



Self-Esteem, Social Support, and Resilience among Indonesian Female Peacekeepers

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Abstract

Peacekeeping personnel play a strategic role in maintaining international peace, security, and stability in conflict-affected regions. Following the adoption of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325, the participation of women in peacekeeping operations has received increasing global attention, emphasizing the importance of strengthening psychological resources that enable female peacekeepers to effectively adapt to challenging and high-risk operational environments. Indonesian female peacekeepers serving in United Nations missions are required not only to demonstrate professional military competence but also to maintain resilience in coping with operational stress, exposure to violence, prolonged family separation, and complex sociocultural conditions. This study aimed to examine the effects of self-esteem and social support on resilience among Indonesian female peacekeepers deployed in United Nations peacekeeping missions. A quantitative cross-sectional design was employed, using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) in AMOS to analyze data from 112 Indonesian female peacekeepers. The findings revealed that self-esteem has a statistically significant positive effect on resilience ($\beta = 0.97$, $p < 0.05$), whereas social support did not significantly predict resilience ($\beta = -0.02$, $p > 0.05$). The measurement model has an acceptable level of goodness of fit, particularly on the RMSEA, CFI, and TLI indices, although GFI and AGFI indicate the need for further model refinement. These findings highlight self-esteem as a critical psychological resource that enhances resilience among Indonesian female peacekeepers. Therefore, psychological intervention programs focusing on self-esteem enhancement, adaptive coping strategies, and personal psychological strengths are recommended to improve psychological well-being, adaptability, and operational effectiveness in peacekeeping missions.

Keywords: *Female Peacekeepers, Resilience, Self-Esteem, Social Support, SEM*

INTRODUCTION

International cooperation is a fundamental instrument in interstate relations, aimed at achieving national interests across economic, political, cultural, and security domains (Baldwin, 1993). Interactions among states through international cooperation are essential for maintaining stability and fostering collective progress within an increasingly interconnected global system. In the post-Cold War era, the dynamics of conflict have become more complex, marked by the rise of intra-state conflicts and border disputes (Yilmaz, 2007). In response to these evolving challenges, Peacekeeping Operations (PKO) under the auspices of the United Nations Security Council have become a critical mechanism for maintaining international peace and security (United Nations, 2008).

As a major contributor to global peacekeeping efforts, Indonesia has demonstrated its commitment to international security, as mandated by the 1945 Constitution, by deploying peacekeeping personnel to various conflict regions. In 2020, Indonesia deployed 2,828 personnel,

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including 163 female peacekeepers, placing it among the top ten contributing countries worldwide (Sucipto & Hardiana, 2021). However, the proportion of female personnel in the Indonesian National Armed Forces remains relatively low, at approximately 2% of total military personnel (Pramitadewi & Hendriani, 2023).

The increasing involvement of women in peacekeeping missions has gained global recognition following the adoption of United Nations Security Council Resolution 1325 (2000), which emphasizes the strategic role of women in peace processes, particularly in post-conflict settings. Empirical evidence suggests that female peacekeepers contribute significantly to mission effectiveness, particularly by providing psychosocial support, protecting vulnerable populations, and facilitating post-conflict reconstruction (Hadi & Soesilowati, 2018).

Despite the growing body of research on resilience, several important limitations remain in existing literature. Most previous studies have focused on civilian populations or general military personnel, with limited attention given to female peacekeepers serving in multicultural, high-risk, and conflict-affected environments (Britt et al., 2016; De La Rosa et al., 2021).

Furthermore, resilience research has often examined internal psychological resources and external environmental factors separately, resulting in a fragmented understanding of the mechanisms that contribute to adaptive functioning under adversity (Connor & Davidson, 2003; Southwick et al., 2014). This limitation is particularly relevant in the context of Indonesian female peacekeepers, who face unique operational, cultural, and gender-related challenges while serving in United Nations peacekeeping missions. As women remain underrepresented within military organizations, understanding the factors that support their resilience is essential for both mission effectiveness and personnel well-being (United Nations, 2023). Therefore, integrating self-esteem as an internal psychological resource and social support as an external protective factor within a single analytical framework may provide a more comprehensive explanation of resilience among female peacekeepers. Theoretically, this study extends resilience research within military psychology by examining the interplay between personal and environmental resources in a population that has received limited scholarly attention. Practically, the findings offer evidence-based recommendations for the development of psychological training, support systems, and resilience-enhancement programs aimed at improving the well-being, adaptability, and operational effectiveness of women serving in peacekeeping missions.

Despite these contributions, female peacekeepers face substantial challenges, including language barriers, cultural differences, harassment risks, and the need to adapt to unfamiliar, high-risk environments. Field evidence indicates that although female peacekeepers are often more readily accepted by local communities, they remain exposed to verbal and physical threats as well as significant sociocultural pressures. These conditions underscore the importance of resilience, defined as the ability to adapt, endure, and recover from adversity (Reivich & Shatte, 2002).

However, empirical findings on the influence of social support on resilience remain inconsistent. Some studies suggest that social support significantly enhances resilience, while others indicate that its effect may be limited or situational. Social support does not always exert a significant influence on resilience, with internal factors such as self-esteem playing a more dominant role (Kim & Park, 2022). Kim & Park (2022) argue that resilience is more strongly predicted by intrapersonal factors such as self-efficacy and emotional regulation.

Self-esteem, defined as an individual's subjective evaluation of self-worth, has been widely recognized as a key determinant of resilience. Individuals with high self-esteem tend to exhibit greater optimism, emotional stability, and the ability to cope effectively with adversity (Fitriah & Hariyono, 2019; Lepa & Pratikto, 2020). Previous studies consistently highlight the significant role of self-esteem in enhancing resilience across various high-risk contexts (Koba et al., 2019; Stevani & Kusumiati, 2021).

Most previous studies have focused on general or civilian populations, with limited attention to military contexts, particularly female peacekeepers operating in high-risk, multicultural environments. Prior research often examines psychological factors in isolation, without integrating self-esteem and social support variables within a comprehensive analytical framework. Inconsistencies in empirical findings regarding the role of social support highlight the need for further investigation in specific, complex operational settings such as peacekeeping missions. Few studies have explored resilience within multicultural conflict environments, where psychological, social, and cultural pressures intersect.

Self-esteem emerges as a significant internal factor that strengthens individuals' capacity to maintain emotional stability and recover from operational stress. Personnel with higher self-esteem demonstrate greater confidence in their abilities and greater psychological endurance when facing mission-related challenges. In contrast, social support appears to be situational and less consistent, depending on the quality of interpersonal relationships, communication accessibility, and the dynamics of the operational environment.

Furthermore, the multicultural nature of peacekeeping missions requires high levels of adaptability, cross-cultural competence, and emotional intelligence. In this context, resilience should be understood not only as the ability to withstand psychological stress but also as the capacity to grow, maintain emotional balance, and sustain performance in high-risk environments (Connor & Davidson, 2003). From a military psychology perspective, strengthening both internal and external factors is essential to building the psychological resilience of peacekeepers, particularly women who often face dual pressures arising from professional and socio-cultural demands.

