

Scope Statement

This manuscript is appropriate for publication in *Frontiers in Psychology* because it explores the landscape of previous empirical studies that used brain imaging techniques to better understand the neural correlates of emotional well-being (EWB). As described below, the reported findings further expand and build upon the current findings in the field with an emphasis on understanding of EWB on a neural level. This current review is also different from other previous reviews as we have targeted broader imaging modalities as the approaches to study EWB. Our results suggest that the lack of diversity and heterogeneity (clinical population, children, etc.) and missing reported information on race and ethnicity are especially prominent in the literature. Also, the neural basis of evaluative aspects of EWB has been studied significantly less than experienced affect. Moreover, studies predominantly used exploratory whole brain approaches, and there was little consistency in terms of regions that were targeted a priori by researchers. As we identified these limitations in the literature, we also provided directions and recommendations for future research.

Conflict of interest statement

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Keywords

emotional well-being, Neuroimaging, Scoping review, positive affect, life satisfaction

Abstract

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This scoping review provides an overview of previous empirical studies that used brain imaging techniques to investigate the neural correlates of emotional well-being (EWB). We compiled evidence on this topic into one accessible and usable document as a foundation for future research into the relationship between EWB and the brain. PRISMA 2020 guidelines were followed. We located relevant articles by searching five electronic databases with 95 studies meeting our inclusion criteria. We explored EWB measures, brain imaging modalities, research designs, populations studied, and approaches that are currently in use to characterize and understand EWB across the literature. Of the key concepts related to EWB, the vast majority of studies investigated positive affect, followed by life satisfaction, sense of meaning, goal pursuit, and quality of life. The majority of studies used functional MRI, followed by EEG and event-related potential-based EEG. The neural basis of experienced affect (predominantly positive mood) has been studied significantly more often than evaluative (e.g., life satisfaction, sense of meaning) aspects of EWB. Our findings suggest that future studies should investigate EWB in more diverse samples, especially in children, individuals with clinical disorders, and individuals from various geographic locations. Future directions and theoretical implications are discussed, including the need for more longitudinal studies with ecologically valid measures that incorporate multi-level approaches allowing researchers to better investigate and evaluate the relationships among behavioral, environmental, and neural factors.

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In review

Brain Imaging Studies of Emotional Well-Being: A Scoping Review

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BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

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50 **Abstract**

51 This scoping review provides an overview of previous empirical studies that used brain
52 imaging techniques to investigate the neural correlates of emotional well-being (EWB).

53 We compiled evidence on this topic into one accessible and usable document as a
54 foundation for future research into the relationship between EWB and the brain.

55 PRISMA 2020 guidelines were followed. We located relevant articles by searching five
56 electronic databases with 95 studies meeting our inclusion criteria. We explored EWB

57 measures, brain imaging modalities, research designs, populations studied, and

58 approaches that are currently in use to characterize and understand EWB across the

59 literature. Of the key concepts related to EWB, the vast majority of studies investigated

60 positive affect, followed by life satisfaction, sense of meaning, goal pursuit, and quality

61 of life. The majority of studies used functional MRI, followed by EEG and event-related

62 potential-based EEG. The neural basis of experienced affect (predominantly positive

63 mood) has been studied significantly more often than evaluative (e.g., life satisfaction,

64 sense of meaning) aspects of EWB. Our findings suggest that future studies should

65 investigate EWB in more diverse samples, especially in children, individuals with clinical

66 disorders, and individuals from various geographic locations. Future directions and

67 theoretical implications are discussed, including the need for more longitudinal studies

68 with ecologically valid measures that incorporate multi-level approaches allowing

69 researchers to better investigate and evaluate the relationships among behavioral,

70 environmental, and neural factors.

71 *Keywords:* Emotional well-being, neuroimaging, scoping review, positive affect, life

72 satisfaction

73 Brain Imaging Studies of Emotional Well-Being: A Scoping Review

74 1. Introduction

75 According to the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention ([CDC], 2014), well-
76 being generally refers to “judging life positively and feeling good,” yet there is no
77 consensus around a single definition of well-being, and research indicates that well-
78 being is a multifaceted construct. Many factors contribute to perceived well-being,
79 including mental and physical health, social relationships, and quality of life (OECD,
80 2020; Diener, 2000). Out of all the aspects of well-being, the focus of this review is on
81 emotional well-being (EWB). EWB is not synonymous with the absence of negative
82 states such as depressed or anxious thoughts or feelings, but instead comprises an
83 important independent domain of positive functioning (Feller et al., 2018; OECD, 2020).

84 Definitions of EWB differ widely across the literature, and the diversity of
85 methods and measures used to study EWB reflect a lack of consensus of this concept.
86 In an effort to build consensus around the construct and advance research on EWB,
87 NIH funded six EWB High Priority Research Networks (RFA-AT-20-003) from across
88 the country in early 2021, whose main goals included the development of a working
89 definition of EWB (NIH, 2018). The work of this NIH-funded consortium led to the
90 following working definition for EWB: “EWB is a multi-dimensional composite that
91 encompasses how positive an individual feels generally and about life overall. It
92 includes both experiential features (emotional quality of momentary and everyday
93 experiences) and reflective features (judgments about life satisfaction, sense of
94 meaning, and ability to pursue goals that can include and extend beyond the self).
95 These features occur in the context of culture, life circumstances, resources, and life

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

96 course.” (Park et al., 2023a, p. 16). Importantly, the working definition of EWB includes
97 both evaluative (e.g., life satisfaction, sense of meaning) and experienced (e.g., positive
98 mood, day-to-day feelings of happiness) aspects of emotion, as well as hedonic (i.e.,
99 positive affect and life satisfaction) and eudaimonic aspects (i.e., sense of meaning in
100 life and goal pursuit) of positive affect. As emphasized by Park et al. (2023a, 2023b) this
101 definition of EWB is still evolving, and aspects of the definition can be mapped onto the
102 well-established constructs of subjective well-being (Diener, 1984) and psychological
103 well-being (Ryff, 1989). Furthermore, Park and colleagues' (2023b) subsequent
104 commentary clarifies that although this definition emphasizes the positive aspects of
105 EWB, it is designed to encompass varying degrees of positive experience and affect.
106 Moreover, it is designed to capture the importance of negative emotional experiences in
107 shaping the emotional quality of quotidian and moment-to-moment experiences.

108 Previous studies have demonstrated that elevated EWB is associated with
109 decreased mortality risk and increased physical and psychological health (Trudel-
110 Fitzgerald et al., 2021; Feller et al., 2018). Research has consistently linked higher
111 levels of happiness to an increased likelihood of maintaining healthy lifestyles over
112 extended periods, with one longitudinal study reporting evidence of this relationship
113 over 12 years (Trudel-Fitzgerald et al., 2019). Furthermore, elevated EWB is correlated
114 with a lower risk of chronic illnesses such as cardiovascular disease and diabetes. It
115 also appears to contribute to healthier aging and increased longevity (Boehm &
116 Kubzansky, 2012; Pressman et al., 2019; Steptoe, 2019). Meta-analyses indicate that
117 individuals with higher EWB, compared to those with lower levels, have a 17% reduced
118 risk of mortality (Cohen et al., 2016), a 14% decrease in all-cause mortality risk

119 (Rozanski et al., 2019), and a notable 25% reduction in mortality risk among older
120 adults (Zhang & Han, 2016).

121 In the present scoping systematic review, we seek to contribute to the scientific
122 understanding of EWB by organizing existing knowledge in the field into a coherent and
123 accessible framework and by making neuroimaging recommendations for future
124 research into the neural processes related to EWB. Our scoping review is organized
125 following this working definition of EWB (see Figure 1).

126 (Add Figure 1 around here)

127 **1.1. Overview of EWB Neuroimaging Research**

128 EWB broadly relates to the subjective experience of the *goodness* of one's life
129 and, thus, has traditionally been evaluated using self-report instruments. Neuroimaging
130 research, by contrast, has contributed to our understanding of the brain-based
131 mechanisms underlying EWB and may help researchers to identify new avenues for
132 interventions to increase EWB. It may also someday provide a measure of EWB in
133 populations with cognitive or communication differences that can make self-report
134 measures unreliable, such as those with severe or profound intellectual disabilities
135 (Flynn et al., 2017). Non-invasive brain imaging is widely used to understand neural
136 mechanisms in humans and is particularly relevant for the study of EWB, given the
137 limits of examining EWB in animal models (but see Ben-Shaanan et al., 2016; Weiss et
138 al., 2011). Neuroimaging has enhanced our understanding of emotional processing and
139 paved the way for innovative treatments for emotional challenges. As an example,
140 studies of the brain regions and networks most affected by depression have informed
141 the development of brain stimulation techniques that demonstrate promising outcomes

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

142 in treating depressive symptoms (Cash et al., 2021). An improved understanding of the
143 neural correlates of EWB may allow for the development of similar interventions to
144 improve EWB in groups at-risk for low EWB and the broader population and
145 identification of potential biomarkers for those interventions.

146 Research indicates that EWB is linked to variations in network connectivity, both
147 within and between networks, as well as the dynamic interactions therein (Shi et al.,
148 2018). A number of large-scale brain networks, such as the default mode, salience, and
149 frontoparietal networks, have been associated with EWB (Riedel et al., 2018; Lindquist
150 et al., 2012; Kragel & LaBar, 2016). These networks have also been linked with self-
151 reflection (van der Meer et al., 2010), interoception (Kleckner et al., 2017), theory of
152 mind (Schurz et al., 2014), emotion regulation (Morawetz et al., 2020), and cognitive
153 control (Cocchi et al., 2013).

154 Both regional and network-level brain variations appear to correlate to aspects of
155 EWB. However, there is limited agreement amongst study findings and a dearth of well-
156 defined theories that add explanatory value and predictive power to these results.
157 Moreover, consistent with trends in neuroimaging more broadly (Siddiqi et al., 2022),
158 few studies provide causal insight into the neural foundation of EWB. This is largely due
159 to a lack of temporal clarity (i.e., whether brain changes precede behavioral ones),
160 experimental manipulation (i.e., if altering the brain influences behavior), and
161 convergence amongst study findings (i.e., whether research consistently highlights a
162 specific brain region or network).

163 The variety and complexity of literature investigating the neural basis of EWB
164 might stem from the methodological variability inherent in neuroimaging studies (Carp,

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

165 2012), including differences in MRI techniques (e.g., structural MRI, resting-state fMRI,
166 task-based fMRI), fMRI tasks, and preprocessing strategies. Additionally, the low
167 reproducibility of this research (Poldrack et al., 2020) complicates drawing definitive
168 conclusions from individual studies. A systematic investigation of neuroimaging
169 research on EWB is necessary to lay the groundwork for future studies and to evaluate
170 the readiness of specific sub-domains of EWB and its neural correlates for eventual
171 meta-analysis. Such meta-analyses should ideally encompass studies with consistent
172 methodologies (Müller et al., 2018). While systematic reviews are known to have
173 biases, such as publication bias, inclusion of low-quality articles, and lack of
174 homogeneity on the data summarized (e.g., Murad et al., 2018; Uttley et al., 2023), they
175 nevertheless provide clear advantages over individual studies or narrative reviews, by
176 offering a more impartial assessment of the existing evidence (e.g., Finckh & Tramèr,
177 2008; Haddaway et al., 2020).

178 Motivated by the aforementioned identified need and formal efforts to better
179 operationalize EWB, we undertook a systematic review of neuroimaging studies that
180 include behavioral measures of constructs related to EWB. Additionally, we sought to
181 capture various definitions and conceptualizations of EWB and how they have evolved
182 over time in relation to neuroimaging, as well as identify gaps in the extant literature. It's
183 important to emphasize that our review doesn't seek to identify or establish the neural
184 correlates of EWB directly; the diversity in design, imaging modality, and behavioral
185 measures across included studies renders comparison and conclusion difficult, if not
186 impossible. Our aim, rather, is to present a current overview of the literature, paving the
187 way for more focused future research on the neural underpinnings of EWB.

