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UNVEILING JOY: EXPLORING THE DETERMINANTS OF HAPPINESS

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ABSTRACT

This study explores the determinants of happiness at the individual level, delving into the multifaceted nature of this concept. For empirical analysis, it utilizes the most recent wave of the World Values Survey, encompassing data from 66 countries worldwide. A logistic regression model is employed to examine the impact of various covariates on happiness. The findings reveal that females are more likely to report happiness than males, and age exhibits a U-shaped relationship with happiness, with younger and older individuals being happier than those in middle age. Urban living slightly reduces happiness compared to rural living, while marriage significantly boosts happiness due to emotional and financial support. The effect of education is insignificant, but income consistently enhances happiness by alleviating financial stress. Employment increases happiness, whereas unemployment reduces it due to stress and lack of structure. Good health strongly correlates with higher happiness, and social class influences happiness, with higher classes reporting greater happiness due to financial security and resource access. Financial satisfaction significantly enhances happiness by reducing stress and anxiety associated with financial insecurity. This study highlights the key determinants of happiness and their implications for policy, interventions, and personal development to improve quality of life and foster sustained happiness.

Keywords: *Happiness, Subjective wellbeing, Health, Financial satisfaction.*

INTRODUCTION

The study of individual happiness has become a critical area of research in understanding human well-being and societal progress. Happiness, often described as a state of contentment and fulfillment, extends beyond personal satisfaction to significantly impact social, economic, and cultural dimensions of life (Veenhoven, 2011). It underpins mental and physical health, enhances productivity and creativity, and strengthens interpersonal relationships within communities (Santos, 2024). In a world increasingly driven by material pursuits and technological advancements, understanding what genuinely contributes to happiness has never been more crucial. Identifying the determinants of happiness helps uncover the mechanisms through which people experience satisfaction, fulfillment, and purpose in their lives.

People's total life satisfaction has more strongly influenced by their beliefs about happiness than by their actual situations in many areas of their lives. Prior literature recognizes that positive relationship between financial status, happiness and income

while negative correlation found with income of others. Additionally, Easterlin Paradox is the important theory that investigates the correlation among happiness and wealth, specifically if an increase in income results in improved the financial satisfaction also. The level of financial satisfaction among people throughout a country can be influenced by its overall economic stability. Due to uncertainty and a lack of economic prospects, financial satisfaction is typically lower in nations with unstable economies. In developed nations, people's happiness does not rise with financial stability, according to Easterlin (1974) observations. The intricate connection between happiness and income has highlighted by this conundrum. According to Frey & Stutzer (2010) suggests that higher income levels are associated with greater levels of happiness, supporting the idea that income does play a role in overall happiness.

On macro level, the World Happiness Report 2024 identifies key factors influencing happiness across 155 economies through three variables: life satisfaction, positive emotions, and negative emotions (Helliwell et al., 2024). GDP per capita significantly boosts life satisfaction but minimally affects emotions. Social support strongly enhances life satisfaction and positive emotions while reducing negative emotions. Healthy life expectancy positively impacts life satisfaction, though its influence on emotions is limited. Freedom to make choices increases happiness, while perceptions of corruption lower it. Generosity has a modest positive effect. Positive emotions enhance, and negative emotions reduce, life satisfaction, highlighting the critical roles of social support, freedom, income, and low corruption in global happiness.

The disparity in the happiness across the global economies is apparent as depicted in Figure 1. It shows world map visualizes global happiness levels using a color-coded scale that ranges from 2.67 (light yellow shade) to 3.35 (dark purple). The scale suggests that the intensity of the color reflects the level of happiness reported in each country. Darker shades of purple denote higher happiness scores, while lighter shades indicate lower happiness levels. Countries in North America, South America, and some parts of Europe appear to have higher happiness scores, as indicated by darker shades. In contrast, parts of Africa and some Asian countries are colored in lighter shades, suggesting lower happiness scores. The map serves to illustrate how happiness varies around the world, potentially correlating with economic, social, and political factors specific to each region.

