

EXPLAINING WELL-BEING AND HAPPINESS THROUGH HUMAN VALUES IN ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXTS: EVIDENCE FROM MEXICO

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to examine the influence of selected human values on well-being, which may also manifest in happiness, within the adult Mexican population that could be applied to organizations. This research employed an observational, ex post facto, cross-sectional, and explanatory design. A total of 1,721 records were drawn from the World Values Survey (WVS) database, collected between 2017 and 2022. The instrument underlying these data covers a broad range of social topics, from which eleven items were selected for the present analysis. Statistical processing was conducted using R Studio's *lavaan* package, applying several structural equation models with latent variables to test a set of specific research hypotheses, using the maximum likelihood covariance method. The results yielded Cronbach's alpha and omega coefficients above 0.70, and average variance extracted (AVE) values equal to or greater than 0.50 for the constructs. Acceptable fit indices were obtained across absolute, incremental, and parsimonious measures. Findings showed that seven exogenous variables explained approximately 22% of well-being, while six of these variables accounted for about 12% of happiness. Furthermore, the results indicate that well-being is a significant predictor of happiness.

These findings have important professional implications for organizations. Understanding how human values influence well-being and happiness can guide the development of workplace policies, programs, and interventions aimed at improving employee satisfaction, engagement, and productivity. By fostering environments that align organizational practices with employees' core values, managers and HR professionals can enhance overall organizational climate, reduce turnover, and promote a culture of psychological well-being that supports both individual and collective success.

Keywords: Human values, well-being, happiness.

Introduction

The World Values Survey (WVS) is an international research initiative focused on the scientific and academic study of individuals' social, political, economic, religious, and cultural values, as well as their beliefs. Its purpose is to analyze and document the behavior and impact of these values over time. The survey's findings serve as critical inputs for policymakers in developed and developing nations to strengthen civil societies and democratic institutions. For scholars and researchers, the WVS provides a robust empirical foundation for generating knowledge in their respective fields. Its principal methodological tool is a cross-national social survey, conducted in five-year waves, which has become the largest non-commercial, transnational time-series study on beliefs and values worldwide.

One of the WVS's most influential contributions is the identification of two key dimensions of human values. The first contrasts traditional values—emphasizing religion, parental authority, respect for hierarchy, obedience, and the institution of marriage—with

secular-rational values, which tend to reject those traditional priorities. The second contrasts survival values, which prioritize economic and physical security, with self-expression values, which emphasize environmental protection, tolerance toward sexual diversity, and gender equality (Academia Lab., 2025). According to Próchniak et al. (2024), these value orientations are strongly linked to socio-economic development, democratization, and cultural change.

Individual agency plays a pivotal role in value orientation. When agency expands, priorities tend to shift from survival values toward self-expression values; conversely, when agency contracts, self-expression values often give way to survival values. The WVS has documented significant differences in human values across gender, generation, ethnicity, religious affiliation, education level, and income. Between 1981 and 2007, for instance, happiness increased in 45 out of 52 countries for which long-term data were available (Academia Lab., 2025).

Gap and problem statement.

Although prior studies have examined the distribution and change of human values across countries, there is limited empirical evidence on how specific human values directly influence subjective well-being and happiness within the Mexican context. Most existing research in Latin America addresses well-being from socio-economic or health-related perspectives, often overlooking the psychological and cultural dimensions embedded in value systems. This gap limits our understanding of how cultural values operate as predictors of well-being in non-Western, developing economies. Given Mexico's complex socio-cultural landscape—characterized by deep-rooted traditions alongside rapid modernization—understanding these dynamics is critical.

This study addresses this gap by analyzing the relationship between human values, well-being, and happiness in the adult Mexican population using recent WVS data. By applying structural equation modeling, it aims to clarify which values are most influential in predicting well-being and how these, in turn, relate to happiness. The findings are expected to contribute to both the academic literature on cross-cultural psychology and the formulation of policies aimed at enhancing quality of life in organizations and latin countries (Akaliyski et al., (2020).

Moreover, several authors have conducted reliability and validity tests on the Spanish-adapted version of the human values scale originally developed by Schwartz, which comprises four dimensions and nine factors, from which its 40 items are derived. Reliability results reported by these authors were favorable in eight out of the ten domains analyzed. Construct validity was assessed using exploratory factor analysis (Homocianu, 2024). Drawing on surveys conducted in 2010 and 2012 aimed at identifying the personality traits of Mexican youth, another study concluded that there is no outright loss of values, but rather a transformation of them. This shift was evidenced in the grouped behavioral patterns derived from the data. The first classification included those who believe that certain values remain constant and are preserved over time, while the second comprised individuals who maintain that values change in response to economic, political, and social circumstances, depending on the specific society and historical period under examination (Gaceta UNAM, 2020).

As can be seen, longitudinal datasets on Mexican values are currently available, some published by the WVS and others by private institutions. It is important to note that this information is intertwined with a series of events occurring within the same time frame, including shifts in the national development model; inflationary, financial, and currency crises; the rise of human rights; various natural disasters and earthquakes; pandemics such as COVID-19; and increased recognition of social plurality, among others. The

occurrence and impact of these events have altered societal norms and customs, leading to changes in the value systems over time. This evolving context underscores the need to study the values held by the Mexican population using rigorous statistical methods.

