

RESILIENCE, ACADEMIC STRESS, AND HAPPINESS AMONG HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS

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Received: 13.10.2023

Accepted: 19.01.2024

ABSTRACT

Background and Purpose: Resilience is recognized as a key factor influencing happiness; however, studies exploring the relationship between resilience, happiness, and academic stress remain scarce. This study examines the impact of resilience on happiness and its effect on academic stress among higher education students in Yogyakarta, Indonesia.

Methodology: Data were collected through standardized measurement instruments administered to the study participants. A total of 253 students (53 males, 20.9%; 200 females, 79.1%) from private higher education institutions in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, were selected using purposive sampling. The data were analyzed using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with IBM-SPSS-AMOS.

Findings: The results indicate that resilience does not have a significant effect on either happiness or academic stress. This study suggests that a higher level of resilience does not necessarily lead to reduced academic stress or increased happiness among university students.

Contributions: The study's results have implications for students and university administrators in understanding the broader determinants of happiness within higher education environments. Future research should consider examining the moderating effects of social support, coping mechanisms, and institutional policies on student well-being.

Keywords: Happiness, resilience, academic stress, higher education students.

Cite as: Fatimah, M., Fitriana, N., & Zaid, S. M. R. (2024). Resilience, academic stress, and happiness among higher education students. *Journal of Nusantara Studies*, 9(1), 53-73.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.24200/jonus.vol9iss1pp53-73>

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Student life presents numerous challenges, requiring significant adaptability to navigate the complex stressors associated with academic performance, social interactions, and financial concerns (Shatkin & Diamond, 2015; Zaheer & Khan, 2022). Compared to students at lower educational levels, university students are consistently exposed to prolonged psychosocial stressors, necessitating emotional resilience and intellectual endurance (Zaheer & Khan, 2022). Research indicates that one in five university students experiences psychological distress during their academic journey (Larcombe et al., 2016).

Academic stress in higher education has become increasingly prevalent, significantly impacting students' psychological well-being (Fawzy & Hamed, 2017). Poor mental health has been associated with academic stress, sleep disturbances, financial difficulties, the pressure to excel, and other challenges that students must navigate (Ali et al., 2013). Additionally, students encounter various stress-inducing factors, including rigorous academic expectations, environmental transitions, residential adjustments, social relationships, cultural differences, and career uncertainties, which can affect time management skills (Misra & Castillo, 2004). Moreover, the choice between full-time and part-time enrollment has been identified as a notable stressor among university students (Ting et al., 2006).

Failure to effectively manage academic stress can lead to significant psychosocial and emotional health consequences (MacGeorge et al., 2005). Heightened physical symptoms often accompany an increase in stressful life events among college students. Students experiencing mental and physical health issues are more likely to exhibit poor academic performance, which in turn exacerbates academic stress, creating a persistent cycle of stress, maladaptive coping mechanisms, and declining well-being (Struthers et al., 2000).

Within the framework of resilience research, academic stress is considered a risk factor. In this context, risk refers to individual or environmental conditions that increase the likelihood of negative outcomes (Masten, 2014). Previous studies have demonstrated a negative correlation between resilience and stress, indicating that individuals with higher resilience levels are better equipped to manage stress effectively (Portzky et al., 2010). Furthermore,

highly resilient individuals demonstrate greater adaptability to change, faster recovery from adversity, and the ability to maintain positive emotional states (Septiani & Fitria, 2016).

In higher education, resilience is recognized as a crucial factor in supporting students' psychological well-being (Hartley, 2012). Research suggests that resilience is associated with lower incidences of psychological disorders and improved adjustment to university life (Khawaja & Stallman, 2011).

Several factors contribute to greater happiness, including overcoming difficult life experiences and developing resilience (Lower, 2014; Wong, 2011). A study examining the relationship between happiness, resilience, and life satisfaction identified a positive correlation between resilience and happiness (Cohn et al., 2009). It is believed that an individual's level of resilience influences their capacity to experience happiness or regret. Since adversity is inevitable, effectively managing stress is essential for building resilience, which fosters well-being and happiness (Everly, 2008; Lower, 2014).

Resilient individuals employ coping strategies to navigate stressful situations, exhibit an internal locus of control, engage in social interactions effectively, maintain a positive self-image, and demonstrate optimism—all linked to enhanced mental and physical health (Burns et al., 2011). Developing resilience requires successfully managing stress and promoting well-being and happiness (Lower, 2014). Strengthening resilience and reducing stress can also enhance subjective happiness (Hwang et al., 2018). Individuals can cultivate resilience by adopting positive behaviors, maintaining strong beliefs, and adhering to core principles when making decisions. This includes seeking social support, taking personal responsibility, and leading a healthy lifestyle. Key beliefs contributing to resilience include optimism and faith, while fundamental principles include moral integrity and ethical guidelines (Everly, 2008).

