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Individual and organisational resilience in social services

Resiliencia individual y organizacional en los Servicios Sociales

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ABSTRACT

As public protection systems, Social Services play a crucial role in promoting social cohesion, with resilience being a key factor. This study analyzes the predictive role of resilience in Social Services and its relationship to with life and work satisfaction, engagement, sense of humour, and coping strategies. Resilience is conceptualised at two levels: (i) individual resilience defined as professionals' capacity to adapt, recover, and grow after adversity; and (ii) organisational resilience, defined as agencies' capacity to sustain and restore core functions through planning and adaptive routines. Data were collected from 170 social services professionals using validated instruments (CD-RISC; BRT-53; OJSS; UWES; SWLS; CSI; MSHS). Age, years of experience, workplace and academic background were considered as covariates. Results show that resilience (individual and organisational) is strongly associated with satisfaction, adaptive coping strategies, and work engagement and, to a lesser extent, with sense of humour. These findings contribute to a better understanding of resilience processes within Social Services and their impact on the development of work-related variables, which are essential for achieving organisational goals.

RESUMEN

Como sistemas públicos de protección, los Servicios Sociales desempeñan un papel crucial en la promoción de la cohesión social, siendo la resiliencia un factor clave. Este estudio analiza el papel predictivo de la resiliencia en los Servicios Sociales y su relación con la satisfacción personal y laboral, el compromiso, el sentido del humor y las estrategias de afrontamiento. La resiliencia se conceptualiza en dos niveles: (i) resiliencia individual definida como la capacidad de los profesionales para adaptarse, recuperarse y crecer después de la adversidad; y (ii) resiliencia organizacional, definida como la capacidad de las agencias para mantener y restaurar las funciones básicas a través de la planificación y las rutinas adaptativas. Se recopilieron datos de 170 profesionales de servicios sociales utilizando instrumentos validados (CD-RISC; BRT-53; OJSS; UWES; SWLS; CSI; MSHS). La edad, los años de experiencia, el lugar de trabajo y la formación académica se consideraron como covariables. Los resultados muestran que la resiliencia (individual y

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organizacional) está fuertemente asociada con la satisfacción, las estrategias de afrontamiento adaptativas y el compromiso laboral y, en menor medida, con el sentido del humour. Estos hallazgos contribuyen a una mejor comprensión de los procesos de resiliencia dentro de los Servicios Sociales y su impacto en el desarrollo de las variables relacionadas con el trabajo, que son esenciales para el logro de los objetivos organizacionales.

Introduction

Mission and context of Social Services

In many European countries, Social Services aim to promote social cohesion and reduce social exclusion among vulnerable populations and those exposed to specific social risks, by facilitating access to protection and integration programmes (Andrews & Jilke, 2016; Madanipour & Weck, 2015). More than merely an economic gap, social exclusion is the outcome of social processes that generate a form of 'dual citizenship' (Tezanos, 1999), that is, a de facto stratification distinguishes 'insiders,' whose access to rights and resources is secured, from 'outsiders,' whose access remains precarious or unstable. This dynamic further consolidates, thus consolidating the divide between the included and the excluded.

The former are individuals who possess stable employment and/or income through which they maintain strong social and support networks. The latter, by contrast, are unemployed or engaged in precarious or unstable forms of work, which often lead to the erosion of their social relationships and support networks. Stable employment can expand heterogeneous networks and provide access to informational and material resources. However, it represents only one pathway within the broader architecture of social capital and is not sufficient on its own. We therefore interpret the employment – network relationship as contingent and context-dependent rather than strictly causal (Hellerstein & Neumark, 2020; Smith, 2010). The context in which social services operate is broad and often adverse, characterised by additional challenges such as resource shortages, obstacles that hinder coordinated action among public policymakers, and weaknesses in organisational purposes, regulatory frameworks, and management models (López-Cabanas, 2018).

Resilience as an organisational strategy

Resilience is a capacity applicable to individuals, groups and organisations and it is characterised by a positive and adaptative response to adverse or traumatic situations (Coutu, 2002; Horne & Orr, 1998). Organisational resilience is defined by members' engagement, mutual and community trust and the ability to improvise with available resources (Witmer & Mellinger, 2016). Focusing the study of organisational resilience on Social Services, – understood as public organisations operating within a social protection system – represents an innovative approach, compared to traditional studies, which primarily examine resilience in individuals affected by disasters (Bigley & Roberts, 2001; Linnenluecke et al., 2012).

The proposal by Lee et al. (2013) is a prominent reference framework in the study of organisational resilience. This proposal defines organisational resilience as the ability to continue with ordinary activities following an unforeseen and traumatic event with direct impact on the community where this organisation operates. This proposal is based on the work by McManus et al. (2007), McManus (2008) and Stephenson (2010), and advances a bifactor model of organisational resilience comprising two orthogonal and complementary dimensions.

Planning refers to the organisation's anticipatory and coordinating capacity – aligning goals and resources, codifying procedures, and rehearsing responses (e.g. strategic planning, drills, resource alignment, unity of purpose). Adaptability reflects responsive learning and organisational reconfiguration – sensing change, breaking down silos, innovating, and adjusting roles and routines (e.g. situational

awareness, innovation, collaborative problem-solving). The model is operationalised through thirteen employee-reported indicators (including leadership, decision-making, situational awareness, innovation/creativity, alliances, knowledge utilisation, internal resources, unity of purpose, proactivity, strategic planning, and participation in drills) to identify organisational strengths and gaps.

Identifying such weaknesses and strengths that can help the organisation develop strategies and improve decision making so as to develop an anticipatory approach against future potential problems that might arise in the environment. However, in the practice of social intervention resilience is sometimes seen with skepticism. Some authors consider it necessary to move from adaptive resilience models to models focused on 'radical reimagining' to promote a critical approach on reality and fight against oppressive structures (Goldberg, 2023).

Beyond individual and organisational levels, a community resilience perspective situates Social Services within broader systems of adaptive capacity. Community resilience is commonly defined as a community's ability to withstand, adapt to, and recover from environmental, economic, or social adversity through interconnected resources, including economic development, social capital, information and communication, and community competence (Magis, 2010; Norris et al., 2008). This perspective has been elaborated in studies emphasising adaptive capacities and their assessment (Sherrieb et al., 2010), as well as highlighting the policy relevance of strengthening preparedness and recovery (Chandra et al., 2011). Framing Social Services as meso-level actors clarifies how organisational routines (e.g. planning, alliances, knowledge utilisation) can translate practitioners' coping strategies into community-level benefits, while community assets and constraints, in turn, shape organisational performance.