Objectives

To determine the significant influence of value subscales (Misogyny, Corruption, Security, Religious Aspects, Socio-Political Behavior, Political Actions, Political Information, Violence, Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information, Health, Internal Locus of Control, Social Mobility, Financial Situation) on Well-Being, and subsequently explain Happiness in a sample of Mexican participants, using structural equation modeling with latent variables under the covariance-based method. A secondary objective is to analyze the mediating role of Well-Being in Happiness.

Based on these research objectives, the following research questions arise: Which value subscales can influence Well-Being and, in turn, explain the Happiness of the Mexican participants studied? Does Well-Being function as a mediating factor between the value subscales and Happiness?

Theoretical Framework and Previous Studies

Well-Being can be approached from different perspectives. Psychological well-being with a eudaimonic focus examines the fullness of being, personal growth, life purpose, and self-actualization. In contrast, subjective well-being with a hedonistic perspective focuses on the experience of satisfaction with one's own life and the pursuit of pleasure as a primary good (Van Halem et al, 2024).

Rizzato et al., (2024) define subjective well-being as the degree to which an individual evaluates their overall quality of life positively, based on cognitive and affective assessments. Psychological well-being can be assessed through the individual's perception of the benefits they have attained throughout life, as well as personal satisfaction at different points—what has been done, what is being done, and what could potentially be done (Becchetti, & Conzo, 2022).

Among the earliest contributions to the study of well-being, Andrews and Withey (1976) proposed that the construct is composed of three dimensions: positive affect, negative affect, and cognitive judgments of well-being. Bradburn (1969) further suggested that satisfaction consists of positive and negative affect, noting that the two components are independent rather than correlated.

Diener and Diener (1995) proposed three categories of well-being: first, life satisfaction, encompassing individuals' evaluations of their own lives; second, the predominance of positive over negative affect; and third, well-being as a virtue—an ultimate value in itself. To date, literature presents various theories and models that provide a foundation for the study of well-being. Universalist theories propose that satisfaction is achieved by fulfilling goals or basic needs, as in Maslow's or Murray's models. Ryff (1989) critiques prior research on satisfaction and well-being for treating the construct as unidimensional, arguing instead for a multidimensional approach incorporating self-realization, optimal mental functioning, and related theories.

Situational models, also known as bottom-up approaches, posit that an individual's satisfaction accumulates from the sum of happy moments experienced. Thus, more positive experiences lead to greater satisfaction, making perceived well-being a predictor of life satisfaction. In contrast, personological models, or top-down approaches, suggest that naturally happy individuals perceive greater happiness in their context—family, work, etc.—and that stable personalities produce stable well-being; in this case, satisfaction is largely shaped by temperament.

Adaptive theories focus on the role of adaptation in achieving happiness, using a habituation model in which systems respond to deviations from the current adaptation level. This explains individuals' ability to recover from challenges and maintain life continuity, demonstrating flexibility in the face of change.

The discrepancy theory, proposed by Michalos (1986), integrates multiple approaches to satisfaction, suggesting that self-perceived well-being arises from comparisons between: what individuals have and their goals (goal-achievement theory); what they have and their ideals (ideal-reality theory); current status and past best experiences (previous-best comparison theory); what one has versus what a significant social group has (social comparison theory); and congruence between the individual and environment (congruence theory).

Currently, the most widely accepted multidimensional model of psychological well-being is Ryff's model, which emphasizes personal development and engagement with life challenges—a eudaimonic approach. It comprises six components: self-acceptance, positive relationships, autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, and life purpose (Ryff, 1989). Sociological studies also indicate that sociodemographic variables, such as age, sex, and marital status, can predict well-being, although correlations are generally weak (Wilson, 1967; Myers & Diener, 1997).

Puebla Rosales et al. (2018) described subjective psychological well-being in a non-experimental, cross-sectional, descriptive study involving 400 participants from southern Patagonia. Using a self-administered questionnaire integrating two models—domains of subjective well-being (work, interpersonal relationships, material) and dimensions of well-being (control over situations, self-acceptance, psychosocial bonds, projects, autonomy, happiness, totaling 44 items)—they found high overall well-being, with some sociodemographic differences (socioeconomic level, marital status, education). Age, marital status, and gender were relevant for specific well-being dimensions (happiness, autonomy, projects, situation control, psychosocial bonds, self-acceptance).

Fernández Canales and Siegien (2018) identified well-being in social, psychological, and emotional categories in 218 older adults in Buenos Aires, Argentina. Using a quantitative, cross-sectional, descriptive-comparative design and a 14-item self-report instrument, the study found that “younger-old” participants scored higher in emotional and psychological well-being but lower in social well-being, whereas “older-old” participants showed predominance in psychological well-being, followed by emotional well-being, with lower social well-being.

Happiness has been studied for approximately seven decades. Philosophically, it can be approached through Aristotle's eudaimonia, achieved via virtue and spirituality, or through Aristippus' hedonism, where happiness arises from the pursuit of pleasure and avoidance of pain (Moccia, 2016; Moyano Díaz et al., 2018). Lyubomirsky has studied happiness from a hedonistic perspective, identifying associated factors, evaluating linked variables, and proposing ways to enhance it (Lyubomirsky & Lepper, 1999).

