

## ACTIVELY DEALING WITH GOOD FORTUNE? CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS AND GENDER INVARIANCE OF THE PERCEIVED RESPONSES TO CAPITALIZATION ATTEMPTS (PRCA) SCALE

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Capitalization is the process through which people share good news with the partner, who in turn responds in an “active” way to maximize the benefits of the event. The study aimed at analyzing the reliability and factorial structure of the Perceived Responses to Capitalization Attempts (PRCA; Gable, Reis, Impett, & Asher, 2004) scale, both through exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, its criterion-related validity, measurement invariance across genders, and differences as a function of demographic variables. The instrument is a 12-item scale and assesses the perceptions of the partner’s typical responses when a positive event is shared. The sample was composed of 239 couples. Both EFA and CFA supported a four-factor structure according to the theoretical model of the scale. Multigroup CFA showed that the scale structure was gender invariant. The scale also showed good criterion-related validity. Finally, gender and relationship duration had an impact on partners’ capitalization responses.

**Key words:** Capitalization; Scale; Confirmatory factor analysis; Gender invariance; Couple.

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### INTRODUCTION

For most people having a good relationship with the partner or a good marriage is one of the most important aspects of life. For this reason and as a means to understand and address the growing fragility of marriage in the past decades, as represented by the decrease in first marriages and the increase in divorce rates in most western countries, the marital relationship and all the dynamics that lead two people to build an intimate relationship have received increasing attention.

Moreover, the economic crisis of recent years has also contributed in spreading a sense of uncertainty and insecurity that has had inevitable consequences on marriage. Young people are unable to find a steady job, they have difficulty to take out a mortgage, they remain in the parental home longer, and so the decision to get married is often postponed. Moreover, the crisis of the marriage institution has specific origins in the change in values: the choice not to marry bears witness to the process of individualization. The individual with his/her personal choices prevails

while the relational aspects contained in the marriage are underestimated. Despite this, each person seeks to establish a long-term couple relationship (Bradbury & Karney, 2010).

So how could these cultural challenges be addressed by social psychology and research? One fruitful way that researchers have undertaken is the investigation of the processes that can promote a flourishing couple relationship (Fincham & Beach, 2010).

### The Capitalization Process

The recent literature on close relationships, in fact, proposes that in order to answer this question the focus should be shifted from negative to positive events (e.g., Bertoni & Bodenmann, 2010; Fincham & Beach, 2010). Indeed, despite the fact that scientific interest has been directed mainly at the responses to negative events, there are many reasons to study also the ways in which the members of the couple respond to positive events and the impact of positive events on the well-being of the partners and of the relationship (Reis & Gable, 2003). First, the frequency of positive events exceeds that of negative events (3:1; Gable & Haidt, 2005). Second, positive events are more strongly correlated with well-being and mental health than negative ones. For example, daily positive events are negatively associated with depressive symptoms (Zautra, Schultz, & Reich, 2000) and positively associated with self-esteem and perception of control (Nezlek & Gable, 2001). Finally, research has shown that, although positive events are more frequent than negative ones, people feel better when these events are not treated as a routine, but are valued and shared (Bryant, Smart, & King, 2005; Emmons & McCullough, 2003).

The social sharing of positive events is defined “capitalization” (Gable, Gonzaga, & Strachman, 2006; Langston, 1994) and has been the object of recent attention by close relationship researchers. Capitalization is the process through which people share good news with a significant other (friend, partner, family), who in turn responds in an “active” way in order to maximize the benefits of the event. The studies conducted so far on this issue, although relatively scarce, show that both the act of sharing the event with someone and the positive response of the person with whom the event is shared has personal and interpersonal benefits. The personal benefits include an increase in positive emotions, individual well-being, self-esteem and decreased loneliness, while the relational benefits include increased relational satisfaction, intimacy, commitment, trust, closeness, and stability (e.g., Gable & Reis, 2010).

The capitalization process encompasses three main elements: the capitalization attempts; the responses to capitalization attempts; the perception of responsiveness of the partner. The capitalization attempts are important because they provide partners with the opportunity to give a positive response to the communication of the event. When attempts are performed with success the personal and interpersonal benefits are increased, while unsuccessful attempts are more likely to have harmful consequences for the person who has put into effect the process of capitalization and for the relationship with his or her partner.

