Models of Well-Being
September 18, 2017
Subjective Well-Being
Subjective well-being

- Positive emotions
- Low neuroticism
- Satisfaction with life
a
Which face comes closest to expressing how you feel about your life as a whole?

b
1. In most ways my life is close to ideal.
   2. I am satisfied with my life.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

c
Compared to most of my peers, I consider myself:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Less happy</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>More happy</th>
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</thead>
</table>

Some people are generally very happy. They enjoy life regardless of what is going on, getting the most out of everything. To what extent does this characterization describe you?
Assumptions

1. The amount of happiness or satisfaction a person experiences can be meaningfully translated into a numerical scale.

2. If two people both scored an “8” on the same test, then they both have approximately the same level of happiness.

Surprisingly to some investigators, empirical results tended to affirm the validity of these two assumptions (Diener, 1984).
Stability of subjective well-being

- One’s average level of happiness and life satisfaction are both relatively stable (Costa, McCrae, 1984, 1986, 1988; Diener, 1994; McCrae, 2011).
- Harker and Keltner (2001) found that positive emotion in high school was significantly related to well-being 30 years later.
Top-down predictors of subjective well-being
Self-Esteem
Six Pillars of Self-Esteem

- The Practice of Living Consciously
- The Practice of Self-Acceptance
- The Practice of Self-Responsibility
- The Practice of Self-Assertiveness
- The Practice of Living Purposefully
- The Practice of Personal Integrity
Self-esteem

- Four components of self-esteem (Hewitt, 2009):
  - Feeling that you are accepted by others,
  - Being the recipient of positive evaluations from others,
  - Believing that you compare favorably to other people or to your ideal self,
  - Believing that you can initiate effective action in the world

- Self-esteem is strongly correlated with subjective well-being (Campbell, 1981; Baumeister et al., 2003).
Stable vs. Unstable Self-Esteem

• Two types of self-esteem: secure and fragile (Kernis, 2003).
• High self-esteem that is fragile is unstable and has been associated with elevated hostility (Zeigler-Hill, Clark, & Beckman).
• Insecure self-esteem can also lead to unrealistic optimism.
• Holding overly favorable views of your abilities is a common judgment error, which often decreases the ability to distinguish accuracy from error in many decision making tasks (Kruger & Dunning, 2009).
Optimism

• People who are more optimistic about the future are happier and report greater life satisfaction (Carver et al., 2009; Rand & Cheavens, 2009; Seligman, 2011).
• Compared to pessimists, optimists engage in more effective coping behavior, have better physical health, and have better relationships with others (Carver, Scheier & Sagerstrom, 2010).
• Optimists have greater self-confidence and perseverance when faced with challenges (Carver et al., 2009).
Positive expectancies

• A key element in optimism is “positive expectancies”.
• Expectations of positive outcomes in the future not only enhance mood but also foster better coping strategies concerning stress.
• When faced with stress, optimists are more likely to use “problem-focused” coping strategies, realistic acceptance of their situation, humor, and positive reframing (Carver et al., 2009).
Are optimists really realists?

• Lisa Aspinwall argues that optimists are actually the “true realists” (Aspinwall & Brunhart, 2000).

• She found that optimists were more willing than pessimists to receive negative feedback about their performance, to absorb bad news about their health, and to raise difficult issues in their personal relationships.

• Sandra Schneider (2001) also argues for “realistic optimism”—optimistic thinking that does not distort reality.

• Honest optimism is an honest recognition that there may be opportunities for positive growth or learning experiences in even the most difficult situations.
Can rose colored glasses be a good thing for happiness?

- Happiness is often related to inaccurate perceptions of reality, or “positive illusions” (Taylor & Brown, 1988)
- Baumeister (1989) suggested there may be an “optimal margin for illusions”.
- The advantages of positive illusions depend on context and on one’s goals of well-being.
Sense of control

• *Internal locus of control*: person tends to attribute outcomes to self-directed efforts

• *External locus of control*: belief that outcomes in one’s life are due to factors outside of one’s immediate control.

• Internal locus of control is associated with a variety of positive outcomes (Lefcourt, 1981).

