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Stressors and Resilience are Associated with Well-being in Young Adult College Students

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2 3	1	Stressors and Resilience are Associated with Well-being
4 5 6	2	in Young Adult College Students
7 8	3	Objective: The purposes were to describe stressors and resilience behaviors of college students
9 10 11	4	and examine the relationships among stressors, resilience, and well-being.
11 12 13	5	Hypothesis: Resilience will modify the relationship between stressors and well-being.
14 15	6	Participants: The sample included 1,010 college students, ages 18–26, from an urban Midwestern
16 17 18	7	university.
19 20	8	Methods: A secondary analysis of cross-sectional data from an anonymous survey was
21 22	9	conducted using multiple regression and simple slopes analysis.
23 24 25	10	Results: Resilience did not modify the relationship between stressors and well-being. Stressors (β
26 27	11	=44, $p < .0001$) and resilience (β = .33, $p < .0001$) accounted for 42% of the variance in well-
28 29	12	being (adjusted $R^2 = .42$, $F_{2,999} = 365.98$, $p < .0001$). The most frequently endorsed stressors were
30 31 32	13	sleep problems, anxiety, and relationships.
33 34	14	Conclusions: Stressors and resilience warrant special attention in the allocation of resources and
35 36 37	15	development of programs to improve student well-being.
37 38 39	16	Key Words: College Students, Resilience, Stressors, Well-being
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	19	Stressors and Resilience are Associated with Well-being
	20	in Young Adult College Students
	21	Young adults, ages $18 - 26$ years old, are often dismissed as a healthy group of
)	22	individuals; however, this is a time of developmental transition that tends to be marked by
<u>)</u> }	23	unhealthy risk behaviors, psychological vulnerability, and poor health habits. ¹ In 2015, a call to
1 5 -	24	action by the Institute of Medicine and National Research Council ¹ brought to light the lack of
) 7 }	25	attention given to young adults in research and the critical need to explore and address the unique
)	26	challenges affecting the well-being of young adults in the 21st century. Although definitions
<u>)</u>	27	vary, well-being generally encompasses social, physical, and mental dimensions of health
3 	28	including concepts such as positive emotions and satisfaction with life. ^{2,3}
, 5 7	29	Young adults today are entering adulthood in poorer health than previous generations,
3	30	suggesting increased risk for future chronic health conditions. ¹ Studies of young adults, ages 24 –
) 	31	32, report surprisingly high rates of early stage chronic illnesses such as prediabetes (27%) ⁴ and
- 3 1	32	prehypertension (49%), ⁵ suggesting that young adulthood is a critical time for health promotion
5	33	and the prevention of chronic illness. Adolescence and early adulthood are also critical times for
7 3	34	the onset of several mental health problems including mood disorders and substance disorders. ⁶
,)	35	In 2010-2012, almost one in five young adults reported a mental illness during the past year. ⁷
<u>)</u> }	36	Young adults are bombarded with fast-paced technological advances combined with
1 5	37	social and economic pressures and stressors during a time when they are trying to navigate the
) 7 2	38	transition to adulthood.1 Late adolescents and young adults also report higher levels of stress
))	39	than middle and older adults. ⁸ In a recent survey of young adults aged 18 to 21 years, the vast
<u>)</u>	40	majority of participants reported finances (81%), work (77%), and health related concerns (75%)
3 	41	as significant stressors in their lives.8 Additional sources of stress identified by late adolescents
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experienced in college life.¹⁷