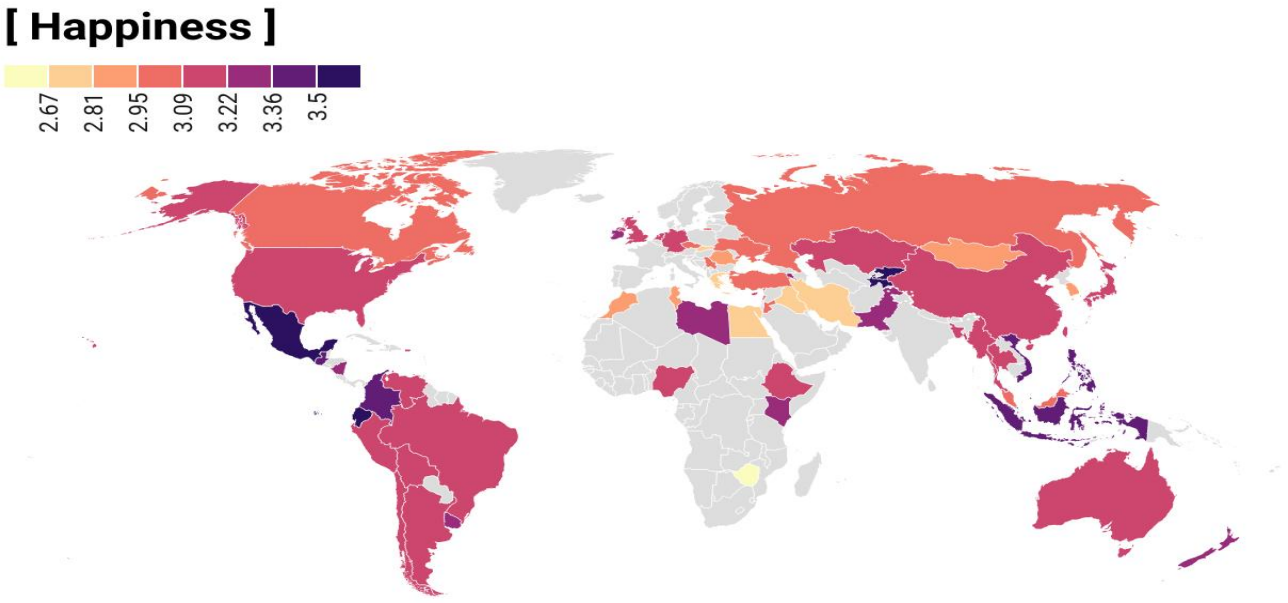

Figure 1. Spatial distribution of happiness across the world

Source: Authors' own estimation based on WVS 7th wave

The existing literature utilizing the World Values Survey includes studies on tax evasion (Shair et al., 2023) and the impact of democratic aspirations on subjective well-being (Shair et al., 2024). However,

since the release of data from the recent wave of the World Values Survey, the exploration of happiness has remained largely unexplored. This study is an attempt to exploring the determinants of happiness at individual level, delves into the multifaceted nature of happiness, aiming to uncover its underlying elements and their interplay in shaping human well-being. This study offers a comprehensive analysis of key determinants of happiness and their relative significance and implications for policy, interventions, and personal development. By investigating these determinants, we can develop strategies to enhance quality of life and create environments conducive to sustained happiness.

2. Literature Review

Happiness is intimately correlated with individual income, and average income has provided at any given time. But over time, as individual incomes rise generally, the average for society rises as well. Happiness declines as a result of the increase in the average, offsetting any increase in happiness that could have been anticipated given the increases in individual wages. The happiness paradox, which holds that although those with higher incomes report better levels of happiness, increasing everyone's wealth does not improve people's well-being, has resolved by Easterlin (1974, 1995, 2001a; 2001b). This demonstrates how essential it is to take income into account when evaluating happiness. Analyzing when a steady rise in income eventually results in higher perceived well-being can shed light on the link between income and happiness (Bekalu et al, 2019; Stutzer & Frey, 2010; Diener & Oishi, 2000 and Dumludag & Gokdemir, 2022).

More research has been done on and successful applications of happiness indexes (e.g., Clark & Oswald, 1994; Diener, 2000; Easterlin, 2001 & 2003; Frey & Stutzer, 2000; Kahneman et al., 1997) and, for surveys, (see: Frey & Stutzer, 2002; Oswald 1997). The study of Ghaffar et al (2024) found the negative association of social media usage with financial satisfaction which is an indicator of subjective wellbeing. Similarly, Mayraz (2009) explores life satisfaction and income comparisons, finding disparities across sexes, with males showing greater predictive power, and affluent neighborhoods contributing to higher happiness. Diener et al (1985) suggested that an individual's degree of pleasure may be determined by how well their life satisfies their own standards—rather than those that has imposed from elsewhere—and how they approach the present. For example, if everyone's income would increase and part of income gives a slight boost-up to individual's happiness. Happiness is associated with healthier immune systems, less heart and stress-related illnesses, more motivation, productivity, and goal attainment. Suicidal thoughts, anxiety disorders, and depression—have positively connected with self-reported misery. People who are unhappy are also more prone to anxiety and depression.