The responses to capitalization attempts have been classified by Gable, Reis, Impett, and Asher (2004) into four possible reactions. These reactions are called: active-constructive, passive-constructive, active-destructive, and passive-destructive. An active-constructive response is one in which the partner expresses involvement, excitement or enthusiasm for the positive event. It is usually accompanied by questions of clarification, requests for further details, implications,

and benefits. The partner also shows emotions such as interest, happiness, and pride. A passive-constructive reaction is one in which the person perceives a positive attitude toward the event that he/she communicated, but the partner says little or keeps quiet. The partner does not ask questions or make comments about the personal meaning that the event represents for the person who has experienced it. An active-destructive response is one in which the partner is attentive and involved, but the feedback that he/she provides has a negative valence. It shows itself, for example, in highlighting the negative implications that the event may have or in minimizing the significance of the event. Finally, a passive-destructive reaction is one in which the positive event is minimally recognized. The partner immediately changes the subject of conversation focusing on something completely different, or directing the conversation to something that happened to him/her.

In order for the attempts of capitalization to be considered effective, the reaction of the partners should be perceived as responsive. Perceiving the responsiveness of the partner was defined by Reis, Clark, and Holmes (2004) as a process through which individuals tend to believe that both members of the couple will take care of each other and will react supportively (this process is studied mainly in the context of negative events).

In conclusion, we could suppose that capitalization is a circular process in which the act of conversing with a responsive partner about one's own luck promotes perceived responsiveness that in turn affects partners' relational well-being and subsequent interactions. There are several reasons why it is useful to recognize the bidirectional nature of the capitalization process. First, capitalization is not a random process, people choose what to disclose and to whom and these evaluations are the result of various factors, including the objectives of the situation, the general expectations about the partner's responsiveness and the specific expectations of each relationship. Second, the experiences lived during a capitalization attempt probably influence future capitalization attempts. Finally, the response of the partner is influenced by previous experiences both with others in general and with the specific relationship established with the discloser when the roles are reversed. It could thus be assumed that the capitalization process finds in close relationships a privileged context to emerge and to enhance itself.

Although all three elements of the process of capitalization (capitalization attempts, responses to capitalization attempts, and the perception of responsiveness of the partner) are important, we will focus here on responses to capitalization attempts. As we have seen, in fact, Gable and colleagues (2004) identified a typology of response that can facilitate or not the good success of the capitalization process.

#### Measuring Partner's Responses to Capitalization Attempts: Perceived Responses to Capitalization Attempts (PRCA) Scale

To assess the partner's responses to capitalization attempts, Gable et al. (2004) developed a scale that measures the perceptions of the partner's typical response when a positive event is shared. This scale, called Perceived Responses to Capitalization Attempts (PRCA), consists of 12 items that describe the four types of responses (three items for each type): active-constructive, passive-constructive, active-destructive and passive-destructive.

Initially Gable and co-workers (2004) took as a basis for their measure the accommodation model developed by Rusbult and colleagues in which it is included a typology of responses that a member of the couple can implement when the partner shows a negative behavior (Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovic, & Lipkus, 1991; Rusbult, Zembrondt, & Gunn, 1982). This typology of response is based on two bipolar dimensions: active-passive and constructive-destructive. They identified along the active-passive continuum the responses to a partner's negative behavior that can be called exit (it is a response in which partners actively harm the relationship, for example, putting an end to the relationship or threatening to do so, or abusing the partner or shouting at him/her) or neglect (it is a response in which partners ignore the problem in a passive way and allow the relationship to deteriorate). Along the constructive-destructive continuum the responses to a partner's negative behavior can be named voice (it is a response in which partners try to actively improve the relationship, for example, clarifying the problem, trying to solve it in a constructive way, asking for help or changing some parts of the self) or loyalty (it is a response in which the partners are waiting in a passive and optimistic way that the bad things will improve).

This model was considered by Gable and collaborators (2004) as conceptually useful and, in parallel, they found different types of responses to assess the partner's reaction to the sharing of positive events. The types of responses can vary along two important dimensions like in the accommodation model: active-passive and constructive-destructive. In the active-passive continuum the partner can show attention, interest, joy (active) or he/she can be inattentive or silent (passive). In the constructive-destructive continuum the partner can be supportive or unsupportive. The intersection of these two orthogonal dimensions creates four types of response of the capitalization process: active-constructive (the partners is enthusiastic and he/she is involved in the positive event of the discloser), passive-constructive (the partner says little or keeps quiet), active-destructive (the partner points out the downsides of the positive event) and passive-destructive (the partner ignores the positive event of the discloser).

The PRCA was first examined in a study with 59 engaged couples (Gable et al., 2004, Study 2). Both members of each couple completed the PRCA together with other measurements of relational well-being. The four subscales showed good internal consistency ( $\alpha \geq .66$ ). This research also showed that the active-constructive subscale correlated negatively with the other three, while the passive-constructive, active-destructive, and passive-destructive subscales were positively correlated with each other.

