Recent research has highlighted the significance of daydreaming, a temporary separation from reality that focuses on an individual’s thoughts (e.g., Giambra & Traynor, 1978; Golding & Singer, 1983; Mar, Mason, & Litvak, 2012). Killingsworth and Gilbert (2010) found that people’s minds wander 46.9% of the time. However, the potential relationship between daydreaming frequency, life satisfaction, and mood has received little attention in the literature. Although some researchers have suggested that daydreaming precedes a negative affect (Killingsworth & Gilbert, 2010), others have demonstrated that one’s mood leads the mind to wander (Smallwood, Fitzgerald, Miles, & Phillips, 2009). The current study further explored the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency by assessing whether life satisfaction may serve as a mediator.

**ABSTRACT.** The current study tested to see if life satisfaction mediates the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency. Two nonexperimental studies were conducted in which participants completed a questionnaire that assessed their positive mood, life satisfaction, and frequency of daydreaming. In Study 1, including 170 collegiate students, statistically significant results supported our correlational hypotheses between positive mood and life satisfaction ($r = .67$, $p < .001$), life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency ($r = -.22$, $p = .002$), and positive mood and daydreaming frequency ($r = -.27$, $p < .001$). However, the proposed mediational model, that life satisfaction mediated the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency, was not supported because the negative relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency remained statistically significant when life satisfaction was added to the regression equation ($\beta = -.22$, $SE = .07$; 95% CI [-.30, -.01]; $p = .033$). Study 2, including 102 adults, aimed to increase the reliability and generalizability of Study 1. Results from Study 2 also did not support the mediational role of life satisfaction. However, the results of Study 2 also demonstrated a negative relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency ($r = -.35$, $p < .001$), even when life satisfaction was included in the regression equation ($\beta = -.39$, $SE = .08$; 95% CI [-.45, -.13]; $p < .001$). We discuss possible age and gender effects, and future directions of research.

**Keywords:** positive mood, life satisfaction, daydreaming frequency

Does Life Satisfaction Mediate the Relationship Between Mood and Daydreaming Frequency?

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**ABSTRACT.** The current study tested to see if life satisfaction mediates the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency. Two nonexperimental studies were conducted in which participants completed a questionnaire that assessed their positive mood, life satisfaction, and frequency of daydreaming. In Study 1, including 170 collegiate students, statistically significant results supported our correlational hypotheses between positive mood and life satisfaction ($r = .67$, $p < .001$), life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency ($r = -.22$, $p = .002$), and positive mood and daydreaming frequency ($r = -.27$, $p < .001$). However, the proposed mediational model, that life satisfaction mediated the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency, was not supported because the negative relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency remained statistically significant when life satisfaction was added to the regression equation ($\beta = -.22$, $SE = .07$; 95% CI [-.30, -.01]; $p = .033$). Study 2, including 102 adults, aimed to increase the reliability and generalizability of Study 1. Results from Study 2 also did not support the mediational role of life satisfaction. However, the results of Study 2 also demonstrated a negative relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency ($r = -.35$, $p < .001$), even when life satisfaction was included in the regression equation ($\beta = -.39$, $SE = .08$; 95% CI [-.45, -.13]; $p < .001$). We discuss possible age and gender effects, and future directions of research.

**Keywords:** positive mood, life satisfaction, daydreaming frequency
This appears to be the rule of thumb, as several studies such as Killingsworth and Gilbert (2010) use the terms daydreaming and mind-wandering conversely. Therefore, for the purpose of this article, the two constructs may be used interchangeably as well.

The relationship between daydreaming frequency, life satisfaction, and mood may be seen in the rationale for why daydreams occur. Although some researchers have found daydreaming to be an effective way for people to think about and solve situations that concern them in everyday life (Giambra & Traynor, 1978), others have highlighted the negative impact that daydreams may have on an individual. For instance, Singer (1975) described how daydreaming may be characterized by obsessive negative ruminations and the inability to concentrate on an external task. This description of daydreaming can then be translated to people’s emotions (Marchetti, Van de Putte, & Koster, 2014). Furthermore, Stawarczyk, Majerus, and D’Argembeau (2013) found that negative affect was associated with higher daydreaming frequency when participants were concerned about giving a speech in the near future, compared to a control group in which no speech had to be given. Therefore, daydreaming may provide a way to ruminate about past or future events that cause significant distress and negative affect in individuals.

