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ARTICLES

Savoring with Intent: Investigating Types of and Motives for Responses to Positive Events

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Abstract To contribute to a growing literature on positive affect (PA) regulation, we report on two studies investigating college students' responses to hypothetical positive events using a new measure, the Positive Events and Responses Survey (PEARS). The PEARS includes various responses, including savoring (up-regulating PA) and dampening strategies (down-regulating PA), and novel responses (e.g., mass-sharing using Facebook). We examined its convergent and concurrent validity, its relationship with the value of happiness, and motives underlying savoring. Factor analyses supported a 3-factor model: natural savoring (e.g., expressing PA), intentional savoring (e.g., reflecting on the self), and dampening (e.g., minimizing the event). Both natural and intentional savoring were linked to other savoring behaviors, but only natural savoring was linked to perceived savoring ability and (in some bivariate results) to well-being. In contrast, dampening was consistently linked to less savoring and more dampening on other measures, lower well-being, and more depressive symptoms. People reporting valuing happiness more reported higher likelihood of all three types of responses. Qualitative data provided partial support for the hypothesis that intentional savoring strategies are more often used for instrumental reasons (e.g., boosting self-esteem), whereas natural savoring responses may sometimes be more automatic or stem from feeling PA. These studies validate a new measure and suggest that reasons underlying people's savoring matter.

Keywords Positive events · Emotions · Savor · Dampen · Depression · Well-being · Valuing happiness

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1 Introduction

One important source of people's positive affect (PA) and happiness in their lives is their experience of positive events. Yet, relatively little is known about how or why people vary in their responses to positive events. Most prior research on responses to positive events has stemmed from a few pioneering studies (Bryant 1989; Langston 1994) and a depression literature focusing on attributional style (e.g., Seligman et al. 1979). These and more recent studies indicate that using particular strategies to up-regulate PA, generally termed savoring, is associated with prolonged PA and other desirable characteristics such as closer relationships (e.g., Bryant 2003; Gable et al. 2004; Langston 1994). Other responses that down-regulate PA (e.g., negative thoughts about a positive event), commonly referred to as dampening, appear to sabotage beneficial effects of positive events (e.g., Wood et al. 2003). However, people engage in many other behaviors following positive events (e.g., physical affection, bragging), but whether or not these are effective savoring strategies is unknown. One aim of the current research was to comprehensively assess a range of responses to positive events using a new vignette-based measure, the Positive Events and Responses Survey (PEARS), and validate it with related constructs and broader indices of well-being.

The second aim was to investigate why people might engage in different responses to positive events. First, we examined the role of people's value of happiness (Mauss et al. 2011) because if people strongly value happiness in their lives, they may exert much effort (e.g., by savoring) to try to attain happiness. Second, we examined motives underlying savoring, with the expectation that some savoring responses stem from feeling PA (e.g., expressing or reflecting on PA) whereas other responses (e.g., celebrating) may be active attempts to feel or enhance PA. Many scholars have posited that happiness should be a by-product of one's life rather than the goal (e.g., Frankl 1966), thus savoring with intent may be less adaptive than is more incidental savoring (Bryant and Veroff 2007). Therefore, although prior research has largely considered savoring to be any strategies that maintain PA and are linked to positive outcomes, we investigated whether underlying motives aid in the differentiation of savoring responses.

1.1 Responses to Positive Events

Savoring, or how well people "attend to, appreciate, and enhance positive experiences in their lives" (p. 2, Bryant and Veroff 2007), is generally viewed as an adaptive way to regulate PA. Research has identified many effective savoring strategies, such as anticipating positive experiences, savoring the moment, expressing PA, sharing with others, marking an event to make it more memorable, celebrating, rewarding oneself, and reflecting on the event, emotions, or one's strengths (Bryant and Veroff 2007; Feldman et al. 2008; Gentzler et al. 2010; Langston 1994). These types of savoring responses are linked to many positive correlates, including higher self-worth, optimism, PA, and life satisfaction (Bryant 2003; Feldman et al. 2008; Quoidbach et al. 2010a), and have been linked prospectively to PA (Jose et al. 2012) and experimentally to increased PA, happiness, and life satisfaction (Bryant et al. 2005; Lambert et al. 2012) and decreased negative affect (Hurley and Kwon 2011).

In contrast, other responses examined in this study, referred to as dampening, involve thoughts or actions that curtail positive feelings. Dampening responses (also called kill-joy thinking or minimizing) include not thinking about the event, thinking about its negative

aspects, or downplaying its importance (e.g., Bryant and Veroff 2007; Feldman et al. 2008; Gentzler et al. 2010). These responses generally relate to lower self-worth and more depressive symptoms (Feldman et al. 2008; Raes et al. 2012; Wood et al. 2003).

We also investigated responses that have not been thoroughly studied in relation to positive events. Although research has examined sharing positive events with another person, such as a close other (e.g., Gable et al. 2004), this study examined sharing positive events by bragging and mass-sharing (i.e., sharing with many people at once using technology), and by expressing physical affection to others. Sharing typically sustains one's PA about the event when met with positive feedback (Gable et al. 2004, 2006). However, bragging is likely to result in negative judgments and responses from others (Hoorens et al. 2012; Miller et al. 1992). Mass-sharing positive events is common (Kross et al. 2013), and positively presenting oneself on social networking sites, such as Facebook, is linked to greater well-being (Kim and Lee 2011). However, some forms of electronic communication (including texting and Facebook) do not result in the same benefits as phone or in-person communication (Gentzler et al. 2011; Seltzer et al. 2012). Physical affection is largely overlooked in the positive events literature (for an exception, see The Ways of Savoring Checklist; Bryant and Veroff 2007), even though interpersonal responses such as sharing are often studied (e.g., Langston 1994), and social affiliation is one way that people pursue happiness (Tkach and Lyubomirsky 2006). Due to the importance of close relationships, affection may be a common but understudied way that people react to positive events.

1.2 Methods Used to Assess Responses to Positive Events

The survey methods typically used to assess responses to positive events ask participants to report on how they generally respond to PA (Feldman et al. 2008), their beliefs about their ability to savor positive experiences (Bryant 2003), or their responses to a recent positive event (Bryant and Veroff 2007; Gentzler et al. 2010; Langston 1994). These approaches have their strengths (e.g., assessing people's general tendencies). However, because people experience different types and amounts of positive events, assessing anticipated responses to a standard set of positive events provides information that is not confounded with people's own experiences. Two sets of researchers took this approach and created scenario- or vignette-based measures. Wood et al. (2003) assessed dampening and savoring (e.g., high-intensity savoring, deliberate savoring) in response to two scenarios. However, their items appear to tap desire and ability to sustain PA, as well as willingness to savor. In contrast, the goal for our measure was to solely assess people's likelihood of specific behavioral responses. Nelis et al. (2011) assessed situations that each evoke a different positive emotion (e.g., awe, joy, gratitude) and only examined four savoring strategies. Their measure also asks respondents to check the responses they would do, which does not allow for varying degrees of endorsement. Our measure includes several novel responses, involves events that were each intended to elicit moderate-to-high levels of happiness, and uses a Likert-scale format to allow for greater response variability.

