1	Abstract
2	Reporting a high level of meaning in one's life has been found to impact an individual's
3	wellbeing and mental health in a positive way. However, the majority of meaning-
4	orientated interventions have been developed to help individuals cope with adversity, while
5	limited interventions have focused on promoting, flourishing, and preventing mental
6	illnesses in the general population. This research aimed to develop and test an online
7	meaning in life intervention aimed at the general population. Based on a theoretical
8	framework of meaning in life and empirically validated approaches, a convenience sample
9	of Icelandic adults ($N = 177$) participated in a Randomised Control Trial (RCT) and were
10	assigned to one of two interventions or an active control group. The hypothesis stated that a
11	Motivational Meaning Intervention and Cognitive Motivational Meaning Intervention
12	would result in greater perceptions of self-reported Meaning in Life, Subjective Wellbeing,
13	Psychological Wellbeing and Positive Affect compared to a control condition. The results
14	showed that both interventions enhanced positive affect while neither intervention
15	increased meaning in life, subjective wellbeing nor psychological wellbeing. The
16	interventions appear to be inexpensive, easily administered, and effective in increasing
17	positive affect which is a major contributor to an individual's wellbeing. The study offers
18	meaningful conclusions and future avenues to enhance intervention studies to develop
19	essential elements of wellbeing and human functioning within general populations.
20	Keywords: Meaning in life, positive affect, intervention, goal-setting, life story review
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A meaning in life intervention: Setting personal goals and reviewing life story increases positive affect

Meaning in life (MIL) is considered a key component of psychological wellbeing (PWB; Ryff, 1989), a form of positive psychological functioning that includes living well, responsibly and successfully. Studies have demonstrated that experiencing MIL is a major contributor to people's wellbeing (Steger et al., 2009) both as a protective factor (Brassai et al., 2011) and as a resource of adaptive coping (Thompson et al., 2003).

Martela and Steger (2016) defined MIL mainly by three facets: coherence, purpose and significance while also noting other potential avenues warrant further explorations such as an affective component (Reker & Wong, 1988, 2012), a behavioural component and existential meaning (Wong, 2010). Coherence, often referred to as the cognitive component of MIL, refers to comprehending and making sense of our experiences, ourselves and the world around us (Heintzelman & King, 2014). Purpose, also considered the motivational component, means having an aspiring direction and aim in life (George & Park, 2013). Significance, which refers to the evaluative component of MIL, is perceiving that life is valuable and worth living (Martela & Steger, 2016). Martela & Steger (2016) argue that the three facets relate to different dimensions of human experience, and therefore future studies would benefit from studying these facets separately. Experiencing a high level of MIL is widely considered to be crucial to our wellbeing. Higher levels of MIL have been positively associated with psychological wellbeing across the human lifespan from adolescence to older adulthood (Steger et al., 2009; Zika & Chamberlain, 1992). High meaning in life is also associated with higher life satisfaction (Steger & Kashdan, 2007), longevity (Hill & Turiano, 2014), happiness (Steger et al., 2009), health (Steger et al., 2009) and positive affect (PA), the experience of positive feelings in one's life (Diener et al., 1985; Hicks & King, 2009; Watson et al., 1988). Poor MIL is related to addiction problems (Nicholson et

al., 1994), increased risk of suicide attempts over a lifetime (Kleiman & Beaver, 2013), negative affect (Zika & Chamberlain, 1992) and mental health disorders such as anxiety (Debats et al., 1993) and depression (Steger & Kashdan, 2009). While acknowledging the limitations of correlational design which the majority of studies in the field of MIL use, the cumulation of studies suggests that MIL may be a major contributor to our wellbeing. Therefore, promoting interventions that focus on increasing MIL could potentially promote flourishing and psychological wellbeing. Moreover, these interventions could help individuals cope with and potentially prevent mental health challenges.