Another plausible explanation is that daydreaming may act as an escape for people with problems concerning them in everyday life (Singer, 1975). For example, one form of daydreaming, maladaptive daydreaming, is characterized by absorption into fantasy that involves far-fetched dreams such as having relationships with celebrities and having an idealized version of self (e.g., Abu-Rayya, Somer, & Meari-Amir, 2019; Bigelsen, Lehrfeld, Jopp, & Somer, 2016). This ability to daydream about exotic situations has been found to be involved in a negative reinforcement loop, in which emotionally distressed individuals alleviate their anguish by participating in compensatory fantasies (Somer, Somer, & Jopp, 2016). Therefore, an individual’s current daily affect and life situation may influence the frequency with which a person engages in daydreaming. Hence, the present study explored whether life satisfaction mediates, or explains, the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency.

Although mood and life satisfaction are similar constructs, there is a key difference between the two. For the purpose of this article, mood is operationally defined as one’s general daily affect. That is, one’s emotion in a given moment. This contrasts with life satisfaction, which is defined as the subjective well-being associated with the assessment of one’s life. People may be satisfied with their lives, but unhappy in a given moment or situation. For instance, successful students may be satisfied with their overall ability to graduate college and find a job but may be unhappy because of an argument they had with a friend earlier in the day. Conversely, other students may be dissatisfied with their lives for not being able to graduate on time but may be happy because they received a monetary loan for another semester. Thus, given that these two constructs are distinct from one another, both mood and life satisfaction may be related to daydreaming in different ways.

Enhancing one’s mood, or general daily affect, may decrease one’s frequency of daydreams. Klinger, Murphy, Ostrem, and Stark-Wroblewski (2005) found that individuals with high positive emotionality disclosed fewer daydreams and more real-life experiences. Different studies have found that the more depressive, or negative, mood an individual experienced, the more daydreams they had (e.g., Giambra & Traynor, 1978; Golding & Singer, 1983). Therefore, these findings suggest that the more individuals are concerned and anxious about their current situation, the more daydreams they will experience. Together, these studies suggest that mood is negatively correlated with daydreaming frequency, and, hence, by enhancing an individual’s mood, one can decrease the number of daydreams.

Additional research has suggested that an individual’s life satisfaction may also decrease the person’s frequency of daydreams (Mar et al., 2012). Brannigan, Schaller, and McGarva (1993) determined that high life satisfaction, in regard to one’s current status of “fitting in” with others, was negatively correlated with the frequency of daydreams. Furthermore, Killingsworth and Gilbert (2010) proposed that mind-wandering reflects one’s happiness in surrounding situations, suggesting that life satisfaction is not only determined by the acceptance of others, but also with one’s physical surroundings. Additionally, Ruby, Smallwood, Engen, and Singer (2013) proposed that daydreaming happens because unfulfilled goals are more important to individuals than their current surroundings. Therefore, these findings suggest that the more individuals are concerned
and anxious about life goals, the more daydreams they will experience. Taken together, these studies suggest that, as life satisfaction increases, daydreaming decreases.

In addition to finding a relationship between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency, several studies have found a correlation between mood and life satisfaction. Golding and Singer (1983) found that individuals who had a positive outlook had an increased satisfaction with life. Additionally, other studies have found that individuals who had a positive mood about themselves had greater life satisfaction (e.g., Flynn & MacLeod, 2015; Mar et al., 2012). Furthermore, Greenwald and Harder (1997) found a negative correlation between an individual’s self-derogation and mood such that, as mood decreased, self-derogation increased. These studies suggest that mood not only influences life satisfaction, but also influences an individual’s self-image. However, the findings of Giambra and Traynor (1978) suggest that mood and daydreaming frequency are negatively related. Moreover, Golding and Singer (1983), taken together with Brannigan and colleagues (1993), suggest that life satisfaction may impact the frequency of daydreams. Therefore, because mood tends to influence life satisfaction, an individual’s satisfaction with life may mediate the negative relationship between mood and daydreaming frequency.

