

**GENDER ROLE ATTITUDE IN RELATION TO EMOTIONAL
MATURITY, RESILIENT COPING AND SELF-ESTEEM
AMONG MIZO ADULTS**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
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**GENDER ROLE ATTITUDE IN RELATION TO EMOTIONAL MATURITY,
RESILIENT COPING AND SELF-ESTEEM AMONG MIZO ADULTS**

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**In partial fulfillment of the requirement of the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Psychology of Mizoram University, Aizawl.**



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CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the present research work titled, “Gender role attitude in Relation to Emotional Maturity, Resilient Coping and Self-Esteem among Mizo Adults” is the original research work carried out by Ms. Lalhmingangi under my supervision. The work done is being submitted for the award of the Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology of Mizoram University.

This is to further certify that the research conducted by Ms. Lalhmingangi has not been submitted in support of an application to this or any other University or an Institute of Learning.

Dated: 29th July, 2025

Place: Aizawl

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DECLARATION

Mizoram University

July, 2025

I **LALHMINGSANGI**, hereby declare that the subject matter of this thesis is the record of work done by me, that the contents of this thesis did not form basis of the award of any previous degree to me or to the best of my knowledge to anybody else, and that the thesis has not been submitted by me for any research degree in any other University/Institute.

This is being submitted to the Mizoram University for the Degree of **Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology**.

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Aizawl: 29th July, 2025

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CHAPTER – I
INTRODUCTION

Gender role attitudes emerge from the dynamic interaction between individuals and their surrounding environments. These attitudes encapsulate internalized beliefs regarding the appropriate roles for men and women, molded through socialization processes, cultural norms and historical contexts (Kessler & McKenna, 1978; Lindsey, 2011). Roles are conceptualized as behaviors anticipated from individuals occupying specific statuses within particular contexts. Societal beliefs about sex differences delineate appropriate gender roles (Blackstone, 2003). The World Health Organization (2015) defines gender roles as socially constructed roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes deemed appropriate for men and women by society. Thus, gender roles encompass expected behaviors towards individuals based on their sex, including interests, skills, activities, and clothing preferences (Kessler & McKenna, 1978; Lindsey, 2011). These roles are shaped by social and behavioral norms considered appropriate for individuals of a specific sex within a cultural and temporal context (Pleck, 1991). Terminologies such as gender role attitudes, sex role attitudes, and gender ideology are employed to describe individuals' perspectives on appropriate roles for men and women (Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Legge & Misra, 1998; McHugh & Frieze, 1997).

According to Kalin and Tilby (1978), traditional and egalitarian gender role ideologies are the two primary and widely prevalent categories, with most people's attitudes falling somewhere along this continuum. They further added that transitional attitudes may exist between these two poles, but they are understood as blends or moderations of these two core types. A traditional orientation underlines inherent differences between men and women, suggesting each sex has a natural predisposition towards specific behaviors. Individuals with traditional orientations are influenced by generational norms and familial teachings (Blackstone, 2003). Traditional gender role attitudes support a dichotomous and hierarchical view of gender, often endorsing male dominance in public domains (e.g., work, politics) and female subservience in private spheres (e.g., caregiving, homemaking). In contrast, egalitarian gender role attitudes advocate for equal opportunities and responsibilities for all genders, emphasizing the rejection of rigid, binary roles and promoting gender equity in both personal and

institutional contexts (Katz-Wise et al., 2010). Those with non-traditional gender roles advocate for behaviors not strictly determined by one's sex, promoting egalitarian relationships and individual autonomy in role selection. Traditional gender roles posit that women are more suited for nurturing roles and public interactions, while men are associated with high-earning and technological professions (McQuaid, 2003). This perspective suggests women should engage in nurturing behaviors, such as full-time homemaking, whereas men are expected to lead households by providing financially and making pivotal decisions. Although these views persist in various societal sectors, Blackstone (2003) added that alternative perspectives supporting for gender role flexibility have gained traction in the 21st century.

Research by Bem (1981) indicates that gender role attitudes influence individuals' responsiveness and mastery in gender-typed and non-gender-typed tasks. Gender-typed attitudes have been linked to career field selections (Gianakos, 2000). While much literature focuses on women's egalitarian career choices (Rainey & Borders, 1997), some studies highlight the significance of gender role attitudes in career decisions (Dodson & Borders, 2006). Traditional attitudes may lead individuals to choose gender-typical occupations, perpetuating sex based occupational segregation. The labeling of traditional occupations correlates with gender ratios in specific fields and the alignment with expected gender role attitudes (Cai & Liao, 1995). Common traditional occupations for women include nursing, teaching, and cosmetology, while men are traditionally associated with roles such as law, engineering, piloting, military service, and scientific research (Aziz, 2001).

Gender role attitudes are significant predictors of academic outcomes and influence decision-making processes and behaviors (Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Vespa, 2009). They affect beliefs about violent and criminal behavior (Ben-David & Schneider, 2005; Flood & Pease, 2009) and expectations for future life activities, including post-secondary education, labor market participation, and career choices (Corrigall & Konrad, 2007; Davis & Pearce, 2007; Kaufman, 2005; Tiklin et al., 2005; Vella, 1994). Research suggests that adherence to traditional gender roles can contribute to psychological well-

being by providing clear role expectations and identity frameworks, particularly in collectivist societies where conformity to cultural norms is valued (Gupta et al., 2006). In marital or family settings, traditional roles have been associated with higher relationship satisfaction when both partners endorse similar gender ideologies, as shared expectations may reduce conflict and increase perceived harmony (Helms et al., 2010). However, traditional gender role attitudes are often critiqued for reinforcing stereotypes and limiting individual potential, several researchers pointed out that it negatively impacts academic participation and achievement by influencing students' sense of belonging and expectations for success (Huyge et al., 2015; Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Davis & Pearce, 2007; McDaniel, 2010). Egalitarian gender role attitudes have been linked to motivation, broader aspirations, and greater resilience against stereotype threat, particularly among female students (Sadker & Zittleman, 2009). Individuals who hold egalitarian beliefs are more likely to make career decisions based on interest and aptitude rather than gender conformity (Cotter et al., 2011). Despite the widely recognized benefits of egalitarian gender role attitudes, some study revealed that such perspectives may also generate challenges, particularly within traditional or collectivist cultural settings. When individuals hold egalitarian beliefs that conflict with dominant societal norms, they may experience increased psychological stress or interpersonal tension due to a mismatch between personal values and external expectations (Zuo & Bian, 2001).

Beyond the family sphere, gender roles extend to workplace expectations, where men and women are often anticipated to perform different tasks based on their sex (Williams, 1995). Many corporations maintain traditional gender role perspectives, offering parental leave predominantly to mothers and limiting such benefits for fathers. This traditional outlook results in sex-based occupational segregation, with women more likely to occupy secretarial roles and men in managerial positions. Men are perceived as ambitious and task-oriented, while women are viewed as relationally focused in professional settings (Blackstone, 2003).

People who hold traditional beliefs tend to favor a gender-based division of responsibilities, typically designating household duties and child-rearing to women, while

assigning wage earning roles to men. Egalitarian attitudes promote equal participation in both paid labor and domestic responsibilities (Davis & Pearce, 2007; Katz-Wise et al., 2010; Legge & Misra, 1998). Given that gender role attitudes is a latent concept, it poses measurement challenges, necessitating caution when comparing studies due to varied operationalizations (McHugh & Frieze, 1997; Vespa, 2009; Beere, 1990). Davis and Greenstein (2009) identified six recurring dimensions in conceptualizing gender role attitudes: belief in separate spheres based on gender, primacy of the breadwinner role, motherhood and the feminine self, working women and relationship quality, household utility, and male-privilege acceptance.

Causes and Consequences of Gender-Role Attitudes- Gender-role attitudes are believed to develop under the influence of various social, cultural, and personal factors, beginning in childhood. Parents play a key role by modeling and communicating gender-specific expectations (Leaper & Friedman, 2007). Education is also said to have an influence on gender role attitude, particularly for women, causes more liberal and egalitarian gender role attitudes (Davis & Greenstein, 2009). Thorne (1993) also documented that school settings reinforce gender stereotypes, impacting children's understanding of gender roles from a young age. In addition, Ward and Harrison (2005) examined the effects of television exposure and found that individuals who consumed more stereotypical media content held more traditional gender role attitudes.

Female participation in the workforce is considered as both a determinant and a consequence of gender role attitudes. Women who perceive the female role as primarily domestic are less likely to pursue paid employment, whereas engagement in external work often leads to more progressive gender views. However, this relationship between employment and gender role orientation is more pronounced after marriage, as pre-marital employment does not show a strong correlation with later attitudes (Spitze, 1978). The presence of bidirectional causality between employment and gender role perceptions highlights the complexity of their relationship and cautions against making conclusions based on unidirectional assumptions. Research suggests that while gender role attitudes can influence a woman's decision to participate in the workforce, employment itself can

also reshape those attitudes over time (Fortin, 2005). Additional influential factors include religious participation and educational attainment, both of which are known to significantly shape gender role attitudes. However, these factors are generally seen as antecedents rather than outcomes of such attitudes (Cunningham, 2008). The connection between gender role attitudes and fertility appears similarly asymmetrical. Women who adhere to traditional homemaker ideals are more likely to have higher fertility rates, but raising a large family does not necessarily strengthen traditional gender views. Instead, the practical demands of parenting multiple children may encourage more egalitarian domestic arrangements, including greater involvement of fathers in household responsibilities, thereby challenging conventional role specialization (Goldscheider et al., 2015).

Parents significantly contribute to shaping their children's gender role attitudes. While the transmission of these attitudes from one generation to the next is not particularly strong, it is relatively consistent with the stability of such attitudes observed within individuals over a fifteen-year period, between 1962 and 1977. Among the contributing factors, the mother's attitudes have a greater influence than her actions. Interestingly, her work history during her children's upbringing does not seem to impact their attitudes directly. This finding, in contrast to other research suggesting a positive relationship, implies that children's perceptions or memories of maternal employment might exert a stronger influence than actual behavior. The father's educational level, on the other hand, strongly correlates with the development of egalitarian views in children, highlighting the father's influential role in the socialization process. As newer generations approach adulthood, their notions of gender-appropriate behavior are significantly different from those of their predecessors. However, while societal norms continue to evolve, there remains visible resistance to a complete dissolution of traditional gender divisions. It is likely that although women's social roles will keep expanding, the overall eradication of gender-specific labor roles and responsibilities will be a slow process (Thornton et al., 1983).

Research examining the evolution of gender-role attitudes in adults reveals that these perspectives can shift due to major life transitions, such as becoming a parent or gaining new work experiences (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Katz-Wise et al., 2010; Vespa, 2009). Similarly, people who are at a younger age attitude toward gender roles may be reshaped by life changes such as puberty, peer influence, and new academic environments. During developmental stages such as adolescence and early adulthood, periods marked by exploration of new settings like universities and initial job roles (Arnett, 2000) career considerations and early decisions about work pathways become central (Rogers & Creed, 2011; Swanson & D'Archiardi, 2005). The gender-intensification hypothesis suggests that adolescence is a time when individuals experience heightened social pressures to conform to traditional gender norms (Clemans et al., 2010). Key agents of this process include peers (Galambos, 2009), parents (Hill & Lynch, 1983; Priess & Lindberg, 2011), and educational institutions (Galambos, 2009; Hill & Lynch, 1983). However, evidence supporting this hypothesis remains limited and inconsistent (Priess et al., 2009).

Previous research has largely focused on how gender attitudes are passed down from parents to their children, frequently overlooking the impact of secondary influences like educational institutions, teachers, and peer groups. As adolescents mature, their socialization expands through broader experiences, including education and personal growth (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Davis & Pearce, 2007; Galambos, 2009; Vespa, 2009). Although limited in number, studies focusing on the role of schooling suggest it significantly contributes to the shaping of gender norms (Blumberg, 2015; Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Council of Europe, 2014; Cunningham et al., 2005; Delamont, 2012; Shu, 2004; Stromquist, 2007). Given the fragmented nature of current findings, a more integrated analysis is needed to understand how multiple influences interact to shape gender role attitudes (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004).

According to Hochschild (1989), societal beliefs about men's and women's roles are better understood through the framework of gender ideologies. A traditional ideology suggests that men belong in the workforce while women should focus on homemaking. This view implicitly supports male dominance in power dynamics. In contrast, an

egalitarian ideology supports equal power distribution between the sexes and envisions equal participation in both domestic and professional domains. A third category, transitional ideology, reflects a middle ground endorsing dual involvement of women in both home and work life, but with an expectation that they shoulder a greater portion of household responsibilities while men remain primarily focused on employment.

Cultural and ethnic backgrounds significantly shape individuals' views on gender roles. For instance, within Western cultures, Black women often exhibit less traditional gender attitudes than either Black men or White individuals (Carter et al., 2009). Although Black and White men often hold similar views on women's political engagement, Black men are generally more supportive of women working outside the home. This difference likely reflects the longer history of economic necessity that has driven Black women into the workforce compared to White women. Moreover, attitudes toward gender roles vary considerably across different countries. In China, historically rooted Confucian values have upheld rigid gender hierarchies, emphasizing female subordination through the three obediences: to father, husband, and son (Chia et al., 1997). A comparative study involving students from Taipei and North Carolina revealed that Chinese students held more conservative views on marital roles, particularly regarding decision-making authority within the household (Chia et al., 1994). Additionally, male students of Chinese were more inclined than their American counterparts to view emotional expression in males as unacceptable.

In Asian cultures, women's employment outside the home does not necessarily signify nontraditional gender perspectives. Research on Asian immigrant women revealed that their work outside the home was often perceived not as a break from traditional roles, but rather as an extension of their domestic responsibilities, reflecting a prioritization of family welfare over individual ambition (Suh, 2007). While education is highly esteemed in many Asian societies, the underlying reasons differ by gender. For women, education is often viewed as a means of becoming suitable wives and mothers rather than a pathway to personal or professional independence (Hall, 2009).

Helgeson (2012) identifies three fundamental elements that shape individuals' attitudes toward gender categories: **affect (feelings), cognition (beliefs), and behavior**. The emotional aspect of these attitudes is commonly referred to as sexism, representing individuals' feelings toward gender. The cognitive component is expressed through gender-role stereotypes, which encompass the beliefs that people hold about the characteristics and roles associated with each gender. Lastly, the behavioral dimension involves actions based on these attitudes, and is termed sex discrimination, which reflects how individuals treat others differently on the basis of their gender.

Affective component: Sexism refers to an individual's emotional response or general attitude toward others based solely on their gender. For instance, disapproving of a female doctor or a male nurse due to their gender constitutes sexism. Instruments designed to measure sexism often capture individuals' perceptions of men and women, which commonly involve an emotional component. In essence, these beliefs often reflect either admiration or disdain for someone based on gender. Swim et al. (1995) differentiated between traditional and modern forms of sexism. Traditional sexism involves endorsing distinct roles based on gender, accepting unequal treatment of men and women, and believing that women are inherently less capable or inferior to men. This form of sexism openly devalues women, although such explicit views are now rarely voiced publicly. In contrast, modern sexism involves denying the existence of discrimination against women, displaying opposition to feminist demands, and harboring resentment toward any special advantages provided to women. In effect, it conveys apathy or antagonism toward gender equality and subtly promotes ongoing inequality. Traditional and modern sexism are positively correlated, indicating that those who rank high on one tend to rank high on the other. Modern sexism is also linked to minimizing the obstacles women face in entering male-dominated fields and overestimating the number of women in such roles. It is further associated with both using and failing to recognize sexist language (Swim et al., 2004).

Glick and Fiske (1996) introduced the distinction between hostile and benevolent sexism. Hostile sexism is characterized by antagonistic feelings toward women, especially

those who reject conventional gender roles. On the other hand, benevolent sexism includes favorable but patronizing views, such as a desire to support or protect women. Both forms stem from patriarchal values (upholding male dominance), gender differentiation (highlighting exaggerated differences), and reproductive ideologies (Glick & Fiske, 2001). While hostile and benevolent sexism share common origins, they diverge in several ways (Sibley et al., 2007). Hostile sexism is strongly connected to social dominance orientation, reflecting a preference for hierarchical social structures where certain groups are considered superior to others. It is also tied to attitudes that legitimize sexual violence, including the belief that women could avoid rape if they truly wanted to (Chapleau et al., 2007). Men who score high in hostile sexism often view women as a challenge to their authority or position. In contrast, individuals with high levels of benevolent sexism typically uphold traditional gender norms, value social cohesion, and believe that men should take on a protective role toward women. While individuals endorsing benevolent sexism may be perceived more positively than those expressing hostility, this form of sexism remains damaging. It is built on assumptions that women are inherently less capable and require male support. As Helgeson (2012) notes, this outlook legitimizes the dominant group's exploitation of the subordinate group under the guise of benevolence (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005).

Cognitive component: Gender role stereotyping refers to the development of mental frameworks or belief systems about groups of people based on their gender. These stereotypes are not based on biological differences but instead arise from the social roles that society expects men and women to fulfill. Stereotypes consist of two key elements: descriptive and prescriptive (Fiske, 1993). The descriptive aspect focuses on the traits typically linked to each gender, whereas the prescriptive aspect outlines the behaviors individuals are expected to exhibit according to their gender. The descriptive aspect can be limiting, such as assuming that women are less competent in leadership roles or that men are less nurturing. The prescriptive component sets societal expectations men are supposed to embody masculinity, and women femininity. These expectations are often reinforced by others. Gender role stereotypes are distinct from other stereotypes because

gender is one of the first categories people automatically assign when they encounter someone. However, as more specific information about the individual becomes available, these initial gender-based assumptions can be replaced. In essence, category-based expectations occur when only minimal information, like a person's sex, is known, while target-based expectations develop as more individualized details are learned (Helgeson, 2012).

Broverman and colleagues (1970) developed a questionnaire designed to evaluate individuals' perceptions of masculine and feminine behaviors. Administering it to over 1,000 participants, they discovered a widespread agreement about gendered characteristics across diverse demographic groups. The stereotypical traits for men focused on competence, rationality, and assertiveness, while traits for women emphasized warmth and expressiveness. Moreover, masculine traits were rated as more desirable and valuable, even by mental health professionals, who considered them healthier for adults to exhibit. These findings imply that male gender roles are often more highly regarded than female gender roles (Helgeson, 2012).

Media representations often portray older women more negatively than older men, particularly concerning their physical appearance. A meta-analysis investigating the connection between age and gender stereotypes found that younger adults tend to be viewed more positively than older adults. This difference was especially notable for women, with age having a stronger association with negative perceptions of women compared to men. Interestingly, competence a key component of the male gender role was perceived to diminish more quickly in men than in women (Kite et al., 2005; Helgeson, 2012).

Ethnicity and culture also influence gender role stereotypes. People's perceptions of gender roles vary depending on their ethnic backgrounds, though research on this topic remains sparse. Nieman Nupur (1994) found that Anglo and African American men were stereotyped as tall, while Asian American and Mexican American men and women were seen as short. Additionally, attributes like sociability and caring were associated differently with various ethnic groups, with these traits being attributed to both genders in

certain cultures but not others. Gender-role stereotypes in Eastern cultures, such as in China, differ significantly from those in Western cultures, with masculine traits in China including a focus on poetry and cooperation, rather than independence and athleticism (Yu & Xie, 2008; Chia et al., 1994). Similarly, Western stereotypes of Asian men are often seen as passive, while Asian women are stereotyped as either exotic or subservient (Iwamoto & Liu, 2009; Hall, 2009).

Children's gender-role stereotypes develop in three phases (Trautner et al., 2005). During the initial stage, which occurs before the age of 5, children start to acquire knowledge about gender-related traits. By around 18 months, they typically show preferences for toys that align with gender stereotypes, with girls linking dolls to femininity and boys associating them with masculinity. By 5 to 6 years, children have consolidated their gender knowledge and apply it rigidly, linking certain behaviors with specific genders, without understanding that someone may engage in behaviors typically associated with the opposite gender. By the age of 7 to 8 years, children start to rely more on individual characteristics rather than solely on gender when making judgments. Nonetheless, they continue to use gender-role stereotypes influenced by their knowledge of these roles (Martin & Ruble, 2004).

Gender-role stereotypes can significantly affect behavior and perceptions. Stereotyping simplifies the world, but it can also result to a self-fulfilling prophecy, where behavior causes others to act in ways that reinforce the stereotype. Stereotypes can restrict individuals' behaviors and opportunities by pressuring them to conform to societal expectations (Corby et al., 2007; Yu & Xie, 2010). Interestingly, when gender-role stereotypes are minimized by offering a broader range of career options, both men and women may opt for less stereotypical career paths (Gadassi & Gati, 2009).

Finally, altering gender-role stereotypes can be difficult. People tend to focus on information that supports their existing stereotypes and disregard information that contradicts them. When people come across information that contradicts their expectations, they might either place it into a separate category or perceive the behavior

as an exception that is more extreme than usual. For example, assertiveness may be seen as more extreme when exhibited by a woman compared to a man (Helgeson, 2012).

Behavioural Component: Sex discrimination- Discrimination involves treating individuals unfairly because they belong to a specific group. Sex discrimination, in particular, refers to differential treatment based on a person's gender. Both men and women can experience sex-based discrimination. In a study examining new hires in U.S. law firms during the 1990s, Gorman (2005) discovered that masculine job criteria (e.g., ambition, independence, logical thinking) were linked to the hiring of fewer women, whereas feminine job criteria (e.g., cooperation, friendliness, verbal skills) led to fewer men being hired. Additionally, Madera et al. (2009) conducted a study of letters of recommendation for junior faculty roles and found that women were typically described as more communal, while men were seen as more agentic. This result remained consistent even after accounting for factors like years of graduate education, publications, honors, and postdoctoral experience. Interestingly, when the applicant's sex was unknown, six professors from psychology judged candidates exhibiting communal traits as less qualified for hiring, which partly explains why women were viewed as less employable than men. Evaluating fairness in the treatment of men and women can be difficult when they hold different roles within society. Typically, when people think of sex discrimination, they associate it with women facing unfair treatment, particularly in the workplace (Helgeson, 2012).

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework of Gender Role Attitude

Biological Theory

Biological theories about sex differences suggest that genetics, hormones, and the brain's structure and function play key roles in shaping differences in thinking, behavior, and even gender roles. While genes contribute somewhat to these differences, the environment also has a major influence. Hormones, which are produced by the endocrine system, travel through the body and affect many bodily functions. The main sex-related hormones fall into two groups: estrogens and androgens (Helgeson, 2012). Although many

people think of androgens as male hormones and estrogens as female hormones, both men and women produce both types. Testosterone is the most common androgen, and estradiol is the most common estrogen. Generally, men produce more androgens, while women produce more estrogens. The gonads also release progestins, like progesterone, which is important for preparing a woman's body for pregnancy. Men produce progesterone too, where it helps regulate different functions in the endocrine system (Oettel & Mukhopadhyay, 2004). These sex hormones influence not only the brain and immune system but also overall health and behavior.

The idea that brain differences explain sex differences comes from the belief that spatial skills are linked to the right side of the brain and verbal skills to the left. But this isn't always clear-cut, since the left side also handles analytical thinking, which is important for math. So, if women were truly dominant in the left hemisphere, they would likely excel in math more than men, which isn't consistently the case. Researchers have also looked into whether specific brain areas explain gender identity, but the evidence is still debated (Brannon, 2017).

Evolutionary Theory and Sociobiology

Evolutionary psychology looks at how evolutionary ideas help explain our thinking and behavior, while sociobiology focuses more specifically on the biological roots of social behaviors, how these behaviors might have evolved to help our species survive. Both fields are grounded in Darwin's theory of evolution, which suggests that much of our behavior is aimed at passing on our genes. According to this view, men and women may have developed different behaviors because those differences gave them survival advantages (Buss, 2019).

However, some people criticize sociobiology and evolutionary psychology because they can make it seem like sex-based differences in how we think and behave are fixed and natural, which often reinforces traditional gender roles. The worry is that if these roles evolved to keep the species going, it implies they should still be seen as desirable or appropriate. But supporters of evolutionary theory argue it shouldn't be taken as something set in stone instead, it's about the interaction between biology and environment

(Confer et al., 2010). The goal is to understand what evolutionary pressures shape behavior, not to justify any one way of acting.

That said, evolutionary theory has its limits. It doesn't easily explain behaviors that don't directly help with reproduction, like homosexuality, adoption, or suicide. It also doesn't fully account for the wide variety of behaviors seen between individuals and cultures (Helgeson, 2012).

Psychoanalytic Theory

Sigmund Freud (1924, 1925), a well-known physician and psychoanalyst, developed a personality theory that focused heavily on the unconscious mind. A key part of his theory involved a series of psychosexual stages, with the third stage, the phallic stage being especially important for understanding gender role development. This stage takes place between the ages of 3 and 6, when children become aware of their genitals and notice that boys have a penis while girls do not. Freud believed this realization led girls to feel inferior. His theory emphasized unconscious processes like penis envy, the Oedipal complex (in boys), and the Electra complex (in girls). Freud argued that the Electra complex is never fully resolved as the Oedipal complex is, partly because boys experience a stronger fear of punishment (castration anxiety) while girls continue to deal with a lasting sense of inferiority. He thought the way boys and girls work through these issues has a big impact on their future sexuality and relationships.

Karen Horney (1926, 1973), a feminist psychoanalyst and physician, challenged Freud's ideas. Although she also stressed the unconscious mind and the importance of childhood experiences and sexual feelings, Horney believed social factors, not biology, were more responsible for shaping gender identity. She interpreted penis envy not as a literal desire for a penis but as a symbol of girls' longing for the social power and status that men hold. Horney also argued that men experience their own kind of envy, envying women's breasts and ability to bear children and that men sometimes see women as inferior to boost their own self-esteem. She suggested this feeling of inferiority drives men to prove their masculinity, often through sexual dominance.

Nancy Chodorow (1978) took a modern psychoanalytic approach by applying object-relations theory to explain how gender roles develop. She focused more on early relationships rather than unconscious drives. Chodorow pointed out that women usually act as the primary caregivers, which plays a major role in shaping gender identity. Since both boys and girls first form close bonds with their mothers, these early relationships influence how they see themselves, how they relate to others, and their attitudes toward women. She also suggested that the traditional division of labor men working outside the home and women taking care of the household stems from women's caregiving roles. For society to change these roles, Chodorow believed men would need to take on more childcare responsibilities.

Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory (Bandura & Walters, 1963; Mischel, 1966) is one of the most fundamental theories explaining how social factors shape behavior. According to this theory, behavior is learned in two key ways: through modeling and through reinforcement. These principles are essential to understanding how gender roles are acquired, just as they apply to any other behavior (Mischel, 1966). Children develop gender roles by mimicking behaviors they observe in their social environment. This process, known as observational learning, occurs when a person replicates the actions, attitudes, and emotional responses demonstrated by others, whether these models are real or symbolic (Mischel, 1966). Children learn about gender roles through observing a variety of sources like television, books, and people around them. As they encounter different role models, their understanding of gender roles develops and changes. Early social learning theory suggested that kids imitate people of the same sex to adopt gender-typical behaviors. However, research shows that children don't always copy same-sex models (Maccoby & Jacklin, 1974). Instead, they tend to imitate behaviors that are generally seen as typical for their gender (Jacklin, 1989; Perry & Bussey, 1979). For example, children know that nursing is usually a female job and construction work is mostly done by men. So, a girl is more likely to imitate her mother if she's a nurse rather than if she's a construction worker.

Even if her mother works in construction, the girl might still associate that job with men since most workers in that field are male.

Reinforcement theory of Pavlov's dog responding to a bell explains that behaviors are repeated based on their consequences. When it comes to learning gender roles, boys and girls get rewarded differently for certain behaviors, and these rewards encourage them to repeat those actions. Society often showcases male aggression in movies, TV, and video games, and this behavior is frequently reinforced. Boys, especially, are more likely to be praised by family, teachers, and friends for showing aggression. Both boys and girls receive encouragement for behaviors that fit their gender roles, but boys face harsher punishment than girls when they act outside those expectations. This helps explain why boys tend to stick more strictly to traditional male roles compared to girls (Brannon, 2017).

Gender Role Socialization

Gender role socialization means that the people and things around a childlike parents, teachers, friends, and media shape their behavior by rewarding certain actions and providing role models that fit traditional gender expectations. This process encourages women to develop communal qualities like caring and nurturing, while men are pushed toward agentic traits such as assertiveness and independence. Boys are often taught to be confident and to hold back their emotions, whereas girls are encouraged to be caring and to avoid being too assertive. This shaping can happen directly, through rewards and punishments, or indirectly, by watching and copying others (Parsons & Bales, 1955).

Gender-role socialization doesn't just influence real differences between boys and girls; it can also make those differences seem bigger than they actually are. This is called response bias, where men and women change their behavior to match what's expected of their gender. In a study by Massa, Mayer and Bohon (2005), female participants identified as having a feminine gender role performed better on a spatial test when it was framed as measuring empathy. Conversely, those with a masculine gender role performed better when the same test was described as assessing spatial ability. Men's performance remained consistent regardless of the framing. This demonstrates that gender role beliefs and task framing can interact to affect performance outcomes.

Helgeson (2012) pointed out that boys and girls are treated differently more often when they're younger. As children grow, parents tend to pay more attention to their unique personalities rather than just their gender. At the same time, other influences like friends, neighbors, and media become more important in shaping gender roles. Boys and girls usually play with different kinds of toys, and it's generally more accepted for girls to play with "boys' toys" than for boys to play with "girls' toys." Since masculine toys are often seen as more educational, some wonder if this contributes to differences in thinking skills between sexes. Although women now appear more in media like books, TV, and advertisements and often in roles that break stereotypes, they're still frequently shown in traditional roles. Advertisements, in particular, continue to portray women as sexual objects and keep reinforcing typical gender roles for both men and women.

Social Role Theory

Social role theory explains that the behavioral differences between women and men mostly come from the different social roles they hold in society (Eagly et al., 2000; Wood & Eagly, 2002). It's related to gender-role socialization theory, but while that theory focuses on how individuals and their environments shape behavior, social role theory looks at the bigger picture how societal structures and expectations influence behavior across groups. In other words, it emphasizes the broader social context rather than just the day-to-day actions people take toward men and women (Brannon, 2017).

According to this theory, the division of labor between the sexes helps explain why women often develop communal traits like being nurturing and cooperative while men tend to be more agentic, showing traits like assertiveness and independence. Men usually work outside the home, which encourages agentic behaviors, while women, even if they have jobs, often still carry the main responsibility for housework and childcare, which fosters communal traits. When men and women share similar roles, differences in their behavior tend to shrink. The theory also acknowledges that biological differences, such as women's ability to have children and men's generally larger size, have played a part in how these roles have been assigned (Wood & Eagly, 2002). Social role theory has been used to explain a variety of social behaviors (Eagly, 1987).

The theory also suggests that women might be more likely to conform because they want to seem agreeable and keep harmony within groups. This could explain why women are often more likely to smile, laugh, maintain eye contact, or nod during conversations they're trying to build connections. Women's higher agreeableness in small groups can be seen as a way to strengthen group bonds. But social role theory doesn't say women must be communal or men must be agentic; rather, it points out that society's assigned roles tend to shape these behaviors. In many cultures, this has led to women developing communal traits and men adopting agentic ones. As societies become more equal and roles between genders become more alike, these behavioral differences tend to lessen (Larson & Wilson, 2004). For example, when men and women have equal access to education, they often take on more similar roles, with women delaying marriage and childbearing to focus on their careers. However, equal access to education doesn't always mean true equality sometimes women are still educated mainly for domestic roles, while men are prepared for paid work (Brannon, 2017).

In a study on interpersonal behaviors, Whiting and Edwards (1988) found differences between boys and girls in two key areas: nurturance (helping others) and egoistic dominance (competition and coercion). Their research showed that environmental factors influenced these differences. Girls got more chances to practice nurturing through caring for younger children, while boys were more involved in competitive and dominant behaviors when interacting with older boys. These results support social role theory. They also found that parents treated boys and girls differently, mothers tended to give girls more chores related to childcare and housework, and gave them more instructions than boys.

Cognitive Development Theory

Cognitive development theory focuses on how children actively make sense of gender roles through their own thinking processes, highlighting that kids play an active part in understanding gender based on their bodies and the world around them (Kohlberg, 1966). Rather than simply being shaped by rewards or punishments, children organize and interpret what they see in their environment to learn about gender. So, they're not just passive recipients but active explorers.

According to this theory, kids go through different stages as they learn about gender. The first step is developing gender identity around ages 2 to 3, when they start to recognize and use the labels “boy” and “girl” for themselves and others. At this early stage, their understanding is often based on obvious features like hair length or clothes, and they might even think someone’s gender can change just by changing their outfit—like believing a man becomes a woman if he wears a dress. By the time they’re 4 or 5, children can reliably sort people into male or female categories, although they still base this mostly on external traits like size or appearance rather than on biological facts. Around age 5, they reach gender constancy, meaning they understand their gender is permanent and won’t change. However, even then, their reasons for categorizing gender might not be fully biological (Martin & Ruble, 2004).

Once kids have a sense of their own gender, they start shaping their attitudes and behaviors to fit that identity. They’re motivated to act in ways that match their idea of being a boy or a girl, and their understanding grows as they learn more from the people and culture around them. One critique of Kohlberg’s theory is that he believed kids had to fully grasp gender constancy before they were motivated to behave consistently with their gender, which some see as too rigid (Brannon, 2017).

Bussey and Bandura (1999) proposed social cognitive theory, which sees cognitive development as just one piece of the puzzle. This theory also highlights how important outside influences like parents, friends, and society are in shaping gender behavior. At first, kids respond to rewards and punishments from others, but as they grow, they start to guide themselves based on their own internal values. Social cognitive theory stresses how psychological processes and social environments work together in shaping gender roles.

Gender Schema Theory

Gender schema theory is all about how kids learn gender roles not so much what those roles are, but how children sort the world into masculine and feminine categories based on their culture. It blends ideas from social learning theory and cognitive development theory. Social learning theory explains how kids pick up gendered behaviors by watching others, while cognitive development theory shows how they organize what

they learn into clear gender categories to keep things consistent. According to gender schema theory, kids use these mental gender frameworks, or schemas, to make sense of new information (Brannon, 2017).

Bem (1981) pointed out that gender shapes many parts of life, like what clothes people wear, what toys they choose, and even their career goals. But not everyone relies on gender categories to organize their world. Those who don't are called gender aschematic. Bem connected this idea to androgyny, where a person blends both traditionally masculine and feminine traits in how they see themselves. People who are gender aschematic tend to be more flexible and don't feel bound by strict gender rules. On the other hand, gender schematic individuals strongly identify with behaviors typical of their own gender. Even those who cross traditional lines like feminine boys or masculine girls are considered gender schematic because they still follow a specific set of gender norms.

One criticism of gender schema theory is how it handles the idea of androgyny. Although androgynous people are described as gender aschematic (meaning they don't view things strictly by gender), androgyny itself involves mixing masculine and feminine traits, which doesn't fully break free from gender categories (Brannon, 2017). Bem herself recognized that androgyny might not offer the kind of behavioral flexibility she hoped for. Ultimately, Bem preferred the idea of gender aschematicity moving beyond gender categories altogether rather than just blending traits through androgyny.

Emotional Maturity

Emotions can be described as feelings that arise when a person experiences a situation or interaction that holds personal significance, especially regarding their wellbeing (Campos et al., 2004). They are often viewed as intense states involving both the mind and body, shaped by how the individual interprets the experience. Emotions are communicated through various nonverbal cues such as facial expressions, body posture, eye contact, and touch. These emotional experiences can influence behavior much like biological or psychological drives. From the moment they are born, children display

emotions, which can be seen through behaviors like facial movements and vocal sounds. Emotions consist of three key elements: physiological changes (like variations in heart rate or blood pressure), subjective cognitive experiences (how one personally feels), and expressive behaviors (the outward signs of internal emotional states) (Mythili, 2014).

Emotional maturity not only influences personality development but also plays a crucial role in controlling individual growth. A person who can manage their emotions, delay gratification, and endure discomfort without self-pity may still be emotionally immature (Singh & Bhargava, 1999). Emotional maturity is a continuous process in which an individual strives for greater emotional health, both internally and interpersonally (Walter & Smitson, 1974). Menninger (1999) explains that emotional maturity involves the capacity to deal constructively with reality. It can also be viewed as the ability to practice self-control, which is shaped by thinking and learning. An emotionally mature person is one who has control over their emotional life (Chamberlain, 1960). Such individuals can manage tension, disregard emotional triggers that affect younger people, and evaluate their own strengths and weaknesses while aiming for better integration of thought, emotion, and behavior (Crow & Crow, 1962). Emotional maturity can also be assessed by how well a person's responses are aligned with their developmental stage and how appropriately they meet the demands of the situation (Geoghagen et al., 1963).

Kaplan and Baron (1986) describe several characteristics of emotionally mature individuals, including their capacity to endure delays in fulfilling their needs and to tolerate a reasonable amount of frustration. Emotions, according to Woodworth (1954), are the soul's voice, serving as the energy that drives the mind and supports survival.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework of Emotional Maturity

James-Lange theory of emotion

The James-Lange theory of emotion, developed by William James (1884) and Carl Lange (1887), posits that emotions arise from physiological reactions to external stimuli. For instance, encountering a bear in the woods may cause trembling and an increased heart

rate. According to this theory, you interpret your body's physical reactions and then identify your emotion, for example: thinking, "I am trembling, so I must be afraid."

Cannon-Bard theory

On the other hand, the Cannon-Bard theory, introduced by Walter Cannon and Philip Bard in 1927, argues that emotions and physical responses happen at the same time. They proposed that when the thalamus receives a stimulus, it sends signals to the brain that trigger both the emotional experience and the body's physical reactions simultaneously. So, a student preparing for a lecture might feel their heart racing and mouth drying up while also feeling afraid all occurring together. In this perspective, emotions and bodily responses don't follow one after the other but happen in parallel, both controlled by the autonomic nervous system and the cerebral cortex (Cannon, 1927).

Schachter-Singer theory

The Schachter-Singer theory, developed by Schachter and Singer (1962), claims that experiencing an emotion involves interpreting both the physiological response and the situation at hand. The first step is physiological arousal either increased or decreased compared to normal. Subsequently, individuals assess their feelings by considering their behavior and the context. In other words, emotions are not simply felt; people label their general emotional state based on the context and their reactions.

Menninger (1999) describes emotional maturity as the capacity to constructively confront reality. Emotional maturity is an ongoing process of striving for emotional health, both personally and interpersonally. According to Cole (1954), a sign of emotional maturity is an individual's ability to manage tension, suggesting that emotional maturity is closely tied to self-control. Similarly, Crow and Crow (1962) define an emotionally mature individual as someone who can effectively manage stress and disregard emotional triggers that influence their behavior and attitudes.

Coleman (1994) asserts that emotional maturity is characterized by the ability to handle tension. Additionally, emotionally mature individuals can balance fun and responsibility. Allport (1961) highlights that emotional maturity involves integrating various emotional perspectives to form flexible and well-rounded self-representations.

Singh and Bhargava (1990) contend that emotional maturity is not about resolving all anxiety-inducing issues but about striving to integrate thoughts, feelings, and actions in a healthy way. They outline five key dimensions of emotional maturity:

1. **Emotional Stability** – The ability to maintain consistency in emotional responses without succumbing to mood swings or volatile reactions.
2. **Emotional Progression** – The ability to maintain positive emotional growth and vitality, ensuring a righteous and content outlook.
3. **Social Adjustment** – The capacity to interact harmoniously with others, adapting to social environments and maintaining positive relationships.
4. **Personality Integration** – The process of harmonizing diverse motives and emotional tendencies to reduce inner conflict.
5. **Independence** – The ability to make decisions autonomously, relying on personal judgment and intellect, rather than on others' influence.

Murray (2003) lists several traits of an emotionally mature person, including:

1. **Being Able to Give and Receive Love** – Emotional maturity helps people be open and vulnerable, so they can both show love and accept it without seeing it as a weakness.
2. **Facing Reality** – Mature people tackle problems directly instead of avoiding or ignoring them like those who are less mature might.
3. **Balanced in Giving and Receiving** – Those who are mature freely offer support and resources to others but are also comfortable accepting help when they need it.
4. **Seeing Life Experiences Positively** – Mature individuals treat life's ups and downs as chances to grow and learn, finding value in every experience.
5. **Learning from Experience** – Maturity means taking responsibility for your actions and lessons, whether they come from good or bad experiences.
6. **Handling Frustration Well** – Mature people can roll with the punches and keep moving forward even when things don't go as planned.
7. **Dealing with Anger Constructively** – Instead of lashing out, mature individuals use their frustration to find solutions and fix problems.

8. Staying Calm Under Pressure – Emotional maturity brings a sense of calm and confidence during tough times, while less mature people tend to get anxious and stressed.

Resilient Coping

Lazarus, who played a major role in developing the transactional theory of stress and coping, describes coping as a flexible and ongoing process that changes depending on the situation causing the stress. Lazarus and Folkman (1984, 1993) emphasize that how people evaluate a stressful event greatly influences how they cope with it. Research indicates that most individuals use a mix of problem-focused coping (trying to fix the issue) and emotion-focused coping (managing their feelings) when dealing with stress in real life (Bagdi & Pfister, 2006; Tate et al., 2006). Different coping styles have been identified (Bonanno, 2004; Gore-Felton et al., 2006), and how well these strategies work often depends on the kind of stress someone is facing. For example, coping may vary depending on whether the stress is ongoing or short-term, or if it's something they can control or not. The specific nature of the stress like health problems, relationship struggles, or grief also affects which coping approaches people use (Thoits, 1995).

Throughout the 20th century, two primary traditions shaped coping theory: psychodynamic theory and cognitive psychology (Folkman & Lazarus, 1991). Psychodynamic models of coping emphasize the role of ego defenses (Menninger, 1954; Vaillant, 1992) and often categorize coping strategies into a hierarchy, distinguishing between more mature and primitive responses. For instance, one model (Haan, 1977) outlines the development of these ego functions and their relationship to emotions, including stress. Cognitive theories of coping (Pretzer et al., 2002; Stroebe & Schut, 1999, 2001), on the other hand, focus on cognitive processes as intermediaries between external stressors and an individual's emotional and behavioral reactions. A leading example of this cognitive approach is the model proposed by Folkman and Lazarus (Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984), which explores the complex interconnection between

cognition, coping, emotions, and the alignment between an individual and their environment.

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework of Resilient Coping

Resilient coping is a term derived from the classification presented by Polk (1997) who defines resilience as a distinctive way of handling stressors, including cognitive abilities, problem-solving skills, and other attributes that demonstrate a person's ability to act in the face of challenging situations. Sinclair and Wallston (2004) expand on this, emphasizing that resilience involves not only these cognitive attributes but also includes skills such as setting realistic goals, assessing the consequences of actions, and engaging in problem-solving behaviors. Resilient individuals are typically goal-oriented, confident in their ability to manage adversity, and often succeed in the challenges they face (Sinclair & Wallston, 2004). The importance of measuring resilience and resilient coping lies in their ability to identify individuals who are adept at maintaining psychological well-being under stress (van der Meulen et al., 2020).

Haan's Model of Coping, Defense, and Fragmentation

Haan's Model of Coping, Defense, and Fragmentation provides a psycho-dynamic perspective on human adjustment. Norma Haan (1969) proposed a tripartite model of ego processes coping, defense, and fragmentation. She described coping as an effort to overcome difficulties on equal terms, where individuals draw from internal and external resources to manage challenges (Haan, 1993). Defense, in contrast, involves rigid, protective adaptations that safeguard beliefs and behaviors (Haan, 1993). Fragmentation refers to adaptive failure, where individuals struggle to respond appropriately to stress. Haan (1965) argues that individuals "construct" responses to their environment, rather than simply "reacting" to it, and as cognitive development progresses, individuals become increasingly adept at managing internal and external stresses in adaptive ways. As cognitive abilities mature, coping becomes the primary form of adaptation, allowing adults to control behavior and navigate the consequences of their actions (Haan, 1977).