188 **1.2. Previous Reviews of EWB Neuroimaging Research**

189 Our team conducted a systematic search of previously published reviews—
190 including chapters, narrative reviews, systematic reviews, and meta-analyses—that
191 explored concepts related to EWB and incorporated any form of brain imaging. Out of
192 the 17 reviews we identified: Four examined the neural correlates of well-being,
193 encompassing concepts including overall well-being, positive affect, happiness, and
194 psychological well-being (Alexander et al., 2021; Huppert, 2009; Keverne, 2004; King,
195 2019); four focused on positive and negative emotions (Critchley, 2003; Machado &
196 Cantilino, 2017; Murphy et al., 2003; Vytal & Hamann, 2010) ; three examined well-
197 being in specific scenarios or amongst specific populations, such as the relation
198 between aesthetic emotion and psychological well-being and aging (Kryla-Lighthall &
199 Mather, 2009; Mastandrea et al., 2019; St. Jacques et al., 2013); three specifically
200 targeted happiness (Suardi, 2016; Subramaniam & Vinogradov, 2013; Tanzer &
201 Weyandt, 2020); two evaluated neural processes linked to mindfulness practices by
202 using mindfulness as their EWB-related measure probed with neuroimaging (Kaur &
203 Singh, 2015; Marchand, 2014); and one focused on the neural foundation of anomalies
204 in emotional stimuli processing in individuals with mood disorders (Leppänen, 2006).

205 With respect to previously published systematic reviews of constructs related to
206 EWB (e.g., Alexander et al., 2021; Huppert, 2009; Keverne, 2004; King, 2019; Suardi,
207 2016; Subramaniam & Vinogradov, 2013; Tanzer & Weyandt, 2020), our current
208 scoping review distinguishes itself in several important ways: (1) We focused
209 specifically on EWB, aligning our search with the working definition proposed by Park et
210 al. (2023a). (2) Our inclusion criteria required that the brain imaging studies also include

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

211 at least one subjective measure of constructs related to EWB identified by the scoping
212 review of reviews conducted by Koslouski et al. (2022) that compiled a list of EWB
213 measures extracted from previous reviews. (3) Instead of limiting our focus to a specific
214 imaging method, we included a broad spectrum of imaging modalities. (4) We sought to
215 identify broad trends in existing research rather than focus narrowly on the neural
216 correlates of EWB, a task better suited for future meta-analyses within brain imaging
217 modalities.

218 **1.3. The Present Review**

219 The objective for the present study was to undertake a scoping review of past
220 empirical studies employing brain imaging techniques and self-report measures to
221 explore the neural and behavioral underpinnings of EWB. Identifying, describing, and
222 synthesizing prior works on this subject is of considerable value to the scientific
223 community as it offers insights into the progression of EWB research, refines our
224 understanding of the construct, and paves the way for subsequent inquiries in this domain.
225 Specifically, this review investigates imaging modalities and measures used to capture
226 and comprehend EWB. Furthermore, it describes and analyses trends in extant research,
227 encompassing research design, target population, imaging methodologies, and findings,
228 as well as how these have evolved over time.

229 **2. Method**

230 **2.1. Search Strategy**

231 This is a scoping review of the literature on brain imaging studies including
232 measures of EWB. We followed the PRISMA 2020 guidelines (Page et al., 2021) in
233 conducting and reporting our search and preregistered this study on Open Science

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

234 Framework on July 15, 2021 (doi: 10.17605/OSF.IO/T9CF6). We located relevant
235 articles by searching five electronic databases: PubMed, PsycInfo, Web of Science,
236 ERIC (EBSCO), Embase, with the latest search conducted on July 09, 2021. Complete
237 and detailed searches per database can be found in Supplemental Materials. To obtain
238 the maximum number of articles, we elected not to restrict our search by date. Articles
239 originating in any nation were included, but searches were limited to articles published
240 in peer reviewed journals and in English. Following each database's guidelines, we
241 entered keywords that combined terms related to EWB and terms related to brain
242 imaging modalities. Articles that included at least one search term from each Group (A:
243 EWB and its components, B: brain imaging modalities, and C: brain or neuro-related
244 terms) were captured (see Table S1) for screening and eventual review. Based on this
245 search, we identified a total of 4,243 articles after duplicates were removed (see Figure
246 2 for PRISMA 2020 flow diagram).

247 (Figure 2 around here)

248 **2.2. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria**

249 We reviewed the articles for inclusion based on the following inclusion criteria: (1)
250 The use of at least one brain imaging modality; (2) At least one measure of EWB or its
251 components (see list in Table S2 and rationale below); (3) Articles published in peer
252 reviewed journals; (4) Studies published in English. We excluded articles based on the
253 following criteria: (1) Book chapters, reviews, case studies, qualitative studies, meta-
254 analysis, systematic reviews; (2) Unrelated articles, duplicates, unavailable full texts, or
255 abstract-only papers; (3) Articles published on Google Scholar only, dissertations,
256 theses, conference papers, opinion papers; and (4) Animal research. We did not impose

257 restrictions on publication date, methodological rigor, characteristics of participants, or
258 age of participants included in the study. As the current study is a scoping review, study
259 quality was not investigated (Munn et al., 2018).

260 **2.3. Search Procedures**

261 Search procedures comprised three separate stages: (1) Title and abstract
262 screening, (2) Full-text screening, and (3) Data extraction. At each stage, relevant
263 procedures were conducted independently by at least two trained research assistants
264 using *Covidence* (systematic review software; Veritas Health Innovation, 2021).
265 Discrepancies at each stage were resolved by a third rater (authors of this current
266 article) also using Covidence. We followed the procedures outlined by Polanin et al.
267 (2019), including the creation of a checklist file with specific screening questions that
268 guided raters throughout the screening process (see Supplemental Materials).

269 To pass to the full-text screening phase, each study must have included at least
270 one of the 135 EWB measures outlined in Table S2 (a comprehensive list of these
271 measures, with citations, can be found in Table S2). These measures originated from a
272 scoping review of reviews that gathered questionnaires designed to capture individual
273 experiences of EWB (Koslouski et al., 2022). Consistent with our operational definition
274 of EWB, instruments focusing solely on depression, anxiety, or other negative emotions
275 were omitted from their assembled list. Our scoping review was conducted concurrently
276 with that of Koslouski et al. (2022), employing analogous search terms, with the
277 intention of yielding a cohesive set of outcomes to further enrich the existing literature.

278 **2.4. EWB Constructs**

279 As previously noted, our scoping review follows the theoretical framework
280 proposed by Park et al. (2023a). Accordingly, we classified the included studies into five
281 core EWB domains as conceptualized by Park et al. (2023a): (1) positive affect, (2) life
282 satisfaction, (3) goal pursuit, (4) quality of life, and (5) sense of meaning. These
283 classifications were based on the EWB measures employed by the studies included in
284 this review.

285 **2.5. Brain Imaging Modalities**

286 Studies were classified into three main categories based on their design and
287 purpose. Studies were characterized as task-based functional imaging studies if they
288 examined the function of the brain using a task-based paradigm. Task-based imaging
289 methods included fMRI, EEG, ERP, PET, SPECT, TMS, and tDCS. For the task-based
290 functional imaging studies, we provided a brief description of the task or paradigm used
291 in the study, along with the main EWB domain investigated in the study (e.g.,
292 experienced affect, affective perception, reward, and emotion regulation). Studies were
293 characterized as resting-state if functional images were acquired under resting-state
294 conditions, using methods such as fMRI, EEG, PET, MRS, rTMS, and TBS. Finally,
295 those studies examining structural properties of the brain such as grey and white matter
296 properties, were categorized as structural MRI studies and included methods such as
297 MRI and resting DTI. For studies in all three categories, main regions of interest (ROI)
298 were documented, and main brain outcome measures were also reported.

299 **3. Results**

300 **3.1. Study and Sample Characteristics**

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

324 conducted in the United States (Davidson et al., 2003; Dolcos et al., 2021; Flores et al.,
325 2018; Heller et al., 2013b; Kujawa et al., 2015; Morelli et al., 2018; Puccetti et al., 2021;
326 Singleton et al., 2014). Amongst the nine studies reporting racial or ethnic demographic
327 data, the majority of the participants were White (ranging from 65.6% to 95.1%).
328 Black/African American participants ranged from 2.9% to 31.3% of the total sample,
329 whilst Asian participants varied between 2.4% and 15% of the total sample. Three
330 studies (Singleton et al., 2014; Flores et al., 2018 & Morelli et. al., 2018) included a
331 multiracial category. Only two studies (Morelli et al., 2018 & Kujawa, 2015) mentioned
332 the inclusion of Hispanic or Latino/a participants (see Table 1 for details).

333 With respect to socio-economic status (SES), 16 studies explicitly reported
334 information on education, and only two reported income of participants. Thirty-six
335 studies reported university student participants, suggesting their samples had some
336 level of college education; however, factors explicitly related to SES were not reported.

337 (Insert Table 1 around here)

338 **3.2. Journals**

339 Studies included in this review were published in a variety of peer reviewed
340 journals (n=52) varying widely in impact factor (see Table S4). Specifically, nine of the
341 studies were published in *NeuroImage* and another nine in *Social Cognitive and*
342 *Affective Neuroscience*, followed by 6 in *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience* and 4 in the
343 *American Journal of Psychiatry*. To evaluate the impact of journals, we used the five-
344 year impact factor (2017–2021) from *Journal Citation Reports (JCR) - Clarivate*. This
345 impact factor is calculated by dividing the total citations in 2021 from articles published
346 in 2016 to 2020 by the total number citable articles in 2016–2020. The JCR impact

347 factor of the journals ranged from 2.826 (i.e., *Social Neuroscience*) to 19.59 (i.e.,
348 *American Journal of Psychiatry*) for the 18 journals that have two or more studies
349 included in this current review.

350 **3.3. Countries**

351 Most of the articles included in the current review were conducted in the United
352 States (n=29) and China (n=19), followed by Germany (n=11). It is noteworthy that the
353 studies published in North America, Europe, and Australia/Oceania are shown to be
354 overrepresented in proportion to the world population share; on the other hand, articles
355 published in Asia, Africa, and South America appear to be underrepresented to the
356 world population share (see Figure S1).

357 **3.4. EWB Measures Used and EWB Constructs Investigated**

358 Table S5 reports EWB measures and constructs across included studies.
359 Thirteen of the 135 EWB measures identified by Koslouski et al. (2022), were employed
360 in the 95 studies, with a reported total of 115 instances of use. This indicates multiple
361 EWB measures were used in some studies. The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule
362 (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988) was most commonly used at 68.4% of the studies
363 (excluding 2.1% using the children's version). This was followed by the Satisfaction with
364 Life Scale (SWLS; Diener et al., 1985) at 17.9%. The Subjective Happiness Scale
365 (SHS; Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999) and Ryff's Psychological Well-being Scale (PWB;
366 Ryff, 1989) had similar frequencies of use, at 10.5% and 11.6% respectively. Another
367 nine measures were employed in 12 studies.

368 Of the studies examined, all 95 incorporated at least one measure designed to
369 evaluate the constructs of positive affect, mood, or emotion. All but one examined the

370 construct of life satisfaction. This overlap in constructs stems from the fact that many
371 EWB measures are designed to probe both areas. For example, PANAS is a widely-
372 used instrument measuring both life satisfaction and positive affect. Far fewer studies
373 measured more evaluative aspects of EWB, including sense of meaning (14 studies),
374 goal pursuit (13 studies), and quality of life (2 studies).

375 **3.5. Study Design**

376 As reported in Table 1, a preponderance of studies were cross-sectional (n=59),
377 followed by 22 intervention studies, 12 case-control studies, and only two cohort
378 studies. A description of the intervention studies can be found in Table 2. Of these, 13
379 used a quasi-experimental (non-randomized) design, and eight constituted randomized
380 controlled trials (RCTs). These intervention studies can be further classified into six
381 distinct categories: (1) psychological interventions (n=6), (2) mindfulness-based
382 interventions (n=6), (3) pharmacological interventions (n=4), (4) physical exercise
383 interventions (n=3), (5) non-invasive brain stimulation techniques (n=2), and (6) light-
384 exposure based interventions (n=1). It is important to note that few of these studies
385 aimed at drawing causal inferences about the neural basis of EWB: Instead, most
386 sought to identify and describe behavioral and neural correlates of their respective
387 interventions. For example, Dolcos et al. (2021) examined changes in EWB measures
388 and brain measures following cognitive-emotional training but did not establish a causal
389 link between neural and behavioral changes.

