

The Role of Resilience in the Relationships between Externality of Happiness and Subjective Well-being and Flourishing: A Structural Equation Model Approach

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Abstract

The present study investigated the role of resilience in the relationships between the externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. A sample of 243 healthy Turkish adults (164 males and 79 females) with a mean age of 37.1 ($SD = 9$) completed measures of externality of happiness, positive and negative affect, satisfaction with life, flourishing, and resilience. Correlation analyses showed that externality of happiness was negatively correlated with positive affect, satisfaction with life, flourishing, and resilience, whilst being positively correlated with negative affect. Structural equation modeling was used to carry out a mediation analysis. The results indicated that resilience mediated the relationships between the externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. These findings will facilitate an understanding of the factors associated with subjective well-being and flourishing, and were discussed in the light of the relevant literature. The theoretical and practical implications of the findings were provided.

Keywords

Externality of happiness, affect, satisfaction with life, flourishing, and resilience

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The concept of happiness has interested researchers across different disciplines including psychology, sociology, medicine, and economy. Mounting scientific evidence shows that happiness promotes an individual's well-being and quality of life. Happiness is found to be beneficial to one's positive functioning across the various domains of life such as health, social relationships, work life, and marriage (for review see Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005; Myers, & Diener, 2018). Studies indicate that there is a wide range of factors that affect individuals' levels of well-being. The externality of happiness is one such variable that can affect one's levels of subjective well-being (Joshanloo, 2017).

The concept of externality of happiness refers to the belief that a person's level of happiness is mainly determined by external factors, not by one's own will (Joshanloo, 2017). In this regard, individuals with high levels of externality of happiness are more likely to attribute their happiness to factors such as luck, fate, destiny, and their life's current situation (Yildirim, Barmanpek, & Farag, 2018). Externality of happiness can be considered a potentially dysfunctional belief that may have negative effects on individuals' well-being. According to Joshanloo (2017), holding externality of happiness-related beliefs may signify a lack of perceived control over one's individual happiness.

Essentially, the theoretical framework of externality/internality of happiness is rooted in Rotter's (1966) Locus of Control Theory. According to this theory, the idea of locus of control reflects the extent to which one believes that one has the ability, or capacity, to control life's events. Locus of control is conceptualized as an internal locus of control versus an external locus of control depending on the extent to which one's behaviour is under internal (e.g., personal efforts) or external (e.g., powerful others) control. Individuals with an internal locus of control attribute life's outcomes (e.g., success, failure) to their own will and effort, and indeed they mostly have control over any associated outcomes. Conversely, individuals with an external locus of control attribute life's outcomes to external factors (e.g., fate, destiny, luck, powerful others) and they believe that they do not have control over them. Studies suggest that life's outcomes, as being caused by external factors, are associated with lessened positive affect, life satisfaction, and psychological well-being (Kostka & Jachimowicz, 2010).

Well-being is considered in different ways in the psychology literature. Contrary to the initial notion that well-being refers to absence of psychiatric diseases, researchers have recently begun to adopt the idea that mental well-being also refers to positive psychological functioning (Ryff, 1995). One of the schools of thinking regarding well-being, from the perspective of positive functioning, is subjective well-being. Subjective well-being conveys the notion as to whether individuals experience more positive feelings, less negative feelings, and are satisfied with their lives. Subjective well-being is a multidimensional construct that includes positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction components (Bradburn, 1969; Diener & Suh, 1997; Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Among the components of subjective well-being, positive and negative affects reflect the affective nature of subjective well-being, while satisfaction with life refers to its cognitive aspect. In this regard, subjective well-being is viewed as a predominance of positive affect over negative affect in addition to a positive cognitive evaluation of life satisfaction (Bradburn, 1969; Diener & Suh, 1997). In this respect, individuals with high subjective well-being are more likely to frequently experience positive affect, few negative affect, and have a generally greater satisfaction with life.