Haan (1969) noted that the three ego processes coping, defense, and fragmentation are distinct in their properties but parallel in function. While coping involves flexible, goal-directed problem-solving with appropriate emotional expression and recognition of objective reality, defense is rigid and distorts reality by avoiding or denying stressors. Fragmentation, on the other hand, is characterized by ritualistic, automatic behavior and emotional dominance. For instance, someone dealing with a long-term illness might cope by accepting their condition and reaching out for help, while a more defensive person might deny the illness and avoid getting treatment. In contrast, someone who feels overwhelmed or fragmented might shut down emotionally or detach from reality altogether (Haan, 1963).

Haan (1977) introduced ten core ego functions that can show up in three ways—coping, defense, or fragmentation—depending on how a person handles stress. These ego functions are grouped into four categories based on how they help a person adapt. The first group, called cognitive functions, includes discrimination, detachment, and means-end symbolization. These are outward-facing and focus on solving problems. The second group, reflexive-interceptive functions, includes delayed response, sensitivity, and time reversion. These are more inward-looking and relate to thoughts, feelings, and desires. The third function, selective awareness, falls under attention-focusing and involves tuning in to some aspects of reality while ignoring others. A common example is denial, where someone blocks out unpleasant truths. The last group, affective-impulse regulating functions, includes diversion, restraint, and transformation. These help control emotions especially anxiety by keeping emotional reactions in check, something that tends to be more instinctive in early childhood (Haan, 1977).

Lazarus and Folkman's Theory of Coping

Lazarus and Folkman (1966, 1984, 1991) introduced a theory of coping that differs significantly from earlier models by highlighting the ongoing, dynamic interaction between a person's thoughts, emotions, and coping strategies. Unlike previous theories that treated coping simply as a reaction to emotions, their transactional model sees coping as a fluid process shaped by how individuals interpret and evaluate stressors in their

environment. In this model, stress isn't just something that happens to a person—it's shaped by how the person perceives and responds to it. Coping, therefore, is not a fixed response but an evolving strategy that adapts depending on the situation and the person's internal state (Menninger, 1963; Miller, 1980; Ursin, 1980; Vaillant, 1977). Lazarus and Folkman's approach views this relationship as dynamic and reciprocal, highlighting the importance of cognition. This perspective contrasts with other cognitive theories of emotion that typically prioritize either cognition (Beck et al., 1979; Ellis, 1962) or emotion (Zajonc, 1980, 1984), overlooking the interconnection between the two and the central role of coping. Their theory thus represents a significant advancement in understanding both emotion and coping processes (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988, 1991; Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

To better understand Lazarus and Folkman's theory, it's important to clarify a few key terms: emotion, coping, and appraisal. According to them, emotions are not just feelings but are made up of several parts: how we interpret a situation (cognitive appraisal), our instinctive reactions (action impulses), and physical responses in the body (like a racing heart). These elements are closely linked, working together rather than separately. This view aligns with behavioral theories, which suggest that people's actions are shaped by how they respond to things happening around them (Cone, 1977, 1978, 1979). In this model, our thoughts, how we perceive and make sense of situations are at the heart of both our emotional reactions and our behavior.

Folkman and Lazarus (1991) describe coping as the mental and physical efforts we make to deal with stressors especially those we see as too much for us to handle with our current resources. Their approach sees coping as an ongoing, flexible process. As we face a challenge, our thoughts (appraisals), feelings, and actions all interact and change the way we experience the situation. This leads to further reassessment (reappraisal), creating a continuous cycle of adapting and responding until the stressor is resolved.

Appraisal refers to how we judge the personal importance of an event (Lazarus, 1995). It's essentially our way of making sense of what's happening, based on what we know about the situation, and helps us figure out how to respond. In his original model

(Lazarus, 1966), he broke this process into two parts: primary and secondary appraisal. In a primary appraisal, we decide whether a situation is potentially stressful or threatening. This judgment helps shape our emotional reaction like whether we feel angry, anxious, or indifferent. Then comes the secondary appraisal, where we assess what resources we have to deal with the situation, what coping strategies are available, and how we think the environment or people around us will respond. These two types of appraisals don't operate in isolation they constantly influence each other. As we choose how to cope, those actions can trigger new emotions and lead to a cycle of re-evaluating the situation. This ongoing interaction helps explain how our emotional and coping responses continue to evolve as events unfold.

Resilience refers to the positive adaptation to adversity, while resilient coping is the ability to effectively use cognitive appraisal and problem-solving strategies in the face of stress (Sinclair & Wallston, 2004). Coping strategies can be categorized as either positive (e.g., problem-solving) or negative (e.g., avoidance, substance use) (Rice & Liu, 2016). Resilient coping involves adaptive psychological and behavioral responses that help individuals manage stress, adversity, or trauma while preserving or recovering their mental well-being (Fletcher & Sarkar, 2013).

Protective factors enhance an individual's ability to cope with adversity, and resilient coping is seen as the capacity to maintain stable psychological and physical functioning in the face of significant disruption (Bonanno, 2004). Resilient coping stands apart from other coping strategies by focusing specifically on how people adapt to long-term, uncontrollable stressors and the social environments that support this adaptation. While it shares the idea of coping as a back-and-forth interaction between a person and their circumstances much like in cases of childhood development or managing a chronic illness it is unique in how it tackles ongoing, intense challenges. Resilient coping is particularly concerned with situations of prolonged hardship, emphasizing not just individual strength but also the influence of social and contextual support in helping people bounce back (Bonanno, 2004; King et al., 2003).

Self- Esteem

Rosenberg (1965), one of the pioneering figures in self-esteem research, defined self-esteem as the overall positive evaluation an individual has of themselves. He emphasized that high self-esteem involves self-respect and a belief in one's own worth. Similarly, Sedikides and Gress (2003) described self-esteem as a person's perception of their self-worth, feelings of self-respect, and self-confidence, alongside the positive or negative views they hold about themselves.

Psychologists approach the notion of self-esteem from two main perspectives. The first is the emotional, or affective, perspective, which sees self-esteem as a deep-seated feeling of self-love or self-liking, often shaped by emotional or even unconscious processes. The second is the cognitive perspective, which treats self-esteem as more of a rational judgment how someone evaluates their own value based on their skills, qualities, or achievements. Although these views differ, most theories about self-esteem actually draw from both emotional and cognitive aspects (Brown, 1998).

Three Meanings of Self-Esteem

Global Self-Esteem – Self-esteem usually refers to what's known as global or trait self-esteem, how people generally view and feel about themselves over time and in different situations. This kind of self-esteem tends to be fairly consistent. Researchers have described it in many ways, ranging from basic emotional instincts to a broader sense of being a worthwhile part of the world (Solomon et al., 1991). People with high self-esteem usually have a generally positive view of themselves, while those with low self-esteem may feel uncertain or only mildly positive. However, intense self-hatred, while sometimes seen in clinical cases, is rare in the general population (Baumeister et al., 1989).

Self-Evaluations – Another important part of self-esteem involves how people judge their abilities and qualities in specific areas of life. For instance, a person who lacks confidence in their school performance may have low academic self-esteem, while someone who feels socially accepted might have high social self-esteem. While self-esteem is sometimes confused with terms like self-confidence or self-efficacy, they're not exactly the same. A person could feel unsure about their academic skills but still have a

positive overall self-image, or someone seen as popular might still struggle with feeling good about themselves (Brown, 1998).

Psychologists have differing views on how self-esteem and self-evaluations are related. Some cognitive models suggest a "bottom-up" approach meaning positive experiences in specific areas, like academics or friendships, build up a person's overall self-esteem (Harter, 1986; Marsh, 1990; Pelham & Swann, 1989). On the other hand, affective models take a "top-down" approach. They argue that if someone generally feels good about themselves, they're more likely to view their abilities and traits in a positive light too (Brown, 1993; Dutton & Brown, 1997).

Feelings of Self-Worth – Self-esteem can also refer to the temporary emotional reactions people have to specific life events, like a sense of pride after a promotion or feelings of failure following a breakup. These moments are examples of state self-esteem—short-term feelings about oneself that come and go depending on circumstances. This contrasts with trait self-esteem, which reflects a person's overall and more stable view of their self-worth over time (James, 1890).

Understanding the difference between state and trait self-esteem is important. It highlights how certain feelings like pride can reflect high self-esteem in the moment, while shame may signal a temporary dip in self-worth. Some researchers use feedback positive or negative to temporarily boost or lower someone's self-esteem in experiments, aiming to mimic real-life changes in self-worth (Greenberg et al., 1992; Heatherton & Polivy, 1991; Leary et al., 1995). However, critics argue that such methods don't fully capture the depth of true self-esteem shifts (Brown & Dutton, 1995b; Wells & Marwell, 1976).

At the heart of it all is the self-enhancement motive, the natural human desire to feel good about oneself. People are driven to protect and elevate their self-image, striving for pride and avoiding shame. While the ways this plays out can differ across cultures and time periods, the underlying need to feel valued and worthy is a constant part of human nature (Brown, 1998).

Theoretical and Conceptual Framework of Self- Esteem

Affective Models of Self-Esteem

Affective theories of self-esteem emphasize two main ideas: first, that strong self-esteem comes from deep-rooted feelings of belonging and competence, and second, that these feelings usually take shape early in life through interactions with caregivers. While early relationships lay the groundwork for self-esteem, this doesn't mean a person's self-esteem is set in stone. Life experiences later on can still shape how people feel about themselves but these new experiences are often interpreted through the lens of early emotional patterns. Once someone develops either high or low self-esteem, it tends to influence how they see themselves, relate to others, and make sense of the world often in ways they're not even fully aware of (Epstein, 1990). Because of this underlying framework, self-esteem tends to stay relatively consistent over time.

Cognitive Models of Self-Esteem

Cognitive models offer a different take on self-esteem, viewing it as a conscious assessment of one's own worth. From this perspective, people who see themselves as having many positive traits are likely to report higher self-esteem. These theories focus on how we evaluate ourselves in specific areas of life like academics, relationships, or appearance and how those evaluations shape our overall self-esteem (Brown, 1998). One model suggests that self-esteem is essentially a running total of how we rate ourselves in these different areas. Another looks at the difference between how we see ourselves now and how we ideally want to be (Higgins et al., 1985; Horney, 1945; Rogers, 1951, 1954). This view, inspired by William James's early work, treats our "pretensions" as our goals or aspirations what we hope or feel we ought to be. The smaller the gap between our actual self and our ideal self, the higher our self-esteem tends to be. Research backs this up, showing that people with high self-esteem usually have fewer of these self-image gaps (Higgins et al., 1985; Ogilvie, 1987; Rogers & Dymond, 1954).

Campbell and colleagues (1990; 1993) added to this by noting that people with high self-esteem typically have a more stable and well-defined sense of self. In contrast, those with low self-esteem often struggle with self-doubt they change their opinions of

themselves more easily, take longer to decide how they feel about their traits, and are less sure of who they are. This kind of instability can affect their behavior, making them more likely to accept feedback even negative or inaccurate feedback that doesn't match how they truly feel about themselves (Baumgardner, 1990; Campbell, 1990; Setterlund & Niedenthal, 1993).

Sociological Models of Self-Esteem

Sociological theories of self-esteem focus on how social environments and cultural contexts shape how people feel about themselves. Drawing from Cooley's (1902) idea of the "looking-glass self" the notion that we see ourselves through others' eyes and Mead's (1934) emphasis on understanding ourselves through the lens of the broader society, these models suggest that our self-worth is tied to how valued we think we are by the people around us. Things like job, income, education, and even social categories like race, gender, or religion are all thought to play a role in shaping self-esteem. However, research has shown that these factors aren't as directly linked to self-esteem as one might expect. For instance, having a high income or an advanced degree doesn't automatically mean someone feels better about themselves (Crocker & Major, 1989; Wylie, 1979). In fact, some individuals from marginalized groups have reported higher self-esteem than those from more privileged backgrounds (Rosenberg, 1979).

Social identity theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1986) adds another layer by suggesting that how we feel about the groups we belong to, like our ethnic background, gender identity, or religion can influence our self-esteem. People who see their groups in a positive light tend to feel better about themselves. Research by Crocker and colleagues (Crocker et al., 1994; Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992) supports this, showing a link between personal self-esteem and what they call "collective self-esteem," or the value we place on our social group memberships. While this doesn't prove that positive views of our groups cause higher self-esteem, it does show that the two are related.

Rosenberg (1979) and Crocker et al. (1989) offered insights into why members of disadvantaged groups don't always show lower self-esteem. These individuals often protect their self-worth by interpreting negative feedback as a result of bias or

discrimination rather than personal flaws. They also tend to compare themselves to others within their own group instead of to more privileged groups, and they focus on their strengths rather than dwelling on their weaknesses.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Gender role attitude

Gender role attitudes are not static, they are socially constructed and evolve across time and contexts (Chodorow, 1999). Their nature is multidimensional, including cognitive (beliefs), affective (feelings), and behavioral (actions) components. Traditional attitudes are often rooted in patriarchal structures, religion, and historical labor divisions, whereas egalitarian attitudes are shaped by progressive social movements, education, and policy reforms that promote gender equity (Bem, 1981; LaCroix & Haynes, 1987). These attitudes are also intersectional. For example, a person's socio-economic status, cultural background, age, and geographical location can mediate how traditional or egalitarian their views are (Vella, 1994; French & Strachan, 2008). For instance, rural populations often exhibit more traditional views than urban counterparts due to slower cultural shifts and greater adherence to collectivist values (Uji et al., 2006).

Understanding gender role attitudes is crucial because they influence numerous outcomes at both individual and societal levels. At the individual level, gender role attitudes shape identity, emotional development, coping strategies, self-esteem, educational choices, and career paths (Kaufman, 2005; Corrigall & Konrad, 2007). At the societal level, they affect labor market dynamics, educational policies, domestic arrangements, and even national development indicators (Cunningham, 2008). Gender role attitudes are suggested to be deeply tied to our identity, self-esteem, and psychological well-being. For instance, individuals who feel pressured to conform to rigid gender norms may struggle with expressing their true selves, which can impact their mental health (Mahalik et al., 2003).

Traditional views on gender roles usually emphasize a clear division of responsibilities where men are seen as the primary breadwinners and women as the main caregivers. This perspective can create a structured framework for how families and relationship function. In fact, research by Wilkie and colleagues (1998) found that in some households where both partners work, couples who shared these traditional beliefs often

experienced greater marital satisfaction and less stress around who should do what especially when both partners were on the same page about their roles.

In collectivist or religiously conservative societies, traditional gender roles are often closely tied to cultural identity and moral values (Lye & Waldron, 1997). In such settings, individuals may find a sense of security, belonging, and purpose in conforming to socially sanctioned roles. Spence and Helmreich (1978) noted that traditional gender norms could reinforce identity clarity, reduce role conflict, and enhance psychological well-being when consistent with an individual's internal values and societal environment.

On the other hand, egalitarian views on gender roles emphasize that men and women should equally share responsibilities in all areas of life, including both work outside the home and duties within the household. These attitudes have been linked to positive outcomes such as better communication, more equitable division of labor, and improved individual well-being. Davis and Greenstein (2009) found that egalitarian beliefs are positively associated with gender equality in educational and professional settings, allowing individuals regardless of gender to pursue personal goals without constraint.

Research by Amato et al. (2007) suggested that couples who embrace shared decision-making and balanced roles often experience higher levels of mutual respect and emotional intimacy. Egalitarian relationships also tend to be more adaptive to social change, making them relevant in modern, globalized societies. Davis and Greenstein (2009) further elaborate about traditional and egalitarian gender role attitudes by contributing that it is not a matter of one being inherently superior to the other, but rather how congruence between beliefs, cultural expectations, and personal choices influences well-being and interpersonal harmony. This balanced understanding is essential in gender role research, especially in multicultural or transitional societies where diverse perspectives coexist.

Boehnke (2011) conducted a comparative study on gender role attitudes among adult men and women in highly developed nations, examining how educational level, family dynamics, work experience, and cost-benefit analyses influence these views. The

research found that individuals with higher education or those raised by working mothers were more inclined to support egalitarian gender roles. Moreover, employment positively influenced women's gender role attitudes toward equality. However, motherhood had a 'traditionalizing' influence on women, an effect not seen among men. On a societal scale, structural gender equality rather than cultural factors proved more impactful in shaping attitudes toward gender roles.

Gui (2019) examined how rural and urban backgrounds influence gender role perspectives and mental well-being. The study revealed that female students tended to hold more egalitarian gender role beliefs than male students. Women from rural areas with traditional gender views reported lower self-rated health and life satisfaction. Conversely, male students with traditional gender views reported higher life satisfaction than their female counterparts. These findings suggest urban exposure encourages more gender-equal attitudes and enhances psychological well-being, especially among women.

Notable differences in gender role attitudes were observed among unmarried individuals, with women being significantly more egalitarian than men regarding socioeconomic participation. Multivariate linear probability analysis revealed that females and males who completed at least 10th grade were 31% and 15% more likely, respectively, to hold egalitarian views compared to those with only primary education. A strong parent-child bond was linked to egalitarian attitudes among females but not males. Adolescents' attitudes were also heavily shaped by peer and community norms. Participation in adolescent-focused programs increased egalitarian perspectives by 6–7%, while membership in social organizations raised these attitudes by 5% in females and 6% in males. Watching television positively influenced gender-equal attitudes among females but had no effect on males. To foster a more egalitarian society, it is essential that both genders embrace progressive gender role ideologies. Effective interventions must work across personal, social, and institutional levels. Urban dwellers, especially women in the western regions, displayed more progressive views compared to those in rural areas, while regional differences among men were insignificant (Streatfield et al., 2023).

Anderson and Johnson (2003) studied gender-role egalitarianism in employment and social contexts, finding women generally more egalitarian, particularly in employment-related roles. Across multiple countries, women were typically less traditional in their beliefs than men (Berkel, 2004). Similar trends were found in university populations, where female students held more egalitarian perspectives than male students (Larsen & Long, 1988). These beliefs were especially prominent among women who were both educated and employed (Mason et al., 1976). In contrast, older, married, less educated men with homemaker wives in the U.S. held more traditional views than younger, unmarried, and more educated men whose wives worked (Wilkie, 1993). Research on university students has consistently shown lower levels of egalitarianism among male students compared to females (Baykal, 1988; Guvenc, 1996).

Female students consistently demonstrate higher levels of egalitarian gender attitudes than males (Larsen & Long, 1988), and this trend also appears in secondary education. High school females tend to be more progressive, while males lean more traditional (Ndobo et al., 2013). Among adolescent girls, traditional gender role beliefs decrease with age, whereas boys show little change over time (Raffaelli et al., 2004). Girls typically favor egalitarian over traditional gender roles (Aslan, 2007). Among Indian youth, females displayed more egalitarian attitudes than males, though they also reported facing greater limitations on their personal freedom. Male youth were more likely to engage in gender-discriminatory behavior within the household (Ram, 2014). In a study in Lucknow, younger generations were generally more progressive than older ones, with young women being more non-traditional than young men; however, older women were less progressive compared to older men (Shukla, 2015). Fumbam and Guata (1988) observed that older adolescents exhibited more egalitarian views than younger ones, with no significant differences based on social class. Urban adolescents scored significantly higher on egalitarian sex-role attitudes than rural counterparts (Uji et al., 2006).

Gender role expectations not only guide individual behavior but also shape how people are judged by others (Smith et al., 2013). Attitudes toward gender roles are believed

to significantly impact personal development areas such as coping mechanisms (Mayor, 2015), emotional maturity, and self-esteem (Agam et al., 2015).

Emotional Maturity

Emotionally mature individuals exhibit greater psychological well-being, including high self-esteem, low anxiety levels, and resilience against mental health disorders (Bar-On, 2006). Emotional maturity is closely associated with self-regulation, enabling individuals to delay gratification, manage anger constructively, and avoid impulsive behaviors (Gross & Thompson, 2007). It plays a critical role in coping strategies, as emotionally mature people tend to use problem-focused or adaptive coping mechanisms rather than avoidance or aggression (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Furthermore, emotionally mature individuals are more likely to engage in reflective thinking, enhancing self-awareness and facilitating better personal growth (Goleman, 1995). Students with higher emotional maturity tend to manage academic stress more effectively, maintain focus, and demonstrate consistent effort (Parker et al., 2004). Children raised in emotionally supportive environments are more likely to develop secure attachments, emotional regulation skills, and interpersonal sensitivity (Thompson, 1994). Adolescents and young adults in egalitarian, emotionally literate families tend to display higher levels of emotional maturity than those raised in authoritarian or emotionally neglectful households (Denham et al., 2003).

Kumar and Sunilima (2016) investigated the influence of gender and locality on the emotional maturity of undergraduate students. Their findings indicated no overall differences in emotional maturity when comparing students by gender or locality. However, a notable exception emerged among rural participants, where a significant gender difference was observed: rural female students displayed lower levels of emotional maturity than their male counterparts. The researchers suggested that this disparity may be attributed to limited exposure and opportunities for rural females. They emphasized the importance of parental support and advocated for more equitable developmental opportunities for young rural women. Similarly, Alam (2018) explored emotional maturity among students, focusing on demographic factors such as academic stream, gender, and

locality. The study revealed significant differences in emotional maturity based on all three variables: gender, locality, and academic discipline with science and arts students, males and females, and rural and urban students showing varying maturity levels.

Jangra et al. (2021) emphasized the importance of healthy emotional development for young adults, given the considerable emotional challenges they often face. Their study examined emotional maturity in relation to gender among early adults and found significant gender differences across several dimensions: emotional stability, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, and lack of independence. However, no significant gender difference was found in the dimension of emotional regression. In a separate study, Vyas and Gunthey (2017) identified significant gender differences in emotional maturity, with females and males differing in their emotional development, although no significant difference was found between urban and rural participants.

In contrast, Wani (2015) reported no notable gender differences in emotional maturity among university students in New Delhi. Meanwhile, Lakshmi and Krishnamurthy (2011) found significant differences in emotional maturity across gender, locality, and family structure; specifically, their study revealed differences between male and female students, urban and rural students, and those from nuclear versus joint families. Supporting this, Sharma et al. (2008) concluded that females tended to be more emotionally mature than males. A study conducted within a management school by Tatawadi (2009) echoed these findings, reporting that female students demonstrated greater emotional strength than their male counterparts.

Conflicting results were also observed in other contexts. Dutta, Chetia, and Soni (2013) found no significant difference in emotional maturity between rural and urban secondary school students in Assam. Conversely, Waghmare (2018) reported that urban college students exhibited higher emotional maturity than their rural peers.

Resilient coping

Resilient coping is vital for maintaining mental health and emotional stability in the face of adversity. It acts as a protective buffer against anxiety, depression, and burnout, particularly under high-stress conditions such as academic pressure, unemployment,

bereavement or trauma (Tugade & Fredrickson, 2004). Furthermore, it facilitates self-regulation, which helps individuals manage distress without resorting to unhealthy coping mechanisms such as substance abuse, denial, or aggression (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Resilient coping is like to be associated with job satisfaction, reduced stress, and organizational commitment (Robertson et al., 2015). Developmentally, resilient coping tends to strengthen with life experience, emotional maturity, and reflective learning. Young adults who encounter and navigate early life challenges often develop more sophisticated coping strategies over time, leading to greater resilience in adulthood (Masten, 2014).

Resilient coping is closely linked to a range of healthy psychological strategies and is often seen alongside fewer signs of mental health issues. Tomas et al. (2012) found that older adults who showed strong resilient coping were more likely to use active coping methods, like solving problems, reframing challenges in a positive light, focusing inward to reflect, and seeking social support. Limonero et al. (2014) also reported that psychology students who scored high in resilient coping also felt more capable, satisfied with life, optimistic, and emotionally positive. These students tended to rely on constructive strategies such as problem-solving, thinking differently about stressful events, seeking help from others, and avoiding stress-inducing situations. Resilient coping was also linked to lower levels of depression, anxiety, and negative emotions.

An earlier study by Limonero et al. (2012) showed that students with high resilient coping skills had stronger emotional intelligence especially in their ability to recover from emotional setbacks and reported greater life satisfaction. Moret-Tatay et al. (2015) found similar results in older adults, highlighting that resilient coping was especially tied to planning ahead and reinterpreting situations in a more positive way.

Even though resilient coping is associated with several effective strategies, it's important to note that it's not a specific coping style. Instead, it's better understood as a flexible and adaptive process that helps individuals adjust positively when facing difficulties (Luthar et al., 2000).

Kocalevent et al. (2017) examined differences in resilient coping across gender and age groups in the general population. Their results showed that males had significantly higher resilient coping scores than females and that older adults outscored adolescents. Elgar et al. (2003) noted that despite socio-economic challenges in rural settings, adolescents from rural and urban areas displayed comparable stress levels and coping methods. However, urban males reported higher levels of conflict and externalizing behaviors compared to females and rural males. Although stress, coping, and behavioral problems were interlinked, approach coping did not mitigate the effect of stress on psychological outcomes. This implies that many adolescent coping strategies may not translate into improved behavioral results.

Matud (2004) reported that women scored significantly higher than men in emotion-focused coping styles, whereas men demonstrated a more problem-focused approach. Sex-based differences in coping strategies were further supported by Kelly et al. (2008), who found that women used emotional support more frequently, though no gender differences were found in positive reframing, self-blame, or venting. Sanders and Sander (2009) reported that males coped more effectively than females. Ben-Zur and Zeidner (1996) noted a shift in gender-based coping behaviors during crisis; women tended to be more active and problem-focused during the crisis, while men employed more emotion-focused strategies. Interestingly, after the crisis ended, this pattern reversed in daily stress contexts. Ptacek et al. (1994) similarly found that males preferred problem-focused coping, whereas females leaned toward emotion-focused coping. However, not all research agrees, Donaldson et al. (2000) found no gender differences in stress coping. Matud (2004) further observed that women generally experience more stress and rely more heavily on emotion-focused coping. In contrast, Priya et al. (2017) found that male college students used more effective coping strategies than females. Swendeman et al. (2019) reported that men were more likely to engage in active coping, acceptance, substance use, denial, behavioral disengagement, venting, self-blame, and planning.

Xavier (2019) found notable gender differences in stress coping mechanisms among Indian police officers, with female officers using more problem-focused coping

strategies. Gianakos (2000) explored the role of gender identity in coping with occupational stress and found that femininity and masculinity traits, rather than biological sex alone, were strong predictors of control-related coping, while biological gender predicted direct-action coping. Femininity was linked to greater use of avoidance and support-seeking strategies (LaCroix & Haynes, 1987), lower depersonalization among women (Eichinger et al., 1991), and less adaptive coping among male nurses (Krausz et al., 1992). Among employed women, masculine traits were associated with reduced depersonalization, heightened personal accomplishment (Eichinger et al., 1991), more problem-solving behaviors, and reduced anxiety and strain (Long, 1989). Similarly, masculinity in men was linked to decreased stress, reduced feelings of isolation, and more adaptive coping strategies in managing work-related pressures (Krausz et al., 1992).

Self-esteem

Self-esteem plays a crucial role in psychological health. High self-esteem is associated with lower levels of anxiety, depression, and psychological distress, whereas low self-esteem is a risk factor for a range of mental health issues (Orth & Robins, 2013). Research indicates that self-esteem is a predictor of motivation and persistence in educational settings, with students possessing higher self-esteem showing greater engagement and better performance (Harter, 1999). In the workplace, self-esteem contributes to job satisfaction and productivity, as confident employees are more likely to take initiative and manage workplace stress effectively (Pierce & Gardner, 2004).

Furthermore, self-esteem is a critical factor during developmental stages, particularly in adolescence, when identity formation and social comparisons are prevalent (Marsh & O'Neill, 1984). In addition, high self-esteem promotes internal locus of control, enabling individuals to believe in their ability to influence outcomes rather than attributing them to external forces (Judge et al., 2002). Collectivist cultures may foster self-worth based on social harmony and interdependence, while individualist cultures often emphasize autonomy and personal achievement (Heine et al., 1999). Parental warmth, unconditional acceptance, and supportive environments are critical for fostering healthy self-esteem in childhood and adolescence (Orth et al., 2010). Self-esteem also plays a vital

role in coping with societal challenges, including discrimination, gender roles, and cultural expectations, by providing individuals with the internal resources to resist negative stereotypes and advocate for themselves (Crocker & Park, 2004).

Ravindranadan and Tom (2016) identified significant gender differences in self-esteem and also found that urban and rural students differed significantly in this regard, with urban students showing higher self-esteem. Similarly, Shukla and Kang (2017) discovered that male adolescents had higher self-esteem than females, and a significant difference was also observed based on locality, urban adolescents reported higher self-esteem compared to their rural counterparts. Zaidi (2006) also supported these findings, indicating that males scored higher in self-esteem than females, suggesting a generally elevated level of self-esteem among males.

Chittapur et al. (2024) observed that adolescents from rural areas exhibited lower self-esteem than those from urban areas. Consistently, Frost and McKelvie (2004) noted that boys tend to score higher than girls on measures of self-esteem during adolescence. Agam et al. (2015) examined how gender roles influence self-esteem and body image, finding that boys reported higher levels of self-esteem than girls. Kearney (1999) similarly reported that adolescent girls often possess lower self-esteem and rate their physical appearance and intellectual capacities less positively compared to boys. Zeinvand (2006) found significant gender differences in self-esteem among high school students, with male students exhibiting greater self-esteem than female students.

In a study conducted among young adults in Raipur, men demonstrated significantly higher self-esteem than women (Nupur & Mahapatro, 2016). Other Indian studies align with this pattern, as adolescent males consistently show higher self-esteem compared to females (Hamid et al., 2013). A common explanation for this gender disparity in self-esteem is linked to gender role expectations, where attributes associated with masculinity align more closely with traits conducive to high self-esteem. Research by Kawser (2016) showed that urban high school students reported higher levels of self-esteem than their rural peers. This pattern is further corroborated by Tauro et al. (2018),

who found significantly higher self-esteem among urban pre-university college students compared to their rural counterparts.

Interrelationship of the psychological variables

Gender role attitudes and emotional maturity

Galambos et al. (1990) reported that gender role attitudes somehow influence individuals' self-concepts and interpersonal behavior where traditional gender role attitudes often prescribe emotional restraint for males and emotional expressiveness for females. These expectations may shape how individuals manage and express emotions throughout development. Those who internalize rigid gender norms may experience limitations in their emotional repertoire, which can hinder emotional growth and adaptability (Hill & Lynch, 1983).

Isiktekin et al. (2016) noted that gender role attitudes, in contrast, are associated with emotional openness and flexibility across genders. Individuals with more flexible gender role orientations may be more capable of integrating emotional awareness with assertiveness and empathy traits associated with emotional maturity.

Levant and Richmond (2007) explained that individuals who conform to traditional gender roles may struggle to express emotions that contradict societal expectations. For instance, men are often discouraged from showing vulnerability. These restrictions may lead individuals to suppress or mishandle emotions, which in turn can negatively affect emotional regulation and maturity. In contrast, Lennon and Eisenberg (1987) observed that egalitarian perspectives, which promote open and flexible emotional expression, contribute to improved emotional regulation and maturity. People who adopt egalitarian values tend to encourage both self-expression and empathy, fostering healthier emotional development.

Eagly and Wood (2012) further argued that as societies adopt more egalitarian ideologies, rigid gender stereotypes decline, allowing for enhanced emotional maturity. The departure from conventional gender roles enables both men and women to develop emotional competencies without conforming to restrictive societal norms.

Moreover, study by Chen and Wu (2011) in rural China depicted that adherence to traditional gender norms correlated positively with emotional well-being and maturity, largely because these norms provided structure and were congruent with the prevailing cultural expectations.

Rani and Singh (2014), studying Indian adolescents, observed that emotional maturity was not necessarily lower among those with traditional gender attitudes, provided their values aligned with their social environment. This value congruence, the harmony between personal beliefs and societal norms emerged as a significant moderator of emotional well-being.

Gender role attitudes and resilient coping

Research suggests that beliefs about gender roles influence the coping strategies used by men and women. Men typically lean towards problem-solving strategies, while women are more inclined to use emotion-focused coping, and these tendencies are shaped by adherence to traditional or egalitarian views (Matud, 2004).

Mahalik et al. (2003) emphasized that adherence to traditional gender roles is associated with poorer mental health outcomes, men may be reluctant to seek help due to masculinity norms, and women may feel pressured to use specific coping strategies, increasing stress. Cultural context also plays a role, as collectivist societies often reinforce traditional gender norms more rigidly, thus influencing coping differently compared to individualistic societies with more progressive gender ideologies (Chun et al., 2006).

Haddadi and Besharat (2010) reported that individuals with higher resilience levels tend to report better mental health outcomes, and these outcomes are mediated by their adaptive coping strategies, which are often aligned with less rigid gender role expectations.

Contrary to common assumptions, traditional gender role attitudes which prescribe distinct roles for men and women can also support resilient coping, particularly in collectivist or conservative societies. For instance, a study by Park and Chesla (2007) among Korean-American families coping with chronic illness found that traditional

gender roles, such as the male as protector and the female as caregiver, provided meaningful roles that reinforced resilience during prolonged stress.

Tanaka and Yamazaki (2001) also reported that Japanese women who embraced traditional caregiving roles demonstrated high resilience and emotional endurance, grounded in cultural values of duty and self-sacrifice.

Gender role attitudes and self-esteem

Eagly and Wood (2012) pointed out that societal acceptance of diverse gender expressions contributes to self-esteem by fostering an inclusive and validating environment. Internalized gender roles significantly influence self-perception and self-worth (Yuksel & Dag, 2015), and positive correlations have been reported between gender role attitudes and self-esteem (Lennon et al., 1999; Isiktekin, 2016).

Agam et al. (2015) noted that traditionally masculine traits like independence and assertiveness are linked to higher self-esteem. Conversely, the traditional female role, which emphasizes caregiving and appearance, may hinder personal development and reduce self-esteem (Szymanowicz & Furnham, 2013). Egalitarian values that encourage shared responsibilities and equal opportunities are associated with improved self-esteem in both genders, as individuals can freely pursue personal interests without being limited by societal expectations (Twenge, 1997).

Regnerus (2003) reported that adolescents who endorsed traditional gender roles in religious communities reported higher self-esteem, particularly when their role behavior was consistent with family and community expectations. This congruence provided a sense of belonging and validation, which are key factors in healthy self-esteem development.

Lopez and Whitehead (2013) observed that traditional female roles emphasizing nurturance and caregiving could foster a strong sense of purpose and self-worth in women who valued those roles. For such individuals, fulfillment of gendered expectations such as being a good mother or supportive spouse was intrinsically rewarding and linked to positive self-evaluation.

Emotional maturity and resilient coping

Emotionally mature individuals tend to use both problem-focused and emotion-focused coping strategies, which are generally more effective in managing long-term stress (Gross, 2002). Emotional maturity correlates with greater flexibility and resilience in stressful situations, allowing individuals to adjust their coping approach depending on context (Mayer et al., 2004).

Compas et al. (2001) reported that individuals with higher emotional maturity manage stress more effectively and avoid maladaptive behaviors like denial or substance use. Emotional maturity also enhances interpersonal relationships, providing social support that serves as a buffer against stress (Repetti et al., 2002).

Research by Wagdel and Ahmed (2013) indicated a positive link between emotional maturity and confrontive as well as positive reappraisal coping. Similarly, Wagde and Ganaie (2013) observed that emotionally immature individuals tend to rely on maladaptive strategies, while those with greater maturity adopt more constructive methods. Nicholls et al. (2015) further reported that task-oriented coping was positively associated with emotional maturity.

Emotional maturity and self-esteem

Mann et al. (2004) depicted a strong positive relationship between self-esteem and emotional maturity. Individuals with high self-esteem are more likely to regulate their emotions well, show resilience, and maintain a positive outlook. Aparna and Appu (2015) also reported that this relationship holds true for both employed and non-employed women. High self-esteem fosters self-acceptance, which is an integral part of emotional maturity (Rosenberg, 1965), and contributes to improved stress management and emotional control (Gross, 2002).

Anand, Kunwar, and Kumar (2014) highlighted that emotional maturity enhances self-worth and interpersonal relationships. Branden (1994) noted that individuals with high self-esteem engage in healthier social interactions and demonstrate greater empathy and conflict resolution skills. Baumeister et al. (2003) emphasized that self-esteem enhances resilience, a core component of emotional maturity.

Resilient coping and self-esteem

The level of self-esteem an individual holds influences their preferred coping style. People with high self-esteem are more likely to use problem-focused coping, which involves addressing the root cause of stress (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). This approach is linked to better psychological outcomes and greater well-being (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Carver et al. (1989) added that individuals with high self-esteem also adopt adaptive emotion-focused strategies, such as seeking support and reframing situations positively. In contrast, low self-esteem is often associated with avoidance-based coping mechanisms, like denial and withdrawal, which can worsen stress and emotional problems (Moos & Holahan, 1987). Individuals with low self-esteem are also more prone to self-blame and rumination, patterns that can escalate anxiety and depression (Nolen-Hoeksema, 2000).

Haddadi and Besharat (2010) also depicted a positive correlation between self-esteem and resilience. Individuals with higher self-esteem tend to have better level of resilience and are more capable of using adaptive coping strategies. Connor and Davidson (2003) emphasized the role of self-efficacy which is closely linked to self-esteem in effective coping. Masten (2001) identified self-esteem as a protective factor in resilience, promoting adaptive coping and overall mental strength.

Demographic and psychological variables

Lawrence et al. (2006) reported significant gender differences in coping strategies, where males displayed a greater ability to emotionally detach from situations, were more likely to suppress their emotions, and reported higher levels of self-esteem. Uji et al. (2006) also depicted that place of residence significantly influenced egalitarian attitudes toward gender roles. Emotional maturity was shown to positively correlate with both male and female participants, suggesting that it is consistently associated across genders (Singh et al., 2013; Tripathi, 2017).

In contrast, studies by Bajaj and Nancy (2019) and Duhan et al. (2017) found significant negative relationship between age, gender, and aspects of emotional maturity.

These findings imply that as individuals age, issues such as emotional instability, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, and lack of independence tend to diminish. Singh et al. (2013) also noted a positive correlation between gender and emotional maturity, further supporting the idea that emotional development is influenced by gender identity.

Attitudes toward gender roles have been shown to affect various aspects of individual behavior and life decisions. For instance, such attitudes influence decision-making processes and the propensity for violent behavior (Davis & Greenstein, 2009; Vespa, 2009), as well as involvement in daily life activities (Corrigall & Konrad, 2007; Davis & Pearce, 2007; Kaufman, 2005), participation in the labor market, and career selection (Cunningham, 2008b; Tiklin et al., 2005; Vella, 1994). A number of studies have highlighted factors such as socioeconomic background, education, societal expectations, parental influence, and ethnicity as influential in shaping gender role attitudes (French & Strachan, 2008; Sardar, 2009). However, limited research has focused on how these attitudes specifically impact psychological factors like emotional maturity, coping resilience, and self-esteem. Keeping in view the need to fill in the gap in existing literature, the present study was designed to explore relationship between attitudes toward gender role, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem that exist among Mizo adults.

CHAPTER – II
STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Mizoram, a northeastern state of India, presents a unique socio-cultural environment shaped by tribal traditions, colonial encounters, religious influences, and the forces of modernization. The Mizo society has historically followed patriarchal social structure, where clan-based identities, customary laws, and oral traditions have strongly influenced the roles and expectations of individuals within the community (Nunthara, 1996).

Traditionally, family served as the fundamental building block of Mizo society. Within this structure, distinct responsibilities were allocated based on sex. Men were typically responsible for physically demanding tasks which required strength, bravery, and resilience. In contrast, women engaged in equally vital responsibilities such as sowing, weeding, harvesting, domestic work, and community support (Thanmawia, 2007; Paul, 2019). Although the division of labor was clear, it was not necessarily hierarchical, as both roles were considered essential for the functioning of the community.

The traditional Mizo code of conduct ‘tlawmngaihna’ played a central role in shaping individual behavior and social expectations. Tlawmngaihna, a moral code emphasizing selflessness, humility, service, and community welfare, was inculcated in both men and women from early childhood. It provided a behavioral standard that extended beyond gender lines and emphasized collective harmony over individual expression (Lalrinawma, 2005).

With the advent of British colonialism and the spread of Christianity in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, major shifts occurred in Mizo social life. The introduction of formal education, western legal systems, and Christian doctrine brought about significant changes in gender relations and family structures. Education was made accessible to both boys and girls, and mission schools became important vehicles for promoting literacy and moral development (Zohmingthanga, 2000).

Christianity, now followed by over 87% of the population, introduced new gender ideologies through its teachings while also reinforcing certain traditional values. Churches played a significant role in shaping public opinion and social behaviors, including ideas around family, morality, and gender roles. While the church has been a space for spiritual

guidance and social unity, leadership positions have historically been male-dominated, subtly reinforcing traditional structures of authority (Lalbiakzuali & Laltanpuui, 2017).

Over the past few decades, Mizoram has witnessed rapid urbanization, expansion of higher education, increased media access, and greater participation in the global economy. These developments have led to significant socio-cultural changes, especially in terms of gender norms. The rise in dual-income households, increased enrollment of women in higher education, and greater mobility have challenged conventional assumptions about what constitutes appropriate roles for men and women.

Despite these shifts, traditional gender role expectations remain deeply embedded in both rural and urban settings. For instance, in many households, men continue to be seen as the primary decision-makers and breadwinners, while women are expected to manage domestic duties and childcare, even when they are employed. Such expectations may influence not only the division of labor but also psychological processes such as self-perception, coping patterns, and emotional expression.

The cultural framework in Mizoram has been a hybrid balancing traditional values with modern democratic and religious ideals. This coexistence may lead to both continuity and tension in how gender roles are defined and internalized. Particularly for adults who have witnessed these transitions firsthand, these cultural dynamics may shape their attitudes toward gender roles and influence aspects of their emotional and psychological functioning.

Moreover, Mizo society tends to emphasize community over individualism, which can influence the development of traits such as resilience and emotional maturity. For instance, emotional regulation and the ability to endure hardship quietly may be culturally valued traits, particularly among men. Similarly, women may be culturally encouraged to exhibit patience, nurturance, and adaptability, traits that may influence their coping mechanisms and self-evaluation. These culturally shaped traits are relevant when examining psychological constructs like resilient coping, emotional maturity, and self-esteem, especially in relation to one's acceptance or rejection of traditional gender roles.

Additionally, legal and policy changes such as the Mizo Marriage, Divorce, and Inheritance of Property Act (2014) have attempted to modernize traditional family laws and provide greater equity in areas such as property inheritance and marital rights. However, the implementation and acceptance of such policies remain gradual and complex, often encountering resistance from those who view them as incompatible with cultural or religious values (Lalzikpuii & Talukdar, 2019).

Despite the relatively progressive indicators such as high literacy rates, low gender-based violence, and strong community support systems, there remains a gap in understanding how psychological outcomes such as emotional maturity, self-esteem, and coping are shaped by one's attitude toward gender roles in this transitional cultural context. Most studies on gender roles in India either generalize across states or emphasize more populated regions, thereby overlooking the unique interplay of tradition and modernity that define states like Mizoram.

The social environment in which individuals are born and raised plays a crucial role in shaping their attitudes, emotional responses, behaviors, and perceptions of the world around them. This influence extends to gender roles, which are often assigned or assumed based on societal norms (Neculaesei, 2015). These roles, along with the associated duties and responsibilities are largely shaped by family structures and cultural expectations.

From early childhood, individuals are socialized into culturally prescribed roles that dictate their responsibilities within the household and society. Such early exposure to gendered expectations has a profound impact on personal development and social interactions. Gender role attitudes serve as a framework that governs behavioral norms, life choices, and social outcomes (Mayer & Schmidt, 2004). These roles differentially shape men's and women's attitudes, preferences, emotional responses, and behavioral patterns (Moore & Stuart, 2004).

