



# The relationship between female snow-sport tourists' travel behaviors and well-being

Mona Mirehie<sup>a,\*</sup>, Heather J. Gibson<sup>b</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Department of Tourism, Hospitality and Event Management, School of Health and Human Sciences, Indiana University - Purdue University Indianapolis, PE 242, 901 W. New York Street, Ste. 250, Indianapolis, IN 46202, USA

<sup>b</sup> Department of Tourism, Hospitality and Event Management, University of Florida, 304 Florida Gym, PO Box 118208, Gainesville, FL 32611-8208, USA

## ARTICLE INFO

### Keywords:

Active sport tourism  
Well-being  
Women  
Skiing  
Snowboarding

## ABSTRACT

Positive psychology provides an approach to understand different aspects of tourist's well-being. This study investigated the wellbeing associated with snow-sport tourism among women. As part of a larger mixed-methods study, the utility of the PERMA framework (positive emotion, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment) as a tool for measuring well-being in the context of active sport tourism was assessed. Subsequently, PERMA was applied to investigate the well-being of female snow-sport participants in relation to their sport-related travel. Principle Component Analysis revealed only one dimension for well-being instead of the previously suggested five PERMA domains. One-way ANCOVA indicated that women who travelled to participate in snow-sports had a higher sense of well-being than those who participated locally. Hierarchical Multiple Regression showed a positive relationship between shorter frequent trips and higher well-being. Recommendations for encouraging participation in snow-sport tourism, focusing on well-being are made.

## 1. Introduction

The topic of well-being has attracted attention from tourism scholars over the last decade. For example, in recent years applying positive psychology to the study of tourists' happiness has become popular (e.g., Uysal, Sirgy, Woo, & Kim, 2016). Subjective well-being (SWB), happiness, and life satisfaction have been used interchangeably to investigate the hedonic (i.e., focus on positive feelings) aspects of tourists' well-being (e.g., Chen, Lehto, & Cai, 2013; Sirgy, Kruger, Lee, & Yu, 2010). However, a hedonic approach seems to fall short in explaining engagement in tourist experiences and the meaning individuals make out of such experiences. Smith and Diekmann (2017) after assessing different perspectives on tourism concluded that:

The relationship between well-being and tourism is a complex one involving something of a spectrum of experiences embodied in episodic, hedonic forms of tourism through to educational cultural tourism which may include some hedonic elements to retreat or spiritual pilgrimage trips which enhance a sense of existential authenticity, or those forms of tourism which also include altruistic or ethical dimensions (p. 10).

Seligman's (2002) conceptualization of authentic happiness (i.e., the PERMA framework; positive emotion, engagement, relationships,

meaning, and accomplishment) appears to be a comprehensive approach that captures both eudemonic (i.e., meaningful) and hedonic elements of tourists' happiness (Filep, 2014). Although over the past decade tourism scholars have increasingly considered both eudemonic and hedonic aspects of tourists' well-being (e.g., McCabe, Joldersma, & Li, 2010; Voigt, Brown, & Howat, 2011), Seligman's conceptualization has received limited attention.

Applying Seligman's (2002) approach to tourism and well-being research makes even more sense in the context of active sport tourism, travelling to participate in leisure-based physical activity (Gibson, 1998), since it includes the well-being outcomes of sport participation (Filo & Coghlan, 2016) as well as the travel effect (Chen et al., 2013). Previous studies have revealed that participation in both sport and travel contributes to enhanced well-being. In sport studies, Filo and Coghlan (2016) adopted Seligman's (2011) approach to investigate well-being among participants of different charity sport events and found that participation contributes to various domains of well-being. Similarly, in tourism studies, researchers have found that tourism experiences can directly impact people's life satisfaction (Neal, Sirgy, & Uysal, 1999). Chen and Petrick (2013) noted that "positive travel experiences can contribute to an individual's health, family relationships, and overall well-ness" (p. 709). Despite having some insights about the contribution of tourism experiences and sport to overall well-being, our

\* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: [mmirehie@iu.edu](mailto:mmirehie@iu.edu) (M. Mirehie), [hjgibson@hsp.ufl.edu](mailto:hjgibson@hsp.ufl.edu) (H.J. Gibson).

knowledge of the well-being outcomes of active sport tourism is still very limited.

One of the foci among active sport tourism researchers has been on snow-sports, likely due to the fact that participation usually requires travelling away from home to mountainous areas (e.g., Holden, 1999; Konu, Laukkanen, & Komppula, 2011). At present, a research focus on participation in snow-sport tourism is even more crucial since participation and visitors' expenditures have been shrinking (Webber, 2017). The number of visits to snow-sport resorts declined by more than seven million from the 2010–2011 season to 2017–2018 (National Ski Areas Association [NSAA], 2019). Part of this could be attributed to the overall decline in the number of active skiers and snowboarders where participants have dropped by more than one million (NSAA, 2019) over the same timeframe. However, a recent report in *The Economist* (2018) also pointed to increasing costs of participation and other studies have pointed to the increased impact of climate change on snow-sports participation patterns (Dawson, Scott, & Havitz, 2013). Of particular interest for this study, the majority of those who have dropped out were women (Snowsports Industries America, 2016). Research has shown that factors such as fatigue, hassle, time, and cost limit women's participation in snow-sport tourism (e.g., Hudson, 2000; Williams & Lattey, 1994).

Such constraints and the subsequent drop out partially relate to the gendered nature of snow-sports and tourism. A stream of research has shown that women are more constrained in both activity realms and thus have less presence than men (e.g., Hargreaves, 1994; Swain, 1995). Indeed, Sisjord (2013) explains that snow-sports are male-dominated activities and have remained as such throughout time. The gendered nature of snow-sports has been examined by several scholars using a Foucauldian perspective and their findings have yielded additional insights on women's participation/non-participation in these sports and related travel. For example, Spowart, Hughson, and Shaw (2008) found in a study of mothers who snowboarded that they used the sport to resist socially constructed expectations. Similarly, Stoddart (2010) suggested that skiing areas are built as masculinized spaces whereby only the less risky terrain is seen as feminine and women's experiences are usually mediated by men. As a result, he explained that women may not perceive snow-sports as welcoming. Similarly, Thorpe (2009), and Russell and Lemon (2012) in studies of snowboarding found that although the initial opportunity for participation did not depend on gender, men were still dominant, and women were viewed as less skillful. Thus, perhaps it is not surprising that more women than men have been dropping out of snow-sports over the past decade.

Nevertheless, there are still a substantial number of women who not only continue to participate, but also take snow-sports vacations. Therefore, it behooves us to understand what benefits these women accrue from participating and potentially such findings may provide strategies to encourage more women (and men) to get involved in snow-sports and the associated activities such as ski/snowboard vacations.

This paper reports the quantitative findings of a larger complementary sequential mixed-methods study of women's experiences of participation in snow-sports and snow-sport tourism. Guided by Seligman's (2011) PERMA framework of well-being, a conceptual foundation was developed through grounded theory methods. In this paper quantitative methods are used to examine the relationship between well-being and snow-sport tourism for women suggested in the resulting grounded theory model. Specifically, the purpose of this study was to a) examine whether the five-dimensional PERMA scale is an adequate tool for measuring well-being in the context of active sport tourism and, b) deductively test well-being among a larger sample of female snow-sport participants.