42	and young adults include "not getting along with others" (35%), "not getting enough to eat"
43	(28%), and housing instability (31%). In addition, 91% of participants aged 18 to 21 report
44	having experienced at least one physical or emotional stress-related symptom in the past month.8
45	High levels of stress and stressors during this developmental transition into adulthood are
46	of critical importance as evidence suggests that life stressors are inversely related to
47	psychological well-being among undergraduate students.9 The body has amazing adaptation
48	responses to stress that can be helpful in emergent situations; however, chronic stress can have
49	detrimental effects on the mind and body. The potential effects of chronic stress include
50	conditions such as muscle tension, low back pain, chronic fatigue, and headaches as well as
51	increased inflammatory processes and risk for heart disease, hypertension, depression, and
52	stroke. ¹⁰ Though stress and stressors are often unavoidable, certain factors may influence how
53	stress affects our health and well-being.
54	Resilience, the ability to adapt and recover from a difficult experience, ¹¹ is one such
55	factor that has been examined as a potential modifier of the relationship between specific
56	stressors or adversity and various aspects of well-being. Resilience is an individual's ability to
57	acclimate in the face of adversity, ¹² and is characterized by positive adaptation to acute or

Resilience theory proposes that resilience is a protective factor that modifies the relationship between stress and health outcomes such as well-being. It is rooted in psychology beginning in the 1970's with studies of children who experienced extreme adversity but managed

chronic stress.¹³ Resilience may be viewed as a trait, a process, or an outcome¹⁴ and it varies on a

continuum in degree.¹⁵ Resilience promotes thriving in the face of stressful situations and yields

positive outcomes as a result.¹⁶ It is the ability to cope while facing demands such as those

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to thrive. Garmezy,¹⁸ Werner and colleagues,¹⁹ and Rutter²⁰ were leaders in developing this field. Examination of resilience of college students is critical due to the increase in stress, depression, and anxiety experienced by students as they adjust to the demands of college life.¹⁷

In recent research with college students, resilience was associated with decreased stress^{21,22} and lower psychological distress.²³ Resilience also modified the relationship between perceived stress and binge-eating behaviors, with stress having a stronger effect on binge-eating behaviors among those with lower resilience.²⁴ Furthermore, among post-doctoral fellows, resilience moderated the relationships of stress with trait anxiety and depressive symptoms.²⁵ While resilience as a moderator of the stress and well-being relationship is theoretically sound, empirical evidence is lacking in young adult, college students. Having a clear and empirically supported understanding of these relationships and interactions will help college health professionals prioritize their resources and efforts to improve student well-being.

The purposes of this study were to: (1) describe the stressors and resilience behaviors reported by young adult college students and (2) examine the relationships of stressors and resilience with well-being in young adult college students. Specifically, the hypothesis was that resilience modifies the relationship between stressors and well-being in this population.

81 Materials and Methods

82 Design and Sample

Cross-sectional data for this secondary analysis were collected via an anonymous webbased survey of undergraduate and graduate students from a large urban Midwestern university in February 2019. The purpose of the survey, conducted by Health Promotion, a division of Campus Health Services, was to obtain data to guide health promotion efforts across the university. The registrar generated a random sample of 5,000 undergraduate and 1,900 graduate Page 5 of 36

students who were invited to participate in the survey. Undergraduate students had to be enrolled
in at least six credit hours of coursework; graduate students were both full- and part-time. The
response rate was 17.5%. Data for this secondary analysis were from a subsample of 1,010
young adults ages 18 to 26 years old.

Measures

93 Well-being

The 10-item Public Health Surveillance Well-Being Scale (PHS-WB)² measures well-being as a holistic construct incorporating perceived physical, mental, and social aspects of health. Six items are rated on 5-point Likert-type scales; three are rated on a 10-point Likert-type scale of very dissatisfied to very satisfied; and the final item on energy/vitality over the prior 30 days is scored 0 to 30. Item ratings of each respondent were summed, and then the sum was converted to Item Response Theory scores per Bann et al.² Next, scores were converted to standardized t scores for use in the analysis. The scale demonstrated adequate internal consistency when used with a similar sample of college students ($\alpha = .86$).²⁶ In the current study, the scale demonstrated good internal consistency ($\alpha = .87$) and was unidimensional based on the results of principal components analysis and factor analysis conducted with the data from this sample.