Lesinskienė et al. (2025) define happiness as “a relatively enduring state of satisfaction subjectively experienced by an individual in possession of a desired good,” while Fernández (2009) emphasizes its uniqueness, largely independent of material possessions. Myers and Diener (2018) view it as both a desirable end and a means to achieve other goals. Empirical studies, such as Waldinger et al. (2017), indicate that happy individuals are healthier, have stronger immune systems, maintain better social relationships, and exhibit positive outcomes at work and home.

Peterson and Seligman (2004) identified 24 widely recognized strengths and virtues that enhance happiness, which correspond to three behavioral styles: pleasure, meaning, and engagement—aligning with hedonistic, eudaimonic, and flow theories.

Oxa Gerónimo et al. (2014) examined happiness in relation to education, income, wealth, religion, and security using Latinobarómetro survey data from 2004–2012, finding that 38% of Mexicans reported high satisfaction, above the average of 26 Latin American countries, with low correlations to other study variables.

Sellés Nohalesa et al. (2018) analyzed happiness perceptions among 300 Spanish university students. Participants described five experiences of complete happiness and five associated concepts. Findings suggested a eudaimonic focus on relationships (family, friends, love) and achievement, consistent with Deci and Ryan's (2000) model. Happiness was categorized as relational (love, friendship, family, partner) or affective (joy, serenity, satisfaction, security, enthusiasm, fulfillment, optimism, gratitude), and associated with universal values such as peace, respect, solidarity, freedom, authenticity, kindness, and understanding.

Garzón Castrillon (2024) compiled characteristics and actions for effective happiness management in organizations, including leadership responsibility, empathy, fairness, well-being promotion, ongoing training, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation, humility, work-life balance, teamwork, flexible work, personal/professional development, progress perception, self-control, connectivity, purpose, work climate, and organizational culture. Other studies report strong links between happiness and well-being, identifying personality traits, mood, social relationships, meaningful life, and satisfaction as predictors of happiness, while motivation and self-esteem contribute to well-being (Tkach & Lyubomirsky, 2006). Literature on measurement instruments shows semantic overlap between happiness and well-being, often using terms interchangeably or equivalently: well-being, subjective well-being (SWB), psychological well-being, and life satisfaction (Lesinskienė et al., 2025).

METHODS

Study Type

This research is observational, ex post facto, and cross-sectional in nature, with a somewhat explanatory focus due to the application of structural equation models (SEM) with latent variables. The analyses were conducted using the R Studio software, specifically the Lavaan package.

Procedure

The constructs were derived from the *World Values Survey* (WVS, Wave 7, 2017–2022), which was administered in over 65 countries across all continents. For this study, only the 1,721 observations corresponding to Mexico were considered. The original instrument is divided into 14 thematic sections with varying numbers of items. From these, 11 subscales were selected, and two second-order constructs were defined through exploratory factor analysis.

The collected data were compiled into a database, edited in Excel, and subsequently analyzed using R Studio (Version 2023.03.03+386). Structural equation models with latent variables were estimated using the maximum likelihood covariance method. The WVS instrument was administered to a total of 97,220 individuals across 65 countries between 2017 and 2022, corresponding to the seventh wave (WVS Wave 7). For this study, the 1,721 responses from Mexico were extracted to analyze data related to values.

Instrument

From the original WVS instrument, items were selected to form subscales or theoretical constructs based on confirmatory factor analysis. The constructs included: Well-being,

Happiness, Misogyny, Corruption, Security, Religious Aspects, Social-Political Behavior, Political Actions, Political Information, Violence, Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information, Health, Internal Locus of Control, Social Mobility, and Financial Situation.

Population and Sample

The data used in this study were obtained from the *World Values Survey* (WVS), which is representative of the diverse societies participating in the project and is conducted every five years. Due to its geographic coverage, data availability, and the richness of its results, the WVS has become an internationally recognized reference and is widely used in the social sciences.

Following standardized data collection procedures, each participating country is surveyed once per wave. In each economy, probabilistic random samples are selected to represent the adult population, and data are collected through face-to-face interviews. The datasets used in this study correspond to the final version (6.0) of WVS Wave 7, which includes information from 66 countries and territories (Haerpfer et al., 2022).

The subscales included in the instrument are: Well-being, Misogyny, Corruption, Security, Religious Aspects, Social-Political Behavior, Political Actions, Political Information, Violence, Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information, Health, Internal Locus of Control, Social Mobility, Financial Situation, and Happiness (Haerpfer et al., 2022).