In the current nonexperimental study, we tested the following hypotheses. First, we expected that mood would be positively correlated with life satisfaction such that, as positive mood increased, life satisfaction would increase. Second, it was expected that mood would negatively correlate with daydreaming frequency such that, as positive mood increased, daydreaming frequency would decrease. Third, we expected that life satisfaction would negatively correlate with daydreaming frequency such that, as life satisfaction increased, daydreaming frequency would decrease. Finally, we also anticipated that life satisfaction would mediate the relationship between mood and daydreaming frequency. To test our hypotheses, participants completed the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS), which measures overall positive mood by subtracting the negative affect score mean from the positive affect score mean, the Satisfaction With Life Scale (SWLS), which measures life satisfaction, and a shortened version of the Imaginal Processes Inventory (IPI), which measures daydreaming frequency.

### Study 1

#### Method

**Participants.** One hundred seventy college students participated in this study. Participants were selected through cluster sampling of students enrolled in an introductory psychology class. Although participation was voluntary, participants received class credit for participating. Alternatives to research participation for credit (e.g., completing an article summary) were also available.

**Procedure.** Approval was gained from the institutional review board, and participants were selected through the cluster sample. Participants gave informed consent before beginning the study. Next, each participant completed a series of measures (see Measures section below), which included filler and distractor items from the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965; 10 items) and Locus of Control Scale (Rotter, 1966; 7 items) that were not used for these analyses. Each participant took roughly 15–20 minutes to complete the survey either in a private workspace in the psychology research lab (n = 45) or online (n = 125) during the middle of the academic semester. After completing the survey, participants were given more information about the study and thanked for their participation.

**Measures.**

- **Positive mood.** An individual’s general daily affect was assessed using the PANAS (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), with a positive affect section (α = .85; 10 items; e.g., “Interested” and “Enthusiastic”) and a negative affect section (α = .86; 10 items; e.g., “Scared” and “Distressed”). Participants responded to each item, or word in this instance, on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (very slightly) to 5 (extremely). Items were scored such that, on the positive affect scale, greater positive values reflect more positive mood, whereas on the negative affect scale, greater positive values reflect

---

1. Data were collected over two separate academic semesters (Time 1: 45 participants; Time 2: 125 participants). The two samples did not significantly differ in their level of positive mood, F(1, 168) = 0.73, p = .39, d = .14, life satisfaction, F(1, 168) = 1.47, p = .23, d = .21, or daydreaming frequency, F(1, 168) = 0.05, p = .85, d = .03.

2. Although demographic data were not collected on this sample, the population from which the sample was drawn consisted of predominantly traditional first- and second-year students (age 18–19), European American, and majority women (70%). The total number of students enrolled in PS101 courses in which the samples were drawn were 555 at Time 1 and 465 at Time 2.

3. Measures for all participants were completed in the following order: (a) daydreaming frequency, (b) locus of control filler, (c) satisfaction with life, (d) self-worth filler, and (e) mood.
more negative mood. The total PANAS score was calculated by subtracting the mean negative score from the mean positive score, such that greater positive values reflect more positive, compared to negative, mood.

**Life satisfaction.** How satisfied participants were with their life was assessed using the SWLS (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985; \( \alpha = .82 \); 5 items; e.g., “If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.”). Participants responded to each item on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Items were scored such that greater positive values reflected greater satisfaction with life.

**Daydreaming frequency.** The amount an individual daydreams was assessed using a shortened version of the IPI (Singer & Antrobus, 1970; \( \alpha = .92 \); 12 items; e.g., “I daydream...”). Participants responded to each item on a scale ranging from 1 (never or rarely) to 5 (always or most of the time). Items were scored such that greater positive values reflected a greater frequency of daydreams.

**Results**

**Correlations.** A series of bivariate correlations were conducted to explore the relationship between mood, life satisfaction, and daydreaming frequency. Descriptive statistics and all bivariate correlations are displayed in Table 1.