Despite the well-documented benefits of resilience, research indicates that overall human happiness remains relatively low, characterized by high levels of negative emotions, low positive emotions, and diminished life satisfaction. The same trend is observed among the Indonesian population. According to a 2021 Indonesian Central Statistics Agency survey, national happiness levels fluctuate annually (Indonesian Central Statistics Agency, 2022). The survey, which assessed happiness through indicators such as life satisfaction, emotional well-being, and eudaimonia (sense of meaning in life), reported that Indonesia's happiness index stood at 70.69% in 2017, increasing marginally by 0.80% in 2021. Similarly, as measured by education level, student happiness rose from 76.86% in 2017 to 78.05% in 2021. However, the happiness index in Yogyakarta declined from 72.93 in 2017 to 71.70 in 2021 (Indonesian Central Statistics Agency, 2022).

The level of resilience determines the happiness problems among university students. Some studies showed that the level of resilience of university students is at a moderate level (Ramadanti & Herdi, 2022; Sari et al., 2020). A moderate level of resilience is characterized by a high level of anxiety in facing some problems regarding the learning process. Besides, the students cannot analyze the learning problems and have low empathy.

The level of resilience plays a crucial role in determining happiness-related challenges among university students. Research indicates that university students generally exhibit moderate resilience (Ramadanti & Herdi, 2022; Sari et al., 2020). This moderate resilience is often characterized by heightened anxiety when facing academic challenges, an inability to analyze learning difficulties effectively, and a reduced capacity for empathy.

In addition to resilience, academic stress is a significant determinant of student happiness. Studies suggest that academic stress among university students is also moderate (Ramadanti & Herdi, 2022). Students encounter numerous challenges and obstacles throughout the learning process, which can contribute to heightened stress and emotional burdens. Academic stress negatively impacts students' academic performance, leading to difficulties in concentration, comprehension, procrastination, and task completion. It also fosters negative self-perception and an adverse outlook on both academic and social environments (Khadijah et al., 2021). Moreover, prolonged academic stress can trigger anxiety, irritability, and frustration (Aryani, 2016).

Given the implications for student well-being, further research on resilience and happiness is necessary to inform intervention strategies aimed at enhancing both factors. Studies focusing on older populations, particularly university students, may provide valuable insights (Lower, 2014). Accordingly, this study seeks to examine the impact of resilience on happiness and academic stress among higher education students. Furthermore, it aims to evaluate a happiness model for Indonesian students based on prior research findings, which indicate that resilience has a significant effect on both academic stress (Bajaj et al., 2022) and happiness (Lower, 2014) (see Figure 1). The findings of this study may contribute to improving student happiness and fostering a healthier learning environment in higher education institutions across Indonesia.

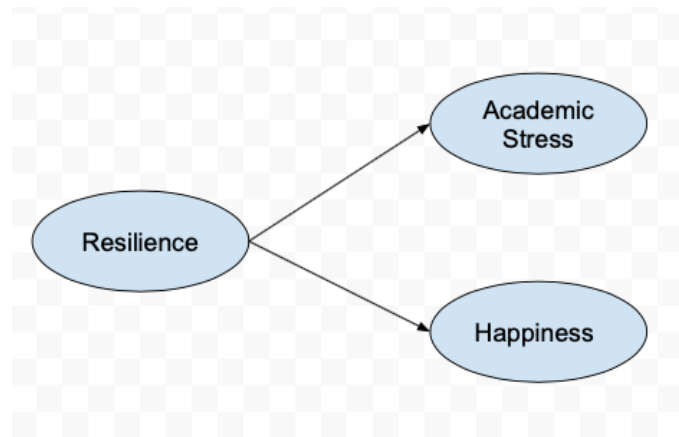


Figure 1: The happiness model used in this study

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Resilience

Resilience is a psychological attribute characterized by strength and perseverance. It is commonly defined as the ability to remain steadfast and endure adverse circumstances (Sahin & Hepsogutlu, 2018). Additionally, resilience encompasses the capacity to withstand stressful events while maintaining both physical and psychological well-being (Aboalshamat et al., 2018). Moreover, resilience is the ability to effectively cope with and adapt to significant challenges or life crises. It is closely linked to an individual's capacity to endure periods of depression and navigate adversity or trauma (Rutter, 1987).

2.2 Academic Stress

Academic stress refers to the pressure experienced by students to achieve academic excellence in an increasingly competitive environment. This pressure manifests through various burdens, including responsibilities and demands that contribute to heightened stress levels (Alvin, 2007; Esia-Donkoh et al., 2011). Students often perceive academic stress as a result of the discrepancy between academic expectations and their own perceived abilities (Gusniarti, 2002). Consequently, some studies suggest that academic stress emerges from the pressure to achieve academic success and an imbalance between academic demands and available resources. Students may experience stress due to a range of factors, including frustration, conflict, pressure, change, and self-imposed expectations. These stressors can elicit various physiological, emotional, behavioral, and cognitive responses (Gadzella & Masten, 2005).