Other variables related to resilience strategies

In addition to resilience, several other variables that play a key role in overcoming adversities and fostering the development of individual and organisational resilient strategies. Engagement is defined as a positive work-related state of fulfilment that is characterised by vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010), and is positively associated with well-being and satisfaction with life (Maricuțoiu et al., 2017). In work contexts, engagement is vital to achieving organisational goals, as it enhances both individual performance and the effectiveness of teamwork among organisational members (Bakker & Bal, 2010).

Engagement can also positively influence individual capacities such as proactivity, learning ability, creativity, sense of empowerment, and tolerance to change and crisis coping mechanisms (Parker et al., 2010). Additionally, analyzing work and life satisfaction can provide insights into organisational processes. In the context of Social Services – a field that has received limited research attention (Acker, 2018; Blanz, 2017) – such analysis can contribute to improving organisational responses to socially vulnerable populations.

In this context, coping strategies refer to the cognitive, emotional, and behavioural efforts that individuals employ to manage demands that are challenging or exceed their personal resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Lazarus and Folkman also propose the transactional model, one of the most widely accepted frameworks for studying coping strategies. This model conceptualises coping as a dynamic process situated within a specific context. This implies that the circumstances in which coping strategies are employed must always be considered to determine whether a strategy is adaptive or maladaptive. Studying coping provides insights into how social workers manage stressful situations and underscores the importance of developing resilience. Sense of humour is a personality trait that enables individuals to recognise and appreciate humour (Svebak, 1974). Empirical research highlights its significant role in facilitating communication, providing support, and enhancing work satisfaction (Decker, 1987; Swartz, 1996; Yoon & Lim, 1999). Moreover, it has been identified as a mediating variable between employees and their supervisors (Hurren, 2006), potentially contributing to higher levels of work dedication.

Method

Objectives and hypotheses

This study aims to analyze the predictive effect of resilience within organisations that providing Community Social Services, both from at individual perspective and at the organisational levels. 'Individual' refers to Social Services professionals (e.g. social workers, psychologists, case managers, and support staff), while 'organization' refers to public Community Social Service Centres funded by local councils in Málaga and Vélez-Málaga. We hypothesised positive associations between resilience (individual and organisational) and work and life satisfaction, engagement, and adaptive coping, consistent with prior evidence linking resilience to positive work outcomes.

Research on these variables within the field of Social Services remains limited. The objectives of this study were: (a) to assess the level of individual resilience and the perceptions of organisational resilience among professionals in Community Social Services; and (b) to examine the relationships between these variables (individual resilience and organisational resilience) in the organisation and other positive constructs, including work engagement, work and life satisfaction,, sense of humour and coping strategies.

Two hypotheses were suggested: (1) individual resilience is positively associated with work and life satisfaction, engagement, sense of humour and adaptive coping strategies; and (2) organisational resilience is positively associated with work and life satisfaction, engagement, sense of humour and adaptive coping strategies. [Figure 1](#) shows the diagram of the theoretical relationships. We expected positive associations between individual and organisational resilience and work and life satisfaction, engagement, and adaptive coping. This expectation is grounded in theoretical frameworks that conceptualise resilience as a capacity for resource mobilisation and adaptation under strain, as well as in empirical studies demonstrating consistent links between resilience and favourable work outcomes, including engagement.

Participants

The study was conducted in various Community Social Service Centres, funded by the local councils of Málaga and the Council of Vélez-Málaga, with participation from staff across different roles, including assistant technicians, managers, and support personnel. A total of 170 participants were included, comprising 125 from Málaga and 45 from Vélez-Málaga. Data were collected in public Community Social Service Centres under both administrations. Following a standardised information

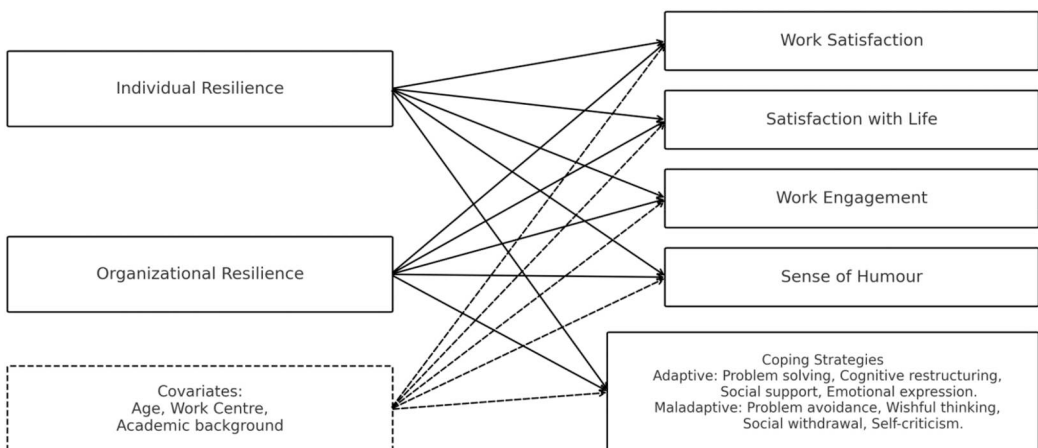


Figure 1. Diagram of theoretical relationships.

session at each site, all staff members were invited to participate, resulting in a sampling approach approximating a convenience census of the active workforce.

For participation estimates, the population was defined as all active professionals assigned to Social Services in Málaga (N = 412) and Vélez-Málaga (N = 56) during the data collection period. We received 125 and 45 completed questionnaires, respectively, yielding response rates of 30.3% for Málaga and 80.4% for Vélez-Málaga, and an overall response rate of 36.3% (170/468). [Table 1](#) presents the sociodemographic characteristics of the participants.

Procedure

Data were collected using a statistical survey web application (Limesurvey) incorporating multiple questionnaires. Participants provided standard sociodemographic information, including age and sex, as well as professional information such as field, role, and assigned section or programme. The instruments included in the web application measured the study variables, and appropriate procedures were implemented to ensure participants understood the study's objective and purpose, including a standardised informative session and the option to contact the researchers with any questions. All data were gathered anonymously.

Ethical considerations

The study was approved by the University of Málaga Research Ethics Committee (CEUMA-40-2016-H), with participation being voluntary and anonymous. Before accessing the questionnaires, participants were presented with an information page outlining the study's aims, procedures, data use, and confidentiality measures, and provided electronic informed consent via a required checkbox to proceed. Participants could withdraw at any time by closing the survey without submitting their responses. All data were stored securely and analyzed in aggregate form only.

Instruments

Benchmark Resilience Tool (BRT-53)

Following Lee et al. (2013), the 13 organisational indicators were grouped into two higher-order dimensions: Adaptation (innovation and creativity, breaking down silos, decision-making, situational awareness, effective alliances, use of knowledge, and proactive stance) and Planning (leadership, commitment, internal resources, unity of purpose, strategic planning, and participation in drills).