Despite notable progress toward gender equality, traditional gender norms continue to coexist with evolving gender roles, influencing how individuals perceive themselves and navigate societal expectations. Understanding these dynamics is crucial

for examining the intersection of gender role attitudes with emotional, social, and psychological well-being.

Gender role is said to shape individuals' experiences, behaviors, and overall well-being. Socialization processes from early childhood assign gender-based responsibilities and behavioral norms, impacting how individuals perceive themselves and others. These early exposures guide adult attitudes and behaviors, including emotional expression, conflict resolution, and decision-making styles (Neculaesei, 2015; Mayer & Schmidt, 2004; Moore & Stuart, 2004). Such internalized roles are assumed to influence a person's self-esteem, coping mechanisms, and their ability to handle emotional stress.

For men, the societal expectation to conform to masculine ideals of bravery, emotional restraint, and physical strength can lead to emotional suppression, underreporting of stress-related symptoms, and potential health risks. Phrases like "boys don't cry" or "man up" are not merely colloquial expressions, they shape how men internalize emotional resilience and vulnerability. This conditioning may contribute to increased stress levels, sleep disturbances, depressive symptoms, and maladaptive coping behaviors like substance use.

Women, on the other hand, are often socialized into nurturing roles that emphasize caregiving, patience, and self-sacrifice. While these attributes are culturally respected, they can also lead to chronic stress, particularly when caregiving responsibilities are prolonged or unshared. The concept of caregiver burden has been well-documented, linking prolonged caregiving with physical ailments, emotional exhaustion, and psychological disorders (Day, 2016). Additionally, the expectation to balance work, family, and societal responsibilities often leads to self-neglect, burnout, and low self-worth.

According to Bandura's Social Learning Theory (1977), individuals acquire behaviors through imitation and modeling. From an early age, boys and girls observe and internalize societal expectations regarding gender roles, primarily through interactions with family members and peers. These learned behaviors include the notion that men should be strong and muscular, while women are expected to maintain a well-groomed

and attractive appearance. Such social conditioning during childhood has lasting effects on individual development, shaping attitudes, self-perception, and behavioral patterns. Parents, as primary role models, play a crucial role in reinforcing or challenging these gender norms, influencing how children perceive and enact their gender identities (Day, 2016).

Gender roles play a pivotal role in shaping individual identity, societal functioning, and psychological well-being. From an early age, gendered expectations influence self-concept, shaping how individuals perceive themselves and their place in society (West & Zimmerman, 1987). These roles not only prescribe socially acceptable behaviors, attitudes, and aspirations for males and females but also dictate the ways in which individuals navigate personal and professional life.

Beyond shaping identity, gender roles can have significant psychological implications, particularly in areas such as self-esteem, emotional maturity, and coping mechanisms. Adherence to traditional gender norms can either support or hinder personal well-being, depending on the degree of alignment with one's self-concept. For instance, individuals who feel constrained by rigid gender expectations may experience lower self-esteem and emotional distress, whereas those who find congruence between their gender identity and societal roles may exhibit greater psychological stability (Courtenay, 2000).

Furthermore, gender roles influence responses to stress and adversity, impacting resilience and coping strategies. In many cultures, men are socialized to suppress emotional expression, which may lead to higher levels of stress, poorer emotional regulation, and negative mental health outcomes. Conversely, women, often expected to adopt caregiving and nurturing roles, may develop stronger interpersonal coping mechanisms but also face higher emotional burdens due to societal expectations. These patterns underscore the importance of examining gender role attitudes in relation to psychological factors such as emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem, particularly within culturally distinct communities such as the Mizo society.

However, the specific ways in which gender roles interact with emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem remain underexplored. Existing literature often focuses

on gender differences in these psychological constructs without sufficiently examining the underlying roles that gender expectations play in shaping them. Furthermore, most studies tend to generalize findings across different cultural contexts, ignoring the nuances of gender role socialization in diverse environments.

Emotional maturity, the capacity to regulate emotions effectively and adaptively respond to social expectations, is a fundamental psychological determinant of social attitudes (Thompson, 2019). Individuals with higher emotional maturity may demonstrate greater openness to gender role flexibility, whereas those with lower emotional maturity might gravitate toward traditional gender roles as a coping mechanism against uncertainty (Luthar et al., 2020). However, empirical evidence examining the direct relationship between emotional maturity and gender role attitudes within collectivistic cultures like the Mizo society remains limited.

Similarly, resilient coping, which reflects an individual's ability to adapt positively to stress and adversity (Connor & Davidson, 2003), may play a critical role in shaping gender ideologies. Those with higher resilience might challenge societal expectations and advocate for egalitarianism, while those with lower resilience may conform to traditional norms as a mechanism for psychological security (Bonanno, 2013). The interaction between resilience and gender role attitudes in a socio-cultural context where traditional and modern values coexist is yet to be thoroughly investigated.

Additionally, self-esteem, which reflects an individual's self-worth and confidence (Rosenberg, 1965), has been theorized to correlate with gender role attitudes. Individuals with higher self-esteem are more likely to endorse egalitarian roles, as they may possess greater autonomy and self-assuredness in challenging gender norms (Twenge & Campbell, 2001). Conversely, those with lower self-esteem may find security in adhering to traditional roles, reinforcing deeply ingrained socio-cultural patterns. However, there is a scarcity of research focusing on the interplay between self-esteem and gender role attitudes within the Mizo cultural framework.

The adult population have been considered for the present study since they have experienced various life stages, such as entering the workforce, forming intimate

relationships, and possibly raising children. These experiences provide rich data on how gender roles influence major life decisions and transitions. For example, traditional gender roles may affect career choices, relationship dynamics, parenting styles, and responses to stress, making it possible to study the nuanced ways in which gender roles intersect with other aspects of life (Helgeson, 2016). Wood and Eagly (2002) also contributed that by adulthood, individuals typically have a well-established gender identity and have internalized societal gender roles to a significant degree. This allows to observe the full impact of these roles on their psychological and social development. Unlike children or adolescents, adults have had more time to interact with and be influenced by the cultural norms, expectations, and social structures that reinforce gender roles.

The present study is a venture to explore gender role attitudes of men and women in rural and urban areas and their relation to emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem. It seeks to address this gap by exploring the relationship between gender roles and emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem. By examining these relationships, the study aims to provide a deeper understanding of how gender role attitudes influence psychological well-being and to identify potential areas for intervention to promote healthier coping mechanisms and self-perception across genders. The findings of the proposed study will be one of the few endeavors; it will not only satisfy academic interest but it is also expected to provide theoretical basis to reflect the current attitudes and scenario regarding gender roles among the target population.

Operational Definitions:

1. Gender role attitude

Gender role attitude may be described as socially constructed roles, behaviours, activities and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women (WHO, 2015). In this study, Gender role attitudes will be measured using Attitudes toward Women Scale, where higher scores indicate more egalitarian attitudes, and lower scores indicate more traditional views.

Traditional gender role attitude

Traditional gender role attitudes refer to the belief that men and women should occupy distinct and predefined roles based on traditional societal norms where men are expected to be dominant, independent, and career-focused, and women are expected to be nurturing, submissive, and family-oriented (Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

Egalitarian gender role attitude

Egalitarian gender roles refer to the idea that individuals should have access to the same rights and opportunities irrespective of their sex, and should be treated according to the same principles, norms, and standards (Walby, 2005).

2. Emotional maturity

Emotional maturity is defined as the ability of participants to regulate emotions, cope with stress, and maintain psychological stability (Walter and Smitson, 1974). In this study, it will be assessed using Emotional Maturity Scale, where higher scores indicate greater emotional immaturity. The scale includes the following sub-scales:

- i. **Emotional Instability** refers to the tendency of an individual to experience frequent and intense emotional fluctuations. This may manifest as heightened levels of anxiety, fear, irritability, or anger, often in response to everyday stressors.
- ii. **Emotional Regression** denotes a behavioral pattern in which an individual responds to challenging situations by reverting to childlike or immature coping mechanisms, such as tantrums, avoidance, or emotional withdrawal.
- iii. **Social Maladjustment** measures a person's capability to form and sustain healthy interpersonal relationships. It reflects the individual's ability to demonstrate empathy, engage in effective communication, and cooperate with others in social settings.
- iv. **Personality Disintegration** is characterized by a perceived lack of internal coherence or unity within the individual's sense of self. This may involve fragmented thinking, inconsistencies in behavior, or an unstable self-image.

- v. **Lack of Independence** evaluates the degree to which a person relies on others for guidance, support, and decision-making. Individuals scoring high in this domain often exhibit difficulty initiating tasks, making independent judgments, or taking personal responsibility.

3. Resilient coping

Resilient coping is a tendency to effectively use cognitive appraisal skills in a flexible, committed approach to active problem-solving, even in stressful circumstances, promoting positive adaptation (Sinclair & Wallston, 2004). It will be measured using the Brief Resilient Coping Scale, with higher scores indicating greater resilience in dealing with life stressors.

4. Self-esteem

Self-esteem is operationalized as an individual's overall positive evaluation of the self (Rosenberg et al., 1995). For the present study it will be measured using Rosenberg self-esteem scale, where higher scores reflect higher self-esteem.

5. Locality

Locality in this study refers to the residential setting of participants, categorized as rural or urban based on the classification given by the Census Organization of India (2011). It will be used as an independent variable to examine its influence on gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem.

6. Gender

Gender refers to the socially constructed characteristics of women and men (WHO, 2011). Gender in this study is defined as the self-identified classification of participants as male or female. It will be used as an independent variable to examine its influence on gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem.

Objectives:

Given the theoretical and methodological foundation provided, the following objectives were framed for the present study:

1. To determine the pattern of relationship between the psychological variables of gender role attitude, emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence), resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample.
2. To examine the independent effect of gender (male and female) on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample.
3. To examine the independent effect of locality (rural and urban) on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample.:
4. To examine the interaction effects of 'gender x locality' on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample.
5. To determine the predictive relationship between gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem.

Hypothesis:

The following hypotheses were made based on the objective:

1. It was expected that there will be significant positive relationship between gender role attitudes, resilient coping and self-esteem. And significant negative relationship was expected between emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence) and gender role attitude, resilient coping and self-esteem.
2. It was expected that there will be significant independent effect of gender on gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. Females were expected to depict higher egalitarian gender role attitudes and higher scores on resilient coping. And males were expected to depict

higher traditional gender role attitudes, higher scores on emotional maturity and self-esteem.

3. It was expected that there will be significant independent effect of locality on gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. Urban participants were expected to depict higher egalitarian gender role attitudes, resilient coping and self-esteem. And rural participants were expected to depict higher traditional gender role attitudes and lower scores on emotional maturity.
4. It was expected that there will be significant interaction effects of 'gender x locality' on the psychological variables. Females living in urban areas were expected to show greater scores as compared to all other groups on gender role attitudes and resilient coping and lower scores on emotional maturity. Males living in urban areas were expected to show greater scores on self-esteem.
5. It was expected that there will be significant prediction between gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem.

CHAPTER – III
METHODS AND PROCEDURE

Sample

Four hundred twenty (420) samples were initially obtained by following multistage sampling procedure. Out of 420 samples, 300 samples were screened out as final participants: 150 Male (75 from rural areas and 75 from urban areas) and 150 Female (75 from rural areas and 75 from urban areas) with age ranging between 18-65 years selected from different parts of Mizoram (based on Erikson, 1950 classification of adult age group). The Govt. of India have acknowledged the 'transgender' as the third gender (Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment, 2019) but the present study considered only male and female gender.

The classification of rural and urban regions by Census Organization of India (2011) was used to identify and differentiate rural and urban regions. According to this system, an area was designated as urban if it possessed a statutory urban local body- such as a municipality, municipal corporation or a notified town area committee. These designations reflect formal administrative recognition and governance structures typically associated with urban environments. In addition to these statutory towns, the census also recognized a category known as census urban area, which were identified based on specific demographic and economic parameters rather than legal status. For an area to qualify as a census urban area, it needed to meet three essential criteria:

1. A minimum population of 5,000,
2. At least 75% of the male working population engaged in non-agricultural activities, and
3. A population density of at least 400 persons per square kilometer.

These criteria were designed to capture the functional characteristics of urban city, even in locations that lacked formal urban governance bodies. Essentially, they acknowledged the urban-like nature of many settlements that had not yet been officially designated as urbans but were, in practice, displaying urban demographic and occupational patterns.

Conversely, all areas that did not fulfill either the statutory designation or the functional criteria were classified as rural. These rural regions typically consisted of

villages and communities with lower population densities, predominantly agricultural livelihoods, and limited access to the infrastructural and institutional frameworks found in urban settings.

A multistage sampling strategy was employed to obtain a diverse and representative sample of Mizo adults from both rural and urban regions of Mizoram. To ensure geographical representation, one area from each direction- north, south, east, and west was randomly selected.

Stage 1

For the urban sample, Aizawl District was selected, and the sampling followed a random selection of wards as per the classification provided by the Aizawl Municipal Corporation (AMC, 2008), which comprised 19 municipal wards. Each ward encompassed several localities that meet the criteria for an urban population. To ensure geographical representation across the city, the wards were grouped into four zones- North, South, East, and West. From these zones, one ward was randomly selected from each: Ward I (North), Ward XV (South), Ward V (East), and Ward XI (West).

For the rural sample, the districts of Mizoram were categorized into four geographical zones- North, South, East, and West to ensure comprehensive regional representation. Each district comprises numerous villages that reflect the demographic and socio-cultural characteristics of the rural population. One district was randomly selected from each zone: Kolasib District (North), Lawngtlai District (South), Serchhip District (East), and Mamit District (West). Within each selected district, villages were identified for inclusion in the study, ensuring that the rural sample accurately reflected the wider geographical and cultural diversity of rural Mizoram.

Stage 2

For the urban sample, from each of the selected wards, one locality was randomly chosen to represent the urban population: Durtlang from Ward I (North), Chanmari from Ward V (East), Luangmual from Ward XI (West), and Maubawk from Ward XV (South). These localities served as the sampling units, ensuring coverage across the geographical zones of Aizawl city.

For rural sample, within each selected district, rural villages were randomly chosen based on official listings to represent the rural population. The selected villages were: Nisapui (Kolasib) from the North, Bungtlang South (Lawngtlai) from the South, Keitum (Serchhip) from the East, and Ropuichhip (Mamit) from the West.

Stage 3

In the final stage, households within each of the selected rural and urban localities were identified using simple random sampling techniques. Individuals meeting the inclusion criteria for Mizo adults were approached for participation. All eligible individuals who consented to take part were included in the final sample.

Inclusion Criteria

- 1) Individuals who are literate (who can read and write).
- 2) Individuals who have no mental health problems.
- 3) Individuals who are willing to participate and cooperate.
- 4) Male and Female gender.

Exclusion Criteria

- 1) Individuals who are illiterate (who can't read and write)
- 2) Individuals who have mental health problems
- 3) Individuals who are not willing to participate and cooperate.
- 4) Transgender

Design of the study

The study incorporates a two-way classification of variables, 'gender' (male and female) and 'locality' (rural and urban) on the psychological measures of gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem. The independent and interaction effects of 'Gender' and 'Locality' on the behavioral measure with the demographic profiles were elucidated with the 2X2 (2 gender X 2 locality) factorial design

where equal proportion of participants were included for evaluation on the psychological variables.

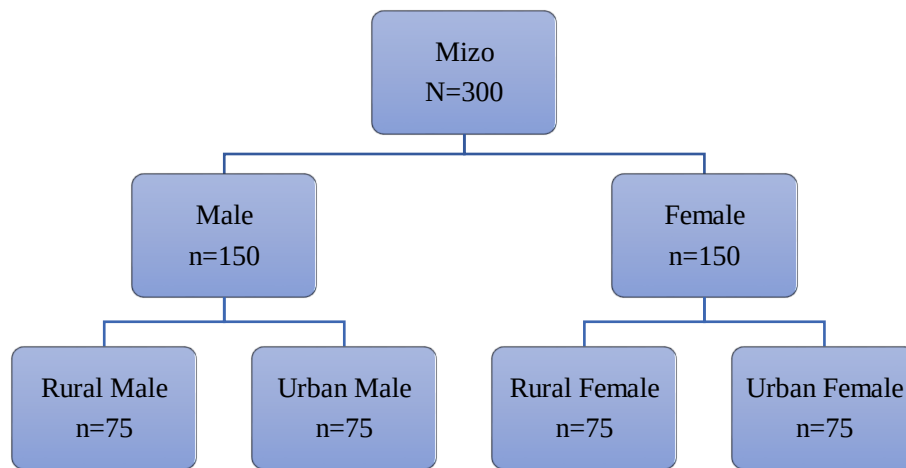


Figure 1: 2x2 (2gender x 2 locality) factorial design.

Figure 1: Sample characteristics of 2x2 (2gender x 2 locality) factorial design.

The analysis of interaction effects of ‘Gender’ (‘male’ and ‘female’) and ‘Locality’ (‘rural’ and ‘urban’) was done to clearly reveal how two or more independent variables work together to impact the dependent variables, and also to represent the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Further, it helps explain more of the variability in the dependent variables.

Psychological measures

a) Demographic details

The demographic details of the participants were recorded to meet the objectives of the study. Thus, information such as gender, age, educational qualification, socioeconomic status, locality, employment status, marital status, parent’s employment status, educational qualification of parents, type of family, main breadwinner in the family etc. were included.

b) Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS; Spence, Helmrich and Stapp, 1973)

The Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS) is recognized as one of the most extensively utilized instruments for assessing individuals' gender role attitudes. This scale was specifically developed to measure attitudes concerning women's rights and societal roles across a range of life domains. These include vocational aspirations, educational pursuits, intellectual engagement, dating norms and behavioral expectations, standards of sexual conduct, and roles within the context of marriage and family life. The abbreviated version of the AWS comprises 25 items, each of which is rated using a 4-point Likert scale, where responses range from 0 (Agree Strongly) to 3 (Disagree Strongly). The authors reported a Cronbach's alpha of .87, indicating high internal consistency. This scoring framework is structured such that a response of 0 reflects a more traditional or conservative viewpoint, whereas a score of 3 signifies a more contemporary or progressive stance, often aligned with pro-feminist ideologies.

Among the 25 statements included in the short form, 12 items are designed to be reverse-scored in order to control for response biases and to ensure accurate reflection of attitudes. These reverse-scored items are specifically numbered: 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 18, 21, 24, and 25. The rationale for reverse scoring these particular items is to balance the scale and mitigate the effects of acquiescence bias, thereby enhancing the overall reliability and validity of the measurement. In interpreting the results, **higher scores on the AWS indicate a more egalitarian or liberal perspective toward gender roles, whereas lower scores are indicative of a more traditional, conservative, or patriarchal viewpoint.** As such, the AWS serves as a valuable tool in both research and applied settings for examining individual differences in gender role attitudes and for exploring shifts in societal norms over time.

c) Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS; Singh & Bhargava, 1990)

The Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS) is a psychometric instrument designed to evaluate the emotional maturity level of an individual through a set of 48 carefully constructed items. These items aim to assess various dimensions of emotional functioning

and psychological adjustment. The scale is organized into five distinct categories, each representing a key facet of emotional maturity. These categories include Emotional Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Maladjustment, Personality Disintegration, and Lack of Independence.

1. Emotional Instability refers to the tendency of an individual to experience frequent and intense emotional fluctuations. This may manifest as heightened levels of anxiety, fear, irritability, or anger, often in response to everyday stressors.
2. Emotional Regression denotes a behavioral pattern in which an individual responds to challenging situations by reverting to childlike or immature coping mechanisms, such as tantrums, avoidance, or emotional withdrawal.
3. Social Maladjustment measures a person's capability to form and sustain healthy interpersonal relationships. It reflects the individual's ability to demonstrate empathy, engage in effective communication, and cooperate with others in social settings.
4. Personality Disintegration is characterized by a perceived lack of internal coherence or unity within the individual's sense of self. This may involve fragmented thinking, inconsistencies in behavior, or an unstable self-image.
5. Lack of Independence evaluates the degree to which a person relies on others for guidance, support, and decision-making. Individuals scoring high in this domain often exhibit difficulty initiating tasks, making independent judgments, or taking personal responsibility.

The scale is administered as a self-report questionnaire using a five-point Likert-type response format. Each item is phrased in the form of a question and offers respondents five response options: *Very Much*, *Much*, *Undecided*, *Probably*, and *Never*. Scoring is conducted on a descending scale, where a response of *Very Much* is awarded 5 points, *Much* receives 4 points, *Undecided* earns 3 points, *Probably* is given 2 points, and *Never* is assigned 1 point. The reliability for the scale was established using test-retest method and internal consistency method. The reliability was found to be 0.75 in test re-test method and 0.42-0.86 in the internal consistency method.

Interpretation of scores is straightforward, **high score on the EMS indicates a greater degree of emotional immaturity, while low score reflects a higher level of emotional maturity**. The scale thus serves as a valuable tool for researchers, clinicians, and educators in understanding the emotional development and adjustment capabilities of individuals across various contexts.

d) Brief Resilient Coping Scale (BRCS; Sinclair & Wallston, 2004)

The Brief Resilient Coping Scale (BRCS) is a concise psychological assessment tool consisting of four self-report statements designed to evaluate an individual's ability to manage stress effectively through highly adaptive coping mechanisms. This scale is particularly useful in measuring resilience in the face of adversity, uncertainty, or high-pressure situations. Each item on the BRCS captures different aspects of an individual's capacity to respond to stress in a positive and constructive manner.

Participants are asked to evaluate the extent to which each statement reflects their typical behavior or attitude when dealing with stress. Responses are recorded using a five-point Likert scale where 1 (Does not describe me at all), 2 (Does not describe me), 3 (Neutral), 4 (Describe me) 5 (Describes me very well). The BRCS has adequate internal consistency ($\alpha=.76$) and test-retest reliability ($r=.71$).

After the participant has rated all four items, the individual scores are added together to obtain a total score. The summed score can range from a minimum of 4 to a maximum of 20, with **higher scores indicating a greater degree of resilient coping**. Specifically, a total score between 17 and 20 suggests that the individual is a high resilient copier, meaning they possess strong coping skills and are likely to adapt well to stressful or challenging circumstances. Conversely, a score ranging from 4 to 13 is indicative of a low resilient copier, reflecting comparatively less adaptive coping strategies and a potentially diminished capacity to handle stress effectively. Scores that fall in the moderate range (14–16) may suggest an average or inconsistent coping ability.

In summary, the BRCS offers a quick yet reliable measure of an individual's resilience, with higher scores signifying stronger emotional and psychological

adaptability in the face of life's challenges. It is frequently employed in both clinical and research contexts to assess coping skills among different populations.

e) Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965)

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES) is one of the most widely used instruments for assessing global self-worth and overall self-esteem in both clinical and research settings. Developed by Morris Rosenberg (1965), the scale comprises 10 carefully constructed statements intended to capture an individual's general feelings of self-acceptance and self-respect by evaluating both positive and negative self-perceptions. Although the scale includes a balance of favorably and unfavorably worded items, it is generally considered to be unidimensional, measuring a single underlying construct—self-esteem.

Participants are required to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each statement using a 4-point Likert scale, where the options are: “Strongly Disagree” 1 point, “Disagree” 2 points, “Agree” 3 points, and “Strongly Agree” 4 points. This scoring system is designed to reflect the degree of self-regard an individual holds. Importantly, five of the items (specifically, items 2, 5, 6, 8, and 9) are reverse-scored to minimize acquiescence bias and ensure balanced interpretation of self-evaluative sentiments. This means that for these particular items, a higher level of agreement indicates lower self-esteem, and the scores must be reversed prior to summing. The scale demonstrates a Guttman scale coefficient of reproducibility of .92, indicating excellent internal consistency. Test-retest reliability over a period of 2 weeks reveals correlations of .85 and .88, indicating excellent stability.

To calculate the total self-esteem score, responses to all ten items are added together, resulting in a continuous score ranging from 10 to 40. **Higher total scores indicate greater levels of self-esteem, reflecting a stronger and more positive sense of self-worth, while lower scores suggest diminished self-esteem, potentially signifying feelings of inadequacy or self-doubt.**

The RSES remains a robust and reliable measure across diverse populations and age groups and is frequently employed in psychological, educational, and sociological studies as a benchmark for understanding self-esteem in relation to other psychological constructs.

Translation of the Instruments

The psychological tools originally in English were translated into Mizo, the native language of the Mizo community.

Steps in the Translation Process (A-B-B-A)

Step 1: The researcher selected four standardized tools in English—Attitudes toward Women Scale (Spence, Helmrich & Stapp, 1973), Emotional Maturity Scale (Singh & Bhargava, 1990), Brief Resilient Coping Scale (Sinclair & Wallston, 2004), and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) based on the study's objectives.

Step 2: Translation into Mizo (Version B): Three bilingual experts proficient in both English and Mizo independently translated the instruments. These individual translations were compared to identify inconsistencies and ensure conceptual accuracy. The translators were guided to preserve the original meaning while adapting the language appropriately to the Mizo cultural context. A final merged version, referred to as Version B, was created.

Step 3: Back-translation into English: A skilled bilingual translator independently translated the Mizo version (B) back into English. This back-translated version was compared with the original to verify the accuracy of the meaning.

Step 4: Reconciliation of Versions A and B: The original English version (A) and the back-translated version (B) were compared to detect any deviations in meaning. Any inconsistencies found were discussed and resolved with the help of the translators.

Step 5: Evaluation of the Translated Instruments: The Mizo version of the psychological measures was then tested on a sample of Mizo-speaking participants. Responses were analysed to determine the validity and reliability of the instruments in the

Mizo context. The A-B-B-A translation method ensured that the adapted tools retained their psychometric properties and were culturally appropriate for the target population.

Procedure

The data collection process for this study was conducted with careful planning to ensure accuracy, reliability, and ethical integrity. Initially, a comprehensive demographic profile sheet was developed to collect essential background information from each participant. The sheet included information of the participants such as age, sex, locality, educational qualification, employment status, marital status, socioeconomic status, parents' educational qualification, parents' employment status, type of family, main bread winner of the family and employed members of the family. Collecting this information was crucial, as it provided meaningful context for interpreting the psychological data and understanding potential influences on the variables under study.

Since the psychological instruments chosen for this research were originally constructed in English, a rigorous translation process was undertaken to adapt them into the Mizo language. This step was vital to guarantee that participants could fully comprehend each item and respond meaningfully. The translation procedure followed best practices, involving forward translation, back translation, and expert reviews to maintain semantic equivalence and cultural appropriateness. To further ensure the reliability and validity of the translated versions, a pilot study was conducted with a small sample of Mizo adults. The findings from this pilot test confirmed that the translated scales were clear, culturally relevant, and psychometrically sound, making them appropriate for use in the current study.

Before commencing with data collection, written informed consent was sought from every participant. Participants were thoroughly informed about the purpose of the study, what their involvement would entail, and their rights as research subjects. This included emphasizing their voluntary participation and the option to withdraw at any stage without any repercussions. Establishing trust and comfort was a priority; therefore, the researcher engaged in rapport-building activities to foster an open and honest

communication environment. Clear, detailed instructions were provided on how to complete the questionnaire booklet, and participants were encouraged to ask questions or seek clarification if any aspect was unclear.

The questionnaire administered to each participant consisted of two distinct parts. The first section gathered socio-demographic data through the demographic profile sheet, while the second section comprised four standardized psychological scales: the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1973), the Emotional Maturity Scale (Singh & Bhargava, 1990), the Brief Resilient Coping Scale (Sinclair & Wallston, 2004), and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). The administration of these tools was done individually, with efforts made to meet participants in their homes or other familiar, convenient settings. This approach aimed to promote participant comfort, reduce anxiety, and minimize response bias.

Throughout the entire data collection process, strict measures were taken to protect the confidentiality and anonymity of participants. Participant's information was stored securely and treated with the utmost ethical consideration. These practices helped mitigate social desirability bias and encouraged participants to respond authentically.

A multistage sampling strategy was employed to ensure a diverse and representative sample of Mizo adults across both rural and urban sectors of Mizoram. The classification system from the Census of India (2011) was used to differentiate rural from urban areas. The sampling design aimed to ensure adequate geographical representation across the state by selecting one area each from the north, south, east, and west zones.

In the **first stage**, the urban samples were drawn from Aizawl District, the capital and the most urbanized region in Mizoram. The selection of urban sites followed the ward structure outlined by the Aizawl Municipal Corporation (AMC, 2008), which comprises 19 municipal wards. The wards were first grouped into four zones- North, South, East, and West. From each zone, one ward was randomly selected: Ward I (North), Ward XV (South), Ward V (East), and Ward XI (West). Each ward encompasses multiple localities that qualify under the urban category, thereby ensuring that the urban sample represented a broad cross-section of the city's population.

For the rural sample, Mizoram state's districts were classified into four directional zones- North, South, East, and West based on geographical location. One district was randomly selected from each of these zones: Kolasib (North), Lawngtlai (South), Serchhip (East), and Mamit (West). These districts were considered suitable representatives of rural Mizoram, each comprising a number of villages that reflect the cultural, demographic, and social characteristics of the rural population.

In the **second stage**, specific sampling units were chosen within the selected districts and wards. For the urban areas, one locality was randomly selected from each chosen ward: Durtlang (Ward I), Maubawk (Ward XV), Chanmari (Ward V), and Luangmual (Ward XI). For the rural areas, one village was randomly selected from each district: Nisapui (Kolasib), Bungtlang South (Lawngtlai), Keitum (Serchhip), and Ropuichhip (Mamit).

The **final stage** involved identifying households within each selected locality or village. Simple random sampling techniques were applied to select households. Eligible individuals who met the inclusion criteria were approached for participation. All individuals who gave informed consent were included in the final sample, thereby ensuring a broad and balanced representation of the target population across different regions of the state.

Once participants consented, they were first asked to complete the demographic section of the questionnaire booklet, followed by the standardized psychological measures. The data collection sessions typically lasted between 30 to 40 minutes per participant, depending on individual pace and comprehension levels. Throughout, the researcher ensured the process was conducted respectfully, with sensitivity toward participant comfort and ethical considerations.

After data collection was completed, all completed questionnaires were meticulously reviewed to identify and address any missing, incomplete, or inconsistent responses. The data were then coded systematically and entered into IBM SPSS Statistics software version 22 for further statistical analysis. This careful and thorough procedure

helped to ensure the integrity and quality of the data, setting a strong foundation for valid and reliable research findings.

Statistical Analyses

In order to achieve the objectives of the present study, the subject-wise scores on items of Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS; Spence, Helmrich and Stapp, 1973), Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS; Singh & Bhargava, 1990), Brief Resilient Coping Scale (BRCS; Sinclair & Wallston, 2004) and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965) were separately prepared and analyzed to check their psychometric adequacy for measurement purposes among the sample. IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 22) was used for data analyses.

The psychometric adequacy of the tools, including item-total coefficient correlation, inter-scale relationships, and reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) to check the internal consistency of the psychological measures were determined for all the scales and sub-scales of the psychological measures. Furthermore, descriptive statistics was employed to identify the distribution of demographic information and to identify the mean and standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the scale and sub-scales of the psychological measures were included in the analysis for better accuracy. A simple bar graph was employed to give a graphical representation of the psychological measures for the whole sample.

Bivariate correlation was computed to determine the relationship between the demographic variables (gender and locality) and the psychological measures Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS), Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS), Brief Resilient Coping Scale (BRCS) and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES).

Levene's tests of homogeneity of variance was employed for parametric statistics assumption checking and also for choosing appropriate statistics. Where violations of parametric assumptions occurred, appropriate non-parametric methods were employed.

To determine the independent and interaction effects of the independent variables on the selected dependent variables, Two-Way ANOVA was employed for the

psychological measures that met the assumption for parametric statistics. Subsequently, Mann-Whitney U-test and Kruskal-Wallis One-way ANOVA were employed for the psychological measures that violate the assumption for parametric statistics. Steel-Dwass Test was further computed to explore the comparisons for all pairs on the psychological measures.

Finally, Linear Regression Model and Step-wise Hierarchical Linear Regression were employed to elucidate the predictive relationship between the behavioral measures. graphical representation of the psychological measures for the whole sample. Histogram of standardized residual and Normal probability-probability (P-P) plot for hierarchical regression analysis was employed to assess the normality of the residuals.

CHAPTER – IV

RESULTS

To investigate the relationship between the psychological measures of gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among Mizo adults, subject-wise scores were prepared separately for each of the items on all the behavioral measures of gender role attitudes (Attitudes toward Women Scale; Spence, Helmrich and Stapp, 1973), measure of emotional maturity with subscales of emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence (Emotional Maturity Scale; Singh & Bhargava, 1990), resilient coping (Brief Resilient Coping Scale; Sinclair & Wallston, 2004) and self-esteem (Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale; Rosenberg, 1965) were first prepared in SPSS 22 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences, Version 22) for statistical analyses for the sample of both gender who are residing in rural and urban areas. As parametric statistics were envisaged to be used, data were screened and mild outliers as well as extreme outliers were deleted to maintain equal sample size in each of the design cell (2 gender x 2 locality). Diagnostic tests of assumptions that underlie possible application of parametric tests were checked and found to be generally acceptable. These were the tests of linearity, normality (skewness/kurtosis), homogeneity of variance (Levene's statistic)/homoscedasticity and independence of errors as applicable for the four groups, viz. male rural, female rural, male urban and female urban. Where violations of parametric assumptions occurred, appropriate non-parametric methods were resorted to.

Psychometric Properties of the Behavioral Measures

Psychometric adequacies were first ascertained for each of the behavioral measures which involved (i) descriptive statistics (ii) inter-scale relationships and (iii) reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha). In order to decide the appropriate statistics to be employed on the selected behavioral measures such as: i) Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS; Spence, Helmrich and Stapp, 1973), ii) Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS; Singh & Bhargava, 1990), iii) Brief Resilient Coping Scale (BRCS; Sinclair & Wallston, 2004) and iv) Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965), descriptive statistics were computed which includes the mean, SD, skewness, kurtosis and standard errors, reliability of the scales and sub-scales. Secondly, Bivariate correlation was

employed on the scales and subscales of the behavioral measures for the whole sample to demonstrate a significant relationship of the variables for further analysis in predicting cause and effect among variables. Thirdly, parametric and non-parametric analyses of variances were computed to illustrate the independent and interaction effects of the independent variables on the selected dependent variables for the whole sample. Finally, regression analysis was computed to determine a measure of the extent to which variability among the scores on the dependent variable has been explained or accounted for prediction (R²).

Table 1a

The sample characteristic table of the 2X2 (gender x locality) factorial design of the study.

	Rural	Urban	Total
Male	75	75	150
Female	75	75	150
Total	150	150	300

Note. N=300 (n=75 for each group)

The sample characteristic table (Table 1a) displayed 2X2 (gender x locality) factorial design of the study and the categorization of the sample based on their gender and locality. A total of 300 Mizo adults {150 males (75 rural and 75 urban) and 150 females (75 rural and 75 urban)} served as participants with equal sample size.

Table 1b

Mean and standard deviation of the demographic variables of the participants.

	Mean	SD
Age	28.74	8.831
Sex	1.50	.501
Locality	1.50	.501
Educational Qualification	3.55	.858
Mother's educational qualification	4.49	1.377
Father's educational qualification	4.02	1.408

Marital Status	1.34	.582
Economic status	1.38	.574
Employment status	1.62	.485
Mother's employment status	1.65	.497
Father's employment status	1.43	.541
Type of family	1.32	.469
Main bread winner of the family	1.22	.517
Employed members of the family	1.72	.812

The mean and standard deviation (Table 1b) of the participant's age, sex, locality, educational qualification, mother's educational qualification, father's educational qualification, marital status, economic status, employment status, mother's employment status, father's employment status, type of family, main bread winner of the family and employed members of the family.

Figure 2: Distribution of age group of the participants under the study.

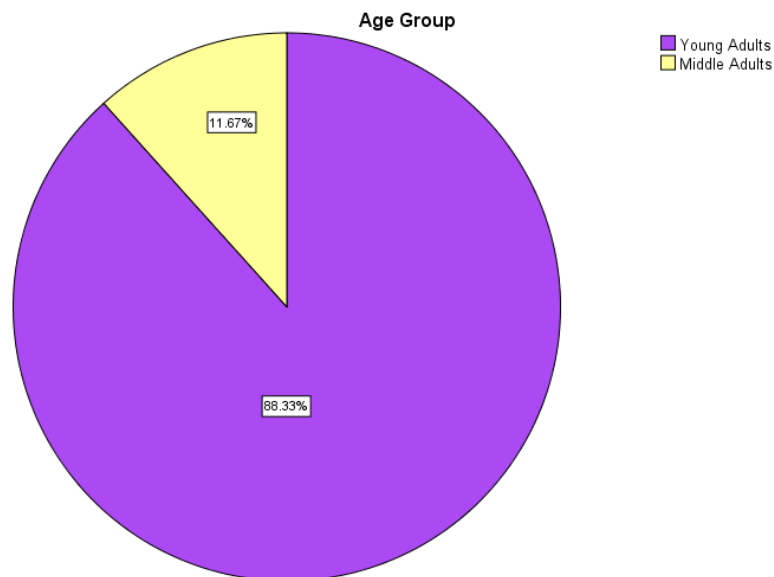


Figure 3: Distribution of gender of the participants under the study.

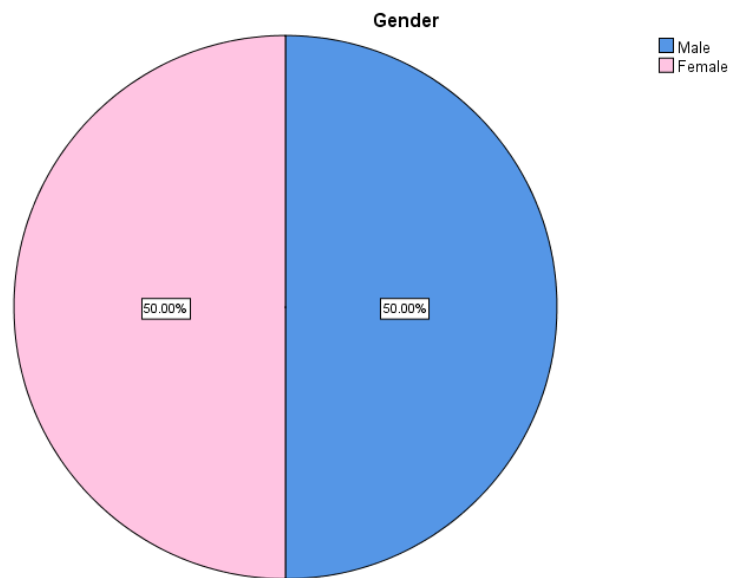


Figure 4: Distribution of locality of the participants under the study.

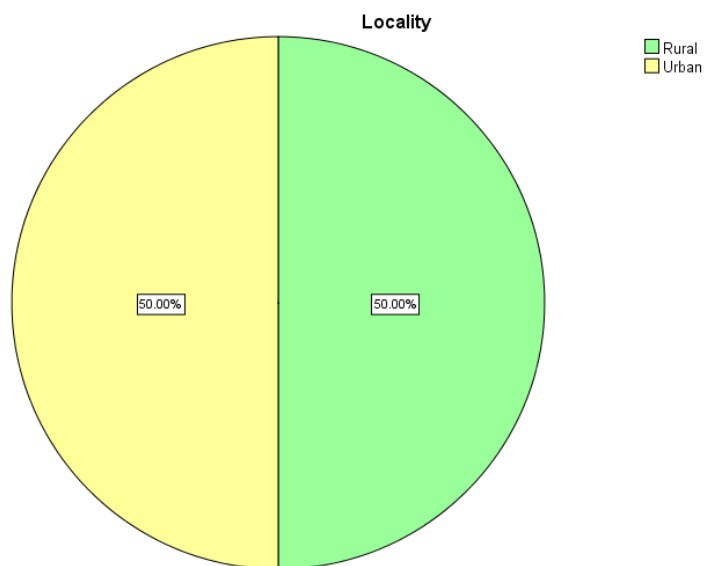


Figure 5: Distribution of 'gender x locality' of the participants under the study.

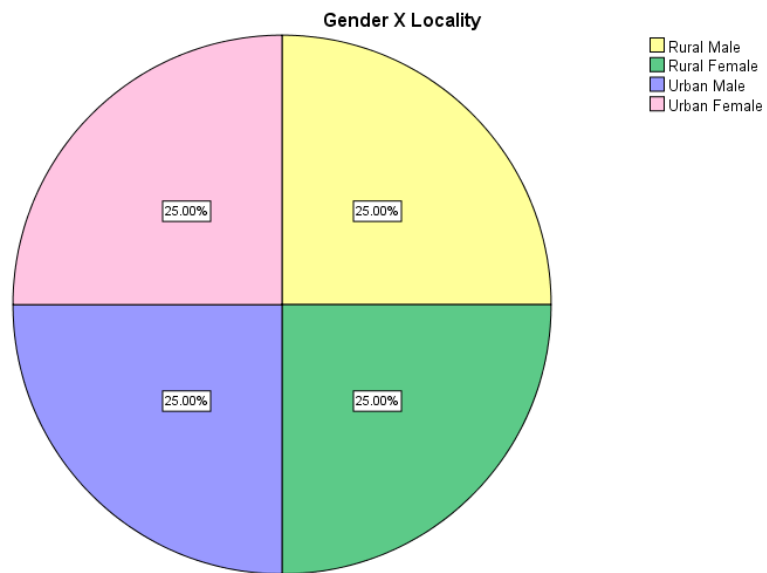


Figure 6: Distribution of educational qualification of the participants under the study.

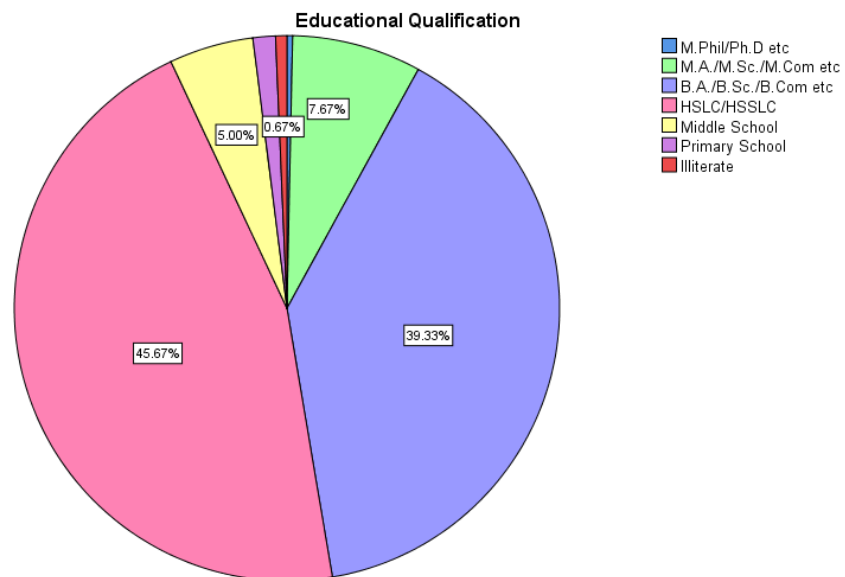


Figure 7: Distribution of educational qualification of the participants’ mother under the study.