Fan and Babiarz (2019) study looked at factors like marital status and gender that affect financial satisfaction. According to the findings, widower men fared better financially than married men, whereas divorcees and single women expressed less financial satisfaction. According to FitzRoy et al (2022), happiness in life has adversely affected by comparing income with age, proportional income, and personal happiness, with the effects changing over the course of a person's life but increase in income directly increases the financial and happiness level. Moreover, Ferrer-i-Carbonell (2005) study reveals income marginally impacts well-being, with East Germans more affected. However, increased income does not necessarily increase happiness; it has the opposite effect on poorer individuals.

Diener et al (2013) found that increases in household earnings were strongly correlated with changes in living standards across time. For an increase in income to have an impact on living standards, it must lead to a rise in happiness, financial satisfaction, and material wealth for the household. Clark and Oswald (1996) conducted similar income and satisfaction studies. Based on the findings, money has only a minor impact on workers' well-being, and salary appraisals have a negative effect on workplace happiness. Higher education levels also lower satisfaction, showing that utility is determined by the gap between accomplishments and desired goals. Ballas and Tranmer (2012) used multilevel modeling to investigate happiness and well-being and discovered that they differ at several levels.

Easterlin (1974) study discovered a positive relationship between income and happiness, but no indication of inequality. Salinas-Jiménez (2010) study looked at how motivation, life satisfaction, and money affect wellbeing, and discovered that

self-interest and personal goals influence well-being perception, whereas subjective reasons influence satisfaction levels. Likewise, a survey in Thailand found a positive correlation between happiness and attitudes towards relative income, with satisfaction decreasing with increasing income disparity (Leerattanakorn, 2017). To determine the direction of happiness and wellbeing, Lambert et al (2023) carried out an experiment in the United Arab Emirates. The findings indicated that the happiness of students' scores had increased while their perceived stress and fear of happiness had reduced. In order to address mental health issues, the study recommends an abilities-based approach in the classroom. Similarly, a positive correlation between income and the happiness level, and education level also (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2004).

3. Methodology

The aim of this research is to examine the determinants of individual happiness. In the World Value Survey, the dependent variable is originally ordinal categorical; it has been transformed into a binary format following the methodology outlined by Adesanya et al. (2017). Given this binary categorization, the study primarily employs a logistic regression model (Shair et al., 2022). The econometric model utilized herein estimates the effects of various covariates on happiness, as described below:

$$\text{Happy}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1\text{Female}_i + \beta_2\text{Age}_i + \beta_3\text{Age\_squared}_i + \beta_4\text{Urban}_i + \beta_5\text{Married}_i + \beta_6\text{Education}_i + \beta_7\text{Income}_i + \beta_8\text{Unemployed}_i + \beta_9\text{Health}_i + \beta_{10}\text{Social\_class}_i + \beta_{11}\text{Financial\_satisfaction}_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

In the specified model, the dependent variable, happiness status, is determined by various demographic and socioeconomic factors. Within the World Value Survey, participants were queried on their overall happiness, choosing from responses: "Very happy," "Rather happy," "Not very happy," and "Not at all happy." For analytical purposes, these responses were dichotomized into a binary outcome, assigning a value of 1 to "Very happy" or "Rather happy," and 0 to "Not very happy" or "Not at all happy."

In the analysis, the variable 'Female' is binary, coded as 1 if the respondent is female and 0 otherwise. 'Age' is measured in years, and 'Age-squared' is included to assess the non-linear effects of age on happiness. 'Urban' is also binary, indicating whether the respondent resides in an urban area. 'Married' is coded as 1 for married respondents. Education levels are classified according to the World Value Survey (WVS) categories: primary, middle, and higher education. 'Income' is treated as an ordinal variable, scaled from 1 to 10. 'Unemployed' is coded as 1 for those without employment. 'Health' status is an ordinal category that ranges from very poor, poor, fair, good, and very good. 'Social class' is an ordinal variable comprising five categories: lower, working, lower middle, upper middle, and upper. Finally, 'Satisfaction with current financial situation' is an ordinal variable divided into three levels: completely dissatisfied (1-5), moderately satisfied (6-7), and completely satisfied (8-10), reflecting the gradations in financial contentment among respondents.

