

Academic performance, quality of life and resilience in university students of social sciences degrees

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ENG Abstract: The aim of this study is to identify whether there is a combination of dimensions constituting resilience based on their intensity within resilient profiles of a student sample. It also aims to analyze whether the obtained profiles influence students' academic performance and quality of life. Finally, differences in resilient profiles based on sociodemographic and academic variables were studied. The Resilience Scale (1993) and the Spanish version of the WHOQOL (2009) were administered to 516 students with different social science majors from two universities in Alicante, aged between 20 and 45 years ($M = 22.25$; $SD = 4.33$). Cluster analysis identified three resilient profiles: a first profile with high resilience, a profile with low resilience, and a third profile with low scores in personal competence, high personal and life acceptance, and low self-discipline. Additionally, statistically significant differences were found between profiles regarding students' academic performance and quality of life, with students exhibiting high resilience showing higher academic success and better quality of life. This highlights the need to work with resilience and design and develop courses with this potential to promote students' academic success and quality of life.

Key words: Quality of Life; Social Sciences; intervention; academic performance; resilience.

ES Rendimiento académico, calidad de vida y resiliencia en estudiantes universitarios de titulaciones de ciencias sociales

Resumen: El objetivo de este trabajo pretende identificar si existe una combinación de las dimensiones que constituyen la resiliencia en función de la intensidad que cobran en los perfiles resilientes de una muestra de estudiantes. A su vez, trata de analizar si los perfiles obtenidos influyen en el rendimiento académico y la calidad de vida de los estudiantes. Finalmente, se estudió si existen diferencias en los perfiles resilientes en función de variables sociodemográficas y académicas. La Escala de Resiliencia (Resilience Scale, 1993) y la versión española del WHOQOL (2009) se administró a 516 estudiantes con diferentes titulaciones en ciencias sociales de dos universidades de Alicante, con edades comprendidas entre los 20 y los 45 años ($M = 22,25$; $DT = 4,33$). El análisis de conglomerados reconoció tres perfiles resilientes: un primer perfil elevado en resiliencia, un perfil con baja resiliencia y un tercer perfil con bajas puntuaciones en competencia personal, alta aceptación personal y de vida y baja autodisciplina. Asimismo, se encontraron diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre los perfiles en cuanto al rendimiento académico y la calidad de vida del alumnado, y se observó que los estudiantes con alta resiliencia tuvieron mayor éxito académico y mayor calidad de vida. Esto muestra la necesidad de trabajar con la resiliencia y diseñar y desarrollar cursos con este potencial para promover el éxito académico y la calidad de vida de los estudiantes.

Palabras clave: Calidad de Vida; Ciencias Sociales; intervención; rendimiento académico; resiliencia

Summary: Introduction. Method. Participants. Instruments. Procedure. Statistical Analysis. Results. Objective 1. Typification of resilience profiles. Objective 2. Academic performance and quality of life of students based on the resilience profile. Objective 3. Differences in the resilience profiles based on personal and academic variables. Discussion. References.

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Introduction

For decades, the focus of universities on providing quality education has meant considering all factors that may be related to the teaching process. In this sense, it is important to determine the obstacles and facilitating factors that students encounter when completing assignments, as well as their relationship with students' academic performance. Therefore, the literature shows that, among other influential factors, academic workload (Cabanach et al., 2018), the concentration of exams during a specific period of the course (García-Peñalvo, 2020), the levels of demand (Silva-Ramos et al., 2020), as well as uncertainty about how teachers will assess their performance and learning (Chacín et al., 2020), are issues that can affect students' quality of life (De Vincenzi, 2020; Lavalle et al., 2020).

In this regard, according to the World Health Organization (2008), quality of life is linked to an individual's perception of where they reside, within the context of culture and people's value systems, and in relation to their goals, expectations, and standards. For this organization, quality of life is affected by physical health and mental state, degree of independence, social relationships, and interaction with the environment. This means that there is variability in external and internal variables, which are determinants of the quality of life process (Bronfenbrenner, 1987; Cummins, 2005; Trujillo et al., 2004; Yancha & Guachamboza, 2023).

Given the variability of influencing factors, a variety of assessment tools have been designed for the general population (e.g., the "World Health Organization Quality of Life" questionnaire by Power et al., 1999), for the clinical population ("Quality of Life Questionnaire" by Aaronson et al., 1993), as well as for different specific groups such as the elderly ("Brief Quality of Life Questionnaire" by Fernández-Ballesteros et al., 2007; "Older People's Quality of Life Questionnaire" by Bowling et al., 2013), or for children and adolescents ("Quality of Life in Care Questionnaire" by Upton et al., 2013), among others.