In light of this background, the Perceived Responses to Capitalization Attempts (PRCA) scale appears to be a valid and reliable instrument for measuring perceptions of how a partner typically reacts to the capitalization attempts of the discloser. In fact, previous studies have pointed out that the theoretical framework identified by Gable and colleagues (2004) is appropriate to capture the partner's reaction when a positive event is experienced and shared. Unfortunately, the studies tested this theoretical model only at an exploratory level. Moreover, the studies on couple relationship often compare groups of men and women, and it is therefore important to test the configural invariance (which implies the same number of factors and the same pattern of parameters in each group) and the metric invariance (which implies equal factor loadings across groups) to state that the analyzed construct has the same meaning in both groups (Steinmetz, Schmidt, Booh, Wieczorek, & Schwartz, 2009).

Consequently, the aims of this study are as follows:

- a) to examine the factor structure of the Italian version of the PRCA by using exploratory (EFA) and confirmatory (CFA) factor analyses and testing the factor internal consistency;
- b) to test the measurement invariance of the scale across genders;
- c) to analyze the PRCA criterion-related validity, through its association with relationship satisfaction;
- d) to investigate the differences of the PRCA factors across genders and as a function of relationship duration and age.

## METHOD

### Participants

The sample was composed of 239 heterosexual couples ( $N = 478$  participants) from North Italy whose relationship had a duration of, at least, three years. Partners were between 26 and 65 years of age: men were slightly older ( $M = 48.41$ ,  $SD = 6.10$ ) than women ( $M = 45.37$ ,  $SD = 5.41$ ). Most couples were married in their first marriage (89.9%), and only 3% of women and 2.5% of men were separated or divorced. The average duration of marriage was 213 months.

Participants were mainly Catholic (97.5% of women and 97.9% of men), while 2.5% of women and 1.3% of men belonged to another religion. As for the level of education, 52.7% of participants had a technical school diploma or a high school diploma, while 22.7% of women and 23.2% of men had a higher level degree. With regard to the profession, clerical work was prevalent for both sexes (37.7% of women and 32.2% of men); for income, while 41.3% of women had a monthly net income ranging from 1,000 to 1,500 Euro, 31.8% of men had a net income ranging from 2,000 to 2,500 Euro. Finally, with regard to the number of children, 53.4% of the couples had two children.

### Materials

*Perceived Responses to Capitalization Attempts* (PRCA; Gable et al., 2004). This scale is composed of 12 items that represent the four typical responses to capitalization attempts: active-constructive, passive-constructive, active-destructive, and passive-destructive. The instructions were as follows: "Please take a moment to consider how your partner responds when you tell him or her about something good that has happened to you. For example, imagine that you come home and tell your partner about receiving a promotion at work, having a great conversation with a family member, getting a raise, winning a prize, or doing well in an exam at school or a project at work. Please consider to what extent your partner does the following things in response to your good fortune." Participants rated each item using the stem: "When I tell my partner about something good that has happened to me..." and a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*very true*). The items and the corresponding theoretical scales are listed in Appendix.

*Quality of Marriage Index* (QMI; Norton, 1983). It is a 6-item measure of couple satisfaction. Five items use a 7-point scale (from 1 = *completely disagree* to 7 = *completely agree*;

item example: “The relationship with my partner makes me happy”). The last item measures a global perception of couple satisfaction (“Cross the number that better identifies how happy you feel in your relationship”); a 10-point scale was used from 1 (*very unhappy*) to 10 (*very happy*). A global index of quality of marriage was calculated by averaging the standardized scores of the six items; Cronbach’s alpha for the scale was equal to .95.

### Procedure

The PRCA was administered between April and November 2012 in a written format. Anonymity and data confidentiality were guaranteed. All participants took part voluntarily and gave informed consent. Participants were recruited partially through snowball sampling and partially through the help of their children’s school. In particular, an institute (from elementary school to high school) gave us permission to give questionnaires out to students’ parents.

### Analyses

The total sample composed of 239 couples was randomly divided into two equivalent groups ( $N = 478$ ) by using the odd-even split method. Thus, the ratings provided by men and women in each group were independent.

The first group (Group A) consisted of 239 participants ( $M_{age} = 46.85$ ,  $SD = 5.84$ ) and the second group (Group B) of 239 participants ( $M_{age} = 46.97$ ,  $SD = 6.03$ ). Group A was used to determine the primary factor structure using exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with principal axis factoring (PAF) and with Oblimin rotation (using SPSS 18.0). The internal consistency was calculated with Cronbach’s alpha. Group B was used for CFA and then for multigroup analyses (both with AMOS Version 16.0). The reliability was calculated with  $\rho_c$  coefficient.<sup>1</sup> Moreover, we conducted on Group B a series of Pearson’s correlations between the capitalization factors and couple satisfaction to test the criterion-related validity.

Finally, on the total sample, we conducted a series of mixed analyses of variance (ANOVA) and a series of one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) to investigate the differences of the PRCA factors across genders, and in terms of participants’ relationship duration and age.