4. Data and Descriptive analysis

4.1 Data source

This study utilizes secondary data from the World Value Survey (WVS) Wave-7, collected in 2022 from 66 countries, now available on the WVS website. It includes socio-economic and demographic variables and aims to support tracking the Sustainable Development Goals of the 2015 UN Post-Agenda. Researchers use this data to explore the determinants of happiness. The empirical analysis uses a sample of 88,548 participants across the world, adjusted for any missing variable values.

4.2 Descriptive analysis

The descriptive statistics of the variables used in the study is presented in Table 1. The table provides descriptive statistics for a dataset concerning happiness, indicated by a binary variable where 1 represents 'Happy' and 0 'Not Happy'. The mean for the whole sample is approximately 0.856, suggesting that, on average, 86% participants are reported being happy. This range and the high mean value suggest that a larger proportion of the sample leans towards being happy. For the variable 'Female,' which is coded as 1 for females and 0 for males, the average in the whole sample is approximately 52.69%, indicating a slight majority of females. In terms of happiness, 52.98% of the happy subset are females, compared to 50.91% in the not happy group.

For 'Age,' the average age across the entire sample is 43.18 years, with a standard deviation of 16.58,

suggesting a broad spread of ages from 16 to 103 years. Individuals who are happy have a slightly lower average age of 42.99 years, whereas those who are not happy are typically older, averaging 44.16 years. The 'Urban' variable, which indicates whether someone lives in an urban area (1) or not (0), shows that about 67.82% of the whole sample resides in urban settings. The proportion of urban dwellers is marginally higher among those who are not happy (69.09%) compared to those who are happy (67.56%). The 'Married' status shows that 63.21% of the overall sample is married. Within the subsets, 64.85% of happy individuals are married, whereas this is lower among the not happy individuals at 54.39%. s

For educational levels, approximately 31.71% of the entire sample has primary education, with a slight decrease to 30.67% among the happy and an increase to 38.21% among the not happy. Middle education levels are consistent across groups at around 34.89%, indicating a uniform distribution. However, higher education is more common among the happy at 34.44% compared to 26.93% among the not happy. Income levels average at 4.91 on a scale of 1 to 10, with those who are happy reporting a slightly higher average of 5.04, suggesting a correlation between higher income and happiness. The unemployment rate in the whole sample stands at 7.60%, but it is lower among the happy (6.78%) and higher among the not happy (12.47%), highlighting economic factors as significant in overall well-being.

Health status varied significantly across the groups. Very poor health is rare overall but more prevalent among the not happy at 4.55% compared to 0.57% in the happy subset. Similar patterns are observed with poor and fair health statuses, where higher percentages are reported among the not happy. In contrast, good and very good health statuses are more common among the happy, underscoring the strong link between health and happiness.

Among the social class group, upper class, it comprises only about 1.99% of the whole sample, with a slightly higher representation among the happy (2.11%) compared to the not happy (1.22%). The upper middle class makes up 21.21% of the sample and is more prevalent among the happy (22.70%) than the not happy (12.66%), suggesting a correlation between higher social class and happiness. The lower middle class is the largest group, representing 38.89% of the sample, with a higher incidence among those who are happy (39.59%) compared to those who are not (34.94%). In contrast, the working class accounts for 26.41% of the sample, but is more common among the not happy (29.57%) compared to the happy (25.83%). Lastly, the lower class includes 11.50% of the whole sample, significantly more among the not happy (21.60%) compared to the happy (9.77%).

Regarding satisfaction with their financial situation, 37.75% of the sample is completely dissatisfied, with a stark contrast between the not happy (68.85%) and the happy (32.40%). Those who are moderately satisfied represent 29.56% of the sample, again with more individuals in this category among the happy (31.35%) than the not happy (19.05%). The completely satisfied group comprises 32.69% of the sample, with a significantly higher proportion among the happy (36.25%) compared to those who are not (12.11%).