As displayed in Table 1, a positive correlation was found between mood and life satisfaction such that, as positive mood increased, life satisfaction also increased. Additionally, a negative correlation was found between mood and daydreaming frequency such that, as positive mood increased, daydreaming frequency decreased. Similarly, a negative correlation was found between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency such that, as life satisfaction increased, daydreaming frequency decreased. Thus, our first three hypotheses were supported.

**Multiple regression.** A multiple regression was conducted with mood as the antecedent variable, life satisfaction as the mediator variable, and daydreaming frequency as the outcome variable. As displayed in Figure 1, once an individual’s satisfaction with life was included in the regression equation, the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency remained statistically significant. However, the relationship between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency was no longer statistically significant. Thus, the proposed mediational model with life satisfaction as the mediator variable was not supported.

**Discussion**

Results of Study 1 failed to fully support the proposed mediational model that life satisfaction mediates the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency. Nevertheless, our first three hypotheses were supported, which demonstrated clear links between mood, life satisfaction, and daydreaming frequency (observed power = .98; Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009; Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007). However, emotional intelligence, defined as the capability to regulate the emotions of oneself and others and to distinguish one’s own emotions from others in order to think and act, is greater in older adults compared to younger adults (Chen, Peng, & Fang, 2016). This increase was especially present in older adults for the components of understanding and regulating emotions, a key aspect needed to reliably report one’s own emotions (Tsaois & Kazi, 2013). Given that the population of participants included in Study 1 were young adults aged 18–19, Study 2 aimed to generalize the findings outside of the collegiate student population in order to obtain a more reliable and representative sample.
**Study 2**

**Method**

**Participants.** One hundred two participants ($M_{age} = 36.0, SD = 12.3$) were recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk). MTurk samples are a reliable and demographically diverse sample of the population (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Huff & Tingley, 2015; Kees, Berry, Burton, & Sheehan, 2017). Participants consisted of 37 women and 63 men (two participants did not report their gender); racial/ethnic breakdown consisted of 82 European American, 7 African American, 5 Asian, 3 multiracial, and 5 not reporting their race or ethnicity.

**Procedure.** Approval for the revised follow-up study was gained from the institutional review board. Participants completed the survey online using SurveyMonkey as in Study 1. The measures (see below) were identical to those used in Study 1.

**Measures.**

**Positive mood.** The total PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) score was calculated by subtracting the mean negative score ($\alpha = .92$) from the mean positive score ($\alpha = .95$). Therefore, greater positive values reflect more positive, compared to negative, mood.

**Life satisfaction.** The SWLS (Diener et al., 1985; $\alpha = .92$) was used. Items were scored such that higher positive values reflected greater satisfaction with life.

**Daydreaming frequency.** The IPI (Singer & Antrobus, 1970; $\alpha = .95$) was used. Items were scored such that greater positive values reflected a greater frequency of daydreams.

**Results**

**Correlations.** A series of bivariate correlations were conducted to explore the relationship between mood, life satisfaction, and daydreaming frequency. Descriptive statistics and all bivariate correlations are displayed in Table 2.

As displayed in Table 2, a statistically significant positive correlation was found between mood and life satisfaction such that, as positive mood increased, life satisfaction also increased. Additionally, a statistically significant negative correlation was found between mood and daydreaming frequency such that, as positive mood increased, daydreaming frequency decreased. However, no statistically significant correlation was found between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency.

**Multiple regression.** A multiple regression was conducted with positive mood as the antecedent variable, life satisfaction as the mediator variable, and daydreaming frequency as the outcome variable. As displayed in Figure 2, when life satisfaction was included in the regression equation, the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency remained statistically significant. In addition, because the correlation between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency was not statistically significant, the proposed mediational model with life satisfaction as the mediator variable was not supported.

**Discussion**

The results of Study 2 did not support the proposed mediational model or replicate the results found in Study 1, given that life satisfaction was not correlated with daydreaming frequency. However, positive mood was positively correlated with life satisfaction. In addition, positive mood was negatively correlated with daydreaming frequency. These results suggest that the link between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency may not be as strong for a general sample as with college students (observed power = .97; Faul et al., 2009; Faul et al., 2007).

