

Université de Montréal

**Le développement de la personnalité de l'homme de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie :
Approches centrées sur les variables et sur les personnes**

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Cette thèse intitulée :

Le développement de la personnalité de l'homme de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie :
Approches centrées sur les variables et sur les personnes

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RÉSUMÉ

Dans cette thèse, l'apport de deux grandes approches conceptuelles et méthodologiques pour étudier le développement de la personnalité a été évalué. Il s'agit des approches centrées sur les variables et sur les personnes. Actuellement, la majorité des chercheurs ont adopté l'approche centrée sur les variables. Les données employées proviennent d'une étude longitudinale prospective dans laquelle deux groupes d'hommes québécois ont été évalués de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie. Il s'agit d'un échantillon représentatif de la population générale et d'un échantillon d'individus judiciarés durant leur adolescence.

Dans un premier temps, une structure hiérarchique des traits de personnalité a été identifiée. Cette structure s'est avérée partiellement invariante entre les deux groupes d'hommes. Par la suite, le développement de la personnalité a été examiné selon l'approche centrée sur les variables. L'analyse de la continuité structurelle a montré que la structure de personnalité s'est avérée partiellement invariante à diverses périodes de la vie. L'analyse de la continuité différentielle a démontré que les différences entre les individus sont assez stables pour les deux groupes, qu'elles se stabilisent de plus en plus avec l'âge et qu'elles sont plus stables pour les hommes judiciarés. L'analyse de la continuité absolue a confirmé que les deux groupes ont manifesté une maturation psychologique. Toutefois, comparativement aux hommes représentatifs, les hommes judiciarés ont manifesté un profil de personnalité très défavorable pour la plupart des traits, et leur maturation psychologique a été plus lente.

Enfin, le développement de la personnalité a été étudié selon l'approche centrée sur les personnes. Une typologie développementale de la personnalité, composée de quatre groupes d'hommes manifestant des trajectoires distinctes pour plusieurs traits, a été identifiée dans chaque échantillon. Chaque type développemental de personnalité semble avoir été associé à des trajectoires de comportement antisocial distinctes. Malgré les différences marquées entre les deux groupes d'hommes, des correspondances intéressantes ont été observées entre les types de personnalité des hommes représentatifs et ceux

judiciarés. Ces résultats suggèrent qu'une typologie développementale de la personnalité s'organise probablement de façon hiérarchique.

Malgré l'apport important des deux approches, les études décrites dans cette thèse ont mis en lumière les limites conceptuelles de l'approche centrée sur les variables. L'approche centrée sur les personnes semble plus adéquate pour rendre compte des différences interindividuelles dans le développement de la personnalité. L'adoption d'une telle approche permettra de formuler une théorie développementale-typologique de la personnalité, composée de différentes trajectoires de vie qualitativement et quantitativement distinctes expliquées par des facteurs étiologiques distincts.

Mots clés : personnalité, trait, continuité, maturation, typologie, centrée sur les personnes, longitudinal, homme, judiciarisé, comportement antisocial.

ABSTRACT

This dissertation assessed the contribution of two broad conceptual and methodological approaches used for studying personality development, namely the variable-centered and person-centered approaches. Most researchers have adopted the variable-centered approach over the years. Data from a prospective longitudinal study that followed two groups of men from adolescence to midlife were used: a representative sample of the general population and a sample of individuals adjudicated during their adolescence.

A hierarchical structure of personality traits was first identified. This structure was partially invariant among the two groups of men. Then, personality development was assessed according to the variable-centered approach. Structural continuity analyses revealed that the personality structure was partially invariant at different periods of their life. Differential continuity analyses showed that differences between individuals were quite stable in both samples, were becoming increasingly stable with age, and were more stable for the adjudicated men. Absolute continuity analyses have confirmed that there was a psychological maturation for both samples. Nevertheless, as compared with the representative men, the adjudicated men showed a very unfavourable personality profile for most traits and a slower psychological maturation.

Finally, personality development was studied according to the person-centered approach. A developmental typology of personality composed of four groups of men displaying distinct trajectories on multiple traits was identified in each sample. Each of the developmental type of personality seems to have been related to distinct antisocial behavior trajectories. Despite marked differences between the two groups of men, interesting similarities between the personality types of the representative and adjudicated men were observed. These results suggest that a developmental typology of personality is probably organized in a hierarchical manner.

Despite the important contribution of both approaches, the studies described in this dissertation highlighted the conceptual limitations of the variable-centered approach. The person-centered approach seems more appropriate for identifying inter-individual

differences in personality development. The adoption of such an approach will allow the formulation of a developmental–typological theory of personality composed of qualitatively and quantitatively distinct life pathways explained by distinct etiologic factors.

Key words: personality, trait, continuity, maturation, typology, person-centered, longitudinal, men, adjudicated, antisocial behavior.

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CHAPITRE I

INTRODUCTION

ÉNONCÉ GÉNÉRAL DE LA PROBLÉMATIQUE

En 1935, Lewin proposa une équation simple suggérant que le comportement est fonction de la personnalité et de la situation, soit $b = f(p, s)$, où « b » réfère au comportement, « p » réfère à la personnalité et « s » réfère à la situation. Cette équation apparaissait inoffensive à l'époque et, en fait, est passée inaperçue les premières années suivant sa parution. Lewin voulait tout simplement intégrer les approches psychanalytique, comportementaliste et des traits. Trente ans plus tard, un débat s'est enflammé entre la psychologie de la personnalité et la psychologie sociale. En effet, après la parution du livre de Mischel (1968), la psychologie de la personnalité a été violemment critiquée, particulièrement l'approche des traits. Durant cette période, les idées en vogue voulaient que (1) le comportement soit spécifique à la situation plutôt que cohérent et stable d'une situation à l'autre et dans le temps; (2) que les traits ne permettent pas de prédire l'adaptation; (3) que les traits soient davantage le fruit de la perception de l'observateur que des construits réels à l'intérieur des individus évalués; (4) que si les traits de personnalité existent, leur influence est négligeable et variable et qu'on ne peut les mesurer que par des instruments peu satisfaisants et desquels on doit se méfier. Cette période de scepticisme partisan qui dura près d'une vingtaine d'années est reconnue comme la période du « débat personne-situation » (Epstein & O'Brien, 1985).

Dans un article devenu un classique, Kenrick et Funder (1988) ont très bien résumé l'ensemble des hypothèses invoquées par les opposants au concept de trait (voir aussi Kenrick & Funder, 1991). La recension de Kenrick et Funder a été dévastatrice pour les situationnistes puisqu'elle a clairement démontré qu'aucune des hypothèses alternatives servant à discréditer les traits n'a été appuyée par des études empiriques rigoureuses. Le débat personne-situation est-il aujourd'hui résolu? Funder (2001) soutient que les appuis empiriques sont tels que le débat est réglé à 95 %. Aujourd'hui, la plupart des chercheurs réalistes adoptent une position interactionniste. Maintenant, le débat touche plutôt la *contribution relative* de la personne et de la situation. Mais en fait, malgré les prétentions de plusieurs psychologues sociaux, la plupart des études montrent que l'effet des situations est égal ou inférieur à celui des traits (Funder & Ozer, 1983). En réalité, comme l'a démontré

Buss (1989), il est facile de pencher pour l'une ou l'autre des positions en choisissant des devis de recherche, des traits particuliers ou des situations particulières qui vont systématiquement appuyer notre position.

Depuis la fin des années 1980, la situation s'est complètement retournée (Funder, 2001; McAdams, 1997). Historiquement, durant toute la première moitié du vingtième siècle, la psychologie de la personnalité a été dominée par l'approche des traits (Endler & Magnusson, 1976). Aujourd'hui, si on fait un examen des livres de recension théorique, des recensions de recherche empirique ou des articles de journaux avec comité de révision parmi les plus importants dans le domaine, force est de constater que les traits constituent à nouveau l'unité de mesure de la personnalité probablement la plus employée en recherche (Funder, 2001; Lubinski, 2000; Ozer & Reise, 1994; Pervin, 2002; Revelle, 1995). Assez ironiquement, l'instigateur du débat personne-situation, Mischel, a même inclu les traits dans ses récentes formulations théoriques (Mischel, 1999; Mischel & Shoda, 1995, 1995). Qui plus est, les chercheurs intéressés à l'influence de la situation tentent aujourd'hui d'identifier une taxinomie des situations, ce qui revient à chercher des « traits de situations » (Ten Berge & De Raad, 2001, 2002). Le débat personne-situation fut à la fois dévastateur et enrichissant pour le domaine. D'un côté, il a permis de mettre en lumière certaines circonstances où l'évaluation de la personnalité est très fiable, alors qu'elle l'est moins dans certains contextes spécifiques qui ont un effet très fort sur le comportement de la plupart des gens (e.g., Ross & Nisbett, 1991). D'un autre côté, comme l'a souligné Tellegen (1991), la fin du débat n'a pas laissé les chercheurs les mains vides : il a permis de réaffirmer l'importance des traits.

De fait, les traits de personnalité ont regagné une grande popularité auprès des chercheurs qui étudient la personnalité humaine (Bouchard & Loehlin, 2001; Buss, 1989; Clark & Watson, 1999; Funder, 1991; Goldberg, 1993; Johnson, 1997, 1999; Krueger, Caspi & Moffitt, 2000; Matthews & Deary, 1998; McCrae & Costa, 1997; Tellegen, 1991; Wiggins, 1997). Malgré les importants avantages des traits sur les plans méthodologiques et pratiques, il demeure que la plupart des théories des traits proposées à ce jour souffrent de plusieurs faiblesses. La plupart ont été formulées durant la première moitié du vingtième siècle et depuis, presque aucun développement théorique systématique n'a été proposé. Comme nous le verrons plus loin dans ce chapitre, l'approche des traits souffre de deux problèmes

importants : (1) elle se limite à une perspective nomothéthique de la personnalité et (2) elle ne permet pas de rendre compte adéquatement du développement de la personne.

Au cours de cette thèse, nous tenterons de mieux comprendre et d'investiguer ces deux limites de l'approche des traits. Pour ce faire, les données de l'*Étude longitudinale bi-échantillon de Montréal* (ÉLBCM; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989) seront employées. Cette étude longitudinale prospective comporte deux échantillons d'hommes québécois francophones qui ont été évalués à quatre reprises sur une période de 25 ans de leur vie. Lors de l'évaluation initiale au début des années 1970, tous les participants étaient adolescents, alors qu'à la dernière évaluation, ils étaient tous au début de la quarantaine. Le premier échantillon est *représentatif* puisque les participants ont été sélectionnés de façon quasi-aléatoire afin de représenter l'ensemble des adolescents vivant dans la région métropolitaine de Montréal. Le deuxième échantillon constitue une population d'*adolescents judiciarés* selon les deux lois sur les jeunes en vigueur au Québec, soit la Loi sur les jeunes contrevenants (LJC) et la Loi sur la protection de la jeunesse (LPJ).

Pour étudier le développement de la personnalité des hommes de l'ÉLBÉM, l'unité de mesure employée dans cette thèse consistera en une structure hiérarchique des traits de personnalité. Le développement de ces deux groupes d'hommes sera étudié selon deux grandes approches conceptuelles et méthodologiques, soit les approches *centrée sur les variables* et *centrée sur les personnes*. Il s'agira de déterminer si l'une ou l'autre de ces deux approches est plus profitable pour comprendre le développement de la personnalité de l'homme. Dans les sections qui suivent, puisque les traits sont les unités de mesure principales employées dans cette thèse et qu'ils sont encore souvent l'objet de controverse, les questions reliées à la définition des traits de personnalité seront discutées en détails. Par la suite, les postulats développementaux des théories des traits classiques seront passés en revue. Suivra un bref aperçu de l'état actuel des connaissances à propos de la continuité et du changement dans les traits de personnalité. Le rationnel ainsi que les avantages et limites des approches centrée sur les variables et sur les personnes seront aussi discutés. Enfin, puisque l'opérationnalisation de l'approche centrée sur les personnes passe par l'adoption d'une approche typologique de la personnalité, cette question sera aussi discutée.

PERSONNALITÉ ET TRAITS DE PERSONNALITÉ

La majorité des gens, qu'ils soient psychologues chercheurs, cliniciens ou non spécialistes en psychologie, admettent généralement d'emblée que, dès leur naissance, les enfants manifestent des patrons d'adaptation cognitive, émotive, et comportementale qui les distinguent les uns des autres. Le désir de conceptualiser et de mesurer ces différences relativement stables entre les individus ne date pas d'hier (voir Allport, 1927, 1937; Kagan, 1994; McAdams, 1997). On retrouve des écrits de philosophes de la Grèce antique qui cherchaient déjà à comprendre les différences entre les individus sur le plan de leur adaptation cognitive, émotive et comportementale. Les chercheurs contemporains ont commencé à utiliser le terme « personnalité » pour désigner ce mode d'adaptation des individus, principalement à partir de la parution du livre de Gordon Allport en 1937. En fait, ce livre a été le point tournant qui permit la popularisation du concept de trait auprès des psychologues. Allport est en quelque sorte considéré comme le « père » de la psychologie de la personnalité scientifique moderne, tout comme celui de l'approche des traits.

Le terme personnalité vient du latin *personalitas* – qui lui vient du mot personne (en latin *persona*) – et signifie la personne totale, c'est-à-dire autant la personne psychologique que physique. C'est en raison de cet aspect inclusif et intégratif que Allport (1937) a adopté le terme personnalité, puisqu'il éliminait ainsi les confusions liées aux autres termes tels que tempérament ou caractère et permettait d'intégrer toutes les dimensions de la personne. Mais existe-t-il une définition de la personnalité acceptée par tous ? Malheureusement, il n'existe pas une définition qui fasse l'unanimité. Cependant, encore aujourd'hui, la définition à laquelle se réfère la vaste majorité des chercheurs est celle d'Allport, qui avait tenté d'intégrer toutes les définitions existantes. Pour Allport (1937), « la personnalité est l'organisation dynamique interne de l'individu des systèmes psychophysiques qui détermine son adaptation unique à son environnement ». Ce qui est important de souligner est que la plupart des théoriciens de la première heure tels que Allport (1937), Cattell (1946), Eysenck (1970), Guilford (1959, 1975) ou Thurstone (1947) soutenaient que les traits constituent l'unité fondamentale de mesure de la personnalité. En effet, à la suite de sa recension exhaustive, Allport (1937) en est venu à la conclusion que l'intégration des multiples concepts associés à la personnalité est facilitée par l'utilisation de traits. En fait, pour plusieurs chercheurs,

considérant l'objectif à la fois intégratif et parcimonieux visé par les psychologues, l'utilisation de traits est presque inévitable pour rendre compte des covariations entre les multiples dimensions pouvant être associées à la personnalité (pour une argumentation, voir Johnson, 1997). En conséquence, Allport (1937) soutient que les traits constituent l'unité scientifique fondamentale de mesure de la personnalité. Pour Cattell (1957), la personnalité est « ce qui permet de prédire comment une personne va réagir ou se comporter dans une situation donnée », mais c'est surtout « la combinaison de l'ensemble des traits chez un individu ». Eysenck (1970) considère aussi la personnalité comme étant « une combinaison de traits que la personne manifeste dans différentes situations et qui demeure stable dans le temps ». Guilford (1959) considérait aussi la personnalité comme « le patron unique de traits de la personne ». Mais qu'est-ce qu'un trait ? Existe-t-il une définition opérationnelle claire d'un trait de personnalité qui fasse l'unanimité entre les chercheurs ? Comme dans le cas de la personnalité en général, il n'existe pas de définition du trait qui fasse l'unanimité.

Selon Allport (1937), un trait est un « système neuropsychique généralisé et focalisé ayant la capacité de rendre différents stimuli fonctionnellement équivalents et d'activer et guider de façon cohérente (ou équivalente) plusieurs formes de comportement adaptatif et expressif ». Selon Cattell (1965), les traits sont « des structures mentales héréditaires qui expliquent le comportement et la cohérence du comportement dans différentes situations ». Plus récemment, Tellegen (1991) a proposé qu'un trait soit une structure organismique (i.e., psychologique et biologique) inférée, relativement durable, qui sous-tend une famille de prédispositions cognitives, émitives et comportementales. Ces définitions demeurent très générales. Puisque l'unité de mesure employée dans cette thèse est une structure des traits, il est essentiel de bien définir ce concept. Pour ce faire, nous allons passer en revue les postulats de base qui sous-tendent l'existence des traits de personnalité.

LES TRAITS DE PERSONNALITÉ : DÉFINITION ET POSTULATS

Comme toute science, l'approche des traits repose sur certains postulats concernant la nature et le fonctionnement de la personnalité. La majorité de ces postulats sont dérivés de la théorie de Allport (1927, 1937, 1961, 1966) qui constitue, encore aujourd'hui, la théorie de la personnalité la plus acceptée. Bien sûr, comme le souligne Zuroff (1986), la théorie de

Allport date de près de 60 ans et doit être révisée à la lumière des théories et des études empiriques récentes. En conséquence, ces postulats se fondent aussi sur les écrits de théoriciens contemporains tels que Eysenck (1970, 1981; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985), Funder (1987, 1991, 1995), Pervin (1994, 2002), Strelau (1999, 2001) et Tellegen (1985, 1991; Tellegen & Waller, in press). Comme l'ont mentionné Funder (1991) et Pervin (1994), ces postulats sont nécessaires pour que le concept de trait ait une quelconque signification scientifique et une utilité pour les cliniciens. Par ailleurs, puisque l'approche des traits a traditionnellement été l'objet de critiques soulevant des controverses (Block, 1995, 2001; McAdams, 1992, 1994a; Pervin, 1994; Westen, 1995, 1996), la présentation des postulats de base permet de relativiser certaines critiques et de démontrer que les traits constituent des unités de mesure de la personnalité qui sont fiables et valides. Le Tableau 1 présente les dix postulats de base de l'approche des traits. Il s'agit de postulats généraux, mais plusieurs autres plus spécifiques existent, selon les auteurs. La Figure 1 permet aussi d'illustrer certains de ces postulats, que nous allons brièvement passer en revue. Il s'agit bien sûr d'un survol qui ne rend pas compte de la complexité et des controverses propres à chacun d'eux.

Insérer Tableau 1 et Figures 1 et 2 ici

Les traits de personnalité sont des construits latents

Les traits sont qualifiés de construits psychologiques *latents* parce qu'ils ne peuvent être mesurés directement. En réalité, les traits représentent la *covariation systématique* de plusieurs réponses cognitives, émitives et comportementales habituelles dans diverses situations. C'est cette covariation qui constitue l'objet de la mesure et elle est généralement qualifiée d'*expression phénotypique* des traits, ce qui lui confère, comme nous le verrons plus loin, un rôle causal potentiel (Borsboom, Mellenbergh, & Heerden, 2003). Comme le philosophe des sciences Paul Meehl (1978, 1986) l'a clairement souligné, cette covariation entre les réponses habituelles constitue la justification scientifique essentielle pour appuyer l'existence des traits (voir aussi Tellegen, 1991). En fait, Meehl soutient que cette covariation

est la justification scientifique de la majorité des construits en sciences, que ce soit en sciences physiques, biologiques ou sociales. En principe, les processus neurologiques, physiologiques et hormonaux font aussi partie de l'expression phénotypique des traits, tel qu'indiqué dans la Figure 1. Mais puisqu'il n'existe pas, à ce jour, une méthode intégrative de mesure des interrelations complexes entre les bases biologiques des traits, ils doivent être inférés essentiellement à partir des cognitions, des émotions et des comportements.

Les traits de personnalité s'organisent de façon hiérarchique

La plupart des chercheurs considèrent que les traits s'organisent de façon hiérarchique (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Goldberg, 1993; John & Srivastava, 1999; Paunonen, 1998). La Figure 2 illustre cette conceptualisation hiérarchique de la structure des traits sur plusieurs niveaux de spécificité. Au niveau le plus concret, on retrouve les *réponses spécifiques*. Ces réponses correspondent aux pensées, aux émotions ou aux comportements particuliers émis dans un contexte physique ou social particulier. Afin d'obtenir des estimations de ces réponses spécifiques, on emploi le plus souvent de l'observation systématique dans différents contextes naturels ou encore des situations expérimentales. À un niveau un peu plus abstrait, certaines réponses spécifiques tendent à covarier, c'est-à-dire à survenir de façon cohérente dans différents contextes chez un même individu pour former des *réponses habituelles*. Afin d'obtenir des estimations de ces réponses habituelles, on a recours à des questionnaires dans lesquels on demande à la personne ou à un tiers d'estimer la fréquence ou l'intensité habituelle d'énoncés représentant plusieurs cognitions, émotions et comportements. À un niveau plus abstrait encore, certaines de ces réponses habituelles tendent aussi à covarier systématiquement pour former des traits de premier ordre (aussi appelés traits primaires ou facettes). Certains traits de premier ordre peuvent aussi covarier de façon systématique et former des traits de second ordre (aussi appelés traits généraux ou facteurs). Enfin, des traits de second ordre tendent aussi à covarier pour former le niveau le plus élevé d'abstraction, soit les traits de haut ordre (aussi appelés dimensions ou superfacteurs).

Pour arriver à départager quelles sont les réponses habituelles qui covarient pour former des traits de premier ordre ou quels sont les traits de second ordre qui covarient pour

former des traits de haut ordre, la méthode typiquement employée par les chercheurs est l'analyse factorielle (pour une présentation de l'analyse factorielle, voir Finch & West, 1997; McDonald, 1999; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Cattell (1946, 1965) et Eysenck (1970, 1981) soutenaient tous deux que l'analyse factorielle est indispensable pour l'identification d'une structure de traits latents ayant une valeur scientifique. De fait, pour les tenants de l'approche des traits, une de ses plus grandes forces est justement qu'elle repose sur des analyses statistiques « objectives ». En effet, le développement théorique dépend alors moins de la subjectivité et de l'expérience personnelle du chercheur. Cependant, l'approche des traits n'est certes pas à l'abri des biais. En fait, pour certains chercheurs, l'utilisation de l'analyse factorielle constitue justement une de ses faiblesses (e.g., Block, 1995, 2001; McAdams, 1992; Funder, 1994). En effet, il est impossible d'affirmer que les analyses factorielles sont à même d'identifier les dimensions *les plus fondamentales* de la personnalité humaine. D'abord, l'analyse factorielle nécessite l'implication humaine puisque le chercheur doit prendre certaines décisions, par exemple, choisir le type de matrice de corrélations, la méthode d'extraction et la méthode de rotation. Or, force est d'admettre que l'analyse factorielle est souvent utilisée de façon inappropriée (voir Waller, 1999; Waller et al., 1996). De plus, le principal problème, au-delà de l'aspect technique de l'analyse factorielle, est probablement que selon la nature et le nombre d'items inclus dans l'analyse, des solutions différentes seront nécessairement obtenues (Blaney, 1991; Block, 1995). En effet, il y des divergences entre les auteurs à propos de la nature des items composant les traits (Werner & Pervin, 1986). Certains croient que seuls les comportements observables ou manifestes peuvent définir un trait (e.g., Buss & Craik, 1983). Considérant l'aspect intégratif visé par les psychologues de la personnalité, la majorité des chercheurs considèrent que les cognitions, les émotions, les attitudes, les valeurs et les motivations sont aussi cruciales et qu'il est important de comprendre leurs interrelations (Ackerman, & Heggestad, 1997; Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Goldberg, 1993; Tellegen, 1985; Tellegen & Waller, in press).

Les traits de personnalité sont relativement stables dans différentes situations

Une des raisons pour lesquelles les situationnistes rejetaient les traits était parce qu'ils postulaient généralement une définition souvent qualifiée de « trait pur ». Dans sa critique originale et dans ses plus récentes critiques, Mischel (1968, 1999) affirme que pour pouvoir

accepter un trait comme un construit scientifique réel existant dans la nature, les chercheurs devraient observer une « invariance situationnelle », c'est-à-dire que les individus devraient démontrer une continuité intersituationnelle absolue. Cette définition suggère que les individus devraient se comporter exactement de la même façon d'une situation à une autre. Comme l'ont souligné Roberts & Caspi (2001), une telle définition n'a pas de sens psychologiquement puisque seule la catatonie satisfait ce critère d'invariance absolue.

Dans les méthodes d'évaluations courantes, les réponses habituelles d'une personne à de multiples questions propres à un même trait, mais référant à différentes situations, sont combinées pour former une estimation globale. Les traits constituent donc des construits « décontextualisés » (Funder, 1991). Tellegen (1991) explique que l'estimation d'un trait est dite *inconditionnelle* plutôt que conditionnelle parce que, contrairement à une situation expérimentale par exemple, on ne place pas l'individu dans une situation spécifique, mais on estime plutôt les réponses dans différentes situations de l'environnement naturel. Puisque les psychologues désirent des évaluations de la personnalité qui soient à la fois intégratives et parcimonieuses, des estimations des traits strictement conditionnelles à une situation seraient peu utiles. Les différences situationnelles dans les traits sont reflétées par les niveaux de difficulté des items. Bien qu'encore plusieurs chercheurs interprètent ces différences comme de l'erreur (i.e., cohérence interne plus faible), différents niveaux de difficulté dans une échelle sont en fait désirables pour bien mesurer l'étendu du continuum que représente un trait latent (Embretson & Reise, 2000; Reise, 1999). Comme l'a mentionné Tellegen (1991), la meilleure façon de comprendre le fonctionnement des traits est d'adopter une perspective *probabiliste*. Cela signifie que, toute chose étant égale par ailleurs, pour un individu manifestant une forte prédisposition à un trait, les probabilités qu'il se comporte de la même façon dans différentes situations seront élevées. Les traits s'expriment donc sous la forme « si-stimulus–alors–réponse ». Allport (1937) et Funder (1991) vont plus loin en postulant que les traits agissent par un mécanisme « d'équivalence situationnelle », c'est-à-dire que les traits permettent de rendre fonctionnellement équivalents des stimuli différents. Ainsi, les individus vont tendre à répondre de façon similaire.

Les traits de personnalité interagissent avec les situations

Non seulement les traits sont relativement stables dans différentes situations, mais ils interagissent avec les situations (Caspi & Moffitt, 1993; Johnson, 1999; Mischel, 1999; Mischel & Shoda, 1995, 1999; Pervin, 1994; Scarr & McCartney, 1983; Scarr, 1992).

Puisque certains traits sont davantage pertinents dans certaines situations, il est généralement admis que tous les traits sont, dans une certaine mesure, spécifique à la situation. Par exemple, la sociabilité est pertinente lorsqu'il y a des situations où d'autres personnes sont impliquées, alors que dans une situation expérimentale, la tendance à la sociabilité d'un individu aura peu d'impact sur sa performance. La délimitation d'une telle pertinence situationnelle d'un trait est souvent appelée une *interaction personne-situation*. Deux autres formes d'interaction plus complexes sont aussi possibles. Il y a d'abord la *sélection*. Les traits de personnalité vont affecter le choix des situations dans lesquelles un individu va s'engager. Les traits peuvent aussi agir par une troisième forme d'interaction, soit la *création*. La plupart des situations sont, dans une certaine mesure, influencées par les individus qui en font partie. La personne peut donc arriver à créer des contextes propices à l'expression de ses prédispositions. Comme l'explique Tellegen (1991), ces deux formes d'interaction provoquent un « jumelage trait-situation », qui en retour mène au renforcement de l'expression des traits, c'est-à-dire au « jumelage trait-réponses habituelles ». Ce phénomène rétroactif est illustré par les flèches pointillées dans la Figure 1. Ce phénomène de jumelage et de renforcement mutuel constitue une justification importante pour l'évaluation des traits en agrégant les réponses habituelles d'un individu au cours d'une période de temps donnée.

Les traits de personnalité se distribuent de façon continue dans la population

Les traits identifiés par l'analyse factorielle sont des construits identifiés pour tous les individus d'une population (ou d'un échantillon). L'approche des traits est donc une perspective continue où tous les individus de la population peuvent être situés sur le continuum que représente chaque trait. Selon Tellegen (1991), un trait peut être considéré comme une structure organismique quasi universelle dans la population, c'est-à-dire qu'on peut identifier un trait donné chez tous les individus, mais avec des variations quantitatives entre les individus. L'approche des traits est donc généralement qualifiée de *nomothétique*.

Bien qu'on postule que tous les individus possèdent les traits, en réalité ils s'appliquent surtout à l'individu moyen. En effet, les facteurs identifiés par l'analyse factorielle représentent la variance commune d'une matrice de corrélations calculée pour tous les individus. On ne sait donc pas réellement si les traits s'appliquent à chaque individu spécifiquement. Cela représente un problème important de l'approche des traits. C'est ce qui a amené McAdams (1992, 1994a) à qualifier l'approche des traits de « psychologie de l'étranger ». Comme le mentionnait Allport (1937), qui n'était pas le plus fervent admirateur de l'analyse factorielle, il y a une sérieuse possibilité que certains groupes d'individus dans la population ne diffèrent pas seulement quantitativement, mais structurellement, c'est-à-dire dans l'organisation de base de leur personnalité. Les études de Bem ont bien démontré cette possibilité (Bem & Allen, 1974; Bem & Funder, 1978). Plus récemment, Feldman (1995) a aussi observé que l'Extraversion et le Névrotisme sont orthogonaux (i.e., non corrélés) dans la population, mais qu'ils sont intimement reliés pour certains individus.

En somme, la perspective nomothétique des traits est pertinente puisqu'un des objectifs principaux des psychologues de la personnalité est d'obtenir des estimations des différences entre les individus. Les échelles continues comme les traits sont donc fort utiles, autant pour les chercheurs que pour les cliniciens. Cependant, avant d'accepter le postulat que les traits s'appliquent autant au niveau du groupe (population) qu'au niveau de l'individu, il faudra conduire des analyses factorielles idiosyncrasiques. Une autre façon de surmonter la nature nomothétique des traits est d'adopter une *approche typologique* de la personnalité. Nous nous intéresserons à cette question dans cette thèse et en discuterons en détail plus loin.

Les traits de personnalité sont universels

De la perspective nomothétique découle le postulat de l'universalité des traits dans la population. Les études employant l'analyse factorielle d'items de questionnaire de personnalité dans différentes langues provenant de différentes cultures et pays du monde semblent recouvrir systématiquement les mêmes traits de haut ordre. De façon générale, deux modèles structuraux ont été répliqués et font l'objet d'un large consensus parmi les chercheurs et les cliniciens. Il s'agit du modèle en cinq facteurs (e.g., John & Srivastava, 1999) et du modèle en trois facteurs (e.g., Clark & Watson, 1999). Le modèle en cinq

facteurs a été identifié initialement par le biais d'une stratégie lexicale, c'est-à-dire en utilisant tous les mots du langage courant permettant de représenter adéquatement les différences entre les individus (Goldberg, 1981). Ce modèle a été popularisé particulièrement par Costa et McCrae (1992a), Digman (1990) et Goldberg (1990, 1993). Ces traits de haut ordre (et les traits de premier ordre qui leur sont associés) sont le *Névrotisme* (anxiété, dépression, vulnérabilité affective, hostilité, impulsivité et faible estime de soi), la *Complaisance* (honnêteté, altruisme, empathie, conciliation, modestie et crédulité), la *Contrainte* (attention, organisation, fiabilité, dévouement, compétence, et ambition), l'*Extraversion* (sociabilité, confiance en soi, expressivité, énergie, activité et recherche d'excitation), et enfin l'*Ouverture à l'expérience* (imagination, sensibilité, esthétisme, curiosité, recherche de la nouveauté et tolérance aux différences). Quant au modèle en trois facteurs, les chercheurs qui ont identifié ce modèle ne se sont pas basés simplement sur le langage courant reflétant l'adaptation « normale » des individus, mais ont généralement inclus plusieurs items visant à mesurer les problèmes d'adaptation et les troubles de personnalité. Ce modèle en trois facteurs a été popularisé plus particulièrement par Eysenck (1970, 1981; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985), Cloninger (1987), Clark et Watson (1990, 1999) et Tellegen (1985; Tellegen & Waller, in press). Dans ce modèle, on retrouve l'*Extraversion* (ou l'Émotivité Positive) et le *Névrotisme* (ou l'Émotivité Négative). Le troisième trait, la *Désinhibition* (ou le Psychotisme, la Contrainte), semble quant à lui regrouper des aspects de la Complaisance et de la Contrainte du modèle en cinq facteurs. Donc, de trois à cinq traits de haut ordre semblent nécessaires et suffisants pour une description générale de la structure de la personnalité.

Certains chercheurs, enthousiastes par l'identification de ces deux structures dans plusieurs langages et plusieurs pays du monde, soutiennent que la structure de la personnalité humaine est universelle (i.e., McCrae & Costa, 1997). Bien que ces résultats soient effectivement impressionnantes, nous ne croyons pas qu'il soit actuellement possible d'appuyer ce postulat. Même certains tenants de l'approche des traits soutiennent qu'il est prématûr de parler d'universalité (e.g., John & Srivastava, 1999; Tellegen & Waller, in press). D'abord, la question du nombre de facteurs demeure controversée. Comme nous l'avons mentionné plus tôt, certains utilisent l'analyse factorielle de façon inappropriée. De plus, la nature et le nombre d'items varient souvent d'une étude à l'autre. Certains chercheurs sont d'avis que plusieurs facteurs restent à être découverts (Ashton & Lee, 2001; Paunonen &

Jackson, 2000; Tellegen & Waller, in press; Waller, 1999). Ensuite, des études montrent qu'il y a des traits uniques identifiés dans certaines cultures, en plus du fait qu'un même trait peut avoir une signification adaptative fort différente selon les cultures (e.g., Church, 2000, 2001).

Les traits de personnalité sont des caractéristiques évolutives partiellement héréditaires

Les traits de personnalité sont généralement considérés comme des caractéristiques qui se sont développées au fil de l'évolution afin d'optimiser des tâches adaptatives de l'homo sapiens sapiens telles que se reproduire, se protéger et se nourrir (voir Buss, 1995, 1999). Buss explique qu'il est possible de postuler que l'Extraversion et la Stabilité émotionnelle ont été importants pour aller à la rencontre et maintenir les relations avec les partenaires de sexe opposé, que la Contrainte et la Complaisance ont été importants pour la survie et la cohésion dans le groupe et que l'Ouverture a pu contribuer au besoin de développer le langage et la culture. L'homo sapiens sapiens partage plus de 99% du bagage génétique avec la plupart des primates (Goodman, 1999). En conséquence, Bouchard et McGue (2003) rappellent que l'identification des traits chez des espèces non-humaines constitue probablement la preuve la plus solide des bases génétiques de la personnalité. Jusqu'à tout récemment, les chercheurs ont évité d'étudier la personnalité chez des espèces non-humaines de peur d'être accusés d'anthropomorphisme. Ce n'est plus le cas aujourd'hui. Gosling (2001) a fait une recension exhaustive des études d'observation en milieu naturel et des études expérimentales et a clairement démontré que les humains partagent des traits psychologiques fondamentaux avec plusieurs autres espèces animales, particulièrement les primates. Cette identification interespèce suggère que ces dimensions majeures de la personnalité ne sont pas que des constructions humaines futiles, mais des construits avec une signification évolutive. Il est donc logique de postuler que les traits sont héréditaires, du moins partiellement.

Malgré leurs limites inhérentes, les études de jumeaux, familiales et d'adoption sont essentielles pour déterminer l'importance relative des facteurs génétiques. Bouchard et McGue (2003), Loehlin (1992), Plomin et Caspi (1999) et Rowe (1997) soutiennent que l'évidence empirique tirée de ces études est maintenant tellement imposante que même les plus sceptiques admettent que tous les traits psychologiques humains étudiés jusqu'à maintenant sont influencés par des facteurs génétiques. Selon toutes les recensions, qui sont

basées à la fois sur les travaux employant des mesures autorévélées ou effectuées par des pairs, les indices d'hérabilité suggèrent qu'environ 45 % (plus ou moins 10 %) de la variance entre les individus dans la plupart des traits de personnalité est expliquée par la génétique. De plus, ces recherches ont révélé un des résultats les plus surprenants des dernières années en sciences sociales. En effet, l'environnement partagé (i.e., principalement lié à la famille et aux pratiques éducatives des parents) n'explique presque aucune variance – généralement moins de 5%. Enfin, le 50 % de variance restant est attribuable à l'environnement non partagé (i.e., hors de l'environnement familial). Le fait que les effets non partagés soient plus forts que les effets partagés contredit les intuitions de la plupart des chercheurs qui croient d'emblée que le niveau socio-économique, la classe sociale, la culture et surtout les pratiques éducatives des parents sont cruciaux dans le développement de la personnalité. Il faut néanmoins mentionner que cette variance de l'environnement non partagé comporte en fait un conglomérat de causes résiduelles telles que les interactions gènes-environnement, le facteur chance survenant au cours du développement et de l'erreur systématique de mesure.

Ces résultats sont impressionnantes, mais l'acceptation aveugle d'une position extrême à propos de l'influence génétique sur les traits de personnalité tend à ignorer l'énorme bassin de recherche sur les influences environnementales partagées. Maccoby (2000) souligne notamment que le nombre de recherches concluantes sur l'effet des pratiques éducatives des parents sur le développement des enfants laisse croire que les études de génétique comportementale pourraient souffrir de certaines faiblesses méthodologiques. D'ailleurs, Turkheimer et Waldon (2000) ont bien démontré qu'il reste beaucoup à faire sur le plan méthodologique avant de pouvoir bien départager les effets génétiques purs, les différents effets de l'environnement (partagés ou non partagés) et les effets interactifs. Par ailleurs, les effets génétiques semblent varier selon l'âge. De prime abord, on pourrait s'attendre à ce que les influences génétiques diminuent au cours de la vie en raison de l'accumulation des expériences environnementales. De fait, les influences génétiques sur les différences interindividuelles dans les traits de personnalité semblent diminuer avec l'âge. Une méta-analyse d'études transversales de jumeaux a montré qu'avec l'âge, la génétique explique moins de variance alors que l'environnement non partagé en explique plus (McCartney, Harris, & Bernieri, 1990). L'étude de Viken, Rose, Kaprio et Koskenvuo (1994) de 15 000

jumeaux confirme que les coefficients d'héritabilité sont plus élevés à la fin de l'adolescence qu'à l'âge adulte. Cette diminution est toutefois faible. L'augmentation touche surtout les effets non partagés (hors de la famille). Quoi qu'il en soit, les mécanismes par lesquels les influences génétiques agissent – dans différents environnements, à différents moments de la vie et surtout au niveau de l'individu – requièrent des clarifications importantes (Rutter et al., 1997; Rutter & Silberg, 2002; Wachs, 2000). La confirmation des bases génétiques constitue un appui solide à l'approche des traits, mais elle ne doit pas faire sombrer les chercheurs dans un déterminisme génétique qui laisse de côté les autres structures et mécanismes qui gouvernent le fonctionnement et le développement de la personnalité.

Les traits de personnalité sont partiellement appris avec l'expérience

Puisque 50 % de la variance dans les traits est expliquée par les effets environnementaux non partagés, l'expérience constitue donc une influence prépondérante sur l'expression des traits. La personnalité se manifeste par des patrons de cognitions, d'émotions et de comportements dans l'environnement social. En conséquence, elle est nécessairement le produit de la façon dont un individu a appris à interagir dans son environnement (Bandura, 1986; Bronfenbrenner & Deci, 1994; Hartup & van Lieshout, 1995). De fait, la plupart des tenants de l'approche des traits reconnaissent que les traits sont partiellement appris (e.g., Allport, 1937; Funder, 1991; Tellegen, 1991). Certains sont réticents à admettre le rôle prépondérant de l'expérience parce que les théories de l'apprentissage se centrent exclusivement sur des aspects extérieurs à la personne qui seraient régis par des lois générales (e.g., Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). Deux grandes branches de l'approche de l'apprentissage existent. La première représente les théories *comportementalistes* classiques (Dollard & Miller, 1950; Hull, 1943; Skinner, 1971; Watson, 1924). Plusieurs recherches ont clairement démontré l'effet des mécanismes d'apprentissage tels que le conditionnement répondant et opérant, la généralisation des stimuli ou l'extinction. La deuxième branche représente les théories de l'*apprentissage social*, ou *sociales-cognitives* (Bandura, 1986, Bandura & Walter, 1963; Mischel, 1968, 1999; Rotter, 1982). De nombreuses études ont également démontré la puissance des mécanismes d'apprentissage tels que le modelage (i.e., apprentissage par imitation ou par observation), le conditionnement vicariant ou l'autorenforcement. De plus, le sentiment d'efficacité personnel ou de compétence, l'identité sociale, les objectifs de vie et

les valeurs sont aussi des facteurs sociocognitifs appris qui vont nécessairement influencer l'expression des traits (Bandura, 1997; Cantor & Zirkel, 1990; Dweck, 1996, 2000; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002; Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 2002).

Il faut toutefois souligner que les processus d'apprentissage qui produisent ou altèrent l'expression d'un trait sont beaucoup plus complexes que de simples principes de récompense-punition ou de stimulus-réponse. De tels processus d'apprentissage simples peuvent influencer des comportements très spécifiques, mais il est peu probable qu'ils influencent directement les traits, du moins à court terme. Selon plusieurs théoriciens (e.g., Eysenck, 1981; Funder, 1991; Strelau, 1999, 2001), tous ces processus d'apprentissage agiraient au niveau des interrelations rétroactives complexes entre les cognitions, les émotions, les comportements et les traits ainsi qu'entre l'expérience et les traits (voir les flèches pointillées dans la Figure 1). De plus, les processus d'apprentissage impliquent évidemment une interaction avec le bagage héréditaire puisque, pour certaines personnes, les apprentissages n'auront qu'une influence marginale sur leur personnalité, alors que pour d'autres ils seront déterminants (Gottlieb, 1998; Scarr & McCartney, 1983; Turkheimer, 1998). Bandura (1986) appelait ces interactions complexes le *déterminisme réciproque*, alors que les chercheurs contemporains emploient plutôt le terme de *transaction personne-environnement* (Caspi, 1998; Rutter et al., 1997; Rutter & Silberg, 2002; Wachs, 2000).

En somme, l'expression des traits n'est pas que le fruit des gènes. L'expérience permet ou nécessite différents apprentissages qui peuvent altérer ou cristalliser l'expression des traits à différentes périodes de la vie. Ceci est important puisque si les traits sont en partie appris, il en découle qu'ils ne sont pas immuables ou totalement stables, comme plusieurs chercheurs le pensent à tort. Tout ce qui peut être appris peut, en principe, être désappris. Cela souligne toutes les possibilités quant aux interventions (Paris, 1998).

Les traits de personnalité sont des phénotypes causaux

La plupart des tenants de l'approche des traits considèrent que les traits sont plus que des agrégats de variété ou de fréquence des cognitions, des émotions ou des comportements (e.g., Allport, 1937; Eysenck, 1991, 1992; Funder, 1991; Strelau, 1999, 2001; Tellegen, 1991). Les

traits ne sont pas que descriptifs, ils sont explicatifs. Puisqu'on considère les traits de personnalité comme l'expression phénotypique du bagage génotypique, ils constituent donc des *phénotypes causaux*. Le terme « phénotype » est employé parce que les traits sont considérés comme l'expression phénotypique du bagage génotypique. Le terme « causaux » est employé pour signifier que, puisque les traits existent à l'intérieur de la personne dès sa naissance, ils influencent son adaptation actuelle et future. Concevoir les traits comme n'étant rien d'autre que des agrégats psychométriques fait en sorte qu'on abdique le rôle explicatif des traits. Surtout, une telle position est insoutenable puisqu'elle mène à faire des prédictions circulaires. Comme l'a souligné Eysenck (1991, 1992), si les traits n'étaient que descriptifs, il deviendrait circulaire de dire, par exemple, que quelqu'un est énergique et sociable parce qu'il manifeste beaucoup d'Extraversion. Au contraire, puisque les traits sont des phénotypes causaux, il est pertinent de comprendre comment les traits se développent, comment ils interagissent entre eux et de comprendre leurs effets afin de pouvoir prédire l'adaptation personnelle et sociale de la personne.

Certains auteurs qui, depuis Mischel (1968), ont tenté de discrépiter la validité prédictive des traits de personnalité se sont le plus souvent basés sur des études présentant des faiblesses méthodologiques importantes (voir Kenrick & Funder, 1988, 1991). Par exemple, les situationnistes ont critiqué la magnitude des effets des traits (i.e., généralement autour de 0,30 à 0,40). Bien sûr, des corrélations de cette magnitude peuvent sembler faibles à première vue, mais en réalité, elles peuvent indiquer de fortes relations. Par exemple, une corrélation de 0,20 indique en fait une probabilité de 0,60 de prédire adéquatement l'adaptation dans une situation sociale différente ou ultérieure (voir Abelson, 1985; Ozer, 1985; Rosenthal & Rubin, 1982). Compte tenu des multiples influences sur l'adaptation humaine, il est difficile de s'attendre à plus en étant réaliste. Un autre problème est que les situationnistes tentaient de prédire un comportement spécifique à l'aide d'un autre comportement spécifique (tous les deux constituant des réponses spécifiques, voir la Figure 2). Or, les travaux de Epstein (1979, 1980) ont bien démontré qu'au fur et à mesure que plusieurs comportements sont agrégés pour former un trait, la force des prédictions augmente de façon substantielle. De fait, les psychométriciens savent depuis longtemps que des mesures spécifiques procurent une moins bonne puissance prédictive que des mesures agrégées (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Un autre problème important des situationnistes est que durant la période du débat personne-situation, il existait peu d'études longitudinales prospectives (Epstein & O'Brien, 1985). Or, les résultats de plusieurs de ces études sont maintenant disponibles et démontrent que les traits de personnalité permettent de prédire différentes sphères importantes de l'adaptation des individus. D'abord, certains traits permettent de prédire des dimensions positives importantes de l'adaptation. Par exemple, certains traits prédisent l'adaptation dans les relations interpersonnelles et conjugales (Cooper, 2001; Robins, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2001), les pratiques éducatives parentales efficaces (Belsky & Barends, 2002), le sentiment subjectif de bonheur (Diener & Lucas, 1999) et même la bonne santé physique et la longévité (Friedman, 2000). De plus, certains traits de personnalité s'avèrent très utiles pour la sélection du personnel et pour prédire la performance au travail (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Hogan, Hogan, & Roberts, 1996). Certains traits permettent aussi de prédire des problèmes d'adaptation. Par exemple, certains traits tempéramentaux chez les petits enfants prédisent différents problèmes de comportement ultérieurs (Caspi, 2000; Morizot & Vitaro, 2003). Certains traits mesurés à l'adolescence prédisent aussi la criminalité (e.g., Miller & Lynam, 2001), la consommation abusive de psychotropes (Barnes et al., 2000) ou les troubles anxieux ou de l'humeur (Clark, Watson, & Mineka, 1994). En fait, la puissance prédictive des traits de personnalité est maintenant considérée tellement importante et elle s'applique à tellement de sphères de la vie des individus que Krueger, Caspi et Moffitt (2000) recommandent l'emploi de mesures des traits dans toutes les études épidémiologiques à grande échelle.