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1. Positive psychology and well-being

Discussion around well-being is nothing new and goes back to Greek philosophers such as Aristippus and Aristotle (Ryan & Deci, 2001). Ryan and Deci (2001) suggested, "the concept of well-being refers to optimal psychological functioning and experience" (p. 142). In a comprehensive review of the literature, Ryan and Deci found that studies on well-being were predominantly formed around either hedonism or eudemonism. According to eudemonic philosophy, well-being is more than just positive affect, while a hedonic philosophical conception of well-being regards happiness or pleasure as central. Since then, both aspects of well-being have been increasingly addressed in tourism studies (Smith & Diekmann, 2017). However, positive psychology's conceptualization of well-being which is comprised of both hedonic and eudemonic components (Doyle, Filo, Lock, Funk, & McDonald, 2016) has received little attention so far. From this perspective, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) stated that well-being involves subjective factors like emotional and mental health as well as objective factors such as quality of life that make individuals' life meaningful and enjoyable. In this study, we employ a positive psychology lens including both hedonic and eudemonic elements which appears to be the most comprehensive approach to studying well-being.

Seligman (2002) suggested that increased engagement, meaning, and positive emotions lead to flourishing which is not only the absence of mental disorder but the presence of positive elements in life. Later, Seligman (2011) added accomplishments and relationships to the previous three facets and proposed the PERMA framework suggesting that the main point of positive psychology is well-being that "is essentially a theory of uncoerced choice, and its five elements comprise what free people will choose for their own sake...The five elements are positive emotion, engagement, positive relationships, meaning, and accomplishment. A handy mnemonic is PERMA" (p. 16). Positive emotions refer to feelings of fulfilment, satisfaction, etc. that influence human experiences and sense of well-being (Seligman, 2002). Engagement is a high degree of immersion, related to a positive state of mind that people experience in an activity. The third domain is relationships which in this framework is considered an important aspect of well-being (Diener & Seligman, 2002). Meaning and achievement are eudemonic aspects of well-being that refer to beliefs about being part of something bigger and having a feeling of accomplishment towards personal goals (Seligman, 2011).

### 2.2. Tourism and well-being

Various theoretical lenses have been used to study tourism and well-being and can be conceptualized as either top-down theory or bottom-up theory. According to top-down theory people evaluate specific domains of life in positive or negative ways based on their predispositions (Feist, Bodner, Jacobs, Miles, & Tan, 1995). However, per bottom-up theory, overall well-being is the accumulation of pleasant life moments (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004). Iwasaki and Smale (1998) stressed the need for the integration of these two separate lines of research as they found in a study of leisure and coping that leisure could both improve positive psychological well-being and diminish negative influences on psychological well-being. The authors concluded that there was a reciprocal relationship between leisure and well-being; leisure was both a cause and an effect of psychological well-being. An example of this in a tourism context is Gilbert and Abdullah's (2002) study about the well-being of UK tourists in which they compared a group of individuals who anticipated an upcoming vacation with a control group who were not anticipating a vacation. Findings showed that anticipation of leisure-travel influenced the level of hedonism and that the vacation-taking group had a higher level of overall well-being compared to the control group. Later, in a pre-trip/post-trip design Gilbert and Abdullah (2004)

studied the influence of vacations on SWB. The authors found that taking vacations generated pleasant feelings before and after the trip, and thus enhanced individuals' SWB.

Subsequently, Sirgy et al. (2010) recommended using the goal theory of SWB to investigate the benefits of vacations for individuals. Accordingly, choosing attainable travel goals and becoming engaged in tourism activities that facilitate the achievement of meaningful goals increased leisure-travel satisfaction and enhanced positive emotions in targeted domains of life. Similarly, Nawijn, Marchand, Veenhoven, and Vingerhoets (2010) examined the relationship between vacations and happiness. Their findings revealed a high level of happiness before trips; however, only vacations that were 'very relaxing' increased post-trip happiness. Length of trips was not related to post-trip happiness. Likewise, Chen et al. (2013) conducted a pre-test/post-test study to examine the impacts of vacations on SWB of Chinese tourists. They compared vacationers with a control group in terms of chronic SWB (CSWB) and occasion-specific SWB (OSWB) over three months. CSWB refers to elements of SWB that are stable over time whereas, OSWB refers to elements that are specific to a particular situation or interaction (Lischetzke & Eid, 2006 as cited in Chen et al., 2013). The authors found that OSWB which comprises overall life satisfaction, satisfaction with particular domains of life, and affect increased after the vacation. Chen et al. (2013) suggested that this increase in OSWB may be due to 'vacation's situational effect' which suggests that the positive experiences tourists receive during a vacation are not permanently available; hence, the influence of such experiences on judgments about life satisfaction is temporary.

Similar results regarding the contribution of tourism to enhanced SWB have been demonstrated among different samples. For example, Milman (1998) examined the effects of tourism experiences on well-being and level of happiness among senior travelers. Interestingly, while the trip experience did not influence level of happiness, the level of activity on the trip did. Those who took part in various activities during the trip appeared to be happier after the trip. McCabe et al. (2010) examined the relationship between vacations (social tourism), quality of life, and well-being among UK low-income families and found that vacations were associated with increased quality of life. In a related study, McCabe and Johnson (2013) found that taking vacations improved the level of SWB for social tourists. Overall, their results were more pertinent to the enhancement of eudemonic aspects of SWB such as social well-being/positive functioning rather than emotional well-being. The authors suggested that these reflect the broader value of vacations in increasing life satisfaction. A recent study that is closely related to the current research is Drewery, Jiang, Hilbrecht, Mitas, and Jakubowitz's (2016) study of the SWB of adolescent females during a winter holiday. The authors found that vacation experiences affected the emotional balance of young women and thus, contributed to their SWB. The balance between positive and negative emotions could be influenced by activity novelty which also indirectly influenced life satisfaction. Drewery et al. (2016) also suggested that the positive emotions which accrue from different life domains seem to positively influence the cognitive evaluations of life, and therefore, enhance overall life satisfaction.

Some tourism researchers have applied a bottom-up spillover lens to assess the relationship between satisfaction with tourism experiences and overall life satisfaction. For instance, Neal, Uysal, and Sirgy (2007) found that satisfaction with tourism experiences is related to general leisure satisfaction which subsequently is related to overall life satisfaction. For those who stayed seven nights or more, the length of the trip positively moderated the relationships between satisfaction with tourism experiences, satisfaction with leisure, and overall life satisfaction. Similarly, Sirgy et al. (2010) assessed the effects of positive and negative affect related to travel experiences on overall sense of well-being. Their findings extended what Neal et al. (2007) found in that emotions generated from individuals' most recent trips not only increased leisure-related life satisfaction, but also affected satisfaction

with other domains of life (e.g., social life, family life, work life, etc.), as well as overall life satisfaction. More specifically, positive and negative emotions generated from trips influenced different aspects of life in different ways. For example, negative emotions significantly impacted those domains of life that were not influenced by positive emotions such as finances or health. Drawing upon previous quality of life research, Sirgy et al. (2010) explained that positive emotions generated from trips influenced aspects of life that are associated with higher-order needs such as love, or intellectual domains, but did not impact aspects of life that are related to lower-order needs such as health and safety. These life domains that are associated with lower-order needs were impacted by negative emotions induced by trips. Durko and Petrick (2016) found a positive relationship between vacation satisfaction and relationship satisfaction, a life domain which is also considered as one facet of well-being in Seligman's (2011) PERMA framework. Chen et al. (2016) found that tourism provides recovery experiences that are characterized by detachment from work, mastery, personal control, and relaxation are related to overall post-trip life satisfaction. Unlike Nawijn et al.'s (2010) findings, Chen et al.'s showed that length of the trip was relevant. In the case of shorter trips, relaxation predicted life satisfaction while longer trips offered more opportunities for recovery through detachment, mastery, and control which were indicators of higher life satisfaction.