RESULTS

Characteristics of the Surveyed Sample

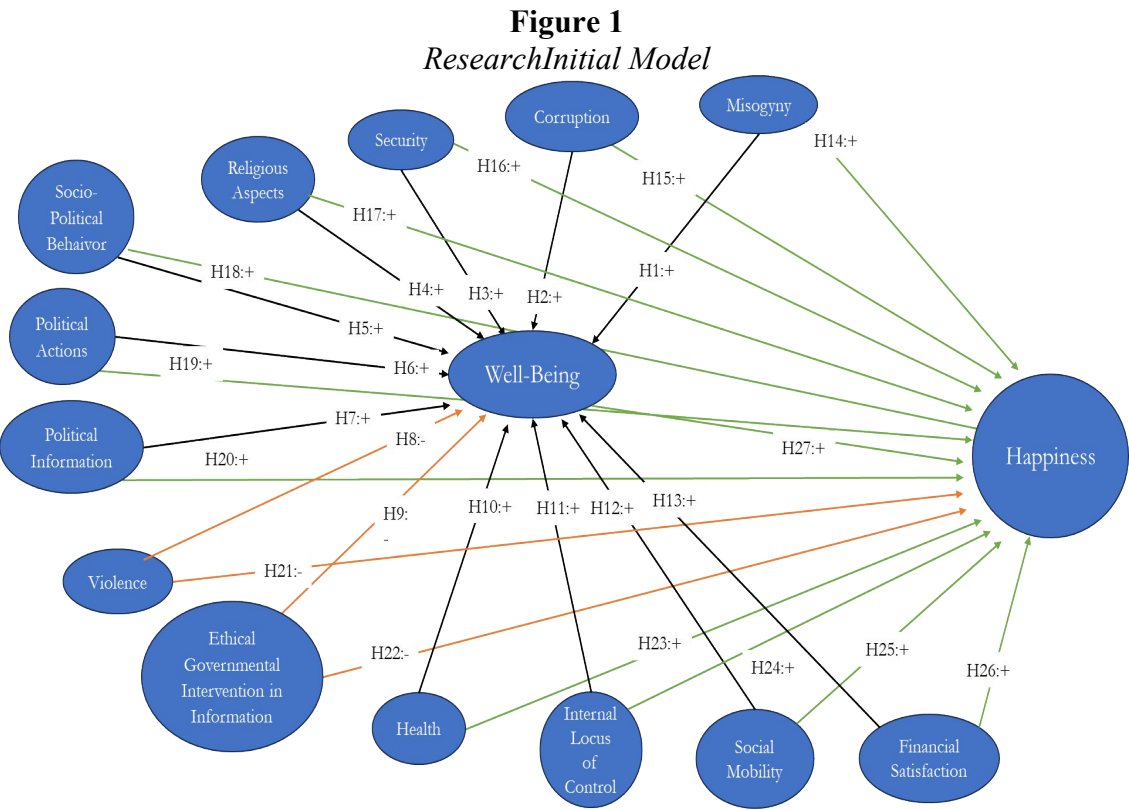
A total of 1,741 individuals participated in the study. Analysis of sociodemographic variables showed that 47.8% were men ($n = 832$) and 52.2% were women ($n = 909$). The most frequent age group was 30–49 years (40.2%, $n = 699$), followed by those aged 50 years or older (31.2%, $n = 543$) and 16–29 years (28.5%, $n = 497$); 0.1% ($n = 2$) did not respond.

Regarding marital status, 48.5% ($n = 845$) were married, 19.4% ($n = 338$) were in a domestic partnership, 18.3% ($n = 319$) were single, 5.7% ($n = 99$) were widowed, 4.7% ($n = 82$) were separated, 3.3% ($n = 58$) were divorced, and 0.1% ($n = 1$) did not respond. In terms of education, 62.5% ($n = 1,088$) had a low level of schooling, 21.5% ($n = 375$) medium, and 5.2% ($n = 97$) high; 21.6% ($n = 376$) either did not know or did not answer.

Given the scope of the research hypothesis, a structural equation model (SEM) with latent variables was employed to examine the influence of values on Well-being and Happiness among the Mexican population. The initial model, presented in Figure 1, was used to test the study's framework. It included the following subscales:

- E1: Misogyny
- E2: Corruption
- E3: Security
- E4: Religious Aspects
- E5: Violence
- E6: Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information
- E7: Social-Political Behavior
- E8: Political Information
- E9: Political Actions
- E11: Health
- E12: Internal Locus of Control
- E13: Social Mobility
- E14: Financial Satisfaction

These subscales were intended to explain E10: Well-being and subsequently E15: Happiness.



Source: Own elaboration.

The proposed model presents a series of specific research hypotheses, which are detailed in Table 1.

Table 1
Specific Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses on Human Values Influencing Well-being	
H1:	“Misogyny has a significant direct influence on Well-being”.
H2:	“Corruption has a significant inverse influence on Well-being”.
H3:	“Security has a significant direct influence on Well-being”.
H4:	“Religious aspects have a significant direct influence on Well-being”.
H5:	“Political social engagement has a significant direct influence on Well-being”.
H6:	“Political actions have a significant direct influence on Well-being”.
H7:	“Political information has a significant direct influence on Well-being”.
H8:	“Violence has a significant inverse influence on Well-being”.
H9:	“Ethical governmental intervention in information has a significant inverse influence on Well-being”.
H10:	“Health has a significant direct influence on Well-being”.
H11:	“Internal locus of control has a significant direct influence on Well-being”.
H12:	“Social mobility has a significant direct influence on Well-being”.