Malgré ces résultats encourageants, il demeure que l'ensemble des études ont considéré l'effet des traits de façon unique, sans étudier les interactions entre les traits. Comme le mentionnait Allport (1937), on ne peut comprendre l'effet d'un trait sans considérer le contexte de l'influence de tous les autres traits. Les traits sont des phénotypes causaux complexes et il faut concevoir leur effet sur l'adaptation comme étant *interactif et additif*. En conséquence, le fait que l'adaptation soit le produit de traits multiples implique que la capacité de tout trait unique de prédire un comportement particulier est nécessairement limitée. Il faut considérer la personnalité d'un individu en terme de patron ou de profil sur plusieurs traits simultanément. Comme nous le verrons plus loin, c'est pour cette raison que les chercheurs se tournent de plus en plus vers l'approche typologique de la personnalité. Bien que les études soient encore peu nombreuses, il semble que l'adaptation à l'âge adulte

puisse être prédite de façon impressionnante à partir de types tempéramentaux durant l'enfance (Caspi, 2000; Kagan, 1994). Dans cette thèse, nous nous intéresserons à l'approche typologique et discuterons de cette question plus loin.

Les traits de personnalité sont relativement stables dans le temps

Comme nous l'avons vu, les traits sont partiellement appris et peuvent changer. De plus, il est reconnu que les traits peuvent changer de façon systématique et signifiante d'un jour à l'autre (Brown & Moskowitz, 1998). Malgré tout, la plupart des théories des traits formulées jusqu'à maintenant postulent que les traits sont relativement stables à différentes périodes du développement de la personne (Cattell, 1946, 1965; Eysenck, 1970, 1981; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985; McCrae & Costa, 1996, 1999). Plusieurs considèrent que les traits tempéramentaux présents dès la naissance constituent les précurseurs de la personnalité adulte (Buss & Plomin, 1984; Caspi, 1998; Rothbart, Ahadi, & Evans, 2000; Rutter, 1987). En fait, certains jugent que la continuité des traits au cours de la vie est telle qu'ils considèrent que « l'enfant est le père de l'homme » (Caspi, 2000). Pourtant, nous avons mentionné plus tôt que l'influence de l'hérédité perd de son importance avec l'âge au profit des facteurs environnementaux non partagés (McCartney et al., 1990; Viken et al., 1994). Par ailleurs, la plupart des gens considèrent subjectivement que différents aspects de leur personnalité changent significativement au cours de leur vie (Fleeson & Heckhausen, 1997). En conséquence, on ne devrait pas s'attendre à observer une stabilité absolue au cours de la vie.

Comme nous le verrons plus loin, il y a différentes façons d'estimer la continuité des traits et c'est ce qui explique en partie pourquoi ce postulat est souvent mal compris et controversé. Malheureusement, les auteurs des théories des traits classiques n'ont généralement pas spécifié à quelle forme de continuité ils se référaient pour postuler la stabilité des traits. Selon Block (1995, 2001), McAdams (1992, 1994a), et Pervin (1994, 2002), le problème majeur de l'approche des traits est qu'elle représente un modèle statique du fonctionnement humain. Puisque cette question est centrale dans cette thèse, nous allons maintenant passer en revue les postulats développementaux des théories des traits.

THÉORIE DES TRAITS ET DÉVELOPPEMENT DE LA PERSONNALITÉ

Depuis la parution du livre de William James (1890/1950), les psychologues ont débattu la question à savoir si les différents aspects de la personnalité, incluant les traits, changent et, si oui, à quelle période du développement changent-ils le plus. Deux points de vue opposés sont généralement mis de l'avant par différents chercheurs: la perspective du « pansement » (i.e., « *plaster* ») ou de la « stabilité » est opposée à la perspective de la « plasticité » ou du « changement ». Qu'est-ce que les théories des traits ont postulé à propos du développement de la personnalité?

Le premier théoricien des traits, Allport (1937), considérait que plusieurs aspects de la personnalité, incluant les traits, changent de façon significative et continue au cours de toute la vie jusqu'à ce que l'individu ait atteint une « personnalité mature ». Allport a postulé l'existence de différents types de traits de personnalité. Pour remédier à la confusion de la multitude de traits communs et personnels possibles dans sa théorie, Allport a proposé la notion de *proprium*. Cette notion est similaire au *soi* ou au *moi* dans d'autres théories. Le *proprium* est le centre de la personnalité autour duquel s'organise les traits communs et personnels ainsi que les intentions. Le *proprium* est un foyer d'énergie dont la personne a une conscience subjective et qui a sept aspects ou fonctions. Ces fonctions se développent graduellement de la naissance jusqu'au début de l'âge adulte, de la période précoce des sensations corporelles jusqu'à la capacité de réfléchir sur soi et sur le monde. Selon Allport, la période de changement la plus importante serait celle de l'enfance jusqu'à l'adolescence compte tenu de tous les défis, les tâches et les apprentissages qu'implique cette période de la vie. Cependant, Allport soutient que les traits de personnalité continuent à changer durant l'âge adulte vers la maturité psychologique. Selon lui, la personnalité change parce que les personnes ont des intentions conscientes (i.e., des buts ou objectifs de vie) qui se développent indépendamment des besoins biologiques de base. Allport considère que l'être humain adulte est guidé davantage par ses intentions actuelles que par des causes antérieures. Les ambitions, les plans ou les aspirations de la personne modulent ses conduites habituelles et constituent des ensembles cognitifs diversifiés et individualisés. Allport est donc d'avis que l'étude des traits à elle seule est insuffisante pour comprendre les diverses formes de maturation psychologique. Quoi qu'il en soit, chez un individu sans troubles mentaux, la personnalité va

naturellement tendre vers la maturité psychologique de l'adolescence vers l'âge adulte. Allport (1937, 1961) croit que cette maturité, qui n'est pas la même d'une personne à l'autre, se définit par au moins six grandes caractéristiques: (1) un déploiement de soi étendu (participation à des activités sociales et sociétales, prise d'engagements liés à l'avenir), (2) une capacité d'intimité et de compassion pour autrui (capacité de relations chaleureuses avec les membres de la famille et les amis, respect et compréhension des autres), (3) une sécurité affective (capacité de garder son calme, de contrôler ses émotions), (4) une acceptation de soi (accepte ses limites et ses besoins, ses erreurs et ses frustrations), (5) des perceptions réalistes (de soi, du milieu, des problèmes existentiels à résoudre, capacité de s'oublier et de s'engager dans son travail) et (6) une connaissance objective de soi et des autres (perception de soi objective, capacité de rire de soi, vision ou philosophie de la vie humaine).

La plupart des autres théories des traits proposées à la même époque que celle d'Allport, telles que celles de Cattell (1946, 1957) et de Eysenck (1970, 1981), s'inspirent de la nature même des traits pour établir des postulats à propos du développement. De façon générale, ces auteurs soutiennent que le développement de la personnalité est surtout fonction de l'interaction entre le bagage génétique et l'environnement. Cependant, puisque les bases des traits sont presque exclusivement biologiques, autant Cattell que Eysenck sont d'avis que les traits devraient cesser de changer une fois que l'organisme a atteint sa pleine maturité physique et que le système nerveux central est complètement développé. Cattell (Cattell & Kline, 1977) accorde toutefois beaucoup plus d'importance à l'expérience que Eysenck (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). Pour Cattell, les premières années de la vie sont cruciales car l'environnement exerce une influence importante durant les premiers stades de développement en raison des multiples apprentissages nécessaires lors de la socialisation de l'enfant. Durant cette période, le bagage génétique va favoriser ou confronter l'individu à certaines limites quant à son rythme de développement et ses capacités d'apprentissage. L'environnement, quant à lui, permettra un façonnement du développement par une cristallisation ou une dilution de son potentiel héréditaire. Tant pour Cattell que pour Eysenck, comme les transformations liées à la maturation biologique sont complétées vers la fin de l'adolescence, les traits devraient demeurer assez stables après cette période. Tout comme Allport (qui employait le terme intention), Cattell considérait aussi la motivation comme un élément fondamental du développement de la personnalité. Cattell a aussi proposé

l’existence de *ergs* (du mot grec *ergon*, qui signifie énergie), qui sont les besoins et les instincts que la personne doit satisfaire. Il s’agirait d’une source d’énergie vitale nécessaire pour le fonctionnement. La recherche de sécurité matérielle ou le besoin de s’affirmer en sont des exemples. En plus des traits et des motivations, les ergs influencerait aussi le développement de la personnalité. Cattell croit que les ergs, bien qu’ils soient influencés par la culture, sont héréditaires, tout comme les traits. Les valeurs et les attitudes vont quant à elles influencer les ergs que la personne privilégie. Cattell va proposer le terme de *réseau dynamique* pour intégrer tous les traits, les ergs, les valeurs et attitudes et la motivation. Ce concept ressemble au proprium de Allport et au soi de plusieurs théories psychanalytiques. Ces efforts de formulation théorique de Cattell sont intéressants et ont le mérite de s’être dirigés vers une perspective un peu plus dynamique de la personnalité. Quant à Eysenck, bien que ses postulats à propos du développement de la personnalité soient similaires à ceux de Cattell, il a été moins éloquent que ce dernier, se bornant à soutenir que puisque les traits sont tributaires du bagage génétique, ils sont nécessairement très stables au cours de la vie.

En somme, comme on peut le constater, à l’exception de Allport, les théories des traits s’inscrivent généralement dans la perspective du pansement ou de la stabilité. Les théories des traits classiques ont clairement négligé l’aspect développemental. À la décharge de ces théoriciens, il faut admettre qu’il n’existait presque aucune étude longitudinale des traits leur permettant de formuler des théories développementales. Étonnamment, depuis les théories de Allport, de Cattell et de Eysenck, presque aucune autre théorie des traits systématiquement formulée (i.e., comportant des postulats clairement énoncés et falsifiables) n’a été proposée.

Cependant, inspirés par les résultats des études transversales et longitudinales qui s’accumulaient, McCrae et Costa (1996, 1999) ont récemment formulé une théorie des traits considérant explicitement le développement dans ses postulats de base. La théorie de McCrae et Costa est basée sur le modèle en cinq facteurs, mais ne se limite pas aux traits. Ces chercheurs ont concentré leurs formulations théoriques sur la période de l’âge adulte. Puisque McCrae et Costa considèrent que les traits sont essentiellement de nature biologique (i.e., génétique), ces derniers ont postulé qu’une fois que l’organisme a atteint sa pleine maturité biologique, soit à la fin de l’adolescence ou au tout début de l’âge adulte, une forte stabilité des traits est attendue. En conséquence, McCrae et Costa (1996, 1999) ont postulé qu’après

l'âge de 30 ans, la personnalité est complètement cristallisée ou fixée (i.e., « *set like plaster* »). Cependant, seulement quelques années après leur formulation initiale, l'accumulation de recherches longitudinales confirmant qu'il y a effectivement des changements significatifs après l'âge de 30 ans a amené McCrae et Costa à modifier quelque peu leur postulat de la stabilité des traits. En effet, dans leur plus récente formulation (McCrae , Costa et al., 2000), ils postulent que de 18 à 30 ans, il y a une diminution du Névrotisme, de l'Extraversion et de l'Ouverture à l'expérience et une augmentation de la Complaisance et de la Contrainte. Après l'âge de 30 ans, McCrae et Costa précisent que les mêmes tendances développementales sont observées, mais dans une moindre magnitude. Dans cette plus récente formulation, ces chercheurs acceptent donc plus explicitement l'idée d'une *maturational psychologique normative*. Puisque ces tendances développementales dans les traits ont été observées dans plusieurs pays du monde, dans plusieurs langues et dans plusieurs contextes socioculturels distincts, McCrae et Costa considèrent en fait qu'il s'agit d'une maturation *intrinsèque endogène* et ils ont proposé une explication évolutionniste pour rendre compte de ce phénomène. Selon eux, la maturation des traits serait surtout attribuable à la génétique, par l'entremise du vieillissement de l'organisme. En somme, la théorie de McCrae et Costa s'inscrit, elle aussi, dans la perspective du pansement ou de la stabilité des traits. Comme on peut le constater, elle ne diffère pas beaucoup des théories classiques telles que celles de Cattell et de Eysenck.

Les théories s'inscrivant dans la perspective de la plasticité ou du changement ne sont pas, pour la vaste majorité, des théories des traits proprement dites. Il y a d'abord les théories qui tournent autour de l'idée de stades de développement qui surviennent de façon ordonnée et invariante. Par exemple, les théories des stades telles que celles d'Erikson (1963), Kohlberg (1984), Kegan (1983), Levinson (1978, 1986), Loevinger (1976, 1993, 1997), Neugarten (1972, 1979), Selman (1980) et de Vaillant (1977) s'inscrivent toutes dans la perspective de la plasticité ou du changement. D'autres théories d'orientations diverses, combinant souvent les théories des stades, les théories sociologiques et s'inspirant des résultats des études longitudinales récentes, s'inscrivent aussi dans la perspective du changement. Ces théories postulent un modèle transactionnel où la personnalité interagit avec l'environnement (e.g., voir Baltes, 1987, 1997; Caspi, 1987, 1998; Caspi & Moffitt, 1993; Clausen, 1991; Clausen & Jones, 1998; Elder, 1998; Haan, Millsap, & Hartka, 1986). De par

leur nature, toutes ces théories sont plus variées que les théories des traits. L'accent en mis sur différents facteurs ou processus environnementaux, mais ces théories postulent toutes des changements dans la personnalité à différents moments de la vie. De façon générale, ces auteurs postulent que les relations interpersonnelles, les rôles sociaux, les objectifs de vie, les événements de vie ainsi que le contexte socioéconomique et historique changent au cours de la vie des individus. De tels facteurs peuvent avoir une influence prépondérante sur le développement de la personnalité. Les individus sont vus comme des agents actifs de leur développement puisqu'ils sélectionnent et modulent leur environnement, qui en retour influence leur personnalité. Ces changements ne sont pas nécessairement vus comme opposés aux prédispositions. Selon Caspi et Moffitt (1993), ces transactions avec l'environnement peuvent en fait renforcer ou amplifier leurs prédispositions.

En résumé, il est aisément de constater que les théories des traits ne s'inscrivent pas dans une perspective développementale. À l'exception de la théorie de Allport (1937, 1961), les théories des traits constituent des modèles descriptifs qui ne postulent pas la possibilité de changement dans les traits après l'adolescence. C'est justement cette résistance à adopter une perspective développementale qui permet aux situationnistes de continuer à critiquer les traits. L'approche des traits devra se diriger vers une conceptualisation plus dynamique qui rend compte de la continuité et du changement dans les traits au cours de la vie (Roberts & Caspi, 2002; Roberts et al., *in press*). Force est d'admettre qu'il reste encore énormément de travail à faire. Pour disposer de théories postulant des changements dynamiques de la personnalité, il faut se tourner vers d'autres perspectives que les théories des traits proprement dites. Néanmoins, plusieurs études longitudinales prospectives récentes ont évalué différentes formes de continuité dans les traits de personnalité, ce qui permettrait d'améliorer les théories existantes. Nous allons maintenant décrire les différentes façons d'étudier la continuité et le changement des traits de personnalité.

CONTINUITÉ ET CHANGEMENT DES TRAITS DE PERSONNALITÉ

La question de savoir si les traits de personnalité demeurent stables ou changent au cours de la vie est importante. D'abord, ces connaissances permettraient de mieux comprendre les processus développementaux psychologiques et permettrait ainsi d'appuyer

ou d'infirmer certaines théories. Savoir si les traits sont stables ou changent au cours de la vie des individus est aussi important pour la société en général. En outre, cette question pourrait influencer les politiques sociales en matière de santé publique. Comme l'ont souligné Caspi et Roberts (1999), ces connaissances peuvent influencer le moment où l'on choisit d'intervenir auprès des individus en difficulté d'adaptation. Si la personnalité change ou est plastique au cours de la vie, la société se devrait alors d'assurer la réhabilitation des individus seulement lorsque les problèmes apparaissent. Au contraire, si la personnalité demeure stable, la société devrait alors procurer des soins palliatifs précoce et à long terme. De fait, contrairement à une idée populaire préconçue, Costa et McCrae (1992b) notent que si la personnalité est stable, les thérapeutes peuvent jouer un rôle encore plus significatif puisque les gens ne seront pas portés à changer facilement vers une meilleure adaptation. Prenons l'exemple des comportements antisociaux (i.e., criminalité, consommation abusive de psychotropes, etc.) qui peuvent avoir des conséquences néfastes importantes pour l'individu, ses proches ou la société en général. Si le profil de personnalité se cristallise dès l'enfance et demeure ensuite stable, les efforts de la société devront être dirigés vers la prévention précoce afin d'atténuer ou d'altérer les prédispositions (i.e., traits) associées au développement des comportements antisociaux. Si le profil de personnalité se cristallise plutôt à l'âge adulte, ou s'il se développe de façon continue durant toute la vie, la société peut attendre l'apparition des difficultés et, à ce moment, intervenir pour altérer les prédispositions associées aux processus d'activation et d'aggravation des comportements antisociaux.

Lorsqu'on adopte une perspective développementale à propos des traits, il faut s'intéresser à différentes questions liées à leur continuité et leur changement. Les traits sont-ils vraiment stables au cours de la vie? Est-ce qu'ils changent davantage durant certaines périodes du développement? Si oui, changent-ils de façon négligeable ou importante? Y a-t-il des traits qui demeurent stables alors que d'autres changent? Quels sont les facteurs et mécanismes qui influencent la continuité ou le changement? Toutes ces questions sont directement liées aux postulats de base de l'approche des traits dont nous avons parlé en détail. Est-ce que les expressions phénotypiques que sont les traits reflètent des dimensions génotypiques sous-jacentes qui sont stables ou qui changent au cours du développement? Est-ce que l'expérience doit être comprise en terme de processus dynamiques favorisant la continuité, mais pouvant aussi promouvoir le changement dans certaines circonstances? Est-

ce que les évaluations précoces de la personnalité peuvent prédire l'adaptation ultérieure et les trajectoires développementales? En plus des postulats de l'approche des traits, les réponses à ces questions sont influencées par les postulats métathéoriques adoptés par les chercheurs (Baltes et al., 1998; Lerner, 1997; Overton, 1998). Les postulats *structuralistes* amènent les chercheurs à proposer l'existence de prédispositions de base stables et un ordre invariant d'apparition des phénomènes développementaux. Les postulats *fonctionnalistes* orientent plutôt les chercheurs vers la recherche de processus de transformation et d'adaptation au cours de la vie. Les postulats *mécanismiques* amènent les chercheurs à s'intéresser aux chaînes causales, alors que les postulats *organismiques*, quant à eux, vont les orienter vers la recherche d'attributs plus ou moins en émergence et plus ou moins prévisibles. Évidemment, cette catégorisation simplifie beaucoup ces métathéories complexes. Il faut toutefois comprendre qu'elles influencent les questions que se posent les chercheurs, mais aussi la façon dont ils conduisent leurs travaux de recherche et interprètent leurs résultats.

Kagan (1980) note que les chercheurs des sociétés industrialisées contemporaines favorisent surtout les notions de stabilité de la structure de la personnalité, le processus de continuité, et la connexion entre les périodes du développement. Ceci a mené plusieurs théoriciens à concevoir le développement en terme de stades qui augmentent en complexité et qui procèdent dans un ordre invariant où chaque stade possède des caractéristiques des stades précédents. Par exemple, plusieurs théoriciens d'orientation psychanalytique postulent l'existence de stades développementaux et maintiennent qu'après les premières années de vie, l'expérience ultérieure a peu d'effet sur la structure de base de la personnalité. Nous avons aussi mentionné plus tôt que, traditionnellement, les théoriciens des traits considèrent aussi qu'il existe des prédispositions intrinsèques qui sont stables au cours de la vie et qui sont peu influencées par l'expérience après l'adolescence.

Avant de faire un survol des différentes façons d'étudier la continuité de la personnalité, une clarification terminologique s'impose. Puisque le domaine n'a certes pas atteint un consensus à cet égard, ces distinctions demeurent arbitraires, mais sont néanmoins partagées par plusieurs chercheurs du domaine (voir Caspi & Roberts, 1999). Trois termes sont souvent utilisés de façon interchangeable dans la littérature : continuité, stabilité et cohérence. Comme le note Block (2000), il est tout à fait déplorable de constater que le

même terme a souvent des significations fort différentes d'un chercheur à l'autre ou encore que différents termes ont en fait la même signification. Certains ont proposé la possibilité d'utiliser le terme stabilité pour la persistance des structures et des comportements et le terme continuité pour le maintien des processus (Kagan, 1980). Cependant, puisque la distinction entre structures et processus est très arbitraire et que ces concepts sont différents selon les perspectives théoriques, cela crée davantage de confusion (Caprara & Cervone, 2000). Quant à nous, à l'instar de Caspi et Roberts (1999, 2001), nous choisissons d'adopter le terme *continuité*, en spécifiant ses différentes formes. Le concept de stabilité est laissé de côté car il a tellement été galvaudé qu'il est difficile de faire l'unanimité en l'employant. De plus, contrairement au concept de stabilité qui implique une absence de changement, l'idée de continuité reconnaît que les individus peuvent se développer de façon dynamique. Le concept de cohérence, quant à lui, est aussi laissé de côté puisqu'il est généralement utilisé par les tenants de l'approche sociocognitive et réfère à la continuité des processus.

Au terme d'une recension de la documentation scientifique, Caspi et Roberts (1999, 2001) ont identifié cinq formes de continuité de la personnalité : continuité structurelle, continuité différentielle, continuité absolue, continuité centrée sur la personne ainsi que cohérence. Dans cette thèse, nous étudierons les quatre premières formes.

La première forme de continuité présentée par Caspi et Roberts (1999, 2001) est la *continuité structurelle*, aussi appelée continuité de l'échelle de mesure (i.e., « *measurement scale* »). Elle réfère à la persistance des interrelations entre les différents niveaux d'une structure hiérarchique de personnalité à différents âges. La continuité structurelle peut être estimée à l'aide de l'analyse factorielle confirmatoire afin de tester empiriquement si la direction et la magnitude des corrélations (ou des covariances) entre les items d'un questionnaire et leurs traits respectifs ou entre les traits de premier ordre et les traits de haut ordre sont stables à différents âges. Une manière moins rigoureuse d'estimer la continuité structurelle serait de comparer les indices de cohérence interne des mêmes traits à différents âges. Cette première forme de continuité a été très peu étudiée. Ceci est étonnant puisque si les chercheurs ne peuvent postuler que les traits employés sont sur une même échelle de mesure psychométrique à travers le temps, les résultats des autres formes de continuité pourraient alors être affectés par un artefact de mesure. Malgré le manque d'études

empiriques, Costa et McCrae (1997) soutiennent que la structure de la personnalité demeure stable à travers le temps.

La deuxième forme est la *continuité différentielle*, aussi appelée continuité relative ou continuité de l'ordre relatif (i.e., « *rank-order* »). Elle réfère à la permanence des différences entre les individus dans le temps, c'est-à-dire au maintien de la position relative des individus au sein d'une population ou d'un échantillon dans le temps. Il s'agit du type de continuité le plus étudié et le plus courant dans le domaine. La continuité différentielle est estimée à l'aide de corrélations entre les scores des mêmes traits de personnalité pris à différents âges. Ce sont les résultats dérivés de cette forme de continuité qui ont surtout servi aux théoriciens et chercheurs pour appuyer le postulat de la stabilité des traits. De façon générale, les différences entre les individus deviennent de plus en plus stables avec l'âge pour atteindre un plateau dans la soixantaine (Roberts & DelVecchio, 2000).

La troisième forme de continuité identifiée par Caspi et Roberts (1999, 2001) est la *continuité absolue*, aussi appelée continuité du niveau moyen (i.e., « *mean-level* ») ou continuité normative. Elle réfère à la continuité dans la quantité, c'est-à-dire au maintien du niveau moyen pour un trait de personnalité. Bien que, sur le plan conceptuel, la continuité absolue réfère au maintien du niveau moyen pour chaque individu séparément, elle est habituellement estimée par le biais de comparaisons des moyennes de groupe à l'aide d'analyses de variance à mesures répétées sur les scores des mêmes traits pris à différents âges. Cette forme de continuité a été un peu moins étudiée que la continuité différentielle, mais, comme nous le verrons dans le deuxième chapitre, plusieurs études longitudinales ont permis de relativiser le point de vue des chercheurs quant au postulat de la stabilité des traits. De façon générale, une maturation psychologique est observée de l'adolescence vers l'âge adulte et se poursuit jusqu'à la soixantaine avancée (Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Helson et al., 2002; Roberts et al., in press).

La quatrième forme de continuité identifiée par Caspi et Roberts (1999, 2001) est la *continuité centrée sur la personne*, aussi appelée continuité ipsative ou continuité morphogénique. Les trois formes de continuité de la personnalité présentées ci-dessus sont estimées à l'aide d'indices statistiques caractérisant une population ou un échantillon. Au

contraire, la continuité centrée sur la personne, comme son nom l'indique, se centre sur l'individu plutôt que sur des indices agrégés d'un groupe total. Elle réfère à la continuité intra-individuelle d'une configuration de traits de personnalité à différents âges. Ainsi, alors que la continuité absolue examine le maintien du niveau moyen d'un trait pour tout un groupe, la continuité centrée sur la personne examine le niveau moyen de différents sous-groupes d'individus manifestant des trajectoires dans les traits qui sont qualitativement et quantitativement distinctes. Malgré sa pertinence, il est très étonnant de constater que, hormis l'étude classique de Block (1971), cette forme de continuité n'ait pas été étudiée.

Enfin, Caspi et Roberts (1999, 2001) identifient un cinquième type de continuité, la *cohérence*. Les quatre types de continuité présentés plus haut réfèrent tous à la continuité homotypique, c'est-à-dire le maintien de caractéristiques phénotypiques similaires à différents âges. Le concept de cohérence, quant à lui, élargit la définition de la continuité pour inclure la continuité hétérotypique, c'est-à-dire la continuité d'attributs génotypiques présumés sous-jacents à des attributs phénotypiques similaires, mais non identiques. L'enfant qui est très agressif et impulsif durant l'enfance et qui manifeste des conduites criminelles et de la violence conjugale à l'âge adulte est un exemple classique de cohérence.

Dans la présente thèse, quatre formes de continuité des traits de personnalité seront étudiées : continuité structurelle, continuité différentielle, continuité absolue et continuité centrée sur les personnes. La continuité structurelle, différentielle et absolue s'inscrivent dans une approche centrée sur les variables. La continuité centrée sur les personnes, comme son nom l'indique, s'inscrit dans une approche centrée sur les personnes. En conséquence, nous allons discuter du rationnel de ces deux grandes approches dans l'étude du développement de la personnalité.

APPROCHES CENTRÉES SUR LES VARIABLES ET SUR LES PERSONNES

En ce début de vingt et unième siècle, la majorité des théoriciens adoptent, implicitement ou explicitement, une perspective holistique–transactionnelle du développement de la personne (Bergman, Cairns, Nilsson, & Nystedt, 2000; Cairns, Bergman, & Kagan, 1998; Cairns, Elder, & Costello, 1996; Caspi, 1998; Lerner, 1997; Magnusson,

1996; Magnusson & Torestad, 1993; Wachs, 2000). Trois grands postulats sont à la base de cette perspective. Le *premier postulat* soutient que l'adaptation et le développement de la personne constituent une organisation ordonnée. Cette organisation ordonnée est partiellement prédéterminée à l'intérieur de différents sous-systèmes (i.e., biologique, cognitif, émotif, comportemental et social). À l'intérieur de chaque sous-système, différents facteurs opérants se regroupent en patrons ou profils cohérents et propres à chaque organisation. Cet ordre se reflète au niveau des sous-systèmes, mais aussi au niveau de la personne comme une totalité intégrée. Le *deuxième postulat* soutient que l'organisation (i.e., la personne) a une capacité d'auto-organisation. L'auto-organisation est une caractéristique des systèmes ouverts et réfère aux processus par lesquels de nouveaux patrons organisés et cohérents émergent en réponse à des changements internes et externes à l'organisation, qu'ils soient volontaires ou non. Il s'agit d'un postulat fondamental des sciences biologiques qui commence à peine à être reconnu en psychologie. Le *troisième postulat* stipule que, bien qu'en terme phénoménologique il existe autant d'organisations qu'il y a de personnes, il existe néanmoins un nombre limité d'organisations (i.e., de types de personnes) dans la nature. Chacune de ces différentes organisations présente un patron complexe et cohérent de facteurs opérants le différenciant tant qualitativement que quantitativement des autres organisations. Enfin, le *quatrième postulat* de la perspective holistique–transactionnelle concerne la cristallisation de la personnalité au cours du développement. Les sous-systèmes les plus puissants ou actifs peuvent être similaires ou distincts selon les périodes du développement. L'évolution et les changements des effets de différents facteurs liés à la maturation biologique et à l'expérience provoquent nécessairement une réorganisation au cours de l'ontogénése humaine. Ainsi, à chaque période, les organisations vont donc s'accommoder, s'adapter et, éventuellement, des organisations plus stables qu'aux périodes antérieures vont prendre place. Comme le note Magnusson (1998), si ce postulat est correct, il devrait y avoir une homogénéisation à l'intérieur des organisations et une hétérogénéisation plus claire entre les organisations au cours de l'ontogénése humaine.

La perspective holistique–transactionnelle est généralement acceptée par la vaste majorité des chercheurs. Cependant, est-ce que ces derniers utilisent des stratégies de recherche adéquates pour comprendre le développement selon cette perspective? L'objectif primordial de la recherche développementale est de décrire et d'expliquer les mécanismes

responsables de l'adaptation et du développement de la personne. La condition *sine qua non* pour atteindre cet objectif est que les devis de recherche et les analyses statistiques utilisées doivent correspondre aux postulats de la perspective holistique–transactionnelle. Or, cette relation entre théorie et recherche est peu respectée en psychologie actuellement (Block, 1971; Cairns, 1986; Lamiell, 1981, 1997; Magnusson, 1999). Les sciences contemporaines abordent l'étude de la personne selon deux grandes conceptions : continue et catégorielle. Ces deux conceptions sont aussi qualifiées d'approches centrées sur les variables et sur les personnes respectivement. Ces deux approches sont utiles et le choix de l'une ou de l'autre dépendra du phénomène que le chercheur étudie et de la conception théorique qu'il adopte.

Approche centrée sur les variables

Pendant tout le vingtième siècle, la psychologie scientifique a favorisé les continuums plutôt que les catégories et les relations linéaires plutôt que les relations non linéaires. Cet état de fait vient directement de l'adoption de présuppositions fondamentalement basées sur les écrits de Newton en physique, et de Kant et Leibniz en philosophie. Le développement des techniques statistiques paramétriques linéaires par Pearson et Thurstone en psychologie au début du vingtième siècle explique aussi en partie l'importance accordée à l'approche centrée sur les variables. En fait, les analyses paramétriques linéaires sont devenues si importantes que, à tort ou à raison, elles sont aujourd'hui le signe d'un chercheur compétent. Il n'est donc pas étonnant que la vaste majorité des chercheurs, que ce soit dans le domaine de la psychologie de la personnalité ou ailleurs, aient adopté une approche centrée sur les variables (voir les discussions de Cairns, 1986; Carlson, 1971; Lamiell, 1981; Meehl, 1978; Wohlwill, 1973). En effet, les chercheurs se concentrent typiquement sur l'étude d'une ou d'un ensemble limité de variables, de leurs interrelations et de leurs relations à une ou un ensemble limité de variables critères. Les questions de recherche sont formulées en terme de variables, donc les résultats sont interprétés et généralisés aussi en terme de variables, ou pire, en terme de modèle statistique. Dans le domaine de la psychologie de la personnalité, le meilleur exemple est certainement les nombreuses études conduites depuis plus de cinquante ans cherchant à identifier une structure des traits de personnalité à l'aide de l'analyse factorielle. De plus, les études tentant de démontrer que les traits de personnalité prédisent l'adaptation à l'aide de régressions multiples ou les études récentes utilisant la modélisation

par équations structurales constituent des exemples bien connus de cette approche. Toutes ces études sont bien sûr importantes lorsqu'elles répondent à des questions que se posent les chercheurs. Cependant, l'adoption de l'approche centrée sur les variables requiert l'acceptation d'une série de postulats fondamentaux :

- Tous les individus d'une population (ou d'un échantillon) peuvent être comparés adéquatement sur un continuum. Il s'agit donc d'une approche nomothétique.
- Les individus diffèrent seulement quantitativement, non qualitativement, sur un continuum pour une ou plusieurs variables données.
- La direction et la force des relations entre les variables et leurs mécanismes d'action identifiés pour toute la population s'appliquent à chaque individu particulier.
- L'ensemble des variables à l'étude se distribue de façon normale dans la population.
- Les relations entre les variables sont linéaires.

L'examen de ces postulats permet facilement de constater que les analyses statistiques centrées sur les variables font face à un certain nombre de problèmes conceptuels et empiriques (voir Block, 1971; Cairns, 1986; Lamiell, 1981, 1997; Magnusson, 1998, 1999; Wohlwill, 1973). Est-ce que ces postulats sont compatibles avec les modèles théoriques complexes décrivant le développement de la personne? Ils le sont, mais seulement dans certaines circonstances. Comme Cairns (1986), Lamiell (1997), Magnusson (1998) et West (2003) l'ont souligné avec justesse, le nombre de situations où ces postulats s'appliquent est toutefois bien plus limité que ce qu'on voit actuellement en recherche. Malheureusement, même lorsque cette approche est appliquée à bon escient, peu de chercheurs formulent explicitement la nature des processus intra-individuels sous-jacents auxquels les variables réfèrent. Malgré son utilité, le problème central de l'approche centrée sur les variables est probablement qu'elle ne permet pas d'étudier le développement de la personne selon les postulats de la perspective holistique–transactionnelle. Puisque l'objectif de la recherche en psychologie est de comprendre le fonctionnement et le développement de la personne, une approche centrée sur les personnes devient donc nécessaire.

Approche centrée sur les personnes

Depuis les écrits de Platon, les scientifiques cherchent à décomposer la nature humaine à son essence même (« *to carve nature at its joint* »), c'est-à-dire chercher à identifier des classes ou des catégories d'individus. Meehl (1978, 1992) soutient depuis plusieurs années qu'une des tâches primordiales de la psychologie est d'identifier les principales catégories d'individus dans la nature, c'est-à-dire d'identifier les types de personnalité les plus importants dans la population. Inspiré par ces idées, le terme *approche centrée sur les personnes* a d'abord été proposé par Block (1971) pour conceptualiser l'utilisation de ses mesures ipsatives (i.e., « *Q-sort* »). Selon cette approche, les analyses statistiques doivent correspondre aux postulats de la perspective holistique–transactionnelle du développement de la personne. Elles doivent permettre d'identifier des types de personnes présentant des profils cohérents sur plusieurs facteurs opérants faisant partie de différents sous-systèmes. La caractéristique particulière de cette approche est donc que le phénomène spécifique à l'étude est formulé et étudié empiriquement en terme de patrons ou de configurations *à l'intérieur de l'individu*. En conséquence, les résultats des analyses centrées sur les personnes se généralisent aux personnes, non aux variables.

Selon Bergman (1998, 2000), Block (1971), Cairns (1986), Kagan (1994), Magnusson (1998, 1999; Magnusson & Torestad, 1993), Meehl (1978, 1992) et plusieurs autres, l'approche centrée sur les personnes s'appuie sur cinq postulats de base :

- Les processus complexes de l'adaptation et du développement de la personne ne peuvent être décrits et expliqués en additionnant les résultats des études examinant les interrelations entre quelques variables considérées isolément de l'influence des multiples facteurs opérants composés de différents sous-systèmes (voir Meehl, 1990). Une compréhension adéquate du fonctionnement et du développement de la personne nécessite l'identification de patrons cohérents de facteurs opérants tirés de plusieurs sous-systèmes.
- Il existe un nombre limité de patrons d'adaptation signifiants dans la nature. Ce postulat est appuyé par le fait qu'il y ait un nombre limité de sous-systèmes actifs expliquant l'adaptation des organisations (i.e., types de personnes), qu'il y ait aussi un nombre limité

de facteurs opérants à l'intérieur de chaque sous-système et qu'il y ait un important bagage génétique et des modes d'adaptation socioculturels partagés par tous les êtres humains. Toutes ces raisons font en sorte que les humains ne sont pas tous différents à un point tel qu'il est impossible d'identifier un nombre limité d'organisations ordonnées dans la nature. Par ailleurs, Meehl (1992) souligne que lorsqu'un patron d'adaptation constitue un phénomène « réel » dans la nature, on devrait l'appeler *type*. Cependant, dans la même veine, Meehl souligne aussi avec justesse que bien que tous les types soient des patrons d'adaptation, tous les patrons d'adaptation identifiés par nos méthodes quantitatives actuelles ne constituent pas forcément des types qui existent dans la nature.

- Les postulats des méthodes quantitatives paramétriques postulant une distribution normale de toutes les variables à l'étude et des relations linéaires entre elles sont généralement inadéquats. En effet, le principe de distribution normale s'applique généralement bien dans un espace univarié (i.e., une dimension). Cependant, ce postulat est rarement respecté dans un espace multivarié (i.e. plusieurs dimensions simultanément; voir Bergman, 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Qui plus est, les méthodes statistiques qui assument des relations linéaires entre les variables ne correspondent pas à la majorité des théories développementales complexes. La majorité des analyses centrées sur les personnes telles que l'analyse de regroupement (Everitt, Landau, & Leese, 2001) et l'analyse de classe latente (Goodman, 2002) sont moins sévères quant à l'application de ces postulats, ou ne nécessitent pas leur application du tout.
- Les chercheurs qui se concentrent sur l'approche centrée sur les variables utilisent souvent l'argument de la généralisation des résultats. En effet, plusieurs soutiennent que les résultats de l'approche centrée sur les variables sont alors plus aisément généralisables. Cependant, les tenants de l'approche centrée sur les personnes postulent que la généralisation est plus appropriée lorsqu'on tente de généraliser les résultats de recherche à des groupes d'individus, plutôt qu'à une ou plusieurs variables dans la population, qui est très hétérogène. L'approche centrée sur les personnes tente de généraliser et de donner un sens adaptatif à tous les individus, incluant ceux qui dévient de la norme du groupe total, qui sont souvent implicitement considérés comme des « données extrêmes » ou pire, comme des « erreurs aléatoires » dans une approche centrée sur les variables.

En somme, la perspective holistique–transactionnelle nécessite l’identification de types d’individus se distinguant sur plusieurs facteurs opérants faisant partie de différents sous-systèmes liés à l’adaptation et au développement de la personne. Ainsi, l’adoption d’une approche typologique – qui constitue une opérationnalisation de l’approche centrée sur les personnes – apparaît essentielle pour qu’il y ait correspondance entre théories, devis de recherche et analyses statistiques. Nous allons maintenant faire un survol de l’approche typologique telle qu’appliquée au domaine de la personnalité.

APPROCHE TYPOLOGIQUE DE LA PERSONNALITÉ

Presque chaque discipline des sciences naturelles possède une *taxinomie*, c'est-à-dire un système servant à nommer, organiser et classifier leurs objets d'étude. Les chimistes étudient les éléments et ont donc développé le tableau des éléments périodiques. Les ethnologues et les biologistes étudient les espèces vivantes et ont donc élaboré un système de classification des espèces qui les regroupe en catégories telles que les mammifères, les reptiles, les oiseaux, etc. Par exemple, lorsqu'un biologiste identifie un harfang des neiges, il sera classifié dans la grande catégorie « oiseau » à partir de ses caractéristiques phénotypiques. Il pourrait aussi être identifié dans une sous-catégorie « oiseau de proie ». Il pourrait être classifié encore plus spécifiquement comme « oiseau de proie nocturne », et encore plus spécifiquement comme « oiseau de proie nocturne qui vit dans les régions nordiques ». Ce qui est important, c'est que puisqu'on peut classifier le harfang des neiges de façon assez précise dans la taxinomie des espèces, même si une personne n'a jamais vu cet animal, en lui décrivant où il se situe dans la taxinomie des espèces, elle peut déjà en savoir beaucoup sur lui. C'est la puissance des taxinomies. En fait, une taxinomie facilite l'atteinte des trois objectifs principaux de la science, soit la description, l'explication et la prédition des phénomènes naturels (voir Bailey, 1994; Meehl, 1992; Skinner, 1981).

Existe-t-il une taxinomie des personnes? Dans la vie de tous les jours, les personnes ordinaires (i.e., non experts en psychologie) pensent souvent aux personnes en termes catégoriels ou typologiques (Cantor & Mischel, 1979; Macrae & Bodenhausen, 2000). Par exemple, un enseignant parlant d'un élève qui n'est pas attentif, qui est turbulent en classe et qui se chamaille avec ses camarades durant la récréation dira que « c'est un hyperactif »; une

femme parlant de son conjoint qui aime beaucoup parler avec ses amis, aime sortir et s'implique dans une foule d'activités sociales dira que « c'est un extraverti »; un homme parlant de sa conjointe qui a tendance à se sentir souvent inquiète à propos de plusieurs choses, déprimée et qui est facilement irritable dira que « c'est une émotive ». Ces exemples montrent bien que les gens appliquent des adjectifs, des « étiquettes » qui, selon eux, reflètent le comportement habituel de l'individu. Cantor et Mischel (1979) et Macrae et Bodenhausen (2000) ont bien montré que ces « étiquettes sociales » ne sont pas le fruit d'une seule caractéristique prédominante (i.e., un seul trait), mais sont des prototypes dérivés de plusieurs caractéristiques formant un patron cohérent de caractéristiques habituelles.

La psychologie est la discipline scientifique qui étudie les personnes. Cette discipline dispose-t-elle d'un système de classification permettant de mieux décrire, expliquer et prédire le développement des personnes? Dans les sciences sociales, plutôt que le terme taxinomie, le terme *typologie* est employé pour référer à une classification qui a des implications théoriques et pratiques. Une typologie de la personnalité serait donc très utile en psychologie puisque, par la seule connaissance du type d'une personne, on en saurait beaucoup sur son adaptation personnelle et sociale. De plus, en connaissant les facteurs étiologiques et les processus développementaux propres à chaque type, la psychologie en apprendrait beaucoup plus sur les mécanismes qui modulent les cognitions, les émotions et les comportements au fil de l'ontogénie humaine. Cela pourrait avoir des conséquences positives sur l'efficacité du dépistage des problèmes d'adaptation et sur le choix d'une intervention appropriée (Le Blanc & Morizot, 2000). Malheureusement, comme nous le verrons plus loin, la psychologie ne dispose pas à l'heure actuelle d'une typologie de la personnalité qui fasse l'unanimité. Certaines typologies des problèmes d'adaptation existent, le DSM (APA, 1994) ou la CIM (OMS, 1994) par exemple, mais il n'existe aucune typologie de la personnalité « normale » des gens de la population générale aussi sophistiquée que celles des autres sciences naturelles.

Plutôt que de développer un système de classification des personnes, les psychologues ont développé des systèmes de classification des variables comme les traits de personnalité, les motivations ou les valeurs. Si la biologie était dans la même situation que la psychologie, elle classifierait les caractéristiques des animaux telles que les formes de becs, les plumes, etc., et non pas les animaux. Comme nous l'avons mentionné plus tôt, l'émergence d'un

consensus à propos de la structure hiérarchique des traits de personnalité constitue évidemment une des avancées majeures de la psychologie au cours des dernières années. Cependant, les psychologues ont négligé de comprendre comment ces traits de personnalité s'organisent et se combinent *à l'intérieur des individus*. Pourtant, il y a plus de soixante ans, des pionniers célèbres de la psychologie tels que Allport (1937), Lewin (1935) et Murray (1938) invitaient déjà les chercheurs à étudier la personnalité dans une telle approche idiosyncrasique. En fait, le désir d'identifier les types de personnalité les plus fondamentaux dans la nature ne date pas d'hier (voir Kagan, 1994; Robins, John, & Caspi, 1998).

Dans la Grèce antique, Théophraste, un disciple d'Aristote, a classifié les individus de la société en 30 « caractères », ou types de personnalité, en fonction des conduites qui les caractérisaient et de la façon dont ils géraient leurs affaires (Rusten, Cunningham, & Knox, 1993). Peu après lui, Hippocrate a proposé quatre types de tempérament. Il croyait que les quatre grands fluides corporels (ou humeurs) que sont la bile jaune, la bile noire, le sang et le phlegme agissaient en interaction avec les quatre éléments de la nature que sont le feu, l'air, la terre et l'eau pour causer un état interne de l'organisme responsable des différences entre les individus au niveau de l'émotivité, de la rationalité, de la moralité et du comportement. Peu après, Galen a élaboré les idées d'Hippocrate et a dérivé neuf types tempéramentaux (voir Kagan, 1994). Dans le tempérament idéal, tous les éléments s'harmonisent et sont équilibrés. Quatre autres types tempéramentaux sont moins favorables puisqu'un des fluides et un des éléments est dominant. Les quatre types tempéramentaux restants, où des paires d'éléments dominent, étaient très similaires à ceux proposés par Hippocrate. Ce sont les types que Galen nomma les *mélancoliques* (qui sont maussades, tristes et déprimés), les *sanguins* (qui sont très actifs et enjoués), les *colériques* (qui sont susceptibles, irritables et agressifs), et les *flegmatiques* (qui sont apathiques et paresseux). Par la suite, plusieurs autres philosophes et médecins ont proposé des types plus ou moins similaires, le nombre de types et les facteurs explicatifs variant d'un auteur à l'autre (Kagan, 1994).

