

**“ASSOCIATION OF GENDER ROLE,
PERSONALITY TRAITS WITH
DEPRESSION AND ANXIETY IN ADULTS: A
CROSS-SECTIONAL STUDY”**

BY

Asma Tanveer



NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES

Islamabad-Pakistan

AUG, 2022

**“ASSOCIATION OF GENDER ROLE, PERSONALITY
TRAITS WITH DEPRESSION AND ANXIETY IN
ADULTS: A CROSS-SECTIONAL STUDY”**

By

Asma Tanveer

M.SC. PSY, University of Gujrat, 2016

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE

DEGREE OF

Master of philosophy

In PSYCHOLOGY

To

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES



NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MODERN LANGUAGES

Islamabad-Pakistan

Asma Tanveer



THESIS AND DEFENSE APPROVAL FORM

The undersigned certify that they have read the following thesis, examined the defense, are satisfied with the overall exam performance, and recommend the thesis to the Faculty of Social sciences for acceptance.

Thesis Title: “Association of Gender Role, Personality Traits with Depression and Anxiety in Adults: A Cross-sectional Study”

Submitted by: Asma Tanveer

Registration # 05-MPhil/Psy/F20

Masters of philosophy

Psychology

Dr Asia Mushtaq

Signature: _____

Prof. Dr Khalid Sultan

Signature: _____

Date: _____

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

I, Asma Tanveer, D/O Tanveer Iqbal, Registration# 05-MPhil/Psy/F20, Discipline: Psychology, Candidate of Masters of Philosophy at the National University of Modern Languages, Islamabad hereby declare that the thesis “**Association of Gender Role, Personality Traits with Depression and Anxiety in Adults: A Cross-sectional Study**” submitted by me in partial fulfillment of MPhil degree, is my original work, and has not been submitted or published earlier. I also solemnly declare that it shall not, in future, be submitted by me for obtaining any other degree from this or any other university or institution.

I also understand that if evidence of plagiarism is found in my thesis/dissertation at any stage, even after the award of a degree, the work may be cancelled, and the degree revoked.

Signature of student

Name of candidate

Asma Tanveer

Date: _____

Abstract

Adulthood is the phase of development in which the relationship of the individual to himself and his environment changes through the mastering of age-related demands. The present study was conceptualized to explore the association between gender role and personality traits with depression and anxiety in adults. The sample comprised of 941 adults (52% females) from Islamabad and Rawalpindi with age range from 18-60 years which is further divided into newly emerged three age categories (i.e emerging adults (18-29 years), established adults (30-45 years) and middle adults (45-60 years). To measure the study variables, Urdu translated questionnaires were used. To measure gender role, Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) was used, to measure personality traits Mini International Personality Item Pool (Mini IPIP6, Sibley et al., 2011) was used. To measure depression and anxiety The Centre for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CESD) Radloff, 2021) and The Centre for Epidemiological Studies Anxiety Scale (CESA) Radloff, 2021) were used respectively. Informed consent was obtained from each individual before the collection of data and ethical procedures were followed. The results showed significant association between study variables. Masculine traits are significantly positively associated with extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience whereas negatively related to neuroticism, honesty-humility and depression along with anxiety. Feminine traits has significant positive association with agreeableness and conscientiousness and significant negative relationship with neuroticism, honesty-humility, depression and anxiety. Results further explained that androgynous adults are more extraverts and conscientious than other gender roles. Neuroticism is significantly positively related to depression and anxiety while rest of the personality traits exhibit negative significant association with both depression and anxiety. Multiple regression analyses

showed that masculine gender role only predicts extraversion and openness to experience positively, whereas feminine gender role positively predicts agreeableness and conscientiousness. Furthermore, masculine gender role is significant negative predictor of neuroticism honesty-humility and depression and anxiety. Moreover, findings showed that emerging adults have more masculine traits, whereas feminine traits are higher in established adults as compared to the other age groups. Emerging adults reported more depression than middle adults. When gender interact with gender role (i.e. femininity role) a significant interaction effect was emerged for agreeableness, conscientiousness and depression. These findings require replication for more understanding of the indigenous factors using longitudinal data.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
THESIS AND DEFENSE APPROVAL FORM.....	iii
AUTHOR'S DECLARATION.....	Iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	xiii
DEDICATION.....	xv
1. INTRODUCTION	
Context of the study.....	1
Rationale of the Study.....	6
Statement of the Problem.....	8
Research Objectives.....	8
Research Questions.....	9
Null Hypotheses.....	10
Conceptual Framework.....	10
Significance of the Study.....	10
Methodology.....	11
Operational Definitions.....	11
2. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE	
Gender Roles.....	14

Theoretical Framework.....	17
Factors Affecting Gender Roles.....	22
Personality Traits.....	33
Theoretical Framework.....	36
Factors affecting on Personality Traits.....	56
Effect of Demographics on Gender Roles and Personality	61
Relationship between Gender role, Personality traits with Depression and Anxiety.....	63
3. Research methodology	
Introduction.....	74
Research Design.....	74
Item total correlation.....	79
Research instruments.....	85
Sampling technique and population.....	87
Procedure.....	89
Data Analysis.....	89
Research Ethics.....	90
4. ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA	
5. SUMMSRY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
Summary.....	122
Findings.....	122
Discussion.....	122
Conclusion	129

Limitations and Suggestions.....	130
Implications.....	131
References	132
Appendix	147
A-Informed Consent	147
B-Demographic Variables	148
C-Bem Sex Role Inventory	149
D-Mini IPIP-6	152
E-CES-Depression	154
F-CES-Anxiety	155

LIST OF TABLES

Table No	Title	Page
Table 3.1	Descriptive Statistics Along With Alpha Reliability Coefficients of Scales	78
Table 3.2	Item total correlation of Scale	79
Table 3.3	Item total correlation of Scale	80
Table 3.4	Item total correlation of Scale	81
Table 3.5	Item total correlation of Scale	82
Table 3.6	Correlation among scales	83
Table 3.7	Sample Distribution for Main Study	87
Table 4.1	Descriptive Statistics along with Alpha Reliability Coefficients	92
Table 4.2	Correlation Matrix of the study variables	94
Table 4.3	Multiple linear regression analysis on personality traits by gender roles	96
Table 4.4	Multiple Regression Analysis on Depression and Anxiety by Gender roles	97
Table 4.5	Multiple linear Regression Analysis on Depression and Anxiety by Personality traits	99
Table 4.6	Categories on the basis of age	101
Table 4.7	Mean, standard deviations and t-values for married and unmarried adults on study variables	102
Table 4.8	Mean, standard deviations and t-values for males and female adults on study variables	104
Table 4.9	Mean, standard deviations and t-values for joint and nuclear family	106

system on study variables

Table 4.10	Difference among Age category on study variables	108
Table 4.11	Post hoc analysis of Age category	109
Table 4.12	Difference among Gender roles on study variables	113
Table 4.13	Post hoc analysis of Gender roles	114
Table 4.14	Multivariate analysis of variance	119

LIST OF Figures

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of the Study

10

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I do express, first of all, my gratitude to Almighty **ALLAH**, who always bestowed upon me HIS blessings and favours. The completion of this thesis would have not been possible without the help and support of the kind people around me. Their contributions are sincerely appreciated and gratefully acknowledged.

My sincere and warmest gratitude goes to my respected supervisor Dr Asia Mushtaq, who made this work possible. Her priceless efforts, able guidance and advice carried me through all the stages of this project. Her dynamism, vision, sincerity and motivation have deeply inspired me. She has taught me the methodology to carry out the research work as clearly as possible. Indeed, it was a great privilege and honor to work and study under her guidance. I would also like to thank her for her empathy, emotional and motivational support and understanding nature as well. Her door was always open for me whenever I needed. I am unable to adequately thank her in words for how much I appreciate her.

I am very much thankful to all my teachers and HOD Dr Shakira Huma for their glorious guidance which always been shining in my views and actions, that all kept me on right directions. I also owe a great debt of thanks to my brother like teacher “Zafar Iqbal” an IT engineer at Riphah University Rawalpindi, who helped me a lot during my work. His sincere guidelines and instructions always motivated me during this journey.

My lovely friends Misbah and Andleeb have ever been source of motivation and inspiration because they helped and encouraged me at the time of critical moments, I am grateful to all those who helped me during my project. I am so lucky that my whole family, especially my husband supported me a lot during my MPhil journey.

Words would never be enough to express my heartiest feelings towards my family and my siblings, for their exceptional love and unconditional prayers specially my parents.

Asma Tanveer

DEDICATION

Every challenging work needs self-efforts as well as guidance of elders especially those who are very close to one's heart...

My humble effort I dedicate to my sweet and loving **“Parents”** whose affection, love, encouragement and prays of day and night make me get this success.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Context of the Study

Gender roles are cultural and personal. They determine how males and females should think, speak, dress and interact within context of society. Gender roles adopted during childhood normally continue into adulthood. As every individual has to perform many roles due to which he has to face many challenges in his life and it is very difficult for a person to manage all the activities simultaneously. It is very important to understand that how an individual survives and cope with the different situations and tasks with all the challenges and burdens of life. Moreover, these days' anxiety and depression have negative impacts on lives of human beings. It often causes headaches, mood swings, disturbed thought patterns, digestive issues and sleep disturbances etc. These are also the sources of psychological and emotional strains, including confusion and disruptive personality traits.

Terms "gender" and "sex" are frequently used interchangeably. The concepts of sex and gender are distinct. Sex is a biological concept that is based on a person's fundamental sex traits. The meanings, values, and traits that individuals associate with various sexes are referred to as gender (Blackstone, 2003). According to Oakley, (1972) gender involves the division and social appraisal of masculinity and femininity in addition to the biological separation of sex into male and female. In other words, despite significantly relying on biological variations between men and women, gender is a social construct that individuals form through their interactions with one another and their circumstances. Expectations of men and women in areas besides the family, including the workplace, are tied to gender roles (Williams, 1995).

Men and women are frequently required to carry out various duties and play distinct responsibilities in the workplace depending on their sex (Kanter, 1977). Gender is the social elaboration of biological sex, whereas sex is a biological classification that is based primarily on reproductive capacity. Gender is not something we possess or are born with; rather, it is something we do (Butler, 1990; West & Zimmerman, 1987). After all, the physical body cannot explain how a person lives or why they are expected to live such disparate lifestyles. Mead (1935) and Rubin (1984) both concluded that men and women play different and unequal roles in society. The notion of gender was essential in order to distinguish between what men and women are supposed to do, how they are expected to behave, and what value is placed on each. It outlines the manner in which society categorizes men and women (Hameed & Shukri, 2014). Gender roles are determined by an individual's capacity to identify and display feminine and masculine features and behaviors (Bem, 1974; Bem & Lenney, 1976; Chrisler & Pryzgodna, 2000).

Femininity and masculinity are two separate dimensions, each with a range of accepted characteristics ranging from few to many (Bem, 1974 & Spence et al., 1975). Indeed, the feminine and masculine features that society assigns to men and women establish gender roles (Bem, 1981). Bem was the first to challenge the gender roles, identifying four dimensions: masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated (Bem, 1974). In addition to the two conventionally accepted masculine and feminine gender roles, according to her androgyny paradigm, there are androgynous individuals who exhibit both masculine and feminine features, as well as undifferentiated individuals who do not clearly support either male or feminine traits (Bem, 1977).

There often exists an association between gender roles, personality traits, depression and anxiety among adults. One can say that personality traits may be key indicators of other elements of an individual's life, just like creativity and happiness (Ahmed, 1998; Eastman & Tolson, 2001; Hsieh & Wang, 2011; Judge et al., 1999; Loewe et al., 2014; Lounsbury et al., 2003; Sheldon et al., 1997). Personality traits are generally described as characteristics of individuals relying on predictable patterns of behaviour, feeling, and beliefs (Costa & McCrae, 2003). The Five Factor Model (FFM) is the world's most commonly studied trait taxonomy (Allik, 2005; Costa & McCrae, 1997). The most popular model of personality structure is known as "The Big Five," which refers to a group of five broad, bipolar characteristic dimensions: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. Numerous studies have looked at how personalities evolve and remain consistent over time, as well as how the Big Five personality traits affect key life outcomes (Soto, 2018). Under the pressure of social expectations, all individuals of society must create their personal gender role as a component of their personality during the enculturation process (Kurpsiz et al., 2016).

Mental illnesses place a significant social and financial strain on individuals, families, and society as a whole. Depression and anxiety are the most common mental disorders, and comorbidity is very common with them. A lot of people who have anxiety also have depression, and simultaneously. Anxiety and depression are reported to be higher among college students than in the general population (American College Health Association, 2013; Beiter et al., 2015; Holliday et al., 2016).

Depression is a common condition which is characterized by the lack of interest in activities that a person normally enjoys, as well as chronic sadness and an inability

to carry out daily duties (Fekadu et al, 2017). Depression is a major cause of distress that has a considerable negative impact on one's quality of life (Kessler & Bromet, 2013). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), 4.4 percent of the global population was depressed in 2015. Younger persons are more likely to be depressed, and ladies (5.1 percent) are more likely than males to be depressed (3.6 percent), (World Health Organization, 2017). It is also not wrong to say that anxiety is also associated with gender roles (masculine, feminine) among adults. According to the American Psychological Association (APA), anxiety is a feeling that is accompanied by tense sensations, anxious thoughts, and physical modifications like elevated blood pressure. Females with a high level of anxiety, poor functionality with reduced life enjoyment were seen being depressed (Fiske et al., 2009).

Anxiety is one of the most common mental health conditions in the UK, with 8.2 million individuals suffering from it at any given time. Anxiety disorders have been related to significant impairments in a person's mental and physical health, a high use of healthcare services, and a significant economic burden on society due to their impact on work attendance rates (Fineberg et al, 2013). When we are concerned, apprehensive, or fearful about events that are about to happen or may happen in the future, anxiety might emerge (Mind, 2017). Although fear of imagined risks is a typical human reaction that most people feel, it can be a sign of an anxiety disorder if such thoughts start to significantly impact a person's daily life. Anxiety disorders have been connected to things like decreased social and vocational functioning, comorbidity with other disorders, and an increased risk of suicide (Hoge et al, 2012). Up to one-third of the population suffers from anxiety problems at some point in their lives (Bandelow & Michaelis, 2015). According to studies, women are exposed to more stressful and traumatic life situations, such as motherhood (Remes et al, 2016),

and have higher rates of domestic and sexual abuse than men, (Towers & Walby, 2017).

Adulthood

It is the stage of development where an individual's relationship to himself and his surroundings evolves as they learn to meet age-related expectations and assess their social and marital environments (Herzog, 2020).

Emerging Adulthood

Before settling into a career and a committed relationship, people during this life stage (18 to 29 years) must learn and experiment for a considerable amount of time. Risky behavior may be best tolerated or even encouraged when an adult is first starting out. This time period is when various drug and behavioral addictions are most prone to manifest (Arnet & Sussman, 2014).

Established adulthood

The most intense, difficult, and gratifying years of adult life for many people in developed nations are between the ages of 30 and 45. Most adults must balance the conflicting pressures of advancing in a chosen career, upholding an intimate relationship, and taking care of children throughout this phase of their lives. The outcomes of balancing these competing demands could have a significant impact on how an individual's adult life develops. Therefore, we think it's crucial to comprehend this stage of growth that we refer to as established adulthood (Mehta et al., 2020).

Middle adulthood

Adults in their middle years (45 to 65) are more likely to have older children who have moved out of the house or, if they are still living at home, need less physically taxing care from their parents. Age-related physiological changes like

menopause for women and andropause for males are more likely to affect midlife individuals (Mehta et al., 2020).

1.2 Rationale of the Study

Sex includes the biological distinction between men and women, gender adds to the behavioral, cultural or psychological attributes associated with one sex or the other according to societal norms, which can change over time and differ among cultures. Gender roles are said to be adopted according to an individual's society and culture, and this has a significant impact on their personality.

This main objective of the study was to explore gender roles (masculinity, femininity, androgyny, as well as undifferentiated qualities) in different categories of adults (emerging adults, established adults and middle adults). By focusing simultaneously on different age categories related to adulthood (emerging adults, established adults and middle adults), the current study is also intended to address a gap in the literature. These age groups become focus of researchers in past two decades as “emerging adults term was coined 20 years ago (Arnett, 2000), very recently “established adults” the term become part of literature (Mehta et al., 2020). Therefore, the study has a unique contribution not only to understand the adulthood categories but also to see the unique link between these groups, gender role types and the mentioned gender. Furthermore, this study will focus on role of androgyny on which literature is not providing sufficient findings. This study will contribute theoretically to understand the characteristics of established adults and also distinguish the established adults from the emerging adults and middle adults.

There is a lot of work done by researchers on gender roles in Western culture, but up to the limited knowledge of the researcher, there is a scarcity of work done on

the association between gender roles using Bem Sex Role Inventory in eastern context. The Gender Role Attitudes Scale was developed by Kamal and Ansari in 1992 and Kamal and Saqib in 2004, tells only the scoring of a person on a specific trait (masculinity and femininity) it does not measure the characteristics of these dimensions. This study is planned to see the estimate of masculinity, femininity and androgyny among adults in local context. Collectivistic cultures are more prone to fixed gender roles (Davis & Williamson, 2019; Kim & Lowry, 2005). It promotes masculinity in males and femininity in females. This study will see whether it is changed in our culture with the passage of time or not?

Moreover, this study will investigate the relationship of gender roles with personality traits. It will see that which specific gender role is more associated with what type of personality traits. Women are thought to be inherently more expressive of sadness and fear than are men (Brody & Hall, 1993), and even preschoolers believe that boys are less likely than girls to feel sad (Birnbaum, 1983). Several studies have shown that identification with socialized masculine traits, commonly defined as instrumentality or agency is negatively correlated with depression in both sexes (Kennedy et al., 1991; Strapp et al., 1974). This negative relationship has also been found in children and adolescents (Craighead & Green, 1989; Merten et al., 1990), with level of instrumentality shown to be a better predictor of depressive symptoms than several other variables, including hormonal changes (Eccles et al., 1988; Merten et al., 1990; Petersen et al., 1991). More specifically, femininity is associated to higher levels of depression, irrespective of biological sex. In addition, masculinity and androgyny are associated with lower levels of depression (Wetterberg, et al. (2020).

This present study will have an impact on different elements of adult life, as they are struggling with their roles. As a result, these aspects of adult life must be investigated.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Mental illnesses place a significant social and financial strain on individuals, families, and society as a whole. Depression and anxiety are the most common mental disorders, and comorbidity is very common with them. A lot of people who have anxiety also have depression, and simultaneously. Anxiety and depression are reported to be higher among in adults (American College Health Association, 2013; Beiter et al., 2015; Holliday et al., 2016).

The aim of this study was to find out the association between gender role, personality traits with depression and anxiety. Additionally, demographic factors were also investigated to assess their significant effects on the research variables.

1.4 Research Objective

Followings are the objectives of the present study:

- To explore the gender role (i.e. Masculinity, femininity, androgyny and undifferentiated) estimates in Pakistani adults.
- To explore the relationship between gender role, personality traits with depression and anxiety in adults.
- To explore the predictive role of gender roles and personality traits on depression and anxiety among adults.
- To explore the group differences related to demographic variables (gender, age of participants, marital status, education, family income, familial structure, etc.) on study variables.

1.5 Research Questions

Following are the research question formulated for the present study:

- How gender role, personality traits link with depression and anxiety in adults?
- What is the impact of gender role and personality traits (extraversion and openness to experience, neuroticism and honesty-humility) on depression and anxiety in adults?
- How different gender roles (masculinity, femininity and androgyny) can be related to gender (male, female) and age groups (emerging adults, established adults and middle adults)?

Following research hypothesis are formulated on the basis of above narrated research questions.

1. There is a positive relationship between gender role (femininity) and personality traits (neuroticism, agreeableness, and openness to experience) in adults.
2. There is a positive relationship between gender role (masculinity), and personality traits (extraversion, and openness to experience) in adults.
3. Depression and anxiety are negatively associated with personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness and openness to experience) in adults.
4. There is a positive relationship between depression and anxiety with personality traits (neuroticism and conscientiousness) in adults.
5. There is a negative relationship between masculinity, depression and anxiety in adults.
6. There is a positive relationship between femininity, depression and anxiety in adults.

7. Females are more depress and anxious than male adults.

1.6 Null hypothesis

- There is no association between gender role and personality traits with depression and anxiety in adults.
- There are no gender differences in adults in depression, anxiety and personality traits.

1.7 Conceptual framework

Conceptual model of the study shows that there exists a relationship between gender roles (masculinity, femininity, androgyny and undifferentiated) and personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness to experience and honesty-humility) with depression and anxiety.

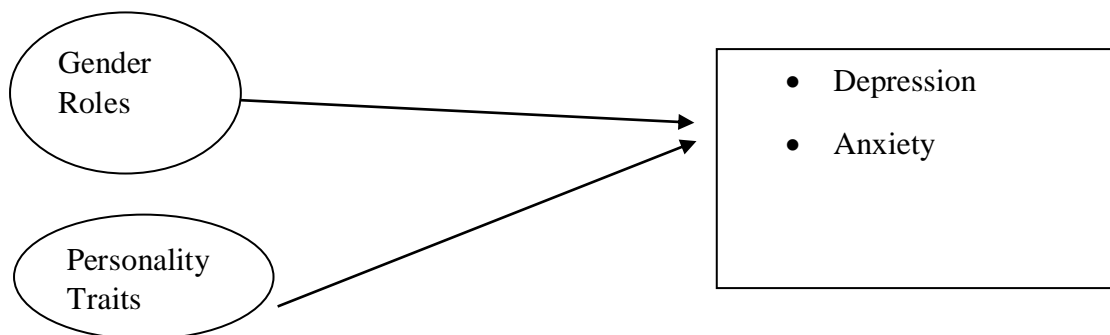


Figure 1.1 conceptual model of the present study

1.8 Significance of Study

The current study is important as it is measuring the depression and anxiety in adults. The study also assess how gender roles and personality traits affect adult

depression and anxiety. This study also describes the prevalence of depression and anxiety among males and females, married and unmarried adults etc.

1.9 Methodology

To conduct this study, a cross-sectional design was adopted. The sample was obtained using convenient sampling to collect the data from Islamabad and Rawalpindi. There are two stages to this research. Pilot study was done in the first phase to translate the scales and to investigate the psychometric properties of scales as well as their utility and accuracy among the native population. In second phase, hypothesis testing was done to use SPSS-21. Permission was taken from the University authority to collect the data for study along with informed consent from participants.

1.10 Operational Definitions

Gender role

Gender roles have been defined as society's common attitudes about individuals based on their socially designed sex. In this study gender roles are assessed with Bem sex role inventory (Bem, 1974), to categorize the individuals on a particular trait, median cut off was taken (For masculinity 97.00 and for femininity 104.00). Individuals who have high masculine score above median, they are low in feminine traits and consider as individuals with masculine traits. Those who have high feminine score above median, are low in masculine traits and consider as individuals with feminine traits. Those who show high scores on both masculine and feminine traits above median, are categorized as androgynous people while those people who have less score on both masculine and feminine traits are known as undifferentiated type individuals. (Eagly, 2009).

Personality traits

Personality traits are fundamental differences between persons. It is a distinctive way of acting, feeling and thinking that has a tendency to remain constant over time and in relevant contexts (Soto, 2018). According to trait psychologists, there are only a few of these dimensions (such as extraversion, conscientiousness, and agreeability etc.), and each person falls somewhere along each one, meaning they could be low, middle, or high on any given trait (Deary et al., 2003). In present study (Mini IPIP6, Sibley et al., 2011) was used to assess the particular personality trait of individual, on which higher scores regarding a specific trait explain that an individual has high on that trait and lower score of a particular trait shows that an individual has low on that trait.

Depression

Depression is characterised by sadness, emptiness, hopelessness, and a loss of interest most of the time Significant weight loss or gain, insomnia or hypersomnia, fatigue/lack of energy, psychomotor agitation or retardation, feelings of worthlessness, excessive guilt, inability to concentrate, thoughts of death, and suicide ideation are all signs. In present study CESD (Radloff, 1977) is used to assess depression, on which high score shows high depression while low score exhibits low depression (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

Anxiety

Anxiety is derived from the *Latin* word "*angere*," which means "*to distress*". Anxiety is also defined as a vague, unpleasant emotion brought on by long-term stress and the presence of several stressors. In present study CESA (Radloff, 1977) is used to

assess anxiety, on which high score shows high anxiety while low score exhibits low anxiety (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984; Sharma & Sharma, 2015).

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW OF THE STUDY

2.1 Gender Roles

Gender role (also called sex role) is a socially constructed role that determines stereotypically acceptable and proper behaviour and cultural values for men and women (Lin et al, 2021). It differs from sex, which is decided at birth by biological and physiological factors such as DNA, anatomy, hormones, and gonads (Juster et al., 2011). Gender roles, on the other hand, are determined by sociocultural factors such as upbringing and cultural socialisation in families, schools, and workplaces (Stockard, 2006). Gender socialisation starts at a young age and has a big influence on the formation of gender roles and personality norms (Knaak, 2004). Gender roles are the socially constructed roles, attitudes, activities, and attributes that a society believes are appropriate for men and women (World Health Organization, 2013).

Gender roles are the ways as indicated by which an individual should act in a general public. It is a build explicit to a given culture and society. From an early age, children are socialised and pushed to learn and develop personality traits, attitudes, interests, and talents that are gender-specific. In addition to their behaviour, children are encouraged to develop schemas that are compatible with their gender roles. This gender role congruence affects their thinking, self-esteem (Bem, 1981), and emotion control processes (Jones et al., 2016).

Gender roles are a collection of social standards that have developed over time. In essence, a gender role is what allows a male or female to fit into society. The acts, attitudes, and dispositions associated with either the male or female social role have long been referred to as gender role (Money et al., 1955). These are the characteristics associated with femininity or masculinity, as defined by the community, also known

as sexual role, which relates to visible practices. These are the public actions that women and men take. Gender is social construct that categorises males as masculine and females as feminine cultural (Oakley, 1985). Gender role is defined as the duties, attitudes, traits, and behaviour associated with and/or allocated to each sex (Hatchell, 2007). The cultural expectations of men and women in a given society are referred to as gender roles (Nanda & Warms, 2013). Finally, in society there is a pre-set emphasis on what is feminine and what is masculine, with actions that favour men's dominant social position and women's subordinate social status (Connell & Connell, 1995).