This study examines how self-esteem and social support affect resilience among Indonesian female peacekeepers deployed in United Nations missions. Specifically, it investigates the relative contributions of internal psychological resources (self-esteem) and external protective factors (social support) to the prediction of resilience in a multicultural, high-risk operational environment. The study integrates both internal (self-esteem) and external (social support) factors into a single analytical model using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), providing a more comprehensive understanding of resilience. The study is based on empirical data collected directly from personnel actively engaged in peacekeeping missions, thereby enhancing the ecological validity of the findings. It contributes to the advancement of military psychology and peacekeeping studies by offering new insights into the psychological mechanisms underlying resilience among female military personnel.

This study contributes to the resilience literature by examining self-esteem and social support within the unique context of Indonesian female peacekeepers serving in United Nations missions. By focusing on a population that has received limited scholarly attention, the study extends resilience research in military settings and provides practical implications for developing psychological intervention programs aimed at enhancing the effectiveness and well-being of women peacekeepers in conflict environments.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Resilience in Military and Female Peacekeepers

Resilience is commonly defined as an individual's capacity to adapt positively, recover, and maintain psychological functioning when confronted with adversity, trauma, or other highly stressful life experiences (Connor & Davidson, 2003; Masten, 2001). Within military settings, resilience is regarded as a critical psychological resource because personnel are routinely exposed to operational stress, prolonged deployments, uncertainty, and potentially traumatic events (Britt

et al., 2016). The importance of resilience becomes even more evident in United Nations (UN) peacekeeping operations, where personnel must not only cope with security threats and armed conflict but also adapt to multicultural environments, language differences, diverse social norms, and the complexities of humanitarian crises in conflict-affected regions (Murphy, 2008).

A growing body of research has demonstrated that resilience functions as a protective factor that enables military personnel to maintain emotional stability, effectively manage stress, and sustain job performance under demanding conditions (Rice & Liu, 2016; Kanapeckaite & Bagdziuniene, 2024). Individuals with higher levels of resilience are generally better equipped to cope with operational challenges, recover from traumatic experiences, and continue performing effectively despite uncertainty and adversity. In the context of peacekeeping missions, resilience also plays a crucial role in mitigating the psychological consequences of traumatic exposure and enhancing adaptability to complex and dynamic mission demands (Qu et al., 2022). Furthermore, strengthening psychological resources such as resilience has been shown to support military readiness, competence, and long-term performance among personnel operating in high-risk environments (Bekesiene et al., 2022).

For Indonesian female peacekeepers, resilience is particularly important because they encounter not only the same operational challenges faced by their male counterparts but also additional social, cultural, and gender-related demands during international deployments. Consequently, resilience can be viewed as a psychological foundation that enables personnel to maintain mental health, psychological well-being, operational effectiveness, and adaptive functioning throughout peacekeeping missions. This perspective is consistent with the findings of Arbiansyah et al. (2024), which emphasize the importance of internal psychological resources and coping capabilities in sustaining individual performance under conditions of high work pressure and environmental demands. Therefore, understanding the factors that contribute to resilience is essential for enhancing the preparedness, well-being, and effectiveness of Indonesian female peacekeepers serving in United Nations peacekeeping missions.

Self-Esteem as Internal Psychological

Self-esteem refers to an individual's overall evaluation of personal worth, competence, and self-acceptance (Rosenberg, 1965). As a fundamental component of psychological functioning, self-esteem influences how individuals perceive themselves, interpret life experiences, and respond to challenges. Individuals with high self-esteem generally possess a positive self-concept, greater confidence in their abilities, and stronger beliefs in their capacity to overcome difficulties. Consequently, self-esteem serves as an important internal psychological resource that promotes emotional regulation, optimism, adaptive coping, and psychological well-being when individuals encounter stressful or adverse situations (Orth & Robins, 2014).

Within the framework of resilience theory, self-esteem is considered a protective factor that facilitates positive adaptation in the face of adversity. Individuals with higher self-esteem tend to perceive stressful events as manageable challenges rather than overwhelming threats, enabling them to maintain emotional stability and recover more effectively from setbacks (Masten, 2001). Empirical evidence consistently demonstrates a positive relationship between self-esteem and resilience across various populations. Research has shown that individuals with higher levels of self-esteem are more likely to exhibit psychological flexibility, effective coping strategies, and stronger resilience when confronted with difficult life circumstances (Fitriah & Hariyono, 2019; Lepa & Pratikto, 2020). Similarly, Hu, et al., (2015), self-esteem is positively associated with resilience and serves as an important predictor of psychological adjustment and mental health outcomes.

In military settings, self-esteem plays a particularly important role because military

personnel frequently operate under conditions of uncertainty, operational stress, and exposure to potentially traumatic events. Positive self-evaluation enables personnel to maintain confidence in their abilities, sustain motivation, and effectively manage the psychological demands of military service. Previous studies have indicated that military personnel with higher self-esteem demonstrate greater psychological resilience, better adaptation to stressful environments, and enhanced capacity to cope with operational challenges (Lee et al., 2014; Koba et al., 2019). For female peacekeepers serving in United Nations missions, self-esteem may be especially important because it strengthens confidence, supports adaptive functioning, and enhances the ability to cope with both operational and socio-cultural pressures encountered during deployment. Therefore, self-esteem can be regarded as a critical internal protective resource that contributes to the development and maintenance of resilience among military personnel operating in high-risk environments.

Social Support as Resilience

Social support is recognized as an important external resource that helps individuals cope with life stressors and challenges. It refers to the emotional, informational, instrumental, and appraisal assistance received from family members, friends, colleagues, and other significant individuals within one's social network (Sarafino & Smith, 2011). Social support functions as a protective mechanism that mitigates the negative effects of stress by providing emotional comfort, a sense of belonging, and practical assistance during difficult situations (Cohen & Wills, 1985). Consequently, individuals who perceive adequate social support are generally better equipped to manage psychological distress and maintain overall well-being when facing adversity.

Social support has been identified as a critical factor in psychological well-being, reduced stress reactions, and enhanced adaptation during deployment (King et al., 1998). The demanding nature of military service, characterized by operational uncertainty, security threats, and prolonged separation from family, makes social support an essential resource for maintaining mental health and operational performance. Research involving peacekeeping personnel has demonstrated that positive social relationships are associated with lower levels of post-traumatic stress symptoms and better psychological adjustment following deployment (Dirkzwager et al., 2003). Furthermore, recent evidence indicates that perceived social support is positively associated with resilience and mental health among military personnel, suggesting that individuals who feel supported by their social environment are better able to cope with stress and recover from adverse experiences (Li et al., 2024).

For Indonesian female peacekeepers, social support may play an even more significant role given the unique challenges of international peacekeeping missions. In addition to operational demands and security risks, female peacekeepers must adapt to diverse cultural environments, language differences, and social pressures encountered during deployment. Support from family members, fellow peacekeepers, military leaders, and colleagues can foster a sense of security, strengthen self-confidence, and enhance individuals' capacity to manage the difficulties associated with mission assignments. Therefore, social support can be a crucial external protective resource that contributes to resilience and facilitates successful adaptation among Indonesian female peacekeepers serving in complex and high-risk operational environments.

H₁: Self-esteem and social support simultaneously affect the resilience of Indonesian female peacekeepers in United Nations peacekeeping missions.