Academic stressors can be categorized into five primary types: frustration, which includes obstacles to goal attainment, lack of resources, failure to achieve set objectives, social

rejection, and missed opportunities; conflict, which involves choosing between equally desirable or undesirable alternatives; pressure, stemming from competition, academic deadlines, excessive workload, and interpersonal relationships; change, encompassing multiple simultaneous life transitions, disruptions, and challenges in goal achievement; and self-imposed stress, which includes the drive to compete, the desire for social approval, overthinking, academic procrastination, problem-solving difficulties, and exam-related anxiety (Gadzella & Masten, 2005).

Reactions to academic stressors can be classified into physical, emotional, behavioral, and cognitive responses (Gadzella & Masten, 2005). Physical reactions may include excessive sweating, stuttering, tremors, rapid movements, fatigue, stomach pain, shortness of breath, back pain, skin conditions, headaches, arthritis, and significant fluctuations in weight. Emotional responses often involve fear, anger, guilt, and sadness. Behavioral reactions can manifest as crying, aggression toward others, self-harm, excessive smoking, heightened irritability, suicidal ideation, reliance on defense mechanisms, and social withdrawal. Additionally, cognitive assessments play a crucial role in stress responses, as they influence how individuals perceive stressful situations and determine the strategies they employ to cope effectively.

2.3 Happiness

Happiness is defined as an individual's positive evaluation of their life (Veenhoven, 2012). Additionally, it is described as a positive emotional state experienced by a person (Seligman et al., 2005). Some studies suggest that happiness is fundamentally a person's favorable perception of their life.

Positive emotions associated with happiness can be linked to different temporal perspectives—the future, past, and present. Future-oriented positive emotions include optimism, hope, confidence, belief, and faith. Past-oriented positive emotions encompass satisfaction, pleasure, peace, and pride. Meanwhile, present-oriented positive emotions can be categorized into momentary pleasures and enduring gratification.

Momentary pleasures encompass both material and higher pleasures. Material pleasures include sensory experiences such as enjoying delicious food, admiring beautiful scenery, and engaging in physical intimacy. Higher pleasures, on the other hand, involve more complex emotional states such as deep happiness, joy, and comfort. Humans achieve enduring gratification when they fully utilize their unique potential across various aspects of life, leading to sustained fulfillment and well-being.

3.0 RESEARCH DESIGN

3.1 Participants

The participants in this study were students enrolled in private universities in Yogyakarta, Indonesia. A total of 253 students participated, comprising 53 males (20.9%) and 200 females (79.1%). The mean age of the respondents was 19.6 years ($M = 19.6$, $SD = 1.85$). Participants were selected using a convenience sampling method.

3.2 Measures

Three sets of scales were given to the students: the happiness scale, academic stress scale, and resilience scale.

3.3 Resiliency Questionnaire for Adults (QRA)

This scale was developed by Alonso-Tapia et al. (2017). It contains 36 items and measures nine personal factors with four items for each: optimism, self-efficacy, adaptability, trust, support, comfort, sensitivity, and distraction. These characteristics are grouped into three factors: a sense of mastery, connectedness, and emotional reactions.

3.4 Perception of Academic Stress Scale (PAS)

This scale was developed by Bedewy and Gabriel (2015). It consists of 18 items. Scores are obtained based on the total score of all items. This scale consists of four factors: pressure in appearance, perceived workload, self-perception of academics, and time restrictions (Bedewy & Gabriel, 2015).

3.5 Subjective Happiness Scale

This scale was developed by Lyubomirsky and Lepper (1999) and consisted of 4 items. The rationale for choosing this scale is that it was initially developed on the subject of college students and high school students. The score is obtained by adding up the overall score of the items divided by the total number of items, which is 4. This scale has a high internal consistency of 0.82.

3.6 Pilot Study

Before field study data collection, the researchers conducted a pilot study with 162 respondents and analyzed the pilot study data by conducting Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). The EFA

was carried out to measure the dimensionality of the three measures, and the results are presented in the following sections.

3.7 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for Happiness Construct

The Happiness Scale consists of 4 items with a 10-point interval scale. It is stated that the 10-point scale is more accurate than the 5-point scale measurement model because there are more choices and more freedom (Awang, 2014; Ehido et al., 2020). Items are coded with K1 to K4 (Table 1). Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of each item measured on the Happiness Scale. The mean of each item is 6.07 to 7.55, and the standard deviation is 1.73 to 2.35.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics of the happiness scale construct

	Mean	Std. Deviation
K1	7.5556	1.75166
K2	7.2160	1.73999
K3	6.0741	2.35790
K4	7.2407	2.03328

The EFA analysis mentioned that the screen plot in Figure 2 below shows one component. The EFA procedure combines four items into four components. The rotated component matrix shows the components' items.