## RESULTS

### Exploratory Factor Analysis

The exploratory factor analysis for Group A ( $N = 239$ ) yielded a significant Bartlett sphericity test,  $\chi^2(66) = 2094.27$ ,  $p < .001$ , and a satisfactory test of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) = .86. This means that it is justified to use a dimension reducing procedure, such as factor analysis, and that the items could be considered apt for factor analysis.

The extraction method used was principal axis factoring with Oblimin rotation. The extraction of four factors was imposed in agreement with the theoretical model that inspired the development of the scale. They explained a total of 72.99% of variance. Individually, the first factor explained 46.68% of variance, the second explained 12.82% of variance, the third explained 7.39% of variance, and the fourth explained 6.08% of variance. Table 1 shows that the first factor loaded items 11, 12, 10 (with loadings ranging from .996 to .756) and it actually represents the passive-destructive factor identified by Gable and colleagues (2004). The second factor loaded items 2, 3, 1 (with loadings ranging from .879 to .731) and it completely overlaps the active-constructive dimension. The third factor loaded items 5, 6, 4 (with loadings ranging from .905 to .508) and it refers to the passive-constructive dimension. The fourth factor loaded items 9, 8, 7 (with loadings ranging from .899 to .706) and it corresponds to the active-destructive dimension.

TABLE 1  
 Factor loadings from exploratory factor analysis with Oblimin rotation

Items	Factors			
	1	2	3	4
Item 11	.996	.010	-.023	.065
Item 12	.950	-.022	-.001	.020
Item 10	.756	-.038	-.006	-.184
Item 2	.014	.879	.042	-.099
Item 3	-.088	.743	-.064	.033
Item 1	.024	.731	.045	.128
Item 5	.020	-.013	-.905	.068
Item 6	-.008	-.094	-.819	.007
Item 4	.025	.084	-.508	-.133
Item 9	.002	-.033	.026	-.899
Item 8	-.014	-.026	-.030	-.886
Item 7	.119	.007	-.102	-.706

Note. Items are reported in Appendix.

The correlations between the four factors were calculated separately for women ( $N = 120$ ) and men ( $N = 119$ ). As shown in Table 2, for both partners the active-constructive factor correlated negatively with the passive-constructive, the active-destructive and the passive-destructive factors; while the passive-constructive, active-destructive and passive-destructive factors were positively correlated with each other.

In addition, we analyzed the reliability for each of the four dimensions. Cronbach's alpha for the first dimension was .96 for women and .94 for men, for the second dimension it was .86 for women and .78 for men, for the third dimension it was .83 for women and .76 for men, and for the fourth dimension it was .90 for women and .91 for men.

TABLE 2  
 Pearson's correlations between the four capitalization factors for women and men.  
 Women's correlations are above the diagonal and men's correlations are below the diagonal

		Active- constructive	Passive- constructive	Active- destructive	Passive- destructive
Active- constructive	Pearson's correlation	1	-.128	-.341	-.569
	Sig. (2-tails)		.012	.000	.000
	<i>N</i>		120	120	120
Passive- constructive	Pearson's correlation	-.231	1	.490	.469
	Sig. (2-tails)	.012		.000	.000
	<i>N</i>	119		120	120
Active- destructive	Pearson's correlation	-.278	.616	1	.622
	Sig. (2-tails)	.002	.000		.000
	<i>N</i>	119	119		120
Passive- destructive	Pearson's correlation	-.298	.459	.621	1
	Sig. (2-tails)	.001	.000	.000	
	<i>N</i>	119	119	119	

### Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The confirmatory factor analysis on Group B ( $N = 239$ ) tested a model that included 12 observed variables and four latent variables (Figure 1), representing the four types of responses highlighted by Gable and colleagues (2004).

We evaluated the model fit with the  $\chi^2$ , the  $\chi^2/df$  ratio, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the goodness of fit index (GFI), the comparative fit index (CFI) and the normed fit index (NFI). For the tested model the fit indices were all satisfactory: the  $\chi^2$  value was 71.55,  $df = 48$  ( $\chi^2/df = 1.43$ ), the RMSEA was .04, and the GFI, the CFI and the NFI were .95, .98 and .96, respectively. Overall these results suggested that the model was globally acceptable and the parameters were all significant, ranging from .69 to .91. With regard to the correlations between factors, the active-constructive factor correlated negatively with the passive-constructive ( $-.16, p < .05$ ), with the active-destructive ( $-.30, p < .001$ ) and with the passive-destructive ( $-.59, p < .001$ ) factors; while the passive-constructive, active-destructive and passive-destructive factors were positively correlated with each other, respectively .51,  $p < .001$  (passive-constructive/active-destructive), .59,  $p < .001$  (active-destructive/passive-destructive) and .36,  $p < .001$  (passive-constructive/passive-destructive). Moreover, all factors showed a satisfactory internal consistency ( $\rho_c \geq .71$ ), with the only exception of the passive-constructive factor ( $\rho_c = .52$ ).