Resilience

106The 6-item Brief Resilience Scale27 measures trait resilience, defined as the ability to107recover from stress. In a systematic review of 15 existing resilience measures,28 this scale was108one of three that had the strongest evidence of reliability and validity. It also has the advantage of109being short which increased the likelihood that students would respond to all items. Respondents110rated their degree of agreement with each item on a 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree

(1) to strongly agree (5). Items 2, 4, and 6 are negatively worded and were reverse coded. Next, the mean of the six items was calculated for each participant; higher mean scores indicated greater resilience. In previous research, Cronbach's alphas ranged from .84 to .87 in three different samples of college students.^{27,29} Cronbach's alpha for the current sample was .88 indicating good internal consistency. The participants were also asked a single "select all that apply" question asking whether they routinely engaged in nine behaviors theorized to build resilience such as seeking guidance from trusted mentors, practicing spirituality or their religion, practicing mindfulness/meditation, eating nutrient dense foods, moving daily and often, and connecting with supportive people. **Stressors** The total number of stressors was determined by asking participants to indicate which of 26 stressors had affected their academic performance in the prior six months. The items included issues such as financial/money problems, sleep problems, illness, relationships, loss, family, and work. A cumulative score was calculated for each participant by summing the number of stressors endorsed.

126 Sociodemographic characteristics

Data were collected on age, gender, race, sexual orientation, academic status, and hours worked per week. Participants also were asked if they were first generation college students. Gender identity categories included male, female, transgender female, transgender male, gender nonconforming, non-binary, and different identity. Sexual orientation response options included asexual, bisexual, lesbian, gay, queer, pansexual, straight/heterosexual, and other. See Table 1 for additional details on collected sociodemographic characteristics.

Procedure

The university's institutional review board approved the original survey and the secondary data analysis. Students received an invitation to participate in the initial study via an email which included a link to the anonymous web-based survey. The consent process consisted of a preamble at the beginning of the survey and a waiver of written consent. Data were collected and stored on a secure server. Students in the original sample chose whether or not they wanted to enter into a prize drawing for a variety of gifts including a 30-minute chair massage and a \$400 voucher to a local bicycle retail store.

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 25.0.30 Descriptive statistics were used to characterize the sample. Correlational analyses were conducted among the variables. Potential differences in means of stressors, resilience, and well-being by sociodemographic characteristics, stressors, and resilience behaviors were evaluated using *t*-tests and one-way ANOVA, as appropriate. Due to low numbers of participants identifying as gender identities other than male and female, the gender identity categories were combined for analysis into the categories of male, female, and another identity. In addition, due to the small number of participants describing their sexual orientation as other than straight/heterosexual, the sexual orientation categories were combined for the analysis into the categories straight/heterosexual and another sexual orientation (see Table 1).

The hypothesis that resilience modifies the relationship between stressors and well-being was tested using multiple regression with backward elimination and simple slopes analysis. The analysis started with the full model including the covariate of sexual orientation, main effects of stressors and resilience, along with interaction terms of stressors*resilience, resilience*sexual orientation, and stressors*sexual orientation as predictors of well-being. Non-significant

interaction terms were eliminated one at a time followed by non-significant main effects to arrive
at the best fitting model for prediction of well-being. Further, simple slopes analysis was used to
test for moderation effects.

Due to the number of analyses conducted and the sample size, a conservative alpha of .008 was selected to prevent a Type 1 error. When multiple statistical tests are conducted in multiple regression, the level of significance of the parameter estimates should be adjusted to avoid a Type I error.³¹ An alpha of .05 may increase the Type I error rate two- to six-fold when performing multiple separate significance tests of unadjusted t statistics using multiple regression to identify a best predictive model.³¹ Using the Bonferroni adjustment to obtain a more conservative alpha attenuates this problem, making a Type I error much less likely.³¹ In the current study, with six predictors of well-being in the full regression model, the Bonferroni adjustment yielded an alpha of .008.