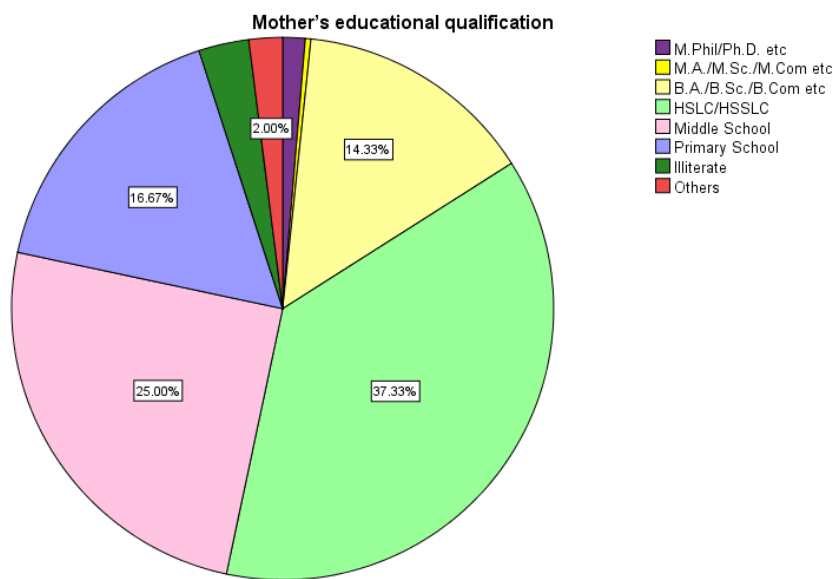


Figure 8: Distribution of educational qualification of the participants’ father under the study.

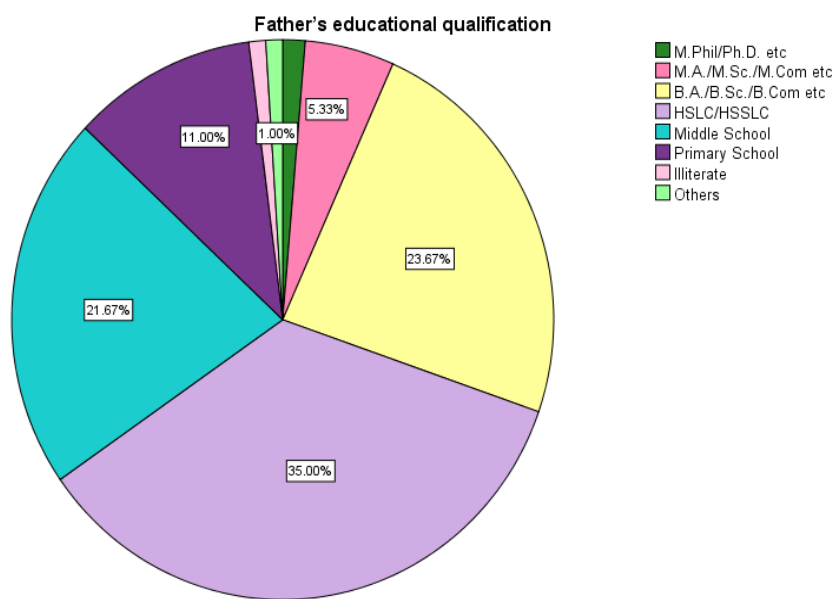


Figure 9: Distribution of marital status of the participants under the study.

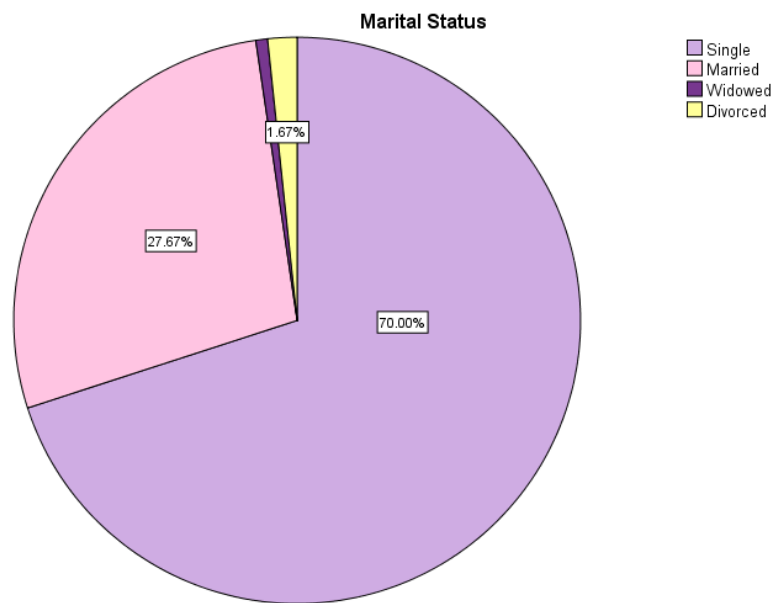


Figure 10: Distribution of economic status of the participants under the study.

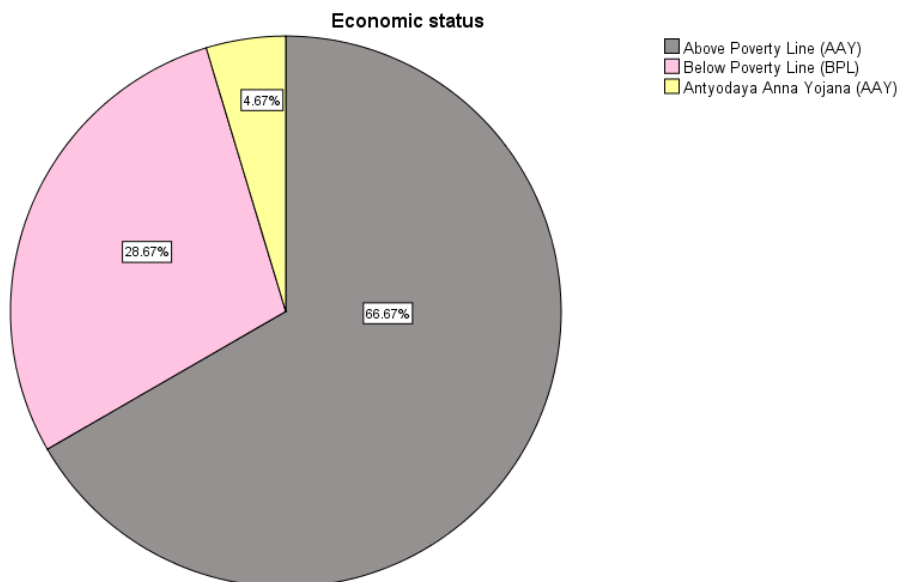


Figure 11: Distribution of employment status of the participants under the study.

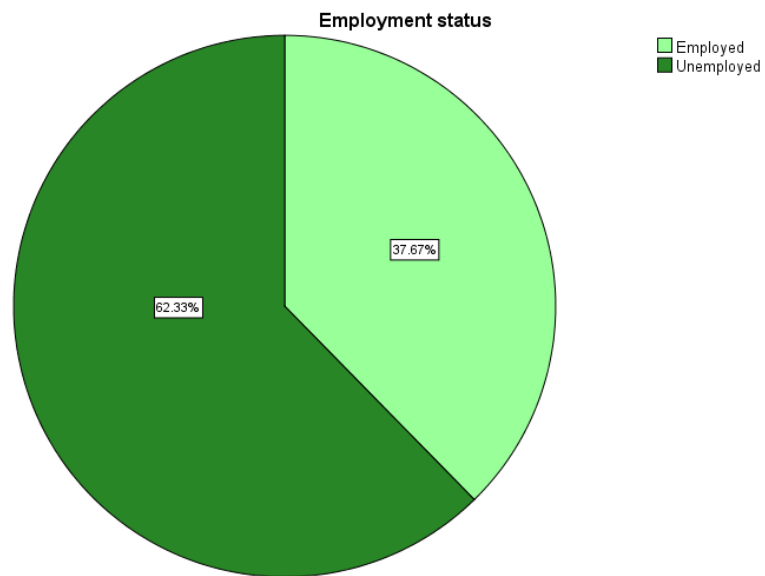


Figure 12: Distribution of employment status of the participants' mother under the study.

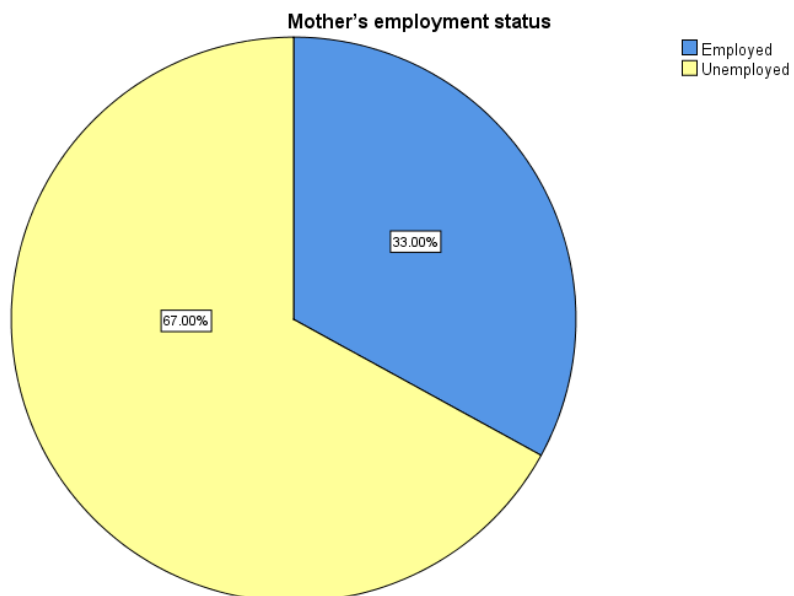


Figure 13: Distribution of employment status of the participants' father under the study.

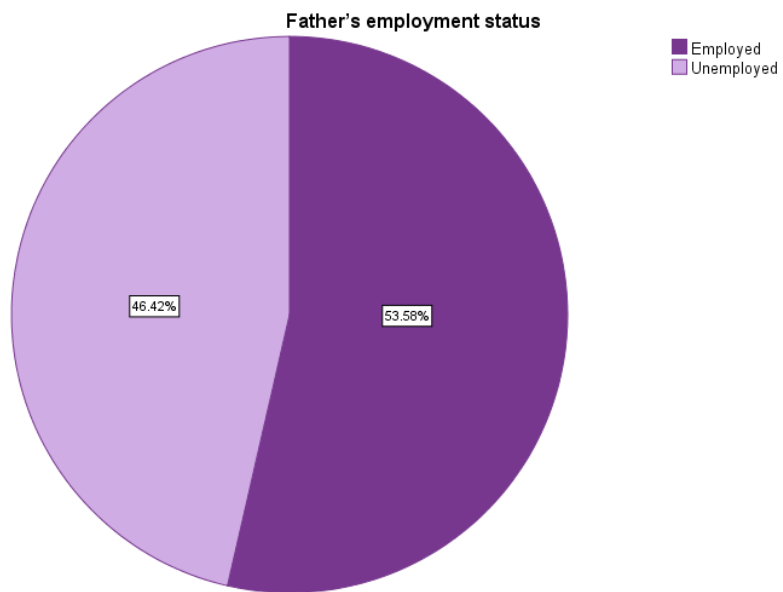


Figure 14: Distribution of family type of the participants under the study.

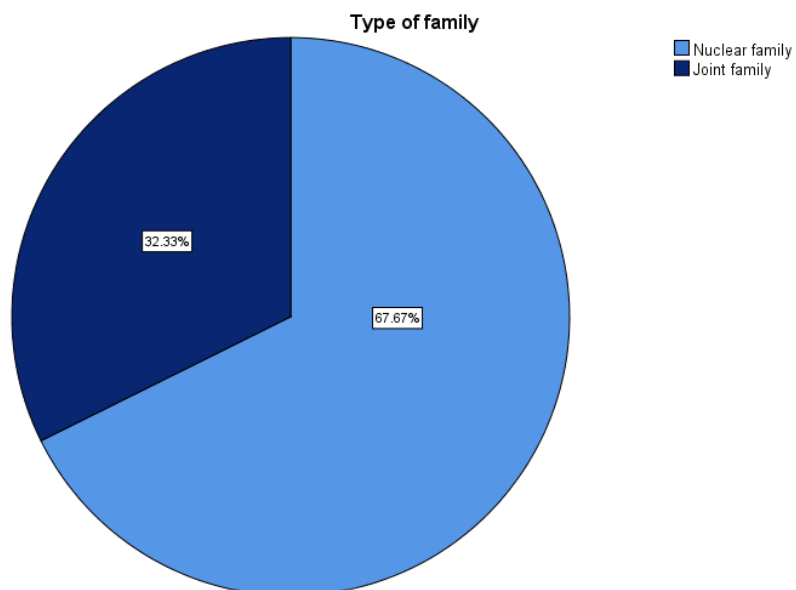


Figure 15: Distribution of main bread winner of the participants under the study.

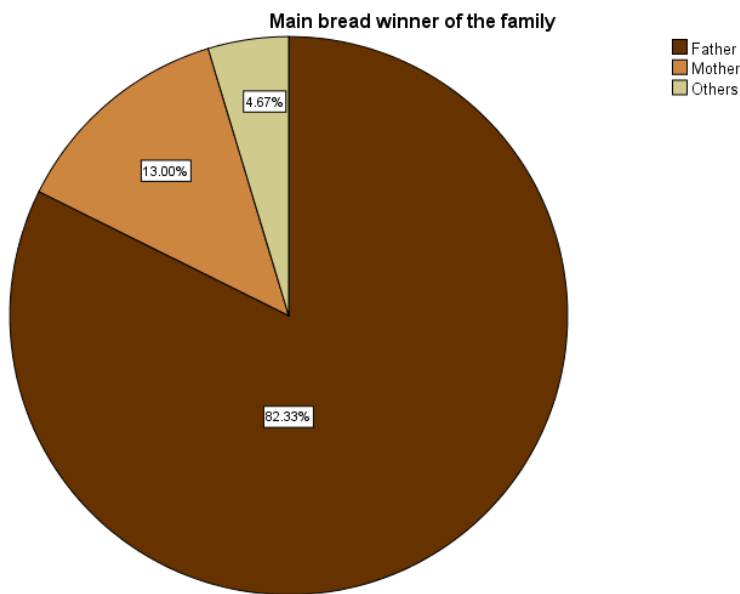


Figure 16: Distribution of employed family members of the participants under the study.

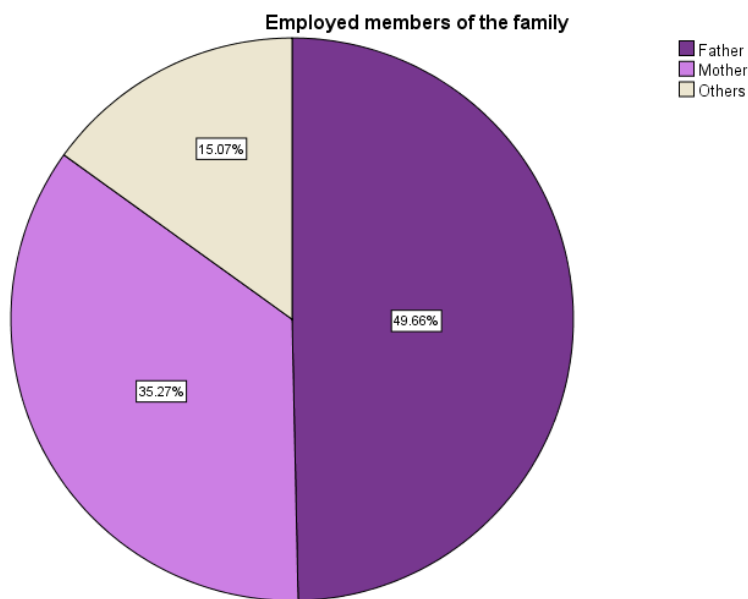


Table 2

The mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis of the scales/sub scales of the behavioral measures for the whole sample.

Gender x Locality		GRA	EI	ER	SM	PD	LOI	RC	SE
Male Rural	Mean	35.68	29.84	29.08	26.91	24.09	23.89	14.48	25.97
	SD	4.21	4.33	6.03	6.62	7.40	3.11	2.23	2.52
	Skewness	-.33	.01	.23	.14	.46	-.14	.06	.21
	Std. Error	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27
	Kurtosis	-.53	-.03	-.23	-.52	-.59	.11	.14	-.48
	Std. Error	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54
Female Rural	Mean	41.27	31.81	29.72	28.21	24.09	24.93	14.43	25.79
	SD	5.03	5.02	5.50	6.81	7.04	3.38	2.10	2.41
	Skewness	.02	-.13	-.03	.07	.19	.26	-.88	-.14
	Std. Error	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27
	Kurtosis	-.49	-.05	-.30	-.07	-.35	-.30	.37	-.44
	Std. Error	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54
Male Urban	Mean	38.91	29.88	28.12	27.37	23.88	24.07	14.44	25.84
	SD	6.02	6.00	6.49	6.71	6.42	4.32	1.93	3.24
	Skewness	.14	.39	-.06	.09	.36	-.32	-.44	.14
	Std. Error	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27
	Kurtosis	-.47	-.75	-.75	-.39	-.44	-.37	.61	-.26
	Std. Error	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54
Female Urban	Mean	46.28	32.19	30.43	29.16	24.84	23.71	14.37	25.72
	SD	6.95	5.44	5.93	6.51	6.72	3.46	2.10	3.36
	Skewness	.29	-.39	.01	.08	-.04	-.33	-.38	-.17
	Std. Error	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27	.27
	Kurtosis	-.88	-.29	-.86	-.59	-.78	-.06	-.24	-.64
	Std. Error	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54	.54

Note: SD= Standard Deviation; GRA= Gender role attitudes; EI= Emotional Instability; ER= Emotional Regression; SM= Social Maladjustment; PD= Personality Disintegration; LOI= Lack of Independence; RC= Resilient Coping; SE= Self-Esteem

Table 2 showed the descriptive statistics which include the scales and subscales of the behavioral measures. The mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of the scales and subscales of i) Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS; Spence, Helmrich and

Stapp, 1973), ii) Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS; Singh & Bhargava, 1990) which have five subscales namely, emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence iii) Brief Resilient Coping Scale (BRCS; Sinclair & Wallston, 2004) and iv) Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965) for the whole sample were highlighted.

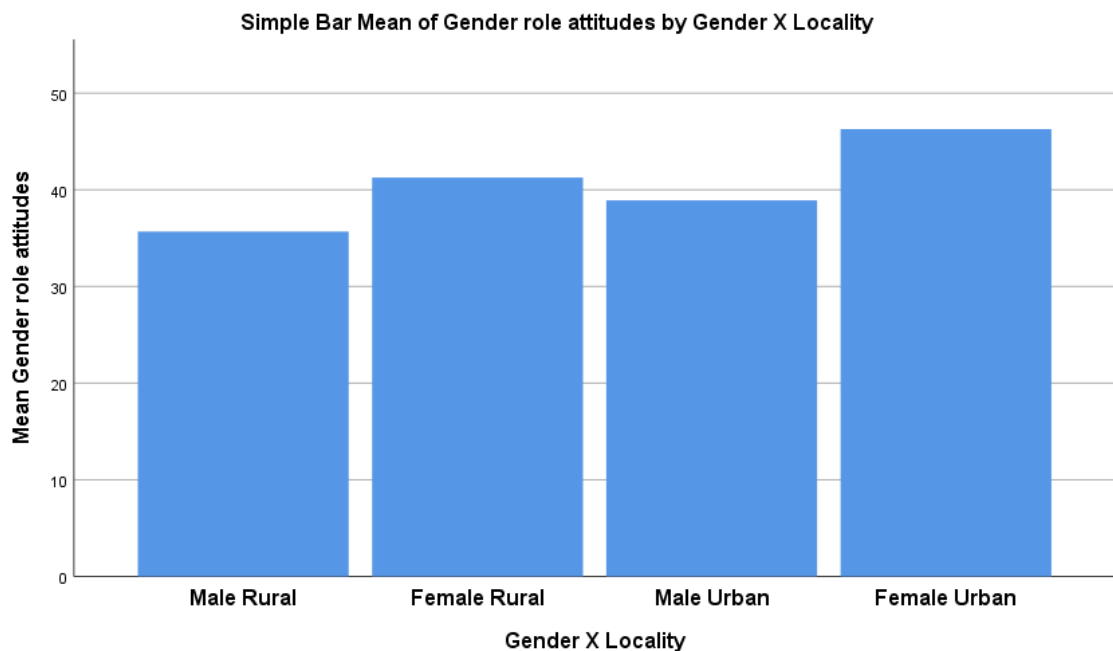


Figure 17: Simple bar graph showing the total means score comparison of ‘gender x locality’ on **gender role attitudes** for the whole samples.

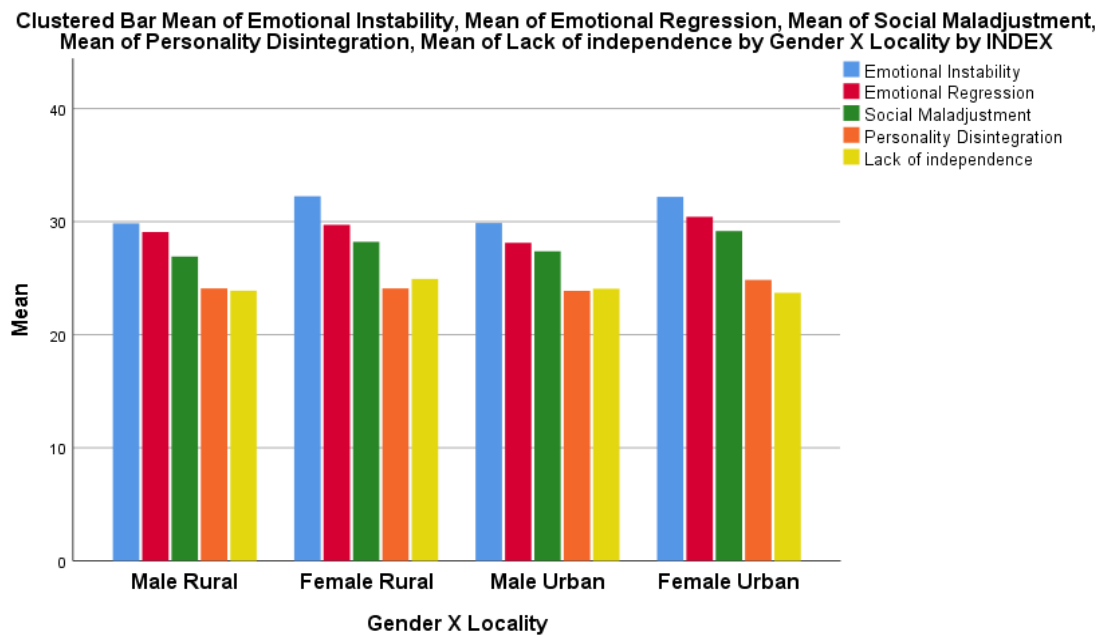


Figure 18: Simple bar graph showing the total means score comparison of the sub-scales on **emotional maturity** for the whole sample.

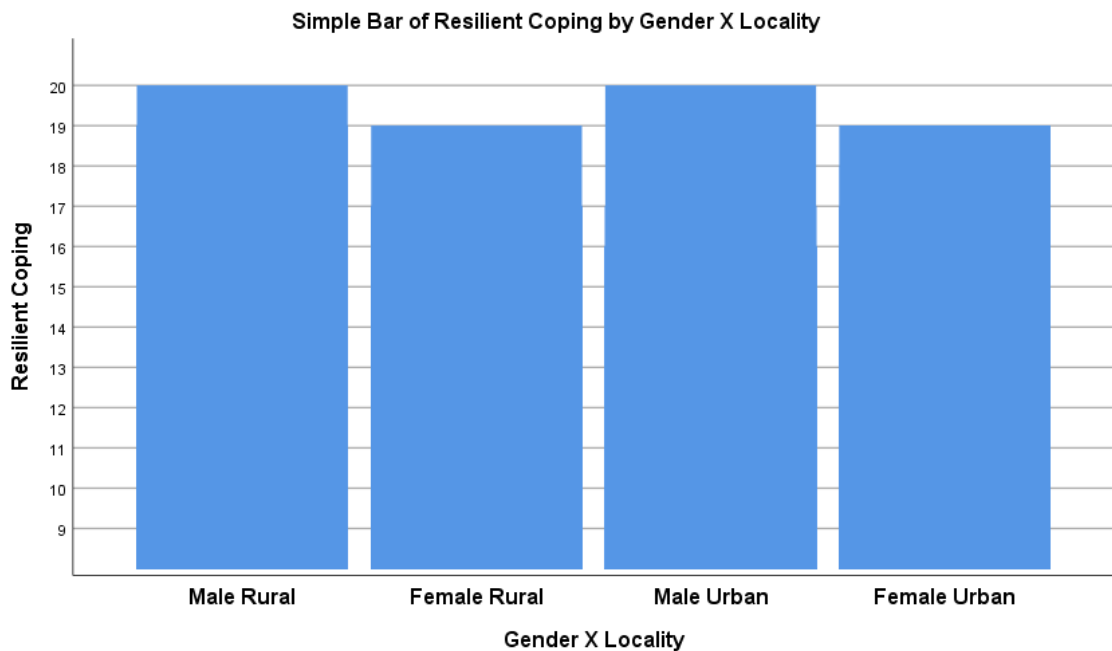


Figure 19: Simple bar graph showing the total means score comparison on **resilient coping** for the whole samples.



Figure 20: Simple bar graph showing the total means score comparison on **self-esteem** for the whole samples.

Table 2 showed the mean scores of the four groups namely, males living in rural areas, females living in rural areas, males living in urban areas and females living in urban areas in each of the behavioral measures.

Female urban participants were found to have the highest mean scores in **gender role attitudes** ($M=46.28$), followed by female rural participants ($M=41.27$), male urban participants ($M=38.91$), and lastly male rural participants ($M=35.68$).

Participants from female urban exhibited the highest mean scores on **emotional instability** ($M=32.19$), followed by female urban participants ($M=31.81$), male urban participants ($M=29.88$), and lastly male rural participants ($M=29.84$).

For **emotional regression**, female urban participants reported the highest mean scores ($M=30.43$), followed by female rural participants ($M=29.72$), male rural participants ($M=29.08$), and then by male urban participants ($M=28.12$).

In **social maladjustment**, female urban participants had the highest mean scores ($M=29.16$), followed by female rural participants ($M=28.21$), male urban participants ($M=27.37$), and male rural participants ($M=26.91$).

Female urban participants depicted the highest mean scores in **personality disintegration** (M=24.84), while both female rural and male rural participants had the same scores (M=24.09) which is followed by male urban participants (M=23.88).

In **lack of independence**, female rural participants had the highest mean scores (M=24.93), followed by male urban participants (M=24.07), male rural participants (M=23.89), and female urban participants (M=23.71).

For **resilient coping**, male rural participants demonstrated the highest mean scores (M=14.48), followed closely by male urban participants (M=14.44), female rural participants (M=14.43), and lastly by female urban participants (M=14.37).

Finally, in **self-esteem**, male rural participants had the highest mean scores (M=25.97), followed by male urban participants (M=25.84), female rural participants (M=25.79), and then by female urban participants (M=25.72).

Table 3

The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) of the behavioral measures of gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem.

Dependent Variables		α
Gender role attitudes		.766
Emotional maturity	Emotional instability	.693
	Emotional regression	.651
	Social maladjustment	.705
	Personality disintegration	.761
	Lack of independence	.641
Resilient Coping		.723
Self-esteem		.650

Table 3 presents the results of the internal consistency reliability analysis as assessed by Cronbach's alpha conducted for the various subscales employed in the present study. The item-total correlation analysis indicated a substantial degree of association

among the items within each subscale, suggesting that the items are measuring coherent underlying constructs.

The Gender Role Attitudes scale yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .766. The alpha coefficient for the Emotional Instability subscale was .693, while the Emotional Regression subscale recorded a value of .651. For the Social Maladjustment subscale, the alpha coefficient was .705. The Personality Disintegration subscale produced an alpha of .761, whereas the Lack of Independence subscale showed a value of .641. The Resilient Coping scale yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .723, and the Self-Esteem scale produced a coefficient of .650. Overall, the Cronbach's alpha values obtained for all the subscales indicate that the instruments used in this study possess acceptable internal consistency. These findings support the reliability of the scales for assessing the targeted psychological constructs in the context of the present research.

Relationships between Gender Role Attitude, Emotional Maturity (Emotional Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Maladjustment, Personality Disintegration and Lack of Independence), Resilient Coping and Self-Esteem.

Bivariate correlation was employed to determine the significant relationship between the demographic and the psychological measures. Results of the bivariate correlation in Table 4 revealed significant positive and negative correlations among the variables.

In order to address the **first** objective of highlighting the relationships between gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the Mizo sample, the following hypothesis was formulated: there will be significant positive relationship between gender role attitude, resilient coping and self-esteem. And significant negative relationship was expected between emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence) and gender role attitude, resilient coping and self-esteem. Using Pearson's correlation coefficient, bivariate correlations between the scores on all the measures of gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem were determined

for all units of analyses. Table 4 depict the testing of the first hypothesis for correlations between the variables over all units of analyses.

Table 4*Bivariate correlation showing the relationship between the demographic profiles and psychological measures*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender	-									
2. Locality	.000	-								
3. Gender role attitudes	.475**	.302**	-							
4. Emotional Instability	.221**	-.001	.280**	-						
5. Emotional Regression	.122*	-.011	.159**	.676**	-					
6. Social Maladjustment	.116*	.053	.224**	.560**	.663**	-				
7. Personality Disintegration	.035	.019	.122*	.524**	.643**	.635**	-			
8. Lack of independence	.047	-.073	.030	.360**	.371**	.412**	.470**	-		
9. Resilient Coping	-.014	-.011	.007	-.194**	-.114*	-.200**	-.265**	.005	-	
10. Self-esteem	-.026	-.017	-.036	-.315**	-.370**	-.164**	-.363**	-.095	.183**	-

*Note: *p<.05, **p<.01*

Table 4 represents the bivariate correlation matrix for the demographic variables and the sub-scales of all the psychological measures. Point-biserial correlation was computed to examine the association between the dichotomous (categorical) variables which are gender and locality and continuous variables which are the psychological variables: Gender Role Attitude, Emotional Maturity (Emotional Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Maladjustment, Personality Disintegration and Lack of Independence), Resilient Coping and Self-Esteem. Pearson product moment correlation was used to measure the correlation between the continuous variables: Gender Role Attitude, Emotional Maturity (Emotional Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Maladjustment, Personality Disintegration and Lack of Independence), Resilient Coping and Self-Esteem.

The bivariate correlation matrix revealed significant positive correlation between gender and: gender role attitudes ($r=.475^{**}$, $p<.01$), emotional instability ($r=.221^{**}$, $p<.01$), emotional regression ($r=.122^{*}$, $p<.05$), and social maladjustment ($r=.116^{*}$, $p<.05$). Significant positive correlation was also found between locality and gender role attitudes ($r=.302^{**}$, $p<.01$).

The results further revealed that gender role attitudes have: significant positive correlation with emotional instability ($r=.280^{**}$, $p<.01$), emotional regression ($r=.159^{**}$, $p<.01$), social maladjustment ($r=.224^{**}$, $p<.01$), and personality disintegration ($r=.122^{*}$, $p<.05$).

Significant positive correlation was found between the subscales of emotional maturity. Emotional instability has: significant positive correlation with emotional regression ($r=.676^{**}$, $p<.01$), social maladjustment ($r=.560^{**}$, $p<.01$), personality disintegration ($r=.524^{**}$, $p<.01$) and lack of independence ($r=.360^{**}$, $p<.01$). Emotional regression has: significant positive correlation with social maladjustment ($r=.663^{**}$, $p<.01$), personality disintegration ($r=.643^{**}$, $p<.01$) and lack of independence ($r=.371^{**}$, $p<.01$). Social maladjustment has: significant positive correlation with personality disintegration ($r=.635^{**}$, $p<.01$) and lack of independence ($r=.412^{**}$, $p<.01$). Personality disintegration has significant positive correlation with lack of independence ($r=.470^{**}$, $p<.01$).

The results further highlighted that resilient coping has: significant negative correlation with emotional instability ($r = -.194^{**}$, $p < .01$), emotional regression ($r = -.114^{*}$, $p < .05$), social maladjustment ($r = -.200^{**}$, $p < .01$) and personality disintegration ($r = -.265^{**}$, $p < .01$). Significant positive correlation was also found between resilient coping and self-esteem ($r = .183^{**}$, $p < .01$).

Similarly, self-esteem also has: significant negative correlation with emotional instability ($r = -.315^{**}$, $p < .01$), emotional regression ($r = -.370^{**}$, $p < .01$), social maladjustment ($r = -.164^{**}$, $p < .01$), and personality disintegration ($r = -.363^{**}$, $p < .01$).

Table 5

Levene's test for homogeneity of variances

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Gender role attitudes	2.529	3	296	.057
Emotional instability	3.494	3	296	.016
Emotional regression	.867	3	296	.459
Social maladjustment	.056	3	296	.983
Personality disintegration	.620	3	296	.603
Lack of independence	2.877	3	296	.036
Resilient Coping	.468	3	296	.705
Self-esteem	3.962	3	296	.009

Table 5 presents the results of Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, which was conducted to assess the assumption of homogeneity of variances for each psychological scale. The test results indicated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was satisfied for the following variables: gender role attitudes ($p = .057$), emotional regression ($p = .459$), social maladjustment ($p = .983$), personality disintegration ($p = .603$), and resilient coping ($p = .705$). These findings indicate that the assumption of homogeneity of

variances was met for these variables, thereby justifying the use of parametric tests for subsequent analyses.

In contrast, the assumption of equal variances was not met for emotional instability ($p = .016$), lack of independence ($p = .036$), and self-esteem ($p = .009$). Accordingly, non-parametric alternatives were applied for these variables in subsequent analyses to maintain the robustness of statistical inference.

Effects of Gender and Locality on Gender Role Attitude, Emotional Maturity (Emotional Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Maladjustment, Personality Disintegration and Lack of Independence), Resilient Coping and Self- Esteem

The study has employed Gender and Locality as two important variables upon which differences in the behavioral measure are explained. The second, third and fourth objectives of the study attempts i) to examine the independent effect of gender (male and female) on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample ii) to examine the independent effect of locality (rural and urban) on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample iii) to examine the interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. Consequently, the following hypotheses were put forth: -

1. Females were expected to depict higher egalitarian gender role attitude, emotional maturity (low mean scores on emotional maturity scale) and resilient coping. And males were expected to depict higher traditional gender role attitudes and self-esteem and lower emotional maturity (high mean scores on emotional maturity scale) and resilient coping.
2. Urban participants were expected to depict higher egalitarian gender role attitude, resilient coping and self-esteem. And rural participants were expected to depict higher traditional gender role attitudes and lower emotional maturity.
3. It was expected that there will be significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on the psychological variables. Females living in urban areas were

expected to show greater scores as compared to all other groups on gender role attitudes and resilient coping and lower scores on emotional maturity. Males living in urban areas were expected to show greater scores on self-esteem.

The effects of Gender and Locality, and their interaction effects on gender role attitude, emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence), resilient coping and self-esteem were separately addressed using Two - Way ANOVA (2 gender x 2 locality). The model of these objectives yielded four units of analyses, viz. male rural, female rural, male urban and female urban with equal sample size (75) in each cell of the design.

Table 6

Two-Way ANOVA for the significant differences between ‘gender x locality’ on the psychological variables for the whole sample

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables	Sum of Square	Df	Mean of Square	F	Sig.	Eta Squared
Gender role attitudes	Gender	.361	1	.361	99.224	.000	.251
	Locality	.131	1	.131	36.095	.000	.109
	Gender x Locality	.003	1	.003	.833	.362	.003
Emotional Regression	Gender	162.803	1	162.803	4.524	.034	.015
	Locality	1.203	1	1.203	.033	.855	.000
	Gender x Locality	52.083	1	52.083	1.447	.230	.005
Social Maladjustment	Gender	179.413	1	179.413	4.035	.045	.013
	Locality	37.453	1	37.453	.842	.360	.003
	Gender x Locality	4.320	1	4.320	.097	.755	.000
Personality Disintegration	Gender	17.280	1	17.280	.362	.548	.001
	Locality	5.333	1	5.333	.112	.739	.000
	Gender x Locality	17.280	1	17.280	.362	.548	.001
Resilient Coping	Gender	.270	1	.270	.061	.804	.000
	Locality	.163	1	.163	.037	.847	.000
	Gender x Locality	.003	1	.003	.001	.978	.000

The Two-Way ANOVA was employed to explore the independent and interaction effects of gender, locality and ‘gender x locality’ on the test scores of the behavioral measures. The results depicted a number of significant group differences on the test scores of the psychological variables of gender role attitudes, emotional regression and social maladjustment with effect size.

The Two-Way ANOVA (Table 6) showed significant independent effect of **gender** on the behavioral measure of **gender role attitudes** $F(1, 298) = 99.224, p < .01, \eta^2 = .251$ which indicated that males and females differ significantly on gender role attitudes. The

effect size ($\eta^2=.251$) indicates a large effect, suggesting that gender accounts for approximately 25% of the variance in gender role attitudes. In addition, females showed higher mean scores ($M=47.77$, $SD=6.55$) than male participants ($M=37.29$, $SD=5.42$). The results revealed that females have higher egalitarian gender role attitudes and males have higher traditional gender role attitudes.

Table 6 further revealed significant independent effect of **gender** on **emotional regression** $F(1, 298) = 4.524$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2=.013$ which indicated that males and females differ significantly on emotional regression. The effect size ($\eta^2 = .01$) indicates a small effect, suggesting that gender accounts for approximately 1% of the variance in emotional regression. Furthermore, females showed higher mean scores ($M=30.07$, $SD=5.71$) than male participants ($M=28.60$, $SD=6.26$). The results revealed that females have higher level of emotional regression as compare to males.

The findings also revealed significant independent effect of **gender** on **social maladjustment** $F(1, 298) = 4.035$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2=.015$ which indicated that males and females differ significantly on social maladjustment. The effect size ($\eta^2 = .015$) reflects a small effect, suggesting that gender accounts for approximately 1.5% of the variance in social maladjustment. Moreover, females showed higher mean scores ($M=28.69$, $SD=6.66$) than male participants ($M=27.14$, $SD=6.65$). The results revealed that females have higher level of social maladjustment as compare to males.

The findings revealed no significant independent effect of **gender** on **personality disintegration** and **resilient coping** indicating that males and females do not differ significantly on these measures.

The Two-Way ANOVA was computed to depict significant independent effect of locality on the test scores of the behavioral measures of gender role attitudes, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and resilient coping.

The results (Table 6) illustrate the significant independent effect of **locality** on **gender role attitudes** $F(1, 298) = 36.095$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2=.109$ which indicated that participants from rural areas and urban areas differ significantly on gender role attitudes. The effect size ($\eta^2 = .109$) reflects a moderate effect, suggesting that locality accounts for

approximately 10.9% of the variance in gender role attitudes. In addition, urban show higher mean scores ($M=42.59$, $SD=7.46$) than rural participants ($M=38.47$, $SD=5.40$). The results revealed that urban participants have higher egalitarian gender role attitudes and rural participants have higher traditional gender role attitudes.

However, there was no significant independent effect of **locality** on **emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration** and **resilient coping** indicating that participants from rural areas and urban areas do not have significant difference on emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and resilient coping.

The Two-Way ANOVA was computed to depict significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on the test scores of the behavioral measures of gender role attitudes, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and resilient coping. The results (Table 6) illustrate no significant **interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’** on **gender role attitudes, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and resilient coping** indicating that male and female participants from rural areas and urban areas do not have significant difference on gender role attitudes, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and resilient coping.

Since the data on measures of emotional instability, lack of independence and self-esteem did not meet the assumptions of parametric test, an alternate non-parametric test - Mann Whitney U-Test was employed for gender and locality.

Table 7

Mann-Whitney U-test on measure of emotional instability, lack of independence and self-esteem for gender

	Emotional Instability		Lack of independence		Self-esteem	
Gender	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Mean Ranks	129.74	171.26	147.36	153.64	151.11	149.89
Sum of Ranks	19461.00	25689.00	22103.50	23046.50	22666.50	22483.50
Mann Whitney U	8136.000		10778.500		11158.500	
Z	-4.152		-.630		-.122	
Sig.	.000		.529		.903	

Due to the heterogeneity of variances, Mann-Whitney U-test was employed for testing gender (male and female) differences on the measures of emotional instability and self-esteem. Results of Mann Whitney *U* test showed significant **gender** effect on **emotional instability** ($U = 8136.00$, $Z = -4.152$, $p < .001$). The mean rank of female participants ($M = 171.26$) was significantly higher than the mean rank of male participants ($M = 129.74$) in emotional instability.

Although female participants obtained higher mean rank ($M = 153.64$) than male participants ($M = 147.36$) on **lack of independence**, the Mann Whitney *U* test did not reveal a statistically significant difference on gender, $U = 10778.50$, $Z = -0.63$, $p = .53$, indicating that gender did not significantly affect lack of independence.

Likewise, minor variation in mean ranks was observed on **self-esteem**, where male participants obtained higher mean rank ($M = 151.11$) than female participants ($M = 149.89$). But the difference was not statistically significant, $U = 11158.50$, $Z = -0.12$, $p = .90$, indicating that gender did not significantly affect self-esteem.

Table 8

Mann-Whitney U-test on measure of emotional instability, lack of independence and self-esteem for locality.

Locality	Emotional Instability		Lack of Independence		Self-esteem	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
Mean Ranks	150.40	150.60	154.77	146.23	151.58	149.42
Sum of Ranks	22560.00	22590.00	23215.00	21935.00	22737.50	22412.5
Mann Whitney U	11235.00		10610.00		11087.50	
Z	-.020		-.855		-.218	
Sig.	.984		.392		.828	

Due to heterogeneity of variances, Mann-Whitney U-test was again employed for ‘**locality**’ on the measures of emotional instability and self-esteem, the results showed differences in the mean ranks between rural and urban participants in Table 8.

Although urban participants obtained a slightly higher mean rank ($M = 150.60$) than rural participants ($M = 150.40$) on **emotional instability**, the Mann-Whitney U test did not reveal a statistically significant difference between the two groups, $U = 11,235.00$, $Z = -0.02$, $p = .984$. This indicates that emotional instability did not significantly differ between rural and urban participants.

Similarly, rural participants obtained higher mean rank ($M = 154.77$) than urban participants ($M = 146.23$) on **lack of independence**. However, this difference was not statistically significant, $U = 10,610.00$, $Z = -0.86$, $p = .392$, suggesting that locality did not significantly influence levels of perceived independence.

In **self-esteem**, rural participants had a marginally higher mean rank ($M = 151.58$) compared to urban participants ($M = 149.42$). Yet, this difference was also not statistically significant, $U = 11,087.50$, $Z = -0.22$, $p = .828$, indicating that self-esteem scores did not significantly vary based on locality.

Table 9 showed Kruskal-Wallis One-way ANOVA for ‘**gender x locality**’. The table depicted interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on the measure of emotional instability, lack of independence and self-esteem.

Table 9

Kruskal-Wallis One-way ANOVA on measure of emotional instability, lack of independence and self-esteem for gender x locality.

	Groups	Mean Ranks	Df	Sig.
Emotional instability	Male Rural	131.79	3	.002
	Female Rural	165.80		
	Male Urban	131.59		
	Female Urban	172.82		
Lack of independence	Male Rural	143.65	3	.623
	Female Rural	165.88		
	Male Urban	151.06		
	Female Urban	141.41		
Self-esteem	Male Rural	153.65	3	.933
	Female Rural	149.51		
	Male Urban	148.57		
	Female Urban	150.27		

Table 9 Kruskal-Wallis One-way ANOVA revealed significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on **emotional instability**, $H(3) = 14.68$, $p = .002$. The highest mean rank was observed among female urban participants (Mean rank = 172.82), followed by female rural participants (Mean rank = 165.80), male rural participants (Mean rank = 131.79), and male urban participants (Mean rank = 131.59). These findings indicate that emotional instability levels differ significantly across groups, with female participants regardless of locality showing greater emotional instability as compared to male participants.

