
2	11	1
2	12	8
2	15	4
2	16	2
2	17	2
2	18	1
2	20	9
3	4	2
3	5	7
3	6	5
3	8	1
3	9	14
3	10	3
3	11	4
3	12	9
3	13	5
3	14	4
3	15	3
3	16	2
3	17	1
3	18	2
3	19	5
3	20	3
4	9	1
4	20	3
5	6	2
5	8	1
5	10	1
5	11	2
5	12	2
5	15	2
5	16	1
5	17	1
6	12	3
6	15	2
6	16	1
6	19	1
6	20	4
7	8	2
7	9	11
7	10	2
7	11	2
7	12	1
7	14	1
7	15	1
7	16	1
7	19	1
8	11	2
8	13	1
8	15	1
8	16	2
9	10	1
9	11	9
9	12	3
9	13	5
9	14	2
9	15	8
9	16	6
9	19	1
9	20	4
10	12	1
10	15	3
10	20	5
11	12	6
11	13	3
11	16	4
12	15	3
12	16	1
12	20	1
14	15	3
14	16	3
14	17	1
14	20	2
15	17	1
15	19	1
18	20	13
19	20	2

Respondent combination of 3 reasons

1st reason	2nd reason	3rd reason	Freq
1	3	5	1
1	3	9	2
1	3	14	2
1	3	19	2
1	3	12	1
1	4	19	1
1	5	17	1
1	5	6	1
1	7	11	1
1	7	12	1
1	8	19	4
1	8	11	4
1	9	12	2
1	9	19	1
1	9	11	2
1	10	18	1
1	11	16	1
1	11	17	3
1	11	18	1
1	12	15	1
1	12	19	2
1	12	17	1
1	13	18	1
1	14	15	1
1	14	19	1
1	19	20	1
2	11	12	2
2	3	16	2
2	3	4	1
2	6	12	1
2	12	17	1
4	5	18	1
5	8	12	1
5	12	15	1
6	9	20	2
6	9	15	1
7	9	16	6
7	9	11	4
7	9	10	1
7	11	15	1
7	14	15	1
8	11	12	2
8	11	16	1
9	11	16	3
9	11	15	1
9	10	13	1
9	16	18	1
9	14	16	1
9	12	14	1
11	12	16	1
11	13	16	1
12	14	15	3
12	14	17	1
12	17	19	1
12	18	20	1
13	14	15	1
14	15	16	1
15	16	17	1

1st reason	2nd reason	3rd reason	Freq
3	5	13	1
3	5	12	1
3	6	13	2
3	7	9	2
3	7	13	1
3	8	12	1
3	8	15	1
3	8	19	1
3	9	16	1
3	9	13	1
3	9	12	3
3	9	10	1
3	9	19	1
3	10	12	1
3	11	16	1
3	12	14	2
3	14	15	1
3	17	20	1
3	18	20	1