In summary, the existing research demonstrates that taking vacations positively impacts individuals' overall well-being. The underlying mechanisms that generate such well-being could be either hedonic or eudemonic. Individuals acquire positive affect from positive travel experiences, and also sense of accomplishment or mastery from achieving travel goals; all in all, these lead to higher overall well-being.

### 2.3. Sport, sport tourism, and well-being

Parallel with the increasing focus on well-being in tourism research, there has been growing interest in studying the link between sport/physical activity participation, health, and sense of well-being. A great number of these studies come from public health and have focused on the role of sport/physical activity in enhancing physical and mental health. The results of these studies have provided notable empirical evidence regarding the positive influence of sport/physical activity on improved health and well-being. For example, Fox (1999) reviewed the literature on the effect of exercise on mental well-being and concluded that it is well-known that exercise participation could decrease depression and anxiety and enhance physical self-perceptions and overall self-esteem. Similarly, Hassmen, Koivula, and Uutela (2000) found that frequent exercise participation is related to lower levels of depression, stress, anger, and cynical distrust. Furthermore, individuals who participated in exercise twice a week or more had higher perceptions of social integration defined as "feelings of integration in collectives, such as one's own family and neighborhood, municipality, parish, or association" (p. 19). Similarly, Downward and Rasciute (2011) found that sports which facilitate social interaction generate higher well-being.

This line of research in sport studies has been underpinned by various theories such as activity theory, self-determination theory, and eudemonic identity theory (Bosnjak, Brown, Lee, Yu, & Sirgy, 2016). The main argument of these theories is that participation in physical activity increases SWB. However, a growing body of work in economics motivated by a quest to further investigate the largely correlational conclusions that sport participation is positively associated with well-being has drawn attention to the potential correlates and mechanisms underpinning the sport and well-being relationship.

As governments around the world base their policy for increasing the physical and psychological health of their citizens on sport participation, scholars in economics have emphasized the need to further examine the relationship between sport participation and well-being using statistical approaches that have controlled for variables known to influence this relationship (e.g., Downward & Dawson, 2016; Wicker &

Frick, 2015, 2017). Concepts such as happiness (e.g. Downward & Dawson, 2016; Huang & Humphreys, 2012) or life satisfaction (Wicker & Frick, 2015, 2017) have been used to operationalize SWB. Facilitated by the existence of national level data bases in many European countries that include a self-report measure of happiness (Downward & Dawson, 2016) or life satisfaction (Wicker & Frick, 2015, 2017) and sport and physical activity participation patterns, have enabled economists to address the issues of endogeneity plaguing many of the studies from public health and psychology (cited above). In their studies, economists have been able to examine the causal influence of sport participation on WB by using instrumental variables such as proximity to sports facilities, quality of local parks, and attitudes towards physical activity. (e.g., Downward & Dawson, 2016; Rueski, Humphreys, Hallman, Wicker, & Breuer, 2014; Wicker & Frick, 2015). These researchers have also examined a number of socio-economic and demographic variables. For example, findings show a u-shaped relationship between age and happiness, with the middle-aged reporting being less happy (Rueski et al., 2014); those with higher income and higher education tend to be happier (Huang & Humphreys, 2012); women tend to be happier than men (Downward & Dawson, 2016); although Huang and Humphreys (2012) using US data found that both men and women who participated in sport were happier, with men showing greater benefit in this regard from participating in sport. The overall finding in these studies is that there does tend to be a positive relationship between sport and physical activity participation and well-being. However, the relationship is complex with factors such as differences in participation intensity and duration influencing wellbeing both positively and negatively (Downward & Dawson, 2016; Wicker & Frick, 2015, 2017). As a result, Downward and Dawson (2016) suggest perhaps public policy attention should shift to a focus on less intense recreational sport emphasizing fun and social interaction akin to the realm of snow-sports, the context for the current study.

The research emanating from economics has tended to use a one item self-report measure of happiness or life satisfaction and not the more holistic approach to well-being offered by the PERMA framework (Seligman, 2011). In contrast, in a study of sport and well-being in the context of three charity sport-events Filo and Coghlan (2016) used the PERMA framework. The authors found that all five domains of PERMA were experienced by the event participants. Engagement was found to be the least evident aspect while relationships was the strongest. In one of the few studies on happiness in the context of sport tourism, Bosnjak et al. (2016) examined two groups of sport tourists: participants of a dance festival and skiers. They found that the level of self-expressiveness in an activity is a predictor of personal happiness and hedonic enjoyment. This was more apparent among skiers who perceived the sport as challenging. Moreover, the positive relationships between the perceived importance of the sport and self-realization with self-expressiveness highlighted the significance of the eudemonic aspects of an experience to individuals' happiness. In a recent study, Wicker (2019) examined sport participation frequency and travel distance in relation to five types of sport travel including travel to practices and tournaments, two categories of sport travel are particularly relevant to this study: day trips and sport vacations. Wicker (2019) found that taking some day trips to participate in sport was related to higher levels of SWB, however, travelling to take a sport-related vacation or to participate in a sport camp was not associated with higher levels of SWB. She suggested that perhaps the stresses associated with travel might reduce the SWB benefit. This finding runs counter to Bosnjak et al. (2016) and much of the related research in tourism which suggests that taking a vacation, while not a sport vacation is linked to higher SWB (e.g., Sirgy et al., 2010).

While extant studies provide some support for the contention that active sport tourism participation is linked to wellbeing, as yet there has been little focus on women's well-being in this context, particularly in the realm of snow-sports. One exception, in the sport of surfing, is Fendt's (2015) study of women surfers. She documented the mental

health benefits of active sport tourism for women such as positive emotions, social connectedness, and self-actualization that resonate with different domains of PERMA. However, prior to the current study, only one other published study used the PERMA framework to investigate the well-being outcomes of active participation in charity sport event contexts (i.e., Filo & Coghlan, 2016). In contrast, the current study investigated well-being in a non-sport event context and examined the relationship between taking snow-sport trips as well as the frequency and length of the snow-sports trips and well-being.

Therefore, the following research questions were posed:

**RQ1.** Are the five facets of PERMA identified in women's snow-sport experiences quantitatively verifiable?

**RQ2.** Is there a relationship between taking ski/snowboard trips and well-being? (i.e. Does sense of well-being differ between local participants and tourists?)

**RQ3.** Is sense of well-being related to frequency and length of the trip?

### 3. Methods

This study is part of a multi-phase multi-method research project which involved an exploratory qualitative study followed by a quantitative study. In the qualitative phase, data were collected through in-depth interviews with women skiers and snowboarders ( $N = 13$ ). Constant comparative methods (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) and theoretical sensitivity (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) were applied and a conceptual framework was developed that provided initial evidence for the existence of well-being in women's experiences of participation in snow-sport tourism. This was presented per Seligman's (2011) five domains of well-being that form the PERMA framework. Another theme in the qualitative findings was snow-sport related travel. It appeared that some women took multi-day trips to participate in snow-sports while some others took day trips. Frequency and length of the trips varied among those who travelled. The five facets of PERMA were more prominent in the narratives of the women who travelled compared to those who participated in snow-sports locally. Also, longer and more frequent snow-sport trips seemed to generate a stronger sense of well-being. This paper reports the quantitative examination of tenets of the theoretical framework created in the qualitative study.