Kruskal-Wallis One-way ANOVA revealed no significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on **lack of independence**, $H(3) = 1.76$, $p = .623$. However, the highest mean rank was observed among female rural participants (Mean rank = 165.88), followed

by male urban participants (Mean rank = 151.06), male rural participants (Mean rank = 143.65), and female urban participants (Mean rank = 141.41).

Kruskal-Wallis One-way ANOVA also revealed no significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on **self-esteem**, $H(3) = 0.22, p = .933$. The highest mean rank was found among male rural participants (Mean rank = 153.65), followed by female urban participants (Mean rank = 150.27), female rural participants (Mean rank = 149.51), and male urban participants (Mean rank = 148.57). These results suggest that self-esteem levels were relatively similar across all groups, with no significant influence of gender or locality.

Table 10

Non-Parametric comparisons for all pairs on emotional instability using Steel-Dwass Method

Level	- Level	Score Mean Difference	Std Err Dif	Z	p-Value
Female Rural	Male Rural	22.266	7.077	3.146	0.009*
Female Urban	Male Rural	21.933	7.080	3.097	0.010*
Female Urban	Male Urban	18.773	7.085	2.649	0.040*
Female Urban	Female Rural	1.080	7.079	0.152	0.998
Male Urban	Male Rural	-2.600	7.080	-0.367	0.983
Male Urban	Female Rural	-20.013	7.082	-2.825	0.024*

Table 10 illustrate the Post Hoc Analysis using the Steel-Dwass method to examine pairwise differences between ‘gender x locality’ groups on emotional instability. The results revealed several statistically significant differences between group pairs. Specifically, female participants from rural areas differed significantly from male participants from rural areas, ($M = 22.27, p = .009$) depicting the largest significant mean difference followed by female participants from urban areas differed significantly from male participants from rural areas ($M = 21.93, p = .010$). Females from urban areas also differed significantly from males from urban areas ($M = 18.77, p = .040$). The smallest significant mean difference was depicted between male participants from urban areas and

female participants from rural areas ($M = -20.01$, $p = .024$). As noted earlier, the largest mean difference among all comparisons was observed between female and male participants from rural areas, suggesting that gender-based differences in emotional instability may be most pronounced in rural settings.

Predictive relationship between Gender Role Attitude, Emotional Maturity (Emotional Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Maladjustment, Personality Disintegration and Lack of Independence), Resilient Coping and Self-Esteem.

In order to address the **fifth** objective of highlighting the predictive relationship between gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among Mizo adults, the following hypothesis was formulated: it was expected that there will be significant prediction between gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem.

To elucidate the predictive relationship between the behavioral measures, Linear Regression Model and Step-wise Hierarchical Linear Regression were employed. All fundamental statistical assumptions including linearity, multivariate normality, absence of multicollinearity, homoscedasticity of residuals, and detection of influential outliers were systematically examined and found to be adequately satisfied before conducting the regression analysis.

For the linear regression analysis, gender role attitude was entered as the sole predictor in the initial step of the regression model to assess its predictive influence on the psychosocial outcomes. The dependent variables included emotional maturity and its five constituent dimensions- emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, and lack of independence along with resilient coping and self-esteem. Separate regression models were constructed for each criterion variable to evaluate the extent to which gender role attitudes contribute to individual differences across these psychological constructs.

Table 11

Linear Regression Analysis showing the prediction of the emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence, resilient coping and self-esteem from gender role attitudes

Predictor	Criterion	B	R ²	F	Sig.	Durbin Watson	Collinearity Statistics	
							Tolerance	VIF
Gender role attitudes	Emotional instability	.280	.078	25.376	.000	1.736	1.000	1.000
	Emotional regression	.159	.025	7.682	.006	1.692	1.000	1.000
	Social maladjustment	.224	.050	15.706	.000	1.570	1.000	1.000
	Personality Disintegration	.122	.015	4.495	.035	1.648	1.000	1.000
	Lack of Independence	.030	.001	.270	.604	1.887	1.000	1.000
	Resilient Coping	.007	.000	.014	.906	1.877	1.000	1.000
	Self-esteem	-.036	.001	.384	.536	1.910	1.000	1.000

Table 11 displayed linear regression model with gender role attitudes as predictor and emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence, resilient coping and self-esteem as criterion. The result depicted that gender role attitudes significantly predicted emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment and personality disintegration.

The regression model with gender role attitudes as predictor and emotional instability as criterion emerged to be statistically significant ($R^2 = .078$; $F = 25.376$, $p < .05$). The model explained 7% of the variance in emotional instability. The regression coefficient for gender role attitudes ($B = .280$), suggested that for every change in gender role attitudes, emotional instability increased by .280.

Similarly, the regression model with gender role attitudes as predictor and emotional regression as criterion emerged to be statistically significant ($R^2 = .025$; $F = 7.682$, $p < .05$). The model explained 2% of the variance in emotional regression. The

regression coefficient for gender role attitudes ($B=.159$), suggested that for every change in gender role attitudes, emotional regression increased by .159.

Likewise, the regression model with gender role attitudes as predictor and social maladjustment as criterion emerged to be statistically significant ($R^2=.050$; $F=15.706$, $p<.05$). The model explained 5% of the variance in social maladjustment. The regression coefficient for gender role attitudes ($B=.224$), suggested that for every change in gender role attitudes, social maladjustment increased by .224.

Following the same pattern, the regression model with gender role attitudes as predictor and personality disintegration as criterion emerged to be statistically significant ($R^2=.015$; $F=4.495$, $p<.05$). The model explained 1% of the variance in personality disintegration. The regression coefficient for gender role attitudes ($B=.122$), suggested that for every change in gender role attitudes, personality disintegration increased by .122.

Finally, regression model with predictor variables as gender role attitudes and criterion variables as lack of independence, resilient coping and self-esteem depicted non-significant result.

To gain a deeper perspective and rigorous insight to the study, Step-wise Hierarchical Linear Regression was again employed to explore the reverse relationship, offering a more comprehensive analysis of the variables. The primary objective was to determine how demographic factors (gender and locality), sub-scales of Emotional Maturity, Resilient Coping, and Self-Esteem contribute to variations in individuals' gender role attitudes. Prior to the analysis, standard regression assumptions- including linearity, normality of residuals, absence of multicollinearity, homoscedasticity, and lack of influential outliers were thoroughly assessed and met. The analysis was carried out in nine successive models to systematically assess the incremental predictive value of each set of variables:

1. Model 1 included gender.
2. Model 2 added locality.
3. Model 3 added the variable emotional instability.
4. Model 4 added the variable emotional regression.

5. Model 5 added the variable social maladjustment.
6. Model 6 added the variable personality disintegration
7. Model 7 added the variable lack of independence.
8. Model 8 added the variable resilient coping.
9. Model 9 added the variable self-esteem.

A histogram of standardized residual (Figure 6) was generated to assess the normality assumption of residuals in the regression model predicting gender role attitudes. The figure displayed the distribution of residuals, with the x-axis representing standardized residual values and the y-axis indicating frequency. Overall, the residual distribution followed normal probability curve suggesting that the assumption of normality is met. A normal probability-probability (P-P) plot (Figure 7) was generated to assess the assumption of normality for the standardized residuals in the regression model predicting gender role attitudes. The plot compares the observed cumulative probability (x-axis) with the expected cumulative probability (y-axis) under a normal distribution. The results of the P-P plot followed linearity suggesting that the assumption of normality regression residuals is met.

Table 12

Step-wise Hierarchical Linear Regression testing the predictability of gender role attitudes from the demographic profiles and psychological measures

Predictors	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Collinearity Statistics	
				Tolerance	VIF
Gender	.475	.475	.435	1.000	1.000
Locality		.302	.302	1.000	1.000
Emotional instability			.184	.951	1.051
ΔR^2	.226	.091	.032	Durbin Watson statistics = 1.678	

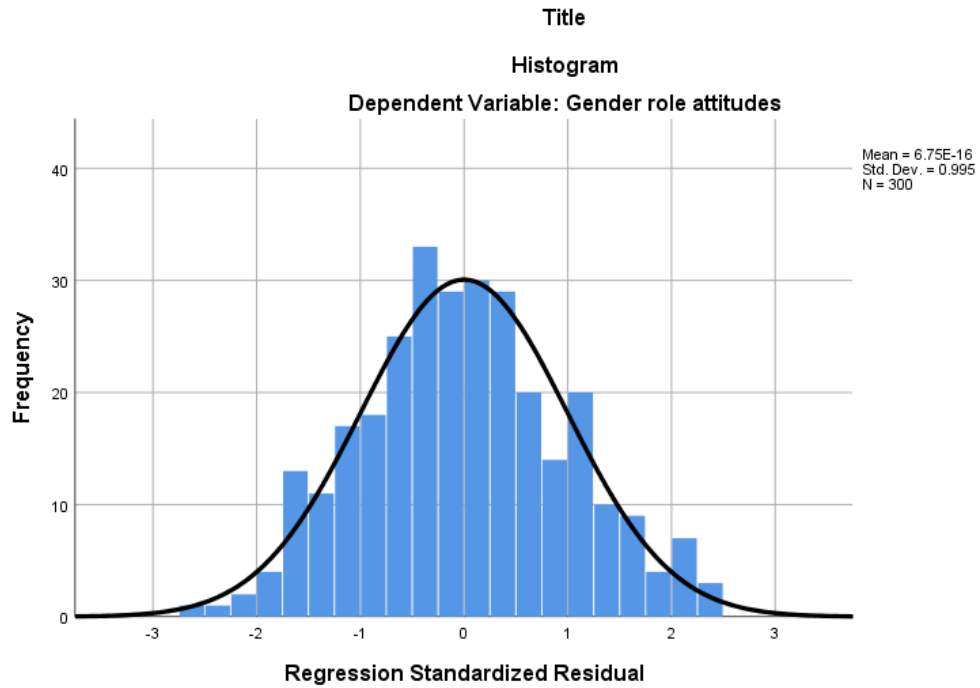


Figure:21 Histogram of standardized residual for hierarchical regression analysis

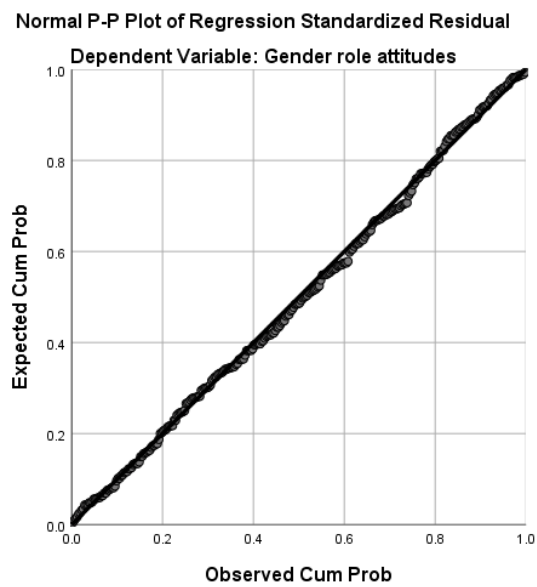


Figure:22 Normal probability-probability (P-P) plot for hierarchical regression analysis

In Table 12, Model 1 included gender as a predictor and significantly contributed to the model, accounting for 22.6% of the variance in gender role attitudes ($\Delta R^2 = .226$, $\beta = .475$). This suggests that gender plays a substantial role in shaping gender role attitudes.

Model 2 added locality, resulting in a significant improvement in the model, by explaining an additional 9.1% of variance ($\Delta R^2 = .091$, $\beta = .302$). Together, gender and locality emerged as strong demographic predictors, indicating that both gender and locality (urban/rural) influence attitudes toward gender roles.

Model 3 added emotional instability as a psychological variable, contributing an additional 3.2% of the variance in gender role attitudes ($\Delta R^2 = .032$, $\beta = .184$). The positive beta coefficient suggests that individuals exhibiting higher emotional instability are more likely to hold egalitarian gender role attitudes.

However, no significant contribution to gender role attitudes was seen for emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence, resilient coping and self-esteem.

CHAPTER – V

DISCUSSION

The principal aim of the present study, titled “Gender Role Attitude in Relation to Emotional Maturity, Resilient Coping, and Self-Esteem Among Mizo Adults,” was to systematically explore the potential associations among the selected psychological constructs and to determine the independent and interactive effects of gender and locality on these variables. Furthermore, the study sought to investigate the predictive relationships between gender role attitudes and key psychological factors: namely, emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem, thereby offering a comprehensive understanding of the factors contributing to gender role attitudes within the Mizo adult population.

300 Mizo adults comprising of 150 males and 150 females consisting of equal representation of people living in urban and rural areas using multistage random sampling procedure were chosen based on inclusion criteria. The participants age ranged between 18-65 years. Informed consent was taken from each participant and the complete demographic profile was recorded. The behavioral measures: Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS; Spence, Helmrich and Stapp, 1973), Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS; Singh & Bhargava, 1990), Brief Resilient Coping Scale (BRCS; Sinclair & Wallston, 2004) and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965) was administered to all the participants.

The analysis plan of the study first employed descriptive statistics including the mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis in checking the normal distribution of scores for checking data structure to decide appropriate statistics on the selected behavioral measures. Cronbach’s Alpha was computed for the different scales used in the current study. The analysis of item-total correlations revealed a substantial degree of association among the items within each scale, indicating that they effectively assess consistent underlying constructs.

Bivariate correlation matrix was employed to illustrate the relationships for the demographic profiles and scales/ sub-scales of the behavioral measures. The primary analysis involved Two-Way Analysis of Variance to reveal the independent and interaction effects of ‘Gender’ and ‘Locality’ and Post-Hoc Scheffe’s tests to assess group differences.

Due to non-parametric assumptions, alternative tests such as the Mann-Whitney U-test, Kruskal-Wallis test and Steel-Dwass test were also employed for ‘gender x locality’.

Further, Linear Regression analysis was employed to determine a measure of the extent to which variability among the scores on the dependent variable has been explained. Finally, Hierarchical Stepwise Regression was employed to predict gender role attitudes from the demographic variables and other psychological measures under study.

Descriptive Statistics

The results presented in Table 1a showed the sample characteristics based on gender and locality for the whole sample. Table 1b displayed the mean and standard deviation of the demographic variables of participant’s age, sex, locality, educational qualification, mother’s educational qualification, father’s educational qualification, marital status, economic status, employment status, mother’s employment status, father’s employment status, type of family, main bread winner of the family and employed members of the family.

Table 2 illustrated the mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of the scales and subscales which fall within acceptable range, indicating that the data are normally distributed and suitable for further statistical analysis. Table 2 also displayed the mean scores on gender role attitudes, emotional maturity sub-scales, resilient coping, and self-esteem among the four groups: males in rural areas, females in rural areas, males in urban areas, and females in urban

Table 2 revealed that urban females exhibited the highest mean scores on gender role attitudes, followed by rural females, urban males, and rural males. Since higher scores indicate egalitarian attitudes, this trend suggests that urban females are the most egalitarian, likely due to increased access to education, employment, and progressive social norms. In contrast, rural males showed the most traditional gender role attitudes. These results align with findings by Gui (2019) and Streatfield et al. (2023), Gui (2019) highlights that urban environments, particularly in developing countries like India, foster gender equity through better schooling, exposure to feminist discourses, and increased

labor force participation for women. Similarly, Streatfield et al. (2023) conducted a cross-national study demonstrating that individuals residing in urban centers tend to espouse progressive gender norms due to broader access to social resources and institutional support that challenge patriarchal ideologies.

The highest mean scores on emotional instability were observed in urban females, followed by rural females, urban males, and rural males. Higher scores indicate greater emotional immaturity. The results suggest that females, particularly in urban settings, may face heightened emotional demands and internal conflicts, contributing to increased instability. This finding is consistent with Singh and Bhargava (1990), who reported that Indian women, especially those balancing traditional and modern roles, experience heightened emotional turbulence due to societal expectations and limited support systems. In urban settings, where women are expected to excel both professionally and domestically, this tension may be more pronounced.

The highest mean scores on emotional regression were observed in urban females, followed by rural females, rural males, and urban males. Emotional regression reflects child-like emotional responses, dependence, or withdrawal in response to stress. The higher scores in urban women may reflect psychological burnout possibly due to stress from managing multiple social roles. Lazarus and Folkman (1984) noted that chronic stress can impair emotional regulation and result in regression, which supports this pattern. They suggest that when stressors are perceived as overwhelming and coping resources are limited or maladaptive, individuals may resort to regressive coping mechanisms such as withdrawal, helplessness, or somatic complaints.

Social maladjustment scores followed a similar pattern, with urban females scoring highest, suggesting greater difficulty in adapting socially. In contrast, rural males showed the lowest maladjustment, possibly benefiting from stable social roles and stronger community ties. According to Bem's (1981) Gender Schema Theory, traditional gender roles especially when reinforced by consistent community values can reduce cognitive dissonance and support social adaptation. In rural settings, well-defined roles may aid adjustment by offering clarity and communal validation. On the other hand, urban

environments often demand constant negotiation of social identity, especially for women caught between modern values and residual traditional expectations, increasing the likelihood of social maladjustment.

The pattern persisted in personality disintegration, with urban females again reporting the highest scores, followed by rural females and rural males (similar levels), with urban males showing the lowest disintegration. Baumeister et al. (2003) discuss the burden of self-presentation and identity management in modern society, where individuals often construct and maintain multiple, sometimes incompatible, selves. Urban females may be under constant pressure to maintain an idealized image of the “modern woman” while fulfilling traditional obligations, leading to fragmented self-perception. This dissonance may be reflected in disintegration scores.

The highest score on lack of independence was found among rural females, followed by urban males, rural males, and urban females, who demonstrated the greatest independence. This pattern suggests that traditional cultural expectations may restrict autonomy among rural females, whereas urban females benefit from greater exposure to empowering resources. Bowlby’s (1969) attachment theory supports the notion that overprotective or controlling environments can foster dependent tendencies.

Rural males reported the highest levels of resilient coping, followed by urban males, rural females, and urban females, who showed the lowest. Ungar (2011) emphasized that exposure to hardship and strong community support in rural settings can enhance resilience. In contrast, urban females may face compounded stress and role conflict, reducing coping efficacy (Epel et al., 2018).

The highest self-esteem was reported by rural males, followed by urban males, rural females, and urban females. Twenge and Campbell (2002) noted that traditional roles in rural areas, especially for men, provide a clear sense of purpose and social validation, boosting self-worth. In contrast, urban females may internalize societal pressures and unrealistic expectations, contributing to lower self-esteem.

Psychometric Properties of the Psychological Scales

Since the psychological tests employed in the present study were initially developed for a different culture. The need to confirm the trustworthiness of the scales for the population under study becomes necessary. Therefore, Cronbach's Alpha was used to analyze the reliability of the psychological scales and to determine the applicability of the scales/subscales for the current population.

The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) were computed for all of the psychological tests. The internal consistency of the scales was found to be substantially consistent over the level of analyses that determined applicability of the scales/subscales of the behavioral measure. The scales and sub-scales that were employed ranged between .641 and .766.

Parametric Statistics assumption check

For checking the homogeneity of variance of the psychological scales, Levene's Test of Equality of variances was employed. It examined the variances of the samples under study are approximately equal. As shown in Table 3, the results portrayed non-significance on the behavioral measures of gender role attitudes, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and resilient coping. Thus, indicating that the assumptions of homogeneity of variance have been met which permits to further proceed with the parametric analysis of variances. However, significant results were portrayed on the behavioral measures of emotional instability, lack of independence and self-esteem. Thus, an alternative and equivalent non-parametric analysis of variances will be employed for further analysis.

In an attempt to uncover the independent effect of gender on the behavioral measures Two-Way ANOVA and Man-Whitney U- test was also employed since the data violated parametric assumptions of normality and homogeneity. Two-Way ANOVA revealed significant differences between male and female on gender role attitudes, emotional regression and social maladjustment. But no significant gender difference was observed on personality disintegration and resilient coping. Man-Whitney U- test revealed

significant differences between male and female on emotional instability. But no significant gender difference was observed on lack of independence and self-esteem.

Relationships between gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem

Considering the study's first objective: is to determine the pattern of relationship between the psychological variables of gender role attitude, emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence), resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. The results (listed in Table 4) revealed gender role attitudes has: significant positive correlation with emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, and personality disintegration. Significant positive correlation was observed among the subscales of emotional maturity. Emotional instability has positive correlation with: emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, and lack of independence. Emotional regression has positive correlation with: social maladjustment, personality disintegration, and lack of independence. Social maladjustment has positive correlation with: personality disintegration and lack of independence. Personality disintegration has positive correlation with: lack of independence. Resilient coping has significant negative correlations with: emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, and personality disintegration; and positively correlated with self-esteem. Self-esteem has significant negative correlations with: emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, and personality disintegration.

There was a significant positive relationship between resilient coping and self-esteem (listed in Table 4) indicating that individuals with higher levels of resilient coping tend to have better self-esteem. Likewise, individuals with lower levels of resilient coping exhibit lower self-esteem. Seligman (2019) pointed out that positive self-perception helps in building one's resilience and well-being. These two factors are found to be closely connected, resilient people are better at handling challenges, and able to deal effectively when these challenges occurred resulting to gain confidence and boost their self-esteem.

Study which explores the relationship of resilience with personality, coping, and psychiatric symptoms in young adults reported that individuals with higher self-esteem exhibited greater resilience and more adaptive coping strategies (Campbell et al., 2016). Marshall et al. (2014) also found a strong positive correlation between self-esteem and resilient coping in young adults.

When examined within the context of Mizo society, the relationship between resilient coping and self-esteem becomes even more intriguing. Mizo culture, rooted in communal values and with a strong sense of identity, places considerable emphasis on perseverance and adaptability, both of which are integral to resilient coping. Traditional Mizo upbringing encourages community participation, emotional endurance, and self-reliance from a young age, all of which may contribute to the development of resilience and self-worth. The teachings of 'tlawmngaihna', a Mizo ethical ideal that stresses selflessness, helpfulness, and perseverance are particularly relevant here. Individuals who embody 'tlawmngaihna' are often admired for their ability to handle difficulties with grace and for maintaining a positive self-image, reinforcing the idea that resilience and self-esteem are mutually reinforcing qualities in this cultural context.

The result (listed in Table 4) showed significant positive relationship between gender role attitudes and the subscales of emotional maturity, namely emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment and personality disintegration. These findings reject the first hypothesis that expected negative relationship between gender role attitudes and sub-scales of emotional maturity. The findings indicated that a person who have traditional gender roles attitudes will be emotionally more mature meaning they will have higher emotional stability, emotional progression, adjustment in social situations and personality integration than person who have egalitarian gender role attitudes. It also indicated that a person who have egalitarian gender roles will be emotionally more immature meaning lower emotional stability, emotional progression, adjustment in social situations and personality integration.

Helgeson (1994) reviewed literature on the relation between masculine trait orientations and feminine trait orientations with respect to emotional well-being.

Masculine trait orientations (independence and assertiveness) and feminine trait orientations (warmth and nurturance) are examined as predictors of psychological adjustment, physical health, and relationship functioning. The findings suggests that masculine trait orientations are more strongly associated with positive emotional well-being outcomes (self-esteem, lower depression), whereas feminine trait orientations are linked to better interpersonal relationships but may also correlate with higher stress due to excessive caregiving.

The idea that egalitarian gender roles have association with lower emotional maturity is a controversial and largely unsupported claim. However, individuals may struggle with confusion in identity and expectations, leading to emotional strain. Traditional roles provide clear scripts for behavior, which some people find comforting. These factors may help explain why individuals with traditional gender role attitudes often exhibit higher levels of emotional maturity.

In Mizo society, these findings gain a particularly meaningful dimension. Traditionally, the Mizo community has a strong, structured cultural framework where clear expectations for men and women have been socially endorsed through generations. Men were traditionally expected to be protectors and decision-makers, while women were entrusted with nurturing roles within the family and community. These roles provided a strong and stable structure for emotional development, where individuals knew their societal expectations, resulting in a stronger sense of identity and emotional control. Although modern Mizo society, especially among urban, youth are gradually shifting toward more egalitarian gender roles, traditional expectations still hold considerable influence, particularly in rural areas. In such a setting, clear gender roles might still contribute to emotional maturity by offering a stable framework within which individuals can form a coherent identity. Having well-defined roles could help reduce confusion, emotional conflicts, and identity struggles that are often associated with emotional instability and immature coping.

The result in Table 4 also highlighted significant positive relationship within the sub-scales of emotional maturity where emotional instability has positive relationship

with emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence. Emotional regression has significant positive relationship with social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence. Social maladjustment has significant relationship with personality disintegration and lack of independence. Personality disintegration has significant positive relationship with lack of independence. Study done by Sharma and Sharma (2012) also found significant positive correlations between the subscales of emotional maturity, such as emotional stability, social adjustment, and independence, suggesting that these dimensions work together to influence overall functioning. Gupta and Rani (2016) investigated the relationship between emotional maturity and coping strategies. They also observed similar findings on the subscales of emotional maturity where emotional stability, social adjustment, and independence were positively correlated, suggesting that these dimensions collectively enhance coping abilities. It is not a surprise that these variables have significant relationship because these emotional traits are interdependent with one another.

Furthermore, the result (listed in Table 4) showed that resilient coping has negative relationship with emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration indicating that an individual who have high level of resilient coping will also be emotionally stable, have better emotion progression and better in social adjustment as well as in personality integration. These findings proved the first hypothesis that expect negative relationship between gender role attitudes and resilient coping. Resilient coping involves cognitive flexibility, the ability to adapt thinking to new information or challenges. Emotionally mature individuals are better at reframing situations and finding meaning in difficulty.

In line with Lazarus and Folkman's Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (1984) which emphasized cognitive appraisal as a key factor in coping. Emotionally mature individuals considered stressors more adaptively, fostering resilience. Both of these factors involve the ability to manage stress, adapt to challenges, and maintain emotional stability. Smith and Kumar (2022) supported the current findings by

stating that individuals with higher emotional maturity demonstrated better resilience in handling stress and adversity.

In addition, the result (listed in Table 4) highlighted that self-esteem also showed significant negative relationship with emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment and personality disintegration. These findings proved the first hypothesis that expect negative relationship between the sub-scales of emotional maturity and self-esteem. These findings suggest that when an individual have better sense of self-worth, they will be more emotionally stable, have better emotional progression, social adjustment and personality integration. A study by Kumar and Singh (2014) found similar findings where significant relationship was observed between emotional maturity and self-esteem in adolescents. Individuals with higher emotional maturity are assumed to demonstrate greater self-esteem, which is mediated by their enhanced emotional regulation and adaptive coping skills.

According to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (1943), Abraham Maslow proposed self-esteem as a fundamental human need, located just below self-actualization in his hierarchy. Emotional maturity, which involves self-awareness and emotional regulation, is essential for achieving higher levels of psychological growth, including self-esteem. Emotionally mature individuals are better equipped to meet their esteem needs, which in turn boosts self-esteem.

Self-esteem is deeply tied to one's contributions in the Mizo community, reputation within one's peer group, and adherence to communal values. Emotional maturity, self-regulation, and positive social functioning contribute to a strong personal and communal identity, fostering a higher sense of self-worth. Achieving emotional stability and strong social bonds are often a prerequisite to feeling accomplished and fulfilled especially in a closely-knit society.

However, no significant relationship was observed between gender role attitudes and resilient coping and between gender role attitudes and self-esteem. Studies suggest that while gender roles influence behavior (emotional expression), they do not necessarily determine an individual's capacity for resilience or self-worth (Block & Kremen, 1996).

Since, resilience and self-esteem are personality-based factors that develop through individual experiences than being strictly tied to gender roles it is assumed that it does not portray any relationship with these variables. Given that Mizo youth today are increasingly influenced by education, global media, and evolving local norms, it could be that personal experiences and intrinsic traits are becoming more central to the development of resilience and self-esteem, rather than traditional gender role expectations.

Thus, the first hypothesis was partially accepted as the findings showed significant positive relationship between resilient coping and self-esteem. Resilient coping was found to have significant negative relationship with: emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration; and self-esteem was found to have significant negative relationship with: emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration. However, in contrast to the hypothesis, the findings showed significant positive relationship between gender role attitudes and emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment and personality disintegration.

The second objective: is to examine the independent effect of gender (male and female) on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the samples.

Independent effect of ‘gender’ on gender role attitude

The Two-Way ANOVA (listed in Table 6) depicted significant independent effect of gender on gender role attitudes. The result showed significant difference between male and female on gender role attitudes. The mean scores highlighted that female participants have higher egalitarian gender role attitude and male participants have higher traditional gender role attitudes. From an early age, individuals are socialized into culturally defined roles where females are often encouraged to value equality, empathy, and collaboration, which may align with egalitarian views, while males are more frequently reinforced to uphold traditional roles tied to dominance, assertiveness, and status. Additionally, gender schema theory (Bem, 1981) posits that individuals internalize gender-based frameworks that shape how they perceive and respond to social roles. As a result, females may develop

more flexible, egalitarian attitudes in response to shifting societal expectations and increasing opportunities, while males may retain more traditional views as a way of maintaining familiar role structures and identity stability.

In line with the present findings, Bolzendahl and Myers (2004) showed that women tend to hold more egalitarian gender role attitudes compared to men. Davis and Greenstein (2009) also pointed out that men are more likely to endorse traditional gender roles. These findings often linked to the benefits men derive from maintaining their status and women's awareness of gender inequality. Several other researchers have also consistently observed gender differences and that female holds egalitarian gender role attitudes and male holds traditional gender role attitudes (Inglehart & Norris, 2003; Leaper & Friedman, 2007; Galambos, Almeida & Petersen, 1990).

According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), it suggests that individuals learn gender roles through observation, imitation, and reinforcement. Children started socializing differently from a young age, leading to the internalization of distinct gender roles. Girls are often encouraged to be nurturing, cooperative, and empathetic, while boys are encouraged to be assertive, independent, and competitive. These early socialization experiences shape their attitudes toward gender roles. Women, having been socialized to value caregiving and cooperation, are more likely to support egalitarian roles that promote equality and shared responsibilities. Men, on the other hand, are socialized to value dominance and leadership, leading them to endorse traditional roles that maintain male authority.

Social role theory (Eagly, 1987) also added that gender role attitudes are influenced by the distribution of men and women into social roles. Traditional gender roles often grant men greater power, status, and economic benefits. As a result, men may resist changes to these roles to maintain their privileged position. Women, who are often disadvantaged by traditional roles, have more to gain from egalitarian changes. Lalthangliana (2010) also added that Mizo youth, particularly women, who are increasingly pursuing higher education and careers shift their viewpoints from the traditional gender role attitudes to egalitarian gender role attitudes.

Independent effect of ‘gender’ on emotional maturity

The Two-Way ANOVA (listed in Table 6) and Mann-Whitney U-test (listed in Table 7) depicted significant independent effect of gender on emotional instability, emotional regression and social maladjustment. The result showed significant difference between male and female on emotional instability, emotional regression and social maladjustment. The mean scores reflects that female participants scored higher than male participants on emotional instability, emotional regression and social maladjustment. Thus, suggesting that females exhibited higher emotional instability, emotional regression and social maladjustment than males.

From a young age, males and females often socialized differently, which may influence their emotional development. Females are often encouraged to express emotions and develop empathy, while males may be socialized to suppress emotions and prioritize independence. This may lead to differences in emotional expression and regulation. In line with this, parental influence may also lead a long way for the development of emotional maturity in children which they carried on till they became an adult. For instance, parents may comfort girls more when they cry but encourage boys to toughen up.

Several studies have pointed out that females have better emotional maturity than males (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983; Nolen-Hoeksema, 2012; Fischer & Manstead, 2000) but the present study highlighted that males have higher emotional stability, emotional progression and social adjustment. Levant and Pollack (1995) stated that gender role expectations, may influence emotional stability. Males are often socialized to suppress emotions and exhibit stoicism, which can be perceived as emotional stability. They further added that males are frequently encouraged to hide emotions like fear or sadness, which may lead to a perception of greater emotional stability, even if it comes at the cost of emotional expression. Although several research pointed out that females have better emotional maturity, Roberts et. al. (2006) highlighted that males may catch up or even surpass females in certain aspects of emotional maturity later in life. Emotional maturity in males may accelerate in adulthood, particularly in domains like emotional progression and self-regulation. This could be reflected in the current Mizo context, where the male

population, especially educated youth, are increasingly engaged in leadership roles, social services, and political activities, all of which require enhanced emotional discipline and public adaptability. Meanwhile, many young Mizo women are still navigating the balance between traditional roles and modern expectations, potentially contributing to transitional emotional challenges. With respect to social adjustment, many societies encouraged males to be outgoing and socially active, while females may be encouraged to be more reserved (Cross & Madson, 1997). Mizo men are generally encouraged to be community leaders, active in youth organizations like YMA (Young Mizo Association), church functions, and political gatherings. This social exposure may foster interaction, confidence, and a sense of social responsibility, the traits that naturally enhance social adjustment. By contrast, while Mizo women are gaining greater visibility in education and public sectors, traditional norms may still subtly discourage excessive social participation or assertiveness in mixed-gender public forums, potentially impacting their social adjustment scores.

However, no significant independent effect of gender was observed on personality disintegration and lack of independence. While the impact of gender on emotional stability, emotional progression and social maladjustment was observed, there was no significant effect of gender on personality disintegration and lack of independence among the current sample. The reason may be that both genders, regardless of being male or female can exhibit these traits depending on individual and situational factors. Cross-cultural studies have also shown that gender differences in independence and related traits vary widely across cultures, suggesting that these traits are not inherently tied to gender (Smitt et al., 2008).

Independent effect of ‘gender’ on resilient coping

The Two-Way ANOVA (listed in Table 6) showed no significant independent effect of gender on resilient coping. The result showed no significant difference between male and female on resilient coping. Since, the concept of resilient coping is a personality trait and it may not always be based on one’s gender. Both males and females may have the similar capacity to show resilient coping although their way of expressing it can differ.

For instance, men may draw these skills from social roles that emphasize strength and responsibility, while women may cultivate through relational networks, emotional expression, and communal support.

Masten (2018) noted that resilience relies on cognitive flexibility, emotional regulation, and social support skills that are not inherently tied to biological sex but rather develop through individual experiences and socialization. Studies done by Tamres et al. (2002) and Donaldson et al. (2000) have also supported the current findings by stating that gender do not have significant difference on resilient coping. It is may be notable that the tight-knit communal life of the Mizo people encourages collective coping rather than isolated individual coping. Whether male or female, the support networks through church groups, local communities, and youth organizations act as buffers against stress and promote the development of resilience across all demographics.

Independent effect of ‘gender’ on self-esteem

The Mann-Whitney U-test (listed in Table 7) showed no significant independent effect of gender on self-esteem. The result showed no significant difference between male and female on self-esteem. As both genders have increasingly access to similar resources, support systems, and opportunities for achievement, the influence of gender on self-esteem may diminish. While some studies find small gender differences in specific domains (males score slightly higher in physical ability, females in social acceptance), global self-esteem (overall self-worth) tends to balance out.

In recent decades, the socio-cultural landscape in Mizoram has undergone substantial shifts in education access, urbanization, technology exposure, and changing gender roles have created a more level playing field for males and females. Today, both Mizo men and women are actively pursuing higher education, engaging in professional careers, and participating in community leadership roles. These shared opportunities and responsibilities contribute to similar experiences of success, failure, validation, and self-worth, which may balance global self-esteem between genders.

Robins et al. (2002) stated that during adolescence, females tend to report slightly lower self-esteem than males, possibly due to societal pressures and body image concerns.

However, these differences reduce in adulthood. Since, the present study focus on adults, gender difference may be diminished as a result, no differences between genders are found. In line with the present study, other researchers have also found that in adulthood, gender differences in self-esteem are minimal and does not reach to the point of significance (Crocker et al., 2001; Orth et al., 2015; Robins et al., 2002).

Thus, the second hypothesis was partially accepted as the findings showed significant independent effect of gender on gender role attitudes, emotional instability, emotional regression and social maladjustment. The mean scores showed that females depict higher mean scores on egalitarian gender role attitudes, emotional instability, emotional regression and social maladjustment and males depict higher traditional gender role attitudes. However, no significant independent effect of gender was observed on personality disintegration, lack of independence, resilient coping and self-esteem.

The third objective: is to examine the independent effect of locality (rural and urban) on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the samples.

Independent effect of ‘locality’ on gender role attitude

The Two-Way ANOVA (listed in Table 6) depicted significant independent effect of locality on gender role attitudes. The result showed significant difference between participants from rural and urban areas on gender role attitudes. The mean score showed that urban participants depicted higher egalitarian gender role attitudes, while rural participants depicted higher traditional gender role attitudes. These differences are suggested to be due to the deeply rooted lifestyle, social values, exposure, and opportunities available in rural versus urban environments. In rural areas, where traditional roles are more upheld, men are viewed primarily as providers and women as homemakers continue to be strongly reinforced by cultural norms, religious teachings, and community expectations. In contrast, urban settings are increasingly influenced by globalization, modern education, media exposure, and evolving economic structures, leading to more egalitarian beliefs about gender roles.

In the current Mizo society, these patterns are still observable where rural Mizoram maintain many traditional customs and practices where gender-specific roles are emphasized, especially within household and community settings. Women, although respected, are often expected to focus on caregiving, domestic responsibilities, and supportive roles, while men are viewed as primary decision-makers and breadwinners.

On the other hand, urban areas are experiencing rapid social transformation. With higher rates of education, employment opportunities for women, exposure to digital media, and increased participation in civic and political life, gender roles in urban Mizoram are shifting significantly. Today, urban Mizo women are seen excelling in sectors like academics, government service, entrepreneurship, media, and activism, challenging long-standing gender stereotypes. Young men and women in cities often advocate for shared responsibilities in domestic work and parenting, and attitudes toward career-building, marriage, and family life have become more flexible and progressive.

The findings of Gui (2019) align well with the Mizo context, highlighting that urban living experiences lead to more egalitarian attitudes by exposing individuals to progressive gender norms, diverse role models, and modern lifestyle practices. Similarly, the study by Uji et al. (2006) found significant residential differences in gender role attitudes, which is reflected today in the contrast between urban and rural Mizoram.

Moreover, the role of higher education in Mizoram cannot be overstated. With a high literacy rate compared to many other Indian states (Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, 2016), Mizo youths especially in urban areas are increasingly critical of gender biases and advocate for equality. Social media, NGOs, and youth organizations are also playing crucial roles in spreading awareness about gender rights and equity among the urban population.

Independent effect of ‘locality’ on emotional maturity

The Two-Way ANOVA (listed in Table 6) and Mann-Whitney U-test (listed in Table 8) revealed no significant independent effect of locality on the sub-scales of emotional maturity (listed in Table 6; Table 8). The result showed no significant difference between participants from rural and urban areas on emotional instability, emotional regression,

social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence. The absence of significant difference may be attributed to the way emotional maturity is influenced. Cole (1954) explained that emotional maturity of an individual can be measured through the way an individual bears the tension. He further highlighted that emotional maturity is directly related to the self-controlling power of an individual. Therefore, it is suggested that emotional maturity is influenced more by individual, familial, and cultural factors than by geographic location alone. It involves skills like empathy, self-regulation, and emotional intelligence, which are developed through individual's experiences and relationships rather than location-specific factors.

In the current Mizo context, emotional maturity appears to be a product of shared cultural, religious and familial influences, rather than geographical or residential distinctions. The common values and practices of Mizo society create a cohesive emotional environment that supports development equally. Baumrind (1991) also noted that families play a critical role in emotional development, regardless of location. Parenting styles and emotional support are key determinants of emotional maturity and are not inherently tied to rural or urban settings. In light of this, it is suggested that environments provide opportunities to foster emotional maturity. While the contexts may differ, the underlying processes of learning emotional regulation and social skills are similar.

Independent effect of 'locality' on resilient coping

The Two-Way ANOVA (listed in Table 6) showed no significant independent effect of locality on resilient coping. The result showed no significant difference between participants from rural and urban areas on resilient coping. This supports Bonanno's (2004) assertion that individuals who demonstrate resilient coping are able to maintain stable psychological and physical functioning even in the face of disruption. One possible reason for this uniformity in resilience may be the strong sense of community and collective identity that characterizes Mizo society.

Fitchen (1991) pointed out that rural populations often face challenges like limited access to healthcare and economic opportunities. In Mizoram's rural settings, issues like

inadequate transport, fewer mental health facilities, and limited job prospects do exist. However, these are often counterbalanced by strong family ties, close-knit communities, and the support of local institutions play a vital role in emotional and social well-being. Similarly, while urban Mizo populations may face stressors like academic pressure, unemployment, or social fragmentation due to modern lifestyle shifts, they also benefit from better infrastructure, access to information, and professional opportunities.

Despite these contrasting challenges, people in both settings have developed adaptive coping strategies, often suggested to be shaped by their faith, cultural values, and community networks. This aligns with Gifford's (2007) perspective that urban challenges such as overcrowding or crime do not necessarily diminish resilience. In the Mizo context, even urban dwellers maintain strong cultural ties to their roots and villages, frequently participating in traditional practices and returning home during festivals or family events, which helps in preserving their sense of identity and social support system.

Independent effect of 'locality' on self-esteem

The Mann-Whitney U-test (listed in Table 8) depicted no significant independent effect of locality on self-esteem. The result showed no significant difference between participants from rural and urban areas on self-esteem. This aligns with the conceptualization of self-esteem as an individual's overall sense of self-worth (Rosenberg, 1965), which is shaped more by internal and personal processes than by external environmental factors. Therefore, regardless of whether individuals reside in rural or urban settings, their self-esteem remains relatively stable, driven by personal perceptions and intrinsic evaluations rather than geographical or societal context.

In the current Mizo context, both rural and urban individuals share strong cultural values such as community belongingness, respect for elders, Christian faith, and mutual support systems, all of which contribute positively to the formation of self-esteem. Whether a person grows up in a rural village or an urban locality, it is suggested that the societal emphasis on collective identity and community participation helps individuals develop a secure sense of self.

A study by Van den Berg et al. (2017) found no significant differences in self-esteem between rural and urban adolescents, they further suggested that developmental factors play a larger role than location. Another study by Schmitt et al. (2008) also supported the current findings where they found that self-esteem levels were consistent across rural and urban areas in multiple cultures.

The findings of the present study partially supported the third hypothesis which stated that urban participants were expected to depict higher egalitarian gender role attitude, resilient coping and self-esteem. And rural participants were expected to depict higher traditional gender role attitudes and lower scores on emotional maturity.

Thus, the third hypothesis was partially accepted as the findings showed significant independent effect of locality on gender role attitudes where urban participants depict higher egalitarian gender role attitude and rural participants depict higher traditional gender role attitude. However, no significant independent effect of locality was observed on emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem.

The fourth objective: is to examine the interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample.

Interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on gender role attitude

The Two-Way ANOVA (listed in Table 6) revealed no significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on gender role attitudes, indicating that the combination of gender and locality do not have an effect on gender role attitudes. However, mean scores (listed in Table 2) depicted that urban female participants have the highest mean score on gender role attitude, followed by rural females, urban males, and rural males. Since higher score indicate egalitarian attitudes, urban females demonstrated the most egalitarian gender role attitudes and rural males reflected the most traditional gender role attitudes.

Several research on gender role development in adults has demonstrated that adults’ gender role attitudes shift as a result of changes in life situations, such as the transition to parenthood (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Katz-Wise et al., 2010; Vespa, 2009) and work experiences (Vespa, 2009). As an individual grow older, their exposure, socialization,

schooling, and personal experiences becomes more important (Davis, 2007). Thus, this exposure especially among females in urban areas who are more likely to pursue higher education leads to the associated with more egalitarian gender attitudes. It is suggested that education fosters critical thinking and challenges traditional gender roles.

In the context of Mizo society, these findings may be understood through the lens of social change and evolving life circumstances. Today, both rural and urban Mizos are increasingly exposed to similar influences, many rural Mizos pursue higher education in cities, or even outside Mizoram, returning with more progressive attitudes towards gender roles. Thus, education and work experiences have become major factors influencing gender role attitudes, regardless of original locality, especially among young adults.