Despite the importance of MIL to an individual's wellbeing, studies on how to promote MIL are limited (Shin & Steger, 2014). The majority of meaning-orientated interventions have been developed to help individuals cope with difficulties by finding meaning in their trauma and illnesses (Breitbart et al., 2010; Guerrero-Torrelles et al, 2017; Henry et al., 2010; Rodin et al, 2018, Saeedi et al, 2019; Wong, 2010) or psychological difficulties among the clinical population (Guo et al, 2013; Lan et al, 2018; Lee et al., 2006; Wright et al., 2007). Although finding meaning in difficult experiences is important in order to restore wellbeing (Park & Folkman, 1997), studies that test empirically validated ways to increase MIL outside the clinical population are lacking (Shin & Steger, 2014). Wong (2010) illustrated that comprehensive meaning-orientated interventions are applicable to promote flourishing within the general population; however, only a few intervention studies have focused solely on enhancing MIL to promote flourishing and prevent mental illnesses within the general population (Costin & Vignoles, 2020; Howell, Passmore & Holder, 2016; Klein, 2017; Littman-Ovadia & Steger, 2010; Magee, 1998).

Several studies have assessed the effectiveness of an intervention on MIL. Within the general population, studies demonstrated that prosocial behaviour (Klein, 2017), strength

enhanced MIL.

endorsement (Littman-Ovadia & Steger, 2010), photography intervention (Steger et al,
2014; 2013) and induced positive affect (King et al., 2006) increased MIL. Among the
clinical population, psychotherapy, mindfulness- and narrative program (Manco & Hamby,
2021), psychological meaning-centred therapy and logotherapy (Vos & Vitali, 2018)

Shin & Steger (2014) proposed that an ideal MIL intervention could be composed of exercises that target both the cognitive and the motivational components of MIL, however, a recent study by Costin & Vignoles (2020) showed that the evaluative component, significance, defined as a sense of mattering, was a significant precursor of experiencing MIL where purpose and coherence did not. Although Costin & Vingoles suggested that research should attend more to a sense of mattering, studies have also argued that as a result of targeting the cognitive and motivational components, individuals obtain greater coherence and purpose which strengthens the evaluative component of MIL. Significance is perceived when individuals pursue worthwhile goals and have a sense of comprehension in their lives (George & Park, 2013; Martela & Steger, 2016; Reker & Wong, 1988, 2012).

The aim of this study was to focus on intervention on MIL cognitive- and motivational components. Regarding the intervention to target the cognitive component of the MIL, the literature argues that fostering life narratives (McAdams, 1993) assists individuals in gaining greater self-knowledge and personal meaning in life. Similar techniques which aim to facilitate deeper self-understanding and personal meaning can be seen elsewhere such as in narrative therapy (White, 2007), guided autobiography (Birren & Birren, 1996) and guided reminiscence (Wong & Watt, 1999). One way of developing a life narrative is through the construction of life stories (McAdams et al., 2006). A life story in this context, and for the purpose of this study, is an articulated narrative of one's self that integrates and

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reconstructs previous experiences into future or present life contexts (McAdams, 1993). Articulating one's life story increases coherence as they shape how oneself, other individuals, events, and actions can be experienced as meaningful (Stelter, 2009). By construing a life story individuals obtain knowledge of who they are and how they became that person (Bruner, 1990). Furthermore, they construe how events and other persons have influenced their identity and learning in life (Erikson, 1968). Life story coherence has shown to be statistically positively related to psychological wellbeing (Baerger & McAdams, 1999). To target the cognitive component based on the MIL framework, the present study asked individuals to write their life stories where they reflect on prior experiences and events in their lives (McAdams, 2008). In relation to the intervention for the motivational component of MIL, it has been suggested by various authors that people may cultivate a sense of purpose by discerning, setting and engaging in personal, meaningful goals (Emmons, 1999; Sheldon et al., 2002; Ryff & Singer, 1998). Goals are considered to serve as an important element of purpose since they orient individuals towards a meaningful path (Reker & Wong 1988). The role of goals in promoting wellbeing has been well demonstrated (Brunstein, 1993; McKnight & Kashdan, 2009). Having personal goals gives order and structure to people's lives (Emmons, 1986) and contributes to self-discovery and psychological need satisfaction (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999; Sheldon & Kasser, 1998). Meaningful goals enhance psychological wellbeing, positive affect, self-efficacy and life satisfaction as well as undermine the effects of frustration, disappointment and anxiety (Brunstein, 1993; Emmons & Diener, 1986; Emmons, 1986; Morisano et al., 2010). Having goals will not necessarily contribute to a sense of purpose except for self-concordant goals which are goals that are integrated into one's interest and authentic self (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). Consequently, to target the motivational component, participants set personal goals and reflected on them in a structured manner and considered their motives behind them

(Morisano et al., 2010; Sheldon et al., 2002). Participants were encouraged to think about goals that connect to sources which people derive meaning from in their lives such as social life, leisure activity, family life, school, career and health (Wong, 2012).

