Research Article

Fear of Happiness Predicts Subjective and Psychological Well-Being above the Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS) and Behavioral Activation System (BAS) Model of Personality

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Abstract

Fear of happiness is an important psychological construct and has a significant effect on life outcomes such as well-being. This study sought to examine whether fear of happiness could explain variance in subjective well-being and psychological well-being domains after controlling for Behavioral Inhibition System (BIS) and Behavioral Activation System (BAS) Model of Personality. A total of 243 participants (189 males and 54 females) completed Fear of Happiness Scale, Positive-Negative Affect Schedule, Psychological Well-being Scales and BIS/BAS personality scales. In terms of correlational analyses, fear of happiness revealed significant negative correlations with positive affect, all domains of psychological well-being except purpose in life (autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, and self-acceptance) and BAS fun seeking dimension while a significant positive correlation was found with negative affect. With regard to hierarchical multiple regression analyses, fear of happiness accounted for a unique variance in both affective aspects of subjective well-being, namely positive and negative affect and three aspects of psychological well-being (autonomy, positive relations and self-acceptance) after controlling for BIS/BAS personality model. These results suggested that fear of happiness is uniquely useful to both subjective and psychological well-being beyond the effect of the aspects of BIS/BAS personality.

Keywords

BIS/BAS personality model, fear of happiness, psychological well-being, and subjective well-being

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Fear of happiness is characterized as relatively stable beliefs that experiencing different positive emotions may have negative outcomes on individuals' well-being (e.g., happiness, satisfaction) (Joshanloo, 2013; Joshanloo, 2018). In order to prevent possible unpleasant consequences, individuals tend to supress their authentic feelings, dampen the experience of positive affect or avoid any action that is associated with success, overexcitement and joy (Joshanloo, 2013; Joshanloo, 2014; Joshanloo et al., 2014; Joshanloo & Weijers, 2014). In this regard, the concept of fear of happiness is conceptually similar to more negative psychological constructs as it includes negative orientation toward life.

Although it appears odd to consider positive feelings as associated to negative outcomes in western society, a considerable number of non-western cultures disfavour happiness due to various believes such as invitation for evil eyes, distancing from God, etc. (Joshanloo, 2013). In terms of conceptualizing a global concept of fear of happiness and identifying the psychological ties to these stable beliefs, Joshanloo and Weijers (2014) conducted a literature review and argued the possible different roots for possessing fear of happiness across the cultures. They grouped these relatively universal reasons into four main categories: (i) being happy invites bad things to happen; (ii) being happy is morally perceived as being a bad person; (iii) verbalizing happiness is not good for people; (iv) seeking for personal happiness is not good for someone. In this regard, they concluded that individuals might develop fear of happiness and avoid the experiences producing positive feelings such as happiness, excitement, cheerfulness, and joy with the effect of cultural values and norms.

Considering the importance of fear of happiness on crucial life outcomes and existence of the concept across various cultures, quantifying and operationalization of the construct is quite recent. For instance, Joshanloo (2013) developed fear of happiness scale measuring the idea that possessing positive emotions to an extreme degree (e.g., having lots of joy and fun causes bad things to happen) may be a sign of approaching unhappiness. However, to measure the main idea of fear of happiness concept, the items on the scale do not comprise of statements that refer to causes of fear of happiness (e.g., fear of being punished in hereafter). The scale was found to be unidimensional and reliability and validity evidences were established across cultures at both individual and cultural levels (Joshanloo et al., 2014).

In the last few years, researchers attempted to examine fear of happiness within different areas of psychology, such as well-being (e.g., Sarı, & Çakır, 2016). Although providing pivotal findings regarding fear of happiness, these studies merely focused on hedonic aspects of well-being. Yet, psychology literature approaches well-being in two ways. Previously, literature viewed well-being as the absence of psychiatric diseases rather than the presence of positive psychological functioning (Ryff, 1989). Recently, positive functioning approaches to well-being were proposed to the literature due to the advances in the field of positive psychology. Within the framework of positive functioning, two schools of thought identify well-being from a hedonic and eudaimonic approach, namely subjective well-being and psychological well-being, respectively.

Hedonic traditions viewed well-being as the reflection of one's current state of positive feelings (e.g., Myers & Diener, 1995, p.11) . Thus, studies related to hedonic tradition only focused on constructs that are concerned with subjective wellness, such as happiness, life satisfaction, or positive/negative affect (Diener & Suh, 1997; Seligman, 2004). Subjective well-being is