#### 3.1. Instrumentation

An online self-administered questionnaire was developed that operationalized the key aspects of the grounded theory model: a) well-being, b) length and frequency of trips, c) travel patterns, and d) demographics. To measure well-being (i.e., the five domains of PERMA), Butler and Kern's (2016) 15-item scale (three items to measure each dimension of Seligman's PERMA framework) was adopted and adapted to the context of snow-sport tourism. The scale was tested and validated across eight samples and was found to have good validity and reliability ( $\alpha = 0.94$ ; Butler & Kern, 2016). The items seemed to fit the purpose and context of the current study and therefore, were adapted and used to measure well-being outcomes of participation in snow-sport tourism for women. Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 = 'extremely low' and 7 = 'extremely high.'

To operationalize length and frequency of trips, and travel patterns close-ended items were constructed from the qualitative study. Respondents were asked to determine during an average season how often they took each type (length) of trip. Four items assessed the temporal length of the trip and were measured on a Likert scale where 1 = 'never' and 6 = 'very frequently.' To examine travel patterns, respondents were also asked about the type of the accommodation they use on a snow-sport trip, and snow-sport travel party composition. Items assessing demographics asked about respondents' age, annual income, education, employment status, race identity, marital status,



number of children, and zip code of their primary residence.

To minimize measurement and response error, the questionnaire was pretested through a panel of experts, and retrospective verbal probing interviews with six women skiers and snowboarders. Retrospective verbal probing is one type of cognitive interviewing that is used as a pretest method to identify potential sources of response error and improve questionnaire design (Willis, 2004). After the process of pretesting and revising was completed, the final version of the questionnaire was distributed using Qualtrics software.

### 3.2. Data collection

Given the focus of the study on experiences and outcomes of participation, data collection was not limited to a particular resort or snowsports area. Participation criterion was being a woman, 18 years or older, who participates or previously participated in skiing or snowboarding. This included women who participate locally as well as those who travel (50 miles or more from home) to participate. To balance the number of respondents with different levels of experience and skill within the sample, Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) and organizational affiliations (i.e., ski/snowboard clubs) were used to recruit the respondents. Since club members tend to be advanced level skiers/snowboarders, MTurk was used as a complementary channel to recruit beginners and intermediates. To recruit participants through organizational affiliation, a directory of ski/snowboard clubs was developed from the lists of clubs within the U.S. available on <http://www.ski-ski-ski.com/Clubs.html>. To minimize the coverage error which “results from every unit in the survey population not having a known, nonzero chance of being included in the sample” (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2009, 43), the lists were crosschecked with those available on the states' ski councils or associations (for states that have a ski council or association). All the ski clubs within the U.S. that had valid contact information listed online ( $N = 578$ ) were contacted (480 email messages were sent, and 205 digital flyers were posted on clubs' Facebook pages) and asked to send the recruitment materials to their members and invite them to participate in the study. MTurk respondents were delimited to women skiers/snowboarders within the U.S. They received \$0.75 as compensation for participating in the study. However, it is worth noting that Buhrmester, Kwang, and Gosling (2011) found that MTurk respondents are internally driven and do not participate only for the monetary incentives. Also, MTurk samples have been found to be more diverse in terms of demographic characteristics than other sampling methods. Buhrmester et al. (2011) also found that “the quality of data provided by MTurk met or exceeded the psychometric standards associated with published research” (p. 5).

### 3.3. Sample characteristics

Seven hundred and ninety-four complete questionnaires ( $N = 794$ ;  $n = 387$  organizational affiliation,  $n = 407$  MTurk) were obtained from online data collection. Not surprisingly the largest number of club respondents were advanced skiers/snowboarders (51%  $n = 198$ ) followed by intermediates (41%  $n = 158$ ) and beginners (8%  $n = 31$ ). Most of the MTurk respondents were beginners (76%  $n = 309$ ) followed by intermediates (21%  $n = 85$ ) and advanced (3%  $n = 13$ ). Respondents' ages ranged from 18 to 87 years old ( $M = 41.41$ ,  $SD = 16.10$ ). MTurk respondents were younger ( $M = 33.17$ ,  $SD = 10.11$ ) compared to club respondents ( $M = 50.35$ ,  $SD = 16.62$ ). The greatest proportion of the sample was White/Caucasian (80.3%,  $n = 627$ ), married (44.3%,  $n = 346$ ), college educated (43.6%,  $n = 341$ ), and employed full-time (54.6%,  $n = 427$ ) with a 2016 household annual income of \$100,000 (USD) or more (34.4%,  $n = 261$ ). The most commonly reported number of children was none (53.4%,  $n = 416$ ). Respondents resided across all states within the U.S., however, the greatest proportion was from the northeastern states (35.2%,  $n = 270$ ) (Table 1).

**Table 1**  
Socio-demographic characteristics of the study sample ( $N = 794$ ).

Characteristics	Percent (%)	Frequency (n)
<b>Racial background</b>		
Native American/American Indian	0.6	5
Black/African American	7.6	59
Hispanic/Latino	2.9	23
White/Caucasian	80.3	626
Asian	7.3	57
Other	1.3	10
<b>Marital status</b>		
Single	38.5	300
Married	44.4	346
Separated/Divorced	7.6	59
Widowed	2.8	22
Domestic partner	6.8	53
<b>Education</b>		
Less than high school	0.3	2
High school graduate	13.8	108
Associate/technical degree	15.1	118
Bachelor's degree	43.5	340
Master's degree	19.1	149
Doctoral degree/Terminal degree (JD; MD)	8.2	64
<b>Employment</b>		
Employed full-time	54.5	426
Employed part-time	10.4	81
Self-employed	10.2	80
Unemployed	1.4	11
Retired	12.4	97
Homemaker	5.4	42
Student	5.0	39
Other	0.6	5
<b>Annual income (US \$)</b>		
Less than \$30,000	11.2	85
\$30,000 - 39,999	9.6	73
\$40,000–49,999	7.3	55
\$50,000–59,999	10.3	78
\$60,000–69,999	8.1	61
\$70,000–79,999	7.3	55
\$80,000–89,999	7.0	53
\$90,000–99,999	4.8	36
\$100,000 or more	34.5	261

The number of participation years ranged from 0 to 74 years for skiing and from 0 to 37 years for snowboarding (skiing  $M = 15.66$ ,  $SD = 16.40$ ; snowboarding  $M = 2.87$ ,  $SD = 4.82$ ).

### 3.4. Data analysis

Data were analyzed in several steps using SPSS 24.0 statistical software. Descriptive statistics were used to screen data for skewness, kurtosis, and outliers. To assess the first research question, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was initially used, however, the analysis did not validate the previously suggested five dimensions of PERMA. Therefore, Principal Components Analysis (PCA) was conducted (more explanation in results section). To consider all possible factor solutions the analysis was run with different rotations and alternative extraction methods. Minimum required amount of data (i.e., 5:1) (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010) was met with 52 cases per variable (i.e., 15 items). To interpret factors, factor loadings larger than 0.5 and Eigenvalues larger than one were considered acceptable (see Hair et al., 2010). To confirm the factorability of correlation matrices, significant Bartlett's test of sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy ( $KMO > 0.8$ ) were used.

To address the second research question, one-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted with type of participation (i.e., local vs. travel) as the independent variable and well-being as the dependent variable. Also, age, income, number of participation years, and number of participation days during an average season were used as

covariates. Age ( $p = .364$ ) and income ( $p = .128$ ) did not have significant effects and therefore were dropped out of the analysis. The ANCOVA test was rerun with the remaining variables.

To assess the third research question, Hierarchical Multiple Regression was utilized with frequency and lengths of ski/snowboard trips as the independent variables and WB as the dependent variable. Age, income, number of participation years, and number of participation days during an average year were used as control variables. Age ( $p = .186$ ) and income ( $p = .558$ ) did not have a significant effect on WB, therefore, they were dropped out of the model and the analysis was conducted with the remaining variables. Assumptions of the model were tested, there were no serious violations and no concerns over multi-collinearity (all tolerance values  $\geq 0.8$ , and VIF values  $\leq 2$ ).