169 Results

The mean age of the students was 21.1 years (SD = 2.3). A majority of the students were female (57.7%), white (76.1%), straight/heterosexual (81.0%), enrolled full-time (92.2%), first generation at college (76.2%), and employed at least one hour per week (71.1%) (see Table 1). The number of stressors ranged from 0 to 19 with a mean number of stressors of 5.21 (SD = 3.63). Scores on the Brief Resilience Scale ranged from 1 to 5 with a mean of 3.43 (SD = 0.79). PHS-WB scores ranged from 24.95 - 73.55 with a mean of 49.6 (SD = 8.50). There were significant zero-order correlations between stressors and resilience (r = -.40, p < .001), resilience and well-being (r = .51, p < .001), and stressors and well-being (r = .58, p < .001). Preliminary analysis also included testing for differences in means of major study variables by sociodemographic factors. Sexual orientation was the only sociodemographic factor

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180	with substantial enough differences among means to suggest the need for inclusion as a covariate
181	in the model. Participants who identified as straight/heterosexual ₍₁₎ reported fewer stressors
182	$(M[SD]_1 = 4.84[3.42] \text{ vs. } M[SD]_2 = 6.86[4.07]; t_{251} = -6.31, p < .0001)$, higher resilience $(M[SD]_1 = -6.31)$
183	= 3.48[0.77] vs. $M[SD]_2$ = 3.23[0.80]; t_{997} = 3.91, $p < .0001$), and higher well-being ($M[SD]_1$ =
184	50.41[8.35] vs. $M[SD]_2$ = 46.22[8.33]; t_{997} = 6.22, $p < .0001$) compared to those who identified as
185	another sexual orientation $identity_{(2)}$.
186	Stressors

The top five most frequently identified stressors were sleep problems (57.7%, n = 583), anxiety (52.1%, n = 526), relationships (42.8%, n = 432), poor time management (42.3%, n =427), and financial/money problems (41.2%, n = 416). Differences in mean resilience and wellbeing scores by the most prevalent stressors are shown in Table 2. Mean resilience and wellbeing scores were lower for students who endorsed these stressors compared to those who did not endorse these stressors.

Resilience Behaviors

The top five commonly identified behaviors that students reported using to increase their resilience were: "Listen to music that supports my wellbeing" (65.6%, n = 663), "Sleep at least 6 hours/night" (59.0%, n = 596), "Move daily and often" (53.5%, n = 538), "Connect with supportive people and/or groups" (47.4%, n = 479), and "Eat nutrient dense foods" (43.3%, n =437). Students who reported eating nutrient dense food or moving daily and often also reported significantly fewer stressors, higher levels of resilience, and higher levels of well-being compared to those who did not report these behaviors. Sleeping at least six hours per night was significantly associated with fewer stressors and increased well-being, but not resilience(see Table 3).

Stressors and Resilience as Predictors of Well-being

Backward elimination began with a regression model that included stressors, resilience, sexual orientation, and their interaction terms as potential predictors of well-being. The final model included stressors ($\beta = -.44$, p < .0001) and resilience ($\beta = .33$, p < .0001); none of the interaction terms were significant. The model explained 42% of the variance in well-being (adjusted $R^2 = .42$, $F_{2,999} = 365.98$, p < .0001). The elimination process resulted in a parsimonious model while reducing the R^2 by only 1% from the full model (see Table 4). Furthermore, the results of the simple slopes analysis did not support resilience as a modifier of the relationship between stressors and well-being ($\Delta R^2 = 0.003$, $F_{[1,998]} = 4.95$, p = 0.026). Discussion In this study, we tested a simple moderation model of resilience which was theoretically supported but infrequently empirically evaluated in the young adult college student population. Resilience did not modify the relationship between stressors and well-being in this large sample of young adult college students from an urban Midwestern university. However, stressors and resilience were independent predictors of well-being. Together, stressors and resilience explained a substantial portion of the variance in well-being. In addition, the most common stressors and resilience building behaviors among young adult college students were identified and evaluated for relationships with well-being.