The purpose of the current study was to investigate whether it is possible to develop an effective empirically validated MIL intervention. To address the research question, the study will assess whether a Cognitive Motivational Meaning Intervention (CMMI) which combines the interventions of the cognitive and the motivational component of MIL will result in greater MIL, PWB, PA and Subjective wellbeing (SWB) defined as cognitive judgement of happiness, compared to a control group. As it has been indicated necessary for future MIL studies to investigate whether dissimilar components of MIL will influence different psychological outcomes (Martela & Steger, 2016), the study will also assess whether the CMMI will increase all variables more than a Motivational Meaning Intervention (MMI) which solely consist of the intervention of the motivational component of MIL. Based on the MIL framework and prior studies (Baerger & McAdams, 1999; Brunstein, 1993; Martela & Steger, 2016; McKnight & Kashdan, 2009; King et al., 2006) it is hypothesized that the interventions will enhance MIL, PWB, SWB and PA compared to a control condition. The secondary hypothesis of the study is that the CMMI will enhance all variables to a greater extent than MMI.

141 Method

Participants

A convenience sample of participants was recruited through the researcher's personal Instagram and Facebook platforms which are known for psychology, wellbeing and health. Individuals were encouraged to participate with information regarding the research through Facebook posts and Instagram stories along with an anonymous link to an online survey system (Qualtrics). To increase awareness of the study, the researcher asked friends, family members

and his social media followers to share the posts. A poll was created in Instagram stories that asked whether individuals were interested in participating in the research. All individuals who were interested were sent a message which contained a detailed description of the study. The sample population were Icelandic individuals within the age range of eighteen to thirty-five. Participation was completely voluntary, and no type of reward was offered.

All participants who completed the study answered the questionnaires and fulfilled the criteria of the interventions were included in the sample. Of the 185 participants, eight were excluded from the study due to missing data. Those participants went through the whole study without answering any questionnaires nor writing anything in the intervention section. Participants who failed to complete several questions or participate in the interventions to a full extent were included in the sample.

Of the 177 participants who were included, 44 (24.9%) identified as male and 133 (75.1%) as female. The mean age was 24.28 years (SD=4.94). Participants were randomly assigned to one of three conditions: A Cognitive Motivational Meaning intervention (n=42), a Motivational Meaning intervention (n=65) and a control condition (n=70). All participants read an information letter and gave informed consent before participation.

Materials

Questionnaires were distributed using Qualtrics, an online survey system.

Demographic data were obtained with self-reported answers about participants' age and gender followed by questionnaires about meaning in life, psychological wellbeing, subjective wellbeing, positive affect and negative affect. All versions of the questions and questionnaires which were utilized in the study were considered to be the optimal means to achieve the purpose of the study among the Icelandic population. It was emphasized by the researcher and the supervisors to use translated scales which have demonstrated good psychometric properties in Iceland. All of the scales and the chosen items except the

Flourishing Scale (Diener et al., 2010) have been frequently used in Icelandic studies (Embætti Landlæknis, 2017).

Meaning in Life was measured with three items from the Meaning in Life Questionnaire (MLQ; Steger, Frazier, Oishi, & Kaler, 2006). The items measure the presence of MIL with questions such as "My life has a clear sense of purpose". Items were rated on a four-point Likert scale from 1 (absolutely untrue) to 4 (absolutely true). The total score could range from 3 to 12 and a higher total score reflected a higher presence of MIL. The questionnaire was translated into Icelandic by Embætti landlæknis (2017) and has been used to assess the mental health of the Icelandic population since 2007. MLQ has shown robust psychometric properties (Steger et al., 2006) and the Cronbach's alpha in the present study indicated good internal consistency pre ($\alpha = .839$) and post interventions ($\alpha = .870$).