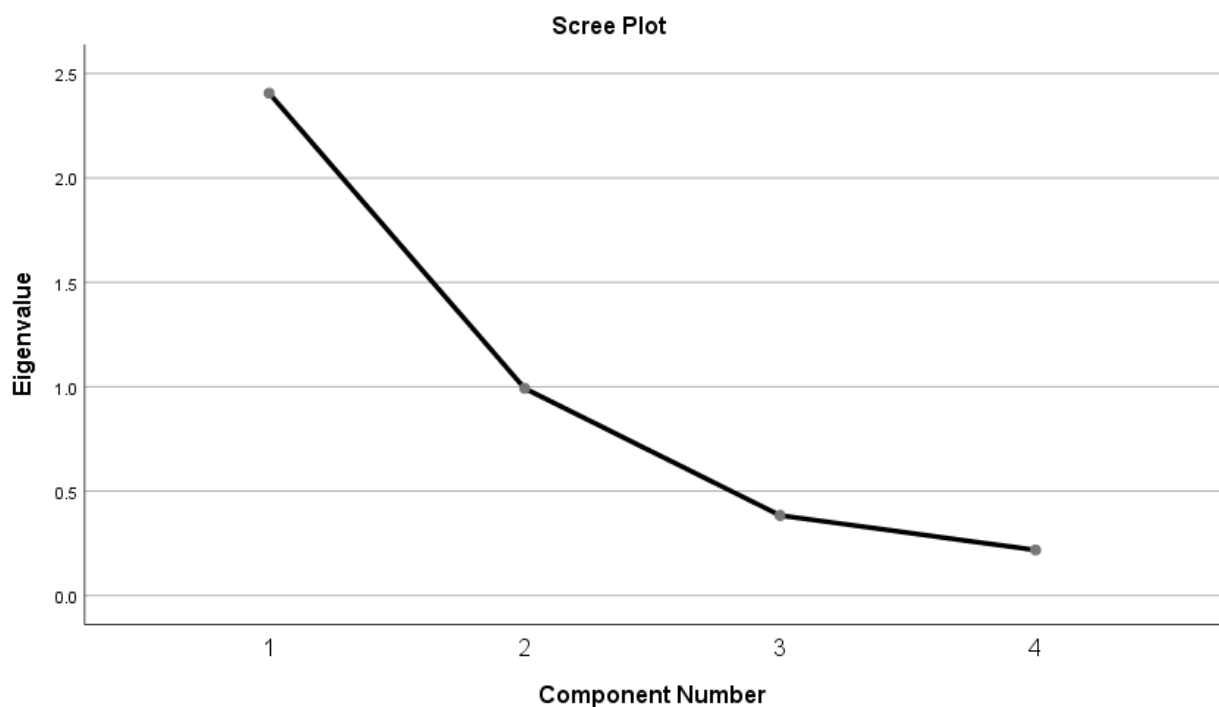


Figure 2: The scree plot of the happiness construct

The EFA procedure using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax Rotation shows the results of the four items analyzed from the Happiness Scale. The analysis showed that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity results are significant ($P\text{-Value} < 0.05$). In addition, the measurement of sample strength using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) is 0.721, which is acceptable according to the minimum value above 0.60 (Awang, 2012; Bahkia et al., 2019; Ehido et al., 2020; Fitriana et al., 2022). These two results (Bartlett's Test is significant and $KMO > .60$) indicate that these data are satisfactory data to continue with the data abortion technique (Awang, 2015; Ehido et al., 2020; Shkeer & Awang, 2019).

The table below shows one component of the EFA procedure based on Eigenvalues between 0.2 and 2.4. The variance explained for item 1 is 60.146%, item 2 is 24.811%, item 3 is 9.594%, and item 4 is 5.448%. The total variance that explains the measurement for the Happiness Scale construct is 60.146%, which is still within the minimum limit of the requirement of 60% (Awang, 2015; Ehido et al., 2020).

Table 2: Components and total variance of the happiness scale construct

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	2.406	60.146	60.146	2.406	60.146	60.146
2	.992	24.811	84.958			
3	.384	9.594	94.552			
4	.218	5.448	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The analysis showed that only 1 item was rejected because the score was less than 0.6. So, only 1 item was discarded (Awang, 2015; Baistaman et al., 2020; Ehido et al., 2020), thus for the Happiness Scale, three items are accepted. For the reliability analysis results, Cronbach's Alpha results are 0.869, which means they are reliable in measuring happiness based on a minimum value of 0.7 (Ehido et al., 2020).