While it was surprising that resilience did not modify the relationship between stressors and well-being, there are potential explanations for this finding. The Brief Resilience Scale consists of only six items to measure trait resilience, a theoretically complex concept; therefore, it is possible the items of the scale did not adequately sample the domain of all potential items for the construct of resilience, i.e., it may lack construct validity. However, psychological Page 11 of 36

resilience, measured by the Brief Resilience Scale, modified the relationship between perceived stress and hair cortisol concentration in adults³² and has been used in resilience research with university students.²³ In addition, resilience may be an independent predictor of perceived stress and well-being as opposed to a moderator of the stressor - well-being relationship. There is evidence supporting an inverse relationship between stress and resilience^{21,22,33} as well as a positive relationship between resilience and psychological well-being.^{23,34} In the current study, resilience was defined as a trait, as is common in resilience research; however, some researchers argue that it may be more of a dynamic process or a skill rather than a trait since resilience can be developed or increased to some capacity, as evidenced by successful interventions.³⁵ It also can then be argued that resilience is situational suggesting that someone's level of resilience could vary by context and that the relationships among resilience, stressors, and well-being could vary by context. For example, in the meta-analysis of Hu et al.,³⁶ adversity modified the relationship between trait resilience and mental health; there were significantly stronger relationships among those in adversity compared to those who were not in adversity.³⁶ Hu et al.³⁶ then theorized based on their results and resilience theory that the effects of resilience on other concepts could vary depending on the "type and scope" of adversity itself. In the current study, we did not have data on the degree of adversity students had faced previously or the context in which the participants were currently living. Thus, further investigation into the complex relationships among these concepts and how they interact to affect well-being in college students is warranted. Stressors and Well-being The number of stressors reported was a significant predictor of well-being. This is consistent with substantial evidence supporting relationships between stress and various aspects

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of well-being from physiological health outcomes such as blood pressure³⁷ to psychological
well-being³⁸ and related mental health outcomes such as negative affect,³³ loneliness, depression,
and decreased happiness.³⁹ While much of the previous evidence has identified the effects of
stress on specific aspects of physical health or psychological well-being, in this study the number
of stressors was predictive of a more comprehensive well-being construct; the PHS-WB
incorporates perceived physical, mental, and social aspects of health into one holistic well-being
construct.

Independent stressors identified by the young adult college students were also evaluated in this study. Sleep problems, anxiety, and relationships were the top three most commonly identified stressors. Furthermore, students who reported these stressors also reported significantly lower resilience and lower well-being than those who did not report these stressors. Unfortunately, sleep problems are common among college students across the U.S. In a large, multi-university study, 62% of college students reported poor sleep.⁴⁰ This is concerning, as evidence suggests that sleep is an independent predictor of well-being among college students,^{26,41} and sleep problems are associated with negative mental health outcomes such as depressive symptoms.⁴²Sleep hygiene, cognitive behavioral therapies, and relaxation interventions may be helpful in improving sleep among college students.⁴³ In a meta-analysis of 15 studies, cognitive behavioral therapy for insomnia was associated with a small effect on sleep onset latency reduction and larger effects on self-report measures of sleep initiation and maintenance.⁴⁴ In addition, in a review of 12 intervention studies, short sleep education interventions and semester-long sleep education courses were significantly associated with improvements in sleep behaviors and health of college students.⁴⁵ There also is promising

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evidence indicating that mindfulness programs, such as KORU mindfulness created specifically
for emerging adults, helps improve sleep in young adults.⁴⁶

Anxiety was the second most common stressor endorsed by this sample of college students. According to results from the National College Health Assessment, 66.4% of undergraduate students felt overwhelming anxiety in the past 12 months,⁴⁷ and 29.7% of undergraduate students reported that anxiety affected their academic performance.⁴⁸ Furthermore, 23.6% of undergraduate students reported having or having had an official diagnosis of an anxiety disorder.⁴⁸ These statistics are concerning as anxiety affects all aspects of well-being. For example, anxiety is associated with increases in maladaptive coping behaviors,⁴⁹ increased risk of coronary artery disease,⁵⁰ and increased asthmatic exacerbations among individuals diagnosed with asthma.51 Anxiety and poor mental health outcomes have increased among college students over

the past decade.⁵² At the same time, there are substantial gaps in the availability of mental health services for students on college campuses. According to a survey of 571 college and university counseling centers worldwide, the average wait for a first appointment was 6.5 business days; 33.7% of campus counselling centers had a wait-list with a mean wait of 17.7 business days for a first appointment. Based on the entire student population for each institution, the average student to counselor ratio was 1,411:1.⁵³