Study by Inglehart and Norris (2003) found that urban residents, particularly women, in industrialized nations are more likely to support gender equality compared to rural residents. In line with this, Huerta et al. (2014) also found that urban women in developing countries are more likely to follow egalitarian gender roles due to better access to education and employment. A plausible alternative explanation might also be globalization and digital connectivity where urban and rural areas are increasingly exposed to similar media and education, reducing contrasts in gender role attitudes.

Interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on emotional maturity

The Kruskal-Wallis H-test (listed in Table 9) revealed significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on emotional instability, indicating that the combined influence of gender and locality significantly impacts emotional stability. The highest mean rank was observed among female urban participants, followed by female rural participants, male rural participants and male urban participants. The post hoc Steel-Dwass test (listed in Table 10) further revealed pairwise mean differences between ‘gender x locality’ groups on emotional instability. The analysis revealed that the highest mean difference in emotional instability occurred between rural females and rural males, followed by the urban females and rural males, urban females and urban males and the lowest mean difference was found between rural females and urban males.

Emotional stability, as defined by Singh and Bhargava (1990), refers to an individual's ability to maintain a balanced emotional state even during stressful situations. In rural areas, tight-knit communities often provide strong social support networks, which play a crucial role in fostering emotional stability by providing a sense of belonging. Additionally, Levant and Richmond (2007) noted that in rural areas, traditional gender roles are more pronounced, with males less pressured to conform to modern urban expectations of emotional expression. This leads to greater emotional stability for men in rural settings.

In the Mizo context, the role of community support is especially important. In rural Mizo society, the close-knit family and community structures provide a strong safety net for individuals, especially men. The clear and traditional gender roles allow men to focus on their work without much emotional stress about societal expectations, leading to a more stable emotional state. For women, however, the transition from single life to marriage, and then to motherhood, can significantly affect emotional stability. In rural areas, Mizo women may face increasing pressures as they navigate these transitions, especially when they take on the additional responsibility of motherhood and managing household duties. This is compounded by the expectations placed on them by in-laws, which can create stress and emotional instability. The pressures from in-laws, who may have traditional expectations of how a woman should behave or manage her household, can further add to the emotional strain, especially when these expectations conflict with personal desires or modern views.

In contrast, urban Mizo women, while they are still influenced by traditional values, are more likely to experience a clash between modern and traditional expectations, leading to lower emotional stability. The exposure to broader societal norms in urban environments, where there is greater emphasis on gender equality and individual expression, may contribute to this emotional instability. Additionally, the transition to adulthood, marriage, and motherhood in urban settings might come with a unique set of pressures, as women navigate the dual expectations of career advancement and familial duties. The complexity of balancing these roles in the face of modern pressures might

explain why urban Mizo women, in particular, show lower emotional stability compared to their rural counterparts.

However, there was no significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence (listed in Table 6 and Table 9). Bronfenbrenner (1979) noted that the qualities of emotional maturity are influenced largely by factors such as peer relationships, family dynamics, and community support. These factors are said to be equally present in both rural and urban settings.

Thus, while the local context (rural or urban) may shape specific aspects of socialization and emotional growth, both settings offer valuable resources and opportunities for emotional maturity. Whether in rural or urban areas, the critical factors in emotional development remain the same, strong familial and community support, meaningful peer relationships, and opportunities for self-exploration and learning. These factors buffer against emotional challenges and contribute to the development of emotional stability, maturity, and independence.

Interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on resilient coping

The Two-Way ANOVA (listed in Table 6) revealed no significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on resilient coping, indicating that the combination of gender and locality do not have any effect on resilient coping. Fletcher and Sarkar (2013) noted that the concept of resilient coping relies on the adaptive psychological and behavioral strategies individuals use to effectively manage stress, adversity, or trauma while maintaining or quickly recovering mental well-being.

Polk (1997) also described resilience as a characteristic approach to situations or stressors manifested as cognitive skills, problem-solving ability, and to other attributes that indicate a capacity for action when facing a differing situation. Sinclair and Wallston (2004) supplement that this situational pattern also incorporates realistic goal-setting skills, an ability to assess the consequences of actions, and active problem-solving behavior which is enhanced by flexibility, perseverance, and resourcefulness.

Study done by Bonanno et al. (2011) reported that despite different stressors like the fast-paced stressors present in urban areas and the isolation in rural areas, coping strategies converge when resilience is high. While many research indicates that men and women may exhibit different coping styles, these differences do not necessarily interact with urban and rural settings to produce distinct coping outcomes (Tamres et al., 2002), both styles can be equally effective in fostering resilience (Southwick et al., 2014). So, in sum, resilient coping is assumed to be largely influenced by innate traits and do not necessarily link to gender or geographical areas.

Interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on self-esteem

The Kruskal-Wallis One-way ANOVA (listed in Table 9) revealed no significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on self-esteem, indicating that the combination of gender and locality do not have significant effects on self-esteem. From the present study it is suggested that self-esteem is a relatively stable personality trait and important factor across both genders and locality and is not influenced by external demographics.

While some psychologists take a more cognitive view towards self-esteem, Brown (1998) contributed that it is a feeling of affection for oneself that develops largely through visceral or irrational processes. Further noting that it is a judgment people make about themselves. This judgment is largely based on an assessment of one’s various abilities and attributes. Thus, leading to the lack of differences in the measure of self-esteem. Bleidorn et al. (2016) reported that while males reported slightly higher self-esteem than females, this gender gap did not have significant difference between urban and rural populations. Kling et al. (1999) conducted a study to analyze gender differences in self-esteem among sample of 216 reported that gender difference varied with age: The difference was small in childhood, increased in adolescence, and declined in adulthood. Similarly, Hyde (2005) reported that from a review of several meta-analyses study, findings revealed gender similarities in self-esteem.

The findings of the study may hold true in Mizo society due to its cultural emphasis on collective identity and the importance of internal perceptions of worth over external factors. These cultural nuances, combined with broader psychological theories on self-

esteem, reinforce the idea that self-esteem remains a relatively stable personality trait across both genders and localities, even in the context of Mizo society.

Thus, the fourth hypothesis was partially accepted as the findings showed significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on emotional instability. The mean rank revealed that female participants in urban areas showed the highest emotional instability followed by female rural participants, male rural participants and male urban participants. However, no significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ was observed on gender role attitudes, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence, resilient coping and self-esteem.

Finally, the fifth objective: is to determine the predictive relationship between gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem.

To better illustrate the predictive relationship between gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem Linear Regression and Step-wise Hierarchical Linear Regression were employed.

Prediction of Emotional Maturity (Emotional Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Maladjustment, Personality Disintegration, Lack of Independence), Resilient Coping and Self-Esteem by Gender Role Attitude

Linear Regression Model (listed in Table 11) with gender role attitudes as predictor and the other psychological measures as criterion depicted that gender role attitudes significantly predicted emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment and personality disintegration. Since the beta coefficients are positive, this indicates that as endorsement of egalitarian gender role attitudes increases, levels of emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, and personality disintegration also increase. The results confirmed the importance of gender role attitudes for different aspects of emotional maturity. Gender role attitudes are rooted in socially constructed expectations about appropriate behaviors, emotions, and responsibilities for individuals based on perceived gender (Eagly & Wood, 2012). These culturally transmitted beliefs define how individuals should behave, feel, and interact in society and often contribute to

gender-based emotional socialization, which in turn influence emotional development and maturity. When gender roles are rigid and stereotypical, such as expecting men to suppress emotions and women to be overly nurturing they can hinder healthy emotional processing and adaptation (Bem, 1981; Pleck, 1995).

In line with this perspective, Brody's (1999) socio-developmental model offers a comprehensive framework for understanding how gender role socialization differentially shapes the emotional development of males and females. Brody emphasized that from early childhood, boys and girls are taught to regulate and express emotions in accordance with societal norms where boys are typically encouraged to display assertiveness and emotional restraint, while girls are encouraged to be emotionally expressive, empathetic, and relationally oriented. Over time, these early socialization patterns manifest in distinct emotional profiles: males often become less emotionally expressive and may suppress distressing emotions (Gross & Levenson, 1997), while females may be more emotionally expressive but also more vulnerable to internalizing problems such as anxiety and depression (Nolen-Hoeksema, 2012).

These dynamics appear particularly relevant in traditional communities such as the Mizo society. In Mizo cultural context, gender roles are still strongly defined by patriarchal norms where men are expected to be stoic, dominant providers, while women are expected to prioritize caregiving and emotional labor. Such rigid norms may restrict the emotional repertoire of men, leading to emotional suppression, difficulty in recognizing emotional needs, and increased risk of emotional disintegration. For women, the pressure to constantly regulate emotions for the benefit of others may foster emotional overregulation or ruminative tendencies, contributing to heightened emotional instability and regression (Thompson & Meyer, 2007).

Individuals with egalitarian views may experience cognitive dissonance or role conflict (Festinger, 1957) when their internal beliefs clash with traditional societal norms or expectations still dominant in their community. For example, a woman who believes in equal professional ambition may still face family pressure to conform to domestic roles.

This unresolved tension can manifest as emotional distress, instability, or regression, particularly when the person feels unsupported or misunderstood.

Empirical research also supports the notion that adherence to traditional gender roles is inversely related to emotional well-being. For instance, Mahalik et al. (2003) found that conformity to masculine norms was associated with greater psychological distress and reduced emotional openness in men. Similarly, Jack and Ali (2010) discussed how the ‘silencing of the self’ in women where women suppress their needs and emotions to maintain relationships can result in poor emotional adjustment and increased vulnerability to psychological distress.

However, on the variables of lack of independence, regression analysis depicted no significant result. While gender roles influence emotional maturity, they often do not significantly predict lack of independence. One possible explanation lies in the unique socio-cultural framework of Mizo society, which has long emphasized shared labor, self-reliance, and functional autonomy as a strong tribal heritage (Lalremruati, 2018). In such a context, independence is not viewed through a gender role lens but as a practical necessity for communal survival and daily life. In collectivist cultures individuals are socialized to be functionally autonomous while remaining emotionally interdependent. This dynamic may be explained by how people can maintain strong social bonds while still developing a high level of behavioral independence. Thus, the absence of significant prediction of lack of independence from gender role attitudes may be less about gender role orientation and more about broader cultural practices that promote shared responsibility and individual competence.

The regression analysis (listed in Table 11) depicted no significant prediction of resilient coping from gender role attitudes. While gender role attitudes may influence certain behavioral tendencies, they may not determine an individual's capacity for resilient coping. Empirical research supports the idea that resilience is a multifaceted trait shaped by personality, environment, and cognitive flexibility rather than gendered expectations. Southwick et al. (2014) noted that resilient coping focus on the adaptive and recovery from stress, adversity, or trauma which is influenced largely by environmental support,

trauma exposure, and socioeconomic status than by gender attitudes. They added that social support and adaptive coping strategies were far more critical to resilience than gender-related beliefs. Ungar (2011) also emphasized that resilience is context-dependent, shaped more by available resources than by internalized gender norms.

The regression analysis (listed in Table 11) depicted no significant prediction of self-esteem from gender role attitudes. Although gender role attitudes influence many aspects of life (e.g., career paths, relationship dynamics), their effect on self-esteem is negligible. Modern societies allow individuals to derive confidence from various sources beyond traditional gender norms. Self-esteem is shaped by personal achievements, social relationships, and individual personality traits rather than solely by adherence to gender norms (Orth & Robins, 2022). Studies indicate that while gender roles may affect other psychological outcomes (career choices or emotional expression), they do not directly determine self-worth (Bleidorn et al., 2016). Research showed that in egalitarian societies, both men and women derive self-esteem from diverse sources beyond traditional gender expectations (Eagly et al., 2020).

Prediction of Gender Role Attitude by demographic factors (gender and locality), Emotional Maturity (Emotional Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Maladjustment, Personality Disintegration, Lack of Independence), Resilient Coping and Self-Esteem

To obtain a more in-depth understanding and thorough analysis of the study, Step-wise Hierarchical Linear Regression (listed in Table 12) was employed to examine the reverse relationship, providing a broader and more comprehensive view of the variables. Table 12 illustrate the prediction of gender role attitudes from demographic variables (gender and locality), sub-scales of emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence), resilient coping and self-esteem.

The analysis indicates that gender, locality, and emotional instability significantly predict gender role attitudes, with varying degrees of influence. Among the variables

examined, gender emerged as the most robust predictor of gender role attitudes, likely reflecting the enduring influence of both socialization processes and biological factors in shaping gender-related beliefs. Locality was also found to be a significant factor, suggesting that urban settings through greater economic opportunities and social exposure play a meaningful role in promoting more egalitarian gender attitudes. Although emotional instability contributed modestly to the prediction of gender role attitudes, its effect was nonetheless statistically significant. In contrast, no significant predictive value was observed for emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence, resilient coping, or self-esteem in relation to gender role attitudes.

The findings highlight the deeply ingrained role of gender-based socialization processes, which begin early in life and continue to shape individual attitudes and beliefs well into adulthood. According to Eagly and Wood's (2012) social role theory, children internalize gender norms through observation and reinforcement from parents, peers, media, and institutional systems. In Mizo society, as in many collectivist cultures, these norms are reinforced through well-defined social roles. Boys are often taught to be assertive, task-oriented, and emotionally reserved, whereas girls are encouraged to be empathetic, relationship-oriented, and expressive. Such socialization contributes to the entrenchment of traditional gender norms, especially among males, who in this study consistently scored lower on egalitarian gender role attitudes. Fulcher and Coyle (2011) supported the current findings and further mentioned how gender interacts with cultural expectations and individual experiences to shape beliefs about gender-appropriate behavior.

The significant effect of locality on gender role attitudes further highlights rural and urban difference in cultural exposure and values. Urban environments, characterized by greater access to education, diverse social networks, digital media, and progressive ideologies, tend to foster more flexible and egalitarian perspectives (Inglehart & Norris, 2003; Ridgeway, 2011). Urban residents, particularly women, are more likely to encounter alternative models of gender roles in academic, occupational, and civic spaces, allowing them to critically assess and often reject rigid gender norms. In contrast, rural areas,

including those in Mizoram, often uphold conservative gender expectations through community traditions, religious beliefs, and generational values, which can limit the extent to which egalitarian views are embraced.

The most compelling finding was the significant role of emotional instability in predicting gender role attitudes. Although its impact was less than gender or locality, this variable added meaningful psychological depth to the model. Notably, a higher score on emotional instability indicates greater difficulty regulating emotions, increased sensitivity to stress, and a heightened tendency toward mood fluctuations. At face value, it may seem inconsistent that emotionally unstable individuals would adopt more egalitarian gender role attitudes, which are often associated with flexibility, progressive values, and personal agency (Twenge, 1997).

However, this relationship becomes clearer when considered through the lens of emotional experience. Individuals with elevated emotional reactivity may feel more acutely the psychological burdens of conforming to restrictive gender roles, roles that often demand emotional suppression, especially among men, or emotional overextension, particularly among women (Brody & Hall, 2008). An emotionally sensitive man may find it psychologically distressing to conform to societal norms that discourage emotional expression. Likewise, an emotionally vulnerable woman may find traditional caregiving roles overwhelming, especially when they come at the expense of her own emotional needs. In these cases, endorsing egalitarian gender role attitudes may function as a coping strategy, a way of reclaiming emotional authenticity and creating space for self-expression within the boundaries of socially prescribed roles.

This interpretation gains special relevance in the Mizo context, where cultural expectations often frame men as stoic providers and women as emotionally strong nurturers. For emotionally unstable individuals in this environment, such rigid role expectations may feel incongruent with their psychological realities, leading them to question and ultimately reject traditional gender frameworks. This is consistent with findings that individuals high in psychological distress or emotional dysregulation are often more receptive to non-traditional norms as a way to reduce internal conflict (Miller

& Hom, 1997). This could explain why emotional instability despite its association with psychological vulnerability emerges as a predictor of egalitarian attitudes. Especially for urban Mizo individuals, who are increasingly exposed to alternate gender ideologies, emotional instability may serve as a psychological catalyst toward attitudes that support emotional freedom and gender equity.

Moreover, social role theory posits that people's beliefs about gender are shaped not only by external social structures but also by their personality traits and emotional needs (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Individuals who find traditional roles emotionally constraining may support egalitarian views not solely out of ideological commitment, but also as a means of reducing psychological tension, enhancing emotional well-being, and seeking environments where their inner experiences are validated. Supporting this, Schmitt et al. (2008) found that personality traits like neuroticism which is closely related to emotional instability were associated with less traditional and more liberal social attitudes, including beliefs about gender equality.

The findings challenge the simplistic assumption that traditional gender attitudes are solely the product of culture, religion, or upbringing. Instead, they suggest that individual psychological dispositions, particularly emotional instability, play a subtle yet meaningful role in shaping gender ideologies. This points to the need for more personalized, psychologically informed approaches to gender equity, which recognize emotional experience as a legitimate factor in shaping beliefs about gender roles.

Finally, the absence of significant predictive relationship from variables like emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence, resilient coping, and self-esteem suggests that gender role attitudes are shaped less by one's overall emotional health or coping ability and more by specific emotional sensitivities and social contexts. These results add an important layer to the understanding of gender ideology by highlighting that it is not necessarily correlated with general psychological well-being but rather with how individuals experience and navigate emotional tension within social structures.

The reverse regression model enriches the overall understanding of gender role attitudes by highlighting the multifaceted interplay between demographic and emotional factors. Gender and locality remain dominant structural influences, while emotional instability appears to function as a psychological lens through which individuals interpret and react to gender role attitudes. These results align with existing research on personality and ideology, suggesting that psychological traits play a key role in shaping social attitudes. Future research may explore causal mechanisms between emotional instability and gender beliefs, potentially incorporating longitudinal designs to track changes over time.

Thus, the fifth hypothesis was accepted as the findings showed significant predictive relationship between the behavioral measures.

CHAPTER – VI
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This research explores the complex relationships between gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem. By examining these psychological constructs, the study aims to provide a deeper understanding of how they interact and influence one another and contributes to a broader understanding of the psychological and social factors that shape individuals' attitudes.

Specific objectives were established to provide a precise direction for this study. The first objective was to determine the pattern of relationship between the psychological variables of gender role attitude, emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence), resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. The second objective was to examine the independent effect of gender (male and female) on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. The third objective was to examine the independent effect of locality (rural and urban) on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. The fourth objective was to examine the interaction effects of 'gender x locality' on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. The fifth objective was to determine the predictive relationship between gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem.

To accomplish the objectives of this study, psychological assessment tools such as Attitudes Towards Women Scale (AWS; Spence, Helmrich and Stapp, 1978), Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS; Singh & Bhargava, 1990), Brief Resilient Coping Scale (BRCS; Sinclair & Wallston, 2004) and Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale (SES; Rosenberg, 1965) were used.

The scales and subscales of the psychological measures were designed to ensure optimal psychometric properties. To enhance participants' comprehension of the statements, standardized psychological measures originally developed in English were translated into the Mizo language. A pilot study was conducted to assess the reliability of the translated scales, and the results confirmed that they were suitable and reliable for the present study.

300 Mizo adults, including 150 males and 150 females, were selected using a multistage random sampling procedure, ensuring equal representation of individuals from both urban and rural areas. Participants age ranges between 18 to 65 years. Informed consent was obtained from each participant, and a comprehensive demographic profile was recorded.

A multistage sampling method was employed to ensure a geographically diverse and representative sample of Mizo adults from both rural and urban areas of Mizoram. In Stage 1, one urban ward and one rural district were randomly selected from each of the four zones: North, South, East, and West. The selected urban wards in Aizawl city were Ward I (North), Ward XV (South), Ward V (East), and Ward XI (West). Corresponding rural districts included Kolasib (North), Lawngtlai (South), Serchhip (East), and Mamit (West). In Stage 2, one locality or village was randomly chosen from each selected area: Durtlang (Ward I), Maubawk (Ward XV), Chanmari (Ward V), and Luangmual (Ward XI) for the urban sample; and Nisapui (Kolasib), Bungtlang South (Lawngtlai), Keitum (Serchhip), and Ropuichhip (Mamit) for the rural sample. In Stage 3, households within these localities and villages were randomly selected, and eligible Mizo adults who gave consent were included in the final sample.

The present study observed significant positive relationship between gender role attitudes and subscales of emotional maturity namely emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment and personality disintegration, contradicting the initial hypothesis. Participants with traditional gender role attitudes displayed greater emotional stability, social adjustment, and personality integration, whereas those with egalitarian gender role attitudes showed lower emotional maturity. Theorists have explored the link between gender roles and emotions. According to social role theory (Eagly, 1987), gender differences in behavior and personality stem from societal role distributions, influencing emotional maturity, women tend to develop greater emotional awareness, while men exhibit emotional restraint. Similarly, Bem's (1981) Gender Schema Theory suggests that individuals internalize cultural definitions of masculinity and femininity, shaping their emotional expression. Despite modern advocacy for gender equality in roles and

responsibilities, the findings suggest that clearly defined roles provide a sense of identity and satisfaction, contributing to greater emotional maturity. The present finding has been supported by a related study which showed that individuals who strongly endorsed traditional gender roles experienced less relational uncertainty, potentially reflecting aspects of emotional maturity (Redlick, 2018).

The study also found a significant positive relationship between resilient coping and self-esteem, suggesting that individuals with strong resilient coping skills tend to have higher self-esteem. This aligns with Seligman's (2019) view that a positive self-perception enhances resilience. Resilient individuals handle challenges effectively, which may lead to boosting their confidence and self-esteem. Marshall et al. (2014) supported this finding by stating that a strong positive correlation exist between self-esteem and resilient coping in young adults.

Additionally, resilient coping showed a negative relationship with emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, and personality disintegration, aligning with the hypothesis. Lazarus and Folkman's Transactional Model of Stress and Coping (1984) highlights cognitive appraisal as crucial for coping, suggesting that emotionally mature individuals assess stressors adaptively, enhancing resilience. Both emotional maturity and resilience involve managing stress, adapting to challenges, and maintaining stability. Smith and Kumar (2022) further support the current findings by stating that individuals with higher emotional maturity exhibit greater resilience in handling stress and adversity.

Similarly, self-esteem also negatively correlated with the sub scales of emotional maturity namely emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment and personality disintegration , indicating that individuals with higher self-esteem tend to be more emotionally stable and socially adjusted. These findings align with prior research (Selvan & Vijayan, 2021) that highlights the link between emotional maturity and self-esteem, emphasizing the role of emotional regulation and adaptive coping skills. Emotionally mature individuals are suggested to better equipped to meet their needs, which in turn boosts self-esteem.

However, no significant relationship was found between gender role attitudes and both resilient coping and self-esteem. Studies suggest that while gender roles influence emotional expression, they do not necessarily determine resilience or self-worth (Block & Kremen, 1996). It is suggested that since resilience and self-esteem develop through personal experiences, rather than being dictated by gender roles, they do not show a strong correlation with these variables.

The study found significant gender differences in gender role attitudes, with females supporting egalitarian views and males favoring traditional roles, and this finding is consistent with prior research (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Davis & Greenstein, 2009). Socialization processes may contribute to these differences, as individuals are exposed to distinct expectations and experiences based on their gender, potentially influencing how they perceive and respond to gender-based roles. Regarding emotional maturity, the study found that males exhibited higher emotional stability, emotional progression, and social adjustment than females. This contrasts with previous research suggesting female superiority in emotional maturity (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983; Nolen-Hoeksema, 2012). However, researchers like Levant and Pollack (1995) suggests that societal expectations encourage men to suppress emotions, which can be perceived as emotional stability. Furthermore, Roberts et al. (2006) added that males may develop emotional maturity later in life. No significant gender differences were found in personality disintegration, lack of independence, resilient coping, or self-esteem. These findings align with study suggesting that resilience is a personality trait rather than a gendered characteristic (Masten, 2018; Tamres et al., 2002). Similarly, study contribute that self-esteem differences between genders diminish in adulthood (Robins et al., 2002), explaining the lack of difference observed in this study.

The study found significant differences in gender role attitudes between rural and urban participants. Urban residents scored higher on egalitarian attitudes, while rural residents upheld more traditional gender roles. The present study's findings align with previous research on gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilience, and self-esteem.

Women were found to support egalitarian gender roles, while men upheld traditional roles, consistent with studies by Bolzendahl and Myers (2004) and Davis and Greenstein (2009).

No significant differences in sub-scales of emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem were observed between rural and urban participants. Cole (1954) and Baumrind (1991) emphasized that emotional maturity is shaped by personal and familial factors rather than geography. Similarly, Bonanno (2004) and Fitchen (1991) noted that individuals develop adaptive coping strategies regardless of rural or urban environments. Van den Berg et al. (2017) and Schmitt et al. (2008) also found self-esteem to be consistent across different locations. Overall, the study reinforces that while gender influences emotional development and social attitudes, factors like resilience and self-esteem are shaped more by individual experiences and psychological processes rather than environmental factors.

The study found no significant interaction effects between ‘gender x locality’ on gender role attitudes, resilient coping, or self-esteem. While gender and locality independently influenced gender role attitudes, their combined effect was not significant. Urban participants, particularly women, held more egalitarian attitudes due to education and globalization, aligning with Inglehart and Norris (2003) and Huerta et al. (2014).

The study found a significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on emotional instability. It further revealed that rural males had the highest emotional stability and urban females had the lowest emotional stability. This may stem from the conflict between their egalitarian gender role attitudes and traditional societal expectations. They face pressure to fulfill caregiving roles while striving for career advancement, leading to stress and internal struggle. The transition into adulthood, including marriage and motherhood, further amplifies these challenges, making it difficult to maintain emotional stability. In the meantime, Levant and Richmond (2007) suggested that strong social networks and traditional gender roles in rural areas contribute to greater emotional stability in males. However, no significant interaction effects were found for emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, and lack of independence.

Resilient coping remained unaffected by the interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’, consistent with Fletcher and Sarkar (2013), Polk (1997), and Bonanno et al. (2011), who highlighted resilience as an adaptive psychological trait rather than a product of demographic factors. Similarly, no significant interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ were found for self-esteem, supporting Brown (1998) and Bleidorn et al. (2016), who suggested self-esteem is a stable personality trait rather than influenced by environment. The findings suggest that while gender and locality shape attitudes and emotional development independently, their interaction does not significantly alter the behavioral measure except for emotional stability.

The present study revealed that gender role attitudes significantly predicted emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, and personality disintegration, highlighting the influence of gender role attitude on emotional maturity. Gender roles shape self-awareness, emotional regulation, empathy, and relationships, but also often reinforcing stereotypes. Brody (1999) noted that gender role socialization impacts emotional expression leading to unique strengths and vulnerabilities.

However, gender role attitudes did not significantly predict lack of independence, resilient coping, or self-esteem. In Mizo society, a strong tribal heritage promotes self-reliance, which may explain why gender roles do not influence independence (Lalremruati, 2018). Resilient coping is said to be shaped more by environmental support and socioeconomic factors than by gender norms (Southwick et al., 2014; Ungar, 2011). Similarly, self-esteem is influenced by personal achievements and relationships rather than adherence to gender roles (Orth & Robins, 2022; Bleidorn et al., 2016; Eagly et al., 2020).

To explore alternative perspectives and gain deeper insights in gender role attitudes, the prediction of gender role attitudes from demographic variables, sub-scales of emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence), resilient coping and self-esteem was done. The study found that gender, locality, and emotional instability significantly influence gender role attitudes. Gender emerged as the strongest predictor. Locality also

played a role, with urban participants fostering more egalitarian gender role attitudes which may be due to increased exposure to education, diverse social networks, and progressive ideologies. Conversely, rural areas, grounded in traditional gender role attitudes which may be due to the maintenance of the longstanding traditions, social learning, and community practices. Emotional instability contributed as well, here, emotional instability involves heightened sensitivity to stress, mood variability, and difficulties in emotion regulation. These traits are suggested to influence how individuals perceive, evaluate, and internalize social norms, including those related to gender roles.

Other psychological factors, including emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence, resilient coping, and self-esteem, did not significantly predict gender role attitudes. While social maladjustment had a slight effect, the overall impact of these variables was minimal. Other research have also suggested that self-esteem and resilience are shaped more by personal achievements and environmental support than by gender role attitudes (Southwick et al., 2014; Orth & Robins, 2022).

The findings align with social role theory, which posits that personality traits shape gender role attitudes based on personal emotional experiences (Eagly & Wood, 2012). Prior research indicates that emotionally unstable individuals are more sensitive to social pressures and may question rigid norms (Schmitt et al., 2008). Studies also show that women generally endorse more egalitarian views, while men tend to uphold traditional roles (Knight & Brinton, 2017). Overall, gender, locality, and emotional instability play key roles in shaping gender role attitudes, while other psychological factors have little influence. Future research could explore how emotional instability interacts with gender role attitudes over time using longitudinal studies.

In sum, the study highlights that gender and locality significantly influence gender role attitudes, with urban females holding the most egalitarian views and rural males the most traditional. Education, social exposure, and workforce participation are suggested in contribution of progressive attitudes in urban areas, while traditional roles persist in rural settings. Emotional instability also played a role, with emotionally sensitive individuals

more likely to challenge societal norms. However, resilience and self-esteem were found to be shaped more by personal experiences than gender role attitudes.

In Mizoram, gender roles have historically been shaped by patriarchal traditions, where men held authority in governance and property rights, while women were responsible for domestic and agricultural labor. Traditional sayings reinforced gender-based expectations, limiting women's roles. However, modernization, Christian influence, globalization, and legal reforms such as the Mizo Marriage, Divorce, and Inheritance Act (2014) have gradually empowered women. High female literacy rates, career advancements, and increased social activism challenge traditional norms, though political representation remains limited.

Despite these shifts, societal expectations still impact emotional development, with urban females having the highest emotional instability which may be due to the pressure from balancing career and family roles. Meanwhile, rural males, benefiting from traditional stability, exhibited the highest emotional stability and self-esteem. The study highlights the evolving gender dynamics in Mizoram, emphasizing the importance of education, policy changes, and social discourse in fostering gender equality.

Implications of the study

The findings of this study have significant implications for understanding the psychological and societal impact of gender role attitudes. As gender roles continue to evolve in response to modernization, globalization, and policy changes, it becomes imperative to assess how these shifts affect core psychological factors like emotional maturity, self-esteem and resilience.

One of the most notable implications of the study is the recognition that gender role attitudes significantly impact emotional aspects. Regression analyses reveal that gender role attitudes are strong predictors of emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, and personality disintegration. This highlights the role of gender role socialization in shaping emotional health, demonstrating that the way individuals perceive and internalize gender norms can contribute to their overall psychological

adjustment. As such, policies aimed at promoting gender equality should also consider the psychological effects of shifting gender norms, ensuring that individuals can adapt to these changes without experiencing emotional distress.

The study also emphasizes the influence of sociocultural factors on gender perceptions and emotional development. It identifies significant differences in gender role attitudes between urban and rural participants, with urban females exhibiting the most egalitarian attitudes, while rural males hold the most traditional views. This finding aligns with previous research indicating that urban exposure fosters progressive gender role perceptions. However, these differences also suggest that societal structures play a crucial role in shaping gender attitudes, necessitating educational and policy interventions tailored to different cultural contexts. In rural areas, where traditional gender roles remain dominant, programs promoting gender equality should be implemented in ways that align with existing community values to ensure acceptance and effective integration.

Another key implication of this study is the observed gender differences in emotional instability, emotional regression, and social maladjustment. The findings suggest that females exhibit higher levels of emotional regression and social maladjustment compared to their male counterparts. This highlights the need for psychological support systems specifically designed for women, particularly those who experience heightened stress due to societal expectations and gender role conflicts. Urban females, in particular, were found to have the lowest emotional stability, potentially due to the pressure of balancing career aspirations with traditional caregiving roles. These findings underscore the importance of providing mental health resources and support networks that cater to the unique psychological challenges faced by women in modern society.

A particularly intriguing finding of this study is the positive relationship between traditional gender role attitudes and emotional maturity. Individuals who adhere to traditional gender norms exhibited greater emotional stability, social adjustment, and personality integration. This challenges contemporary assumptions that egalitarian attitudes inherently promote emotional maturity. While gender equality remains a crucial

societal goal, the findings suggest that clearly defined gender roles may provide a sense of identity and satisfaction, contributing to psychological stability. Policymakers and social advocates should therefore consider the psychological implications of changing gender norms and ensure that individuals are provided with support systems to navigate these transitions effectively.

Furthermore, the study identifies a significant positive association between resilient coping and self-esteem, emphasizing the importance of adaptive coping strategies in fostering self-worth and emotional resilience. Resilient individuals demonstrated greater emotional stability and were better equipped to handle stress and adversity. These findings highlight the need for educational programs and workplace policies that promote resilience-building strategies, particularly among individuals facing psychological distress due to shifting gender expectations. Schools, universities, and professional organizations should incorporate resilience training and mental health awareness programs to help individuals develop adaptive coping mechanisms that enhance self-esteem and overall well-being.

The study also has broader implications for gender equality initiatives and policy-making. While efforts to promote gender equality are essential, the psychological dimensions of these changes should not be overlooked. The study suggests that while gender role attitudes shape emotional development, resilience and self-esteem are influenced more by individual experiences than by gender norms alone. This finding reinforces the idea that psychological well-being is a multifaceted construct that extends beyond gender roles. Therefore, interventions aimed at promoting gender equality should be complemented by mental health initiatives that support individuals in adapting to evolving societal expectations.

In the specific context of Mizoram, the study sheds light on the shifting gender dynamics influenced by historical, cultural, and policy-driven changes. Mizoram has seen significant progress in women's empowerment through legal reforms, increased female literacy rates, and greater participation in the workforce and in political sphere. However, despite these advancements, societal expectations continue to impact emotional

development, particularly among urban females who struggle to balance career and family roles. The findings of this study highlight the need for continued efforts to promote gender equality while ensuring that individuals receive the necessary psychological support to navigate these transitions effectively.

Overall, the study underscores the complex interplay between gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilience, and self-esteem. It provides valuable insights into the psychological consequences of gender socialization, highlighting the importance of balanced policies that promote gender equality while also addressing emotional and mental health needs. Future research should explore additional factors influencing these relationships and develop targeted interventions to support individuals in adapting to evolving gender norms in a way that fosters both equality and psychological well-being.

Limitations and Suggestions

Since data were collected using self-reported psychological measures, participants' responses may have been influenced by social desirability bias or inaccurate self-perception, potentially affecting the reliability of the findings. Additionally, the limited existing literature on comparisons of the chosen psychological variables presents a challenge, making it difficult to build upon established theoretical frameworks and draw well-supported conclusions. Future research should aim to bridge this gap by expanding the empirical foundation in this area.

While this study broadly examined gender role attitudes, different dimensions of gender roles such as masculinity and femininity etc. may have distinct psychological impacts. Future studies should explore these nuances in greater depth to provide a more comprehensive understanding of how specific gender role characteristics influence emotional and psychological outcomes. Moreover, factors such as socioeconomic status, education level, and family dynamics may also play a significant role in shaping emotional resilience and gender role attitudes. Psychological variables, including personality traits and cognitive styles, may further contribute to these dynamics. Integrating such variables in future research would enhance the scope and applicability of the findings.

The reliability coefficient (Cronbach's alpha) for some of the scales was slightly below the generally accepted threshold. Although the value indicates moderate internal consistency, it does not fully meet the ideal standard. The scale was retained because it is widely used in previous research and still demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties.

Cultural norms and societal expectations may have also influenced participants' responses, highlighting the need to consider the broader social context when interpreting gender role attitudes. Additionally, this study does not account for the ways in which personal life experiences such as education, relationships, and career choices which may shape gender perceptions over time. Conducting longitudinal research would offer valuable insights into how gender role attitudes evolve with age and lived experiences.

Finally, as this study focuses on Mizo adults, its findings may not fully represent broader populations. Future research should incorporate more diverse demographic groups to improve generalizability and ensure a more inclusive understanding of gender role attitudes and their psychological implications.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX – I

CONSENT FORM (English)

I voluntarily agree to participate in this research and I am aware that I have the freedom to ask any questions or withdraw from this research when I want to. I know that my responses are confidential and will be used for research purposes only. I volunteered to participate for the succession of this research.

Signature of Participant.

APPENDIX – II

CONSENT FORM (Mizo)

He research-ah hian ka duh thu ngeia tel ka ni a, zawhna ka neihte pawh zalen taka zawt thei ka ni a, ka duh huna in hnukdawk turin zalenna ka nei a ni. Ka chhanna te hi thupsak (confidential) niin research atan chauh a hman a ni dawn tih ka hria a. Ka duhthlanna in he research puitlin theih nan hian ka tel a ni.

Signature of Participant.

Demographic Information Sheet (English)

INSTRUCTIONS

- Please read the following questions carefully and put a tick mark in any one of the alternate response to indicate your level of agreement with the particular content of the statements.
 - There are no 'Right' or 'Wrong' answer, so do not think for too long while answering.
 - Your responses will be kept confidential. Answer it honestly without considering what others may find it acceptable.
 - To make sure that you have a strong opinion towards the statement, kindly avoid to select the middle responses (example: neutral/ undecided) as far as possible.
 - In order to avoid missing any questions, kindly attempt each questions in accordance with the number.
- ☐ Kindly put a **tick** mark in the box to denote that you participate in this research with your own willingness.

S.I. No.: _____

1. Age: _____

2. Sex: _____

☐ 1. Male☐ 2. Female

3. Locality : _____

☐ 1. Rural☐ 2. Urban

4. Educational Qualification:

☐ a) M.Phil/Ph.D etc.☐ e) Middle School☐ b) M.A./M.Sc./M.Com etc☐ f) Primary School☐ c) B.A./B.Sc./B.Com etc.☐ g) Illiterate☐ d) HSSLC/HSLC☐ h) Others

5. Mother's educational qualification:

☐ a) M.Phil/Ph.D etc.☐ e) Middle School☐ b) M.A./M.Sc./M.Com etc☐ f) Primary School☐ c) B.A./B.Sc./B.Com etc.☐ g) Illiterate☐ d) HSSLC/HSLC☐ h) Others

6. Father's educational qualification:

☐ a) M.Phil/Ph.D etc.☐ e) Middle School☐ b) M.A./M.Sc./M.Com etc☐ f) Primary School☐ c) B.A./B.Sc./B.Com etc.☐ g) Illiterate☐ d) HSSLC/HSLC☐ h) Others

7. Marital Status:

☐ 1. Single☐ 2. Married☐ 3. Widowed☐ 4. Divorced

8. Economic status:

☐ a) Above Poverty Line (AAY)☐ b) Below Poverty Line (BPL)

☐ c) Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY)

9. Employment status ☐ 1. Yes, Name of the job _____ ☐
2. No
10. Mother's employment status ☐ 1. Yes, Name of the job _____ ☐
2. No
11. Father's employment status ☐ 1. Yes, Name of the _____ ☐
job _____ 2. No
12. Type of family: ☐ 1. Nuclear family
☐ 2. Joint family
13. Main bread winner of the family:
☐ 1. Your father ☐ 2. Your mother ☐ 3. You
☐ 4. Your wife/husband ☐ 5. Others
14. Employed members of the family:
☐ 1. Your father ☐ 2. Your mother ☐ 3. You
☐ 4. Your wife/husband ☐ 5. Others

Demographic Information Sheet (Mizo)

KAIHHRUAINA

- A hnuaia zawhna te hi uluk takin chhiar la, zawhna tina chhanna awmthei tarlan atang hian i ngaihndan dik tak pakhat zawnah i tick zel dawn nia.
- Chhanna ‘Dik’ leh ‘Dik lo’ a awm lova, i rilrua chhanna lo lang hmasa ber angin i chhang dawn nia.
- I chhanna te hi thupsak vek i ni anga. Mi tam zawk ngaihndan tur ni a i hriat ang nilovin i pawmdan/ngaihndan ber in i chhang dawn nia.
- Ngaihndan chiang tak leh nghet tak i nei tih lantir turin, loh theihloh a nih loh chuan, zawhna tinah “*chhanna laihawl*” (entirnan: ngaihndan nei lo/ hre lo) thlan loh hram i tum dawn nia.
- I chhan kim vek theih nan, i chhan tawh leh i chhan leh turte ngaihtuah buai lovin, a indawt in i chhang dawn nia.

S.I. No.: _____

1. Kum: _____

2. Sex: _____

3. Chenna: _____

4. Lehkha zirthlen: _____

☐ 1. Mipa

☐ 2. Hmeichhia

☐ 1. Zokhua

☐ 2. Khawpui

☐ a) M.Phil/Ph.D etc.

☐ e) Middle School

☐ b) M.A./M.Sc./M.Com etc

☐ f) Primary School

☐ c) B.A./B.Sc./B.Com etc.

☐ g) Ziak leh chhiar thiam lo

☐ d) HSSLC/HSLC

☐ h) Adang

5. Nu lehkha zirthlen: _____

☐ a) M.Phil/Ph.D etc.

☐ e) Middle School

☐ b) M.A./M.Sc./M.Com etc

☐ f) Primary School

☐ c) B.A./B.Sc./B.Com etc.

☐ g) Ziak leh chhiar thiam lo

☐ d) HSSLC/HSLC

☐ h) Adang

6. Pa lehkha zirthlen: _____

☐ a) M.Phil/Ph.D etc.

☐ e) Middle School

☐ b) M.A./M.Sc./M.Com etc

☐ f) Primary School

☐ c) B.A./B.Sc./B.Com etc.

☐ g) Ziak leh chhiar thiam lo

☐ d) HSSLC/HSLC

☐ h) Adang

7. Kawppui neih leh neihlo: _____

☐ 1. Neilo

☐ 2. Innei

☐ 3. Nupui/ pasal sun

☐ 4. Inthen

8. Khawsak dinhmun: _____

☐ a) Above Poverty Line (AAY) Ration Card Var

☐ b) Below Poverty Line (BPL) Ration Card Hring

☐ c) Antyodaya Anna Yojana (AAY) Ration Card Eng

9. Hnathawh ☐ 1.Nei ☐ 2. Neilo
10. Nu hnathawh ☐ 1. Nei ☐ 2.Neilo
11. Pa hnathawh ☐ 1.Nei ☐ 2. Neilo
12. Chhungkaw nih phung: ☐ 1. Chhungkaw bila cheng
☐ 2. In pui/ chhungte nena cheng
13. Chhungkuaa eizawngtu ber:
☐ I pa ☐ I nu ☐ Nangmah
☐ I nupui/pasal ☐ Midang
14. Chhungkua a hlawhneite: (*Hlawhnei zawng zawng thai vek rawh*)
☐ I pa ☐ I nu ☐ Nangmah
☐ I nupui/pasal ☐ Midang

APPENDIX – V

ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN SCALE (English)

Sl.no.	Instructions: The statements listed below describe attitudes toward the roles of women in society which different people have. There are no right or wrong answers, only opinions.	Agree strongly	Agree mildly	Dis-agree mildly	Disagree strongly
1.	Swearing and obscenity are more repulsive in the speech of a woman than of a man.				
2	Women should take increasing responsibility for leadership in solving the intellectual and social problems of the day.				
3	Both husband and wife should be allowed the same grounds for divorce.				
4	Telling dirty jokes should be mostly a masculine prerogative.				
5	Intoxication among women is worse than intoxication among men.				
6	Under modern economic conditions with women being active outside the home, men should share in household tasks such as washing dishes and doing the laundry.				
7	It is insulting to women to have the "obey" clause remain in the marriage service.				
8	There should be a strict merit system in job appointment and promotion without regard to sex.				
9	A woman should be free as a man to propose marriage.				
10	Women should worry less about their rights and more about becoming good wives and mothers.				
11	Women earning as much as their husbands should bear equally the expense when they go out together.				
12	Women should assume their rightful place in business and all the professions along with men.				