These statistics highlight the clear disparities in demographics, socioeconomics factors between those who are happy and those who are not, suggesting that higher social standings and better financial situations are closely linked to higher levels of happiness. This quantitative analysis sheds light on how socio-economic factors significantly influence personal well-being.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

Variables	Whole sample				Happy	Not happy
	Mean	Std. dev.	Min	Max	Mean	Mean
Happy	.8561132	.3509767	0	1		
Female	.5268978	.4992786	0	1	.5297917	.509104
Age	43.17765	16.58287	16	103	42.98745	44.15848
Urban	.6781742	.467179	0	1	.6756211	.690896
Married	.6321333	.4822273	0	1	.6484989	.5438647
Education:						
Primary	.317112	.4653539	0	1	.3066735	.3821304

Middle	.3489896	.4766531	0	1	.3488869	.3485885
Higher	.3338984	.4716064	0	1	.3444396	.2692811
Income	4.910375	2.090321	1	10	5.040844	4.153103
Unemployed	.075972	.2649547	0	1	.0678327	.1247211
Health:						
Very poor	.0114076	.1061959	0	1	.0056899	.0454939
Poor	.0514373	.2208891	0	1	.0317547	.1669791
Fair	.2735243	.4457699	0	1	.2442798	.4408796
Good	.4429672	.4967392	0	1	.4735115	.2651045
Very good	.2206636	.4146962	0	1	.244764	.0815429
Social class:						
Upper	.0198859	.139609	0	1	.0211164	.0121896
Upper middle	.2121344	.4088218	0	1	.2269561	.1266366
Lower middle	.3888604	.4874942	0	1	.3958871	.3494357
Working	.2641345	.4408737	0	1	.2583356	.2957111
Lower	.1149848	.3190053	0	1	.0977049	.2160271
Satisfied with financial situation:						
Completely dissatisfied	.3774937	.4847624	0	1	.3239865	.6884735
Moderately satisfied	.2955847	.4563075	0	1	.3134682	.1904658
Completely satisfied	.3269217	.4690908	0	1	.3625453	.1210606

4.2 Mean comparison of happy and not happy group

Figure 2 shows also shows descriptive statistics for various demographic and socio-economic factors, comparing data across the whole sample with subsets of individuals categorized as either happy or not happy. For instance, the happiness level within the whole sample stands at 85.61%, with slight fluctuations between those who are happy (52.98% females, 67.56% urban residents) and not happy (50.91% females, 69.09% urban residents). Marital status shows 63.21% of the whole sample is married, but this figure rises to 64.85% among those happy and decreases to 54.39% among those not happy.

Education levels, such as primary, middle, and higher, demonstrate varying distributions: 31.71% of the whole sample has primary education, with a decrease among the happy (30.67%) and an increase among the not happy (38.21%). Employment status further emphasizes differences; 7.60% of the whole sample is unemployed, with lower unemployment in the happy group (6.78%) compared to the not happy group (12.47%). Health status affects happiness, with only 0.57% of happy individuals reporting very poor health compared to 4.55% among the not happy. A similar trend is seen across other health categories, with better health generally correlating with happiness.

Social class and satisfaction with the financial situation also show strong correlations with happiness. Those in the upper and upper-middle classes are more likely to be happy compared to those in the lower social classes. Financial dissatisfaction is stark, with 68.85% of the not happy being completely dissatisfied compared to 32.40% of the happy, underlining how financial well-being is closely tied to overall happiness. This comprehensive breakdown highlights clear disparities in socio-economic and health conditions between the happy and not happy groups.

