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PERSONALITY TRAITS AND LIFE SATISFACTION: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF COPING STYLES AMONG PAKISTANI UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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Abstract

This study investigated the mediating function of coping strategies in the association between university students' temperament, character traits, and life satisfaction. The study examined how coping behaviours, which in turn impact students' overall life satisfaction, are influenced by both adaptive and maladaptive personality traits. It was based on Cloninger's psychobiological model and the theory of subjective well-being. Data were gathered from 200 randomly chosen university students in Punjab, Pakistan, ages 18 to 25, using a cross-sectional design. Participants filled out validated Urdu versions of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS), the Brief COPE Inventory, and the Temperament and Character Inventory (TCI). Hayes' PROCESS macro (Model 4) was used to perform mediation, multiple linear regression, and Pearson correlation analyses. The findings showed that life satisfaction was positively predicted by adaptive traits like self-directedness, perseverance, and novelty seeking. On the other hand, it was negatively correlated with maladaptive traits such as reward dependence and harm avoidance. While passive coping significantly mediated the detrimental effects of harm avoidance, active coping mediated the relationship between novelty seeking, persistence, and life satisfaction. Significant variation in life satisfaction was explained by the overall mediation models (R^2 up to.42). These results highlight the intricate relationship that exists between coping mechanisms and dispositional traits in determining well-being. In order to support psychological resilience and improve life satisfaction among emerging adults, they highlight the significance of culturally sensitive interventions that encourage adaptive coping.

Keywords: Temperament, Character Traits, Coping Styles, Life Satisfaction, Mediation, Pakistani Students, Emerging Adulthood, Psychobiological Model

Introduction

A crucial measure of psychological health, life satisfaction captures people's overall assessment of their lives, going beyond fleeting joy (Pavot & Diener, 2008). It is associated with mental health, adaptive functioning, and emotional resilience (Suldo & Huebner, 2006; Diener et al., 2018). The majority of findings are from Western contexts, which limits their applicability to collectivist cultures like Pakistan, where cultural norms have a significant impact on emotional and coping processes, even though international research shows links between personality and coping (Steel et al., 2008).

According to Arnett (2000), university life is a period of intellectual, emotional, and identity

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development; however, it also entails psychological challenges (Bewick et al., 2010). Stressors like identity conflicts and academic pressure are common among students worldwide (Bayram & Bilgel, 2008; Stallman, 2010), and they are exacerbated in specific cultural contexts (Khawaja & Dempsey, 2008). Scholarly competition, family expectations, financial strain, and the stigma associated with mental health in Pakistan's collectivist society can all have a substantial impact on students' life satisfaction, a critical indicator of overall well-being (Diener et al., 2018; Pavot & Diener, 2008). Despite their significance, little is known about these factors in Pakistani university students.

Personality traits are significant markers of psychological well-being, claim Anglim, Horwood, Smillie, Marrero, and Wood (2020). A well-known framework for this analysis is provided by Cloninger's psychobiological model (Lee et al., 2024). It distinguishes between temperament, which is biologically based and includes traits like novelty seeking, harm avoidance, reward dependence, and persistence, and character, which is influenced by the environment and includes traits like self-directedness, cooperation, and self-transcendence (Svrakic et al., 2002; Josefsson et al., 2011). These elements work together to influence how people navigate life's challenges and pursue wellbeing.

Empirical research supports Cloninger's model, which links adaptive traits like self-direction, perseverance, cooperation, and novelty seeking to greater resilience and life satisfaction (Garcia, 2011; Josefsson et al., 2011). However, maladaptive traits such as high harm avoidance and excessive reward dependence are associated with emotional distress and lower well-being (Cloninger et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2019). Researchers emphasise the significance of examining the relationship between personality and outcomes, despite the fact that personality is a strong predictor of life satisfaction. Particularly in collectivist, non-Western contexts that have gotten little attention, coping styles have become recognised as potential mediators (Asif et al., 2025; Niaz & Shaheen, 2023; Strickhouser et al., 2017; Karim et al., 2020).

Coping strategies are behavioural and cognitive attempts to manage stress and are frequently divided into active and passive categories (Carver, 1997). Active coping strategies include problem-solving, support-seeking, and cognitive reframing to increase resilience (Ding, 2022). On the other hand, passive coping mechanisms such as avoidance, denial, and withdrawal usually worsen distress and lower life satisfaction (Dubey & Agarwal, 2020). Research indicates that personality traits predict coping styles; adaptive traits, such as self-directedness and persistence, are associated with active coping, while maladaptive traits, such as harm avoidance, are associated with passive coping (Connor-Smith & Flachsbart, 2007; Kim et al., 2019; Cloninger et al., 2010). By mediating the relationship between personality and life satisfaction, these coping strategies may help to explain how traits impact well-being (Penley & Tomaka, 2002; Strickhouser et al., 2017). While international studies support this mediating role (Ding, 2022; Javed et al., 2025; Mila et al., 2021), such models remain underexplored in Pakistani university contexts.

Culturally specific research on Pakistani university students, who deal with particular academic, familial, and societal stressors that influence personality and coping, is severely lacking. Concerns regarding cultural and contextual validity are raised by reliance on Western-developed tools. Research that examines the relationship between personality traits, coping mechanisms, and life satisfaction in this setting using validated, culturally appropriate measures is desperately needed. Since Pakistani university student's deal with particular mental health issues influenced by stigma, academic stress, and collectivist norms, closing this gap is crucial from a theoretical and practical standpoint. There are still few culturally appropriate interventions available, despite an increase in psychological distress. This study intends to identify important psychological pathways to inform culturally appropriate support strategies by investigating coping strategies as mediators between personality traits and life satisfaction for students (Garcia, 2011; Josefsson et al., 2011).

Based on Lazarus and Folkman's coping theory and Cloninger's personality model, this study puts forth a number of theories: While maladaptive traits like harm avoidance and excessive reward dependence will correlate negatively with life satisfaction, adaptive traits like novelty seeking, persistence, self-directedness, and cooperativeness will correlate positively; adaptive traits will predict active coping and lower passive coping, and the opposite will be true for maladaptive traits; coping styles will mediate the relationship between personality traits and life satisfaction; and demographic differences are expected across personality, coping, and life satisfaction variables.

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Examining the relationships between personality traits, coping strategies, temperament, and life satisfaction in Pakistani university students who face specific sociocultural pressures is the aim of this study. It also investigates whether coping strategies mediate the relationship between personality and well-being and looks at demographic differences across these variables (Strickhouser et al., 2017; Mila et al., 2021). The findings are meant to direct the development of culturally relevant mental health care for Pakistani college students. By expanding theoretical knowledge and offering practical insights, this study aims to enhance students' resilience, mental health, and life satisfaction in Pakistan's unique higher education context.