• High internal locus of control is part of a “sense of personal control” (Peterson & Stunkard, 1989).
Sense of control

• External locus of control for American college students has risen significantly since the 1960s.
• Today’s college students “increasingly believe their lives are controlled by outside forces rather than their own efforts” (Twenge, Zhang, & Im, 2004).
Self-efficacy

- A belief in one’s capacity to produce desired effects and outcomes by one’s own actions (Bandura, 1997; Maddux, 2009).
- Related to higher well-being throughout the lifespan (Maddux, 2009; Vecchio et al., 2007).
- Separate measures exist for academic, social, and health self-efficacy.
- Specific measures better predict positive outcomes than more global measures.
Hope
(Charles Snyder and Shane Lopez)

Hope involves the will to get there (agency), and different ways to get there (pathways).
Bottom-up predictors of subjective well-being
Bottom-up predictors of subjective well-being

• Money, income, and wealth
• Age
• Race
• Education
• Politics
• Climate
Money, income, and wealth

• Cross-cultural studies are quite consistent in finding a significant relationship between income and subjective well-being in various countries (Biswas-Diener, 2008).

• A recent longitudinal analysis spanning 33 years in the United States found that being in the lower quarter of income distribution reduced the odds of being happy by about 26%, while being in the upper quarter increased the odds by about 13% (Yang, 2008).

• Being poor decreased the odds more than being wealthier increased the odds.

• A study that examined happiness reported by people included on Forbes’ annual list of wealthiest Americans found them somewhat happier than others (Diener, Horowitz, & Emmons, 1985).

• Living in a wealthier country and having more money within it tends to increase happiness.
The picture is more complicated

1. All studies agree that the relationship between income and subjective well-being is curvilinear (Biswas-Diener, 2008).
   • Tipping point: $75,000 (Kahneman & Deaton, 2010)

2. The cross-cultural data on GDP and well-being do not apply in every country.
   • In 2010 the World Database on Happiness listed Guatemala among the 10 happiest countries on earth, and in 2008 the World Values Survey listed Puerto Rico and Columbia among the top 10 happiest countries with impoverished El Salvador the 11th (see Business Week, 2008).
The picture is more complicated

- Study conducted in the slums of Calcutta, India.
- Positive levels of life satisfaction were found among those who lived in extreme poverty, although satisfaction levels were still lower than those of more prosperous groups in India (Biswa-Diener & Diener, 2001).
- Homeless street people in Calcutta reported higher satisfaction than their counterparts in the United States.
The picture is more complicated

- People who choose a “voluntary simplicity” or “environmentally friendly” lifestyle often achieve a high level of subjective well-being despite their low income (Brown & Kasser, 2005; Jacob & Brinkerhoff, 1999).
The picture is more complicated

**Figure 3.2** Income and Percent Very Happy by Years

SOURCE: Income data from U.S. Commerce Department, Bureau of the Census, and Economic Indicator; happiness data from General Social Surveys, National Opinion Research Center, University of Chicago; data compiled by David G. Myers. Used with permission.
More complications

- Studies conducted on lottery winners have shown that most people return to their prior level of happiness relatively quickly (Brickman, Coates, & Janoff-Bulman, 1978).
More complications

• As people earn more money, they tend to consume more, which may lead to increases in materialism (Headey, Muffels, & Wooden, 2008).
• Increases in materialism are associated with decreases in subjective well-being over time, while decreases in materialism are associated with increases in well-being (Kasser et al., 2004).
• “The cycle of thrilling purchase, excitement fade, and subsequent desire for new material possessions lends itself to materialism and decreased well-being (Dunn, 2018).”
More complications

• High earning households ($100,000+ year) donate a smaller percentage of income to charity each year than low earning households (under $25,000 per year; Piff et al., 2010; Flores, 2010; Lyubomirsky, 2010).

• People made to feel that they occupy a higher relative social class give less to charities than those led to feel that they inhabited a lower social class (Piff et al., 2010).

• Higher income people tend to be less likely to have egalitarian ideals and show empathy toward strangers (Piff et al., 2010).
More complications

- People who earn more than $100,000/year spend more of their time engaging in unenjoyable activities (e.g., grocery shopping, commuting, etc.), and less time engaging in passive leisure than those earning less than $20,000/year (Kahneman et al., 2006).
Paradox of Choice
More complications

• Schor (1999) reported a survey in 1995 of people who earned more than $100,000 per year ($148,270 in 2011 U.S. dollars).
• Incredibly, 27% of those surveyed stated they could not afford everything they “really need[ed]” and 19% said they spent all their income on “basic necessities” (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 1999).
• People who hold “financial success” as their core value tend to report lower global adjustment ratings and more behavior disorders (Kasser & Ryan, 1993).
More complications

• The act of gazing at relatively small amounts of money while engaged in unrelated tasks results in people enjoying these tasks less. Their capacity to enjoy life’s little pleasures is undermined (Quoidbach et al., 2010).