1.3 Motives for Savoring

To better understand responses to positive events, we also investigated motives for PA regulation. One individual difference characteristic that should be related to greater savoring attempts, particularly more intentional strategies done to achieve PA, is one's value

of happiness (Mauss et al. 2011). Affective goals can be a strong motivation for emotion regulation (Mauss and Tamir 2014; Tsai 2007), and thus if people place high importance on being happy, they may engage in extensive efforts to achieve happiness.

To further assess motives of savoring, we asked participants why they would (or would not) engage in each response. Although it may be a common assumption that emotion regulation is done with the goal of regulating one's experience of emotion, regulation is done for many other reasons, such as impression management or achieving other instrumental goals (e.g., Fischer et al. 2004; Koole 2009; Tamir 2009). Savoring responses tend to maintain or up-regulate PA, but this hedonic result is not necessarily the goal. For instance, after a positive event, a person could initiate a celebration, not to experience PA, but instead to build social relationships or fulfill societal expectations. Responses to positive events may also be effortless, in that the thoughts and behaviors are more automatic or simply a result of feeling PA (e.g., PA expression). Thus, we expected that some responses are more natural or automatic, whereas other responses are intentionally carried out, either for hedonic reasons, consistent with the idea of deliberate savoring (Wood et al. 2003), or for other intentional reasons (e.g., to improve self-worth).

Moreover, some evidence suggests that responses done to maximize PA or positive feelings about oneself may be less adaptive than savoring automatically or without intent. Research on valuing happiness and regulating happiness suggests that actively trying to achieve happiness as an end goal may be counterproductive and may result in less PA (Mauss et al. 2011, 2012; Schooler et al. 2003). Additionally, emerging research on automatic emotion regulation suggests that being able to automatically generate PA may be very adaptive because it does not require cognitive resources and can be activated without effort in similar situations (DeWall et al. 2011; Tugade and Fredrickson 2007). Thus, we expected that more intentional savoring would be less adaptive than savoring that effortlessly stems from the event or PA.

1.4 Present Studies

Our first goal was to develop and validate a new measure of responses to positive events using two studies. The measure, the PEARS, uses positive scenarios relevant to college students and comprises a range of responses, including those rarely studied in the broader literature on managing PA. We conducted an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with data from the first study and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with data from the second study to determine if certain savoring strategies were more similar than others. The second goal was to assess the convergent validity of our measure by examining how it compared to related savoring or dampening measures. Our third goal was to assess concurrent validity by testing how the factors related to various aspects of well-being including subjective happiness, life satisfaction, and depressive symptoms. We expected that savoring would relate to greater happiness and life satisfaction, and dampening would relate to more depressive symptoms and less happiness and life satisfaction. Our fourth goal was to investigate motives underlying responses to positive events. We expected that people who more strongly valued happiness would endorse many responses, reflecting their strong desire to achieve happiness. Furthermore, we expected that savoring responses would be differentiated on a finer level based on reasons for engaging in them, because people can savor incidentally or they can savor with intent (e.g., to feel better).

2 Study 1

2.1 Methods

2.1.1 Participants and Procedure

A sample of 259 college students (194 women and 65 men) between 18 and 46 years ($M = 19.50$, $SD = 2.23$) participated in an online study to earn course credit. Most participants identified as White (87.6 %), with the remaining identifying as: Biracial (4.2 %), Black (3.9 %), Hispanic (1.5 %), Asian (1.2 %), Native-American (1.2 %) and other (0.4 %).

2.2 Materials

2.2.1 Positive Events and Responses Survey (PEARS)

The PEARS was based on existing work (Bryant 1989; Gentzler et al. 2010; Langston 1994) and a pilot study using an earlier version of the measure. The PEARS included 8 vignettes that were intended to be relevant to college students and evoke at least moderate happiness. Vignettes included 3 relationship events (2 pertaining to romantic partners and 1 to parents), 4 achievement events (exam grade, athletic event, job offer, social organization event), and 1 random event (lottery-winning). Participants rated each event for their anticipated happiness and their perceived control over the event (i.e., how much how much they think they personally caused the event to happen) using 11-point scales (from 1 = not at all to 11 = extremely happy/completely in my control). Happiness ratings ($\alpha = .86$) and control ratings ($\alpha = .67$) were averaged across the 8 vignettes. Although we do not analyze these variables for the current investigation, descriptive statistics indicate that, as expected, participants viewed these events as likely to evoke high levels of happiness ($M_{across\ vignettes} = 10.43$, $SD = .82$; range 5.75–11).

For each event, participants also rated how likely they would be to engage in 14 specific behaviors using a 5-point scale (1 = not at all to 5 = very likely). The behavioral responses were randomized for each vignette so that the order varied (to minimize response biases). The responses were: (1) *share* the event with someone ($\alpha = .74$); (2) *mass-share* (e.g., by using Facebook; $\alpha = .82$); (3) *brag* about it to someone who may get jealous or upset ($\alpha = .80$); (4) *mark* the event (e.g., by saving something) to remember it ($\alpha = .70$); (5) *express PA* ($\alpha = .81$); (6) *reflect on PA* ($\alpha = .85$); (7) be *physically affectionate* with someone ($\alpha = .84$); (8) *reflect on oneself* (e.g., talents, traits; $\alpha = .81$); (9) *celebrate* with others ($\alpha = .73$); (10) *reward* oneself ($\alpha = .76$); (11) *just be happy* ($\alpha = .84$); (12) *downplay the significance* of the event ($\alpha = .77$); (13) *focus on the negative* ($\alpha = .71$); and (14) *not think about the event* ($\alpha = .78$). To compute each subscale, we averaged participants' corresponding answers across the vignettes. Based on prior work, we expected that sharing, marking, expressing PA, reflecting on PA, reflecting on the self, celebrating, and rewarding should be savoring responses and linked to more subjective happiness and less depressive symptoms, whereas downplaying, focusing on the negative, and not thinking about it should be dampening and linked to more depressive symptoms. Other responses (mass-sharing, bragging, being affectionate, and just being happy) were novel, and higher order factors for these were not clear.