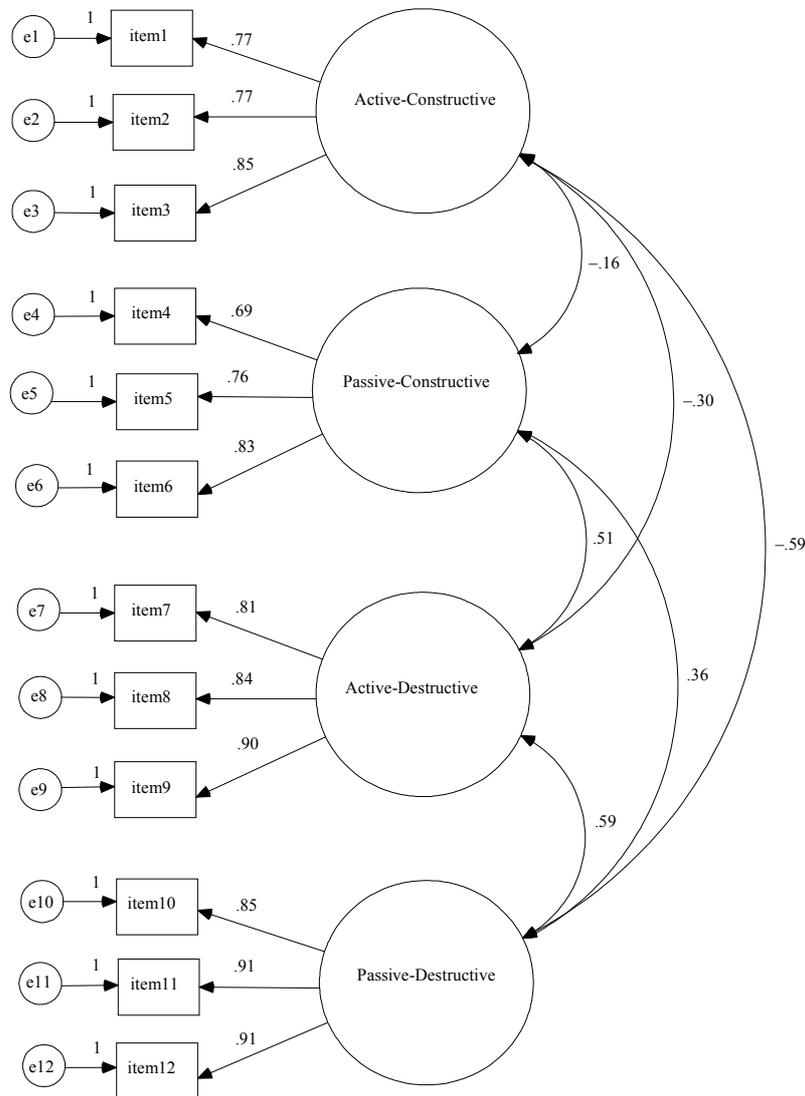


FIGURE 1  
 Confirmatory factor analysis. Standardized parameters.

### Multigroup Analysis

Multigroup CFAs were conducted on Group B to investigate whether the factor structure was similar across genders (women,  $N = 119$ , vs. men,  $N = 120$ ). The main aim was to test configural and metric invariance.

We carried out a multistep procedure to test the factor invariance of the scale (four factors, 12 items). Separate confirmatory factor analyses for each group tested the four-factor solution. Then this model was examined for invariance across groups with no parameter constraints imposed (Model A) to assess configural invariance. Model A also served as a baseline for testing more restricted constrained tests of invariance. Instead, Model B constrained factor loadings to be

equal across the two genders. Finally, the chi-square difference test was calculated to establish whether there was a significant difference between the constrained Model B and the unconstrained Model A.

*Test of measurement invariance across women and men.* The four-factor model showed a good fit to data both among women,  $\chi^2 = 71.26$ ,  $df = 48$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 1.48$ ; RMSEA = .06, GFI = .91, CFI = .97, NFI = .92, and among men,  $\chi^2 = 69.50$ ,  $df = 48$ ,  $\chi^2/df = 1.44$ ; RMSEA = .06, GFI = .91, CFI = .97, NFI = .92.

Model A, without parameter constraints, showed acceptable fit indices (see Table 3). Also Model B, with constrained factor loadings for all 12 items across the four factors, produced good-fit indices similar to those of Model A. The difference between the two models was not significant and this suggested an invariant pattern of factor loadings between women and men.