• Viewing money also causes people to be more solitary and less willing to help others or donate funds to social causes (Vohs, Mead, & Goode, 2008).
More complications

• The act of gazing at luxury goods leads to increased self-interest (Chua & Zou, 2009).

• When people worked toward goals involving wealth, fame, or beauty, their well-being decreased (Niemiec et al., 2009).
Can money increase subjective well-being?

• Spending money on “experiential purchases” is more associated with personal happiness than spending on “material purchases” (Van Boven & Gilovich, 2003).

• Priming people to think about having more time for social connections tended to increase happiness, but priming them to think about money did not (Mogilner, 2010).
Can money increase subjective well-being?

- “Friends are worth more than a new Ferrari” (see Powdthavee & Wilkinson, 2010).
  - Excellent health ($2,000,000)
  - Marriage ($323,000)
  - Regularly talking to neighbors ($184,000)
- Successfully completing psychotherapy is at least 32 times more cost-effective in raising happiness than gaining more income (Boyce & Wood, 2011)
- Increasing the frequency of sexual intercourse from once a month to once a week increased happiness as much as a $50,000 raise in salary (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004; Oliviero, 2005)
Can money increase subjective well-being?

- Spending money on opportunities for personal growth can also increase subjective well-being.
Can money increase subjective well-being?

- Spending money on time saving activities can increase subjective well-being.
Can money increase subjective well-being?

Happiness does not consist in having what you want, but in wanting what you have

~ Confucius
Bottom-up predictors of subjective well-being

- Money, income, and wealth
- Age
- Race
- Education
- Politics
- Climate
Age

- Older people tend to be more satisfied with life than younger people (Diener & Suh, 2000; Yang, 2008).
Age

- Possible reasons:
  - Older people have a smaller discrepancy between their life goals and accomplishments (Cheng, 2004),
  - Satisfaction with social relationships is higher and more important for older people (Herzog, Rogers, & Woodworth, 1982),
  - Greater self-efficacy and optimism (Jopp & Rott, 2006),
  - Higher sense of autonomy (Sheldon et al., 2005),
  - A more realistic view of the future (Lachman et al., 2008),
  - A more successful resolution of developmental life stages (Sheldon & Kasser, 2001),
  - A greater sense of meaning (Dzuka & Dalbert, 2006),
  - Less frequent and intense negative emotions (Csikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1984).
Race

• Studies in the United States find that white Americans tend to report higher subjective well-being than African-Americans, Latinos, or Native Americans (Argyle, 1999; Yang, 2008).
• In the past 30 years, and especially after 1995, disparities in subjective well-being between African-Americans and whites in the United States has been diminishing (Yang, 2008).
• Asian-Americans tend to report high self-esteem as well as levels of happiness comparable to that of Caucasian-Americans (Chang, 2001).
• Although rates of depression may be higher among Asian-Americans, especially among young women than Americans of European background (Oishi, 2001).
Race

• In a study of African-Americans, the significant predictors of happiness and life satisfaction included being older; being married; having more income; attending religious services; having good health; and having friends with whom to discuss important issues (Taylor et al., 2001).

• These predictors were almost identical to significant predictors for other racial groups.
Education

• A college degree can increase the odds of being happy by about 73% (Yang, 2008).

• Once an individual attains a middle-class income level, further education does not impact happiness in any significant way (Diener, Suh, Lucas, & Smith, 1999).
Politics

- Republicans are both more satisfied with their lives and happier than either Democrats or Independents.
- Republicans are more likely than democrats to have higher income, be married, attend church, be healthier, have higher positive expectations of their future, and tend to believe their career success is due to their own efforts (Taylor, 2008).
Climate

- Climate does have an impact on moods.
- Hawaii is consistently rated among the three “happiest” states.
- Pleasant warm weather does improve mood but only in the spring (Keller et al., 2005).
Happiest man in America
Is there a down-side to feeling happy?
Is there a down-side to feeling too happy?

• Diener & Seligman (2002) studied “very happy” undergraduates (those scoring in the upper 10% of happiness).

• The very happy people were highly social, and had stronger romantic and other social relationships.

• They were more extraverted, agreeable, and emotionally stable.

• They did not exercise more, or experience more objectively defined good events.