characterised as a person's cognitive judgement and affective experiences of his or her life (Diener, Suh & Oishi, 1997; Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2002). Subjective well-being is a tripartite model including three separate, yet closely related components: (1) the presence of positive affect; (2) infrequent of negative affect; and (3) satisfaction with life (Diener et al., 1997; 2002). Positive affect refers to the extent to which a person experiences positive emotions, moods and feelings (e.g. pleasant, happy, joyful, interest). Negative affect refers to the extent to which a person experiences negative emotions, moods and feelings (e.g., unpleasant, sad, afraid, angry). Satisfaction with life refers to the extent to which a person feels that his or her life is satisfying as a whole and specific life domain (e.g. relationships, work, health). On the other hand, the eudaimonic tradition approaches well-being from the perspective of overcoming life challenges, such as having aims and goals, finding meaning in life, reaching one's true potential (Ryff, 2014). Due to the absence of theoretical rationale, previous literature lacked in terms of models of psychological well-being. Yet, Ryff (1989; 2014) and Ryff and Keyes (1995) proposed a new model of positive human functioning named *psychological well-being*. Psychological well-being is a multi-facets construct, grounded on well-established theories. It primarily focuses on optimal human functioning by incorporating Maslow's (1968) self-actualization theory, Roger's (1961) fully functioning individual, Jung's (1933) individual psyche, Allport's (1961) maturity, Erikson's (1959) psychosocial developmental life span, Buhler's (1935) basic human tendencies, Neugarten's (1968) personal change description, and Jahoda's (1958) principles of mental health. After reviewing these salient psychological theories, Ryff conceptualized psychological well-being as including following dimensions: Autonomy, Self-acceptance, Positive Relations with Others, Personal Growth, Purpose in Life, and Environmental Mastery. Autonomy refers to the ability to act according to one's own evaluations rather than in response to social pressure (Ryff, 1989). Individuals with higher levels of autonomy are more independent, and tend to act on the basis of their own convictions (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Environmental mastery refers to extent to which individuals are able to dissolve complex situations within the environment. People with high levels of environmental mastery are competent in terms of using the opportunities available to them within their environment effectively, and to create an environment that is congruent to their goals, and needs (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Self-acceptance is considered as a core component of positive functioning in life (Čančer & Žižek, 2015). Conceptually, self-acceptance refers to the ability to possess positive attitudes toward one's self and one's past additional to accepting one's own strengths and limitations (Ryff, 1995; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Personal growth refers to a sense of personal development and involves enjoying new experiences and having an interest in acquiring new knowledge (Ryff, 1989, 1995). Positive relations with others reflect the competency to build warm, trustworthy, and rewarding relations with other people. Individuals with high levels of positive relations are more empathetic, intimate, and affectionate and care for the well-being of others (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Purpose in life is viewed a key characteristic of eudaimonic well-being and linked to the belief that life has aims, objectives and meaning (Boylan & Ryff, 2015; Ryff, 1995).

Although the concepts of subjective and psychological well-being differ in terms of approaching the idea of well-being, one common characteristic of the constructs is the interwoven relationship with positive feelings in the conceptualizations. As the concept of fear of happiness reflects the

suppression of positive feelings, there is a potential link between the fear of happiness and the two types of well-being. In this regard, arrays of studies were conducted in the literature to understand the relationship between fear of happiness and well-being. Researchers, using the Fear of Happiness Scale, have found that fear of happiness negatively predicts subjective and psychological well-being referring higher fear of happiness predicts lower subjective and psychological well-being (Sarı & Çakır, 2016). In a more recent study, Türk, Malkoç, and Kocabıyık (2017) found that higher scores on measure of fear of happiness are associated with lower scores on measure of satisfaction with life.

Furthermore, fear of happiness significantly predicts life satisfaction at both individual level where individual differences are examined within a culture and cultural-level where individual differences are examined across cultures. At the individual-level, the results suggest that fear of happiness is negatively related to life satisfaction and positively related to dampening, down regulation of positive emotions, affects or moods. At the cultural level (e.g. Japan, South Korea, New Zealand, Iran), the results suggest that fear of happiness is positively correlated with verticality, the tendency to rely on superiors' beliefs, ideas and experiences rather than individual own beliefs, ideas and experiences (Smith, Peterson, & Schwartz, 2002), conformity, the avoidance of actions that cause harms to others and social norms (Schwartz, 1994), societal cynicism, a society's pessimistic view of human nature (Bond et al., 2004), and dynamic externality, the idea that although life events are predetermined, individuals can affect the outcomes somehow (Leung & Bond, 2008), and negatively associated with subjective well-being (Joshanloo et al., 2014). Using slightly different measure of fear of happiness, one study has examined the relationship between fear of happiness and mental health disorders among a clinical sample in the United Kingdom (Gilbert et al., 2012 higher levels of extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience diminished the effect of fear of happiness on positive affect while higher levels of agreeableness and neuroticism increased the effect of fear of happiness on positive affect. However, other than higher levels of extraversion, which diminished the effect of fear of happiness on negative affect, fear of happiness and negative affect were found to be positively associated with conscientiousness, openness to experience, agreeableness and neuroticism.

As literature points out, fear of happiness was investigated in relation to subjective well-being and Big Five personality traits. Yet, literature is scarce in terms of examining the fear of happiness with dimensions of both psychological well-being and subjective well-being within different models of personality. In this regard, the aim of the present study was threefold: The first aim was to explore the relationship between fear of happiness and dimensions of subjective and psychological well-being. In relation to that, we expected that fear of happiness would correlate positively with negative affect-a component of subjective well-being, and correlate negatively with positive affect-another component of subjective well-being, and all dimensions of psychological well-being. A few studies have attempted to establish the relationship between fear of happiness and subjective well-being and psychological well-being. With regard to this, previous research used a relatively different model of subjective well-being and psychological well-being in which these two constructs have been characterised as unidimensional (Sarı & Çakır, 2016; Türk et al., 2017). However, investigating fear of happiness within multidimensional models of well-being would enhance our understating of fear

of happiness as a correlate of well-being. The second aim was to explore how fear of happiness was related to subscales of BIS/BAS model of personality, as this has not been previously reported. With respect to this, we expected that fear of happiness would correlate negatively with components of BAS, namely drive, fun seeking, and reward responsiveness, whereas fear of happiness would correlate positively with BIS. This expectation was grounded on the idea that those high in BAS sensitivity actively seek for positive emotional experiences, while those high in BIS are not. Finally, the study evaluated whether fear of happiness could account for unique variance in predicting subjective well-being and psychological well-being after controlling for components of BIS/BAS model of personality. We expected that fear of happiness would uniquely predict subjective well-being and psychological well-being above personality. Showing how fear of happiness predicts well-being indices beyond personality model would be useful to have a firmer understanding of fear of happiness and its unique relationship to subjective and psychological well-being.