H₂: Social support affects the resilience of Indonesian female peacekeepers in United Nations peacekeeping missions.

H₃: Self-esteem affects the resilience of Indonesian female peacekeepers in United Nations

peacekeeping missions.

RESEARCH METHOD

This study employed a quantitative, cross-sectional design, collecting data at a single point in time to examine the relationships among self-esteem, social support, and resilience among Indonesian female peacekeepers serving in United Nations (UN) peacekeeping missions ([Creswell & Creswell, 2018](#)). A cross-sectional design was considered appropriate because the study aimed to investigate the influence of psychological factors on resilience within a specific operational context without manipulating the research variables.

The population comprised all Indonesian female military personnel deployed in UN peacekeeping missions in conflict and post-conflict areas, totaling 143 respondents. Given the relatively small and homogeneous population, a saturated sampling technique was employed, inviting all members of the population to participate in the study ([Sugiyono, 2019](#)). Of the 143 respondents, 112 completed the questionnaire and met the inclusion criteria for analysis, resulting in a response rate of 78.32%. The remaining 31 personnel were excluded because they either did not return the questionnaire, provided incomplete responses, or failed to meet data completeness requirements. Saturated sampling was used to maximize population representation and minimize sampling bias, given that all participants shared professional backgrounds, military training, and deployment experiences.

Data were collected through an online questionnaire administered via Google Forms. Prior to data collection, formal authorization was obtained from the Indonesian Peacekeeping Mission Center (PMPP TNI), and questionnaire distribution was coordinated through personnel officers at each mission deployment area. The online survey method was selected to facilitate data collection across geographically dispersed operational locations while minimizing disruptions to military duties and accommodating security considerations in conflict-affected environments ([Wright, 2005](#)).

The research instrument consisted of three standardized scales. Self-esteem was measured using the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; [Rosenberg, 1965](#)), a 10-item scale. Social support was assessed using the dimensions proposed by [Sarafino & Smith \(2011\)](#), encompassing emotional, informational, instrumental, and appraisal support. Resilience was assessed using the Connor-Davidson Resilience Scale (CD-RISC; [Connor & Davidson, 2003](#)), which measures an individual's capacity to adapt, recover, and maintain psychological functioning under adverse conditions. All items were rated on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Prior to administration, the instruments underwent adaptation and language adjustment procedures to ensure clarity and contextual relevance for Indonesian military personnel.

Construct validity was evaluated using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). Indicators with standardized factor loadings above the recommended threshold were retained for further analysis ([Hair et al., 2022](#)). Reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE). Internal consistency was considered acceptable when Cronbach's alpha and CR exceeded 0.70, and convergent validity was considered adequate when AVE exceeded 0.50 ([Fornell & Larcker, 1981](#); [Hair et al., 2022](#)). Discriminant validity was evaluated using the Fornell-Larcker criterion to ensure that each construct measured a distinct theoretical concept.

Data analysis was conducted in two stages. First, descriptive statistics were computed in SPSS to summarize respondents' demographic characteristics, including age, marital status, mission area, and length of service, and to describe the distribution of scores across the study variables. Second, inferential analysis was conducted using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) in AMOS. Covariance-Based SEM (CB-SEM) was selected because the study was theory-driven and

aimed to test and confirm causal relationships among latent constructs within an established theoretical framework. Furthermore, CB-SEM allows simultaneous evaluation of the measurement and structural models and provides comprehensive goodness-of-fit indices to assess model adequacy (Byrne, 2016; Hair et al., 2022). Although the sample size was modest ($n = 112$), it was still acceptable for SEM given the model's complexity and the number of estimated parameters.

Prior to testing structural relationships, the measurement model was evaluated to ensure construct validity and reliability. Convergent validity was assessed through standardized factor loadings, with values above 0.50 considered acceptable. Construct reliability was evaluated using Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR), with values above 0.70 indicating satisfactory internal consistency (Hair et al., 2022). In addition, discriminant validity was assessed to determine whether each latent construct was empirically distinct from the others. Discriminant validity was evaluated by comparing the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each construct with the correlations between constructs. According to the Fornell–Larcker criterion (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), the square root of AVE should exceed the inter-construct correlations, indicating adequate discriminant validity.

Model fit was assessed using multiple goodness-of-fit indices, including Chi-square (χ^2), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI). Following established recommendations, RMSEA values below 0.08 and CFI and TLI values above 0.90 were considered indicative of acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Data characteristic

Table 1. Data Characteristic

Characteristic	Frequency (F)	Percentage (%)
Age		
25-29 years	74	66.1
30-35 years	18	16.1
36-40 years	17	15.2
more than 41 years	3	2.7
Marital Status		
Single	72	64.3
Married	38	33.9
Divorced/Widowed	2	1.8
Deployment		
Lebanon	69	61.6
Democratic Republic of Congo	39	34.8
Central African Republic	4	3.6
Total	112	100.0

The demographic characteristics of respondents are presented in Table 1. Most respondents were 25–29 years old, accounting for 66.1% ($n = 74$), followed by those aged 30–35 years (16.1%), 36–40 years (15.2%), and over 40 years (2.7%). This distribution indicates that most participants were in early adulthood, a stage often associated with high adaptability and physical readiness for demanding assignments.

By marital status, the majority of respondents were unmarried (64.3%, $n = 72$), followed by married participants (33.9%, $n = 38$), with a small proportion previously married (1.8%). This pattern suggests that a significant share of female peacekeepers serve without immediate family, which may affect perceived social support during deployment.

Regarding deployment location, most respondents were assigned to Lebanon (61.6%, $n = 69$), followed by the Democratic Republic of Congo (34.8%, $n = 39$), and the Central African Republic (3.6%, $n = 4$). This distribution reflects the concentration of Indonesian peacekeeping personnel in specific mission areas with varying levels of conflict intensity and socio-cultural complexity.

Overall, the demographic profile indicates that the respondents are a relatively young, predominantly unmarried group of female peacekeepers operating in diverse and high-risk international environments. These characteristics provide an important contextual foundation for understanding the psychological dynamics of self-esteem, social support, and resilience in peacekeeping missions.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Resilience

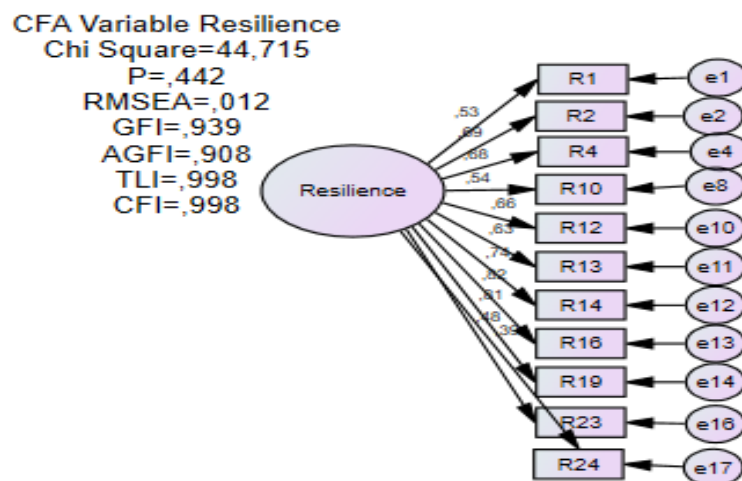


Figure 1. CFA Resilience

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to evaluate the suitability of each indicator as a measure of the latent construct of resilience. This analysis aimed to ensure that the measurement items adequately reflect the theoretical construct of resilience in a valid manner. Data processing was performed using AMOS software.