Ces idées de la Grèce antique furent acceptées longtemps par les scientifiques puisqu'elles sont demeurées populaires jusqu'au début du vingtième siècle. Influencé à la fois par les théories humorales des Grecs et par ses observations de différentes espèces animales, Charles Darwin a aussi proposé des dimensions du tempérament humain se

regroupant en types (Wright, 1994). Au milieu du vingtième siècle, Sheldon (Sheldon & Stevens, 1942) a proposé que trois grands types corporels (les somatotypes) soient reliés à la personnalité des individus. Les *ectomorphes* (grands et minces) seraient réservés, inhibés et craintifs. Les *endomorphes* (petit et gras) seraient familiers, affectueux et faciles d'approche. Enfin, les *mésomorphes* (ossature et musculature fortes) seraient quant à eux énergiques, très actifs et confiants. À peu près au même moment, Adler (1938 / 1964) proposa une typologie composée de quatre types de personnalité. Les *dominants* manifesteraient un niveau moyen d'intérêt social et un haut niveau d'activité, qui s'exprimerait souvent d'une façon asociale et agressive; les cas extrêmes de ce type deviendraient des criminels. Les *accapareurs* manifesteraient peu d'intérêt social et un niveau moyen d'activité; ces gens seraient souvent perçus comme dépendants des autres. Les *évitants* afficheraient beaucoup d'intérêt social combiné à un niveau très bas d'activité. Finalement, les *bons gars* manifesteraient beaucoup d'intérêt social combiné à un niveau d'activité très élevé; ils seraient des individus qui essaient de vivre leur vie pleinement, tout en étant concernés par le bien-être d'autrui.

D'autres psychologues contemporains ont à leur tour proposé des typologies de la personnalité, particulièrement ceux d'orientation psychanalytique. Par exemple, Freud, Jung, Horney, Reich et Kernberg ont tous proposés des typologies de la personnalité plus ou moins intégratives (voir Totton & Jacobs, 2001). La populaire typologie de Myers-Briggs qui opérationnalise les propositions de Jung représente un exemple bien connu. Cette typologie compte seize types tempéramentaux dérivés de combinaisons croisées des scores sur quatre dimensions (Keirsey & Bates, 1984). Les travaux de Friedman et Rosenman (1974) constituent aussi un exemple bien connu. Ces chercheurs ont proposé l'existence de deux grands types de personnalité: Type A et Type B. Les individus de Type A sont compétitifs, travaillants, impatients, impulsifs, agressifs verbalement, manifestent une forte propension à l'hostilité et aiment prendre des risques. Les individus de Type B présentent le profil contraire, c'est-à-dire qu'ils sont peu compétitifs, patients, peu hostiles ou colériques.

Ces typologies sont intéressantes, mais elles ont toutes été initialement dérivées de façon théorique. De plus, elles ne répondent généralement pas aux critères scientifiques de la validité de construit, de la réplication et de la généralisation (voir Skinner, 1981). Plusieurs raisons peuvent expliquer que l'approche typologique soit demeurée d'orientation théorique

au début du vingtième siècle. D'abord, il s'agissait d'une période de foisonnement théorique où tous développaient une typologie en fonction de leur propre théorie. Ensuite, à ce moment, il n'y avait pas de taxinomie des traits de personnalité qui faisait l'unanimité (i.e., modèle en trois ou cinq traits de haut ordre). Enfin, peu de méthodes statistiques adéquates pour l'identification de groupes dans un espace multidimensionnel existaient. Les ordinateurs ou les logiciels statistiques n'étaient pas non plus répandus. En plus, la communauté scientifique était alors fortement influencée par le mouvement comportementaliste radical américain qui remettait en question le concept même de personnalité. Toutes ces raisons font en sorte que la recherche d'une typologie empirique de la personnalité a été négligée jusqu'à tout récemment. Comme l'ont souligné Caspi (1998), Meehl (1992) et Robins et al. (1998), malgré que le désir d'identifier des types fondamentaux de personnalité dans la nature ait une longue histoire, la communauté scientifique n'en est qu'à ses balbutiements quant à l'identification d'une typologie fondée sur des bases empiriques solides.

Les pionniers de l'approche typologique dont nous venons de parler se sont tous posés deux grandes questions qui continuent d'intriguer les psychologues contemporains : quels sont les types de personnalité fondamentaux qui permettent de décrire la nature humaine et d'où viennent-ils? Pour répondre à ces questions, les auteurs des typologies présentées précédemment ont négligé un aspect fondamental, soit la recherche empirique. Quoi qu'il en soit, la recherche d'une typologie empirique de la personnalité a gagné en popularité dans les dernières années (Asendorpf et al., 2001; Caspi, 1998, 2000; Kagan, 1994; Robins et al., 1998). Cet intérêt résulte de trois avancées majeures. Premièrement, la fin du débat personne-situation et l'émergence d'un consensus quant à la structure des traits de personnalité a eu un effet important sur la quantité et la qualité des efforts de recherche. Deuxièmement, il y a eu le développement de plusieurs méthodes statistiques pour l'agrégation de données multivariées de même qu'un plus grand accès aux ordinateurs et aux progiciels statistiques. Troisièmement, les chercheurs ont atteint un certain consensus à propos des doutes de plusieurs concernant l'existence de types de personnalité discrets dans la nature (i.e., mutuellement exclusifs statistiquement; voir Gangestad & Snyder, 1985; Meehl, 1992; Waller & Meehl, 1997). Certains traits de personnalité et certaines psychopathologies semblent effectivement se distribuer de façon discrète (Haslam & Kim, 2002). Cependant, dans les études empiriques récentes, les individus sont classés dans un type en fonction de

patrons de scores sur plusieurs traits de personnalité simultanément. Les individus sont situés dans un espace multidimensionnel complexe. Donc, ils sont souvent considérés comme prototypiques et des points de coupures statistiques provoquant des recoulements entre les distributions de scores de chaque type sont considérés comme représentatifs dans la nature (voir Asendorpf et al., 2001; Asendorpf & van Aken, 1999; York & John, 1992). En fait, ces stratégies d'identification des types constituent une combinaison des approches catégorielle (i.e., centrée sur les personnes) et dimensionnelle (i.e., centrée sur les variables).

Thomas et Chess (1977) ont été parmi les premiers à identifier des types tempéramentaux de façon empirique. Après avoir codifié plusieurs entrevues avec des parents, ces chercheurs ont dérivé neuf dimensions, à partir desquelles ils ont dérivé trois types de tempérament. Les enfants avec un *tempérament facile*, qui représente 40 % de leur échantillon, manifestent une routine régulière, sont enjoués et s'adaptent facilement à de nouvelles expériences ou à la présence d'étrangers. Les enfants avec un *tempérament apathique*, 15 % de l'échantillon, sont peu actifs, peu réactifs aux stimuli environnementaux, manifestent des émotions négatives et s'adaptent lentement aux nouvelles expériences. Enfin, les enfants avec un *tempérament difficile*, environ 10 % de l'échantillon, sont irréguliers dans leur routine journalière, sont très actifs et réagissent négativement aux stimuli environnementaux inconnus ou aux étrangers. Par la suite, plusieurs recensions des études cherchant à identifier une typologie empirique concluent que, malgré le fait que les échantillons étudiés différaient selon l'âge, le sexe, l'origine ethnique, la langue, la culture, la période historique et la région géographique, au moins trois types ont été identifiés à plusieurs reprises, soit les Adaptés (ou Résilients), les Sous-contrôlés et les Sur-contrôlés (Asendorpf et al., 2001; Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998; van Lieshout, Haselager, & van Aken, 1998). Ces types ont été identifiés par plusieurs méthodes statistiques et types de mesure de personnalité, mais plus particulièrement à l'aide d'analyses de regroupement sur des mesures continues de traits ou à l'aide d'analyses factorielles inversées sur des gradations de descripteurs de personnalité (i.e., *Q-sort ratings*).

Les études transversales et longitudinales rapportées dans ces recensions ont examiné les facteurs antécédents et concurrents et les conséquences des types de personnalité. Ces études ont révélé que les types manifestent des profils de scores différents sur plusieurs

variables liées à l'adaptation cognitive, émotive, comportementale, interpersonnelle et sociale. Les *Adaptés*, généralement le plus grand groupe dans toutes les études, avec près de 70 % des individus, sont caractérisés par des niveaux élevés de Complaisance, de Contrainte et d'Ouverture à l'expérience, un bas niveau de Névrotisme et un niveau moyen d'Extraversion. Ces individus affichent une adaptation personnelle et sociale moyenne ou supérieure. Les *Sous-contrôlés*, typiquement 20 % des échantillons étudiés, sont caractérisés par de bas niveaux de Complaisance, de Contrainte et d'Ouverture, un haut niveau de Névrotisme et un niveau moyen d'Extraversion. Ils manifestent un profil de problème d'adaptation caractérisé par une forte désinhibition dans l'adaptation personnelle et sociale (i.e., impulsivité, agressivité, délinquance, etc.). Enfin, les *Sur-contrôlés*, généralement le plus petit groupe avec près de 10 % des individus, sont caractérisés par des niveaux élevés de Névrotisme et de Complaisance, des niveaux moyens de Contrainte et d'Ouverture et un bas niveau d'Extraversion. Ces individus manifestent plutôt un profil de problème d'adaptation caractérisé par une forte inhibition dans l'adaptation personnelle et sociale (i.e., retrait social, dépression, anxiété, etc.).

Puisque ces trois types ont été maintes fois répliqués, Caspi (1998) et Robins et al. (1998) soutiennent qu'il s'agit du nombre minimum de types nécessaires pour une typologie acceptée. Certaines recherches révèlent aussi l'existence de deux sous-types à l'intérieur de chacun des trois types qui, eux aussi, manifestent un profil de scores différents sur plusieurs variables liées à l'adaptation personnelle et sociale (e.g., Robins et al., 1996; van Lieshout et al., 1998). Les *Adaptés* constituent deux groupes distincts, soit les *Communales* et les *Agentifs*.¹ Les *Communales* sont caractérisés par de plus bas niveaux d'Extraversion et de Névrotisme et des niveaux plus élevés de Complaisance et de Contrainte, alors que les *Agentifs* sont caractérisés par de plus haut niveaux d'Extraversion, d'Ouverture et de Névrotisme et de plus bas niveaux de Complaisance et de Contrainte. En général, les

¹ La traduction en français des noms de ces deux sous-types est difficile (en anglais, il s'agit des « *Communals* » et des « *Agentics* », respectivement). Ces noms ont été donnés puisque les profils de personnalité de ces groupes correspondent bien aux deux grandes trajectoires de vie chez les individus sans problèmes d'adaptation identifiées à l'aide de narrations de vie par McAdams (1993; voir aussi Wiggins, 1991). Les *Communales* poursuivent des activités et des loisirs liés à la coopération, la communication, les soins et le partage avec les autres et la société. Ils sont très attachés et présents pour leurs proches, ils sont empathiques, loyaux et gentils. Les *Agentifs*, quant à eux, sont très actifs et sociables, ils recherchent les carrières et les loisirs comportant de fortes sensations, ils recherchent le pouvoir, la force et manifestent une importante détermination à réussir.

Agentifs tendent à présenter davantage de problèmes d'adaptation que les Communales, particulièrement des comportements antisociaux. Les Sous-contrôlés constituaient aussi deux groupes distincts, les Impulsifs et les Antisociaux. Les *Impulsifs* sont caractérisés par de plus hauts niveaux d'Extraversion, de Complaisance et de Névrotisme et de plus bas niveaux de Contrainte et d'Ouverture, alors que les *Antisociaux* sont caractérisés par de plus bas niveaux de Complaisance, d'Extraversion et de Névrotisme. En général, les Antisociaux tendent à présenter des comportements antisociaux plus variés, fréquents et violents. Finalement, les Sur-contrôlés constituent aussi deux groupes distincts, soit les Vulnérables affectifs et les Orientés vers la réussite. Les *Vulnérables affectifs* sont caractérisés par de plus hauts niveaux de Névrotisme et d'Ouverture et de plus bas niveaux d'Extraversion, de Complaisance et de Contrainte, alors que les *Orientés vers la réussite* sont caractérisés par de plus bas niveaux de Névrotisme et de plus hauts niveaux d'Extraversion, de Contrainte et d'Ouverture. En général, les Vulnérables tendent à présenter davantage de problèmes d'adaptation liés à l'humeur telle que la dépression, alors que les Orientés vers la réussite tendent à présenter davantage des problèmes d'anxiété et liés à la compulsion.

Que ressort-il de cette recension des efforts pour identifier une typologie de la personnalité humaine? D'abord, les typologies proposées par les philosophes et médecins de la Grèce antique, de même que celles proposées par les cliniciens et chercheurs du début du vingtième siècle, suggéraient toutes au moins trois grands types de personnalité, plus ou moins un ou deux. De façon générale, il s'agit de groupes composés d'individus bien *Adaptés* (i.e., sanguins de Galen, endomorphes de Sheldon, bons gars de Adler, Type B de Friedman et Rosenman), *Sous-contrôlés* (i.e., colériques de Galen, mésomorphes de Sheldon, dominants de Adler, Type A de Friedman et Rosenman) et *Sur-contrôlés* (i.e., apathiques de Galen, ectomorphes de Sheldon, évitants de Adler). Il est alors très intéressant d'observer que les typologies dérivées de façon empirique identifient les mêmes trois grands types, soit les *Adaptés* (et le tempérament facile de Thomas et Chess), les *Sous-contrôlés* (et le tempérament difficile de Thomas et Chess) et les *Sur-contrôlés* (et le tempérament apathique de Thomas et Chess). Malgré ces correspondances intéressantes, il reste encore beaucoup à faire avant de disposer d'une typologie de la personnalité qui fasse l'unanimité parmi les chercheurs. Notamment, la question des sous-types commence à peine à être envisagée. De plus, par définition, la psychologie de la personnalité s'intéresse au développement de la personne. Il

faudrait donc que l'approche typologique se combine à une perspective développementale. Les psychologues de la personnalité se sont-ils intéressés à une telle approche développementale-typologique?

VERS UNE APPROCHE DÉVELOPPEMENTALE-TYPOLOGIQUE DE LA PERSONNALITÉ

L'identification de la typologie empirique tripartite constitue une avancée importante pour une meilleure compréhension des différences interindividuelles dans la personnalité humaine. Puisque ces types manifestent des profils d'adaptation personnelle et sociale différents, cette typologie est importante théoriquement et cliniquement. Cependant, puisque ces types ont été identifiés à une période spécifique de la vie des individus (i.e., avec des données transversales), ils sont « statiques » sur le plan développemental. En effet, une des questions non résolues à propos de la typologie tripartie est la stabilité de l'appartenance aux types. Nous ne savons pas si un individu identifié dans un type à l'adolescence, par exemple, demeure dans le même type à l'âge adulte. L'étude de Asendorpf et van Aken (1999) a démontré que les types peuvent être identifiés à différentes périodes du développement, mais que l'appartenance aux types n'est pas stable. De prime abord, la maturation psychologique observée dans les études sur la continuité absolue employant des analyses de groupes (i.e., centrées sur les variables) suggère que des changements devraient être observés chez la plupart des individus.

Il y a plus de 30 ans, reconnaissant l'importance des types non développementaux, Block (1971) a souligné que cette approche statique est très limitée dans une perspective développementale. Par exemple, le fonctionnement interpersonnel et comportemental, les intérêts et les tâches de vie sont très différents durant l'adolescence et durant l'âge adulte. Block a expliqué que l'identification de types non développementaux durant ces deux périodes séparément va nécessairement refléter ces différences. Block (1971) soutient qu'une typologie de la personnalité devrait représenter les types durant différentes périodes de la vie simultanément et devrait aussi procurer de l'information à propos des changements intra-individuels dans la personnalité qui surviennent au cours du développement. Les types de personnalité changent d'une façon ordonnée dans le temps et on doit être capable de rendre compte de ces différentes trajectoires développementales. On doit pouvoir rendre compte à la

fois des comparaisons transversales à chaque période du développement ainsi que de la direction et de la magnitude des changements. Block (1971) parle donc d'identifier des « types de développement de la personnalité » plutôt que des « types de personnalité ».

En conséquence, lorsqu'un chercheur adopte une perspective développementale et qu'il demeure intéressé à l'approche typologique, la stratégie méthodologique adoptée jusqu'à maintenant est insuffisante. Block (1971) fut le premier à proposer d'effectuer une classification développementale directe avec les données longitudinales de toutes les périodes d'évaluation disponibles simultanément, car cette stratégie représente plus fidèlement le développement de la personnalité de l'individu (voir aussi Bergman, 1998; Cairns & Rodkin, 1998). Une telle approche procure un meilleur aperçu des différences interindividuelles dans les changements intra-individuels et permet d'inférer une *typologie développementale de la personnalité*. Dans une telle approche, chaque *type développemental* est composé d'individus qui manifestent des profils de personnalité similaires à plusieurs périodes de leur développement, c'est-à-dire qui suivent une trajectoire développementale similaire. Une telle approche conceptuelle et méthodologique correspond donc à la perspective holistique-transactionnelle.

L'exemple classique d'une typologie développementale de la personnalité est l'étude de Block (1971). Il a étudié un échantillon d'hommes et de femmes à partir de deux périodes de mesure, soit l'adolescence (14-17 ans) et l'âge adulte (30-37 ans). À partir d'analyses factorielles inversées sur des mesures de gradations de descripteurs de personnalité (i.e., « *Q-sort* »), Block a identifié cinq types développementaux d'hommes. Il a également démontré que ces types manifestent des profils différents sur plusieurs variables liées à l'adaptation personnelle et sociale. Trois de ces types correspondent clairement aux trois types non développementaux présentés plus haut (Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998) et demeurent stables dans le temps. Les *Résilients*, le plus grand groupe de l'échantillon (30 %), demeurent bien adaptés de l'adolescence à l'âge adulte. Les *Sous-contrôlés*, le plus petit groupe (16 %), présentent des problèmes extériorisés stables. Les *Sur-contrôlés*, environ un cinquième de l'échantillon (19 %), présentent des problèmes intérieurisés stables. Les deux autres types développementaux identifiés par Block (1971) montrent des changements significatifs. Les *Adaptés-tardifs* (17,5 %) montrent des problèmes d'adaptation à l'adolescence qui se

résorbent vers l'âge adulte. Ils ont donc manifesté une maturation psychologique. Finalement, les *Extravertis-anomiques* (17,5 %) montrent une adaptation adéquate durant l'adolescence, mais développent des problèmes d'adaptation vers l'âge adulte. Ils ont donc manifesté une détérioration psychologique. L'étude de Block (1971) a été une des contributions les plus originales pour l'identification d'une typologie développementale de la personnalité. Cependant, à notre connaissance, ces types n'ont jamais été répliqués.

Quelques autres chercheurs ont aussi tenté d'identifier une typologie développementale de la personnalité (e.g., Aldwin, Spiro, Levenson, & Cupertino, 2001; Tubman, Lerner, Lerner & von Eye, 1992). Cependant, les mesures employées et les périodes de la vie étudiées sont très différentes d'une étude à l'autre; il est donc difficile de faire une synthèse des recherches existantes. Par ailleurs, la plupart ont utilisé une mesure unique de la personnalité (i.e., typologie univariée). Cependant, il semble que quatre types développementaux ressortent des études disponibles. Il y a d'abord un large groupe d'individus bien *Adaptés*. Ces individus manifestent des trajectoires de personnalité traduisant un profil favorable assez stable, ou même pouvant s'améliorer. Ces individus présentent le profil le plus favorable dans toutes les sphères de l'adaptation personnelle et sociale. Il y a ensuite un plus petit groupe d'individus qualifiés de *Sous-contrôlés*. Comme c'était le cas dans la typologie non développementale, ces individus manifestent des trajectoires de personnalité caractérisées par la désinhibition comportementale, qui s'améliore généralement depuis l'adolescence jusqu'à l'âge adulte. Ces individus présentent un profil d'adaptation caractérisé par des problèmes extériorisés tels que les comportements antisociaux. Un troisième plus petit groupe d'individus qualifiés de *Sur-contrôlés* est aussi identifié. Ces individus manifestent des trajectoires de personnalité généralement stables caractérisées par de l'inhibition émotive et comportementale. Ces individus présentent un profil d'adaptation caractérisé par des problèmes intérieurisés tels que l'anxiété et l'humeur dépressive. Enfin, un petit groupe d'individus qualifiés d'*Anomiques* semble aussi être mis au jour. Ces individus manifestent des trajectoires de personnalité caractérisées par une adaptation plus ou moins positive durant l'adolescence, suivie par une détérioration du profil de personnalité vers l'âge adulte. L'adaptation personnelle et sociale de ces individus est généralement adéquate durant l'adolescence, mais se détériore à l'âge adulte.

En somme, compte tenu de sa pertinence et de son importance pour les théories de la personnalité, il est très étonnant de constater que la communauté scientifique a fourni peu d'efforts pour l'identification d'une typologie développementale de la personnalité. En effet, cette question est virtuellement absente de tous les livres d'auteurs et des recensions récentes des spécialistes du domaine de la psychologie de la personnalité (e.g., Caprara & Cervone, 2000; Caspi, 1998; Hogan, Johnson, & Briggs, 1997; Pervin & John, 1999). Même dans les publications spécifiquement dédiées à l'approche centrée sur les personnes, la question d'une possible typologie développementale de la personnalité n'occupe pas la place qu'elle devrait (Bergman et al., 2000; Cairns et al., 1998). L'approche développementale-typologique de la personnalité telle que proposée par Block (1971) semble donc avoir été largement ignorée jusqu'à maintenant. Une telle approche correspond pourtant à la perspective holistique-transactionnelle que la plupart des chercheurs adoptent, implicitement ou explicitement. Dans ces circonstances, nous allons donc chercher à identifier une typologie développementale de la personnalité dans chacun des deux échantillons d'hommes de l'ÉLBÉM.

SOMMAIRE DES OBJECTIFS ET HYPOTHÈSES DE LA THÈSE

L'objectif principal de cette thèse est d'étudier le développement de la personnalité. Au cours de ce chapitre introductif, en présentant les postulats de base de l'approche des traits, nous avons démontré que les traits constituent des unités de mesure de la personnalité humaine qui ont maintenant atteint un statut scientifique solide. De fait, pour étudier le développement de la personnalité de façon rigoureuse, il est nécessaire de pouvoir postuler que les unités de mesure employées ont une valeur scientifique défendable. Cependant, nous avons aussi montré que l'approche des traits présente certaines limites. Notamment, puisqu'il existe des types de personnalité, le postulat de la distribution continue des traits dans la population devrait être révisé. Surtout, les théories des traits qui ont été formulées jusqu'à maintenant ne constituent pas des théories développementales.

La continuité des traits de personnalité peut être étudiée de différentes façons qui se regroupent en deux grandes approches conceptuelles et méthodologiques : les approches centrées d'une part sur les variables, et d'autres part, sur les personnes. Au cours de cette thèse, nous allons donc comparer les résultats obtenus afin d'estimer la contribution de

chacune de ces deux approches pour mieux comprendre le développement de la personne. La personnalité des deux échantillons d'hommes de l'*Étude longitudinale bi-échantillon de Montréal* (ÉLBÉM; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989) sera étudiée de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie.

Dans le deuxième chapitre, nous allons d'abord étudier le développement de la personnalité selon l'approche centrée sur les variables. Cependant, avant de faire cet examen, puisque les instruments employés dans l'ÉLBÉM datent de plusieurs années et souffrent de certaines faiblesses, nous allons préalablement identifier une structure hiérarchique des traits de personnalité solide sur les plans psychométrique et conceptuel.

À la suite de l'identification de cette structure, trois formes de continuité des traits de personnalité seront étudiées. D'abord, la continuité structurelle sera examinée afin de déterminer si les traits de personnalité identifiés avec les données de l'ÉLBÉM peuvent être assumés comme étant sur la même échelle de mesure psychométrique à travers le temps. Cet examen est important puisque cette forme de continuité n'a presque pas été étudiée. Les quelques études disponibles laissent croire qu'une structure défendable sur le plan psychométrique devrait être stable dans le temps. Ensuite, la continuité différentielle sera examinée pour les deux échantillons séparément. Compte tenu de la documentation scientifique existante, il est attendu que les corrélations augmenteront au fur et à mesure que l'âge des hommes augmente. Il n'existe aucune autre étude longitudinale prospective d'adolescents judiciarés de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie, mais compte tenu des théories psychologiques et criminologiques disponibles, il est attendu que ces derniers présenteront un profil de personnalité plus stable que les hommes de la population générale. Enfin, la continuité absolue sera étudiée afin de déterminer si la maturation psychologique observée dans les études antérieures s'observera avec un échantillon représentatif et un échantillon d'individus judiciarés au cours de leur adolescence. Les études longitudinales disponibles laissent croire que les hommes des deux échantillons devraient manifester une maturation psychologique de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie. Cependant, compte tenu des théories existantes, il est attendu que les hommes judiciarés manifesteront une maturation psychologique retardée ou bloquée comparativement aux hommes de la population générale.

Dans les troisième et quatrième chapitres, le développement de la personnalité des participants de l'ÉLBÉM sera étudié selon l'approche centrée sur les personnes. Comme nous l'avons mentionné précédemment, puisque l'approche développementale-typologique constitue la meilleure façon d'opérationnaliser l'approche centrée sur les personnes, il s'agira donc de chercher à identifier une typologie développementale de la personnalité dans chacun des échantillons. En raison de l'absence d'études similaires dans la littérature, il est difficile de proposer des hypothèses de recherche spécifiques. À cet égard, la présente thèse pourrait donc s'avérer une contribution tout à fait originale. Toutefois, il faut par la même occasion considérer cette partie de la thèse comme une étape exploratoire de l'étude du développement de la personnalité dans une approche développementale-typologique. Néanmoins, pour toutes les études présentées dans cette thèse, des hypothèses plus spécifiques seront proposées dans les trois chapitres suivants.

Tableau 1

Principaux postulats de l'approche des traits de personnalité

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1. Les traits sont des construits latents.
 2. Les traits s'organisent de façon hiérarchique.
 3. Les traits sont relativement stables dans différentes situations.
 4. Les traits interagissent avec les situations.
 5. Les traits se distribuent de façon continue dans la population.
 6. Les traits sont universels.
 7. Les traits sont des caractéristiques évolutives partiellement héréditaires.
 8. Les traits sont partiellement appris avec l'expérience.
 9. Les traits sont des phénotypes causaux.
 10. Les traits sont relativement stables dans le temps.
-

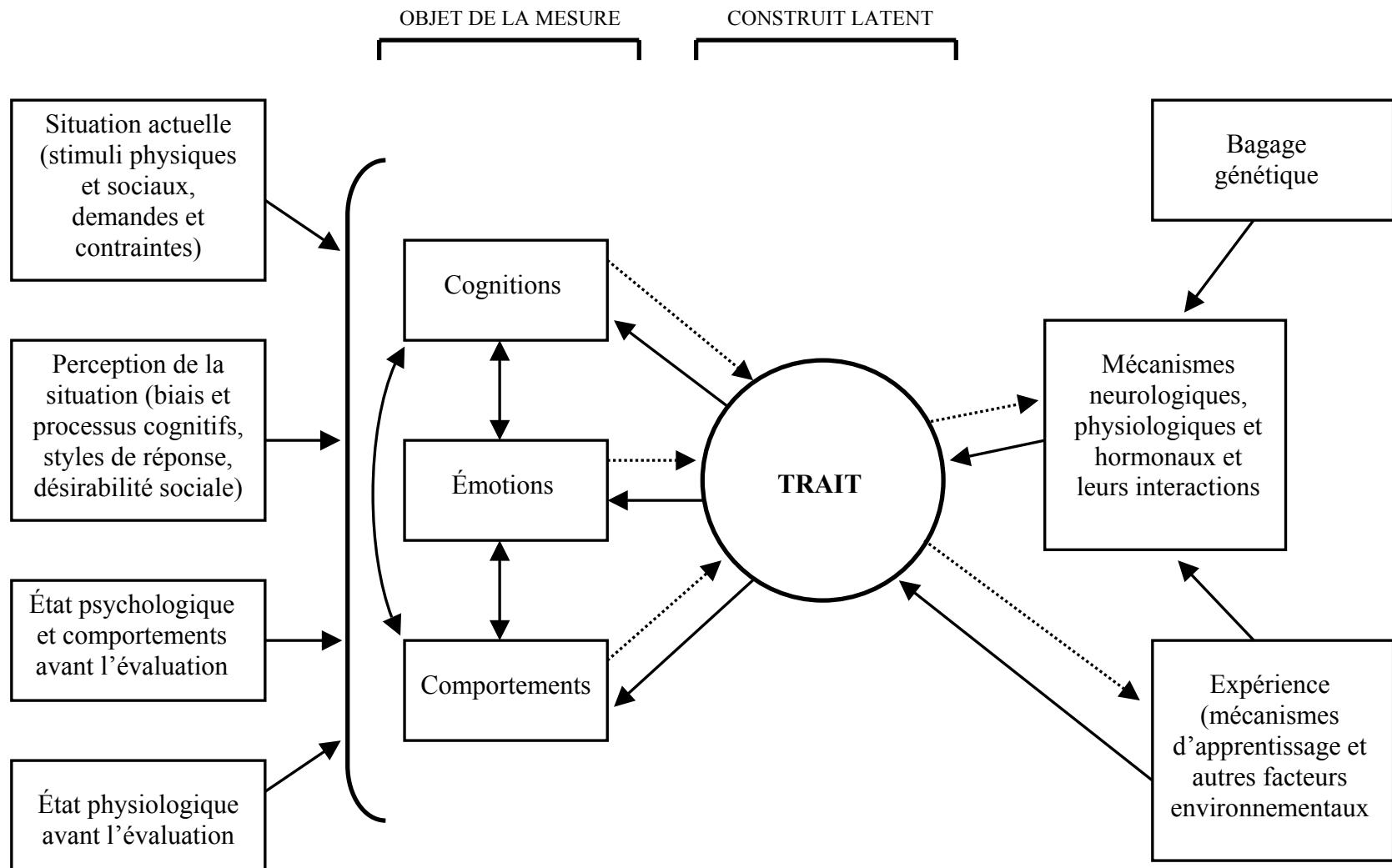


Figure 1. Illustration des interrelations complexes entre les facteurs expliquant les traits de personnalité (adaptée de Strelau, 2001)

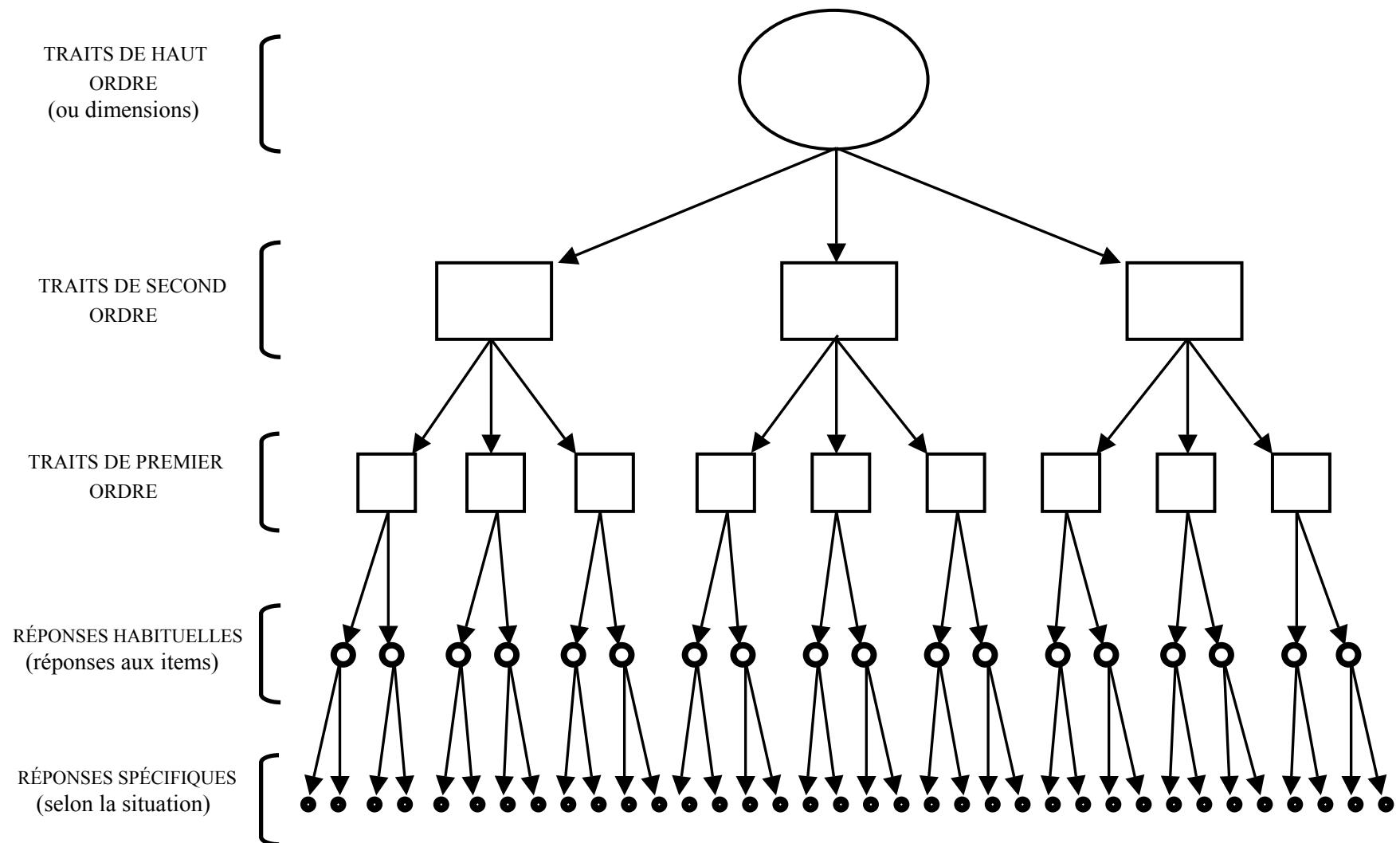


Figure 2. Illustration de la structure hiérarchique de la personnalité (adaptée de Eysenck, 1982)

CHAPITRE II

**CONTINUITY AND CHANGE IN PERSONALITY TRAITS
FROM ADOLESCENCE TO MIDLIFE: A 25-YEAR LONGITUDINAL STUDY
COMPARING REPRESENTATIVE AND ADJUDICATED MEN¹**

¹ Morizot, J., & Le Blanc, M. (2003). Continuity and change in personality traits from adolescence to midlife: A 25-year longitudinal study comparing representative and adjudicated men. *Journal of Personality*, 71, 705-755.

Abstract

In the first study, a hierarchical structure of personality traits was identified using data from a longitudinal study tracing two samples of men from adolescence to midlife (i.e., a representative sample of the general population and a sample of individuals adjudicated during their adolescence). The second study examined structural, rank-order, and mean-level continuity. Partial structural continuity was demonstrated through confirmatory factor analysis. Regarding rank-order continuity, the correlations were stronger as age increased, particularly for the adjudicated men. For mean-level continuity, the adjudicated men displayed higher scores from adolescence to midlife for nearly every personality trait related to Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality. Significant decreases were observed in these traits for both samples, supporting the hypothesis of a normative psychological maturation. Although both samples showed this maturation, the adjudicated men displayed a lower rate of change during adolescence and early adulthood. The two samples did not differ in Extraversion and this trait remained more stable, particularly for adjudicated men.

After years of skepticism about their validity and usefulness, traits have regained popularity in personality psychology (e.g., Bouchard & Loehlin, 2001; Funder, 1991; Matthews & Deary, 1998; Tellegen, 1991). The main assumption of trait theory is that traits represent partly inheritable predispositions manifested by the consistency in which people differ from one another in cognitive, emotional, attitudinal, interpersonal, and behavioral functioning across time and situations. Although the notion of predisposition implies a certain level of continuity, this does not mean that personality traits are developmentally static. Indeed, even if personality traits tend to show a great deal of consistency across the life course, most scholars consider traits as dynamic dimensions of human inter-individual differences (Caspi & Roberts, 1999; McCrae, Costa, et al., 2000; Pervin, 2002).

This paper reports two related studies using data from the Montreal Two-Sample Longitudinal Study (MTSLS; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989). The MTSLS is a prospective longitudinal study which followed two samples of Caucasian French-speaking men from adolescence to midlife: a representative sample of the general population and a sample of individuals adjudicated at the Montreal Juvenile Court during their adolescence (i.e., former delinquents). Our principal objective was to compare personality development in these two samples. However, because the original scoring of the personality scales used in the MTSLS is conceptually and empirically questionable and could provide meaningless estimates of continuity and change, the objective of *Study 1* was to identify a defensible hierarchical structural model of personality traits using the MTSLS archival data. The objective of *Study 2* was to examine and compare continuity and change in personality traits for both samples from adolescence to midlife.

Continuity and Change in Personality Traits From Adolescence to Midlife

Two broad positions are stated in the literature regarding continuity and change in personality traits. First, there is the *stability* or *plaster* hypothesis. For example, some psychodynamic theorists believe that personality development is set by infancy, at 5 years of age and even before (see Caspi & Roberts, 1999). Contemporary positions on personality development suggest rather that an individual's personality is consolidated when he or she

reaches early adulthood. For example, McCrae and Costa (1990, Costa & McCrae, 1997) postulated that personality is fully developed and “set like plaster” by the age of 25 or 30. These two viewpoints share common ground. They suggest that personality is fixed or crystallized at one point in the life course. The second major position is the *change* or *plasticity* hypothesis. Even if some adopt a rather extreme position (Lewis, 1999), most adherents of this position argue that, even if there is clear consistency in personality, its development can extend over the entire life course (e.g., Caspi, 1998; Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Roberts, Robins, Caspi, & Trzesnieski, in press).

As noted by Helson and Stewart (1994), to date most researchers have emphasized personality stability rather than plasticity. Moreover, even when the plasticity position was accepted, the issue of the factors and processes associated with continuity or change was often neglected (see Lewis, 1999; Pervin, 2002). Many interesting mechanisms and factors intervening in personality development have been suggested (Caspi, 1998; Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Helson & Stewart, 1994), but there are a number of unresolved issues regarding continuity and change in personality (see Pervin, 2002).

Caspi and Roberts (1999) identified five major types of continuity (or stability) in their review of the literature: structural, rank-order, mean-level, and ipsative continuity as well as coherence. In this paper, structural, rank-order, and mean-level continuity will be examined.

Structural continuity refers to the persistence of correlational patterns among a set of variables across time. In other words, it corresponds to the stability of a personality structure at different ages. This type of continuity can be estimated by examining the covariation among items and factors (i.e., traits) or among lower-order and higher-order personality traits across time through confirmatory factor analysis. The fact that the Big-Five traits typically identified with adult samples were also identified in childhood and adolescence could suggest that there is no qualitative structural shift across time in these predispositions (see Halverson, Kohnstamm, & Martin, 1994). Though the available studies are mainly cross-sectional, Costa and McCrae (1997) concluded that the personality structure seems constant across different

age groups. However, to date there is a lack of empirical studies testing the invariance of personality structure across time with longitudinal data (Caspi & Roberts, 1999). This is surprising considering that if personality trait scores are not comparable across time (i.e., on the same measurement scale), findings of continuity and change could thus be potentially misleading due to a measurement artifact. A recent longitudinal study suggests that this does not seem to be the case. Robins, Fraley, Roberts, and Trzesniewski (2001) observed no significant differences in correlational patterns between the Big-Five traits across two measurement points in early adulthood. However, the structural continuity of normative personality traits such as the Big-Five does not mean that a maladaptive traits structure is also stable, nor that a personality structure is also stable with special population samples. In the present paper, it was possible to test these hypotheses.

Rank-order continuity, also called differential continuity, refers to the consistency of individual differences within a group. It is estimated with correlations. A strong correlation indicates that individuals tend to remain in the same position within their group across time. The plaster hypothesis adherents would predict strong correlations (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1990). According to the viewpoint postulating that personality is fixed by early adulthood, longitudinal studies examining rank-order consistency between age 30 and a subsequent point in time should reveal correlations near 1. In contrast, a weak correlation indicates that the individuals tend to change their rank order within their group. The proponents of the plasticity hypothesis would predict such correlations regardless of the ages compared (e.g., Roberts & DelVecchio, 2000).

A meta-analysis on 152 longitudinal studies by Roberts and DelVecchio (2000) observed that the mean correlation coefficient (controlled for time interval) became linearly stronger as the individuals' age increased. The mean correlation coefficient started at .31 in infancy and then systematically increased to .43 during childhood and adolescence, to .54 in late adolescence, to .60 in early adulthood, to .64 in midlife and reached a plateau of over .70 during old age. Thus, this meta-analysis suggests that the stability position can be challenged. The highest correlation coefficients ranged from .60 to .75 after age 22, explaining between 36% and 56% of the variance. Although this is a considerable proportion of variance, it does

not explain the majority of it until the fifties. This implies that there is personality change after early adulthood. Even if there is ample empirical research on rank-order continuity, longitudinal studies comparing representative and special populations' samples with the same measure are rare. The present study could add to the literature in doing such a test. However, because the correlations cannot assess the trend in mean-level across time, it thus provides only part of the answer about continuity and change in personality.

Mean-level continuity, also known as absolute continuity, refers to the continuity in the quantity of a personality trait across time. As noted by Caspi and Roberts (1999), conceptually, it connotes the stability of an attribute within a single individual, but was typically assessed by comparing group means through repeated measures analysis of variance or growth curves analysis.

Allport (1961) was one of the first to suggest that with age, personality traits would tend to change in the direction of greater maturity. He postulated that normative individuals should develop an extended sense of self, be more able to engage themselves warmly with others, to control their emotional reactivity, and would tend to perceive and behave in accordance with outer reality (i.e., societal norms). Many cross-sectional and longitudinal studies using various personality assessment devices and sample types revealed that when personality was first assessed in adolescence or early adulthood, significant mean-level changes in traits typically occurred (see Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Costa & McCrae, 1997; Helson, Kwan, John, & Jones, 2002; Roberts et al., in press). In general, most studies observed changes in the direction of growth. In terms of the Big-Three taxonomy, these changes correspond to increases in Constraint (i.e., decreases in Disinhibition or Psychoticism) and decreases in Negative Emotionality (or Neuroticism) and Positive Emotionality (or Extraversion), while in terms of the Big-Five taxonomy, they correspond to decreases in Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Openness to Experience, and increases in Conscientiousness and Agreeableness.

When personality was assessed longitudinally during the adult years, a different picture was drawn. Based on literature reviews of cross-sectional, cross-sequential, and

longitudinal studies, McCrae and Costa (1990; Costa & McCrae, 1997) postulated that no meaningful changes were expected after the age of 25 or 30. However, despite these claims, recent longitudinal studies did observe mean-level changes during adulthood, even until 60 years of age (e.g., Field & Millsap, 1991; Haan, Millsap, & Hartka, 1986; Helson et al., 2002; Jones & Meredith, 1996, 2000; Roberts et al., *in press*). As was the case in studies tracing personality from adolescence through early adulthood, the changes were in the direction of greater maturity. Taking into account these observations, McCrae, Costa et al. (2000) recently revised their view about mean-level personality continuity. After reviewing recent longitudinal results, they postulated that the maturational trend in personality traits observed from adolescence to early adulthood is also observable after the age of 30, although they added that the rate of change seems to be lower.

In summary, the plasticity position is supported because studies point to significant mean-level changes in personality traits toward maturity from adolescence until old age. Thus, the empirical evidence points to a *normative psychological maturation*. Roberts et al. (*in press*) suggested two broad forms of personality maturation. The first one is *humanistic* and corresponds to a tendency towards self-actualization and personal growth. In terms of traits, it could be conceptualized as increases in Openness to Experience and in some facets of Extraversion. The second form of maturation is *functional* and corresponds to personality changes necessary to facilitate adjustment to normative transitions across the life course. It can be conceptualized as increases in Emotional Stability, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness. Roberts et al. (*in press*) concluded that studies support the hypothesis of a functional maturation, but not a humanistic maturation. In spite of this clear conclusion regarding functional maturation, the majority of past studies analyzed higher-order traits, leaving open the question of whether personality maturation would be more prominent in some lower-order traits (but see Costa, Herbst, McCrae, & Siegler, 2000; Roberts, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2001).

This present study allowed us to trace personality traits at the mean-level from adolescence to midlife and challenges the assertion that no meaningful changes are expected after age 30. Moreover, it allowed us to document whether the rate of change (or continuity)

in personality is comparable for a representative sample and a special population sample. Finally, continuity and change could be assessed at the higher- and lower-order levels of the personality structure.

General Method

Samples and Procedure

Data were drawn from the Montreal Two-Sample Longitudinal Study (MTSLS; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987). The MTSLS includes two samples of Caucasian French-speaking men first recruited around the mid-1970s. The first sample included almost all the adolescent males adjudicated under the Canadian Juvenile Delinquents Act or under the Quebec Youth Protection Act by the Montreal area juvenile court in 1974-1975. These adolescents were also sentenced to probation or, in most cases, a residential placement. At the beginning of the study, this sample comprised of 470 boys aged from 13 to 18 years (see Table 1 for the age range at each wave of data collection). Although these individuals are actually former delinquents who were not necessarily adjudicated after adolescence, in this paper, for ease of presentation, we will refer to them as the *adjudicated men*.

The second sample, composed of 1611 boys, was recruited in 1974 and was representative of the general population of the Montreal metropolitan area. This sample was proportionally stratified according to the size of the schools, the levels and tracks in each school, the socioeconomic status of the school, and the type of schools (public or private). In addition, some boys who were not in school were added to the sample according to their respective proportion in the general population. In 1976, a random subsample of 458 boys was selected from the 1611 participants and personality questionnaires were administered to them for the first time. Analyses on many sociodemographic, social, and behavioral variables showed that the participants composing this subsample did not differ from those of the original sample (Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989). Thus, although this subsample may not be ideal, the 458 boys can be considered representative of the general population of Caucasian

French-speaking men living in Montreal in the mid-1970s. These boys were from 12 to 16 years old at the first assessment (see Table 1 for the age range at each wave of data collection). In this paper, we will refer to them as the *representative men*.

Insert Table 1 about here

Table 1 reports the sample size at each measurement period, the main reasons for attrition, and the age distribution for the adjudicated and representative men. The two samples were not assessed at exactly the same mean age, thus the representative men are generally one year younger than the adjudicated men at each wave of data collection. Nevertheless, for ease of presentation, in this paper we will use the mean ages of 15, 17, 30, and 40 instead of the exact mean age of each sample.

At the first wave of data collection (spring of 1974), the participants of the representative sample completed self-administered questionnaires at school or at home. Two years later (spring of 1976), they completed the same questionnaires. The questionnaires were sent to them by mail. Those who did not respond were personally contacted. During adulthood, the participants were met by trained interviewers in 1988-1989, and again in 1998-1999.

The men from the adjudicated sample were first recruited over a two-year period, starting in the spring of 1973, in order to attain a sample size of 470. These men were met by trained interviewers at all measurement occasions. This procedure ensured complete and reliable collaboration with a population of individuals who frequently manifest learning difficulties and tend to lack motivation for this type of task. Detailed descriptions of the two samples and of the procedure were published elsewhere (see Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989).