With respect to the academic field, various contributions have been directed to the study of the quality of life of students, related to different sociodemographic variables such as age (Yuing et al., 2021), gender (Paro et al., 2014), or socioeconomic level (Banda & Morales, 2012), as well as variables related to the academic context such as academic year (Chambers et al., 2024) and degree (Bechhofer & Paterson, 2012). In this sense, it seems that there exists a worse quality of life in older, female students. Similarly, in Higher Education, especially in students linked to humanities-related degrees, their quality of life is more likely to be affected (Salcedo & Villalba, 2008; George, 2006; Muñoz-Cantero & Losada Puente, 2017). Likewise, students in their early years of university also seem to face lower levels of quality of life (Araoz & Uchasara, 2020; Mitchell & Kemp, 2000; Suriá Martínez & Villegas Castrillo, 2022).

In addition to academic and demographic factors, positive psychology approaches aim to delve into personality variables associated with increased quality of life (Morales & González, 2014; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Thus, variables such as emotional intelligence (Castrillón & Cala, 2020), prosocial behavior (Morales, 2020), active coping strategies (Vargas & Lanuque, 2021), empowerment (Martínez, 2020), or self-determination (Verdugo & Martín, 2002) have been linked to increased quality of life.

One variable that is particularly associated with the ability to cope with and overcome difficult situations is resilience. Although there are numerous definitions of this construct, one of the most cited in the literature is that formulated by Grotberg (1995), who defines it as the ability of individuals to overcome adverse situations, to recover, and to emerge strengthened from them, despite being exposed to difficult and stressful situations. Therefore, there is consensus in the literature that resilience can be defined as a series of social and internal psychological processes of a person and their environment, including society and culture, in which different underlying dimensions interact to shape this construct.

Regarding the dimensions of resilience established by the literature, there seems to be no agreement on the number of dimensions that make up its structure. Thus, for example, authors like Heilemann et al. (2003), Vara & Rodríguez (2011), or Wagnild & Young (1993) share a structure of this construct with three dimensions. Authors such as Grotberg (1995), Gómez & Kotliarenco (2010), Ruiz-Román et al. (2020), or Palomar et al. (2012) establish four dimensions, while some others (Gaxiola et al., 2011) define resilience in seven components.

Despite the discrepancy, and regardless of the number of components that make up resilience, the literature agrees that individuals with this strength are characterized by adequate social skills, a well-defined identity, positive attitude, and active coping to solve problems successfully.

In this sense, there is evidence that resilience is directly related to improvement in functioning of the individual, both in childhood (Grotberg, 1995) and in adolescence (Chávez-Hinostroza, 2020), as well as in adulthood (Joyce et al., 2018). Accordingly, a positive association has been observed between resilient factors and social skills (Suriá et al., 2015), self-esteem (Gómez & Gundín, 2018), emotional intelligence (Banerjee et al., 2019), and subjective well-being (Joice et al., 2018). Conversely, a negative relationship has been demonstrated with various emotional adjustment problems, such as depression (Luthans et al., 2019), anxiety states (Abiola & Udofia, 2011), and low indices of quality of life (Carmona-Halty et al., 2019).

Although resilience has historically been approached from a clinical perspective (Carmona-Halty et al., 2019), its interest has been addressed in different areas such as the family (Gómez & Kotliarenco, 2010), the work (Guo et al., 2018), and the academic context (Banerjee et al., 2019). In this latter context, it has been found that high-performing students have higher resilience scores than low-performing ones (Luthans et al., 2019; Yancha & Guachamboza, 2023). In reference to this, empirical evidence on the implications of resilience in the student population reveals that low resilience frequently leads to high levels of stress, low resistance, and greater vulnerability to academic failure and dropout (Gómez & Gundín, 2018).

While academic success is related to factors of various social (Lei et al., 2018), family (Clark, 2015), and pedagogical (Afzal et al., 2010) nature, different authors (Ayala & Manzano, 2018; Banerjee et al., 2019; Gómez & Gundín, 2018; Soldevilla et al., 2018; Trigueros et al., 2020) point out that strengths such as resilience can become determinants in academic development.