390 (Insert Table 2 around here)

391 **3.6. Brain Imaging Modalities**

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

392 Among the 95 studies included in this review, neuroimaging modalities were
393 used 101 times, indicating that some studies used more than one modality. Functional
394 magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) was the predominant modality, used in 50 studies.
395 Continuous electroencephalogram (EEG) and event-related potentials (ERPs) were
396 employed in 24 and five studies, respectively. A limited number of studies (n=9) used
397 structural MRI. Both magnetic resonance spectroscopy (MRS) and diffusion-weighted
398 imaging (DWI) were used in a single study. Positron emission tomography (PET)
399 imaging was employed in 7 of the studies, whereas single-photon emission
400 computerized tomography (SPECT) was used in only single study. This distribution
401 underscores a pronounced pattern of functional over structural investigations.

402 Complementary to these imaging methods, certain studies incorporated
403 neuromodulatory techniques. Notably, transcranial magnetic stimulation (TMS),
404 transcranial direct current stimulation (tDCS), and repetitive TMS/theta-burst stimulation
405 (TBS) each appeared in a singular study (refer to Table 3–Table 5 for details).

406 Figure 4 details the use of various brain imaging modalities across five distinct
407 EWB constructs. Amongst the 94 studies examining the construct of life satisfaction,
408 fMRI emerged as the predominant modality, used in 50 studies. This was followed by
409 EEG/ERP in 27 studies, MRI in nine studies, PET in seven studies, and other modalities
410 in six studies. Of the 86 studies examining positive affect, fMRI was again used in a
411 preponderance of studies (44 studies). EEG/ERP was used in 27 studies, MRI in nine
412 studies, PET in seven studies, and other techniques were used in four studies. Of those
413 examining goal pursuit, fMRI was employed in seven of 13 studies, and EEG/ERP and
414 MRI were used in two studies each. PET and other techniques were each used in a

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

415 single study. Amongst the 14 studies evaluating sense of meaning, fMRI was the
416 modality of choice in eight. EEG/ERP and MRI were each employed in two studies, with
417 PET used in one study, and other modalities in two studies. Collectively, these findings
418 underscore a consistent preference for the use of fMRI across EWB constructs,
419 highlighting its widespread use in the field.

420 (Insert Figure 4 around here)

421 **3.7. Task-Based Functional Imaging Studies**

422 Table 3 depicts the task-based functional imaging studies (n=57). Among the 57
423 studies measuring brain activity during task performance, the most commonly used
424 (n=10) instrument was the International Affective Picture System (IAPS; Lang et al.,
425 1998). Various mood induction tasks were employed in 18 studies (e.g., Schneider et
426 al., 1992), and a range of other paradigms were also used, with most used only in one
427 or two studies.

428 (Insert Table 3 around here)

429 We classified study paradigms into domains corresponding to the cognitive or
430 emotional processes they were designed to evaluate. These domains comprised:
431 experienced affect, affective perception, emotion regulation, reward, linguistic/semantic
432 processing, pain induction, performance monitoring, sense of self, social exclusion,
433 social perception, and visual attention. As an example, paradigms designed to explore
434 brain activity during distinct affective states, such as positive/negative moods or self-
435 judgment, were categorized under the domain of *experienced affect*. Paradigms that
436 required participants to modulate their emotional responses were classified as *emotion*
437 *regulation* tasks. By contrast, those assessing brain activity in response to emotionally-

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

438 valenced stimuli were classed as *affective perception*. Paradigms designed to probe
439 affective perception included both passive viewing of stimuli (e.g., IAPS), as well as
440 active tasks that asked participants to judge, recognize, label, and discriminate
441 emotionally-valenced stimuli. Notably, the domains of experienced affect and affective
442 perception predominated in our dataset, comprising 19 and 17 of the 57 task-based
443 studies, respectively. These were followed by studies focused on emotion regulation
444 (n=4). This emphasis on the evaluation of neuroactivity underpinning emotion
445 processing aligns with the EWB used measures in these studies, specifically those
446 examining experiential facets of EWB, such as positive affect.

447 The next most commonly studied domain was reward, with eight studies
448 measuring brain function during processes related to reward. Two studies measured
449 brain activity during pain induction, and two during paradigms designed to explore
450 sense of self. Several studies used paradigms aimed at understanding cognitive
451 processes, including one performance monitoring task, one visual attention task, and
452 one study using linguistic/semantic tasks. Finally, two studies used paradigms designed
453 to measure brain activity during social processing, one using a social perception task
454 (video clips of *best friends* vs. strangers) and one using a social exclusion task
455 (Cyberball game, in which participants are excluded from a virtual game).

456 With respect to brain regions examined, 21 of task-based functional imaging
457 studies used exploratory whole-brain approaches (looking for any relationships to either
458 connectivity or activity across every brain region) with no *a priori* defined regions-of
459 interest. In studies with *a priori* regions-of-interest, a number of EEG studies targeted
460 frontal/mid-frontal electrodes as a means of calculating frontal asymmetry, a measure

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

461 commonly linked to positive affect. In general, EEG studies used various approaches to
462 quantify neural activity, including calculating energy/power within different frequency
463 bands (mostly alpha, beta, and theta), as well as ERPs such as the feedback negativity
464 response, N170, and P3. Across fMRI studies, a range of target regions were explored
465 across both the cortex and subcortex. Frontal regions (e.g., dorsolateral prefrontal
466 cortex, orbitofrontal cortex, anterior cingulate cortex) were more commonly targeted
467 than others, although several studies examined the posterior cingulate cortex as a
468 region-of-interest. The insula and amygdala, two regions commonly linked to emotional
469 processing, were also well represented. Other subcortical regions, including the striatum
470 and thalamus, were also targeted in multiple studies. fMRI studies predominantly looked
471 at brain activity measured using BOLD signal response, although several studies also
472 looked at functional connectivity during task performance.

473 **3.8. Resting-State Studies**

474 Table 4 presents those studies that used resting state methodologies to examine
475 brain function, accounting for 30 studies. Of these, fMRI was used in 16 studies. EEG
476 was employed in 10 studies, and PET in two, while rTMS or TBS and MRS were each
477 used in a single study. Of note, almost half of these studies (n=15) explored connectivity
478 or activity across the entire brain, indicating an absence of a priori hypotheses focused
479 on specific brain regions or networks. As with the task-based studies, several of the
480 EEG studies targeted frontal/mid-frontal electrodes to calculate measures of alpha
481 asymmetry. The fMRI resting state studies that did define regions-of-interest a priori
482 targeted a range of regions across all four cortical lobes, as well as the subcortex.
483 Studies used a range of resting state analytical approaches, including seed-based

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

484 functional connectivity, fractional amplitude of low-frequency fluctuations (fALFF), and
485 regional homogeneity (ReHo) to measure brain function at rest. In line with the EEG
486 studies, areas the frontal lobe were identified as regions-of-interest more often than
487 those in the occipital, parietal, or temporal lobes, with several studies targeting the
488 orbitofrontal cortex, medial prefrontal cortex, dorsolateral prefrontal cortex, and anterior
489 cingulate cortex (as was found for the task-based fMRI studies). Similar to task-based
490 studies, the insula and amygdala were also commonly identified as regions-of-interest.
491 Two studies also used the default mode network as a network-of-interest, the only
492 network to be targeted in this way.

(Insert Table 4 around here)

494 **3.9. Structural MRI Studies**

495 Table 5 includes studies that used structural MRI approaches (n=8). Of these
496 studies, one used DTI while the remainder used MRI. Three studies used whole brain
497 approaches, while the others defined regions-of-interest *a priori*. In contrast with the
498 task-based and resting state studies, the majority of regions targeted by structural MRI
499 studies were subcortical regions, including the amygdala, striatum, and hippocampus,
500 and one study targeting the pituitary gland. All studies (except the DTI study) in this
501 category assessed gray matter structure, measuring total MRI volume, gray matter
502 volume, gray matter density, and/or gray matter concentration. The single DTI study
503 measured white matter mean diffusivity/fractional anisotropy and gray matter
504 dispersion/neurite density.

(Insert Table 5 around here)

506 **4. Discussion and Future Directions**

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

507 We conducted a scoping review of neuroimaging studies designed to explore
508 and evaluate the relationship between EWB and the brain. By compiling, organizing,
509 and assessing included articles, we sought to establish a foundation for future modality-
510 specific meta-analyses and provide insight into the current state of the evidence, as well
511 as identify gaps in the literature and highlight directions for future research.

512 With respect to overall trends, few studies evaluated the neural correlates of
513 EWB in populations other than White healthy young adults; as such, there is a notable
514 gap in the research involving children, older adults, clinical populations, and more
515 diverse, underrepresented groups and populations. It's likewise evident that the neural
516 basis of experienced affect, especially positive mood, has been better researched than
517 the evaluative components of EWB. The majority of these studies used exploratory
518 (whole-brain) imaging techniques, and among those with pre-determined ROIs, there
519 was little consistency among targeted regions. This suggests a lack of consensus
520 around the neural correlates of aspects of EWB. However, the existence of whole-brain
521 maps of EWB associations suggests that future meta-analyses, particularly leveraging
522 novel cross-modality analyses such as standard permutation of subject images
523 (Albajes-Eizagirre et al., 2019), may be able to better summarize this research and
524 provide greater clarity on which brain regions and networks are most strongly implicated
525 in EWB to guide future research and intervention development.

526 While trait associations can be summarized—for example, those derived from
527 resting state and structural MRI—a significant challenge arises due to the considerable
528 variability in tasks employed to probe EWB. Aggregating data from varied tasks in meta-
529 analyses is rare due to the complexities associated with interpreting analogous

530 activation patterns within diverse contexts. We must reiterate that our inclusive search
531 criteria, encompassing diverse studies that included any form of neuroimaging and a
532 wide variety of EWB measures, resulted in the inclusion of a large number of studies
533 whose primary aims did not include the establishment of causal links between EWB and
534 brain functioning. This diversity, coupled with a dearth of causal design, complicates
535 summarization and renders generalization impossible. Nevertheless, we contend that
536 our review offers valuable insights into the current state of the EWB neuroimaging
537 literature, potentially informing subsequent focused research. Specifically, the findings
538 from this review might guide the development of a taxonomy of tasks used in EWB
539 research, categorizing them based on the aspects of EWB they measure and the brain
540 regions they activate. In the remainder of the Discussion, we discuss the main findings
541 of this study, limitations, and directions for future research.

542 **4.1. EWB Measures**

543 The majority of included studies used PANAS; although previous research has
544 demonstrated that this scale is a valid and reliable measure of certain aspects of EWB
545 (e.g., Pavot et al. 1991; Crawford & Henry, 2010), the manner in which the instrument is
546 used and interpreted can vary widely. For example, the PANAS questionnaire can be
547 used as a tool to measure momentary affect (e.g., *Indicate to what extent you feel this*
548 *way right now, that is, at the present moment.*) or trait affect (e.g., *Indicate to what*
549 *extent you generally feel this way, that is how you feel on average.*). Yet, the majority of
550 studies included in our sample did not describe how PANAS was used in their protocol
551 (i.e., whether it was used as a measure of momentary affect or trait affect). In addition,
552 several studies reported using the PANAS to evaluate changes in affect during tasks

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

553 (e.g., emotion regulation and affect perception tasks), which suggests that the
554 instrument was used to measure affect in response to task-specific stimuli, rather than
555 to evaluate momentary or trait affect in daily life. Future studies should be more
556 transparent while reporting on the use of questionnaires.