TABLE 3  
Multigroup CFA of the PRCA scale across genders:  
Goodness of fit statistics and model comparisons

Models	$\chi^2$	$df$	$\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	GFI	CFI	NFI	$\Delta\chi^2(\Delta df) p$
Gender								
Model A	140.77	96	1.46	.04	.91	.97	.92	
Model B	150.72	108	1.39	.04	.90	.97	.91	
A-B comparison								9.95(12), <i>ns</i>

*Note.* RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; GFI = goodness of fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index.

### Criterion-Related Validity

Criterion-related validity was assessed by comparing, for women ( $N = 119$ ) and for men ( $N = 120$ ) of Group B, the four capitalization factors with the couple satisfaction index. As shown in Table 4, the active-constructive factor was significantly and positively related with couple satisfaction ( $r = .30$ ,  $p < .001$  for women;  $r = .52$ ,  $p < .001$  for men). The active-destructive factor was not related to couple satisfaction for women ( $r = -.07$ ,  $p = .449$ ), but it was negatively related to couple satisfaction for men ( $r = .20$ ,  $p < .05$ ). On the contrary, the passive-destructive factor was negatively related with couple satisfaction for both partners ( $r = -.27$ ,  $p < .01$  for women;  $r = -.43$ ,  $p < .001$  for men). Instead, the passive-constructive factor was not related to couple satisfaction for either partner ( $r = .12$ ,  $p = .16$  for women;  $r = -.17$ ,  $p = .06$  for men). These results confirm what was found through confirmatory factor analysis: the passive-constructive factor seems to be positively related to the active-destructive and passive-destructive factors.

### Impact of Demographic Variables and Couple Characteristics

Mean score of the four capitalization factors for the total sample ( $N = 239$  couples) was calculated separately for women and men. The mean score for the active-constructive factor was 5.28 for women ( $SD = 1.27$ ) and 5.49 for men ( $SD = 1.08$ ), for the passive-constructive factor

TABLE 4  
 Correlations between the four capitalization factors and the couple satisfaction index

		Quality of marriage	
		Women	Men
Active-constructive	Pearson's correlation	.300	.521
	Sig. (2-tails)	.001	.000
	<i>N</i>	119	120
Passive-constructive	Pearson's correlation	.128	-.172
	Sig. (2-tails)	.164	.060
	<i>N</i>	119	120
Active-destructive	Pearson's correlation	-.070	-.201
	Sig. (2-tails)	.449	.028
	<i>N</i>	119	120
Passive-destructive	Pearson's correlation	-.275	-.437
	Sig. (2-tails)	.002	.000
	<i>N</i>	119	120

it was 3.63 for women ( $SD = 1.63$ ) and 3.41 for men ( $SD = 1.68$ ), for the active-destructive factor it was 2.58 for women ( $SD = 1.63$ ) and 2.59 for men ( $SD = 1.54$ ), and, finally, the mean score for the passive-destructive factor was 2.13 for women ( $SD = 1.59$ ) and 1.88 for men ( $SD = 1.29$ ).

To test whether gender and the duration of the relationship influenced the types of capitalization responses, we conducted a series of mixed analyses of variance 2 (Gender: female, male)  $\times$  4 (Relationship duration: from 3 to 14 years, from 15 to 18 years, from 19 to 22 years, from 23 years onwards) on each of the four capitalization factors (see Table 5 for the means and the standard deviations of factors scores for women and men in the different relationship duration groups).

TABLE 5  
 Means and standard deviations of factor scores for women and men  
 in the different relationship duration groups

Duration of relationship (years)	Women				Men			
	3-14	15-18	19-22	$\geq 23$	3-14	15-18	19-22	$\geq 23$
Active-constructive	5.66 (0.09)	5.34 (1.35)	5.00 (1.31)	5.10 (1.32)	5.72 (0.99)	5.33 (1.17)	5.41 (1.13)	5.56 (1.00)
Passive-constructive	3.27 (1.42)	3.79 (1.70)	3.89 (1.66)	3.72 (1.67)	2.82 (1.58)	4.04 (1.63)	3.36 (1.71)	3.43 (1.69)
Active-destructive	1.97 (1.39)	2.70 (1.51)	2.81 (1.84)	2.77 (1.61)	2.24 (1.30)	3.00 (1.57)	2.39 (1.54)	2.51 (1.51)
Passive-destructive	1.57 (1.28)	2.35 (1.76)	2.49 (1.83)	1.98 (1.24)	1.48 (0.86)	2.38 (1.63)	1.94 (1.33)	1.65 (0.94)

With regard to the active-constructive factor, a significant main effect of gender emerged,  $F(1, 219) = 6.58, p < .05, \eta^2_p = .02$ : men perceived women as more active-constructive. Also the main effect of the duration of the relationship was significant,  $F(1, 219) = 2.57, p < .05, \eta^2_p = .03$ : post-hoc tests (Tukey) showed that couples with a relationship duration of between 3 and 14 years were more active-constructive than couples whose relationship had a duration of between 19 and 22 years. The interaction was nonsignificant,  $F(3, 219) = 1.92, p = .12, \eta^2_p = .02$ .

