

What Do You Do When Things Go Right? The Intrapersonal and Interpersonal Benefits of Sharing Positive Events

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Four studies examined the intrapersonal and interpersonal consequences of seeking out others when *good* things happen (i.e., capitalization). Two studies showed that communicating personal positive events with others was associated with increased daily positive affect and well-being, above and beyond the impact of the positive event itself and other daily events. Moreover, when others were perceived to respond actively and constructively (and not passively or destructively) to capitalization attempts, the benefits were further enhanced. Two studies found that close relationships in which one's partner typically responds to capitalization attempts enthusiastically were associated with higher relationship well-being (e.g., intimacy, daily marital satisfaction). The results are discussed in terms of the theoretical and empirical importance of understanding how people "cope" with positive events, cultivate positive emotions, and enhance social bonds.

Good, the more communicated, more abundant grows.

—John Milton, *Paradise Lost*, Book V

The puzzle of well-being has many pieces. One piece that has been the focus of much research is how people maintain or restore their well-being in the face of negative events or stressors. Research has often asked, "What can people do when things go wrong?" and useful answers to this question have come from studies on appraisals (e.g., Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986; Lazarus, 1991), coping (e.g., Bolger, 1990; Carver & Scheier, 1994), and rumination (e.g., Nolen-Hoeksema, 1996, 1998). These and other studies have demonstrated that people routinely turn to others for support in times of stress, be it in the face of everyday stressors (e.g., Harlow & Cantor, 1995) or major life events (e.g., Bolger & Eckenrode, 1991), and that the availability of social support has clear benefits for the support-seeker's health and well-being (e.g., Sarason, Sarason, & Gurung, 1997; Uchino, Cacioppo, & Kiecolt-Glaser, 1996). Furthermore, people commonly cite the possibility of receiving

social support, if and when needed, as one of the major benefits of close relationships (e.g., Cunningham & Barbee, 2000). Without doubt, the processes involved in utilizing social relations to cope with negative events are central to understanding intrapersonal and interpersonal well-being. Nevertheless, this article suggests that another, complementary piece of the puzzle has been largely overlooked: the intrapersonal and interpersonal consequences of seeking out others when good things happen.

Although the social sharing of good news has received relatively little attention, research on responses to good fortune has not been entirely lacking. For example, in two daily experience studies, Langston (1994) found that when people shared the news of a positive event with others or celebrated the event in some way, they experienced greater positive affect, beyond increases associated with the valence of the positive event itself. He called this *capitalization*, a term that we adopt to refer to the process of informing another person about the occurrence of a personal positive event and thereby deriving additional benefit from it. Langston's findings complement research by Bryant (1989), who found that individual differences in the self-reported ability to savor positive events were correlated with subjective well-being. These studies also complement research by Tesser and his colleagues on the extended self-evaluation maintenance model (e.g., Beach & Tesser, 1995; Tesser, 2000), which demonstrates that reflection processes—that is, the ability to share in a partner's success—contribute to emotional well-being and relationship satisfaction. The present research seeks to extend these studies by investigating the intrapersonal and interpersonal outcomes associated with capitalizing on positive events. Paralleling existing research on stressors and social support, we examined both the process of seeking a response to one's good fortune and the impact of perceiving the provision of a positive response.

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Positive Events and Well-Being

Traditionally, researchers interested in health and well-being have examined the psychological and physical consequences of stressors and other negative events (e.g., Cohen & Wills, 1985; Hobfoll, 1998; Taylor, 1991). Recent theorizing has suggested that processes linked to positive events may have independent and important associations with well-being and health (e.g., Reis & Gable, 2003; Ryff & Singer, 1998). For example, Lewinsohn and Graf (1973) found that everyday pleasant events were associated with decreases in depressive symptoms (Zautra, Schultz, & Reich, 2000). More recently, Nezlek and Gable (2001) found that the

extent on themselves, a process that at least nominally imputes a relationship between self and partner. This tendency is likely to be enhanced the closer the relationship (Beach & Tesser, 1995). Aron, Aron, Tudor, and Nelson (1991) defined *closeness* as “including

health, and financial domains that varied in severity—for example, “running out of money on my keycard,” “performed poorly on my organic

coefficients remained significant and nonsignificant coefficients remained nonsignificant).³

Several additional equations were examined to address possible confounds. First, the number of positive and negative events (from the separate check positive

my partner within the next year" (reversed). The commitment scale was reliable ($\alpha = .91$ for women and $.87$ for men).