At all waves of data collection, self-administered questionnaires and interview protocols that operationalized an integrative multilayered theory of delinquent and antisocial behaviors were used (Le Blanc, 1996, 1997). The participants were asked about numerous aspects of their lives, including their behaviors (delinquency, substance use, behavior problems at home, school, work), their family (involvement, attachment, supervision, discipline), their relationships with their peers (including deviant peers), their routine activities, their beliefs and values, and their personality. Personality was assessed with the Jesness Personality Inventory (1983) and an early version of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1971). The psychometric properties of all the scales for the Quebec population are reported in Le Blanc (1996). Complete personality data from adolescence to midlife were available for 122 adjudicated men and 269 representative men.

STUDY 1

Identification of the Structural Model of Personality

Instruments which were developed decades ago often become “out of date” with respect to the actual state of knowledge. Re-analysis and recoding of original scales, for example, is often necessary in order to use conceptually and empirically adequate measures for answering contemporary research questions (McCall & Appelbaum, 1991). Thus, in this study, it was decided to derive personality traits with the complete items set from the French-language version of the two personality questionnaires used in the MTSLS: the Jesness Personality Inventory (JPI; Jesness, 1983) and an early version of the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1971), both designed to compare normative and criminal individuals. The JPI is composed of 155 true / false items and the EPQ of 80 yes / no items.

A number of arguments can be advanced to justify the choice of factor analyzing all EPQ and JPI items simultaneously in order to derive new scales rather than using the original ones. First, when items were factor-analyzed separately for each questionnaire, the original factor structures were not well reproduced with the data from the French-speaking men samples, particularly in the case of the JPI. Second, the EPQ data were from an earlier

version of the questionnaire (i.e., an 80-item version rather than the 90-item version of the standard 1975 questionnaire). Third, some authors showed that the Psychoticism scale of the EPQ is probably heterogeneous and composed of lower-order aspects of Agreeableness and Conscientiousness of the Big-Five taxonomy (e.g., Goldberg & Rosolack, 1994; McCrae & Costa, 1985). Fourth, it can be argued that the JPI scales were not appropriately scored. The construction process of that instrument was deductive for some scales and empirical for others. Thus, many items are associated with more than one scale. This situation may explain the very high intercorrelations between some scales (see Jesness, 1983). Fifth, this strategy could challenge the assertion of scholars who believe that three to five broad factors should be extracted from different personality questionnaires. Finally, a sixth argument can be emphasized. Some researchers recently suggested that studies should more often examine continuity and change in personality at the primary-trait level because it could help explain conflicting results observed by researchers analyzing only higher-order traits (Costa et al., 2000; Roberts et al., 2001). Using all items from the two instruments was a useful strategy for identifying a hierarchical structure composed of lower-order and higher-order traits with adequate content validity and internal consistency.

Statistical Analyses

In order to identify stable broad personality dimensions across the four measurement points, a series of exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were conducted on all JPI and EPQ dichotomous items simultaneously. In an attempt to avoid some biases associated to EFA, different correlation matrices as well as different extraction and rotation methods were tested. Regarding the correlations, phi correlations (i.e., Pearson product-moment) and tetrachoric correlation matrices were both tested using the MicroFACT program (Waller, 2001). Concerning extraction, both principal component analysis and principal axis factoring methods were tested. Regarding extraction, both orthogonal (i.e., varimax) and oblique (i.e., direct oblimin) methods were tested. Because sample sizes were too small to perform EFA for each sample separately in adult years, these analyses used the two samples simultaneously. Before proceeding with the analyses, the JPI lie scale items, items about the past (e.g., "Did you love your mother?"), items known to be misunderstood by participants

(e.g., “Do most things taste the same to you?”) and items displaying zero-variance at one of the four measurement points were dropped. Thus, 218 of the 235 items were used for the EFA.

Following the identification of an empirically and conceptually defensible personality structure through EFA, confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) of the hypothesized model were undertaken for each four measurement points using the EQS program (Bentler, 1995). These analyses provided the covariance estimates among the observed variables for each group and each measurement point (i.e., baseline models with freely estimated parameters). Moreover, because the MTSLS is composed of two very different samples, cross-group measurement invariance was also tested. Different goodness-of-fit estimates were calculated to determine whether the hypothesized models are acceptable representations of the data. First, the χ^2 likelihood ratio test was estimated for all constructed models. However, because this test is recognized to be overly sensitive to sample size and departures from multivariate normality, the ratio of the χ^2 estimator divided by its degrees of freedom (χ^2/df) was also calculated. There is no consensus on what value represents a good fit for this test, but a cutoff of 3 or less would be a cautious ratio. Second, for the cross-group invariance tests, the chi-squared difference test ($\Delta\chi^2$) was also calculated in order to determine if the constrained models displayed a worse fit than the baseline models. Three additional fit indexes were calculated for all models: the Bentler Comparative Fit Index (CFI) indicates the overall proportion of explained variance, the Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) adjusts the proportion of explained variance for model complexity, and the Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMSR) represents a standardized summary of the average covariance residuals. Values above .90 for the CFI and NNFI and below .1 for the SRMSR indicate an acceptable fit of the model.

Regarding the cross-group invariance tests, all regression coefficients leading to the three higher-order factors were freely estimated and the factor variances fixed to 1 (see Figure 1). One of the regression coefficients of the indicators (i.e., the 15 primary traits scores) explaining the six broad factors was also fixed to 1. Variances and covariances were not constrained because, based on a priori knowledge, these two kinds of samples are known to

differ in personality variances and covariances. Moreover, considering their random nature, testing for errors invariance constitutes a less important test (Bentler, 1995). If the fit of the constrained models is not significantly worse than the baseline models, then the parameters may be assumed to measure the factors in a comparable way (i.e., measurement invariance). If the constrained models fit is worse than the baseline models, the assumption of invariance across groups is not tenable. However, the omnibus tests are not sufficient to accept or reject a model and therefore, specific hypotheses should be tested (Byrne, Shavelson, & Muthén, 1989). Thus, afterwards, the univariate and multivariate Lagrange Multiplier χ^2 tests (LM) were examined for the specific parameters. Indeed, some parameters could vary while others could not. After releasing the constraints of non-invariant parameters, the overall fit was re-estimated. This situation refers to the partial measurement invariance (see Byrne et al., 1989).

Results and Discussion

The general pattern of results of all EFA was very similar across correlation matrices, methods of extraction and rotation, though some items were more unstable with the phi correlations. The results obtained through principal components analyses with orthogonal rotation are presented hereafter. Using scree plots as a preliminary criterion, solutions from four to nine factors were compared. The six-factor solution seemed the most stable across the four measurement points and seemed the most meaningful psychologically. At that stage, 14 other items were dropped because they were very unstable across ages or did not load clearly on any factor. Overall, the statistics associated with the six-factor solution on 204 items indicate an empirically adequate model. For a solution with aggregated data of the two samples and the four measurement points, the six-factor model-implied correlations provided an acceptable fit to the observed correlations: goodness-of-fit (GFI) values of .969, mean squared residuals (MSR; and SD) of .001 (.04), root mean squared residuals (RMSR) of .042 and 76.4% of explained variance. The statistics were also adequate for each measurement point. For ages 15, 17, 30, and 40 respectively, GFI values of .895, .917, .949, and .948, MSR (SD) values of .003 (.05), .002 (.05), .003 (.05), and .003 (.05), RMSR values of .059, .051, .056, and .059, and explained variance of 62.9%, 62.2%, 76.7%, and 80.6% were obtained. For the final assignment of the items, a few items that have high loadings on more

than one factor were assigned to only one factor based on conceptual decision (i.e., content validity). The six factors were labeled Tough-Mindedness (35 items), Antisocial Values (37 items), Alienation (40 items), Maladaptive Inhibition (27 items), Emotional Reactivity (41 items), and Extraversion (24 items).

Considering that a personality structure should be conceptualized in a hierarchical manner, in order to identify primary traits, items of the six broad factors were factor analyzed separately for each of the four measurement points, and 15 primary traits were identified. The Tough-Mindedness items were divided into three primary traits (Malignant Egotism, Callous Hostility, and Impulsiveness), Antisocial Values into two (Authority Opposition and Societal Skepticism), Alienation into three (Mistrust, Self-Criticism, and Schizotypy), Maladaptive Inhibition into two (Social Anxiety and Passivity), Emotional Reactivity into three (Anxiousness, Affective Distress, and Irritability), and finally, Extraversion items were divided into two primary traits (Sensation Seeking and Sociability).

The 15 primary traits were factor analyzed and three higher-order traits emerged. The six broad traits were also factor analyzed and the same three traits were identified. Tough-Mindedness and Antisocial Values formed the higher-order trait labeled Disinhibition (vs. Constraint), while Alienation, Maladaptive Inhibition, and Emotional Reactivity formed the higher-order trait labeled Negative Emotionality (vs. Emotional Stability). The broad trait labeled Extraversion (vs. Introversion) remained independent and is therefore considered a higher-order trait. This hierarchical structure is illustrated in Figure 1. A brief definition of all personality scales is presented in Table 2. These definitions are based on the descending order of the item loadings and on the range of the psychological content tapped by the items of each scale. Appendix A presents all items composing the personality traits.

Insert Figure 1 and Tables 2 and 3 about here

After ascertaining the content validity of the 15 primary traits, item analyses were performed. The objective was to identify the best items for each scale at all measurement points. Consequently, items were not discarded if they simply caused a slight drop in internal consistency during adolescence, for example, but were still highly correlated to the scale during adulthood. Moreover, even if they caused a slight drop in internal consistency, items with a low or high base rate were not discarded in order to ensure adequate content validity. The internal consistency coefficients by age and sample are presented in Table 3. The six broad traits showed adequate internal consistency. The majority of the 15 primary traits also displayed acceptable internal consistency. In general, most coefficients ranged in a narrow band between .70 and .90. The coefficients increased with age and were stronger for the adjudicated sample. However, some scales showed disappointing internal consistency during adolescence, particularly for the representative sample. This does not necessarily mean that the items were not intercorrelated. Low values may have occurred because few items compose some scales, binary response items were used, and some items in a given scale had different difficulty levels (i.e., very low or very high base rate). The internal consistency of some primary trait scales was low in adolescence, thus the results derived from these scales must be interpreted with caution. Nevertheless, the scales can be considered as adequate, particularly during adulthood and more so for the adjudicated men.

The intercorrelations between the personality scales were generally comparable to what was reported in the literature for other personality structures, though perhaps slightly higher. It is not uncommon, however, for intercorrelations to be stronger between maladaptive personality traits, particularly in clinical samples (see Clark & Livesley, 2002). The correlations between the higher-order traits were typically around .40 between Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality, around .20 between Disinhibition and Extraversion, and typically below .10 between Negative Emotionality and Extraversion. For the six broad and 15 primary traits, the intercorrelations were typically lower than for the higher-order traits, with median values between all scales of .35 for the adjudicated men and below .30 for the representative men. Appendix B shows the intercorrelation matrix between all personality traits by age and sample.

The final hierarchical structure was then submitted to CFA. The summary of the goodness-of-fit statistics are presented in the upper part of Table 4. The identification of the baseline model (see Figure 1 for the measurement model) revealed that all specified personality traits were statistically associated with their corresponding factors for each sample and at each measurement point. However, post hoc inspections of the LM tests suggested that some re-specifications should be added to this measurement model.² Overall, the model fit was not impressive, but all indices converged in suggesting the empirical adequacy of the hierarchical structure of personality traits.

Insert Table 4 about here

Regarding the cross-group invariance tests, the summary of the CFA goodness-of-fit statistics is presented in the lower part of Table 4. In the restricted model at age 17, 14 constraints were imposed and this model displayed an acceptable fit. Post hoc inspections of the LM tests suggested that two constraints did not meet the requirements for cross-group invariance and should be released.³ The $\Delta\chi^2$ test suggested that this re-specified model did not display important departures from the baseline models. At age 30, all the fit indices suggested that the model with the 14 constraints must be rejected. LM tests suggested that four constraints must be released.⁴ With these constraints released, the overall fit was not very good, but could be judged as acceptable. Finally, at age 40 the model with 14

² Cross-loadings between Egotism, Mistrust and Antisocial Values, Irritability and Tough-Mindedness, Sensation Seeking and Tough-Mindedness (except for adjudicated men at age 17), and between Alienation and Disinhibition improved the fit of the simple structure of the initial hypothesized model. Moreover, for the adjudicated men at age 15, cross loadings between Egotism, Passivity and Antisocial Values also improved the overall fit.

³ The two constraints are Passivity-Maladaptive Inhibition, Emotional Reactivity-Negative Emotionality.

⁴ The four constraints are Passivity-Maladaptive Inhibition, Sociability-Extraversion, Alienation-Negative Emotionality, Emotional Reactivity-Negative Emotionality. Note that this last constraint – suggested as being statistically non-invariant by LM tests – consisted of two parameters of similar magnitude. Indeed, tests of the equality constraints are sometimes too powerful and suggest non-invariance for parameters which show a difference of less than .10 in standardized statistics. This difference can be assumed to suggest no fundamental differences in a model. Taking this fact into account, the structural personality model can be thought of as even more invariant across groups. We thank Rick Hoyle for noticing us with this fact.

constraints displayed an adequate fit to the data, but LM tests suggested the release of three constraints.⁵ With this re-specified model, the $\Delta\chi^2$ test suggested no important departure from the baseline models. Overall, these results allowed the assumption of partial cross-group measurement invariance of the personality scales because the majority of the regression coefficients remained invariant at the three measurement points. This cross-group invariance is quite interesting because it is well known that normative and antisocial individuals typically display important differences in personality traits (Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985).

In summary, in identifying the baseline models of the hierarchical structure identified with the MTSLS data, some re-specifications were necessary to achieve good overall fit (i.e., allowing cross-loadings). It is not uncommon, however, even with carefully developed personality questionnaires, for the assumption of a simple structure to be rejected when tested through CFA (e.g., Church & Burke, 1994). Such results make common sense because personality should be considered as a set of intercorrelated predispositions within individuals (see Tellegen, 1991). It is quite interesting that the hierarchical structure that was identified with the JPI and EPQ items show clear conceptual similarities to other well-known personality structures. Particularly, the three higher-order traits clearly reproduced the Big-Three factor structure identified in many personality assessment devices (see the reviews by Clark & Watson, 1999; Matthews & Deary, 1998). Regarding the six broad personality traits, they show convergence with some primary traits of the Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire (Tellegen & Waller, in press). In addition, many of the 15 primary traits identified in this study, particularly those associated with Negative Emotionality, were conceptually similar to traits identified in dimensional models of personality disorders, for example in the Schedule for Nonadaptative and Adaptative Personality (SNAP) of Clark and in the Dimensional Assessment of Personality Pathology of Livesley (DAPP-BC; for a brief overview of the traits composing these instruments, see Clark & Livesley, 2002). Finally, in addition to some scales of the SNAP and the DAPP-BC, the primary traits associated to

⁵ The three constraints are Skepticism-Antisocial Values, Tough-Mindedness-Disinhibition, Alienation-Negative Emotionality. Note that the second of these constraints consists of parameters showing less .10 in standardized regression coefficients.

Disinhibition show conceptual similarities to the Watson and Clark's (1993) model of Disinhibition and to some psychopathic personality traits identified in the general population by Lilienfeld and Andrews (1996).

The relations between the new personality trait scales we identified with the MTSLS data and other well-known personality measures were also examined. The *Big-Five Inventory* (BFI, John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991), the *NEO-Five-Factor Inventory* (FFI, Costa & McCrae, 1992) and its 14 subcomponents (Saucier, 1998), the *International Personality Item Pool 50 Big-Five Markers* (IPIP50; Goldberg, 1999), as well as the original scales of the *Eysenck Personality Questionnaire* (EPQ; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1971) were used.

Data from a convenience sample of under-graduate students in social and health sciences (i.e., psychology, psychoeducation, criminology, and medicine) from University of Montreal were collected. This sample is composed of 278 participants, including 219 females and 59 males. Their ages range from 18 to 39 years (*Mode* = 21 years; $M = 22.3$ years ; $SD = 3.2$). Appendices C-1, C-2, and C-3 present the internal consistency indices for the MTSLS personality measures, the other brief Big-Five personality measures, and the 14 subcomponents of the NEO-FFI respectively. For the new structure, the values are satisfactory, they are even higher than in the MTSLS's representative sample.

Appendices D-1 and D-2 shows the bivariate correlations (Pearson product-moment correlations) between the MTSLS's traits and the Big-Five measures and the 14 subcomponents of the NEO-FFI respectively. Afterwards, using the MTSLS's traits as well as the Big-Five and Eysenck scales, we extracted five factors through principal components analyses with varimax rotation. Appendix E-1 presents the analysis with the MTSLS's three higher-order traits, Appendix E-2 presents the analysis with the six broad traits, and *Appendix E-3* presents the analysis with the 15 primary traits. Finally, Appendix E-4 shows the results with the MTSLS's 15 primary traits and the 14 subcomponents of the NEO-FFI.

Generally, the relations among these traits are conceptually coherent. The traits associated to Negative Emotionality are clearly related to the Neuroticism scales, particularly

the broad trait of Emotional Reactivity. The traits associated to Extraversion are also undoubtedly related to other conceptually similar scales. In addition to Negative Emotionality, the traits associated to Alienation show non-trivial positive correlations to Disinhibition measures as well as negative correlations to Extraversion measures. The traits associated to Disinhibition are strongly negatively related to Agreeableness, particularly the traits associated to Tough-Mindedness. The traits related to Disinhibition are also negatively related to Conscientiousness, but less prominently. The primary trait of Impulsiveness and Passivity also seem non-trivially negatively related to Conscientiousness. Lastly, as it could be expected, none of the MTSLS's traits show clear relation to Openness to Experience.

STUDY 2

Assessing Continuity and Change in Personality Traits

The second study aimed at assessing continuity and change in personality traits for both samples of men from the MTSLS. In order to determine whether personality traits can be assumed to be on the same measurement scale across time, structural continuity was first assessed. Then, in order to determine the extent to which the men tend to remain in the same relative position within their respective group, rank-order continuity was examined. Finally, with the aim of documenting the possible differences in personality maturation between men from the general population and men who were adjudicated during their adolescence, mean-level continuity was compared in the two samples.

Statistical Analyses

In order to test structural continuity of personality, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted. The invariance across time tests were performed with the same logic as cross-group invariance tests in EQS (Bentler, 1995). All the regression coefficients were constrained to be invariant across all measurement points.⁶ The parameters

⁶ By default, the EQS program computed all possible pairs of comparisons. Thus, for the adjudicated men sample, for each estimated parameter, six age intervals comparisons were performed (i.e., ages 15-17, 15-30, 15-40, 17-30, 17-40, 30-40), while three were computed for the representative men sample (i.e., ages 17-30, 17-40, 30-40).

were assumed to measure the factors in a comparable way across time (i.e., structural continuity of personality) if the fit of the models with all parameters constrained was not significantly worse than the baseline models. However, if the fit of the constrained models was worse than the baseline models because some parameters vary while others do not, then this situation indicated partial structural continuity of personality (see Byrne et al., 1989). As for the cross-group invariance tests, only the factor loadings were constrained to be invariant across all measurement points. All statistics and fit indices reported for the cross-group invariance tests were also reported for the structural continuity tests.

In order to examine rank-order continuity of personality, Pearson product-moment correlations with two-tailed tests of significance were computed for the personality measures and for the two samples separately across all possible pairs of measurement points: 15-17 years, 15-30 years, 15-40 years, 17-30 years, 17-40 years, and 30-40 years.

Because there were no personality data for the representative men at age 15, in order to estimate mean-level continuity of personality, a series of matched-sample *t*-tests between ages 15 and 17 were first performed for the adjudicated men. Then, in order to compare the two samples, three 2 (samples) \times 3 (measurement occasions) repeated measures MANOVAs were conducted, one for each level of the hierarchical structure. Planned polynomial contrasts adjusted for unequal time intervals were also estimated in order to determine if personality change from adolescence to midlife can be more accurately described by a linear or a quadratic trend during the two periods of the life course (i.e., 17-30, 30-40 years). Eta squared (η^2) was calculated as a measure of effect size. It indicates the proportion of the total variance that is accounted for by the different tests.

For the rank-order and mean-level continuity tests, all analyses were done with raw scores with the SPSS program, while for the CFA, cross-group invariance and structural continuity tests, the covariance matrices were analyzed with the EQS program. For the structural continuity tests, the total sample available at each measurement point was used (see Table 1).

Attrition Analyses

It is possible that the men who were assessed on all occasions during the complete 25-year period manifested distinct developmental pattern in personality compared to those who were lost. Thus, it was important to test if attrition in the two samples was non-random before examining continuity and change in personality. Table 1 reports the main reasons for attrition in the MTSLS. There were clear differences between samples when the men reached midlife. Of the 470 adjudicated adolescents, only 34% ($N = 160$) were interviewed four times. These men were more difficult to keep involved in the study, particularly because they were harder to find (i.e., more frequent moving) and they often refused to participate. It is worth noting that there were many more deaths in this sample as compared with the representative one. These reasons for attrition were less frequent in the representative sample, where 60.3% ($N = 276$) of the men were interviewed at all measurement occasions. In order to verify the hypothesis of non-random attrition, the men for whom personality data were available at all measurement points were compared with the non-completers with six MANOVAs performed on the personality scales, one for each trait level and for each sample. No statistical difference was observed for any personality trait for the adjudicated men sample at age 15. The same result was obtained for the representative men sample at age 17. Thus, the adjudicated and representative men who completed the personality questionnaires on all occasions from adolescence to midlife can be assumed as being roughly representative of the initial samples.

Results and Discussion

Structural Continuity

In general, the patterns and magnitude of the correlations were similar for both samples and at each measurement point. However, they tended to increase across time, particularly for the adjudicated men. The summary of the CFA goodness-of-fit statistics is presented in Table 5. For the adjudicated men, 42 constraints were imposed on the regression coefficients and all fit indices indicated that this restricted model displayed an acceptable fit

to the data. Examination of the LM tests suggested that for nine regression coefficients, the invariance hypothesis was not tenable.⁷ The model was re-estimated after releasing these nine constraints and showed a better fit. Indeed, the $\Delta\chi^2$ test suggested a minor departure from the baseline models. These results allowed us to assume partial structural continuity of personality for adjudicated men because 78.6% of the constraints remained invariant. For the representative men, 28 constraints were imposed on the regression coefficients. As can be seen in Table 5, the fit of this restricted model was not impressive, although the relative fit indices were acceptable. Again, LM tests suggested that seven constraints did not meet the requirements of longitudinal invariance.⁸ A new model was tested after releasing these seven constraints. This new model displayed a better fit, but the $\Delta\chi^2$ test suggested that the departure from the baseline models is more important for the representative men than for the adjudicated men. Again, these results allowed us to assume partial structural continuity of personality for the representative men because 75% of the constraints remained invariant from adolescence to midlife.

Insert Table 5 about here

The formal tests of the structural continuity of personality revealed that the assumption of the total longitudinal invariance of the personality structure was not tenable. However, the fact that the majority of factor loadings remained invariant from adolescence to midlife in the two samples allowed us to assume *partial structural continuity of personality*.

⁷ The nine released constraints for the adjudicated men sample are Mistrust-Alienation, 15-17, 15-40; Anxiousness-Emotional Reactivity, 15-17, 15-40; Sociability-Extraversion, 15-30, 15-40; Antisocial Values-Disinhibition, 15-30, 15-40; Alienation-Negative Emotionality, 15-17. Note that the third, sixth, eighth, and ninth of these constraints consist of parameters showing less .10 in standardized regression coefficients. Thus, taking this into account, the hierarchical structure of personality traits can be thought of as even more invariant across time.

⁸ The seven constraints released for the representative men sample are Egotism-Tough-Mindedness, 17-30; Social Anxiety-Maladaptive Inhibition, 17-30; Sensation Seeking-Extraversion, 17-30; Alienation-Emotional Reactivity, 17-30, 17-40; Emotional Reactivity-Negative Emotionality, 17-30, 17-40. Note that the fourth and fifth of these constraints consist of parameters showing less .10 in standardized regression coefficients.

Overall, absolute and relative goodness-of-fit indices converged to indicate an acceptable fit of the hypothesized models. Indeed, such results are impressive because constraining the relations between the traits of a three-level hierarchical structure to be equal across four measurement points for the adjudicated sample and three measurement points for the representative sample represents a very stringent statistical test.

In summary, the personality traits identified with the MTSLS data can be assumed to be on the same measurement scale across time. Even if the correlations between traits were stronger for adjudicated men and increased with age, CFA tended to suggest that no important changes occurred in the personality structure over a 25-year period. This supports Costa and McCrae's claim (1997) and replicates the results of others researchers using longitudinal data (e.g., Robins et al., 2001).

Rank-Order Continuity

The correlations are presented in Table 6. All the correlations were statistically significant except those for Extraversion, its two primary traits, Sensation Seeking and Sociability, as well as Affective Distress for the representative men between ages 17 and 30 and ages 17 and 40. They ranged from .01 to .71, explaining up to 50% of the variance. Most of the highest correlations were between ages 30 and 40 for both samples and between ages 15 and 17 for the adjudicated men. The correlations between the adolescent and adult years were much lower, generally in the range of .20 to .40. For both samples, they were somewhat similar between ages 17 and 30 and between ages 17 and 40. Overall, the same patterns were observed for the different trait levels, although correlations for the three higher-order traits tend to be slightly stronger. It is worth noting that the correlations for Disinhibition and its associated traits seemed stronger in adolescence, while they tended to be stronger for Negative Emotionality and its associated traits in adulthood. Extraversion correlations were the weakest regardless of age, particularly for the representative sample. In summary, as expected from previous studies, correlations increased with age, decreased as the time interval between assessments increased, and were at their strongest magnitude for the more advanced age intervals.

Insert Table 6 about here

The estimates of rank-order continuity were generally similar to those observed in previous studies (Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Costa & McCrae, 1997; Roberts & DelVecchio, 1999). The magnitude of the correlations was comparable to what was reported in Roberts and DelVecchio's (2000) meta-analysis. They were stronger between the ages of 30 and 40 for the majority of the traits in both samples, at around .65. At first glance, uncorrected correlations of this magnitude support McCrae and Costa's (1990) claim that the personality profile is largely fixed by the age of 30. Indeed, these estimates tend to suggest that age 30 is a cardinal point after which personality shows stronger stability. However, this conclusion may be premature because the last age interval analyzed in our study ranged from ages 30 to 40. Moreover, Roberts and DelVecchio's (2000) meta-analysis clearly showed that rank-order personality continuity does not peak until the fifties.

Considering specific personality traits, results stood out for Extraversion and its two primary traits (Sensation Seeking and Sociability) as well as for Affective Distress for the representative men. In their meta-analysis, Roberts and DelVecchio (2000) observed that traits related to Agreeableness and Extraversion were more consistent than those related to other Big-Five traits. The strong correlations observed in Disinhibition and its associated traits, which are conceptually negatively linked to Agreeableness, support their findings, while the low correlations for Extraversion in this study did not converge with their conclusions. However, Carmichael and McGue (1994) also observed a low correlation of .13 between ages 16 and 35 for their male sample.

A new finding of the present study is that the estimates of rank-order personality continuity seem to also apply to a special population sample of adjudicated adolescents. However, these men showed the highest estimates of rank-order continuity. Therefore, the adjudicated men, as compared with individuals from the general population, tend to maintain

to a higher degree their rank-order in their group, during adolescence as well as during adulthood. This is surprising because some data suggest that individuals from homogeneous clinical samples (with restricted ranges of scores) typically display less consistency than those in heterogeneous population-based samples (Schuerger, Zarrella, & Hotk, 1989). The results of the present study tend to contradict this observation because the adjudicated men, who represent a more heterogeneous group if we compare their standard deviations to those of the representative men, displayed significantly more variability in personality scores, due in part to some extreme cases. Whatever the level of homogeneity in the samples, the rank-order continuity estimates were stronger for the adjudicated men. One could argue that this stronger continuity is due to the greater importance of attrition in this sample, but this is unlikely for two reasons. First, no significant differences were observed in attrition analyses. Second, Roberts and DelVecchio (2000) showed that the effect of sample attrition does not seem to have a great impact on rank-order continuity estimates.

Mean-Level Continuity

In order to interpret the mean-level continuity tests, means and standard deviations in raw scores for all personality scales are presented in Table 7. In addition, to illustrate the general trends of change across time, we plotted mean *T*-scores by age and sample for each personality trait. Appendix F-1 draws the scores for the three higher-order traits, while Appendix F-2 and Appendix F-3 respectively show the *T*-scores for the six broad traits and the 15 primary traits. Because personality data were not available for the representative men at age 15, matched-sample *t*-tests were performed for the adjudicated sample between ages 15 and 17. At the three higher-order-trait level, Disinhibition ($t(121) = 4.57, p < .0001$) and Negative Emotionality ($t(121) = 6.85, p < .0001$) decreased significantly, but Extraversion remained stable ($t(121) = -0.13, ns$). At the six broad-trait level, there were decreases in Tough-Mindedness ($t(121) = 4.38, p < .0001$), Antisocial Values ($t(121) = 3.80, p < .0001$), Alienation ($t(121) = 7.31, p < .0001$), Maladaptive Inhibition ($t(121) = 5.99, p < .0001$), and Emotional Reactivity ($t(121) = 4.12, p < .0001$). As mentioned above, Extraversion remained stable. Finally, at the 15 primary-trait level, there were decreases in Malignant Egotism ($t(121) = 2.36, p < .05$), Callous Hostility ($t(121) = 3.55, p < .001$), Impulsiveness (t

($t(121) = 5.40, p < .0001$), Societal Skepticism ($t(121) = 4.82, p < .0001$), Mistrust ($t(121) = 5.79, p < .0001$), Self-Criticism ($t(121) = 6.27, p < .0001$), Schizotypy ($t(121) = 5.95, p < .0001$), Social Anxiety ($t(121) = 4.13, p < .0001$), Passivity ($t(121) = 5.63, p < .0001$), Anxiousness ($t(121) = 4.07, p < .0001$), Affective Distress ($t(121) = 3.18, p < .01$), and Sensation Seeking ($t(121) = 2.39, p < .05$). In contrast, there were slight increases in Sociability ($t(121) = -2.41, p < .05$). Authority Opposition ($t(121) = 1.66, ns$) and Irritability ($t(121) = 1.94, ns$) were the only personality traits which remained stable from ages 15 to 17 for the adjudicated adolescents.

Insert Tables 7 and 8 and Figure 2 about here

Regarding the comparison of the samples across time through repeated measures MANOVA, at the higher-order trait level, using Wilk's lambda as the criterion, the multivariate omnibus tests of between-subject ($\Lambda = .84; F(3, 389) = 25.22; p < .0001$) and within-subject ($\Lambda = .53; F(6, 386) = 57.65; p < .0001$) were significant. The multivariate test of interaction Time \times Sample was also significant ($\Lambda = .92; F(6, 386) = 5.72; p < .0001$). This revealed that the trend of change across time, for all personality traits considered simultaneously, was not parallel for the two samples. The results of the univariate tests of the MANOVA and the within-subject contrasts are reported in Table 8. The between-subject tests confirmed that the adjudicated men displayed higher scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality. However, the samples were similar in Extraversion. Using eta squared as the measure of effect size, Disinhibition appeared to be the trait that best distinguish the two samples.

For the change across time, because the multivariate test of interaction was significant, the interaction Time \times Sample tests (parallelism tests) were examined more thoroughly.⁹

⁹ Mauchly's tests of sphericity of the variance-covariance matrix of the within-subject effects (flatness tests) were significant for nearly every personality trait. Consequently, the Greenhouse-Geisser correction was applied for the univariate tests presented in Table 7.

If a univariate interaction test was not significant, then the within-subject test was examined. All change across time tests for the three higher-order traits were significant. Eta squared indicated that Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality are the best traits accounting for differences across time between the samples. The interaction tests were significant for Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality, suggesting that there was a more accelerated decline for the representative men.

Table 8 also presents the results of the planned polynomial contrasts.¹⁰ All linear trend contrasts confirmed the significant decrease in the three traits. Only the quadratic contrast for Disinhibition was statistically significant. The quadratic trend was barely significant for Negative Emotionality. The means revealed that from ages 17 to 30, the representative men displayed a more accelerated decrease in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality. The polynomial contrasts of interaction suggested that from ages 30 to 40, the representative men continued to display a more accelerated decrease in Disinhibition, while the decline was similar for both samples in Negative Emotionality. Eta squared revealed that for both traits, however, this trend was not of large magnitude. Despite the fact that the linear trend contrast revealed a significant decrease in Extraversion for both samples, examination of the eta squared value and of the means suggested that this decrease was much smaller than for the other two traits, particularly in the adjudicated men.

Turning to the six broad-trait level, the between-subject ($\Lambda = .75; F(6, 386) = 21.12; p < .0001$), within-subject ($\Lambda = .51; F(12, 380) = 30.79; p < .0001$), and interaction Time \times Sample ($\Lambda = .89; F(12, 380) = 4.12; p < .0001$) multivariate tests were all significant. Overall, the same patterns of results were observed as for the three higher-order traits. The between-subject tests revealed that the adjudicated men displayed higher scores in all traits except in Extraversion. Eta squared suggested that Antisocial Values and Alienation were the traits that best distinguish the groups. All the univariate time effect tests and planned linear trend contrasts were also significant. The quadratic trend contrasts revealed that the decrease

¹⁰ For these tests, the Bonferroni correction was applied to limit the familywise error inflation. Familywise alpha was set to .05, so each individual test must be conducted at .01 level of significance for the three higher-order traits, at .008 for the six broad traits, and at .003 for the 15 primary traits analyses.

was more accelerated for the representative men between ages 17 and 30 in Antisocial Values, Alienation, and Emotional Reactivity, while they displayed a more accelerated decrease between ages 30 and 40 in Tough-Mindedness, Alienation, and Extraversion. It is worth noting that the representative men displayed similar scores than the adjudicated men in Emotional Reactivity at age 17, even though a significant difference was observed for the higher-order trait of Negative Emotionality.

At the 15 primary-trait level, the between-subject ($\Lambda = .66; F(15, 377) = 12.94; p < .0001$), within-subject ($\Lambda = .41; F(30, 362) = 17.06; p < .0001$), and interaction Time \times Sample ($\Lambda = .78; F(30, 362) = 3.33; p < .0001$) multivariate tests were again significant. All between-subject tests were significant, confirming that the adjudicated men displayed higher scores in every primary trait, except in Social Anxiety, Affective Distress, and Sociability. All the changes across time univariate tests and linear trend contrasts were also significant, confirming the decreasing trend, except for Sociability. Only Sociability between ages 17 and 30 and ages 30 and 40, and Malignant Egotism between ages 30 and 40 showed no change, particularly for the adjudicated men. The quadratic trend contrasts revealed that between ages 17 and 30, there was a more accelerated decrease for the representative men in nearly every primary trait, except in Malignant Egotism, Callous Hostility, Passivity, and Sensation Seeking. From ages 30 to 40, the decrease rate was similar for both samples.

In summary, the adjudicated men displayed higher scores in nearly every maladaptive personality trait from adolescence to midlife. This observation is recurrent in the literature: antisocial individuals typically display more negative temperamental and personality characteristics as compared with normative individuals (Eysenck, 1989; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985). The notable exceptions are Sociability, Social Anxiety, and Affective Distress. It is interesting to note that all of these three traits tap social and interpersonal adjustment, suggesting that antisocial individuals are not typically different in this domain. Also, the two groups of men did not differ in the higher-order trait of Extraversion. Past research findings were contradictory for this trait because some researchers observed differences between antisocial and normative individuals, while others did not (Eysenck, 1989; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985).

The overall pattern of results regarding mean-level continuity revealed a systematic decrease in nearly all traits, at all levels of the personality structure considered. The linear decreasing trend was of strong magnitude for nearly all traits. Moreover, a number of significant quadratic trends of non-trivial magnitude revealed that, in general, between the ages of 17 and 30 the representative men displayed a higher change rate as compared with the adjudicated men. Between the ages of 30 and 40, the change rate was similar for both samples. In other words, the adjudicated men showed a stronger personality continuity during the transition from adolescence to early adulthood. From ages 17 to 40, personality changes in the representative men were of more than one standard deviation for the majority of traits. From ages 15 to 40, the adjudicated men also displayed changes of nearly one standard deviation. For both samples of the MTSLS, these results were similar to those from previous longitudinal studies assessing conceptually similar traits during the same period of the life course (e.g., Carmichael & McGue, 1994; Costa & McCrae, 1988; Haan et al., 1986; Helson et al., 2002; Roberts et al., 2001; Roberts, 1997; Robins et al., 2001; Stein, Newcomb, & Bentler, 1986; Viken, Rose, Kaprio, & Koskenvuo, 1994). For example, using the Multidimensional Personality Questionnaire, McGue et al. (1993) and Roberts et al. (2001) observed increases in Constraint (i.e., decreases in Disinhibition) and decreases in Negative Emotionality.

The case of Extraversion and its associated primary traits differed from the other traits. First, the two samples could not be distinguish across time for this trait. Second, this trait seemed more stable than the others, particularly for the adjudicated men. This relative continuity in Extraversion replicated results of other studies (e.g., Costa & McCrae, 1988; Haan et al., 1986; McGue et al., 1993; Robins et al., 2001; Stein et al., 1986). However, the present study suggested that this relative continuity can hide distinct developmental patterns. When examining results of the primary traits composing Extraversion, we observed that Sensation Seeking decreased, while Sociability showed no mean-level change from adolescence to midlife in the two samples. Costa et al. (2000) also observed this phenomenon for the facet scales of Extraversion: Warmth, Activity, and Excitement Seeking declined in adulthood, while Gregariousness, Assertiveness, and Positive Emotions remained stable.

Roberts et al. (2001) also observed that the higher-order dimension of Communal Positive Emotionality remained stable between ages 18 and 26, while at the primary-trait level, there were increases in Well-Being and decreases in Social Closeness.

Concerning the adjudicated men specifically, no other study tracing personality of such individuals was found in the literature, thus comparisons with past findings were impossible. However, the study of psychopathy continuity in a male prisoners sample by Harpur and Hare (1994) converged with the stronger continuity of the adjudicated men in the present study. Indeed, although based on cross-sectional data and representing a more extreme antisocial individual group, these researchers observed important mean-level decreases in Factor 2 of psychopathy (i.e., antisocial behavior and lifestyle) from late adolescence to the sixties, while Factor 1 (i.e., affective, cognitive and interpersonal functioning traits) remained quite stable. Moreover, considering the differences in the change rate in personality between the representative and adjudicated men, Jones and Meredith (2000) noted an interesting finding compatible with the results of the present study. They observed that individuals with greater psychological health during adolescence tended to show a more accelerated positive change during adulthood as compared with those with a weaker psychological health. In contrast, however, Roberts et al. (2001) observed that individuals displaying more maturity at age 18 tended to demonstrate less change through the age of 26.

The examination of mean-level continuity in the MTSLS data supports the hypothesis of a *normative personality maturation*. More specifically, considering the nature of the traits examined, this study supports the hypothesis of a *functional maturation of personality* (Roberts et al., in press). In reviewing results about personality change of the Big-Five traits, McCrae, Costa et al. (2000) stated that, “from age 18 to age 30 there are declines in Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Openness to experience, and increases in Agreeableness and Conscientiousness; after age 30 the same trends are found, although the rate of change seems to decrease” (p. 183). The present study clearly supports this assertion. It also suggests that this maturation is still a significant process after age 30 and that this age is not a crystallization point of personality development, for both representative and adjudicated men.

Because it has been observed in many different countries, McCrae, Costa et al. (2000) proposed that this trend should be considered as an endogenous *intrinsic* phenomenon and formulated an evolutionary explanation to account for this developmental process in personality traits (see also Buss, 1994). This proposition is challenging because it links two important explanations of personality maturation: genetic mechanisms and normative social transitions (e.g., entry into adult roles). Before assuming that personality maturation is genetically determined (i.e., intrinsic), however, more genetically informative data are needed (but see, e.g., McGue et al., 1993; Viken et al., 1994). Finally, even if the results of this study support the hypothesis of a normative maturation and stress the necessity of developmental theories of personality, they did not commend stage-based theories (e.g., Loevinger, 1976) because no evidence for discrete stages can be drawn from our data. However, the marked slowing of the maturation rate after age 30 in both samples may be an indication that these men have reached some sort of qualitatively distinct psychological adaptation by that age. It is also plausible that this phenomenon was more closely associated with the fact that by age 30, the majority of these men have desisted from the typical lifestyle of adolescence (e.g., loitering, affiliation with antisocial peers, delinquent behaviors, substance use, etc.; see Arnett, 1999) and have straightened their social bounds through involvement in stable and satisfying adult social roles such as full-time employment and marriage or conjugal relationships (Caspi, 1993, 1998).

General Discussion

The purpose of this study was to compare the personality development of men from the general population and men adjudicated during their adolescence (i.e., former delinquents). Before doing so, a defensible hierarchical structure of personality traits was identified. Then, continuity and change in personality were assessed. The data revealed partial structural continuity of personality. Rank-order continuity estimates were generally similar to those of past studies, and were stronger for adjudicated men. For mean-level continuity, the adjudicated men displayed significantly higher scores in nearly every trait related to Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality from adolescence to midlife, except in

Extraversion. Moreover, although both samples showed a psychological maturation from adolescence to midlife, the adjudicated men tended to display stronger personality continuity.

Which Factors Could Explain the Differences in Personality Development Between Representative and Adjudicated Men ?

It is well known that some personality traits predict antisocial behaviors such as criminality and substance use in the general population (Barnes, Murray, Patton, Bentler, & Anderson, 2000; Krueger, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2000; Miller & Lynam, 2001). Moreover, we have noted before that adjudicated individuals typically display an unfavorable personality profile as compared with normative individuals (Eysenck, 1989; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985). The present study adds to these findings in clearly showing that representative and antisocial individuals tend to follow different personality trajectories from adolescence to midlife. Unfortunately, no other comparable study helping to explain this difference was found in the psychological or criminological literature. Nevertheless, a number of potential explanatory factors can be emphasized.

Life-course or life-span theorists emphasized that individual development can be influenced by challenges inherent to three main developmental systems: age-graded systems, history-graded systems, and non-normative life events (e.g., Baltes, 1987, Caspi, 1998). The developmental period covered by the present study is recognized as one of the most challenging of the life span, particularly the transition from adolescence to early adulthood (see Arnett, 2000). For example, Haan et al. (1986) studied personality continuity during different periods of the life course ranging from 6 to 54 years of age. They observed most significant mean-level changes during late adolescence and early adulthood (17-30 years) as compared with earlier or later periods. They argued that this period of accelerated change in personality parallels the entry into adult roles and thus serves adaptive functions. While entering adulthood, individuals must adapt to a new lifestyle, which includes working, choosing a career, mating or marrying, starting a family and raising children. For some theorists, early adulthood personality changes in the direction of increased self-control, ability to plan, following societal rules, regulating emotions such as anxiousness, depression,

irritability and alienation, being more altruistic, trusting and engaging warmly with others all facilitate the recognition of societal expectations and the involvement in adult social roles (e.g., Allport, 1961; Caspi, 1998; Jessor, Donovan, & Costa, 1991; Roberts et al., *in press*). Therefore, this functional maturation in personality traits is probably closely related to age-graded changes in behavioral adjustment, and particularly to antisocial behavior. Indeed, some data suggest that the psychological maturation in personality traits seems to mirror the decrease in the variety, frequency, and seriousness of antisocial behavior. For example, Jessor et al. (1991) observed that the individuals of their longitudinal samples showed similar trends in psychological, social, and behavioral development. According to Jessor and his colleagues, "it is possible to characterize the transition from adolescence / youth to young adulthood for these samples as, for the most part, psychosocial development in the direction of conventionality. That provides a sharp contrast, indeed, with the earlier direction of development within the adolescent period itself" (pp. 178-179). Thus, a number of theorists postulated that the normative psychological maturation could be a prominent factor explaining desistance from antisocial behaviors such as criminal behaviors and substance use (e.g., DiClemente, 1994; Jessor et al., 1991; Le Blanc, 1997). This parallel course of personality and antisocial behavior can partly explain the stronger personality continuity of the adjudicated adolescents, especially because they typically manifest more stable antisocial behavior (e.g., Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Sampson & Laub, 1993).

A number of other factors could have been responsible for the stronger personality continuity (or slower maturation) of the adjudicated men. It is well known that antisocial behaviors such as delinquency and substance use are group phenomena and that antisocial individuals often affiliate with antisocial friends (e.g., Thornberry & Krohn, 1997). The stronger continuity for adjudicated men can also be accounted for by assortative mating. Antisocial individuals tend to marry or be involved in conjugal relationships with antisocial partners (Krueger, Moffitt, Caspi, Bleske, & Silva, 1998). These affiliations can reinforce antisocial tendencies and can, in turn, promote the personality consistency of the adjudicated men (Caspi & Herbener, 1990). This last group of explanations can be subsumed under the "niche seeking" hypothesis which is an active selection and shaping of the environment by individuals according to their predispositions (Scarr & McCartney, 1983). A closely related

factor is the effect of heritability. McGue et al. (1993) observed that a part of the continuity in personality traits can be explained by heritability. Some data suggest that genetic mechanisms could also be responsible for the stronger personality continuity in the adjudicated men as compared with the representative men. Indeed, because heritability effect seems to gain importance from adolescence to adulthood in explaining antisocial behavior (Lyons et al., 1995), this in turn could suggest that the genetic influence becomes stronger across time for the adjudicated men's personality profile. However, this genetic effect may be accounted for by a small group of men only, those who follow a persistent antisocial trajectory (Moffitt, 1993). In addition to this constitutive background, antisocial individuals are typically exposed to a constellation of unfavorable environmental factors (e.g., Jessor et al., 1991; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Sampson & Laub, 1993). For example, Sampson and Laub (1993) showed that adjudicated adolescents have difficulty adjusting to societal expectations related to adult roles and could therefore be deprived of a powerful factor favoring personality maturation (see Caspi, 1993, 1998).

In summary, we have proposed some plausible hypotheses that could explain the slower maturation (or stronger continuity) of the adjudicated men as compared with the representative men. However, studies are needed to test these hypotheses and identify other potential factors and mechanisms associated with the psychological maturation observed in both samples.