**General Discussion**

Based on prior research regarding the individual relationships between positive mood, life satisfaction, and daydreaming frequency (e.g., Brannigan, Schaller, & McGarva, 1993; Flynn & MacLeod, 2015; Giambra & Traynor, 1978; Golding & Singer, 1983; Klinger et al., 2005; Mar et al., 2012), we hypothesized that there would be a positive correlation between positive mood and life satisfaction, a negative correlation between positive mood and daydreaming frequency, and a negative correlation between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency. In addition, we hypothesized that life satisfaction would mediate the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency. The two studies conducted did not support this mediational model.

The results of Study 1 supported our correlational hypotheses but did not support life satisfaction as the mediator variable. Although all three pairs of variables were significantly correlated, positive mood remained statistically significant when life satisfaction was included in the regression equation. Given that post-collegiate adults score higher on emotional intelligence scales...
for understanding and regulating (Tsaousis & Kazi, 2013), Study 2, then, aimed to test the hypothesized model using a more representative sample. The results of Study 2 only partially supported our correlational hypotheses and did not support life satisfaction as the mediator variable. Specifically, Study 2 found a positive correlation between positive mood and life satisfaction as well as a negative correlation between positive mood and daydreaming frequency. However, no statistically significant relationship was found between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency. Additionally, when life satisfaction was included in the regression equation, the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency remained statistically significant. Taken together, these two studies suggest that life satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency, and that the relationship between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency may vary across samples.

The pattern of results of Study 1 and Study 2, although not definitive, may suggest an alternative purpose to daydreaming for collegiate students and postcollegiate adults. Although the mediational model remained unsupported for both a collegiate and general sample, there was a slight positive trend in the relationship for postcollegiate adults in Study 2 once life satisfaction was added to the regression equation. This contrasts with the slight negative trend in the relationship for collegiate students in Study 1. As a result, this may suggest that the association between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency may be affected by cohort or age. Specifically, this may indicate that collegiate students daydream in order to ruminate about a past or future event (Stawarczyk et al., 2013) or escape from the present situation (Bigelsen et al., 2016) and that postcollegiate adults daydream to proactively solve problems and plan for the future (e.g., Giambra & Traynor, 1978; Ruby et al., 2013). The first explanation for collegiate students is consistent with the guilty-dysphoric daydreaming theory whereas the second explanation for postcollegiate adults is consistent with the positive constructive daydreaming theory, both proposed by Singer (1975). The latter of these two theories takes on a more positive perspective, whereas the first theory is from a more negative perspective. Thus, the relationship between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency may become more positive as individuals age.

Although the current studies focused on daydreaming as a method to escape from negative scenarios in one’s life or to ruminate about them, the results of Study 2 may indicate a change in the use of daydreaming as individuals age. In fact, several studies have found that postcollegiate adults show a preference toward positive information compared to negative information. This may be due to greater emotional regulation in postcollegiate adults that utilize cognitive mechanisms that enhance positive information and decrease negative information (e.g., Mather & Carstensen, 2005; Reed & Chan, 2014). Thus, generalizing outside of the collegiate population may introduce the positivity bias of postcollegiate adults into the mediational model.

Moreover, the potential for age effects is further supported by Zhiyan and Singer (1997), who found that positive constructive daydreaming was positively correlated with the Big Five personality dimension of openness to experience, guilty-dysphoric daydreaming was positively associated with neuroticism and negative emotionality, and poor attentional-control-associated daydreaming was negatively correlated with conscientiousness and...

### TABLE 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Positive Mood</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Life Satisfaction</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>.46*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Daydreaming Frequency</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>-.35**</td>
<td>-.09**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. N = 170. Larger positive values on all scales reflect stronger or more positive endorsements of those constructs.

**p < .01.

---

### FIGURE 2

Figure 2. Life satisfaction does not mediate the relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency among general sample of adults. N = 102. Larger positive values on all scales reflect stronger or more positive endorsements of those constructs.