:	
H13 :	“Financial satisfaction has a significant direct influence on Well-being”.
Hypotheses on Human Values Influencing Happiness	
H14 :	Misogyny has a significant direct influence on Happiness.
H15 :	Corruption has a significant inverse influence on Happiness.
H16 :	Security has a significant direct influence on Happiness.
H17 :	Religious aspects have a significant direct influence on Happiness.
H18 :	Political social engagement has a significant direct influence on Happiness.
H19 :	Political actions have a significant direct influence on Happiness.
H20 :	Political information has a significant direct influence on Happiness.
H21 :	Violence has a significant inverse influence on Happiness.
H22 :	Ethical governmental intervention in information has a significant inverse influence on Happiness.
H23 :	Health has a significant direct influence on Happiness.
H24 :	Internal locus of control has a significant direct influence on Happiness.
H25 :	Social mobility has a significant direct influence on Happiness.
H26 :	Financial satisfaction has a significant direct influence on Happiness.
H27 :	Well-being has a significant direct influence on Happiness.

Source: Self Research

After estimating the research model, the results of descriptive statistics, reliability, and validity were obtained, as shown in Table 2. The table reports the behavior of Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which, in general, showed values above 0.70 for all subscales. The minimum value was observed for E6: Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information (0.73), while the highest value was for E8: Political Information (0.87). These values are considered optimal and acceptable, confirming the reliability of the instrument (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Similarly, the minimum and maximum values of the omega coefficient were found in the same subscales, providing additional support for confirming the instrument's validity at an optimal level—that is, the questionnaire measures what it is intended to measure.

Regarding convergent validity, the values of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) were used to determine whether a set of indicators represented a single underlying construct, capturing the variance of the construct explained by the chosen indicators. In this study, the minimum AVE value was found for E2: Corruption (0.50), and the maximum for E8: Political Information (0.65), indicating adequate convergent validity. Discriminant validity was further assessed using the square root of the AVE, with all

subscales showing values above 0.70, ranging from E3: Security (0.71) to E9: Political Actions (0.81).

Table 2 also shows the degree of covariance among variables that are linearly related, measuring the level of dependence between one variable and another independent variable. Pearson correlation results confirmed the behavior of the components in the research model. In this study, a correlation of $r = 0.000$ was observed between E4: Religious Aspects and E2: Corruption. Very weak positive correlations were observed across multiple subscales, such as: E4: Religious Aspects with E3: Security ($r = 0.002$); E13: Social Mobility with E9: Political Actions ($r = 0.007$) and with E4: Religious Aspects ($r = 0.009$); E8: Political Information with E2: Corruption ($r = 0.010$); and many others, spanning weak to moderate positive correlations. Moderate positive correlations were noted between, for example, E13: Social Mobility and E10: Well-being ($r = 0.206$); E11: Health and E8: Political Information ($r = 0.208$); E15: Happiness and E10: Well-being ($r = 0.220$). Considerable positive correlations included E14: Financial Satisfaction and E10: Well-being ($r = 0.402$), and E9: Political Actions and E7: Political Social Performance ($r = 0.563$).

On the other hand, very weak negative correlations were observed, such as between E15: Happiness and E4: Religious Aspects ($r = -0.002$), E8: Political Information and E6: Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information ($r = -0.004$), E4: Religious Aspects and E1: Misogyny ($r = -0.007$), among others. Weak negative correlations were also identified, including E6: Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information and E5: Violence ($r = -0.102$), E10: Well-being and E7: Political Social Performance ($r = -0.104$), E12: Locus of Control with E5: Violence ($r = -0.106$), and additional associations up to E3: Security and E2: Corruption ($r = -0.189$) (Hernández Sampieri & Fernández Collado, 1998).

Tabla 2

Descriptive Statistics, Reliability, and Validity of the Research Model

Subscales	#	CA	Omega	Ave	E1	E2	E3	E4	E5	E6	E7	E8	E9	E10	E11	E12	E13	E14	E15
E1 Misogyny	3	0.82	0.82	0.60	0.77														
E2 Corruption	5	0.83	0.83	0.50	0.072**	0.71													
E3 Security	5	0.83	0.84	0.52	0.026	-0.189***	0.72												
E4 Religious Aspects	3	0.77	0.78	0.54	-0.007	0.000	0.002	0.73											
E5 Violence	3	0.76	0.76	0.52	-0.152***	-0.008	-0.045	-0.052	0.72										
E6 Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information	2	0.73	0.73	0.58	0.170***	0.170***	0.039	-0.076**	-0.102***	0.76									
E7 Socio-Political Behavior	3	0.76	0.77	0.54	-0.024	-0.170***	-0.049	-0.044	0.042	-0.156***	0.73								
E8 Political Information	4	0.87	0.88	0.65	0.134***	0.010	-0.055	-0.045	0.016	-0.004	0.211***	0.81							
E9 Political Actions	2	0.74	0.74	0.59	0.010	-0.083**	-0.088***	-0.042	0.046	-0.060*	0.563***	0.264***	0.77						
E10 Well-Being	3	0.75	0.76	0.53	0.104***	0.068**	0.141***	-0.128***	-0.087**	0.164***	-0.104***	0.122***	-0.053	0.72					
E11 Health	1	--	--	--	0.073**	0.051*	0.029	-0.117***	0.011	0.137***	0.029	0.208***	0.046	0.239***	1				
E12 Internal Locus of Control	1	--	--	--	0.123***	0.012	0.039	-0.014	-0.106***	0.097***	-0.108***	0.041	-0.036	0.190***	0.159***	1			
E13 Social Mobility	1	--	--	--	0.100***	0.034	0.105***	0.009	-0.096***	0.124***	-0.014	0.065**	0.007	0.206***	0.086***	0.043*	1		
E14 Financial Satisfaction	1	--	--	--	0.138***	-0.044	0.074***	-0.022	-0.092***	0.024	-0.069**	0.118***	-0.019	0.402***	0.198***	0.251***	0.139***	1	
E15 Happiness	1	--	--	--	0.087***	0.053*	0.037	-0.002	-0.050*	0.103***	-0.037	0.089***	-0.028	0.220***	0.309***	0.166***	0.135***	0.225***	1