Method

This cross-sectional, correlational study investigated whether coping strategies mediate the relationship between Pakistani university students' temperament, character traits, and life satisfaction. Using Hayes' PROCESS macro (Model 4), mediation analyses were conducted with 5,000 bootstrap samples and 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals to test indirect effects, guided by Cloninger's personality model and Lazarus and Folkman's coping framework. Three standardised self-report measures were filled out by the participants: the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 2008), the Brief COPE Inventory (Carver, 1997), and the Temperament and Character Inventory (Cloninger et al., 1993). The primary instructional language, English, was used to administer all of the instruments, with brief explanations in Urdu offered when necessary for understanding.

Participants

Participants were 18–25-year-old university students presently enrolled in undergraduate or graduate courses at Pakistani universities. This age range was chosen to include people in the emerging adult developmental stage, which is characterised by identity formation, academic pressure, and changing coping mechanisms pertinent to the study's subject. To take part in the study, each participant had to give their informed consent. Those under the age of 18 or over 25, those not officially enrolled in a university degree program, and those who refused or were unable to give informed consent were among the exclusion criteria. To ensure the validity and consistency of the data, students with known mental illnesses or cognitive disabilities that might affect their ability to complete the questionnaire were also not included.

In order to guarantee a varied representation of the student body, 200 university students from four different universities were chosen as participants using convenience sampling. Assuming medium effect sizes and statistical power of 0.80, the final sample size of 200 students satisfies the minimum sample size requirements for mediation analysis using Hayes' PROCESS macro (Fritz & MacKinnon, 2007).

Table 1

Demographics Characteristics of the Sample (N=200)

Variables		n	%
Age in years	18-21	129	64.5
	22-25	71	35.5
Gender	Male	118	59.0
	Female	82	41.0
University	GIFT	61	30.5
	IISAT	58	29.0
	TMUC	33	16.5
	UCP	48	24.0

Note. n = frequency of sample, % = percentage GIFT=Gujranwala Institute of Future Technologies, IISAT= International Institute of Science, Arts and Technology, TMUC= The Millennium Universal College, UCP= The Millennium Universal College.

Research Instruments

In order to ensure semantic and conceptual equivalency, participants completed standardised self-report measures measuring personality traits, coping strategies, and life satisfaction. These measures were all given in Urdu using Brislin's (1970) translation–back–translation method. All scales displayed acceptable internal consistency, and validated versions that had previously been used with Pakistani students were used.

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The Temperament and Character Inventory (TCI). The Inventory of Temperament and Character In addition to measuring three character traits (self-directedness (SD), cooperativeness (CO), and self-transcendence (ST), the 125-item Urdu TCI (Cloninger et al., 1993; modified by Ahmad & Irfan, 2023) assesses four temperament traits: novelty seeking (NS), harm avoidance (HA), reward dependence (RD), and persistence (PS). Items are rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = false to 5 = Definitely true). A sample item is: "I often try new things just for fun or thrills." Cronbach's alpha values ranged from .76 to .89 across subscales.

The Brief COPE Inventory.

14 coping strategies are evaluated by the Brief COPE (Carver, 1997), a 28-item scale that is divided into active (like planning and positive reframing) and passive (like denial, disengagement, and self-blame) coping strategies. A 4-point Likert scale is used to rate the responses (1 being not at all and 4 being a lot). Examples are "I have been giving up trying to deal with it" (passive) and "I have been trying to see it in a different light" (active). Ahmad and Irfan's (2023) Urdu version showed good reliability (α =.80 for passive coping and α =.78 for active coping).

The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS).

The 5-item Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 2008) uses a 7-point Likert scale to rate respondents' overall life satisfaction (1 being strongly disagree and 7 being strongly agree). "My life is close to my ideal in most ways" is an example item. When tested on samples from Pakistan, the Urdu version demonstrated a high level of internal consistency (α =.85).

Procedure

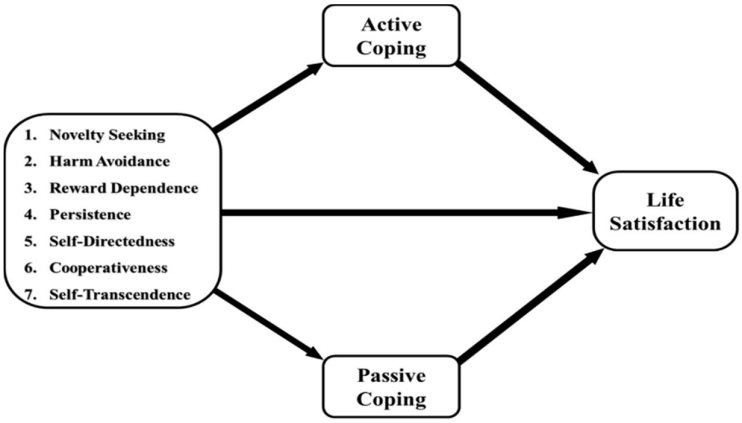
To investigate the connections between Pakistani university students' temperament, character traits, coping mechanisms, and life satisfaction, a cross-sectional survey was carried out. Participants between the ages of 18 and 25 were chosen through stratified convenience sampling from four Punjabi universities, guaranteeing academic and gender diversity. The Institutional Review Board granted ethical approval, and all participants gave their informed consent in accordance with ethical research guidelines. The Temperament and Character Inventory, the Brief COPE Inventory, and the Satisfaction with Life Scale were administered in person in English, with minor verbal clarifications in Urdu when necessary, in order to gather data. Using a set order for all instruments, surveys were finished in 20 to 25 minutes in classrooms under the guidance of trained personnel.

Proposed Model

According to Cloninger's psychobiological framework, the suggested model demonstrates how coping styles, both active and passive coping, mediate the relationship between life satisfaction and temperament and character traits. Theoretically, people's choice and efficacy of coping mechanisms are influenced by their temperament and character traits, specifically novelty seeking, harm avoidance, reward dependence, persistence, self-directedness, cooperativeness, and self-transcendence. Overall life satisfaction is then greatly impacted by these coping mechanisms.

Figure 1

Proposed Mediation Model Linking Temperament and Character Traits to Life Satisfaction via Active and Passive Coping Styles



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The proposed mediation model illustrates the direct effects of temperament and character traits on life satisfaction, as well as the indirect effects through active and passive coping styles.

Data Analysis

IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 26) was used for all statistical analyses. To guarantee the validity of ensuing analyses, the dataset was examined for missing values, univariate outliers, and violations of normality assumptions prior to hypothesis testing. Descriptive statistics like means, standard deviations, and frequencies were calculated for each study variable. Each scale and subscale's internal consistency reliability was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. Pearson's correlation coefficients were used to assess the bivariate relationships among temperament traits, character traits, coping strategies, and life satisfaction. The suggested mediation models were tested using 5,000 bootstrap resamples, bias-corrected 95% CIs, and Hayes' PROCESS macro (Model 4). Because Model 4 is suitable for testing simple mediation effects and aligns with the study's theoretical framework, it was selected. Active and passive coping styles were separately entered as mediators between personality traits and life satisfaction in separate mediation models that were tested for each temperament and character trait. Assumptions of linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity were assessed prior to conducting regression analyses to ensure the model's appropriateness.