Method

Participants

A Turkish community sample was selected for the present study. A total of 270 adults from different socio-economic background participated in the study. The majority of the sample were male ($N = 207$, 77%); 63 respondents indicated that they were female (23%). Participants ranged in age from 20-65 years ($M = 38.95$; $SD = 7.76$).

With regard to marital status, a total of 86% was married, 13% single and 2% widowed. The participants predominantly graduated from university (51%) with postgraduate (40%) being the next highest reported education qualification and college (3%), high school (5%), secondary-primary school (1%). Participation in the study was voluntary and the participants' confidentiality and anonymity were assured.

Measures

Fear of Happiness Scale (FHS: Joshanloo, 2013; Joshanloo et al., 2014). The FHS is a unidimensional scale consisting of 5 items (e.g. I prefer not to be too joyful, because usually joy is followed by sadness). The scale aims to measure the global belief that experiencing of positive emotions, specifically to an extreme degree, may have negative consequences. Respondents are required to answer each question on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Higher scores on the scale represent higher level of fear of happiness. The Turkish adaptation of the scale has shown satisfactory evidence of reliability and validity (Yildirim & Aziz, 2017). Cronbach's alpha for the scale in the present study was .88.

Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS: Watson et al., 1988). The PANAS includes two dimensions of ten adjectives each: Positive Affect (PA) and Negative Affect (NA). The scale aims to capture one's happiness level by assessing these two emotional states. PA measures the extent to which an individual experiences positive affect (e.g., enthusiastic, strong, and excited) while NA measures the extent to which an individual feels negative affect (e.g., distress, upset, and irritable). Each adjective is answered on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from very slightly or not at all (1) to extremely (5). Evidence has shown that the scale is reliable and valid (i.e., internal

consistency, test-retest reliability, construct validity and criterion-related validity) (Gençöz, 2000). Higher scores on each corresponding scale represent higher levels of positive affect and negative affect. Cronbach's alphas for Positive Affect and Negative Affect in the present study were respectively .81 and .85.

Scales of Psychological Well-being (SPWB: Ryff, 1989). Ryff, 1989). Short form of SPWB was used to assess dimensions of psychological well-being. The scale includes six dimensions each consisting of three items: Autonomy (e.g., I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.), purpose in life (e.g., Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.), environmental mastery (e.g., In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.), positive relations with others (e.g. People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.), personal growth (e.g., For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing and growth.), and self-acceptance (e.g., I like most aspects of my personality.). Items are rated on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree) scale. Higher scores on each respective domain indicate higher psychological well-being. The Turkish adaptation of the SPWB was conducted by (Akin, 2008). In the original article, Cronbach's alphas for dimensions of psychological well-being ranged from low (.33 for purpose in life) to modest (.56 for positive relations with others) (Ryff, & Keyes, 1995). In the present study, Cronbach's alphas for positive relations with others, self-acceptance, environmental mastery, personal growth, autonomy, and purpose in life were .65, .56, .51, .47, .35, .26, respectively.

Behavioral Inhibition and Behavioral Activation Scales (BISBAS: Carver & White, 1994). The BIS/BAS is developed to measure individual differences in personality characteristics that mirror two basic motivational system, aversive and appetitive system. The scale includes 24 items. Thirteen of these pertaining to BAS and seven to BIS (e.g., "I feel pretty worried or upset when I think or know somebody is angry at me."). The BAS scale is split into three subscales: Drive (e.g., "When I want something I usually go all-out to get it."), fun seeking (e.g., "I will often do things for no other reason than that they might be fun."), and reward responsiveness (e.g., "When I get something I want, I feel excited and energized."). Four items are filler items. Items are rated on a 1 (very true for me) to 4 (very false for me) scale. Higher scores on each respective domain indicate higher BIS and BAS. The scale was adapted to Turkish culture by Şişman (2012). In terms of psychometric properties, the scale demonstrated good levels of reliability and validity for each of the subscales (Carver & White, 1994). Cronbach's alphas for the BAS-Reward, BAS-Fun, BAS-Drive, and BIS in the present study were .71, .67, .64, and.59, respectively.

Procedure

A package of questionnaires was administered online. The research project was advertised across a range of online platforms (e.g., Twitter, Facebook etc.) alongside referral from friends or relatives. Data were collected using a secured online software. Participants were provided a link in which they had to click the link in order to access the study. Following accessing the link, participants were asked to give informed consent through the first page of the online survey. The online informed consent form consisted of information regarding the nature of the study, assurance of anonymity in the data collection, storing and disposing the data. Participants were also made aware of their right

to withdraw from the study, both during and after the participation (e.g., withdrawal from the survey at any time point). Those, who agreed to participate and within the age range of 18 years or older were only allowed to take part in the study. Those, who did not meet these criteria, were not allowed to proceed. All the participants completed the questionnaires in the same order. They did not receive any compensation for their participation.