3.8 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) for Resilience Construct

The Resilience Scale consists of 36 items with a 10-point interval scale. The analysis result indicated that the mean of each item is in the range of 3.89 to 8.35. In addition, the standard deviation ranges from 1.52 to 2.56.

The scree plot in Figure 3 below shows that eleven components emerged from the EFA procedure for this construct. The EFA procedure combines 36 items into 11 components, in which each component consists of 2 to 3 items. Afterwards, the rotated component matrix shows the items of each component.

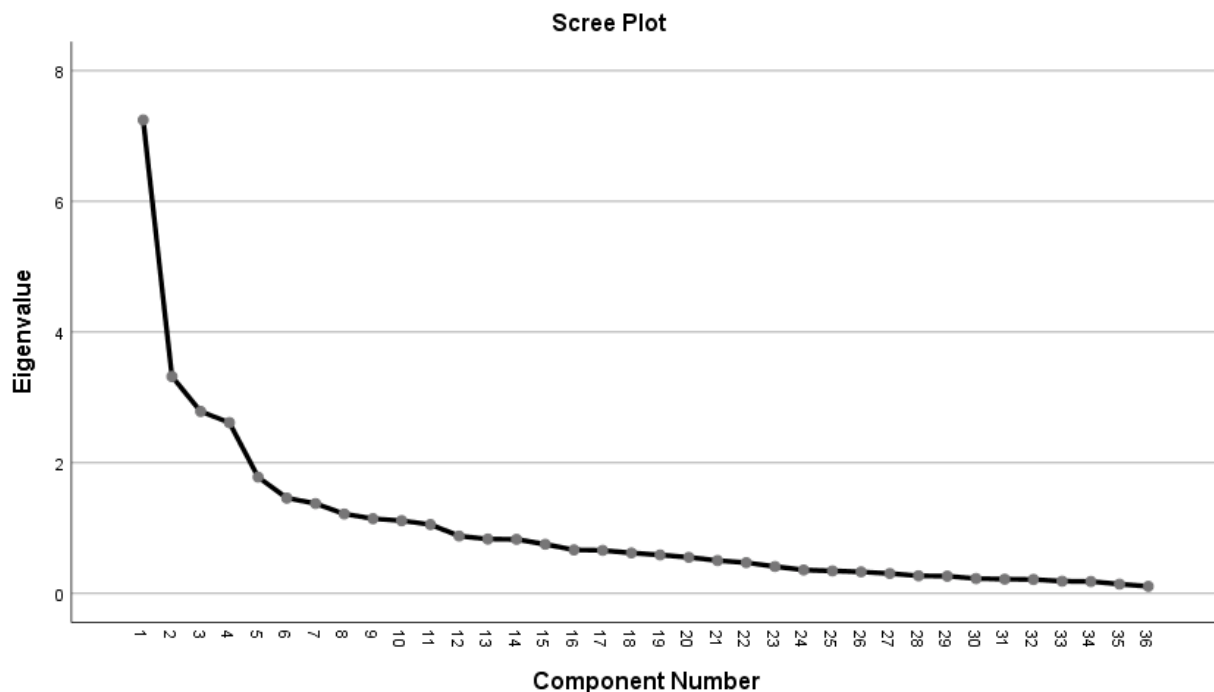


Figure 3: The scree plot for resilience construct

The EFA procedure using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax Rotation shows the results of 36 items analyzed from the Happiness Scale. The analysis results mentioned that Bartlett's Test of Sphericity is significant ($P\text{-Value} < .05$). In addition, the measurement of sample strength using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) is .733, which is accepted as a minimum value above .60 (Awang, 2012; Bahkia et al., 2019; Ehido et al., 2020; Fitriana et al., 2022). These two results (Bartlett's Test is significant and $KMO > .60$) indicate that these data are satisfactory data to continue with the data abortion technique (Awang, 2015; Ehido et al., 2020; Shkeer & Awang, 2019).

The EFA results showed 11 components of the EFA procedure based on an eigenvalue of more than 1.0. The eigenvalues are between 1.05 and 7.24. Where the variance described for each component 1 is 20.124%, component 2 is 9.219%, component 3 is 7.735%, component 4 is 7.295%, component 5 is 4.945%, component 6 is 4.049%, component 7 is 3.822%, component 8 is 3.378%, component 9 is 3.177%, component 10 is 3.090%, and component 11 is 2.927%. The total variance that explains the measurement for the Resilience Scale construct

is 69.724% which is still above the minimum requirement of 60% (Awang, 2015; Ehido et al., 2020).

Each factor satisfies all items except for items RS2, RS3, RS4, RS5, RS7, RS9, RS11, RS13, RS14, RS18, RS20, RS21, RS22, RS25, RS27, RS29, RS30, RS31, RS34, RS35, and RS36 which was rejected because the score was less than 0.6. Thus, 18 items were discarded. Thus, for the Resilience Scale, 15 items are accepted.