There is now considerable empirical support for the independence of these three components of subjective well-being (Diener, Suh, Lucas & Smith, 1999; Ryan & Deci, 2001). Studies investigating subjective well-being mostly explore these components as outcome variables in order to provide the complete affective and cognitive nature of subjective well-being.

A recent consideration of well-being indices that has captured considerable attention is undoubtedly psychological flourishing. Essentially, the literature reports multiple types of well-being such as subjective, psychological, social, emotional, and spiritual well-being; psychological flourishing is a concept that encompasses some of these important well-being components in a unified construct (Diener et al., 2010). Flourishing is typically defined as living in accordance with an optimal range of human functioning (Fredrickson, & Losada, 2005). Flourishing is also characterized as individuals' personal evaluations of how well they feel they are functioning in their lives (Huppert, 2009). The concept of flourishing simultaneously includes components of subjective and psychological well-being; that is, the concept of flourishing not only includes happiness and life satisfaction but also purpose in life, social relationships, engagement with daily activities, optimism, competence, and self-esteem (Diener et al., 2010; Huppert, 2009). Higher levels of flourishing are useful both for individuals and society (Huppert & So, 2013) as flourishing encompasses these aspects of social-psychological functioning in one construct (Diener et al., 2010).

There is now a degree of empirical evidence suggesting that externality of happiness is negatively related with subjective well-being and flourishing. For example, in two related studies, Joshanloo (2017) demonstrated statistically significant relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being across two independent samples (e.g., Iranian, Korean). He assessed subjective well-being using satisfaction with life, positive affect, and negative affect indices. In another study, Yıldırım et al. (2018) examined the links between externality of happiness, life satisfaction, flourishing, self-esteem, and fear of happiness using a sample of 230 Turkish adults. They found that externality of happiness was negatively related to satisfaction with life, flourishing, and self-esteem and positively related to fear of happiness.

Resilience as a Mediator

Resilience has been described as an enduring and relatively stable personality characteristic that enables individuals to face, overcome or adjust according to extreme difficulties and adversities (Connor & Davidson, 2003). As the construct aids individuals to adapt to stressful life events, psychological resilience encourages healthy behaviour and leads to better adjustment and increased levels of well-being (Baek, Lee, Joo, Lee, & Choi, 2010). Resilient individuals have a habitual tendency to effectively cope with adversities in a way that provides them with a buffer against negative outcomes (Fredrickson, Tugade, Waugh, & Larkin, 2003).

Numerous studies have investigated the relationship between resilience and well-being. Meta-analytic studies suggest that there is a strong relationship between trait resilience and well-being. Trait resilience has previously been negatively related with negative indices of well-being and positively related with positive indices of well-being (Hu, Zhang, & Wang, 2015). Resilience was also found to directly predict different aspects of well-being, including life satisfaction (Cohn, Fredrickson, Brown, Mikels, & Conway, 2009), depression (Loh, Schutte, & Thorsteinsson, 2014) and psychological well-being (Souri, & Hasanirad, 2011). In addition to studies that have

demonstrated the direct relationships between resilience and well-being, the indirect effect of resilience on well-being has also been examined in the literature. For example, resilience was found to mediate the relationships between traumatic exposure and depression (Kim, Park & Kim, 2017), anxiety and subjective support (Hu, Xiao, Peng, Kuang, & He, 2018), loneliness and mental and physical quality of life (Gerino, Rollè, Sechi, & Brustia, 2017), bullying victimization and depressive symptoms (Zhou, Liu, Niu, Sun, & Fan, 2017), and age and gender with regards to emotional distress among patients with colorectal cancer (Cohen, Baziliansky, & Beny, 2014).