Strengths and Limitations

A first strength of this study rests on the prospective longitudinal data collected on four occasions during the life course. However, more measurement occasions within the same age span would have been more powerful. A second strength is the cross-cultural component of this study. Indeed, age-related changes in personality have rarely been documented in a French-speaking population in North America, as it was done in this study. A third strength is that this was the first study to compare personality development in a representative sample of men and a sample of men adjudicated during their adolescence (i.e., former delinquents). Because the results are similar, at least in trend but not in level, they

support the generalizability of the present research. However, these two samples represent single-birth cohorts. Thus, continuity and change in personality traits could be influenced by the specific social, economic and cultural context of the province of Quebec from the early seventies to the late nineties.

Despite these strengths, this study suffered some limitations. The first limitation is contingent on the personality measures identified with the MTSLS data. Although we demonstrated conceptual similarities with other personality traits, the structure derived in the present study is not a well-known model on which past research findings could be compared. Moreover, the imperfect psychometric properties of the scales could have been a confounding factor in the analysis of personality continuity. For example, there were only a few reverse-scored items, thus acquiescence or social desirability remain potential problems for a number of scales. In addition, the lower internal consistency of the scales for the representative men could perhaps partly explain the lower personality continuity for these men. However, because the personality continuity results generally replicated those of previous studies, we can assume that these personality scales are indicators of meaningful dispositions. A second limitation is that only personality traits were traced over time. Dispositional traits constitute fundamental units of personality, but are not the only ones. McAdams (1994b) made a strong case for studying other levels of personality such as personal concerns and life narratives because each of them can exhibit distinct developmental patterns. A third limitation is contingent on the sole use of self-report questionnaires. However, despite biases associated with that source of information, years of empirical research suggest that this assessment strategy generally provides reliable and valid information (e.g., Robins & John, 1997). Thus, it is unlikely that measurement artifacts associated with self-reports particularly influence the personality continuity results (see also Costa & McCrae, 1997). A fourth limitation concerns a possible regression artifact towards the mean for the analysis of mean-level continuity for the adjudicated adolescents between the ages of 15 and 17. Indeed, the individuals' selection for this sample was based on their antisocial behaviors, suggesting that they are likely to demonstrate extreme characteristics on many personality measures used in this study. However, this possible re-testing effect is certainly less important between the ages of 17 and

30 and the ages of 30 and 40 because there were at least 10 years separating the two waves of data collection. A fifth limitation is that these results only apply to men.

Conclusion

This study, in addition to a number of other recent longitudinal investigations, suggests that the polarization of opposing viewpoints “continuity and change” or “plaster and plasticity” seems inappropriate. Both continuity and change are observable. On the one hand, the magnitude of the rank-order continuity estimates, particularly during adulthood, clearly showed that individual differences in personality tend to be quite stable across time. This supports a central assumption of the trait position. On the other hand, the mean-level continuity assessment revealed a non-trivial maturational trend towards a better psychological adjustment from adolescence to midlife. This indicates that traits are not developmentally static predispositions. Moreover, measurement invariance across groups and across time suggests that personality traits are meaningful constructs for studying very different types of individuals. However, men from a special population sample, such as former delinquents, and those from the general population show clear differences in personality development. Much research needs to be done on the antecedents, correlates and outcomes of personality development in the general population. Many more inquiries are needed for a better understanding of the underlying factors and mechanisms explaining the differences in personality development between different kinds of populations. This is a critical issue for contemporary personality theory.

Table 1*Sample Size and Attrition in the Montreal Two-Sample Longitudinal Study (MTSLS)*

| Sample | T1 15 years | T2 17 years | T3 30 years | T4 40 years | Total % at T4 |
|---------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|------------------|
| <i>Adjudicated Men</i> | | | | | |
| Not found | — | 63 | 78 | 37 | 37.9 |
| Deaths | — | 6 | 27 | 13 | 9.8 |
| Refused | — | 5 | 45 | 51 | 21.5 |
| Completed | 470 | 396 | 246 | 160 | 34.0 |
| Interviews | | | | | |
| Age range | 13-18 | 15-20 | 28-34 | 39-43 | |
| Mean age (SD) | 15.1 (0.9) | 17.1 (0.9) | 31.7 (1.2) | 40.8 (1.0) | |
| <i>Representative Men</i> | | | | | |
| Not found | — | — | 87 | 6 | 20.3 |
| Deaths | — | — | 9 | 1 | 2.2 |
| Refused | — | — | 53 | 25 | 17.0 |
| Completed | 1611 | 458 | 309 | 276 | 60.3 |
| interviews | | | | | |
| Age range | 12-16 | 14-18 | 27-33 | 37-42 | |
| Mean age (SD) | 14.3 (1.4) | 16.2 (1.3) | 30.3 (1.3) | 39.4 (1.4) | |

Note. Personality data were not collected at age 14 for the representative sample and, at that time, a random subset of that sample was re-interviewed two years later, at an average age of 16 ($N = 458$).

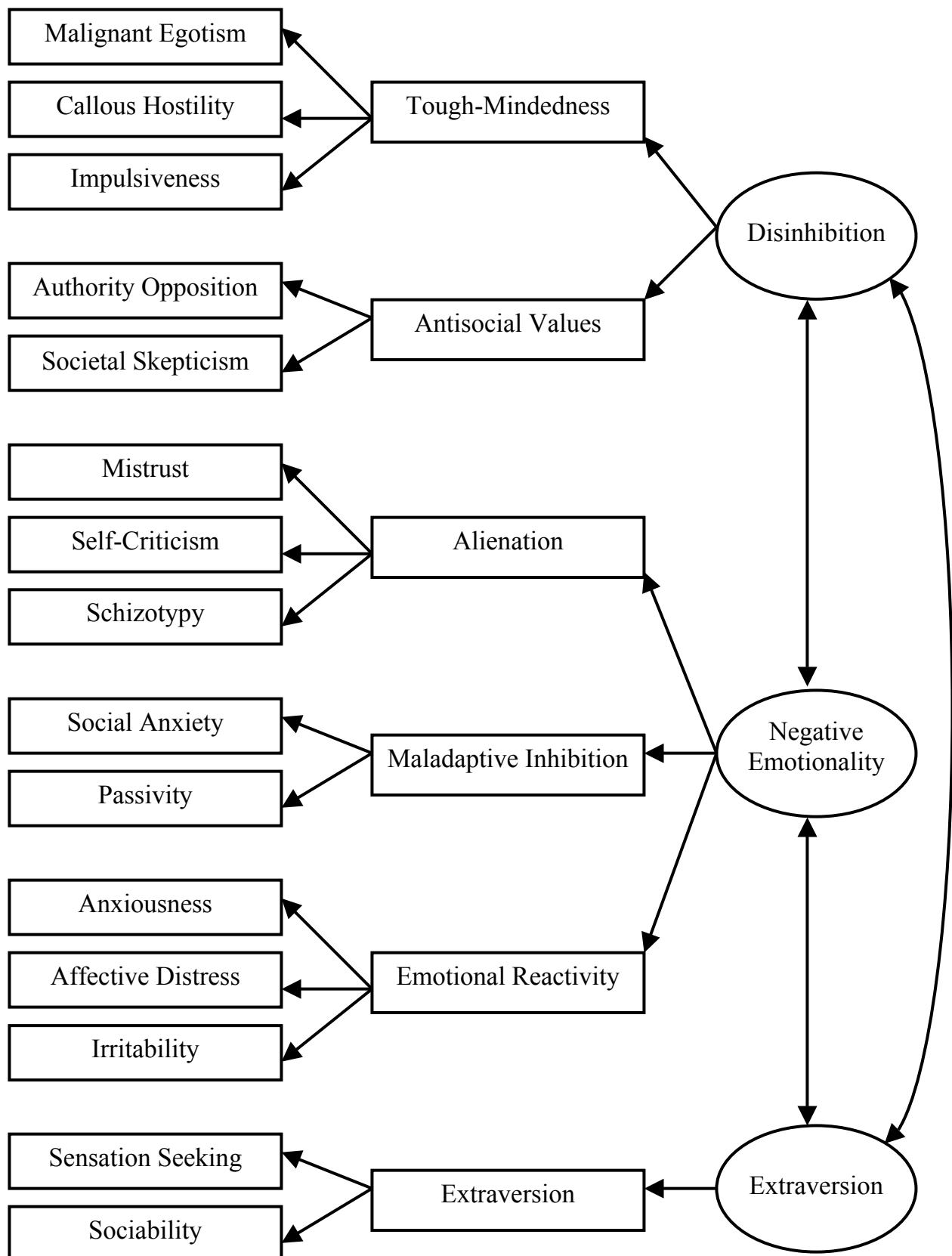


Figure 1. Measurement Model of the Hierarchical Structure of Personality Traits

Table 2*Brief Descriptions of the Personality Trait Scales*

| Personality Traits | Self-Description of a High Scorer |
|------------------------------|---|
| Disinhibition | <i>Has poor cognitive, affective, and behavioral control; rejects societal norms and endorses antisocial values.</i> |
| Tough-Mindedness | Is wicked and egocentric, has poor consideration for others, reacts impulsively. |
| Malignant Egotism | Has bad thoughts and plans in mind, does not mind acting badly, considers himself tougher and smarter than others. |
| Callous Hostility | Does what is forbidden, is rude and lies to others, is ruthless and insensitive to the suffering of others. |
| Impulsiveness | Can do anything for a dare, acts on the spur of the moment without thinking. |
| Antisocial Values | Rejects conventional social norms, endorses values supporting rebelliousness, dishonesty, and retaliation. |
| Authority Opposition | Disrespects law enforcement officers, considers that cheating, corrupting or law-breaking is not so bad. |
| Societal Skepticism | Feels parents, teachers or bosses are overbearing and inequitable, considers that to succeed in life you have to be tough and fight your way through. |
| Negative Emotionality | <i>Feels alienated from others; is inhibited; experiences high levels of emotional reactivity.</i> |
| Alienation | Has poor confidence in others, perceives himself as inadequate, feels there is something wrong with his mind. |
| Mistrust | Considers that people often lie and gossip about him, are unfair and do not really care about him. |
| Self-Criticism | Feels that others seem happier and that things are easier to others, blames himself when things go wrong. |
| Schizotypy | Considers that strange things happen to him, feels sad, homeless, and alone even in the presence of others. |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | Is inhibited in interpersonal and public situations, has low levels of activity and attention. |
| Social Anxiety | Is shy, self-conscious and nervous when talking to strangers or in front of a group. |
| Passivity | Is prone to daydreaming, is carefree, considers that there is not much to be done in order to overcome difficulties. |
| Emotional Reactivity | Experiences high levels of anxiety, has depressing and distressing moods, is easily angered. |
| Anxiousness | Is nervous, prone to worry, manifests somatic symptoms such as shaking, palpitations and sleeplessness. |
| Affective Distress | Feels easily hurt, discouraged, guilty and inferior, is preoccupied by what others think of him. |
| Irritability | Throws tantrums about many things, cannot take much teasing or criticism. |
| Extraversion | <i>Seeks pleasurable experiences by establishing relations with others, searches for excitement.</i> |
| Sensation Seeking | Searches for thrilling and exciting activities, is energetic and active. |
| Sociability | Is outgoing, prefers being with people, is socially confident and assertive. |

Note. Definitions constructed according to the descending order of the item loadings for each personality trait scale.

Table 3

Number of Items and Internal Consistency of the Personality Traits by Age and Sample

| | Items | Adjudicated Men | | | | Representative Men | | |
|------------------------------|-------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------------|----------------|----------------|
| | | T1 15 years | T2 17 years | T3 30 years | T4 40 years | T2 17 years | T3 30 years | T4 40 years |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | 72 | .90 | .92 | .91 | .94 | .84 | .86 | .85 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 35 | .84 | .86 | .84 | .89 | .72 | .77 | .70 |
| Malignant Egotism | 13 | .69 | .70 | .66 | .76 | .61 | .60 | .54 |
| Callous Hostility | 13 | .64 | .68 | .66 | .71 | .51 | .54 | .52 |
| Impulsiveness | 9 | .67 | .72 | .71 | .80 | .50 | .61 | .52 |
| Antisocial Values | 37 | .83 | .86 | .86 | .89 | .76 | .77 | .78 |
| Authority Opposition | 15 | .73 | .80 | .79 | .84 | .66 | .66 | .63 |
| Societal Skepticism | 22 | .74 | .77 | .76 | .81 | .66 | .66 | .68 |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | 108 | .93 | .94 | .97 | .97 | .87 | .94 | .95 |
| Alienation | 40 | .87 | .89 | .92 | .92 | .78 | .85 | .87 |
| Mistrust | 17 | .74 | .79 | .85 | .85 | .60 | .74 | .75 |
| Self-Criticism | 12 | .65 | .70 | .76 | .76 | .49 | .62 | .67 |
| Schizotypy | 11 | .72 | .73 | .80 | .81 | .66 | .72 | .74 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 27 | .75 | .77 | .84 | .86 | .65 | .82 | .82 |
| Social Anxiety | 11 | .65 | .65 | .76 | .77 | .55 | .75 | .77 |
| Passivity | 16 | .68 | .70 | .77 | .80 | .59 | .73 | .73 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 41 | .87 | .88 | .92 | .94 | .74 | .90 | .90 |
| Anxiousness | 21 | .79 | .81 | .86 | .88 | .62 | .82 | .84 |
| Affective Distress | 11 | .70 | .70 | .80 | .82 | .60 | .76 | .78 |
| Irritability | 9 | .65 | .72 | .80 | .82 | .50 | .72 | .71 |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | 24 | .58 | .62 | .72 | .75 | .57 | .74 | .75 |
| Sensation Seeking | 10 | .51 | .49 | .67 | .64 | .41 | .61 | .66 |
| Sociability | 14 | .50 | .59 | .71 | .71 | .56 | .70 | .70 |

Note. Internal consistency estimates calculated with the Kuder-Richardson formula (KR-20).

Table 4

Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analyses and Cross-Group Invariance Tests: Summary of Goodness-of-Fit Statistics

| Models | χ^2 | df | χ^2/df | $\Delta\chi^2$ | Δdf | $\Delta\chi^2/df$ | CFI | NNFI | SRMSR |
|---|----------|-----|-------------|----------------|-------------|-------------------|-----|------|-------|
| <i>Confirmatory Factor Analyses (Baseline models)</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| Adjudicated Men | | | | | | | | | |
| 15 years | 261.8* | 79 | 3.3 | — | — | — | .93 | .91 | .09 |
| 17 years | 193.0* | 76 | 2.5 | — | — | — | .95 | .92 | .04 |
| 30 years | 152.4* | 77 | 1.9 | — | — | — | .95 | .93 | .05 |
| 40 years | 140.0* | 77 | 1.8 | — | — | — | .91 | .88 | .08 |
| Representative Men | | | | | | | | | |
| 17 years | 125.4* | 77 | 1.6 | — | — | — | .96 | .94 | .04 |
| 30 years | 141.1* | 77 | 1.8 | — | — | — | .96 | .93 | .05 |
| 40 years | 147.3* | 77 | 1.9 | — | — | — | .92 | .90 | .05 |
| <i>Cross-Group Measurement Invariance</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| 17 years | | | | | | | | | |
| All factor loadings constrained to be invariant | 354.2* | 161 | 2.2 | 35.8* | 8 | 4.4 | .94 | .92 | .05 |
| Two constraints released | 322.6* | 159 | 2.0 | 4.2 | 6 | 0.7 | .95 | .94 | .04 |
| 30 years | | | | | | | | | |
| All factor loadings constrained to be invariant | 385.8* | 169 | 2.2 | 92.3* | 15 | 6.1 | .92 | .90 | .10 |
| Four constraints released | 339.9* | 165 | 2.0 | 46.4* | 11 | 4.2 | .93 | .92 | .08 |
| 40 years | | | | | | | | | |
| All factor loadings constrained to be invariant | 330.4* | 168 | 1.9 | 43.1* | 14 | 3.0 | .90 | .88 | .09 |
| Three constraints released | 309.3* | 165 | 1.8 | 22.0* | 11 | 2.0 | .91 | .90 | .07 |

Note. CFI = Bentler Comparative Fit Index, NNFI = Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index, SRMSR = Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual.

* $p < .001$.

Table 5*Structural Continuity: Summary of Goodness-of-Fit Statistics*

| Models | χ^2 | df | χ^2/df | $\Delta\chi^2$ | Δdf | $\Delta\chi^2/df$ | CFI | NNFI | SRMSR |
|---|----------|-----|-------------|----------------|-------------|-------------------|-----|------|-------|
| <i>Cross-Time Measurement Invariance</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| Adjudicated Men (15-40 years) | | | | | | | | | |
| All factor loadings constrained to be invariant | 889.9* | 348 | 2.5 | 142.7* | 39 | 3.6 | .92 | .91 | .10 |
| Nine constraints released | 816.1* | 339 | 2.4 | 68.9* | 30 | 2.2 | .93 | .92 | .08 |
| Representative Men (17-40 years) | | | | | | | | | |
| All factor loadings constrained to be invariant | 554.8* | 259 | 2.1 | 141.0* | 28 | 5.0 | .91 | .90 | .07 |
| Seven constraints released | 496.7* | 252 | 1.9 | 82.9* | 21 | 3.9 | .93 | .91 | .06 |

Note. CFI = Bentler Comparative Fit Index, NNFI = Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index, SRMSR = Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual.

* $p < .001$.

Table 6*Rank-Order Continuity: Correlation Coefficients by Sample*

| | Adjudicated Men | | | | | | Representative Men | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------------|----------------|----------------|
| | 15-17 years | 15-30 years | 15-40 years | 17-30 years | 17-40 years | 30-40 years | 17-30 years | 17-40 years | 30-40 years |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | .59*** | .51*** | .37*** | .48*** | .40*** | .68*** | .39*** | .40*** | .64*** |
| Tough-Mindedness | .57*** | .48*** | .36*** | .50*** | .43*** | .66*** | .36*** | .34*** | .51*** |
| Malignant Egotism | .50*** | .37*** | .23** | .41*** | .39*** | .49*** | .43*** | .33*** | .41*** |
| Callous Hostility | .47*** | .34*** | .29** | .52*** | .41*** | .61*** | .16** | .17** | .46*** |
| Impulsiveness | .60*** | .43*** | .37*** | .34*** | .36*** | .60*** | .22*** | .20** | .43*** |
| Antisocial Values | .53*** | .38*** | .30*** | .42*** | .36*** | .66*** | .31*** | .35*** | .67*** |
| Authority Opposition | .47*** | .27** | .22* | .36*** | .30** | .59*** | .19** | .27*** | .60*** |
| Societal Skepticism | .51*** | .43*** | .32*** | .42*** | .36*** | .67*** | .33*** | .33*** | .62*** |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | .50*** | .32*** | .36*** | .38*** | .42*** | .68*** | .37*** | .33*** | .71*** |
| Alienation | .46*** | .31** | .38*** | .41*** | .42*** | .66*** | .29*** | .30*** | .61*** |
| Mistrust | .47*** | .31** | .32*** | .42*** | .40*** | .65*** | .17** | .20** | .59*** |
| Self-Criticism | .31** | .22** | .25** | .27** | .29** | .55*** | .23*** | .23*** | .44*** |
| Schizotypy | .36*** | .23** | .35*** | .36*** | .38*** | .53*** | .22*** | .31*** | .45*** |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | .50*** | .26** | .28** | .31** | .38*** | .69*** | .42*** | .40*** | .65*** |
| Social Anxiety | .43*** | .22* | .18* | .37*** | .34*** | .58*** | .40*** | .43*** | .65*** |
| Passivity | .50*** | .25** | .29** | .25** | .31*** | .65*** | .32*** | .29*** | .55*** |
| Emotional Reactivity | .47*** | .34*** | .31*** | .38*** | .37*** | .65*** | .22*** | .19** | .69*** |
| Anxiousness | .43*** | .29** | .22** | .42*** | .30** | .66*** | .24*** | .20** | .65*** |
| Affective Distress | .43*** | .26** | .23** | .22** | .25** | .49*** | .08 | .04 | .58*** |
| Irritability | .32*** | .26** | .21* | .28** | .30** | .52*** | .24*** | .19** | .54*** |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | .40*** | .27** | .27** | .24** | .18* | .63** | .07 | .10 | .68*** |
| Sensation Seeking | .34*** | .32*** | .20* | .24** | .20* | .56*** | .11 | .11 | .62*** |
| Sociability | .42*** | .21* | .23** | .24** | .17 | .59*** | .01 | .05 | .63*** |

Note. Listwise analyses, for adjudicated men, $N = 122$, for representative sample, $N = 269$.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$, Pearson product-moment correlations with two-tailed tests.

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations in Raw Scores by Age and Sample

| | Adjudicated Men | | | | | | | | Representative Men | | | | | |
|------------------------------|-----------------|-------|----------|-------|----------|-------|----------|-------|--------------------|-------|----------|-------|----------|-------|
| | 15 years | | 17 years | | 30 years | | 40 years | | 17 years | | 30 years | | 40 years | |
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | 34.90 | 12.71 | 29.89 | 13.85 | 24.37 | 10.89 | 23.33 | 12.43 | 24.60 | 8.66 | 17.01 | 8.09 | 14.15 | 7.10 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 15.85 | 6.99 | 13.22 | 7.24 | 10.52 | 5.71 | 9.98 | 6.54 | 11.05 | 4.61 | 7.99 | 4.36 | 6.43 | 3.60 |
| Malignant Egotism | 6.00 | 2.99 | 5.35 | 3.10 | 3.87 | 2.29 | 3.99 | 2.71 | 4.18 | 2.41 | 3.19 | 1.89 | 2.79 | 1.73 |
| Callous Hostility | 5.77 | 2.69 | 4.87 | 2.73 | 4.21 | 2.50 | 3.70 | 2.56 | 4.01 | 1.95 | 3.14 | 1.95 | 2.49 | 1.73 |
| Impulsiveness | 4.08 | 2.51 | 3.00 | 2.39 | 2.43 | 2.09 | 2.30 | 2.21 | 2.86 | 1.60 | 1.67 | 1.58 | 1.15 | 1.19 |
| Antisocial Values | 19.05 | 6.95 | 16.66 | 7.31 | 13.85 | 6.46 | 13.34 | 7.08 | 13.55 | 5.07 | 9.01 | 4.60 | 7.72 | 4.34 |
| Authority Opposition | 8.31 | 3.48 | 7.75 | 3.86 | 6.35 | 3.51 | 5.95 | 3.65 | 5.86 | 2.73 | 3.59 | 2.37 | 2.92 | 2.09 |
| Societal Skepticism | 10.74 | 4.22 | 8.92 | 4.16 | 7.50 | 3.60 | 7.39 | 4.03 | 7.69 | 3.18 | 5.43 | 2.87 | 4.81 | 2.82) |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | 52.46 | 17.55 | 41.58 | 17.38 | 36.40 | 20.17 | 31.05 | 20.18 | 38.46 | 11.80 | 25.96 | 14.76 | 21.98 | 14.54 |
| Alienation | 19.09 | 7.68 | 13.90 | 7.42 | 11.34 | 7.85 | 9.52 | 7.23 | 10.99 | 4.78 | 6.00 | 4.53 | 5.01 | 4.37 |
| Mistrust | 8.43 | 3.71 | 6.40 | 3.78 | 5.07 | 3.72 | 4.45 | 3.64 | 5.22 | 2.39 | 3.05 | 2.56 | 2.63 | 2.47 |
| Self-Criticism | 5.89 | 2.39 | 4.25 | 2.53 | 3.37 | 2.53 | 2.89 | 2.34 | 3.04 | 1.74 | 1.68 | 1.58 | 1.49 | 1.51 |
| Schizotypy | 4.78 | 2.63 | 3.25 | 2.37 | 2.90 | 2.58 | 2.18 | 2.39 | 2.73 | 2.07 | 1.27 | 1.55 | 0.89 | 1.33 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 13.07 | 5.11 | 10.38 | 4.78 | 8.66 | 5.52 | 7.61 | 5.39 | 9.47 | 4.03 | 6.76 | 4.66 | 5.70 | 4.35 |
| Social Anxiety | 5.41 | 2.49 | 4.41 | 2.51 | 4.20 | 2.85 | 3.81 | 2.70 | 4.70 | 2.31 | 3.60 | 2.62 | 3.07 | 2.59 |
| Passivity | 7.66 | 3.47 | 5.97 | 3.12 | 4.46 | 3.26 | 3.80 | 3.39 | 4.77 | 2.62 | 3.16 | 2.71 | 2.64 | 2.52 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 20.30 | 7.74 | 17.30 | 7.79 | 16.41 | 9.29 | 13.92 | 9.52 | 18.00 | 5.86 | 13.20 | 7.83 | 11.27 | 7.82 |
| Anxiousness | 9.75 | 4.41 | 8.05 | 4.18 | 8.38 | 4.85 | 7.31 | 5.20 | 8.02 | 3.39 | 6.43 | 4.33 | 5.30 | 4.34 |
| Affective Distress | 5.67 | 2.46 | 4.89 | 2.61 | 4.78 | 2.97 | 3.95 | 2.90 | 5.51 | 2.17 | 4.38 | 2.58 | 3.89 | 2.60 |
| Irritability | 4.88 | 2.40 | 4.36 | 2.63 | 3.25 | 2.62 | 2.66 | 2.49 | 4.47 | 1.99 | 2.39 | 2.03 | 2.07 | 1.92 |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | 15.63 | 3.36 | 15.67 | 3.36 | 14.08 | 4.02 | 13.82 | 4.11 | 15.22 | 3.15 | 14.13 | 3.96 | 12.81 | 4.00 |
| Sensation Seeking | 6.22 | 2.04 | 5.74 | 1.88 | 4.78 | 2.58 | 4.32 | 2.29 | 5.44 | 1.67 | 4.09 | 2.19 | 3.29 | 2.20 |
| Sociability | 9.41 | 2.17 | 9.93 | 2.31 | 9.30 | 2.57 | 9.50 | 2.75 | 9.77 | 2.33 | 10.04 | 2.57 | 9.52 | 2.69 |

Table 8

Mean-Level Continuity: Results of the Univariate Tests and Planned Contrasts of the Repeated Measures MANOVA

| | Planned Contrasts | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|------------------------|---------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|-------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| | Time | | | | Time × Sample | | | | Linear | | Quadratic | | | |
| | Between (Sample) | | Within (Time) | | Time × Sample | | F | | η ² | | F | | η ² | |
| | F | η ² | F | η ² | F | η ² | F | η ² | F | η ² | F | η ² | F | η ² |
| Disinhibition | 75.26*** | .16 | 138.87*** | .26 | 7.20** | .02 | 205.82*** | .35 | 21.84*** | .05 | 11.30** | .03 | 0.03 | .00 |
| Negative Emotionality | 30.72*** | .07 | 127.91*** | .25 | 10.42*** | .03 | 213.15*** | .35 | 3.54 ^a | .01 | 10.02** | .03 | 11.02** | .03 |
| Extraversion | 2.94 | .01 | 42.31*** | .10 | 2.50 | .01 | 66.07*** | .15 | 1.13 | .00 | 0.74 | .00 | 5.56* | .01 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 39.70*** | .09 | 100.33*** | .20 | 3.08* | .01 | 161.15*** | .29 | 9.50** | .02 | 4.85* | .01 | 0.42 | .00 |
| Antisocial Values | 92.76*** | .19 | 116.23*** | .23 | 9.12*** | .02 | 168.96*** | .30 | 24.36*** | .06 | 13.89*** | .03 | 0.81 | .00 |
| Alienation | 76.87*** | .16 | 137.53*** | .26 | 7.99** | .02 | 230.28*** | .37 | 11.39** | .03 | 5.68* | .01 | 11.12** | .03 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 15.05*** | .04 | 86.15*** | .18 | 2.36 | .01 | 149.19*** | .28 | 3.61 ^a | .01 | 2.96 | .01 | 1.58 | .00 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 7.48** | .02 | 63.44*** | .14 | 10.84*** | .03 | 103.93*** | .21 | 0.00 | .00 | 11.15** | .03 | 10.35** | .03 |
| Extraversion | 2.94 | .01 | 42.31*** | .10 | 2.50 | .01 | 66.07*** | .15 | 1.13 | .00 | 0.74 | .00 | 5.56* | .01 |
| Malignant Egotism | 29.15*** | .07 | 60.94*** | .14 | 1.89 | .01 | 88.22*** | .18 | 19.70*** | .05 | 0.01 | .00 | 4.73* | .01 |
| Callous Hostility | 34.80*** | .08 | 54.05*** | .12 | 1.04 | .00 | 92.88*** | .19 | 0.01 | .00 | 1.73 | .00 | 0.08 | .00 |
| Impulsiveness | 23.68*** | .06 | 67.27*** | .15 | 10.69*** | .03 | 115.76*** | .23 | 5.58* | .01 | 18.80*** | .05 | 0.38 | .00 |
| Authority Opposition | 119.39*** | .23 | 96.07*** | .20 | 6.64** | .02 | 146.45*** | .27 | 15.65*** | .04 | 10.16** | .03 | 1.02 | .00 |
| Societal Skepticism | 48.84*** | .11 | 77.08*** | .17 | 6.89** | .02 | 109.98*** | .22 | 19.50*** | .05 | 10.67** | .03 | 0.28 | .00 |
| Mistrust | 46.31*** | .11 | 92.07*** | .19 | 3.85* | .01 | 148.49*** | .28 | 11.85** | .03 | 3.48 ^a | .01 | 4.37* | .01 |
| Self-Criticism | 85.81*** | .18 | 80.98*** | .17 | 2.29 | .01 | 135.27*** | .26 | 9.91** | .03 | 0.41 | .00 | 4.74* | .01 |
| Schizotypy | 52.72*** | .12 | 76.68*** | .16 | 11.50*** | .03 | 140.09*** | .26 | 0.88 | .00 | 9.96** | .03 | 13.35*** | .03 |
| Social Anxiety | 2.45 | .01 | 32.22*** | .08 | 7.12** | .02 | 57.26*** | .13 | 0.07 | .00 | 10.81** | .03 | 2.39 | .01 |
| Passivity | 26.97*** | .07 | 87.37*** | .18 | 0.17 | .00 | 144.88*** | .27 | 7.37** | .02 | 0.02 | .00 | 0.36 | .00 |
| Anxiousness | 13.98*** | .04 | 24.86*** | .06 | 10.12*** | .03 | 37.41*** | .09 | 3.55 ^a | .01 | 12.51*** | .03 | 6.06* | .02 |
| Affective Distress | 0.01 | .00 | 30.65*** | .07 | 4.66** | .01 | 51.12*** | .12 | 0.52 | .00 | 3.14 ^a | .01 | 6.89* | .02 |
| Irritability | 7.06** | .02 | 124.90*** | .24 | 6.92** | .02 | 202.85*** | .34 | 17.62*** | .04 | 5.87* | .02 | 8.38** | .02 |
| Sensation Seeking | 16.99*** | .04 | 93.31*** | .19 | 3.51* | .01 | 158.99*** | .29 | 2.48* | .01 | 6.03* | .02 | 0.02 | .00 |
| Sociability | 0.80 | .00 | 2.26 | .01 | 4.70 | .01 | 3.54 ^a | .01 | 0.03 | .00 | 0.44 | .00 | 12.12** | .03 |

Note. For the three analyses, univariate within-subjects and interaction effects $df = 2, 782$; planned contrasts and between-subjects effect $df = 1, 391$. Within-subjects and interaction df adjusted with Greenhouse-Geisser correction. Polynomial contrasts adjusted for unequal time intervals.

^a $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$.

Appendix A

Items Composing all the Personality Traits Identified in the Montreal Two-Sample Longitudinal Study (MTSLS)

Disinhibition

Tough-Mindedness

Malignant Egotism (13 items)

- J124. My mind is full of bad thoughts.
 - J100. I have a lot of bad things on my mind that people don't know about.
 - J138. When I want to be, I'm good at outsmarting others.
 - J142. For my size, I'm really pretty tough.
 - J152. Sometimes it seems like I'd rather get into trouble, instead of trying to stay away from it.
 - J40. Winning a fight is about the best fun there is.
 - J93. It seems easier for me to act bad than to show my good feelings.
 - J99. I would never back down from a fight.
 - J62. I have a real mean streak in me.
 - J79. Being called "weak" or "soft" is about the worst thing I know.
 - J96. It takes someone pretty smart to put one over on me.
 - J123. I really think I have a better personality than most other people I know.
 - J6. I am smarter than most people I know.
-

Callous Hostility (13 items)

- J71. It's fun to give the police a bad time.
 - J70. A lot of time I do things that my family (my bosses) tells me I shouldn't do.
 - J27. Sometimes it feels good to put one over on somebody.
 - J118. I don't mind lying if I'm in trouble.
 - J126. Sometimes when my family tells me not to do something, I go ahead and do it anyway.
 - J43. I get a kick out of getting some people angry.
 - J11. When somebody orders me to do something I usually feel like doing just the opposite.
 - E33. When people shout at you, do you shout back ?
 - E26. Would it upset you a lot to see a child or animal suffer ? (R)
 - E13. Do you sometimes like teasing animals ?
 - E39. Would you feel very sorry for an animal caught in a trap ? (R)
 - E71. Do you try not to be rude to people ? (R)
 - E5. Do you enjoy hurting people you love ?
-

Impulsiveness (9 items)

- J29. When I get really angry, I'll do just about anything.
 - J101. I will do a lot of crazy things if somebody dares me.
 - E16. Would you do almost anything for a dare ?
 - J22. A person like me fights first and asks questions after.
 - J10. Sometimes I feel like I want to beat up somebody.
 - E8. Do you stop and think things before doing anything ? (R)
 - J60. If somebody does something mean to me, I try to get back at them.
 - E20. Do you often do things on the spur of the moment ?
 - E32. Would you take drugs which may have strange or dangerous effects ?
-

Appendix A (continued)

Antisocial Values

Authority Opposition (15 items)

- J64. Police usually treat you dirty.
 J32. Police stick their noses into a lot of things that are none of their business.
 J20. Most police are pretty dumb.
 J90. Policemen and judges will tell you one thing and do another.
 J14. If the police don't like you, they will try to get you for anything.
 J130. The people who run things are usually against me.
 J147. Stealing isn't so bad if it's from a rich person.
 J44. Nowadays they make it a big crime to get into a little mischief.
 J9. Most police will try to help you. (R).
 J98. It doesn't seem wrong to steal from crooked store owners.
 J15. A person is better off if he doesn't trust people.
 J81. If a bunch of you are in trouble, you should stick together on a story.
 J12. Most people will cheat a little in order to make some money.
 J51. If someone in your family gets into trouble it's better for you to stick together than to tell the police.
 J7. It makes me mad that some crooks get off free. (R)
-

Societal Skepticism (22 items)

- J103. Parents are always nagging and picking on young people.
 J61. You can hardly ever believe what parents (or bosses) tell you.
 J83. Teachers (or bosses) always have favourites who can get away with anything.
 J112. Most people get into trouble because of bad luck.
 J59. Most parents (or bosses) seem to be too strict.
 J94. Too many people like to act big and tough.
 J97. Talking over your troubles with another person is usually a waste of time.
 J148. My family seems to think I might end up being a bum.
 J54. Most people in authority are bossy and overbearing.
 J119. A person who won't fight is just no good.
 J120. To get along all right nowadays, a person has to be pretty tough.
 J77. If I only have more money, things at home would be all right.
 J132. Most people who act so perfect are just putting on a big front.
 J55. I don't care if people like me or not.
 J116. If you want to get ahead, you can't worry too much about the other guy.
 J1. When you're in trouble, it's best to keep quiet about it.
 J38. Only a baby cries when he is hurt.
 J13. A person never knows when he will get mad, or have trouble.
 J58. I think that boys fourteen years old are old enough to smoke.
 J145. Sometimes the only way to really settle something is to fight it out.
 J48. Sometimes people treat grown boys and girls like they were babies.
 J122. If you're not in with the right people, you may be in for some real trouble.
-

Appendix A (continued)

Negative Emotionality

Alienation

***Mistrust* (17 items)**

- J72. A lot of people say bad things about me behind my back.
 J143. People hardly ever give me a fair chance.
 E51. Do people tell you a lot of lies ?
 J35. I hardly ever get a fair break.
 E15. Are there people who wish to harm you ?
 E53. Do you think some people try to avoid you ?
 J107. At home I am too often blamed for things I don't do.
 E63. When people are friendly do you wonder whether they really mean it ?
 J125. When you're in trouble, nobody much cares to help you.
 J110. A lot of women seem bossy and mean.
 J30. Women seem more friendly and happy than men.
 E21. Is there someone else who is to blame for most of your problems ?
 E24. Would you have done better if people had not put difficulties on your way ?
 J18. People always seem to favour certain persons a head of others.
 J33. A lot of fathers don't seem to care if they hurt your feelings.
 E29. Do people generally seem to take offence easily ?
 J151. Families argue too much.
-

***Self-Criticism* (12 items)**

- J111. Nobody seems to understand me or how I feel.
 J53. It often seems like something bad happens when I'm trying my best to do what is right.
 J76. Other people are happier than I am.
 J74. It seems like people keep expecting me to get into some kind of trouble.
 E37. Are you usually very unlucky ?
 J36. Others seem to do things easier than I can.
 J63. I don't think I will ever be a success or amount to much.
 E43. Do your friendships break up easily without it being your fault ?
 E9. Have you had more trouble than most ?
 J155. When I get into trouble, it's usually my own fault.
 J129. When something bad happens, I almost always blame myself instead of the other person.
 E57. When things go wrong is it usually your own fault ?
-

***Schizotypy* (11 items)**

- J41. A lot of strange things happen to me.
 J67. I often feel lonesome and sad.
 J23. I have very strange and funny thoughts in my mind.
 J149. Things don't seem real to me.
 J153. I think there is something wrong with my mind.
 J56. It seems like wherever I am I'd rather be somewhere else.
 J17. Sometimes I feel like I don't really have a home.
 J137. I feel alone even when there are other people around me.
 E7. Do you generally feel well ? (R)
 J80. When I'm alone I hear strange things.
 J42. I have all the friends I need. (R)
-

Appendix A (continued)

Maladaptive Inhibition

***Social Anxiety* (11 items)**

- J73. I wish I wasn't so shy and self-conscious.
 - J25. I get nervous when I ask someone to do me a favour.
 - J66. Its hard for me to show people how I feel about them.
 - J102. Having to talk in front of a group makes me afraid.
 - J91. It is hard for me to talk to my family and parents about my troubles.
 - E18. Do you suddenly feel shy when you want to talk to an attractive stranger ?
 - J139. I always hate it when I have someone for a favour.
 - J31. It is easy for me to talk to strangers. (R)
 - E72. Would you say that you were fairly self-confident ? (R)
 - J114. Talking with my parents is just as easy as talking with others my own age. (R)
 - E68. Do you generally understand why people feel the way they do ? (R)
-

***Passivity* (16 items)**

- J144. I like to daydream more than anything else.
 - J65. Most of the time I can't seem to find anything to do.
 - J52. I can't seem to keep my mind on anything.
 - J105. I sit and daydream more than I should.
 - J50. When things go wrong, there isn't much can do about it.
 - J133. When luck is against you, there isn't much you can do about it.
 - E31. Do you daydream a lot ?
 - J16. Sometimes I wish I could get away and forget about everything.
 - J26. If I could, I'd just as soon quit school or my job right now.
 - J127. It's best not to think about your problems.
 - J131. I have too much trouble making up my mind.
 - E49. Do you very often just sit and do nothing ?
 - E62. Are you slow and unhurried in the way you move ?
 - E4. Are you usually carefree ?
 - E17. Do you let your dreams warn or guide you ?
 - E52. Do you like the kind of work that you need to pay close attention to ? (R)
-

Appendix A (continued)

Emotional Reactivity

Anxiousness (21 items)

- E70. Would you call yourself a nervous person ?
 E38. Would you call yourself tense or « highly-strung » ?
 J121. I worry most of the time.
 J146. I am nervous.
 E54. Do you attacks of shaking or trembling ?
 J34. I am secretly afraid of a lot of things.
 J47. Sometimes I feel dizzy for no reason.
 E22. Do you often worry about things you should not have done ?
 E80. Do you suffer from sleeplessness ?
 E46. Do ideas run through your head so that you cannot sleep ?
 J82. I have a lot of headaches.
 E50. Do you get palpitations or thumping in your heart ?
 J28. I notice my heart beats very fast when people keep asking me questions.
 E11. Do you worry a lot about catching illnesses ?
 E61. Do you worry about awful things that might happen ?
 J4. I worry too much about doing the right things.
 J106. I feel sick to my stomach every once in a while.
 E42. After you have done something important, do you often come away feeling you could have done better ?
 E60. Do a lot of different thoughts often come into your mind when you are trying to talk to someone ?
 E78. Do you worry about your health ?
 J150. I feel better when I know exactly what will happen from one day to the next.
-

Affective Distress (11 items)

- E25. Are your feelings rather easily hurt ?
 E14. Do you ever feel « just miserable » for no good reason ?
 E35. Are you often troubled by feelings of guilt ?
 E76. Are you troubled with feelings of inferiority ?
 J8. My feelings get hurt easily when I am criticized.
 J21. I worry about what other people think of me.
 E45. Do you care a lot about what others think of you ?
 E2. Do you often need understanding friends to cheer you up ?
 J49. It makes me feel bad to be bawled out or criticized.
 E28. Are you sometimes bubbling over with energy and sometimes very sluggish ?
 E64. Do you have many nightmares ?
-

Irritability (9 items)

- J154. I get angry very quickly.
 E58. Are you an irritable person ?
 J37. I seem to "blow up" a lot over little things that really don't matter very much.
 J117. At times I feel like blowing up over little things.
 E10. Does your mood often go up and down ?
 E73. Are you easily hurt when people find fault with you or your work ?
 J86. I can't seem to take much kidding or teasing.
 E6. Do you find it very hard to take no for an answer ?
 J68. I don't mind it when I'm teased and made fun of. (R)
-

Appendix A (continued)

Extraversion

***Sensation Seeking* (10 items)**

- J109. At night when I have nothing to do I like to go out and find a little excitement.
 E1. Do you often long for excitement ?
 J89. I keep wishing something exciting would happen.
 E27. Do you like going out a lot ?
 E66. Do you like talking to people so much that you never miss a chance of talking to a stranger ?
 E65. Do you normally speak rather loudly ?
 J104. Some day I would like to drive a race car.
 J2. It makes me nervous to sit still very long.
 J45. It would be interesting to work in a carnival.
 E12. Do you generally do and say things quickly without stopping to think ?
-

***Sociability* (14 items)**

- E40. Do other people think of you as being very lively ?
 E36. Can you usually let yourself go and enjoy yourself a lot at a gay party ?
 E77. Can you easily get some life into a rather dull party ?
 E75. Do you find it hard to really enjoy yourself at a lively party ? (R)
 E79. Do you like playing pranks on others ?
 J85. I would usually prefer to be alone than with others. (R)
 E23. Generally do you prefer reading to meeting people ? (R)
 E56. Do you hate being with a crowd who play jokes on one another ? (R)
 E44. Are you mostly quiet when you are with other people ? (R)
 E69. Would you be very unhappy if you could not see lots of people most of the time ?
 J128. I hardly ever feel excited or thrilled. (R)
 E59. Do you like doing things in which you have to act quickly ?
 E48. If there is something you want to know about, would you rather look it up in a book or than talk to someone about it ? (R)
 J84. Every day is full of things that keep me interested.
-

Note. J = *Jesness Personality Inventory (JPI; Jesness, 1983)*, E = *Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1971)*, R = Reverse scored items.

Appendix B

Intercorrelations Between the MTSLS Personality Traits by Age and Sample

| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 | |
|---------------------------|-----|------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|-----|----|--|
| 15 Years | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 1. Disinhibition | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2. Negative Emotionality | .45 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3. Extraversion | .21 | .11 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4. Tough-Mindedness | .90 | .44 | .31 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5. Antisocial Values | .90 | .43 | .09 | .63 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6. Alienation | .55 | .89 | .10 | .45 | .53 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7. Maladaptive Inhibition | .44 | .79 | -.04 | .37 | .42 | .62 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8. Emotional Reactivity | .28 | .88 | .17 | .31 | .19 | .64 | .53 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9. Extraversion | .22 | .11 | — | .31 | .09 | .10 | -.04 | .17 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10. Malignant Egotism | .78 | .36 | .23 | .83 | .58 | .41 | .29 | .23 | .23 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 11. Callous Hostility | .74 | .32 | .25 | .82 | .51 | .32 | .31 | .21 | .25 | .49 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 12. Impulsiveness | .71 | .42 | .28 | .82 | .47 | .40 | .33 | .34 | .28 | .50 | .58 | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 13. Authority Opposition | .78 | .31 | .06 | .55 | .87 | .39 | .29 | .13 | .06 | .48 | .47 | .40 | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 14. Societal Skepticism | .81 | .45 | .10 | .57 | .90 | .54 | .44 | .21 | .10 | .54 | .44 | .43 | .58 | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 15. Mistrust | .50 | .77 | .10 | .39 | .51 | .89 | .51 | .54 | .10 | .34 | .28 | .34 | .36 | .54 | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 16. Self-Criticism | .48 | .74 | .08 | .40 | .48 | .83 | .56 | .51 | .08 | .39 | .24 | .34 | .37 | .47 | .61 | | | | | | | | | | |
| 17. Schizotypy | .41 | .78 | .08 | .38 | .36 | .82 | .53 | .60 | .08 | .31 | .29 | .34 | .28 | .36 | .58 | .56 | | | | | | | | | |
| 18. Social Anxiety | .16 | .59 | -.13 | .14 | .15 | .42 | .79 | .43 | -.13 | .10 | .12 | .13 | .06 | .21 | .34 | .38 | .36 | | | | | | | | |
| 19. Passivity | .53 | .69 | .04 | .45 | .50 | .60 | .86 | .45 | .04 | .36 | .36 | .39 | .40 | .49 | .49 | .53 | .51 | .36 | | | | | | | |
| 20. Anxiousness | .23 | .82 | .15 | .24 | .18 | .64 | .47 | .92 | .15 | .19 | .16 | .25 | .11 | .20 | .55 | .48 | .60 | .38 | .39 | | | | | | |
| 21. Affective Distress | .11 | .70 | .14 | .14 | .06 | .49 | .43 | .83 | .14 | .09 | .09 | .18 | .01 | .09 | .40 | .42 | .43 | .39 | .32 | .65 | | | | | |
| 22. Irritability | .37 | .60 | .14 | .43 | .24 | .40 | .43 | .70 | .14 | .31 | .31 | .46 | .21 | .22 | .32 | .33 | .40 | .30 | .40 | .46 | .42 | | | | |
| 23. Sensation Seeking | .37 | .37 | .72 | .41 | .25 | .35 | .19 | .37 | .72 | .35 | .27 | .39 | .18 | .26 | .29 | .30 | .31 | .04 | .25 | .34 | .32 | .23 | | | |
| 24. Sociability | .01 | -.14 | .83 | .10 | -.07 | -.13 | -.21 | -.05 | .83 | .04 | .13 | .08 | -.05 | -.07 | -.09 | -.13 | -.13 | -.21 | -.14 | -.05 | -.06 | .01 | .20 | | |

Note. Listwise analyses, for adjudicated men, $N = 122$, for representative sample, $N = 269$. Correlations for the representative sample are presented above the diagonal and those for the adjudicated sample are presented below the diagonal.