Satisfaction. Relationship satisfaction was measured with the seven-item Relationship Assessment Scale (Hendrick, 1988). Participants responded using a 7-point scale with 1 indicating low satisfaction and 7 indicating high satisfaction. Sample items include "How well does your partner meet your needs?" and "How good is your relationship compared to most?" An ambiguity in the response scale for one item ("How much do you love your partner?") lowered the internal consistency of the scale, and so this item was dropped from analyses. Reliability of the remaining six-item scale was adequate ($\alpha = .68$ for women and $.74$ for men).

Trust. Trust was measured with a 26-item Trust Scale (Rempel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985), which has three subscales: Faith, Dependability, and Predictability. Participants responded on a 7-point scale from 1 (*not at all true of my relationship*) to 7 (*very true of my relationship*). Sample items include "Though times may change and the future is uncertain, I know my partner will always be ready and willing to offer me strength and support" (Faith subscale), "I can rely on my partner to keep the promises he/she makes to me" (Dependability subscale), and "I am familiar with the patterns of behavior my partner has established and I can rely on him/her to behave in certain ways" (Predictability subscale). Two items proved to be unreliable ("In general my partner does things in a variety of different ways. He/ she almost never sticks to one way of doing things"; "I am certain that my partner would not cheat on me, even if the opportunity arose and there was no chance that he/she would get caught") for the current sample and were dropped from analyses. The three subscales were positive and significantly correlated with one another and produced a one-factor solution in a principal-components analysis (for both men and women). Therefore, the three subscales were combined into a single measure of trust ($\alpha = .85$ for women and $\alpha = .88$ for men).

Intimacy. Participants also completed four subscales of Shaefer and Olson

at all true) to 7 (very true). Each subscale showed adequate reliability for both men and women, as shown in Table 2. In addition, paired-samples *t* tests did not reveal any significant sex differences on the subscales.

Results

First, we computed correlations between the four types of perceived capitalization responses and the relationship quality variables, separately for men and women.⁵ As shown in Table 3, capitalization responses were associated with relationship quality, and most effects were significant at $p < .05$. The pattern of findings was consistent across measures: Active–Constructive responses were positively correlated with commitment, satisfaction, intimacy, and trust, whereas Passive–Constructive, Active–Destructive, and Passive–Destructive responses were negatively correlated with these measures. These results are consistent with our hypotheses. Also noteworthy is the fact that Passive–Constructive responses, which in accommodation research tend to be associated with desirable outcomes, were herein associated with undesirable outcomes.

To facilitate comparison with research on accommodation, we also computed a composite capitalization score representing favorable responding to capitalization attempts based on the pattern of correlations of the PRCA subscales with the relationship quality measures (this pattern was replicated in Study 3). Because Active–Constructive responses were positively related to relationship well-being, and the passive–constructive and both types of destructive responses were negatively related to relationship well-being, the composite capitalization score was created by subtracting the Passive–Constructive, Active–Destructive, and Passive–Destructive scores from the Active–Constructive score. Thus, higher scores indicated more positive and less negative responses to capitalization attempts. The composite score was significantly correlated with satisfaction, trust, and intimacy for both men and women and marginally correlated with commitment for both men and women (see Table 3).

We also examined correlations between capitalization a2 a2a2aens betw4e239omens4e239omeshown4e239omein4e239ome

Table 4
Correlations Between Accommodation and Capitalization Measure (Study 2)

Capitalization	Accommodation				Composite score
	Active–Constructive	Active–Destructive	Passive–Constructive	Passive–Destructive	
Women					
Active–Constructive	.36**	–.25†	.07	–.27*	.35**
Active–Destructive	–.09	.34**	–.03	.33*	–.27*
Passive–Constructive	–.23†	.15	.11	.28*	–.20
Passive–Destructive	–.29*	.41**	.01	.45**	–.40**
Composite	.38**	–.33*	.02	–.39**	.41**
Men					
Active–Constructive	.52**	–.22†	.21	–.43**	.52**
Active–Destructive	.01	.22	.14	–.07	.03
Passive–Constructive	–.10	.04	.09	.26*	–.12
Passive–Destructive	–.17	.14	.05	.19	–.16
Composite	.43**	–.23†	.10	–.40**	.43**

Note. *N* = 118 (59 men, 59 women). The composite Accommodation score was computed by subtracting the Active–Destructive and Passive–Destructive scales from the Active–Constructive and Passive–Constructive scales. The composite Capitalization score was computed by subtracting the Active–Destructive, Passive–Destructive, and Passive–Constructive scales from the Active–Constructive scale.
† *p* < .10. * *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01.