Main diagonal = discriminant validity
CA = Cronbach's alpha

AVE = average variance extracted
Significance level *(0.10), ***(0.05) ***(0.001)

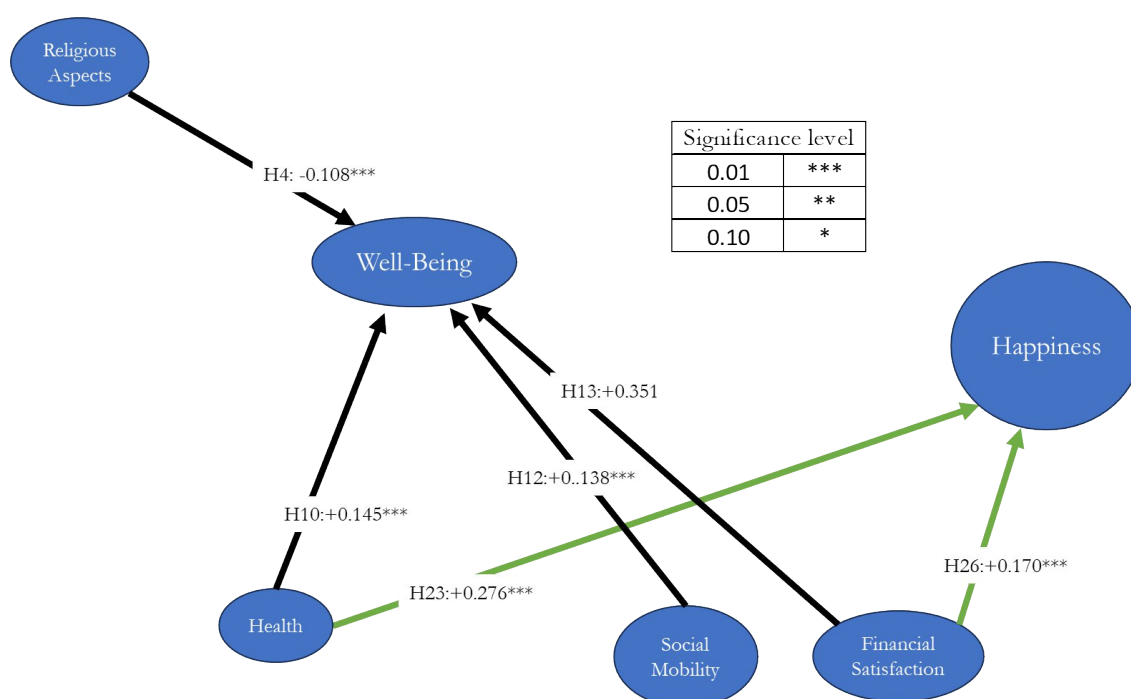
Source: Self Research

Figure 2 presents the results of the structural equation model with latent variables, analyzed using R Studio. Table 3 reports absolute fit indices assessing the extent to which the model reproduces the observed correlation matrix. The Chi-square statistic was $X^2 = 1056.208$ with 565 degrees of freedom, yielding $X^2/DF = 1.869$, indicative of an acceptable fit (Hair et al., 1999).

The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) was 0.024, below the 0.05 threshold, suggesting minimal approximation error between the model and the population. Similarly, the Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) was 0.032, approaching zero, indicating that the model provides an almost perfect fit to the sample data (Byrne, 2001).

These results collectively suggest that the proposed model reliably represents the underlying relationships among the latent variables. The low RMSEA and RMR values indicate that discrepancies between the model-implied and observed covariance matrices are minimal, supporting both the structural validity and robustness of the model. This level of fit strengthens confidence in interpreting the estimated paths and latent constructs, confirming that the model is an appropriate tool for understanding the relationships examined in this study.

Figura 2
Modelo final de investigación



Source: Self Research

Regarding incremental fit measures, it is worth noting that, taken together, they allow comparison of the proposed model with existing models. Using the non-normed fit index (NNFI) or Tucker–Lewis index, which takes into account the model’s degrees of freedom

and is considered minimally influenced by sample size, a value of 0.965 was obtained, indicating an acceptable fit. The normed fit index (NFI) compares the proposed model to a null model, yielding a value of 0.942 for this study, which, being above 0.90, is also acceptable. The adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI) accounts for the degrees of freedom among the models considered, with a value of 0.952, reflecting a good model fit. Comparative, relative, and incremental fit indices were all above 0.90 (0.972, 0.928, and 0.972, respectively), indicating strong overall fit and acceptability.

Parsimony fit measures relate the quality of model fit to the total number of estimated factors required to achieve that fit. The parsimonious normed fit index (PNFI) links the constructs to the underlying theory, and in this case, a value of 0.757—close to 1.0—indicates a strong theoretical alignment. Finally, the parsimonious goodness-of-fit index (PGFI), which considers the available degrees of freedom to test the model, reached 0.735, a value deemed acceptable.