Standard evidence-based treatments for anxiety typically include psychotherapy,
pharmacotherapy, or a combination of both types of treatments. In a meta-analysis of 79
randomized controlled trials, psychotherapies had a moderate to large mean effect size, whereas
pharmacotherapies had a small to moderate mean effect size on generalized anxiety disorder.⁵⁴
Complementary therapies such as meditation, yoga, and mindfulness interventions had pooled

moderate effects on anxiety and stress among college students.⁵⁵ In addition, there is promising
evidence that virtual health interventions may be effective for improving psychological health
outcomes,⁵⁶ decreasing stress,⁵⁷ and reducing anxiety.^{57,58}

The third most frequently identified stressor was relationships. Previous research with young adult college students suggests that simply being in a significant relationship does not predict well-being;²⁶ however, the quality of the relationships may play a role in how students' coping behaviors and stress influence mental health outcomes.^{26,39,59} Furthermore, in a large sample of young adults ages 18 - 21 years old, 35% reported not getting along with others and bullying as significant stressors in their lives.¹⁰ Similarly, greater discrepancy between desired level of social support and received level of social support was associated with higher levels of depressive symptoms among college students.⁶⁰ This evidence supports the importance of helping students cultivate and navigate healthy, supportive relationships for well-being.

Resilience and Well-being

In this study, resilience was an independent predictor of well-being. While this finding is consistent with prior research on resilience and psychological well-being among young adult college students,^{23,34,38} research on the relationship of resilience with well-being as a holistic construct incorporating the physical, mental, and social aspects of well-being is lacking. As such, this finding contributes to our understanding of the relationship between resilience and a more holistic measure of the construct of well-being in this population.

In the current study, large proportions of students reported routinely partaking in
behaviors theorized to support resilience such as listening to music, sleeping at least six hours
per night, moving daily and often, connecting with supportive people, and eating nutrient dense
foods. However, only moving daily and often and eating nutrient dense foods were associated

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with higher levels of well-being. These findings are consistent with recent research among college students in which resilience was associated with vigorous physical activity⁶¹ and higher intake of fruit and vegetables.⁶² Unfortunately, according to results from the Spring 2019 National College Health Assessment,⁴⁷ only 46% of students met physical activity guidelines, and only 4.3% of college students reported eating five or more servings of fruits and vegetables per day, suggesting significant room for improvement in physical activity and nutritional intake among college students. In addition to individual health behaviors associated with resilience, there is also empirical evidence supporting resilience-building interventions. More specifically, interventions based on cognitive behavioral therapy and/or mindfulness-based programs have had moderate positive effects on resilience.⁶³

Limitations

This study was a secondary analysis of cross-sectional data that allowed for a large sample size, but prohibited conclusions of causality and limited the measures available to those at hand. Longitudinal research on the well-being of college students is necessary to identify causal factors that promote long-term positive outcomes. Using the sum of individual stressors did not incorporate the perceived severity or frequency of the stressors. Measures that also allow for the identification of the perceived severity and frequency of stressors specific to college students, such as the Post-Secondary Students Stressors Index,^{64,65} should be considered in future research. In addition, while the Brief Resilience Scale was an efficient and psychometrically sound option for measuring someone's ability to recover from stress, it is potentially an oversimplified perspective of resilience, as it does not allow for the incorporation of some of the inherent complexities of resilience as a construct, as previously discussed. Conclusion

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The results of this study provide insight into the relationships among stressors, resilience. and well-being in a sample of young adult college students. We tested a simple moderation model of resilience that was theoretically supported but infrequently tested empirically in this population. Resilience did not modify the relationship between stressors and well-being, as hypothesized. However, resilience and stressors were independent predictors of well-being and explained a sizeable portion of the variance in well-being. Sleep problems, anxiety, and interpersonal relationships were identified as major sources of student stress. Each of these top stressors was individually associated with decreased resilience and decreased well-being. These findings are particularly interesting because unlike most well-being research to date in which well-being is operationalized as psychological well-being, the use of the PHS-WB allowed a more holistic definition of well-being that incorporated perceived physical, mental, and social aspects of health.