Statistical Analysis

Prior to the main analysis, we detected the suitability of the data for the analysis. Twenty-seven cases were removed from the analysis due to missing and incomplete data, leaving a sample of 243 (189 males, 54 females, mean age = 38.91, SD = 7.71). Pearson product-moment correlation was performed to explore the relationship between the study variables. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to analyze whether fear of happiness could uniquely predict the variance in dimensions of subjective well-being and psychological well-being by excluding the effect of demographic variables and Gray's model of personality. The effects of demographic variables and personality were controlled for when the independent effect of fear of happiness on the dimensions of subjective and psychological well-being were examined, because these variables were found to be correlated with positive/negative affect, and indicators of psychological well-being. In Step 1, age and gender were entered into the models as initial step entry recommended by Cohen and Cohen, (1983). In step 2, Gray's model of personality were included into the models due to causal priority principle as global personality are conceptualized to have an impact on subjective and psychological well-being (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). In Step 3, fear of happiness was entered into the regression models, as it was the variable of interest. We performed the main analysis with the remaining 243 respondents by using SPSS 24 for Windows..

Results

Table 1 shows minimum, maximum, mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis values for each of the variables. To assess the distribution of variables, we used the skewness and kurtosis statistics and accompanying criteria that values of skewness and kurtosis statistics ranging between -/+1 and -/+2 are considered as "very good" and "acceptable", respectively, while skewness and kurtosis values greater than 2 and 7, respectively reflect "concern" for normal distribution. (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996; George & Mallery, 2010). Adapting these criteria, variables shown in Table 1 suggest that the deviation from normality is not large enough and non-normality is not a serious problem. Therefore, parametric tests are appropriate for the data analysis.

For the main analysis, we first computed Pearson product-moment correlation between fear of happiness, positive affect, negative affect, PWB, and the BIS/BAS model of personality. Table 2 shows the correlations between fear of happiness, dimensions of subjective well-being, psychological well-being and BIS/BAS model of personality.

With regards to subjective well-being dimensions, fear of happiness was positively correlated with negative affect and negatively correlated with positive affect

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics including skewness and kurtosis for each of the study variables (N = 243)

Variables	Min. Statist.	Max. Statist.	Mean Statist.	SD Statist.	Skewness		Kurtosis	
					Statist.	SE	Statist.	SE
Fear of Happiness	5.00	35.00	17.90	9.05	0.12	0.16	-1.19	0.31
Positive Affect	10.00	49.00	28.41	6.52	0.10	0.16	0.15	0.31
Negative Affect	10.00	45.00	22.57	7.32	0.79	0.16	0.53	0.31
Autonomy	5.00	15.00	10.22	1.97	-0.34	0.16	0.09	0.31
Purpose In Life	4.00	15.00	11.12	2.10	-0.25	0.16	-0.11	0.31
Environmental Mastery	4.00	15.00	9.74	2.12	-0.41	0.16	-0.30	0.31
Personal Growth	5.00	15.00	11.81	2.00	-0.63	0.16	0.39	0.31
Positive Relations	3.00	15.00	11.26	2.43	-0.82	0.16	0.39	0.31
Self-Acceptance	3.00	15.00	10.35	2.35	-0.48	0.16	0.11	0.31
BAS-Drive	4.00	16.00	9.28	2.36	0.35	0.16	-0.06	0.31
BAS-Fun Seeking	4.00	16.00	10.92	2.52	-0.26	0.16	-0.18	0.31
BAS-Reward	7.00	20.00	17.67	2.18	-1.59	0.16	4.06	0.31
BIS	13.00	28.00	21.08	3.11	-0.31	0.16	-0.35	0.31

Concerning psychological well-being, fear of happiness was negatively correlated with all domains of psychological well-being other than no correlation with purpose in life domain. In respect to personality model, fear of happiness was only negatively correlated with fun seeking, a subscale of BAS.

To determine the minimum required sample size for a multiple regression analysis, we used an *a-priori* sample size calculator, given a desired probability level of $p < 0.05$, the number of predictors in the model being 7, the anticipated effect size being medium ($f^2 = 0.15$), and the desired statistical power level of .8, calculated the minimum required sample size as n = 103. This result suggested that the sample size of n = 243 used for this analysis exceeded this minimum threshold.

Preliminary analyses for multiple regression were performed to assure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. Additionally, the intercorrelations between the predictor variables included in the study were examined. All correlations were weak to moderate, ranging between $r = .17$, $p < .001$ and $r = .42$, $p < .001$. This indicates that multicollinearity was unlikely to be a problem (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Table 2. Correlations among fear of happiness, aspects of subjective well-being, psychological well-being and Gray's model of personality

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Fear of Happiness	—												
2. Positive Affect	-.191**	1											
3. Negative Affect	.212**	-.171**	1										
4. Autonomy	-.198**	0.063	-.160*	1									
5. Purpose in Life	-0.042	0.081	-0.079	-0.031	1								
6. Environmental Mastery	-.169**	.307**	-.390**	.155*	.140*	1							
7. Personal Growth	-.181**	.305**	-.400**	0.082	.195**	.219**	1						
8. Positive Relation with Others	-.221**	.208**	-.304**	0.080	.236**	.376**	.329**	1					
9. Self- Acceptance	-.256**	.388**	-.398**	.247**	0.072	.497**	.337**	.415**	1				
10. BAS-Drive	-0.042	.165*	-0.051	0.074	-0.064	0.125	.166**	0.042	.144*	1			
11. BAS-Fun Seeking	-.147*	0.110	-0.012	0.016	-.191**	0.022	0.124	0.012	0.082	.495**	1		
12. BAS-Reward-Responsiveness	-0.098	0.035	0.004	-0.059	0.095	0.032	0.047	0.079	.146*	.382**	.418**	1	
13. BIS	0.072	-.255**	.299**	-.221*	.130*	-.262**	-.197**	-.193**	-.161*	0.104	0.053	.419**	1