Psychological wellbeing was assessed by the Flourishing Scale (FS; Diener et al., 2010) translated into Icelandic by the researcher of the study with the assistance of a professional translator, Pórhildur Lárusdóttir. FS is a brief 8-item instrument with statements such as "I am engaged and interested in my daily activities" which provide a single psychological wellbeing score. Items were measured with a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). A higher combined score indicated greater psychological wellbeing. The FS has demonstrated good psychometric properties (Diener et al., 2010) and in this study, Cronbach's alpha showed good internal consistency (α = .861) prior to and excellent (α = .922) post assigned conditions.

Subjective wellbeing was evaluated with a single item that asks: "On the whole, how happy do you consider yourself to be?". The question was scored on a 10-point Likert scale from 1 (very unhappy) to 10 (very happy) and a higher score reflected greater subjective wellbeing. This single item has been used to assess subjective wellbeing among Icelanders since 2007 (Embætti Landlæknis, 2017). Studies have demonstrated that measuring SWB

with a single item is valid and reliable in surveys and cross-cultural comparisons (Abdel-Khalek, 2006) and perform very similar when compared to multiple item measurements on the same construct (Cheung & Lucas, 2014). Single item SWB measure has shown good concurrent and convergent validity (Abdel-Khalek, 2006).

Positive and Negative Affect was measured with the Positive and Negative affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988) which was translated into Icelandic by Ragna B. Garðarsdóttir. PANAS measures mood with two 10-item scales which include adjectives that describe various feelings and emotions. One scale measures Positive Affect (PA) with items such as Enthusiastic, Determined and Proud while the other scale assesses Negative Affect (NA) with items like Hostile, Scared and Upset. A 5-point Likert scale from 1 (Very Slightly or Not at all) to 10 (Extremely) was used to evaluate how participants felt at the present moment. PA and NA total scores are combined respectively and a higher summary score reflected higher PA or NA. PANAS has demonstrated robust psychometric properties (Watson et al., 1988) and the Cronbach's alpha in this study indicated good internal consistency for NA (α = .899) and PA (α = .827) prior to the interventions and excellent for NA (α = .936) and good for PA (α = .860) post interventions.

Procedure

This study used a 3x2 mixed factorial design to compare scores between three conditions before and after interventions. The independent variable was a between-subject variable that contained three conditions: Cognitive Motivational Meaning Intervention (CMMI), Motivational Meaning Intervention (MMI) and an active control condition. The within dependent variables were MIL, PWB, SWB and PA scores pre and post interventions.

Participation was briefly described in a Facebook post and through Instagram stories.

Participants were informed that to engage in the study they had to be eighteen to thirty-five years old, have an access to a computer and devote thirty to sixty minutes in a quiet setting

with minimal interruption. A link to the study was presented in the information. All study components were completed through an online Qualtrics survey system.

Participants were presented with an information letter after clicking the link which contained necessary information such as confidentiality, procedure and deceived purpose of the study. Participants could not be informed of the true purpose of the study as it could have affected the results. They were told that they would answer four questionnaires, then engage in a few writing exercises and subsequently answer four questionnaires. Before answering questions about demographics (age and gender) participants gave informed consent by clicking on the buttons below four statements only if they agreed with them. Three times throughout the study, participants were encouraged to stop if they experienced overwhelming emotions and thoughts while writing and to do something which they enjoyed such as going for a walk, meeting a friend or listening to music. If they felt in need of support they were encouraged to call a friend/family member or reach out to relevant help associations in Iceland.

The first task was to answer a series of questionnaires described in detail in the material section above. Participants were then randomly assigned to three conditions: CMMI, MMI or an active control condition. Participants in the intervention conditions were informed that (a) what they wrote was completely confidential; (b) that they should write in as much detail as possible regardless of spelling mistakes or grammatical errors and (c) they should include their deepest thoughts and emotions in their writing.

Cognitive Motivational Meaning Intervention. In the CMMI participants were first instructed to write their life story, an adapted version of the life story review (McAdams, 2008). They were asked to imagine that they were writing their life story for an individual that would like to know more about them and the things that had occurred in their lives. They were informed that their story did not have to include their whole life only the most important

parts and that what they wrote was completely up to them. To encourage their writing, they were invited to reflect on key events (positive moments, adversity or a turning point) which had influenced their lives. In addition, they were presented with a series of questions that they could rely on to support their writing such as what are the most influential memories in your life and why, what is an event or a person that has most influenced you in life, what role is the most important in your life, what moment in life are you most proud of and what is the most important thing in your life and why.