557 In light of PANAS's widespread adoption in EWB assessment, it's important to
558 acknowledge its usefulness in efficiently measuring positive and negative affect.
559 However, a potential weakness of the PANAS is its emphasis on high-arousal positive
560 affect dimensions (e.g., alertness, excitement), to the exclusion of low-arousal positive
561 emotions like calmness (cf. Pressman et al., 2019). The utility of the PANAS is
562 tempered by its lack of scope, specifically its limitation in capturing a diverse range of
563 discrete positive emotions. Future research should address this limitation by selecting or
564 designing instruments designed to evaluate a broader range of EWB constructs in
565 greater granularity. In this context, the circumplex model of affect presents a potential
566 alternative (Russell, 1980).

567 The majority of the studies included in this review were task-based functional
568 imaging studies. Of these studies, one third measured brain activity during an
569 experienced affect task and 28 measured brain activity during affective perception (e.g.,
570 viewing affective images). Notably, a limited number of studies endeavored to discern
571 associations between brain activity and responses on EWB questionnaires, potentially
572 shedding light on the influence of trait EWB on neural functioning in specific contexts.
573 Overall, the literature appears to exhibit a paucity of evidence concerning neural
574 underpinnings of evaluative EWB as a trait.

575 While certain resting state and structural studies—which reflect trait aspects of

576 brain function and structure— did examine the relationships between brain activity and
577 evaluative EWB questionnaire outcomes (e.g., Kong et al., 2015a; 2015b; 2015c; Kwon
578 et al., 2021; Urry et al., 2004), others analyzed these measures separately without
579 seeking to establish correlational or causal links (e.g., Dolcos et al., 2021; Mrazek et al.,
580 2016). In some cases, brain function was evaluated in relation to trait measures of
581 experienced affect over extended periods, as observed in studies addressing the trait
582 neural markers of subjective well-being (e.g., Katsumi et al., 2021; Luo et al., 2014;
583 Sato et al., 2015 and 2019).

584 **4.2. Brain Imaging Modalities**

585 Our findings indicate substantial variability not only in the use of instruments
586 (e.g., the PANAS), but also in the use of stimuli across studies. For example, while the
587 IAPS was used in six of the included studies, its application varied: Some studies used
588 IAPS as a tool for mood induction (e.g., asking participants to describe images with the
589 intent of affecting change in their mood, as measured by the PANAS; Cunningham,
590 2014), while others (e.g., Heller et al., 2013b; Van Reekum et al., 2007) used IAPS to
591 stimulate emotion regulation (e.g., suppression) or promote affective perception. As
592 such, it is difficult to generalize findings, even amongst studies using the same stimuli.

593 This lack of uniformity in study design and use of measures and stimuli hampers
594 our capacity to establish an integrated knowledge base on EWB. Given the multifaceted
595 nature of EWB, which encompasses elements such as positive affect, life satisfaction,
596 sense of meaning, and goal pursuit, a number of measures would likely be required to
597 measure the construct holistically. Future research, centered on well-established facets
598 of experienced EWB—such as mood induction or affective image viewing—adopting

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

599 standardized measures and validated tasks, could guide the field towards a more
600 unified understanding of the construct and its neural underpinnings.

601 Alternatively, research into evaluative aspects of EWB may benefit from careful
602 theory-driven task design (e.g., those aimed at understanding the dynamic processes
603 involved in cognitive appraisal of experienced EWB) given the current lack of findings in
604 these areas. Brain imaging measures that allow us to capture these EWB domains
605 dynamically, accounting for their relationship with the environment, could provide crucial
606 insights into the construct and its neural and environmental correlates. Moreover,
607 imaging modalities that allow real-world assessments (i.e., assessments in naturalistic
608 environments) and that are used along with ecological momentary assessments (EMA;
609 Shiffman et al., 2008) would provide the basis for further advancement in the field.

610 A promising avenue for future research is the use of functional near-infrared
611 spectroscopy (fNIRS). In contrast to the fMRI and EEG modalities used in the included
612 studies, fNIRS offers distinct advantages. Specifically, it demonstrates greater tolerance
613 to bodily movements and boasts heightened portability, making it well-suited to studies
614 in naturalistic settings (e.g., Hu et al., 2019; Pinti et al., 2020). While investigations
615 employing less scalable techniques like fMRI remain relevant, researchers can further
616 enhance ecological validity by adopting naturalistic paradigms, such as contrasting
617 neural responses during the viewing of neutral versus emotional films.

618 Finally, future studies can focus on investigating structural connections in
619 addition to functional connections and interventions to promote EWB or to induce
620 neuroplasticity at grey matter and white matter levels. Innovative approaches that can
621 be incorporated in future studies include the use of multimodal imaging techniques such

622 as fMRI and DTI, or a combination of EEG, fMRI, and DTI. Finally designs that allow
623 investigation of neuromodulation such as TMS-fMRI studies and focused ultrasound
624 (Thaler et al., 2023) are promising.

625 **4.3. Brain Processing Implicated**

626 Although the goal of this review was not to establish neural correlates of EWB,
627 and the search strategy provided a large range of methodologies that make comparison
628 difficult, there were some broad trends in the findings. In general, frontal brain regions
629 are more commonly implicated by studies of positive affect (e.g., Kyeong, 2020; Van
630 Reekum, 2007; Vanderhasselt, 2013), while subcortical regions appear more often in
631 studies looking at structural neural correlates of EWB (e.g., Cunningham, 2014; Habel,
632 2004; Li, 2016; Lichey, 2015). It is difficult to know whether these reflect consistent
633 findings or the choices of researchers from different fields (e.g., clinical neuroscientists
634 as opposed to basic neuroscientists are often more familiar with structural imaging and
635 may be more likely to target subcortical regions). Similarly, in the temporal domain EEG
636 studies of positive affect mostly targeted alpha frequency but findings related to beta
637 and theta were also reported. Future studies guided by this review to systematically
638 evaluate the neural correlates of EWB should aim to use consistent and well-described
639 neuroimaging methods (Carp, 2012) and share the results (Poldrack et al., 2017) from
640 both whole-brain and region-of-interest analyses to allow for much needed meta-
641 analyses (Müller et al., 2017).

642 **4.4. Limitations**

643 **4.5. Limitations of the studies included in the review**

644 **4.5.1. *Small Sample Size***

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

645 This review identifies several noteworthy limitations within the current body of
646 EWB neuroimaging research. Notably, our analysis revealed that the majority of the
647 studies included relatively small sample sizes. Only 11 of the 95 examined studies
648 included a sample size of 100 or more (e.g., Kawamichi et al., 2016; Kong et al., 2015a;
649 Kujawa, 2015). While smaller sample sizes may not compromise interpretation when
650 the observed effect sizes are large, they invariably constrain the power to discern small
651 to medium effects. It is imperative for researchers to judiciously weigh the feasibility and
652 benefits of expanding sample sizes against anticipated effect sizes. It's also important to
653 acknowledge that advocating for larger sample sizes might serve to exclude
654 researchers from less affluent laboratories globally, potentially perpetuating Western-
655 centric biases in this domain. Furthermore, given the documented volatility of effect
656 sizes within smaller samples (Schönbrodt & Perugini, 2013) and the small to medium
657 effects characteristic of neuroimaging-behavior correlations (Marek et al., 2022; but see
658 Makowski et al., 2023), results from such studies warrant cautious interpretation. Future
659 research would benefit from larger-scale studies and meta-analyses to bolster
660 confidence in the reported findings.

661 **4.5.2. Lack of Studies in Diverse Samples**

662 As mentioned in previous sections, more than a third of the included studies were
663 conducted in a university setting within healthy individuals. This suggests a probable
664 homogeneity in participants, primarily comprising college students with similar
665 educational backgrounds. While 15.9% of studies delved into EWB within clinical
666 cohorts (e.g., individuals with schizophrenia, those experiencing chronic non-
667 neuropathic back pain, and others), only one study (Martin-Soelch et al., 2020)

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

668 specifically targeted university students who were kin to a clinical population. Notably
669 absent were studies exploring university students diagnosed with disorders or illnesses;
670 if such participants were included in the studies retained for review, they were not
671 explicitly referenced.

672 Moreover, our review reveals a conspicuous gap in the literature pertaining to
673 EWB research in children, adolescents, and older adults. This underscores the paucity
674 of dedicated research in these demographics and points to a probable deficiency in the
675 development of validated methodologies and tools tailored for these groups. It is
676 imperative that future endeavors in the field prioritize the selection or development of
677 validated instruments to measure aspects of EWB within these populations. Future
678 studies that consider the impact of life-transition events on emotional well-being are also
679 needed (e.g., middle-aged women hormonal transition and EWB).

680 Remarkably, none of the studies included in our review presented data on
681 participants' multifaceted social identities that may bear significance to EWB, such as
682 gender identity, sexual identity, and ability, as highlighted by Villanueva-Moya &
683 Expósito (2022). An intersectional approach to the collection, analysis and reporting of
684 these data would contribute to the collective understand of the diverse elements of
685 identity that contribute to the lived experience of EWB.

686 **4.5.3. Lack of Information on Race and Ethnicity**

687 Another significant limitation observed within the current body of EWB
688 neuroimaging research is the inadequate documentation of participants' racial and
689 ethnic backgrounds. A mere 9.5% of the articles under review provided details
690 regarding the racial-ethnic demographics of their participants, and this information was

691 exclusively reported by studies based in the USA or Australia¹. This underscores a
692 broader oversight in the literature regarding the potential role of racial and ethnic factors
693 on the lived experience of EWB, even in light of considerable research into race-
694 associated stress (refer to Paradies et al., 2015 for an encompassing meta-analysis).
695 We advocate for EWB researchers to exercise heightened diligence in gathering and
696 disclosing race/ethnicity data, while also considering the role these factors play in
697 shaping EWB outcomes. Future research should be committed to inclusivity, ensuring
698 the representation and equitable examination of diverse populations (see National
699 Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2022 for guidelines). To streamline
700 and elevate global research efforts, there is a need for a consensus on the
701 standardization of racial and ethnic data reporting, recognizing that reporting norms may
702 vary considerably across nations.

703 **4.5.4. Lack of Socioeconomic Status (SES) Information**

704 In addition to the notable absence of racial and ethnic data in the literature, we
705 observed that SES is another demographic characteristic frequently either omitted or
706 incompletely documented. Of the 95 studies included in this review, fewer than 20%
707 provided detailed information on SES (n=17 studies), and among those that did,
708 reporting was typically scant: 16 detailed education, whilst two reported participants'
709 income. Though several studies implicitly document education level and occupation
710 (e.g., those focusing solely on university student participants), other essential SES
711 metrics, such as family income, remained unreported. The relationship between EWB

¹ It is plausible that research conducted in nations with more racially homogeneous populations, such as Japan and China, may not prioritize or even collect demographic information, perhaps perceiving it as redundant.

712 and SES has been robustly established in prior research (refer to Tan et al., 2020 for a
713 comprehensive meta-analysis). Thus, the importance of SES in the context of EWB
714 studies cannot be overstated, and researchers should ensure it is consistently
715 considered and documented within the context of neural correlates of EWB research.

716 **4.5.5. Lack of Causal Inference Regarding the Neural Basis of EWB**

717 A significant limitation of the current literature is a paucity of studies designed to
718 elucidate neural basis of EWB. The majority of studies included in this review used a
719 single neuroimaging modality in a cross-sectional design, making causal inferences
720 difficult if not impossible. Many of the longitudinal/intervention studies did not examine
721 links between EWB and neuroimaging measures over time, a missed opportunity to
722 gain improved causal insight into these relationships. Recently, there has been an
723 increased focus on the lack of causal insights in neuroimaging research in general
724 (Siddiqi et al., 2022). We believe that the EWB neuroimaging literature would benefit
725 from Siddiqi and coauthors' (Ibid) recommendations to address this limitation,
726 particularly with respect to the increased use of brain imaging studies that
727 experimentally manipulate the brain (e.g., targeted lesions and stimulation,
728 neurofeedback) and the investigation of temporality (i.e., do brain changes precede
729 changes in EWB). Finally, the literature would benefit from multi-modal studies that can
730 help establish convergence across methodologies to increase confidence of the causal
731 role of certain brain regions in specific aspects of EWB.