Overall, these results indicate that the proposed model demonstrates a strong and reliable fit. The high values of comparative, relative, and incremental fit indices suggest that the model performs well against both null and alternative models. Likewise, the parsimony-adjusted indices confirm that this fit is achieved efficiently, balancing explanatory power with model simplicity. Taken together, these findings reinforce the robustness of the model and support its theoretical and empirical validity.

Tabla 3

Goodness-of-fit measure

Goodness-of-fit measure	Abbreviation	Acceptable fit levels	Value	Interpretation
Absolute fit indices				
Chi square	χ^2		1056.208	
Degrees Free	DF		565	
χ^2 / DF		< 4	1.869	Acceptable
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	RMSEA	<= 0.05	0.024	Acceptable
Roor Mean Square Residual	RMR	Close to zero	0.032	Acceptable
Incremental fit indices				
Tucker-Lewis Fit Index	TLI	>= 0.90	0.965	Acceptable
Normed Fit Index	NFI	>= 0.90	0.942	Acceptable
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	AGFI	>= 0.90	0.952	Acceptable
Comparative Fit Index	CFI	>= 0.90	0.972	Acceptable
Relative Fit Index	RFI	>= 0.90	0.928	Acceptable
Incremental Fit Index	IFI	>= 0.90	0.972	Acceptable
Parsimony fit indices				
Parsimony Goodness-of-Fit Index	PGFI	A > value > parsimony	0.735	Acceptable
Parsimony Normed Fit Index	PNFI	A > value < fit	0.757	Acceptable

Source: Self Research

Now, the behavior of the hypotheses that explained Well-Being was as follows:

Hypothesis 1 was rejected, as Misogyny did not have a significant influence on Well-Being.

Hypothesis 2 was also removed from the model because Corruption did not have a significant influence on Well-Being.

Hypothesis 3 was rejected since Security had a significant influence on Well-Being.

Hypothesis 4 was accepted, confirming that Religious Aspects have a significant inverse influence on Well-Being, based on its standardized beta coefficient, which in this case was small but significant (-0.108).

Hypothesis 5 was rejected, indicating that Political Social Action does not have a significant influence on Well-Being.

Hypothesis 6 was rejected because Political Actions do not have a significant influence on Well-Being.

Hypothesis 7 was removed from the model, as Political Information does not have a significant influence on Well-Being.

Hypothesis 8 was also excluded from the model, confirming that Violence does not have a significant influence on Well-Being.

Hypothesis 9 was also removed from the model, as Ethical Government Intervention in Information did not have a significant influence on Well-Being.

Hypothesis 10 was accepted, indicating that Health has a significant direct influence on Well-Being, with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.145.

Hypothesis 11 was rejected, showing that Internal Locus of Control does not have a significant influence on Well-Being.

Hypothesis 12 was accepted, confirming that Social Mobility has a significant direct influence on Well-Being, with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.138.

Finally, Hypothesis 13 was incorporated into the model, confirming that Financial Satisfaction has a significant direct influence on Well-Being, with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.351.

Hypotheses H4, H10, H12, and H13 were able to explain approximately 22% of the variance in Well-Being, according to their R^2 (see Table 4).

Based on the obtained data, the equation explaining Well-Being is as follows:

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Table 4
Hypotheses that explain Well-Being

Hypotheses	Exogenous variables	Influence	Standardized regression coefficient	Endogenous variables	R^2	Decision
H1:	Misogyny	====>>	Not significant	Well-Being	0.217	Reject
H2:	Corruption	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H3:	Security	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H4:	Religious Aspects	====>>	- 0.108			Accept
H5:	Socio-Political Behavior	====>>	Not significant			Reject

H6:	Political Actions	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H7:	Political Information	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H8:	Violence	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H9:	Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H10:	Health	====>>	0.145			Accept
H11:	Internal locus de control	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H12:	Social Mobility	====>>	0.138			Accept
H13:	Financial Satisfaction	====>>	0.351			Accept

Source: Self Research

Now, the behavior of the hypotheses that explained Happiness was as follows:

Hypothesis 14 was rejected, as Misogyny did not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 15 was also removed from the model because Corruption did not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 16 was rejected since Security had a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 17 was also removed from the model because Religious Aspects did not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 18 was rejected, indicating that Political Social Action does not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 19 was rejected because Political Actions do not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 20 was removed from the model, as Political Information does not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 21 was also excluded from the model, confirming that Violence does not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 22 was also removed from the model, as Ethical Government Intervention in Information did not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 23 was accepted, indicating that Health has a significant direct influence on Happiness, with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.276.

Hypothesis 24 was rejected, showing that Internal Locus of Control does not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 25 was also removed from the model, as Social Mobility did not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypothesis 26 was incorporated into the model, confirming that Financial Satisfaction has a significant direct influence on Happiness, with a standardized beta coefficient of 0.170.

Finally, Hypothesis 27 was rejected, showing that Well-Being does not have a significant influence on Happiness.

Hypotheses H23 and H26 were able to explain approximately 12% of the variance in Happiness, according to their R² (see Table 5).