Regarding the analysis of resilience and quality of life in the university population, the published literature has focused on studying the association of these two constructs in general, with no publications addressing this relationship in university students of specific Social Sciences degrees. Furthermore, no previous research has been found that examines combinations of resilience that categorize different resilience profiles based on the intensity presented by each resilient dimension within the profile. Similarly, no studies on quality of life related to resilience profiles of college students have been found that analyze not only quality of life as a holistic construct but that adjust to each of the domains that make up quality of life (e.g., physical, psychological, social, and environmental). Therefore, based on this reflection, this study addresses three objectives.

First, it aims to identify whether there are combinations of dimensions that make up resilience that give rise to different profiles, which could be defined according to the relevance of each dimension within each profile.

Second, once resilience profiles have been found and defined, the aim is to analyze whether there are statistically significant differences between the profiles obtained in terms of students' academic performance and quality of life.

Finally, it is examined whether there are differences in resilience profiles based on sociodemographic (gender, age) and academic (degree and academic performance) variables.

Method

Participants

The sample size was determined based on methodological and logistical criteria typical of applied research in university settings. Given the exploratory nature of the study and the aim of obtaining a broad representation of Social Sciences students, a non-probabilistic convenience sampling strategy was employed, including students enrolled in degree programs at the University of Alicante and Miguel Hernández University (Elche). A minimum sample size of 500 participants was considered appropriate, consistent with recommendations for multivariate analyses and clustering techniques, ensuring stability and reliability in profile identification (Hair et al., 2006). Ultimately, the final sample consisted of 516 students, allowing adequate statistical power for the analyses conducted.

The participants were drawn from various Social Sciences degree programs at the University of Alicante and Miguel Hernández University. The diversity of academic programs within the Social Sciences field allowed for the inclusion of heterogeneous student profiles, thereby enhancing the internal representativeness of the specific educational context under study. Of all participants, 355 were women and 161 were men, with ages ranging from 17 to 40 years ($M = 23.90$; $SD = 4.31$). This distribution reflects the typical composition of Social Sciences programs, where female representation tends to be higher. Additionally, the wide age range made it possible to include both first-year university students and those with more advanced academic trajectories, thus enriching the heterogeneity of the sample. Table 1 presents the full distribution of participants by age, gender, degree program, and academic year.

Table 1. Sociodemographic Data

Variables		N	%
Gender	Female	355	68.8
	Male	161	31.2
Degree	Social work	202	39.1
	Psychology	138	26.7
	Criminology	87	16.9
	Social Education	36	6.8
	Sociology	53	10.3
Age	17-22	197	38.2
	23-28	141	27.3
	29-34	136	26.4
	35-40	42	8.1
	Total	516	100.0

Instruments

The questionnaire was divided into three parts. The first part corresponded to questions related to participants' sociodemographic variables (gender, age) as well as variables related to their academic profile (degree and academic performance).

- Regarding academic performance, this was determined through the average evaluation of academic grades accumulated from university entrance to the completion of the questionnaire. This standard is used according to the criterion established by Allen (2005), which indicates that academic grade is the most practical and common method to examine the degree of academic performance. Therefore, at the end of the first section of sociodemographic data, this item was included for the students to rate on a 10-point scale (0 to 4.9 being fail, 5 to 6.9 pass, 7 to 8.9 very good, and 9 to 10 excellent).
- Wagnild and Young's Resilience Scale (1993), validated in its Spanish translation by Heileman et al. (2003). This instrument consists of three differentiated factors: 1. Personal Competence, in terms of personal characteristics indicating beliefs in personal ability to achieve success, perseverance, active coping, goal orientation, etc.; 2. Acceptance of Oneself and of Life, related to adapting to situations, emotional balance, positive feelings in the face of complicated situations, etc.; and a third factor obtained in different versions (Rodríguez-Pereyra et al., 2009; Suriá et al., 2015; Vara & Rodríguez, 2011): 3. Self-Discipline (characterized by self-control), constancy, independence, willpower, etc. The scale includes 25 items that are answered in the questionnaire, in Likert-type format, composed of a seven-point scale (from 1 = "totally disagree" to 7 = "totally agree"). Higher scores indicate greater resilience, with the appreciation range being between 25 and 175 points. Regarding the psychometric characteristics of the instrument, these are adequate both in its original adaptation and in the Spanish version, where the total variance of the latter is explained by 82.60% (35.40% for Acceptance of Oneself and of Life, 23.40% for Personal Competence, and 22.8% for Self-Discipline). For the present study, an adequate internal consistency was obtained through Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = .82$).
- Spanish version of the WHOQOL, proposed by the World Health Organization (2009) and validated by Lucas-Carrasco (WHOQOL, 2012). This tool addresses four health domains: physical health, psychological health, social relationships, and environmental health. The survey is constructed with 26 items on a 5-point scale (1 = never; 5 = always). The instrument assesses quality of life, with the total score ranging from 5 to 130 (scores below 44 indicate poor quality of life, from 44 to 85 moderate quality of life, and scores higher than 85 indicate high quality of life). Like the original version of the questionnaire, the version adapted to Spanish shows psychometric properties indicating that the test discriminates between different groups (Lucas-Carrasco, 2009), with an internal consistency of 91% for the overall scale and between .69 and .90 for the specific domains. Adequate discriminant validity is also observed. Regarding the internal consistency obtained in the present study, it was found to be adequate ($\alpha = .84$).