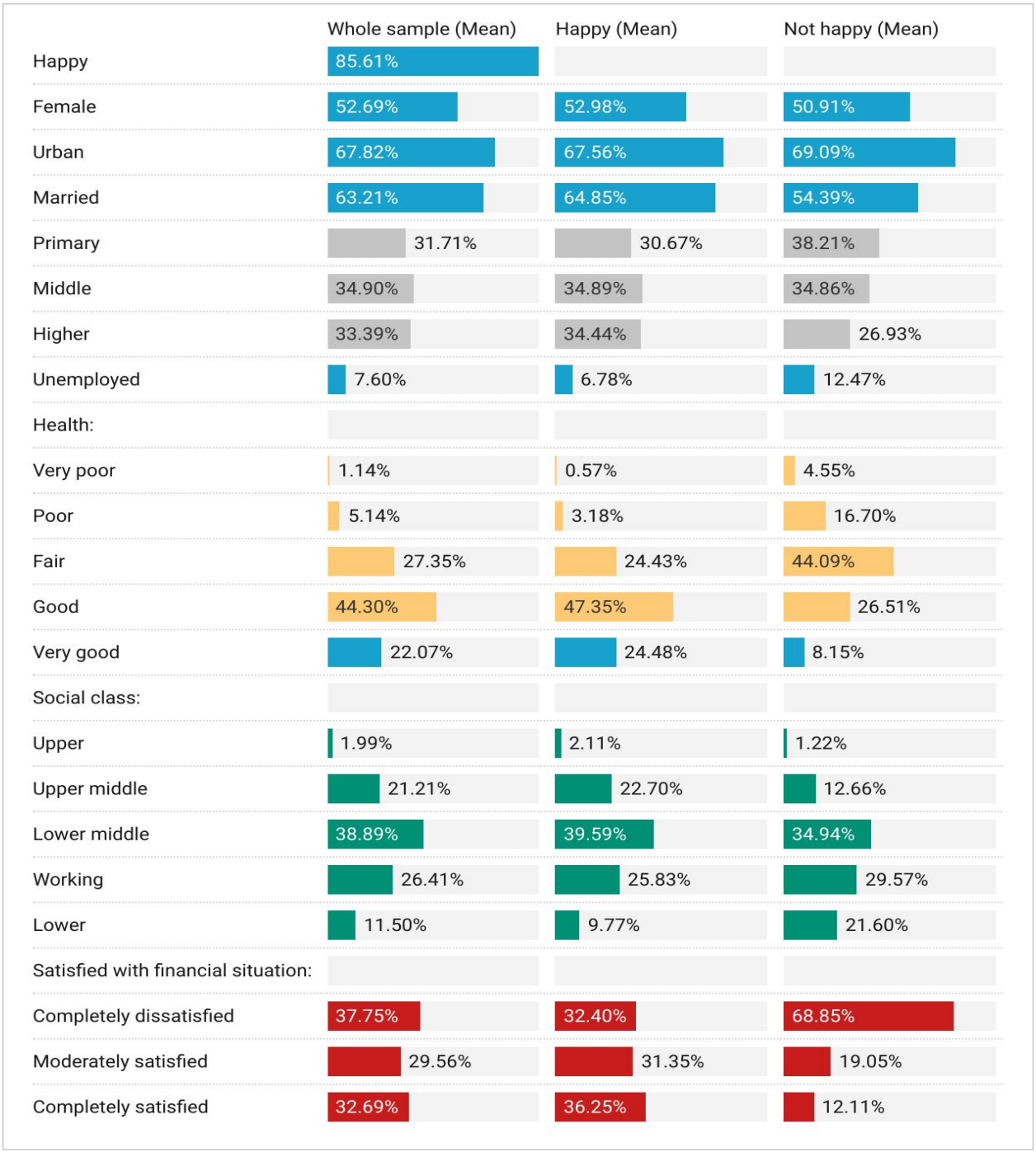

Figure 2. Mean comparison of happy and not happy group

5. Results and Discussion

The odds ratios from the logistic regression models are presented in Table 2. These ratios can exceed, equal, or be less than one. An odds ratio above one suggests a positive association between the covariate and the outcome, indicating that as the covariate increases, the likelihood of the outcome occurring also increases. Conversely, an odds ratio below one suggests a negative association, implying that increases in the covariate reduce the likelihood of the outcome. We estimated three distinct models to investigate these relationships: Model 1 assesses the influence of demographic variables; Model 2 examines the impact of socioeconomic factors; and Model 3 combines both demographic and socioeconomic variables to evaluate their collective

influence on individual happiness. This methodological approach ensures the robustness of our findings across different variable specifications.

The odds ratio is 1.111 in model 1, meaning females are about 11.1% more likely than males to report being happy, holding all other variables constant. In model 3**,** the odds ratio is 1.238, meaning females are about 23.8% more likely than males to report being happy, holding all other variables constant. Research indicates that women often employ more effective coping strategies, such as seeking social support, which can enhance their reported happiness by reducing stress impacts (King et al., 2014; Anwar et al., 2024). Additionally, societal norms more commonly allow women to express their emotions openly, further contributing to higher levels of reported happiness (Zeidner et al., 2016).

For age, the odds ratio is 0.958, indicating that each additional year of age reduces the odds of reporting being happy by about 4.2% (1 - 0.958). In model 3, the odds ratio is 0.982, indicating that each additional year of age reduces the odds of reporting being happy by about 1.8%. Age-squared variable is generally accounts for non-linear effects of age on happiness. Since the odds ratio is approximately 1.008 in all models, the effect is minimal. The positive sign of the age-squared variable indicates the u-shape relationship between the age and likelihood of being happy. It implies that younger age and older individuals are more likelihood of being happy than the individuals of middle age. Middle-aged men often face significant stress from career and family responsibilities, leading to lower happiness compared to younger and older men (Galambos et al., 2020). Young men enjoy optimism and vitality, while older men gain contentment from life reflections and reduced responsibilities. This U-shaped happiness curve across life stages reflects differing societal roles, expectations, and personal growth.