In the context of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), several considerations support accepting Average Variance Extracted (AVE) values between 0.30 and 0.50. Although an AVE of 0.50 or higher is generally recommended as evidence of adequate convergent validity, a construct may still be considered acceptable when the AVE is below this threshold, provided that other indicators, such as Composite Reliability (CR), internal consistency, and theoretical justification, demonstrate satisfactory results.

According to [Fornell & Larcker \(1981\)](#), an AVE of 0.50 or higher indicates that a latent construct explains more than 50% of the variance in its indicators. However, when the AVE is below 0.50 but the Composite Reliability (CR) exceeds 0.60, the construct's convergent validity can still be considered adequate because the indicators exhibit sufficient internal consistency.

Furthermore, [Hair et al. \(2022\)](#) suggested that in social science research involving complex psychological constructs, indicators with standardized factor loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 may be retained when removing them does not substantially improve the AVE, Composite Reliability, or the overall quality of the measurement model. Therefore, decisions about indicator retention should not rely solely on statistical criteria but should also consider theoretical relevance and each indicator's contribution to representing the underlying latent construct.

Based on these considerations, constructs in the present study can be considered to demonstrate acceptable convergent validity despite AVE values ranging from 0.30 to 0.50, provided

that Composite Reliability (CR) indicates adequate internal consistency (≥ 0.60 or preferably ≥ 0.70), all indicators exhibit acceptable factor loadings, and each indicator has strong theoretical support for representing the measured construct. This approach is particularly relevant in psychological and behavioral studies, where abstract and multidimensional constructs often yield lower AVE values than more concrete and directly observable constructs.

Table 2. Standard Loading Resilience

Item	Standardized Loading (λ)	Standardized Loading ² (λ) ²	Std. Error ($e(1-\lambda^2)$)	C.R	AVE
R1	0.53	0.28	0.72	0.91	0.42
R2	0.69	0.48	0.52		
R4	0.68	0.46	0.54		
R10	0.54	0.29	0.71		
R12	0.66	0.44	0.56		
R13	0.63	0.40	0.60		
R14	0.74	0.55	0.45		
R16	0.82	0.67	0.33		
R19	0.81	0.66	0.34		
R23	0.48	0.23	0.77		
R24	0.39	0.15	0.85		

To achieve an acceptable model fit, the researcher refined the data by removing outliers and non-normal data at the initial stage of the AMOS analysis. The resulting goodness-of-fit (GOF) indices are presented in Table 3.

Furthermore, as shown in Table 2, the Composite Reliability (CR) for the resilience construct was 0.91, indicating excellent internal consistency and confirming that the measurement indicators exhibit a high level of reliability (Hair et al., 2010). The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was 0.42, slightly below the recommended threshold of 0.50 for establishing convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). However, Fornell & Larcker (1981) argue that an AVE between 0.40 and 0.50 may still be acceptable when accompanied by a high Composite Reliability. In addition, indicator R24 was retained in the measurement model despite its relatively low standardized loading because it represents an essential aspect of the resilience construct. Removing this indicator would reduce the conceptual coverage of the construct and weaken its content validity. Therefore, given the strong CR value and the theoretical importance of the retained indicator, the resilience construct in this study can be regarded as demonstrating adequate convergent validity and satisfactory measurement reliability.

Table 3. Index Fit Resilience

Index Fit	Criteria Fit	Result	Description
GFI	≥ 0.90	0.93	Fit
CFI	≥ 0.90	0.99	Fit
TLI/NNFI	≥ 0.90	0.99	Fit
NFI	≥ 0.90	0.99	Fit
RMSEA	≤ 0.08	0.01	Fit

Based on five indices—GFI, CFI, NFI, NNFI/TLI, and RMSEA—it is concluded that the measurement model fits the data well (Joreskoq, 2001; Hair et al., 2010). If the initial model aligns well with the empirical data, it can be further developed and tested again using the same dataset.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Self Esteem

CFA VARIABLE SELF ESTEEM
 Chi Square=14,553
 P=.751
 RMSEA=.000
 GFI=.969
 AGFI=.942
 TLI=1,017
 CFI=1,000

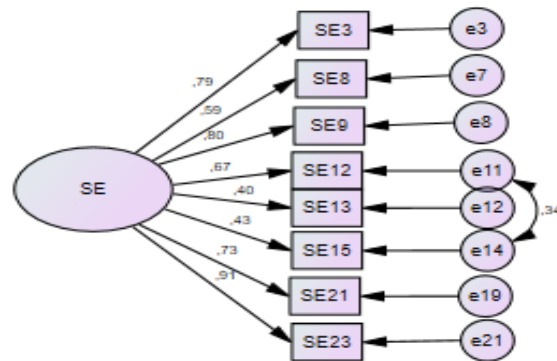


Figure 2. CFA Self Esteem

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to evaluate the adequacy of each indicator as a measure of the latent self-esteem construct. The purpose of this analysis was to ensure that the items used appropriately reflect the theoretical construct of self-esteem in a valid manner. Data processing and model estimation were carried out using AMOS software.

The suitability of the indicators was assessed based on factor loadings. An item was considered acceptable if it demonstrated a factor loading greater than 0.30 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Items that did not meet this criterion were either eliminated or modified to improve the overall model structure, thereby ensuring strong construct validity and an accurate representation of the self-esteem construct.

Based on the CFA results illustrated in Figure 2, all indicators exhibited factor loadings exceeding 0.30. This indicates that each item adequately represents the self-esteem construct, with at least a moderate level of contribution (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

To achieve an acceptable model fit, data screening procedures, including the elimination and modification of initial items, were performed during the early stages of AMOS analysis. The resulting goodness-of-fit (GOF) indices are presented in Table 5, demonstrating that the model meets the required fit criteria.

Table 4. Standard Loading Self-Esteem

Item	Standardized Loading (λ)	Standardized Loading ² (λ) ²	Std. Errorr (e (1- λ) ²)	C.R	AVE
SE3	0.79	0.62	0.38	0.88	0.46
SE8	0.59	0.35	0.65		
SE9	0.80	0.64	0.36		
SE12	0.67	0.45	0.55		
SE13	0.40	0.16	0.84		
SE15	0.32	0.10	0.90		
SE21	0.73	0.53	0.47		
SE23	0.91	0.83	0.17		

Furthermore, as presented in Table 4, the Composite Reliability (CR) of the self-esteem

construct was 0.88, indicating excellent internal consistency (Hair et al., 2010). A CR exceeding 0.70 demonstrates that the measurement indicators possess high reliability in representing the underlying construct. The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was 0.46, which is slightly below the recommended threshold of 0.50 for establishing convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). Nevertheless, Fornell & Larcker (1981) suggested that an AVE value ranging from 0.40 to 0.50 may still be considered acceptable when supported by a high Composite Reliability. In addition, indicators SE13 and SE15 were retained in the measurement model despite their relatively low standardized factor loadings (0.40 and 0.32, respectively), as they represent important dimensions of the self-esteem construct. Removing these indicators could reduce the conceptual coverage of the construct and compromise its content validity, particularly because self-esteem is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct. Therefore, the decision to retain SE13 and SE15 was based on theoretical considerations rather than solely on statistical criteria. Considering the strong Composite Reliability and the theoretical relevance of these indicators, the self-esteem construct can be regarded as demonstrating satisfactory reliability and adequate convergent validity, making it appropriate for subsequent structural model analysis.