Appendix B (continued)

| 17 years | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
|---------------------------|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|
| 1. Disinhibition | .38 | .16 | | .86 | .88 | .47 | .38 | .19 | .16 | .72 | .60 | .57 | .69 | .78 | .40 | .30 | .36 | .14 | .45 | .13 | .06 | .24 | .21 | .06 |
| 2. Negative Emotionality | .53 | -.04 | | .37 | .37 | .81 | .74 | .80 | -.04 | .27 | .26 | .34 | .28 | .33 | .66 | .60 | .60 | .55 | .63 | .66 | .57 | .58 | .11 | -.14 |
| 3. Extraversion | .15 | .08 | | .18 | .11 | -.08 | -.07 | .02 | — | .13 | .12 | .14 | .08 | .10 | -.01 | -.06 | -.12 | -.11 | -.01 | .03 | .01 | .02 | .70 | .84 |
| 4. Tough-Mindedness | .92 | .54 | .20 | | .53 | .38 | .32 | .20 | .18 | .79 | .71 | .70 | .39 | .49 | .33 | .26 | .27 | .11 | .40 | .12 | .06 | .29 | .22 | .07 |
| 5. Antisocial Values | .93 | .52 | .09 | .71 | | .44 | .34 | .14 | .11 | .48 | .35 | .31 | .81 | .86 | .37 | .26 | .35 | .14 | .39 | .12 | .05 | .14 | .14 | .04 |
| 6. Alienation | .64 | .85 | .01 | .58 | .61 | | .53 | .43 | -.08 | .30 | .27 | .28 | .34 | .39 | .80 | .72 | .74 | .36 | .48 | .36 | .25 | .36 | .03 | -.13 |
| 7. Maladaptive Inhibition | .50 | .80 | .02 | .45 | .48 | .61 | | .36 | -.07 | .21 | .25 | .28 | .23 | .33 | .39 | .40 | .41 | .77 | .82 | .29 | .23 | .30 | .07 | -.16 |
| 8. Emotional Reactivity | .34 | .87 | .16 | .36 | .27 | .56 | .56 | | .02 | .09 | .12 | .26 | .12 | .11 | .36 | .31 | .30 | .27 | .30 | .82 | .77 | .65 | .14 | -.06 |
| 9. Extraversion | .15 | .08 | — | .20 | .09 | .01 | .02 | .16 | | .13 | .12 | .14 | .08 | .10 | -.01 | -.06 | -.12 | -.11 | -.01 | .03 | .01 | .02 | .70 | .84 |
| 10. Malignant Egotism | .77 | .44 | .10 | .82 | .60 | .52 | .31 | .27 | .10 | | .29 | .35 | .30 | .49 | .27 | .19 | .21 | .01 | .30 | .06 | .00 | .15 | .16 | .06 |
| 11. Callous Hostility | .76 | .40 | .18 | .83 | .58 | .40 | .39 | .26 | .18 | .48 | | .33 | .31 | .28 | .22 | .18 | .21 | .10 | .29 | .06 | .01 | .21 | .16 | .04 |
| 12. Impulsiveness | .74 | .52 | .21 | .81 | .57 | .52 | .42 | .38 | .21 | .51 | .57 | | .25 | .28 | .24 | .21 | .19 | .15 | .28 | .15 | .15 | .31 | .18 | .05 |
| 13. Authority Opposition | .79 | .33 | .08 | .59 | .86 | .42 | .30 | .15 | .08 | .46 | .54 | .45 | | .41 | .25 | .22 | .31 | .07 | .28 | .09 | .08 | .09 | .12 | .02 |
| 14. Societal Skepticism | .83 | .57 | .08 | .65 | .88 | .64 | .53 | .32 | .08 | .59 | .48 | .54 | .51 | | .36 | .21 | .29 | .16 | .36 | .10 | .01 | .14 | .12 | .04 |
| 15. Mistrust | .63 | .70 | .01 | .55 | .62 | .88 | .49 | .40 | .01 | .52 | .37 | .46 | .42 | .65 | | .40 | .35 | .22 | .40 | .31 | .21 | .30 | .04 | -.05 |
| 16. Self-Criticism | .53 | .72 | .01 | .48 | .50 | .82 | .53 | .48 | .01 | .45 | .30 | .43 | .31 | .55 | .57 | | .36 | .29 | .35 | .25 | .20 | .25 | .05 | -.12 |
| 17. Schizotypy | .44 | .75 | -.01 | .42 | .39 | .81 | .52 | .55 | -.01 | .33 | .31 | .41 | .30 | .38 | .55 | .56 | | .32 | .34 | .26 | .16 | .25 | -.02 | -.15 |
| 18. Social Anxiety | .20 | .60 | -.01 | .18 | .18 | .40 | .77 | .45 | -.01 | .11 | .18 | .17 | .03 | .27 | .29 | .35 | .39 | | .27 | .23 | .18 | .20 | -.01 | -.14 |
| 19. Passivity | .59 | .71 | .03 | .52 | .57 | .58 | .86 | .47 | .03 | .38 | .43 | .49 | .42 | .56 | .50 | .51 | .46 | .34 | | .23 | .19 | .27 | .12 | -.11 |
| 20. Anxiousness | .25 | .76 | .07 | .27 | .20 | .49 | .49 | .89 | .07 | .22 | .16 | .29 | .10 | .24 | .33 | .42 | .51 | .41 | .39 | | .45 | .25 | .07 | -.01 |
| 21. Affective Distress | .18 | .72 | .20 | .20 | .14 | .45 | .50 | .83 | .20 | .12 | .16 | .24 | .03 | .21 | .31 | .41 | .44 | .43 | .39 | .63 | | .37 | .10 | -.07 |
| 22. Irritability | .43 | .62 | .15 | .45 | .35 | .43 | .39 | .70 | .15 | .33 | .37 | .44 | .26 | .35 | .35 | .35 | .37 | .24 | .39 | .41 | .46 | | .16 | -.09 |
| 23. Sensation Seeking | .34 | .39 | .76 | .35 | .27 | .30 | .28 | .39 | .76 | .26 | .26 | .36 | .21 | .27 | .24 | .27 | .25 | .15 | .30 | .30 | .35 | .32 | | .20 |
| 24. Sociability | -.05 | -.19 | .84 | .00 | -.08 | -.24 | -.20 | -.08 | .84 | -.05 | .05 | .01 | -.04 | -.10 | -.19 | -.19 | -.22 | -.13 | -.19 | -.13 | .01 | -.04 | | .29 |

Note. Listwise analyses, for adjudicated men, $N = 122$, for representative sample, $N = 269$. Correlations for the representative sample are presented above the diagonal and those for the adjudicated sample are presented below the diagonal.

Appendix B (continued)

| 30 years | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
|---------------------------|------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|------|-----|------|-----|-----|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|------|
| 1. Disinhibition | .49 | .23 | | .89 | .90 | .56 | .53 | .39 | .24 | .70 | .73 | .66 | .72 | .82 | .60 | .15 | .30 | .38 | .52 | .34 | .26 | .39 | .44 | -.01 |
| 2. Negative Emotionality | .56 | | .01 | .47 | .54 | .70 | .80 | .89 | .01 | .32 | .43 | .36 | .36 | .54 | .66 | .28 | .43 | .72 | .64 | .82 | .71 | .69 | .22 | -.21 |
| 3. Extraversion | .30 | .19 | | .33 | .11 | .12 | -.11 | .01 | — | .30 | .19 | .31 | .07 | .11 | .11 | .07 | .05 | -.13 | -.06 | .01 | .02 | .00 | .83 | .85 |
| 4. Tough-Mindedness | .87 | .56 | .37 | | .62 | .50 | .39 | .35 | .33 | .79 | .78 | .77 | .49 | .58 | .50 | .18 | .27 | .26 | .40 | .28 | .26 | .36 | .47 | .10 |
| 5. Antisocial Values | .91 | .56 | .21 | .59 | | .52 | .56 | .35 | .11 | .48 | .54 | .44 | .81 | .90 | .58 | .09 | .27 | .42 | .53 | .33 | .21 | .33 | .32 | -.12 |
| 6. Alienation | .63 | .89 | .15 | .53 | .60 | | .52 | .45 | .12 | .43 | .38 | .36 | .33 | .54 | .85 | .54 | .60 | .42 | .46 | .45 | .29 | .35 | .29 | -.06 |
| 7. Maladaptive Inhibition | .47 | .78 | .01 | .41 | .43 | .61 | | .54 | -.11 | .22 | .39 | .30 | .40 | .55 | .48 | .19 | .34 | .85 | .84 | .48 | .40 | .45 | .09 | -.28 |
| 8. Emotional Reactivity | .53 | .91 | .26 | .51 | .44 | .68 | .58 | | .01 | .22 | .32 | .27 | .23 | .36 | .46 | .12 | .26 | .53 | .38 | .90 | .83 | .74 | .19 | -.16 |
| 9. Extraversion | .32 | .19 | — | .37 | .21 | .15 | .01 | .26 | | .30 | .19 | .31 | .07 | .11 | .11 | .07 | .05 | -.13 | -.06 | .01 | .02 | .00 | .83 | .85 |
| 10. Malignant Egotism | .68 | .36 | .32 | .77 | .47 | .40 | .19 | .32 | .32 | | .36 | .46 | .33 | .47 | .43 | .21 | .16 | .11 | .26 | .18 | .14 | .26 | .43 | .08 |
| 11. Callous Hostility | .69 | .44 | .28 | .83 | .44 | .41 | .40 | .36 | .28 | .40 | | .45 | .46 | .48 | .39 | .07 | .24 | .30 | .37 | .26 | .27 | .29 | .30 | .03 |
| 12. Impulsiveness | .71 | .57 | .28 | .78 | .52 | .46 | .41 | .57 | .28 | .42 | .54 | | .35 | .41 | .34 | .13 | .23 | .20 | .31 | .22 | .20 | .30 | .39 | .14 |
| 13. Authority Opposition | .79 | .44 | .21 | .51 | .86 | .48 | .33 | .34 | .21 | .36 | .43 | .45 | | .49 | .38 | .01 | .22 | .31 | .37 | .26 | .09 | .18 | .24 | -.10 |
| 14. Societal Skepticism | .82 | .55 | .17 | .53 | .90 | .58 | .43 | .44 | .17 | .46 | .36 | .47 | .57 | | .59 | .14 | .25 | .41 | .52 | .30 | .25 | .37 | .30 | -.10 |
| 15. Mistrust | .65 | .78 | .17 | .48 | .66 | .91 | .50 | .60 | .17 | .38 | .38 | .40 | .52 | .65 | | .15 | .35 | .39 | .44 | .46 | .29 | .36 | .28 | -.08 |
| 16. Self-Criticism | .50 | .77 | .16 | .44 | .44 | .84 | .56 | .61 | .16 | .36 | .31 | .41 | .33 | .43 | .65 | | .09 | .16 | .17 | .14 | .04 | .09 | .10 | .02 |
| 17. Schizotypy | .47 | .78 | .05 | .45 | .39 | .84 | .58 | .62 | .05 | .31 | .36 | .42 | .34 | .35 | .65 | .64 | | .28 | .30 | .23 | .21 | .21 | .16 | -.06 |
| 18. Social Anxiety | .34 | .66 | -.03 | .31 | .30 | .47 | .85 | .52 | -.03 | .10 | .32 | .32 | .21 | .32 | .38 | .44 | .46 | | .45 | .49 | .39 | .44 | .06 | -.28 |
| 19. Passivity | .47 | .67 | .03 | .40 | .43 | .57 | .85 | .47 | .03 | .22 | .36 | .38 | .35 | .41 | .48 | .51 | .53 | .47 | | .33 | .30 | .33 | .10 | -.20 |
| 20. Anxiousness | .53 | .87 | .24 | .47 | .47 | .71 | .52 | .93 | .24 | .32 | .32 | .53 | .35 | .47 | .63 | .61 | .63 | .46 | .42 | | .57 | .50 | .16 | -.14 |
| 21. Affective Distress | .39 | .81 | .24 | .37 | .33 | .60 | .54 | .88 | .24 | .22 | .27 | .42 | .27 | .31 | .51 | .54 | .56 | .51 | .42 | .75 | | .56 | .15 | -.10 |
| 22. Irritability | .44 | .67 | .18 | .49 | .31 | .42 | .47 | .77 | .18 | .27 | .39 | .55 | .24 | .31 | .35 | .39 | .39 | .41 | .39 | .58 | .57 | | .17 | -.15 |
| 23. Sensation Seeking | .52 | .49 | .80 | .52 | .42 | .45 | .31 | .48 | .80 | .44 | .37 | .43 | .34 | .40 | .43 | .40 | .33 | .21 | .31 | .44 | .43 | .38 | | .43 |
| 24. Sociability | -.01 | -.19 | .79 | .06 | .08 | .20 | .30 | .07 | .79 | .07 | .06 | .01 | -.01 | -.12 | -.16 | -.14 | -.25 | -.26 | -.25 | -.06 | -.04 | -.08 | | .26 |

Note. Listwise analyses, for adjudicated men, $N = 122$, for representative sample, $N = 269$. Correlations for the representative sample are presented above the diagonal and those for the adjudicated sample are presented below the diagonal.

Appendix B (continued)

| 40 years | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 | 21 | 22 | 23 | 24 |
|---------------------------|-----|-----|------|-----|-----|------|------|-----|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|------|------|------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|------|------|
| 1. Disinhibition | .45 | .31 | .86 | .90 | .55 | .37 | .38 | .34 | .60 | .69 | .65 | .77 | .81 | .54 | .23 | .21 | .18 | .43 | .33 | .28 | .36 | .43 | .14 | |
| 2. Negative Emotionality | .48 | .14 | .40 | .48 | .68 | .74 | .92 | .14 | .20 | .34 | .40 | .38 | .45 | .54 | .39 | .42 | .58 | .62 | .83 | .78 | .64 | .33 | -.07 | |
| 3. Extraversion | .35 | .19 | — | .39 | .23 | .11 | .02 | .17 | — | .36 | .27 | .24 | .18 | .22 | .09 | .11 | .00 | -.12 | .18 | .14 | .15 | .12 | .80 | .83 |
| 4. Tough-Mindedness | .85 | .51 | .38 | | .56 | .42 | .24 | .34 | .39 | .79 | .77 | .79 | .50 | .49 | .38 | .25 | .13 | .07 | .34 | .27 | .26 | .36 | .40 | .24 |
| 5. Antisocial Values | .90 | .43 | .29 | .55 | | .54 | .39 | .34 | .23 | .36 | .49 | .44 | .83 | .90 | .55 | .17 | .23 | .23 | .42 | .32 | .23 | .29 | .36 | .03 |
| 6. Alienation | .62 | .82 | .12 | .52 | .56 | | .37 | .47 | .11 | .30 | .36 | .27 | .46 | .48 | .85 | .56 | .51 | .23 | .38 | .46 | .40 | .28 | .23 | .03 |
| 7. Maladaptive Inhibition | .40 | .75 | -.06 | .32 | .38 | .59 | | .52 | .02 | .09 | .18 | .32 | .29 | .38 | .30 | .12 | .35 | .84 | .75 | .44 | .45 | .41 | .21 | .16 |
| 8. Emotional Reactivity | .37 | .89 | .29 | .42 | .24 | .57 | .47 | | .17 | .14 | .30 | .36 | .26 | .32 | .36 | .32 | .28 | .40 | .43 | .90 | .85 | .69 | .32 | .02 |
| 9. Extraversion | .38 | .19 | — | .38 | .29 | .12 | -.06 | .29 | | .36 | .27 | .24 | .18 | .22 | .09 | .11 | .00 | -.12 | .18 | .14 | .15 | .12 | .80 | .83 |
| 10. Malignant Egotism | .67 | .29 | .25 | .80 | .42 | .37 | .15 | .22 | .25 | | .24 | .35 | .28 | .34 | .30 | .17 | .03 | -.01 | .17 | .12 | .08 | .18 | .35 | .25 |
| 11. Callous Hostility | .71 | .51 | .33 | .82 | .47 | .49 | .36 | .42 | .33 | .40 | | .49 | .44 | .41 | .31 | .21 | .16 | .06 | .25 | .22 | .25 | .33 | .26 | .18 |
| 12. Impulsiveness | .70 | .46 | .37 | .83 | .45 | .41 | .28 | .42 | .37 | .51 | .60 | | .43 | .35 | .23 | .17 | .10 | .14 | .39 | .30 | .30 | .32 | .30 | .10 |
| 13. Authority Opposition | .80 | .27 | .25 | .51 | .86 | .39 | .21 | .15 | .25 | .37 | .44 | .44 | | .52 | .46 | .14 | .25 | .16 | .32 | .32 | .25 | .20 | .29 | .01 |
| 14. Societal Skepticism | .79 | .48 | .27 | .46 | .89 | .59 | .45 | .27 | .27 | .37 | .39 | .37 | .55 | | .50 | .16 | .17 | .23 | .40 | .29 | .22 | .29 | .34 | .03 |
| 15. Mistrust | .57 | .58 | .16 | .36 | .63 | .82 | .43 | .33 | .16 | .26 | .29 | .34 | .41 | .68 | | .14 | .22 | .15 | .35 | .34 | .30 | .22 | .19 | -.03 |
| 16. Self-Criticism | .39 | .57 | -.01 | .42 | .28 | .71 | .41 | .39 | -.01 | .35 | .43 | .21 | .21 | .29 | .30 | | .14 | .08 | .12 | .32 | .26 | .17 | .15 | .03 |
| 17. Schizotypy | .39 | .78 | .08 | .44 | .26 | .73 | .54 | .67 | .08 | .24 | .46 | .39 | .20 | .26 | .36 | .47 | | .30 | .26 | .27 | .24 | .17 | .08 | -.08 |
| 18. Social Anxiety | .26 | .62 | -.14 | .18 | .28 | .49 | .84 | .38 | -.14 | .05 | .23 | .17 | .12 | .35 | .42 | .27 | .40 | | .28 | .38 | .30 | .28 | .03 | -.22 |
| 19. Passivity | .41 | .63 | .03 | .37 | .36 | .49 | .83 | .41 | .03 | .21 | .38 | .30 | .23 | .40 | .28 | .41 | .50 | .39 | | .32 | .42 | .38 | .32 | -.01 |
| 20. Anxiousness | .42 | .85 | .27 | .43 | .32 | .56 | .49 | .91 | .27 | .24 | .42 | .41 | .20 | .35 | .33 | .39 | .64 | .32 | .50 | | .62 | .44 | .27 | -.02 |
| 21. Affective Distress | .19 | .74 | .24 | .29 | .07 | .44 | .35 | .86 | .24 | .16 | .27 | .29 | .04 | .09 | .22 | .33 | .53 | .33 | .25 | .64 | | .52 | .28 | -.01 |
| 22. Irritability | .25 | .66 | .24 | .33 | .13 | .43 | .29 | .75 | .24 | .10 | .35 | .39 | .09 | .14 | .29 | .23 | .49 | .33 | .15 | .50 | .67 | | .24 | -.02 |
| 23. Sensation Seeking | .48 | .48 | .81 | .47 | .39 | .35 | .22 | .46 | .81 | .32 | .40 | .44 | .29 | .39 | .29 | .23 | .26 | .12 | .24 | .45 | .37 | .32 | | .32 |
| 24. Sociability | .14 | .11 | .83 | .16 | .10 | -.14 | -.31 | .03 | .83 | .09 | .15 | .17 | .11 | .06 | -.02 | -.23 | -.12 | -.34 | -.17 | .01 | .03 | .07 | .34 | |

Note. Listwise analyses, for adjudicated men, $N = 122$, for representative sample, $N = 269$. Correlations for the representative sample are presented above the diagonal and those for the adjudicated sample are presented below the diagonal.

Appendix C-1

Number of Items and Internal Consistency of the MTSLS Personality Traits for the Convenience Sample

| | Items | Internal Consistency |
|-------------------------------|-------|-------------------------|
| Disinhibition | 72 | .91 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 35 | .81 |
| Malignant Egotism | 13 | .66 |
| Callous Hostility | 13 | .55 |
| Impulsiveness | 9 | .65 |
| Antisocial Values | 37 | .85 |
| Authority Opposition | 15 | .75 |
| Societal Skepticism | 22 | .76 |
| Negative Emotionality | 108 | .94 |
| Alienation | 40 | .87 |
| Mistrust | 17 | .75 |
| Self-Criticism | 12 | .63 |
| Schizotypy | 11 | .74 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 27 | .76 |
| Social Anxiety | 11 | .70 |
| Passivity | 16 | .64 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 41 | .92 |
| Anxiousness | 21 | .86 |
| Affective Distress | 11 | .80 |
| Irritability | 9 | .79 |
| Extraversion | 24 | .82 |
| Sensation Seeking | 10 | .61 |
| Sociability | 14 | .78 |

Note. N = 278.

Appendix C-2

Number of Items and Internal Consistency of the Other Personality Measures for the Convenience Sample

| | Items | Internal Consistency |
|---|-------|-------------------------|
| <i>Big-Five Inventory (BFI)</i> | | |
| Neuroticism | 8 | .88 |
| Agreeableness | 9 | .76 |
| Conscientiousness | 9 | .84 |
| Extraversion | 8 | .83 |
| Openness | 10 | .82 |
| <i>Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI)</i> | | |
| Neuroticism | 12 | .87 |
| Agreeableness | 12 | .72 |
| Conscientiousness | 12 | .83 |
| Extraversion | 12 | .81 |
| Openness | 12 | .72 |
| <i>International Personality Item Pool (IPIP-50)</i> | | |
| Emotional Stability | 10 | .89 |
| Agreeableness | 10 | .82 |
| Conscientiousness | 10 | .75 |
| Extraversion | 10 | .87 |
| Intellect | 10 | .77 |
| <i>Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ)</i> | | |
| Psychoticism | 20 | .63 |
| Neuroticism | 27 | .82 |
| Extraversion | 19 | .71 |

Note. N = 278.

Appendix C-3

Number of Items and Internal Consistency of the NEO-FFI Subcomponents in the Convenience Sample

| | Items | Internal Consistency |
|-------------------------------|-------|-------------------------|
| Neuroticism | | |
| Anxiety | 3 | .82 |
| Depression | 3 | .69 |
| Self-Reproach | 5 | .74 |
| Agreeableness | | |
| Nonantagonistic Orientation | 8 | .65 |
| Prosocial Orientation | 4 | .58 |
| Conscientiousness | | |
| Orderliness | 5 | .73 |
| Goal-Striving | 3 | .65 |
| Dependability | 4 | .67 |
| Extraversion | | |
| Positive Affect | 4 | .76 |
| Sociability | 4 | .66 |
| Activity | 4 | .69 |
| Openness to Experience | | |
| Aesthetic Interests | 3 | .75 |
| Intellectual Interests | 3 | .69 |
| Unconventionality | 4 | .33 |

Note. N = 278.

Appendix D-1

Bivariate Correlations Between the MTSLS Personality Traits and the Eysenck and Big-Five Measures

| | EPQ | | | BFI | | | | | FFI | | | | | IPIP | | | | |
|------------------------|------------|----------|----------|------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|-------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| | P | N | E | N | A | C | E | O | N | A | C | E | O | ES | A | C | E | I |
| Disinhibition | .53 | .26 | .39 | .06 | -.49 | -.36 | -.06 | .01 | .23 | -.58 | -.29 | -.15 | -.12 | -.21 | -.42 | -.26 | -.09 | .02 |
| Negative Emotionality | .61 | .84 | .10 | .65 | -.31 | -.29 | -.33 | -.13 | .81 | -.35 | -.16 | -.33 | -.12 | -.72 | -.11 | -.15 | -.26 | -.09 |
| Extraversion | -.24 | .06 | .82 | -.12 | .17 | -.04 | .65 | .19 | -.15 | .04 | -.06 | .70 | .13 | .12 | .32 | -.09 | .66 | .05 |
| Tough-Mindedness | .46 | .23 | .47 | .02 | -.53 | -.39 | .05 | .08 | .17 | -.61 | -.27 | -.06 | -.01 | -.20 | -.38 | -.27 | .01 | .11 |
| Antisocial Values | .49 | .26 | .26 | .08 | -.38 | -.29 | -.15 | -.06 | .24 | -.47 | -.23 | -.21 | -.19 | -.19 | -.38 | -.20 | -.17 | -.06 |
| Alienation | .69 | .47 | .12 | .33 | -.34 | -.27 | -.26 | -.07 | .53 | -.39 | -.16 | -.33 | -.11 | -.41 | -.27 | -.14 | -.25 | -.05 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | .51 | .55 | .00 | .37 | -.23 | -.39 | -.47 | -.16 | .58 | -.27 | -.28 | -.41 | -.15 | -.40 | -.21 | -.27 | -.42 | -.07 |
| Emotional Reactivity | .40 | .92 | .10 | .77 | -.23 | -.16 | .20 | -.11 | .84 | -.24 | -.06 | -.19 | -.08 | -.82 | .06 | -.05 | -.12 | -.09 |
| Extraversion | -.24 | .06 | .82 | -.12 | .17 | -.04 | .65 | .19 | -.15 | .04 | -.06 | .70 | .14 | .12 | .32 | -.09 | .66 | .05 |
| Malignant Egotism | .33 | .13 | .28 | -.06 | -.37 | -.22 | .08 | .14 | .06 | -.49 | -.10 | -.02 | .03 | -.06 | -.27 | -.13 | .05 | .21 |
| Callous Hostility | .42 | .18 | .36 | .07 | -.52 | -.38 | -.01 | .03 | .17 | -.55 | -.29 | -.07 | -.01 | -.20 | -.40 | -.26 | -.02 | .04 |
| Impulsiveness | .39 | .27 | .55 | .08 | -.42 | -.40 | .05 | .02 | .20 | -.48 | -.31 | -.05 | -.06 | -.24 | -.27 | -.28 | .01 | .00 |
| Authority Opposition | .40 | .19 | .24 | .05 | -.31 | -.28 | -.13 | -.02 | .16 | -.37 | -.22 | -.18 | -.08 | -.14 | -.35 | -.25 | -.13 | -.01 |
| Societal Skepticism | .49 | .27 | .23 | .10 | -.38 | -.24 | -.14 | -.08 | .25 | -.46 | -.18 | -.20 | -.25 | -.19 | -.34 | -.16 | -.17 | -.08 |
| Mistrust | .67 | .39 | .19 | .19 | -.37 | -.22 | -.13 | -.07 | .36 | -.39 | -.12 | -.23 | -.11 | -.30 | -.26 | -.10 | -.11 | -.07 |
| Self-Criticism | .54 | .41 | .06 | .36 | -.19 | -.21 | -.28 | -.08 | .52 | -.22 | -.12 | -.28 | -.11 | -.34 | -.14 | -.12 | -.26 | -.08 |
| Schizotypy | .52 | .40 | .03 | .31 | -.27 | -.24 | -.27 | -.01 | .50 | -.33 | -.16 | -.31 | -.04 | -.41 | -.25 | -.14 | -.27 | .03 |
| Social Anxiety | .42 | .47 | -.16 | .32 | -.17 | -.25 | -.53 | -.22 | .51 | -.17 | -.17 | -.40 | -.19 | -.32 | -.16 | -.16 | -.51 | -.17 |
| Passivity | .40 | .46 | .17 | .29 | -.21 | -.39 | -.25 | -.06 | .46 | -.29 | -.32 | -.28 | -.05 | -.36 | -.19 | -.30 | -.19 | .05 |
| Anxiousness | .35 | .83 | .05 | .70 | -.20 | -.15 | -.18 | -.07 | .79 | -.21 | -.03 | -.17 | -.04 | -.71 | .02 | -.05 | -.11 | -.03 |
| Affective Distress | .26 | .85 | .10 | .66 | -.05 | -.14 | -.14 | -.13 | .72 | -.06 | -.07 | -.07 | -.07 | -.68 | .23 | -.04 | -.03 | -.16 |
| Irritability | .40 | .64 | .14 | .56 | -.36 | -.11 | -.20 | -.11 | .59 | -.36 | -.06 | -.26 | -.11 | -.70 | -.07 | -.02 | -.16 | -.08 |
| Sensation Seeking | .05 | .18 | .75 | -.04 | .03 | -.14 | .46 | .16 | .00 | -.10 | -.10 | .47 | .13 | -.02 | .14 | -.15 | .42 | .04 |
| Sociability | -.40 | -.05 | .70 | -.16 | .23 | .03 | .67 | .17 | -.23 | .16 | -.01 | .73 | .12 | .20 | .38 | -.02 | .70 | .04 |

Note. N = 278; EPQ = Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, BFI = Big-Five Inventory, FFI = Five-Factor Inventory, IPIP = International Personality Item Pool, P = Psychoticism, N = Neuroticism, A = Agreeableness, E = Extraversion, C = Conscientiousness, O = Openness to Experience, ES = Emotional Stability, I = Intellect.

Appendix D-2

Bivariate Correlations Between the MTSLS Personality Traits and the FFI Subcomponents

| | N | | | A | | C | | | E | | | O | | |
|------------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| | ANX | DEP | SRE | NAN | PRO | ORD | GOA | PEN | PAF | SOC | ACT | AES | INT | UNC |
| Disinhibition | .09 | .19 | .23 | -.60 | -.32 | -.21 | -.13 | -.29 | -.17 | -.23 | .06 | -.12 | .06 | -.16 |
| Negative Emotionality | .60 | .72 | .74 | -.40 | -.10 | -.16 | -.06 | -.13 | -.37 | -.19 | -.22 | -.04 | -.06 | -.10 |
| Extraversion | -.10 | -.19 | -.15 | -.03 | .22 | -.09 | -.05 | -.01 | .48 | .56 | .61 | .09 | .12 | .06 |
| Tough-Mindedness | .04 | .14 | .18 | -.64 | -.30 | -.23 | -.14 | -.25 | -.09 | -.16 | .13 | -.07 | .12 | -.01 |
| Antisocial Values | .11 | .22 | .24 | -.47 | -.28 | -.19 | -.09 | -.27 | -.21 | -.25 | -.01 | -.14 | .00 | -.26 |
| Alienation | .29 | .50 | .52 | -.41 | -.21 | -.13 | -.06 | -.17 | -.36 | -.23 | -.19 | -.04 | .02 | -.17 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | .31 | .56 | .61 | -.30 | -.13 | -.26 | -.16 | -.24 | -.35 | -.33 | -.29 | -.08 | -.09 | -.05 |
| Emotional Reactivity | .73 | .71 | .69 | -.31 | .01 | -.08 | .01 | -.02 | -.26 | -.05 | -.15 | -.01 | -.07 | -.05 |
| Extraversion | -.10 | -.19 | -.15 | -.03 | .22 | -.09 | -.05 | -.01 | .48 | .56 | .61 | .09 | .12 | .06 |
| Malignant Egotism | -.01 | .03 | .07 | -.54 | -.17 | -.05 | -.01 | -.17 | -.03 | -.13 | .13 | .02 | .16 | -.03 |
| Callous Hostility | .05 | .12 | .16 | -.57 | -.35 | -.26 | -.15 | -.27 | -.09 | -.13 | .07 | -.12 | .08 | .05 |
| Impulsiveness | .07 | .19 | .20 | -.49 | -.23 | -.30 | -.20 | -.20 | -.10 | -.12 | .12 | -.10 | .03 | -.03 |
| Authority Opposition | .07 | .16 | .14 | -.36 | -.27 | -.22 | -.12 | -.29 | -.19 | -.22 | -.02 | -.08 | .08 | -.13 |
| Societal Skepticism | .13 | .24 | .28 | -.48 | -.24 | -.14 | -.05 | -.25 | -.20 | -.26 | -.01 | -.16 | -.05 | -.32 |
| Mistrust | .18 | .31 | .33 | -.44 | -.20 | -.11 | -.02 | -.13 | -.23 | -.22 | -.09 | -.03 | .00 | -.19 |
| Self-Criticism | .32 | .49 | .53 | -.24 | -.10 | -.09 | -.05 | -.14 | -.35 | -.16 | -.17 | -.04 | .01 | -.19 |
| Schizotypy | .25 | .47 | .49 | -.30 | -.21 | -.12 | -.08 | -.17 | -.34 | -.21 | -.24 | -.03 | .05 | -.05 |
| Social Anxiety | .29 | .50 | .54 | -.16 | -.10 | -.16 | -.10 | -.12 | -.33 | -.34 | -.26 | -.15 | -.11 | -.05 |
| Passivity | .23 | .45 | .49 | -.34 | -.11 | -.27 | -.19 | -.29 | -.24 | -.22 | -.20 | .01 | -.03 | -.03 |
| Anxiousness | .76 | .61 | .60 | -.27 | .01 | -.03 | .03 | -.05 | -.23 | -.04 | -.13 | .02 | -.02 | -.05 |
| Affective Distress | .56 | .66 | .65 | -.14 | .13 | -.11 | -.02 | .01 | -.15 | .06 | -.11 | -.02 | -.11 | .01 |
| Irritability | .45 | .51 | .46 | -.41 | -.11 | -.10 | -.01 | .02 | -.32 | -.17 | -.14 | -.06 | -.09 | -.08 |
| Sensation Seeking | -.01 | -.04 | -.00 | -.17 | .10 | -.14 | -.05 | -.05 | .24 | .32 | .53 | .07 | .17 | .01 |
| Sociability | -.15 | -.27 | -.23 | .08 | .25 | -.05 | -.02 | .03 | .54 | .64 | .53 | .08 | .05 | .08 |

Note. N = 278; N = Neuroticism, A = Agreeableness, C = Conscientiousness, E = Extraversion, O = Openness to Experience, ANX = Anxiety, DEP = Depression, SRE = Self-Reproach, NAN = Nonantagonistic Orientation, PRO = Prosocial Orientation, ORD = Orderliness, GOA = Goal-Striving, PEN = Dependability, PAF = Positive Affect, SOC = Sociability, ACT = Activity, AES = Aesthetic Interests, INT = Intellectual Interests, UNC = Unconventionality.

Appendix E-1

Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation of the Big-Five, Eysenck, and MTSLS Big-Three

| | Extracted Factors | | | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|-----|------|------|------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| EPQ – Neuroticism | .91 | | | | |
| FFI – Neuroticism | .90 | | | | |
| IPIP – Emotional Stability | -.89 | | | | |
| BFI – Neuroticism | .88 | | | | |
| MTSLS – Negative Emotionality | .86 | | | | -.28 |
| MTSLS – Extraversion | | .90 | | | |
| BFI – Extraversion | | .85 | | | |
| EPQ – Extraversion | | .84 | | -.26 | |
| IPIP – Extraversion | | .84 | | | |
| FFI – Extraversion | | .81 | | | |
| FFI – Agreeableness | | | .85 | | |
| BFI – Agreeableness | | | .81 | | |
| MTSLS – Disinhibition | .20 | | | -.76 | -.26 |
| IPIP – Agreeableness | | .33 | | .76 | |
| EPQ – Psychoticism | .42 | | -.22 | | -.51 |
| FFI – Conscientiousness | | | | | .94 |
| IPIP – Conscientiousness | | | | | .90 |
| BFI – Conscientiousness | | | | .21 | .90 |
| BFI – Openness | | | | | .87 |
| IPIP – Intellect | | | | | .87 |
| FFI – Openness | | | | | .85 |

Note. N = 278; Factor loading of less than .20 are not shown. 78.6% of explained variance.

Appendix E-2

Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation of the Big-Five, Eysenck, and MTSLS Six Broad Traits

| | Extracted Factors | | | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| MTSLS – Emotional Reactivity | .94 | | | | |
| EPQ – Neuroticism | .91 | | | | |
| FFI – Neuroticism | .89 | | | | |
| BFI – Neuroticism | .88 | | | | |
| IPIP – Emotional Stability | -.87 | | | | |
| MTSLS – Maladaptive Inhibition | .62 | .29 | -.28 | -.32 | |
| MTSLS – Alienation | .56 | .45 | | | |
| MTSLS – Tough-Mindedness | | .81 | | | -.22 |
| FFI – Agreeableness | | -.80 | | | |
| BFI – Agreeableness | | .75 | | | |
| MTSLS – Antisocial Values | | -.74 | | | -.21 |
| IPIP – Agreeableness | .22 | -.70 | .36 | | |
| EPQ – Psychoticism | .38 | .58 | -.24 | | |
| MTSLS – Extraversion | | | .90 | | |
| BFI – Extraversion | | | .85 | | |
| IPIP – Extraversion | | | .84 | | |
| EPQ – Extraversion | | .29 | .83 | | |
| FFI – Extraversion | | .27 | .81 | | |
| FFI – Conscientiousness | | | | .93 | |
| IPIP – Conscientiousness | | | | .90 | |
| BFI – Conscientiousness | | .23 | | .89 | |
| IPIP – Intellect | | | | | .87 |
| BFI – Openness | | | .20 | | .87 |
| FFI – Openness | | | | | .85 |

Note. N = 278; Factor loading of less than .20 are not shown. 76.1% of explained variance.

Appendix E-3

Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation of the Big-Five, Eysenck, and MTSLS 15 Primary Traits

| | Extracted Factors | | | | |
|------------------------------|-------------------|-------------|------------|------------|------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| EPQ – Neuroticism | .92 | | | | |
| FFI – Neuroticism | .88 | | | | |
| MTSLS – Affective Distress | .87 | | | | |
| BFI – Neuroticism | .86 | | | | |
| IPIP – Emotional Stability | -.86 | | | | |
| MTSLS – Anxiousness | .84 | | | | |
| MTSLS – Irritability | .68 | .30 | | | |
| MTSLS – Social Anxiety | .52 | .20 | -.39 | -.20 | |
| MTSLS – Schizotypy | .54 | .35 | | | |
| MTSLS – Self-Criticism | .47 | .45 | | | |
| MTSLS – Passivity | .46 | .39 | | -.32 | |
| MTSLS – Mistrust | .32 | .60 | | | |
| MTSLS – Societal Skepticism | | .79 | | | |
| MTSLS – Malignant Egotism | | .75 | | | |
| FFI – Agreeableness | | -.72 | | | |
| MTSLS – Callous Hostility | | .71 | | -.24 | |
| MTSLS – Impulsiveness | | .70 | .24 | -.27 | |
| MTSLS – Authority Opposition | | .68 | | | |
| BFI – Agreeableness | | -.65 | | | |
| IPIP – Agreeableness | | -.61 | .40 | | |
| EPQ – Psychoticism | .35 | .60 | -.27 | | |
| MTSLS – Sociability | | | .85 | | |
| BFI – Extraversion | | | .83 | | |
| IPIP – Extraversion | | | .83 | | |
| EPQ – Extraversion | | .33 | .82 | | |
| FFI – Extraversion | | | .81 | | |
| MTSLS – Sensation Seeking | | .28 | .71 | | |
| FFI – Conscientiousness | | | | .92 | |
| IPIP – Conscientiousness | | | | .89 | |
| BFI – Conscientiousness | | -.26 | | .88 | |
| IPIP – Intellect | | | | | .88 |
| BFI – Openness | | | | | .86 |
| FFI – Openness | | | | | .84 |

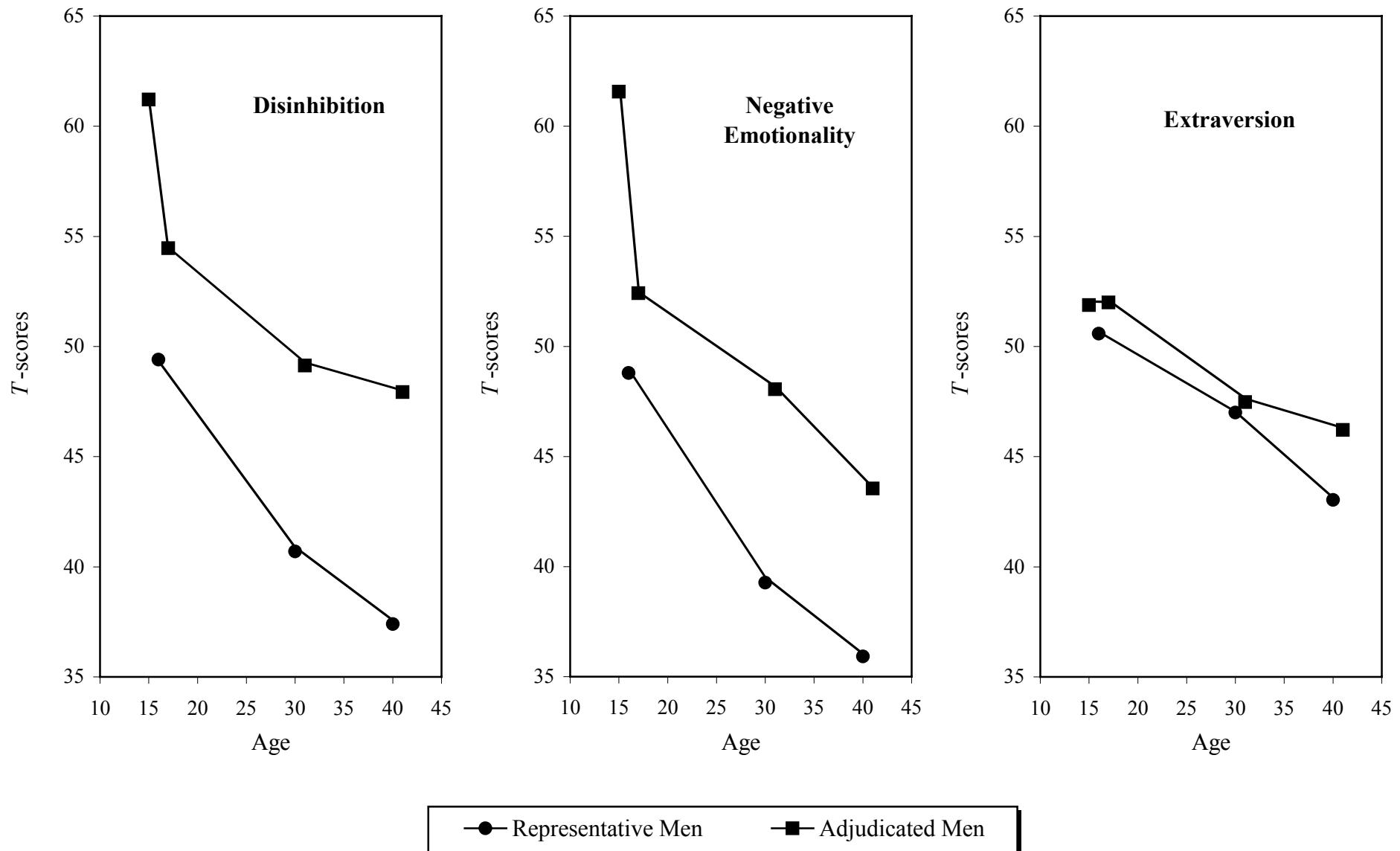
Note. N = 278; Factor loading of less than .20 are not shown. 67.8% of explained variance.