Brief Discussion

Study 2 showed that perceived responses by a close relationship partner to capitalization attempts were reliably associated with relationship quality. Active–Constructive responses were positively associated with better relationship quality, whereas passive–constructive and both active– and passive–destructive responses were negatively associated with relationship quality. The finding that passive–constructive responses were negatively associated

with relationship quality was noteworthy, both because such responses might have been expected to be beneficial for reasons of face validity and because in accommodation research, this type of response tends to be beneficial. However, only more active and outwardly encouraging responses to the sharing of positive events predicted relationship quality; the less demonstrative form of support did not. We defer discussion of this finding to the General Discussion after examining whether or not it is replicated in a married sample. Finally, although there were few gender differ-

Table 5
Partial Correlations of Four Types of Perceived Capitalization Responsiveness and Composite Score With Relationship Quality Variables Controlling for Accommodation (Study 2)

Measure	Capitalization				Composite score
	Active–Constructive	Active–Destructive	Passive–Constructive	Passive–Destructive	
Women					
Commitment	.03	–.37**	.01	–.29*	.12
Satisfaction	.14	–.29*	–.29*	–.33*	.29*
Trust	.13	–.07	–.20	–.22	.20
Intimacy	.27*	–.36**	–.14	–.45**	.37**
Men					
Commitment	.07	–.29*	–.24†	–.15	.19
Satisfaction	.17	–.22†	–.27*	–.31*	.28*
Trust	.52**	–.24†	–.38**	–.60**	.61**
Intimacy	.39**	–.26†	–.46**	–.49**	.52**

Note. *N* = 118 (59 men, 59 women). The composite score was computed by subtracting the Active–Destructive, Passive–Destructive, and Passive–Constructive scales from the Active–Constructive scale.
† *p* < .10. * *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01.

ences, when accommodation was controlled, trust was related to capitalization for men but not for women. Perhaps trust is more closely related to concerns about the responses to the self's negative behaviors among women than among men.

Study 3 was designed to examine the same hypotheses in a community sample of married persons. Also, because all measures in Study 2 were obtained at a single session, Study 3 incorporated measures and procedures to control for the possibility of method and mood artifacts by assessing the predictor and criterion variables at different times and by using daily experience methodology.

Study 3

Method

Participants

Participants in Study 3 were 178 heterosexual married adults (89 couples) from Rochester, New York. Couples were recruited from advertisements in two local newspapers and were paid \$60 (i.e., \$30 to each spouse) for their participation. The mean age of participants was 38.1 years ($SD = 10.0$; $Mdn = 37.0$; range 21–73). Couples had been married an average of 10.1 years ($SD = 9.6$; $Mdn = 7.0$; range 1–43). It was the first marriage for 75% of the men and 84% of the women. The couples had an average of 1.9 children ($SD = 1.3$), of whom an average of 1.5 ($SD = 1.5$) lived at home.

Participants' personal income ranged from under \$10,000 to over \$50,000: 21.3% reported less than \$10,000, 12.4% reported \$10,000–\$20,000, 16.9% reported \$20,000–\$30,000, 18.0% reported \$30,000–\$40,000, 9% reported \$40,000–\$50,000, 20.2% reported an income greater than \$50,000, and 2.2% did not respond. The sample also encompassed a range of education levels: 2.8% had less than a high school education, 9.0% graduated from high school, 33.1% had some college, 36.5% had completed college, and 18.5% had attended graduate school. In terms of current employment status, 60.8% were employed full time, 18.0% were employed part time, 10.1% were full-time homemakers, 3.4% were unemployed and looking for work, 2.2% were retired, and 5.1% were full- or part-time students who were also working full or part time.