**4. Findings**

Descriptive statistics showed that most of the respondents (85.2%,  $n = 672$ ) indicated that they took ski/snowboard trips where they needed to travel > 50 miles away from their primary residence to reach the mountains. The most commonly reported length of a trip was 2–3 days with 37.2% of the respondents ( $n = 250$ ) indicating that they occasionally take 2–3 day-long trips. Trip companions were family (59%,  $n = 468$ ), and/or friends (56.2%,  $n = 446$ ). Only 8.7% took solo ski/snowboard trips ( $n = 69$ ). More than half of the respondents stayed in hotels on these trips (53.8%,  $n = 427$ ) (Table 2).

With respect to WB, the highest rated item was ‘skiing/snowboarding makes me feel joyful’ ( $M = 5.68$ ,  $SD = 1.46$ ) followed by ‘skiing/snowboarding makes me feel positive’ ( $M = 5.60$ ,  $SD = 1.44$ ), and ‘skiing/snowboarding makes me feel excited/interested’ ( $M = 5.55$ ,  $SD = 1.49$ ). The lowest rated WB item was ‘skiing/snowboarding makes me feel I have direction in life’ ( $M = 4.05$ ,  $SD = 1.83$ ) followed by ‘I have achieved the goals that I had set for myself in skiing/snowboarding’ ( $M = 4.70$ ,  $SD = 1.70$ ), and ‘I feel I am being loved by my ski/snowboard partners’ ( $M = 4.73$ ,  $SD = 1.66$ ) (Table 3).

**4.1. RQ1. Are the five facets of PERMA identified in women's snow-sport experiences quantitatively verified?**

All the WB items loaded on one factor that explained 60% of the variance. The factor was labeled ‘well-being’ ( $\alpha = 0.94$ ,  $M = 5.12$ ) (Table 4). To identify the best factor solution, the analysis was rerun by fixing the number of factors to 5, as in the PERMA scale (Butler & Kern, 2016), but the Eigen values for all factors except for the first one were below 1. To further examine the scale, the items were theoretically grouped into five dimensions; however, the resulting variables were highly correlated ( $r > 0.8$ ) which indicated lack of discriminant validity among the dimensions. A row-centering standardization was

**Table 2**  
Travel patterns of the sample.

Items	Percent (%)	Frequency (n)
Takes ski/snowboard trips (50 miles away from home)	85.2	672
Travel companions		
Family	59	468
Friends (non-club members)	56.2	446
Ski/snowboard club members	29.3	232
I take solo ski/snowboard trips	8.7	69
Accommodation		
Hotel	53.8	427
Rental house/apartment	39	309
I stay with family/friends who live close to the mountain	25	198
I own a second home close to the mountains	6.8	54
Other	9.7	77

**Table 3**  
WB items descriptive statistics.

Items	M	SD	N
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel joyful	5.68	1.46	793
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel positive	5.60	1.44	793
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel excited/interested	5.55	1.49	793
Skiing/snowboarding is a valuable/worthwhile activity for me	5.48	1.51	793
I have been able to balance responsibilities in my life with skiing/snowboarding	5.31	1.69	793
I feel satisfied with my personal relationships around skiing/snowboarding	5.27	1.46	793
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel contented	5.26	1.60	793
Skiing/snowboarding is a purposeful/meaningful activity for me	5.20	1.63	793
I receive help and support from my ski/snowboard partners when I need it	5.18	1.58	793
I have been making progress in skiing/snowboarding	5.18	1.66	793
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel absorbed	4.93	1.65	793
Skiing/snowboarding makes me lose track of time	4.74	1.77	793
I feel I am being loved by my ski/snowboard partners	4.73	1.66	793
I have achieved the goals that I had set for myself in skiing/snowboarding	4.70	1.70	793
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel I have a direction in life	4.05	1.83	793

Note. All items were measured from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

**Table 4**  
Principle component analysis of the WB scale.

Varimax-rotated loadings	
WB items	Factors
	F1
	Well-being
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel positive	0.870
Skiing/snowboarding is a valuable/worthwhile activity for me	0.868
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel excited/interested	0.867
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel contented	0.866
Skiing/snowboarding is a purposeful/meaningful activity for me	0.862
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel joyful	0.846
I have been making progress in skiing/snowboarding	0.813
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel absorbed	0.800
I feel satisfied with my personal relationships around skiing/snowboarding	0.757
I have achieved the goals that I had set for myself in skiing/snowboarding	0.706
Skiing/snowboarding makes me feel I have a direction in life	0.699
I feel I am being loved by my ski/snowboard partners	0.687
Skiing/snowboarding makes me lose track of time	0.656
I receive help and support from my ski/snowboard partners when I need it	0.627
Factor's mean (i.e. composite measure labeled as well-being)	5.12
Eigenvalue	9
% of variance explained	60.05
AVE	0.60
Cronbach's Alpha	0.94

Note. All items were measured from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (7).

applied to remove the response-style effects (see Hair et al., 2010) and EFA was conducted with standardized variables. The extracted factor structure did not make conceptual sense and the identified factors did not meet the agreed upon criteria for internal consistency. Furthermore, the standardized items were grouped into five dimensions as suggested by the theory; nonetheless, the dimensions lacked internal consistency again. Hence, the one WB factor that was identified in the initial analysis was retained, a composite measure of the items was created and used in the subsequent analyses.

**4.2. RQ2. Does taking ski/snowboard trips influence WB?**

One-way ANCOVA revealed that after adjustment by the covariates

**Table 5**  
Summary Results of ANCOVA with WB as the dependent variable.

Variable	Between Groups <i>df</i>	Within Groups <i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<b>Main effect</b>				
Travel (> 50 miles away from home)	1	771	8.57	0.004*
<b>Covariates</b>				
Participation years	1		52.47	0.000**
Participation days during an average season	1		61.91	0.000**

R<sup>2</sup> = 0.217.

\* *p* < .01.

\*\* *p* < .001.

number of participation years and number of participation days during an average season, there was a statistically significant difference between respondents who travelled to participate in skiing/snowboarding compared to those who did not travel to ski/snowboard *F* (1, 771) = 8.57, *p* < .05. Respondents who took ski/snowboard trips had a significantly higher level of WB (*M* = 5.25, *SD* = 1.16) than those who did not take ski/snowboard trips (*M* = 4.54, *SD* = 1.28) (Table 5).

4.3. RQ3. Is sense of WB related to frequency and length of the trip?

Hierarchical Multiple Regression showed that 4.5% of the variance was explained by the frequency per season the women engaged either in a 2–3 day trip or a weeklong trip *F* (4, 655) = 33.6, *p* < .05. More frequent trips of the 2–3 day or weeklong variety were associated with higher WB (2–3 day-long trips, β = 0.135, *t* (655) = 3.49, *p* < .05; weeklong trips β = 0.121, *t* (655) = 0.422, *p* < .05). There was no relationship between the frequency of taking daytrips as well as trips longer than one week and WB (Table 6).