Appendix E-4

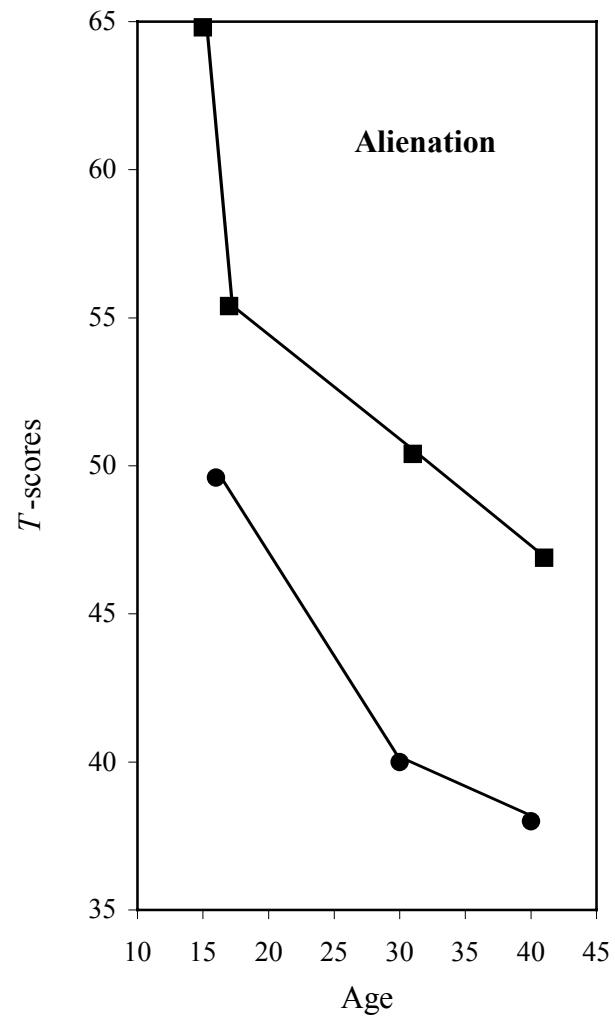
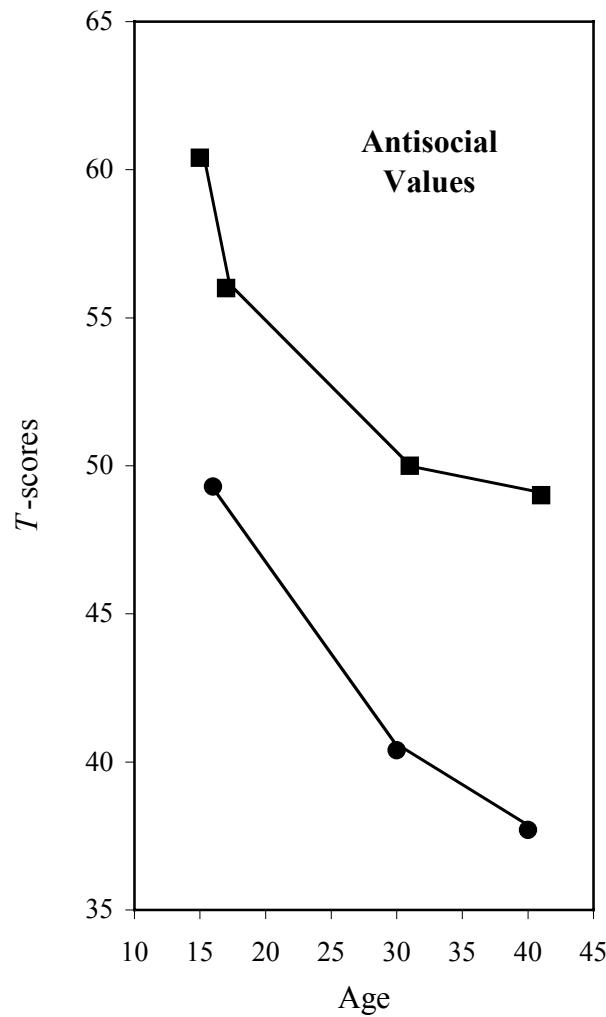
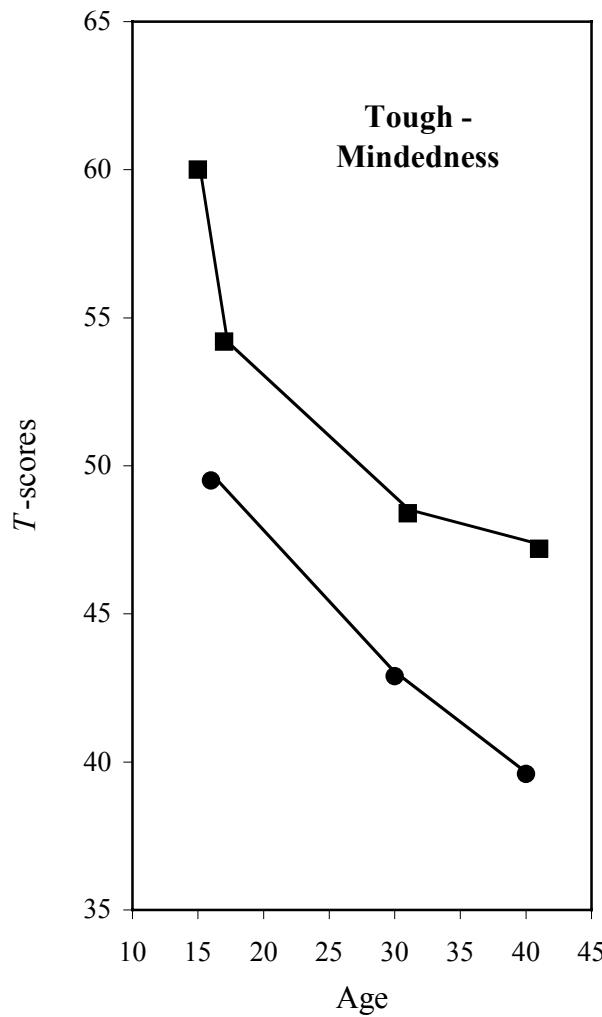
Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation of the NEO-FFI Subcomponents and MTSLS 15 Primary Traits

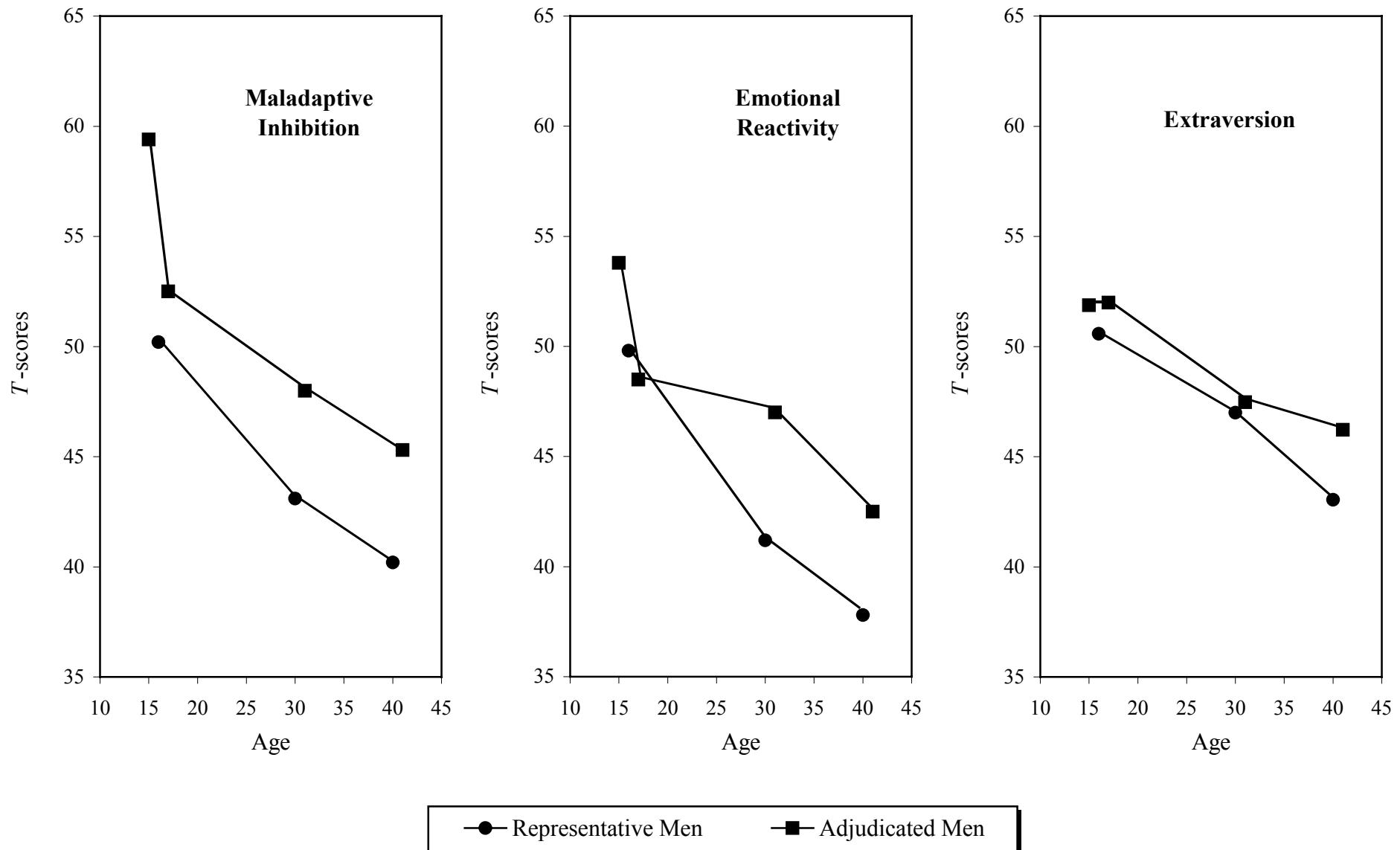
| | Extracted Factors | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------|---|---|---|-------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| MTSLS – Affective Distress | .85 | | | | |
| FFI – Depression | .84 | | | | |
| MTSLS – Anxiousness | .83 | | | | |
| FFI – Self-Reproach | .82 | | | | |
| FFI – Anxiety | .76 | | | | .22 |
| MTSLS – Irritability | .61 | | | | |
| MTSLS – Social Anxiety | .55 | | | | -.33 |
| MTSLS – Self-Criticism | .54 | | | | .40 |
| MTSLS – Passivity | .51 | | | | .43 |
| MTSLS – Schizotypy | .49 | | | | .50 |
| MTSLS – Mistrust | .36 | | | | .60 |
| MTSLS – Societal Skepticism | | | | | .80 |
| MTSLS – Malignant Egotism | | | | | .79 |
| MTSLS – Callous Hostility | | | | | .72 |
| MTSLS – Impulsiveness | | | | | .71 |
| MTSLS – Authority Opposition | | | | | .70 |
| FFI – Nonantagonistic Orientation | | | | | -.70 |
| FFI – Prosocial Orientation | | | | | -.44 |
| | | | | | .41 |
| MTSLS – Sociability | | | | | .85 |
| FFI – Activity | | | | | .73 |
| FFI – Sociability | | | | | .71 |
| MTSLS – Sensation Seeking | | | | | .68 |
| FFI – Positive Affect | | | | | .67 |
| FFI – Goal-Striving | | | | | .85 |
| FFI – Orderliness | | | | | .82 |
| FFI – Dependability | | | | | .75 |
| FFI – Intellectual Interests | | | | | .78 |
| FFI – Aesthetic Interests | | | | | .75 |
| FFI – Unconventionality | | | | | .69 |

Note. N = 278; Factor loading of less than .20 are not shown. 61.1% of explained variance.

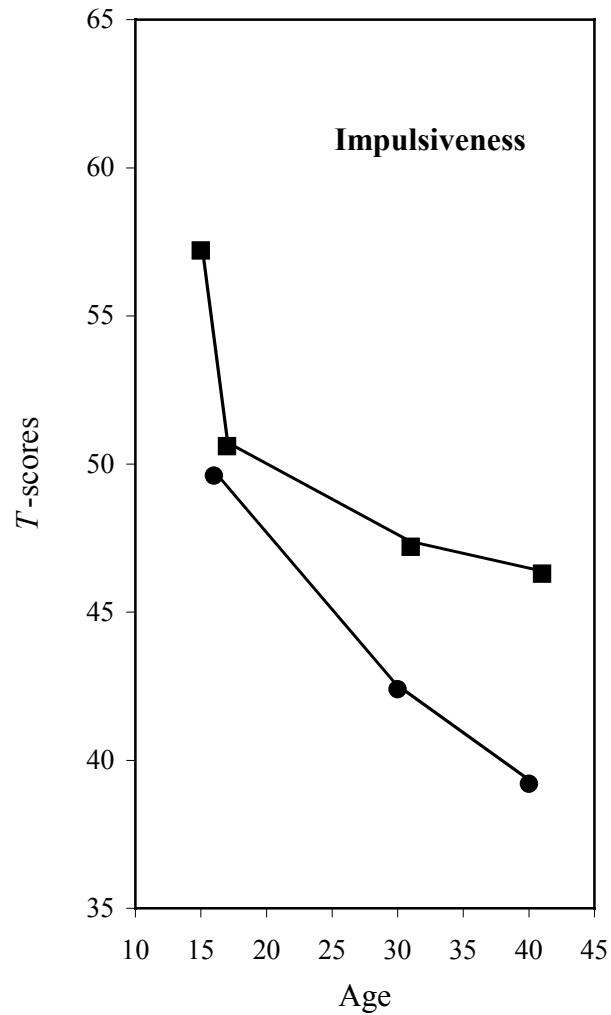
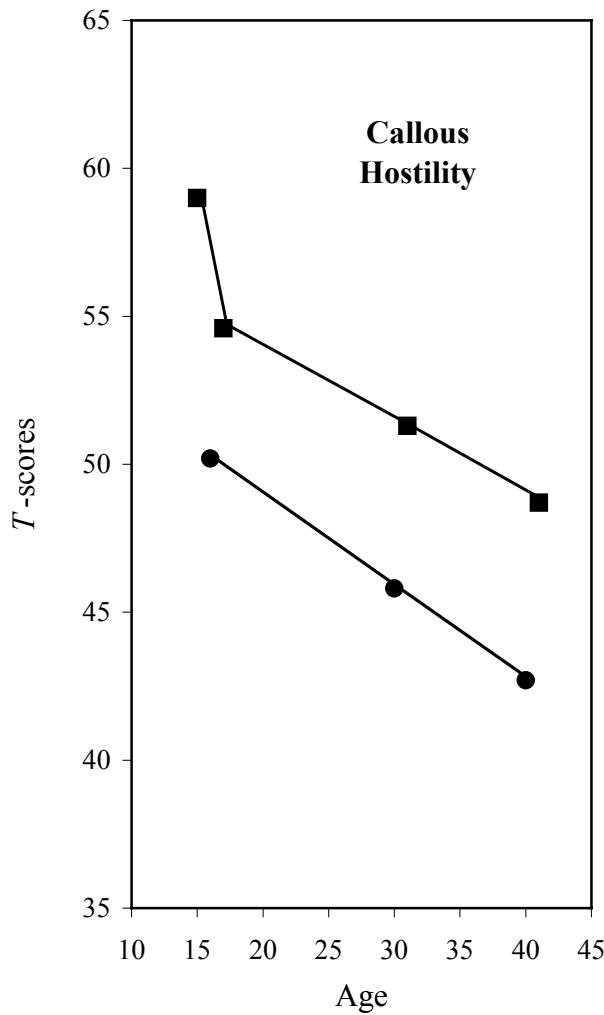
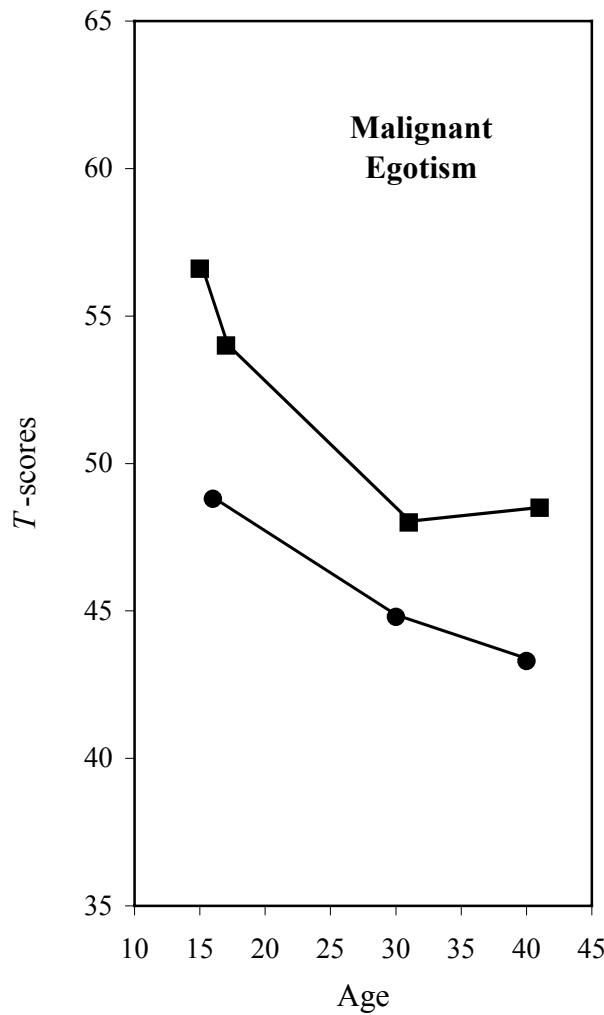


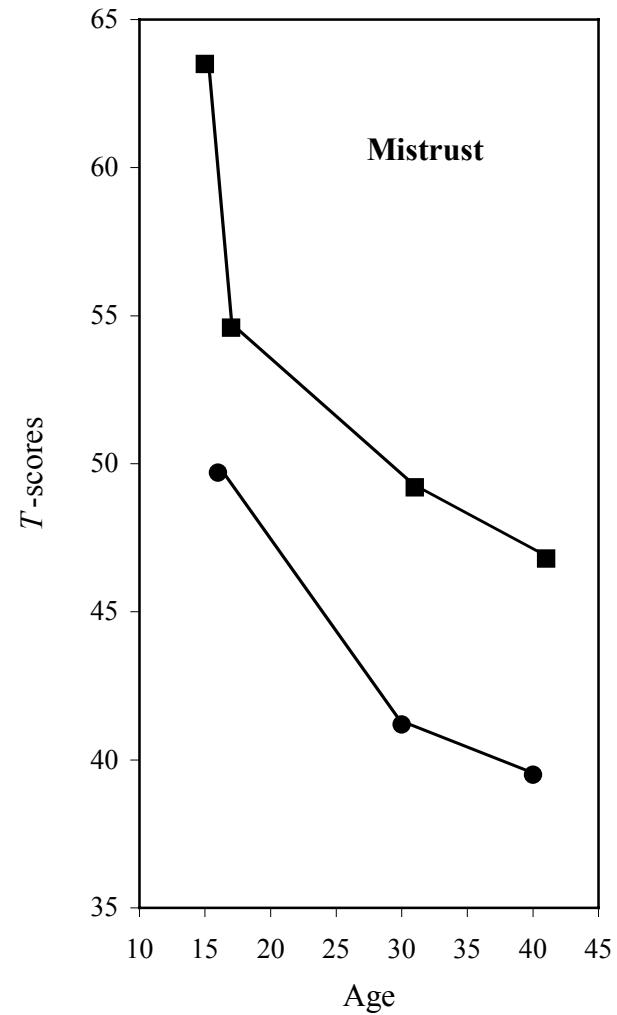
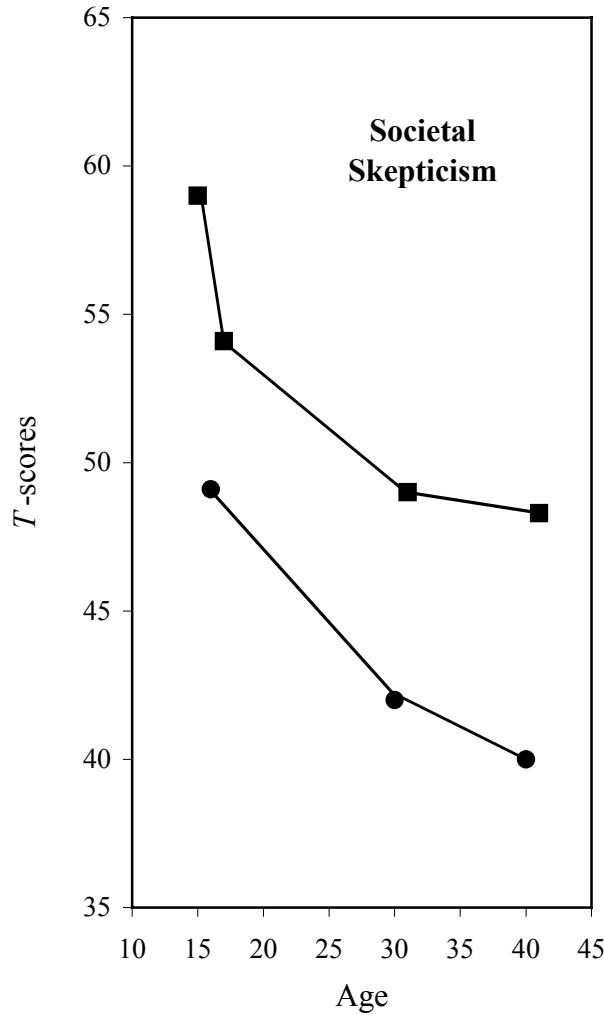
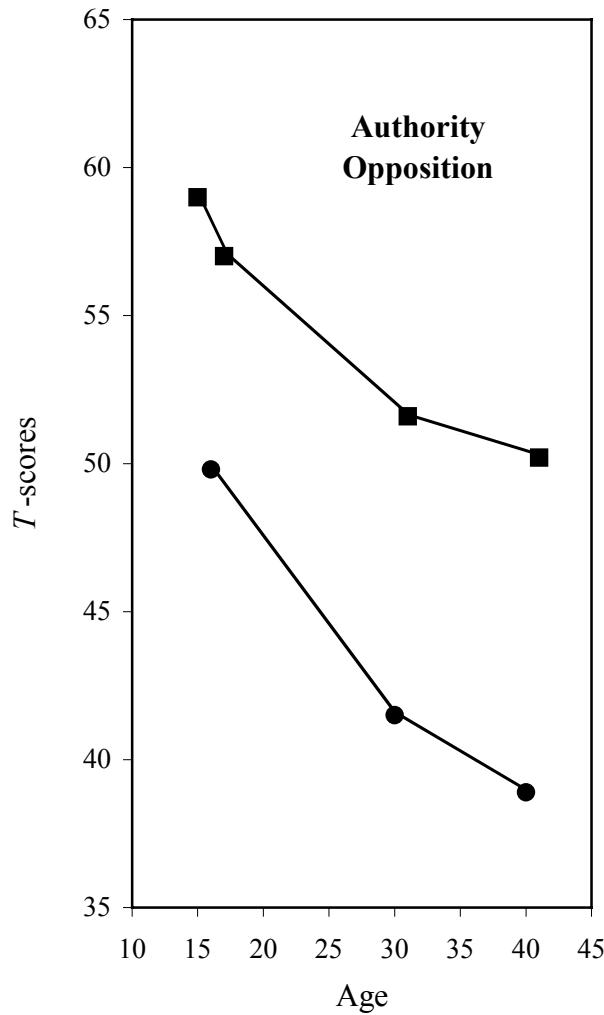
Appendix F-1. *Mean T-scores Across Time in the Three Higher-Order Traits by Sample*

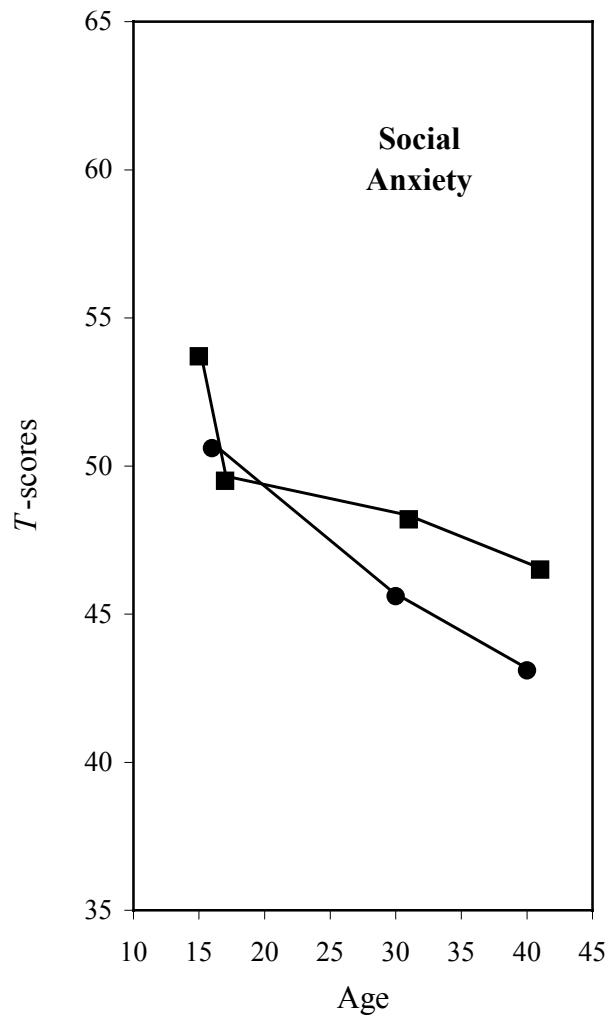
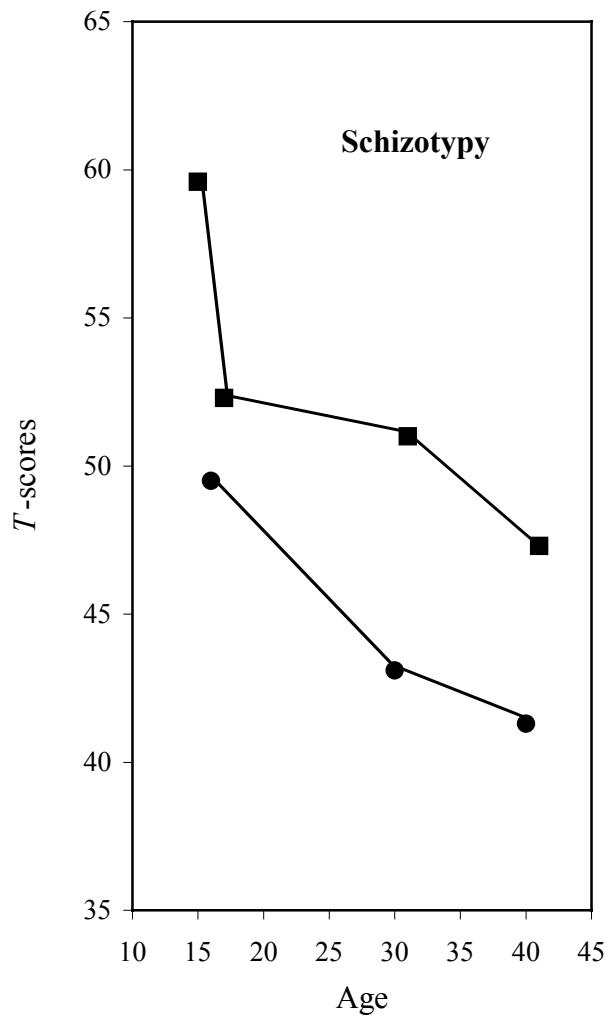
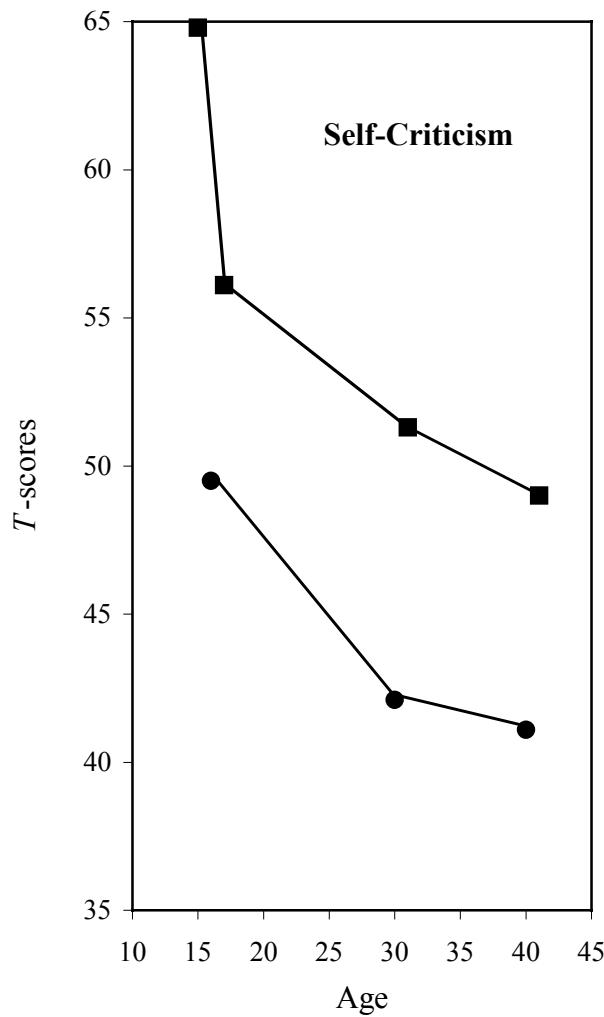


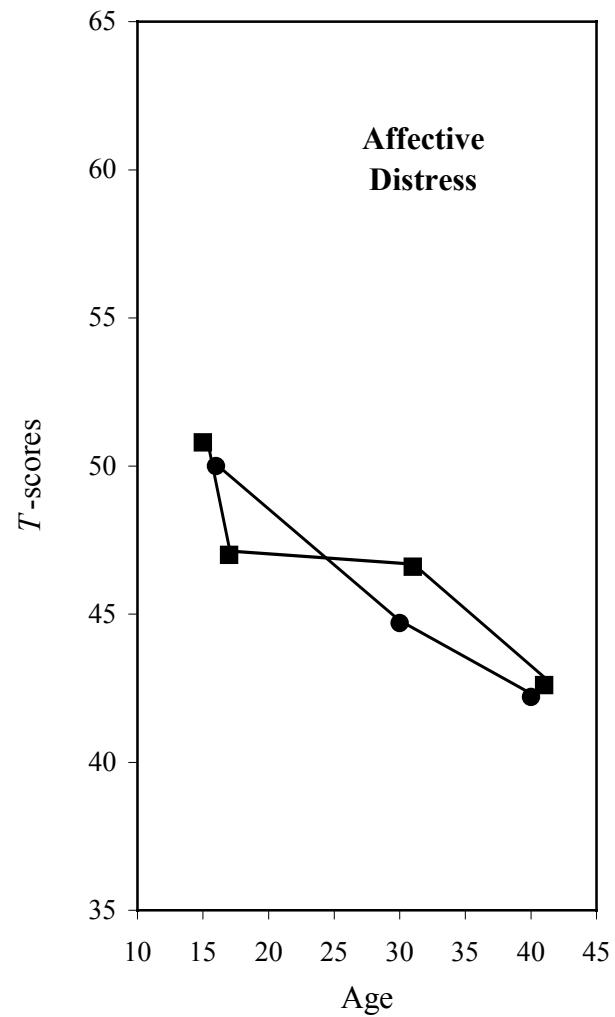
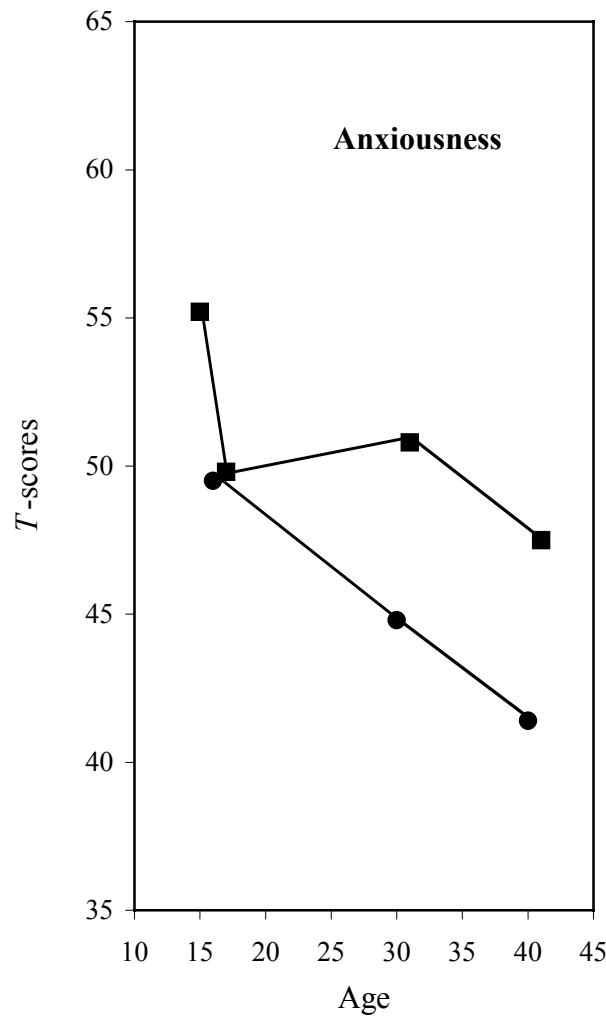
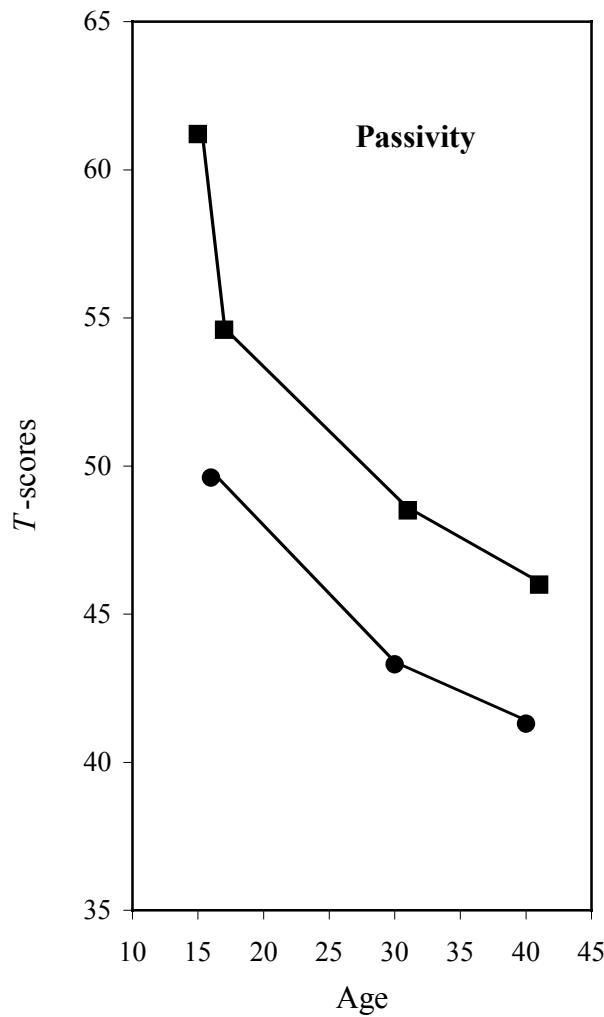


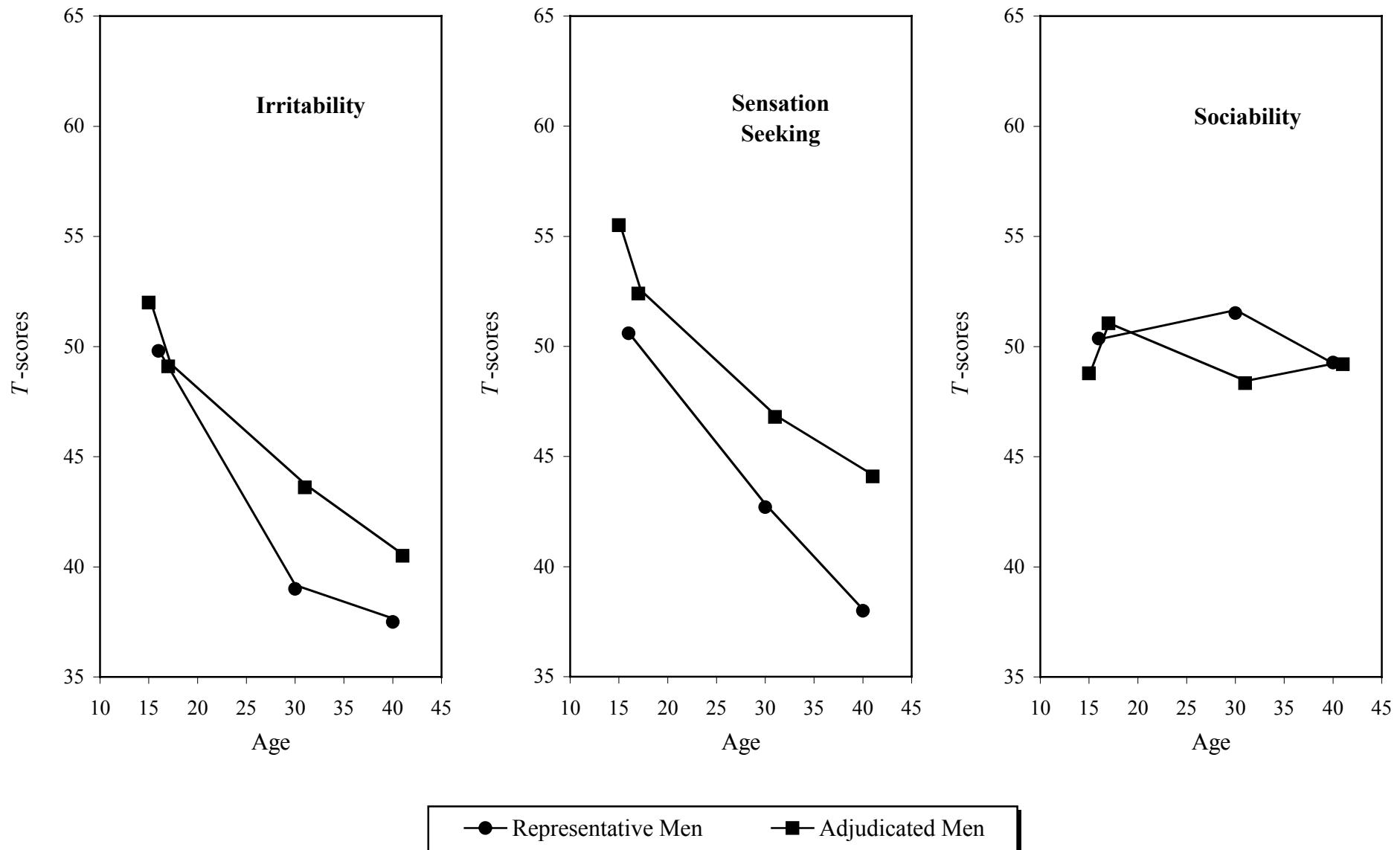
Appendix F-2. *Mean T-scores Across Time in the Six Broad Traits by Sample*











Appendix F-3. *Mean T-scores Across Time in the Fifteen Primary Traits by Sample*

CHAPITRE III

**SEARCHING FOR A DEVELOPMENTAL TYPOLOGY OF PERSONALITY
AND ITS RELATIONS TO ANTISOCIAL BEHAVIOR:
A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF A REPRESENTATIVE SAMPLE OF MEN¹**

¹ Morizot, J., & Le Blanc, M. (2002). Searching for a developmental typology of personality and its relations to antisocial behavior : A longitudinal study of a representative sample of men. Manuscript submitted for publication to *Journal of Personality*.

Abstract

The search for an empirically based personality typology has regained the interest of researchers. To date, however, the empirical inquiries were mainly cross-sectional. In this study, an empirically based developmental typology of personality was identified using data from a prospective longitudinal study of a representative sample of men assessed on four occasions from adolescence to midlife. Cluster analyses were performed on measures of Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion. Four developmental types of personality were identified. The first was characterized by average scores in the three traits in adolescence that decreased rapidly until midlife. The second was similar, but rather displayed increases in Extraversion during adulthood. The third type showed high scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality in adolescence that decreased progressively until midlife. The fourth type was characterized by average scores in the three traits during adolescence followed by important increases in Negative Emotionality and decreases in Extraversion during adulthood. These four developmental types of personality seemed to be related to known antisocial behavior trajectories.

Taxonomies are crucial classification systems aimed at naming, organizing, and categorizing things into groups that share similar characteristics. Such systems facilitate inquiries in the three fundamental goals of any scientific discipline, namely the description, explanation, and prediction of natural phenomena. For instance, chemistry classifies the elements into the periodic table and biology classifies living organisms into species. What is the situation for psychology, which is the scientific discipline studying people? On the one hand, the rising consensus about the hierarchical structure of personality composed of three to five higher-order traits suggests that psychology has a potential taxonomy of one of its variables of interest (e.g., Clark & Watson, 1999; John & Srivastava, 1999; Matthews & Deary, 1998). On the other hand, psychology, so far, does not have an accepted taxonomy of people. The desire to classify people's personalities is not new; it dates back at least to Ancient Greece (see Kagan, 1994; Robins, John, & Caspi, 1998). In the beginning of the twentieth century, prominent psychologists such as Allport (1937), Lewin (1935), and Murray (1938) made a strong case for such an idiographic view of personality. Contemporary scholars continue to praise the identification of an empirically based personality typology (e.g., Caspi, 1998; Kagan, 1994; Meehl, 1992; Robins et al., 1998; Waller & Meehl, 1997).

In order to empirically disentangle the variability between individuals in a heterogeneous population (or sample), researchers carry out a *classification* aimed at dividing the individuals into homogeneous subgroups so that those within a group are similar and those between the groups are not. In social sciences, rather than using the term taxonomy, the generalization of a classification that has theoretical and practical implications is generally called a *typology* and the subgroups are called *types* (or categories, classes, syndromes, taxa, depending on the discipline; Bailey, 1994; Bergman, 1998, 2000; Speece, 1994). A *personality typology* consists in a classification of persons into subgroups displaying qualitatively and quantitatively distinct personality profiles. Such a view taps a core aspect of Allport's (1937) personality definition as "the dynamic organization *within the individual* of those psychophysical systems that determine his unique adjustments to his environment" (p. 48; italic added).

Many deductive or theoretical personality typologies have been proposed (see Totton & Jacobs, 2001). The popular Myers-Briggs typology based on the Jungian theory represents a classic example. However, there is little correspondence between all these theoretical typologies. Furthermore, their developers failed to demonstrate their validity empirically. In addition, the popularity of radical behaviorism starting from the middle of the twentieth century resulted in the typological approach to personality being long ignored. Nevertheless, the typological perspective has recently regained the interest of personality researchers (e.g., Asendorpf, Borkenau, Ostendorf, & van Aken, 2001; Asendorpf, Caspi, & Hofstee, 2002; Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). This interest follows two major advances. First, the development of appropriate statistical techniques for clustering multivariate data and the growing availability of statistical software have facilitated empirical efforts. Second, researchers have dealt with the doubts regarding the existence of *discrete* classes or personality types. Indeed, even if the goal is to identify groups of individuals that differ in kind rather than in degree (i.e., “to carve nature at its joint,” a statement often attributed to Plato), the types do not have to be totally discrete classes (Gangestad & Snyder, 1985; Waller & Meehl, 1997). Some specific personality characteristics or psychopathologies appear to be discrete or taxonic (Haslam & Kim, 2002). Nonetheless, in recent empirical studies, the individuals are classified in a type according to their distinct pattern of scores on multiple personality characteristics. They are situated in a complex multi-dimensional space. Thus, they are often thought of as prototypical, and fuzzy borders between the types are considered as naturally representative (e.g., Asendorpf & van Aken, 1999; York & John, 1992). In fact, it consists in a person-centered approach based on a combination of the typological (or categorical) and dimensional approaches (see Bergman, 1998, 2000; Magnusson, 1998, 1999; Robins et al., 1998).

A number of excellent reviews of empirical studies on the typological approach to personality concluded that despite the participants of existing studies differing in age, gender, ethnicity, language, culture, historical period and geographic region, three replicable personality types were identified, namely Adjusted (or Resilients), Overcontrolled, and Undercontrolled (Asendorpf et al., 2001; Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). These types were identified by various methods, most often by cluster analysis on continuous personality traits

or by inverted factor analysis on Q-sort ratings. A number of cross-sectional and longitudinal studies examined the antecedents, concurrent correlates, and consequences of personality types. They revealed that the types display differentiated profiles in personality traits and in important cognitive, behavioral, and social adjustment variables (e.g., Asendorpf & van Aken, 1999; Caspi & Silva, 1995; Chang Weir & Gjerde, 2002; Hart, Hofmann, Edelstein & Keller, 1997; Pulkkinen, 1996; Robins, John, Caspi, Moffitt, & Stouthamer-Loeber, 1996; van Aken, van Lieshout, Scholte, & Haselager, 2002; York & John, 1992). The *Adjusted*, the largest group in all studies, typically show high or normative levels in behavioral and interpersonal adjustment. The *Undercontrolled*, typically 20% of the samples studied, display a pattern of maladjustment characterized by strong disinhibition in behavioral and interpersonal functioning (e.g., impulsivity, aggressiveness, delinquency). Finally, the *Overcontrolled*, typically the smallest group, manifest a pattern of maladjustment characterized by marked inhibition in behavioral and interpersonal functioning (e.g., social withdrawal, depression, anxiety).

As suggested by Caspi (1998) and Robins et al. (1998), these three types constitute a minimally necessary set for an accepted personality typology. Empirical evidence also suggested the possibility of two subtypes within each of the three types who also tend to display differentiated profiles in personality traits and cognitive, behavioral, and social adjustment variables (e.g., Robins et al., 1996; van Lieshout et al., 1998). Within the Resilients, two meaningful subtypes called *Communal-Resilients* and *Agentic-Resilients* were identified. The Overcontrolled can also be subdivided into subtypes labeled *Vulnerable-Overcontrolled* and *Achievement-Oriented Overcontrolled*. Finally, the Undercontrolled were subdivided into two subtypes called *Impulsive-Undercontrolled* and *Antisocial-Undercontrolled*.

Towards a Developmental-Typological Approach to Personality

Longitudinal studies of personality development using the variable-centered approach (i.e., group analyses) typically observed significant mean-level changes from adolescence to adulthood (e.g., Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Costa & McCrae, 1997; Helson, Kwan, John, &

Jones, 2002; McCrae, Costa, et al., 2000; Morizot & Le Blanc, in press). In general, these changes were in the direction of growth or maturity. In terms of the Big-Three taxonomy, these changes correspond to increases in Constraint (i.e., decreases in Disinhibition) and decreases in Extraversion and Negative Emotionality (or Neuroticism). In terms of the Big-Five taxonomy, the studies pointed to decreases in Neuroticism, Extraversion, and Openness, and increases in Conscientiousness and Agreeableness. Thus, the empirical evidence points to a *normative psychological maturation*. These findings are important because they challenge theories postulating that an individual's personality is crystallized by early adulthood (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1990), while they support classic theories postulating a psychosocial maturation across the life course (e.g., Allport, 1937). However, and importantly, such results only apply to the “average” growing individual. As we have noted before, there is a great deal of variability between individuals in personality. This inter-individual variability also applies when one considers intra-individual change. Unfortunately, in group analyses of mean-level continuity, the individuals who depart from the average trajectory are, to some extent, considered as “outliers” or “random statistical errors.” Using a typological approach that takes into account inter-individual differences in personality development could thus be a very useful alternative.

The identification of the aforementioned tripartite personality typology was a crucial step towards a better understanding of human inter-individual differences. Because these types displayed differentiated profiles on various cognitive and psychosocial adjustment variables, they proved to be theoretically and clinically useful. However, because they have been identified at one point of the individuals' lives (i.e., with cross-sectional data), they are developmentally “static.” One of the unresolved issues regarding the tripartite typology is the type membership stability. Indeed, it is not known so far if individuals classified in a given type in adolescence, for example, remain in the same type in adulthood. At first glance, personality maturation observed in group analyses suggests that changes should be expected. Previous studies showed that three types can be identified at different periods of the life course, but type membership is not very stable across time (e.g., Asendorpf & van Aken, 1999). One methodological strategy that can be used is the separate identification of non-developmental types at multiple life periods, followed by a linking study through configural

frequency analysis (see Bergman, 1998, 2000). However, in studies with multiple periods of assessment, this strategy can pose serious problems for interpretation. Worse, in such a strategy, individual trajectories are somewhat lost (see Block, 1971; Bergman, 1998).

Thirty years ago, recognizing the importance of non-developmental types, Block (1971) complained that this approach has serious conceptual limitations within a developmental perspective. For example, the individual's interpersonal and behavioral functioning and common life tasks are generally quite different in adolescence and adulthood. Block argued that the separate identification of non-developmental types during these two distinct periods would almost certainly reflect these differences. According to Block (1971), a personality typology "should reflect in some conjoint way the personality types manifested during different periods of the life course. It should also provide information on the personality changes that have accrued with time. Personality types change and evolve in lawful ways over time, and we are interested in the developmental trends manifested by these various modes of personality organization. We need to be able to plot the various separate trend lines of our personality types, attending both to the cross-sectional comparisons available at each slice of time and to the directions and the significance of the changes observed over the years" (pp. 112-113). Thus, Block made a strong case for the identification of "types of personality development" rather than "personality types." More recently, Ozer and Gjerde (1989) reminded us that "persons differ markedly from one another in their degree of personality consistency and change over time. This effect, in some ways so obvious, is too often ignored in studies of personality development" (p. 507).