3.9 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) For Academic Stress Construct

The Academic Stress Scale comprises 18 items measured on a 10-point interval scale. The analysis provides descriptive statistics for each item, with mean values ranging from 4.53 to 8.56 and standard deviations ranging from 1.67 to 2.85.

The scree plot in Figure 4 below shows that eleven components emerged from the EFA procedure for this construct. The EFA procedure combines 18 items into four components, each consisting of 2 to 7 items. The rotated component matrix shows the items of each component.

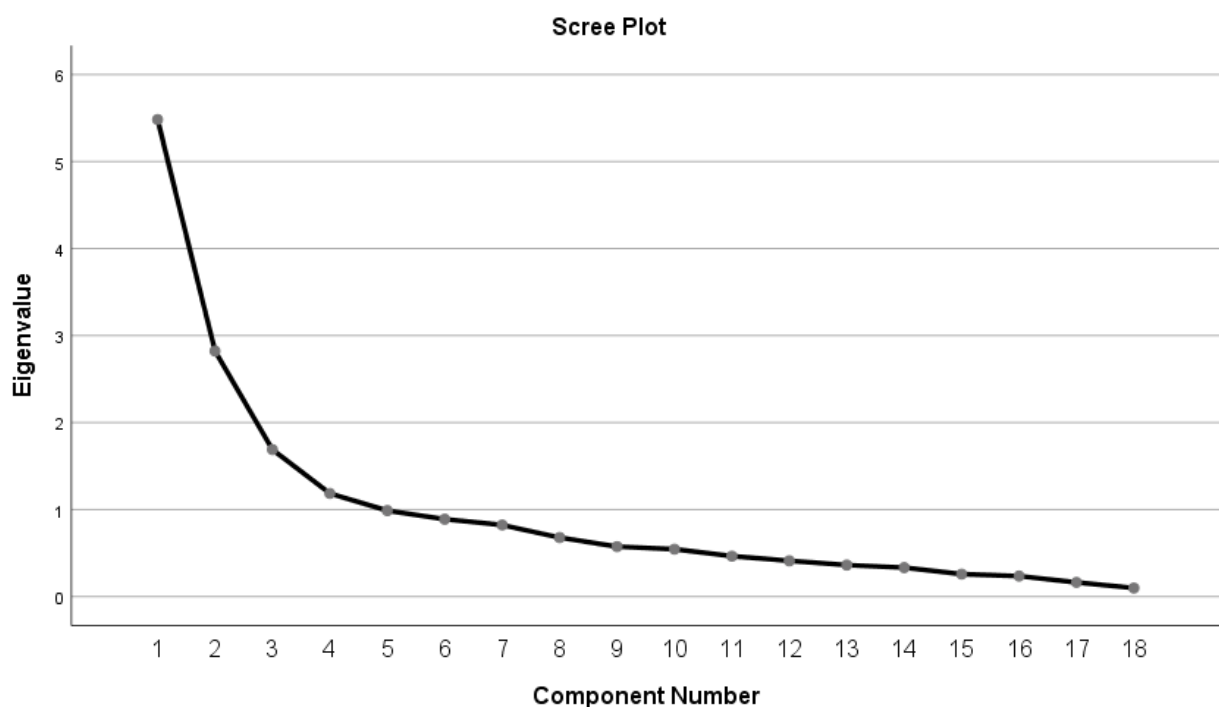


Figure 4: Scree plot for academic stress scale

The EFA procedure using Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with Varimax Rotation shows the results of 18 items analyzed from the Academic Stress Scale. The analysis revealed that

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity results are significant ($P\text{-Value} < .05$). In addition, the measurement of sample strength using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) is .779, which is accepted as a minimum value above .60 (Awang, 2012; Bahkia et al., 2019; Ehido et al., 2020; Fitriana et al., 2022). These two results (Bartlett's Test is significant and $KMO > .60$) indicate that these data are satisfactory to continue with the data-abortion technique (Awang, 2015; Ehido et al., 2020; Shkeer & Awang, 2019).

The analysis identifies four components in the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) procedure, each with an eigenvalue greater than 1.0. The eigenvalues range from 1.185 to 5.482, with variance contributions of 30.458% for component 1, 15.676% for component 2, 9.385% for component 3, and 6.584% for component 4. The total variance explained for the Academic Stress Scale construct is 62.104%, which exceeds the minimum required threshold of 60% (Awang, 2015; Ehido et al., 2020).

Additionally, the analysis identified three retained components and their corresponding items. Items with factor loadings below 0.6 were removed, following the criteria established in previous research (Awang, 2015; Baistaman et al., 2020; Ehido et al., 2020). As a result, 13 items were accepted for the final version of the Academic Stress Scale.