The literature suggests that resilience not only aids individuals when coping with adversities but also enables them to strive against hardship, such as when seeking nurturing relationships (Kim, Park & Kim, 2017). Thus, resilience might play an important role in terms of social, psychological, and subjective well-being in the face of adversities. Considering the negative effect of externality of happiness on individuals' well-being (Joshani, 2017; Yildirim et al., 2018), resilience might be a protective factor against the negative effect of externality of happiness on subjective, social, and psychological well-being. Joshani (2017) examined the indirect relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being through resilience and personal growth initiatives. He found that resilience mediated the relationship between externality of happiness and indices of subjective well-being, namely positive affect, negative affect, and satisfaction with life. The abovementioned study provided insight into the underlying mechanisms between the concepts; however, to the best of our knowledge it is the only available study to examine the role of resilience in the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. The role of resilience in the relationships between externality of happiness and psychological and social assets of well-being currently remains unaddressed, and unanswered. Recently, one study demonstrated the association between externality of happiness and indices of well-being, including flourishing, among a sample of healthy Turkish adults (Yildirim, Barmanpek, & Farag, 2018). Although the study provided important evidence as to the links between the various concepts, it did not examine whether the negative effect of externality of happiness might be affected by any third variable. Thus, the literature is scarce in its provision of evidence regarding the links between externality of happiness and resilience to subjective, social, and psychological well-being.

In this study, we aimed to examine the impact of resilience in the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. This would contribute a firmer understanding of the underlying mechanism providing the link between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. By doing so, this study would provide an opportunity to understand the externality of happiness and its relationship with a broader picture of well-being indices and resilience in a single model. In this regard, we generated the following hypotheses: (i) externality of happiness significantly predicts lower resilience, subjective well-being and flourishing; (ii) resilience significantly predicts higher subjective well-being and flourishing; and (iii) resilience mediates the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing.

Method

Participants

The study sample included 243 Turkish adults recruited from the general population. Of these participants, 164 (67.5%) were male and 79 (32.5%) were female. Participants' ages ranged from 18 to 64 ($Mean = 37.1$, $SD = 9$). 190 participants (78.2%) were married, 50 (20.6%) were single, and 3 (1.2%) were widowed. Participants were highly educated with 201 (82.7%) being at either the university graduate or postgraduate level, high school level at 26 (10.7%) being the next highest qualification, college, 9 (3.7%), and secondary school, 7 (2.9%). As for their economic status, 156 (64.2%) participants perceived their status as medium, 69 (28.4%) as either low or very low, and 18 (7.4%) as high. Participants were volunteers whose confidentiality and anonymity were guaranteed.

Measures

Externality of Happiness Scale (EOH). EOH is a four-item scale developed to measure the extent to which individuals perceive their happiness as beyond their control and mostly dependent on uncontrollable external factors (Joshani, 2017). The items are rated using a seven-point agreement scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Example items are "I feel that I have little influence over my level of happiness" and "My happiness is determined by accidental happenings and luck." Higher values signify greater levels of externality of happiness beliefs. In the present study, the Turkish version of the scale (Yıldırım, Barmanpek, & Farag 2018) was adopted, and Cronbach's alpha was 0.53.

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS). SWLS is a five-item scale designed to assess one's global judgements of one's life satisfaction (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). The items are answered using a seven-point agreement scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Example items are "In most ways my life is close to my ideal" and "The conditions of my life are excellent." Higher values signify greater levels of life satisfaction. In the present study, the Turkish version of the scale (Durak, Senol-Durak, & Gencoz, 2010) was adopted, and Cronbach's alpha was 0.80.

Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE). SPANE includes twelve adjectives, six positive and six negative, intended to measure individuals' positive and negative emotional experiences, moods, and feelings (Diener et al., 2010). The adjectives are answered using a five-point agreement scale, ranging from 1 (very rarely or never) to 5 (very often or always). Example adjectives are "pleasant", "happy", "unpleasant" and "sad". The scale scores for positive feelings and negative feelings subscales which are independently computed, with higher values referring to greater experiences of positive feelings and greater experiences of negative feelings, respectively. In the present study, the Turkish adaptation of the scale (Telef, 2015) was used and Cronbach's alpha for the positive feelings and negative feelings were, respectively, 0.90 and 0.83.