For the passive-constructive factor, again a significant main effect of gender emerged.  $F(1, 219) = 4.22, p < .05, \eta^2_p = .01$ : women perceived men as more passive-constructive. Also the main effect of the duration of the relationship was significant,  $F(1, 219) = 4.04, p < .01, \eta^2_p = .05$ : post-hoc tests (Tukey) showed that couples with a relationship duration of between 15 and 18 years were more passive-constructive than couples whose relationship had a duration of between 3 and 14 years. The interaction was nonsignificant,  $F(3, 219) = 1.99, p = .11, \eta^2_p = .02$ .

With respect to the active-destructive factor, only the main effect of the duration of the relationship was significant,  $F(1, 219) = 3.4, p < .05, \eta^2_p = .04$ : post-hoc tests (Tukey) showed that couples with a relationship duration of between 15 and 18 years were more active-destructive than couples whose relationship had a duration of between 3 and 14 years. The main effect of gender,  $F(1, 219) = 0.05, p = .81, \eta^2_p = .03$ , and the interaction were nonsignificant,  $F(3, 219) = 2.43, p = .07, \eta^2_p = .03$ .

Finally, with regard to the passive-destructive factor, a significant main effect of gender emerged,  $F(1, 219) = 5.24, p < .05, \eta^2_p = .02$ : women perceived men as more passive-destructive. Also the main effect of the duration of the relationship was significant,  $F(1, 219) = 5.86, p < .01, \eta^2_p = .07$ : post-hoc tests (Tukey) showed that couples with a relationship duration of between 15 and 18 years were more passive-destructive than couples whose relationship had a duration of between 3 and 14 years. Similarly, couples with a relationship duration of between 19 and 22 years were more passive-destructive compared to couples whose relationship had a duration of between 3 and 14 years. The interaction was nonsignificant,  $F(3, 219) = 1.61, p = .18, \eta^2_p = .02$ .

To test whether the age of participants influenced the types of responses of the capitalization process, a series of one-way ANOVAs was conducted for each capitalization factor with age as a between-participants factor. The variable age was divided into four levels: from 26 to 43 years, from 44 to 46 years, from 47 to 49 years, and more than 50 years for women; from 26 to 45 years, from 46 to 49 years, from 50 to 52 years, and more than 53 years for men. No significant effects of age were found for either women or men in the four capitalization factors (see Table 6 for the means and the standard deviations of factors scores for women and men in the different age groups).

## CONCLUSION

This study examines the factor structure of the Perceived Responses to Capitalization Attempts (PRCA) scale, an instrument that measures the perceptions of the partner's typical response when a positive event is shared. Given that previous studies had an exploratory nature, both EFA and CFA were carried out. The EFA supported a four-factor solution, for both women and men. The factors were respectively labeled active-constructive, passive-constructive, active-destructive, and passive-destructive as since they reflected the same factors conceptualized by

TABLE 6  
Means and standard deviations of factor scores for women and men in the different age groups

Age	Women				Men			
	26-43	44-46	47-49	≥ 50	26-45	46-49	50-52	≥ 53
Active-constructive	5.43 (1.19)	5.61 (0.88)	5.50 (1.12)	5.41 (1.12)	5.43 (1.23)	5.25 (1.29)	5.04 (1.13)	4.87 (1.76)
Passive-constructive	3.15 (1.71)	3.31 (1.67)	3.41 (1.71)	3.91 (1.59)	3.43 (1.55)	3.67 (1.71)	3.98 (1.59)	4.12 (1.94)
Active-destructive	2.62 (1.60)	2.54 (1.49)	2.28 (1.33)	3.03 (1.69)	2.51 (1.57)	2.31 (1.58)	3.18 (1.75)	3.20 (1.75)
Passive-destructive	1.88 (1.40)	1.92 (1.39)	1.76 (1.13)	1.95 (1.20)	2.07 (1.67)	2.07 (1.55)	2.42 (1.45)	2.28 (1.59)

Gable et al. (2004). The CFA confirmed the four-factor model, showing satisfactory indices of fit. This means that the four factors (active-constructive, passive-constructive, active-destructive, and passive-destructive) are well represented by the scale items. Moreover, the correlations between factors confirmed the results found by Gable and colleagues: the active-constructive subscale correlated negatively with the other three, while the passive-constructive, active-destructive and passive-destructive subscales were positively correlated with each other.