• Although experiencing more positive emotions, they did not report many ecstatic emotions, and they said they occasionally felt negative emotions as well.

• “This suggests that very happy people do have a functioning emotion system that can react appropriately to life events.”
Is there a down-side to feeling too happy?

• Diener and Seligman also collected reports from people who scored a “10”.
• The 10’s were worst off than those who scored an “8” or “9” (Oishi, Dienr, & Lucas, 2007).
• Those who scored less than 10 were more successful than the super happy people in several areas, including income, educational achievement, and political participation.
• Researchers concluded that a 7 or 8 on happiness may be enough for daily well-being.
Is there a down-side to feeling too happy?

- When happy people make decisions, they are prone to more stereotypical thinking, rely on shortcuts too often, and are less likely to check for errors (Lyubormirsky, King, & Diener, 2005).
- Too hastily form opinions of others (Forgas, 201).
- Being in a positive mood makes us more selfish (Tan & Forgas, 2010).
Can Seeking Happiness Make People Happy? Paradoxical Effects of Valuing Happiness

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Boston College and Hebrew University

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Nicole S. Savino  
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Happiness is a key ingredient of well-being. It is thus reasonable to expect that valuing happiness will have beneficial outcomes. We argue that this may not always be the case. Instead, valuing happiness could be self-defeating, because the more people value happiness, the more likely they will feel disappointed. This should apply particularly in positive situations, in which people have every reason to be happy. Two studies support this hypothesis. In Study 1, female participants who valued happiness more (vs. less) reported lower happiness when under conditions of low, but not high, life stress. In Study 2, compared to a control group, female participants who were experimentally induced to value happiness reacted less positively to a happy, but not a sad, emotion induction. This effect was mediated by participants’ disappointment at their own feelings. Paradoxically, therefore, valuing happiness may lead people to be less happy just when happiness is within reach.

Keywords: happiness, goal pursuit, emotion regulation, well-being
BRIEF REPORT

The Pursuit of Happiness Can Be Lonely

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Few things seem more natural and functional than wanting to be happy. We suggest that, counter to this intuition, valuing happiness may have some surprising negative consequences. Specifically, because striving for personal gains can damage connections with others and because happiness is usually defined in terms of personal positive feelings (a personal gain) in western contexts, striving for happiness might damage people's connections with others and make them lonely. In 2 studies, we provide support for this hypothesis. Study 1 suggests that the more people value happiness, the lonelier they feel on a daily basis (assessed over 2 weeks with diaries). Study 2 provides an experimental manipulation of valuing happiness and demonstrates that inducing people to value happiness leads to relatively greater loneliness, as measured by self-reports and a hormonal index (progesterone). In each study, key potential confounds, such as positive and negative affect, were ruled out. These findings suggest that wanting to be happy can make people lonely.

Keywords: pursuit of happiness, loneliness, progesterone, well-being, emotion regulation
Meaning
Three Meanings of Meaning
(Martela & Steger, 2015)

• Coherence
• Purpose
• Significance/Mattering (existential meaning)
Happiness vs. Meaning

• The essence of happiness consists of having needs and wants satisfied.

• In contrast, meaningfulness points to more distinctively human activities, such as expressing oneself and thinking integratively about the past, present, and future.

• “Humans may resemble many other creatures in their striving for happiness, but the quest for meaning is a key part of what makes us human, and uniquely so.” – Roy Baumeister
Difference between meaning and happiness (Baumeister, 1992)

- The “parenthood paradox”: In retrospect, parents usually report that they are very glad they had children, but parents living with children usually score very low on happiness indicators.
Difference between meaning and happiness (Baumeister, 1992)

• Revolutionaries may feel unhappy about their miserable living conditions, but the passionate fight for a cherished cause may infuse their lives with meaning.
Some key differences between a happy life and a meaningful life

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Being happy and finding life meaningful overlap, but there are important differences. A large survey revealed multiple differing predictors of happiness (controlling for meaning) and meaningfulness (controlling for happiness). Satisfying one’s needs and wants increased happiness but was largely irrelevant to meaningfulness. Happiness was largely present oriented, whereas meaningfulness involves integrating past, present, and future. For example, thinking about future and past was associated with high meaningfulness but low happiness. Happiness was linked to being a taker rather than a giver, whereas meaningfulness went with being a giver rather than a taker. Higher levels of worry, stress, and anxiety were linked to higher meaningfulness but lower happiness. Concerns with personal identity and expressing the self contributed to meaning but not happiness. We offer brief composite sketches of the unhappy but meaningful life and of the happy but meaningless life.