Motivational Meaning Intervention. In the second part of the CMMI participants engaged in the MMI which was adapted from the goal-setting program (Morisano et al., 2010). The intervention facilitated participants to identify personal goals and develop detailed strategies to achieve them. Through the following steps they were instructed to (a) develop a vision for the future by imagining and writing about their ideal future for fifteen minutes; (b) distinguish their ideal future into four goals and identify when they would like to achieve them; (c) and evaluate the motives and develop strategies to achieve each goal. They were informed that their ideal future and goals could relate to social life (family and friends), professional life (work/school) or personal life (leisure and health). In each step, participants were supported by a series of questions that encouraged self-reflection and self-concordant goal setting. The key difference between the experimental conditions was that CMMI included both interventions while the MMI only consisted of the MMI intervention.

Control condition. An active control group was utilized as a baseline for the experimental conditions of the study. The control group participated in two tasks. The purpose of these tasks was to match the writing aspects of the CMMI and MMI. The first task was to imagine and write about the last twenty-four hours in their lives for fifteen minutes. The second task was to reflect on the two aforementioned activities in greater detail for ten minutes. All participants were instructed to write constantly regardless of

spelling mistakes or grammatical errors. They were asked to write in a detailed, serious and objective manner with minimal emotional expression.

All participants answered the same questionnaires subsequent to engaging in the writing assignments. Finally, they were presented with a debrief letter containing detailed information about the true purpose of the study. All participants were appreciated for their participation.

The data from the Qualtrics survey was converted into IBM SPSS software version 24. Numeric values were used to represent the missing data, items were coded into the aforementioned variables of the study, assumptions were assessed and relevant statistical tests were administrated in SPSS.

Data analysis

All analysis of the study was conducted in SPSS. Scale reliability was evaluated with Cronbach's alpha coefficients. To assess the main hypothesis of the study, five separate statistical tests of two-way mixed-design ANOVA were used to compare MIL, PWB, SWB, PA and NA scores between the conditions at baseline and postintervention.

The assumption of normality was violated for all conditions in a vast majority of measures, assessed visually with boxplots and Q-Q plots, skewness, kurtosis and calculated z-scores and with Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests. Nevertheless, the test was utilized as ANOVA is considered robust to data that is not normally distributed (Field, 2013). The assumption of homogeneity of variances and covariances was met for all analyses.

Seven significant outliers were found by looking at studentized residuals (SRE) that were greater than ± 3 . They did not affect the results assessed by conducting a two-way ANOVA with and without outliers (Field, 2013). When assessing MIL two outliers with an SRE value of -3.52 were removed to meet the assumption of homogeneity of variances. Data transformation did not correct non-normality.

Results

Baseline measures

Measures pre intervention were conducted to assess whether conditions differed at baseline. No significant difference was found in gender $\chi(2)=1.13$, p=.57. and age (F(2,153)=1.29, p=.28 when comparing participants in the CMMI condition (n=42), MMI condition (n=65) and Control condition (n=70). There were no significant baseline differences between CMMI, MMI and the control condition in PWB (F(2,174)=.27, p=.76, SWB) (F(2,174)=.23, p=.80, MIL) (F(2,174)=.23, p=.48, PA) (F(2,174)=.73, p=.48, PA) and NA (F(2,174)=.26, p=.78) (see table 1 for means and standard deviations of each condition).