Note. ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < .05$

To examine the role of fear of happiness in predicting subjective and psychological well-being after controlling for personality, we performed a series of three-step multiple regression analyses. For each of the hierarchical regression models, the analysis attempted to predict either subjective well-being (only positive affect and negative affect were drawn as indicators of subjective well-being) or psychological well-being. Age, gender, education level, marital status and economic level were entered into the regression model in Step 1 as descriptive variables, recommended to be included in the initial entry step (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). In Step 2, dimensions of BIS/BAS personality model were entered due to the causal priority principle (Cohen & Cohen, 1983) since personality are considered to influence fear of happiness. Finally, fear of happiness was entered in Step 3 as the construct was variable of interest.

In each of the regression model, personality and fear of happiness were considered as independent variables while domains of subjective well-being and psychological well-being were given as dependent variables. By doing so, we sought to establish incremental value of fear of happiness on well-being indices by controlling for personality variables. Table 3 presents the results of multiple regression analyses for dimensions of subjective well-being.

According to the results of two three-step separate regression analyses, age, sex, education level, marital status and economic level in the first step produced insignificant results for Positive Affect (although there was a trend) and significant results for Negative Affect (Positive Affect, F [5,237] $=2.11$, $r =.20$, $r^2= .04$, adj. $r^2= .02$, $p >.05$; Negative Affect, F [5,237] $= 4.49$, $r =.30$, $r^2= .09$, adj. $r^2= .08$, $p \leq.001$). In this regard, decreased levels of economic resources associated significantly with increased levels of negative affect. In step 2, inclusion of personality model caused a statistically significant change in R^2 for the indicators of subjective well-being and various personality dimensions explained 10 % of the variance in Positive Affect ($\Delta R^2= .10$, ΔF [4, 233] $= 6.72$, $p < .001$), and 10 % in Negative Affect ($\Delta R^2=.10$, ΔF [4, 233] $= 6.89$, $p \leq.001$). In this regard, results demonstrated that increased levels of BAS-Reward associated with decreased level of Positive Affect ($\beta= -0.32$, $p \leq.001$) and increased level of Negative Affect ($\beta= -.37$, $p \leq.001$).

In step 3, fear of happiness was included into the model to determine whether fear of happiness uniquely contributed to the explanation of variance in predicting dimensions of subjective well-being. In the final models, inclusion of fear of happiness demonstrated a significant change in R^2 in indicators of subjective well-being as construct of fear of happiness explained 2 % of the variance in Positive Affect ($\Delta R^2=.02$, ΔF [1,232] $= 4.73$, $p<.05$), and 2 % in Negative Affect ($\Delta R^2=.02$, ΔF [1,232] $= 5.20$, $p<.05$). These results suggested that fear of happiness accounts for unique variance in predicting positive and negative affect above and beyond the effects of the demographic variables and more importantly BIS/BAS model of personality domains.

With regards to psychological well-being, the results of multiple regression analysis are shown at Table 4. The results of six three-step hierarchical regression analysis revealed that age, sex, education level, marital status and economic level in the first step emerged mostly insignificant results in predicting each dimension of psychological well-being (Autonomy, F[5,237] $= 1.11$, $r = .15$, $r^2 = .02$, adj $r^2 = .01$, $p >.05$; purpose in life, F[5,237] $= .77$, $r = .13$, $r^2 = .02$, adj $r^2 = .01$, $p >.05$; environmental mastery, F[5,237] $= 6.19$, $r = .34$, $r^2 = .12$, adj $r^2 = .10$, $p \leq.001$; personal growth, F[5,237] $= 2.41$, $r = .22$, $r^2 = .05$, adj $r^2 = .03$, $p < .05$; positive relation with others, F[5,237] $= 2.77$,

$r = .24$, $r^2 = .06$, adj $r^2 = .04$, $p < .05$; self-acceptance, $F[5,237] = 4.90$, $r = .31$, $r^2 = .10$, adj $r^2 = .08$, $p < .001$).

Table 3. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis with aspects of subjective well-being as dependent variables, and demographic variables, dimensions of personality and fear of happiness used as independent variables