Procedure

To collect the information, the procedure involved offering collaboration to the students of both universities to complete the questionnaires, which were accessed through a link hosted on the Internet (Google Forms). The sample was deliberately selected between January 2021 and April 2021. The initial contact was to directly invite them to participate in the research, explaining the study's objectives on the virtual page. Anonymity was ensured, and prior to completion, they had to indicate agreement with the informed consent for data processing. This was followed by the data collection process. The questionnaire collection work lasted 4 months.

Statistical Analysis

The collection of sociodemographic data was performed using frequencies and percentages. To demonstrate if there were statistically significant differences in resilience, quality of life, and academic performance regarding the independent variables, the Student's t-test was used for gender and the analysis of variance (ANOVA) for age and degree.

To identify differentiated resilience profiles within the sample, a cluster analysis was conducted using the quick cluster procedure in SPSS (v. 23.0). A non-hierarchical method (k-means) was selected, as it represents an efficient and widely recommended strategy for segmenting large samples and empirically identifying homogeneous patterns within the data (Hair et al., 2006). This approach is particularly suitable when the aim is to establish psychological profiles based on predefined dimensions, as is the case with resilience.

The profiles were determined based on participants' scores in the three dimensions of the Wagnild and Young (1993) Resilience Scale: Personal Competence (PC), Acceptance of Self and Life (ASL), and Self-discipline (SD). To define the optimal number of clusters, a systematic procedure was followed, which included reviewing alternative solutions and evaluating both statistical and theoretical criteria. Initially, two- to five-cluster solutions were explored. Subsequently, indicators such as the reduction in within-cluster sum of squares (intracluster inertia), centroid stability, theoretical interpretability of the profiles, and consistency with prior resilience literature were assessed. The final solution was selected based on achieving the best balance between parsimony, meaningful differentiation among groups, and conceptual robustness in terms of resilience profiles.

Following cluster formation, analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to examine whether statistically significant differences existed between clusters in quality of life and academic performance. Given the unequal size of the groups, post hoc comparisons were performed using the Scheffé method, appropriate for multiple comparisons in non-homogeneous samples. Additionally, effect sizes were calculated using Cohen's *d* (1988) to assess the practical magnitude of the observed differences.

Finally, to explore associations between resilience profiles and sociodemographic and academic variables (gender, age, degree program, and academic performance), chi-square tests (χ^2) were applied. This

analytical approach allowed for the identification of significant relationships between cluster membership and participants' personal and educational characteristics, providing a comprehensive understanding of the patterns identified.

Results

Objective 1. Typification of resilience profiles

The cluster method, aiming to achieve maximum uniformity within each group and the greatest discrepancies between them, yielded 3 groups with different resilient combinations. A first group differentiated by high average scores in all three dimensions (Cluster 1: HPC-HAL-HSD) comprised 201 participants (38.76%). The next cluster, which consisted of 173 participants (33.33%), was notable for a predominance of low scores in all three dimensions (Cluster 2: LPC-LAL-LSD). Finally, Group 3 (Cluster 3: LPC-HAL-LSD), which was formed by 142 students (26.74%), was distinguished by low scores in Personal Competence, high scores in Acceptance of Oneself and of Life, and lower scores in Self-Discipline.