Table 1

Dependent Variable Measures at Baseline

	CMMI		MMI		Control		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	p
Psychological wellbeing	47.26	5.84	46.63	6.88	47.37	5.49	.76
Subjective wellbeing	7.57	1.29	7.46	1.36	7.60	1.46	.23
Meaning in life	9.38	1.79	9.02	2.43	9.43	1.96	.48
Positive affect	32.93	5.29	32.94	6.24	32.89	6.12	.73
Negative affect	17.86	6.24	18.09	7.05	17.30	6.35	.78

MIL, PWB, SWB and NA

There was a non-significant interaction between the intervention and time on MIL F(2, 167)

$$320 = 1.46, p = .24, r = .09, PWB F(2, 174) = .28, p = .76, r = .07, SWB F(2, 174) = .88, p = .42,$$

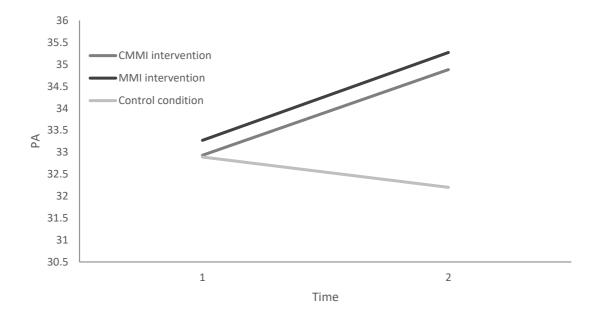
r = .07 and NA F(2,172) = .048, p = .95, r = .02 (see table 2 for means and standard deviations of the dependent variables postintervention). There was a significant main effect of time on MIL F(2,167) = 45.09, p < .001, r = .63, SWB F(2,174) = 42.49, p < .001, r = .36 and NA F(2,172) = 56.19, p < .001, r = .5

PA

There was a significant interaction between interventions and time on PA F(2, 172) = 9.21, p < .001, r = .23. To break down the interaction, two separate between subject ANOVA was used to assess the difference in PA between conditions at baseline and postintervention. There was a significant difference in PA between the conditions post intervention, F(2,172) = 3.34, p = .038, $\omega = .16$. (see figure 1 for comparison of PA changes between the condition from baseline to postintervention). PA was significantly greater in the CMMI condition and MMI condition compared to the control condition (see table 2). PA was not significantly higher in the CMMI condition compared to the MMI condition.

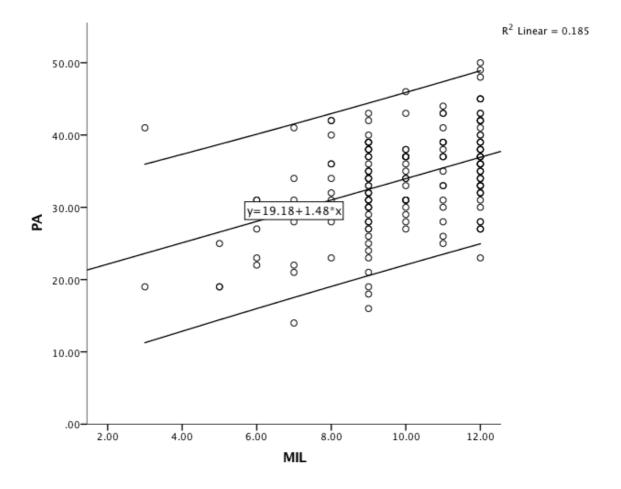
Figure 1

Condition Differences in PA from Baseline to Postintervention



Post-hoc analysis

One post-hoc analysis was executed as there is a robust relationship between PA and
MIL (King et al., 2006). A simple linear regression was conducted to assess whether MIL
was predicted by PA. A visual inspection of linearity in a scatterplot indicated a linear
relationship between the two variables. There was normality of residuals and
homoscedasticity. One outlier was found with a MIL score of 3. This participant was
included in the analysis as he did not significantly affect the results. PA significantly
predicted MIL $F(1,173) = 39.24$, $p < 0.001$ and accounted for 18.5% of the explained
variability in MIL with adjusted $R^2 = 18\%$ (see figure 2). The regression equation was:
predicted MIL = 5.64 + (.13 X PA). A higher PA score of one leads to a .13 increase in the
experience of MIL.
Figure 2
The Relationship Between PA and MIL



355 Discussion

The purpose of the study was to investigate whether it is possible to develop a brief empirically validated MIL intervention and assess whether it would increase MIL, PWB, SWB and PA. The results demonstrated that participants who engaged in goal-setting and a life story review did not experience significantly greater MIL, PWB and SWB compared to a control group. However, participants in both of the intervention conditions experienced higher PA postintervention than the active control group.