The fact that both women and men reject preconceptions of femininity and masculinity shows that biological sex and gender roles are only distantly related (Carver et al, 2013; Vafaei et al, 2014). Masculinity and femininity, it has been claimed, are not two contrasting sides on a continuum, they coexist and interact to form gender roles with both masculine and feminine qualities. For many years, gender roles were determined by roles in the home, with women caring for the home and males being the physical workers and breadwinners. Those who are specifically concerned with the transmission of gender define the relationship between home life and social life as a continuous 'socialization' process in which children learn societal definitions of masculinity and femininity (MacDonald, 1982, p. 15). Because girls were considered less vital for a family's future than boys, educational opportunities were more likely to be given to the boys. Girls were taught how to do things like cooking, cleaning, and sewing, whilst boys were instructed how to do a lot more physical work (Weisner, 2000).

The expected behaviour associated with a status is referred to as a role. Social norms, or agreed principles that regulate people's behaviour in specific contexts, guide

how they fulfil their roles. Despite working full time, women are confined by gender stereotypes to home chores, have restricted access to well-paid employment, and are dependent on male members of society. Gender role is a social construct which includes rules and characteristics associated with stereotypically viewed masculine and feminine characteristics (Bem, 1981). Bem identified four gender role types based on the relationship between stereotypically masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated. Individuals' cognitions regarding the world and others are influenced by their identification with a specific type (Kurpisz et al., 2016).

The ramifications of these shifts in behaviours and responsibilities in ageing research are unclear, and the effect they may have on trends of mental stress in aged males and female has yet to be investigated (Best & William, 1990; Sweeting et al, 2014). One of the first social scientists to distinguish between gender and sex was Oakley 1972. According to him, gender encompasses not just the biological division of sex into male and female, but also the social division and valuation of masculine and feminine traits. Men and women responsibilities outside the home, such as at work, might be linked to gender roles (Williams, 1995).

In the work place, men and women are usually expected to do different tasks and take on different duties according to their sex type (Kanter, 1977).The environment in which kids are taught, including toys, literature, and visuals, as well as instructor attitudes, body language, encouragement, and support, all contribute to the conditioning of gender roles in educational settings (Bartlett & Burton, 2012; Brophy, 1983). The culture and world that a child frequently encounters, including their home life, will provide them with an understanding of gender and work. By observing their roles both at home and in educational settings, children may gain an idea of what their roles are to be for the rest of their lives (Jackson, 2007).When considering the effects

gender roles have on an individual's life, it's important to consider the settings of what else can influence the outcome of someone's life; social class, ethnicity, and race have all historically had an impact (Giddens, 2006; MacDonald, 1981). As history has seen ever-changing social change, including gender, social, race, and ethnicity, a person may be judged on these numerous circumstances throughout their schooling, possibly subconsciously by the teacher or more experienced others (Lindsey 2011).

2.2.1 Theoretical framework

Gender-role theories are concerned with by what method child acquires gender-role identity in their formative years of life and in what way gender-role identity develops. Few people feel that gender role identity replaces beyond adolescence, but the widespread consensus is that once developed, it remains consistent throughout adulthood.

Bem sex theory

Gender schema theory was one of the major contributions of Sandra Bem (GST; Bem 1981a). Bem was well known for three separate but related intellectual works: the concept and idea of androgyny and its measurement with the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem 1974), the development and concept of gender schema theory (GST; Bem 1981).

It is a social cognitive theory which looks in what ways individuals are radicalized from their early years and how it influences their thinking and cognitive functioning across time. Children develop gender schemas (beliefs and theories about what it means to be masculine or feminine) from young age, which they utilize to draw conclusion, categorize the instructions, and for behaviour regulation. According to Bem (1981), gender-schematic individual (who understand the received information into categories of gender which cause people to see the thing from the

perspective of gender) are more likely to classify their world and regulate their behaviour based on gender, whereas gender is a less important category for gender-aschematic people, who are thus less likely to organize instructions and control their emotions which are gender based.

This theory was created by Bem in order to explore and focus more on the ways in which community develops and implements categories of gender. She described that gender schema theory is stated as: Specifically, gender schema theory follows that because American culture and society is so gender polarizing and its social institutions, children come to be gender schematic (or gender polarizing) themselves and they don't even realize it. In turn, gender schematicity, helps lead children to be conventionally sex-typed. Putting it to another way, when youngsters impose a gender-based distribution on reality, they evaluate diverse and broad ways of behaving in ideas of cultural notions of gender appropriateness and do not accept any behaviour that does not match their sex. Unlike Kohlberg's cognitive-developmental theory (1958) of why children become sex typed, this alternative aspect places the basis of the children's drive for a sex-behaviour match in the culture's and societal gender polarization, rather than in the child's mind and thoughts (Bem, 1993).

Bronfenbrenner's Ecological Systems theory

This theory looks at the development of child in the ambience of his or her interaction with community. The environment has an impact on children's growth (Brenner 1979), which is comparable to Functionalism, which views as a system of interconnected parts (Giddens, 2006). According to this theory, environment has different "layers", every layer influences the development of child. To emphasise that biology of a child is the underlying setting that powers his development, this concept was recently dubbed "bio ecological systems theory". The child's growth is

accelerated and directed by a combination of factors in his developing biology, his immediate family/community environment, and the societal landscape.

The effects of changes or disagreements on one layer will be felt in other layers. In order to assess a child's development, we must have to analyse environment of child and his relationship with that. These ideas imply that child development should be evaluated in the context of its surrounding environment, and that these contextual elements may influence a kid's ability to learn and develop - and hence to be successful. The 'Mesosystems' are more possibly to influence both a gender role of child and, as a consequence, the achievement gap between males and females, as well as preserve past gender interactions (Harber & Meighan, 2007). Feminists began to investigate why girls were not treated equally to males as a result of gender disparities and male domination in education. Women should have the same freedom as men, according to liberal feminists, and portions of society that support gender inequity should be altered.

Radical feminists concentrated on a distinct facet of gender differences: male hierarchy in society, as well as the fact that schools have 'man-dominated' disciplines in which boys are encouraged and supported more than girls. Marxist and socialist feminists, on the other hand, believed that gender was not the only factor influencing differences in accomplishment between men and women, and that class had a significant role as well (Giddens, 2000 ; Kramarae & Spender, 2000).

Bronfenbrenner's structure of environment

The microsystem is the layer that is nearest to the child and contains the structures that the kid directly interacts with it. The microsystem refers to the interaction and relationship of child with his immediate surroundings (Berk, 2000). Microsystem includes the family, school, neighbourhood and day-care contexts. This

level is influenced by relationships in two ways: towards the child and away from the child.

The parents of a child, for example, may have an influence on his thoughts and behaviour; on the other hand, the child has an influence on the behaviour and opinions of the parents. Bronfenbrenner refers to these bi directional influences, and he shows how they can occur at every level of the ecosystem. The interplay of components within a layer, as well as interactions across layers, underpins this concept. At the microsystem level, bi-directional influences are the most strong and have the greatest impact on the child. However, connections at the upper layers can have an influence on the interior structures (Berk, 2000).

The mesosystem: The layer is connected to the microsystem structures of the child (Berk, 2000), like the teacher and parent relationship with child, the church-neighbourhood relationship etc. The exosystem refers to the greater social system in which the child is not directly involved. Because they interact with other microsystem components, the structures in this layer have an impact on the development of child (Berk, 2000). Two examples include parent work schedules and community-based family resources. Despite the fact that the child is not actively involved at this level, he is aware of the positive and negative factors at work in his own network.

The macrosystem: It is the outermost layer of the environment of the child (Berk, 2000). It is composed of social traditions, norms, and standards, but it does not have a distinct formation and structure. All other layer interactions are affected by the ramifications of the macrosystem's wider principles. If a society thinks that parents should be solely answerable for their children's upbringing, for example, that community is less likely to provide tools that assist parents. This has an effect on the

frameworks in which the parents function. The parents' ability or inability to carry out that obligation for their child is also influenced by the kid's microsystem.

The chronosystem: The system which considers time in relation to the surroundings of the child. This system contains external data, such as the date of a parent's death, as well as internal elements, such as physiological changes that occur as a kid grows older. Kids may react to environmental changes differently as they become older, and they may be more able to anticipate that how all those differences will affect them.

Social Role Theory

As stated by Alice Eagly a social psychologist, behavioural sex differences come from the distinct social positions that women and men occupy, particularly those that entail the division of work (Eagly et al., 2000). Due to financial, environmental, communal, and technical burdens in the past, work activities were allotted to women and men based on their physical characteristics. As a result, males were more expected to complete occupations which needed rapidity, power, and the capacity to spend extended periods of time away from home. Women, on the other hand, were more expected to complete tasks related to their family and house because they were largely responsible for reproducing. Gender roles arose involving expectations about the qualities and behaviours of men and women as an outcome of these varied communal roles played by males and females formed on this work partition (Eagly & Wood, 2002). Traditional gender roles are maintained through descriptive and injunctive social norms. Descriptive norms, for example, tell people about how people who are similar behave in various contexts (Cialdini et al., 1991).

As a result, when faced with a scenario that is uncertain or ambiguous, people tend to model their behaviour after that of people of the same gender (for example,

what gender appropriate attire to wear to a party). Injunctive norms, on the other hand, set forth expectations for how individuals should behave. They consequently give advice on what actions are most likely to cause embarrassment or disapproval (Cialdini et al., 1991). Social sanctions are probable for both men and women who violate injunctive gender role norms (for instance, males should support their families). Descriptive and injunctive norms operate with each other to help people adhere to them since breaking established gender roles is likely to result in unpleasant social interactions.

Today, more males and females are violating gender norms by assuming societal norms that are usually filled by the other gender (example, male homemakers, and female leaders). According to social role theory, their perceived gender roles (masculine or feminine) correspond more to the social roles individuals hold than to their sexes (Eagly et al., 2000). Therefore, men and women in positions of authority are more likely to be seen as agentic (having orientation of masculine gender role), whereas those who are in nurturing positions, such as housewives, are more likely to be seen as social (having orientation of feminine gender role). According to research, women's gender role orientations are affected by the cultural roles they play. This supports the social role theory.

2.2.2 Factors affecting gender roles

These are the different factors which affect gender roles.

Biological Factors

The layout of the external genitalia, which makes the identification of an individual as female or male, is the most visible biological influence on gender role. A

slew of societal forces spring into action as a result of this declaration. But what role do biological elements like DNA and prenatal hormone exposure play in the occurrence of gender role?

Gender-related behaviours, including establishment of gender identity, have been impacted by evolutionary adaptations throughout human history, according to the evolutionary view. One example is the early development of gender differences in toy preferences (Alexander, 2003). These preferences, according to evolutionary psychologists, have a biological basis. There were no barbies or toy trucks during human prehistory, thus this claim cannot be taken literally. It's possible, though, that traditionally masculine and feminine toy features reflect evolutionary instincts for girls to nurture and boys to explore the environment. These inclinations do not find gender identity, but evolutionary psychologists believe they give the groundwork for it to emerge. Researchers have also looked into the genetic foundation for gender-typed behaviours, although the results have been mixed. Gender-typed behaviours in 3- to 4-year-olds had a hereditary component but are also influenced by contextual factors when comparing twins to non-twins (Iervolino et al., 2005). For girls and boys, heredity and environment played distinctive roles; genetics influenced girls' behaviour more than boys'. However, no evidence for a genetic component for adult gender identification was discovered in a study of adult female twins (Burri et al., 2011).

Prenatal testosterone stimulates the development and formation of reproductive organs, but it has the ability to effect development of brain in ways that affect gender-type behaviour. Researches on girls having a disease called congenital adrenal hyperplasia and boys with underwent sexual reassignment during early years of childhood provides some evidence for hormonal influences on gender-related

behaviours. Congenital adrenal hyperplasia (CAH) is a condition in which female foetuses are exposed to high and more quantities of androgens while in the womb.

Such girls are typically born with "masculinized" genitalia, are diagnosed as intersex, and undergo medical and surgical treatment to make their genitalia show more female. Study of their early behaviour have found that girls with CAH frequently engage in play behaviours that are more typical of boys than of girls (Berenbaum et al., 2011; Berenbaum & Hines, 1992; Hines et al., 2004). These girls are also less likely than their sisters to grow up to be heterosexual. Early androgen exposure, on the other hand, has little effect on their gender identity; the vast majority of girls with CAH develop a definite female gender identification (Berenbaum, 2006). As a result, prenatal testosterone exposure appears to be more closely linked to some gender-related behaviours than gender identity (Bailey et al., 2002).

When testosterone levels are within the normal range, it can have an influence on the foetus (Hines et al., 2002). Girls who engaged in more masculine activities had mothers who had greater testosterone levels during pregnancy, according to a study of gender typical behaviours and blood samples taken from mothers during pregnancy. For both boys and girls, a comparable study (Auyeung et al., 2009) discovered a link between prenatal levels of testosterone in amniotic fluid and male play activities during early childhood. A study found out that parents encourage girls with congenital adrenal hyperplasia to play with gender-atypical thousand accessories, complicating the biological interpretation of this behaviour (Colapinto, 2000).

There is no evidence that these girls were exposed to aberrant hormones during pregnancy, hence there is no biological basis for their gender-nonconforming behaviour. What does this study say about gender identity's biological basis? Both genetics and prenatal testosterone exposure influence gender-related behaviours,

especially during youth, according to the data. Although babies are born with a predisposition to identify as female or male, gender identity is not determined by biological factors (Eliot, 2009). Of course, the emergence of the outer genitals is also the major sign for a cascade of society impacts, making it nearly difficult to distinguish between biological and non-biological influences (Bradley et al., 1998).

Family Environment

Despite frequent beliefs that parents have little effect on their development of their children (Harris, 1998; Knafo et al., 2009), the familial environment is important, especially in terms of development of the gender. The following elements influence gender views: these attitudes and actions are often acquired from parental environment and maintained by a fellow of child, educational experiences, and media intake. Whereas, the family appears to have the greatest influence on the development of gender role, with parents passing on their own gender beliefs, both overtly and implicitly. On the other hand, families consist of more than two parents (and in certain situations, fewer than two); siblings are also a component of the family environment which affects gender development (Susan, 1997, p.253).

The majority of research on the impact of parents' gender-related attitudes and behaviours on gender development has focused on the influence of parents' gender-related views and behaviours. Four processes, according to Campbell, 2002 are involved in this influence. Modelling is one technique in which children observe their parents' actions. A second source of influence is the treatment of sons and daughters differently. Toys, play activities, and household chores, for example, are a third avenue of influence that parents offer or promote. A fourth avenue for parental influence is how closely monitor and supervise their children's friends and activities. According to a lot of study, when it comes to verbal and emotional communication,

parents treat their daughters and sons in a different way, selection of toys, gender-typed play motivation, sports participation, math and science success, and behaviour monitoring (Endendijk et al, 2014; Hoffman & Moon, 2008; Leaper, 2002; Leavell et al., 2012).

The most research has focused on how traditional or unconventional parents are in terms of gender beliefs and attitudes, and how these parental differences are passed down to children (Davis & Wills, 2010; Leaper & Tennenbaum, 2002). However, parents' traditions tend to diverge, with males being more traditional than mothers (Kulik, 2002; Pena & Sidanius, 2003) and spending less time with their children (Leaper & Tennenbaum, 2002). Despite the reduced interaction, data suggests that fathers, particularly their sons, may have a larger influence than mothers in encouraging children to accept traditional gender norms (Davis & Wills, 2010; Endendijk et al., 2014; Friedman et al, 2007; Peters, 1994). This effect is not exclusive to American families; it can also be found in Canada, Sweden, the Netherlands, and Australia.

Within the United States, there is diversity among ethnic groups. In comparison to fathers from other ethnic groups, African American fathers are more egalitarian (an individual who promote the idea that everyone should be treated equally), (Hill, 2002) and more involved in child care (Leavell et al, 2012). Without dads, African American households are more likely to have gender roles that are less traditional: Boys had lower ratings of their masculinity, while girls had greater ratings (Mandara et al., 2005). During childhood and adolescence, Hispanic women and men reported less egalitarian families, with differences in parental opinions and treatment of boys and girls (McHale et al., 2005; Ontai & Raffaelli, 2004). Boys were given greater freedom and advantages, while girls were expected to undertake more work around

the house. These disparities in treatment were more significant among Hispanic families with strong ties to Hispanic culture than among those who were more acculturated to the United States. Children in single-parent households have better interactions with their moms, and sons exhibit more feminine (but no less masculine) behaviours than children in two-parent families, according to research (Golombok & MacCallum, 2004).

Without fathers, children, particularly females, acquire gender roles that are less traditional (Slavkin & Stright, 2000). Children from single-parent families led by moms have higher levels of masculine traits, (more autonomous, assertive, and self-reliant) than two-parent families, where girls reported more independence, assertiveness, and self-reliance a combination of masculine and feminine characteristics.

Women who work outside the house provide non-traditional role models, and their daughters have greater gender role flexibility (Levy, 1989) and more egalitarian attitudes about family life than other children (Desrochers & Riggio, 2005). Consequently, fathers are less likely to promote gender equality than moms, the presence of a father pushes youngsters toward traditional gender norms. A father with egalitarian gender beliefs, on the other hand, can be an effective role model for his children, encouraging them to adopt an egalitarian gender role ideology (Davis & Wills, 2010).

Even parents who are committed to gender equality sometimes continue to model gender-stereotypical behaviour in the home and in the circumstances they build for their children, resulting in quite different environments for boys and girls (Leaper & Sabbatini, 2004). Most parents, for example, continue to divide household duties in conventional ways and choose separate attire, room décor, and toys for their daughters

and sons. Parents speak to their daughters differently than they do to their sons (Leaper et al., 1998) the stories they tell differ depending on the gender of the children (Fiese & Skillman, 2000). According to one study (Peters, 1994), adolescent sons had more access to the family car than adolescent daughters, who had stricter curfews than the sons. Household tasks, which tend to be clearly gendered, are another major distinction in gender socialization within families. (Antill et al., 1996; Shellenbarger, 2006). This gendering applies to both parents who conduct household work and responsibilities given to daughters' vs sons. This division has an impact on both talents and attitudes. Siblings' presence and gender influence gender socialization within families: Siblings can influence each other via their everyday encounters by functioning as models, advisors, social partners, and combatants (McHale et al., 2003).

The existence of siblings also changes the family dynamic in gender-related ways. For example, Israeli children with younger siblings demonstrated gender constancy earlier than other children (Karniol, 2009). Children had low level of gender role flexibility who spent more time with their parents than children who spent less time with parents, whereas children who had fewer siblings had more gender role flexibility than those who had more siblings (Levy, 1989). Siblings, instead of parents, may play a large impact in gender role flexibility development (Katz & Ksanskak, 1994). Siblings of similar gender had a particularly strong influence on the gender flexibility development, the increasing or decreasing of flexibility is based on the attitudes of their siblings. By evaluating first-born and second-born children and tracking them over years, longitudinal studies have revealed the influence of siblings.

According to one study (McHale et al., 2001), first-born children's traits at the first-year assessment appeared in second-born children three years later. One more

research (Crouter et al., 2007) found that boys with younger brothers in homes with conventional gender ideologies got more traditional over time, while children and adolescents in all other configurations were more egalitarian with time. As a result, sibling influences are more complicated than mere modelling, and birth order appears to play a role in the process. The gender make up of siblings may interact in ways that are crucial for gender socialization may be influenced by the gender makeup of siblings.

It is observed that household with a girl and a boy exhibited stronger gender typing than families with only one sex siblings (McHale et al., 1999). Fathers were once again influential in the creation of stereotypical gender roles thinking Once again, fathers were influential in creating traditional gender role ideology. The mixed-gender siblings appeared to be tied to traditional gender roles, with one child of each gender ready to conduct housework (Crouter et ai., 1995). Even if all of the children are boys, someone has to clean the dishes, which may necessitate some flexibility. Families influence gender socialization in a variety of ways, including parental views and behaviour, the gendered home environment, and the complex influence of siblings. Gender socialization takes place outside of the home, and as children get older, they come into contact with a wide range of people who communicate messages about gender and gender-related behaviours.

Peers

Young adults and children are also persuaded to acquire gender-specific behaviours by their age classmates. Around the age of three, kids start favouring playmates of the same sex (Maccoby, 2002). Gender segregation will become one of the most obvious characteristics of primary school pupils' peer interactions as a result of these preferences growing throughout the upcoming years. In fact, 50–60% of the

time elementary school students spend with their peers is with those of the same gender (Fabes & Martin, 2001).

The tendency toward gender segregation usually prevails even when adults try to encourage children to play in mixed-gender groups. Adults frequently encourage children to play with peers of the same gender. Peer feedback on gender-related behaviours provides insight that aids in forming one's self-concept (Leaper & Smith, 2006). The relationships and activities that occur in groups of girls typically differ from those that occur in groups of boys (Maccoby, 2002).

Males play less near adults and are rougher and more competitive. They are also more prone to establish a hierarchy. Because they dislike the activities and interactional manner of boys, many girls do not wish to play with them (though this is not always the case). Girls who do develop a "tomboy" gender identification face challenges (Clark & Paechter, 2007). Even in primary school, boys fight girls joining their play groups, and both classmates and parents put pressure on tomboys to become more feminine. Boys who do not maintain gender segregation face greater consequences, as Brandon proved in the cover story of this chapter. Children who defied gender standards for looks and, to a lesser extent, behaviour were devalued by both girls and boys (Blakemore, 2003; Horn, 2007).

Since children and adolescents have inflexible gender roles, peer pressure plays a part in maintaining conventional gender-related behaviours during the school years. Bullying directed towards children who do not comply with gender stereotypes, particularly boys, is one kind of pressure (Sweeting & Young, 2004). Friends frequently act as "gender police," by imposing tight gender roles on young children and teenagers as a result. Companions can also help to foster gender flexibility, which is common in college but can happen earlier, even in preschool. For example, when

children play alone in preschool, they prefer to engage in gender-typical play; but, when girls play with boys, they engage in more male play activities, and when boys interact with instructors, they engage in more feminine play activities (Goble et al., 2012). Peers are a key factor in the movement for both males and females to become less traditional in their gender attitudes during the four years of college (Bryant, 2003). Peers can therefore, and at various phase of development, encourage or limit gender fluidity.

Media

For most people in wealthy countries, print, broadcast, film, and electronic media are a vital part of daily life, and gender depictions are a daily occurrence for those who are exposed to these media. Children, teenagers, and adults can learn about gender from entertainment programming, advertisements, video games, the Internet, and news broadcasts. At the same time that their families are influenced by the media, children are also influenced by it. Entertainment programmes feature males, females, boys, and girls in a variety of settings, and these programmes convey information about what might be preferable and appealing in each gender. Marketing conveys characteristics of gender while selling things. Gender study is covered in news reports, and assessing the style as well as the content indicates the perspective behind the storey (Brescoll & Lafrance, 2004).

As a result of their strength and persuasiveness, media portrayals can serve as the standard by which individual judges what is right and desirable in their own live. According to the cultivation theory of media effects, the media can actually have a bigger impact on attitudes and behaviour than personal experience (Gerbner et al., 1994). According to this hypothesis, media portrayals influence people's beliefs.

Gender roles include expectations about men and women's "natural" skills, the jobs deemed proper for each sex, temperament and personality variations, and the types of behaviour most suited for men and women, and their attitudes toward themselves and others. Based on women's universal role as a mothers and homemakers, many scholars argue that women's subjugation to men is universal (Lamphere & Rosaldo, 1974). People's opinions toward the real world, causing them to believe that their lives should reflect media portrayals.

Synthesized realism, as defined by Easterbrook (1996), is a fusion of factual facts and fictitious details mixed into a realistic portrayal that is actually fiction. People are unable to identify the difference when this mixing is performed with appropriate skill. People as a result take in details which is a toxic blend of reality with fantasy and use to evaluate their own (and other people's) actions. As children are unable to critically analyse the depictions due to cognitive limitations, children are particularly vulnerable to media manipulation. Many elements, such as culture, religion, and societal developments, have an impact on gender roles. Various societal changes in Somalia, for example, have forced women's roles to evolve.

The long-running civil conflict in Somalia, the Somali clan structure, and the fact that Somalia is an Islamic state are all examples of these changes. These causes have profoundly formed and defined the gender roles of both sexes (Maxamuud, 2011). Gender roles differ from one culture to the next, according on age, social class, and religious affiliation. Gender roles fluctuate from society to society, since they are not static, they change with time (Fenstermaker, 2002).

The roles that different genders play vary based on the people's culture. Married women in Ethiopia and other regions of East Africa are the home

administrators, but they are submissive to men who function as the household head and represent the household to the outside world (Hassan & Nhemachena, 2007).

Gender roles are social constructs or labels that people are assigned depending on their actions, society and cultural standards, and expectations (Unger, 1999). Childhood and adult experiences shape and are shaped by gender role assumptions, therefore these conceptions vary over time. Due to the issues that society faces in the twenty-first century, both genders' traditional gender roles are shifting. Civil wars, shifting economic activities, migration from rural to urban centres or even to other nations, women's empowerment, and the concept of freedom all have an impact on conventional gender roles.

2.2.3 Personality Traits

A person's personality is a dynamic collection of psychophysical systems that control their behavior and thinking, such as how diligent and patient they are. The Big Five Theory, which is widely accepted by modern psychologists, postulates that personality may be broken down into five basic characteristics. The theory identifies extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism as the five broad personality qualities (Yunus et al., 2018). Personality traits are the qualities of a person's personality, and they are as old as human language itself. American Psychological Association (APA) is defined term personality as individual variances in typical patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving. The degree to which someone displays strong or lower levels of a particular trait is usually used to characterize personality (Weisberg et al, 2011). The different ways that people think, feel and act are known as personality traits. Broad personality components are made up of smaller personality facets, and personality traits typically organised in a hierarchal system.

Personologists such as Allport, Cattell, and Eysenck developed trait constructs in the past. Fundamental differences between people can be found in personality traits (Matthews et al., 2003).