The PEARS is a modified version of an earlier measure that was administered to 423 undergraduates in a pilot study. In the prior version of the PEARS, we had an unspecified "celebrate" item, which we divided into 2 items (*celebrating with others* and *rewarding oneself*) for this current PEARS to clarify that "celebrating" is an interpersonal experience (Langston 1994). Also, the earlier measure included an additional vignette, but the event was not perceived as positively as the others, so it was dropped from the current version. Finally, due to severe ceiling effects with happiness and control ratings, we broadened the response scale for those questions (from 1–5 to 1–11). Based on the pilot data from an open-ended question (is there anything else you would do?), we added 2 new responses (*physical affection* and *just be happy*) to the current PEARS. However, qualitative evidence from this study indicated that participants interpreted the *just be happy* items differently (i.e., "just be happy" meaning they would not do anything else vs. "just be happy" in addition to other responses). Therefore, this response was not investigated in any further analyses.

2.2.2 *The Savoring Beliefs Inventory (SBI; Bryant 2003)*

This 24-item questionnaire assessed participants' beliefs about their ability to savor positive experiences (in anticipation, retrospectively, or in the moment) using a 7-point scale. We computed the total savoring beliefs score, where higher scores reflected greater perceived ability to savor ($\alpha = .94$).

2.2.3 *Subjective Happiness Scale (Lyubomirsky and Lepper 1999)*

This well-validated, 4-item questionnaire assessed participants' global subjective happiness using 7-point scales. Items were averaged so that higher scores indicated greater happiness ($\alpha = .80$).

2.2.4 *Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CES-D; Radloff 1977)*

This 20-item questionnaire assessed participants' depressive symptoms experienced during the past week using a 4-point scale. Items were summed, with higher scores reflecting higher levels of depressive symptoms ($\alpha = .90$).

2.2.5 *Valuing Happiness Scale (Mauss et al. 2011)*

This 7-item measure reflects the degree to which individuals prioritize happiness. High values indicate extreme importance placed on being happy and attributing serious implications to not feeling happy. Example items are: "How happy I am at any given moment says a lot about how worthwhile my life is;" and, "Feeling happy is extremely important to me." Items were rated on a 7-point scale and were then averaged ($\alpha = .70$).

2.2.6 *Coding System for Open-Ended Justifications*

To assess motivations behind the responses, we asked participants to report if they would generally respond in each way after experiencing a positive event using a yes or no format, and then to explain why or why not in an open-ended format. For this study, we only analyzed responses for participants who indicated that they would generally respond in that

way. However, we mistakenly left off the question for rewarding oneself, so the averages for intentional savoring are missing that information.

A theory-driven coding scheme was developed after examining relevant literature (e.g., Derlega et al. 2011; Fischer et al. 2004; Rimé 2007; Tamir 2009) and additional codes were added based on trends in the data. We used 13 codes, but 3 were not examined in this study due to their lack of relevance to savoring (*event-driven*, *noncommittal*, and *miscellaneous*). The 10 codes that we examined were: *emotion overflow* (reaction is a natural expression or result of PA or its overflow); *identity* (reaction is characteristic of oneself; e.g., "It's just who I am"); *gratitude* (reaction is due to feeling grateful); *hedonic motivation* (reaction is to prolong or re-experience PA, or to avoid negative affect); *enjoyment of the response* (person likes responding that way); *self-focused motivation* (reaction is to increase self-esteem or because one deserves to react that way); *prosocial motivation* (reaction is to help others, make them happy, or avoid making them feel badly); *enhance event* (reaction helps make the most of an event or will aid in future reminiscence); *norms/impression management* (reaction fits with expected norms or aids in impression management); and *non-affective utility* (reaction is instrumental or pragmatic; e.g., "to let others know"). An independent rater coded all justifications and another rater coded 20 % of the justifications ($n = 623$) with sufficient inter-rater reliability ($\kappa = .63$). Discrepancies were discussed and reconciled between the coders.

2.3 Results and Discussion

2.3.1 Factor Analyses

Although each response could be analyzed individually, we explored whether meaningful higher-order factors could be distinguished using a principal components analysis (PCA) with oblique rotation. This initial analysis uncovered a 2-factor solution accounting for 59.56 % of the variance. The first factor included: reward, celebrate, mark, reflect on self, brag, mass-share, physical affection, share, express PA, and reflect on PA. The second factor included: downplay, not think about it, negative focus, express PA (loading negatively), and reflect on PA (loading negatively). All subscales loaded above .40 on the primary factor, though 4 subscales cross-loaded (loadings over .40 on the other factor): brag, share, express, and reflect on PA. However, the scree plot and the rotated space component plot indicated that 3–4 factors would better capture the PEARS responses. In addition, the third and fourth factors had eigenvalues above .70, which is consistent with reports that Kaiser's criterion of 1 is too strict (Jolliffe 1986). Thus, we conducted similar analyses while forcing 3- and 4-factor solutions.

The 3-factor solution accounted for 66.10 % of the variance and all responses significantly loaded onto a factor (see Table 1). The 3 factors included a 6-item savoring factor (mass-share, brag, reward self, celebrate, reflect self, and mark, $\alpha = .92$); a 3-item dampening factor (downplay, negative focus, not think, $\alpha = .88$); and another 4-item savoring factor (express, reflect, share, and affection, $\alpha = .92$). Based on the content of the two savoring factors, we named the first one *intentional savoring*, because it involves self-focused responses (e.g., reflecting on one's good qualities, mass-sharing the event) that we expect are done proactively for particular means (hedonic rewards, self-esteem boosts). The other savoring factor appeared to capture responses that could be a natural consequence of feeling PA after an event (e.g., expressing and thinking about PA), and we therefore labeled it *natural savoring*.

Table 1 Study 1: The EFA 3-factor solution with factor loadings and descriptive information

	1 Intentional savoring	2 Dampen	3 Natural savoring
Mass-share	**.837**	−.052	−.212
Brag	**.759**	.171	−.171
Reward self	**.753**	−.057	.166
Celebrate	**.692**	.022	.224
Reflect self	**.597**	−.033	.192
Mark	**.560**	.083	.229
Downplay	−.040	**.926**	−.055
Negative focus	.034	**.921**	.150
Not think	.098	**.585**	*−.439*
Express	−.10	−.014	**.926**
Reflect PA	.040	−.068	**.842**
Share	.276	−.219	**.608**
Physical affection	.274	.113	**.562**
Eigenvalue	4.64	3.10	.85
% Variance	35.69	23.86	6.54
Mean	2.96	2.02	4.14
SD	.55	.55	.52

Bolded loadings indicate which factor each subscale loaded on. The italicized value indicates that one subscale cross-loaded on a second factor

The 4-factor solution also had factors that suggested intentional savoring (reward self, celebrate, and mark), natural savoring (express, reflect, share, and affection), and dampening (downplay, negative focus, not think), as well as a fourth factor that included bragging, mass-sharing, and reflecting on one's good qualities. However, as discussed later in Study 2, because the 3-factor solution was more parsimonious, we focus on the 3-factor solution.