Table 5. Index Fit Self-Esteem

Index Fit	Criteria Fit	Result	Description
GFI	≥ 0.90	0.94	Fit
CFI	≥ 0.90	1.00	Fit
TLI/NNFI	≥ 0.90	1.00	Fit
NFI	≥ 0.90	1.00	Fit
RMSEA	≤ 0.08	0.000	Fit

Based on five indices (GFI, CFI, NFI, NNFI/TLI, and RMSEA), it can be concluded that the measurement model aligns well with the data (Joreskoq, 2001; Hair et al., 2010). If the initial model corresponds with the empirical data, it can be further developed and retested using the same dataset.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Social Support

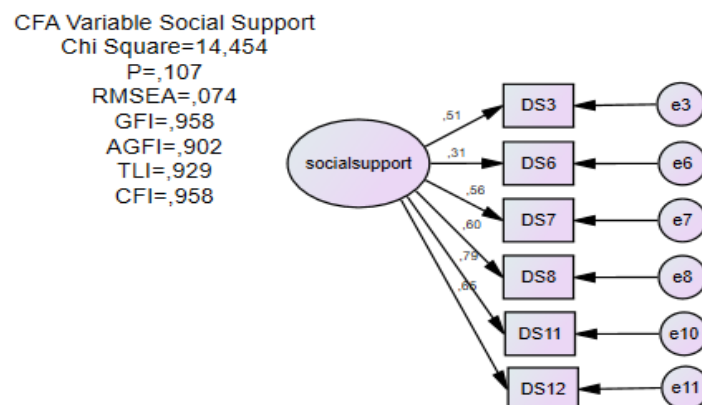


Figure 3. CFA Social Support

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess the adequacy of each indicator in measuring the latent construct of social support. This analysis aimed to ensure that the measurement items accurately reflect the theoretical concept of social support. The data were processed and analyzed using AMOS software.

The evaluation of indicator suitability was based on factor loadings. An indicator was

considered acceptable if it demonstrated a factor loading greater than 0.30, following the recommendation of [Hu & Bentler \(1999\)](#). Indicators that did not meet this threshold were subject to elimination or modification to improve the overall measurement model, thereby ensuring strong construct validity and an accurate representation of the social support construct. In Figure 3, all indicators exhibited factor loadings above 0.30. This finding indicates that each item sufficiently represents the social support construct, contributing at least at a moderate level ([Hu & Bentler, 1999](#)).

To achieve acceptable model fit, initial data screening procedures, including the elimination and modification of certain items, were conducted at the early stage of AMOS analysis. The resulting goodness-of-fit (GOF) indices are presented in Table 7, indicating that the model meets the required fit criteria.

Table 6. Standard Loading Social Support

Item	Standardized Loading (λ)	Standardized Loading ² (λ) ²	Std. Error (e ($1-\lambda^2$))	C.R	AVE
DS3	0.51	0.26	0.73	0.85	0.35
DS6	0.31	0.09	0.90		
DS7	0.56	0.31	0.68		
DS8	0.60	0.36	0.64		
DS11	0.79	0.62	0.37		
DS12	0.66	0.43	0.56		

Furthermore, as presented in Table 6, the Composite Reliability (CR) of the social support construct was 0.85, indicating good internal consistency. According to [Hair et al. \(2010\)](#), a CR above 0.70 indicates that the measurement indicators reliably represent the latent construct. The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was 0.35, below the recommended threshold of 0.50 for convergent validity ([Hair et al., 2010](#)). Nevertheless, [Fornell and Larcker \(1981\)](#) suggested that convergent validity may still be considered acceptable when Composite Reliability is sufficiently high and the indicators are theoretically meaningful. Indicator DS6 was retained despite its relatively low standardized factor loading (0.31) because it represents an essential dimension of the social support construct. Social support is conceptualized as a multidimensional construct encompassing various forms of support that collectively explain individuals perceived social resources. Removing DS6 could reduce the conceptual coverage of the construct and weaken its content validity by excluding an important aspect of social support. Therefore, the decision to retain DS6 was based on theoretical justification rather than solely on statistical criteria. Considering the satisfactory Composite Reliability and the theoretical relevance of the indicator, the social support construct can be regarded as demonstrating acceptable reliability and adequate construct validity for subsequent structural model analysis.

Table 7. Index Fit Social Support

Index Fit	Criteria Fit	Result	Description
GFI	≥ 0.90	0.95	Fit
CFI	≥ 0.90	0.95	Fit
TLI/NNFI	≥ 0.90	0.92	Fit
NFI	≥ 0.90	0.95	Fit
RMSEA	≤ 0.08	0.07	Fit

Based on five indices (GFI, CFI, NFI, NNFI/TLI, and RMSEA), it can be concluded that the measurement model aligns well with the data. According to [Hair et al. \(2010\)](#), if the initial model

corresponds with the empirical data, it can be further developed and retested using the same dataset.

Structural Equation Model (SEM)