Keywords: meaning; happiness; self; relationships; satisfaction with life
Happiness vs. Meaning

• Happiness
  • “In general I consider myself happy.”
  • “Taking all things together, I feel I am happy.”
  • “Compared to most of my peers, I consider myself happy.”

• Meaning
  • “In general I consider my life to be meaningful.”
  • “Compared to most of my peers, my life is meaningful.”
  • “Taking all things together, I feel my life is meaningful.”
Table 2. Past, present, and future.

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<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Meaningfulness</th>
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<td>Thinking about</td>
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<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>$-0.32^{**}$</td>
<td>0.08$^+$</td>
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<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>0.10$^*$</td>
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<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>$-0.18^{***}$</td>
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<td>Past &amp; future (combined)</td>
<td>$-0.31^{***}$</td>
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<td>Imagining the future</td>
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<tr>
<td>Feeling connected to others</td>
<td>0.37***</td>
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<td>Recalling hours spent alone (T2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>How many positive events</td>
<td>0.18***</td>
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<td>How many negative events</td>
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<td>Reflect on struggles and</td>
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<td>Expecting to spend time deep</td>
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<td>Working*</td>
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<td>0.19***</td>
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<td>0.16***</td>
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<td>0.02</td>
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<td>0.28***</td>
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<tr>
<td>Partyng without alcohol</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading for pleasure</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading for work</td>
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<td>0.10*</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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<td>0.11*</td>
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<td>0.10*</td>
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<td>Texting</td>
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<td>Social networking</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fixing IT problems</td>
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<tr>
<td>Buying gifts for others</td>
<td>−0.13*</td>
<td>0.27***</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Buying gifts for self</td>
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<td>0.04</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consider myself (all T3)</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wise</td>
<td>−0.06</td>
<td>0.33***</td>
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<tr>
<td>Creative</td>
<td>−0.03</td>
<td>0.18**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Anxious</td>
<td>−0.41***</td>
<td>0.16**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reward yourself (yes=1; no=2)</td>
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<td>−0.13*</td>
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A longitudinal follow-up study of happiness and meaning-making

Jo Ann A. Abe*

Department of Psychology, Southern Connecticut State University, 501 Crescent St., New Haven, CT 06515, USA

(Received 15 June 2015; accepted 29 October 2015)

The long-term outcomes associated with happiness and meaning-making were examined by following up on participants in previous studies on experiential learning an average of 2.5 years later. Measures of happiness and meaning-making were extracted by analyzing the participants’ journals using a computerized text-analysis program. Happiness as assessed by a composite measure of positive emotionality showed weak associations with the measures of adaptive functioning, and was negatively correlated with optimism, as well as positively correlated with emotion suppression. By contrast, meaning-making as assessed by composite measures of cognitive processing and self-distancing was robustly positively correlated with almost all measures of adaptive functioning. Regression analyses revealed that the two measures of meaning and their interaction term accounted for 20–24% of the variance in predicting the outcome measures. This study revealed that there may be at times a trade-off between happiness and meaning-making as well as a reversal in their patterns of long-term outcomes.

Keywords: happiness; meaning-making; self-distancing; longitudinal; text-analysis; LIWC
Meaning as Magnetic Force: Evidence That Meaning in Life Promotes Interpersonal Appeal

Tyler F. Stillman, Nathaniel M. Lambert, Frank D. Fincham, and Roy F. Baumeister

Abstract
The authors report on data indicating that having a strong sense of meaning in life makes people more appealing social interactants. In Study 1, participants were videotaped while conversing with a friend, and the interactions were subsequently rated by independent evaluators. Participants who had reported a strong sense of meaning in life were rated as desirable friends. In Study 2, participants made 10-s videotaped introductions of themselves that were subsequently evaluated by independent raters. Those who reported a strong sense of meaning in life were rated as more likeable, better potential friends, and more desirable conversation partners. The effect of meaning in life was beyond that of several other variables, including self-esteem, happiness, extraversion, and agreeableness. Study 2 also found an interaction between physical attractiveness and meaning in life, with more meaning in life contributing to greater interpersonal appeal for those of low and average physical attractiveness.