Bivariate correlations indicated that the natural and intentional savoring factors were positively correlated, $r(258) = .51$, $p < .001$. Natural savoring correlated negatively with dampening, $r(258) = -.36$, $p < .001$, whereas intentional savoring correlated positively with dampening, $r(258) = .18$, $p = .004$. Means (see Table 1) indicated that participants reported the greatest likelihood of natural savoring, followed by intentional savoring, and dampening.

We tested for gender differences in the factors due to some prior research showing that women report more savoring than men (Bryant et al. 2005; Bryant and Veroff 2007). Independent samples *t*-tests indicated women ($M = 4.26$, $SD = .48$) reported more natural savoring than men ($M = 3.78$, $SD = .50$), $t(257) = -6.84$, $p < .001$. Men ($M = 2.13$, $SD = .48$) reported marginally more dampening, $t(257) = 1.91$, $p = .06$, than did women ($M = 1.98$, $SD = .52$). No gender differences emerged for intentional savoring, $t(257) = -.161$, $p = .11$.

Overall, these results indicate some variability among savoring behaviors. The natural savoring factor included behaviors that are linked to the experience of PA (expressing and reflecting on PA) and behaviors that are interpersonal (affection and sharing). Research indicates that sharing (or "capitalizing") is likely to sustain or increase PA as long as recipients of the news react enthusiastically (e.g., Gable et al. 2004; Reis et al. 2010). Presumably the same would be true with physical affection. The intentional savoring factor

included sharing behaviors (bragging and mass-sharing) that may sustain PA, but may not result in as many positive outcomes (Miller et al. 1992). Intentional savoring also included behaviors like marking and celebrating that have previously been found to allow people to experience sustained PA above and beyond the initial life event, at least in conjunction with other savoring responses (Gentzler et al. 2013; Langston 1994). As expected, the negative tone and uncommon nature of the dampening subscales may have promoted their loading onto their own factor, which is consistent with other research (Bryant and Veroff 2007).

2.3.2 *Convergent Validity*

Bivariate correlations and regression models were conducted with perceived savoring ability (see Table 2). Both analyses indicated that perceived savoring ability was higher for those who reported greater natural savoring and less dampening, and it was unrelated to intentional savoring. Thus, people's perceived savoring abilities may better reflect the use of natural savoring strategies than intentional strategies. Not surprisingly, results suggest that people who dampen PA believe that they are not able to effectively savor.

2.3.3 *Concurrent Validity*

More natural savoring and less dampening were associated with greater subjective happiness in correlational analyses, but only dampening remained significant the regression model (see Table 2). Additionally, natural savoring was negatively correlated with depressive symptoms, whereas dampening was linked to higher depressive symptoms in both correlations and the regression. Given the lower frequency of these dampening responses, any endorsement of these responses may signify difficulty maintaining positive outlooks and capitalizing on positive experiences more generally.

2.3.4 *Motives*

As hypothesized, valuing happiness was positively correlated with all three factors. In regression models, natural savoring and dampening (but not intentional savoring) were associated with greater value of happiness (see Table 2).

Table 2 Study 1: Correlations and regression models between the PEARS factors and savoring ability, subjective happiness, depressive symptoms, and value of happiness

		Natural savoring		Intentional savoring		Dampening	
	R	*r*	β	*r*	β	*r*	β
Similar responses							
Savoring ability (SBI)	.39***	.42***	.32***	−.03	−.11	−.57***	−.44***
General outcomes							
Subjective happiness	.08***	.20*	.13	.02	−.01	−.26***	−.21**
Depression (CESD)	.15***	−.12*	.06	.04	−.06	.38***	.41***
Motivation							
Value of happiness	.10***	.18**	.25**	.21***	.04	.18**	.26***

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 3 Study 1: Comparing the types of justifications participants provided for the two savoring factors

	Natural savoring					Intentional savoring					
	Express PA $n = 191$ (%)	Reflect PA $n = 201$ (%)	Share $n = 225$ (%)	Affection $n = 140$ (%)	Overall mean (%)	Mass-share $n = 87$ (%)	Brag $n = 56$ (%)	Celebrate $n = 179$ (%)	Reflect self $n = 98$ (%)	Mark $n = 151$ (%)	Overall mean (%)
Overflow (N)	30.1	9.0	6.2	19.3	**17.40**	4.6	33.9	6.7	3.1	0.7	9.80
Identity (N)	35.6	6.5	16.4	26.4	**21.23**	3.4	5.4	4.5	5.1	9.2	5.52
Gratitude (N)	0	2.0	0	0	**0.50**	0	0	0.6	1.0	0	0.32
Hedonic (I)	2.1	39.8	0.9	2.1	**11.23**	1.1	0	9.5	5.1	6.0	4.34
Enjoyment (I)	6.3	5.0	20.9	10.7	**10.73**	9.2	12.5	20.7	1.0	7.9	10.26
Self-worth (I)	2.1	13.4	11.6	1.4	7.13	4.6	10.7	14.0	51.0	2.0	**16.46**
Prosocial (I)	1.6	0	21.3	7.9	**7.70**	8.0	12.5	6.1	0	0	5.32
Enhance (I)	0.5	1.5	0	0	0.50	0	0	1.7	1.0	19.9	**4.52**
Norms (I)	8.4	5.0	4.4	4.3	5.53	2.3	1.8	13.4	5.1	7.3	**5.98**
Utility (I)	2.1	8.5	10.7	5.0	5.26	34.5	7.1	1.7	7.1	27.2	**15.52**

N = we expected these justifications to be given more often for natural savoring responses; I = we expected these justifications to be given more often for intentional savoring responses. Reward oneself, within the intentional savoring factor, was not included

Greater mean values (when comparing natural and intentional savoring) are bolded

The open-ended justifications were examined to compare the two savoring factors (see Table 3). Because we only analyzed answers for participants who endorsed the responses (i.e., if they generally respond that way), the *N*s varied dramatically for each response (as noted in the columns). As a result, we only report means for the savoring types for descriptive purposes. We expected that for natural savoring responses, people would more often provide (1) emotion overflow, (2) identity, and (3) gratitude justifications. As shown in Table 3, these three hypotheses were supported (though rates of participants' gratitude justifications were extremely low).