Flourishing Scale (FS). FS consists of eight statements constructed to assess psychosocial well-being from various important domains of individual positive functioning including social relationships, purpose in life, self-worth, and optimism (Diener et al., 2010). The statements are answered using a seven-point agreement scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Example statements are "I lead a purposeful and meaningful life." and "My social

relationships are supportive and rewarding.” Higher values represent greater satisfaction with important areas of positive functioning. In the present study, the Turkish translation of the scale (Telef, 2010) was used, and Cronbach’s alpha was 0.83.

Brief Resilience Scale (BRS). BRS is a six-item resilience scale developed to measure the ability to “bounce back” from stressful life events (Smith et al., 2008). The statements are answered using a five-point agreement scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Example statements are “I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times” and “It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event.” Scale scores are the mean of item scores, with reverse coding of negatively worded statements. Higher values refer to a greater ability to recover from stressful situations in life. In this study, the Turkish adaptation of the scale (Doğan, 2015) was used, and Cronbach’s alpha was 0.86.

Procedure

The participants were recruited through e-mail, social media sites, online fora, and blogs. The study was conducted using a secure online software. Participants were provided a secure link where they had to click a link to access the study. Before involvement in the survey, informed consent was obtained from all participants included in the study through the first page of the online survey. Participants were given detailed instructions regarding the study procedure before taking part, and were assured concerning their anonymity and the confidentiality of any personal information and the storage and disposal of data after collection. Furthermore, participants were instructed regarding their right to opt out of the study, both during and after their involvement. Only those who agreed to participate in the study were allowed to proceed, whilst those who disagreed were automatically withdrawn from the survey. Participants completed online versions of the scales as part of scale batteries being conducted for other studies. The questionnaires were delivered to the volunteer participants in the same order and they were not compensated for their participation.

Statistical Analysis

Skewness and kurtosis statistics were used to test assumptions of normality. Using the Z statistic, where a score falling outside the range of -3.29 and +3.29 is considered a univariate outlier, no univariate outlier was found. Using the Mahalanobis distance, four cases were detected as potential multivariate outliers and were removed from the analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell 2001). Multicollinearity was computed to ascertain that no variance inflation factor values were greater than 10, and tolerance values approached 0. The variance inflation factor (range: 1.013-1.246) and tolerance (range: .803-.988) did not reveal any multicollinearity issues. Zero-order correlations were computed between all the variables. Prior to examining the mediating role of resilience, the measurement model was tested via confirmatory factor analysis. The hypothesized causal model between the variables was tested through structural equation modeling (SEM) using the maximum likelihood estimation. In the model, externality of happiness, subjective well-being, flourishing, and resilience were all treated as latent variables. Items on externality of happiness and dimensions of subjective well-being were considered as their associated indicators, while parcels were formed for flourishing and resilience. Parcels were created based on total-item correlation. All analyses were performed using SPSS and AMOS version 24.

Results

Preliminary analyses were conducted before examining the measurement and structural models. Table 1 reports the mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis values for each study variable. As seen, all variables were approximately normally distributed within the “good” range of $-/+1$ skewness and kurtosis statistics (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996; George & Mallery, 2010).

Table 1. Mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis statistics for the study variables

	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
			Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
Externality of happiness	13.77	5.07	0.27	0.16	-0.54	0.31
SPANE-Positive	19.28	4.14	-0.09	0.16	-0.77	0.31
SPANE-Negative	17.20	3.91	0.38	0.16	-0.40	0.31
Satisfaction with life	21.48	6.43	-0.41	0.16	-0.66	0.31
Flourishing	40.17	7.62	-0.76	0.16	0.26	0.31
Resilience	19.56	4.51	-0.22	0.16	0.15	0.31

Note: SD = standard deviation; SE = standard error.

Table 2 shows the correlations amongst the variables. Externality of happiness correlated negatively with positive affect, satisfaction with life, flourishing, and resilience, whilst correlating positively with negative affect. Resilience correlated positively with positive affect, satisfaction with life, and flourishing, and correlated negatively with negative affect.