732 **4.6. Limitations of the Present Review and Future Directions**

733 The current findings should be interpreted in light of some limitations specific to
734 this review. First, while we included some studies conducted in Asian countries (e.g.,

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

735 Japan, China), we only included articles that were published in English and mostly in
736 English-speaking countries. As conceptions of EWB differ across cultures (which is
737 highlighted by the working definition used in this study), a more diverse and global
738 approach to this topic is warranted. The growing influence of cultural neuroscience will
739 help to rectify this deficiency in the current literature.

740 Second, although the range of the included EWB measures provides a wealth of
741 valuable data, the use of self-report scales comes with significant methodological
742 limitations, such as the tendency for self-deception, inability to internalize the relevant
743 features of EWB, and also the subsequent inaccuracy when reporting (e.g., Chan, 2010;
744 Paulhus & Vazire, 2007). Third, we reviewed used studies that included EWB self-report
745 measures that were previously selected by the Koslouski et al. (2022) scoping review of
746 reviews.

747 Finally, the cultural understanding and interpretation of EWB and its relevant
748 features may differ across cultures and languages. Our inclusion of studies published in
749 English is therefore a limitation. For example, questionnaires in languages other than
750 English might contain content that is difficult to translate into English with fidelity.
751 Moreover, researchers and participants across the globe may have culturally-specific
752 understandings of the concept and essence of EWB (see for example Lomas et al.,
753 2022 and Ruggeri et al., 2020 for global initiatives aiming to understand EWB). Despite
754 its acknowledged limitations, this scoping review represents an important step towards
755 a better understanding of the neural correlates of EWB, providing an important
756 compilation of the previous studies in this area into one accessible and usable

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

757 document. The growing influence of cultural neuroscience will be important to address
758 the cultural aspects related to EWB (see Kim & Sasaki, 2014 for a review).

759 Future studies should take a longitudinal approach and consider the complexity
760 of EWB and its relation to a variety of contextual factors (e.g., social, environmental)
761 that could impact an individual's EWB and their response to interventions. Given its
762 complexity, a team science approach (Hall et al., 2018) is required to allow
763 advancement in the field. The use of multi-level approaches that incorporate multiple
764 imaging modalities in the same study along with multiple behavioral, physiological, and
765 environmental measures would allow us a whole-person integrative approach to
766 investigating EW.B. Finally, a whole person approach (Langevin et al., 2021; Pitcher et
767 al., 2023; Thomas et al., 2018) is needed to advance the field of EWB.

768

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

769 **Data and Code Availability:** No new data were generated or analyzed in support of
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771 **Author contributions:** CGR wrote sections of the manuscript, responsible for
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773 search. CL wrote sections of the manuscript, contributed to systematic search,
774 organized the database, created the tables and figures. AT: wrote sections of the
775 manuscript, contributed to systematic search, supervised the imaging piece of the
776 manuscript. SH: contributed to systematic search, writing—review and editing. DSR:
777 contributed to systematic search, writing—review and editing. JL: contributed to
778 systematic search, writing—review and editing. DL: contributed to systematic search,
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804

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BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Table 1

Characteristics of Studies Included for Analysis (N=95)

First Author (Year)	Country	Sample (N)	Study design	Clinical Sample Characteristics	Age Groups	Sex (%female)	Age mean (SD)	Age (min – max)	Race %	EWB Question naire(s)
Alessandri (2015)	Italy	51	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	100	24.1 (3.7)	20 – 34	—	LOT-R; SWLS
Arjmand (2017)	Australia	18	Cross-sectional	—	Adolescents, Adults	66.7	22.22 (5)	18 – 38	—	PANAS
Baeken (2008)	Belgium	47	non-RCT	—	Adults	100	25.4 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Costa (2019)	Italy	17	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	58.8	25.06 (5.1)	20 – 40	—	PANAS; SWLS
Cunningham (2014)	USA	42	Cross-sectional	—	—	50	—	—	—	PANAS; SHS
Davidson (2003)	USA	41	RCT	—	Adults	70.1	36 (—)	23 – 56	White 95.1%; Asian 4.9%	PANAS
Day (2019)	Australia	69	Cross-sectional	Chronic lower back pain	Young adults	52	51 (14.4)	18 –	White 88%; Asian 4%; Other 8%	SHS
Dennison (2015)	Australia	89	Cohort	—	Adolescents	48.3	12.6 (0.5)	—	—	PANAS
Dolcos (2021)	USA	19	non-RCT	PTSD	—	5	30.9 (7.9)	—	White 79%; Black 11%; Asian 5%; Other 5%	PANAS
Flores (2018)	USA	34	Cross-sectional	—	Adolescents	65	16.3 (1.5)	14 – 18	White 79%; Black 15%; Other or multiracial 6%	PANAS-C

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Fonzo (2017)	USA	66	non-RCT	PTSD	Young adults, Adults	65.2	36.7 (—)	18 – 60	—	WHOQOL-BREF
Geethanjali (2019)	India	16	Cross-sectional	—	—	—	—	—	—	PANAS
George (1995)	USA	11	Cross-sectional	—	—	100	33.3 (12.3)	—	—	PANAS
Gondoh (2009)	Japan	30	non-RCT	—	—	36.6	21.1 (—)	—	—	SHS
Habel (2004)	Germany	52	Case-control study	Schizophrenia	Young adults, Adults	0	33.3 (—)	18 – 45	—	PANAS
Hagemann (1999)	Germany	36	Cross-sectional	—	—	66.6	23.5 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Hall (1999)	USA	41	Cross-sectional	—	Adults, Older adults	63.4	68.7 (5.8)	60 – 85	—	PANAS; SWLS
Hasler (2012)	USA	27	Case-control study	Primary Insomnia	Young adults, Adults	55.6	37.8 (—)	22 – 51	—	PANAS
He (2019)	China	68	Case-control study	Major Depressive Disorder	—	58.8	35.5 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Heller (2013a)	USA	35	non-RCT	Major Depressive Disorder	Young adults	54.34	31.7 (—)	19 – 60	—	PANAS
Heller (2013b)	USA	64	Cross-sectional	—	Adults, Older adults	62.5	58.2 (11.4)	38 – 79	White 65.63%; Black 31.25%; Other 3.125%	PANAS; RPWB
Hiyoshi-Taniguchi (2013)	Japan	12	Cross-sectional	—	—	83.3	21.9 (0.3)	—	—	PANAS
Hofer (2007)	Austria	38	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	50	33 (—)	20 – 48	—	PANAS
Isbel (2019)	Australia	67	RCT	—	—	62.8	71.0 (—)	—	—	PANAS

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Jung (2002)	USA	27	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	40.7	24.9 (5.8)	18 – 37	—	PANAS
Katsumi (2021)	Japan	70	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults	100	21.7 (1.8)	—	—	SHS
Kawamichi (2016)	Japan	113	Case-control study	—	Young adults	43.5	21.4 (—)	—	—	SHS
Killgore (2007)	USA	13	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	100	23.5 (2.1)	21 – 28	—	PANAS
Koepp (2009)	UK	25	Cross-sectional	—	Adults	28	—	30 – 52	—	PANAS
Kohn (2014)	Germany	54	Cross-sectional	—	—	51.9	29.9 (8.2)	—	—	PANAS
Kong (2015a)	China	294	Cross-sectional	—	—	53.8	21.6 (1)	—	—	PANAS; SWLS
Kong (2015b)	China	276	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults	53.9	21.6 (1.0)	18 – 25	—	SWLS
Kong (2015c)	China	286	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults	54.1	21.6 (1)	—	—	RPWB
Kong (2016)	China	290	Cross-sectional	—	—	54.1	21.6 (1.0)	—	—	PANAS; RPWB
Kong (2018)	China	100	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults	58	20.9 (2)	18 – 26	—	PANAS; SWLS
Kujawa (2015)	USA	381	Cohort	—	Children	45.1	3.6 (0.3)	—	White 94.8%; Black 2.9%; Asian 2.4%; Hispanic or Latino/a; 7.6%	AFARS
Kwon (2021)	South Korea	83	Cross-sectional	—	—	50.6	22.9 (—)	—	—	SWLS
Kyeong (2020)	South Korea	48	Cross-sectional	—	—	50	22.7 (—)	—	—	SWLS
Larson (2010)	USA	45	Cross-sectional	—	Young	51.1	21.3	18 – 29	—	LOT-R;

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

					adults, Adults		(2.4)			PANAS; SWLS
Lewis (2014)	UK	70	Cross-sectional	—	—	60	24.6 (3.8)	—	—	RPWB
Li (2011)	China	27	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	74	22.4 (2.5)	19 – 28	—	PANAS
Li (2016)	China	23	Cross-sectional	—	—	34.8	23.5 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Lichev (2015)	Germany	46	Cross-sectional	—	—	50	23.5 (2.7)	—	—	PANAS
Liu (2015)	Taiwan	66	Cross-sectional	—	—	53.2	21.6 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Lorenzetti (2009)	Australia	89	Case-control study	Major Depressive Disorder	—	68.5	33.8 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Love (2012)	USA	55	Cross-sectional	—	—	58.2	26.5 (—)	—	—	PANAS; RPWB
Luo (2014)	China	50	Case-control study	—	—	72	20.3 (—)	—	—	PANAS; SHS
Luo (2017)	China	138	Cross-sectional	—	—	62.3	21.1 (1.7)	—	—	PANAS; RPWB
Ma (2015)	China	46	non-RCT	—	Young adults	0	19 (—)	18 – 23	—	PANAS
Martikainen (2015)	USA	32	Case-control	Chronic non- neuropathic back pain	—	43.7	35 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Martin-Soelch (2021)	Switzerland	32	Case-control study	Relatives of Major Depressive Disorder	Young adults, Adults	75	24.8 (—)	20 – 37	—	PANAS
Mathiak (2013)	Germany	13	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults	0	—	18 – 26	—	PANAS
Matsunaga (2016)	Japan	132	Cross-sectional	—	Young	54.6	21.7	18 – 34	—	SHS

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Author (Year)	Country	N	Design	Condition	Age Group	Mean	SD	Range	Demographics	Measure
McPhee (2021)	Australia	28	RCT	—	adults, Adults	57.1	66.9 (—)	57 – 78	—	CASP-19
Memarian (2017)	USA	113	non-RCT	—	—	46.9	21 (—)	—	—	SWLS
Mennella (2017)	Italy	32	RCT	—	—	100	23.1 (1.2)	—	—	PANAS
Miskowiak (2008)	UK	24	RCT	—	—	58.3	23.5 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Morelli (2018)	USA	46	Cross-sectional	—	—	50	19.3 (1.2)	—	White 41%; Black 11%; Asian 15%; Hispanic or Latino/a 13%; Pacific Islander 4%; Mixed 13%; Other 3%	PANAS; SWLS
Mrazek (2016)	USA	31	non-RCT	—	—	48.4	21.5 (2.2)	—	—	PANAS; SWLS
Nardo (2011)	Sweden	30	Case-control study	PTSD	—	19.9	42.4 (—)	—	—	WHO
Oetken (2017)	Germany	21	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	52.3	26.5 (5.5)	21 – 42	—	PANAS
Park (2017)	Switzerland	50	RCT	—	—	78	25.6 (0.7)	—	—	SHS
Plitnick (2010)	USA	22	non-RCT	—	Young adults, Adults	59	—	19 – 27	—	PANAS
Puccetti (2021)	USA	52	Cross-sectional	—	Adults, Older adults	67	57.7 (10.5)	39 – 76	White 69%; Black 29%; Native American or Alaskan Native 2%	RPWB
Radsepehr (2019)	Iran	33	Cross-sectional	—	Young	48	—	19 – 29	—	PANAS