Results

All scales showed satisfactory internal consistency, according to reliability analyses and descriptive statistics. Adaptive traits, novelty seeking, persistence, self-directedness, cooperativeness, and life satisfaction were all positively correlated with active coping, according to Pearson correlations. In contrast to adaptive traits and life satisfaction, passive coping was negatively connected with harm avoidance. The results of multiple linear regression showed that life satisfaction was significantly predicted by novelty seeking ($\beta = .44$, $p < .001$), harm avoidance ($\beta = -.42$, $p < .001$), and self-directedness ($\beta = .22$, $p = .02$). The associations between reward dependence and life satisfaction, as well as between novelty seeking and life satisfaction, were partially mediated by active coping, according to mediation analyses conducted using Hayes' PROCESS macro (Model 4). However, mediation was not supported for harm avoidance or persistence. Passive coping did not significantly mediate any trait–life satisfaction associations. These findings support both the direct and partial indirect effects of temperament and character traits on life satisfaction, as they influence coping styles.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics and Reliability of Study Measures (N = 200)

Variable	M	SD	Range	Cronbach Alpha
SWLS	22.08	6.9	5-35	.82
COPE Inventory	66.94	9.6	46-108	.71
Actcop	45.8	6.9	22-72	.82
Pascop	23.8	4.3	14-40	.72
NS	27.1	6.9	9-45	.70
HA	18.1	6.0	7-32	.72
RD	21.8	3.4	7-35	.72
PS	22.71	5.83	7-35	.71
SD	30.30	7.78	11-42	.70
COP	29.21	7.71	10-45	.72
ST	23.61	6.68	8-38	.71

Note. M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; α = Cronbach's alpha. Actcop = Active Coping; Pascop = Passive Coping; NS = Novelty Seeking; HA = Harm Avoidance; RD = Reward Dependence; PS =persistence; SD = Self-Directedness; COP = Cooperativeness; ST = Self-Transcendence.

The descriptive and psychometric characteristics of the important study constructs are compiled in Table 1. With a moderate mean score ($M = 22.08$, $SD = 6.98$) and high internal consistency ($\alpha = .815$), the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) assessed the sample's overall level of life satisfaction. The two subscales of the COPE Inventory, Active Coping ($M = 44.20$, $\alpha = .818$) and Passive Coping ($M = 25.09$, $\alpha = .727$), showed strong reliability, and the overall mean was 66.94 ($SD = 9.58$). Additionally, the Temperament and Character Inventory (TCI) and its subscales showed acceptable to high internal consistency (αs ranging from.700 to.826).

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These reliability coefficients validate the robustness of the data for ensuing inferential analyses and support the psychometric soundness of the Urdu-adapted instruments used in the current study.

Table 3

Pearson Correlations Among Temperament, Character, Coping Styles, and Life Satisfaction (N = 200)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Actcop	-	-.21**	.36**	-.08	-.34**	.39**	.46**	.52**	.53**	.42**
Pascop		-	-.11	.23**	.24**	-.16*	-.59**	-.56**	-.52**	-.37**
NS			-	-.15*	-.43**	.48**	.29**	.24**	.22**	.48**
HA				-	.24**	.04	-.23**	-.086	-.08	-.40**
RD					-	-.39**	-.43**	-.32**	-.33**	-.65**
PS						-	.33**	.41**	.41**	.48**
SD							-	.64**	.59**	.62**
COP								-	.78**	.46**
ST									-	.45**
SWLS										-

Note. p < .05 (*), p < .01 (**). Actcop = Active Coping; Pascop = Passive Coping; NS = Novelty Seeking; HA = Harm Avoidance; RD = Reward Dependence; PS = Persistence; SD = Self-Directedness; COP = Cooperativeness; ST = Self-Transcendence; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

The Pearson correlation matrix for the research variables is shown in Table 3. Active coping was positively connected with life satisfaction and adaptive traits like self-directedness and cooperativeness, as predicted and consistent with Cloninger's psychobiological model, indicating that it contributes to wellbeing. The fact that passive coping showed negative correlations with these adaptive traits and life satisfaction but positive correlations with maladaptive traits like reward dependence and harm avoidance underscored its dysfunctional nature. Of all the traits, self-directedness had the strongest positive correlation with life satisfaction, while harm avoidance had the most detrimental effect. Although these results are consistent with theory, the cross-sectional design restricts the ability to draw conclusions about causality, and the use of self-report tools may introduce common method bias, which could inflate observed associations. Temperament and character traits have a significant predictive value for life satisfaction. Specifically, adaptive traits (e.g., novelty seeking, persistence, self-directedness, cooperativeness, self-transcendence) will positively predict life satisfaction, whereas maladaptive traits (e.g., harm avoidance, reward dependence) will negatively predict life satisfaction.

Table 4

Multiple Regression Predicting Life Satisfaction from Personality Traits

			95%CI		
Variable	**Estimate**	**SE**	**LL**	**UL**	**P**
Constant	2.5	6.0	-9.3	14.4	<.67
NS	.44	.06	.32	.56	<.001
HA	-.42	.07	-.56	-.28	<.001
RD	.21	.12	-.03	.44	<.08
PS	.05	.10	-.15	.24	<.66
SD	.22	.09	.04	.39	<.02
COP	.05	.09	-.15	.24	<.64
ST	.05	.10	-.15	.25	<.62

Note. Novelty Seeking (NS), Harm Avoidance (HA), and Self-Directedness (SD) emerged as significant predictors, while Reward Dependence (RD), Persistence (PS), Cooperativeness (COP), and Self-Transcendence (ST)

A multiple linear regression analysis revealed that temperament and character traits significantly predicted life satisfaction, accounting for 37% of its variance. Novelty Seeking (B = .44, p < .001), Harm Avoidance (B = –.42, p < .001), and Self-Directedness (B = .22, p < .02) were significant predictors, with NS

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and SD positively, and HA negatively, associated with life satisfaction. RD, PS, COP, and ST were non-significant.

Table 5

Multiple linear regression of study variables (N=200)

			95%CI		
Variable	**Estimate**	**SE**	**LL**	**UL**	**p**
Constant	18.58	3.66	11.36	25.80	<.001
Actcop	0.30	.078	-.124	.18	<.699
Pascop	0.08	.127	-.162	.34	<.488

Note. This table presents the results of a multiple linear regression analysis examining the effects of active and passive coping on life satisfaction.