A trait is a neuropsychic structure with a broad application. Personality traits are thought to filter incoming stimuli, so someone with a high A Trait (Anxiety Trait) might interpret a variety of stimuli as threatening. The best measurement methodology, the causal consequences of characteristics on behaviour, and the influences of sociocultural factors on traits have all been hotly debated in personality trait research (Boyle et al., 2008). Male and female serve distinctly different biological roles in maintaining the species, but how much their mental makeups vary from one another is more disputed issue that needs scientific research to properly describe (Weisberg et al, 2011). A person's traits are their recurring designs of thinking, attitudes, motivations, and conduct in many situations are referred to as traits (Fleeson & Gallagher, 2009). That is, individuals with high trait scores will have psychological experiences related to that quality more commonly and to a greater degree than individuals with low trait scores. The establishment of an acceptable taxonomy of personality traits has been a major objective of personality psychology.

A five factor paradigm has emerged to elaborate correlations between qualities based on trait identifiers discovered in natural and basic language (dictionaries) and questionnaires of personality. The five factor model, commonly known as Big Five, is made up of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness/intelligence (Digman, 1990; John et al., 2008). Every human being is born with a distinct and particular personality that varies from person to person, whether in terms of behavior or personality. Personality is defined as a person's physical,

emotional, and cognitive characteristics (Rahimi, 2007). Personality is also one of the characteristics that makes a person distinctive (Fiest & Fiest, 1998).

Engler, 2003 a specialist in personality theory, concurs that every person is unique and cannot be compared to others. Similarly, Allport (2000) believes that each person has a unique personality that sets them apart from other people. These variances exist because of genetic and environmental causes, according to Engler (2003). There are contradictions in this hypothesis, though. Some people think that hereditary variables play a role in personality development. Others contend that variations are the result of environmental variables (Robbins, 2000). Individual characteristics including thought patterns, behavioral responses, emotional responses, and social interaction can all be used to determine personality. The distinct characteristics that can be seen between people can also be used to identify it (Rahimi, 2007). The lifestyle of a person is the culmination of all of their characteristics, including their innovative ideas, obstacles in life, perceptions, and level of self-efficacy (Ashton, 2013).

The word personality is derived from the Latin word “persona”, which meaning mask. Greek performers utilize the mask to perform on stage. Personality as a dynamic and structured collection of traits a person possesses and uses to impact their cognitions, motivations, and behaviors in a variety of contexts (Ryckman, 2004). Personality, according to Pervin (1975), is the way people connect with one another or the function that a person plays in society. Organization, temperament, intelligence, a stable body form, and personality traits define an individual's particular adaptability to their environment. A person's overall psychological development is also referred to as their personality.

According to Mishel (1968), personality is the pattern of conduct that an individual displays and then practices in daily life. According to Allport (1961), personality is an organization that affects how people behave and their psychophysical systems, which control their particular actions and thoughts like being industrious, patient, and other things, among others. According to Hans Eysenck (1981), personality is defined as the organization of the character, temperament, and intelligence, as well as the relatively stable body shape that characterizes a person's individual adaptability to the environment. Kagen & Segal (1988) defined personality as an individual's overall pattern made up of various aspects such as thinking, feeling, behavior, and environment. While Watson (1919) asserts that behaviorism and behavior theory are the foundations of personality. In general, personality is understood as a distinctive pattern of holding onto feelings, thoughts, and actions that reflect an individual's character.

2.2.4 Theoretical framework

Big Five Personality Traits Theory

The term trait refers to the entire neurological system, which acts as a transmitter and receiver, and explains behavior and permanently promotes adaptation (Allport, 1993). Through empirical investigations that are descriptive models of personality, Goldberg (1993) developed five dimensions for personality traits. Following a review of the personality tests currently available that most accurately measured the five main factors of openness to experience, extraversion, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and agreeableness, the Big Five was established during the symposium in Honolulu in 1981 with the support of significant researchers like Tekemoto et al., 2008. The Big Five has remained largely constant over time (DelVecchio & Roberts, 2000). The cognitive inclination to creativity and aesthetics

characterizes openness. Extraversion and agreeableness are both concerned in interpersonal relationships: When someone is pleasant, they are loving, caring, honest, and reliable. Whereas someone who is extraverted wants to be outgoing, enthusiastic, combative and seeks excitement (Costa & McCrae, 2008).

The Five-Factor Model of Personality

The five-factor model (FFM) theory of personality is commonly utilized to investigate personality differences and qualities. According to the FFM, the examination of five aspects can explain human personality and behaviour: conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism are all traits that people have (also known as emotional stability), (John, 2008). Extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience are Big Five, which includes in the five-factor model of personality (FFM). Because these five variables are so good at capturing a variety of individual personality traits, the FFM is the most widely used structural model in personality study. The more specific feature traits that define each of the Big Five dimensions can be seen in a range of behaviours (Naumann & Soto, 2008; Hoyle & Leary, 2009).

These days, we think it is more helpful to begin with the assumption that the five-factor model (FFM) of personality is basically correct in how it represents characteristic structure before moving on to the implications for personality theory and its widespread use in psychology. The "Big Five" theory holds that personality is composed of five largely independent facets that work as a classification to examine individual variances (Sibajene, 2009). The five dimensions are neuroticism, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and openness to experience. The traits that commonly occur together are contained in each of the Big Five dimensions, which function as buckets. We evaluate the five-factor personality model in the same

way that we evaluate the Big Five. The amount of interests one has and the extent to which they are pursued are both signs of an openness to new experiences (Sibajene, 2009).

Being creative, intelligent, adventurous, unique, open-minded, and smart are all tied to being open to experience (Digman, 1990) and requiring diversity, being sensitive to aesthetics, and holding unusual values (McCrae & John, 1992). An individual's receptivity to experience is a gauge of the scope and depth of their intellectual, artistic, and experiential lives. Openness requires a variety of qualities, including aesthetic sensibility (vs. insensitivity), imagination (vs. a lack of innovation), and intellect (vs. lack of inquisitiveness). Individuals who have high levels of openness get a diverse variety of tastes and like discovering and experiencing different things, in contrast to people with low levels of openness, who have more narrowly focused interests and value routine and familiarity above innovations and diversity (Ryckman, 2004).

The concept of openness, however, is less widely accepted than the other Big Five characteristics. Some academics prefer the word "intellect," and they contend that this dimension should incorporate intelligence as well as intellectual curiosity and interests. Conscientiousness is the capacity to plan, carry out tasks, and work toward long-term objectives. High conscientiousness people appreciate sense of order, are efficient employees, follow norms and traditions, and are better able to wait pleasure than low conscientiousness people who find it difficult to regulate their emotions and are readily distracted from their responsibilities. Conscientiousness is defined as the number of goals one is focused on. To be hardworking, determined, constant, careful, and committed are typical behaviours associated with it. It is related to dependability

and volition (Barrick & Mount, 1991). How chatty and outgoing a person is in social situations is characterised by the personality trait of extraversion.

Its primary traits include friendliness (instead of shyness), assertiveness (instead of submissiveness), and engagement (vs. lack of energy). Introverts feel hesitation in situations of social gathering and tend to keep their thoughts and feelings to themselves, whereas extraverts talk a lot, lead in groups, and exhibit positivity. It also has to do with how much sensory information a person can handle. Among the behavioural characteristics used to evaluate this element are friendliness, gregariousness, assertiveness, chattiness, and energy (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Like extraversion, agreeableness is a crucial aspect of social behaviour. It relates to a pro social behaviour of a person at others and their ability to preserve amicable, happy emotional bonds.

A key component of agreeableness (instead of suspicious of others) is compassion (as opposed to a lack of concern for others), civility (as opposed to hostility), and trust. People who have a high level of agreeableness are more inclined to show others compassion, forgiveness, and understanding; people who have a low level of agreeableness are more prone to handle others disrespectfully, start arguments, and hold grudges and anger. It alludes to the number of moral sources that a person draws on. This feature is linked to be polite, adaptable, trustworthy, decent, helpful, tolerant, gentle, and patient, among other traits (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Neuroticism is the term used to describe the quantity and calibre of stimuli required to elicit unfavourable emotions in a person. Common behaviours associated with this component include anxiety, despair, wrath, humiliation, emotion, concern, and insecurity (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Neuroticism refers to a person's propensity for experiencing unfavourable feelings and moods (or its socially ideal counterpart,

Emotional Stability). Extremely neurotic people experience mood swings more frequently and intensely, as well as sense of anxiety, hopelessness, and irritability. Persons who are having low level neuroticism are more able to maintain their composure under pressure and have a positive outlook.

Each trait has implications for a variety of activities, extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness tend to be the most closely tied to social interactions. Extraversion is a personality attribute that has been recognized in several old and current personality theories. It seems to affect how outspoken, outgoing, spontaneous, and active a person is in general. People with high levels of extraversion have a proclivity to seek out settings in which they are likely to interact, and they are more likely to behave in a dominant and self-assured manner (Tok, 2011).

Low extraversion individuals, such as introverts, are less likely to seek out situations where a high volume of interactions is anticipated. Even while they may communicate less frequently than extroverts, introverts can nonetheless be as warm and intelligent as their extrovert counterparts. Agreeableness is a relatively new feature in trait study, yet it appears to influence how a person connects with others. It has the ability to alter how warm and friendly words and behaviours are communicated. It also appears to have an impact on how accommodating or cooperative people are when they engage in groups. People who have a low level of agreeableness are more likely to be adversarial or hostile to others (Judge et al., 2012).

This notion is supported by data showing that they are more prone to experience interpersonal conflicts in their relationships and are more inclined to use more overt displays of dominance. This attribute and the concept of hostility, which

has been studied by health researchers for many years, may have some overlap. People with a strong proclivity for antagonism are more likely to develop diseases of heart. A personality attribute called conscientiousness seems to influence how people approach situations with a sense of duty and prudence. In community settings, this trait can be expressed as a tendency to be careful, tidy, rule-oriented, self-disciplined, and goal-oriented (Donnellan & Lucas, 2008). Low conscientiousness can be seen as a lack of attention for minor details and a disinterest in protracted plans. They may also exhibit less tenacity in completing activities and sense less guilt when promises are broken. Achievement motivation may be linked to conscientiousness, an inspirational concept that will be covered in more detail in a later portion of this article.

In several research studies, neuroticism is also referred to as emotionality or persistent anxiety. Similar to extraversion, it has been emphasised as a key component in several older personality theories. Furthermore, unlike extraversion, it has a less direct impact on social behaviour and is more difficult to assess in specific settings. The internal way in which the feature is often displayed is one of the reasons for this. High levels of neuroticism make people more prone to feel intense levels of worry or anxiety in social situations (Watson & Clark, 1984), but they may not always show this feature in overt, obvious ways.

As an alternative, the attribute might be represented in a manner that overstates other trait. For instance, a person with a high level of extraversion and neuroticism may exhibit neuroticism by being very talkative. On the other hand, a person with high levels of neuroticism and conscientiousness could act extremely neatly and deliberately. It is clear why tests of neuroticism's behaviour have been demonstrated to be less reliable as compared to tests of the other traits. Although this

difficulty, neuroticism is viewed by many experts as a major factor in the study of mental and physical health. The least discussed and studied of the five is the trait of being open to new experiences. The quality is connected to audacity, say some scholars. Some people think it's more strongly related to perceptual desire, which Marvin Zuckerman has studied in depth (Zuckerman & Marvin, 1993).

Others think the characteristic affects intellectual engagement and cultural sophistication. It is challenging to foresee how openness to experience would impact social behaviour because there is disagreement regarding the trait's behavioural links. People that are receptive to new experiences tend to gravitate toward creative pursuits, cultural inspirations, and a variety of task changes in their activities and professions. However, there isn't enough information to hypothesize on how this personality feature can affect daily encounters or long-term interpersonal connections. The five-factor approach has its detractors, despite its increasing popularity. One group of objections focuses on the model's small set of central characteristics (Jang et al., 1996; Jang et al., 2006; Costa & McCrae, 1997; Schmitt et al., 2007).

Many scholars have suggested adding other characteristics to the paradigm, arguing that traits such intellectual identification and the capacity to resist pleasure are crucial components of personality. Many of the features recommended seeking addition within the framework are sub elements of the big five, which has been a counterpoint to some of this criticism. The five-factor model's descriptive character has been the subject of a second group of complaints. Several educational contend that its evolution of the five traits and their connections to cognitive and motivational processes have received insufficient study.

Even though a growing body of research indicates that all five qualities are significantly influenced by genetics and biological systems, research into the influence of the early environment has only recently started. Unfortunately, insufficient research has been done to show how these personality characteristics combine with motivational and cognitive factors. It's possible that qualities have an impact on motivational and cognitive factors from the outside. Alternatively, some of these characteristics could be emergent constructions resulting from unique interplay between motivational and cognitive factors. Future study on the model will most likely focus on resolving these shortcomings.

HEXACO Personality Model

Personality traits such as neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experiences, agreeableness, and conscientiousness have been discovered as influencing our emotions, thinking and actions (McCrae & Costa, 1999). Moreover, within last five to 10 years, a new and unique approach to personality has emerged: the HEXACO model (Honesty–Humility, Emotionality, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience), proposed by Ashton & Lee, 2007; Lee & Ashton, 2004).

The most important component of this model is a new basic dimension called honesty–humility. Emotionality is a psychological trait that assesses an individual's predisposition for anxiety, fear of physical damage, and need for moral support from others (Camachu et al, 2020). The temptation to be truthful and fair in engaging to others, in the notion of cooperating with people even when one may exploit them without fear of reprisal," says the honesty–humility factor (Ashton & Lee, 2007, p. 156). On the other side, people who score highly in this area will prefer cooperative

behaviour even if defection would be risk-free. These adjectives contrast "sly, greedy, pretentious" with "sincere, honest, humble, etc. By this short description, it is clear that differences in economic decision-making should be linked to differences in honesty and humility: those with high honesty and humility should be more likely to engage in pro-social and cooperative behaviour, and their choices should reflect a desire to avoid abusing or exploiting others (Hilbig & Zettler., 2009). In order to comprehend human nature more fully, this approach suggests analysing six personality dimensions and their underlying characteristics. Every domain of personality additionally looks at four additional personality traits besides "Altruism" as an interstitial scale (also known as facets). There are thus 24 distinct facets of personality as a result.

The six dimensions are emotionality, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and honesty–humility. An individual's propensity for worry, fear of physical damage, and need for emotional support from others are all measured by emotionality. Extraversion gauges one's confidence and response to social settings. The degree to which a person can collaborate, tolerate, and control their anger in social situations is measured by their degree of agreeability. The degree of someone's conscientiousness is determined by how organised they tend to be in their daily lives and in their work. Openness to experience serves as a barometer for a person's appreciation of the arts, the natural world, their inventiveness, and their curiosity.

The honesty–humility domain is the biggest change in the HEXACO personality model, and it assesses a person's propensity to manipulate or lie to others to obtain benefits, modesty, money, or social standing. The five previously mentioned domains are interpreted differently by the HEXACO personality model when

compared to the FFM, and it groups them into six dimensions. The neuroticism agreeableness domains of the FFM could be deconstructed by the honesty–humility factor, offering a fresh look at these characteristics and opening up new directions for research of personality (Anglim & Connor, 2019).

According to a number of academics, the Big 5 personality factors are not as robust across languages and cultures as the six-factor model (Ashton et al., 2004, Ashton & Lee, 2008). The initials HEXACO stand for honesty-humility, emotionality, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. HEXACO is the name of the six-factor personality structure (Ashton & Lee, 2004). The Big 5 neuroticism and agreeableness of the HEXACO model are restructured into HEXACO emotionality and agreeableness together with an aspect of honesty and humility (Lee et al., 2014). This component has been demonstrated to be essential for the prediction of specific criteria, often those that fall under the anti-social behaviour spectrum, with HEXACO offering significant additional validity beyond the Big 5 (e.g., Lee et al., 2008, Lee et al., 2003). A crucial latest advancement in personality psychology is the realisation that the range of human personality can best be described by a group of six broad dimensions.

In the 1980s and 1990s, the Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality structure was widely acknowledged by studies but The HEXACO framework, which we label, is a six-factor structure that has emerged from more recent research. For instance, Ashton & Lee, 2007. This six-dimensional space outperforms the Five-Factor structure discovered in early studies of the English personality lexicon and has repeatedly been found in lexically-based investigations of personality structure conducted in a number of languages. In this study, we examine the additional validity that the HEXACO model offers in predicting a number of significant variables, which

is greater than the amount of validity offered by the conventional Five-Factor structure (Ashton & Lee, 2008). The six-factor HEXACO model has recently surpassed the FFM as the most popular structural model of human personality, notwithstanding the FFM's continued dominance (Ashton & Lee, 2001, 2007; de Vries et al., 2014).

Three HEXACO model dimensions—extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience—are extremely similar to their FFM equivalents. FFM neuroticism and agreeableness are expressed by the alternative rotations of FFM neuroticism and agreeableness, HEXACO emotionality and agreeableness. The emotionality of HEXACO has two sides. FFM neuroticism is characterised by fear and worry, while sentimentality, and is connected to FFM agreeableness. The angry hostility element of FFM, neuroticism is absent from HEXACO emotionality; (Costa & McCrae, 1995) however, the high pole of HEXACO Agreeableness contains Forgiveness and Gentleness, whereas the low pole is characterised by anger-related traits (temperamentalness and irritation). Finally, tell the truth. Humility is characterised by sincerity, modesty, fairness, and a lack of greed (the first two are subsumed under FFM Agreeableness).

The distinctness of Honesty-Humility appears to be the reason why the HEXACO model outperforms the FFM in terms of predicting various forms of aggressive and exploitative attitudes and behaviours. (Ashton & Lee, 2005; Lee et al., 2013 are two examples.) HEXACO outperforms the FFM in identifying phobic dispositions and "realistic" occupational interests, despite the fact that less study has been conducted on emotionality's specific predictive potential (McKay & Tokar, 2012). The FFM (Denissen & Penke, 2008; Nettle, 2006) and the HEXACO model

(Ashton & Lee, 2007; Ashton et al., 2014) have both been interpreted in terms of evolutionary trade-offs.

The HEXACO endeavour-related characteristics of extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness each reflect various amounts of time and effort spent on social, task-related, and idea-related activities. Honesty-humility, agreeability, and emotionality are all believed to have different roles to play in cooperative relationships. The management of reciprocal altruistic relationships is related with honesty-humility and agreeableness. Higher levels of Agreeableness make people more tolerant of the occasional exploitation of others in cooperative relationships, whereas higher levels of honesty-humility make people more likely to refuse opportunities to take advantage of others (Ashton & Lee, 2007; Ashton et al., 2014).

According to this model, the sentimentality and emotional dependence facets of emotionality tap variation in the ability to empathise with others and form emotional attachments, whereas the fear and anxiety facets tap variation in the capacity to avoid risk as a means of ensuring personal survival and, consequently, the capacity to continue making investments in close relatives, especially children. The emotionality-agreeableness rotation in the HEXACO model is perhaps more conceptually grounded than the neuroticism-agreeableness rotation in the FFM, despite the fact that they are both correct. A tendency to feel unfavourable emotions is known as FFM neuroticism (Digman, 1990; McCrae & John, 1992). Negativity may have a common ancestor in the basic feeling of apprehension (Nesse, 2004), but in contemporary humans, they act as adaptive reactions to a wide range of challenges with very unique antecedents, associates, and outcomes. For example, being susceptible to rage is positively correlated with traits (physical toughness and attractiveness) that increase people's ability to bestow benefits and impose costs on

others, and expressing anger can influence others to care more about one's well-being (Sell et al., 2009). Anxiety encourages awareness and avoidance in harmful situations, whereas HEXACO encourages both (Marks & Nesse, 1994). Emotionality is adversely correlated with dominance and (self-perceived) charm (Lukaszewski, 2013).

Trait Theories

Trait theory is one of the most popular approaches to researching personality of humans. This technique defines personality traits as recurring patterns of behaviour, thought, and feelings that occur in a number of contexts. Influence on behaviour, variable levels of responses in different people, and relative stability across time are three main characteristics regarding traits. In his attempt to establish a theory of personality, Allport, 1936 dismissed the idea that personality can be traced back to or linked to fundamental physiological processes in any way. Newborns, he believed, lack a personality, as Leont'ev (1978) would later argue (and the personality traits which have yet to form. At birth, only the rudiments of what is "best and most excellent in man" are provided. The completely formed social and moral being, the fully formed adult personality, awaits the development process. For personality psychology, the nature of growth is an important issue. Above all, it needs to understand how the biological entity it finds at birth develops into an adult capable of participating in the extremely complicated social activities of the civilized world around him (Allport, 1937, p. 101)''.

A pioneer in the study of personality traits was Gordon Allport, who introduced the term "dispositions;". The course of individuality is one of increasing departure from the rather conventional pattern of infancy," writes Allport. The

dynamic substructures that make up a personality are one-of-a-kind integrations generated over the course of an individual's experience and genetics."(1937, p. 245). Whatever innate circumstances exist at birth, they are modified by learning during the course of growth and subsequent experience; their motivational drive is recast, maybe repressed or transformed. The genetic obsession, which searches for the origins of the present in the past, must be abandoned. The adult can function without the help of the child. Individuals get socialized and civilized as a result of their adaptability to contemporary circumstances, and group standards are adopted. The outside (potentially alien) becomes the inner (which follows Vygotsky's general genetic process of cultural development from 1981). Because personality is essentially a question of the introception and modification of social rules, practices, and codes, it is informative to know to what cultural stimuli and patterns the person is confronted during his development," (Allport, 1937, p. 371).

This turned to be true for personality attributes as well. Allport, as previously said, rejected any form of inherent endowment as acceptable or sufficient in attempting to find a unit of analysis in the assessment of personality. These natural endowments or temperaments were subjected to the forces of acquisition or classical conditioning from the beginning, and were modified as a result of these processes. A spontaneous action is shifted to a neutral stimuli .The same and comparable conditioned responses become habits, or systems of integrated conditioned responses, which are stereotyped responses that are triggered in similar repeating situations, over time. According to Allport 1937, the personality unit has to be stable and versatile in order to be useful for survival. To survive, it was vital to learn how to react to a variety of stimuli that appeared to be identical and to adapt to new situations. Habits could not meet such demands. Habits were a rigid sort of reaction elicited by a limited

set of sensory variables in specific contexts. In the hustle and bustle of active interaction in the human sphere, particularly in highly complex sociocultural situations, the inability to respond quickly to novelty would be ineffective. It was necessary to be malleable.

As a result, Allport's preferred unit was founded on intrinsic endowment being turned into habits through conditioning, and then the fusing of habits with similar adaptive relevance into a higher-order system of organization—traits. Traits functioned independently of their composite habits once they had been created. They stopped being mechanical reactions to immediate situations and began to take on an autonomous, directed role in interacting with the world. As Allport determined, the stimulus had been dethroned in this and other developments. New adaptations and features may emerge as the developing youngster encounters new social contexts (e.g., home and school). The kind of the social network to which the person must adapt determines the modifications made and the personality that will emerge. This is relevant to the question of national character and is addressed by Allport's concept of the common trait. Because traits are adaptations to one's environment, it stands to reason that being forced to adapt to identical circumstances will result in similar changes and, ultimately, similar traits. One can expect parallels in the development of personal traits to the extent that conditions are shared among people and that they are subjected to pressure in the direction of culturally recognized norms.

Furthermore, culture often specifies appropriate child-rearing methods and goals. Within a culture, there are factors that favour the creation of basic and common features that, by adulthood, may resemble a national character. According to Allport, common characteristics are traits that a vast amount of people have to varied degrees and that show "those parts of personality with which most persons within a particular

community can be effectively matched” (Allport, 1961, p. 340). It is significant to keep in mind that cultural commonalities do not imply or entail group stereotypes. They're both minor adjustments. There are no two people who have exactly the same characteristics.

The three types of dispositions are: secondary dispositions, which are less visible and less stable individual traits that are noticed in specific contexts, and central dispositions, which are the most prominent and major features that are dominant in an individual's life (for example, narcissism). Allport contends that most people are defined by their central dispositions as opposed to their cardinal dispositions, which are unmistakably dominant and control a person's life. According to Allport, 510 distinct characteristics (known as the central dispositions) can be used to describe an identity of a person and people belonging to the same community or country tend to have similar dispositions. Further development of trait theory has been linked to the use of factor analysis. In addition to generating continuous, bipolar components that can be used to explain individual variations, this method finds trends in enormous amounts of data.

Raymond Cattell 16 PF Model

The following characteristics make up the 16 personality variables that Cattell developed. Warmth (A), Reasoning (B), Emotional Stability (C), Dominance (E), Liveliness (F), Sensitivity (I), 9) Vigilance (L), Abstractedness (M), Privacy (N), Apprehension (O), 13 Openness to Change (Q1), Self-Reliance (Q2), Perfectionism (Q3), and Tension (Q4). The elements in Cattell's model might be related to one another since he used oblique rotation factor analysis (i.e., not independent of one another). To measure these traits, he developed the Sixteen Personality Factor

Questionnaire (16 PF). He believed that a special combination of these characteristics defined personality of each person (Cattell, 1957). These core traits were factored, and he found five second-order, or global, factors: openness/toughness; self-control; extraversion; independence/accommodation; and anxiety.

Based on the findings of multiple abstract variance analysis, Cattell claimed that around two-thirds of personality traits are determined by the environment and one-third are determined by inheritance. He suggested that traits of personality may be used to describe both cultural circles and specific people. He created the word "syntality" to characterise the variety of traits within a group. Cattell examined the syntality of many ecclesiastical, academic, and professional institutions as well as entire nations. The main factors that define a nation's syntality are its magnitude, attitude, prosperity, and degree of globalization (Novikova, 2013). Third influential hypothesis was developed and created a three-factor hierarchical personality model: The three personality types are extraversion vs. introversion, neuroticism vs. stability, and psychoticism vs. socialization. Since he used component analysis with orthogonal rotation, the characteristics in Eysenck's model are uncorrelated.