The justifications that we expected to be more common for intentional savoring strategies were: (1) hedonic, (2) enjoy the response, (3) self-worth, (4) prosocial, (5) event enhancement, (6) norms/impression management, and (7) non-affective utility. Out of these, 4 justifications were in line with our expectations (see Table 3). Specifically, for intentional savoring responses, people more often provided self-worth related reasons (especially for reflecting on oneself where 51 % provided that type of justification), event enhancement (mostly due to marking; e.g., "so I could remember how good I felt"), norms or impression management, and non-affective utility (mostly due to mass-sharing; e.g., "it's an easy way to let multiple people know something"), as compared with natural savoring responses. However, the results for three other justifications were in the opposite pattern. That is, participants provided hedonic justifications more often for natural savoring than for intentional savoring responses, which was exclusively due to the natural savoring response, reflect on PA, because 40 % of participants said they reflect on PA to feel PA. In addition, participants more often provided enjoyment and prosocial reasons for natural savoring responses (mostly due to sharing) compared to intentional savoring responses, though the differences were small.

These qualitative data provide some support that natural and intentional savoring strategies serve different purposes. For natural savoring, people more often provided emotion overflow, identity, and gratitude reasons, whereas for intentional savoring, people more often provided self-esteem, event enhancement, norms/impression management, and utility reasons. However, people also gave more hedonic, enjoyment, and prosocial motives for natural savoring, which was contrary to our expectations. These findings suggest that sharing positive news and reflecting on PA are largely done to feel good or to make others feel good, which may imply these responses can be deliberate and hedonically-driven, at least for some people.

3 Study 2

To further validate the PEARS using a CFA, we conducted another online study with college students. We added measures to further assess convergent validity of the PEARS scales: the vignette-based Emotion Regulation Profile-Revised (Nelis et al. 2011), and an event-specific measure of savoring and dampening (Gentzler et al. 2010) where participants rated their responses to a recent, personal positive event. In line with our third goal of investigating broader outcomes, we measured life satisfaction (in addition to subjective happiness and depressive symptoms). Finally, we assessed participants' value of happiness again to determine if this study replicated findings from Study 1.

3.1 Methods

3.1.1 Participants and Procedure

A sample of 219 college students (180 women and 39 men) between 18 and 27 years ($M = 19.45$, $SD = 1.56$) participated in an online study to earn course credit. Most participants identified as White (92.2 %), with the remaining identifying as: Asian (2.3 %), Black (1.8 %), Native-American (1.8 %), Hispanic (0.9 %), Native Hawaiian (0.5 %) and other (0.5 %).

3.2 Materials

3.2.1 PEARS

The PEARS included the same 8 vignettes. In this version, in addition to rating how happy they would be, participants rated how proud and excited they would be following each event using the same 11-point scales. For each event, participants also rated how likely they would be to engage in the same specific behaviors: (1) *share*; (2) *mass-share*; (3) *brag*; (4) *mark*; (5) *express PA*; (6) *reflect on PA*; (7) *physically affection*; (8) *reflect on oneself*; (9) *celebrate*; (10) *reward*; (11) *downplay*; (12) *focus on the negative*; and (13) *not think about the event*. The reliability of each subscale was adequate ($\alpha = .76$–$.88$) and similar to Study 1. Although some additional responses were added for pilot testing, they were not analyzed as part of the PEARS. Responses for each vignette were presented in a random, rather than standardized, order. Subscales were created by averaging the corresponding item across each vignette.

3.2.2 Savoring and Dampening a Personal Positive Life Event (Gentzler et al. 2010)

Participants were asked to think of a recent positive event within the last week, describe it, and answer questions about their responses to that event. This 13-item measure consisted of an 8-item savoring scale ($\alpha = .82$), which included similar responses to the PEARS (celebrating, telling others, thinking about the event and PA, marking the event) and a 5-item dampening scale ($\alpha = .80$; e.g., minimizing the event's significance and not thinking about the event).

3.2.3 Emotion Regulation Profile-Revised (ERP-R; Nelis et al. 2011)

This vignette-based measure assesses participants' typical regulation of positive and negative emotion. In this study, only the positive event vignettes were used. Participants were presented with 6 positive event vignettes and 8 possible responses to each vignette. The 8 responses included 4 savoring (behavioral display, focusing on the present, capitalizing, and positive mental time travel) and 4 dampening responses (suppression, fault finding, distraction, and negative mental time travel). Participants were instructed to check as many responses as they wanted and received one point for each check. Scale scores were computed by summing corresponding items across the 6 vignettes to create the savoring scale ($\alpha = .88$) and dampening scale ($\alpha = .80$).

3.2.4 Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al. 1985)

This 5-item survey assessed participants' life satisfaction. Higher scores indicated greater satisfaction ($\alpha = .81$).

3.2.5 Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale Revised (CESD-R; Van Dam and Earleywine 2011)

This 20-item questionnaire, which assessed participants' depressive symptoms during the past 2 weeks, is a revision of the original CES-D (Radloff 1977) that was created to more closely mirror DSM-IV criteria. Participants indicated prevalence of symptoms on a 5-point Likert scale, with higher scores indicating increased experience of depressive symptoms ($\alpha = .93$).

3.2.6 Additional Measures

Some of the same measures that were used in Study 1 were also used in Study 2. These included the measures of perceived savoring ability (SBI; $\alpha = .93$; Bryant 2003); subjective happiness ($\alpha = .86$; Lyubomirsky and Lepper 1999); and valuing happiness ($\alpha = .67$; Mauss et al. 2011).

3.3 Results and Discussion

3.3.1 Confirmatory Factor Analyses

A CFA using maximum likelihood estimation was conducted using the 3-factor solution from Study 1 (see Fig. 1). All factor loadings were significant. Also, natural savoring was related to intentional and dampening responses, but the covariance between dampening and intentional savoring was nonsignificant. Based on modification indices and conceptual reasons, we allowed several error terms to covary (noted in Fig. 1). The results suggested that the model had acceptable fit ($\chi^2/df = 2.41$, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .08). We also conducted CFAs with 1-, 2-, and 4-factor solutions from the EFAs from Study 1. We compared the 3-factor model (BIC = 325.60) to the 1-factor ($\chi^2/df = 6.82$, CFI = .76, RMSEA = .17, BIC = 578.34), 2-factor ($\chi^2/df = 2.84$, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .09, BIC = 356.67), and 4-factor ($\chi^2/df = 2.61$, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .09, BIC = 336.64) model. A series of $\Delta\chi^2$ tests indicated that the 2-factor model fit significantly better than the 1-factor model ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 339.94$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 1$, $p < .001$), and that the 3-factor model fit better than the 2-factor model ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 130.969$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 2$, $p < .001$). However, the $\Delta\chi^2$ between the 3- and 4-factor models was not significant ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 3.49$, $df_{\text{diff}} = 3$, $p = .32$). In the interest of parsimony, we retained our focus on the 3-factor model.