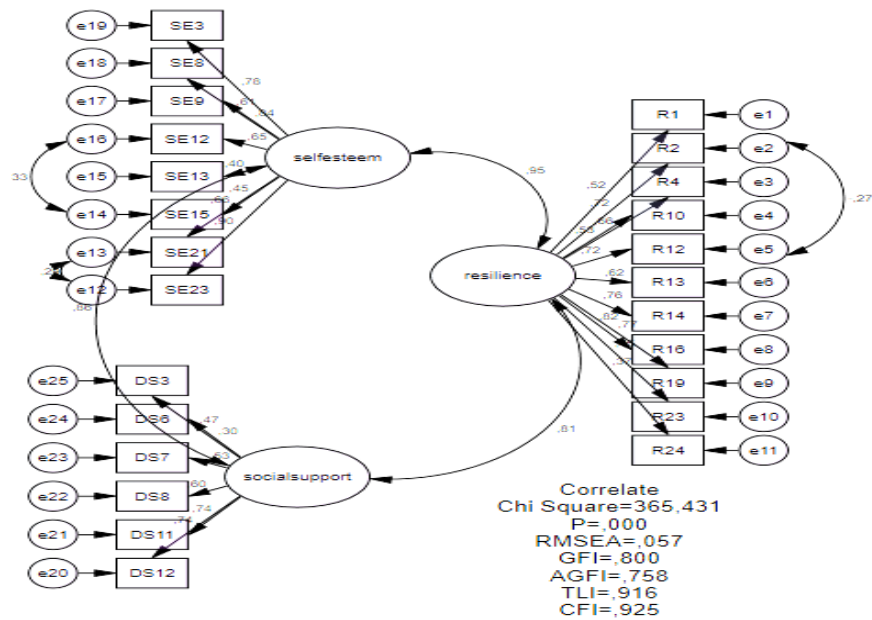


Figure 4. Correlation Variable

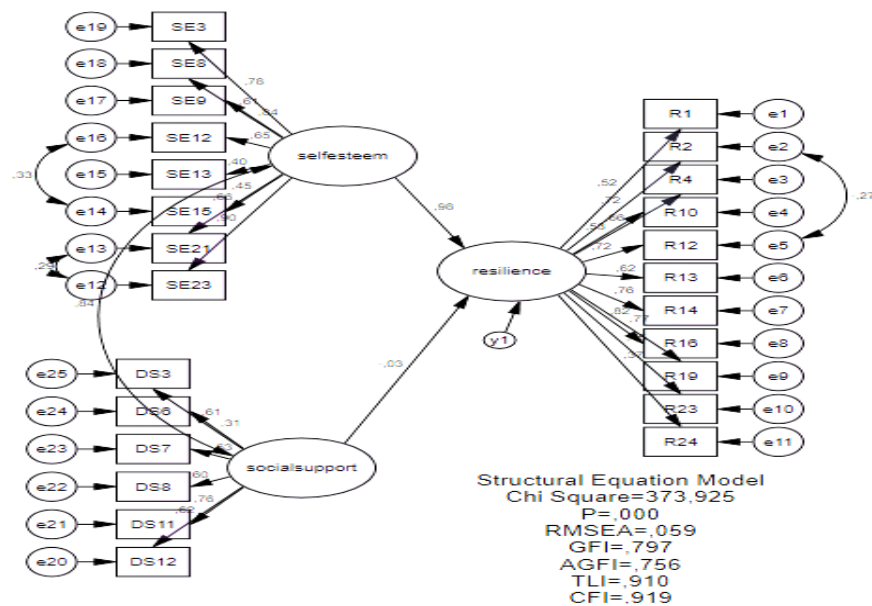


Figure 5. Structural Model Fit

Table 8. Discriminant Validity

Construct	Resilience	Self-Esteem	Social Support
Resilience	0.648	0.450	0.180
Self-esteem	0.450	0.678	0.838
Social support	0.180	0.838	0.592

Based on Table 8, discriminant validity was evaluated using the Fornell-Larcker criterion

(Fornell & Larcker, 1981), which requires that the square root of the Average Variance Extracted ($\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$) for each construct exceed its correlations with other latent constructs. The diagonal elements in Table 8 represent the $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$ values (0.648 for Resilience, 0.678 for Self-esteem, and 0.592 for Social Support), whereas the off-diagonal elements represent the inter-construct correlations. The results indicate that the $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$ values for Resilience and Self-esteem exceed their correlations with the other constructs, suggesting adequate discriminant validity. However, the correlation between Self-esteem and Social Support (0.838) exceeds the $\sqrt{\text{AVE}}$ values of both constructs (0.678 and 0.592), indicating limited discriminant validity between these two latent variables. This finding suggests that Self-esteem and Social Support share substantial conceptual overlap within the present sample. Nevertheless, both constructs were retained in the measurement model because they represent theoretically distinct dimensions derived from different conceptual frameworks and are essential for preserving the content validity of the research model. As recommended (Hair et al., 2010), the assessment of construct validity in covariance-based Structural Equation Modeling (CB-SEM) should not rely solely on the Fornell-Larcker criterion but should also consider theoretical justification, indicator reliability, composite reliability, convergent validity, and the overall measurement model fit. Therefore, despite the observed overlap, the measurement model remains theoretically defensible and appropriate for subsequent structural analysis.

Tabel 9. Squared Multiple Correlations

Description	Estimate
Resilience	0.102

As shown in Table 9, the Squared Multiple Correlation (R^2) for the endogenous construct, Resilience, was 0.102. This indicates that self-esteem and social support jointly explain 10.2% of the variance in resilience, while the remaining 89.8% is attributable to other factors not included in the proposed model (Hair et al., 2010). The coefficient of determination (R^2) reflects the predictive power of exogenous constructs in explaining the variance of an endogenous construct, with higher values indicating greater explanatory capability. Although the R^2 value observed in this study is modest, it remains acceptable because psychological and behavioral phenomena are typically influenced by multiple interacting factors beyond those incorporated in a single model. Therefore, the findings suggest that Self-esteem and Social Support contribute to the development of Resilience among Indonesian female peacekeepers in United Nations Peacekeeping Operations (UNPKO), while highlighting the potential influence of additional determinants that warrant further investigation.

Table 10. Structural Model Fit

Index Fit	Criteria Fit	Result	Description
GFI	≥ 0.90	0.79	No Fit
CFI	≥ 0.90	0.91	Fit
TLI/NNFI	≥ 0.90	0.90	Fit
NFI	≥ 0.90	0.91	Fit
RMSEA	≤ 0.08	0.06	Fit
Chi-Square	--	373,925	--
P	≥ 0.05	0.000	No Fit

Based on the indices GFI, CFI, NFI, NNFI/TLI, RMSEA, Chi-Square, and P-Value, it can be concluded that the measurement model is in accordance with the data (Hair et al., 2010) if the initial model fits the empirical data.

Table 11. Path Coefficients

Hypothesis	Correlate	C.R	β	Sig
H2	Social support - resilience	-0.19 < 1.96	-0.02	0.848 > 0.05
H3	Self esteem - resilience	4.57 > 1.96	0.97	0.000 < 0.05

H1: As presented in Table 10, the results of the goodness-of-fit evaluation indicate that the structural model demonstrates an acceptable level of model fit (mixed fit). Of the seven goodness-of-fit indices evaluated, four met the recommended thresholds, namely the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.91, the Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI) = 0.90, the Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.91, and the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.06, suggesting that the model adequately represents the observed data. The Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) = 0.79 remained below the recommended cutoff value of 0.90, while the Chi-square test was statistically significant ($p = 0.000$). These findings indicate that the model cannot be considered to exhibit an overall good fit. Nevertheless, because most of the incremental fit indices and the RMSEA met the recommended criteria, the structural model can be classified as demonstrating a mixed or marginally acceptable fit and is therefore considered appropriate for hypothesis testing and subsequent structural analysis (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2023). Furthermore, model adequacy in Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) should not be evaluated by a single goodness-of-fit index; rather, it should be assessed using multiple fit indices. Therefore, although the GFI and Chi-square probability values do not meet the recommended criteria, the satisfactory performance of most remaining fit indices indicates that the proposed structural model provides an acceptable representation of the empirical data.

H2: The analysis of the structural model results presented in Table 11 indicates that social support does not have a significant effect on resilience. This is evidenced by a p -value of 0.848 (> 0.05), which suggests that the relationship is not statistically significant. In addition, the Critical Ratio (C.R) value of -0.192 (< 1.96) further confirms that the effect of social support on resilience is not significant. Moreover, the standardized regression weight ($\beta = -0.02$) indicates a very weak, negative relationship between social support and resilience, which is below the minimum threshold for a meaningful effect.