Procedure

Participants who responded to the advertisements were contacted by an experimenter who provided a brief description of the study and scheduled their initial appointments. All 89 couples completed the study. Participants were scheduled for two appointments, approximately 2 weeks apart. After receiving initial instructions in the first session, spouses were led into separate adjoining rooms to complete the initial packet of questionnaires. Spouses had no contact with each other while completing the questionnaires. The packet included questionnaires assessing perceived responses to capitalization attempts, marital satisfaction, and intimacy. After both spouses had completed these measures, they were brought together and given instructions for the daily diaries. The diary record included measures describing their daily interaction with each other and their feelings about their relationship on that day. Participants were asked to complete one diary record each night (beginning that evening) before going to bed.⁷ They returned to the laboratory approximately 2 weeks after their initial appointment to hand in their completed diary forms. Participants handed in an average of 13 completed (out of 14 possible) forms. Participants were then given an additional packet of questionnaires to complete at home and return by mail.

One-Time Measures

Overall marital satisfaction. Initial overall marital satisfaction was assessed with the five-item Quality Marriage Index (QMI; Norton, 1983) during the first session. Participants responded to each item on a 7-point scale (from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*), answering questions about how they generally felt about their marriage. This measure showed excellent reliability ($\alpha = .95$ in the present study).

Intimacy. As in Study 2, intimacy was measured with Shaefer and Olson's (1981) PAIR intimacy scale in the follow-up packet administered after the next session. [The next session was administered 8 weeks after the first session.]

Results

As in Study 2, we first computed correlations between the four types of perceived capitalization responses and relationship outcomes (intimacy and the three aggregated daily relationship variables), separately for men and women. Table 6 shows similar results to Study 2. All four types of capitalization responses were significantly associated with all outcome variables. Active–Constructive responses were positively correlated with intimacy, daily satisfaction, and daily positive activities and negatively correlated with daily conflicts, whereas Active–Destructive and Passive–Destructive responses were negatively correlated with intimacy, daily satisfaction, and daily positive activities and positively correlated with daily conflicts. Also as in Study 2, Passive–Constructive responses predicted poorer relationship outcomes for both women and men.

We again computed a composite capitalization score representing favorable responding to capitalization attempts by subtracting the Passive–Constructive (because it was negatively related to relationship well-being), Active–Destructive, and Passive–Destructive scores from the Active–Constructive score. Thus, higher scores indicated more positive and less negative responses to capitalization attempts. The composite score, shown in the final column of Table 6, was significantly correlated with intimacy, daily satisfaction, and conflicts, both for husbands and wives. Daily positive activity was significantly correlated with capitalization for men and marginally for women. These findings closely replicate those of Study 2, with the methodologically important addition of two interaction-based variables (conflict and positive activities) and a daily measure of marital satisfaction.

To establish that responses to capitalization attempts were associated with relationship outcomes over and above global positivity (represented here by the QMI measure of marital satisfaction), we computed partial correlations between capitalization and relationship outcomes, controlling for global marital satisfaction,

separately for men and women.⁸ As displayed in Table 7, the association between the PRCA scales and daily satisfaction and intimacy remained significant even when global marital satisfaction was controlled, for both husbands and wives, although two of the correlations for husbands became nonsignificant. For women, all but one of the significant correlations between the PRCA scales and relationship outcomes remained significant when controlling for initial satisfaction (the remaining one was marginally significant). However, among men, the association between capitaliza-

passive–constructive responses suggests that despite the positive wording of these items (“My partner says little, but I know he/she is happy for me”), they appear to be associated with detrimental effects. We discuss this result, as well as the clear divergence from published results on the beneficial effects of passive–constructive responses to a partner’s bad behavior (accommodation), in the General Discussion.

Studies 2 and 3 demonstrated that perceived responsiveness to capitalization attempts contributes in an important way to relationship quality. Study 4 had two aims. First, we sought to determine whether both independent variables examined in Studies 1–3—that is, the act of sharing positive events (capitalization attempts) with others and their perceived response—have simultaneous intrapersonal benefits (specifically, daily life satisfaction and affect). Second, we sought to evaluate one mechanism (described above) that might be responsible for these effects. That is, because the communicative act is likely to involve retelling, rehearsal, and elaboration, it may increase the event’s salience and accessibility in memory, thereby enhancing its impact on ratings of personal well-being. Study 4 therefore examined whether positive events that are communicated to others are remembered better than positive events not communicated to others.