	Positive Affect				Negative Affect			
	B	β	t	Sig	B	β	t	Sig
Step 1								
Age	0.03	0.03	0.48	0.63	0.03	0.03	0.41	0.68
Gender	-0.33	-0.02	-0.32	0.75	-0.18	-0.01	-0.16	0.87
Education	0.41	0.06	0.85	0.40	0.45	0.06	0.84	0.40
Marital Status	-0.41	-0.03	-0.37	0.71	0.81	0.04	0.66	0.51
Economic Level	1.58	0.18	2.81	0.01	-2.75	-0.29	-4.46	0.00
Step 2								
Age	0.06	0.07	1.01	0.31	0.00	0.00	-0.06	0.95
Gender	-1.32	-0.08	-1.29	0.20	1.21	0.07	1.07	0.29
Education	0.27	0.04	0.56	0.58	0.81	0.10	1.53	0.13
Marital Status	-0.64	-0.04	-0.60	0.55	0.84	0.05	0.72	0.47
Economic Level	1.07	0.13	1.96	0.05	-2.27	-0.24	-3.78	0.00
BAS-Drive	0.24	0.09	0.72	0.48	-0.06	-0.02	-0.16	0.88
BAS-Fun Seeking	0.19	0.06	0.56	0.58	-0.65	-0.19	-1.73	0.09
BAS-Reward	-0.66	-0.32	-4.38	0.00	0.87	0.37	5.23	0.00
BIS total	0.10	0.09	0.54	0.59	0.07	0.05	0.33	0.74
Step 3								
Age	0.08	0.09	1.34	0.18	-0.03	-0.03	-0.41	0.68
Gender	-1.13	-0.07	-1.10	0.27	0.99	0.06	0.88	0.38
Education	0.27	0.04	0.57	0.57	0.81	0.10	1.54	0.13
Marital Status	-0.45	-0.03	-0.42	0.68	0.62	0.03	0.53	0.60
Economic Level	0.88	0.10	1.60	0.11	-2.05	-0.21	-3.40	0.00
BAS-Drive	0.32	0.12	0.96	0.34	-0.15	-0.05	-0.41	0.68
BAS-Fun Seeking	0.21	0.07	0.61	0.54	-0.67	-0.20	-1.79	0.08
BAS-Reward	-0.63	-0.30	-4.21	0.00	0.83	0.35	5.06	0.00
BIS total	0.05	0.05	0.28	0.78	0.13	0.10	0.61	0.55
Fear of Happiness	-0.10	-0.14	-2.18	0.03	0.12	0.14	2.28	0.02

In this regard, being married was found to be associated with higher level of Self-Acceptance (β= -.14, $p < .05$) and higher level of Positive Relations with Others (β= -.19, $p < .05$). Additionally, increased level of economic level associated with higher levels of Self-Acceptance (β= .22, $p \leq .001$), Positive Relations with Others (β= .13, $p \leq .05$), Environmental mastery (β= .18, $p < .01$), while higher levels of educations associated with increased levels of personal growth (β= .17, $p \leq .01$).

Table 4. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis with aspects of psychological well-being as dependent variables, and demographic variables, dimensions of personality and fear of happiness used as independent variables.

	Autonomy				Positive Relations				Self-Acceptance			
	B	β	t	Sig	B	β	t	Sig	B	β	t	Sig
Step 1												
Age	-0.06	-0.01	-0.17	0.86	-0.02	-0.05	-0.68	0.50	0.02	0.07	1.01	0.32
Gender	0.00	0.00	-0.06	0.95	0.08	0.01	0.21	0.83	-0.28	-0.05	-0.78	0.44
Education	-0.16	-0.07	-1.05	0.30	-0.11	-0.04	-0.59	0.56	0.16	0.06	0.93	0.36
Marital status	-0.69	-0.14	-2.03	0.04	-1.13	-0.19	-2.73	0.01	-0.81	-0.14	-2.08	0.04
Economic level	-0.04	-0.02	-0.26	0.80	0.41	0.13	1.96	0.05	0.67	0.22	3.42	0.00
Step 2												
Age	-0.36	-0.08	-1.11	0.27	-0.01	-0.02	-0.26	0.80	0.03	0.11	1.58	0.12
Gender	0.00	0.02	0.24	0.81	-0.21	-0.04	-0.54	0.59	-0.49	-0.09	-1.35	0.18
Education	-0.18	-0.08	-1.20	0.23	-0.24	-0.09	-1.33	0.18	0.04	0.02	0.25	0.80
Marital status	-0.73	-0.15	-2.20	0.03	-1.13	-0.19	-2.81	0.01	-0.86	-0.15	-2.29	0.02
Economic level	-0.18	-0.07	-1.06	0.29	0.30	0.09	1.43	0.15	0.55	0.18	2.85	0.01
BAS-Drive	0.08	0.09	1.23	0.22	0.04	0.04	0.30	0.77	0.06	0.06	0.54	0.59
BAS-Fun seeking	-0.01	-0.01	-0.11	0.92	0.31	0.28	2.37	0.02	0.26	0.24	2.13	0.03
BAS-Reward	0.04	0.04	0.48	0.64	-0.23	-0.29	-3.99	0.00	-0.20	-0.27	-3.78	0.00
BIS	-0.18	-0.28	-3.80	0.00	-0.04	-0.10	-0.59	0.55	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.99
Step 3												
Age	-0.27	-0.06	-0.86	0.39	0.00	0.01	0.16	0.87	0.04	0.14	2.08	0.04
Gender	0.01	0.05	0.71	0.48	-0.12	-0.02	-0.30	0.76	-0.39	-0.07	-1.09	0.28
Education	-0.18	-0.08	-1.21	0.23	-0.24	-0.09	-1.34	0.18	0.04	0.02	0.26	0.79
Marital Status	-0.64	-0.13	-1.97	0.05	-1.04	-0.17	-2.60	0.01	-0.76	-0.13	-2.05	0.04
Economic level	-0.27	-0.10	-1.57	0.12	0.20	0.06	0.98	0.33	0.45	0.15	2.35	0.02
BAS-Drive	0.09	0.11	1.46	0.15	0.08	0.07	0.61	0.54	0.11	0.11	0.91	0.36
BAS-Fun seeking	-0.03	-0.04	-0.49	0.63	0.32	0.28	2.46	0.01	0.27	0.25	2.24	0.03
BAS-Reward	0.02	0.02	0.27	0.79	-0.21	-0.27	-3.79	0.00	-0.19	-0.25	-3.57	0.00
BIS	-0.17	-0.26	-3.58	0.00	-0.07	-0.16	-0.93	0.35	-0.03	-0.06	-0.38	0.70
Fear of Happiness	-0.04	-0.20	-3.14	0.00	-0.05	-0.18	-2.78	0.01	-0.05	-0.20	-3.26	0.00