The most relevant finding of the present study was that the interventions did not increase reported MIL while they significantly increase PA compared to the control condition. These findings suggest that a brief intervention which includes setting personal goals and reviewing a life story does not appear to facilitate the experience of MIL within the

present sample. In one way, the findings do not support the main hypothesis of the study and suggest that a brief intervention which promotes MIL components is not effective in enhancing MIL. As far as the authors are aware, no randomized control trial study has assessed MIL with interventions that target the MIL components directly. The findings of the present study diverge from previous suggestions that a life story review assists individuals to increase personal meaning in life (Baerger & McAdams, 1999; Birren & Birren, 1996; McAdams, 1993; White, 2007; Wong & Watt, 1999) and studies that show that narrative programs (Manco & Hamby, 2021) and meaning-centred therapies (Vos & Vitali, 2018) enhance MIL. Furthermore, the findings from this study contradict previous findings suggesting that setting goals enhances PWB, and SWB and provide a sense of purpose (Brunstein, 1993; Emmons, 1986; Emmons, 1999).

On the other hand, the results of the study partially support the main hypotheses as they demonstrate that reviewing life stories and setting personal goals enhances PA compared to a control condition. Carver and Schier (1990, 1998) suggest that negative and positive moods provide people with feedback about their progress towards goals. Self-rated important goals have shown to be as strongly related to PA as actually attaining them (Emmons & Diener, 1986). From this point of view, setting and reflecting on personal goals may have provided participants with the information that they are making a satisfactory process towards goals that they value and consequently experience increased PA.

One potential reason for why the interventions increased PA, yet not the other outcome measures of the study, could be that PA was measured as a state while the MIL, PWB and SWB were measured as a trait. Trait scales scores pre and post an arousing or relaxing intervention tend to be less malleable while state scales scores are more sensitive to an external stimulus such as interventions if they are relevant to the state which is being measured (Zuckerman, 1983). Furthermore, variability in mood has been shown to be much

greater than variability in global SWB judgements (Eid & Diener, 2004). Thus, it may be unrealistic to report a significant change in MIL PWB, and SWB scores in thirty to eighty minutes with brief interventions. The result from this study indicate that the interventions are successful in influencing short-term state wellbeing. Whether the interventions affect long-term trait and state wellbeing remains an unanswered question for future studies as one of the limitations of the present study is it did not assess the long-term effects of the interventions. To the best of the authors' knowledge, no similar MIL interventions have been conducted longitudinally. Therefore, the results might also suggest that MIL is not meant to be facilitated quickly and requires time to develop, which could partially explain why the longer programmes such as psychotherapy, mindfulness- and narrative programs (Manco & Hamby, 2021), logotherapy and psychological meaning-centred therapies (Vos & Vitali, 2018) better facilitate MIL. Thus, potential avenue for future studies to span the content of the interventions over a greater period of time and potentially add more focused and in-depth exercises to the interventions which would allow longer contemplation among participants.

The present study answers the research question partly, however, not completely. It could be argued that the interventions of this study do not provide ample support to indicate that it is possible to develop an empirically validated MIL intervention since they do not influence MIL directly. A potential explanation for why the interventions do not directly impact MIL could be that life seems to be pretty meaningful in general. Heintzelman & King (2014) derived data from numerous studies based on representative samples which suggested that MIL is relatively high in general. The self-reported MIL mean of the present study was 9.27 which is relatively high as the highest achievable score on the scale was 12. One potential reason for the high reported MIL may be that MIL is a desired condition and thus possibly influenced by desirability biases (Paulhus & Reid, 1991). Also, individuals often

adopt an overly positive view of themselves and their lives (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009). Thus, participants may have responded in a manner that did not reflect their true reality.

On the other hand, the interventions were successful in enhancing PA which has shown to have a robust relationship with MIL (King et al., 2006). The post-hoc analysis of the current study demonstrated that PA statistically predicted MIL with a medium effect size (Cohen, 1988). Although it is unknown what part the interventions contributed to the relationship, PA and MIL appear to be related. Enhanced PA has shown to increase MIL elsewhere (King et al., 2006) and studies have demonstrated that mood is often used as information when assessing whether life is meaningful (King et al., 2006; Schwarz & Clore, 1983). PA could therefore play a critical role in the evaluative component of MIL (Martela & Steger, 2016). Consequently, it could be argued that the interventions might work as a precursor for MIL and that the study provides promising information about the possibility to develop an empirically validated MIL intervention.