Table 1. Sociodemographic characteristics of the sample.

Characteristic	Value
Sex	Women 137 (80.6%) Men 33 (19.4%)
Age (years)	Mean 41.0 (range 23–63) Distribution: ≤29: 41 (24.1%) 30–39: 25 (14.7%) 40–49: 54 (31.8%) 50–59: 48 (28.2%) ≥60: 2 (1.2%)
Years in Social Services	Mean 8.0 (range 0–32)
Education (highest degree)	Social Work 88 (51.8%); Psychology 12 (7.1%); Social Education 7 (4.1%); Pedagogy 3 (1.8%); Law 3 (1.8%); Teacher 10 (5.9%); Other university 22 (12.9%); Vocational – Higher 8 (4.7%); Vocational – Intermediate 7 (4.1%); Baccalaureate 6 (3.5%); Compulsory Secondary 4 (2.4%)
Role	Assistant technicians, managers, support staff (<i>detail not reported</i>)
Municipality / Centre	Málaga 125 (73.5%); Vélez-Málaga 45 (26.5%)

Note. Percentages are calculated over **N = 170**. Minor rounding differences may occur. 'Role' categories were not collected in detail.

For each subscale, item scores were averaged, and the Adaptation and Planning scores were computed as the mean of their constituent subscales. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) for the overall scale was $\alpha = 0.972$.

Satisfaction with Work Scale (OJSS)

Participants' overall work satisfaction was measured using the questionnaire developed by Warr et al. (1979), in its Spanish-adapted and validated version by Pérez Bilbao and Fidalgo Vera (1993). This scale is based on Herzberg's intrinsic and extrinsic factors and is operationalised through 15 items. In the present study, the reliability of the instrument, assessed using internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha), was $\alpha = 0.889$.

Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES)

The Work Engagement Scale, developed by Schaufeli et al. (2002), is a well-established instrument for assessing this construct. Originally comprising 17 items, the 15-item version (Salanova et al., 2000), effectively captures its three dimensions: vigour, dedication and absorption, using Likert-scale items. Example items (paraphrased): 'I feel full of energy at work' (vigour), 'My work inspires me' (dedication), and 'Time flies when I am working because I am fully absorbed' (absorption). Extremera et al. (2012) demonstrated that this scale exhibits good psychometric properties – including reliability, factor structure, and factorial invariance – across a diverse sample of professionals from personal services, educational services, and public administration. In the present study, the reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was $\alpha = 0.935$.

Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC)

The Connor – Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC; Connor & Davidson, 2003) is a multidimensional instrument comprising 25 items grouped into five factors: personal competence, trust in one's instincts, tolerance of adversity, positive acceptance of change, and spiritual control and influence. The scale demonstrates strong psychometric properties, effectively differentiating individuals with high and low resilience, with higher scores indicating greater resilience. In the present study, the reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was $\alpha = 0.906$.

Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS)

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985), used in its Spanish version (Atienza & Pons, 2002; Pons et al., 2002), is a brief, unidimensional instrument that assesses the global cognitive appraisal of one's life. The scale comprises five items rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree), yielding total scores from 5 to 35, with higher scores indicating greater life satisfaction. In the present sample, internal consistency was $\alpha = 0.833$. Prior research has demonstrated good reliability and temporal stability, as well as convergent validity with subjective well-being indices and negative associations with distress indicators, supporting its use as a measure of global life satisfaction rather than an affective or domain-specific index. Scoring involves simple summation without reverse-coded items, facilitating interpretation and comparability across studies. Coping Strategies Inventory (CSI)

The Spanish version of the Coping Strategies Inventory (CSI), developed by Cano García et al. (2007), was used to assess participants' coping strategies, based on the reduced version suggested by Tobin et al. (1989). This scale comprises eight primary subscales: problem solving, cognitive restructuring, social support, emotional expression, wishful thinking, self-criticism, problem avoidance, and social withdrawal. Consistent with prior research and our a priori conceptual framework, adaptive coping was operationalised as problem solving, emotional expression, cognitive restructuring, and social support (active, approach-oriented strategies), while non-adaptive (maladaptive) coping included wishful thinking, self-criticism, problem avoidance (i.e. avoidance/disengagement), and social withdrawal. The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) for the adaptive coping composite was $\alpha = 0.864$.

Multidimensional Sense of Humour Scale (MSHS)

Sense of humour was assessed using the Multidimensional Sense of Humour Scale (MSHS; Thorson & Powell, 1991), adapted to Spanish by Carbelo-Barquero (2006). The scale is structured along three dimensions: (1) competence, or the ability to use humour; (2) humour as a mechanism for situational control; and (3) social appreciation of humour and humour-related behaviours. In the present study, the reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) was $\alpha = 0.914$.

Analysis

Frequency and descriptive analyses, as well as mean differences, were conducted to examine participants' sociodemographic variables. As a robustness check, we assessed whether the sample was reasonably homogeneous across key characteristics – age, years of professional experience, academic background, and workplace – to ensure that resilience, sense of humour, and coping strategies functioned similarly across participants. Normality within groups was evaluated using the Shapiro – Wilk test, and homogeneity of variances was assessed with Levene's test. When necessary, findings were verified using robust tests (Welch). Analyses of age and years of professional experience were conducted first, followed by comparisons according to academic degree and workplace using one-way ANOVAs for each outcome: individual resilience, organisational resilience, work engagement, work satisfaction, life satisfaction, and the coping subscales.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested using multiple regression analyses, with Individual Resilience (H1) and Organisational Resilience (H2) acting as independent variables.

Dependent variables included work satisfaction, life satisfaction, engagement, coping strategies, and sense of humour. In both cases, MANCOVA analyses were conducted to examine whether the pattern of dependent variables differed between the two centres. The effects of the two dimensions of organisational resilience – adaptation and planning – on the dependent variables were also examined using multiple regression. Finally, sense of humour was treated as an independent variable in a separate multiple regression analysis. All analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics, version 28.

Results

Descriptive and preliminary analyses

As it is shown in Table 1, the total sample of 170 social services professionals comprised 19% men and 81% women. The average age was 41 years (range: 23–63), and participants had an average of 8 years of experience in social services (range: 0–32). Regarding educational background, 52% held degrees in Social Work and 7% in Psychology, while the remaining participants had other university or vocational training qualifications.

Significant differences were found in the average scores of individual resilience, with participants under 40 showing higher levels ($M = 75.52$, $t = -3.130$, $p < 0.05$) than those over 40 ($M = 69.62$). Regarding organisational resilience, no significant differences were found. Differences between participants based on the number of years they had worked in the centre were also analyzed.