In step 2, inclusion of personality model caused a statistically significant change in R^2 for the indicators of psychological well-being and various personality domains explained the 7 % of the variance in Autonomy (ΔR^2= .07, ΔF[4, 233] = 4.48 p <.01), and 8 % in Purpose in Life (ΔR^2=.08, ΔF[4, 233] = 5.31, $p \leq$.001), 8 % in Environmental Mastery (ΔR^2= .08, ΔF[4, 233] = 5.80, $p \leq$.001), 7 % in Personal Growth (ΔR^2= .07, ΔF [4, 233] = 4.66, $p < $.001), 7 % in Positive Relations with Others (ΔR^2= .07, ΔF[4, 233] = 4.54, $p < $.01), and 8 % in Self-Acceptance (ΔR^2= .04, ΔF[4, 233] = 5.70, $p < $.001). In this regard, results demonstrated that increased levels of BAS-Fun Seeking associated with increased levels of Positive Relations with others (β= .28, $p < $.05) and Self-Acceptance (β= .25, $p < $.05), Purpose in Life ($\beta$= .41, $p \leq$.001), while increased levels of BAS-Reward associated with decreased levels of Positive Relations with Others (β= -.29, $p < $.001), Self-Acceptance ($\beta$= -.27, $p < $.001), Personal Growth ($\beta$= -.26, $p < $.001), and Environmental Mastery (β= -.30, $p < $.001). Additionally, higher levels of BAS-Drive associated with increased levels of Purpose in Life (β= .26, $p < $.05) while lower levels of BIS-total associated with higher levels of Purpose in Life (β= -.61, $p < $.001) and Autonomy ($\beta$= -.28, $p < $.001).

In the final models, inclusion of fear of happiness demonstrated a significant change in R^2 in indicators of psychological well-being as construct of fear of happiness explained 4% additional variance in Autonomy (ΔR^2= .10, ΔF[1, 232] = 9.86, $p < $.01), and 1 % in Purpose in Life (ΔR^2= .01, ΔF[1, 232] = 3.75, $p > $.05), 1 % in Environmental Mastery (ΔR^2= .01, ΔF[1, 232] = 3.45, $p > $.05), 1% in Personal Growth (ΔR^2= .01, ΔF[1, 232] = 3.29, $p > $.05), 3% in Positive Relations with Others (ΔR^2= .03, ΔF[1, 232] = 7.72, $p < $.01), and 4 % in Self-Acceptance (ΔR^2= .04, ΔF[1, 232] = 10.62, $p \leq$.001)

These results suggested that fear of happiness significantly predicted unique variance in three psychological well-being domains, namely Autonomy, Positive Relations with Others and Self-acceptance above and beyond the effects of demographic variables and more importantly the BIS/BAS model of personality domains.

Discussion

The present study sought to examine the relationships between fear of happiness, subjective well-being, and psychological well-being beyond the BIS/BAS model of personality. Concerning affective components of subjective well-being (positive and negative affect) and fear of happiness, significant associations occurred for lower positive affect and for higher negative affect. Although no studies investigated the relationship between fear of happiness and positive and negative affect, the results are in accordance with previous findings in terms of providing negative correlations with positive psychological constructs and positive correlations with negative psychological constructs. For example, a negative association between fear of happiness and satisfaction with life, a cognitive component of subjective well-being was documented (Joshanloo, 2013; Türk et al., 2017). In terms of the regression analyses, findings demonstrated that fear of happiness accounted for a unique variance in lower positive affect and higher negative affect. These findings are in line with the theoretical conceptualizations of the concept of fear of happiness. For instance, fear of happiness reflects the negative views regarding having positive states of happiness, joy, cheerfulness that may

in turn impact on experiencing lessened positive affect and heightened negative affect (Wood, Heimple & Michela, 2003).

In terms of psychological well-being, the results provided the first correlations between fear of happiness and psychological well-being domains, as a well-established and multidimensional model of well-being in the field of positive psychology. The negative and significant association between fear of happiness and psychological well-being seemed to appear in the domains of self-acceptance, positive relationships with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, and personal growth. This suggested that individuals high in fear of happiness tend to report low psychological well-being in above-mentioned domains. However, this relationship did not appear for purpose in life domain. Although a negative correlation pattern was observed, fear of happiness did not demonstrate a significant association with purpose in life domain of psychological well-being. Indeed purpose in life is one of the important eudaimonic domain of psychological well-being as it refers to having goals, aims and objectives in life. Yet, the current study documented that possessing stable belief of avoiding positive affective states, particularly happiness, did not have a significant effect on one's possession of life aims and goals. These emerging relationships would enhance the position of fear of happiness within the well-being literature as well as shedding light on further research for the construct.