Based on the obtained data, the equation explaining Happiness is as follows:

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Table 5
Hypotheses that explain Happiness

Hypotheses	Exogenous variables	Influence	Standardized regression coefficient	Endogenous variables	R ²	Decision
H14:	Misogyny	====>>	Not significant	Happiness	0.123	Reject
H15:	Corruption	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H16:	Security	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H17:	Religious Aspects	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H18:	Socio-Political behavior	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H19:	Political Actions	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H20:	Political Information	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H21:	Violence	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H22:	Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H23:	Health	====>>	0.276			Accept
H24:	Internal locus de control	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H25:	Social Mobility	====>>	Not significant			Reject
H26:	Financial Satisfaction	====>>	0.170			Accept
H27:	Welling-Being	====>>	Not significant			Reject

Source: Self Research

In the final research model shown in Figure 2, it can be observed that Well-Being is not a predictor of Happiness; furthermore, it does not act as a mediating factor between the subscales that make up Well-Being and Happiness.

CONCLUSIONS

This research allowed for testing the specific research hypotheses using structural equation models, identifying the following findings:

The values that best explained approximately 22.0% of the variance in Well-Being, according to their standardized beta coefficients and in descending order, were: Financial Satisfaction (0.351), Health (0.145), Social Mobility (0.138), and Religious Aspects (–0.108). Since the influence of Misogyny, Corruption, Security, Political Social Action, Political Actions, Political Information, Violence, Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information, and Internal Locus of Control showed very small values in explaining Well-Being, it was decided to remove them from the equation, leaving it as follows:

Well-Being = (0.351) (Financial Satisfaction) + (0.145) (Health) + (0.138) (Social Mobility) – (0.108) (Religious Aspects)

The values influencing Happiness, which explained approximately 12.3% of its variance, considering their standardized beta coefficients in hierarchical order, were: Health (0.276) and Financial Satisfaction (0.170). Similarly, to Well-Being, the influence of Misogyny, Corruption, Security, Religious Aspects, Political Social Action, Political Actions, Political Information, Violence, Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information, Internal Locus of Control, Social Mobility, and Well-Being itself were very small in explaining Happiness; therefore, they were also removed from the equation, resulting in: Happiness = (0.276) (Health) + (0.170) (Financial Satisfaction)

Based on the above equations, it can be observed that Well-Being did not have a moderating influence between Values and Happiness.

Financial Satisfaction and Health are fundamental for both Well-Being and Happiness in the Mexican population studied; Health ranks second for Well-Being and first for Happiness, while Financial Satisfaction ranks first for Well-Being and second for Happiness. Only Social Mobility had a third-place influence on Well-Being, and Religious Aspects had a significant inverse effect.

This study examined the influence of selected human values on Well-Being and Happiness in the Mexican adult population. The final structural equation model indicated that Well-Being does not mediate the relationship between human values and Happiness. Key predictors of Well-Being included Financial Satisfaction ($\beta = 0.351$), Health ($\beta = 0.145$), Social Mobility ($\beta = 0.138$), and Religious Aspects ($\beta = -0.108$), collectively explaining approximately 22% of its variance. For Happiness, Health ($\beta = 0.276$) and Financial Satisfaction ($\beta = 0.170$) accounted for 12.3% of the variance.

Main Findings

1. Financial Satisfaction and Health are the strongest determinants of both Well-Being and Happiness.
2. Social Mobility positively influences Well-Being but not Happiness.
3. Religious Aspects exert a small, significant inverse effect on Well-Being.
4. Factors such as Misogyny, Corruption, and Internal Locus of Control were not significant predictors.

Professional Implications

These findings suggest that organizational and policy interventions should prioritize improving employee health, financial satisfaction, and opportunities for social mobility to enhance Well-Being and Happiness. Resources can be allocated efficiently by focusing on variables with the most tangible impact.

Limitations and Future Research

The cross-sectional design and reliance on self-reported secondary data limit causal inference and may be subject to bias. Future research should consider longitudinal

designs, additional psychosocial variables (e.g., personality, workplace environment), and cross-cultural comparisons to better understand the determinants of Well-Being and Happiness.

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ATTACHMENT 1:

	Subscale	#	Carga
E1	Misogyny	Q29	0.766
		Q30	0.744
		Q31	0.815
E2	Corruption	Q113	0.711
		Q114	0.701
		Q115	0.783
		Q116	0.715
		Q117	0.630
E3	Security	Q132	0.579
		Q133	0.579
		Q136	0.790
		Q137	0.850
		Q138	0.693
E4	Religious Aspects	Q166	0.699
		Q167	0.726
		Q168	0.813
E5	Violence	Q189	0.672
		Q191	0.787
		Q192	0.693
E6	Ethical Governmental Intervention in Information	Q197	0.699
		Q198	0.828
E7	Socio-Political Behavior	Q215	0.604
		Q219	0.800
		Q220	0.770
E8	Political Information	Q204	0.719
		Q205	0.665
		Q206	0.911
		Q207	0.872
E9	Political Actions	Q211	0.750
		Q212	0.783
E10	Well-Being	Q51	0.628
		Q53	0.726
		Q54	0.792
E11	Health	Q47	1.000
E12	Internal Locus of Control	Q48	1.000
E13	Social Mobility	Q56	1.000
E14	Financial Satisfaction	Q50	1.000
E15	Happiness	Q46	1.000