3.10 Procedures

The researchers obtained approval from the targeted universities to conduct the study. Participants provided verbal consent via WhatsApp before completing the questionnaire. Prior to data collection, researchers briefed the students on the study's objectives and provided instructions on how to respond to the scales. Participants were then asked to complete the scales by selecting a score on a 10-point interval scale, with response options ranging from 1 to 10. The estimated time for completion was 15 to 20 minutes. Participants were assured that all collected data would remain anonymous and confidential.

Data analysis was conducted using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) with IBM-SPSS-AMOS. SEM, often referred to as the Second-Generation Method, was chosen for its ability to simultaneously analyze constructs with multiple indicators and commonly observed variables. More importantly, SEM allows for the concurrent examination of relationships between variables, providing a comprehensive analytical approach (Awang, 2015).

4.0 ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Descriptive Analysis

The primary descriptive analyses results are provided in the table below.

Table 3: Demographic profile of respondents

Demographic	Level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Age	Below 18 years	7	2.76 %
	17 – 23 years	190	75.09 %
	21 – 24 years	53	20.94 %
	Above 24 years	3	1.18 %
Gender	Male	53	20.9%
	Female	200	79.1%
Semester	1	64	25.3 %
	3	145	57.3 %
	5	27	10.7 %
	6	1	0.4 %
	7	15	5.9 %
	9	1	0.4 %

As shown in the table above, most respondents (57.3%) were in semester 3, 25.3% were in semester 1, 10.7% were in semester 5, and 5.9% were in semester 7.

4.2 CFA

The Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was carried out on three constructs, namely resilience, academic stress, and happiness; the results are described in Figure 5 and Table 4:

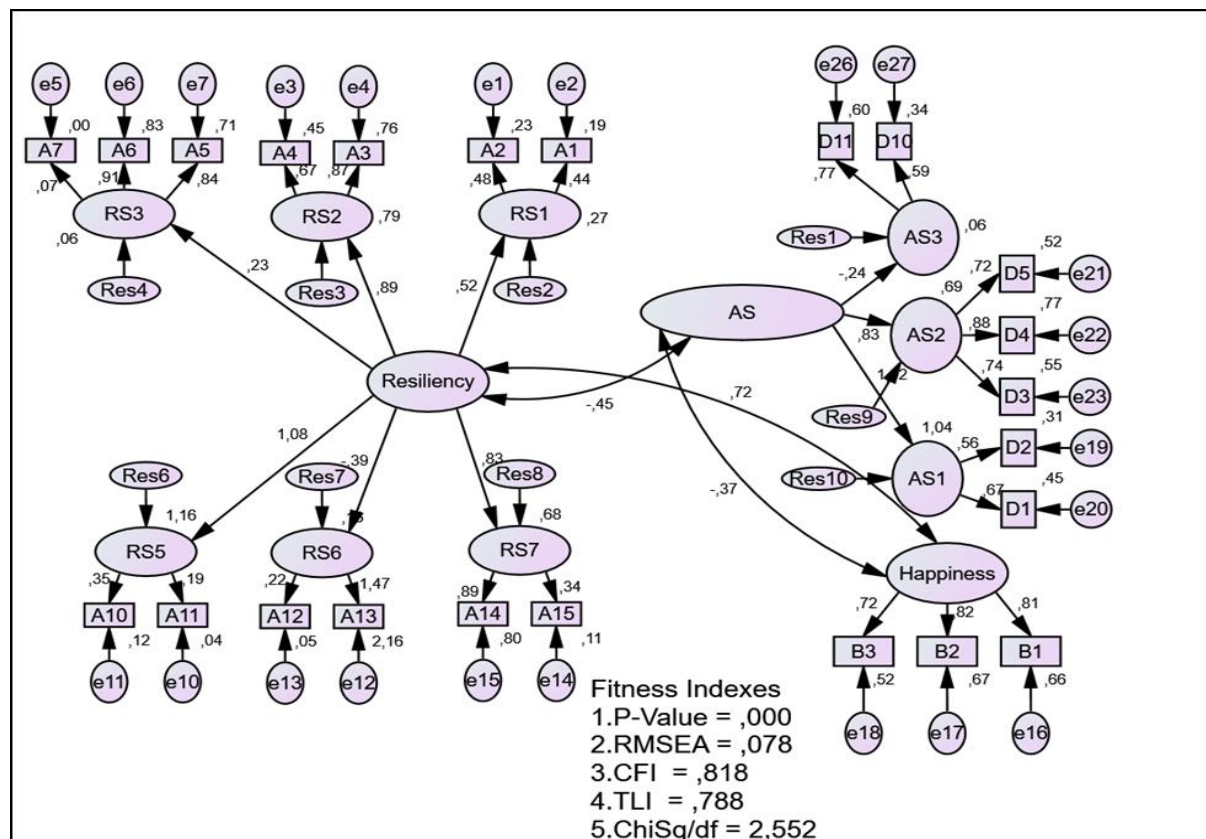


Figure 5: CFA result

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of the happiness scale construct

No	Index	Score	Criteria	Results
1	RMS	0,078	< 0,08	Fit
2	CFI	0,818	> 0,80	Fit
3	Chi-square	2,552	< 5,0	Fit

4.3 The Influence of Resilience on Academic Stress

The results indicated that resilience does not significantly influence academic stress, as shown in Table 5.