In all trait models and with the highest factor instability, extraversion versus introversion is one of the key aspects of human personality. The concepts that define extraversion/stability can be found in several psychological theories of temperament, character, and personality. These findings show that these traits (or variables), which pertain to character and personality, are shared by all nations. Based on the following parameters, personality traits are the strongest predictors of socialisation, accounting for five to fifty percent of the variance (often around thirty percent): 1) reliability of measuring parameters of the examined social behaviour employing multi-factor, comprehensive evaluation, along with various methodologies and data sources; 2) the

accuracy of the procedures for assessing the qualities; 3) the existence of a conceptual and scientifically founded link between personality traits and certain social behaviours, which can subsequently be empirically evaluated (Novikova, 2013).

Single Trait Theories

Social psychologists have given a great deal of attention to the theory of and the self-monitoring authoritarian personality, both of which concentrate on a particular attribute traits and have led to hundreds of studies. The authoritarian personality, a theory first put forth by Adorno and his co-workers, has recently seen a novel surge of interest following the first wave of activity in the 1950s. In the 1970s and 1980s, the self-monitoring idea, first presented by Snyder and co-workers, sparked a flurry of study. Due to their immediate significance to social behaviour, both ideas are worth debating.

The Authoritarian Personality

Following World War II, researchers began looking at the psychological traits that could be at least partly responsible for autocratic subservience as well as religious intolerance. Early studies discovered consistent differences between individuals in a collection of beliefs and actions that, when considered collectively, seemed to form a single personality trait. High authoritarians also do highly on related measures like dogmatism and intolerance for ambiguity. Furthermore, they have a proclivity for intolerance toward a range of racial groupings. High authoritarians are meek around authority individuals yet extremely domineering around subordinates, according to studies of trait-relevant behaviours. High authoritarians are also more likely to vote in favour of laws that restrict other people's behaviour alternatives and to discipline their children severely (e.g. alcohol consumption, abortion access). It is unclear which

causes best account for the rise of strong authoritarianism, while the use of harsh parenting methods and genetic influences have not been ruled out (Pettigrew, 2011).

Self-monitoring theory

According to the self-monitoring theory, persons differ greatly in how they choose norms to govern their actions in a given condition. Low self-monitors seem to behave in accordance with internal norms that hardly seem to alter from one setting to the next. They are said to lack self-control because they occasionally act in a way that other people find inappropriate. Due to the continuous application of the same internal rules, low self-monitors exhibit higher levels of behavioural consistency across situations and higher levels of attitude-behaviour consistency. High self-monitors, on the other hand, observe others in a scenario for clues about the predominant rules of morality. They then keep a close eye on their behaviour to make sure that it adheres to the standards others have already established (Snyder, 2009).

High self-monitors exhibit less consistency in their attitude and behaviour than is typical because these norms of behaviour differ based on the context and the group. Another study found that high self-monitors will take part in activities and acquire possessions that give them the ability to be more adaptable in the image they convey to others. This would require a bigger, more varied wardrobe in addition to a great grasp of makeup application. High self-monitors approach friendships differently than low self-monitors do. High self-monitors like to select different friends for various activities based on how well they think their characteristics match those of the scenario. Poor self-monitors seem to be more inclined to select the same companion or group of friends for every activity, no matter how well the friend's characteristics match the needs of the circumstance. The fact that the trait is not always a

homogeneous construct and might be composed of several different traits, including extraversion, is one criticism of this theory. Despite this critique, research suggests that heredity contributes to the development of the trait, while it is yet unknown what roles early environmental variables may potentially play (Garvin, 2007).

Trait Theory as Normative Science

Modern trait theory pillars are not novel-in fact, they date back to antiquity (Stelmack & Stalikas, 1991). However, they owe a lot to the forefathers of psychology of traits, Gordon Allport, Hans Eysenck and Raymond Cattell, and in their current form. When they were both faculty members at university of Harvard, Cattell was affected by Allport early in his career. No one, not even a psychologist, believes that there are certain tendencies or features behind the behaviour of established adults in daily life (Cattell, 1973; Cattell & Kline, 1977).

Nomothetic trait models are largely responsible for the most persuasive early proponent of the idea that the fundamental characteristics of personality may be described by a number of discrete dimensions. Cattell also identified numerous additional personality traits that were not amenable to questionnaire evaluation. Trait models research by Cattell is still relevant today. These models have four distinguishing characteristics. First, the source feature as a latent construct with causal force should be distinguished from surface traits or apparent behavioural regularities. Second, the framework of personality should follow a pyramidal structure; broad features like extraversion and anxiety are described by groups of more define underlying traits, such as dominance, surgency, and venturesomeness in the case of extraversion. Third, it is important to differentiate between the field of personality and other categories of personal traits like aptitude, drive, and mood swings. Fourth,

circumstances lessen the influence of personality features on conduct. The question of whether statistics can ever accurately capture human personality is still up for debate (Pervin, 2002), as are the underlying scaling and measuring presumptions in the evaluation of trait (Barrett, 2005). Nonetheless, for most advanced trait theorists, the four elements of Cattellian theory described below remain fundamental ideas.

2.2.5 Factors affecting on personality traits

Personality may be defined as a set of individual differences that can be discovered between individuals based on their interactions, emotions, cognition, and behavioral patterns. Personality, according to Gould and Weinberg (2014), is the features or blend of attributes that distinguishes a person. What elements have an impact on one's personality? Is personality inherited or influenced by environmental factors? This study looked at the three components that impact personality (sociological, biological, and psychological) and evaluated their relative importance in each. In studies of fruit fly courting patterns (Sokolowski, 2001) and sheep grazing behavior (Launchbaugh, 1999), researchers discovered that genes affect the growth of the brain that assists the formation of behavior.

Freedman (1927–2008) started his personality testing on several dog breeds. He conducted an experiment to see if different breeds shared similar personality qualities, and the results supported his hypothesis (Freedman, 1958). In 1985, Daniel and Nina, developmental psychologists, carried out research to determine whether personality traits are inherited in people. They hypothesized that infants did not affect by culture, and that any personality traits they displayed were solely inherited. They discovered that Asian neonates were more calm and easier to cry than babies of west (Freedman, 1974).

They concluded that docility and friendliness are inherited traits. Different behavioral patterns were recognized as basic temperaments by Keirsey, an American psychologist (1921-2013). He saw an individual's patterns as forming either an artist, a protector, a scientist, or an optimist. Keirsey argued that there were people who were evaluating and feeling, observing and detecting, thinking and reasoning based on Hippocrates' description of the four fluids (Jankowski, 2009). Keirsey had extraverts and introverts in each group who were a good fit (Keirsey, 2015).

According to Robert Plomin, a psychologist (1924–present, psychologist), temperament is the starting point for development of personality. Plomin identified three essential traits that make up temperament: emotionality, activity, and friendliness (Buss, 1984). Buss believed that personalities were inherited. It is defined as a genetically determined part of one's personality. It is the biological component of a person's personality, in a nutshell. It allows two people to have diverse experiences of the 'same' event (Buss, 2011). Soklowski's fruit fly mating patterns, as well as Launch Baugh's sheep grazing behavior, have shown that genes influencing the nervous system can influence temperament. Genetics, an innate neurological network, and docility at birth all affect a person's personality. Temperament seems to be the starting point for the development of personality. However, they aren't the only things that go into determining one's personality. It's important to keep in mind that a person's social culture (Buss, 2011), perceived social standing (Zimbardo, 1999), order of birth (Adler, 1968), and role model (Bandura, 1977) all have a role in how their personality develops. Aristotle (384-322 BC), a philosopher and physicist, noted that people can differ in what they value and find appealing due to cultural variances (Buss, 2011). Aristotle suggested four factors that affected one's social order in society, according to Miller (2012).

Zimbardo (1933–present), an American psychologist, conducted a study in 1971 to examine the influence of social roles on behavior. For a simulated prison test, he divided pupils into two groups. The participating pupils were given instructions on how to act out the parts of prison guards and prisoners, and they noticed that the convicts developed docile attitudes toward the guards, who began to adopt authoritarian views. The weight that people place on their perceived social class has been demonstrated to influence behavior in Zimbardo's experiment. The choice of the learner to be a silent prisoner or an assertive guard may have been influenced by factors such as ethnic background, religious influences, and even birth order. Social position is not the only factor to take into account. Zimbardo stopped this experiment when he realized the emotional toll it was having on his students (Zimbardo, 1999). Alfred Adler, an Austrian psychologist and psychiatrist (1870-1937), developed the idea of distinct personality. After doing work among families with twins, siblings, and adopted children, he was able to suggest that birth order plays a substantial role in determining personality (Adler, 1968). He found a relationship between age and specific personality traits. Adler also looked at how his order of birth affected his educational success and drug use (Littletree.com.au, 2015).

Adler claimed, all newborns experience inferiority due to their powerlessness. One aspires for superiority through the stages of growth. While Adler's theory of birth order affecting personality development has been established, there are other elements at play, such as siblings' genetic nervous system inheritance and the parenting approach used on a firstborn. Adoption studies have revealed that pathological, psychological, and physiological diseases have genetic roots (Haimowitz, 2005). If it can be inferred that birth order is a component that defines personality, more research is required. In addition to theorists who thought that genes controlled a person's

personality and that personality traits were inherited. Skinner (1904–1990), an American psychologist, inventor, and social philosopher, argued that environmental factors influenced (Skinner, 2002). He took an extreme stance, arguing that people merely react to their environment and that "human free choice is a fallacy." The operant conditioning hypothesis of Skinner was influenced by work of Edward Thorndike.

The "law of effect," which was explored by psychologist Thorndike (1874–1959), asserts that any behavior that is followed by a positive result is more likely to be repeated than one that is followed by a negative one (McLeod, 2007). In his experiments, Skinner concentrated on identifying the visible activity that might be observed, which he put to the test with rats and pigeons. He noticed that whether or not reinforcement was positive or negative played a role in the behavior expressed. The social learning theory, which Albert Bandura (1925–present), a Canadian psychologist, opposes, contends that people naturally learn by observing others rather than via their own experiences (Bandura, 1977). According to Bandura, self-efficacy is "the confidence in one's capability to design and carry out the possible solutions necessary to control potential events" (Bandura, 1997). He examined a young child's conduct in an experiment on child violence and non-aggression after having witnessed an adult model act violently toward a doll (Boeree, 2006).

Role models are crucial in determining whether a person's personality development and conduct are good or poor, claims Bandura's social learning theory. The personality, communications, and reaction style of an individual are all influenced by psychological factors. A few of these the psychological mechanisms, relating subliminally to psychological components like a positive or negative mindset and response to varied events, is what causes the dynamism of the human psychology.

Personality is the dynamic arrangement of those psychophysical processes within the individual that govern his characteristics, behavior, and cognition (Allport, 1937).

When a child's personality is still developing, biological variables have a significant role; as a youngster grows older, they begin to develop more and more of their personality (Roberts & Delvecchio, 2000). As a person ages, their culture has a bigger influence on the formation of their personality than their genetic makeup. Both parental upbringing and birth order have an impact on a person's personality development (Misseldine, 1963). Social and cultural elements are more important than psychological ones. The experiment conducted by Zimbardo demonstrates that sociological elements such as societal labels and assumed status have an impact on the attitude and behavior of a person. If a person's temperament is inherited or whether they place importance on their perceived social class, psychological factors are the most crucial because one's perception influences their behavior. The results are empirical in the sense that a person's self-perception may grow over time. The thinking of an individual will determine. How one will act as an adult and what one's disposition will be. Biological, sociocultural, and mental conditions all effect personality development, but each component has a varied impact on personality at different phases of life. To recapitulate, one cannot change their biology, which determine personality, but they can modify their attitude and, consequently, their behaviors, which are affected by their inclinations (Robins et al., 2001). To determine one's personality, one can pick which social rules to follow and which worldview to adopt.

2.2.6 Effect of demographics on gender roles and personality

Gender roles, it has been suggested, are not static but rather change with time. According to numerous research, the ageing process can be used to explain changes in gender roles (Jones et al., 2011; Lemaster et al., 2017). Given the documented variations or "flexibility" in gender roles, it has been suggested that as people age, they grow more androgynous (having high amounts of both masculine and feminine attributes) (Jones et al., 2011; Lemaster et al., 2017). As per other study, a person's varied experiences in life have a bigger impact on these changes. For instance, gender roles change when children start school (Bryant, 2003), when adults enter the workforce, or when couples get married (Fan & Marini, 2000; Jones et al., 2011; Kasen et al., 2006; Lemaster et al., 2017; Nezu & Nezu, 1987). In fact, it has been discovered that full-time workers exhibit more masculine traits (Abele, 2003; Kasen et al., 2006), whilst students exhibit less typical gender norms (Bryant, 2003). Therefore, it would seem that an individual's diverse contexts, experiences, and roles in society could have an impact on how gender roles are formed. According to current cross-sectional and longitudinal studies, personality-trait development can and does happen at all phases of adulthood, even old age. According to cross-sectional study, middle-aged persons score lower on extraversion, neuroticism, and openness than young adults, but higher on agreeableness and conscientiousness (Srivastava et al., 2003).

Additionally, participants aged 60 did better than middle-aged adults aged 40 on the majority of metrics (However, it should be highlighted that cohort effects, such as historical occurrences or shifts in social atmosphere, could mask these conclusions). Interestingly, longitudinal studies, especially of western cultures, have reported similar results. Changes in the values of mean of personality traits were

examined in a meta-analysis of 92 longitudinal studies covering the life course from 10 to 101 (Roberts et al., 2006). At some point in the life cycle, substantial mean-level change in all trait domains was discovered. Similarly to cross-sectional research, statistically significant difference was observed in 75% of personality traits in middle age (40-60) and old age (60+). Clearly, personality qualities change as individuals grow (Mroczek and Mroczek, 2008).

During adulthood, individual variances in attributes of personality are largely stable; if changes occur, they are usually in the direction of increasing maturity. Men and women, from different cultures follow similar patterns. People are more emotionally mature, agreeable, and conscientious as they get older, with better impulse control, but they become less active and open to new activities and values than younger people. Those paths provide various insights into adult development, countering certain unfavorable perceptions about older persons are reminding us that personality is more about enduring individual variations than age (Terracciano et al., 2008). Individuals preserve their relative status, but as a group, they exhibit persistent patterns of slow change with age.

Adults score lower on neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience while higher on agreeableness and conscientiousness when compared to teenagers and college students. The alterations can be summarized in adulthood by observing that neuroticism, extraversion, and openness to experience continue to decrease, while agreeableness and conscientiousness continue to grow significantly (Costa & McCrae, 2003). In middle and old age, however, the effects of time are substantially smaller, around a tenth of a standard deviation every decade. The socioeconomic status (SES) of children has a significant impact on their cognitive and socio emotional development (Bradley & Corwyn, 2005). For example, child personality disorders are

linked to poverty in the neighborhood (Hart et al., 2008). Parents with more cultural capital describe their children as being more open than parents with lower cultural capital, according to a study. Parents with a higher level of cultural capital report a greater rise in openness than those with a lower level of cultural capital (Faust & Watermann, 2017).

2.2.7 Relationship between Gender Role, Personality Traits with Depression and Anxiety

In western society, numerous researches have been undertaken on gender roles and personality traits. Despite the fact that biological factors have been investigated, it has been argued that gender roles, which are defined by the feminine and masculine traits that community allocates to males and females, also need to be taken into consideration.

A research involving 1,227 college students found that male students scored significantly higher on the masculine scale than female students, whereas they did not differ on the feminine scale. Students' scores on the femininity scale were significantly higher than their scores on the masculinity scale (Katsurada & Sugihara, 2006). A study was conducted to determine the impact of gender roles on personality traits. Findings revealed that femininity is a negative predictor of extraversion while masculinity is a positive predictor of extraversion, conscientiousness, and openness to experience. On the other hand femininity is positive predictor of agreeableness, neuroticism, openness to experience and honesty-humility. Whereas masculinity is negative predictor of neuroticism, honesty-humility and agreeableness. The study's findings are also corroborated by those of earlier research, which showed that masculinity enhanced extraversion and conscientiousness. While agreeableness,

neuroticism, honesty, and humility were revealed to be good predictors of femininity. Among them femininity is strongly predicted agreeableness (Lu & Su, 2004).

A study showed that neuroticism and femininity did not significantly correlate. This also demonstrates that men are less neurotic or have lower neuroticism trait scores as a whole. This study found no connection between neuroticism and the feminine identity as well. These results also showed that neither gender nor age had a significant relationship with conscientiousness (Arnold, 2017). Femininity has a strong positive association with agreeableness, masculinity boosts extraversion and conscientiousness while lowering neuroticism (Marusic & Bratko, 1998). According to research, macho males have the lowest level of neuroticism of any gender role category, but masculine females have the highest level of extraversion (Jones et al, 1978). Masculinity and neuroticism have a negative correlation, but masculinity and extraversion have a positive correlation (Zeldow et al, 1985).

Kimlicka et al., (1988) found a positive correlation of masculinity with extraversion and a negative correlation with neuroticism. In a study examining the relationship between masculine and feminine scales and five-factor dimension, According to Lippa and Connely (1990), openness to experience and extraversion have the strongest positive associations with masculinity, whereas neuroticism has the strongest negative ones. According to research, androgynous persons had the greatest extraversion and conscientiousness scores of any gender role category. Furthermore, they scored much lower on the neuroticism scale than the other two categories, along with masculine individuals, although androgynous and feminine subjects scored the highest on openness to experience and agreeableness (Ramanaiah & Detwiler 1992). Furthermore, the five criteria appear to be at least partially related to masculinity and femininity (Digmon, 1990).

The goal of the study was to evaluate the association of gender roles (masculine and feminine) with five factors of personality in adolescents. 464 participants were selected for the purpose of study. Results show that masculinity affects neuroticism and agreeableness adversely while favourably influencing extraversion and conscientiousness. On the other hand, strong positive relationship between agreeableness and femininity is evident, but weak positive relationships are seen with the other four dimensions (Bratko & Marusic, 1998). Another study was conducted to see the connection of masculine and feminine gender roles with Big Five dimensions of personality in a Chinese context. Findings of the study reveal that extraversion, conscientiousness, and to a lesser extent, agreeableness were all substantially associated with masculinity. While strong association between agreeableness and femininity was found (Zheng & Zheng, 2011).

Most researches using students as subjects have examined how gender roles affect depressive and anxious symptoms. We examined the impact of gender roles on depression and anxiety in healthy employees and students for this study. 108 students (50 men) and 151 workers (75 men) aged 18 to 65 were included. Higher masculinity was linked to fewer symptoms of depression and anxiety. Meanwhile, only students were found to have a connection between masculinity and anxiety. Higher levels of femininity were associated with higher levels of anxiety and lower levels of symptoms of depression, and these correlations were unaffected by a person's status as an employee or learner. Gender roles may have different effects on mental health depending on the student/worker level (Arcand et al, 2020).

Human development indices and study year both lessen the association between depression and gender roles. The protective effect of masculinity against depression has been demonstrated, however it has diminished as people have lived

longer. Depression and femininity are linked negatively, weakly, but significantly in women and college students, and this association starts to emerge with the gradual rise in the national education and income index from 1990 to 2019. Androgynous people reported the lowest rates of depression when compared to people who fit other gender norms (masculine, feminine, and undifferentiated trait group). This difference is getting worse as life expectancy and the per capita income index rise. The most ideal gender role for both men and women to avoid depression may be androgyny (Lin et al, 2021).

A worldwide cross-sectional survey of adults aged 65 to 74 was conducted, participants were divided into gender roles (masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated). Comparatively to the masculine, feminine, and androgynous categories, men and women who identified as the undifferentiated type had higher rates of symptoms of depression. Only those who supported the androgynous stance were shown to be 28% less likely to experience depression than those who supported the masculine role after adjusting for relevant confounders. The prevalence rates of depression among men in the two other gender groups of feminine and undifferentiated in fully adjusted models were comparable to those among women in the two other gender groups of feminine and undifferentiated. Androgynous roles were connected to a lower prevalence of depression in elderly people, regardless of whether they were men or women. Depression was found to be strongly associated with both femininity and masculinity. These findings demonstrate that melancholy levels increased along with the sample's identification with both feminine and masculine identities (Vafaei et al, 2016).

People's mental health is affected by the gender roles they adopt; in general, male gender roles are associated with mental sickness (Mansdotter et al, 2009),

however, there is a relationship between femininity and bad mental health (Bassoff & Glass, 1982). Adult androgyny is associated with better mental wellbeing (Lefkowitz & Zeldow, 2006; Bauserman & Shifren, 1996). In Spain Vafaei et al., (2014) and in Canada Rose et al., (2009), older androgynous displayed more mental well-being, whether they were males or females, androgynous roles were associated with a decreased prevalence of depression in older persons (Vafaei et al, 2016).

According to studies, an androgynous profile indicates favourable results including), reduced anxiety (Goodman & Kantor, 1983; Moscovitch et al., 2005; Thornton & Leo, 1992), and lesser stress (Goodman & Kant 1990; Johnson et al., 2006). Contrarily, individual having are undifferentiated display inferior masculine and feminine traits, exhibit higher degrees of anxiety (Bem, 1977; Flett et al., 2009; Moscovitch et al., 2005, Thornton & Leo, 1992). Findings reveal that increased association of masculine features is linked to decreased depression (Grimmell & Stern, 1992; Lengua & Stormshak, 2000; Nezu & Nezu, 1987), and decreased anxiety as well (Grimmell & Stern, 1992; Johnson et al., 2006; Lengua & Stormshak, 2000; Moscovitch et al., 2005; Nezu & Nezu, 1987; Stoyanova & Hope, 2012). Others discovered an inverse relationship (Gibson et al., 2016; Stoppard & Paisley, 1987; Waelde et al., 1994. While some studies have found no connection between feminine traits and symptoms of depression (Bromberger & Matthews, 1996; Feather, 1985; Grimmell & Stern, 1992; Whitley, 1985). These results demonstrate that characteristics of males favour improved outcomes, while the significance of feminine characteristics is still debated, specifically in the case of depression. Gonzalez et al., (2012); Whitley, (1985), supported the findings that showed depression was negatively associated with masculinity.

A population of 70-year-olds was studied to determine whether gender expression was associated with depression and the severity of depressive symptoms. While androgyny and masculine traits were associated with lower depression, feminine traits were associated with higher depression. More specifically, we found that higher levels of depression were associated with femininity, regardless of biological sex. Furthermore, a lower incidence of depression was associated with androgyny and masculinity. These results highlight the need for gender expression to be taken into account in future research that looks at sex variations in depression in older populations (Sterner et al., 2020). In addition, both femininity and masculinity have been found to have strong unfavorable correlations with depression. There is a negative correlation between depression and both femininity and masculinity (Erikson, 1963).

The Big 5 model (openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism; Costa & McCrae, 1995) has been useful for synthesising personality literature, however researchers have discovered serious faults (Jackson & Paunonen, 2000). Findings show that neuroticism/negative emotionality, extraversion/positive emotionality, and conscientiousness are all connected to depression (Klein et al., 2011). Depression and anxiety symptoms were closely linked to neuroticism. Anxiety and depression symptoms were found to be negatively correlated with extraversion (Isomesta & Jylha, 2006). The current study examined potential connections between personality and depressive experience in a sample of men and women. According to correlational studies, there is a strong, positive correlation between the "Big Five" neuroticism scores and depression scores (Erikson, 1963). In the sample used for this investigation, conscientiousness and depression were both associated. Particularly low conscientiousness scores were connected to an increase in depression symptoms.

According to the statistics, neuroticism appears to have a greater association with depression in this demographic. Once more, this supports and validates decades of research on the trait, which demonstrates that it has negative effects when present at high quantities (Ormell et al., 2013; Mandelli et al., 2015). The association between depression and neuroticism has a significant impact. Overall, it was discovered that neuroticism was a better predictor of depression than other personality characteristics (Arnold, 2017).

People who have increased extraversion level, for instance, may be the life of the party (Anglim et al, 2017). Relationship between personality traits and psychological variables was discovered. The score of neuroticism was higher in depressive and anxious patients. Study revealed a relationship between depression, anxiety, or having a high levels of neuroticism and low levels of extraversion and agreeableness. Finally, having depression or anxiety was associated with high levels of neuroticism and low levels of agreeableness and extraversion, as well as experiencing significant psychological distress (Afshar et al, 2015). The findings revealed significant differences in the big five personality traits between male and female students. Girls outperformed boys significantly in the areas of agreeableness and openness to experience (Rahmani & lavasani, 2012). In a study, it was discovered that extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness to experience had a negative relationship with depressive symptoms. Anxiety and emotionality were positively correlated, while conscientiousness and agreeableness were negatively correlated. Additionally, anxiety had a negative correlation with extraversion as well as a negative correlation with honesty and humility. The depression group scored significantly lower on extraversion, conscientiousness, openness to experience, and agreeableness as compared to the non-depression group (Kim et al., 2016).

A significant, advantageous relationship between neuroticism and depression was discovered by another investigation. An important inverse relationship between conscientiousness and depression was found. Higher levels of depression were associated with lower levels of conscientiousness and higher levels of neuroticism (Arnold, 2017). High neuroticism was linked to major depressive disorder and generalized anxiety disorder (Bienvenu et al, 2004). The results of another study revealed that extraversion was negatively related with depressive symptoms, while neuroticism is positively associated. As a consequence, the neuroticism facets of sadness and angry hostility predicted depressive symptoms favourably, but the extraversion facets of pleasant emotions and openness facets of actions predicted depressive symptoms unfavourably (Chioqueta & Stile, 2005).

Females revealed higher levels of neuroticism, and depression than males, as well as lower levels of socialized masculine gender role (instrumentality), males were marginally more likely than females to have depressed symptoms (Peggilee, 2003). Women scored higher on the Big Five scales for extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism than men, which supports past findings. At the level of the aspects, gender disparities were found to be more pervasive, with notable gender differences in both aspects of every Big Five trait. Extraversion, openness to experience, and conscientiousness gender differences were shown to diverge at the aspect level, rendering them small or undetectable at the Big Five level. These results clarify the nature of gender differences in personality and highlight the importance of evaluating personality on an aspect-by-aspect basis (Hirsh & Weisberg, 2011). Neuroticism, agreeableness, warmth, and openness to feelings were all higher in women, but assertiveness and openness to ideas were higher in men.