Significant differences were found in participants' individual resilience levels, with those who had been working for less than 15 years showing higher scores ($M = 73.25$, $t = -2.624$, $p < 0.05$) than those who had worked in the centre for more than 15 years ($M = 67.53$). No significant differences were obtained in organisational resilience. Table 2 shows correlations between Individual Resilience, Organisational Resilience, Age and Years of experience. A significant negative correlation was found between Age and Individual Resilience, and between Years of experience and Individual Resilience, where older participants with longer work experience showed lower individual resilience levels. The correlation between Organisational Resilience and Age and Years of experience was not significant.

Next, outcomes were compared by academic background using one-way ANOVAs (Table 3). Consistent with the main analyses, individual resilience, organisational resilience, and coping subscales

Table 2. Inter-correlations between individual resilience, organisational resilience, age and years of experience.

	Age	Years of experience
Age	1	
Years of experience	.788**	1
Organisational Resilience	-.139	-.137
Individual Resilience	-.260**	-.172*

** . Significant correlation (Pearson) at 0.01 (bilateral).

* . Significant correlation (Pearson) at 0.05 (bilateral).

did not differ significantly across academic backgrounds. The only significant between-group difference was observed for work satisfaction, which was higher in the non – Social Work group.

Finally, outcomes were compared by work centre (see Table 4). In Málaga (n = 125), several variables exhibited deviations from normality (e.g. problem solving, self-criticism, emotional expression, social withdrawal, engagement, and organisational resilience), whereas in Vélez (n = 45), distributions were generally closer to normal (most p's > .05). However, skewness and kurtosis coefficients for both centres remained within the ± 1 range, indicating approximately symmetric distributions. To minimise the impact of assumption violations, between-centre comparisons were conducted using Student's t-tests with Welch correction when heteroscedasticity was detected.

Differences between Málaga (n = 125) and Vélez (n = 45) were further examined through one-way ANOVAs with Welch's robust correction and verification of homogeneity of variances via Levene's test. Most variables met the homogeneity of variance assumption (Levene's $p > .05$), except for *Engagement* (Levene's $F(1,168) = 5.68$, $p = .018$), for which Welch's corrected results were also reported. Participants in Vélez exhibited higher mean scores than those in Málaga for *Problem Solving* ($F(1,168) = 9.28$, $p = .003$; Welch $p = .002$), *Cognitive Restructuring* ($F(1,168) = 4.16$, $p = .043$; Welch $p = .031$), *Individual Resilience* ($F(1,168) = 5.34$, $p = .022$; Welch $p = .014$), *Engagement* ($F(1,168) = 7.17$, $p = .008$; Welch $p = .002$), *Organizational Resilience* ($F(1,168) = 7.56$, $p = .007$; Welch $p = .003$), and *Satisfaction with Work* ($F(1,168) = 11.99$, $p < .001$; Welch $p < .001$). No significant differences were found for *Self-criticism*, *Emotional Expression*, *Desiderative Thinking*, *Social Support*, *Problem Avoidance*, *Social Withdrawal*, *Sense of Humor*, or *Satisfaction with Life* ($F(1,168) = 3.85$, $p = .051$; Welch $p = .052$). Effect sizes (η^2) ranged from .02 to .07, indicating small to moderate effects.

As reported above, individual resilience showed small negative associations with age and experience, whereas organisational resilience showed no significant relationship with either variable. However, significant differences between work centres were observed across several outcome variables. Consequently, subsequent analyses controlled for work centre to account for potential contextual effects and to ensure that the associations between resilience and the dependent variables were not confounded by site-related differences.

Table 3. Differences between participants with a social work background and those with non – social work backgrounds.

	SW (M $\pm$ DT)	Else (M $\pm$ DT)	F(1,168)	p	η^2
Organisational Resilience	209.63 $\pm$ 34.80	217.59 $\pm$ 37.07	2.09	.151	.012
Individual Resilience	70.47 $\pm$ 13.10	73.45 $\pm$ 11.22	2.53	.114	.015
Satisfaction with Work	62.15 $\pm$ 13.74	67.15 $\pm$ 14.07	5.49	.020	.032
Satisfaction with Life	5.33 $\pm$ 0.88	5.11 $\pm$ 0.98	2.38	.125	.014
Engagement	72.73 $\pm$ 15.56	74.06 $\pm$ 15.74	0.31	.579	.002
Sense of Humour	84.08 $\pm$ 13.31	85.74 $\pm$ 11.80	0.74	.391	.004
Problem Solving	19.06 $\pm$ 3.72	19.07 $\pm$ 3.67	0.00	.977	<.001
Cognitive Restructuring	16.42 $\pm$ 4.10	16.67 $\pm$ 4.12	0.16	.692	.001
Social Support	16.90 $\pm$ 4.92	17.15 $\pm$ 4.63	0.12	.735	.001
Self-criticism	10.80 $\pm$ 4.63	11.10 $\pm$ 4.76	0.18	.675	.001
Emotional Expression	15.76 $\pm$ 4.09	15.06 $\pm$ 4.48	1.14	.288	.007
Desiderative Thinking	16.65 $\pm$ 4.81	15.79 $\pm$ 4.38	1.46	.229	.009
Problem Avoidance	12.85 $\pm$ 4.06	12.51 $\pm$ 3.79	0.32	.574	.002
Social Withdrawal	10.97 $\pm$ 3.82	11.67 $\pm$ 4.18	1.32	.252	.008

Table 4. Differences according to the work centre.

	Málaga M (SD)	Vélez M (SD)	F(1,168)	<i>p</i>	Welch <i>p</i>	η^2	Hedges <i>g</i>
Organisational Resilience	208.99 (37.26)	225.89 (29.27)	7.56	.007	.003	.043	0.48
Individual Resilience	70.62 (12.61)	75.49 (10.64)	5.34	.022	.014	.031	0.40
Satisfaction with Work	62.38 (13.59)	70.60 (13.82)	11.99	<.001	<.001	.067	0.60
Satisfaction with Life	5.14 (0.93)	5.45 (0.91)	3.85	.051	.052	.022	0.34
Engagement	71.48 (16.39)	78.62 (11.89)	7.17	.008	.002	.041	0.46
Sense of Humour	84.46 (12.70)	86.04 (12.37)	0.52	.472	.468	.003	0.12
Problem Solving	18.56 (3.72)	20.47 (3.23)	9.28	.003	.002	.052	0.53
Cognitive Restructuring	16.16 (4.21)	17.60 (3.61)	4.16	.043	.031	.024	0.35
Social Support	16.86 (4.72)	17.47 (4.93)	0.54	.463	.474	.003	0.13
Self-criticism	10.97 (4.53)	10.87 (5.12)	0.02	.901	.907	.000	0.02
Emotional Expression	15.59 (4.36)	14.96 (4.07)	0.73	.394	.380	.004	0.15
Desiderative Thinking	15.94 (4.52)	17.07 (4.82)	2.00	.160	.175	.012	0.25
Problem Avoidance	12.53 (3.88)	13.13 (4.05)	0.79	.376	.388	.005	0.15
Social Withdrawal	11.30 (4.14)	11.31 (3.63)	0.00	.992	.991	.000	0.00