Study 4

Method

Participants and Procedure

Ninety-nine undergraduate participants began Study 4, and 94 (19 men and 75 women) completed a minimum of three daily assessments on time. They received extra credit toward psychology coursework in exchange for participation (ages ranged from 17 to 49 years; $M = 20.1$, $SD = 4.4$). The sample was ethnically diverse: 1% of participants were American Indian,

34% were Asian/Pacific Islanders, 2.2% were African American, 12% were Hispanic, 39% were White, and 12% self-identified as “other.”

At the beginning of the study, participants were given 10 booklets containing the daily measures, one for each night of the week. To bolster and verify compliance with the diary schedule, participants were told to return completed diaries every 3 days to a locked mailbox located outside the laboratory. As an incentive, whenever participants handed in a set of booklets on time, they received a lottery ticket for a cash prize (\$100) to be awarded after the study. Participants who did not return their booklets at the designated time were reminded by phone or e-mail. Only booklets returned on time (or on the morning following the reminder) were treated as valid and retained in the data set. Participants completed 895 days on time, an average of 9.5 days per person. Additionally, all participants were asked to return on the day after their final diary (i.e., Day 11) for a second session. During this session, they handed in their last four diaries and were then given a surprise memory test. Five participants were unable to return on Day 11, and therefore only 89 participants completed the memory test.

Measures

Positive and negative affect. As in Study 1, the PANAS (Watson et al.,

Capitalization attempts. This measure differed from that used in Study 1. Participants were asked to indicate which (if any) of the following people they had told about their most important positive event on that day: friend, roommate, sibling, parent, romantic partner, or other. From these items, we computed two measures: a dichotomous score of daily event sharing, in which participants received a score of 1 if they had told anyone and a score of 0 if they had told no one, and a frequency score indicating the number of categories of people on the list they told. We also asked participants the extent to which their positive event had been “due to my own efforts” and “due to luck or good fortune” in an attempt to discern

for the composite score. Results showed that the active-constructive response had a significant, positive relationship with PA (unstandardized $b = .06$, $p < .01$) and life satisfaction ($b = .11$, $p < .001$), whereas the passive-destructive response had a significant and negative correlation with PA ($b = -.07$, $p < .05$) and life satisfaction ($b = -.12$, $p < .01$). Thus, in terms of the responsiveness of the first person to whom a capitalization attempt was made, the primary determinant of PA and satisfaction was the degree that the person was enthusiastic and not disinterested. It is interesting to note that passive-destructive responses were also significantly and positively related to daily NA ($b = .06$, $p < .05$). In other words, although the daily effect of capitalization per se was confined to changes in PA and life satisfaction and had no influence on NA, a passive-destructive response from the first person told was associated with increased NA. Neither the active-destructive nor the passive-constructive items significantly predicted daily PA, life satisfaction, or NA.

To test our memorability hypothesis, we conducted analyses examining whether capitalizing on positive events and telling people about the negative events would increase memory for these events. On average, participants recalled 58.9% of their positive events and 51.9% of their negative events. We predicted that communicating a positive event to others would increase memory for the positive event but that telling people about a negative event would have no effect on memorability. To conduct these analyses, we constructed nonlinear equations using the Bernouli model for dichotomous outcomes (event recalled or event not recalled) option in HLM.⁹ Positive event recall was predicted from the importance of the positive event and the number of people told about the

lives, such as marriages, births, and graduations, by sharing them with others, and they mark the yearly passing of these events with announcements, parties, and reunions, often capturing these joyous moments on film or video for later reliving. Indeed, when good fortune knocks, the first response is often to contact significant others to share the news. We suggest that the sharing of good news provides one vehicle by which positive events contribute to individual well-being. We also suggest that understanding of the social sharing of positive events can provide an important complement to existing research on the social sharing of distress.

Our results show that capitalizing on good fortune may have important intrapersonal and interpersonal benefits. Four studies demonstrated that telling others about positive events was associated with higher positive affect and greater life satisfaction. Apparently, this is a common process—people do it often—and the benefits were observed with events that varied greatly in terms of both subjective and objective importance. Furthermore, the wider the net of sharing, the greater the benefits reaped. This research also examined how the response to capitalization attempts influences well-being, finding that active and constructive responses from others, as opposed to passive or destructive responses, were associated with increased benefits, above and beyond the effects of sharing the news itself. We also found interpersonal benefits of capitalization. Perceiving that a close relationship partner tends to respond in an active and constructive manner was associated with higher relationship quality, particularly intimacy. Finally, we found evidence for one possible mechanism for these effects: increased memory for the positive events on which participants capitalized.