We computed the corresponding factor scores for the 3-factors by averaging corresponding subscales: natural savoring ($\alpha = .93$), intentional savoring ($\alpha = .94$), and dampening ($\alpha = .90$). Similar to Study 1, natural savoring responses were rated as most likely ($M = 4.20$, $SD = .54$), followed by intentional savoring ($M = 3.04$, $SD = .61$) and dampening ($M = 1.90$, $SD = .56$). Also similar to Study 2, women reported higher levels of natural savoring ($M = 4.29$, $SD = .48$) than men ($M = 3.81$, $SD = .61$), $t(217) = -5.37$, $p < .001$. Men ($M = 2.17$, $SD = .59$) reported more dampening, $t(217) = 3.50$,

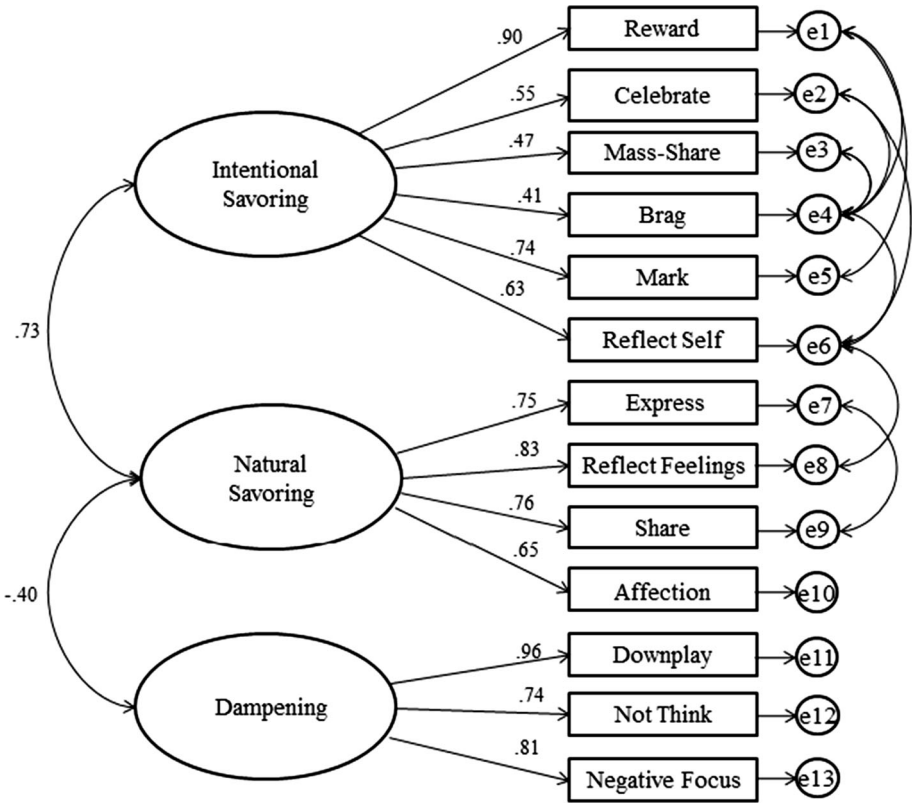

Fig. 1 Confirmatory factor model using Study 2 data. The following error terms were covaried: bragging and mass-sharing, celebrating, rewarding yourself, and reflecting on yourself; rewarding yourself and marking; celebrating and reflecting on yourself; reflecting on yourself and on feelings; expressing and sharing

$p = .001$, than women ($M = 1.84$, $SD = .53$). Again, no gender differences were found for intentional savoring, $t(217) = -1.44$, $p = .153$.

3.3.2 Convergent Validity

Natural savoring was positively related and dampening was negatively related to perceived savoring ability in correlations and the regression model (see Table 4). These findings replicate Study 1's results. Examining participants' responses to one of their own recent positive events, both natural and intentional savoring were linked to event-specific savoring (but only intentional savoring remained significant in the regression model). Participants' dampening their own positive event was associated with less natural savoring and greater dampening on the PEARS (though only dampening in the regression model). The savoring scale from the other vignette-based measure (ERP-R) was positively correlated with the PEARS natural and intentional savoring and negatively correlated with dampening. In the regression model, natural savoring and dampening remained linked to ERP-R savoring. Dampening also was associated with the ERP-R dampening scale.

Overall, the PEARS corresponded with other types of savoring measures in mostly expected ways. Natural savoring was associated with perceived savoring ability, greater

savoring of a personal positive event, and greater savoring using the ERP-R. Intentional savoring was associated with greater savoring of a personal positive event and (in correlations only) savoring on the ERP-R. Dampening, as expected, was related to lower perceived savoring efficacy, greater dampening of a personal positive event, and less savoring and more dampening on the ERP-R. The findings replicate and extend those from Study 1. Further, the scales' associations with responses to a personal positive event help to validate participants' anticipated reactions on the PEARS.

3.3.3 Concurrent Validity

Only less dampening was associated with more subjective happiness, both in correlations and the regression. For life satisfaction, greater natural savoring and less dampening were correlated with higher satisfaction, though only dampening was associated with life satisfaction in the regression model. For depressive symptoms, only greater dampening was linked to higher levels of depressive symptoms (see Table 4).

In contrast to the first study, natural savoring did not correlate with greater happiness, but it did correlate with greater life satisfaction. Intentional savoring was unrelated to both positive and negative outcomes again, suggesting that people who react in those ways may be a heterogeneous group of individuals or perhaps that moderating factors (e.g., contextual features of events) might explain when intentional savoring responses relate to positive or negative outcomes. In this study, like Study 1, dampening was consistently related to less happiness as well as less life satisfaction and more depressive symptoms, which is consistent with other literature (e.g., Feldman et al. 2008; Raes et al. 2012).

3.3.4 Motives

Similar to Study 1, participants' value of happiness was correlated with higher levels of natural and intentional savoring and dampening (see Table 4). In the regression models, greater natural and intentional savoring were associated with greater value of happiness.