Hypothesis 1: Individual Resilience

Results indicate that Individual Resilience is a significant positive predictor of *Satisfaction with Work* ($R = .43$, $R^2 = .18$, $F(1,168) = 37.94$, $p < .001$, $t = 6.16$), *Satisfaction with Life* ($R = .49$, $R^2 = .24$, $F(1,168) = 52.80$, $p < .001$, $t = 7.27$), *Engagement* ($R = .59$, $R^2 = .35$, $F(1,168) = 88.50$, $p < .001$, $t = 9.41$), *Sense of Humor* ($R = .30$, $R^2 = .09$, $F(1,168) = 16.19$, $p < .001$, $t = 4.02$), and *Problem Solving* ($R = .45$, $R^2 = .20$, $F(1,168) = 43.15$, $p < .001$, $t = 6.57$).

In contrast, individual resilience was negatively associated with *Self-Criticism* ($R = .20$, $R^2 = .04$, $F(1,168) = 6.75$, $p = .010$, $t = -2.60$) and *Social Withdrawal* ($R = .23$, $R^2 = .05$, $F(1,168) = 9.51$, $p = .002$, $t = -3.08$), indicating that higher resilience was linked to lower levels of these maladaptive coping strategies.

Non-significant effects were observed for *Emotional Expression* ($R = .11$, $R^2 = .01$, $F(1,168) = 2.00$, $p = .159$), *Desiderative Thinking* ($R = .01$, $R^2 < .001$, $F(1,168) = 0.02$, $p = .886$), and *Problem Avoidance* ($R = .04$, $R^2 = .001$, $F(1,168) = 0.22$, $p = .639$).

Finally, resilience also predicted higher scores in *Social Support* ($R = .29$, $R^2 = .09$, $F(1,168) = 15.84$, $p < .001$, $t = 3.98$) and *Cognitive Restructuring* ($R = .36$, $R^2 = .13$, $F(1,168) = 25.60$, $p < .001$, $t = 5.06$).

Overall, these findings indicate that higher individual resilience is consistently associated with greater well-being, work engagement, and adaptive coping strategies, while being inversely related to self-criticism and withdrawal tendencies (see Table 5). These results support Hypothesis 1.

A MANCOVA was conducted to examine whether the pattern of dependent variables differed between work centres after controlling for *Individual Resilience* (see Table 6). The analysis revealed a strong multivariate association between resilience and the combined outcomes (Pillai's Trace

Table 5. Lineal regression model with individual resilience acting as predictive variable.

	R	R ²	t	F
Satisfaction with Work	0.429	0.184	6.159**	37.937**
Satisfaction with Life	0.489	0.239	7.266**	52.801**
Engagement	0.587	0.345	9.408**	88.503**
Sense of Humour	0.296	0.088	4.023*	16.187**
Problem Solving	0.452	0.204	6.569**	43.154**
Self-criticism	0.197	0.039	-2.598*	6.750*
Emotional Expression	0.109	0.012	1.415	2.003
Desiderative Thinking	0.011	0.000	0.143	0.020
Social Support	0.294	0.086	3.980**	15.842**
Cognitive Restructuring	0.364	0.132	5.059**	25.597**
Problem Avoidance	0.036	0.001	0.470	0.221
Social Withdrawal	0.231	0.054	-3.084*	9.510*

**. Significant correlation at 0.01 (bilateral)

*. Significant correlation at 0.05 (bilateral).

Table 6. Multivariate tests of the effects of work centre and individual resilience (MANCOVA).

	Pillai	F	Hyp. df	Error df	<i>p</i>
Centre of work	0.113	1.649	12	156	.083
Individual Resilience	0.525	14.365	12	156	<.001

= .525, $F(12,156) = 14.37$, $p < .001$), whereas the multivariate effect of work centre was not significant (Pillai's Trace = .113, $F(12,156) = 1.65$, $p = .083$).

Follow-up ANCOVAs indicated that higher resilience was associated with greater work engagement, work and life satisfaction, problem solving, cognitive restructuring, social support, and sense of humour, as well as lower social withdrawal (all $ps \leq .010$; partial $\eta^2 \approx .04 - .33$). After adjusting for resilience, differences between work centres remained significant only for problem solving ($F(1,167) = 4.98$, $p = .027$, partial $\eta^2 \approx .03$) and work satisfaction ($F(1,167) = 7.37$, $p = .007$, partial $\eta^2 \approx .04$); all other outcomes were non-significant (see Table 7).

Hypothesis 2: Organisational Resilience

Results showed that organisational resilience was a strong and positive predictor of *Satisfaction with Work* ($R = .76$, $R^2 = .58$, $F(1,168) = 229.59$, $p < .001$, $t = 15.15$), as well as a significant predictor of *Engagement* ($R = .50$, $R^2 = .25$, $F(1,168) = 55.02$, $p < .001$, $t = 7.42$), *Satisfaction with Life* ($R = .27$, $R^2 = .07$, $F(1,168) = 12.82$, $p < .001$, $t = 3.58$), and *Cognitive Restructuring* ($R = .27$, $R^2 = .07$, $F(1,168) = 13.07$, $p < .001$, $t = 3.62$). A smaller but significant effect was also observed for *Problem Solving* ($R = .21$, $R^2 = .05$, $F(1,168) = 8.04$, $p = .005$, $t = 2.84$), indicating that individuals working in more resilient organisations tended to report higher levels of active and adaptive coping. No significant effects were found for *Sense of Humor* ($R = .12$, $R^2 = .01$, $F(1,168) = 2.26$, $p = .135$), *Self-Criticism* ($R = .06$, $R^2 = .003$, $F(1,168) = 0.59$, $p = .444$), *Emotional Expression* ($R = .01$, $R^2 = .000$, $F(1,168) = 0.01$, $p = .912$), *Desiderative Thinking* ($R = .08$, $R^2 = .006$, $F(1,168) = 1.04$, $p = .309$), *Social Support* ($R = .12$, $R^2 = .02$, $F(1,168) = 2.59$, $p = .109$), *Problem Avoidance* ($R = .07$, $R^2 = .005$, $F(1,168) = 0.88$, $p = .349$), and *Social Withdrawal* ($R = .05$, $R^2 = .002$, $F(1,168) = 0.37$, $p = .544$).