13	A woman should not expect to go to exactly the same places or to have quite the same freedom of action as a man.				
14	Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.				
15	It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.				
16	In general, the father should have greater authority than the mother in the bringing up of children.				
17	Women should be encouraged not to become sexually intimate with anyone before marriage, even their fiancés.				
18	The husband should not be favored by law over the wife in the disposal of family property or income.				
19	Women should be concerned with their duties of child bearing and house tending rather than with desires for professional or business careers.				
20	The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.				
21	Economic and social freedom is worth far more to women than acceptance of the ideal of femininity which has been set up by men.				
22	On the average, women should be regarded as less capable of contributing to economic production than are men.				
23	There are many jobs in which men should be given preference over women in being hired or promoted.				
24	Women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in the various trades.				
25	The modern girl is entitled to the same freedom from regulation and control that is given to the modern boy.				

APPENDIX – VI

ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN SCALE (Mizo)

Sl. no.	A hnuaia thu te hi i ngaihdan dik takin i chhang dawn nia.	Pawm lutuk	Pawm	Pawm lo	Pawm lo lutuk
1	Tawngkam chaltlai leh zahmawh lam rawng kai sawi hi mipa tan aiin hmeichhe tan a mawi lo zawk.				
2	Hmeichhiate'n khawtlang harsatna chinfelna kawnga hruaitu mawhphurhna la turin nasa zawkin hma an la tur a ni.				
3	Nupa inthenna chungchangah mipa leh hmeichhe dinhmun a inang tur a ni.				
4	Zahmawh rawngkai fiamthu sawi hi mipate tih tura ngaih tur a ni.				
5	Mipate ruih aiin hmeichhiate an ruih hian a mawi lo fe zawk.				
6	Tunlai mihring khawsak changkang chho zelah hmeichhiate'n pawn lamah hna an thawh nasat tawh avangin mipate pawhin in chhung sekrek khawih, thleng sil leh insuk te hi an ti ve tur a ni.				
7	Nupa karah nupuite'n an pasalte thu a kip a kawia zawm vek tura beisei hi hmeichhiate zah lohna a ni.				
8	Hna lakna leh kai sannaah hmeichhia leh mipa thliar hrang lovin fir takin an thiamna chauh en tur a ni.				
9	Hmeichhia hi mipa ang thoin inneih rawt tu a ni ve thei tur a ni.				
10	Hmeichhiate hian an dikna chanvo ngaihtuah buai aiin nupui tha leh nu tha tak nih dan tur kawng an ngaihtuah nasa zawk tur a ni.				
11	Thawh chhuah zat thuhmun reng inngaizawng te hi chhuah dun nikhuaah an senso te a inzatin an intum sem tur a ni.				
12	Sumdawnna leh eizawnna kawng hrang hrangah hian mipate ang thoin hmeichhiate hian dinhmun tha an chang tur a ni.				
13	Hmeichhiate hian mipate kalna zawng zawnga kal ve tur leh an tih ang ti ve vek turah in beisei suh se.				

14	Fapate hi zirna sang zawk zir turin fanute aiin fuih/nawr nasat zawk tur a ni.				
15	Lirthei khalh tura hmeichhe beisei leh mawza pawp thui tura mipa beisei hi thil awm ang lo tak a ni.				
16	Dan naranin Pa-te hian nu-te aiin fate enkawl seilenna kawngah thu neihna an nei sang zawk tur a ni.				
17	Hmeichhiate hi inneih hmaa mipat hmeichhiatna hmang lo tura nasa taka fuih tur an ni; an pasal hual te pawh ni se.				
18	Dan hian chhungkaw ro leh hlawh insemna kawngah nupui te aiin pasal te a duhsak zawk tur a ni lo.				
19	Hmeichhiate'n eizawna kawng hrang hrang buaipui aiin fate enkawl leh inchung khawsak rel fel a ngaihsak zawk tur a ni.				
20	Khawtlang kaihhruaina hi mipate kutah a awm tam zawk tur a ni.				
21	Hmeichhe tan chuan mipate'n hmeichhe awm dan tura an beisei/duhthusam anga awm theih aiin ei leh bar zawna leh khawtlanga zalenna neih hi a hlu zawk.				
22	A tlangpui thuin, hmeichhiate hian mipate aiin ei leh bar thawh chhuah theihna an nei tlem zawka ngaih tur a ni.				
23	Hna thawktu lak leh kai sanna chungchangah hmeichhiate aia mipate duhsak zawkna tur chi hna tam tak a awm.				
24	Hmeichhiate hi ei zawna kawng hrang hrang zirna kawngah mipate nen remchanna inang chiah pek tur an ni.				
25	Inthununna leh inkaihhruaina kawngah tunlai hmeichhe naupangte hi mipa naupangte ang thoin zalenna pek ve tur an ni.				

APPENDIX – VII

EMOTIONAL MATURITY SCALE (English)

	<i>Please read each question carefully and put a tick mark in any one of the five alternate response modes to indicate your level of agreement with the particular content of the statements. Do not think for too long while answering. Your responses will be kept confidential.</i>	Very Much	Much	Un-decided	Probably	Never
Emotional Instability						
1	Are you involved in any sort of mental tension?					
2	Do you get frightened about the future?					
3	Do you stop in the middle of any work before reaching the goal?					
4	Do you take the help of others to complete your personal work?					
5	Is there any difference between your desires and your objectives?					
6	Do you feel that you are short-tempered?					
7	Do you feel that you are very stubborn?					
8	Do you feel jealous of other people?					
9	Do you get wild due to anger?					
10	Do you get lost in imagination and daydreaming?					
Emotional Regression						
1	If you fail to achieve your goal, do you feel inferior?					
2	Do you experience a sense of discomfort and lack of peace of mind?					
3	Do you indulge in teasing others?					
4	Do you try to put the blame on others for your mistakes?					
5	When your views differ from others, do you quarrel with them?					
6	Do you feel that you are exhausted?					
7	Is your behavior more aggressive than your friends' and others' behavior?					
8	Do you get lost in the world of imaginations?					
9	Do you feel that you are self-centered?					

10	Do you feel that you are dissatisfied with yourself?					
Social Maladjustment						
1	Do you have a strained relationship with your classmates and peers?					
2	Do you hate others?					
4	3.Do you praise yourself?					
5	Do you avoid joining in social gatherings?					
6	Do you spend a lot of your time for yourself?					
7	Do you lie?					
8	Do you bluff?					
9	Do you like to be alone a lot?					
10	Are you proud by nature?					
Personality Disintegration						
1	Though you know some work, do you pretend as if you do not know it?					
2	Even if you do not know some work, do you pose as if you know it?					
3	Knowing you are at fault, instead of accepting it, do you try to establish that you are right?					
4	Do you suffer from any kind of fear?					
5	Do you lose your mental balance (poise)?					
6	Are you in the habit of stealing anything?					
7	Do you indulge freely without bothering about moral codes of conduct?					
8	Are you pessimistic about life?					
9	Do you have a weak will (self-will / determination)?					
10	Are you tolerant about the views of others?					
Lack of Independence						
1	Do people consider you as independent?					
2	Do people disagree with your views?					
3	Would you like to be a follower?					
4	Do you disagree with the opinions of your group?					
5	Do people think of you as an irresponsible person?					
6	Do you show interest in others' work?					
7	Do people hesitate to take your help in any work?					
8	Do you give more importance to your work than others' work?					

APPENDIX – VIII

EMOTIONAL MATURITY SCALE (Mizo)

A hnuaia thu te hi rei tak ngaituah lovin i rilru a lo lang hmasa ber angin i chhang dawn nia.		Ngun lutuk	Ve thin	Hre lo	Ve tho mai	Ngai lo
Emotional Instability						
1	Rilru nawm lohna/hahdam lohna eng emaw i nei em?					
2	Hun lo thleng tur hlauhna i nei thin em?					
3	Thil i tih in, i zawh fel hma in i bansan thin em?					
4	I mimal hna puitlin turin midang puihna i dil thin em?					
5	I chak zawng leh i thil tum ten danglamna an nei em?					
6	Mi thinrim hma tak mi niin i inhria em?					
7	Mi luhlul tak niin i inhria em?					
8	Midangte i thik thin em?					
9	Thinrim vangin i kawlh thin em?					
10	I suangtuahna leh ngaihruatna ah ilo cheng leh veng veng thin em?					
Emotional Regression						
1	I thiltuma i hlawhchhamin, mahni insitna i nei thin em?					
2	Rilru nawmlohna emaw thlamuan loh riau na i nei thin em?					
3	Mi chhaih/fiam i ching em?					
4	I thiltih diklohah midang puh i tum thin em?					
5	I thil thlir dan leh midang thlir dan a inan lohin, inhnial pui mai i ching thin em?					
6	Chau riau inhnialna i nei em?					
7	I thiante leh midangte aia i mizia a kawlh zawk em?					
8	Suangtuahna ramah i cheng thin em?					
9	Mahni indah pawimawh ve tak mi i ni em?					
10	I nihna ah i lungawi lo thin em?					
Social Maladjustment						
1	I rualpuite leh pawlpuite nen in inmil zan lo thin em?					
2	Midangte huatna i nei em?					
3	Mahni i infak thin em?					

4	Puipunna hmun pumpelth I tum thin em?					
5	Nangma tan i hun tamtak i hmang thin em?					
6	Dawt i sawi thin em?					
7	Mi tihder i ching em?					
8	Mahni chauha awm nuam i ti em?					
9	Mize inchhuang mi i ni em?					
10	I hna i awl ru thin em?					
Personality Disintegration						
1	Hna kalhmang hre reng siin hrelo angin i awm thin em?					
2	Hna kalhmang hre si lovin hria angin i awm thin em?					
3	I thiamloh anih hre reng chungin, mahni inpawm mai aiin, thiam inchantir phet i tum thin em?					
4	Eng emaw hlauhna in a tibuai thin che em?					
5	Fim/felfai taka thil ngaituah i harsat thin em?					
6	Thil ruk i ching em?					
7	Chhia leh tha hriatna hmang miah loin nuam i chen thin em?					
8	Nun hi a thim zawngin i thlir thin em?					
9	Tumruhna i tlachham em?					
10	Midangte ngaihdaan i ngaithei/dawhthei em?					
Lack of Independence						
1	Miin mahnna ding thei mi ah an ngai che em?					
2	Miin i ngaihdaan an tawmpui lo thin em?					
3	Midangte hnung zuitu nih i duh em?					
4	I thiante ngaihdaan i pawm lo thin em?					
5	Midang ten innghahna tlak lohah an ngai che em?					
6	Mite hnaah tuipuina i tilang thin em?					
7	Miten i puihna an dawng hreh thin em?					
8	Midang hna aiin i hna i dah pawimawh em?					

APPENDIX – IX

BRIEF RESILIENCE COPING SCALES (English)

	<i>Consider how well the following statements describe your behavior and actions.</i>	Does not describe me at all	Does not describe me	Neutral	Describe me	Describes me very well
1.	I look for creative ways to alter difficult situations.					
2.	Regardless of what happens to me, I believe I can control my reaction to it.					
3.	I believe I can grow in positive ways by dealing with difficult situations.					
4.	I actively look for ways to replace the losses I encounter in life.					

APPENDIX – X

BRIEF RESILIENCE COPING SCALE (Mizo)

	<i>A hnuaia thu te hian i nihdan a sawifiah dan a zirin a sirah hian i tick dawn nia.</i>	Ka nihdan a nilo lutuk	Ka nihdan a nilo	Ngaihnan nei lem lo	Ka nihdan ani	Ka nihdan diktak ani
1	Hun harsa tidanglam turin ruahmanna/kawng tha zawk ka zawng thin.					
2	Eng thil pawh ka chungah thleng se, ka dawnawn dan hi ka thunun theiin ka hria.					
3	Hun harsa ka hmachhawn hian thil tha tamtak ka zir thei zawkin ka hria.					
4	Ka nuna ka thil chan tawhte thlakleh/ nei leh turin kawng ka zawng fo thin.					

APPENDIX – XI

ROSENBERG SELF ESTEEM INVENTORY (English)

	Instructions Below is a list of statements dealing with your general feelings about yourself. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.				
2.	At times I think I am no good at all.				
3.	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.				
4.	I am able to do things as well as most other people.				
5.	I feel I do not have much to be proud of.				
6.	I certainly feel useless at times.				
7.	I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.				
8.	I wish I could have more respect for myself.				
9.	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.				
10.	I take a positive attitude toward myself.				

APPENDIX – XII

ROSENBERG SELF ESTEEM INVENTORY (Mizo)

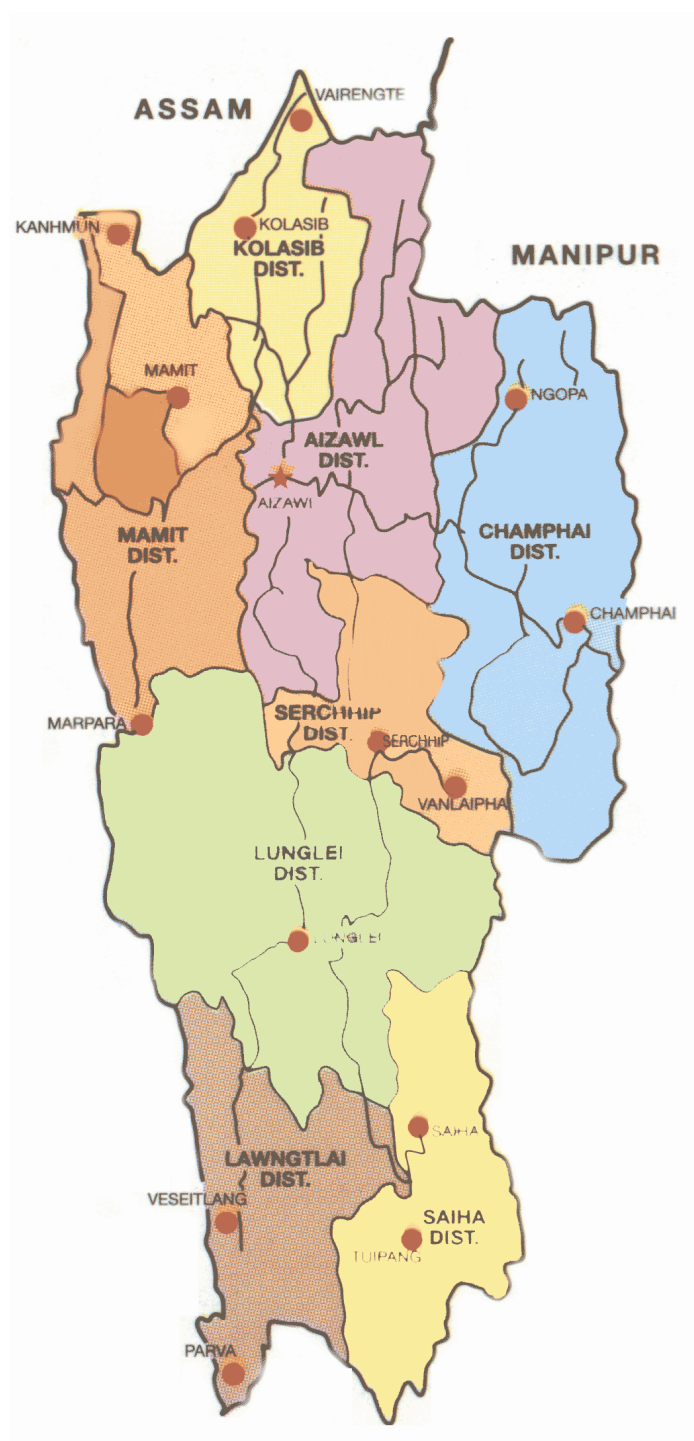
	<i>A hnuaia thute hian mahni inhriat dan chungchang a tarlang a. Khawngaihin i pawm dan diktak in min chhansak ang che.</i>	Pawm lutuk	Pawm	Pawm lo	Pawm lo lutuk
1.	Keimahah hian ka lungawi tawk viau e.				
2.	A chang chuan thatna reng neiloin ka inhre thin.				
3.	Thatna lai tam tak ka neiin ka inhria.				
4.	Mite tih anga tha in thil ka ti ve thei zel.				
5.	Chapo pui tur teh chiam neiin ka inhre lo.				
6.	Tangkaina nei miah lova inhriat chang ka nei thin.				
7.	Mi hlu tak niin ka inhria, anih loh vek pawhin midangte ai chuan ka hniam bik lo ang.				
8.	Tun ai hian mahni in ngaihlu zawk thei ila ka ti.				
9.	A tlangpuia lakin, hlawhchham nia inhriatna lian tak ka nei thin.				
10.	A eng zawngin ka dinhmun thlir ka tum hram thin.				

MAP OF INDIA

(Showing the location of Mizoram State)



MAP OF MIZORAM STATE



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Attitude towards Gender Roles and its Relation to Emotional Maturity and Self-esteem

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The present study aimed to explore gender role attitudes, emotional maturity and self-esteem. It examined the relationship between the psychological variables and explore the group differences on these variables. The sample of the study comprised of 300 (150 male and 150 female) participants in Mizoram which are selected using multi-stage random sampling procedure with age ranging between 18 to 50 years. Demographic profiles and data were collected using Attitudes Towards Women Scale by Spence, Helmrich & Stapp, Emotional Maturity Scale by Singh & Mahesh Bhargava and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale by Rosenberg. Psychometric adequacy and parametric statistic assumptions were checked. Pearson correlation and One-Way ANOVA were applied. The result showed significant group 'gender X locality' difference on gender role attitudes and self-esteem. Significant relationship was also found between emotional maturity and self-esteem.

Keywords: Gender, locality, gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, self-esteem

Historically, both men and women played significant roles in the structure of economy in majority of societies. Nonetheless, women were ostracized from the male world and given a lesser status in society as a result of the industrial revolution (Haaviolo-Mannilo, 1972). Women were stereotyped as housewives and mothers, and those who did not fit into this position were frequently viewed as abnormal. According to WHO (2015), gender role may be defined as socially created roles, behaviors, attributes and activities that a specified society reflects suitable for women and men. Gender roles for women and men are divided into traditional and egalitarian categories. Perceptions of different roles for men and women are reflected in traditional gender-role views (Krais, 2006). Traditional gender-role attitudes hold that women accomplish their roles through caring, housekeeping, and parenting responsibilities, while males fulfil their roles through instrumental,

breadwinning activities. On the other hand, men and women can successfully attain the equal social roles, according to liberal gender-role attitudes (Lindsey, 2015). Since they support and appreciate equal sharing of caring for the family and earning a living, egalitarian gender-role attitudes might be considered as a step up from liberal gender attitudes (Lorber, 1994). Moreover, egalitarian gender roles emphasize that individuals of all sexes should be treated in an equal manner and have access to similar rights and opportunities, as well as the same norms, standards and guidelines (Walby, 2005).

Traditional and egalitarian gender role attitudes have been related to a diverse dimension, which includes demographic characteristics (O'Keefe, 1972; Stoloff, 1973) and personality aspects (Mahoney, 1975; Halas, 1974). Gender role beliefs have been shown to have a significant impact on a

variety of behaviours. Subject self-worth (Harrison et al., 1981), sadness (Krause, 1983), and discrimination against women among minority (Allen, 1984) are among the effects of traditional gender role attitudes and orientation. There is proof that these viewpoints are engrained from a young age. According to research by Reis and Wright (1982), sex stereotypes started to emerge from age 3.5 and got worse from there. Children as early as age 5 exhibit cross-cultural traditional views, with bias towards a certain sex in all behavioral categories. This illustrates how hard it is to break old habits when parents set the example. Zuckerman (1981) demonstrated the link between attitudes and ambitions related to sex roles. The mother's profession, the parents' educational background, and their religious upbringing were the most significant variables. Since 1970s, both men and women have become less traditional towards gender role attitudes (Helmreich et al., 1982; McBroom, 1987). It is well known that with the increase in educational attainment are linked with less traditional gender role orientations (Gump, 1980).

Emotional Maturity

Today's youth and adults are under constant strain due to escalating competitiveness and expectations from their peers and family. They are also readily exposed to a wide range of prohibited content. Under this dynamic environment it is difficult to adjust for them and occasionally they even give in to external pressure. A person's ability to accept a delay in meeting requirements and self-awareness are critical for their personal well-being. It is essential to choose maturity and act in a purposefully planned way for this reason. The capacity to react appropriately to one's surroundings is a sign of maturity, and this talent is typically learnt rather than innate. (Wani et al., 2015).

Maturity encompasses being conscious of the correct place and time to behave and knowing when to act, according to the situations and the culture of the society where one lives in (David Wechsler 1950). Finley (1996) also explained maturity as the capacity of mind to endure an ability of an individual to respond to an appropriate manner when uncertain circumstances occur.

Emotional maturity is also explained as the ability to deal constructively with reality (Menninger, 1999). Multiple attempts have been made to describe emotional maturity. According to Menninger (1999), emotional maturity should not only highlight restraint and control but also the optimistic possibilities inherent in the individual nature. A person who is emotionally mature is able to manage the tension of ignoring certain emotional stimulators that affect children and see oneself objectively while assessing his strengths and weaknesses and working to better integrate his thoughts, his attitude towards emotional, and his open behavior (Crow and Crow, 1962). An individual is assumed to be an emotionally mature person when his or her reactions to a given circumstance are (a) suitable with their level of development and (b) balanced to the weights of the circumstance (Geoghagenet.al., 1963). Even someone who can manage his emotions, tolerate delay, and suffer without feeling sorry for himself can nonetheless be emotionally startled. A person who is emotionally mature will therefore be happier in life; and become more content with what he has in life and have an equilibrium between head and heart (Wani et al., 2015).

Self-esteem

Self-esteem is a crucial element of self-understanding and is probably a dynamic, ephemeral concept that is influenced by both

internal and external factors (Moksnes et al., 2013). In 1965, Rosenberg noted that self-esteem mainly refers to a person's overall evaluation of self in a positive manner. He further added that high self-esteem involves a person respecting oneself and considering oneself as a worthy individual (Rosenberg, 1965). Gress and Sedikides (2003) also stated that self-esteem is a person's awareness or an individual's assessment of one's feelings of self-respect, subjective self-worth and self-confidence and the degree to which the individual holds negative or positive views about oneself. It has been widely acknowledged as a crucial component of psychological functioning since adolescence. According to Frost and McKelvie (2004), males appear to have stronger self-esteem during adolescence than females. Gender roles could be one reason for this difference. High self-esteem is well-suited with several traits associated to the masculine role. Additionally, self-confidence is stereotypically masculine quality. It is expected of boys to become confident, whereas it is viewed as a transgression of established gender roles when girls exhibit confidence (Kling et al., 1999).

Researchers have found that women report more egalitarian and less traditional gender-role beliefs than do men (Berkel, 2004). Similar findings by Larsen and Long (1988) depicted among undergraduate students which compared males and females observed that females scored higher than males on egalitarian attitudes. Ndobu et al., (2013) also reported that high school girls have more egalitarian and boys have more traditional attitudes. Significant higher scores on egalitarian sex-role attitude were shown among those living in urban areas than those living in rural areas (Uji et. al., 2006). Findings revealed insignificant difference between female and male in their

level of emotional maturity among university students (Wani, 2015). Study conducted to compare emotional maturity showed significant difference between urban and rural students, male and female students and between the students who lived in nuclear family and joint family system (Lakshmi and Krishnamurthy, 2011). Study shows that females were found to be more emotionally mature than males (Sharma et. al., 2008). Singh et al. observed that gender role attitude and emotional maturity have no significant relationship however positive correlation was observed between gender and emotional maturity (Singh, Pant & Laitonjam, 2013). Study revealed negative relationship between age and gender with the aspects of emotional maturity such as emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence, indicating that with an increase in age the aspects of emotional maturity will go on decreasing (Bajaj and Nancy, 2019). Urban college students were significantly more emotionally mature than rural as well as in emotional maturity aspects (Waghmare, 2018). Significant gender difference was depicted between male and female high school students which revealed that self-esteem is more in male than in female students (Zeinvand, 2006). Self-esteem of men was found to be significantly higher than that of women among the young adults in Raipur (Nupur and Mahapatro, 2015). Studies have shown similar results with adolescent males showing higher self-esteem than females (Hamid et. al., 2013). In 2015, Agam et al. found that gender role influence adolescents' self-esteem. Findings revealed that the self-esteem scores of students from urban high school were higher than rural high school (Kawser, 2015). Self-esteem of urban students was found to be significantly higher than rural students among pre-university college (Tauro et. al., 2018). Research

revealed positive correlation between the emotional maturity and self-esteem of employed and unemployed women (Aparna and Appu, 2015). Gender roles are closely associated to person's self-evaluation and self-esteem (Yuksel and Dag, 2015).

Purpose of the study

Gender roles, which encompass the societal expectations and norms have long influenced individuals in certain aspects. These roles are molded by cultural, social, and historical contexts, and they define how individuals express themselves and interact with others. Over time, following traditional gender roles can have profound effects on emotional maturity and self-esteem. It often encourages men to suppress their emotions, leading to problems in emotional expression and development, while women may face pressure to conform to nurturing or passive roles, which can undermine their own self-worth. These dynamics are especially pertinent in modern societies where the growing nature of gender roles is creating tension between traditional expectations and personal identity.

The relationship between gender roles, emotional maturity, and self-esteem remains underexplored, particularly in non-Western societies or contexts where traditional gender norms are still predominant. There is a need to investigate how different aspects of gender role adherence or deviation influence emotional maturity and self-esteem across genders and cultures. Understanding this relationship can provide insight into how societal norms shape emotional and psychological development, ultimately influencing individuals' ability to navigate complex social and personal challenges.

By exploring the interplay between gender roles, emotional maturity and self-esteem, the present study aims to contribute

to the growing body of literature on gender and psychological well-being, offering recommendations for fostering healthier emotional development and self-worth across different gender identities.

Objectives

Given the theoretical and methodological foundation provided, the following objectives were framed for the present study:

1. To determine the pattern of relationship between the psychological variables of gender role, emotional maturity and self-esteem among the sample.
2. To examine the interaction effects of 'gender x locality' on gender role attitude, emotional maturity and self-esteem among the sample.
3. To determine the predictive relationship between gender role attitude, emotional maturity and self-esteem.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were made based on the objective:

1. Significant relationship is expected between gender role, emotional maturity and self-esteem.
2. It was expected that there will be significant interaction effects of 'gender x locality' on the psychological variables of gender role, emotional maturity and self-esteem. Females living in urban areas were expected to show greater scores as compared to all other groups on gender role attitude and lower scores on emotional maturity. Males living in urban areas were

expected to show greater scores on self-esteem.

3. It is expected that there will be significant prediction between gender role attitude, emotional maturity and self-esteem.

Method

Design of the Study

The study incorporates a two-way classification of variables, 'gender' (male and female) and 'locality' (rural and urban) on the psychological measures of gender role attitude, emotional maturity and self-esteem. The independent and interaction effects of 'Gender' and 'Locality' on the behavioral measure with the demographic profiles were elucidated with the 2X2 (2 gender X 2 locality) factorial design.

Sample

The present study comprised of 300 Mizo adults (150 males and 150 females) from Mizoram. Their age ranges between 18-50 years selected using multi stage random sampling procedure.

Tools

a) *Attitudes Towards Women Scale* (AWS; Spence, Helmrich and Stapp, 1978) Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS) is used for measuring gender role attitudes. The statements describe about the rights and roles of women in areas such as vocational, educational, and intellectual activities; dating behavior and etiquette; sexual behavior; and marital relationships. The short version consisted of 25 items each to be rated on a 4-point scale ranging from 0-Agree Strongly to 3-Disagree Strongly. With 0 representing the most traditional and 3 the most contemporary, pro feminist response. Of the 25 items 12 are reverse scored namely 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 18, 21, 24 and 25. A high

score indicates egalitarian gender role attitude while a low score indicates a traditional or conservative gender role attitude.

b) *Emotional Maturity Scale* (P.Y. Singh & Mahesh Bhargava, 1999) Emotional maturity scale consists of 48 items which measures emotional maturity of an individual. It is a self-reporting five-point scale. The scale measures under the five categories: Emotional instability, Emotional regression, Social maladjustment, Personality disintegration and Lack of independence. Items of the scale are in question form demanding information for each in any of the five options mentioned below: *Very Much, Much, Undecided, Probably, Never*. The items in the scale are so stated that if the answer is very much a score of 5 is given; for much 4; for undecided 3; and probably 2 and for never a score 1 is to be awarded. The higher the score on the scale indicates greater the degree of the emotional immaturity and vice-versa.

c) *Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale* (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965) Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale includes 10-item scale that measures global self-worth by measuring both positive and negative feelings about the self. The scale is thought to be uni-dimensional. All items are answered using a 4-point Likert scale format ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Items 2, 5, 6, 8, 9 are reverse scored. Responses for each item are given points as followed: "*Strongly Disagree*" 1 point, "*Disagree*" 2 points, "*Agree*" 3 points, and "*Strongly Agree*" 4 points. Sum the scores for all ten items and keep scores on a continuous scale. Higher scores indicate higher self-esteem.

Results

Table1. Mean, SD, α , Skewness and Kurtosis

Variable	n	M	SD	α	Skewness		Kurtosis	
					Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Gender role attitude								
Male rural	75	36.79	5.456	.650	.162	.277	.334	.548
Female rural	75	37.24	5.420	.650	-.554	.277	.691	.548
Male urban	75	37.24	5.420	.650	-.554	.277	.691	.548
Female urban	75	40.89	5.899	.650	-.067	.277	-.481	.548
Emotional Maturity								
Male rural	75	134.17	134.17	.817	.453	.277	-.429	.548
Female rural	75	135.87	18.681	.817	-.004	.277	-.130	.548
Male urban	75	130.41	20.796	.817	-.110	.277	-.647	.548
Female urban	75	138.01	18.060	.817	-.313	.277	-.142	.548
Self-esteem								
Male rural	75	26.93	4.455	.739	-.165	.277	-.427	.548
Female rural	75	24.68	3.831	.739	.384	.277	.167	.548
Male urban	75	26.72	3.992	.739	.047	.277	.216	.548
Female urban	75	24.92	3.400	.739	-.038	.277	-.240	.548

Descriptive statistics displayed the mean, standard deviation, kurtosis and skewness scores on emotional maturity and self-esteem of male and female participants (Table: 1). The mean score of female urban score was found to be highest on gender role attitude and emotional maturity. However, male rural mean score was found to be highest on self-esteem. Skewness and Kurtosis highlighted the normal distribution of the sample. The reliability statistics was computed with Cronbach's Alpha which showed .650 on gender role attitude, .817 on emotional maturity scale and .739 on self-esteem scale showing the applicability of the scales in the present population.

Table 2. The interrelationship between the psychological measures

Measures	1	2	3
1. Gender role attitude	-		
2. Emotional Maturity	.004	-	
3. Self-esteem	-.053	-.249**	-

Note: *p < .05. **p < .01

Pearson Correlation table (Table:2) depicted significant negative relationship between emotional maturity and self-esteem ($r = -.249$, $p < 0.01$).

Table 3. Test of Homogeneity of Variance

Measures	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Gender role attitude	.754	3	296	.521
Emotional Maturity	.933	3	296	.425
Self-esteem	2.342	3	296	.073

Note: *p < .05. **p < .01

Levene's test for homogeneity of variance showed an insignificant result satisfying the assumptions for parametric test (Table 3).

Table 4. One Way ANOVA

Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender role attitude	824.427	3	274.809	8.914	.000
Emotional Maturity	2322.330	3	774.110	2.058	.106
Self-esteem	311.920	3	103.973	6.706	.000

Note: *p < .05. **p < .01

One-way ANOVA table showed significant differences of the group on gender role attitude and self-esteem, this indicates that 'gender x locality' has significant difference on these variables. However, no significant group difference was observed on emotional maturity (Table 4).

Table 5. Regression Analysis showing the prediction of Gender role attitude on Emotional Maturity and Self-esteem

Predictor	Criterion Variables	β	R^2	F	95% CI		t	P
					LL	UL		
Gender Role Attitude	Emotional Maturity	.013	.000	.005	-.372	.399	.069	.945
	Self-esteem	-.037	.003	.829	-.117	.043	-.910	.363

Note: *p < .05. **p < .01

Regression analysis (Table:5) shows that gender role attitude showed an insignificantly prediction on emotional maturity ($F=.005$, $p<.945$) and self-esteem ($F=.829$, $p<.363$). It depicted that both emotional maturity and self-esteem are not explained by gender role attitude.

Discussion

The main objective of the study was to find the relationship between gender role attitude, emotional maturity and self-esteem and to see if any predictive relationship was found between the variables. It aims to explore if the interaction of 'gender x locality' has effect on the psychological variables. Furthermore, it also explores the relationship of the variables by analyzing if gender role attitude predicted emotional maturity and self-esteem.

The findings of the present study revealed negative relationship between emotional maturity and self-esteem which indicates that higher the score on emotional maturity lower will be the score on self-esteem and vise-versa. Similar findings have been observed by other researchers as well (Biswas, 2018; Onwubiko, 2020; Dhull & Singh, 2014). It indicates that emotionally mature individual will also have better self-esteem. This finding confirms that an individual who is able to adjust themselves with regards to their family, society, culture, and even their surroundings in an efficient manner will have better views on their own value or sense of self-worth. This may also mean that a person will have a better sense of their own value, feelings of self-respect and self-confidence, and positive views of themselves when they are able to react to

their surroundings appropriately, know when to act, and know when to behave based on the situation and the culture of the society they live in. In addition, emotional maturity is assumed to be associated with adaptability and open-mindedness. People who can adapt to new situations and consider different perspectives tend to have a more positive and flexible self-concept. This adaptability contributes to higher self-esteem, as individuals feel capable of navigating diverse circumstances.

Significant interaction effect 'gender x locality' was observed on gender role attitude and self-esteem. This depicted that being male or female as well as residing in rural or urban areas have significant effect on gender role attitude and self-esteem. The findings revealed that female living in urban areas scored the highest as compared to all the other groups. This may be due to the upbringing of children in the family. Since, majority of Mizo family follows patriarchal society, girls were brought up to behave in a nurturing, cooperative and empathetic manner. These qualities can align with egalitarian values, as they involve considering the well-being of others. In addition, urban residence individuals have more diverse population as compare to rural and the exposure to this diversity can foster a greater understanding and acceptance of different perspectives, contributing to a more egalitarian attitude. Other contributing factor may also be due to their better access to educational institutions. Since, higher levels of education and awareness can lead to a more egalitarian mindset to a certain extent, as individuals may be exposed to ideas that challenge stereotypes and promote inclusivity.

The study also confirms that emotional maturity and self-esteem are not explained by gender role attitude. The assumptions that an individual's emotional maturity and self-

esteem will be predicted by being traditional gender role attitude or egalitarian gender role attitude was rejected. Hence, the thought that family upbringing and the roles and responsibilities that are impose based on gender would have an effect comes to vain. However, this finding may help us in understanding that there is difference in individuality. People, regardless of their gender role attitude, may develop maturity in emotion due to their personality, life experiences, upbringing, and personal values. Likewise, some individuals may internalize gender based societal expectations and be strongly affected by traditional gender norms, while others may resist or reject these norms, shaping their self-esteem differently.

Conclusion

The current findings confirmed that female tend to share an egalitarian view as compare to male in both urban and rural areas. It dispelled the myth that women are emotionally more mature than men by demonstrating that Mizo male adults typically exhibit higher levels of emotional maturity than Mizo female adults. It also shed the light that a person's self-esteem can be raised in some areas of life by supporting them emotionally to the best of their abilities and showing genuine interest in their progress. On the basis of this study, for further research exploring other societies and culture would be worthwhile to see their perception about gender roles to yield better and more in-depth knowledge. Other age group may also be included to reveal their attitude towards gender role for different generations.

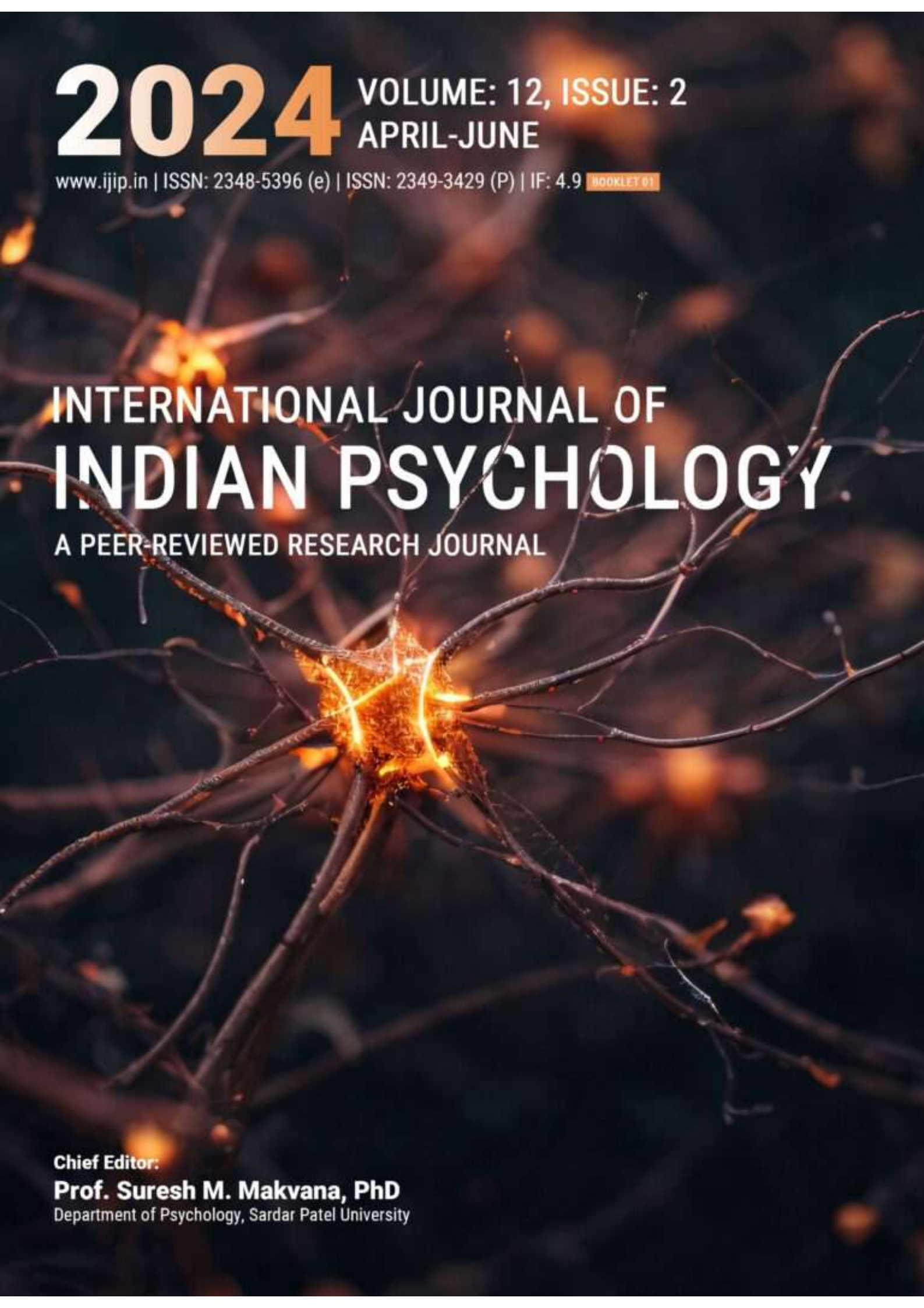
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Research Paper

Attitude Towards Gender Roles in Relation to Coping among Mizo Adults

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ABSTRACT

Gender based roles is assumed to have association with one's way of dealing with different situations that they encounter in daily life. So, the present study aimed to explore gender roles and coping styles, focusing on accepting responsibility coping style and escape avoidance coping style. It examined the relationship between the psychological variables as well as gender differences on these variables. The sample of the study comprised of 100 (50 male and 50 female) participants studying in Mizoram University which are selected using purposive sampling procedure with age ranging between 18 to 30 years. Demographic profiles and data were collected using Attitudes Towards Women Scale (Spence, Helmrich & Stapp, 1978) and Ways of Coping (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985). Psychometric adequacy and parametric statistic assumptions were checked. Pearson correlation and One-Way ANOVA were applied. The result showed significant group difference on gender role, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance. Significant relationship was also found between gender role and accepting responsibility among the sample.

Keywords: Gender, Gender Roles, Coping, Accepting Responsibility, Escape Avoidance

Family is one of the most important institutions that humans have managed, and this remains universal fact in cultures across the world. However, there are variations in how the family is managed and understood (Amah & Ogah, 2021). The decisions people make in the family are many times driven by their dominant attitude towards gender roles (Davis and Greenstein 2009). Hence, the various roles played in the family differ depending on whether acceptance is made to the traditional or egalitarian gender role attitude. The consequence of this is that when analysing the behaviours of individuals, their dominant gender role attitude must be recognized and factored in (Amah & Ogah, 2021). For instance, when an individual who subscribe to the traditional gender role will react differently to suggestions to play an active part in family responsibilities than the one who subscribe to the egalitarian role. Several countries have evident in the turn towards egalitarian gender role attitudes, the changes towards more egalitarian attitudes have proceeded more quickly for women than for men (Baxter and Kane, 1995; Bryant, 2003). However, empirical research has shown that an increase in women's resources, such as

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better education and full-time employment, does not necessarily lead to a more egalitarian division of tasks and responsibilities in the family. Thus, gender behavior and roles seem to be influenced not only by individual factors but also by other aspects as well (Diehl, 2009).

Gender Role Attitude

Gender-role attitudes are defined as perceptions and beliefs regarding the unique roles of men and women, and ranges on a continuum where traditional perceptions regarding gender roles are found at one end, and liberal perceptions are found at the other end (Korabik, McElwain, & Chappell, 2008). Gender role may be described as socially constructed roles, behaviours, activities and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women (WHO, 2015). In the ideology of separate gender roles, females are mainly responsible for the household chores, child-rearing, and maintaining good relationships while men are primarily responsible for the economic support of the family. Gender roles can be associated with expectations of females and males in realms outside of the family as well, such as work (Williams, 1995).

Gender role theory suggests that individuals internalize cultural expectations about their gender because of social pressures external to the individual favour behaviour consistent with their prescribed gender role (Kidder, 2002). People use such expectations to categorize themselves and others, and these categorizations have important impacts on individuals' lives (William et. al., 2009).

Traditional gender-role attitudes reflect perceptions regarding distinctive roles for women and men (Krais, 2006). According to traditional gender-role attitudes, men achieve their role through instrumental, breadwinning activities and women achieves their roles through nurturing, homemaking, and parenting activities. In contradistinction, according to liberal gender-role attitudes, men and women may successfully achieve the same social roles (Lindsey, 2015). Egalitarian gender-role attitudes can be seen as a more advanced stage towards the liberal gender attitudes, because they endorse and value equal sharing of breadwinning and nurturing family roles (Lorber, 1994). Furthermore, egalitarian gender roles mainly point to the idea that individuals should have access to the same rights and opportunities irrespective of their sex, and should be treated according to the same principles, norms, and standards (Walby, 2005).

Coping

Coping is defined as constantly changing cognitive and behavioural efforts to manage specific external and internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Protective factors and processes are coalesced to enhance an individual's ability to cope with adversity (King et al., 2003). The present study has referred to eight ways of coping identified by Folkman and Lazarus's (1980) namely: confrontive coping, distancing, self-controlling, seeking social support, accepting responsibility, escape-avoidance, planful problem solving and positive reappraisal. Planful problem-solving and accepting responsibility are ways of coping categorized as problem-focused while the rest are emotion focused types. Confrontive coping describes aggressive efforts to alter the situation and suggests some degree of hostility and risk-taking. Distancing describes cognitive efforts to detach oneself and to minimize the significance of the situation. Self-controlling describes efforts to regulate one's feelings and actions. Seeking social support describes efforts to seek informational support, tangible support, and emotional support. Accepting responsibility means acknowledging one's role in the problem with a concomitant theme of trying to put things right. Escape-avoidance describes wishful

thinking and behavioural efforts to escape or avoid problem. Planful problem solving describes deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytic approach to solving the problem. Positive reappraisal describes efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth and it has a religious dimension (Rodriguez, 2011). Problem-focused coping includes cognitive and behavioural attempts to modify or eliminate the stressful situation. In contrast, emotion-focused coping involves attempts to regulate emotional responses elicited by the situation (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). The present study has focused on accepting responsibility coping style and escape-avoidance coping style.