5. Discussion

The overall purpose of this study was to investigate the well-being outcomes of women's participation in snow-sport tourism. Initially, the dimensionality of the PERMA scale was tested as stated in Research Question 1. Despite utilizing Butler and Kern's (2016) multidimensional PERMA scale, in this study the EFA resulted in only one factor which questions the suitability of the scale for uses different from its original intent. The scale was initially developed to examine individuals' overall well-being pertaining to all aspects of life not the well-being generated from a specific life domain, that of snow-sport participation and

**Table 6**  
Relationships between frequency and length of trips and WB Hierarchical Multiple Regression.

	WB		
	ΔR <sup>2</sup>	β	<i>t</i>
Constant		3.91	27.83**
Step 1	0.190*		
<b>Control variables</b>			
Participation years		0.204	5.42*
Participation days during an average season		0.223	5.29*
Step 2	0.045		
One day-long trips (> 50 miles away from home)		0.043	1.19
2–3 day-long trips		0.135	3.49**
Week-long trips		0.121	2.45*
Trips for longer than one week		0.020	0.422
Total R <sup>2</sup>	0.236		

Note. Frequency of the trips was measured from never (1) to very frequently (6).

\* *p* < .01.

\*\* *p* < .001.

associated tourism. Perhaps this suggests that a positive psychology approach involving both the hedonic and eudemonic domains of well-being may not be as appropriate as focusing solely on the hedonic aspect of SWB, that has been linked to sport and tourism participation (e.g., Chen et al., 2013; Gilbert & Abdullah, 2002, 2004; McAuley et al., 2000). SWB might be a more valid tool for measuring the contribution of different activities/domains to a person's overall well-being. It is also plausible that when individuals are asked to subjectively evaluate their well-being in relation to a particular experience (e.g., snow-sport tourism), they form an overall assessment which manifests itself as a good or bad feeling towards that experience; this is the crux of the SWB theory (Filep, 2014). Here, we do not mean to ignore the existence of eudemonic processes rather it is possible that all elements are embedded in a general positive or negative feeling. In fact, a developing line of research has revealed a lot of overlap and very little distinction among different conceptualizations (Longo, Coyne, & Joseph, 2017) and therefore, it is suggested that the best approach to conceptualizing well-being is through one factor that contains different elements (Disabato, Goodman, Kashdan, Short, & Jarden, 2016; Goodman, Disabato, Kashdan, & Kauffman, 2018; Jovanovic, 2015; Longo et al., 2017). Recently, Goodman et al. (2018) found that PERMA (Seligman, 2011) and SWB (Diener, 1984) are strongly correlated. Their results indicated that while people could be grouped based on their self-reported level of well-being, they could not be distinguished based on the type (i.e., dimensions) of well-being. As a result, the authors suggested that PERMA and SWB represent the same well-being concept.

PERMA has also been criticized for its contextual sensitivity. Christopher and Hickinbottom (2008) noted different conceptualizations of meaning in different cultures and criticized Seligman's theory for its shortcomings in non-Western cultures. Participants of this study were not only Western, but also middle and upper-middle class women, so, another limitation of Seligman's approach can be sensitivity to gender and social class since both factors can strongly influence people's overall life experience and the way they make sense of different activities, places, and social interactions (Abbas, 2004). However, the application of positive psychology in sport and tourism research is still in its infancy and further investigation is necessary in refining and revising the conceptualization and operationalization of well-being associated with specific domains of life.

With respect to the second research question, findings showed a positive relationship between snow-sport trips and sense of well-being. This provides support for previous research that showed a link between active sport tourism and enhanced well-being (e.g., Wicker, 2019), in addition to verifying the supposition of this relationship in our grounded theory model (Mirehie, 2018). Such enhanced well-being could relate to an escape from the stress of daily life and routine. In fact, escapism has been found to be an important motive for participation in snow-sport tourism (e.g., Kouthouris, 2009; Papadimitriou & Gibson, 2008). Likewise, studies on women and tourism have found that vacations can be sites for women to escape from a stressful daily life (Deem, 1996). Perhaps, Wearing and Wearing's (1996) notion of "chora" which refers to tourist destinations as interactive spaces that could be sites for women's self-development may be relevant here. Escape from routine and opportunities for self-enhancement might include elements of hedonism and eudemonism and therefore contribute to both domains of well-being. Moreover, because snow-sport trips involve physical activity and are socially dynamic (Holden, 1999), the generated sense of well-being during these trips might be reinforced compared to other types of travel (Downward & Rasciute, 2011; Fox, 1999). Our findings provided some support for the effect of physical activity since number of participation years and participation days during an average season were found to explain more variance in well-being than the type of travel. However, further research is needed to assess whether the positive influence of snow-sport trips on well-being is temporary or long-lasting, and also, to distinguish the effect of sport participation from the travel effect.

In terms of the third research question, repeated snow-sport trips were associated with higher well-being which can pertain to the potential cumulative effect of participation (Filo & Coghlan, 2016), meaning that sense of well-being generated by each trip accumulates over time and therefore regular participation is linked to a higher sense of well-being that lasts longer. Chen et al. (2013) found that enhanced well-being resulting from vacations were only situational and faded away shortly after the trip (i.e., two months). Hence, it can be argued that when trips are repeated periodically the positive experiences are renewed during each trip which helps retain a sense of well-being over the long-term. However, repeated daytrips (> 50 miles away from home) and trips longer than one week were not associated with higher well-being. Perhaps, travel stress and fatigue as suggested by Wicker (2019) might explain this. Certainly, driving > 50 miles to the mountains and back in one day can be taxing and therefore may reduce the positive assessments of the experience. Likewise, once the length of the trips exceeds one week, particularly physically active trips, physical exhaustion and also the stress of being away from home and work may decrease the subjective evaluations of the positive outcomes. Certainly, this finding warrants further investigation as there appears to be a lack of consistency in the extant literature regarding length of a trip. For example, Chen et al. (2013) found that longer trips contributed to higher life satisfaction. Our grounded theory model also suggested longer trips contribute to well-being (Mirehie, 2018). Thus, as this scholarship is in its infancy and as Filo and Coghlan (2016) suggest perhaps longitudinal designs might be warranted, or pre-post designs (Gilbert & Abdullah, 2004) to further probe this relationship.

This study contributes to tourism scholarship by responding to Filep's (2014) call for applying a positive psychology lens in tourism research. Our findings provide support for Downward and Rasciute's (2011) findings in that sport vacations seem to contribute to well-being. Nevertheless, the findings raised questions regarding the stability of PERMA dimensions and Seligman's proposition about the independent and unique contribution of each facet to overall well-being. Therefore, more research is needed to test the independent nature of these five dimensions.

Furthermore, this was likely the first gender specific study that focused on women as a population that has been overlooked in sport tourism research (Gibson & Mirehie, 2017). As mentioned before, sport tourism is a context where gender plays a crucial role in shaping participation experiences. Women have always had less access than men (Gibson & Mirehie, 2017), and once they get access, because of the predominant gender relations, the way they experience places and activities is different from men. Previous research has provided evidence for the existence of such differences (e.g., Sisjord, 2009; Stoddart, 2010). Further qualitative research could provide a deeper understanding of gender-specific experiences and well-being outcomes generated in the experiences of men and women.

This study has various implications for practitioners who wish to promote women's participation in sport tourism. In times where high rates of physical inactivity and the resulting physical and psychological health issues are big concerns for the World Health Organization (WHO, 2016), promoting active sport tourism participation through its well-being outcomes can be a feasible tool for attracting more women. Findings could also be valuable for women's support groups in providing guidance for women who suffer in one way or another from low sense of well-being. Certainly, in studies of tourism more generally, leisure-travel for women has been linked to well-being and rejuvenation (Berdychevsky, Gibson, & Bell, 2013).