A simultaneous multiple regression assessed whether active coping and passive coping predicted life satisfaction. The overall model was not significant, F (2, 197) = 0.50, p = .61, accounting for only 0.5% of the variance in life satisfaction (R^2 = 0.005). Active coping did not emerge as a significant predictor, B = 0.30, SE = 0.08, 95% CI [–0.12, 0.18], p = .699, nor did passive coping, B = 0.08, SE = 0.13, 95% CI [–0.16, 0.34], p = .488. Thus, when entered simultaneously in the model, neither coping style contributed meaningfully to students' life satisfaction scores.

Hypothesis: It was hypothesized that active coping would mediate the relationship between novelty seeking and life satisfaction, such that higher levels of novelty seeking would predict greater use of active coping strategies, which in turn would be associated with higher life satisfaction.

Table 6

Active Coping as Mediator Between Novelty Seeking and Life Satisfaction

		M (Active Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		44.2	1.65	.000	–		13.85	3.13	.000	–
IV (NS)	a	0.52	0.71	.464	0.52	c'	.471	0.06	.000	.47
M(Actcop)		–	–	–		b	.063	.006	.310	.64
			R^2 = .003					R^2 = .223		
			F (1,198) = .537, p=.464					F (2, 197) =29.70, p=.000		

Note. IV = Independent variable; DV = Dependent variable; NS = Novelty Seeking; Actcop = Active Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

Table 6 presents the results of a mediation analysis examining whether active coping mediates the relationship between Novelty Seeking (NS) and life satisfaction. The path from NS to active coping was not significant, B = 0.52, SE = 0.71, p = .464, indicating that NS did not significantly predict active coping. However, NS was a significant direct predictor of life satisfaction, B = 0.471, SE = 0.06, p < .001, even when active coping was included in the model. Active coping significantly predicted life satisfaction, B = 0.063, SE = 0.006, p < .001. Despite this, the indirect effect was not supported, as the overall mediation model did not reveal a significant indirect pathway (R^2 = 0.003, F (1, 198) = 0.537, p = 0.464), suggesting that active coping does not mediate the association between NS and life satisfaction.

Results of Passive Coping

Hypothesis: Passive coping mediates the relationship between Novelty Seeking (NS) and life satisfaction, such that higher NS predicts greater use of passive coping, which in turn influences life satisfaction.

Table 7

Passive Coping as Mediator Between Novelty Seeking and Life Satisfaction

		M (Passive Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		22.89	1.02	.000	–		23.79	1.93	.000	–
IV(NS)	a	.043	.044	.329	.069	c'	-.033	.044	.456	-.053

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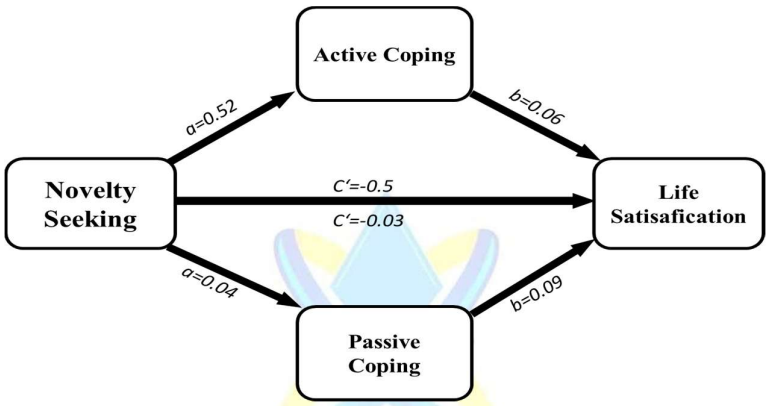
M(Pascop)	–	–	–	–	b	.098	.071	.170	.098
		R²=.005					R²=.012		
		F (1,198) =.958, p=.329					F (2, 197) =1.162, p=.315		

Note. NS = Novelty Seeking; Pascop = Passive Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

Table 7 reports a mediation analysis testing whether passive coping mediates the relationship between Novelty Seeking (NS) and life satisfaction. NS did not significantly predict passive coping (B = 0.043, p = .329), and passive coping did not significantly predict life satisfaction (B = 0.098, p = .170). The direct effect of NS on life satisfaction was also non-significant (B = –0.033, p = .456). Model variance was minimal for both the mediator (R^2 = .005, p = .329) and these outcome (R^2 = .012, p = .315). As shown in Figure 2, neither active nor passive coping mediated the relationship between NS and life satisfaction.

Figure 2

Mediation Model Showing the Indirect Effect of Novelty Seeking on Life Satisfaction Through Active and Passive Coping



Note. This figure illustrates the parallel mediation model, showing that neither active nor passive coping significantly mediates the relationship between Novelty Seeking and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis: Active coping mediates the relationship between Harm Avoidance (HA) and life satisfaction, such that higher HA is associated with lower use of active coping, which in turn is linked to lower life satisfaction.

Table 8

Active Coping as Mediator Between Harm Avoidance and Life Satisfaction

		M (Active Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		44.72	1.65	.001	–		20.34	2.78	.001	
IV (HA)	a	0.05	0.07	.464	0.52	c'	-0.35	0.06	.001	-0.41
M(Actcop)		–	–	–		b	0.12	0.06	.030	0.14
				R²=.003				R²=.183		
				F (1, 198) = 0.54, p = .464				F (2, 197) = 21.98, p =.001		

Note. HA = Harm Avoidance; Actcop = Active Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

As shown in Table 7, harm avoidance remained a significant negative predictor of life satisfaction, *B* = –0.35, *SE* = 0.06, *p* < .001, β = –.41 (direct path *c'*). In contrast, harm avoidance did not predict active coping, *B* = 0.05, *SE* = 0.07, *p* = .464, β = .05 (path *a*). Active coping made a modest positive contribution to life satisfaction after controlling for harm avoidance, *with a beta coefficient of 0.14 (path b), B = 0.12, SE = 0.06, p = .030*. Because the path was non-significant and the bootstrapped indirect effect was trivial (B ≈ 0.006, 95% CI [–0.015, 0.032]), active coping did not mediate the relationship between harm avoidance and life satisfaction. The full model explained 18% of the variance in life satisfaction, R^2 = .18, F(2, 196) = 21.98, *p* < .001.

Hypothesis: It was hypothesized that passive coping would mediate the relationship between harm avoidance and life satisfaction, such that higher levels of harm avoidance would be associated with greater

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use of passive coping strategies, which in turn would predict lower life satisfaction.