β = .39**

β = .46**

β = .09

Positive Mood → Life Satisfaction

Life Satisfaction → Daydreaming Frequency

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positive emotionality. Other researchers have found that conscientiousness and openness to experience generally increases with age and that neuroticism decreases (e.g., Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006; Soto, John, Gosling, & Potter, 2011). Thus, it is possible that the postcollegiate adults, who were included in the participant pool for Study 2, may alter the mediational model due to their increase in positive constructive daydreaming rather than guilty-dysphoric daydreaming. Future studies may want to control for age in order to determine whether these age effects exist.

Although the results found no support for the proposed mediational model, several limitations in the study should be discussed. First, the operational definitions provided in the literature regarding daydreaming and mind-wandering are vague. It is possible that these related terms are actually two different constructs that are difficult to measure separately. Additionally, some research has suggested that mind-wandering may not be a unitary construct, but rather a construct comprised of intentional and unintentional daydreaming (Seli, Risko, & Smilek, 2016). Therefore, the two aspects of the construct may have different effects. Intentional daydreaming may be used when attempting to problem solve (positive constructive daydreaming) and unintentional daydreaming may be used to escape a situation or ruminate (guilty-dysphoric daydreaming). Given that the measure used in this study to assess daydreaming frequency did not distinguish between intentional and unintentional daydreaming, future studies may want to explore the qualitative difference between the two.

Another limitation of the present study involves the study design. Mood was only assessed at one instance. Future studies may want to explore other ways to induce daydreaming, or mind-wandering, so that mood could be assessed before and after the daydreaming episode. If one’s general daily affect is negative after a daydreaming episode, this may suggest that the individual was ruminating about a negative stressor. On the other hand, if the daily affect of the individual is more positive or unchanged after the daydreaming episode, this may suggest that the daydreaming episode was used to proactively solve problems (Killingsworth & Gilbert, 2010). Second, given the direct relationship between positive mood and daydreaming frequency in both studies, it is possible that positive mood may mediate the relationship between life satisfaction and daydreaming frequency. Future studies may want to explore whether this new mediational model is better supported. Moreover, the present studies also utilized two vastly different samples. The first study included individuals from a predominantly female participant pool (~70%) who were college-aged, whereas the second study included a majority of male participants (~63%) who were adults. Future studies may want to further explore how age and gender influence the effects of mood and life satisfaction on daydreaming frequency.

For example, future research should explore whether gender may moderate the relationships among our variables. Recent research has found a relationship between gender and daydreaming frequency (e.g., Golding & Singer, 1983; Mar et al., 2012) and even gender and life satisfaction (e.g., Mar et al., 2012; Matud, Bethencourt, & Ibáñez, 2014). For instance, Mar et al. (2012) found that men tended to daydream about the past more than women did. Additionally, Matud et al. (2014) found that social support was positively correlated with life satisfaction among women and self-esteem was positively correlated with life satisfaction among men. Future studies should explore whether these variables play a role in explaining daydreaming frequency differently for men and women.

Although the results of these studies are not definitive, given the strong association between positive mood and daydreaming frequency found in both studies and the trend in life satisfaction, several implications regarding the phenomenon of daydreaming frequency have the potential to arise. For instance, if certain types of daydreaming (intentional or unintentional) are related to positive and negative outcomes, psychiatrists or therapists may be able to use daydreaming frequency as an additional method to aid in the treatment of mental disorders such as depression. For example, collegiate students may be able to alter their daydreaming style from guilty-dysphoric to positive and constructive. In fact, Ernst, Blanc, De Seze, and Manning (2015) found that induction of positive mental images increased autobiographical memory and episodic future thinking, factors that are dampened in individuals who are depressed or experience negative mood. Similarly, Linke and Wessa (2017) found that positive mental imagery training was positively associated with reward sensitivity and behavioral activation. Therefore, if the trends in these studies are found to be valid, clinicians may be able to implement a form of daydreaming manipulation in order to help patients to realistically strive and achieve a satisfactory life. These hypotheses need to be examined further, but if they hold true, then this study might provide clinicians with new treatment options to better enhance the quality of life of their patients.
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