The odds ratio is 0.991, suggesting that living in urban areas has a negligible negative impact on reporting happiness compared to living in rural areas, though it is not statistically significant. In model 3, the odds ratio is 0.837, indicating that individuals living in urban areas are about 16.3% less likely to report being happy compared to those in rural areas, and this effect is significant. The insignificant impact of urban area on happiness in model 1 and significant in model 3 indicates lack of robustness of the impact of area. The odds ratio of 1.748 suggests that being married increases the odds of reporting being happy by about 74.8% compared to not being married. In model 3, the odds ratio of 1.530 indicates that being married increases the odds of reporting happiness by about 53.0% compared to those who are not married. Married individuals often inclined to higher happiness due to the emotional and financial support provided by partnerships (Downward, et al., 2022). Marriage can offer a sense of stability, shared purpose, and companionship, reducing feelings of loneliness and stress. These benefits contribute to an overall increased sense of well-being compared to those who are not married.

Table 2. Odds ratio of Logistic regression model

	(1)	(2)	(3)
VARIABLES	model 1	model 2	model 3
Female	1.111***		1.238***
	(0.0206)		(0.0261)
Age	0.958***		0.982***
	(0.00308)		(0.00366)
Age-squared	1.008***		1.008***
	(3.36e-05)		(3.93e-05)
Urban	0.991		0.837***
	(0.0199)		(0.0195)
Married	1.748***		1.530***
	(0.0353)		(0.0353)
Primary education (base)			
Middle education		0.931***	1.025
		(0.0232)	(0.0263)

Higher education		0.950*	1.083***
		(0.0262)	(0.0310)
Income		1.027***	1.031***
		(0.00631)	(0.00641)
Unemployed		0.704***	0.772***
		(0.0238)	(0.0266)
Health:			
Very poor (base)			
Poor		1.388***	1.402***
		(0.105)	(0.107)
Fair		3.582***	3.733***
		(0.252)	(0.266)
Good		9.534***	10.32***
		(0.679)	(0.745)
Very good		14.60***	16.27***
		(1.109)	(1.256)
Social class:			
Lower class (base)			
Upper class		1.474***	1.473***
		(0.142)	(0.142)
Upper middle class		1.697***	1.668***
		(0.0727)	(0.0719)
Lower middle class		1.490***	1.485***
		(0.0492)	(0.0494)
Working class		1.408***	1.401***
		(0.0458)	(0.0459)
Satisfaction with financial situation:			
Completely dissatisfied (base)			
Moderately satisfied		2.577***	2.558***
		(0.0674)	(0.0673)
Completely satisfied		4.157***	3.990***
		(0.129)	(0.124)
Constant	11.39***	0.381***	0.331***
	(0.780)	(0.0278)	(0.0358)
Observations	96,034	88,829	88,548

seEform in parentheses, *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

The coefficient of Middle education in Model 2 shows an odds ratio of 0.931 (significant at the 1% level of significance) indicates that individuals with middle education are approximately 6.9% less likely to report being happy compared to those with primary education. In model 3, with an odds ratio of 1.025, middle education slightly increases the odds of reporting happiness compared to primary education, though the effect is minimal. An odds ratio of 0.950 (significant at the 10% level of significance) suggests that individuals with higher education are about 5.0% less likely to report happiness compared to the primary education group. In model 3, an odds ratio of 1.083 (significant at the 1% level of significance) indicates that those with higher education are about 8.3% more likely to report being happy compared to those with primary education. The impact of education is ambiguous and unable to show robustness in coefficient due frequent change in sign and significance.

The odds ratio of 1.027 (significant at the 1% level of significance) implies that each unit increase in income increases the odds of reporting happiness by about 2.7%. Similarly, each unit increase in income increases the odds of reporting happiness by 3.1% in Model 3. An increase in income typically

enhances happiness by alleviating financial stress, expanding access to better health care, education, and leisure activities, and providing a greater sense of security and opportunities for personal and family development (Kahneman & Deaton, 2010). Higher income allows individuals to meet basic needs more easily, contributing to overall well-being and life satisfaction.

An odds ratio of 0.704 (significant at the *** level) indicates that unemployed individuals are approximately 29.6% less likely to report being happy compared to their employed counterparts. Unemployment reduces the odds of reporting happiness by about 22.8% compared to employed individuals. Unemployed individuals tend to be less happy due to the financial stress and uncertainty associated with job loss. Unemployment can also lead to reduced self-esteem, social isolation, and a lack of structured daily activity, all of which can negatively impact mental well-being and overall life satisfaction (Hiswåls et al., 2017).