Young adults are entering adulthood in worse health than prior generations. It is critical to identify distinct factors that affect their well-being in order to provide guidance for the allocation of resources and the development of health promotion interventions. Based on the findings of this study and literature discussed, college health professionals designing health promotion programs intended to improve the well-being of young adult college students should consider including evidence-based components related to building resilience and managing stressors, specifically anxiety, sleep problems, and relationships. The promotion of healthy lifestyle behaviors should also continue to be included in such programs, as sleep, moving daily and often, and eating nutrient dense foods were associated with increased well-being.

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Characteristic	п	%	
Gender $(n = 860)$			
Male	337	39.2	
Female	493	57.3	
Another identity included:			
Transgender female	1	0.1	
Transgender male	5	0.6	
Gender non-conforming	5	0.6	
Non-binary	14	1.6	
Other identity	5	0.6	
Race $(n = 995)$			
White	757	76.1	
Black	75	7.5	
Asian	62	6.2	
More than one race selected	69	6.9	
Other	32	3.2	
Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish Origin $(n = 988)$)		
Yes	82	8.3	
No	906	91.7	
Sexual Orientation $(n = 999)$			
Straight/Heterosexual	809	81.0	
Another identity included:			
Asexual	23	2.3	
Bisexual	78	7.8	
Lesbian	22	2.2	
Gav	26	2.6	
Queer	9	0.9	
Pansexual	16	1.6	
Other identity	16	1.6	
Academic Status ($n = 1.010$)			
Full-time	931	92.2	
Part-time	79	7.8	
First Generation Student ($n = 1,004$)			
Yes	765	76.2	
No	239	23.8	
Hours Worked per Week ($n = 1,005$)			
None	290	28.9	
1-10	154	15.3	
11-20	229	22.7	
21-30	200	19.9	
>30	132	13.1	

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics of the study sample

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		Res	ilience	Well-being		
Stressor		M(SD)	t_{df}	M(SD)	t_{df}	
Sleep problems		· · · · ·	$t_{941} = 5.48*$. ,	$t_{1000} = 12.89^{*}$	
	No					
	Yes					
		3.58 (0.74)		53.37 (7.83)		
		3.32 (0.80)		46.87 (7.90)		
Anxiety		· · ·	$t_{999} = 12.12*$		$t_{1000} = 11.94$ *	
2	No					
	Yes					
		3.72 (0.69)		52.74 (8.26)		
		3.16 (0.78)		46.73 (7.66)		
Relationships (inti	imate, friends.		$t_{887} = 7.39*$		$t_{1000} = 9.55*$	
roommates. family	v. professors.				1000	
boss)	/, I					
)	No	3.59 (0.74)		51.72 (8.15)		
	Yes	3.22 (0.80)		46.77 (8.13)		
Poor time manage	ment		$t_{1000} = 3.45^*$	× /	$t_{1000} = 6.41*$	
	No		1000		1000	
	Yes					
		3.50 (0.79)		51.04 (8.55)		
		3.33 (0.77)		47.63 (8.02)		
Financial/money r	oroblems	,	$t_{1000} = 4.49^*$		$t_{1000} = 7.03*$	
• 1	No					
	Yes					
		3.52 (0.77)		51.14 (8.13)		
		3.30 (0.79)		47.40 (8.53)		

Table 2. t-tests for differences in mean levels of resilience and well-being by the top five stressors (n = 1002)