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Author (Year)	Country	N	Design	Blinding	Age Group	Mean (SD)	Range	Other	Outcome	
Rohr (2015)	Germany	43	Cross-sectional	—	adults, Adults	53.4	25.8 (2.4)	21 – 30	—	PANAS
Sailer (2016)	Sweden	25	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	60	23 (3.9)	19 – 38	—	PANAS
Sanchez (2015)	Brazil	22	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	45.5	26.3 (4.5)	19 – 37	—	PANAS
Sanger (2018)	UK	40	non-RCT	—	Adolescents	—	16.8 (0.6)	—	—	WHO
Sato (2005)	Japan	18	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	44.4	25.7 (3.4)	20 – 31	—	PANAS
Sato (2015)	Japan	51	Cross-sectional	—	—	51	22.5 (4.5)	—	—	SHS
Sato (2019)	Japan	51	Cross-sectional	—	—	50.1	22.5 (4.5)	—	—	SHS
Schmitt (2019)	Germany	21	non-RCT	—	—	0	27.1 (4.1)	—	—	PANAS
Schneider (1997)	Germany	12	Cross-sectional	—	Adults	41.7	29.7 (4.3)	25 – 36	—	PANAS
Schöne (2018)	Germany	34	RCT	—	—	76.5	21.2 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Shi (2016)	China	50	Cross-sectional	—	—	48	21 (1.5)	—	—	PANAS
Shi (2019)	China	212	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults, Adults	54.2	22.4 (1.5)	19 – 27	—	PANAS
Singleton (2014)	USA	14	non-RCT	—	Adults	64.3	37.9 (4.3)	29 – 44	White 78.6%; Black 7.1%; Asian 7.1%;	RPWB

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

										Multiracial 7.1%
Spironelli (2020)	Italy	62	Case-control study	Major Depressive Disorder	—	69.3	53.2 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Suslow (2015)	Germany	34	Cross-sectional	—	—	100	24.7 (3.3)	—	—	PANAS
Talmon (2021)	USA	269	Case-control study	Social Anxiety Disorder	—	—	—	—	—	SWLS
Urry (2004)	USA	84	Cross-sectional	—	Adults	48.8	58.5 (0.81)	57 – 60	—	PANAS; RPWB; SWLS
Van Reekum (2007)	USA	29	Cross-sectional	—	Adults	62.1	63.5 (—)	61 – 65	—	RPWB
Vanderhasselt (2013)	Brazil	25	non-RCT	—	—	68	22.1 (3.8)	—	—	PANAS
Velikova (2017)	—	20	non-RCT	—	Young adults	50	37.9 (—)	22 – 51	—	SWLS
Volkow (2011)	USA	47	Cross-sectional	—	—	51.1	31.5 (—)	—	—	MPQ-WB
Wang (2020)	China	31	Cross-sectional	—	—	45.2	20.2 (0.3)	—	—	PANAS
Waytz (2015)	USA	84	Cross-sectional	—	—	51.2	25.3 (9.9)	—	—	RPWB; MLQ; SWLS
Woods (2020)	USA	96	Cross-sectional	—	Adolescents	30.2	16.3 (—)	14 – 18	—	PANAS-C
Xu (2018)	China	48	RCT	—	—	56.25	22 (1.8)	—	—	PANAS; SWLS
Yu (2012)	China	36	Cross-sectional	—	—	50	21.6 (—)	—	—	MUNSH
Zhang (2014)	China	16	Cross-sectional	—	—	0	27 (4)	—	—	PANAS

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Zhang (2015)	China	25	Cross-sectional	—	Young adults	56	18.6 (—)	18 – 24	—	PANAS
Zhang (2017)	China	50	Case-control study	Depression	—	70.01	32.5 (—)	—	—	PANAS
Zubieta (2003)	USA	14	Cross-sectional	—	—	100	36 (9)	—	—	PANAS

Note. LOT-R = Life Orientation Test-Revised; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale; PANAS = Positive and Negative Affect Schedule; SHS = Subjective Happiness Scale; PANAS-C = Positive and Negative Affect Schedule for Children; WHO = World Health Organization Well-Being Index; WHOQOL-BREF = World Health Organization Quality of Life – BREF ; RPWB = Ryff's Scales of Psychological Well-Being; AFARS = Affect and Arousal Scale; CASP-19 = Quality of Life scale; MPQ-WB = Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire Well-being Scale; MLQ = Meaning in Life Questionnaire; MUNSH = Scale of Happiness of the Memorial University of Newfoundland

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Table 2

Characteristics of Intervention Studies (N=22)

	Non-RCT (n=14)	RCT (n=8)
Psychological intervention (n=6)	Cognitive-emotional regulation training program (Dolcos, 2021)	Cognitive training + Bacopa monnieri (McPhee, 2021)
	Prolonged exposure treatment (Fonzo, 2017)	Neurofeedback training (Mennella, 2017)
	12-week lasting self-guided positive imagery training (Velikova, 2017)	Positive psychological intervention (Xu, 2018)
Mindfulness (n=6)	School-Based Mindfulness Training (Sanger, 2018)	Mindfulness Meditation (Davidson, 2003)
	Mindfulness-based intervention (Singleton, 2014)	Mindfulness training intervention (Isbel, 2019)
	Intensive multifaceted intervention: physical exercise + formal mindfulness practice + lecture or discussion (Mrazek, 2016)	Mindful breath awareness meditation (Schöne, 2018)
Pharmacological interventions (n=4)	Treatment with either fluoxetine or venlafaxine (Heller, 2013)	Commitment to spend money on others vs self (Park, 2017)
	SSRI (30 mg citalopram) (Ma, 2015)	Injection of Erythropoietin (Miskowiak, 2008)
Physical exercise (n=3)	Aerobic exercise training (Gondoh, 2009)	
	Low- and high-intensity exercise (Schmitt, 2019)	
	Intensive multifaceted intervention: physical exercise + formal mindfulness practice + lecture or discussion (Mrazek, 2016)	
Non-invasive brain stimulations (n=2)	Active HF-rTMS (Baeken, 2008)	
	Sham-controlled tDCS (Vanderhasselt, 2013)	
Light exposure (n=1)	Light exposure (Plitnick, 2010)	

Notes. RCT = randomized controlled trial; SSRI = Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor.

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Table 3

Task-Based Functional Imaging Studies (N=57)

First Author (Year)	BIM(s)	Task Paradigm/ description	Domain	ROIs	Brain Outcome Measure
Arjmand (2017)	EEG	Music Mood Induction/ Stimuli	experienced affect	Mid-frontal (F3/4, FC3/4)	Alpha asymmetry
Costa (2019)	fMRI	Imagination Tasks: Sentence Stimuli	experienced affect	Whole-brain	BOLD activity
Cunningham (2014)	fMRI	IAPS (Lang 1998)	experienced affect	Amg	BOLD activity
Davidson (2003)	EEG	Emotion induction: writing task	experienced affect	Anterior (F3/4, FC7/8, T3/4, C3/4)	Alpha asymmetry
Flores (2018)	fMRI	Monetary-reward fMRI task, Social Reward Task (Davey 2010)	reward	"Social" brain regions (from Neurosynth)	BOLD activity
Fonzo (2017)	TMS, fMRI	Emotion Reactivity Task (Etkin 2004), Emotional Conflict Task, Reappraisal Task	emotion regulation	Whole-brain, Amg, alns, FPC	BOLD activity, seed-based functional connectivity (task-related)
Geethanjali (2019)	EEG	Mood Induction: Music Stimuli	experienced affect	Whole-brain	Alpha, beta, and theta band energy
George (1995)	PET	Mood induction	experienced affect	Whole-brain	Cerebral blood flow
Habel (2004)	fMRI	Mood Induction (Schneider 1992)	experienced affect	Amg, ThI, Pcn, ACC, OFC, STC, dlPFC	BOLD activity
Heller (2013a)	fMRI	IAPS (Lang 1998)	affective perception	NAcc, PFC	BOLD activity, seed-based functional connectivity (task-related)
Heller (2013b)	fMRI	IAPS (Lang 1998)	emotion regulation	Whole-brain	BOLD activity
Hiyoshi-Taniguchi (2013)	EEG	Emotional Judgment	affective perception	Whole-brain	Alpha, beta, and theta relative power

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Hofer (2007)	fMRI	Mood Induction (Schneider 1992)	experienced affect	Whole-brain	BOLD activity
Killgore (2007)	fMRI	Stimulation tasks: viewing images of high calorie and low calorie foods	affective perception	Occipital lobe	BOLD activity
Koepp (2009)	PET	Mood induction	experienced affect	Whole-brain	DPN receptor binding (opioid)
Kohn (2014)	fMRI	Mood Induction (Schneider 1992)	experienced affect	Whole-brain	BOLD activity
Kujawa (2015)	EEG,ERP	Monetary Reward Task	reward	Frontal midline (Fz, FCz, Cz)	Feedback negativity
Kyeong (2020)	fMRI	Self-evaluation tasks: Self-Criticism Task, Self-Respect Task	experienced affect	PCC, vmPFC, NAcc	Seed-based functional connectivity
Larson (2010)	ERP	Response inhibition tests: Eriksen Flanker Task	performance monitoring	Frontal midline (FCz, Cz)	Error-related negativity, post-error positivity
Li (2011)	fMRI	Decision-making: Loss Decision Task, Visual Perceptual Decision Task	reward	Whole-brain, Amg	BOLD activity
Li (2016)	fMRI	rtfMRI-nf training paradigm	emotion regulation	Whole-brain, Ins, Amg, ACC, dmPFC	BOLD activity
Lichev (2015)	fMRI	Facial emotion recognition	affective perception	Whole-brain, Amg	BOLD activity
Liu (2015)	EEG	Monetary reward: Dynamic Reward Task	reward	Midline (Fz, Cz, Pz), parietal (P7/8), frontal midline (Fz, FCz, Cz)	N170, early emotional positivity, feedback-related negativity
Love (2012)	PET	Pain task	pain	Whole-brain	D2/D3 receptor binding (dopamine)
Ma (2015)	fMRI	Chinese Facial Affective Picture System, Repetition-Detection Task	affective perception	Whole-brain, Amg	BOLD activity
Martikainen (2015)	PET	Pain task	pain	Whole-brain	D2/D3 receptor distribution volume ratio (dopamine), K ratio (11C[raclopride] tracer transport)
Martin-Soelch (2021)	fMRI	Monetary reward: Fribourg Reward Task	reward	Whole-brain, Cd, Put, Pal, NAcc	BOLD activity

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Mathiak (2013)	fMRI	Playing a violent video game	experienced affect	Whole-brain	BOLD activity
Matsunaga (2016)	fMRI	Life Event Imagination Task	experienced affect	Whole-brain	BOLD activity, gray matter density
Memarian (2017)	fMRI	Affect Labeling	affective perception	Whole-brain	BOLD activity
Mennella (2017)	EEG	Real-time neurofeedback task: emotion regulation	emotion regulation	Frontal (F3/4)	Alpha asymmetry, alpha power
Miskowiak (2008)	fMRI	Gender discrimination task	affective perception	Whole-brain, Amg	BOLD activity
Morelli (2018)	fMRI	Card-Guessing Task, Monetary Incentive Delay task	reward	Whole-brain, vStr, vmPFC, mPFC	BOLD activity
Nardo (2011)	SPECT	Traumatic memory task	experienced affect	Whole-brain	cerebral blood flow
Oetken (2017)	fMRI	Mood Induction: Music stimuli; Self-Evaluation Task	experienced affect	Whole-brain	BOLD activity
Park (2017)	fMRI	Decision-Making Task	reward	Whole-brain, vStr, OFC	BOLD activity, seed-based functional connectivity (task-related), edgewise connectivity (task-related)
Plitnick (2010)	EEG	Light Exposure	experienced affect	Whole-brain	Alpha, alpha-theta, beta, theta, and gamma relative power
Puccetti (2021)	fMRI	IAPS (Lang 1998)	affective perception	Amg	BOLD activity
Radsepehr (2019)	EEG	Mood induction: Video clips	experienced affect	Whole-brain	absolute alpha power
Sailer (2016)	fMRI	External stimuli: Robot arm stroking/touching	affective perception	Whole-brain, plns	BOLD activity, seed-based connectivity
Sanchez (2015)	fMRI	Discrimination/Judgement task	affective perception	Whole-brain, Amg	BOLD activity
Sanger (2018)	ERP	Facial/emotional recognition: Emotional oddball	affective perception	Centroparietal (CP2/4, P2/4)	P3b amplitude