Table 4 Study 2: Correlations and regression models between the PEARS factors and similar responses, general outcomes, and valuing happiness

	R	Natural savoring		Intentional savoring		Dampening	
		r	β	*r*	β	*r*	β
Similar responses							
Savoring ability (SBI)	.39***	.38***	.18*	.08	−.00	−.59***	−.54***
Savor own event	.37***	.48***	.15	.59***	.50***	−.09	−.07
Dampen own event	.16***	−.30***	−.17	−.12	−.03	.36***	.30***
Savor (ERP-R)	.12***	.30***	.19*	.18**	.08	−.25***	−.19*
Dampen (ERP-R)	.12***	−.12	−.05	.06	.07	.34***	.33***
General outcomes							
Subjective happiness	.07**	.12	−.03	.06	.10	−.23**	−.26**
Life satisfaction	.11***	.18**	.03	.07	.07	−.31***	−.31***
Depression (CESD-R)	.04	−.10	.05	−.07	−.11	.17*	.20*
Motivation							
Value of happiness	.16***	.22**	.17*	.37***	.30**	.16*	.09

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Thus, consistent with Study 1, valuing happiness is linked to all three responses. Also, the Study 2 regression results, indicating that both types of savoring were uniquely related to valuing happiness, supports our hypothesis that people who strongly value happiness may use many strategies to achieve this goal.

4 General Discussion

These studies extend existing knowledge on how people may respond to positive events. Our measure included scenarios that were relevant to college students, and included behavioral responses that had been studied minimally in the past. Our studies also offered new evidence, both quantitative and qualitative, that certain savoring responses may be more natural whereas others may be more intentional, and these differentially predict well-being outcomes. Moreover, valuing happiness was related to a range of responses, suggesting people may carry out many specific behaviors in attempt to achieve desired happiness. Overall, these studies support a growing literature suggesting that the goals and motives of people's regulation are critical to further understand variability in emotion regulation (Gross 2015; Mauss and Tamir 2014).

4.1 The PEARS

We validated the PEARS in two samples. Although we tested for higher-order factors, the subscales could be analyzed as individual scales. Most subscales showed adequate reliability, even with the consideration that the varied scenarios should result in different responses given that people should tailor their regulation to the context (Snyder et al. 2013). In other words, the Cronbach alpha coefficients indicate moderate cross-situational stability in individuals' responses. Although the scenarios in the PEARS are geared toward college students, other versions have subsequently been designed for adults (Ramsey and Gentzler 2014) and youth (Gentzler and Palmer 2014). Overall, the PEARS is a novel measure of behavioral responses to positive events, consistent with response-focused affect regulation (Gross 2015). The studies also suggest that not all responses that up-regulate PA are equivalent.

4.1.1 Factor Structure

The EFA and CFA findings suggested a 3- or 4-factor model better fit the data structure than a 1- or 2-factor model. We focused on the 3-factor model for parsimony, which included two factors involving behaviors likely to up-regulate PA and one factor likely to down-regulate PA. However, because allowing some error variances to covary in the CFA improved the model fit, additional minor commonalities among some subscales exist that are not captured by the 3 factors. These covaried subscales were in the savoring factors. Within natural savoring, expressing PA and sharing the event had correlated error terms, perhaps because these processes are likely to occur simultaneously. Within the intentional savoring factor, many subscales had correlated error terms suggesting multiple dimensions might be captured within this factor. For instance, mass-sharing and bragging covaried indicating that perhaps these co-occur or at least are especially likely to be done by the same people. The only across-factor subscales with covaried error terms were reflecting on PA and reflecting on oneself. This link may be due to superficial wording similarities in the

items or due to a more meaningful similarity (e.g., introspective people may be prone to both forms of reflection). Overall, the results suggest that the natural savoring and dampening factors hang together well and inversely with each other whereas the intentional savoring factor may involve more heterogeneous responses that correlate positively with both natural savoring and dampening.

4.1.2 Convergent Validity

The natural savoring factor (expressing PA, sharing, affection, and reflect on PA) showed substantial convergent validity because participants who reported more natural savoring on the PEARS also reported higher levels of savoring a recent personal life event, greater likelihood of anticipated savoring using another vignette measure, and greater perceived ability to savor across both studies. Responses that are expressive or engage others could foster sustained PA (e.g., Langston 1994; Livingstone and Srivastava 2012), which would allow people to feel they can manage and increase PA. Although the current studies cannot inform directionality or causality, other research has used experimental designs to show causal relationships (Lambert et al. 2012; Reis et al. 2010) or longitudinal designs to show these types of savoring or capitalizing responses predict greater PA across time (e.g., Gable et al. 2004; Gentzler et al. 2013; Jose et al. 2012).

The intentional savoring factor included a mix of responses. Some (celebrating, marking, and rewarding oneself) were previously identified as ways to capitalize on positive events (Langston 1994) or were part of positive rumination (reflecting on the self, Feldman et al. 2008), but the remaining subscales were novel (mass-sharing and bragging). As expected, this factor demonstrated convergent validity based on its positive association with savoring a personal life event and savoring using another vignette measure. However, it is noteworthy that intentional savoring was unrelated to participants' savoring efficacy across both studies suggesting these behaviors may be less effective in helping people control or enhance their PA. This consideration is important because it could be another key distinction between the natural and intentional savoring factors. That is, although we focused on people's intent or goals as the aspect that may best distinguish natural savoring from intentional savoring, the fact that intentional savoring may be less effective or adaptive than natural savoring is another plausible reason these factors may have appeared psychometrically distinct. In particular, some of the intentional savoring responses (e.g., rewarding oneself) may seem like good ideas in the moment and may indeed result in temporary boosts in PA, but these responses may not have longer-term benefits. This consideration fits with Livingstone and Srivastava's (2012) findings that indulgent types of behaviors are linked to more intense PA in short-term but less adaptive longer-term qualities (e.g., less trait PA and life satisfaction, more depressive symptoms).

The dampening factor (i.e., downplaying the event, negative thoughts, and not thinking about the event) showed strong positive associations with other dampening measures and negative associations with some savoring measures (i.e., perceived savoring ability and savoring on the vignette measure). This factor is distinct in its negative tone, and given its low endorsement rate, includes atypical responses to these positive life events.

4.2 Concurrent Validity

Evidence for concurrent validity of our factors was mixed. For natural savoring, although the pattern was in line with our hypotheses, the results were not as strong or consistent as we expected. That is, natural savoring showed some association in correlation analyses

with subjective happiness (though only in Study 1) and life satisfaction in Study 2, but no associations when accounting for the other responses in regression analyses. It is unclear why these associations were so modest given the literature. For example, Ramsey and Gentzler (2014) found that both perceived savoring ability and anticipated savoring in response to scenarios (but not savoring in response to a personal event) predicted greater well-being in adults. In the future, researchers should use multi-method assessments of savoring to better understand how PA regulation precisely contributes to people's well-being.