Table 9

Passive Coping as Mediator Between Harm Avoidance and Life Satisfaction

		M (Passive Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	SE	P	β		B	SE	P	β
Constant		22.9	1.02	.000	–		21.8	2.4	.000	–
IV (HA)	a	.043	.044	.329	.096	c’	-0.36	.06	.000	-.413
M(Pascop)		–	–	–	–	b	0.171	.09	.59	.123
			R^2=.005					R^2=.179		
			F (1,198) =.958, p=.329					F (2,197) =21.47, p=.000		

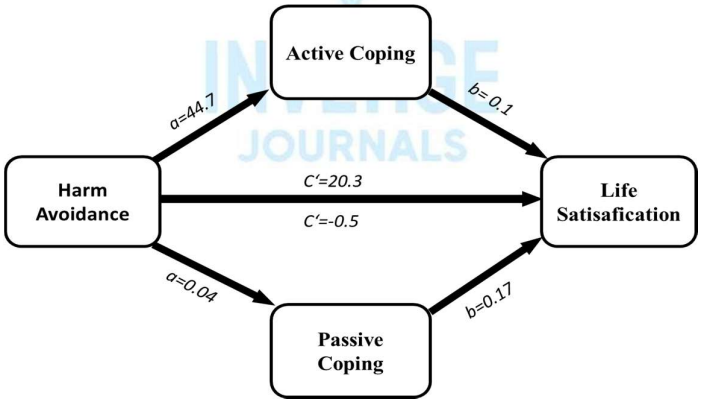
Note. HA = Harm Avoidance; Pascop = Passive Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

Table 8 presents the results of the mediation analysis, which evaluates whether passive coping mediates the relationship between harm avoidance (HA) and life satisfaction. The path from HA to passive coping was not statistically significant, $B = 0.043$, $SE = 0.044$, $p = .329$, β = .096. However, the direct effect of HA on life satisfaction was statistically significant, $B = –0.356$, $SE = 0.056$, $p < .001$, β = –.413. The path from passive coping to life satisfaction was also statistically significant, $B = 0.171$, $SE = 0.090$, $p = .059$, β = .123, but marginal in significance. These findings suggest that passive coping does not mediate the relationship between HA and life satisfaction, although the direct effect of HA is significant and negative. The overall model for predicting life satisfaction was significant ($R^2 = 0.179$, F(2, 197) = 21.47, p < 0.001), whereas the model predicting passive coping from HA was not ($R^2 = 0.005$, F(1, 198) = 0.958, p = 0.329).

As illustrated in Figure 3 and detailed in Table 9, the mediation analyses reveal that while active coping partially mediates the relationship between harm avoidance and life satisfaction, passive coping does not exhibit a significant mediating role.

Figure 3

Mediation Model Depicting the Association Between Harm Avoidance and Life Satisfaction Through Active and Passive Coping



Note. This figure illustrates the parallel mediation model showing that neither active nor passive coping significantly mediated the relationship between Harm Avoidance and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis: It was hypothesised that active coping would mediate the relationship between Reward Dependence (RD) and life satisfaction. Specifically, higher levels of RD were expected to predict greater use of active coping strategies, which in turn would be associated with increased life satisfaction.

Table 10

Active Coping as Mediator Between Reward Dependence and Life Satisfaction

		M (Active Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	SE	P	β		B	SE	P	β
Constant		44.71	1.65	.000	–		25.21	1.75	.000	—
IV (RD)	a	0.05	0.07	.464	.052	c’	0.003	0.03	.934	0.06

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M(Actcop)	–	–	–	–	b	-0.075	0.03	.003	-0.152
		R^2 = .003					R^2=.023		
		F (1,198) =0.54, p=.464					F (2, 197) = 2.32, p=.101		

Note. RD = Reward Dependence; Actcop = Active Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

As displayed in Table 8, reward dependence did not predict active coping, B = 0.05, SE = 0.07, p = .464, β = .05 (path *a*), nor did it show a significant direct association with life satisfaction after controlling for the mediator, B = 0.003, SE = 0.03, p = .934, β = .06 (path *c′*). Although active coping was a modest negative predictor of life satisfaction, B = –0.075, SE = 0.03, p = .003, β = –.15 (path *b*), the indirect effect of reward dependence on life satisfaction via active coping was not significant (bootstrapped 95 % CI encompassed zero), and the overall model accounted for only 2.3 % of the variance in life satisfaction, R^2 = .02, F (2, 196) = 2.32, p = .101. Thus, consistent with the null hypothesis, active coping does not mediate the relationship between reward dependence and life satisfaction in this sample.

Hypothesis: Passive coping mediates the relationship between Reward Dependence (RD) and life satisfaction, such that higher RD predicts greater use of passive coping strategies, which in turn affects life satisfaction.

Table 11

Passive Coping as Mediator Between Reward Dependence and Life Satisfaction

		M (Passive Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		22.89	1.11	.001			19.99	1.52	.001	
IV(RD)	a	.04	.044	.33	.069	c’	-.004	0.04	.912	-.008
M(Pascop)		-	-	-		b	.08	0.06	.151	.102
				R^2=.005					R^2=.010	
				F (1,198) =0.96, p=.329					F (2,197) =1.04, p=.356	

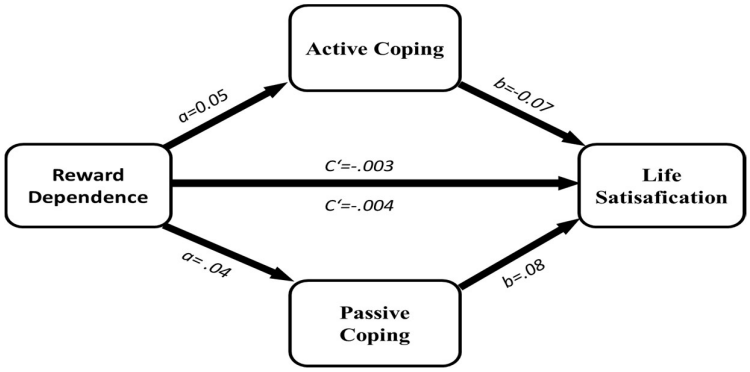
Note. RD = Reward Dependence; Pascop = Passive Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

As shown in Table 11, reward dependence did not predict passive coping, B = 0.04, SE = 0.04, p = .33, β = .07 (path *a*), nor did it exhibit a direct association with life satisfaction after the mediator was entered, B = –0.004, SE = 0.04, p = .912, β = –.01 (path *c′*). Passive coping was likewise unrelated to life satisfaction, B = 0.08, SE = 0.06, p = .151, β = .10 (path *b*). With non-significant *a* and *b* paths and a bootstrapped indirect effect whose 95 % confidence interval included zero (not shown), the mediation hypothesis was unsupported; the overall model accounted for a negligible proportion of variance in life satisfaction, R^2 = .01, F (2, 197) = 1.04, p = .356.

As shown in Table 11 and visually modelled in Figure 4, the proposed mediation framework examines the relationship between reward dependence and life satisfaction through active and passive coping, highlighting the absence of significant indirect effects.

Figure 4

Mediation Model Depicting the Influence of Reward Dependence on Life Satisfaction Through Active and Passive Coping



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Note. This figure illustrates the parallel mediation model showing that neither active nor passive coping significantly mediated the relationship between Reward Dependence and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis: It was hypothesized that active coping would mediate the relationship between Persistence (PS) and life satisfaction, such that higher levels of persistence would predict greater use of active coping strategies, which in turn would enhance life satisfaction.