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Sato (2005)	EEG	Monetary reward: Two-choice decision-making task	reward	Midline (Fz, Cz, Pz)	Feedback negativity, P300
Schmitt (2019)	fMRI	Face-Processing fMRI paradigm, Radboud Faces Database of Facial Affect series (Langner 2010)	affective perception	Whole-brain	BOLD activity
Schneider (1997)	fMRI	Mood induction task, cognitive task	experienced affect	Amyg, cingulum, STC, ITC, frontal white matter, SMC, Ins	BOLD activity
Schöne (2018)	EEG	Multiple object tracking (MOT) paradigms	visual attention	Whole-brain	Steady-state visually evoked potential
Shi (2016)	fMRI	Self-evaluation: Personality Trait Adjective Pool	sense of self	Whole-brain	BOLD activity
Spironelli (2020)	EEG	Phonological task, Semantic task	linguistic/semantic	Frontoparietal (F3/4/7/8/9/10, FC3/4, P3/4/7/8, TP7/8, O1/2)	Normalized alpha amplitude, normalized high-beta amplitude
Suslow (2015)	fMRI	Bodily Expressive Action Stimulus Test	affective perception	Amyg, Str, Thl	BOLD activity
Talmon (2021)	fMRI	Self-evaluation: self-judgment task	Sense of self	mPFC, PCC	BOLD activity
Van Reekum (2007)	fMRI	IAPS (Lang 1998)	affective perception	Amyg, PFC	BOLD activity
Vanderhasselt (2013)	EEG, ERP, tDCS	Cued Emotional Control Task (CECT)	affective perception	dIPFC (tDCS), whole-brain	N450
Woods (2019)	fMRI	Best Friend fMRI task	social perception	Whole-brain	BOLD activity
Yu (2012)	EEG	Emotion-priming Diagram, IAPS (Lang 1998)	affective perception	Midline (Fz, Cz, Pz)	late positive potential
Zhang (2017)	ERP	Cyberball	social exclusion	Frontal midline (Fz, FCz, Cz)	P3 amplitude
Zhang (2015)	fMRI	Chinese Affective Picture System	affective perception	Emotion regions (56 ROIs)	Network and nodal graph theory indices
Zubieta (2003)	MRI, PET	Mood induction	experienced affect	Whole-brain	μ -opioid receptor availability

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Notes. BIM = Brain imaging modalities; Amg = Amygdala, (a/p)Ins = (Anterior/Posterior) Insula, FPC = frontopolar cortex, Thl = Thalamus, Pcn = Precuneus, ACC = Anterior Cingulate Cortex, OFC = Orbitofrontal Cortex, (S/I)TC = (Superior/Inferior) Temporal Cortex, dl/dm/vm/mPFC = (Dorsolateral/Dorsomedial/Ventromedial/Medial) Prefrontal Cortex, PCC = Posterior Cingulate Cortex, NAcc = Nucleus Accumbens, Cd = Caudate, Put = Putamen, Pal = Pallidum, (v)Str = (Ventral) Striatum, SMC = Sensorimotor Cortex

In review

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Table 4

Resting-State Studies (N=30)

First Author (Year)	BIM	ROIs	Brain Outcome Measure
Alessandri (2015)	EEG	Whole-brain	Alpha asymmetry
Baeken (2008)	rTMS or TBS	dIPFC	n/a
Day (2019)	EEG	Mid-frontal (F3/F4)	Alpha asymmetry
Dolcos (2021)	fMRI	Amg, dIPFC, vIPFC, mPFC	Seed-based functional connectivity
Hagemann (1999)	EEG	Whole-brain	Alpha power density, alpha asymmetry
Hall (1999)	EEG	Frontal regions (F3/4)	Alpha power density, alpha asymmetry
Hasler (2012)	MRI, PET	Str, mPFC	Glucose metabolism
He (2019)	fMRI	vIPFC, sgACC, Hipp, Amg, Cd, Put, SFG, MFG, IFG, OFC, Rec, Olf, Ins, PHG, cingulate, Pal, Thl	Edgewise functional connectivity
Isbel (2019)	EEG	Frontal regions (Fp1/2, F3/4, F7/8)	Alpha asymmetry
Jung (2002)	MRS	Frontal white matter, occipitoparietal white matter	N-acetylaspartate, creatine, and choline
Katsumi (2021)	fMRI	Whole-brain	Seed-based functional connectivity
Kong (2018)	fMRI	Whole-brain	fALFF
Kong (2016)	fMRI	Whole-brain	ReHo
Kong (2015a)	fMRI	Whole-brain	fALFF

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Kong (2015b)	fMRI	ACC, OFC, vmPFC, Ins, Thl, Hipp, Amg	ReHo
Kong (2015c)	fMRI	Whole-brain	fALFF
Kwon (2021)	fMRI	NAcc, OFC, sgACC, Ins	Seed-based functional connectivity
Luo (2017)	fMRI	DMN	Within-network functional connectivity
Luo (2014)	fMRI	Whole-brain	ReHo
Mrazek (2016)	fMRI	Whole-brain, PCC	Seed-based functional connectivity, degree centrality
Rohr (2015)	fMRI	Amg	Seed-based functional connectivity
Sato (2019)	fMRI	Whole-brain, Amg	fALFF, seed-based functional connectivity
Shi (2019)	fMRI	Ins, rACC, dACC, dlPFC, OFC	Seed-based functional connectivity
Urry (2004)	EEG	Whole-brain	Alpha asymmetry
Velikova (2017)	EEG	Whole-brain	Current source density
Volkow (2011)	PET	Whole-brain	Glucose metabolism
Wang (2020)	EEG	PCC, amPFC	Power spectrum, EEG functional connectivity (power envelope correlation)
Waytz (2015)	fMRI	DMN	Within-network functional connectivity
Xu (2018)	EEG	Frontal regions (F3/4/7/8, FC3/4/5/6)	Alpha asymmetry
Zhang (2014)	EEG	Whole-brain	Alpha, beta, and theta relative power, theta/beta ratio

Notes. BIM = Brain imaging modalities; (dl/vl/vm/m/am)PFC = (Dorsolateral/Ventrolateral/Ventromedial/Medial/Anterior Medial) Prefrontal Cortex, Amg = Amygdala, (a)Ins = (Anterior) Insula, FPC = Frontopolar Cortex, Str = Striatum, (sg/r/d)ACC = (Subgenual/Rostral/Dorsal) Anterior Cingulate Cortex, Hipp = Hippocampus, Cd = Caudate, Put = Putamen, (S/M/I)FG = (Superior/Middle/Inferior) Frontal Gyrus, OFC = Orbitofrontal Cortex, Rec = Rectus, Olf = Olfactory areas, PHG = Parahippocampal gyrus, Pal = Pallidum, Thl = Thalamus, NAcc = Nucleus Accumbens, DMN = Default Mode Network, PCC = Posterior Cingulate Cortex

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Table 5

Structural MRI studies (N=8)

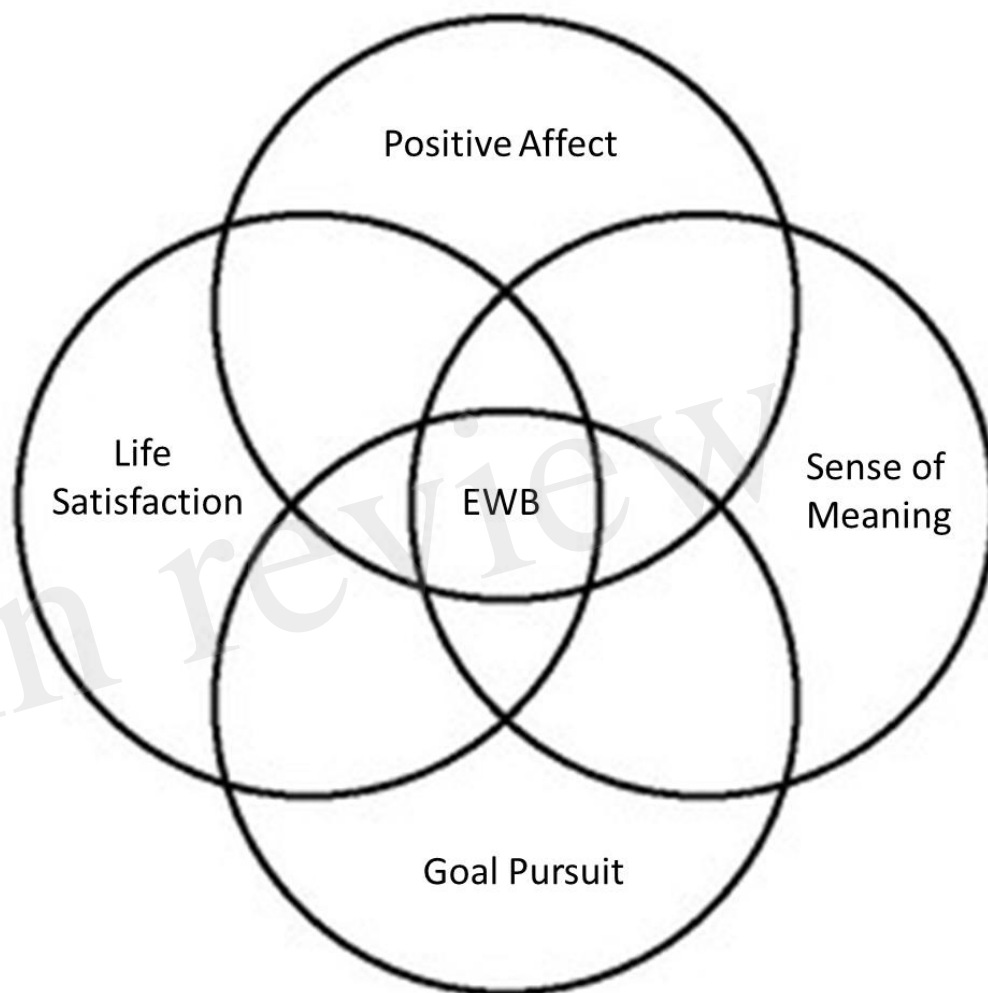
First Author (Year)	BIM	ROIs	Brain Outcome Measure
Dennison (2015)	MRI	Total brain volume, Amg, Cd, Put, NAcc, Pal, Hipp	Total MRI volume
Gondoh (2009)	MRI	Whole-brain	Gray matter volume
Kawamichi (2016)	MRI	Str	Gray matter density
Lewis (2014)	MRI	Whole-brain	Gray matter volume
Lorenzetti (2009)	MRI	Pituitary gland	Total MRI volume
McPhee (2021)	DTI	Whole-brain	White matter mean diffusivity/fractional anisotropy, gray matter dispersion/neurite density
Sato (2015)	MRI	ACC, Pcn, Amg	Gray matter volume
Singleton (2014)	MRI	Brainstem, cerebellum, PCC, TPJ	Gray matter concentration

Notes. BIM = Brain imaging modalities; Amg = Amygdala, Cd = Caudate, Put = Putamen, NAcc = Nucleus Accumbens, Pal = Pallidum, Hipp = Hippocampus, Str = Striatum, DMN = Default Mode Network, ACC = Anterior Cingulate Cortex, Pcn = Precuneus, PCC = Posterior Cingulate Cortex, TPJ = Temporoparietal Junction