Intentional savoring did not correlate with well-being or depressive symptoms in either study. Perhaps this difference was due to our hypothetical positive events, some of which may be events where self-congratulatory responses are less appropriate. Another consideration is that some strategies within this factor may be effective to sustain PA but other strategies may not be. For instance, people's ability to savor (including intentional strategies like reflecting on one's positive attributes; Feldman et al. 2008) may be especially important for higher risk populations who experience fewer positive events (Hurley and Kwon 2011). However, other responses, like bragging, may be more maladaptive particularly if it elicits negative reactions from others (Miller et al. 1992). A final consideration is that there may be non-linear associations, which would indicate that these responses are adaptive in moderation but not at high amounts. This idea fits with research suggesting that PA is healthiest in moderate levels and when contextually appropriate (Gruber et al. 2011), and that people who use a wide range of savoring strategies report higher levels of happiness (Quoidbach et al. 2010a).

Across both studies, dampening responses were consistently associated with less well-being and more depressive symptoms. These findings are consistent with prior work on dampening (Feldman et al. 2008; Raes et al. 2012) and depressive attributions (Seligman et al. 1979). People who dampen, particularly to uniformly positive events as in the PEARS, represent a set of individuals who may struggle with other difficulties such as a less optimistic outlook (Bryant 2003), lower self-esteem (Wood et al. 2003), or insecure attachment (Gentzler et al. 2010). It therefore makes sense that these individuals would have difficulty achieving happiness if their negative thoughts and doubts sabotage the benefits of positive events in their lives.

A remaining question is how these various responses fit together. Are intentional strategies a second resort when natural savoring does not work? Emotion regulation is recursive and if people's current state does not match their emotional goals, this may motivate further attempts at emotion regulation (Mauss and Tamir 2014). For example, if Mike gets a new job offer, he could be plagued with self-doubts (i.e., dampening thoughts) and feel less PA than he desires. Because Mike has less intense PA to express or share or reflect on, he may be motivated to move on to other strategies in attempt to feel more PA (e.g., rewarding himself, mass-sharing). As suggested by Bryant et al. (2011), determining how these responses work in concert and unfold in real time is an important future direction with clinical applications.

4.3 Motives Underlying Responses to Positive Events

4.3.1 Qualitative Findings

Participants' open-ended justifications provided additional insight into these savoring strategies. The natural savoring factor included responses clearly tied to PA (expressing and reflecting on PA) and two interpersonal responses (physical affection and sharing the

news). The qualitative data also highlighted that these responses often may be a result of the felt emotions (overflow; e.g., "Smiling or laughing is almost an automatic response when something good happens") or attributed to the person's natural tendencies (identity; e.g., "I'm a hugger"). The overflow idea fits with the broaden and build theory (Fredrickson 1998), which suggests that positive emotions broaden our focus on the world and promote behaviors (in this case expressing, sharing, and affectionate behaviors) that may result in increased or strengthened social bonds. However, our results also indicated that some natural savoring responses (especially reflecting on PA and sharing) may be hedonically-driven. Thus, these behaviors also may result from people's affective goals to feel good or to make others feel good.

We expected that people would mainly engage in intentional strategies to increase PA. However, our coding system suggested this hedonic motivation was relatively rare and it was more frequently provided for natural savoring responses. Yet consistent with our expectations, other justifications (i.e., self-worth, event enhancement, cultural norms, utility) were more prevalent for intentional than natural savoring responses. Thus, people may deliberately respond in these ways to achieve these particular goals. Another consideration is that these motives are not necessarily mutually exclusive and they are likely organized hierarchically (Mauss and Tamir 2014). For example, a self-worth motivation ("it makes me feel good about myself") could fulfill a superordinate goal of being happy, and event enhancement ("it brings back good memories") could facilitate reminiscence and future happiness. Our research only assessed participants' provided responses, which often were subordinate types of immediate goals. In the future, researchers could rely on methods such as interviews to probe different levels of motives.

A further important question is why people dampen. As a posthoc investigation of reasons underlying dampening, we examined participants' open-ended justifications. There were few people who endorsed dampening responses: 22 endorsed "negative focus," 35 endorsed "downplay," and 10 endorsed "not think." Collapsing across the three dampening responses, the most common reason (32.8 %) these individuals provided to justify their dampening positive events was identity (e.g., "I'm cynical at times"). Thus, dampening may be habitual for some people and perhaps unintentional. The next two most common reasons for dampening were event-driven (16.4 %; e.g., "because they come and go") and non-affective utility (14.9 %; e.g., "always room for improvement"). Therefore, people also may intentionally dampen if they see it as useful or as a function of the event, which might help to explain the positive correlation between intentional savoring and dampening.

4.3.2 Valuing Happiness

Valuing happiness was the only characteristic that was positively associated with all three response types: natural savoring, intentional savoring, and dampening. Thus, consistent with our hypothesis, individuals who place a great deal of significance on their happiness may try to maximize their PA in multiple ways. Yet research also indicates that valuing happiness is associated with loneliness, less PA and more disappointment in positive contexts, and greater depressive symptoms (Ford et al. 2014; Mauss et al. 2011; 2012). Our findings linking valuing happiness and dampening may partially explain why valuing happiness is associated with less PA in positive situations. If people find themselves plagued with negative thoughts (which the justifications indicate might be somewhat trait-like), disappointment may result. However, because they strongly desire happiness and want to salvage the situation, they also may try to savor. Thus, the link between valuing

happiness and less PA may not be due to lack of effort. To better understand how people who highly value happiness react to positive events, assessing in vivo reactions and temporal dynamics of responses and emotions is a critical next step.

4.4 Limitations and Conclusions

Several limitations of our studies must be considered. Although we comprehensively assessed responses to positive events, there certainly are other ways that people could react (e.g., being thankful). Further, we devised a limited number of hypothetical events relevant to college students. These events likely affect people's responses in that certain types of events naturally elicit particular responses (Snyder et al. 2013). In addition, our data also are only participants' anticipated responses. Although we did validate the PEARS with participants' responses to an actual life event, a future direction would be to assess in vivo behaviors through manipulated positive events (e.g., Quoidbach et al. 2010b; Wood et al. 2005). Reports from close others may be useful as well, particularly with responses (e.g., bragging) that people may be reluctant to report. The research is also limited with our homogenous samples of mostly female and White college students. Finally, although we labeled the two savoring factors natural and intentional based on the strategies in each factor and the qualitative data, it is possible that people use the natural strategies intentionally (e.g., using emotional expressions to regulate social interactions; Van Kleef 2009), or that intentional strategies occur naturally (e.g., automatically reflecting on one's good qualities).

Despite these weaknesses, our study offers new information about how people vary in response to positive events by validating a new measure. The inclusion of both quantitative and qualitative data helps to differentiate savoring strategies in their motives and effectiveness. A final strength of this research is its novel insight into valuing happiness, which appears to motivate a wide range of savoring and dampening reactions to positive events.

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