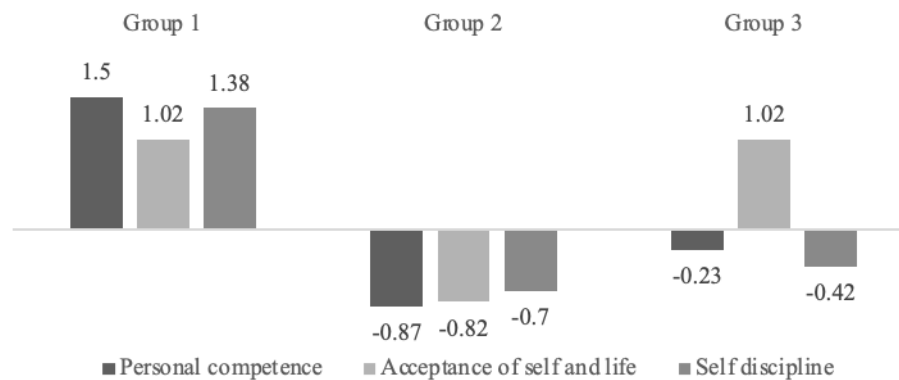


Figure 1. Graphical representation of the three-cluster model: Cluster 1 (High resilience: HPC-HAL-HSD), Cluster 2 (Low resilience: LPC-LAL-LSD), Cluster 3 (Low Personal Competence, High Acceptance of Oneself and of Life, Low Self-Discipline: LPC-HAL-LSD)

Objective 2. Academic performance and quality of life of students based on the resilience profile

When examining mean academic performance scores across the identified profiles, the results revealed statistically significant differences, $F(2, 513) = 6.39, p < .05$, with a large effect size ($d = 0.87$). Post hoc analyses indicated that these differences were primarily found between Group 1 (HCP-HAV-HAU) and Group 2 (LCP-LAV-LAU), as well as between Group 1 and Group 3 (LCP-HAV-LAU), highlighting the superior academic performance of the first profile.

With regard to quality of life, statistically significant differences were also observed both in the global score and across its dimensions. A significant effect was found in the overall quality of life scale, $F(2, 513) = 31.04, p < .001$, with a large effect size ($d = 0.81$). Differences were also identified in physical health, $F(2, 513) = 41.15, p < .001$ ($d = 0.64$); psychological health, $F(2, 513) = 75.26, p < .001$ ($d = 0.68$); social relationships, $F(2, 513) = 5.93, p < .001$ ($d = 0.32$); and environmental well-being, $F(2, 513) = 19.48, p < .001$ ($d = 0.40$).

The overall pattern showed that Group 1 (HCP-HAV-HAU) achieved the highest mean scores on both the total quality-of-life scale and on the physical health, psychological health, and environmental well-being dimensions, compared with Group 2 (LCP-LAV-LAU) and Group 3 (LCP-HAV-LAU). Meanwhile, Group 2 obtained higher scores than Group 3 in physical health, psychological health, and social relationships, suggesting that although this group demonstrates lower competence and self-discipline than Group 1, it maintains a higher level of adjustment than Group 3 in these areas.

Table 2. Academic Performance and Quality of Life of Students according to Resilience Profile

	Group 1 HPC-HAL-HSD		Group 2 LPC-LAL-LSD		Group 3 LPC-HAL-LSD		Statistical significance	
	M	DT	M	DT	M	DT	F (1, 230)	η^2
Academic performance	3.86	.91	2.58	.87	3.30	.92	6.39*	.21
CV global scale	99.83	8.50	87.88	9.00	92.72	9.60	31.04**	.29
Domain 1 Physical Health	25.64	2.03	20.73	2.51	25.11	2.91	71.15**	.26
Domain 2 Psychological Health	27.10	3.01	21.71	2.49	23.58	2.79	75.26**	.31
Domain 3 Social Relationships	12.72	1.85	11.03	0.67	12.57	1.98	5.93*	.05
Factor 4 Environmental Health	34.57	3.58	31.51	3.40	31.86	3.96	19.48**	.14

Objective 3. Differences in the resilience profiles based on personal and academic variables

When examining the profiles obtained regarding sociodemographic variables, statistically significant discrepancies between profiles based on gender were observed. Thus, in profile 1 (HPC-HAL-HSD), there exists a predominance of girls [$\chi^2(2) = 38.94, p < .001$], while in cluster 2 (LPC-LAL-LSD), a higher percentage of boys is observed, with no differences noted in group 3 (LPC-HAL-LSD). Regarding the profiles according to age group, the results indicated statistically significant differences between groups [$\chi^2(6) = 80.91, p < .001$], with older students being more prevalent in group 1 (HPC-HAL-HSD), while younger students tend to be in profile 2 (LPC-LAL-LSD) and 3 (LPC-HAL-LSD). Finally, when examining the relationship between profiles and majors [$\chi^2(8) = 49.79, p < .001$], it is observed that participants in Psychology, Social Work, and Social Education majors largely fit into profile 1 (HPC-HAL-HSD), while Sociology and Criminology students are more predominant in group 2 (LPC-LAL-LSD) and group 3 (LPC-HAL-LSD).