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Figure 1

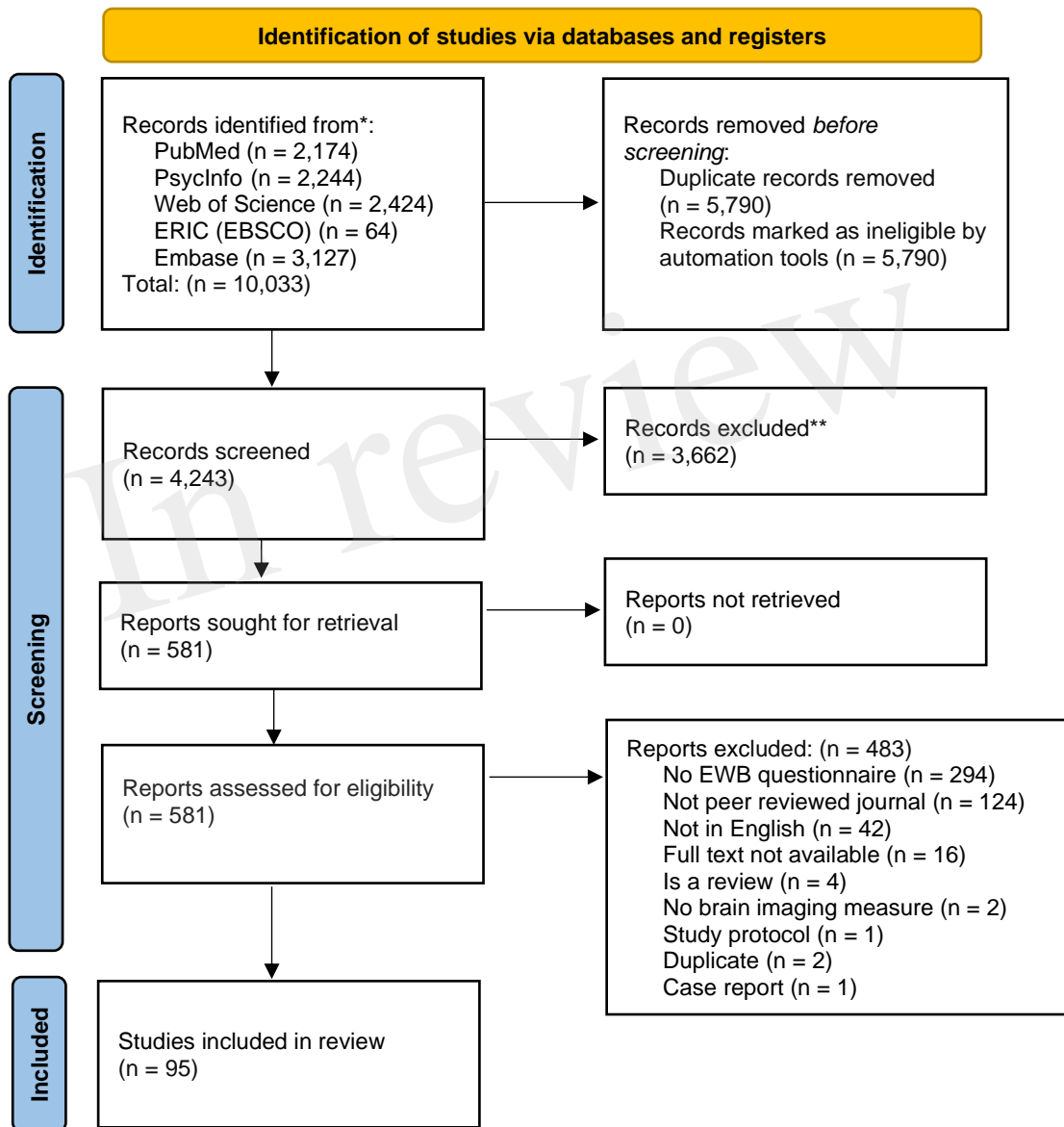
Graphic Illustration of Key Emotional Well-Being Constructs



BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Figure 2

PRISMA 2020 Flow Diagram for the Systematic Search on Brain Imaging Studies of Emotional Well-Being

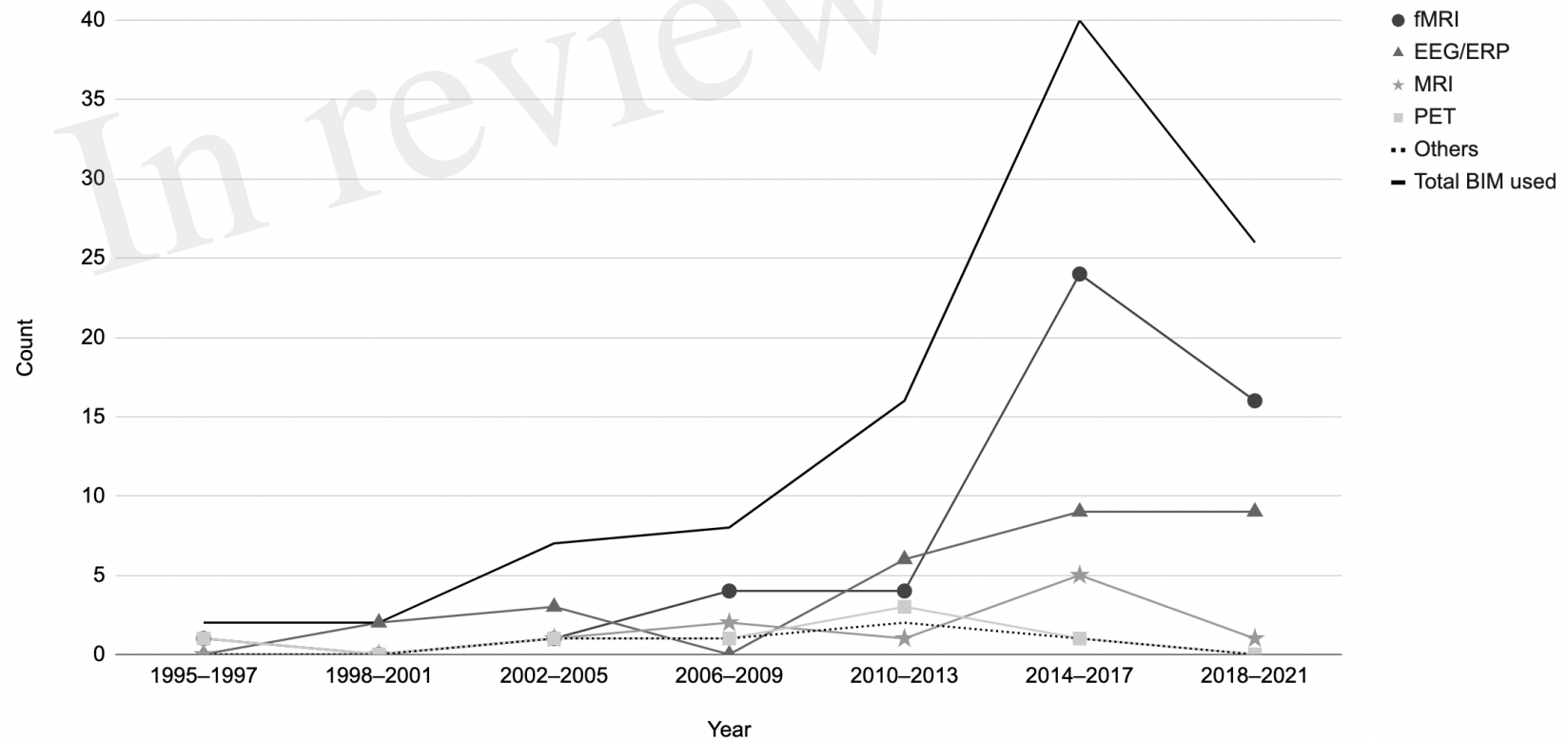


Notes. From: Page MJ, McKenzie JE, Bossuyt PM, Boutron I, Hoffmann TC, Mulrow CD, et al. The PRISMA 2020 statement: an updated guideline for reporting systematic reviews. *BMJ* 2021;372:n71. doi: 10.1136/bmj.n71 For more information, visit: <http://www.prisma-statement.org/>

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Figure 3

Distribution of Papers by Year

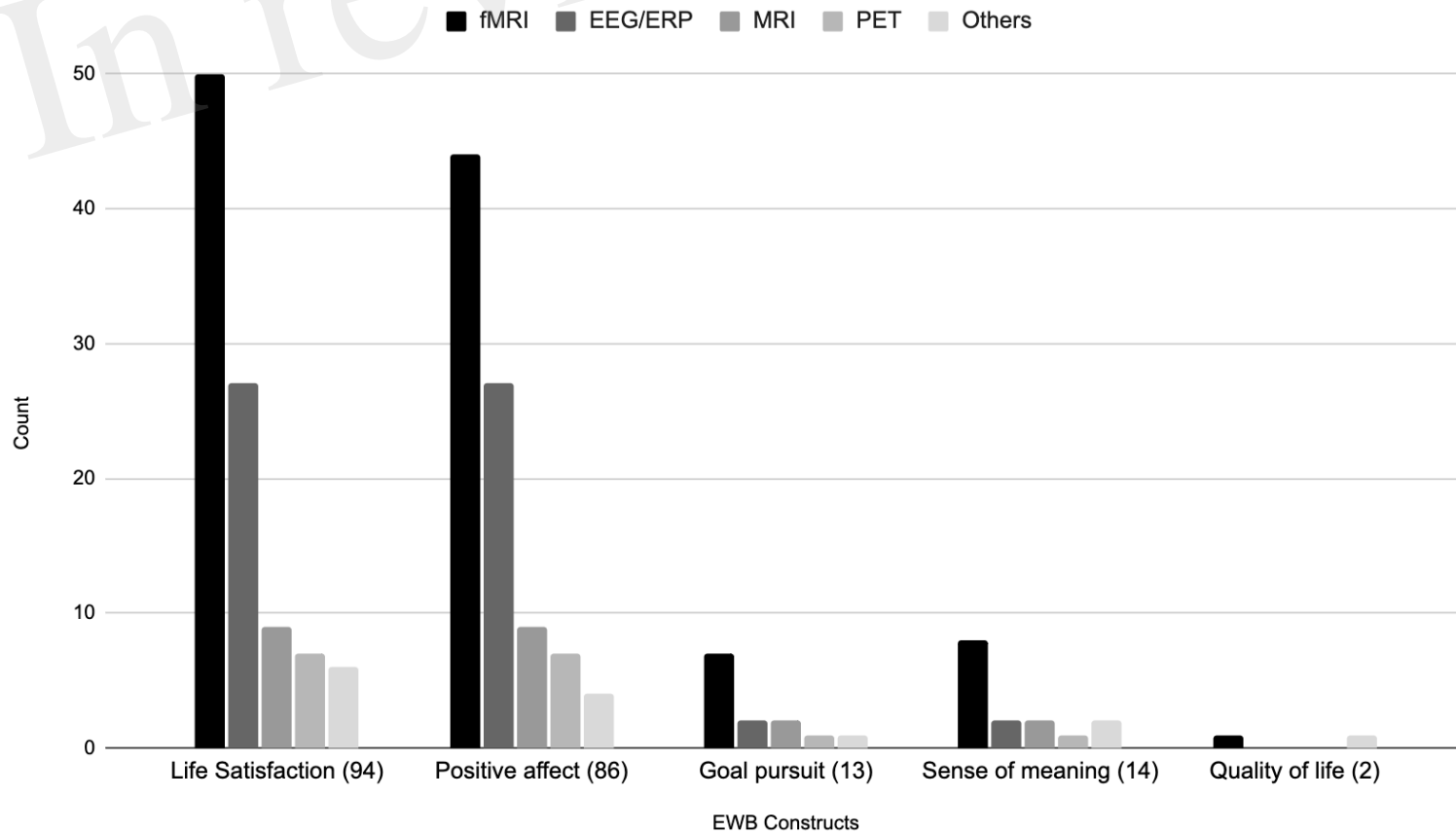


Notes. Distribution of papers by year based on the brain imaging modalities utilized (fMRI, EEG/ERP, MRI, PET). Others = TMS, rTMS/TBS, tDCS, SPECT and MRS. A total of 101 brain imaging modalities used across the 95 studies included in the current review.

BRAIN IMAGING STUDIES OF EMOTIONAL WELL-BEING

Figure 4

Bar Chart of EWB Constructs Being Investigated by Brain Imaging Modalities



Notes. Others = TMS, rTMS/TBS, tDCS, SPECT and MRS.

In review