Concerning the magnitude of the correlations obtained in the present study and the studies conducted in different cultures, the correlations between fear of happiness and well-being indices is stronger in Turkey, ranging from -.19 to .21 for subjective well-being components and from -.17 to -.26 for psychological well-being components (except purpose in life component with the correlation of -.04), than other cultures in which a weak correlation (not exceeding .15) has been reported (Joshanloo et al., 2014). This variation could be due to the fact that Turkey notably has different cultural, political, and economical background as compared with previously studied cultures (e.g., New Zealand, Iran, China).   With respect to predictive role of fear of happiness, hierarchical multiple regression analyses in this study revealed that fear of happiness accounted for a unique variance in autonomy, positive relations, and self-acceptance domains of psychological well-being above the BIS/BAS personality and descriptive variables. Put it differently, when the effect of personality and descriptive variables were controlled, higher fear of happiness accounted for unique variance in psychological well-being domains of lower autonomy, positive relations with others and self-acceptance. Conceptually, the psychological well-being dimension of autonomy conveys one's independence and not being affected by social pressure and fear, and individualization while fear of happiness refers one's negative attitudes for feeling happy and supressing their authentic feelings for an array of reasons (Joshanloo, 2013, 2014; Joshanloo et al., 2014; Joshanloo & Weijers, 2014; Ryff, 1995). Thus, findings convey that individual who supress their authentic feelings of joy and cheerfulness are also characteristically less independent, less individualized and strongly being affected by social fears. On the other hand, positive relations with others consists of characteristics to build warm, trustworthy and rewarding relationship with others while self-acceptance refers to individuals' positive attitudes toward themselves, past experiences, their strength and weaknesses (Ryff, 1995). In this regard, the results propose that people who strongly deny their authentic feelings of happiness also have weak capability of empathy, affection and intimacy in their social

relationships (positive relations) additional to possessing weaker positive attitudes towards themselves, their past, strength and weaknesses (self-acceptance). In sum, results of hierarchical multiple regression analyses demonstrate that fear of happiness has a negative impact on autonomous behaviour, rewarding relationship and acceptance of one's own strength and limitations.

Collectively, the findings obtained from regression analysis suggest that fear of happiness is not only correlated with well-being indices, but also has a unique impact on both subjective well-being and psychological well-being. These findings were in accordance with Sarı and Çakır's (2016) findings where they found that fear of happiness significantly and negatively predicted subjective well-being and psychological well-being. Although the study conducted by Sarı and Çakır (2016) found that fear of happiness significantly predicted subjective well-being and psychological well-being, their sample consisted purely of students and the findings cannot be generalized to other samples. The findings were also consistent with the findings of Joshanloo et al. (2014) where they conducted an extensive cross-cultural study in which the predictive role of fear of happiness on satisfaction with life was examined. The results showed that fear of happiness significantly predicted satisfaction with life across eleven nations including but not limited to New Zealand, China, and Iran. Therefore, the current study, using a community sample, extended ecological validity of the extant evidence of fear of happiness and well-being by demonstrating that fear of happiness contributed a unique variance to subjective well-being and psychological well-being in different populations. In this regard, the present findings are meaningful in terms of providing evidence that improves generalizability of the previous findings.

Culture is an important factor that may have effects on individuals to hold the idea that being happy to an extreme degree results in undesirable things to happen. Individual differences in regulation of positive and negative emotions are evident both within a culture and across cultures. For example, some individuals are more likely to diminish their positive emotions whereas others highly value their positive emotions (e.g. happiness, joy). In more collectivist cultures, individuals are encouraged to experience low arousal emotions more than high arousal emotions, while in more individualistic cultures individuals are encouraged to experience high arousal emotions more than low arousal emotions (Lim, 2016). Providing evidence regarding the role of fear of happiness on subjective and psychological well-being from Turkish culture will improve our understanding of fear of happiness across cultures.

Although the current study offers novel findings, some limitations of the study should be noted when the results are interpreted. First, the target sample of the current study consisted of a high proportion of individuals describing themselves as being males, or married or university graduates. Although gender, marital status or economic level scores were statistically controlled in hierarchical multiple regression analyses, it is possible that these variables could dominate the correlational results. Recruiting a sample from more representative sociodemographic characteristics may lead to different results and be useful for generalizability of the findings. Second, as the study was correlational and cross-sectional in nature, the obtained findings do not allow us to draw a causal conclusion as well as the data collection method using self-report survey subjected to bias. Therefore, generalising these findings should be interpreted cautiously. To draw a causal conclusion, experimental and longitudinal design should be applied to examine whether fear of happiness causes

a reduction in subjective well-being and psychological well-being. Third, while the fear of happiness area is still in its infancy, these findings are useful in terms of highlighting the contribution of fear of happiness on well-being when the influence of personality is eliminated. Although the current study contributed to improving generalizability of the extant findings regarding fear of happiness, it would be useful to test whether fear of happiness accounts for unique variance in subjective well-being and psychological well-being in diverse populations (e.g., clinical sample and adolescents). Fourth, investigating the position of fear of happiness within other extant models of personality would be fruitful. Hence, further research should consider to examining other extant personality theory (e.g., Eysenck, Eysenck & Barrett, 1985) alongside fear of happiness. Finally, the sample of the present study was recruited via a convenient sampling method. Randomly drawn sample from a target population would be useful to enhance the reliability and validity of the results.

In conclusion, the current study suggests that fear of happiness is related to the aspects of subjective and psychological well-being alongside showing correlation with a subscale of BIS/BAS personality model. The results also suggest that fear of happiness can predict dimensions of subjective and psychological well-being after removing the effect of personality.

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