Table 12

Active Coping as Mediator Between Persistence and Life Satisfaction

		M (Active Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		44.71	1.65	.001	–		19.53	2.28	.001	–
IV (PS)	a	.052	.071	.464	.052	c’	.011	.045	.806	.02
		–	–	–	–	b	.072	.045	.115	.113
M(Actcop)		R^2=.003					R^2=.013			
		F (1, 198) =0.54, p=.464					F (2, 197) =1.31, p=.272			

Note. PS = Persistence; Actcop = Active Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

In the mediation model (*PROCESS* Model 4), persistence (IV) did not predict active coping, $B = 0.05$, $SE = 0.07$, $p = .464$, β = .05 (path *a*), nor did it show a significant direct association with life satisfaction when the mediator was included, $B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .806$, β = .02 (path *c′*). Active coping also failed to predict life satisfaction, $B = 0.07$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .115$, β = .11 (path *b*). The overall model was not significant, *with $R^2 = 0.01$, $F (2, 196) = 1.31$, $p = 0.272$. Additionally, a bootstrapped indirect effect of persistence on life satisfaction via active coping was non-significant (95%* CI included zero). Thus, active coping does not mediate the relationship between persistence and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis: It was hypothesised that passive coping would mediate the relationship between Persistence (PS) and life satisfaction, such that higher persistence would predict greater use of passive coping strategies, which in turn would be associated with higher life satisfaction.

Table 13

Passive Coping as Mediator Between Persistence and Life Satisfaction

		M (Passive Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		22.89	1.10	.001	–		17.71	1.95	.001	–
IV (PS)	a	.04	.04	.32	.06	c’	.007	.04	.869	.012
M(Pascop)		–	–	–	–	b	0.21	.072	.005	.19
		R^2=.005					R^2=.040			
		F (1,198) =0.96, p=.329					F (2,197) =4.08, p=.018			

Note. PS = Persistence; Pascop = Passive Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

In the mediation model (*PROCESS* Model 4) with persistence as the predictor, passive coping as the mediator, and life satisfaction as the outcome, the path from persistence to passive coping was non-significant, $B = 0.04$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .32$, β = .06 (path *a*). Persistence also showed no direct association with life satisfaction after accounting for the mediator, $B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .89$, β ≈ .01 (path *c′*). Passive coping, however, was a significant positive predictor of life satisfaction, $B = 0.21$, $SE = 0.07$, $p = .005$, β = .19 (path *b*). The indirect effect of persistence on life satisfaction through passive coping was not significant (bootstrapped 95% CI included zero), and the overall model explained only 4% of the variance in life satisfaction, $R^2 = 0.04$, $F (2, 197) = 4.08$, $p = 0.018$. Accordingly, passive coping does not mediate the relationship between persistence and life satisfaction. As shown in Table 13 and visually represented in Figure 6, the parallel mediation model suggests that while persistence does not significantly predict either active or passive coping, passive coping makes an independent contribution to life satisfaction.

Figure 6

Mediation Model Depicting the Influence of Persistence on Life Satisfaction Through Active and Passive Coping

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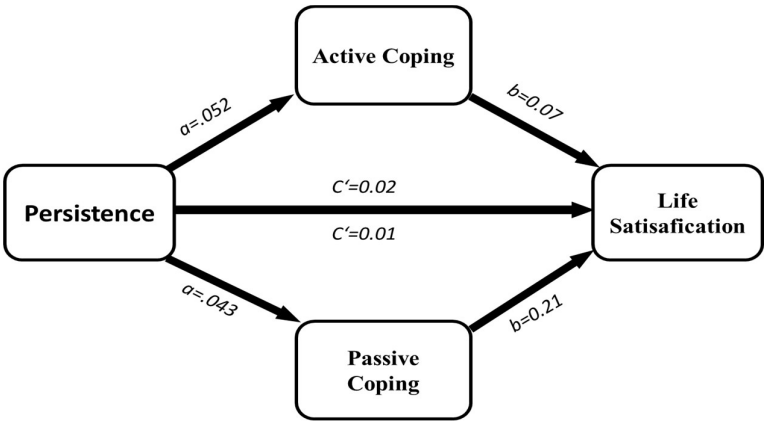

Note. This figure shows that passive coping partially mediated the relationship between Persistence and life satisfaction, whereas active coping did not.

Hypothesis: It was hypothesised that active coping would mediate the relationship between Self-Directedness (SD) and life satisfaction, such that higher levels of SD would predict greater use of active coping strategies, which in turn would be associated with higher life satisfaction.

Table 14

Active Coping as Mediator Between Self-Directedness and Life Satisfaction

		M (Active Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		44.71	1.65	.001	–		33.43	2.31	.001	–
IV (SD)	a	.052	.071	.464	.052	c'	.094	.046	.042	.144
M(Actcop)		–	–	–	–	b	-.07	0.05	.145	-1.10
			R^2=.003					R^2=.030		
			F (1, 198) =0.54, p=.464					F (2, 197) =3.01, p=.051		

Note. SD = Self-Directedness; Actcop = Active Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

In the mediation model (*PROCESS* Model 4), self-directedness did not predict active coping, $B = 0.05$, $SE = 0.07$, $p = .464$, β = .05 (path *a*), and active coping was unrelated to life satisfaction, $B = –0.07$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .145$, β = –.11 (path *b*). Nevertheless, the direct effect of self-directedness on life satisfaction remained significant, $B = 0.09$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .042$, β = .14 (path *c'*). The model accounted for 3% of the variance in life satisfaction, $R^2 = .03$, F (2, 196) = 3.01, p = .051, and the bootstrapped indirect effect via active coping was non-significant (95% CI encompassed zero). Thus, active coping does not mediate the relationship between self-directedness and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis: Passive coping will mediate the relationship between self-directedness and life satisfaction, such that higher self-directedness will predict lower passive coping, which in turn will predict higher life satisfaction.

Table 15

Passive Coping as Mediator Between Self-Directedness and Life Satisfaction

		M (Passive Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		22.89	1.10	.001	–		30.1	2.02	.001	–
IV (SD)	a	.043	.044	.329	.069	c'	.091	.046	.050	.140
M(Pascop)		–	–	–	–	b	-.017	.075	.820	-.016
			R^2=.005					R^2=.019		
			F (1,198) =0.96, p=.329					F (2,197) =1.95, p=.145		

Note. SD = Self-Directedness; Pascop = Passive Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

Self-directedness did not predict passive coping, $B = 0.04$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .329$, β = .07 (path *a*), and passive coping was unrelated to life satisfaction, $B = –0.02$, $SE = 0.08$, $p = .820$, β = –.02 (path *b*). The direct path from self-directedness to life satisfaction remained marginally significant, $B = 0.09$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .050$,

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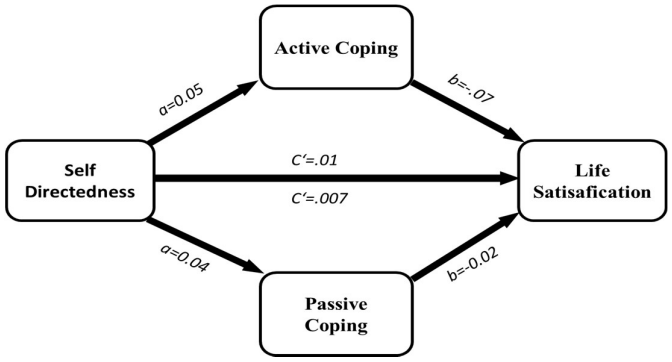
β = .14 (path *c′*). The overall model accounted for only 2% of the variance in life satisfaction, R^2 = .02, F(2, 197) = 1.95, p = .145; the bootstrapped indirect effect via passive coping was non-significant (95% CI encompassed zero). Thus, passive coping does not mediate the relationship between self-directedness and life satisfaction.