Table 5: The results of the influence of resilience on academic stress

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Academic Stress	<---	Resiliency	-21,347	22,117	-,965	0,334

4.4 The Influence of Resilience on Happiness

The results of this study indicate that resilience does not have a significant impact on happiness, as presented in Table 6.

Table 6: The results of the influence of resilience and happiness

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Happiness	<---	Resiliency	29,443	30,029	0,980	0,327

4.5 Discussion

The present study explored the relationship between resilience, academic stress, and happiness among Indonesian students. The results of the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) analysis revealed that resilience does not have a significant impact on either academic stress or happiness. Specifically, no significant relationship was found between academic stress and resilience. These findings contrast with previous research, which has suggested that resilience significantly influences academic stress (Bajaj et al., 2022; Wilks, 2008). The lack of a direct relationship observed in this study suggests that a high level of resilience among university students does not necessarily correlate with lower academic stress levels. This outcome may be attributed to the substantial academic demands placed on students, as prior research has indicated that college students encounter multiple stressors, including rigorous coursework, environmental transitions, housing changes, social relationships, cultural differences, and career uncertainties—all of which can affect time management skills (Misra & Castillo, 2004).

However, the findings align with a previous study suggesting that students experiencing minimal academic stress do not show direct or indirect effects of academic stress on well-being as a result of educational transitions (Fergus & Zimmerman, 2005). In contrast, students facing high levels of academic stress may benefit from resilience-building programs designed to alleviate their perceptions of stress (Versteeg & Kappe, 2021). Furthermore, the results of this study are inconsistent with research that has identified a negative correlation between resilience and overall stress levels among pharmacy students, indicating that those with greater resilience experience lower stress (Jones, 2020).

Beyond resilience as an internal factor, academic stress is influenced by external factors, with social support playing a crucial role. Research suggests that social support enhances self-confidence, reduces stress levels, strengthens coping mechanisms, and improves overall quality of life (Santoso, 2020). Additionally, the presence of social support networks significantly impacts the academic stress experienced by students, as interpersonal support systems can help mitigate stress (Renk & Smith, 2007).

While resilience can be cultivated through exposure to daily stressors (Diehl et al., 2012), moderate stress exposure has been found to enhance resilience against future challenges (Seery, 2011). Past research has also indicated that personal attributes and resources—such as

psychological robustness, problem-solving skills, intelligence, sociability, and self-esteem—contribute to an individual's ability to manage stress effectively (Hjemdal, 2007; Ness, 2013). Moreover, this study found no significant relationship between resilience and happiness (Bajaj et al., 2022; Lower, 2014), contradicting prior research conducted in Saudi Arabia, which reported that resilience accounted for 22% of the variance in student happiness (Aboalshamat et al., 2018). A previous study suggested that individuals with a greater capacity to navigate life's challenges experience a lower negative impact from adverse events. Furthermore, research has shown that students with higher resilience levels tend to report greater happiness compared to their less resilient counterparts (Aboalshamat et al., 2018). A review of the literature further supports the notion that resilience plays a role in determining happiness levels (Aboalshamat et al., 2018).

Resilient individuals are believed to do more than simply endure difficult situations; they are capable of thriving beyond adversity. To achieve happiness, individuals must cultivate strength, recover from setbacks, detach from negative emotions, and develop perseverance rather than succumbing to despair when faced with challenges.

Academic resilience has been shown to play a significant role in students' ability to address educational challenges (Ahmed et al., 2018). Students with strong resilience skills are better equipped to manage stressors and challenges, demonstrating adaptability and persistence in seeking effective solutions. Consequently, academic well-being is enhanced, facilitating higher levels of achievement (Bücker et al., 2018).

5.0 CONCLUSION

The results of the SEM analysis indicate that resilience does not significantly contribute to happiness or the reduction of academic stress among university students. These findings challenge previous research that suggested resilience plays a key role in mitigating stress and enhancing well-being. The lack of a significant relationship may be attributed to external stressors, such as academic demands, financial burdens, and social adaptation challenges, which could have a stronger influence on student well-being than resilience alone.

This study has important implications for understanding the well-being of university students in Indonesia. It highlights the need for universities to consider additional factors beyond resilience when addressing academic stress and happiness. Institutions should focus on fostering supportive environments, enhancing social support systems, and implementing mental health programs that address both internal and external stressors.

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