H3: The results of the structural model analysis presented in Table 11 indicate that self-esteem has a positive and significant effect on resilience. This is evidenced by a p -value of 0.000 (< 0.05), confirming that the relationship is statistically significant. Furthermore, the Critical Ratio (C.R) value of 4.574 (> 1.96) indicates that the effect is significant at the 95% confidence level. In addition, the standardized regression weight ($\beta = 0.97$) indicates a very strong positive relationship between self-esteem and resilience, exceeding the recommended threshold for a substantial effect.

Self-esteem and social support with resilience of Indonesian female peacekeepers in United Nations

Results from structural model testing examining the effects of self-esteem and social support on resilience among Indonesian female peacekeepers indicate that the overall model fit is not yet optimal. This is evidenced by several goodness-of-fit indices that fall below recommended thresholds, suggesting that the model requires further refinement to better align with the empirical data. The findings indicate that the proposed conceptual model has limited explanatory power in capturing the empirical relationship between self-esteem, social support, and resilience, particularly among Indonesian female peacekeepers deployed in conflict areas. This suggests that resilience in such high-risk, complex environments is not solely determined by self-esteem and social support but may also be influenced by other factors, such as mental readiness, field operational experience, institutional support, and military organizational culture (Connor & Davidson, 2003; Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005). In peacekeeping contexts that require high adaptability

to multicultural environments and exposure to risk, these additional factors may play a more substantial role in shaping psychological resilience.

Despite these limitations, the direction of relationships among variables remains consistent with established theoretical frameworks. The significant effect of self-esteem on resilience aligns with [Rosenberg \(1965\)](#), which posits that individuals with high self-esteem tend to maintain positive self-perceptions, a sense of competence, and confidence when facing stressful situations. In line with this, prior studies have consistently shown that self-esteem is a strong predictor of resilience, as individuals with higher self-esteem are better equipped to regulate emotions, cope with stress, and maintain psychological stability under pressure ([Baumeister et al., 2003](#); [Liu et al., 2021](#); [Stevani & Kusumiati, 2021](#)). In the context of peacekeeping missions, female personnel with strong self-esteem are more likely to demonstrate emotional control, adaptability, and persistence despite the challenges of conflict environments.

Furthermore, the results align with prior empirical findings showing that self-esteem plays a dominant role in enhancing resilience compared with external factors. For instance, [Koba et al. \(2019\)](#) found that self-esteem significantly contributes to the resilience of female soldiers in UN missions, and [Ramadhani et al. \(2024\)](#) reported similar findings among military personnel operating in high-risk environments. These studies reinforce the notion that internal psychological resources are critical to sustaining resilience in demanding operational settings.

Although social support is theoretically recognized as an important external resource, its effect on resilience in this study was not significant. This finding aligns with several studies suggesting that the impact of social support may vary by context. [Argyros \(2019\)](#) found that social support does not always significantly predict resilience among humanitarian workers in conflict zones, while [Kim and Park \(2022\)](#) highlighted that resilience is more strongly influenced by intrapersonal factors such as self-efficacy and emotional regulation.

Nevertheless, social support remains an important contextual factor. [Sarafino and Smith \(2011\)](#) report that social support provides emotional comfort, a sense of belonging, and instrumental assistance that can help individuals cope with stress and trauma. However, in peacekeeping operations, social support may differ from that in general settings, as it tends to be more structural and formal rather than emotional. This may limit its effectiveness in directly enhancing resilience, particularly when personnel are geographically separated from their families and operate in culturally diverse environments. [Lianasari et al. \(2022\)](#) emphasize that the effectiveness of social support depends on the quality and accessibility of interpersonal relationships.

This study confirms that although both self-esteem and social support are theoretically important, self-esteem is the stronger predictor of resilience among Indonesian female peacekeepers. Individuals with higher self-esteem are better able to maintain psychological integrity, persevere, and cope effectively with adversity. [Baumeister et al. \(2003\)](#) report that higher self-esteem enhances individuals' ability to withstand stress, sustain motivation, and recover from challenging situations.

Social support with resilience of Indonesian female peacekeepers in United Nations

The findings of this study indicate that social support does not have a significant effect on resilience among Indonesian female peacekeepers. This is evidenced by a p-value of 0.848 (> 0.05), which suggests that the relationship is not statistically significant. In addition, the Critical Ratio (C.R) value of -0.192 (< 1.96) further confirms that the effect of social support on resilience is not significant. While a substantial body of literature emphasizes the importance of social support as a protective factor in enhancing resilience, empirical evidence remains inconsistent, particularly in high-risk and conflict environments. For instance, [Argyros \(2019\)](#) found that social support did not

significantly predict resilience among humanitarian workers operating in conflict zones, suggesting that under conditions of extreme stress, internal psychological resources may play a more decisive role than external support systems.

Taylor (2021) argues that the effectiveness of social support is highly context-dependent and shaped by individuals' perceptions of the adequacy and relevance of the support received. When social support is perceived as misaligned with emotional needs or as undermining personal autonomy, it may fail to enhance resilience and even hinder its development. This perspective is further supported by recent studies indicating that intrapersonal factors such as self-esteem, self-efficacy, and emotional regulation are stronger predictors of resilience than external support in stressful environments (Kim & Park, 2022; Liu et al., 2021).

The present findings, however, contrast with prior studies that highlight the buffering role of social support against stress. Cohen & Wills (1985) argue that social support functions as a protective mechanism that mitigates the negative effects of stress, thereby enhancing individuals' adaptive capacity. Empirical support for this view is provided by Santari & Karmiyati (2024), who found that social support significantly contributes to resilience by facilitating emotional regulation and psychological stability. Parascantika (2020) demonstrated that social support, alongside self-esteem and religiosity, plays a crucial role in strengthening resilience, particularly in populations exposed to adversity.

In the specific context of Indonesian female peacekeepers, resilience extends beyond mere survival and reflects the capacity to adapt to complex, multicultural, and high-risk operational environments while maintaining psychological stability and finding meaning in challenging experiences. This aligns with the conceptualization of resilience as a dynamic process of positive adaptation in the face of adversity (Masten, 2014). High levels of resilience enable female peacekeepers to perform humanitarian roles effectively, act as facilitators of peace, and contribute to social stability in post-conflict regions.

One plausible explanation for the non-significant effect of social support in this study lies in the unique characteristics of military peacekeeping environments. In such contexts, peer support may be less effective when fellow personnel are simultaneously exposed to stressors and operational pressures. Additionally, cultural differences, language barriers, geographical separation, and mission-specific demands may reduce the alignment between the support provided and the actual needs of individuals in the field (Syahidah & Karyani, 2024), who reported that, when examined alongside other psychological variables such as self-concept, the effect of social support on resilience becomes non-significant.

Furthermore, the role of social support may be indirect, operating through mediating or moderating variables. Previous research suggests that self-esteem may mediate the relationship between social support and resilience (Liu et al., 2021). This implies that social support may enhance resilience only when it strengthens individuals' self-perceptions and confidence. Demographic factors such as age, marital status, international deployment experience, and mission location may also influence the effectiveness of social support. For example, married personnel may benefit from stronger emotional support from family but may also experience role conflict, whereas unmarried personnel may rely more on peer support, which may not always align with their psychological needs in high-pressure environments.