Overall, these findings suggest that organisational resilience accounts for a substantial proportion of the variance in work satisfaction and engagement, and it shows moderate associations with life satisfaction and adaptive cognitive coping, while exhibiting little relation to emotional or avoidant coping dimensions (see Table 8).

A second MANCOVA was conducted to examine whether the pattern of dependent variables differed between the two work centres after controlling for organisational resilience (see Table 9). The analysis revealed a strong multivariate effect of organisational resilience on the combined outcomes (Pillai's Trace = .608, $F(12,156) = 20.18$, $p < .001$), whereas the multivariate effect of work centre was not significant (Pillai's Trace = .101, $F(12,156) = 1.46$, $p = .144$).

Table 7. Univariate ANCOVAs adjusted for individual Resilience as covariate; Work centre as fixed factor.

	Work Centre F	<i>p</i>	partial η^2	Individual Resilienc F	<i>p</i>	partial η^2
Engagement	2.634	.107	.016	81.390	<.001	.328
Satisfaction with work	7.369	.007	.042	32.502	<.001	.163
Satisfaction with life	0.927	.337	.006	48.763	<.001	.226
Problem solving	4.980	.027	.029	37.843	<.001	.185
Cognitive restructuring	1.683	.196	.010	22.688	<.001	.120
Social support	0.005	.944	.000	15.166	<.001	.083
Sense of humour	0.002	.962	.000	15.529	<.001	.085
Self-criticism	0.111	.739	.001	6.809	.010	.039
Social withdrawal	0.313	.577	.002	9.784	.002	.055
Emotional expression	1.264	.262	.008	2.534	.113	.015
Wishful thinking	1.975	.162	.012	0.011	.916	.000
Problem avoidance	0.664	.416	.004	0.102	.750	.001

Notes. All tests are adjusted for the covariate in the model. Report effect sizes as partial η^2 .

Table 8. Lineal regression model with organisational resilience acting as predictive variable.

	R	R ²	t	F
Satisfaction with Work	0.760	0.577	15.152**	229.591**
Satisfaction with Life	0.266	0.071	3.580**	12.817**
Engagement	0.497	0.247	7.417**	55.018**
Sense of Humour	0.115	0.013	1.503	2.259
Problem Solving	0.214	0.046	2.835*	8.036*
Self-criticism	0.059	0.003	-0.766	0.587
Emotional Expression	0.009	0.000	0.111	0.012
Desiderative Thinking	0.079	0.006	1.021	1.043
Social Support	0.123	0.015	1.610	2.594
Cognitive Restructuring	0.269	0.072	3.615**	13.065**
Problem Avoidance	0.072	0.005	0.940	0.883
Social Withdrawal	0.047	0.002	0.608	0.370

** . Significant correlation at 0.01 (bilateral).

* . Significant correlation at 0.05 (bilateral).

Table 9. Multivariate tests of the effects of work centre and organisational resilience (MANCOVA).

	Pillai	F	Hyp. df	Error df	p
Work Centre	0.101	1.462	12	156	.144
Organisational Resilience	0.608	20.177	12	156	<.001

Follow-up ANCOVAs indicated that higher organisational resilience was associated with greater work satisfaction (partial $\eta^2 \approx .56$), work engagement (partial $\eta^2 \approx .23$), life satisfaction and cognitive restructuring (partial $\eta^2 \approx .06$), and, to a lesser extent, problem solving (partial $\eta^2 \approx .03$). After adjusting for organisational resilience, differences between work centres remained significant only for problem solving ($F(1,167) = 6.46$, $p = .012$, partial $\eta^2 \approx .04$) and work satisfaction ($F(1,167) = 4.27$, $p = .040$, partial $\eta^2 \approx .03$); all other outcomes were non-significant (See Table 10).

Finally, the effects of both dimensions of organisational resilience on the dependent variables were examined using multiple regression analyses (see Table 11). Both Adaptation and Planning showed strong and significant predictive power for Satisfaction with Work ($R = .733$, $R^2 = .538$, $t = 13.985$, $F = 195.588$, $p < .01$; and $R = .727$, $R^2 = .529$, $t = 13.735$, $F = 188.644$, $p < .01$, respectively). Similarly, both dimensions significantly predicted life satisfaction, although the proportion of explained variance was modest ($R^2 \approx .066$, $p < .01$).

For work engagement, both predictors were significant, with Planning ($R^2 = .283$) explaining a greater variance than Adaptation ($R^2 = .193$). Similarly, both dimensions significantly predicted problem solving and cognitive restructuring, with Planning again accounting for more variance ($R^2 = .059$ and $R^2 = .087$, respectively) compared to Adaptation ($R^2 = .030$ and $R^2 = .055$).

No significant predictive effects were observed for Sense of Humour, Self-criticism, Emotional Expression, Desiderative Thinking, Social Support, Problem Avoidance, or Social Withdrawal.

Table 10. Univariate ANCOVAs adjusted for individual resilience as covariate; Work centre as fixed factor

	Work Centre F	p	partial η^2	Organisational Resilience F	p	partial η^2
Engagement	2.316	.130	.014	48.559	<.001	.225
Satisfaction with work	4.271	.040	.025	211.324	<.001	.559
Satisfaction with life	1.691	.195	.010	10.494	.001	.059
Problem solving	6.461	.012	.037	5.245	.023	.030
Cognitive restructuring	1.890	.171	.011	10.627	.001	.060
Social support	0.171	.679	.001	2.207	.139	.013
Sense of humour	0.177	.675	.001	1.903	.170	.011
Self-criticism	0.001	.972	.000	0.570	.451	.003
Social withdrawal	0.014	.906	.000	0.381	.538	.002
Emotional expression	0.800	.372	.005	0.087	.769	.001
Wishful thinking	1.502	.222	.009	0.556	.457	.003
Problem avoidance	0.499	.481	.003	0.595	.442	.004

Table 11. Lineal regression model with adaptation and planning acting as predictive variables.