Women showed the largest positive correlations between agreeableness and conscientiousness. Whitley and Gridley (1993) corroborated the five-factor model's findings on the relationship between masculinity and negative affectivity or neuroticism elements, while femininity revealed no such relationship. The association between gender and depression was examined. Neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness were all considerably greater in women than in men; contrarily, men had much greater degrees of openness to experience. Women are more likely to experience depression than men. The results showed that neuroticism significantly influenced the link between being a woman and serious depression, even after adjusting for gender, gender role was remained statistical significance. These findings suggest that the well-known gender gap in depression may be influenced by gender variations in personality traits, particularly neuroticism (Goodwin & Gotlib, 2004). According to the World Health Organization (WHO), women's depression rates are up to twice as high as men's (2012–2016). Women are at least 1.5 times more likely than males to develop depressed symptoms, according to research. The result has revealed that women's higher risk of depression is due to a biological or genetic factor (Brems, 1995; Hoeksema, 1990).

2.2.8 Pakistani Literature

There is minimal work on the relationship between gender role and personality traits in eastern literature with focus of Bem sex role theory. The local Pakistani literature mostly reported studies either based on biologically determined sex roles (i.e., male and female gender) or indigenously developed measure of gender role attitude (Kalsoom & Kamal, 2020; Kamal & Ansari, 1992; Kamal & Saqib, 2004). Different studies of gender roles exploration used indigenously developed Gender

Role Attitudes scale by Kamal and Ansari (1992) and further modified by Kamal and Saqib (2004).

Kulsoom and Kamal (2020) studied gender role attitudes in conjunction with a variety of variables, including perceived multi-tasking skills and preferences, marital adjustment of married working adults, and Pakistani adolescent professional goals. Aziz and Kamal 2012, also investigated the attitudes of gender roles and career aspirations of Pakistani adolescents. A study was conducted to examine the relationship of personality traits and gender role attitudes among professional of traditional and non- traditional occupations (Hanif & Zahra2012). Another study on personality traits was undertaken in Pakistan. In this regard, an attempt was made to look into the differences in academic accomplishment between rural and urban secondary school pupils based on their personality qualities (Ali & Jan 2019). A study was conducted to see the gender roles and their influence on life prospects for women in urban areas of Karachi, Pakistan (Ali et al., 2011). Pervaiz and Malik (2021) studied gender roles with psychological wellbeing which shows significant positive relationship between gender roles and psychological well-being. Therefore, the present study not only fill the gap in Pakistani literature but also adding valuable information in Bem Sex Role theory by measuring not only masculinity and femininity traits but also exploring androgynous and undifferentiated traits of gender roles.

The study was conceptualized to explore the psychopathology with reference to personality traits and gender roles. A study conducted by Sami and Naveeda (2020), sought to determine whether there was a relationship between personality traits and depression. A total of 302 educators (110 boys and 192 girls) were selected from Rawalpindi and Islamabad institutions using convenient sampling. The sample's

age ranged from 18 to 25. The findings of this study demonstrated a strong positive correlation between neuroticism and depressive symptoms. On the other side, it was discovered that extraversion and conscientiousness had a significant inverse connection with depressive symptoms. Moreover, findings show that neuroticism is a positive predictor of depressive symptoms in early adolescence. Furthermore, the results of this study could aid in identifying personality features that put people at risk of depression (Sami & Naveeda, 2020).

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This study was performed to investigate the association between gender roles, personality traits with depression and anxiety. The research design, tools to measure the study variables, verification and validation of these instruments, sampling procedure, population, data collection details, and statistical plan are all included in this section.

3.2 Research Design

This study was cross sectional in nature with two phases.

3.2.1 Phase 1

Objectives

The objectives of the study is to translate the English version of Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI, Bem, 1974), Mini International Personality Item Pool (Mini-IPIP 6, Sibley, 2011), The Centre for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CESD, Radloff, 1977), The Centre for Epidemiological Studies Anxiety Scale (CESA, Radloff, 1977, and to explore the psychometric properties of Urdu translated measures in local context.

Step I: Translation of the Measures

The four scales are all written in English. As a result, the following processes were used to translate these scales into Urdu (See measures in the main study, page no # 84). The requirement for scale translation in Urdu (national language) was felt to make the scales easier to understand for the local sample group and to eliminate response biases in the research. Brislin (1970) established a step-by-step technique for translation that was followed.

Stage 1: Forward Translation of the Scales in Urdu Language by the Experts

The procedure began with the distribution of scales to three bilingual specialists with a minimum level of MPhil. Those specialists were humbly asked to translate each scale in a way that was culturally suitable. All of the translations were completely free of errors, linguistically correct, and logical.

Stage 2: Selection of the Finest Translation by Committee Approach

Three committee members from NUML University's department of applied psychology analysed and reviewed the translated versions further. Those members of the committee were well aware of the study's purpose and scrutinised the translations for their genuine meaning. The optimum translation for each scale was chosen to be used in this study after unanimous agreement from all committee members.

Stage 3: Back Translation of Scales in the English Language by Experts

All of the selected translations were given to a different group of language specialists with the request that they be translated backward in the English language to examine the accuracy of the Urdu translated scales.

Stage 4: Committee Approach after the Backward Translation Phase

The members of the committee were asked to review the backward-translated versions of the scales once more. The panel compared the backward translation of the Urdu scales into English language with the authors' original scales at this phase. The purpose of this stage was to make sure that the Urdu translations with cultural connotations contained the genuine meanings of the original scales. With respect to the original scale objects, the specialists carefully determined the appropriate back-translated things. As a result, the Urdu translated versions of the scales were found to be ideal for collecting data from the local sample employed in the first phase of this study.

Step 2 (Pilot testing)

After the scales were successfully translated, all scales were administered to a small sample of the entire population. The primary goal of the pilot testing is to investigate the psychometric properties of scales as well as their utility and accuracy among the native population

Sample

120 Adults (Males =50%, Females =50%, Married =57, Single =63) in the age range of 18-60 years (M =32.70; SD =10.32) were taken from Islamabad and Rawalpindi.

Measures

Following measures are used in present study. For details see main study (page # 84)

- Urdu version of Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) Bem, 1974.
- Urdu version of the Mini International Personality Item Pool (Mini-IPIP) Sibley et al, 2011.
- Urdu version of The Centre for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CESD) Radloff, 1977.
- Urdu version of The Centre for Epidemiological Studies Anxiety Scale (CESA) Radloff, 1977.

Procedure

The study was approved from Board of Advanced Studies and Research (BASR), a permission letter was assigned from university to collect the data from different educational institutions, offices and organizations. Questionnaires were used to collect the data for pilot study. Before collection of the data, research ethics were addressed in detail, including assurances of anonymity, security, confidentiality and the freedom

to discontinue the study at any time. All the questionnaires along with demographic sheet was given and asked them to fill completely. Instructions on how to complete the questionnaires were given to participants. They were informed that there are no right or incorrect answers, and their answers will be treated as confidential, and that the data gathered will only be utilised for study purpose. The whole procedure took about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. The goal of the study was explained to these individuals, and their consent was acquired. All participants in the pilot project gave written agreement after being informed about the study's objective and goal, and after being assured that their information/identity would be kept private.

Results

Table 3.1

Descriptive Statistics Along With Alpha Reliability Coefficients of Scales (N = 120)

Scales	Total items	α	M	SD	Range		S	K
					Actual	Potential		
BSRI	60							
Masculine Characteristics	20	.74	94.09	14.91	32-140	20-140	-.13	-.18
Feminine Characteristics	20	.78	102.54	14.59	37-140	20-140	-.42	.23
MINI IPIP	24							
Extraversion	4	.60	15.33	4.27	4-28	4-28	-.02	.31
Agreeableness	4	.70	19.63	3.67	4-28	4-28	.03	-.55
Conscientiousness	4	.70	18.33	4.47	4-28	4-28	-.18	.47
Neuroticism	4	.60	16.39	3.15	4-28	4-28	-.07	.32
Openness to experience	4	.65	18.00	3.43	7-28	4-28	.38	.27
Honesty-Humility	4	.70	15.81	5.43	4-28	4-28	.04	-.55
CESD	20	.79	23.03	9.19	0-56	0-60	.16	-.30
CESA	20	.91	18.34	12.12	0-60	0-60	.44	-.61

Note: α = Cronbach Alpha; M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation; S = Skewness; K = Kurtosis; BSRI = Bem Sex - Role Inventory; MINI IPIP 6= International Personality Item Pool; Scale; CESD= The Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale; CESA = The Center for Epidemiological Studies Anxiety Scale

Results in the table evidently represent that the Cronbach alpha reliability values of all the scales are above the expected range which is .70 (see Fields, 2013).

Furthermore, the values of skewness and kurtosis are also within the satisfactory range, i.e.; +2 to -2 (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2012). Hence, it was concluded that the scales and their subscales were appropriate to be used with the Pakistani population.

3.2 Item total correlation

Table 3.2

Item total correlation of BEM (N=120)

Masculinity		Femininity	
Item number	<i>r</i>	Item number	<i>r</i>
1	.46**	2	.47**
4	.51**	5	.51**
7	.49**	8	.28**
10	.40**	11	.58**
13	.31**	14	.27**
16	.57**	17	.58**
19	.27**	20	.22**
22	.49**	23	.52**
25	.59**	26	.60**
28	.57**	29	.51**
31	.44**	32	.62**
34	.46**	35	.53**
37	.51**	38	.57**
40	.39**	41	.40**
43	.53**	44	.58**

46	.32**	47	.33**
49	.55**	50	.26**
52	.39**	53	.38**
55	.53**	56	.51**
58	.49**	59	.58**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Above table shows that each item of masculinity and femininity is significantly positively correlated with total score of the scale and reported highest correlation which value is .60.

Table 3.3

Item total correlation of (MINI IPIP) (N=120)

Item number	<i>r</i>	Item number	<i>r</i>
Extraversion		Conscientiousness	
1	.61**	3	.64**
7	.55**	10	.54**
19	.59**	11	.63**
23	.65**	22	.68**
Agreeableness		Neuroticism	
2	.54**	4	.55**
8	.72**	15	.61**
14	.53**	16	.54**
20	.62**	17	.14**

Openness to experience		Honesty- Humility	
5	.34**	6	.69**
9	.65**	12	.70**
13	.61**	18	.75**
21	.61**	24	.72**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Above table shows that each item of personality scale is significantly positively correlated with total score of the scale.

Table 3.4

Item total correlation of Center of epidemiological studies for depression (CESD)

(N=120)

Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No.	<i>r</i>
1	.60**	11	.59**
2	.45**	12	.20*
3	.54**	13	.54**
4	.20*	14	.56**
5	.380**	15	.46**
6	.47**	16	.20*
7	.32**	17	.59**
8	.21*	18	.65**
9	.60**	19	.46**
10	.71**	20	.48**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Above table shows that each item of depression scale is significantly positively correlated with total score of the scale.

Table 3.5

Item total correlation of Center of epidemiological studies for anxiety (CESA)
(*N=120*)

Item No	<i>r</i>	Item No	<i>r</i>
1	.50**	11	.65**
2	.59**	12	.66**
3	.57**	13	.62**
4	.55**	14	.57**
5	.67**	15	.56**
6	.51**	16	.72**
7	.45**	17	.53**
8	.66**	18	.68**
9	.66**	19	.75**
10	.58**	20	.57**

p* < .05, *p* < .01

Above table shows that each item of anxiety scale is significantly positively correlated with total score of the scale.

Table 3.6*Correlation among scales (N=120)*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Masculine Traits	-									
2 Feminine Traits	.56**	-								
3 Extraversion	.20*	.06	-							
4 Agreeableness	.19*	.30**	.06	-						
5 Conscientiousness	.18	.37**	.14	.20*	-					
6 Neuroticism	-.11	-.04	-.10	-.19*	.07	-				
7 Openness to Experience	.08	.09	-.07	.414**	.000	-.110	-			
8 Honesty Humility	-.30**	-.07	-.03	.11	.09	.03	.03	-		
9 Depression	-.01	-.17	-.06	-.24**	-.20*	.33**	-.18*	-.33**	-	
10 Anxiety	-.05	-.19*	-.05	-.32**	-.29**	.21*	-.23*	-.17	.61**	-
Mean	94.09	102.54	15.33	19.63	18.33	16.39	18.00	15.81	23.03	18.34
SD	14.91	14.59	4.27	3.67	4.46	3.14	3.43	5.43	9.19	12.12

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Above table reveals that masculine traits are significantly positively associated with extraversion and agreeableness and significantly negatively correlated to honesty-humility. Whereas femininity shows significant positive relationship with agreeableness and conscientiousness and negative significant correlation with anxiety in an individual. Moreover, agreeableness and conscientiousness have significant negative association with both depression and anxiety. Neuroticism and openness to experience exhibit significant positive connection with depression and anxiety. On the other hand honesty-humility is significantly negatively correlated to depression. Others are not significant but there exist direction of relationship between variables.

3.2.3 Phase II: Main Study

After successful completion of Phase I, the Phase II of the research was initiated in which the relationship among the research variables were explored within the indigenous context.

3.3 Research Instruments

3.3.1 Demographic sheet

Demographic sheet was developed to obtain the demographic information from the participants. The sheet consisted of age, gender, education, family system, occupational status, marital status, and monthly income.

3.3.2 Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI)

Urdu version Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI, 1974) was developed by Sandra Bem. It is a self-report measure to assess particular gender role (Masculinity, femininity, androgyny and undifferentiated). It examines how people psychologically define themselves. It is a 7-point likert scale ranging from 1 ("Never or almost never true") to 7 ("Always or almost always true"). 60 attributes are evenly distributed, with 20 masculine, 20 feminine, and 20 gender-neutral filler traits. The coefficient alphas for the femininity scales are .78 and the masculinity scale is .87.

3.3.3 Mini International Personality Item Pool (Mini-IPIP 6)

Urdu version of the Mini International Personality Item Pool (Mini-IPIP), mainly developed by Sibley et al, 2011. It 7 point likert scale from 1 (very inaccurate) to 7 (very accurate) with 24 items, divided into six subscales, each with 4 items.

Extraversion (1, 7, 19 and 23. Agreeableness (2, 8, 14, and 20). Conscientiousness has

three levels: 3, 10, 11, and 22. Neuroticism (4, 15, 16, and 17. Openness to experience (5, 9, 13, and 21). Honesty-Humility (6, 12, 18, and 24). It has an alpha reliability is $>.70$ (Bulut & Mededovic, 2017).

3.3.4 The Centre for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale (CESD)

Urdu version of The CES-D scale is a short self-report questionnaire mainly developed by Radloff, 1977. It is 4 point likert scale from 0 (less than 1 day) to 3 (5-7 days) and it has 20 items. The CESD has been proved to be a reliable tool for determining the quantity, kinds, and duration of depression symptoms in people of all races, genders, and ages (Knight et al., 1997; Radloff, 1977; Roberts et al., 1989). Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranging from .85 to .90 (Radloff, 1977). It is based on the depression symptoms of DSM-5. This scale is still reliable and valid at international level. This scale is still used in many international studies (Klokgieters, 2021; Pickard, 2006; Roth et al., 2008; Sidway et al., 2017).

3.3.5 The Centre for Epidemiological Studies Anxiety Scale (CESA)

Urdu version of The Center for Epidemiologic Studies Anxiety Scale (CESA) mainly developed by Radloff, 1977. It is a 4 point likert scale from 0 to 3. It consists of 20 items with 3 parts A (1 to 7 items), B (8 to 19 items) and C (item number 20), It has .83 reliability rating. It is designed on the anxiety symptoms of DSM-5. This scale is still reliable and valid at international level. This scale is still used in many international studies (Faro & William, 2020; Reer, 2004; Kumar et al., 2017; Faro et al., 2020).

3.4 Sampling technique and population

Convenient sampling was used in the present study. Sample of 941 adults (Males = 449, Females = 492, with $M= 36.36$, $SD= 12.40$) between the age of 18 and 60 years was taken from Islamabad and Rawalpindi.

Inclusion criteria/ Exclusion criteria

The inclusion criteria are characteristics that the prospective subjects must have if they are to be included in the study. Current study consisted of individuals who have education more than 8th grade and easily understand and read Urdu language (up to matric) with age range of 18-60 were included in the study. Exclusion criteria are those characteristics that disqualify prospective subjects from inclusion in the study. Adults who were physically and psychologically handicapped and had education less than 8th grade were not included in the study. Those who were below 18, and above 60 years were also not included in this study.

Table 3.7

Sample Distribution for Main Study (N = 941)

Variables	<i>f%</i>	<i>Mean (SD)</i>
Age (In Years)		36.36 (12.40)
Gender		
Males	449 (47.71)	
Emerging Adults	165 (36.75)	
Established Adults	151 (33.63)	
Middle Adults	133 (29.62)	

Females	492 (52.3)
Emerging Adults	169 (34.35)
Established Adults	172 (34.96)
Middle Adults	151 (30.69)
Education	
Up To Matric	159 (16.94)
Intermediate	273 (29.01)
Bachelors	180 (19.13)
Masters Or Higher	329 (34.96)
Family System	
Joint	447 (47.50)
Nuclear	494 (52.50)
Monthly Income	
Marital Status	
Married	575 (61.11)
Unmarried	366 (38.89)
Occupational Status	
Student	218 (23.17)
Employed	439 (46.65)
Unemployed	37 (3.93)
Retired	57 (6.06)
House Wife	190 (20.19)

f = Frequency, %= percentage, M = Mean, SD = Standard Deviation

3.6 Procedure

The study was approved by Board of Advanced Studies and Research (BASR), a permission letter signed by the university authority was assigned to collect the data from different educational institutions, offices and organizations. Convenient sampling was used to approach the sample. Participants provided informed consent. Goal of the study was explained to the participants. Research ethics, such as anonymity, security, confidentiality and the freedom to discontinue the study at any time, were guaranteed. It was completely explained to them that there are no right or incorrect responses, their answers will be kept anonymous, and that the data collected for this study will only be used for research purposes. Following that, the participants were given a demographic sheet as well as all of the questionnaires for which the authors had granted prior consent (see Annexures). It took 10-15 minutes to fill the forms. After completion, all participants were acknowledged and appreciated for their precious time and participation.

3.7 Data Analysis

After collecting and assembling the data in SPSS 21 sheet, data was screened and cleaned in order to check the major errors and remove them which can create problems in further analysis. Normal distribution was checked to see whether the parametric assumptions were fulfilled or not. Descriptive statistics were used for continuous data to find out the mean, SD, skewness and kurtosis etc. For categorical data percentages and frequencies were calculated. To establish the relationships between study variables, bivariate correlation was performed. Multiple linear regression was used to explore the predictive role of gender roles and personality

traits on depression and anxiety among adults. To find out the differences based on demographic variables (i.e. age, gender, marital status and familial structure, etc.) on study variables, independent sample t-test, ANOVA and MANOVA were used.

3.8 Research Ethics

The study was approved from University Board of Advance Studies and Research (BASR) after following the rules derived for M.Phil. dissertation in NUML Police. The participants approach conveniently and the informed consent was taken. They were briefed about the study and they were given the option to leave the study at any time. They were given the assurances that they would not ever experience bodily or emotional damage during participation. Participant were treated with respect and dignity. Special thanks were offered to the participants for their participation.

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

The goal of the current study was to determine how gender roles and personality traits related to adult depression and anxiety. This study also sought to explore predictive role of gender roles, personality traits on depression and anxiety among adults. The objective of the study also included examining the variations among demographic variables, such as age, gender, family structure and marital status. The results gathered after running various analyses on the main study sample have been demonstrated in tables along with the relevant description of the data.

4.1 Descriptive Analysis and Reliability Evaluation of the Variables

Descriptive statistics regarding study variables were measured for adults (N= 941). In the following section, all of the results of the SPSS analyses are presented in the form of tables. All of the scales 'Cronbach alpha and descriptive were calculated, and the results are shown below.

Table 4.1*Descriptive Statistics along with Alpha Reliability Coefficients (N = 941).*

Scales	Total		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Range		<i>S</i>	<i>K</i>
	items	α			Actual	Potential		
BSRI	60							
Masculine Traits	20	.81	95.25	16.62	32-140	20-140	-.39	.30
Feminine Traits	20	.81	103.06	15.14	37-140	20-140	-.61	.51
MINI IPIP	24							
Extraversion	4	.60	15.83	4.65	4-28	4-28	.06	.14
Agreeableness	4	.65	19.77	3.99	4-28	4-28	.06	-.26
Conscientiousness	4	.71	19.10	4.51	4-28	4-28	.01	-.35
Neuroticism	4	.61	15.56	3.27	4-28	4-28	-.24	.41
Openness to experience	4	.70	18.11	3.86	7-28	4-28	.12	.03
Honesty-Humility	4	.75	15.72	5.47	4-28	4-28	-.00	-.55
CESD	20	.86	23.39	11.32	0-56	0-60	.39	-.42
CESA	20	.92	17.15	12.75	0-60	0-60	.74	-.07

Note: α = Cronbach Alpha; *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation; *S* = Skewness; *K* = Kurtosis; BSRI = Bem Sex - Role Inventory; MINI IPIP 6= International Personality Item Pool; Scale; CESD= The Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression Scale; CESA = The Center for Epidemiological Studies Anxiety Scale.

All of the scales employed in the study have descriptive statistics and alpha reliabilities are shown in above table. According to reliability studies, each scale has Cronbach alpha average to high values. In order to classify a test as good, the reliability coefficient must be in the range of .7 to .9 (Kline, 2000, p. 13). Descriptive for variables is also demonstrated in the table. The data is distributed normally,

according to the skewness (+2 to -2) and normality checks and parametric test assumptions are met. As a result, this test can be used to validate the hypotheses.

4.2 Relationship between Study Variables

To investigate the bivariate relationship between the study variable, Pearson correlation analysis was carried out.

Table 4.2*Correlation Matrix of the study variables (N= 941)*

S#	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	Masculine Trait	-	.46**	.17**	.11**	.15**	-.16**	.12**	-.20**	-.15**	-.11**
2	Feminine Trait		-	.05	.29**	.30**	-.10*	.06	-.15*	-.11**	-.08*
3	Extraversion			-	.23**	.12**	-.14**	.11**	-.06	-.15**	-.10**
4	Agreeableness				-	.35**	-.15**	.41**	.15**	-.21**	-.20**
5	Conscientiousness					-	-.18**	.21**	.14**	-.34**	-.27**
6	Neuroticism						-	-.14**	-.03	.35**	.27**
7	Openness to Experience							-	.21**	-.27**	-.28**
8	Honesty-Humility								-	-.17**	-.10**
9	Depression									-	.60**
10	Anxiety										-
	Mean	95.25	103.06	15.83	19.77	19.10	15.56	18.11	15.72	23.39	17.15
	SD	16.62	15.14	4.65	3.98	4.51	3.27	3.86	5.47	11.32	12.75

*p< 0.05, **p< 0.01

Above table shows that masculine traits are significantly positively associated with extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness and openness to experience.

There is a negative significant correlation between masculine traits and neuroticism, honesty-humility, and depression along with anxiety. Feminine traits show significant positive association with agreeableness and conscientiousness but significant negative with neuroticism, honesty-humility, depression and anxiety. Neuroticism is significantly positively related to depression and anxiety while rest of the personality traits exhibit negative significant association with both depression and anxiety.

4.3 Regression Analysis

To explore the effect of independent variable (gender roles and personality traits) on dependent variables (depression and anxiety) multiple regression analysis was performed. The results of the analysis with their respective explanation are presented below.

Table 4.3

Multiple linear regression analysis on Extraversion, agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism Openness to experience and Honesty-Humility by masculinity and femininity (N= 941)

Variables	Extraversion					Agreeableness					Conscientiousness				
	B	SE B	B	95% CI		B	SE B	B	95% CI		B	SE B	β	95% CI	
				LL	UL				LL	UL				LL	UL
Masculine Traits	.05	.01	.18***	.03	.07	-.01	.01	-.03	-.03	.01	.00	.01	.01	-.01	.02
Feminine Traits	-.01	.01	-.01	-.03	.01	.08	.01	.31***	.06	.10	.09	.01	.30***	.07	.109
	$R = .17, R^2 = 0.29, (F = 13.76***)$					$R = .30, R^2 = .09, (F=45.36***)$					$R = .30, R^2 = .09, (F=47.38***)$				
Variables	Neuroticism					Openness to experience					Honesty-Humility				
	B	SE B	B	95% CI		B	SE B	β	95% CI		B	SE B	β	95% CI	
				LL	UL				LL	UL				LL	UL
Masculine Traits	-.03	.01	-.17***	-.05	-.02	.03	.01	.11**	.01	.04	-.07	.01	-.21***	-.09	-.05
Feminine Traits	.00	.01	.01	-.01	.02	.00	.01	.00	-.02	.02	.01	.01	.02	-.02	.03
	$R = .17, R^2 = .03, (F = 12.97***)$					$R = .12, R^2 = .01, (F=6.37**)$					$R = .20, R^2 = .04, (F=19.77***)$				

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 4.3 shows the effect of gender roles (masculine and feminine) on personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism openness to experience and honesty-humility). Masculine gender role is significant positive predictor of extraversion ($\beta = .18$, $p < .001$) and masculine and feminine gender roles jointly explain 29% variance ($R = .17$, $\Delta R^2 = 0.29$, $F = 13.76$, $p < .001$) and openness to experience ($\beta = .11$, $p < .01$). Feminine gender role is significant positive predictor of agreeableness ($\beta = .311$, $p < .001$) and conscientiousness ($\beta = .30$, $p < .001$) with the variance of 9%. Furthermore, masculine gender roles is significant negative predictor of neuroticism ($\beta = -.17$, $p < .001$) and masculine gender role accounts for 3% variance ($R = .17$, $\Delta R^2 = .03$, $F = 12.97$, $p < .001$) and honesty-humility ($\beta = -.21$, $p < .001$) with 4% variance ($R = .20$, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $F = 19.77$, $p < .001$).