Behavior	Stressors			Resilience			Well-being		
	M (CD)	$t_{df;}$	р	M (CD)	$t_{df;}$	р	M	t_{df}	р
T ' ' ' '	(SD)	2.44	0.01	(SD)	0.40	(00	(SD)	0.52	(01
Listen to music		$t_{983} = -3.44$.001		$t_{986} = 0.49$.622		$t_{583} = 0.53$.631
that supports									
well-being	1 (2			2 45			40.00		
INO	4.62			3.45			49.88		
V	(3.58)			(0.83)			(9.11)		
Y es	5.46			3.43			49.56		
<u>01</u> 1	(3.58)	5.01		(0.77)	1 (5		(8.14)		
Sleep at least 6		$t_{782} = 5.01$	<.001		$t_{986} = -1.67$.095		$t_{775} = -6.64$	<.001
hours per night									
No	5.89			3.38			47.51		
	(3.76)			(0.80)			(8.81)		
Yes	4.71			3.47			51.09		
	(3.42)			(0.78)			(7.93)		
Move daily and often		$t_{890} = 3.82$	<.001		$t_{934} = -5.14$	<.001		$t_{986} = -9.15$	<.001
No	5.66			3.29			47.08		
	(3.82)			(0.80)			(8.35)		
Yes	4.78			3.55			51.84		
	(3.36)			(0.76)			(7.96)		
Connect with		$t_{983} =368$.71		$t_{986} = -1.91$.057		$t_{985} = -5.90$	<.001
supportive									
people	5.14			3.39			48.16		
No	(3.60)			(0.82)			(8.70)		
	5.22			3.48			51.28		
Yes	(3.60)			(0.76)			(7.92)		
Eat nutrient		$t_{976} = 5.91$	<.001		$t_{958} = -4.61$	<.001		$t_{986} = -8.03$	<.001
dense foods									
No	5.77			3.33			47.80		
	(3.76)			(0.80)			(8.27)		
Yes	4.44			3.56			52.02		
	(3.24)			(0.76)			(8.15)		

Table 3. t-tests for differences in mean levels of stressors, resilience, and well-being by individual resilience building behaviors

Note: Sample size varies from 985 to 988.

Table 4. Predictors of well-being (n = 994).

Model	Unstandardized Beta Coefficient		Standardized Beta	t statistic	p	R^2	Adjusted R^2	$F_{ m df}$	p
	b	Standard Error	Coefficient β				5	u	1
Model 1						.43	.43	$F_{6,987} = 123.78$	< .0001
(Constant)	41.086	1.861		22.074	< .0001				
Stressors	565	.246	242	-2.300	.022				
Resilience	4.151	.489	.384	8.481	< .0001				
Sexual Orientation	-5.478	2.781	252	-1.970	.049				
Stressors*Resilience	153	.070	205	-2.168	.030				
Resilience*Sexual									
Orientation	.895	.712	.138	1.257	.209				
Stressors*Sexual									
Orientation	.198	.142	.075	1.398	.163				
Model 2						.43	.43	$F_{5,988} = 148.13$	< .0001
(Constant)	40.742	1.842		22.124	.000				
Stressors	615	.243	263	-2.535	.011				
Resilience	4.229	.486	.391	8.707	< .0001				
Sexual Orientation	-2.226	1.018	103	-2.187	.029				
Stressors*Resilience	133	.069	178	-1.933	.054				
Stressors*Sexual	.146	.135	.055	1.076	.282				
Orientation									
Model 3						.43	.43	$F_{4,989} = 184.84$	< .0001
(Constant)	40.242	1.782		22.580	< .0001				
Stressors	538	.232	-0.230	-2.321	.020				
Resilience	4.319	.479	.399	9.026	.000				
Sexual Orientation	-1.294	.535	060	-2.417	.016				
Stressors*Resilience	144	.068	194	-2.129	.034				
Model 4						.43	.42	$F_{3.990} = 244.08$	< .0001
(Constant)	43.121	1.163		37.081	< .0001				
Stressors	-1.014	.063	434	-16.212	< .0001				
Resilience	3.499	.285	.323	12.291	< .0001				
Sexual Orientation	-1.324	.536	061	-2.469	.014				
Model 5						.42	.42	$F_{2,999} = 365.98$	<.0001
(Constant)	42.788	1.155		37.049	< .0001			<i>p</i>	
Stressors	-1.037	.061	443	-16.893	< .0001				
Resilience	3.559	.283	.330	12.579	< .0001				