	Adaptation				Planning			
	R	R ²	t	F	R	R ²	t	F
Satisfaction with Work	.733	.538	13.985**	195.588**	.727	.529	13.735**	188.644**
Satisfaction with Life	.257	.066	3.442**	11.846**	.255	.065	3.424**	11.725**
Engagement	.439	.193	6.330**	40.068**	.532	.283	8.150**	66.423**
Sense of Humour	.120	.014	1.561	2.436	.095	.009	1.235	1.526
Problem Solving	.174	.030	2.296*	5.270*	.242	.059	3.234**	10.461**
Self-criticism	.028	.001	-.369	.136	.090	.008	-1.174	1.378
Emotional Expression	.027	.001	.346	.120	.017	.000	-.224	.050
Desiderative Thinking	.074	.006	.965	.074	.073	.005	.950	.903
Social Support	.120	.015	1.573	2.473	.111	.012	1.446	2.092
Cognitive Restructuring	.234	.055	3.118**	9.724**	.295	.087	4.004**	16.030**
Problem Avoidance	.101	.010	1.310	1.717	.029	.001	.376	.141
Social Withdrawal	.070	.005	.916	.838	.016	.000	.207	.043

** . Significant correlation at 0.01 (bilateral).

* . Significant correlation at 0.05 (bilateral).

Note: Predictors are the two higher-order dimensions of BRT-53 (Adaptation, Planning)

Overall, the results suggest that Adaptation and Planning – the two higher-order dimensions of the BRT-53 – are particularly relevant for predicting work-related outcomes (work satisfaction and engagement) and adaptive coping strategies (problem solving and cognitive restructuring).

Exploratory analysis: Sense of Humour

Because the variable *Sense of Humor* did not yield significant results in earlier analyses and in light of studies such as Evans-Palmer (2010), it was studied as an independent variable. To this end, an exploratory set of regressions was conducted, treating sense of humour as a predictor of key outcomes: life satisfaction, work engagement, problem solving, emotional expression, and social support (see Table 12). The results indicate that *Sense of Humor* significantly predicts these outcomes, explaining 5% of the variance in life satisfaction, 6% in work engagement, 16% in problem-solving, 8% in emotional expression, 11% in social support.

Discussion

The results of the study highlight the significant predictive role of resilience – both individual and organisational – and its relationship with work satisfaction, engagement, and life satisfaction among social service professionals. These findings support the two hypotheses proposed and are consistent with previous research demonstrating a positive relationship between resilience and engagement, with resilience facilitating the ability to overcome difficulties and adapt to adverse

Table 12. Linear regression model with the predictor variable sense of humour.

	R	R ²	t	F
Satisfaction with work	.125	.016	1.629	2.653
Satisfaction with life	.215	.046	2.860*	8.179*
Engagement	.248	.062	3.319**	11.014**
Problem-solving	.402	.162	5.689**	32.362**
Self-criticism	.116	.014	-1.517	2.302
Emotional expression	.279	.078	3.773**	14.236**
Desiderative thinking	.151	.023	1.983	3.933
Social support	.335	.112	4.601**	21.171**
Cognitive Restructuring	.161	.026	2.111	4.455
Problem avoidance	.081	.007	1.051	1.104
Social withdrawal	.136	.019	-1.780	3.170

** . The correlation is significant at 0.01 (bilateral).

* . The correlation is significant at 0.05 (bilateral).

work situations (Menezes de Lucena Carvalho et al., 2006; Strümpfer, 2003). This association aligns with the engagement dimensions proposed by Schaufeli et al. (2002), particularly highlighting the link between resilience and vigour.

Adaptive coping strategies (problem-solving, social support and cognitive restructuring) also have been seen to have a positive impact on resilience building, not explained by maladaptive strategies. Results from this study show the active role played by coping strategies in adverse contexts and situations that require overcoming stressful situations (Campbell-Sills et al., 2006). According to theoretical models of proactive coping (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; Schwarzer & Taubert, 2002), this type of strategies can help identify objectives and opportunities to improve the organisation (Schwarzer & Knoll, 2003). Regarding the sense of humour variable, no significant correlations were found in its relationship with individual resilience. This finding contradicts other studies, such as the one carried out by Edward (2005), where identified sense of humour as an element that promotes resilience, along with other variables such as creativity and flexibility in the workplace.

In multivariate terms, work centre does not account for global differences once covariates are controlled (Pillai = .101, $F(12,156) = 1.46$, $p = .144$), whereas Organisational Resilience shows a strong global effect across the dependent variables (Pillai = .608, $F = 20.18$, $p < .001$). This pattern is corroborated in univariate analyses: centre effects emerge only for Problem-solving ($F = 6.46$, $p = .012$, $\eta^2 p \approx .037$) and Job satisfaction ($F = 4.27$, $p = .040$, $\eta^2 p \approx .025$), with small effect sizes – suggesting circumscribed local variation rather than a systemic divergence between sites. By contrast, Organisational Resilience exhibits a very large effect on Job satisfaction ($F = 211.32$, $\eta^2 p \approx .559$) and a large effect on Engagement ($F = 48.56$, $\eta^2 p \approx .225$), as well as moderate effects on Life satisfaction and Cognitive restructuring ($\eta^2 p \approx .059 - .060$) and a small effect on Problem-solving ($\eta^2 p \approx .030$). Taken together, the evidence indicates that organisational resources, practices, and climates – captured by meso-level resilience – constitute the principal explanatory vector for well-being and performance outcomes, outweighing differences attributable to centre. This directs interpretation toward organisational levers (e.g. procedures, leadership, learning, and support) as priority targets for improvement, while de-emphasising territorial location.

In parallel, individual resilience is consistently associated with a broader range of outcomes, capturing within-centre (between-person) variability in engagement, satisfaction, and coping. Without making causal claims, the findings are consistent with a multilevel logic: organisational factors shift the team average (explaining between-site differences), whereas individual factors account for dispersion within sites. Applied implications follow: to raise average engagement and satisfaction, prioritise organisational interventions (leadership enhancement, clarity of purpose, planning, learning, alliances); to reduce within-centre disparities, complement with individual-level programmes (training in coping, emotion regulation, social support, and personal resilience resources).

At the practitioner level, these findings suggest concrete strategies to sustain engagement and satisfaction. Problem-solving can be incorporated into case reviews – for example, by breaking complex cases into actionable steps with time-bound goals. Social support can be fostered through brief peer or supervisory debriefings following demanding encounters. Cognitive restructuring can be encouraged via short reflective prompts during supervision to help reframe stressors without minimising associated risks. When these adaptive strategies are normalised and routinised, professionals are better able to maintain vigour and recover after periods of high demand, consistent with proactive coping models. The results also indicate that older individuals tend to exhibit lower levels of individual resilience, a pattern observed in previous research (Croghan et al., 2021; Luceño-Moreno et al., 2022; Martínez Arriaga et al., 2021), where younger groups showed higher levels of individual resilience. However, this relationship was not significant for the variable ‘organizational resilience,’ which does not align with other studies that do show higher levels of organisational resilience in workers with more experience (Oliveira & Sala Escarabill, 2021). This issue could be explained by considering some organisational circumstances. Members of younger age and less professional experience, in the early years of joining the

organisation, may be assigned tasks with a higher care and relational burden, exposing them to and interacting with higher levels of suffering. This exposure could lead to a greater development of resilience compared to workers with more professional experience, who occupy management and/or leadership positions within the organisation.