Table 3. Resilience Profiles based on Personal and Academic Variables

		Group 1 HPC-HAL-HSD		Group 2 LPC-LAL-LSD		Group 3 LPC-HAL-LSD		Total		Statistical sig.
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	χ^2
Gender	Female	156	46.8	98	27.6	101	25.6	355	100	38.94**
	Male	45	21.7	44	27.3	72	50.9	161	100	
Age	17-22	52	26.2	59	30.2	86	43.7	197	100	80.91**
	23-28	42	41.1	50	38.4	29	20.6	141	100	
	29-34	41	36.2	16	28.1	15	35.7	42	100	
	35-40	66	48.5	27	19.9	43	31.6	136	100	
Degree	Social Work	77	38.1	55	27.2	70	34.7	202	100	49.79**
	Psychology	61	44.2	33	23.9	44	31.9	138	100	
	Criminology	26	29.9	31	35.6	30	34.5	87	100	
	Social Education	16	45.7	9	25.7	10	28.6	35	100	
	Sociology	21	36.6	14	26.4	18	34.0	53	100	
Total		201	197.5	142	138.9	172	163.6	516	100	

Discussion

This study delves into the relationship between quality of life and the various resilience profiles in a sample of university students majoring in Social Sciences. As it was intended to reflect in the introduction of this paper, the implication of quality of life and its connection with personal variables such as resilience and academic performance in the social space of students, specifically in Social Sciences students, is demonstrated (Salcedo Barragán & Villalba, 2008; George, 2006; Muñoz-Cantero & Losada-Puente, 2017).

Regarding the first objective, to explore the possible combinations of the resilient dimensions (Personal and Social Competence: PC, Acceptance of Oneself and of Life: AL, and Self-Discipline: SD) in students to identify different profiles of this construct, the results showed the presence of profiles with different compositions based on the prominence of each of the components that make up the resilient construct in the student sample. Thus, three different resilient combinations or groups were identified (Group 1: HPC-HAL-HSD, Group 2: LPC-LAL-LSD, and Group 3: LPC-HAL-LSD).

When taking into account the number of members included in the first cluster as opposed to the rest of the groups, the existence of a high percentage of students (38.76%), who showed high levels of resilience in the three dimensions (Group 1: HPC-HAL-HSD), is inferred in the first place. This follows the same direction as the results of other studies (Gómez-Díaz & Jiménez-García, 2018; Villalta-Páucar, 2010), indicating the presence of a generalized high resilience profile. At the same time, the second group (33.33% participants) indicated low levels of resilience in all three resilience components. This would suggest that not all students have good academic adjustment and adaptation (Barcia Briones et al., 2018; Banerjee et al., 2019; Yanha & Guachamboza, 2023). Finally, the results revealed that the third group (composed of 26.74%) reflected different patterns in which a low level of Social Competence, high in Acceptance of Oneself and of Life and low in Self-Discipline stood out. Therefore, these data evidence that not all resilience dimensions prevail with the same intensity in students (Barcia Briones et al., 2018; Gómez & Gundín, 2018; Luthans et al., 2019).

These differentiated patterns show that resilience among university students is not a homogeneous trait, but rather a multidimensional psychological resource that can manifest in diverse ways depending on the balance among its components. The high proportion of students with globally high resilience indicates the presence of strong adaptive resources that support emotional stability and academic performance. However, the existence of groups with low resilience or mixed profiles underscores the need to develop institutional

strategies focused on early detection and psychoeducational support for students with lower adaptive capacity. Furthermore, the identification of a profile characterized by high self-acceptance but low competence and self-discipline highlights that some students maintain a positive attitude toward themselves and life, yet lack the social and executive skills necessary to effectively meet academic demands. Taken together, these findings reinforce the importance of designing differentiated and personalized interventions that address the specific needs of each group, thereby promoting balanced development across the various dimensions of resilience in the university context.

Regarding the second objective, to analyze if there are statistically significant differences between the different resilience profiles obtained in terms of the students' level of academic performance and quality of life, the results reflected that academic performance was higher in group 1 (HPC-HAL-HSD), when compared to group 2 (LPC-LAL-LSD) and group 3 (LPC-HAL-LSD). This supports the findings of different authors who emphasize the importance of resilience in academic performance (Brewer et al., 2019; Gómez & Gundín, 2018; Trigueros et al., 2020).