Figure 7

Mediation Model Depicting the Influence of Self-Directedness on Life Satisfaction Through Active and Passive Coping



Note. Neither active nor passive coping mediated the relationship between self-directedness and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis: Active coping mediates the relationship between Cooperativeness and life satisfaction among Pakistani university students.

Table 16

Active Coping as Mediator Between Cooperativeness and Life Satisfaction

		M (Active Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		44.72	1.65	.001	–		30.3	2.2	.001	–
IV (COP)	a	.052	.071	.464	.052	c’	-.056	.044	.202	-0.09
M(Actcop)		–	–	–	–	b	0.52	.044	.234	.08
			R^2=.003					R^2=.015		
			F (1,198) =0.54, p=.464					F (2, 197) =1.46d, p=.236		

Note. COP = Cooperativeness; Actcop = Active Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

The mediation analysis (PROCESS Model 4) indicated that Cooperativeness was unrelated to active coping, *B* = 0.05, *SE* = 0.07, *p* = .464, β = .05 (path *a*), and active coping did not predict life satisfaction, *B* = 0.05, *SE* = 0.04, *p* = .234, β = .09 (path *b*). The direct effect of Cooperativeness on life satisfaction was also nonsignificant, *B* = –0.06, *SE* = 0.04, *p* = .202, β = –.09 (path *c′*). With an overall model that explained only 1.5% of the variance in life satisfaction (R^2 = .02, F(2, 196) ≈ 1.46, p = .236), and a bootstrapped indirect effect whose 95% confidence interval contained zero, active coping does not mediate the relationship between Cooperativeness and life satisfaction. These results suggest that active coping does not mediate the relationship between general coping and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis: Passive coping will mediate the relationship between cooperativeness and life satisfaction among Pakistani university students. Specifically, higher levels of cooperativeness are expected to predict lower engagement in passive coping strategies, which in turn will be associated with greater life satisfaction.

Table 17

Passive Coping as Mediator Between Cooperativeness and Life Satisfaction

		M (Passive Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		22.89	1.02	.001	–		31.85	1.92	.001	–
IV (COP)	a	.043	.044	.329	.069	c’	-.05	.044	.216	-.08
M(Pascop)		–	–	–	–	b	.033	.071	.648	.033

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	R^2=.005 F (1,198) =0.96, p=.329	R^2=.008 F (2,197) =0.84, p=.433

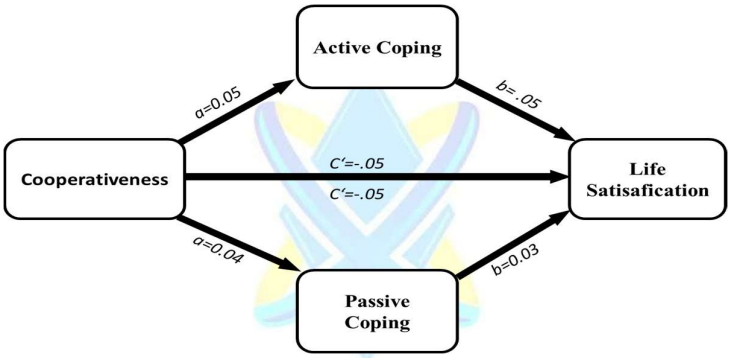
Note. COP = Cooperativeness; Pascop = Passive Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

In the passive-coping model, cooperativeness did not predict the mediator—passive coping, $B = 0.04$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .329$, $\beta = .07$ (path *a*). Passive coping, in turn, did not predict life satisfaction, $B = 0.03$, $SE = 0.07$, $p = .648$, $\beta = .03$ (path *b*). The direct effect of cooperativeness on life satisfaction was also nonsignificant, $B = –0.05$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .216$, $\beta = –.09$ (path *c′*). The full model was not significant, F (2, 197) = 0.84, p = .433, accounting for less than 1% of the variance in life satisfaction ($R^2 = 0.008$). A bias-corrected bootstrap test (5,000 samples) confirmed that the indirect effect was negligible, with a 95% CI of [–0.010, 0.013]. Together, these results indicate that passive coping does not mediate the relationship between cooperativeness and life satisfaction.

As presented in Table 17 and depicted in Figure 8, neither active nor passive coping significantly mediated the relationship between cooperativeness and life satisfaction, with all paths and overall models found to be statistically non-significant.

Figure 8

Mediation Model Depicting the Influence of Cooperativeness on Life Satisfaction Through Active and Passive Coping



Note. The figure illustrates that neither active nor passive coping mediated the relationship between cooperativeness and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis: It was hypothesised that active coping would mediate the relationship between self-transcendence and life satisfaction. Specifically, individuals with higher self-transcendence were expected to engage more in active coping strategies, which in turn would lead to greater life satisfaction.

Table 18

Active Coping as Mediator Between Self-Transcendence and Life Satisfaction

		M (Active Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**β**
Constant		44.71	1.65	.001	–		22.7	2.22	.001	–
IV (ST)	a	.05	.071	.464	.052	c’	-.03	.044	.449	-.05
M(Actcop)		–	–	–	–	b	.07	.044	.092	0.12
			R^2=.003 F (1, 198) = 0.54, p = .464					R^2=.017 F (2, 197) = 1.66, p = .192		

Note. ST = Self-Transcendence; Actcop = Active Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

The mediation analysis tested whether active coping mediates the relationship between self-transcendence (ST) and life satisfaction. Self-transcendence did not predict active coping, $B = 0.05$, $SE = 0.07$, $p = .464$, $\beta = .05$ (path *a*), nor did it show a direct association with life satisfaction once the mediator was included, $B = –0.03$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .449$, $\beta = –.05$ (path *c′*). Active coping also failed to predict life satisfaction, $B = 0.07$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .092$, $\beta = .12$ (path *b*). The overall model accounted for only 1.7% of the variance in life satisfaction, $R^2 = .017$, $F(2, 196) = 1.66$, p = .192, and the bootstrapped indirect effect (95% CI [–.009,

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.020]) was non-significant. Thus, active coping does not mediate the relationship between self-transcendence and life satisfaction.