Table 4.4

Multiple Regression Analysis on Depression and Anxiety by Gender roles (N=941)

Depression					
Variables	B	SE B	β	95% CI	
				LL	UL
Masculine Traits	-.08	.03	-.12**	-.13	-.03
Feminine Traits	-.04	.03	-.06	-.09	.01
$R = .16$, $R^2 = .25$, ($F = 12.17$ ***)					
Anxiety					
Variables	B	SE B	β	95% CI	
				LL	UL
Masculine Traits	-.06	.02	-.08*	-.12	-.01
Feminine Traits	-.03	.03	-.04	-.09	.02
$R = .11$, $R^2 = .01$, ($F = 5.95$ **)					

*** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$, * $p < .05$

Table 4.4 shows the effect of masculine and feminine traits on depression and anxiety by describing that masculine gender role is significant negative predictor of depression ($\beta = -.12, p < .01$) with variance of 25% ($R = .16, \Delta R^2 = 0.25, F = 12.17, p < .001$) and anxiety ($\beta = -.08, p < .05$) with variance of 1% ($R = .11, \Delta R^2 = 0.1, F = 5.95, p < .01$).

Table 4.5*Multiple linear Regression Analysis on Depression and Anxiety by Personality traits (N=941)*

Variables	Depression					Anxiety				
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	95% CI		<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	95% CI	
				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>				<i>LL</i>	<i>UL</i>
Extraversion	-.19	.07	-.07**	-.33	-.05	-.05	.09	-.02	-.21	.12
Agreeableness	.05	.09	.02	-.14	.23	-.08	.11	-.03	-.30	.14
Conscientiousness	-.60	.08	-.24***	-.76	-.45	-.49	.09	-.18***	-.67	-.31
Neuroticism	.95	.10	.28***	.75	1.15	.79	.12	.20***	.55	1.03
Openness to experience	-.46	.09	-.16***	-.64	-.28	-.63	.11	-.19***	-.84	-.41
Honesty-humility	-.21	.06	-.10***	-.33	-.09	-.07	.07	-.03	-.22	.07
	<i>R</i> = .50, <i>R</i> ² = .25, (<i>F</i> = 51.53***)					<i>R</i> = .41, <i>R</i> ² = .17, (<i>F</i> = 30.46***)				

****p* < .001, ***p* < .01, **p* < .05

Table 4.5 depicts that extraversion is significantly negatively predict depression ($\beta = -.07$, $p < .01$). On the other hand, conscientiousness and openness to experience both are significant negative predictor of depression ($\beta = -.24$, $p < .001$), ($\beta = -.16$, $p < .001$) and anxiety ($\beta = -.18$, $p < .001$), ($\beta = -.19$, $p < .001$) as well. Neuroticism is a significant positive predictor of both depression ($\beta = .28$, $p < .001$) and anxiety ($\beta = .20$, $p < .001$). Furthermore, honesty-humility is a significant negative predictor of depression ($\beta = -.10$, $p < .001$) and personality traits explains 25% variance ($R = .50$, $\Delta R^2 = .25$, $F = 51.53$, $p < .001$) of depression ($R = .41$, and 17% variance ($R = .41$, $\Delta R^2 = .17$, $F = 30.46$, $p < .001$) of anxiety.

4.4 Group comparison based on demographic variables

To explore the group differences based on demographic variable (age, gender, family structure and marital status) independent sample t-test, Analyses of Variance (ANOVA), Multivariate Analyses of Variance (MANOVA) and factorial analyses were performed.

Table 4.6 shows that males (established adults) have more androgynous traits as compared to females and females (middle adults) are having more undifferentiated traits.

Table 4.6*Categories on the basis of age (N = 941)*

Gender	Age categories	Gender roles				Total
		Masculinity (<i>f</i> %)	Femininity (<i>f</i> %)	Androgyny (<i>f</i> %)	Undifferentiated (<i>f</i> %)	
Male	Emerging adults	48 (10.7%)	13 (2.9%)	51 (11.4%)	53 (11.8%)	165 (36.7%)
	Established adults	29 (6.5%)	18 (4.0%)	71 (15.8)	33 (7.3%)	151 (33.6)
	Middle adults	23 (5.1%)	15 (3.3%)	51 (11.4%)	44 (9.8%)	133 (29.6%)
	Total	100 (22.3%)	46 (10.2%)	173 (38.5%)	130 (29.0%)	449 (100%)
Female	Emerging adults	19 (3.9%)	45 (9.1%)	53 (10.8%)	53 (10.8%)	170 (34.6%)
	Established adults	18 (3.7%)	45 (9.1%)s	59 (12.0%)	50 (10.2%)	172 (35.0%)
	Middle adults	10 (2.0%)	37 (7.5%)	42 (8.5%)	61 (12.4%)	150 (30.5%)
	Total	47 (9.6%)	127 (25.8%)	154 (31.3%)	164 (33.3%)	492 (100%)
Total	Emerging adults	67 (7.1%)	58 (6.2%)	104 (11.1%)	106 (11.3%)	335 (35.6%)
	Established adults	47 (5.0%)	63 (6.7%)	130 (13.8%)	83 (8.8%)	323 (34.3%)
	Middle adults	33(3.5%)	52(5.5%)	93(9.9%)	105(11.2%)	283(30.1%)
	Total	147(15.6%)	173(18.4%)	327(34.8%)	294(31.2%)	941(100.0%)

f=Frequency, %=Percentage

Table 4.7*Mean, standard deviations and t-values for married and unmarried adults on study variables, (N=941)*

Variables	Married (n=575)		Unmarried (n=366)		<i>t</i> (939)	<i>p</i>	95% C1		Cohen's <i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			<i>UL</i>	<i>LL</i>	
Gender roles									
Masculine Traits	94.39	17.05	96.60	15.86	-1.99	.047	-4.39	-.03	0.13
Feminine Traits	103.79	14.29	101.92	16.36	1.84	.065	.06	-.11	-
Personality traits									
Extraversion	16.04	4.77	15.49	4.46	1.79	.074	-.05	1.16	-
Agreeableness	19.91	4.02	19.55	3.94	1.33	.182	.18	-.16	-
Conscientiousness	19.47	4.47	18.52	4.54	3.14	.002	.35	1.53	0.21
Neuroticism	15.22	3.26	16.08	3.22	-3.98	.000	-1.29	-.44	0.27
Openness to experience	18.05	3.90	18.22	3.80	-.65	.514	-.67	.33	-
Honesty-Humility	16.12	5.44	15.10	5.456	2.80	.005	.30	1.73	0.19
Depression	22.29	10.61	25.11	12.19	-3.74	.000	-4.29	-1.34	-0.25
Anxiety	16.08	12.04	18.83	13.65	-3.24	.001	-4.41	-1.08	-0.21

Table 4.7 reveals the significant differences among married and unmarried adults on gender roles, personality traits, depression and anxiety, which measures that unmarried adults have significant group difference, unmarried adult have higher scores as compared to married adults on masculine gender role. There is significant mean group differences between married and unmarried adults on conscientiousness, neuroticism, honesty-humility, depression and anxiety as well.

Table 4.8*Mean, standard deviations and t-values for males and females on study variables, (N=941)*

Variables	Male (n=449)		Female (n=492)		<i>t</i> (939)	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Cohen's <i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			<i>UL</i>	<i>LL</i>	
Gender roles									
Masculine Traits	99.06	15.19	91.77	17.11	6.68	.000	5.21	9.37	0.45
Feminine Traits	100.90	14.22	105.03	15.69	-4.21	.000	-6.05	-2.20	-0.27
Personality traits									
Extraversion	16.24	4.48	15.45	4.78	2.64	.008	.20	1.39	0.17
Agreeableness	19.53	3.96	19.99	4.00	-1.74	.082	-.96	.05	-
Conscientiousness	19.09	4.41	19.11	4.61	-0.7	.944	-.59	.55	-
Neuroticism	15.03	3.11	16.04	3.34	-4.77	.000	-1.42	-.59	0.31
Openness to experience	18.01	3.86	18.21	3.86	-.78	.432	-.69	.29	-
Honesty-Humility	15.39	5.36	16.02	5.55	-1.79	.073	-1.33	.06	-
Depression	21.67	10.87	24.95	11.51	-4.48	.000	-4.72	-1.84	-0.29
Anxiety	15.58	12.80	18.58	12.54	-3.63	.000	-4.62	-1.38	-0.23

Above table reveals the significant differences among males and females on gender roles, personality traits, depression and anxiety, which measures that there is significant mean group differences between males and females on masculine traits, feminine traits, extraversion, neuroticism, and depression along with anxiety.

Table 4.9

Mean, standard deviations and t-values for joint and nuclear family system of adults on study variables, (N=941)

Variables	Joint (n=447)		Nuclear (n=494)		<i>t</i> (939)	<i>p</i>	95% CI		Cohen's <i>d</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			<i>UL</i>	<i>LL</i>	
Gender roles									
Masculine Traits	94.45	17.33	95.07	15.97	.34	.729	-1.75	2.50	-
Feminine Traits	103.10	15.23	103.03	15.07	.07	.942	-1.86	2.01	-
Personality traits									
Extraversion	15.76	4.61	15.89	4.69	-.41	.679	-.72	.47	-
Agreeableness	19.37	3.97	20.13	3.97	-2.94	.003	-1.27	-.25	-0.19
Conscientiousness	19.28	4.43	18.94	4.59	1.14	.252	-.24	.91	-
Neuroticism	15.15	3.30	15.92	3.20	-3.62	.000	-1.18	-.35	-0.23
Openness to experience	18.06	3.74	18.16	3.97	-.37	.706	-.59	.40	-
Honesty-Humility	15.32	5.73	16.08	5.20	-2.14	.032	-1.46	-.06	-0.13
Depression	22.40	10.81	24.27	11.70	-2.53	.011	-3.31	-.42	-0.16
Anxiety	17.08	13.00	17.21	12.53	-.15	.878	-1.76	1.50	-

Table 4.9 reveals the significant differences among joint and nuclear family system on gender roles, personality traits, depression and anxiety, which explains there is significant mean differences between joint and nuclear family system on agreeableness, neuroticism, honesty-humility and depression.

Table 4.10*Difference among Age category on study variables (N= 941).*

Variables	Emerging adults (n=335)		Established adults (n=323)		Middle adults (n=283)		F(2,938)	p	η^2
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Gender Roles									
Masculine Traits	96.80	16.31	97.75	16.34	92.84	17.09	4.61	.010	.01
Feminine Traits	102.2	16.31	104.79	13.70	102.33	15.14	3.23	.040	.00
Personality Traits									
Extraversion	15.59	4.58	15.82	4.69	16.11	4.69	.96	.382	.00
Agreeableness	19.67	3.93	19.98	4.86	19.65	4.19	.69	.498	.00
Conscientiousness	18.89	4.59	19.15	4.38	19.30	4.57	.64	.523	.00
Neuroticism	15.95	3.26	15.58	3.33	15.06	3.14	5.68	.004	.01
Openness to experience	18.47	3.96	17.78	4.17	17.95	3.31	2.24	.107	.00
Honesty-Humility	15.10	5.54	15.91	5.41	16.23	5.39	3.59	.028	.00
Depression	24.40	12.42	23.60	11.29	21.9	9.78	3.74	.024	.00
Anxiety	17.44	13.46	17.73	12.31	16.14	12.35	1.31	.270	.00

Table 4.11*Post hoc analysis of Age category (N=941)*

Variables	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	(i-j)	p	S.E	95% CI	
							LL	UL
Masculine Traits	Emerging Adults	Established Adults	EA< EsA	1.05	.415	1.29	-1.48	3.59
	Emerging Adults	Middle Adults	EA> MA	3.97	.003	1.33	1.34	6.59
	Established Adults	Middle Adults	EsA>MA	2.91	.031	1.34	.26	5.5
Feminine Traits	Emerging Adults	Established Adults	EA<EsA	-2.77	.019	1.17	-5.0	-.4
	Emerging Adults	Middle Adults	EA<MA	-.301	.805	1.22	-2.6	2.0
	Established Adults	Middle Adults	EsA>MA	2.46	.046	1.23	.05	4.8
Extroversion	Emerging Adults	Established Adults	EA< EsA	-.23	.528	.36	-.94	.48
	Emerging Adults	Middle Adults	EA<MA	-.52	.165	.37	-1.2	.22
	Established Adults	Middle Adults	EsA<MA	-.293	.440	.37	-1.0	.45
Agreeableness	Emerging Adults	Established Adults	EA<EsA	-.313	.315	.31	-.92	.30

	Emerging Adults	Middle Adults	EA>MA	.022	.946	.32	-.61	.65
	Established Adults	Middle Adults	EAs>MA	.33	.303	.32	-.30	.97
Conscientiousness	Emerging Adults	Established Adults	EA<EsA	-.25	.468	.35	-.95	.44
	Emerging Adults	Middle Adults	EA<MA	-.40	.264	.36	-1.1	.31
	Established Adults	Middle Adults	EsA<MA	-.15	.681	.36	-.87	.57
Neuroticism	Emerging Adults	Established Adults	EA>EsA	.37	.145	.25	-.13	.87
	Emerging Adults	Middle Adults	EA>MA	.88	.001	.26	.37	1.40
	Established Adults	Middle Adults	EsA>MA	.51	.052	.26	.00	1.04
Openness to	Emerging Adults	Established Adults	EA>EsA	.58	.052	.30	.00	1.18
Experience	Emerging Adults	Middle Adults	EA>MA	.51	.099	.31	-.10	1.13
	Established Adults	Middle Adults	EsA<MA	-.07	.820	.31	-.69	.54
Honesty-Humility	Emerging Adults	Established Adults	EA<EsA	-.81	.057	.42	-1.65	.02
	Emerging Adults	Middle Adults	EA<MA	-1.12	.011	.44	-1.99	-.26
	Established Adults	Middle Adults	EsA<MA	-.31	.477	.44	-1.19	.56

Depression	Emerging Adults	Established Adults	EA>EsA	.79	.366	.88	-.93	2.52
	Emerging Adults	Middle Adults	EA>MA	2.46	.007	.91	.67	4.25
	Established Adults	Middle Adults	EsA>MA	1.66	.070	.92	-.14	3.47
Anxiety	Emerging Adults	Established Adults	EA<EsA	-.29	.767	.99	-2.25	1.66
	Emerging Adults	Middle Adults	EA>MA	1.29	.208	1.02	-.72	3.32
	Established Adults	Middle Adults	EsA>MA	1.59	.125	1.03	-.44	3.63

Note: EA= Emerging Adults, EsA= Established Adults, MA= Middle Adults,

ANOVA and Post hoc analysis were performed to determine the differences along with varying age categories across study variables. Findings show that there is significant mean differences between emerging and middle adults, established and middle adults ($p < .05$) were found on masculine traits. On feminine traits, there is significant differences between emerging and established adults, and established and middle adults ($p < .05$) were found. On neuroticism, significant differences were observed between emerging and middle adults, and established and middle adults ($p < .05$). Significant difference was observed between emerging and middle adults on honesty humility. On depression, there is significant difference between emerging and middle adults was seen ($p < .05$).

Table 4.12*Differences among Gender roles ((N= 941)*

Variables	Masculinity (n=147)		Femininity (n=173)		Androgyny (n=327)		Undifferentiated (n=294)		F(3,937)	p	η^2	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD				
Personality Traits												
Extraversion	16.61	4.96	14.88	5.12	16.41	4.32	15.34	4.42	6.66	.000	.02	
Agreeableness	19.82	3.97	21.01	3.66	20.38	3.96	18.34	3.79	22.06	.000	.06	
Conscientiousness	18.79	4.50	20.37	4.69	20.03	4.25	17.48	4.20	23.65	.000	.07	
Neuroticism	15.75	3.62	16.05	3.14	14.78	3.21	16.03	3.07	9.88	.000	.03	
Openness to experience	18.38	3.62	18.57	3.44	18.24	4.30	17.56	3.65	3.19	.023	.01	
Honesty-Humility	15.03	5.76	16.87	5.52	14.73	5.53	16.49	4.98	9.05	.000	.02	
Depression	22.74	11.47	23.30	11.49	21.65	11.60	25.69	10.47	6.89	.000	.02	
Anxiety	15.38	12.17	16.92	12.21	16.28	13.38	19.14	12.42	3.89	.009	.01	

Table 4.13*Post hoc analysis of Gender roles (N=941)*

Variables	(i)	(j)	Mean difference (i-j)	(i-j)	p	S.E	95% CL	
							LL	UL
Extraversion	Masculinity	Femininity	M>F	1.72	.001	.51	.71	2.74
	Masculinity	Androgynous	M>A	.19	.674	.45	-.71	1.09
	Masculinity	Undifferentiated	M>U	1.26	.007	.46	.35	2.18
	Femininity	Androgynous	F<A	-1.53	.007	.43	2.39	-.68
	Femininity	Undifferentiated	F<U	-.46	.293	.44	-1.33	.40
	Androgynous	Undifferentiated	A>U	1.06	.004	.37	.34	1.80
Agreeableness	Masculinity	Femininity	M<F	-1.18	.006	.43	-2.04	-.34
	Masculinity	Androgynous	M<A	-.56	.142	.38	-1.32	.19
	Masculinity	Undifferentiated	M>U	1.47	.000	.39	.71	2.24
	Femininity	Androgynous	F>A	.62	.085	.36	-.09	1.34
	Femininity	Undifferentiated	F>U	2.66	.000	.37	1.94	3.39
	Androgynous	Undifferentiated	A>U	2.03	.000	.31	1.43	2.65
Conscientiousness	Masculinity	Femininity	M<F	-1.58	.001	.48	-2.54	-.62
	Masculinity	Androgynous	M<A	-1.23	.004	.43	-2.09	-.39
	Masculinity	Undifferentiated	M>U	1.31	.003	.44	.45	2.18

	Femininity	Androgynous	F>A	.34	.404	.41	-.46	1.15
	Femininity	Undifferentiated	F>U	2.89	.000	.41	2.07	3.71
	Androgynous	Undifferentiated	A>U	2.55	.000	.35	1.86	3.24
Neuroticism	Masculinity	Femininity	M<F	-.29	.411	.36	-1.01	.41
	Masculinity	Androgynous	M>A	.96	.003	.32	.34	1.59
	Masculinity	Undifferentiated	M<U	-.28	.387	.32	-.92	.36
	Femininity	Androgynous	F>A	1.26	.000	.30	.67	1.86
	Femininity	Undifferentiated	F>U	.01	.960	.30	-.59	.62
	Androgynous	Undifferentiated	U>A	-1.24	.000	.25	-1.76	-.74
Openness to Experience	Masculinity	Femininity	M<F	-1.91	.658	.43	-1.04	.66
	Masculinity	Androgynous	M>A	.136	.722	.38	-.61	.89
	Masculinity	Undifferentiated	M>U	.820	.035	.38	.06	1.58
	Femininity	Androgynous	F>A	.328	.366	.36	-.38	1.04
	Femininity	Undifferentiated	F>U	1.01	.006	.36	.29	1.74
	Androgynous	Undifferentiated	A>U	.68	.027	.30	.08	1.29
Honesty humility	Masculinity	Femininity	M<F	-1.84	.002	.60	-3.03	-6.5
	Masculinity	Androgynous	M>A	.29	.581	.53	-.76	1.35
	Masculinity	Undifferentiated	M<U	-1.46	.007	.54	-2.53	-.39
	Femininity	Androgynous	F>A	2.13	.000	.50	1.14	3.13

Depression	Femininity	Undifferentiated	F>U	.37	.466	.51	-.64	1.39
	Androgynous	Undifferentiated	A<U	-1.75	.000	.43	-2.61	-.91
	Masculinity	Femininity	M<F	-.55	.657	1.25	-3.03	1.91
	Masculinity	Androgynous	M>A	1.09	.328	1.11	-1.10	3.28
	Masculinity	Undifferentiated	M<U	-2.94	.010	1.13	-5.17	-.72
	Femininity	Androgynous	F>A	1.64	.118	1.05	-.42	3.72
	Femininity	Undifferentiated	F<U	-2.38	.027	1.07	-4.50	-.28
	Androgynous	Undifferentiated	A<U	-4.03	.000	.90	-5.81	-2.27
Anxiety	Masculinity	Femininity	M<F	-1.53	.280	1.42	-4.33	1.26
	Masculinity	Androgynous	M<A	-.89	.477	1.26	-3.37	1.58
	Masculinity	Undifferentiated	M<U	-3.75	.003	1.28	-6.27	-1.24
	Femininity	Androgynous	F>A	.64	.591	1.19	-1.70	2.98
	Femininity	Undifferentiated	F<U	-2.22	.068	1.21	-4.61	.17
	Androgynous	Undifferentiated	A<U	-2.86	.005	1.02	-4.86	-.86

Note: F= Femininity, M= Masculinity, U= Undifferentiated, A= Androgynous

Above tables reveal that on masculine traits, group mean difference between masculinity and femininity, masculinity and androgyny, masculinity and undifferentiated, femininity and androgyny, femininity and undifferentiated, androgyny and undifferentiated group is found significant ($p < .05$). Similarly, on feminine traits, group mean differences between masculinity and femininity, masculinity and androgyny, masculinity and undifferentiated, femininity and undifferentiated, femininity and undifferentiated group are significant ($p < .05$), while in femininity and androgyny group is non-significant. Furthermore, on extraversion personality traits, the group mean difference is significant between masculinity and femininity, masculinity and undifferentiated, femininity and androgyny, androgyny and undifferentiated ($p < .05$) but it is not significant for the group of masculinity and androgyny, femininity and undifferentiated.

There is non-significant mean difference between masculinity and androgynous group, femininity and androgynous on agreeableness, while rest of the groups show significant mean differences ($p < .05$) with their respective groups. On conscientiousness, all the groups have significant mean differences ($p < .05$) with their corresponding groups except femininity and androgynous. There exist significant mean differences ($p < .05$) between group of masculinity and androgynous, femininity and androgynous along with androgynous and undifferentiated on neuroticism but others have non-significant mean differences. Masculinity and undifferentiated, femininity and undifferentiated, androgynous and undifferentiated groups have significant means differences ($p < .05$) on openness to experience. On honesty-humility, there exist significant mean differences ($p < .05$) between group of masculinity and femininity, masculinity and undifferentiated, femininity and androgynous, along with androgynous and undifferentiated, but others have non-

significant mean differences. There is significant mean difference ($p < .05$) between masculinity and undifferentiated group, femininity and undifferentiated along with androgynous and undifferentiated group on depression.

Masculinity and undifferentiated group and androgynous and undifferentiated group show significant mean differences ($p < .05$) on anxiety.

Table 4.14*Multivariate analysis of variance (N=941)*

Variables	F (G)	F (GR)	F (AC)	F (GxGR)	F (GxAC)	F (GRxAC)	F (GxGRxAC)
Extroversion	1.65	6.61***	2.97	.61	3.66*	3.30**	.23
Agreeableness	1.06	18.67***	.90	4.36**	2.22	1.45	3.05**
Conscientiousness	.060	23.03***	1.40	3.12*	2.06	1.71	1.15
Neuroticism	10.08**	8.24***	4.37*	.92	1.08	.27	2.82*
Openness to experience	.16	2.92*	1.68	.71	3.11*	.60	.96
Honesty-Humility	.15	8.66***	5.76**	1.46	9.63***	1.05	2.03*
Depression	25.09***	7.56***	3.98*	3.06*	.18	1.23	.33
Anxiety	11.24**	3.46*	1.61	.45	1.62	.97	.43

*Note: G = Gender, GR = Gender Role, AC = Age Category. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001*

To assess masculinity and femininity traits, MANOVA yield a significant main effect therefore, subsequent univariate analysis (ANOVAS) performed to see the group differences in gender (1: male 2: female), gender roles (Masculinity, Femininity, Androgyny, Undifferentiated) and age category (Emerging adults, Established adults and middle adults). $2 \times 4 \times 3$ factorial designs were performed. Wilk's lambda in MANOVA showed significant gender effect on masculinity and femininity, $w = .946$, $F(2, 916) = 26.07$, $p < .001$, subsequent ANOVAS revealed significant main effect of gender for masculinity, $F(1, 917) = 17.78$, $p < .001$ and for femininity $F(1, 917) = 19.47$, $p < .001$. Subsequent ANOVA revealed a non-significant interaction effect *Gender x Age category* for masculinity. Whereas a significant interaction effect for femininity ($F = 3.56$, $p = .029$). When gender interact with gender roles non-significant interaction effect was found for masculinity too. Interaction between *age category x gender roles*, *gender x age category x gender roles* were non-significant for masculinity and femininity both.

Wilk's lambda in MANOVA showed significant gender effect on personality trait, $w = .985$, $F(6, 912) = 2.379$, $p = .028$. Subsequent ANOVAS revealed non-significant main effect of gender for extraversion, $F(1, 917) = 1.65$, $p = .199$, for agreeableness, $F(1, 917) = 1.06$, $p = .302$, but significant for neuroticism, $F(1, 917) = 10.08$, $p = .002$. While subsequent ANOVAS revealed non-significant main effect of gender for conscientiousness $F(1, 917) = .060$, $p = .806$, for openness to experience, $F(1, 917) = .16$, $p = .685$ and honesty-humility, $F(1, 917) = .15$, $p = .697$. Subsequent ANOVA revealed a non-significant interaction effect *Gender x age category* for extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism while openness to experience and honesty-humility is significant. When gender interact with gender roles significant interaction effect was found for agreeableness, while non-significant

is for all others. Whereas a non-significant interaction effect was found for Extraversion ($F=.613$, $p=.607$) and Openness to experience ($F=.713$, $p=.545$). Interaction between *age category x gender roles*, was significant for agreeableness, while it is non-significant for others. Furthermore, Interaction between *gender x age category x gender roles* was significant for agreeableness and neuroticism while non-significant for extraversion conscientiousness, openness to experience and honesty-humility.

Wilk's lambda in MANOVA showed significant gender effect on depression and anxiety, $w=.973$, $F(2,916) = 12.651$, $p<.001$, subsequent ANOVAS revealed significant main effect for gender for depression, $F(1,917) = 25.09$, $p<.001$ and for anxiety ($1, 917) = 11.24$, $p = .001$. Subsequent ANOVA revealed a non-significant interaction effect *Gender x Age category* for depression and anxiety. When gender interact with gender roles a significant interaction effect was found for depression, while a non-significant ($p=.712$) interaction effect was found for anxiety. Interaction between *age category x gender roles* was non-significant for depression and anxiety both, and interaction between *gender x age category x gender roles* was found non-significant for depression as well as for anxiety.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMSRY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The present study was conducted to measure the gender roles, personality traits with depression and anxiety in adults in the local context. The main focus of the study was to assess the relationship between study variables. This study sought to see the impact of independent variable on the dependent variables. Moreover, a further goal of the research was to determine the impact of demographic variables (gender, age of participants, marital status, family income and familial structure, etc.) on study variables.