Table 2. Correlations among the study variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Externality of happiness	1					
2. SPANE-Positive	-.326**	1				
3. SPANE-Negative	.307**	-.746**	1			
4. Satisfaction with life	-.186**	.455**	-.457**	1		
5. Flourishing	-.228**	.541**	-.466**	.446**	1	
6. Resilience	-.204**	.506**	-.494**	.320**	.451**	1

Note. **. $p < 0.01$; *. $p < 0.05$; SPANE = scales of positive affect and negative experience

Measurement Model

Prior to the structural model, the measurement model was first tested to investigate whether the model adequately fit the data using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). In the measurement model,

there were four interrelated latent variables including externality of happiness, resilience, subjective well-being, and flourishing. Externality of happiness was represented by its four items, while subjective well-being was represented by its three observed variables: positive experience, negative experience, and satisfaction with life. We formed parcels (three parcels per variable in order for the latent variables to be represented by at least three indicators) for resilience and flourishing to improve the psychometric properties of the variables and reduce inflated measurement errors. The parcelling procedure was based on assigning scale items to parcels by considering their item-total correlations. For resilience, parcel one included items 3 and 6; parcel two included items 1 and 2; and parcel three included items 4 and 5. For flourishing, parcel one included items 2 and 6; parcel two included items 1, 3, and 7; and parcel three included items 4, 5, and 8.

As no statistic, per se, is sufficient in deciding the goodness of fit of a model, we employed the multiple statistics recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999) and Kline (2005) when the assessment of goodness of fit for the measurement and structural models were made. We used the Chi-squared statistic χ^2 , CMIN/DF (the ratio of chi-squared to degrees of freedom), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). As for threshold values for the abovementioned statistics, a low and insignificant χ^2 are preferable, though this is highly sensitive to sample size (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), whilst a CMIN/DF less than 3 suggests a good fit whereas a value less than or equal to 5 suggests an acceptable fit. A model is considered to be a good fit if the RMSEA and SRMR are, respectively, equal to or less than 0.06 and 0.08, while a model is considered as an acceptable fit if the RMSEA and SRMR are, respectively, equal to or less than 0.08 and 0.10. GFI, CFI, and TLI values equal to or greater than 0.95 signify a good fit while values equal to or greater than 0.90 signify an acceptable fit.