Also, in an era where society suffers from lack of self-identity and social capital, sport tourism spaces could be used as a catalyst for creating a sense of community (Wheaton, 2000). This could be of more significance with sports that have a prominent social aspect in them such as snow-sports. Ski/snowboard clubs are relevant sites for creating such sense of community. Perhaps creating package tours at reasonable prices allows people from various socio-demographic backgrounds to

participate which increases social inclusion and subsequent sense of community. Hosting amateur snow-sport events is another strategy that could be useful in creating social capital and sense of community which also contributes to sustainable tourism development (Gibson, Kaplanidou, & Kang, 2012).

Every effort was made to minimize the limitations and delimitations of this study. Nonetheless, we acknowledge that like any other research this study was limited and delimited by several factors. The instrument was piloted, and the utility of the instrument was assessed as relatively easy to answer, however it was a long instrument and participant fatigue may have been experienced. The first delimitation was the difficulty in reaching beginners as well as independent high-level skiers or snowboarders. Specifically, a sampling frame from which respondents could be recruited does not exist. To minimize this, different channels were used to collect data (i.e., organizational affiliation, social media, and MTurk) to access to a large, diverse population. However, the study might be delimited by problems associated with non-probability sampling such as coverage error; situations where some members of the population do not have a known nonzero chance for participating in the study (Dillman et al., 2009). Although internet provides access to large populations, studies that use internet surveys do have notable coverage errors (Dillman et al., 2009) and this study is not an exception. Furthermore, participants of snow-sport tourism, as is the case in other types of sport tourism, are mostly white, educated, middle- or upper-middle class (Gibson, 1998). Thus, results regarding the participation in snow-sport tourism and well-being through may not be applicable to women with diverse backgrounds.

However, despite any shortcomings, this study contributes to the growing focus on the relationship between sport and tourism and well-being. Notably, participation in active sport tourism contributed to the well-being of the women in this study, although the optimal length of such trips is open to further investigation.

## Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Eric Friedheim Tourism Institute (EFTI) for providing funding for data collection of this study.

## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tmp.2019.100613>.

## References

- Abbas, A. (2004). The embodiment of class, gender and age through leisure: A realist analysis of long-distance running. *Leisure Studies*, 23(2), 159–175.
- Berdychevsky, L., Gibson, H. J., & Bell, H. L. (2013). Girlfriend getaways and women's well-being. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 45(5), 602–623.
- Bosnjak, M., Brown, C. A., Lee, D. J., Yu, G. B., & Sirgy, M. J. (2016). Self-expressiveness in sport tourism: Determinants and consequences. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(1), 125–134.
- Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., & Gosling, S. D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk: A new source of inexpensive, yet high-quality, data? *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 6(1), 3–5.
- Butler, J., & Kern, M. L. (2016). The PERMA-Profiler: A brief multidimensional measure of flourishing. *International Journal of Wellbeing*, 6(3), 1–48.
- Chen, C. C., & Petrick, J. F. (2013). Health and wellness benefits of travel experiences: A literature review. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(6), 709–719.
- Chen, Y., Lehto, X. Y., & Cai, L. (2013). Vacation and well-being: A study of Chinese tourists. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 42, 284–310.
- Chen, C. C., Huang, W. J., & Petrick, J. F. (2016). Holiday recovery experiences, tourism satisfaction and life satisfaction—Is there a relationship? *Tourism Management*, 53, 140–147.
- Christopher, J. C., & Hickenbottom, S. (2008). Positive psychology, ethnocentrism, and the disguised ideology of individualism. *Theory & Psychology*, 18(5), 563–589.
- Dawson, J., Scott, D., & Havitz, M. (2013). Skier demand and behavioural adaptation to climate change in the US Northeast. *Leisure/Loisir*, 37(2), 127–143.
- Deem, R. (1996). No time for a rest? An exploration of women's work, engendered leisure and holidays. *Time & Society*, 5(1), 5–25.
- Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychological Bulletin*, 95(3), 542–575.
- Dillman, D. A., Smyth, J. D., & Christian, L. M. (2009). *Internet, mail, and mix-mode*