Keywords
meaning, thin slices, social perception, impression formation, leadership
What else contributes to well-being?
Carol Ryff model of eudamonia
Table 1
Descriptive Statistics of Theoretically Grounded Scales of Psychological Well-Being

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
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<tr>
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<td>.46</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.22</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Environmental Mastery</td>
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<td>38</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.23</td>
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<td>3. Positive Relations</td>
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<td>—</td>
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<td>.16</td>
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<td>4. Purpose in Life</td>
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<td>—</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>.13</td>
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<td>5. Personal Growth</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>—</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Autonomy</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>α</td>
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<td>.49</td>
<td>.56</td>
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<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>14.6</td>
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<td>14.8</td>
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<td>SD</td>
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<td>3.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
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</table>

Note. All correlation coefficients are statistically significant at the .05 level.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Prior measures</th>
<th>New scales</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Ryff (1989b)</td>
<td>1. Happiness</td>
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<td></td>
<td>a. Affect balance</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Negative affect</td>
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<td></td>
<td>c. Positive affect</td>
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<tr>
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<td>2. Satisfaction</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a. Life Satisfaction Index</td>
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<td>3. Depression</td>
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<td></td>
<td>a. Zung Depression Scale</td>
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<td>-.59</td>
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<td>Ryff et al. (1994)</td>
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<td>a. Single item, global</td>
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<td>2. Satisfaction</td>
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<td>a. Single item, global</td>
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<td>3. Depression</td>
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<td>a. CES-D</td>
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<tr>
<td>Present study</td>
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<td>a. Single item, amount during past month</td>
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<td>2. Satisfaction</td>
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<td></td>
<td>a. Single item, rate life overall</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3. Depression</td>
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<td></td>
<td>a. Dysfunctional energy</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. Dysfunctional affect</td>
<td>-.45</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Note. SA = Self-Acceptance; PR = Positive Relations With Others; PL = Purpose in Life; PG = Personal Growth; AU = Autonomy; EM = Environmental Mastery; CES-D = Center for Epidemiological Study Depression Scale (Radloff, 1977).

1 Affect Balance (Bradburn, 1969), Negative Affect, and Positive Affect are the subscales that comprise Affect Balance; Life Satisfaction Index (Neugarten et al., 1961); Zung Depression Scale (Zung, 1965).
2 The happiness item is: “All things considered, how happy are you?” The satisfaction item is: “Thinking about your life as a whole, how satisfied are you?”
3 Not statistically significant at the .05 alpha level. All other coefficients are statistically significant at least at the .05 alpha level.

SA= Self-acceptance; PR= Positive Relations; PL= Purpose in Life; PG= Personal Growth; AU= Autonomy; EM= Environmental Mastery
SWB vs. PWB
Figure 1. Age differences on the six 3-item measures of psychological well-being. Env. Mastery = Environmental Mastery.
PERMA (Seligman, 2012)

Are you Permalicious?

- Engagement
- Positive Relationships
- Positive Emotions
- Accomplishments
- Meaning

SWB vs. PERMA
(Fallon, Disabato, Kashdan, & Kaufman, 2017)
11 Dimensions of Well-Being

1. High Positive emotions (high frequency and intensity of positive moods and emotions)
2. Low negative emotions (low frequency and intensity of negative moods and emotions)
3. Life satisfaction (a positive subjective evaluation of one's life, using any information the person considers relevant)
4. Authenticity ("owning oneself"—Being independent and able to resist social pressures, taking responsibility for one's actions)
5. Environmental mastery (Ability to shape environments to suit one's needs and desires)
6. Personal growth (Continuing to develop, rather than achieving a fixed state)
7. Positive relations (Having warm and trusting interpersonal relationships)
8. Self-acceptance (Positive attitudes toward oneself)
9. Purpose and meaning in life (A clear sense of direction and meaning in one's efforts, or a connection to something greater than oneself)
10. Engagement with life (being absorbed, interested, and involved in activities and life)
11. Accomplishment (goal progress and attainment, and feelings of mastery, efficacy, and competence)
Personality Predictors of Well-Being
(Sun, Kaufman, & Smillie, 2017)

- Extraversion (Enthusiasm/Social Vitality)
- Agreeableness (Compassion)
- Conscientiousness (Industriousness/Grit)
- Low Neuroticism (Lack of withdrawal, worrying, rumination, self-consciousness)
- Openness to New Experience (Intellectual Curiosity and Creative Openness)
Not Independently Predictive of Well-Being

- Politeness
- Orderliness
- Emotional Volatility