Accepting Responsibility

There is a difference between accepting responsibility in a stressful situation and blaming oneself. The latter point toward taking responsibility for things that are even outside of our control. Accepting responsibility in order to cope with stress actually entails understanding and accepting our roles insofar as we are involved with contributing to the stress and seeking to improve (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). In doing this, we are not taking responsibility for the actions of others, only our own, which we have control over. Individuals who use this coping mechanism do so in order to lessen the stress of a given situation by being mindful of the influence of their own actions and words.

Escape-Avoidance

Those who practice escape or avoidance as a means of coping with a stressful situation are avoiding dealing with the problem. It is a maladaptive form of coping in which a person changes their behaviour to avoid thinking about, feeling, or doing difficult things (Scott, 2022). This coping mechanism can be problematic because it means that the individual is essentially avoiding in addressing the problem which is causing them stress (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). This means that the main stressor remains and can continue to cause them discomfort because nothing has been done to actually remedy this. However, the individual escape the stressful event by going out, sleeping, etc.

Study found that traits of gender roles have significant relationship with coping mechanisms (Lengua & Stormshak, 2000). Other findings also observe that femininity gender role have significant relationship with greater avoidance coping and greater support-seeking coping (LaCroix & Haynes, 1987). Several studies showed significant gender differences on traditional and egalitarian gender role attitudes (Larsen and Long, 1988; Ndobo et al., 2013). Gender differences have also been observed in the use of coping strategies, women reported that emotional support like escape avoidance was used significantly more frequently than men. However, no gender differences were evident for the use of positive reframing, accepting responsibility, or venting (Kelly et. al., 2008). Sanders and Sander (2009) found that males coped better than females. The influence of gender roles on coping with workplace stressors was examined among undergraduate adult which shows gender role scores were significant predictors for the traits of coping (Gianakos, 2000).

Mizo society is a patriarchal and patrilineal society where women are reported to have less authoritative power in the family (Lalhmingpuii and Namchoom, 2014). Women were said to perform more work than men, from cleaning the *jhum* (slash and burn cultivation), sowing seeds, cleaning weeds, harvesting, and transporting the harvest from *jhum* to the house. Not only that, she also undertook the household chores (Paul, 2019). The earlier women need to fulfill their duties and beside need to cope with the daily hassles they encounter. However, with modernization, where women also earn a living for the family, shift towards sharing of tasks have been observed. Attitude towards gender role however is

presumed to play an important factor in shaping an individual's behaviour such as coping (Mayor, 2015). Accepting responsibility (problem focused) and escape avoidance (emotion focused) are the main variable of focus. For the study population, the interest was on finding gender difference on university students' attitude towards gender roles and how they deal with stressful events that they encounter. So, the present study is interested in exploring the relationships between gender role attitudes, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance and if males and females differ in these psychological variables.

Objectives

Given the theoretical and methodological foundation provided, the following objectives were framed for the present study:

1. To determine the pattern of relationship between gender role attitude, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance among the sample.
2. To examine the independent effects of gender (male and female) on gender role attitude, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance among the sample.
3. To determine the predictability of accepting responsibility and escape avoidance from gender role attitude.

Hypotheses:

The following hypotheses were made based on the objective:

- Significant relationship is expected between the psychological variables (gender role attitude, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance).
- It is expected that there will be significant independent effects of gender (males and females) on the psychological variables (gender role attitude, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance).
- It is expected that there will be significant prediction of accepting responsibility and escape avoidance from gender role attitude.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

The present study comprised of 100 (50 male and 50 female) participants studying in Mizoram University with age ranging between 18 to 30 years who were selected using purposive sampling procedure.

Design of the Study

The study incorporates between-groups design – 50 males and 50 females on the psychological measures.

Instruments

- **Attitudes Towards Women Scale (AWS; Spence, Helmrich and Stapp, 1978):** Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS) is the most widely used scale for measuring gender role attitudes. The short version consisted of 25 items each to be rated on a 4-point scale ranging from 0-Agree Strongly to 3-Disagree Strongly. Of the 25 items 12 are reverse scored. A high score indicates a egalitarian attitude while a low score indicates a traditional, conservative attitude.
- **Ways of Coping Questionnaire (WCQ; Folkman & Lazarus, 1985):** The Ways of Coping Questionnaire is used to measure the coping processes. As the definitive coping measure, it assesses and identify thoughts and actions that individuals use to cope with the stressful encounters of everyday living. The scale is excellent for

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research on coping and scales include: Confrontation Coping, Distancing, Self-Controlling, Seeking Social Support, Accepting Responsibility, Escape-Avoidance, Planful Problem Solving, and Positive Reappraisal. The subject responds on a 4-point Likert scale 0 = not used to 3 = used a great deal. High score indicates high coping processes.

RESULTS

Table 1: Mean, SD, α , Skewness and Kurtosis

Table1: Descriptive Statistics									
Variable	n	M	SD	α	Skewness		Kurtosis		
					Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error	
Gender Role Attitude									
Male	50	35.20	4.490	.708	-.137	.337	-.362	.662	
Female	50	41.68	5.691		.030	.337	-.634	.662	
Accepting Responsibility									
Male	50	7.16	1.963	.501	.020	.337	-.617	.662	
Female	50	8.08	1.883		-.617	.337	.093	.662	
Escape Avoidance									
Male	50	11.74	3.016	.507	.465	.337	-.247	.662	
Female	50	13.32	3.178		.339	.337	-.436	.662	

Descriptive statistics showed the mean, standard deviation, kurtosis and skewness scores on gender role attitude, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance of male and female participants (Table: 1). Females were found to have higher scores on gender role attitude, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance. This implies that with respect to gender role attitudes, females are more egalitarian and males are more traditional. In the present study, traditional gender-role attitudes refer to men achieving their role through instrumental, breadwinning activities and women achieve their roles through nurturing, homemaking, and parenting activities. Egalitarian gender roles mainly point to the idea that individuals should have access to the same rights and opportunities irrespective of their sex, and should be treated according to the same principles, norms, and standards (Walby, 2005).

Furthermore, females were comparatively higher than males on accepting responsibility and escape avoidance coping style. Femininity gender role was found to have significant relationship with greater avoidance coping and greater support-seeking coping (LaCroix & Haynes, 1987). Skewness and Kurtosis results highlighted the normal distribution of the sample. The reliability statistics was computed with Cronbach's Alpha which showed the applicability of the scales in the present population.

Table 2: The interrelationship between the psychological measures

Measure	1	2	3
1. Gender Role Attitude	-		
2. Accepting Responsibility	.269**	-	
3. Escape /Avoidance	.183	.379**	-

Note: *p < .05. **p < .01

The Pearson Correlation table (Table: 2) revealed significant positive relationship between gender role attitude and accepting responsibility and between accepting responsibility and

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escape avoidance. It depicts that with higher the score on gender role attitude higher will also be the score on accepting responsibility and vice versa. Similarly, with higher the score on accepting responsibility higher will also be the score on escape avoidance and vice versa. This indicates that an individual's ways of acknowledging and taking measures when problem encounter associate with wishful thinking and behavioural efforts to escape or avoid the problem.

Table: 3 Homogeneity of variance

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Gender Role Attitude	3.058	1	98	.083
Accepting Responsibility	.779	1	98	.380
Escape /Avoidance	.672	1	98	.415

Levene's test for homogeneity of variance (Table: 3) showed an insignificant result satisfying the assumptions for parametric test.

Table: 4 One Way ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Gender Role Attitude	1049.760	1	1049.760	39.954	.000
Accepting Responsibility	21.160	1	21.160	5.722	.019
Escape Avoidance	62.410	1	62.410	6.503	.012

Note: *p < .05. **p < .01

One-way ANOVA (Table: 4) table showed significant mean differences of the group (males and females) on all of the psychological variables, this indicates that male and female university students differ significantly on their gender role attitude, accepting responsibility coping and escape avoidance coping.

Table 5: Regression Analysis showing the prediction of Gender role attitude on Accepting Responsibility and Escape Avoidance

Predictor	Criterion Variables	β	R ²	F	95% CI		t	P
					LL	UL		
Gender Role Attitude	Accepting Responsibility	-.867	.047	4.833	-1.649	-.084	-2.198	.030
	Escape Avoidance	-1.34	.043	4.412	-2.609	-.074	-2.100	.038

Table: 5 shows that gender role attitude significantly predicted accepting responsibility (F=4.833, p<.005) and escape avoidance (F=4.412, p<.005). The coefficient of Determination, R², shows that the variation in the dependent variable accepting responsibility can be predicted from gender role attitude by 4.7%. and escape avoidance can be predicted from gender role attitude by 4.3%. In other words, 4.7% of accepting responsibility is explained by gender role attitude. Likewise, 4.3% of escape avoidance is explained by gender role attitude.

DISCUSSION

The main objective of the study was to find the relationship between gender role attitude, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance. It aims to explore if males and females differ in the psychological variables. Furthermore, it further explores the relationship of the

variables by analyzing if gender role attitude predicted accepting responsibility and escape avoidance.

The findings of the present study revealed positive relationship between gender role attitude and accepting responsibility and between accepting responsibility and escape avoidance which confirms the first hypothesis. This indicates that those having an egalitarian gender role attitude will be more likely to accept responsibility and those having traditional gender role attitude will be less likely to accept responsibility. Here, accepting responsibility mainly points to understanding and accepting the stressful events and then getting involved with it and seeking to improve. Positive relationship was also observed between accepting responsibility and escape avoidance which indicates that one's way of dealing with problems by accepting and taking measures when stressful moments encounter somewhat relates to avoid and escape the events as well. Significant relationship between gender role and coping have been observed in other studies done among undergraduate students (LaCroix and Haynes, 1987; Lengua and Stormshak, 2000). So, we may say that gender role has association with one's way of dealing with stressful situation that a person encounters.

Significant gender differences have been observed on all of the psychological variables studied confirming the second hypothesis. This indicates that being male or female have effects on gender role attitude, accepting responsibility and escape avoidance. Other findings also observed gender differences in gender role attitude (Larsen and Long, 1988; Ndobu et al., 2013) and in coping mechanisms (Ptacek et al., 1994). Thus, whether a person is male or female can contribute on how they view about gender role i.e., egalitarian or traditional. It also showed that males and females differ in the way they accept responsibility and escape or avoidance situations.

The study also confirms that accepting responsibility and escape avoidance is significantly predicted by gender role attitude hence, the third hypothesis was also accepted. Study conducted among under graduate students also depicted similar findings where gender roles was predicted by traits of coping (Gianakos, 2000). Therefore, we may say that when a person is encountering a stressful situation his/her way of accepting responsibility, acknowledging the problem and making it better or trying to avoid dealing with the problem are explained by an individual's attitude towards gender role.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

Factors in the present study are considered important because every family has their own structure which include gender role attitude, responsibilities and management of the home is highly influenced by this attitude. A family with a traditional attitude may have a completely different family environment than a family with egalitarian attitude. Moreover, families encounter different type of stresses daily in life and each member in the family have their own responsibility and duties that he/she need to achieve. In the process of trying to fulfill their respective roles in the family, a person may apply certain types of coping style. Males and females are found to have applied different ways of coping. Coping methods like accepting responsibility and escape avoidance are considered as an important factor when considering gender role attitude. An individual may understand the stressful situation, accept the responsibility and take measures to solve it or run away from the situation and avoid it. These two coping factors are somehow influenced by one's attitude towards gender role attitude as found in the present study. So, this study has given us a broader perspective of how the educated youth viewed the stereotypic roles that society give and how they associated with coping especially in areas of accepting responsibility and escape avoidance.

This study focuses on gender role attitude and two aspects of coping namely accepting responsibility and escape avoidance. On the basis of this, for further research exploring other aspects of coping or psychological variables is recommended to yield better and more in-depth knowledge. Including other age group may also be suggested to reveal their attitude towards gender role for different generations.

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Conflict of Interest

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Resilient Coping in relation to Self-Esteem among Mizo Adults

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Abstract : *Resilience and self-esteem are important indicators of positive mental health (Liu et al., 2021). The present study aims to explore the resilient coping and self-esteem of Mizo adults. It examines the relationship between the variables further exploring if resilient coping predicts self-esteem. It also investigates if there are any gender differences on these variables. This study consists of 394 Mizo adults (139 males and 255 females) residing in Mizoram with age ranging between 18-40 years selected using random sampling procedure. The result shows that male and female differ in their resilient coping and self-esteem. It also shows that self-esteem is predicted by resilience coping.*

Keywords: resilience coping, self-esteem, Mizo adults, Mizoram

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Introduction

In the past decades, resilience has act as individual's protective factors that support positive adaptation, cognitive problem-solving skills, coping styles, reflective thinking skills to manage problems and further helps in the ability to stimulate positive support from others (Smith et al., 2000; Luther et al., 2008). A resilient individual is characterised as having a positive view of stress and the ability to manage stress effectively, adapt to change and cope with adverse conditions, including catastrophic life events, socioeconomic disadvantage and mental and chronic illness (Rutter, 1987; Kobasa, 1979). Resilience maintains well-being when one is facing adversity (Liu et al., 2021). Resilient coping is a term used to define the ability of people to maintain relatively stable and healthy levels of psychological and physical functioning when confronted with a highly disruptive situation (Bonanno, 2004). Resilient coping is distinguished from other forms of coping by an emphasis on: (1) the chronic and uncontrollable properties of stressors (i.e. the stressor implies extreme, ongoing adversity); and (2) the social-contextual factors that facilitate adaptation. On the other hand, resilient coping is similar to other ways of managing stress in that it describes coping as a process and emphasizes the transactional nature of, for example, childhood development and living with chronic illness (Hopwood and Treloar, 2016). Resilience has an important affectin many aspects of an individual's quality of life (Ristevska, 2015) and well-being(Nalin et al., 2015) and further has unique effect onone's employment status (Ordway et al., 2020). So, we may say that the importance of resilience can be seen not only in psychological factors but in an individual's productivity and their daily earning for living as well. Yielding such importance little is known about resilience in Mizo population.

Internal protective factors of resilience, likeself-esteem have been extensively studied by many researchers (Pargas et al., 2010; Dumont & Provost,1999). Many findings revealed that resilience play a veryvital role in promoting self-esteem. Psychological distress

and lifesatisfaction are positively affected by resilience through the mediation effects of self-esteem (Liu et al., 2014; Benetti, 2006). Resilience is considered to be promoting factor for self-esteem, at the same time; high self-esteem plays as a protective factor for resilience (Bin & Wei, 2007). Resilience and self-esteem are vital traits of positive psychology and are considered as an important indicator of positive mental health (Liu et al., 2021). Resilience helps individuals to deal with adverse situations and pressures, at the same time as self-esteem promotes an individual in self-acceptance, self-responsibility and self-maintenance (Liu et al., 2021).

Self-esteem is defined as an individual's subjective evaluation of his or her worth as a person (Orth & Robins, 2014). Self-esteem refers most generally to an individual's overall positive evaluation of the self (Rosenberg et al., 1995). Person with high level of self-esteem trust their judgement and thinking and have the ability to make better decisions. Having these qualities, it creates more effective interpersonal relationship and work relationships which allows a person to effectively contribute to the work environment (Dutton, 2020).

Several findings emerge from this literature which reveals that there is significant gender gap and that males tend to report higher levels of self-esteem than females (Kling et al., 1999; Robins et al., 2002; Zeigler-Hill & Myers, 2012). Several authors consider self-esteem to be part of resilience on the individual level (Kumpfer, 1999; Masten & Coatsworth, 1998). Within the resilience framework, self-esteem is perceived as an important part of an individual's trait (Currie et al., 2004). Self-esteem and resilience are important indicators of healthy psychological as well as social status (Gao et al., 2019). Self-esteem is relatively stable and therefore, it is difficult to improve it in practice, but however resilience is affected widely by both internal as well as external factors and it is relatively easy to improve. So, it is evident that one can improve self-esteem by enhancing resilience (Liu et al., 2021).

Studies have shown a positive relationship between self-esteem and resilience (Karatas&Cakar, 2011). Findings by Aliyev&Gengec, 2019 demonstrates that as resilience coping level increases, self-esteem level also increases. It was also revealed that resilient coping negatively predicts negative coping style and positively predict positive coping style (Li et al., 2020). It has also been observed that less resilient adolescents have lower self-esteem and were more likely to be involved in risky behaviour in comparison to their higher resilient peers (Buckner et al., 2003; Gordon Rouse et al., 1998). Both positive and negative self-esteem is found correlate significantly with resilience (Veselska et al., 2009). Self-esteem is also found to positively predict resilience (Liu et al., 2021).

Gender has also been found to have great influence on individual's resilience levels (Sambu&Mhongo, 2019). Males showed significantly higher resilience level than did females (Erdoğan et al., 2015, Harvey & Boynton, 2021). Gender differences have also been observed where males reported higher self-esteem than females (Agam et al., 2015). Study among Mizo adolescents showed significant gender difference in self-esteem with males scoring higher than female (Ralte&Lalrochami, 2019). Studies have shown that females tend to have lower self-esteem and more negative assessments of their physical characteristics and intellectual abilities than males (Kearney, 1999). However, there were also other studies that found no gender difference in the level of self-esteem (Jain & Dixit, 2014).

Statement of the problem:

Mizo kan ni ka nhmel a tha, kan tum a sang baw si was one of the popular folk song which could somehow indicate the resilience and self-esteem in-built in Mizo's nature. Resilience and self-esteem are not only an important factor for better mental health. As mentioned before, they have large involvement in many aspects of an individual's well-being, quality of life and even in their work environment (Dutton, 2020). It is an interesting endeavor to know whether these qualities are embedded in Mizo adults as well, since

these factors play an important aspect not only in mental health but in their productivity and inter personal relationship and in work settings.

It is anticipated that the current study will shed light to better understanding of how resiliently coping with stress play a role in one's own view of self-worth or self-esteem. It may assist in formulating interventions that addresses the importance of resilient coping and self-esteem. This would further help in nurturing life skills in the Mizo adults. In light of the above discussion, the present study is designed with the following objectives:

Objectives:

Given the theoretical and methodological foundation provided, the following objectives were framed for the present study:

- 1: To determine the pattern of relationship between the psychological variables of resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample.
- 2: To examine the independent effect of gender (male and female) on resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample.
- 3: To determine the predictive relationship between resilient coping and self-esteem.

Hypothesis:

The following hypotheses were made based on the objective:

1. Significant positive relationship is expected between resilient coping and self-esteem.
2. It is expected that males will have higher score on resilient coping and self-esteem than females.
3. It is expected that resilient coping will significantly predict self-esteem.

Method

Sample:

The present study consists of 394 Mizo adults (139 males and 255 females) from Mizoram. Their age ranges between 18-40 years selected using random sampling procedure.

Design of the Study

The study incorporates between-subjects design – 139 males and 255 females on the psychological measures of resilient coping and self-esteem.

Psychological Tools:

- a) **The Brief Resilient Coping Scale (BRCS; Sinclair & Wallston, 2004):**

Brief Resilient Coping Scale includes 4-statements to capture an individual's ability to cope with stress in highly adaptive ways. The participants rate each statement from 1 (*Does not describe me at all*) to 5 (*Describes me very well*). After giving each of the four statements a score, their responses are summed up for a final score. High score ranges from 17 to 20 indicating high resilient copers and a low score ranging from 4 to 13 suggest low resilient copers, in other words, higher the score better the resilient coping of an individual and vice-versa.

- b) **Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965):**

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale includes 10-item scale that measures global self-worth by measuring both positive and negative feelings about the self. The scale is believed to be uni-dimensional. All items are answered using a 4-point Likert scale format ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Items 2, 5, 6, 8, 9 are reverse scored. Responses for each statement are given points as followed: "*Strongly Disagree*" 1 point, "*Disagree*" 2 points, "*Agree*" 3 points, and "*Strongly Agree*" 4 points. Sum the scores for all ten items and keep scores on a continuous scale. Higher scores indicate higher self-esteem.

Results

Table1: Mean, SD, α , Skewness and Kurtosis

Vari- able	n	M	SD	α	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Sta- tistic	Std. Error	Sta- tistic	Std. Error	
Resilient Coping								
Male	139	15.11	2.293	0.553	-1.251	0.21	5.668	0.408
Female	255	14.84	2.023	0.553	-0.463	0.15	0.959	0.304
Self-esteem								
Male	139	26.72	3.809	0.731	0.021	0.21	0.735	0.408
Female	255	25.45	3.703	0.731	-0.478	0.15	1.154	0.304

Descriptive statistics showed the mean, standard deviation, kurtosis and skewness scores on resilient coping and self-esteem of male and female participants (Table: 1). The mean score of males is found to be higher than females on both of the psychological variables. Skewness and Kurtosis results highlighted the normal distribution of the sample. The reliability statistics was computed with Cronbach's Alpha which showed .55 on Resilient Coping Scale and .73 on Self-Esteem Scale showing the applicability of the scales in the present population.

Table2: The interrelationship between the psychological measures

Measure	1	2
1. Resilient Coping	-	
2. Self-esteem	.354**	-

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

The Pearson Correlation table (Table: 2) revealed significant positive relationship between resilient coping and self-esteem ($r=.354$, $p<0.01$).

Table3: Test of Homogeneity of Variance

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Resilient Coping	.000	1	392	.985
Self-esteem	.082	1	392	.774

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Levene's test for homogeneity of variance (Table: 3) showed an insignificant result satisfying the assumptions for parametric test.

Table:4 One Way ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Resilient Coping	6.307	1	6.307	1.401	.237
Self-esteem	145.641	1	145.641	10.408	.001

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

One-way ANOVA (Table: 4) table showed significant mean differences of the group (males and females) on self-esteem, this indicates that male and female Mizo adults differ significantly on their self-esteem. However, no significant gender differences was observed on resilient coping indicating male and female Mizo adults to have somewhat similar levels of resilient coping.

Table 5: Results of Simple Regression Analysis using Resilient coping as predictor and Self-esteem as criterion variables

Self-esteem

Variables	B	β	R ²	F	ΔR^2	ΔF	Sig.	95% CI
Constant	16.457	.354					.000	[13.960, 18.955]
Resilient Coping	.632	.354	.126	56.321	.123	56.321	.000	[.466, .797]

Note: B= Unstandardized beta; β = standardized beta * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

A simple regression analysis was performed to predict the effects of resilient coping on self-esteem. The regression model with resilient coping as predictor and self-esteem as the criterion emerged to be significant. Results of the simple regression analysis (Table-5) provided confirmation for the research hypothesis self-esteem among the sample is explained by resilient coping ($R^2 = .126$). The overall F statistic was 56.321, $p < .05$. Standardized beta weight was .354 for self-esteem from the sample.

Discussion and Conclusion

The main objective of the study was to find the relationship between resilient coping and self-esteem and to see if resilient coping predicts self-esteem. It also investigates if there are any gender differences on the measures of resilient coping and self-esteem.

Findings revealed positive relationship between resilient coping and self-esteem among Mizo Adults. Karatas & Cakar (2011) and Aliyev & Gengec (2019) have also observed similar findings in their studies. Therefore, we can say that when a person cope resiliently in adverse situations, it is more likely that he has a high sense of self-esteem. In other words, when an individual's self-esteem is high, he has better ability to deal resiliently in different circumstances. Both these psychological factors play crucial roles for each other.

Mizo male adults scored comparatively higher than females on both resilient coping and self-esteem. Ralte and Lalrochami (2019) also observed similar gender differences on self-esteem among Mizo population. Several studies have depicted similar findings as well (Kling et al., 1999; Robins et al., 2002; Zeigler-Hill & Myers, 2012).

The study also confirms that self-esteem of Mizo adults is significantly predicted by their resilient coping. Liu et al. (2021) and Li et al. (2020) also observed similar findings in their studies. An individual's well-being, quality of life and success are all influenced one way or another by how they resiliently cope with life's challenges and how a person evaluate his/her own worth. The present study has shed some light on understanding the resilient coping and self-esteem of Mizo adults. The findings of this study may be a useful reminder of the importance of catering and nurturing resilient coping and self-esteem in the Mizo population. It also helps us to understand how such psychological factors are associated to one another among Mizo adults.

Psychological factors like resilient coping and self-esteem, considered in the present study are important because they result in positive mental health and overall quality of life. Resilient coping tap into people's strengths and seek help from support systems to overcome challenges and work through problems. Resilient people utilize their resources, strengths, and skills to overcome challenges and work through setback eventually leading to positive mental health and success in life. Likewise, Self-esteem impacts decision-making process, relationships, emotional health, and overall well-being. It also influences motivation, as people with a healthy, positive view of themselves understand their potential and may feel inspired to take on new challenges further resulting to greater productivity and achievement in life.

The present study has focused only on a few variables, to yield better and more in-depth knowledge other psychological variables may be included.

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DEGREE : Doctor of Philosophy

DEPARTMENT : Psychology

TITLE OF THESIS : Gender Role Attitude in Relation to
Emotional Maturity, Resilient Coping and
Self-Esteem among Mizo Adults.

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ABSTRACT

**GENDER ROLE ATTITUDE IN RELATION TO EMOTIONAL
MATURITY, RESILIENT COPING AND SELF-ESTEEM AMONG
MIZO ADULTS**

**AN ABSTRACT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF
PHILOSOPHY**

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**DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

JULY, 2025

**GENDER ROLE ATTITUDES IN RELATION TO EMOTIONAL
MATURITY, RESILIENT COPING AND SELF-ESTEEM AMONG MIZO
ADULTS**

BY

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Submitted

**In partial fulfillment of the requirement of the Degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in Psychology of Mizoram University, Aizawl.**

Gender roles, as defined by the World Health Organization (2015), refer to the socially constructed roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes that society considers appropriate for men and women. These roles are not biologically fixed, but rather shaped by cultural, historical, and social contexts that assign specific expectations to individuals based on their sex. They influence not only outward behaviors such as dress codes, interests, or professional aspirations, but also deeply embedded psychological traits like emotional expression and self-perception (Kessler & McKenna, 1978; Lindsey, 2011). As social constructs, gender roles evolve within the framework of societal norms that vary across cultures and time periods, yet they consistently impact how individuals view themselves and others (Pleck, 1991).

From early childhood, people are exposed to implicit and explicit messages about what it means to be a boy or a girl. These gendered cues guide the formation of self-concept and identity, playing a crucial role in shaping how individuals come to understand their place in the world (West & Zimmerman, 1987). Gender roles go beyond mere behavioral prescriptions; they influence aspirations, emotional regulation, relationship patterns, and decision-making styles. As such, they are deeply interwoven with one's psychological development and sense of well-being. Over time, these social messages are internalized, forming the foundation upon which individuals construct their emotional responses, self-worth, and coping mechanisms in the face of adversity (Neculaesei, 2015; Mayer & Schmidt, 2004; Moore & Stuart, 2004).

The internalization of gender roles is suggested to have distinct psychological consequences for men and women. For men, the cultural emphasis on traits such as bravery, stoicism, and strength often leads to emotional suppression, under reporting of stress, and increased vulnerability to maladaptive coping strategies like substance use. Phrases like "boys don't cry" subtly reinforce the idea that emotional restraint is synonymous with masculinity, potentially heightening psychological distress and physical health risks. In contrast, women are often socialized into nurturing roles that value caregiving, patience, and self-sacrifice. While these qualities are socially rewarded, they

can contribute to chronic stress, emotional exhaustion, and diminished self-esteem, particularly when caregiving demands are unshared or undervalued (Day, 2016).

Beyond their influence on identity and behavior, gender roles significantly affect psychological aspects such as emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem. Traditional gender norms can either support or hinder emotional maturity depending on how closely they align with an individual's self-concept. Those who feel confined by rigid gender expectations may experience emotional distress and lower self-esteem, while others who find congruence between societal roles and their gender identity may demonstrate greater psychological stability (Courtenay, 2000). Gender roles also shape how individuals respond to stress and adversity. Men, often discouraged from emotional expression, may experience heightened stress and poorer regulation, whereas women, encouraged toward interpersonal support, may develop stronger social coping strategies but also bear disproportionate emotional burdens.

Emotional maturity, the capacity to manage emotions effectively and respond adaptively to social demands is believed to be a key predictor of openness to flexible gender roles (Thompson, 2019). Individuals with higher emotional maturity may be more receptive to egalitarian values, while those with lower maturity may cling to traditional roles as a source of stability (Luthar et al., 2020).

Similarly, resilient coping, the ability to adapt positively in the face of stress (Connor & Davidson, 2003) may influence gender role attitudes. High resilience can empower individuals to question societal norms and embrace gender equality, while lower resilience may lead to conformity with established roles as a form of psychological security (Bonanno, 2013). The influence of resilience on gender ideologies in socio-cultural contexts where tradition and modernity coexist, such as Mizo society, remains underexamined.

Self-esteem, reflecting one's overall sense of self-worth and confidence (Rosenberg, 1965), is also thought to correlate with gender role attitudes. Those with high self-esteem may challenge gender norms and favor egalitarianism due to their greater

autonomy and assertiveness (Twenge & Campbell, 2001). Conversely, individuals with lower self-esteem may align with traditional roles to maintain a sense of social acceptance. Yet, few studies have explored how these dynamics unfold within the Mizo cultural context.

Despite growing interest in these dynamics, the interplay between gender roles and psychological functioning remains underexplored within culturally distinct contexts such as the Mizo society. Most existing research tends to generalize across cultures, overlooking the unique nuances of gender role socialization in collectivistic communities. This study aims to bridge these gaps by examining how gender roles interact with emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem among Mizo adults. By contextualizing psychological constructs within a culturally grounded framework, the study seeks to deepen understanding of how gender ideologies shape, and are shaped by, individual psychological processes. In doing so, it contributes to a more nuanced, culturally informed perspective on gender role attitudes and their implications for mental health and well-being.

The present study explores the interplay between gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem, particularly within the culturally distinct context of Mizo society. These psychological constructs are essential for understanding how individuals adapt to societal expectations and navigate personal identity within the framework of gender and social environment. Firstly, gender role attitudes are examined in relation to emotional maturity: emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, and lack of independence, resilience and self-esteem. It offers a comprehensive view of the psychological dynamics shaping individual identity. Secondly, the study explores the independent effect of gender on psychological measures. Understanding how males and females differ in their attitudes toward gender roles, emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem sheds light on the gender-specific challenges individuals may face in a society that balances traditional and modern values. These gender-based analyses help identify the extent to which societal roles

reinforce or hinder psychological adaptation. Thirdly, the role of locality, rural versus urban is analyzed to assess how cultural exposure, access to resources, and community norms shape psychological variables. By evaluating the influence of locality, the study aims to map the socio-cultural factors that contribute to variations in gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem. Fourthly, the interaction between gender and locality is considered to uncover how these two contextual factors jointly influence gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem. Finally, the study seeks to identify the predictive relationships among the core psychological variables: gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping, and self-esteem. Exploring how these constructs influence one another provides a holistic perspective on the psychological mechanisms that underpin personal and social functioning.

A total of 300 Mizo adults participated in the study, comprising 150 males and 150 females, with equal representation from both urban and rural areas were included. The classification system provided by the Census of India (2011) was used to distinguish between rural and urban areas for the present study. Participants were selected using a multistage random sampling method to ensure a representative and geographically diverse sample of Mizo adults from both urban and rural settings across Mizoram. The age range of the participants was between 18 and 65 years.

Prior to data collection, informed consent was obtained from each individual, and their complete demographic information was recorded. The following psychological tools were administered: Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS; Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973), Emotional Maturity Scale (EMS; Singh & Bhargava, 1999), Brief Resilient Coping Scale (BRCS; Sinclair & Wallston, 2004), and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES; Rosenberg, 1965). The psychological measures and their subscales were carefully designed to ensure optimal psychometric properties. To ensure participants' understanding, the original English scales were translated into Mizo. A pilot study

confirmed that the translated versions were both appropriate and reliable for use in the current research.

The study incorporates a two-way classification of variables, 'gender' (male and female) and 'locality' (rural and urban) on the psychological measures of gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem. The independent and interaction effects of 'Gender' and 'Locality' on the behavioral measure with the demographic profiles were elucidated with the 2X2 (2 gender X 2 locality) factorial design where equal proportion of participants were included for evaluation on the psychological variables.

To achieve the study's objectives, data were analyzed using IBM SPSS (Version 22). The psychometric properties of each psychological scales including item-total correlations, inter-scale relationships, and internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) were evaluated to ensure measurement reliability within the sample.

Descriptive statistics were computed to assess demographic distribution and to examine the mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis of all scales and sub-scales. Bivariate correlations were conducted to explore relationships between demographic variables (gender and locality) and the psychological constructs.

Levene's test was used to assess homogeneity of variances, guiding the choice between parametric and non-parametric analyses. Two-Way ANOVA was applied to examine the independent and interaction effects of gender and locality on the psychological variables when assumptions were met. For variables violating parametric assumptions, non-parametric tests such as the Mann-Whitney U-test, Kruskal-Wallis One-Way ANOVA, and Steel-Dwass Test were employed.

Finally, Linear Regression and Stepwise Hierarchical Regression analyses were used to investigate the predictive relationships among the psychological measures. The assumptions of normality were verified through histograms of standardized residuals and normal P-P plots from the regression models.

Relationship between gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem

The first objective was to determine the pattern of relationship between the psychological variables of gender role attitudes, emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence), resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. The bivariate correlation matrix revealed significant positive relationships between gender, gender role attitudes, emotional instability, emotional regression, and social maladjustment. Additionally, locality was positively correlated with gender role attitudes, suggesting that participants' place of residence had an influence on their gender role views. These findings align with theories such as Social Role Theory (Eagly, 1987) and Gender Schema Theory (Bem, 1981), which suggest that internalized gender roles influence emotional expression and regulation. Research (Redlick, 2018) further indicates that traditional gender roles may reduce relational uncertainty, reflecting aspects of emotional maturity.

Gender role attitudes also showed significant positive correlations with the subscales of emotional maturity: emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, and personality disintegration. These findings suggest that individuals with higher levels of egalitarian gender role attitudes tended to report higher levels of emotional difficulties across these domains.

Furthermore, the subscales of emotional maturity were all significantly positively interrelated. Emotional instability was positively associated with emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, and lack of independence. Similarly, emotional regression correlated positively with social maladjustment, personality disintegration, and lack of independence. Social maladjustment also showed significant positive associations with personality disintegration and lack of independence, while personality disintegration was positively related to lack of independence.

Resilient coping, on the other hand, demonstrated significant negative correlations with emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment and personality disintegration, indicating that individuals with higher levels of coping abilities reported lower emotional difficulties. A significant positive relationship was also found between resilient coping and self-esteem, suggesting that individuals who coped well with stress had a higher level of self-esteem.

Similarly, self-esteem showed significant negative correlations with emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, and personality disintegration. These findings indicate that higher level of self-esteem is associated with better emotional adjustment and lower levels of emotional immaturity.

Effect of gender on gender role attitude, emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence), resilient coping and self- esteem

The second objective was to examine the independent effect of gender (male and female) on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. Two-Way ANOVA revealed a significant independent effect of gender on gender role attitudes with females demonstrating more egalitarian views, while males leaned towards traditional gender roles. Prior research (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Davis & Greenstein, 2009) supports this pattern, linking it to women's awareness of inequality and men's benefits from traditional roles.

The Two-Way ANOVA and Mann-Whitney U-test showed significant gender difference on emotional instability, emotional regression, and social maladjustment where females scored higher than males, suggesting that females have greater emotional challenges as compared to males. This contrasts with past research asserting female emotional maturity but aligns with theories like social learning and gender role expectations that explain why men may appear more emotionally stable due to social reinforcement (Eisenberg & Lennon, 1983; Nolen-Hoeksema, 2012). However, researchers like Levant and Pollack (1995) suggests that societal expectations encourage

men to suppress emotions, which can be perceived as emotional stability. However, no significant gender difference was found on personality disintegration and lack of independence, suggesting that these traits are more situational than gender-specific.

Two-Way ANOVA showed no significant gender difference on resilient coping, suggesting resilience is more related to individual experiences and communal support than biological sex. Both males and females seem equally capable of coping, albeit through different mechanisms. The findings align with previous studies (Masten, 2018; Tamres et al., 2002).

Mann-Whitney U-test also showed no significant gender difference on self-esteem. While minor differences may exist during adolescence, these tend to disappear in adulthood, finding was supported by Robins et al. (2002).

Effect of locality on gender role attitude, emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence), resilient coping and self- esteem

The third objective was to examine the independent effect of locality (rural and urban) on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. Two-Way ANOVA revealed a significant independent effect of locality on gender role attitudes, urban participants exhibited more egalitarian views, while rural participants held more traditional attitudes. This distinction reflects differences in lifestyle, exposure, values, and opportunities, with urban areas influenced by globalization, education, and media, whereas rural areas tend to uphold conventional roles reinforced by cultural and religious norms. This finding is consistent with prior studies by Gui (2019) and Uji et al. (2006).

The Two-Way ANOVA and Mann-Whitney U-test showed no significant independent effect of locality on emotional maturity. Emotional maturity appears to be shaped more by personal, familial, and cultural factors than geographical location. Cole (1954) and Baumrind (1991) emphasized that emotional maturity is shaped by personal and familial factors rather than geography.

Two-Way ANOVA showed no significant rural and urban difference on resilient coping, which is suggested to be due to shared community values, strong familial bonds, and cultural identity across rural and urban areas. Bonanno (2004) and Fitchen (1991) noted that individuals develop adaptive coping strategies regardless of rural or urban environments.

Mann-Whitney U-test showed also showed no significant locality-based differences on self-esteem, aligning with the view that self-esteem is more internally constructed than environmentally determined. Van den Berg et al. (2017) and Schmitt et al. (2008) also found self-esteem to be consistent across different locations.

Effects of ‘gender x locality’ on gender role attitude, emotional maturity (emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence), resilient coping and self- esteem

The fourth objective was to examine the interaction effects of ‘gender x locality’ on gender role attitude, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among the sample. The Two-Way ANOVA revealed no significant interaction effect of gender and locality. However, mean scores showed urban females had the most egalitarian attitudes, followed by rural females, urban males, and rural males. This suggests that education and exposure, especially among urban females, contribute to more progressive gender role attitudes. Previous research has shown that gender role attitudes often shift due to life changes such as parenthood and work experiences (Bolzendahl & Myers, 2004; Katz-Wise et al., 2010; Vespa, 2009).

Kruskal-Wallis H-test depicted significant interaction effects on emotional instability, with urban females showing the highest emotional instability, and rural males showing the lowest. Levant and Richmond (2007) observed that male in rural settings reduce pressure on men to conform to modern emotional norms, enhancing their emotional stability. No significant interaction effects were found for emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration and lack of independence.

Two-Way ANOVA found no significant interaction effects of gender and locality on resilient coping. Resilient coping appears to be influenced more by individual traits like flexibility and problem-solving than by gender or environment. Bonanno et al. (2011) found that regardless of the type of stress, urban pace or rural isolation, high-resilience individuals tend to use similar coping strategies. Tamres et al. (2002) noted gender differences in coping styles, but Southwick et al. (2014) emphasized that both male and female coping styles can be equally effective.

Kruskal-Wallis One-way ANOVA revealed no significant interaction effects of gender and locality on self-esteem. Bleidorn et al. (2016) also reported that while males reported slightly higher self-esteem than females, this gender gap did not have significant difference between urban and rural populations.

Predictive relationship between Gender Role Attitude, Emotional Maturity (Emotional Instability, Emotional Regression, Social Maladjustment, Personality Disintegration and Lack of Independence), Resilient Coping and Self-Esteem.

The fifth objective was to elucidate the predictive relationship between gender role attitudes, emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem among Mizo adults. Linear regression showed that gender role attitudes significantly predicted four subscales of emotional maturity: emotional instability, emotional regression, social maladjustment, and personality disintegration. Higher endorsement of egalitarian attitudes was associated with increased scores on these subscales, suggesting heightened emotional vulnerability. This may be due to the psychological strain experienced by individuals who adopt progressive beliefs in traditional societies like Mizoram, where rigid gender expectations persist (Eagly & Wood, 2012; Brody, 1999).

Gender socialization patterns may produce emotional conflict or distress when egalitarian values clash with societal norms (Festinger, 1957). This is especially true for women who face emotional overregulation pressures or for men who struggle with emotional suppression (Gross & Levenson, 1997; Nolen-Hoeksema, 2012). However, no

significant prediction was found for lack of independence, likely due to Mizo culture's emphasis on self-reliance across gender lines (Lalremruati, 2018).

Similarly, gender role attitudes did not significantly predict resilient coping and self-esteem. Resilience is suggested to be shaped more by context, personality, and social support than by gender ideology (Southwick et al., 2014; Ungar, 2011), while self-esteem may be linked to personal achievement and internal traits rather than gender beliefs (Orth & Robins, 2022; Bleidorn et al., 2016).

Stepwise hierarchical regression revealed that gender, locality, and emotional instability significantly predicted gender role attitudes. Gender emerged as the strongest predictor, with males scoring lower on egalitarian attitudes. Locality also played a key role, with urban participants displaying more progressive views, likely due to greater educational and social exposure (Inglehart & Norris, 2003). Emotional instability, though a weaker predictor, was also significant suggesting that emotionally sensitive individuals may reject traditional roles due to internal psychological tension or dissonance (Miller & Hom, 1997; Brody & Hall, 2008).

This was particularly relevant in Mizoram, where rigid gender roles may not align with the lived emotional realities of emotionally unstable individuals, leading them to adopt more egalitarian views as a means of emotional validation. This supports the view that emotional needs and personality traits, particularly neuroticism, influence ideological attitudes (Schmitt et al., 2008; Eagly & Wood, 2012).

In contrast, emotional regression, social maladjustment, personality disintegration, lack of independence, resilient coping, and self-esteem did not significantly predict gender role attitudes, highlighting that these psychological measures may not be directly tied to gender roles.

Implications, Suggestions and Limitations

The study offers important insights into how gender role attitudes influence emotional maturity, resilient coping and self-esteem, particularly within the cultural

context of Mizoram. One major implication is that gender role attitudes significantly predict emotional aspects such as emotional instability, emotional regression, and social maladjustment. This underscores the psychological impact of internalizing or challenging traditional gender norms, particularly in societies undergoing cultural shifts.

The study also emphasizes the role of sociocultural factors, urban participants, especially females, showed more egalitarian views while rural males remained more traditional. This suggests a need for culturally sensitive interventions that promote gender equality in alignment with community values. Additionally, gender differences in emotional functioning highlight the importance of targeted psychological support for women, especially urban females who face dual pressures from modern and traditional roles.

Interestingly, traditional gender role attitudes were associated with better emotional maturity in some cases, challenging the assumption that only egalitarian views are psychologically healthy. This indicates that clearly defined roles may offer emotional structure and stability for some individuals. Furthermore, the positive association between resilient coping and self-esteem underscores the value of resilience-building programs in promoting emotional well-being amid shifting gender expectations.

Despite these contributions, the study is limited by its reliance on self-report data, potential social desirability bias, and lack of extensive literature on the topic. Future research should explore more nuanced dimensions of gender roles (e.g., masculinity/femininity), and integrate variables like socioeconomic status, education, personality, and life experiences. Longitudinal studies are also recommended to track changes in gender attitudes over time. Finally, expanding research beyond Mizo adults would enhance generalizability and provide a broader understanding of these dynamics.

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