To this consideration, it should be added that high levels of resilience could be an inherent characteristic of the professions included in the study (all related to the field of social intervention), where the university training period plays a significant role (Palma-García & Hombrados-Mendieta, 2014). In this context, the decrease in resilience may not be determined by age but by the lack of specific training (Saavedra Guajardo & Villalta Paucar, 2008).

Work satisfaction remains a relatively underexplored area in research, particularly within helping professions such as Social Services. Previous studies have focused primarily on specific population groups and on analyzing causal relationships between variables (Hombrados-Mendieta & Cosano-Rivas, 2013; Kalliath & Kalliath, 2013; Lizano & Mor Barak, 2015). In the present study, the observed relationships and levels of work satisfaction are consistent with those reported in prior research (Lizano, 2021; Díaz Sánchez & Barra Almagiá, 2017; Larson & Luthans, 2016).

It is also important to note that professionals' self-perception and levels of resilience can contribute to higher life satisfaction, greater work satisfaction and increased work engagement, as indicated by the results of this study. Similar to individual resilience, organisational outcomes in social services are influenced by factors such as resource availability, quality of planning, information management, leadership, organisational culture, human capital, cooperation strategies, and work networks (Lee et al., 2013; Salanova et al., 2012). How an organisation manages these factors and resources has a significant impact on its members' satisfaction – particularly work satisfaction – and their engagement.

At the organisational level, resilience routines facilitate adaptive coping and reduce its associated costs for staff. Along the Planning dimension, clarifying recovery priorities, maintaining updated contingency procedures, and conducting periodic scenario-based drills help minimise ambiguity during periods of high demand. Along the Adaptability dimension, knowledge-sharing across teams, reducing silos, responsive leadership, and inter-agency alliances accelerate problem identification and workload redistribution. These routines establish predictable strategies for managing recurrent stressors, supporting both engagement and work satisfaction while ensuring continuity of services. In sum, aligning practitioner coping with organisational routines is a key mechanism through which resilience translates into improved outcomes for both staff and agencies.

From a community-resilience perspective, our results suggest that enhancing planning and adaptability at the organisational level can strengthen practitioners' adaptive coping while supporting continuity of care and community recovery. Planning routines – such as hazard anticipation, clear recovery priorities, and scenario-based drills – and adaptability mechanisms – including cross-team knowledge sharing, reduced silos, responsive leadership, and inter-agency alliances – are consistent with evidence on comprehensive preparedness and post-disaster recovery, as well as with policy strategies that help shorten recovery periods. (Chandra et al., 2011). Translation to community outcomes is likely moderated by context – poverty, structural inequities, fragmented social capital – highlighting the need for collaboration and empowerment (Murray & Zautra, 2012), and for multilevel evaluation that pairs staff-reported measures with organisational and community indicators (Sherrieb et al., 2010). In sum, aligning practitioner coping, organisational routines, and community capacities provides a practical pathway to enhance effectiveness and equity in high-demand settings. The main conclusion from the study is the importance of understanding the processes of resilience (individual and organisational) that take place in the field of Social Services and their impact on the development of other work variables essential for the achievement of the organisations' goals. It is a tangible, not merely theoretical, concept that must be addressed from the perspective of its importance in facing adversity and preparing for risk. The presence of this approach in organisations indicates their understanding of their capabilities, vulnerabilities, and the risks they face (Gibson & Michael, 2010), promoting a better understanding of the interrelationships (personal, community, and social) they develop with their

functioning (van Breda, 2016). The results obtained also allow to delve deeper on the causes behind these processes and they evince the need to implement specific training programmes to develop individual and organisational resilience in social service organisations and promote their members' self-care as a necessary ethical action (Newell, 2020).

In the context of Social Services, it is crucial to emphasise the importance of an adequate alignment between organisational response and social demand. The fundamental objectives of these services, focused on care, social integration, and combating social exclusion, require an approach that balances responding to immediate needs with preparing for future challenges. To achieve this goal of effective organisational functioning, it is essential to develop strategies that promote the acquisition of resilient habits and practices among its members. These strategies should be aimed not only at strengthening the individual capacity of workers to face adversity but also at consolidating the resilience of the group as a whole.

The adoption of a resilience approach that is reparative, preventive, and preparatory for future challenges, as suggested by Villalba (2006), is crucial. This approach should go beyond the traditionally associated assistentialist nature of public Social Services systems, offering a broader and proactive perspective. It involves not only responding to current crises and challenges but also preparing and adapting to emerging changes and needs, including digital transformation, where organisational resilience plays a critical role (Bravo-Bravo et al., 2025). Furthermore, incorporating resilient practices in Social Services can lead to significant improvements in the effectiveness of interventions and the quality of service provided. This includes enhanced ability to handle stress and crises, as well as the skill to innovate and adapt to environmental changes. Ultimately, fostering resilience within Social Services not only benefits professionals in their daily practice but also enhances the quality and efficiency of services offered to the community, thus contributing significantly to the fight against social exclusion and the promotion of a more inclusive and supportive society.

Limitations

This study has several limitations that should be considered when interpreting the results. Its cross-sectional, correlational design precludes causal inferences. Additionally, all variables were self-reported, which introduces the potential for perception bias and common-method variance, despite the use of anonymity and standardised instructions. Fieldwork was confined to Community Social Service Centres in two local administrations (Málaga and Vélez-Málaga), with invitations extended to all staff – effectively a convenience census – so external validity is limited to comparable settings. Sample imbalances (e.g. sex, age, qualifications) may influence point estimates, and non-response bias cannot be ruled despite municipality-level response rates. Although the instruments showed high internal consistency ($\alpha \approx .83 - .97$), reliability alone does not guarantee construct validity. Measures were collected at a single time point and from a single source without, organisational indicators, such as caseloads, which constrains interpretation.

Although LimeSurvey combined mandatory core blocks with optional items to reduce respondent burden, the length of the questionnaire may have contributed to end-of-survey fatigue and low item-level missingness. Analytically, we did not model the multilevel structure of the data (e.g. teams or centres) nor incorporate contextual variables such as demand or staffing, which may influence observed associations. Future research should employ longitudinal and multilevel designs, triangulate data across multiple sources and levels (professional – team – organisation), report sampling frames and weights, consider shorter or rotating instruments, and integrate administrative indicators to strengthen causal inference and enhance external validity.

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