5.2 Findings

The results of the current study reveal that there is a significant association between study variables. It also explains the impact of gender roles, personality traits on depression and anxiety. Interaction effect is also found significant among the different variables of the study.

5.3 Discussion

The aim of the current study was to see the link between gender roles (Masculinity, femininity, androgyny and undifferentiated, personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism openness to experience and honesty-humility) with depression and anxiety in Pakistani adults. There is a dearth of empirical data, particularly when discussing gender role in the context of different adult categories. The aim of this research was to emphasize the influence of

demographical variables such as age, gender, family system, and marital status on the degree of gender roles and personality traits in adults, with a focus on depression and anxiety. The descriptive of the variables of current study, along with the frequencies and means of demographic variables such as gender, age, family system, income, and education level, were obtained in order to conduct further analysis on the collected data. In western culture a lot of studies provide information on gender roles and personality traits but in Pakistani context, there is no any study which measures gender roles using Bem Sex Role Inventory.

Literature exhibit that there is a positive association between femininity, openness to experience and agreeableness. Therefore, it was hypothesized that there is a positive association between gender role (femininity) and personality traits (neuroticism, agreeableness and openness to experience) with depression and anxiety in adults. Findings of this study have shown a significant positive association between femininity, agreeableness and openness to experience. Literature supports this finding by showing that feminine role scored the highest on openness to experience and agreeableness (Ramanaiah & Detwiler 1992). It is further found that there is a negative correlation between femininity and neuroticism. Whereas, the existing literature revealed that there was a significantly positive correlation between neuroticism and femininity but the results of the current study revealed that there is a negative relationship between femininity and neuroticism because of the cultural and ethical constraints. As the studies showing positive relation between the said variables were conducted in western culture and the current study was conducted in eastern culture of Pakistan. Furthermore, it was also assumed that masculinity is positively correlated with extraversion and openness to experience. The result of the study supports the second assumption by narrating the significant positive association

between masculinity, extraversion and openness to experience. It is supported by the study that masculine gender role has the highest level of extraversion (Jones et al, 1978). Masculinity and extraversion have a positive correlation (Zeldow et al, 1985). Kimlicka et al., (1988) found a positive correlation of masculinity with extraversion. In a study examining the relationship between masculine and feminine scales and five-factor dimension, strongest positive correlation between masculinity, openness to experience and extraversion were found (Connely & Lippa, 1990).

In addition, third assumption was proposed that depression and anxiety are negatively associated with personality traits (extraversion, openness to experience and agreeableness) in adults. This study has revealed that depression and anxiety both are significantly negatively correlated with extraversion and openness to experience, which shows an agreement with that hypothesis. These findings of the study are also supported by the existing literature which indicates that extraversion and openness to experience negatively associated with depressive symptoms (Chioqueta & Stile, 2005). Higher level of agreeableness is associated with lower level of depression (Afshar et al., 2015; Koorevaar et al., 2017).

According to a study, having low levels of extraversion and agreeableness were associated with depression, anxiety, or having considerably higher stress. Finally, considerable psychological distress as well as depression or anxiety were associated with low levels of agreeableness and extraversion (Afshar et al, 2015).

Moreover, the fourth hypothesis of this study was depression and anxiety are positively associated with personality traits (neuroticism and conscientiousness) in adults. Study of the findings revealed that there is positive association between neuroticism with depression and anxiety while negative relationship with agreeableness and conscientiousness. Literature also revealed that there is positive

association between neuroticism, conscientiousness and depression and anxiety (Klein et al., 2011). On the other hand, some studies show that higher level of conscientiousness exhibit the lower level of depression (Anderson & Mclean, 1997; Weber et al., 2012; Weiss et al., 2009). According to research, conscientiousness is linked to a number of things that are associated with happiness and well-being, including healthy habits, success, and effective social interaction (Abraham & Richard, 2009; Bogg & Roberts, 2004; Campbell & Malcolm; Funder & Wagerman, 2007; Zellars et al., 2006). Additionally, fifth hypothesis of the study was that there is a negative relationship between depression and anxiety with gender role (masculine) in adults. Findings of the study show that masculinity is significantly negatively correlated with depression and anxiety and it is supported by the literature which proposed an inverse relationship between depression with masculinity (Gonzalez et al., 2012; Whitley, 1985). Lower anxiety and depressed symptoms were associated with higher masculinity (Arcand et al., 2020).

The sixth hypothesis of the current study was that there is positive association of depression and anxiety with gender role (feminine) in adults, the findings of study has shown that there is negative association between gender role (feminine), depression and anxiety. The findings is supported by existing literature that there is negative association between femininity, depression and anxiety (Erikson, 1963). While some studies have found no connection between feminine traits and symptoms of depression (Bromberger & Matthews, 1996; Feather, 1985; Grimmell & Stern, 1992; Whitley, 1985).

It was hypothesized that neuroticism is a positive predictor of depression in adults. Findings of the study have shown that neuroticism is significant positive predictor of depression, which is also supported by the existing literature that

neuroticism is significantly positively predicting depression in adults (Klein et al., 2011 ; Lester, 2021)). Evidence reveals that neuroticism/negative emotionality is associated with depression. Patients with depression scored higher on neuroticism, according to study (Kotov et al., 2010). Another hypothesis was formulated that extraversion and openness to experience are positive predictor of depression in adults. As the findings of the study reveal that extraversion and openness to experience both are negative predictors of depression, which is also supported by existing findings that extraversion and openness to experience are negatively associated with depressive symptoms (Chioqueta & Stile, 2005). According to a study, having low levels of extraversion was associated with depression, anxiety, or having considerably higher stress. Finally, considerable psychological distress as well as depression or anxiety were associated with low levels extraversion (Afshar et al, 2015). In a study, it was discovered that depression group scored significantly lower on extraversion and openness to experience as compared to the non-depression group (Kim et al, 2016; Sami & Naveeda, 2020).

Another objective of this study was to explore the effects of demographic variables (gender, age of participants, marital status and familial structure, etc.) on study variables. Therefore, to find out group differences based on demographic variable (age, gender, family structure and marital status) independent sample t-test, Analyses of variance (ANOVA), Multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) and factorial analyses were performed. Results of the study show that there are significant mean group differences between married and unmarried adults on conscientiousness, neuroticism, honesty-humility, depression and anxiety as well. Significant mean group differences between males and females on masculine traits, feminine traits, extraversion, neuroticism, depression along with anxiety. As literature also suggested

that females revealed higher levels of neuroticism, and depression than males (Goodwin & Gotlib, 2004; Peggilee, 2003). Findings also revealed that there is significant mean differences between joint and nuclear family system on agreeableness, neuroticism, honesty-humility and depression. Moreover, findings show that established adults have more masculine as well as feminine traits as compared to other adult categories (emerging and middle adults). Findings reveal that emerging adults have more depression than other age groups. Literature also supports it, as emerging adults have more depression due to the fear about their own health, difficulty of concentrating, disruption to sleep patterns and increased concerns about academic performance (Bredehoft, 2021) and high rate of unemployment (McGee & Thompson, 2015). Bem argued that femininity and masculinity are two independent dimensions, each ranging on their own continuum from few to many traits endorsed (Bem, 1974; Spence et al., 1975). It has been argued that gender roles are not stable but rather dynamic over time. Some studies suggest that changes in gender roles can be attributed to an age effect (Jones et al., 2011; Lemaster et al., 2017). Indeed, it has been suggested that individuals are more androgynous (i.e., high in both masculine and high feminine traits) as they age, which would explain the observed changes or “flexibility” in gender roles over time (Jones et al., 2011; Lemaster et al., 2017). Other studies suggest that such changes are rather influenced by the different experiences that an individual goes through in life. For example, gender roles are modified when children start school (Bryant, 2003) or adults enter the labor market or get married (Fan & Marini, 2000; Kasen et al., 2006; Lemaster et al., 2017; Nezu & Nezu, 1987; but see Jones et al., 2011). Indeed, it has been shown that masculine traits increase among individuals working full-time (Abele, 2003; Kasen et al., 2006) and students tend to have less stereotypical gender roles (Bryant, 2003). Consequently, it

seems that the different contexts, experiences, and social roles endorsed by an individual can influence the development of masculine and feminine gender roles profiles.

MANOVA yield a significant main effects therefore, subsequent univariate analysis (ANOVAS) performed to see the group differences in gender (1: male 2: female), gender roles (Masculinity, Femininity, Androgyny, Undifferentiated) and age category (Emerging adults, Established adults and middle adults). $2 \times 4 \times 3$ factorial designs were performed. Results show that there is significant gender effect on masculinity and femininity, significant main effect of gender for masculinity and for femininity. Non-significant interaction effect *Gender x Age category* for masculinity is seen. Whereas a significant interaction effect for femininity is present. When gender interact with gender roles, non-significant interaction effect was found for masculinity too. Interaction between *age category x gender roles*, *gender x age category x gender roles* were non-significant for masculinity and femininity both.

In addition, there is significant gender effect on personality trait. Non-significant main effect of gender for extraversion, for agreeableness, but significant for neuroticism is seen. While non-significant main effect of gender for conscientiousness, for openness to experience and honesty-humility is present. There is a non - significant interaction effect *Gender x age category* for extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism while openness to experience and honesty-humility is significant. When gender interact with gender roles significant interaction effect was found for agreeableness, while non - significant is for all others. Whereas a non-significant interaction effect was found for extraversion and openness to experience. Interaction between *age category x gender roles*, was significant for agreeableness, while it is non -significant for others. Furthermore, Interaction between

gender x age category x gender roles was significant for agreeableness and neuroticism while non-significant for extraversion conscientiousness, openness to experience and honesty-humility.

Significant gender effect on depression and anxiety is seen, significant main effect for gender on depression and anxiety is also present. There is a non-significant interaction effect *Gender x Age category* for depression and anxiety is present. When gender interact with gender roles a significant interaction effect was found for depression, while a non-significant interaction effect was found for anxiety. Interaction between *age category x gender roles* was non-significant for depression and anxiety both, and interaction between *gender x age category x gender roles* was found non-significant for depression as well as for anxiety.

5.4 Conclusion

- To conclude, Adulthood is a very important part of developmental life of an individual which includes not only the transitional stages but establishment of career and making relationships are also included in this stage.
- Mental health of an individual is crucial for all stages of life i.e. from childhood and adolescence to adulthood.
- This study concluded that there is significant association between gender roles, personality traits with depression and anxiety among adults.
- Androgynous individuals are more positive towards their mental health. They have more positive personality traits as compared to other types.
- Findings show that when feminine gender role is high and an individual is having female biological standard, then depression is also high.

5.5 Limitations and Suggestions of the Study

Following are the below mentioned limitations and suggestions of the present study:

- This study did not consider population from rural life. So, most of our population are falling in the category of androgynous traits because working is the priority of every one in urban life style. If we evaluate rural population, there is a chance that results might be different.
- Binary division of gender was included, future researcher should include transgender individuals to see more variations in results .
- In this study self-reported questionnaires are used which were reported by the participants themselves which indicates that the given responses are based on their personal perception which can be biased and objective.
- Older adults and adolescents were not taken into account in current study as by including them the study can be fruitful with better results that can help to overcome their emptiness syndrome.
- This study used depression and anxiety of adults, other different variables like mental health, psychological & social well-being and self-esteem etc. can be used in studies.
- This study is being carried out in only two cities (Islamabad and Rawalpindi). The study variables can be more successfully varied using data from several cities.
- The study was performed using cross sectional design, which does not allow for determining a cause and effect relationship because all the variables were measured simultaneously. For the purpose of confirming causal pathways, future research should employ longitudinal approaches.

5.6 Implications

- This study has strong implication on theoretical and practical level.
- This study has used the Bem Sex role inventory which contributes in indigenous literature and newly developed age categories have been explored, which can be included as contribution in gender and developmental theories.
- This study explored gender roles with different personality traits along with depression and anxiety, mental health professionals can see and suggest that which gender role is healthier and more positive. They can promote it by arranging different seminars and awareness programs to guide people that how androgynous individual are more positive to different domains of life.
- Various interventionists are working to cater depression, anxiety and mental health related issues, but the working related to depression because of feminine gender role is not up to the satisfactory mark so the interventionist must consider this issue along with depression, anxiety and other mental health related concerns so that depression arises because of feminine gender role must be address positively and on time.

References

- Abele, A. E. (2003). The dynamics of masculine-agentic and feminine-communal traits: findings from a prospective study. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 85*(4), 768.-
- Adlaf, E. M., Gliksman, L., Demers, A., & Newton-Taylor, B. (2001). The prevalence of elevated psychological distress among Canadian undergraduates: Findings from the 1998 Canadian Campus Survey. *Journal of American College Health, 50*(2), 67-72.
- Alain, M. (1987). A french version of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory. *Psychological Reports, 61*(2), 673-674.
- Ali, R., Bahoo, R., & Shoukat, B. (2021). Gendered Personality Traits, Academic Programs and Academic Performance of Pakistani University Students: An Evidence from Pakistan. *Review of Economics and Development Studies, 7*(3), 433-451.
- Ali, T. S., Krantz, G., Gul, R., Asad, N., Johansson, E., & Mogren, I. (2011). Gender roles and their influence on life prospects for women in urban Karachi, Pak0istan: a qualitative study. *Global health action, 4*(1), 7448.
- Allport, G. W., & Odbert, H. S. (1936). Trait-names: A psycho-lexical study. *Psychological monographs, 47*(1), i.
- Almeida-Filho, N., Lessa, I., Magalhães, L., Araújo, M. J., Aquino, E., James, S. A., & Kawachi, I. (2004). Social inequality and depressive disorders in Bahia, Brazil: interactions of gender, ethnicity, and social class. *Social science & medicine, 59*(7), 1339-1353.
- Anderson, K. W., & Mclean, P. D. (1997). Conscientiousness in depression: Tendencies, predictive utility, and longitudinal stability. *Cognitive Therapy*

and Research, 21(2), 223-238.

- Andrade, L., Caraveo-Anduaga, J. J., Berglund, P., Bijl, R. V., Graaf, R. D., Vollebergh, W., ... & Wittchen, H. U. (2003). The epidemiology of major depressive episodes: results from the International Consortium of Psychiatric Epidemiology (ICPE) Surveys. *International journal of methods in psychiatric research*, 12(1), 3-21.
- Anglim, J., Knowles, E. R., Dunlop, P. D., & Marty, A. (2017). HEXACO personality and Schwartz's personal values: A facet-level analysis. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 68, 23-31.
- Annandale, E., & Clark, J. (1996). What is gender? Feminist theory and the sociology of human reproduction. *Sociology of Health & Illness*, 18(1), 17-44.
- Arcand, M., Juster, R. P., Lupien, S. J., & Marin, M. F. (2020). Gender roles in relation to symptoms of anxiety and depression among students and workers. *Anxiety, Stress, & Coping*, 33(6), 661-674.
- Archer, J. (1989). The relationship between gender-role measures: A review. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 28(2), 173-184.
- Arnett, J. J. (2013). *Adolescence and Emerging Adulthood: Pearson New International Edition PDF eBook*. Pearson Higher Ed.
- Arnold, D. L. (2017). To Gender Identity and Beyond: Does Femininity Lead to A Higher Risk Of Depression?
- Ashton, M. C., & Lee, K. (2005). Honesty-humility, the Big Five, and the five-factor model. *Journal of personality*, 73(5), 1321-1354.
- Aziz, S., & Kamal, A. (2012). Gender role attitudes and occupational aspirations of Pakistani adolescents. *FWU Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(1), 79.
- Bayram, N., & Bilgel, N. (2008). The prevalence and socio-demographic correlations

- of depression, anxiety and stress among a group of university students. *Social psychiatry and psychiatric epidemiology*, 43(8), 667-672.
- Bebbington, P. (1996). The origins of sex differences in depressive disorder: bridging the gap. *International Review of Psychiatry*, 8(4), 295-332.
- Beere, C. A. (1990). *Gender roles: A handbook of tests and measures*. Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Bem, S. L. (1981). Gender schema theory: A cognitive account of sex typing. *Psychological review*, 88(4), 354.
- Bielby, W. T., & Baron, J. N. (1986). Men and women at work: Sex segregation and statistical discrimination. *American journal of sociology*, 91(4), 759-799.
- Bienvenu, O. J., & Brandes, M. (2005). The Interface of Personality Traits and Anxiety Disorders. *Primary Psychiatry*.
- Blackstone, A. M. (2003). Gender roles and society.
- Blatt, S. J., Quinlan, D. M., Pilkonis, P. A., & Shea, M. T. (1995). Impact of perfectionism and need for approval on the brief treatment of depression: the National Institute of Mental Health Treatment of Depression Collaborative Research Program revisited. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 63(1), 125.
- Calvo-Salguero, A., García-Martínez, J. M. Á., & Monteoliva, A. (2008). Differences between and within genders in gender role orientation according to age and level of education. *Sex Roles*, 58(7), 535-548.
- Cattell, R. B. (1973). *Personality and mood by questionnaire*. Jossey-Bass.
- Chang-Quan, H., Zheng-Rong, W., Yong-Hong, L., Yi-Zhou, X., & Qing-Xiu, L. (2010). Education and risk for late life depression: a meta-analysis of

- published literature. *The International Journal of Psychiatry in Medicine*, 40(1), 109-124.
- Chioqueta, A. P., & Stiles, T. C. (2005). Personality traits and the development of depression, hopelessness, and suicide ideation. *Personality and individual differences*, 38(6), 1283-1291.
- Clark, L. A., Vittengl, J., Kraft, D., & Jarrett, R. B. (2003). Separate personality traits from states to predict depression. *Journal of personality disorders*, 17(2), 152.
- Connell, R. (2011). Gender and social justice: Southern perspectives. *South African Review of Sociology*, 42(3), 103-115.
- Connell, R. W. (1998). Masculinities and globalization. *Men and masculinities*, 1(1), 3-23.
- Connell, R. W., & Messerschmidt, J. W. (2005). Hegemonic masculinity: Rethinking the concept. *Gender & society*, 19(6), 829-859.
- Connelly, B. S., & Ones, D. S. (2010). Another perspective on personality: meta-analytic integration of observers' accuracy and predictive validity. *Psychological bulletin*, 136(6), 1092.
- Costa Jr, P. T., & McCrae, R. R. (2008). *The Revised Neo Personality Inventory (neo-pi-r)*. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Costa, E., Barreto, S. M., Uchoa, E., Firmo, J. O., Lima-Costa, M. F., & Prince, M. (2007). Prevalence of International Classification of Diseases, 10th Revision common mental disorders in the elderly in a Brazilian community: The Bambui Health Ageing Study. *The American journal of geriatric psychiatry*, 15(1), 17-27.
- Dinić, B. (2018). Comparison of three short six-factor personality instruments. *Primenjena psihologija*, 11(2), 189-206.

- Dozeman, E., van Schaik, D. J., van Marwijk, H. W., Stek, M. L., van der Horst, H. E., & Beekman, A. T. (2011). The center for epidemiological studies depression scale (CES-D) is an adequate screening instrument for depressive and anxiety disorders in a very old population living in residential homes. *International journal of geriatric psychiatry*, *26*(3), 239-246.
- Eisenclas, S. A. (2013). Gender roles and expectations: Any changes online?. *Sage Open*, *3*(4), 2158244013506446.
- Eisler, R. M., Skidmore, J. R., & Ward, C. H. (1988). Masculine gender-role stress: Predictor of anger, anxiety, and health-risk behaviors. *Journal of personality assessment*, *52*(1), 133-141.
- Eysenck, H. J. (1991). Dimensions of personality: 16, 5 or 3?—Criteria for a taxonomic paradigm. *Personality and individual differences*, *12*(8), 773-790.
- Eysenck, H. J., & Eysenck, M. W. (1985). A natural science approach.
- Fanous, A. H., Neale, M. C., Aggen, S. H., & Kendler, K. S. (2007). A longitudinal study of personality and major depression in a population-based sample of male twins. *Psychological medicine*, *37*(8), 1163-1172.
- Fiske, A., Wetherell, J. L., & Gatz, M. (2009). Depression in older adults. *Annual review of clinical psychology*, *5*, 363.
- Flood, M., Gardiner, J. K., Pease, B., & Pringle, K. (2007). *International encyclopedia of men and masculinities*. Routledge.
- Freed, A. F. (1995). Language and gender. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, *15*, 3-22.
- Frieze, I. H. (1978). *Women and sex roles: A social psychological perspective*. Norton.
- Gale-Ross, R., Baird, A., & Towson, S. (2009). Gender role, life satisfaction, and

- wellness: androgyny in a southwestern Ontario sample. *Canadian Journal on Aging/La Revue canadienne du vieillissement*, 28(2), 135-146.
- Gray, S. W. (1957). Masculinity-femininity in relation to anxiety and social acceptance. *Child Development*, 203-214.
- Harrison, L. A., & Lynch, A. B. (2005). Social role theory and the perceived gender role orientation of athletes. *Sex roles*, 52(3), 227-236.
- Heintz, H. L., Freedberg, A. L., & Harper, D. G. (2021). Dependent personality in depressed older adults: a case report and systematic review. *Journal of Geriatric Psychiatry and Neurology*, 34(5), 445-453.
- Herzog, M. (2020). How to define the adult in 2020? *International Journal of Business and Social Science Research*, 1(3), 1-5.
- Hilbig, B. E., & Zettler, I. (2009). Pillars of cooperation: Honesty–Humility, social value orientations, and economic behavior. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 43(3), 516-519.
- Hood-Williams, J. (1996). Goodbye to sex and gender. *The Sociological Review*, 44(1), 1-16.
- Itulua-Abumere, F. (2013). Understanding men and masculinity in modern society. *Open journal of social science research*, 1(2), 42-45.
- Iwamoto, D. K., Brady, J., Kaya, A., & Park, A. (2018). Masculinity and depression: A longitudinal investigation of multidimensional masculine norms among college men. *American journal of men's health*, 12(6), 1873-1881.
- Jourdy, R., & Petot, J. M. (2017). Relationships between personality traits and depression in the light of the “Big Five” and their different facets. *L'évolution Psychiatrique*, 82(4), e27-e37.

- Judd, F. K., Hickey, M., & Bryant, C. (2012). Depression and midlife: are we overpathologising the menopause? *Journal of affective disorders, 136*(3), 199-211.
- Kalsoom, S., & Kamal, A. (2020). Perceived Multitasking Ability and Preference, Gender Role Attitudes, and Marital Adjustment of Married Working Individuals. *Pakistan Journal of Psychological Research, 455-471*.
- Kilzieh, N., Rastam, S., Maziak, W., & Ward, K. D. (2008). Comorbidity of depression with chronic diseases: a population-based study in Aleppo, Syria. *The International Journal of Psychiatry in Medicine, 38*(2), 169-184.
- Klein, D. N., Kotov, R., & Bufferd, S. J. (2011). Personality and depression: explanatory models and review of the evidence. *Annual review of clinical psychology, 7*, 269-295.
- Klimczuk, A. (2016). Adulthood. A. Klimczuk, *Adulthood, [in:] HL Miller (ed.), The SAGE Encyclopedia of Theory in Psychology, Sage, Thousand Oaks, 2016, 15-18*.
- Klokgieters, S., Mokkink, L., Galenkamp, H., Beekman, A., & Comijs, H. (2021). Use of CES-D among 56–66 year old people of Dutch, Moroccan and Turkish origin: Measurement invariance and mean differences between the groups. *Current Psychology, 40*(2), 711-718.
- Koorevaar, A. M. L., Hegeman, J. M., Lamers, F., Dhondt, A. D. F., Van der Mast, R. C., Stek, M. L., & Comijs, H. C. (2017). Big Five personality characteristics are associated with depression subtypes and symptom dimensions of depression in older adults. *International journal of geriatric psychiatry, 32*(12), e132-e140.

- Kotov, R., Gamez, W., Schmidt, F., & Watson, D. (2010). Linking “big” personality traits to anxiety, depressive, and substance use disorders: a meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, *136*(5), 768.
- Kotov, R., Watson, D., Robles, J. P., & Schmidt, N. B. (2007). Personality traits and anxiety symptoms: The multilevel trait predictor model. *Behaviour research and therapy*, *45*(7), 1485-1503.
- Krames, L., England, R., & Flett, G. L. (1988). The role of masculinity and femininity in depression and social satisfaction in elderly females. *Sex Roles*, *19*(11), 713-721.
- Kumar, K., Bakhshi, A., & Rani, E. (2009). Linking the 'Big Five' personality domains to Organizational citizenship behavior. *International journal of Psychological studies*, *1*(2), 73.
- Kurpisz, J., Mak, M., Lew-Starowicz, M., Nowosielski, K., Bieńkowski, P., Kowalczyk, R., & Samochowicz, J. (2016). Personality traits, gender roles and sexual behaviours of young adult males. *Annals of general psychiatry*, *15*(1), 1-15.
- Lee, K., & Ashton, M. C. (2008). The HEXACO personality factors in the indigenous personality lexicons of English and 11 other languages. *Journal of personality*, *76*(5), 1001-1054.
- Lefkowitz, E. S., & Zeldow, P. B. (2006). Masculinity and femininity predict optimal mental health: A belated test of the androgyny hypothesis. *Journal of personality assessment*, *87*(1), 95-101.
- Lengua, L. J., & Stormshak, E. A. (2000). Gender, gender roles, and personality: Gender differences in the prediction of coping and psychological symptoms. *Sex roles*, *43*(11), 787-820.