Self-esteem has a positive and significant effect on resilience of Indonesian female peacekeepers in United Nations

The findings of this study indicate that self-esteem has a positive and significant effect on resilience among Indonesian female peacekeepers deployed in conflict areas. This is evidenced by a p-value of 0.000 (< 0.05), confirming that the relationship is statistically significant. Furthermore,

the Critical Ratio (C.R) value of 4.574 (> 1.96) indicates that the effect is significant at the 95% confidence level. This result reinforces the theoretical perspective that self-esteem is a critical psychological resource in the development of resilience. Individuals with high self-esteem tend to have a positive self-evaluation, acknowledge both their strengths and limitations, and demonstrate confidence when facing uncertain and high-risk situations (Rosenberg, 1965; Baumeister et al., 2003). In the context of deployment in conflict zones, self-esteem contributes to emotional stability, enhances decision-making capacity, and reduces vulnerability to environmental stressors (Maddi & Khoshaba, 2005).

Empirical evidence from previous studies further supports this finding. Christyanto (2022) reported that self-esteem has a significant positive effect on resilience among working university students, highlighting that individuals with higher self-esteem are better equipped to manage multiple demands and complex situations. Hanani (2019) found that while self-esteem significantly contributes to resilience, its effectiveness is also influenced by external factors such as social relationships, environmental conditions, and workload. This suggests that although self-esteem is not the sole determinant, it remains a fundamental internal resource that shapes individuals' adaptive capacity.

Liu et al. (2021) demonstrated that self-esteem plays a mediating role in enhancing resilience, indicating that individuals with higher self-esteem are more capable of responding constructively to stress and adversity. This highlights self-esteem as an internal psychological asset that strengthens individuals' ability to endure, adapt, and recover from challenging experiences.

Further support is provided by Ramadhani et al. (2024) and Firohmatillah & Sudirman (2019), who report that high self-esteem contributes to greater emotional regulation, self-confidence, and stress management abilities. For female peacekeepers, these attributes are essential for maintaining focus, motivation, and professional performance in high-risk environments. When confronted with situations such as armed conflict, cultural differences, or threats to personal safety, individuals with strong self-esteem are more likely to make rational decisions, assess risks objectively, and sustain effective interpersonal relationships within the team.

Importantly, self-esteem's impact extends beyond individual resilience to influence team dynamics and mission effectiveness. High resilience enables female peacekeepers to adapt more quickly to operational demands, maintain cohesion within multinational contingents, and actively contribute to the broader objectives of peacekeeping missions, including restoring social stability in post-conflict regions (Masten, 2014).

CONCLUSIONS

This study aimed to examine the effects of self-esteem and social support on the resilience of Indonesian female peacekeepers serving in United Nations (UN) peacekeeping missions. The findings indicate that self-esteem and social support jointly contribute to resilience. However, partial analysis revealed that only self-esteem had a positive and significant effect on resilience, whereas social support did not have a significant direct effect. Self-esteem's positive and significant influence on resilience was proposed to be accompanied by a positive and significant effect of social support on resilience, but that proposal was not supported. Meanwhile, the joint contribution of self-esteem and social support to resilience, as identified in the overall model, can be considered partially supported, although only self-esteem showed a significant individual effect.

These findings suggest that resilience among Indonesian female peacekeepers is shaped more strongly by internal psychological resources than by external social resources. In high-risk, uncertain, multicultural, and conflict-prone environments, the ability to maintain self-confidence, positive self-evaluation, emotional stability, and belief in one's capabilities appears to be a critical

factor enabling personnel to adapt effectively, cope with operational stressors, and sustain performance. Conversely, social support available during deployment may be situational and not always accessible or influential enough to directly enhance resilience within the operational context examined in this study.

Theoretically, this study contributes to the resilience literature in military psychology by highlighting the prominent role of self-esteem as an internal psychological resource in strengthening resilience among female military personnel operating in high-risk environments. The findings extend current understanding of resilience mechanisms in peacekeeping operations, which have received relatively limited scholarly attention compared to civilian populations or general military settings. Furthermore, the study provides empirical evidence supporting the importance of examining both internal and external resources simultaneously when investigating resilience among peacekeeping personnel.

The findings of this study have important implications for advancing military psychology and peacekeeping operations management. The significant role of self-esteem in enhancing resilience indicates that psychological readiness should be treated as a strategic component in the development and preparation of female peacekeeping personnel. From a military psychology perspective, the ability to withstand and adapt to operational stress during deployment is influenced not only by external support systems but also by internal psychological resources, particularly self-confidence, self-worth, and the ability to manage stress and operational challenges. Therefore, military institutions should integrate self-esteem development programs into the psychological readiness training of female peacekeepers through pre-deployment psychological preparation, resilience enhancement programs, adaptive coping strategy development, stress management training, and emotional regulation interventions.

From the perspective of peacekeeping operations management, these findings underscore the need to implement a comprehensive personnel support system across the entire deployment cycle, including pre-deployment, deployment, and post-deployment phases. During deployment, commanders and unit leaders play a crucial role in fostering a psychologically supportive environment through effective leadership, peer-support mechanisms, and open communication to maintain the psychological well-being of female peacekeepers operating in complex, high-risk conflict environments. Following deployment, regular psychological assessments, reintegration programs, and professional counseling services should be integrated into personnel development initiatives to facilitate recovery from operational stress, maintain long-term mental health, and preserve operational readiness and effectiveness. Therefore, continuous psychological development strategies may help build female peacekeeping personnel who are more resilient, adaptive, and psychologically prepared to cope with the diverse demands of United Nations peacekeeping missions.

LIMITATION & FURTHER RESEARCH

This study has several limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. The cross-sectional design limits causal inference about the relationships among self-esteem, social support, and resilience. Although the structural model identifies significant relationships, it does not capture changes over time or the dynamic nature of psychological adaptation in conflict environments. Longitudinal approaches would provide a more comprehensive understanding of how resilience develops and evolves across different phases of peacekeeping missions.

The study relies on self-reported data collected via online questionnaires, which may introduce response bias, including social desirability and subjective interpretation of items. Given the military context, participants may also have been inclined to present themselves as more resilient or socially acceptable, potentially affecting the accuracy of the responses.

The sample is limited to Indonesian female peacekeepers, which may limit the generalizability of the findings to other populations, such as male personnel, peacekeepers from different countries, or individuals working in non-military humanitarian settings. Additionally, the relatively homogeneous sample, while methodologically appropriate, may not fully capture the diversity of experiences across mission contexts and cultural environments.

The model shows that some goodness-of-fit indices are not optimal, suggesting that other relevant variables may be missing from the current model. Factors such as self-efficacy, emotional regulation, coping strategies, institutional support, leadership style, and organizational culture may play a significant role in shaping resilience, particularly in high-risk and multicultural operational settings.

Given these limitations, future research should adopt longitudinal or mixed methods approaches to better capture the complexity and temporal dynamics of resilience. Expanding the sample to include diverse populations and conducting cross-national comparisons would enhance the external validity of the findings. Furthermore, future studies should examine the potential mediating and moderating roles of psychological and organizational variables, such as whether self-esteem mediates the relationship between social support and resilience or whether contextual factors influence the effectiveness of support systems.

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