Individuals who report their health as poor have higher odds of reporting happiness compared to those reporting very poor health, with odds ratios of 1.388 in Model 2 and 1.402 in Model 3. This indicates an approximate 38.8% and 40.2% increase in the odds of being happy, respectively. Those reporting fair health have substantially higher odds of reporting happiness, with odds ratios of 3.582 in Model 2 and 3.733 in Model 3. This suggests their likelihood of being happy is about 258.2% and 273.3% higher than those with very poor health. Individuals reporting good health have odds ratios of 9.534 in Model 2 and 10.32 in Model 3, indicating that their odds of being happy are approximately 853.4% and 932% higher compared to those with very poor health. Those with very good health report the highest increase in happiness odds, with odds ratios of 14.60 in Model 2 and 16.27 in Model 3. This means their likelihood of being happy is 1360% and 1527% higher compared to those who report very poor health. Individuals with poor health are often less happy due to the physical discomfort, limitations on daily activities, and the mental strain of managing chronic conditions or illnesses (Lorig et al., 2013). Poor health can also increase medical expenses and dependency on others, contributing to stress and reducing overall life satisfaction.

Individuals in the upper class are about 47.4% more likely to report being happy than those in the lower class, with odds ratios of 1.474 in both models. Those in the upper middle class have higher odds of being happy than those in the lower class, with odds ratios of 1.697 in Model 2 and 1.668 in Model 3. This indicates a 69.7% and 66.8% increase in the odds of being happy, respectively. Individuals in the lower middle class also show higher odds of happiness compared to the lower class, with odds ratios of 1.490 in Model 2 and 1.485 in Model 3, suggesting about a 49% increase in the likelihood of being happy. Members of the working class have odds ratios of 1.408 in Model 2 and 1.401 in Model 3, indicating they are approximately 40.8% and 40.1% more likely to report being happy than those in the lower class. Individuals from low-income groups often experience lower happiness due to financial constraints that limit access to healthcare, education, and recreational activities (Stewart et al., 2008). They face greater stress from uncertainty about basic needs like food, shelter, and security, which can significantly impact overall well-being and restrict opportunities for life improvement, unlike those from upper-income groups.

An odds ratio of 2.577 suggests that individuals who are moderately satisfied with their financial situation are approximately 157.7% more likely to report being happy compared to those who are completely dissatisfied. This indicates a significant positive effect of moderate financial satisfaction on perceived happiness. The odds ratio of 4.157 implies that individuals who are completely satisfied with their financial situation are about 315.7% more likely to report being happy than those who are completely dissatisfied. Individuals reporting dissatisfaction with their financial situation typically experience lower happiness due to the stress and anxiety caused by financial insecurities and limitations (French & Vigne, 2019). This dissatisfaction can lead to a constant concern over meeting basic needs and future financial stability, which undermines overall well-being and life satisfaction, contrasting sharply with the contentment felt by those satisfied with their finances.

6. Conclusion

The analysis highlights various determinants of happiness. Females are more likely to report happiness than males, influenced by better coping strategies and emotional expression. Age shows a U-shaped relationship with happiness, with younger

and older individuals being happier than middle-aged ones. Urban living slightly reduces happiness compared to rural living. Marriage significantly boosts happiness due to emotional and financial support. Education's effect is insignificant, while income consistently enhances happiness by alleviating financial stress. Employment improves happiness, with unemployment reducing it due to stress and loss of structure. Good health strongly correlates with higher happiness, while social class influences happiness, with higher classes reporting more happiness due to greater financial security and access to resources. Financial satisfaction greatly enhances happiness, reducing stress and anxiety linked to financial insecurity. These findings emphasize the importance of health, social support, income, and stability in fostering happiness.

To enhance happiness, policy measures should focus on health, economic stability, social support, education, financial security, and family well-being. Investing in accessible healthcare, promoting healthy lifestyles, and addressing income inequality through job creation and living wages can significantly improve well-being. Strengthening community networks, fostering family-friendly policies, and enhancing access to quality education with emotional intelligence training can build resilience and life satisfaction. Urban living conditions should be improved through affordable housing and green spaces, while rural areas need better infrastructure and opportunities. Financial security can be bolstered through financial literacy programs and robust social safety nets. Additionally, supporting marital and family counseling can reduce loneliness and strengthen emotional bonds. Collectively, these measures address the multifaceted determinants of happiness, promoting overall well-being and societal progress..

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