- Lin, J., Zou, L., Lin, W., Becker, B., Yeung, A., Cuijpers, P., & Li, H. (2021). Does gender role explain a high risk of depression? A meta-analytic review of 40 years of evidence. *Journal of Affective Disorders, 294*, 261-278.
- Lindsey, L. L. (2020). *Gender: Sociological Perspectives*. Routledge.
- Lippa, R. A. (2010). Gender differences in personality and interests: When, where, and why? *Social and personality psychology compass, 4*(11), 1098-1110.
- Lorber, J. (1994). Night to his day": The social construction of gender. *Paradoxes of gender, 1*, 1-8.
- Lu, L., & Wu, H. L. (1998). Gender-role traits and depression: Self-esteem and control as mediators. *Counselling Psychology Quarterly, 11*(1), 95-107.
- Lubinski, D., Tellegen, A., & Butcher, J. N. (1983). Masculinity, femininity, and androgyny viewed and assessed as distinct concepts. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 44*(2), 428.
- Lynn, R., & Martin, T. (1997). Gender differences in extraversion, neuroticism, and psychoticism in 37 nations. *The Journal of social psychology, 137*(3), 369-373.
- Maccoby, E. E. (1966). The development of sex differences.
- Maccoby, E. E., & Jacklin, C. N. (1978). *The psychology of sex differences* (Vol. 2). Stanford University Press.
- Marusic, I., & Bratko, D. (1998). Relations of masculinity and femininity with personality dimensions of the five-factor model. *Sex roles, 38*(1), 29-44.
- Matthews, G., Deary, I. J., & Whiteman, M. C. (1998). The trait concept and personality theory. *Personality traits, 3-37*.
- Matthews, G., Deary, I. J., & Whiteman, M. C. (2003). *Personality traits*. Cambridge University Press.

- McCrae, R. R., & Costa Jr, P. T. (2008). Empirical and theoretical status of the five-factor model of personality traits.
- McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. T. (2003). *Personality in adulthood: A five-factor theory perspective*. Guilford Press.
- Međedović, J., & Bulut, T. (2017). The Mini IPIP-6: Short, valid, and reliable measure of the six-factor personality structure. *Primenjena psihologija*, 10(2), 185-202.
- Mehta, C. M., Arnett, J. J., Palmer, C. G., & Nelson, L. J. (2020). Established adulthood: A new conception of ages 30 to 45. *American Psychologist*, 75(4), 431.
- Model, B. F. Johnson, JA (2017). Big-Five model. In V. Zeigler-Hill, TK Shackelford (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Personality and Individual Differences* (1-16). New York: Springer.
- Oakley, A. (2016). *Sex, gender and society*. Routledge.
- Oliffe, J. L., Robertson, S., Kelly, M. T., Roy, P., & Ogrodniczuk, J. S. (2010). Connecting masculinity and depression among international male university students. *Qualitative health research*, 20(7), 987-998.
- Oliver, J. (2008). The role of sex, gender role, and extraversion-introversion in explaining the experience, expression and control of anger.
- Orme, J. G., Reis, J., & Herz, E. J. (1986). Factorial and discriminant validity of the Center for Epidemiological Studies Depression (CES-D) scale. *Journal of clinical psychology*, 42(1), 28-33.
- Paris, J. (2007). An overview on gender, personality and mental health. *Personality and Mental Health*, 1(1), 14-20.

- Pervaiz, Z., & Malik, S. (2021). Gender roles and psychological well-being: Difference in contemporary groups. *Pakistan Social Sciences Review*, 5(2), 1-14.
- Pryzgodna, J., & Chrisler, J. C. (2000). Definitions of gender and sex: The subtleties of meaning. *Sex roles*, 43(7), 553-569.
- Radloff, L. S. (1977). The CES-D scale: A self-report depression scale for research in the general population. *Applied psychological measurement*, 1(3), 385-401.
- Radloff, L. S. (1991). The use of the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale in adolescents and young adults. *Journal of youth and adolescence*, 20(2), 149-166.
- Rahmani, S., & Lavasani, M. G. (2012). Gender differences in five factor model of personality and sensation seeking. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 2906-2911.
- Sami, A. H., & Naveeda, N. (2021). An examination of depressive symptoms in adolescents: the relationship of personality traits and perceived social support. *Islamic Guidance and Counseling Journal*, 4(1), 1-11.
- Saucier, G. (1994). Mini-Markers: A brief version of Goldberg's unipolar Big-Five markers. *Journal of personality assessment*, 63(3), 506-516.
- Sheehan, T. J., Fifeield, J., Reisine, S., & Tennen, H. (1995). The measurement structure of the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression scale. *Journal of personality assessment*, 64(3), 507-521.
- Shi, J., Yao, Y., Zhan, C., Mao, Z., Yin, F., & Zhao, X. (2018). The relationship between big five personality traits and psychotic experience in a large non-clinical youth sample: the mediating role of emotion regulation. *Frontiers in psychiatry*, 9, 648.

- Shifren, K., & Bauserman, R. L. (1996). The relationship between instrumental and expressive traits, health behaviors, and perceived physical health. *Sex roles, 34*(11), 841-864.
- Shin, K. H., Yang, J., & Edwards, C. E. (2010). Gender role identity among Korean and American college students: Links to gender and academic achievement. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal, 38*(2), 267-272.
- Sibley, C. G. (2012). The Mini-IPIP6: Item Response theory analysis of a short measure of the big-six factors of personality in New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 41*(3).
- Silva, M. T., Galvao, T. F., Martins, S. S., & Pereira, M. G. (2014). Prevalence of depression morbidity among Brazilian adults: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Brazilian Journal of Psychiatry, 36*, 262-270.
- Sinnott, J. D., & Shifren, K. (2001). Gender and aging: Gender differences and gender roles.
- Skitka, L. J., & Maslach, C. (1990). Gender roles and the categorization of gender-relevant behavior. *Sex Roles, 22*(3), 133-150.
- Soliemanifar, O., Soleymanifar, A., & Afrisham, R. (2018). Relationship between personality and biological reactivity to stress: a review. *Psychiatry investigation, 15*(12), 1100.
- Soto, C. J. (2018). Big Five personality traits. In M. H. Bornstein, M. E. Arterberry, K. L. Fingerman, & J. E. Lansford (Eds.), *The SAGE encyclopedia of lifespan human development* (pp. 240-241).
- Soto, C. J., & Jackson, J. J. (2013). Five-factor model of personality. *J. Res. Personal, 42*, 1285-1302.

- Starr, C. R., & Zurbriggen, E. L. (2017). Sandra Bem's gender schema theory after 34 years: A review of its reach and impact. *Sex Roles, 76*(9), 566-578.
- Stoppard, J. M., & Paisley, K. J. (1987). Masculinity, femininity, life stress, and depression. *Sex Roles, 16*(9), 489-496.
- Sugihara, Y., & Katsurada, E. (2000). Gender-role personality traits in Japanese culture. *Psychology of women quarterly, 24*(4), 309-318.
- Szewczyk, M., & Chennault, S. A. (1997). Depression and related disorders. *Primary Care: Clinics in Office Practice, 24*(1), 83-101.
- Tharbe, I. H. A., & Harun, L. M. H. (2000). Birth Order Positions and Personality Traits.
- Torres, A., Martins, A., Santos, T., & Pereira, A. T. (2016). Personality traits on persistent depressive disorder. *The European Proceedings of Social & Behavioural Sciences.*, 397-410.
- Unger, R. K. (1979). Toward a redefinition of sex and gender. *American psychologist, 34*(11), 1085.
- Valkonen, J., & Hänninen, V. (2013). Narratives of masculinity and depression. *Men and Masculinities, 16*(2), 160-180.
- Weiten, W. (2021). *Psychology: Themes and variations*. Cengage Learning.
- Weyerer, S., Eifflaender-Gorfer, S., Köhler, L., Jessen, F., Maier, W., Fuchs, A., & German AgeCoDe Study group. (2008). Prevalence and risk factors for depression in non-demented primary care attenders aged 75 years and older. *Journal of affective disorders, 111*(2-3), 153-163.
- Widiger, T. A., & Trull, T. J. (1992). Personality and psychopathology: an application of the five-factor model. *Journal of personality, 60*(2), 363-393.

- Wienclaw, R. A. (2011). Gender roles. *Sociology reference guide: Gender roles and equality*, 33-40.
- Williams, J. E., & Best, D. L. (1990). *Measuring sex stereotypes: A multinational study*, Rev. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Wittchen, H. U. (1994). Reliability and validity studies of the WHO-Composite International Diagnostic Interview (CIDI): a critical review. *Journal of psychiatric research*, 28(1), 57-84.
- World Health Organization. (2008). *World health statistics 2008*. World Health Organization.
- World Health Organization. (2011). *Technical paper strategy for mental health and substance abuse in the Eastern Mediterranean Region 2012–2016* (No. EM/RC58/5).
- Yunus, M. R. B. M., Wahab, N. B. A., Ismail, M. S., & Othman, M. S. (2018). The importance role of personality trait. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 8(7), 1028-1036.
- Zahra, K., & Hanif, R. (2012). Relationship of Personality Traits and Gender Role Attitudes: A Comparison of Traditional and non-Traditional Professionals. *Journal of Education and Vocational Research*, 3(8), 271-279.
- Zai, S. A. Y., & Jan, A. (2019). Gender and Regional Differences in Five Factor Personality Traits Among Students at Secondary Level in Punjab, Pakistan. *Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities University of Wah, Wah Cantt*, 42.
- Zheng, L., & Zheng, Y. (2011). The relationship of masculinity and femininity to the big five personality dimensions among a Chinese sample. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 39(4), 445-450.

Zimbardo, P. G. (2016). *Philip G. Zimbardo*. Zimbardo, Philip G..

Zivin, K., Wharton, T., & Rostant, O. (2013). The economic, public health, and caregiver burden of late-life depression. *Psychiatric Clinics*, 36(4), 631-649.

Zuckerman, M. (1991). *Psychobiology of personality* (Vol. 10). Cambridge University Press.

Zuroff, D. C., Mongrain, M., & Santor, D. A. (2004). Conceptualizing and measuring personality vulnerability to depression: comment on Coyne and Whiffen (1995).

اجازت نامہ

اسلام علیکم!

امید ہے آپ خیریت سے ہوں گے۔ میں نیشنل یونیورسٹی آف ماڈرن لینگویجز کے شعبہ نفسیات میں ایم فل کی طالبہ ہوں۔ یہ ادارہ تدریس تعلیم کے ساتھ ساتھ انسانی اور معاشرتی مسائل پر بھی تحقیق کرتا ہے۔ موجودہ تحقیق اسی سلسلے میں ایک کوشش ہے اور میرے کورس کا ایک لازمی حصہ ہے۔ جس کے لئے مجھے آپ کا تعاون درکار ہے۔ میں بالغ لوگوں کی صنفی کردار اور شخصی خصوصیات سے منسلک ذہنی تناؤ اور بے چینی کے بارے میں تحقیق کر رہی ہوں۔ آپ کی خدمت میں کچھ سوالنامے پیش کیے جا رہے ہیں۔ آپ سے درخواست کی گئی ہے سوالناموں کے ساتھ دی گئی ہدایات کو غور سے پڑھیں اور ان کی روشنی میں جوابات دیں۔ آپ کو یقین دلایا جاتا ہے کہ آپ سے لی گئی معلومات مجموعی طور پر استعمال ہوں گی اور آپ کی تمام معلومات کو راز رکھا جائے گا۔ اور یہ کہ اسے صرف تحقیقی مقاصد کے لئے استعمال کیا جائے گا۔ آپ کسی بھی وقت بغیر کسی جرمانے کے سوالنامے کو پر کرنا چھوڑ سکتے ہیں۔ براہ مہربانی کوئی سوال خالی نہ چھوڑیں اور تمام سوالوں کے واضح جواب دیں۔

شکریہ

ذاتی کوائف

عمر: _____

2: عورت 1: مرد

جنس

تعلیمی قابلیت: _____

علیحدہ

2:

1: مشترکہ

خاندانی نظام:

ماہانہ آمدن: _____

2: غیر شادی شدہ 1: شادی شدہ

ازدواجی حیثیت:

2: ملازمت پیشہ 1: طالب علم

پیشہ ورانہ حیثیت:

4: ریٹائرڈ 3: بے روزگار 5: گھریلو خاتون

سوالنامہ نمبر 1

ذیل میں دی گئی خصوصیات تمام انسانوں میں پائی جاتی ہیں۔ کسی میں کم اور کسی میں زیادہ۔ آپ کے خیال میں آپ کے اندر یہ خصوصیات کس حد تک پائی جاتی ہیں؟ اگر آپ کو لگتا ہے کہ کوئی خاصیت آپ کے اندر بالکل نہیں پائی جاتی تو نمبر (1) کا انتخاب کریں۔ اور اگر آپ کے خیال میں کوئی خاصیت آپ کے اندر ہمیشہ موجود ہوتی ہے تو نمبر (7) کا انتخاب کریں۔ اسی طرح ہر بیان کے لیے موزوں نمبر کو منتخب کریں۔

بیانات	ہمیشہ سچ	عام طور پر سچ	اکثر سچ	کبھی کبھی / کسی خاص موقع پر سچ	کبھی کبھار سچ	عام طور پر سچ نہیں	کبھی نہیں یا کبھی سچ نہیں
	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
(Self-radiant) خود انحصاری	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Yielding) اطاعت گزار	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Helpful) مددگار	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Defends own belief) اپنے عقائد کا دفاع کرنے والا/والی	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Cheerful) خوش مزاج	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Moody) متلون مزاج	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Independent) خود مختار	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Shy) شرمیلا/شرمیلی	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Conscientious) باضمیر	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Athletic) کھلاڑی	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Affectionate) پیار کرنے والا/والی	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Theatrical) بناوٹی	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Assertive) ہٹ دھرمی	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Not susceptible to flattery) خوشامدی طبیعت کا نہ ہونا	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Happy) خوش	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Strong personality) مضبوط شخصیت کا حامل	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Loyal) وفادار	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Unpredictable) غیر متوقع	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Forceful) زبردستی کرنے والا	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Feminine) زنانہ خصوصیات کا حامل	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Reliable) قابل اعتماد	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	تجزیاتی (Analytical)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	ہمدرد (Sympathetic)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	حاسد (Jealous)

ذیل میں دی گئی خصوصیات تمام انسانوں میں پائی جاتی ہیں۔ کسی میں کم اور کسی میں زیادہ۔ آپ کے خیال میں آپ کے اندر یہ خصوصیات کس حد تک پائی جاتی ہیں؟ اگر آپ کو لگتا ہے کہ کوئی خاصیت آپ کے اندر بالکل نہیں پائی جاتی تو نمبر (1) کا انتخاب کریں۔ اور اگر آپ کے خیال میں کوئی خاصیت آپ کے اندر ہمیشہ موجود ہوتی ہے تو نمبر (7) کا انتخاب کریں۔ اسی طرح ہر بیان کے لیے موزوں نمبر کو منتخب کریں۔

بیانات	ہمیشہ سچ	عام طور پر سچ	اکثر سچ	کبھی کبھی / کسی خاص موقع پر سچ	کبھی کبھار سچ	عام طور پر سچ یا کبھی سچ نہیں	کبھی نہیں
	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
(Leadership ability) (قائدانہ صلاحیت کا حامل)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Sensitive to other needs) (دوسروں کی ضرورت کا احساس کرنے والا)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Truthful) (سچا)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Willing to take risk) (خطرہ مول لینے کو تیار)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Understanding) (فہم و فراست والا)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Secretive) (مبہم)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Make decision easily) (آسانی سے فیصلہ کرنے والا)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Compassionate) (رحمدل)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Sincere) (مخلص)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Self-Sufficient) (خود کفیل)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Eager to soothe hurt feelings) (مجروح احساسات کو سکون دینے کا خواہشمند)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Conceited) (مغرور)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Dominant) (حاکم)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Soft-spoken) (نرم گو)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Likeable) (پسندیدہ)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Masculine) (مردانہ خصوصیات کا حامل)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Warm) (گرم جوش)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Solemn) (متین)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Willing to take a stand) (ایک موقف پر ڈٹ جانے والا)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Tender) (مہربان)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Friendly) (دوستانہ)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Aggressive) (غصیلیا)	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

ذیل میں دی گئی خصوصیات تمام انسانوں میں پائی جاتی ہیں۔ کسی میں کم اور کسی میں زیادہ۔ آپ کے خیال میں آپ کے اندر یہ خصوصیات کس حد تک پائی جاتی ہیں؟ اگر آپ کو لگتا ہے کہ کوئی خاصیت آپ کے اندر بالکل نہیں پائی جاتی تو نمبر (1) کا انتخاب کریں۔ اور اگر آپ کے خیال میں کوئی خاصیت آپ کے اندر ہمیشہ موجود ہوتی ہے تو نمبر (7) کا انتخاب کریں۔ اسی طرح ہر بیان کے لیے موزوں نمبر کو منتخب کریں۔

بیانات	ہمیشہ سچ	عام طور پر سچ	اکثر سچ	کبھی کبھی / کسی خاص موقع پر سچ	کبھی کبھار سچ	عام طور پر سچ نہیں یا کبھی سچ نہیں	کبھی نہیں
	(7)	(6)	(5)	(4)	(3)	(2)	(1)
(Gullible) بھولا / آسانی سے دھوکا کھانے والا	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Insufficient) نا اہل	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Act as a leader) رہنما	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Childlike) بچکانہ	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Adaptable) حالات کے مطابق ڈھلنے والا	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(individualistic) انفرادیت پسند	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Does not use harsh languages) سخت اور کڑوی زبان استعمال نہیں کرتا	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Unsystematic) غیر منظم	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Competitive) مقابلے کا جذبہ رکھنے والا	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Loves Children) بچوں سے محبت کرتا ہے	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Tactful) موقع شناس	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Ambitious) پر عزم	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Gentle) شریف	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
(Conventional) روایتی	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

سوالنامہ نمبر 2

ذیل میں دئے گئے بیانات میں سے اس بیان پر (✓) لگائیں جو آپ کی کیفیات کی واضح ترجمانی کرتا ہے۔ دیئے گئے بیان کی درستی کے مطابق متعلقہ خانہ کو پر کریں۔

نمبر شمار	بیانات	بہت ٹھیک (7)	کسی حد تک ٹھیک (6)	ٹھیک (5)	غیر جانبدار (4)	غلط (3)	کسی حد تک غلط (2)	بہت غلط (1)
۱	میں پارٹی کی جان ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۲	میں دوسروں کے احساسات (Feelings) سے ہمدردی رکھتا/رکھتی ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۳	میں کاموں کو اسی وقت کرنے کا/کی قائل ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۴	میرے مزاج میں اکثر تبدیلیاں آتی ہیں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۵	میں واضح تصورات رکھتا/رکھتی ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۶	میں خود کو ہر چیز کا زیادہ حق دار محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۷	میں بہت زیادہ بات نہیں کرتا/کرتی۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۸	میں دوسروں کی مشکلات میں زیادہ دلچسپی نہیں لیتا/لیتی۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۹	میں مبہم خیالات (Abstract Ideas) کو سمجھنے میں دشواری محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۱۰	مجھے ترتیب پسند ہے	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۱۱	میں چیزوں میں گڑبڑ کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۱۲	میں زندگی میں زیادہ چیزوں کا/کی مستحق ہوں	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۱۳	میرے خیالات اچھے نہیں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۱۴	میں دوسروں کے جذبات (Emotions) کو محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۱۵	میں زیادہ تر پرسکون رہتا/رہتی ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۱۶	میں آسانی سے پریشان ہو جاتا/جاتی ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۱۷	میں کبھی کبھار ادا اسی محسوس کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۱۸	میں ایک بہت مہنگی کار میں گھومتے ہوئے دکھنا چاہتا/چاہتی ہوں	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۱۹	میں پس پردہ رہتا/رہتی ہوں۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1
۲۰	میں واقعی دوسروں میں دلچسپی نہیں لیتا/لیتی۔	7	6	5	4	3	2	1

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	۲۱	میں مبہم خیالات (Abstract Ideas) میں دلچسپی نہیں رکھتا/رکھتی۔
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	۲۲	میں اکثر چیزوں کو واپس ان کی جگہ پر رکھنا بھول جاتا/جاتی ہوں
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	۲۳	میں پارٹی میں بہت سے مختلف لوگوں سے بات کرتا/کرتی ہوں۔
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	۲۴	میں قیمتی اور مہنگی اشیاء پاکر خوش ہونا چاہوں گا/گی۔

سوالنامہ نمبر 3

ہدایات ذیل میں ان طریقوں کی فہرست ہے جو آپ نے محسوس کیے ہوں گے یا برتاؤ کیا ہو گا۔ براہ کرم مجھے بتائیں کہ آپ نے پچھلے ہفتے کے دوران کتنی بار اس طرح محسوس کیا ہے۔

نمبر شمار	بیانات	زیادہ تر یا ہر وقت (5-7 دن)	کبھی کبھار یا معتدل وقت (3-4 دن)	کچھ یا تھوڑا وقت (2-1 دن)	شاذ و نادر ہی یا کوئی وقت نہیں (1 دن سے کم)
		3	2	1	0
1	میں ان چیزوں پہ پریشان رہا/رہی جو عام طور پر مجھے پریشان نہیں کرتی۔	3	2	1	0
2	مجھے کھانے کی ضرورت محسوس نہیں ہوئی، میری بھوک کم ہو گئی۔	3	2	1	0
3	مجھے محسوس ہوا کہ میں اپنے خاندان اور دوستوں کی مدد سے بھی پریشانیوں سے نجات نہیں پا سکتا/سکتی۔	3	2	1	0
4	میں نے خود کو باقی لوگوں کی طرح اچھا محسوس کیا۔	3	2	1	0
5	جو میں کر رہا تھا/رہی تھی اس پہ مجھ اپنا ذہن متوجہ رکھنے پہ دشواری ہوئی۔	3	2	1	0
6	میں نے اداسی محسوس کی	3	2	1	0
7	مجھے لگا میں نے جو بھی کیا وہ ایک کوشش تھی۔	3	2	1	0
8	میں نے مستقبل کے لیے خود کو پر امید محسوس کیا۔	3	2	1	0
9	میں نے سوچا کہ میری زندگی ناکام رہی ہے۔	3	2	1	0
10	میں نے خود کو خوف زدہ محسوس کیا۔	3	2	1	0
11	میری نیند میں بے چینی ہوئی۔	3	2	1	0
12	میں خوش تھا/تھی۔	3	2	1	0
13	میں نے معمول سے کم باتیں کیں	3	2	1	0

0	1	2	3	میں نے خود کو تنہا محسوس کیا۔	14
0	1	2	3	لوگ غیر دوستانہ تھے۔	15
0	1	2	3	میں نے زندگی کا لطف اٹھایا۔	16
0	1	2	3	مجھے رونے کے دورے پڑے۔	17
0	1	2	3	میں نے خود کو غم زدہ محسوس کیا۔	18
0	1	2	3	میں نے محسوس کیا کہ لوگ مجھے ناپسند کرتے ہیں۔	19
0	1	2	3	میں مزید نہیں چل سکا/سکی۔	20

سوالات نمبر 4

0	1	2	3	بیانات	نمبر شمار
کبھی نہیں	ہاں، لیکن جو میں کر رہا تھا اس کو تبدیل کرنے کے لئے کافی نہیں	ہاں، اور بعض اوقات میں نے اس صورتحال سے اجتناب کیا	ہاں، اور میں نے اس صورتحال سے تمام وقت اجتناب کیا	(الف): گزشتہ 6 ماہ میں	
0	1	2	3	کیا آپ قطار میں کھڑے ہونے یا بھیڑ کا حصہ ہونے سے خوفزدہ ہوئے؟	۱
0	1	2	3	کیا آپ باہر جانے سے خوفزدہ ہوئے؟	۲
0	1	2	3	کیا آپ اکیلے ہونے کے احساس سے خوفزدہ ہوئے؟	۳
0	1	2	3	کیا آپ لوگوں کے سامنے بولنے / بات کرنے سے خوفزدہ ہوئے؟	۴
0	1	2	3	کیا آپ لوگوں حتیٰ کہ دوستوں کے ساتھ ہونے / رہنے سے خوفزدہ ہوئے؟	۵
0	1	2	3	کیا آپ خون دیکھنے یا گولی لگنے کے احساس سے خوفزدہ ہوئے؟	۶
0	1	2	3	کیا آپ نے ایک ڈاکٹر یا دندان ساز کو دیکھنے سے خوف محسوس کیا؟	۷
کبھی نہیں	ہاں، بعض اوقات	ہاں، اکثر	ہاں، تقریباً ہمہ وقت	(ب): جب آپ ان نے کیفیات کو محسوس کیا تو کیا:	
0	1	2	3	کیا آپ کو ٹھنڈے سپینے آئے؟	۸
0	1	2	3	آپ کو دل کی دھڑکن تیز ہوتی ہوئی محسوس ہوئی؟	۹
0	1	2	3	آپ کو سانس رکتا یا گھٹتا ہوا محسوس ہوا؟	۱۰
0	1	2	3	آپ کو بے ہوشی کی کیفیت محسوس ہوئی؟	۱۱
0	1	2	3	آپ کو کپکپاہٹ کا احساس ہوا؟	۱۲
0	1	2	3	آپ کو سینے میں درد محسوس ہوا؟	۱۳
0	1	2	3	آپ کو محسوس ہوا کہ شاید میں مر جاؤں گا/گی؟	۱۴
0	1	2	3	کیا آپ کو قے/متلی کی کیفیت محسوس ہوئی؟	۱۵

0	1	2	3	آپ کو اپنا دم گھٹنا ہوا محسوس ہوا؟	۱۶
0	1	2	3	آپ کو لگا کہ آپ کوئی خاص ہستی ہیں؟	۱۷
0	1	2	3	آپ کو محسوس ہوا کہ ہر چیز غیر حقیقی تھی؟	۱۸
0	1	2	3	آپ کو ہاتھ پاؤں میں جھنجھناہٹ کا احساس ہوا؟	۱۹
کبھی نہیں 0	ایک یا دو مرتبہ 1	تین یا زیادہ مرتبہ 2	کئی مرتبہ 3	(۷)	
0	1	2	3	کیا یہ تمام کیفیات 5 سے 10 منٹ کے دور اپنے کے لئے اچانک سے نمودار ہوئی، یہاں تک کہ آپ ان میں سے کسی کیفیت میں نہیں تھے؟	۲۰