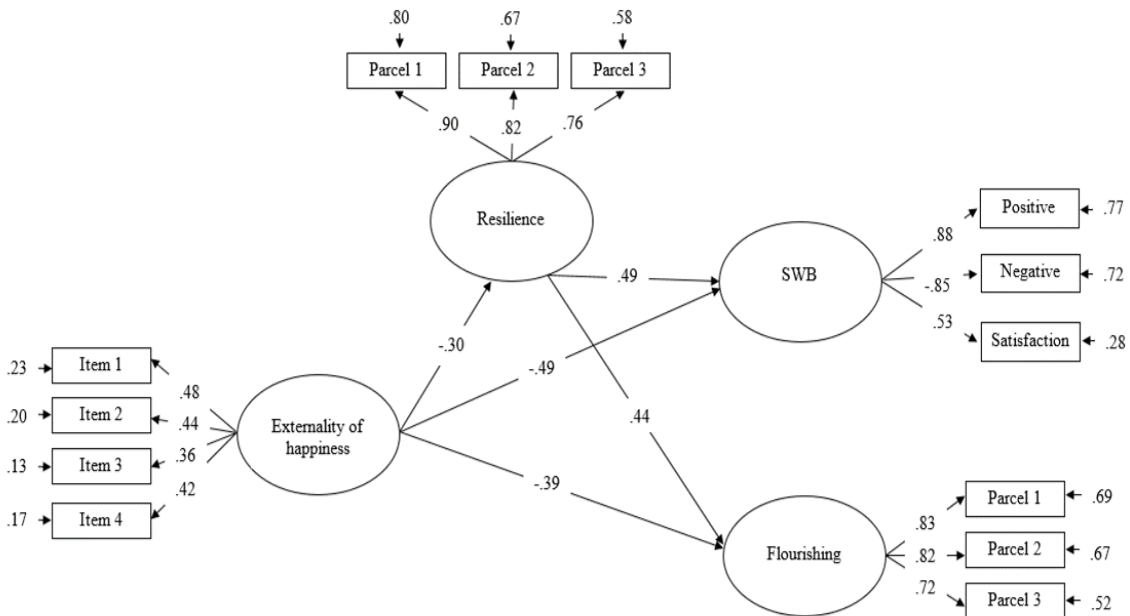


Figure 1. The proposed structural relationships among the study variables

The results of the CFA analysis showed that the measurement model was a good fit to the data: χ^2 (59, N = 243) = 108.636 ($p < 0.001$), CMIN/DF = 1.841, RMSEA = 0.059, SRMR = 0.052, GFI = 0.939, CFI = 0.959, TLI = 0.946. The standardized factor loadings of all the observed variables were significantly loaded on their corresponding latent variables, suggesting that the latent variables had been correctly measured.

Structural Model

SEM, using the maximum likelihood estimation method, was employed to test the hypothesis that resilience would mediate the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. The SEM results indicated that the structural model represented a good fit to the data: χ^2 (60, N = 243) = 131.132 ($p < 0.001$), CMIN/DF = 2.186, RMSEA = 0.070, SRMR = 0.065, GFI = 0.926, CFI = 0.941, TLI = 0.924. Figure 1 presents the proposed relationships between the variables.

Externality of happiness negatively predicted resilience ($\beta = -0.30$, $p < 0.05$), subjective well-being ($\beta = -0.49$, $p < 0.001$), and flourishing ($\beta = -0.39$, $p < 0.001$). Resilience positively predicted subjective well-being ($\beta = 0.49$, $p < 0.001$) and flourishing ($\beta = 0.44$, $p < 0.001$). The significance of the mediation effect of resilience was tested using the Bootstrap estimation method in AMOS 24. As such, 1000 bootstrap samples were produced using random sampling with replacement from the actual data set to estimate the 95% confidence interval (CI). The results showed that the indirect paths from predictors to outcomes were statistically significant: Externality of happiness \rightarrow Resilience \rightarrow Subjective well-being, ($\beta = -0.15$, $p = 0.025$, CI = -0.295 to -0.041) and Externality of happiness \rightarrow Resilience \rightarrow Flourishing, ($\beta = -0.13$, $p = 0.023$, CI = -0.275 to -0.027). Furthermore, externality of happiness explained 9% of the variance in resilience. Together, externality of happiness and resilience explained 62% of the variance in subjective well-being and 45% of the variance in flourishing. This suggests that resilience functions as a significant partial mediator in the proposed model.

Discussion

This study aimed to examine the mediating role of resilience in the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. Although the mediating effect of resilience in the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being has been explored in a recent study (Joshnloo, 2017), the present study is the first, to the best of our knowledge, to examine the impact of resilience in the relationships between externality of happiness and both subjective well-being and flourishing. The proposed relationships were examined using SEM. Understanding the relationships among the variables in SEM framework is useful since SEM provides evidence regarding two related, but distinct, study questions: (i) the measurement aspect of the model that refers to the relationship between the observed variables with their corresponding underlying latent variables; and (ii) the structural aspect of the model that refers to the causal relations among latent variables (Tomás, Sancho, Melendez & Mayordomo, 2012).

The correlational analysis showed that externality of happiness was negatively correlated with satisfaction with life, positive affect, flourishing, and resilience, whilst being positively correlated

with negative affect. The findings provided support for the study conducted by Yildirim et al. (2018) that found negative relationships between externality of happiness and satisfaction with life and flourishing. These findings were also in accordance with Joshanloo's (2017) findings that individuals with high levels of externality of happiness have low scores for resilience, positive affect, and life satisfaction and high scores on negative affect. In addition, resilience was positively correlated with subjective well-being and flourishing. In keeping with our hypothesis, and indeed previous studies (e.g., Cohn et al., 2009; Hu et al., 2015; Souri, & Hasanirad, 2011), individuals with high levels of resilience scored highly on subjective well-being and flourishing.