Since there was no difference between the CMMI and the MMI conditions in all measures of the study, the role of writing one's life story is more ambiguous than the goal-setting. Previous research has shown that writing about life goals significantly enhances wellbeing and is less upsetting than writing about trauma (King, 2001). Writing about trauma has shown to have good long-term advantages to wellbeing and health (Pennebaker, 1997), however, recollecting upsetting experiences may produce distress in the short term. In addition, how and to what extent people make sense of their experience is a strong predictor of PWB (Alea, 2018). Interpreting a difficult event as having a positive outcome is related to greater PWB while construing experiences that have gone from good to bad predicts low levels of wellbeing (McAdams et al., 2001). Language coherence is also related to improved health and PWB when writing about past experiences (Baerger & McAdams, 1999). Thus, whether participants wrote about positive or difficult experiences, found a redemptive

element or not in their life stories and to what extent they comprehended their experiences may have influenced their answers post-intervention. The result of the present study suggests that writing about one's life story has no further benefit than solely engaging in goal setting, at least in the present population. The secondary hypothesis was therefore not supported.

Limitations

The limitations of the present study should be considered. The first limitation concerns the generalizability of the results. Participants were self-selected through a link on the researcher's social media platforms. Only people who saw the link participated in the research and people who were interested were more likely to participate in the study. Participants were also especially prone to be motivated towards self-improvement as the social media platforms of the researcher are known for psychology, wellbeing and health. Therefore, they potentially expected to benefit and experience a change in their wellbeing as a result of participating in the research.

Further limitations lie in the potential biases of self-reporting as the analysis was entirely based on self-reports. No questionnaire is truly a phenomenon in itself (Schwartz, 1999). There was an imbalance of gender distribution as 75.1% (133) of participants were female. Also, since it was an online study, participants were unable to ask directly if anything in the research was unclear.

Additionally, the current study lacked content analysis. This is relevant because Pennebaker (1997) discovered that individuals who use positive emotional words extensively, a moderate number of negative emotional words and demonstrated coherence in their writing, obtained the most benefits when writing about past experiences. Furthermore, Bearger and McAdams (1999) showed that life story coherence demonstrated a significant relationship to PWB (Baerger & McAdams, 1999). Although the authors' had access to the written content of the interventions, duration of participation and consequently whether the interventions

went as intended to some extent, the current study lacked content analysis of the written interventions. Therefore, it is unknown how much coherence and emotional wording were in participants writing and to what extent they interpreted their experiences. Also, it is unclear whether participants' goals were self-concordant which has been underlined as a necessary element in providing a sense of purpose (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999). Therefore, it is important for future studies to include a language content analysis to assess whether greater language coherence, emotional wording and self-concordance goal setting are related to increased experience of MIL, SWB and PWB and PA.

Lastly, the interventions emphasized solely the motivational- and cognitive components of MIL and left out the evaluative component. The focus of the study was based on Martela & Steger (2016) suggestion that future studies would benefit to research the facets of meaning separately. However, as the study by Costin & Vignoles showed that the evaluative component, *a sense of mattering*, was a greater precursor of MIL than purpose and significance, therefore, future studies could also aim to include an intervention that addresses the evaluative component. Particularly, the area of self-transcendence could be worth exploring in relation to MIL. As sense of mattering refers to the belief that one's actions make a difference in the world and Wong et al (2021) proposed that sense of self-transcendence promotes that belief.

Conclusion

A brief and easily administered online meaning in life intervention which includes personal goal setting and a life story review enhanced positive affect among the Icelandic adults in the current sample. Although the interventions did not increase MIL, it is hoped that future studies will assess the effectiveness of the interventions on MIL and other wellbeing measures based on the aforementioned suggestions. This low-cost intervention could be utilized to help adults within the general population to experience positive emotions which

can start an upward spiral towards increased wellbeing (Fredrickson, 1998). The study offers a meaningful conclusion and future avenues to enhance intervention studies to develop essential elements of wellbeing and human functioning within general populations.

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