Similarly, it is observed that group 1 (HPC-HAL-HSD) also differs in academic performance with higher performance than group 3 (LPC-HAL-LSD). These results suggest that, in academic success, two of the three dimensions play a fundamental role, namely Self-Discipline and Personal Competence, and to a lesser extent, the dimension of Acceptance of Oneself and of Life. Thus, although high scores are observed in the group with high scores in all three dimensions (Group 1: HPC-HAL-HSD), the fact that the third group (LPC-HAL-LSD), which only scores high in Acceptance of Oneself and of Life, does not indicate statistically significant differences when compared to group 2 (LPC-LAL-LSD) suggests that all three dimensions are relevant when presented together, failing to achieve the same relevance if these three dimensions are not jointly analyzed (Group 2: LPC-LAL-LSD; and group 3: LPC-HAL-LSD). These findings are consistent with previous literature highlighting the central role of resilience in the well-being and academic performance of university students. From the perspective of positive psychology, resilience has been conceptualized as a protective psychological resource that facilitates adaptation and effective coping with academic demands (Wagnild & Young, 1993; Masten, 2014). Empirical studies have shown that students with higher levels of resilience tend to exhibit better emotional adjustment, greater perceived social support, and superior academic outcomes (Hartley, 2011; Cassidy, 2016). Likewise, recent research has demonstrated that dimensions such as personal competence and self-acceptance predict higher levels of life satisfaction and overall well-being (Martínez-Martí & Ruch, 2017), which aligns with the differences observed among the identified profiles in this study. According to the coping models of Lazarus and Folkman (1984), adaptive strategies associated with resilience enable students to manage academic stress more effectively and to maintain both physical and psychological health, thus supporting the relevance of resilience as a key resource for university success and comprehensive student well-being. Thus, there is broad consensus in the academic literature on resilience indicating that resilience is significantly associated with self-esteem, self-efficacy, psychological well-being, and the ability to successfully achieve academic goals (Gómez & Gundín, 2018; Soldevilla et al., 2018). Conversely, evidence suggests an inverse relationship between resilience and academic burnout, emotional difficulties, and even academic dropout (Banerjee et al., 2019; Ruiz-Román et al., 2020).

In reference to the quality of life and the factors or domains that comprise it, namely physical health, psychological health, social relationships, and environmental health, it is again observed that it is the group with high scores in resilience (Group 1: PC-SL-SD) that reveals higher levels, both in the total scale and in most quality of life factors, specifically in the factors of physical health, psychological health, and environmental health, compared to the other groups (Group 1: LPC-LAL-LSD and Group 3: LPC-HAL-LSD). In this sense, the resilient dimensions of Personal and Social Competence and Acceptance of Oneself and of Life would imply that the person feels capable, strong, persevering, values and respects themselves, has positive relationships with others, and has control over their environment. Therefore, high scores in these two dimensions would be related to quality of life factors concerning psychological health, physical health, and the environment. Furthermore, the resilient dimension of Self-Discipline (characterized by attributes such as willpower, self-control, resolution, determination, diligence, and resilience) is another relevant construct in coping, strength, and overcoming adverse situations and achieving goals (Brewer et al., 2019; Gómez & Gundín, 2018; Joyce et al., 2018; Suriá et al., 2015).

Likewise, and although to a lesser extent, the results show statistically significant differences in quality of life factors related to physical health, psychological health, and social health, with higher average scores in group 3 (LPC-HAL-LSD) compared to group 2 (LPC-LAL-LSD). Therefore, the dimension of Acceptance of oneself and of Life, elevated in group 3 (LPC-HAL-LSD), is a fundamental component in these quality of life factors. In this aspect of the research, studies on the relationship between positive emotions and resilience indicate that experiencing positive emotions is related to implementing strategies to regulate negative or stressful events and the existence of physical, psychological, and social resources to face adversity and improve resilience capacity (Joyce et al., 2018; Tugade et al., 2004).