Hypothesis: It was hypothesised that passive coping would mediate the relationship between self-transcendence and life satisfaction, such that higher levels of self-transcendence would be associated with greater use of passive coping strategies, which in turn would relate to life satisfaction.

Table 19

Passive Coping as Mediator Between Self-Transcendence and Life Satisfaction

		M (Passive Coping)					DV (Life Satisfaction)			
		B	**SE**	**P**	**β**		**B**	**SE**	**P**	**B**
Constant		22.89	1.11	.001	–		23.79	1.93	.001	–
IV (ST)	a	.044	.044	.329	.07	c’	-.03	.044	.456	-.05
M(Pascop)		–	–	–	–	b	.09	.071	.170	.10
			R^2=.005					R^2=.012		
			F (1,198) = 0.96, p=.329					F (2,197) =1.16, p=.315		

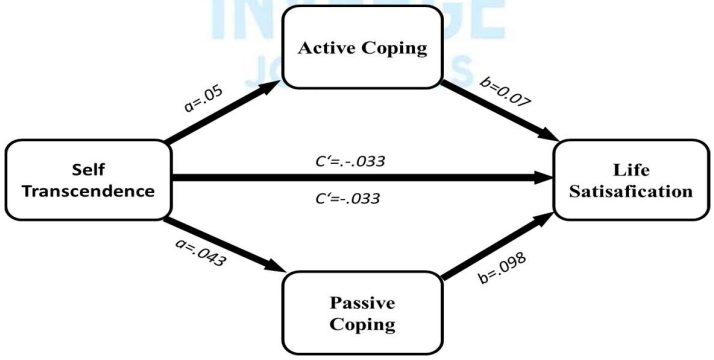
Note. ST = Self-Transcendence; Pascop = Passive Coping; SWLS = Satisfaction with Life Scale.

The mediation analysis using PROCESS Model 4 revealed that passive coping did not mediate the relationship between self-transcendence and life satisfaction. Specifically, the path from self-transcendence to passive coping was not significant, $B = 0.044$, $SE = 0.044$, $p = .329$, nor was the path from passive coping to life satisfaction, $B = 0.09$, $SE = 0.071$, $p = .170$. Additionally, the direct effect of self-transcendence on life satisfaction remained non-significant, $B = –0.03$, $p = .456$, and the overall model was not statistically significant, F (2, 197) = 1.16, $p = .315$, $R^2 = .012$. These findings indicate that passive coping does not significantly transmit the effect of self-transcendence on life satisfaction.

As shown in Table 19 and illustrated in Figure 9, the mediation analyses revealed that neither active nor passive coping significantly mediated the relationship between self-transcendence and life satisfaction, as all paths and overall models were statistically nonsignificant.

Figure 9

Mediation Model Depicting the Influence of Self-Transcendence On Life Satisfaction Through Active and Passive Coping



Note. The figure shows that neither active nor passive coping significantly mediated the relationship between self-transcendence and life satisfaction.

Discussion

This study examined whether coping styles mediate the relationship between Cloninger’s psychobiological model of personality traits and life satisfaction among Pakistani university students. Contrary to our expectations, the results revealed no significant mediation effects of either active or passive coping styles in the relationship between temperament and character traits and life satisfaction. While several personality traits demonstrated significant direct effects on life satisfaction, the hypothesised indirect effects via coping mechanisms were consistently non-significant across all models.

Specifically, novelty seeking and self-directedness were positively associated with life satisfaction,

while harm avoidance showed a significant negative association. These results are consistent with earlier studies that found adaptive traits like self-directedness and novelty seeking encourage goal pursuit and engagement, which in turn improve subjective well-being (Cloninger et al., 1993; Malik et al., 2025). On the other hand, people with high harm avoidance may suffer from persistent anxiety and negative emotions, which lower their level of life satisfaction (Zohar & Cloninger, 2011).

The relationships between personality traits and life satisfaction were not significantly mediated by either active or passive coping styles, despite these direct effects. For example, the indirect pathway through active coping was not significant, despite the fact that self-directedness was significantly linked to higher life satisfaction. Similarly, passive coping did not act as a mediating mechanism, even though harm avoidance was a predictor of lower life satisfaction. These null mediation effects imply that coping strategies might not be dynamic explanatory links between dispositional traits and subjective well-being in this cultural setting. These findings emphasise the protective role of active coping in stress reduction, which is consistent with Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) stress and coping theory.The study also found that active coping strategies outperformed passive coping strategies in terms of improving life satisfaction. Reliability analyses showed acceptable internal consistency across all scales, supporting the robustness of the instruments.

The sample's cultural orientation provides an explanation for these results. Coping behaviours may be more externally regulated or influenced by family and community norms than by personal characteristics in collectivist societies like Pakistan (Kim et al., 2008). Additionally, it's possible that the Brief COPE subscales used in this study did not adequately evaluate culturally accepted coping strategies like emotional control, social support, and religious practices, which could have limited the mediation effects. The partial independence of trait and coping models is theoretically supported by the findings. Although the relationship between personality and wellbeing can be explained biologically by Cloninger's model, the lack of significant mediation demonstrates the importance of taking situational, cultural, and contextual moderators into account when examining the relationship between traits, coping, and outcomes. The results also cast doubt on the applicability of transactional coping theory and its pathways, especially in non-Western settings.

Conclusion

This study looked at the connections between college students' coping mechanisms, life satisfaction, and temperament and character traits. The results of a cross-sectional study with 200 participants showed a positive correlation between higher life satisfaction and adaptive personality traits and active coping mechanisms. The data did not support significant indirect effects, despite the belief that coping styles mediate these relationships. Although these findings lend credence to the body of research on personality and wellbeing, they also raise the possibility that other mechanisms could account for the relationship between traits and life satisfaction.

Limitations and Implications

This self-report, cross-sectional study may be impacted by social desirability bias and restricts the ability to draw conclusions about causality. The outcomes might have been impacted by uncontrollable factors like support networks or ongoing stressors. Because t-tests and ANOVAs were not available, gender and institutional differences were not examined.

The results emphasise the importance of personality-informed interventions, like goal-setting for low self-directedness or anxiety management for high harm avoidance. The lack of significant coping style mediation raises the possibility that personality-specific interventions may be more effective than generic ones. It is important to take into account culturally suitable coping mechanisms, like religious or group coping (Kim et al., 2019).

Longitudinal, multi-method designs and stronger cultural validation of instruments are recommended for future research. Subgroup analyses and broader, more varied sampling are required for generalisability and customised application.

Contributions of the Authors

Each author made a substantial contribution to the work reported and took part in the ideation, development, and final approval of the manuscript.

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Informed Consent Statement

Every participant in the study gave their informed consent.

Statement of Data Availability

The corresponding author can provide the data used in this study upon request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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