- surveys: the tailored design method. Hoboken: Wiley.
- Disabato, D. J., Goodman, F. R., Kashdan, T. B., Short, J. L., & Jarden, A. (2016). Different types of well-being? A cross-cultural examination of hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Psychological Assessment*, 28(5), 471–482.
- Downward, P., & Dawson, P. (2016). Is it pleasure or health from leisure that we benefit from most? An analysis of well-being alternatives and implications for policy. *Social Indicators Research*, 126(1), 443–465.
- Downward, P., & Rasciute, S. (2011). Does sport make you happy? An analysis of the well-being derived from sports participation. *International Review of Applied Economics*, 25(3), 331–348.
- Doyle, J. P., Filo, K., Lock, D., Funk, D. C., & McDonald, H. (2016). Exploring PERMA in spectator sport: Applying positive psychology to examine the individual-level benefits of sport consumption. *Sport Management Review*, 19(5), 506–519.
- Drewery, D., Jiang, K., Hilbrecht, M., Mitas, O., & Jakubowicz, A. (2016). Modelling activity novelty and adolescent females' subjective well-being during a winter holiday. *World Leisure Journal*, 58(4), 298–310.
- Durko, A. M., & Petrick, J. F. (2016). Travel as relationship therapy: Examining the effect of vacation satisfaction applied to the investment model. *Journal of Travel Research*, 55(7), 904–918.
- Feist, G. J., Bodner, T. E., Jacobs, J. F., Miles, M., & Tan, V. (1995). Integrating top-down and bottom-up structural models of subjective well-being: A longitudinal investigation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 68(1), 138–150.
- Fendt, L. S. (2015). What is it like to be a surfer girl: A phenomenological exploration of women's surfing? (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <https://epubs.scu.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1455&context=theses>.
- Filep, S. (2014). Moving beyond subjective well-being: A tourism critique. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 38(2), 266–274.
- Filo, K., & Coghlan, A. (2016). Exploring the positive psychology domains of well-being activated through charity sport event experiences. *Event Management*, 20(2), 181–199.
- Fox, K. R. (1999). The influence of physical activity on mental well-being. *Public Health Nutrition*, 2(3a), 411–418.
- Gibson, H., & Mirehie, M. (2017). Sport tourism and feminism. In L. Mansfield, J. Caudwell, B. Wheaton, & B. Watson (Eds.), *The Palgrave handbook of feminisms in sport* (pp. 681–697). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gibson, H. J. (1998). Active sport tourism: Who participates? *Leisure Studies*, 17(2), 155–170.
- Gibson, H. J., Kaplanidou, K., & Kang, S. J. (2012). Small-scale event sport tourism: A case study in sustainable tourism. *Sport Management Review*, 15(2), 160–170.
- Gilbert, D., & Abdullah, J. (2002). A study of the impact of the expectation of a holiday on an individual's sense of well-being. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 8(4), 352–361.
- Gilbert, D., & Abdullah, J. (2004). Holiday taking and the sense of well-being. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(1), 103–121.
- Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago, IL: Adeline.
- Goodman, F. R., Disabato, D. J., Kashdan, T. B., & Kauffman, S. B. (2018). Measuring well-being: A comparison of subjective well-being and PERMA. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 13(4), 321–332.
- Hair, J. F. J., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Hargreaves, J. (1994). *Sporting females: Critical issues in the history and sociology of women's sport*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Hassmen, P., Koivula, N., & Uutela, A. (2000). Physical exercise and psychological well-being: A population study in Finland. *Preventive Medicine*, 30(1), 17–25.
- Holden, A. (1999). Understanding skiers' motivation using Pearce's 'travel career' construct. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26(2), 435–438.
- Huang, H., & Humphreys, B. R. (2012). Sports participation and happiness: Evidence from US microdata. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 33(4), 776–793.
- Hudson, S. (2000). The segmentation of potential tourists: Constraint differences between men and women. *Journal of Travel Research*, 38, 363–368.
- Iwasaki, Y., & Smale, B. J. (1998). Longitudinal analyses of the relationships among life transitions, chronic health problems, leisure, and psychological well-being. *Leisure Sciences*, 20, 25–52.
- Jovanovic, V. (2015). Structural validity of the mental health continuous-short form: The bifactor model of emotional, social and psychological well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 75, 154–159.
- Konu, H., Laukkanen, T., & Komppula, R. (2011). Using ski destination choice criteria to segment Finnish ski resort customers. *Tourism Management*, 32, 1096–1105.
- Kouthouris, C. (2009). An examination of the relationships between motivation, involvement and intention to continuing participation among recreational skiers. *International Journal of Sport Management, Recreation & Tourism*, 4, 1–19.
- Lisshetzke, T., & Eid, M. (2006). Assessment of well-being. In F. Peterman, & M. Eid (Eds.), *Handbook of psychological assessment* (pp. 550–557). Gottingen: Hogrefe.
- Longo, Y., Coyne, I., & Joseph, S. (2017). The scales of general well-being (SGWB). *Personality and Individual Differences*, 109, 148–159.
- McAuley, E., Blissmer, B., Marquez, D. X., Jerome, G. J., Kramer, A. F., & Katula, J. (2000). Social relations, physical activity, and well-being in older adults. *Preventive Medicine*, 31(5), 608–617.
- McCabe, S., & Johnson, S. (2013). The happiness factor in tourism: Subjective well-being and social tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 41, 42–65.
- McCabe, S., Joldersma, T., & Li, C. (2010). Understanding the benefits of social tourism: Linking participation to subjective well-being and quality of life. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 12, 761–773.
- Milman, A. (1998). The impact of tourism and travel experience on senior travelers' psychological well-being. *Journal of Travel Research*, 37, 166–170.
- Mirehie (2018). Trajectory of women's Participation in active sport tourism and sense of well-being: A case of snow skiing and boarding (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from <http://ufdc.ufl.edu/UFE0051459/00001>.
- National Ski Areas Association (2019). Industry Stats. Retrieved from <http://www.nsa.org/press/industry-stats/>.
- Nawijn, J., Marchand, M. A., Veenhoven, R., & Vingerhoets, A. J. (2010). Vacationers happier, but most not happier after a holiday. *Applied Research in Quality of Life*, 5(1), 35–47.
- Neal, J. D., Sirgy, M. J., & Uysal, M. (1999). The role of satisfaction with leisure travel/tourism services and experience in satisfaction with leisure life and overall life. *Journal of Business Research*, 44(3), 153–163.
- Neal, J. D., Uysal, M., & Sirgy, M. J. (2007). The effect of tourism services on travelers' quality of life. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(2), 154–163.
- Papadimitriou, D., & Gibson, H. (2008). Benefits sought and realized by active mountain sport tourists in Epirus, Greece: Pre-and post-trip analysis. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 13, 37–60.
- Ruseski, J. E., Humphreys, B. R., Hallman, K., Wicker, P., & Breuer, C. (2014). Sport participation and subjective well-being: Instrumental variable results from German survey data. *Journal of Physical Activity and Health*, 11(2), 396–403.
- Russell, K., & Lemon, J. (2012). Doing jibber: Female snowboarders negotiate their place in the snow. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Health, Sport and Physical Education*, 3(3), 239–252.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52(1), 141–166.
- Seligman, M. E. (2002). *Authentic happiness: Using the new positive psychology to realize your potential for lasting fulfillment*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Seligman, M. E. (2011). *Flourish: A visionary new understanding of happiness and well-being*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Seligman, M. E. P., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, 55(1), 5–14.
- Sirgy, M. J., Kruger, P. S., Lee, D. J., & Yu, G. B. (2010). How does a travel trip affect tourists' life satisfaction? *Journal of Travel Research*, 50, 261–275.
- Sisjord, M. K. (2009). Fast-girls, babes, and the invisible girls. Gender relations in snowboarding. *Sport in Society*, 12, 1299–1316.
- Sisjord, M. K. (2013). Women's snowboarding—some experiences and perceptions of competition. *Leisure Studies*, 32, 507–523.
- Smith, M. K., & Diekmann, A. (2017). Tourism and wellbeing. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 66, 1–13.
- Snow Sports Fact Sheet (2016). Snowsports Industries of America. Retrieved from <http://www.snowsports.org/research-surveys/snow-sports-fact-sheet/>.
- Spowart, L., Hughson, J., & Shaw, S. (2008). Snowboarding mums carve out fresh tracks: Resisting traditional motherhood discourse? *Annals of Leisure Research*, 11(1–2), 187–204.
- Stoddart, M. C. (2010). Constructing masculinized sportscapes: Skiing, gender and nature in British Columbia, Canada. *International Review for the Sociology of Sport*, 46(1), 108–124.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research: Procedures and techniques for developing grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Swain, M. B. (1995). Gender in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 22, 247–266.
- Thorpe, H. (2009). Bourdieu, feminism and female physical culture: Gender reflexivity and the habitus-field complex. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 26(4), 491–516.
- Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., Woo, E., & Kim, H. L. (2016). Quality of life (QOL) and well-being research in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 53, 244–261.
- Voigt, C., Brown, G., & Howat, G. (2011). Wellness tourists: In search of transformation. *Tourism Review*, 66(1/2), 16–30.
- Wearing, B., & Wearing, S. (1996). Refocusing the tourist experience: The flaneur and the choraster. *Leisure Studies*, 15, 229–243.
- Webber, C. (2017). As baby boomers leave ski slopes, millennials fail to fill gap. Retrieved from <https://skifederation.org/baby-boomers-leave-ski-slopes-millennials-fail-fill-gap/>.
- Wheaton, B. (2000). "Just do it": Consumption, commitment, and identity in the wind-surfing subculture. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 17, 254–274.
- Wicker, P. (2019). The impact of participation frequency and travel distances for different sport participation purposes on subjective well-being: The "unhappy commuter" and the happy sport tourist? *European Sport Management Quarterly*, 1–18.
- Wicker, P., & Frick, B. (2015). The relationship between intensity and duration of physical activity and subjective well-being. *The European Journal of Public Health*, 25(5), 868–872.
- Wicker, P., & Frick, B. (2017). Intensity of physical activity and subjective well-being: An empirical analysis of the WHO recommendations. *Journal of Public Health*, 39(2), e19–e26.
- Williams, P. W., & Lattey, C. (1994). Skiing constraints for women. *Journal of Travel Research*, 33, 21–25.
- Willis, G. B. (2004). *Cognitive interviewing: A tool for improving questionnaire design*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- World Health Organization (2016). Prevalence of insufficient physical activity. Retrieved from [http://www.who.int/gho/ncd/risk\\_factors/physical\\_activity\\_text/en/](http://www.who.int/gho/ncd/risk_factors/physical_activity_text/en/).



**Mona Mirehie** is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Tourism, Event, and Sport Management at Indiana University - Purdue University Indianapolis. Her research interests include tourism, and recreational sports behavior and well-being outcomes, sport tourism with a focus on active and small-scale event sport tourism, and sociology of tourism with a focus on gender.



**Heather J. Gibson** is a Professor in the Department of Tourism, Hospitality and Event Management at the University of Florida. Her research interests include understanding leisure, tourism, and sport behavior in the context of gender and life span. She has particular interests in sport tourism, women's travel, and leisure and tourism in retirement.