With regard to the third objective, to examine if there are differences in resilience profiles based on personal and academic variables, the results suggest that the female gender has the greatest weight in the most resilient group (Group 1: HPC-HAL-HSD), while group 2 (LPC-LAL-LSD) and 3 (LPC-HAL-LSD) reveal a greater presence of boys. As noted by several authors, women are often characterized by being more socially competent, more affectionate, and having responses that adapt more appropriately to difficult circumstances (Barcia Briones et al., 2018; Luthans et al., 2019; Grotberg, 1995). Similarly, this reflects that older students predominate more in the high resilience group (Group 1: HPC-HAL-HSD). In this sense, it is logical that, if

experience helps in the development of resilient capacity, older students reflect greater development of this capacity (Barcia Briones et al., 2018; Chambers et al., 2024; Suriá et al., 2019).

Finally, when examining resilience groups and their relationship with the students' majors, the data show that students with majors in Psychology, Social Education, and Social Work largely form group 1 (HPC-HAL-HSD). In this regard, no studies have been found in which a comparison is made between quality of life and students from different majors. Most studies are linked to examining resilience in a specific major (Mikulic et al., 2010), in Social Education (López Jiménez & Rosa Gregori, 2014), or in university students in general (Banerjee et al., 2019; Ruiz-Román et al., 2020; Yancha & Guachamboza, 2023). One possible explanation that could account for higher levels of resilience in participants from these specific majors, namely Psychology, Social Education, and Social Work, and not students from other majors (Criminology and Sociology), could be based on the content of the subjects in these programs. If we look at the objectives, contents, and competencies, all of these are more linked to the development of personal strengths and, therefore, to reinforcing personal growth, empathy, and prosocial behaviors (Coll, 1994; Pacheco & Berrocal, 2004; Suriá Martínez et al., 2019; Suriá Martínez & Villegas Castrillo, 2022).

From the results obtained in this study, it is deduced that resilience is associated with the different dimensions that make up the quality of life of Social Sciences students. Similarly, high levels in all three resilience components are related to academic performance. Finally, certain specific majors are more linked to the development of resilience. Therefore, increasing programs that enhance resilient capacity could be relevant in improving the quality of life and academic performance of students.

However, this study has some limitations that should be addressed in future explorations. First, the use of self-reports as a data collection procedure in research, since the results may be biased. With regard to the sample, the existence of potential biases derived from the sampling procedure is acknowledged. Specifically, the use of convenience sampling may limit the generalizability of the findings to other educational contexts or university populations. Likewise, there is a notable gender imbalance in the sample, as the Social Work student population is predominantly female, which hinders the generalization of results to the male student population. Although this distribution is consistent with the demographic reality of the field, it may influence the interpretation of certain gender-sensitive variables. Similarly, the selection of participants based on accessibility to specific courses and academic groups may introduce institutional or cohort-related bias. In addition, the sample size, while adequate, could be expanded in future studies to obtain a more precise characterization of the profiles identified. Finally, it would be relevant to examine these variables in students from other academic disciplines, in order to compare findings across fields and to design programs that strengthen students' resilience capacity, as well as their academic performance and quality of life.

These results not only highlight the relevance of resilience for student well-being and academic performance, but also provide a solid foundation for the development of practical interventions aimed at improving university students' quality of life. Considering that profiles characterized by greater personal competence, acceptance of life, and self-discipline showed better outcomes in well-being and academic achievement, universities could implement systematic resilience-building programs, integrating strategies such as coping-skills training, mindfulness, emotional psychoeducation, realistic academic goal-setting, and the development of self-regulation and personal discipline competencies. Group workshops led by educational psychologists, academic tutoring with a socio-emotional focus, and seminars on stress and time management could be incorporated into university counseling services. Likewise, embedding content related to resilience and psychological well-being into transversal courses or complementary curricular activities would contribute to fostering healthier and more protective educational environments. It is further recommended to design interventions tailored to specific profiles, prioritizing students with lower resilience levels and incorporating digital tools such as emotional-training applications or peer-support platforms to enhance access and sustainability of the programs.

Regarding future research lines, it would be relevant to longitudinally explore the evolution of resilience profiles and their relationship with well-being in order to identify patterns of change and factors that contribute to resilience strengthening. Additionally, expanding the sample to include students from other universities and academic fields would enhance the generalizability of the findings, while incorporating additional variables such as social support, coping strategies, academic stress levels, and cultural factors would enrich the analysis. Experimental studies evaluating the effectiveness of specific resilience-promotion programs, as well as qualitative research that delves into the subjective experiences of students within each profile, would also contribute to advancing knowledge about the mechanisms underlying the relationship between resilience, well-being, and academic performance. Such approaches would support the development of more comprehensive and personalized intervention models in the university context.

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