The results of the SEM analysis indicated that externality of happiness and resilience significantly predicted subjective well-being and flourishing. Most importantly, resilience partially mediated the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. The significance of the standardized direct effects was evaluated using a conventional criterion (Kline, 2011), according to which a standardized direct effect greater than 0.50 indicates a large effect, whilst greater than 0.30 and smaller than 0.50 indicates a medium effect, and less than 0.10 indicates a small effect. Following this criterion, externality of happiness (path coefficients range = -0.30 to -0.49) and resilience (path coefficients range = 0.44 to 0.49) have medium effects on subjective well-being and flourishing.

The SEM findings concerning the mediator role of resilience in the relationship between externality of happiness and subjective well-being are consistent with recent findings showing that resilience plays a partial mediation role in the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being (Joshanloo, 2017). In addition, the SEM results support our hypothesis that resilience mediated the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. In previous research, resilience has been investigated both as being a direct and indirect variable could affect different psychological variables. For example, resilience was found to partially mediate the relationship between psychological maltreatment and emotional and behavioural problems in Turkish adolescents (Arslan, 2016). It was also found to be associated with flourishing, social support, and coping strategies of Turkish undergraduate students (Malkoç & Yalçın, 2015).

These results are important in terms of showing that inability to “bounce back” from stressful situations could explain the relationship between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. Therefore, externality of happiness beliefs can be considered an important psychological factor in stimulating dysfunctional beliefs that happiness is shaped by external factors, which in turn leads to an inability to cope with stress, resulting in poor subjective well-being and flourishing. These findings also contribute to a growing body of research showing that lay beliefs about happiness, such as fear of happiness and externality of happiness, are negatively associated with positive components of well-being and positively associated with negative components of well-being (Joshanloo, 2013, 2017; Yildirim & Aziz, 2017; Yildirim, & Belen, 2018; Yildirim et al., 2018). Furthermore, in the light of these findings, developing interventions designed to increase resilience in adults would be useful to lessen the effect of externality of happiness on well-being. For example, mental health professionals can employ preventive interventions regarding resilience toward reducing the impact of externality of happiness beliefs on the subjective and psychological well-being of individuals. This would be particularly important to improve individuals' subjective

well-being and flourishing as individuals endorsing externality of happiness beliefs may have lower resilience compared to those who do not. Therefore, developing training and motivational systems seeking to foster life satisfaction (Yıldırım & Alanazi, 2018), affect balance, and flourishing play an important role in the context of externality of happiness.

This study has some limitations. First, given the methodology used in the current study, it is difficult to explain whether higher externality of happiness causes lower resilience, which in turn leads to lower subjective and psychological well-being, or higher resilience leads to lower externality of happiness, which in turn leads to higher subjective and psychological well-being. Experimental designs would facilitate the identification of the possible causal directions of the study variables. It is particularly useful to investigate these directionalities not only in the laboratory settings where the momentary effects of independent variables on dependent variables are present, but also in field settings where the effect of externality of happiness through resilience on dependent variables in real life is present. Second, the study is limited to providing evidence regarding the impacts of independent variables on dependent variables over time. Longitudinal designs would help uncover the longer-term impact of externality of happiness through resilience on subjective well-being and flourishing. Third, only resilience was selected as a mediator in the current study; clearly, there may be other variables mediating the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing. Furthermore, considering that resilience is a concept associated with stressful life events (Smith et al., 2008), we did not measure participants' levels of stress when the study was conducted. Measuring stress and its contribution to the study variable should be considered in future studies. Finally, it would be useful to replicate and extend the current study using other samples to increase the generalizability of these findings.

In conclusion, the present study investigated whether resilience mediated the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing in a structural model. The findings contributed to the current literature by showing that resilience mediated the relationships between externality of happiness and subjective well-being and flourishing.

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