The two multigroup CFAs carried out to test the invariance across genders showed that both configural invariance and metrical invariance were confirmed for women and men. So, women and men conceptualized the capitalization construct in the same way.

The criterion variable in this study was couple satisfaction. Results showed that, although the passive-constructive dimension could seem like a positive dimension, actually it is associated with the other negative responses (active-destructive and passive-destructive). Therefore, the active-constructive factor appears the only dimension that is positively associated with couple satisfaction.

Examining the impact of gender, relationship duration, and age of the participants, our findings showed that women perceived men as more passive in general when responding to their capitalization attempts (in both constructive and destructive responses), while men perceived women as more active-constructive. Partners did not differ in the amount of active-destructive responses they enacted in front of their partners' capitalization attempts. Moreover, with regard to age and relationship duration, while participants' age did not influence the type of response of partner's capitalization attempts, our findings showed that the young couples (with a relationship duration of between 3 and 14 years) were more active-constructive than more mature and consolidated couples, who react less enthusiastically to partner's positive events.

As we said before, the present study represents the first attempt to systematically analyze the factor structure of the PRCA scale; therefore, we supported the exploratory method with the more rigorous confirmative one. With this procedure, we intended to provide a new insight for a contribution to the research using the PRCA. Indeed, in addition to confirming the theoretical

structure of the scale, it was possible to prove the importance of the active-constructive style as more effective for the couple relationship.

It is worth noting a limitation of our contribution. Participants were recruited only in North Italy, and, therefore, further research is needed to confirm these findings with new samples. Future research should examine other psychometric properties of the PRCA scale, for example its stability and discriminant validity. Moreover, given the dyadic nature of the scale, it would be interesting to investigate the capitalization process from the perspective of self-perceptions as well, that is how the participant thinks he/she responds when the partner communicates a positive event; this would complement the perceptions of the partner, already measured by PRCA, and would allow us to analyze the differences in the perception of the partners' responses (Donato et al., 2009; Iafrate, Bertoni, Donato, & Finkenauer, 2012; Iafrate, Bertoni, Margola, Cigoli, & Acitelli, 2010).

In conclusion, having reliable instruments to evaluate different aspects of the couple relationship would reinforce the conclusions of research on couple processes and would allow us to develop preventive programs capable of implementing the skills that are shown to strengthen the unions.

#### NOTE

1. In order to assess reliabilities we used the formula  $\rho_c = (\sum\lambda_1)^2 / [(\sum\lambda_1)^2 + (\sum\delta_1)]$  (Bagozzi & Yi, 1994), where  $\lambda$  represents the factor loadings and  $\delta$  the error variances (standardized estimates).

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APPENDIX

Items of Perceived Responses to Capitalization Attempts (PRCA) scale  
from Gable et al. (2004). In square brackets the Italian version

Category	Responses
Active-constructive [Attivo-costruttivo]	1. My partner usually reacts to my good fortune enthusiastically [Il mio/la mia partner di solito reagisce in maniera entusiasta alla mia fortuna]
	2. I sometimes get the sense that my partner is even more happy and excited than I am [Il mio/la mia partner talvolta è più felice ed emozionato/a di me]
	3. My partner often asks a lot of questions and shows genuine concern about the good event [Il mio/la mia partner spesso mi pone domande e mostra un autentico interesse per il mio evento positivo]
Passive-constructive [Passivo-costruttivo]	4. My partner tries not to make a big deal out of it, but is happy for me [Il mio/la mia partner cerca di non dare troppa importanza al mio evento positivo, ma è felice per me]
	5. My partner is usually silently supportive of the good things that occur to me [Il mio/la mia partner mi sostiene silenziosamente quando mi succede qualcosa di bello]
	6. My partner says little, but I know he/she is happy for me [Il mio/la mia partner non dice molto, ma so che è felice per me]
Active-destructive [Attivo-distruttivo]	7. My partner often finds a problem with it [Il mio/la mia partner spesso trova dei problemi in quello che mi è successo]
	8. My partner reminds me that most good things have their bad aspects as well [Il mio/la mia partner mi ricorda che anche le cose più belle hanno il loro lato negativo]
	9. He/she points out the potential down sides of the good event [Il mio/la mia partner sottolinea il potenziale rovescio della medaglia dell'evento positivo]
Passive-destructive [Passivo-distruttivo]	10. Sometimes I get the impression that he/she doesn't care much [Il mio/la mia partner a volte mi dà l'impressione che non gliene importi molto]
	11. My partner doesn't pay much attention to me [Il mio/la mia partner non mi presta molta attenzione]
	12. My partner often seems disinterested [Il mio/la mia partner spesso sembra disinteressato/a]