Part of the rationale for examining processes related to the sharing of positive events independent of parallel processes related to negative events is that these two sets of processes are likely to be functionally independent (Cacioppo, Gardner, & Berntson, 1997). Although capitalization was associated with positive affect and life satisfaction, it shared little variance with negative affect, a degree of specificity that is consistent with previous research that has found associations between positive event occurrence and positive affect but not negative affect (e.g., David et al., 1997; Gable et al., 2000). Findings such as these are consistent with theories that posit the existence of two distinct systems, one designed to respond to appetitive stimuli and one designed to respond to aversive stimuli (e.g., Cacioppo et al., 1997; Carver, 1996; Davidson, 1992; Gable & Reis, 2001; Higgins, 1997). These theories argue that the occurrence of positive events activates the appetitive system, which then regulates the individual's response but not the functionally independent aversive system (which is instead activated by negative events). Although our studies did not address the relation between capitalization and long-term health and well-being, there is suggestive evidence that the appetitive system has important consequences. Particularly relevant to the present research are studies showing the benefits of expressing positive emotions. For example, the expression of positive emotions has been linked to health and well-being (e.g., Harker & Keltner, 2001). Labott, Ahleman, Wolever, and Martin (1990) found that when participants watched a happy video their immune system showed increased activity, but only when they had been instructed to express their emotions. Our research showed that the sharing of good news was linked to affective benefits beyond the

event itself, although we did not ask whether or not participants expressed or withheld their positive feelings. Presumably, the former is more common in natural life; more research is needed to determine whether positive events shared without emotional expression have the same degree of impact.

Our results provide evidence for one mechanism that may contribute to Fredrickson's (1998) broaden-and-build model of positive emotions. The occurrence of positive events typically generates positive emotions, which in turn may help build social resources through shared positive experience. There are several possible reasons why. First, by communicating a positive event, one is in essence displaying one's assets and thus might be seen by others as having greater social capital, and, when others respond benevolently, relationship well-being may be enhanced, strengthening the social bond. Another plausible explanation is that sharing the event with others allows one to relive the experience to some extent, which may be part of the upward spiral to well-being described by Fredrickson and Joiner (2002).

Still another explanation is more emotion specific. Fredrickson's (1998, 2001) model is not concerned so much with generalized positive affect, but rather it provides a framework for specific effects of specific positive emotions. Which specific positive emotion is likely to be most closely associated with capitalization? We offer pride as one prospect. Lazarus (1994) defined *pride* as "enhancement of one's own ego-identity by taking credit

research might focus on the role of motives for disclosure, relationship to target, and event self-relevance in capitalization.

One mechanism for the link between capitalization and well-being may involve memory. We found that the act of talking about a positive event with others was associated with better memory for that event. If sharing good fortune renders the event more accessible in memory, not to mention better appreciated, it would be more likely to be recalled at a later time and thereby may have a positive effect on well-being (particularly when it might help

document and better understand the operation of positive social psychological processes, it will be important to evaluate these alternatives in future research.

We highlight three caveats with regard to our data. First, we focused on the participant's perception of the partner's response without examining interaction directly or how the partner felt about those same responses. It will be important, of course, to directly compare these perspectives in subsequent studies. Regardless of how such studies turn out, however, the potential capitalizer's perception of the partner's response is conceptually and empirically important as a proximal predictor of subsequent affect and behavior. After all, as numerous studies have shown, responsiveness reflects not only real behavior but also the eye of the beholder (for a summary, see Reis et al., 2004). Responses that are intended to be enthusiastic but that are not received as such are very unlikely to be beneficial. This is consistent with recent findings by Gable et al. (2003), who found that when participants reported enacting positive behaviors toward their partner (e.g., giving a compliment), but the intended target failed to recognize the behavior, the behavior had no influence on the intended target's daily mood. A second caveat concerns Studies 2 and 3, in which data on well-being and partner responsiveness were collected concurrently. We are unable to ascertain whether perceived responsiveness leads to relationship well-being, if relationship health leads to greater perceived responsiveness, or both. Finally it should also be noted here that the diary studies were correlational in nature and may confound the impact of the event and the sharing

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