If one adopts a developmental perspective and remains interested in the typological approach, the methodological and analytical strategies used to date are insufficient. As pioneered by Block (1971), a methodological approach consisting in a direct developmental classification of personality scores at all measurement points available simultaneously is probably closer to an individual's personality development. Prospective assessments of the same personality measures are needed in order to perform developmental-typological analyses. This approach provides a clearer delineation of inter-individual differences in intra-individual personality change and allows us to infer a *developmental typology of personality*.

In such a typology, each type is composed of individuals displaying a similar personality profile across multiple periods of their life, i.e., who follow a similar developmental trajectory. These subgroups of individuals are usually referred to as *developmental types of personality*. Block (1971) defines a developmental type of personality “as a subset of individuals characterized by a reliably unique or discontinuously different pattern of covariation across time with respect to a specifiable (and non-trivial) set of variables” (pp. 109-110).

The principal objective of this study was to search for an empirically based developmental typology of personality using data from the representative sample of men from the Montreal Two-Sample Longitudinal Study (MTSLS; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Morizot & Le Blanc, in press). To our knowledge, the scientific community has paid very little attention to the task of identifying a meaningful and replicable developmental typology of personality. Indeed, we have found no study that had adopted a developmental-typological approach, that had covered approximately the same period of the life course, and had used similar personality traits measures as the MTSLS. However, a few empirical studies serve as illustrations.

The classic example of a developmental typology of personality is the pioneering study by Block (1971). He studied men and women based on two measurement points, adolescence (14-17 years) and adulthood (30-37 years). Block derived five developmental types of men through Q-factor analyses of Q-sort ratings. He presented empirical evidence that they tend to display differential relations to a number of intellectual, familial, and environmental variables. Three of these types showed relative stability from adolescence through adulthood and seemed conceptually similar to types identified with cross-sectional data presented previously (Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). The *Ego-Resilients*, the largest group of the sample (30%), remained well adjusted from adolescence to adulthood. The *Unsettled-Undercontrollers*, the smallest group (16%), displayed a stable pattern of extrinsic adjustment problems over time. Finally the *Vulnerable-Overcontrollers*, approximately one fifth of the sample (19%), showed a stable pattern of intrinsic adjustment problems. Block (1971) derived two other developmental types of men showing significant changes. The

Belated-Adjusters (17.5%) showed extrinsic adjustment problems in adolescence that improved through adulthood. They displayed a psychological maturation. The *Anomic-Extroverts* (17.5%) were well adjusted in adolescence, but showed a deterioration of their psychological adjustment by adulthood. Block's (1971) study was a seminal effort towards the identification of a developmental typology of personality. However, to our knowledge these developmental types have never been replicated.

In a reanalysis of the New York Longitudinal Study's participants, Tubman, Lerner, Lerner and von Eye (1992) used longitudinal cluster analysis to identify four developmental types within three measurement points: adolescence (16-17 years), early adulthood (18-23 years), and middle adulthood (25-31 years). The clustering variable was an aggregated measure of difficult temperament (low Adaptability, low Approach, high Reactivity and Negative mood, and low Rhythmicity). The first three of these temperamental trajectories scored in the normative range (i.e., within a standard deviation over and above the mean) from adolescence through middle adulthood. The *first developmental type*, the largest of the sample (42.1%), showed moderately low scores in difficult temperament in adolescence that decreased linearly through adulthood. Thus, they displayed a temperamental maturation. The *second type* of individual represented a fourth of the sample (24.8%) and had low scores of difficult temperament in adolescence which increased linearly over time. The *third type*, also comprising approximately a fourth of the sample (28.6%), manifested above-average scores in adolescence which increased in early adulthood and subsequently declined through adulthood below the initial level. The *fourth type* of individual was the smallest (4.5%) and was composed of maladjusted individuals who displayed high scores in difficult temperament in adolescence which increased subsequently through adulthood. During their childhood, as compared with the other three groups, the individuals of the stable-difficult temperament trajectory manifested significantly more aggressiveness, anxiety, undercompliance and peer difficulties at years 1-6, and showed more anxiety at years 7-12. During their adulthood, they also displayed lower self-evaluation, implementation of goals and adjustment to routines, as well as lower emotional, goal, coping, work, social, sexual, and communication adjustment. In contrast, the individuals who displayed a stable trajectory of low scores on difficult

temperament had the better adjustment across time (i.e., highest ratings on all childhood and adulthood adjustment variables).

Antisocial Behavior Trajectories as a Correlate of Developmental Types of Personality

The few aforementioned studies showed that developmental types of personality seemed to be differentially related to a number of adjustment problems, particularly antisocial behavior.² Indeed, over the last century, many studies have shown that antisocial individuals differ in personality traits from normative individuals (e.g., Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985). Even if these relations were subjected to methodological criticisms, recent quantitative reviews continue to suggest that personality traits are linked to antisocial behaviors such as criminality and substance use, both concurrently and prospectively (e.g., Barnes, Murray, Patton, Bentler, & Anderson, 2000; Krueger, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2000; Miller & Lynam, 2001). Moreover, considering that personality maturation seems to parallel desistance from antisocial behavior, some scholars now consider that the personality profile characteristic of adolescents could be associated with the processes of activation and aggravation of antisocial behavior, while personality maturation through adulthood could be associated with the desistance process (DiClemente, 1994; Glueck & Glueck, 1974; Jessor, Donovan, & Costa, 1991; Le Blanc, 1997; Maruna, 2001; Tarter et al., 1999; Zucker, 1987; Zucker, Fitzgerald, & Moses, 1995). In sum, both developmental-typological studies of personality and those using group analyses provide evidence of a longitudinal relation between personality and antisocial behavior across development.

The search for a developmental typology of antisocial behavior has also gained the interest of researchers from various social sciences. Several longitudinal studies provide the empirical evidence for four replicable antisocial behavior trajectories. As postulated by the

² Following the identification of a general deviance or antisociality syndrome (e.g., McGee & Newcomb, 1992; Osgood et al., 1988), the term *antisocial behavior* is used as a generic concept (i.e., latent variable) which includes a number of more specific behaviors considered as conceptually similar manifestations of maladjustment against expected social and societal norms and values. Indeed, antisocial individuals often simultaneously manifest behaviors such as delinquency or criminality, substance use, problems at work and in conjugal relationships.

general antisociality syndrome, these trajectories seem to apply to various antisocial behaviors such as criminality (Le Blanc, 2002; Le Blanc & Loeber, 1998; Moffitt, 1993; Rutter, Giller, & Hagell, 1998) and substance use (Jackson, Sher, & Wood, 2000; Kandel & Chen, 2000; Tubman, Vicary, von Eye, & Lerner, 1990; Zucker, 1987; Zucker et al., 1995). The first two types appear to be the most robust and replicable. The *persistent antisocial trajectory* (also called life-course persistent or early-onset) represents approximately 5% of the population and is characterized by an early onset of behavior problems in childhood such as hyperactivity, impulsiveness, and aggressiveness, which develop by adolescence into varied and frequent antisocial conducts that tend to remain stable through adulthood. The *transitory antisocial trajectory* (also called adolescence-limited or late-onset) represents approximately 40% of the population and is characterized by an onset of antisociality in early adolescence and by desistance by the end of adolescence or by early adulthood. There is also empirical evidence for a third trajectory. The *common antisocial trajectory* represents approximately 45% of the population and is characterized by an adolescent onset of occasional and intermittent minor antisocial behavior and a more accelerated desistance by the end of adolescence (Dunford & Elliott, 1984; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989). Finally, a few studies suggested the possibility of an *adult-onset antisocial trajectory* (Rutter et al., 1998; Zucker et al., 1995). The proportion of individuals who follow such a trajectory is not well known, but could be between 5% and 15%. This trajectory is characterized by abstinence from antisocial behavior in adolescence and by emerging antisociality during early adulthood. It is not known to date if this trajectory is transitory or persistent during adulthood.

Can these four antisocial behavior trajectories be linked to the developmental types of personality? Even if to date the data are scarce, based on research using group analyses as well as those using developmental-typological analyses, and based on theoretical positions such as those of Moffitt (1993; Moffitt, Caspi, Harrington, & Milne, 2002), Jessor et al. (1991), and Zucker (1987; Zucker et al., 1995), it was highly probable that personality trajectories were closely related to antisocial trajectories. Overall, theory and research support the use of antisocial behavior measures to undertake a preliminary examination of the external validity of a personality typology. Consequently, the secondary objective of the

present study was to establish the validity of the developmental typology of personality generated from the MTSLS data in the prediction of antisocial behavior trajectories.

Which Developmental Types of Personality Could be Expected?

It was difficult to hypothesize which developmental types could be expected because there were so few comparable studies. However, past research using group analyses of mean-level personality continuity and the few studies searching for a developmental typology allowed us to hypothesize a number of developmental types. Moreover, research examining the relations between antisocial behavior trajectories and personality traits were also used to hypothesize developmental types. Indeed, generally the men's personality trajectory should similarly follow their own antisocial behavior trajectory, particularly for Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality. It was not possible to postulate such a hypothesis for Extraversion because developmental-typological studies of this trait are lacking and because studies examining the relations between Extraversion and antisocial behavior provided conflicting results (e.g., Eysenck, 1989; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985). In general, we anticipated that at least four, or perhaps more, developmental types of personality would emerge in our analyses of the MTSLS's representative sample.

We first expected to identify a large group of well-adjusted men displaying a normative maturation from adolescence to midlife in the three personality traits. These men were probably abstinent or followed a common antisocial trajectory. We expected a second group of men displaying high Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality in adolescence, followed by a progressive decrease across time. These men probably followed a transitory antisocial trajectory. We expected a third small group of men displaying a personality trajectory characterized by stable high Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality from adolescence to midlife. These men presumably followed a persistent antisocial trajectory. Finally, we also expected a fourth small group of men displaying increasing Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality from adolescence to adulthood. These men probably followed an adult-onset antisocial trajectory.

Method

Sample and Procedure

Data from the Montreal Two-Sample Longitudinal Study were used (MTSLS; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Morizot & Le Blanc, in press). The MTSLS includes two samples of Caucasian French-speaking men first recruited around the middle of the 1970s. The first consists of a group of boys adjudicated during their adolescence and the second is a representative sample. Only the representative sample was used in this paper. It was composed of 1611 boys first recruited in 1974. This sample was representative of the general population of the Montreal area because it was proportionally stratified according to the school's size, the levels and tracks in each school, the socioeconomic status of the school, and school type (public or private). In addition, some boys who were not in school were added to the sample according to their respective proportion in the general population. These boys were from 12 to 16 years of age ($M = 14.3$; $SD = 1.4$). In 1976, a random sample of 458 boys was selected from the 1611 participants and personality inventories were administered to them for the first time. Analyses on many personal and social adjustment variables showed that these participants did not differ from the remaining ones (Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989). Thus, although this subsample may not be ideal, the 458 boys can be considered representative of the population of Caucasian French-speaking men living in Montreal in the middle of the 1970s. These boys were from 14 to 18 years of age at that point in their lives ($M = 16.2$; $SD = 1.3$). Details for sample size, reasons for attrition, and age distribution at each wave of data collection were published elsewhere (Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Morizot & Le Blanc, in press).

At the first wave of data collection (spring of 1974), the participants completed a self-reported questionnaire at school or at home. Two years later (spring of 1976), they completed the same questionnaire. It was sent to them by mail. Those who did not respond were personally contacted. During adulthood, they were met for an interview in 1988-1989 at an average age of 30.3 years, and again in 1998-1999 at an average age of 39.4 years of age. For

ease of presentation, we used the mean ages for the four measurement points: 14, 16, 30, and 40 years of age.

At each wave of data collection, the participants were asked about numerous aspects of their lives, including their behaviors (e.g., delinquency, substance use, behavior problems at home, school, work), their family (e.g., involvement, attachment, supervision, discipline), their relationships with their peers, their routine activities, their beliefs and values, and their personality. Personality was assessed only from age 16 for the representative sample of the MTSLS. In all, complete personality data were available for 269 individuals from adolescence to midlife. Detailed description of the procedure has been published elsewhere (Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989).

Measures

Personality Traits. The personality trait measures were elaborated in a recent study using the MTSLS archival data (Morizot & Le Blanc, in press). These measures were derived from exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses of the items from the French versions of the two personality questionnaires used in the MTSLS. A hierarchical structure of personality was identified: a total of 15 primary traits formed three higher-order traits, namely Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion. Disinhibition is tapped by scales labeled Malignant Egotism, Callous Hostility, Impulsiveness, Authority Opposition, and Societal Skepticism. Negative Emotionality is represented by scales named Mistrust, Self-Criticism, Schizotypy, Social Anxiety, Passivity, Anxiousness, Affective Distress, and Irritability. Extraversion is tapped by scales labeled Sensation Seeking and Sociability. In the present study, the three higher-order traits of Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion were used for the identification of the developmental typology. They represent a broad description of personality traits comparable to other structural models of personality that were identified with various personality assessment devices and which are often called the Big-Three (see Clark & Watson, 1999; Matthews & Deary, 1998).

High scorers in *Disinhibition* are typically mean and self-centered, have poor consideration for others, react impulsively, reject conventional norms and rather endorse values supporting rebelliousness and dishonesty. Regarding *Negative Emotionality*, high scorers typically have poor confidence in others, perceive themselves as inadequate, feel there is something wrong with their minds, are inhibited in interpersonal and social situations, display low levels of activity and attention, experience high levels of anxiety and negative mood, and are easily angered. For *Extraversion*, high scorers typically perceive themselves as lively and outgoing and seek pleasurable experiences by establishing warm relationships with others and by searching for thrills and excitement.

In general, the psychometric properties of these personality scales are adequate. Evidence from exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses suggested partial measurement invariance across time (i.e., from adolescence to midlife) and across groups (i.e., for representative and adjudicated men). For Disinhibition, the internal consistency indices were .84, .86, and .85 at ages 16, 30, and 40 respectively. For Negative Emotionality, the coefficients were .87, .94, and .95 for the same ages. The internal consistency was lower for Extraversion with coefficients of .57, .74, and .75 for the same three ages respectively.

Antisocial Behavior. Two different types of antisocial behavior scales were computed: variety (i.e., number of behaviors) and frequency (i.e., number of times for all behaviors). Variety scales of self-reported criminality and substance use were available at all measurement points. For these two behaviors, frequency measures were also available. The behavior problems measure was available at the two first measurement points (i.e., ages 15 and 17) and the conjugal problems and work problems measures were available for the two last measurement points (i.e., ages 30 and 40). For these last three measures, only frequency was used.

Criminality (10 items): The items are “Minor theft (value of less than \$20),” “Shoplifting,” “Theft with breaking and entering,” “Common theft (more than \$20),” “Possessing and trafficking stolen goods,” “Vandalism,” “Disorderly conduct (including disturbing public order, wandering),” “Motor vehicle theft (car and motorcycle),” “Aggravated assault

(including battery, attempted murder or homicide)," and "Drug trafficking." At the two first measurement points, participants reported one-year frequency. The response categories were 0 = never, 1 = one or two times, 2 = many times, 3 = very often. For the adult years, participants reported the number of times they manifested each specific offense since the last interview. In order to correct for severe non-normal distributions, responses were recoded as 0 = no offense, 1 = one or two times, 2 = 3 to 24 times, 3 = 25 to 49 times, 4 = 50 times or more. Internal consistency was satisfactory in adolescence with Cronbach's alpha of .74 and .77 at ages 14 and 16 respectively. However, it was low in adulthood, with .46 and .22 at ages 30 and 40 respectively. These low values were principally due to zero-variance for some items (i.e., no individual having manifested such a behavior)³ and very low base rates for others.

Substance Use (5 items): The items are use of "Alcohol," "Cannabis," "Unprescribed medicine (tranquilizers, sedatives, analgesics, etc.)," "Chemical drugs (hallucinogens, stimulants, etc.)," and "Hard drugs (cocaine, heroin, and other opiates)." ⁴ At the two first measurement points (i.e., ages 14 and 16), participants reported one-year frequency. The response categories are 0 = never, 1 = one or two times, 2 = many times, 3 = very often. For the other two measurement points (i.e., ages 30 and 40), participants reported frequency since the last interview. The response categories are 0 = never, 1 = rarely, 2 = monthly, 3 = a few times a month, 4 = weekly, 5 = a few times a week, 6 = daily. Internal consistency was satisfactory in adolescence with Cronbach's alpha of .79 and .72 at ages 14 and 16 respectively, but it was lower in adulthood with coefficients of .57 and .59 at ages 30 and 40 respectively, again due to lower base rates for some items in adulthood.

Behavior Problems (7 items): The items assess inappropriate conducts related adolescent's adjustment at school (e.g., "Missing school without a reason") and at home (e.g., "Standing

³ At age 30, no individual reported having committed a theft with breaking and entering. At age 40, in addition to theft with breaking and entering, no individual reported having committed vandalism, disorderly conduct, car motor vehicle theft, and drug trafficking.

⁴ All analyses were also performed with a scale excluding alcohol use. Because the patterns and the magnitude of the differences between developmental types of personality were very similar, it was decided to keep alcohol use in the general substance use scale.

up to parental authority"). Participants reported one-year frequency. The response categories are 0 = never, 1 = one or two times, 2 = many times, 3 = very often. Internal consistency was adequate at the two measurement points with Cronbach's alpha of .70 and .69 at ages 14 and 16 respectively.

Work Problems (6 items): The items assess inappropriate behaviors related to interpersonal (e.g., "Do you have problems with your bosses") and organizational (e.g., "Do you have problems with your productivity") adjustment at work. Participants reported frequency since the last interview. The response categories are 0 = never, 1 = rarely, 2 = occasionally, 3 = often. Internal consistency was adequate with Cronbach's alpha of .76 at age 30. At age 40, however, internal consistency was low with alpha of .42, principally due to lower base rates for some items.

Conjugal Problems (5 items): The items assess levels of perceived harmony (e.g., "Usually, how do you get along"), inappropriate conducts (e.g., "Do you have disputes [fights]"), and intimate partner violence (e.g., "Have you ever shaken or beaten your partner"). Due to different response formats, items were recoded in dichotomous form and summed. Internal consistency was low with alpha of .68 and .44 at ages 30 and 40 respectively, again due to low base rates for some items.

Attrition Analyses

The men for whom personality data were available at all measurement points were compared to the non-completers with a MANOVA performed on the personality traits scales at age 16. None of the multivariate and univariate tests for any trait were significant. Thus, the men who completed the personality questionnaires at all measurement points can be considered as being representative of the total initial sample.

In order to examine whether participants who completed all interviews from age 14 were different from non-completers in antisocial behavior, univariate ANOVAs were performed on three measures of antisocial behavior available in adolescent years, namely

behavior problems, criminality, and substance use. Because antisocial behavior data were available at age 14, we performed these analyses for ages 14 and 16. No significant differences were observed. Thus, the men who completed all interviews were initially comparable on antisocial behavior to those who were lost through attrition and can thus be assumed to be representative of the original sample.

Analytical Strategy

The identification of the developmental typology was undertaken through direct longitudinal cluster analysis based on scores in Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion at the three measurement points simultaneously (for a Monte Carlo study of the efficiency of longitudinal cluster analysis, see Dumenci & Windle, 2001; see also Bergman, 1998, 2000). The goal was to divide the participants of the heterogeneous MTSLS's representative sample into more homogeneous subgroups based on a statistical distance measure. Thus, these subgroups would represent quantitatively and qualitatively distinct multivariate developmental trajectories.

Indeed, as argued in the introduction, this strategy was preferred over one in which types are identified at multiple time points separately (i.e., non-developmental types) followed by a linking study. Firstly, because three measurement points were available for personality data (i.e., ages 16, 30, and 40), this could pose serious problems for the interpretation (see Bergman, 1998, 2000; Block, 1971). Secondly, and more importantly, the direct longitudinal classification approach provides results probably closer to the individual's personality development. On the other hand, as pointed out by Bergman (1998), a longitudinal cluster analysis with data from all ages can pose an heterogeneity problem. This is a problem especially in studies with many measurement occasions because some individuals can be classified in the same developmental cluster although they have different start-ups or different outcomes but are similar at the other measurement occasions. As will be discussed later, calculation of the homogeneity measure can partially address this concern.

Clustering techniques proved to be effective in identifying natural groups in a multivariate data set, however they are not without limits (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Gordon, 1999; Milligan & Cooper, 1987). Speece (1994) noted that considering the state of advancement in clustering techniques, they should be considered an exploratory tool. Indeed, the most significant concerns are that different classifications can be obtained through different methods applied to the same data set (i.e., method artifact) and that there is no gold standard to determine the appropriate number of clusters or to determine cluster separation. Thus, a rigorous analytical strategy must be followed to circumvent these limitations. Moreover, in order for a classification (i.e., a typology) to be methodologically defensible and theoretically sound and useful, Skinner (1981) proposed that researchers must consider three issues for assessing its construct validity: theory formulation, internal validity, and external validity. Internal and external validity are crucial aspects to be systematically assessed in an empirically derived typology.

In this study, a sequential strategy involving multiple clustering algorithms was adopted, as suggested by Milligan and Cooper (1987). An agglomerative hierarchical cluster analysis with Ward's method and squared euclidean distance as the dissimilarity measure was first performed. The results of the hierarchical method were then used as seeds for an optimization partitioning method (k-means), also with squared euclidian distance. Although hierarchical agglomerative algorithms are known to be highly effective in identifying natural groups in a multivariate data set (particularly Ward's method; see Milligan & Cooper, 1987), this algorithm implies that one searches for a classification with hierarchical relationships between individuals in the sample, which we could not assume for a developmental typology of personality. Moreover, in hierarchical clustering, once individuals are classified in a group in the first steps of the calculation, they remain in the same group until the final classification is performed. Optimization methods are also highly effective, but do not have any a priori about the structure of the data (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Gordon, 1999). In an optimization method, the number of groups is specified by the researcher, and the individuals are classified into the cluster with the closest centroid. Individuals can be relocated to a more appropriate cluster at any stage of the analysis. Using these two algorithms allowed us to deal with the method artifact problem.

Next, although there is no gold standard for determining the appropriate number of clusters, replication remains the most satisfactory criterion (Breckenridge, 1989). Because no independent sample was available for the present study, the MTSLS's representative sample was randomly divided into two subsamples in order to perform a cross-validation. The objective was to determine whether the final solution identified with the total sample could be identified in the subsamples. This strategy provides an estimate of the internal robustness of the classification and could help support the choice of the number of clusters of the final solution.

Following the identification of the optimal number of groups, cluster separation was examined by a repeated measures MANOVA on personality trait scores (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Scholars noted that post hoc inferential testing on clustered variables is generally not considered a rigorous test of the internal validity of a classification because clustering techniques are aimed at minimizing within-cluster differences and maximizing between-cluster differences, and assumptions of common inferential tests are thus being violated (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Milligan & Cooper, 1987). It should, however, be clearly demonstrated if groups are significantly different on all traits. This question is especially relevant for a developmental typology because groups can differ on all traits at one measurement point, but not at another. Moreover, with multivariate typology, groups can differ across time on one trait but not on another one. Thus, for a typology to be useful in explanation and prediction, it is important to answer to these questions.

Speece (1994) noted that the internal validity test was an assessment stage of the construct validity of a typology that has often been neglected in past studies. With the aforementioned limitations of cluster analysis in mind, a broad internal validity test of the classification was conducted. This test should be regarded as analogous to testing the null hypothesis that no cluster exists in a data set (Gordon, 1999). In this study, the demonstration of the internal validity of the typology was guided by seven criteria: (1) the extent to which the final cluster solution was reproduced with different clustering algorithms (i.e., consensus classification), (2) the extent to which the final cluster solution was internally robust (i.e., cross-validation with random subsamples), (3) the increase in the percentage of explained

variance by each additional cluster solution (i.e., decrease in sum of squared distance; SSD),⁵ (4) the increase of the homogeneity measures (H ; measures the degree to which the variance within a particular cluster is smaller than the variance for the entire sample),⁶ (5) the extent to which each additional cluster provided a meaningful developmental type of personality (keeping in mind the importance of parsimony in theory formulation), (6) expectations from developmental typologies identified in previous studies, and (7) sample size (i.e., at least 5% of the total sample had to be represented in each cluster).

In addition to internal validity, a final important construct-validity test of a classification concerns external validity (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Skinner, 1981; Speece, 1994). The objective of this test is to determine whether the groups identified are linked to meaningful variables which were not used in the clustering. Speece (1994) noted that, as it was the case for internal validity, earlier studies have been criticized for insufficient attention paid at this stage of the assessment of the construct validity of a typology. According to Speece, the most critical concern is the fact that external validation has appeared to be often post hoc rather than carefully planned during the theory formulation stage. As acknowledged in the introduction, using antisocial behavior measures is theoretically relevant for validating a personality typology. With the antisocial behavior measures described beforehand, longitudinal comparisons were undertaken through repeated measures ANOVAs to determine whether the developmental types of personality were different in their level of involvement in antisocial behavior from adolescence to midlife.

Cluster analyses are based on the distance between scores in the data. Thus, with multivariate classification, the clustered variables needed to be scaled appropriately. In order to have personality scales of equivalent importance, all analyses were performed with T -

⁵ $S^2_{\text{exp}} = 100 * (1 - \text{SSD}_{\text{within}} / \text{SSD}_{\text{total}})$.

⁶ $H_k = \sqrt{1 - [\text{SSD}_{\text{within } k} / \text{SSD}_{\text{total}}]}$. This index generally ranges from 0 to 1, where a coefficient of 0 indicates that the cluster is not more homogeneous than the total sample before clustering, and a coefficient of 1 indicates that the cluster is perfectly homogeneous (i.e., all cases have the same score on all variables included in the cluster analysis). Typically, an index of .75 or more is considered excellent, an index between .50 and .74 is considered good, and an index between .25 and .49 is considered acceptable (Tryon & Bailey, 1970). Coefficients are often lower for clustering of repeated measures variables.

scores.⁷ For antisocial behavior variety, raw scores were used in all analyses. For antisocial behavior frequency, because the same measures were not available at all measurement points, *T*-scores were used. Concerning missing data, with a criterion of 20% or more missing items for dropping a case, none of the 269 participants were dropped. For those cases that had less than 20% of missing responses, weighted means were computed. The presence of outliers was examined because they can significantly affect the results of cluster analysis (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Gordon, 1999; Milligan & Cooper, 1987). However, because extremely problematic cases are important in a classification which has theoretical and clinical purposes (Speece, 1994), the decision was made to be less conservative in dropping outliers. With a criterion of four standard deviations from the mean on at least one of the personality scales to identify a case as an outlier, one participant was dropped for having extreme scores. Thus, the final sample was composed of 268 men.

Results

Identification of the Developmental Types of Personality

Mean *T*-scores and standard deviations before clustering are presented in Table 1. Examination of standard deviations revealed that there was more inter-individual variability in adulthood, particularly in Negative Emotionality and Extraversion. Solutions from two to 10 clusters were examined. The different analyses suggested that a four-cluster solution was the most appropriate.⁸ The results of the hierarchical method first as well as those using the optimization method after converged in suggesting that this solution is optimal because additional clusters did not provide new meaningful clusters, either conceptually and statistically.⁹ The four-cluster solution derived from the total sample was also clearly reproduced in the two random subsamples. In a solution with an additional cluster, for

⁷ In order to keep the developmental effect proper to raw data in the analyses, the *T*-scores were calculated with means and standard deviations of the representative sample at age 16. Cluster analyses were also run with raw scores (i.e., bringing the scales to a denominator of 10) and the result patterns presented later were identical.

⁸ The numerous results obtained with the analytical strategy adopted preclude their complete presentation due to space limitation. Only the final solution chosen is presented.

⁹ For ease of presentation, internal validity will be discussed separately in a later section.

example, the first largest group tended to split into two similar groups, with one displaying a slightly lower decrease rate in the three traits, and it was not well reproduced in the random subsamples. To sum up, the classification composed of four clusters was identified with the two clustering methods, in the total sample, and in the two random subsamples. Mean T -scores by developmental types are drawn in Figure 1. Appendix A presents mean scores and standard deviations for the three higher-order traits and for all primary traits. The number of men and their proportions are also presented in Figure 1.

Insert Table 1 and Figure 1 about here

- ***Cluster 1: Communals – Normative Maturation.*** The first group of men was characterized by average-low scores in Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion at age 16, followed by a strong decrease by more than one standard deviation through age 30, and finally by a slight decrease through age 40 for all traits. This type was labeled as “Communal” because the personality profile of these men is conceptually similar to that of the Communal-Resilients type identified in non-developmental personality typology. It was also labeled as “normative maturation” because the trait trajectories correspond to those observed in past studies using group analyses and because it was the largest group of the representative sample.

- ***Cluster 2: Agentics – Normative Maturation.*** The second group of men was very similar to the first with average-low scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality at age 16 that decreased less rapidly through age 30 and remained higher until age 40. These men’s most particular characteristic was their average score in Extraversion at age 16 that increased rapidly through age 30, and then decreased slightly through age 40. These men tended to display slightly higher Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality across time as compared with the Communals. This type was labeled as “Agentic” because the personality profile of these men was conceptually similar to that of the Agentic-Resilients type identified in non-developmental typology. The label of

“normative maturation” was also given to this type because the trait trajectories were closely similar to the Communal, with the exception of Extraversion and also because it was the second largest group, a little smaller than the Communal.

- ***Cluster 3: Undercontrolled – Delayed Maturation.*** The third group of men was characterized by high scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality at age 16 that decreased linearly until age 40. These men displayed the most negative personality profile at age 16 as well as the most stable Disinhibition across time. This type was labeled as “Undercontrolled” because the personality profile is very similar to that of the Undercontrollers identified in non-developmental typology. The label of “delayed maturation” was also given to this type because, despite its progressive maturation, the personality profile of these men clearly lagged behind that of the two normative maturation types until midlife.
- ***Cluster 4: Overcontrolled – Blocked Maturation.*** The fourth group of men was characterized by average scores in Disinhibition and Extraversion at age 16. Through age 30, there was a linear decrease in Disinhibition and a very important decrease in Extraversion, while these two traits decreased linearly from ages 30 to 40. The particularity of these men concerned their Negative Emotionality that was slightly high at age 16, which strongly increased through age 30 and then decreased slightly through age 40. This type was labeled as “Overcontrolled” because the personality profile of these men is conceptually similar to that of the Overcontrollers identified in non-developmental personality typology. The label of “blocked maturation” was also assigned to this type because there was clearly no progression in the personality profile across time. In fact, the personality profile of these men rather worsened.

Internal Validity

Explained Variance. The percentage of the total variance that can be accounted for by a cluster solution was calculated for solutions from two to 10 clusters and then plotted. A smooth knee point emerged from a three-cluster solution; however, it was not a clear knee

point. Consequently, this criterion did not help in choosing the number of appropriate groups. The final four-cluster solution explains 58% of the total variance. This proportion is satisfying because Bergman (1998) suggested that a good cluster solution should explain approximately two thirds of the variance.

Cluster Homogeneity. The homogeneity coefficients obtained for the final solution with four developmental types are all adequate. The coefficients for the Communals ($H = .83$), the Agentics ($H = .85$), and the Undercontrolled ($H = .70$) are excellent. The one for the Overcontrolled ($H = .45$) is adequate, suggesting that this type is more heterogeneous than the others. This result may be due to real greater variability in this type in the population. Also, because it was the smallest group, extreme cases may have had a more disturbing effect. The coefficients for solutions with additional clusters provided just slightly higher coefficients. Consequently, this criterion also did not help in choosing the appropriate number of clusters.

Cluster Separation. In order to provide a clear answer concerning the issue of cluster separation, a 4×3 repeated measures MANOVA was conducted on the clustered variables.¹⁰ Using Wilk's lambda as the criterion, the between-subject ($\Lambda = .16; F(9, 638) = 79.38; p < .0001$) and within-subject ($\Lambda = .40; F(6, 259) = 66.05; p < .0001$) multivariate omnibus tests were significant. The multivariate test of the interaction Time \times Developmental Types was also significant ($\Lambda = .49; F(18, 733) = 11.54; p < .0001$), revealing that change trends were not parallel for the four developmental types of personality. Results of univariate tests, within-subject contrasts, and post hoc comparisons are reported in Table 2.

Insert Table 2 about here

¹⁰ In plotting mean scores of the developmental types by each personality trait separately, rather than plotting mean scores of traits by developmental type as in Figure 1, the similarities and differences between types can be more easily seen. Results of these analyses were not presented in detail in the text due to space limitation. Complete results are presented in Table 2.

The univariate tests of between-subject effects were all significant, confirming that the developmental types were different for all personality traits. The types had became more differentiated with age. Indeed, the four groups of men seemed quite similar at age 16, with the exception of the Undercontrolled who clearly displayed the most unfavorable personality profile and the Overcontrolled, who displayed more Negative Emotionality than the two normative maturation types (see Figure 1).¹¹ Using eta squared as the measure of effect size, Negative Emotionality appeared to be the trait that best distinguished the types across time. Because the interaction multivariate test was significant, the interaction univariate tests (i.e., parallelism tests) were examined with more detail. If a univariate interaction test was not significant, then the within-subject test (i.e., flatness test) was examined. The univariate within-subject tests were all significant, revealing that all personality traits changed across time for the developmental types. Eta squared suggested that Disinhibition was the trait that changed most over time, while Extraversion seemed more stable than the others. The univariate interaction tests were also all significant, revealing that the change rate across time was not parallel for the four developmental types.

The planned contrasts clarified these trends. For Disinhibition, there was a linear decrease for all types between ages 16 and 30 and ages 30 and 40. However, as indicated by the interaction contrast, the change rate was the highest for the Communals and the lowest for the Overcontrolled between the ages of 16 and 30. For this trait, between the ages of 30 and 40, the decrease rate was fairly similar for all types. For Negative Emotionality, the interaction contrast of the quadratic trend confirmed the decrease for all types except for the Overcontrolled who increased between the ages of 16 and 30. The decrease rate was more rapid for the two normative maturation types between the ages of 16 and 30, while, as is the

¹¹ A MANOVA on the three personality traits was conducted on age 16 data. The omnibus test was significant ($\Lambda = .65$; $F(9, 638) = 13.72; p < .0001$) as well as the group difference tests for Disinhibition ($\eta^2 = .23$; $F(3, 268) = 25.70; p < .0001$), Negative Emotionality ($\eta^2 = .24$; $F(3, 268) = 27.42; p < .0001$), and Extraversion ($\eta^2 = .04$; $F(3, 268) = 3.82; p < .01$). Post hoc tests ($p < .05$) revealed that for Disinhibition, only the Undercontrolled scored significantly higher than the three other types. For Negative Emotionality, the two maladjusted types (Undercontrolled and Overcontrolled) scored significantly higher than the two normative maturation types (Communals and Agentics), while there was no difference between the two maladjusted types and between the two normative maturation types. For Extraversion, only the Undercontrolled scored significantly higher than the three other types.

case for Disinhibition, the decrease rate in Negative Emotionality was similar for all types between the ages of 30 and 40. For Extraversion, the interaction contrast of the quadratic trend confirmed that all types decreased, except the Agentics, who displayed an important increase from ages 16 to 30 and for whom Extraversion remained high until age 40. The decrease in Extraversion was particularly rapid between the ages of 16 and 30 for the Overcontrolled. Between the ages of 30 and 40, the decrease rate in Extraversion was similar for all types.

The post hoc tests confirmed that the developmental types were not significantly different at all measurement points. Indeed, the Agentics and the Overcontrolled seemed difficult to distinguish in Disinhibition across time. Moreover, though the post hoc test is significant, the Communals and the Agentics seemed similar across time in Negative Emotionality.

External Validity: Are the Developmental Types Differentially Related to Antisocial Behavior?

A first longitudinal test of the link between the developmental types of personality and the course of antisocial behavior was undertaken on criminality and substance use variety measures. Figure 2 presents mean raw scores of these measures by developmental type, and Table 3 presents results of the repeated measures ANOVAs. The between-groups tests were significant, revealing that developmental types of personality were differentially linked to these behaviors across time. Moreover, the within-groups tests (i.e., time) were also significant, but the interaction test was significant only for criminality, suggesting that the change over time was not parallel for all types. The planned contrasts suggest that for criminality, the change across time was generally linear for all types. Between the ages of 14 and 16, two types remained stable (i.e., Agentics and Undercontrolled), one increased (i.e., Overcontrolled) and one decreased (i.e., Communals). Between the ages of 16 and 30 and the ages of 30 and 40, all groups decreased. For substance use variety, all groups increased between the ages of 14 and 16 and the ages of 16 and 30, and then decreased between the ages of 30 and 40. The examination of Figure 2 clearly showed that the Undercontrolled were

involved in more delinquent behaviors and used more substances in adolescence and adulthood. Inversely, the Communals were the least involved in these antisocial behavior across time, while the Overcontrolled tended to show the least of such behaviors during adolescence. In general, the types were less clearly distinguished in adulthood, probably due to the low prevalence of these behaviors in adulthood, particularly criminality. An interesting finding to note is that the Overcontrolled used more substances than any other type during adulthood. Overall, the antisocial behavior trajectories were coherently linked with the developmental types of personality. The post hoc tests revealed that the Communals were engaged in significantly less criminal behaviors and used less substances across time than the Undercontrolled. The latter were also engaged in significantly more criminal behaviors and used more substances across time than the Agentics. The Undercontrolled were also engaged in more criminal behaviors across time as compared with the Overcontrolled, but not for the number of substances used, for which the Overcontrolled were the most involved.

Insert Figures 2 and 3 and Tables 3 and 4 about here

Regarding the antisocial behavior frequency measures, Figure 3 presents mean *T*-scores and Table 4 presents the results of the repeated measures ANOVAs.¹² Examination of Figure 3 clearly shows that the developmental types displayed differentiated relations in antisocial behavior frequency across time. The between-group tests were significant for behavior problems and conjugal problems, while it was marginally significant for work problems. They confirmed that the developmental types were differentially related to these behaviors across time. The tests of time and interaction of group and time effect were significant for behavior problems and conjugal problems. The four groups increased in behavior problems between ages 14 and 16, particularly the two normative maturation types, while between ages 30 and 40, the four groups decreased in conjugal problems, particularly the Overcontrolled and the Agentics. For work problems, three types showed a decrease

¹² Results of analyses of criminality and substance use frequency were not reported because the patterns and magnitude of the differences were identical to variety analyses.

(Overcontrolled, Undercontrolled, and Communals) and one showed a slight increase (Agentics), but not at a significant level. Not all comparisons attained statistical significance, but the overall result patterns were conceptually and empirically coherent with the men's personality profiles at each of the four periods of the life course. In adolescence, the Undercontrolled manifested the highest levels of behavior problems, delinquent behaviors and substance use as compared with all other three types, particularly compared with the Communals and the Overcontrolled. The Communals, and particularly the Overcontrolled, tended to present the lowest levels of antisocial behavior during adolescence. The Agentics presented more frequent antisocial behavior than the Communals, but not at a statistically significant level. By adulthood, the more salient result was that the Communals displayed significantly less frequent antisocial behavior than any other type. The antisocial behavior frequency of the Undercontrolled decreased in adulthood, but it remained clearly higher than the two normative maturation types. At the same time, it increased from adolescence to midlife for the Overcontrolled, who tended to display the highest levels of antisocial behavior in adulthood, particularly in substance use and work and conjugal problems.

In summary, the Communals were clearly the men who manifested the least varied and frequent antisocial behavior at each of the four studied developmental periods. The Agentics were slightly more antisocial than the Communals. The Undercontrolled tended to be the most involved in antisociality across time, while the Overcontrolled became particularly maladjusted in adulthood.

Discussion

The objective of this study was to search for a developmental typology of personality from adolescence to midlife and establish its validity in the prediction of antisocial behavior. A developmental typology composed of four groups of men was identified. Each of them seemed to be differentially related to antisocial behavior across time.

Communals – Normative Maturation

The Communals displayed good cognitive and behavioral control (i.e., low Disinhibition), good emotional regulation (i.e., low Negative Emotionality), and a normative level of Extraversion during their adolescence. Through early adulthood, these men showed important decreases in the three traits, but more particularly in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality which decreased by about one standard deviation and a half. Their psychological maturation continued until midlife. As can be seen in Figure 1, these men were among those who showed the most important pattern of personality change between adolescence and early adulthood. This personality type showed the trait trajectories most comparable to the results derived from longitudinal studies using a variable-centered approach (i.e., group analyses; Caspi & Roberts, 1999; McCrae, Costa, et al., 2000).

As hypothesized, the Communals were those who reported the least varied and frequent antisocial behavior from adolescence to midlife. As adolescents, these individuals reported having displayed few behavior problems at school and at home, committed few delinquent behaviors and had the lowest level of substance use. Thus, such a personality type seems to be associated with *abstinence* from antisocial behavior, and it might be hypothesized that a number of these men follow a *common antisocial trajectory*. The present study thus suggests that personality maturation can be considered a buffer against antisocial behavior or as a correlate of the desistance process in a common antisocial trajectory. Glueck and Glueck (1974) were among the first to postulate that psychosocial maturation is one of the most important factors in explaining desistance from crime.

The Communals can be compared to the Ego-Resilients of Block (1971) and the low difficult-temperament group identified by Tubman et al. (1992) because all these trajectories are characterized by a stable or increasing good adjustment across time. This type is also conceptually similar to the Resilients identified in non-developmental typology (Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). However, because the Communals displayed lower levels of Extraversion in comparison with the Agentics, perhaps this former type of men corresponds more closely to the Communal-Resilients, who typically display lower Extraversion, higher

Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and lower antisocial behavior in comparison with the Agentic-Resilients (see Robins et al., 1996; van Lieshout et al., 1998).

Agentics – Normative Maturation

The Agentics were very similar to the Communals, but these men showed important increases in sensation seeking and particularly sociability (i.e., Extraversion) from adolescence to adulthood. The Agentics also tended to display slightly higher scores and a lower decrease rate in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality as compared with the Communals. The trait trajectories of this type were comparable to results of past studies using group analyses regarding the maladaptive personality traits. However, their Extraversion trajectory was not comparable to past studies (though conflicting results have been reported; Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Costa & McCrae, 1997; Helson et al., 2002).

The Agentics manifested more varied and frequent antisocial behavior from adolescence to midlife than the Communals, though the Agentics were clearly less involved in antisociality than the Undercontrolled and the Overcontrolled. Thus, such a personality type seems to be related to either a *common* or a *transitory antisocial trajectory*. At first glance, the identification of such a personality type supports Eysenck's (1989) theory postulating that Extraverted individuals tend to be more engaged in antisociality. Indeed, individuals who seek thrilling situations and are highly sociable are more likely to affiliate with antisocial peers during adolescence. This affiliation is known as one of the most prominent correlates of antisocial behavior (Kandel, 1996; Thornberry & Krohn, 1997).

The Agentics can be linked with the moderately low difficult-temperament trajectory identified by Tubman et al. (1992) and the Belated-Adjusters of Block (1971) because there was a maturational trend in all these groups for approximately the same developmental period. Moreover, this type is conceptually similar to the Resilients identified in non-developmental typology. In fact, these men are more comparable to the Agentic-Resilients subtype because they also typically display higher Extraversion and more antisocial behavior as compared with the Communal-Resilients (Robins et al., 1998; van Lieshout et al., 1998).

Undercontrolled – Delayed Maturation

The Undercontrolled displayed the lowest levels of cognitive and behavioral control (i.e., high Disinhibition) and the poorest emotional regulation (i.e., high Negative Emotionality) during adolescence. These men were also the most extraverted during adolescence. Their unfavorable personality profile improved progressively from adolescence to early adulthood, by about one standard deviation. This maturation continued at a lower rate until midlife. As can be seen in Figure 1, despite its progressive maturation, the psychological adjustment of the Undercontrolled still clearly lagged behind that of the two normative maturation types until midlife. Indeed, they remained the most disinhibited men from adolescence until midlife.

The Undercontrolled were those who reported the most varied and frequent behavior problems at school and at home, delinquent behaviors, and substance use during adolescence. Moreover, while their level of criminality decreased during adulthood, they remained highly involved in antisociality during adulthood because they displayed frequent work and conjugal problems and substance use, significantly more than the two normative maturation types. Caspi et al. (1994) also observed that a personality profile characterized by low Constraint (i.e., high Disinhibition) and high Negative Emotionality was related to antisocial behavior (see also Miller & Lynam, 2001). The Undercontrolled identified in non-developmental personality typology are also the most antisocial individuals. Thus, a personality type such as the Undercontrolled seems related to a more *persistent antisocial trajectory*. This personality type is the most comparable to the life-course-persistent antisociality proposed by Moffitt (1993; Moffitt et al., 2002) and to the early-onset and persistent substance abuser described by Tarter et al. (1999) and Zucker (1987; Zucker et al., 1995). The identification of this type also supports Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) theory postulating that self-control is the most important factor explaining antisocial behavior across the life course.

The Undercontrolled were highly similar to the high difficult-temperament trajectory of Tubman et al. (1992) and to Block's (1971) Unsettled-Undercontrollers. All of these groups displayed a longitudinal pattern of psychological maladjustment from adolescence to

adulthood. The Undercontrolled identified in this study were also conceptually quite similar to the Undercontrollers identified in non-developmental personality typology (Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998).

Overcontrolled – Blocked Maturation

The Overcontrolled displayed normative levels of cognitive and behavioral control (i.e., Disinhibition) and of sensation seeking and sociability (i.e., Extraversion) during adolescence. This was followed by a progressive decrease in Disinhibition, by about one standard deviation from adolescence to midlife. For Extraversion, there was a very important decrease from adolescence to early adulthood, of about two standard deviations, followed by another slower decrease until midlife. These men displayed poor emotional regulation (i.e., high Negative Emotionality) during adolescence, significantly higher than the two normative maturation types. There was an important increase in this trait during early adulthood, by about one and a half standard deviations, followed by a slight decrease until midlife. At midlife, these men were those who showed the highest Negative Emotionality and the lowest Extraversion. As can be seen in Figure 1, these men were those who showed the most explosive pattern of personality change between adolescence and early adulthood.

Surprisingly, the Overcontrolled were those who manifested the least behavior problems at school and at home, as well as the least delinquent behaviors and substance use during adolescence, even less than the Communals. However, these men were those who displayed the most frequent antisocial behavior in adulthood. It is worth noting that this trend is strikingly similar to their personality trajectory: as their personality profile worsened, they became the most involved in antisociality. The Overcontrolled were those who reported using the most psychotropic substances in adulthood and who reported the most frequent work and conjugal problems. This confirms past studies which observed that high Negative Emotionality predicts substance abuse and various mental health problems (e.g., Barnes et al., 2000; Clark, Watson, & Mineka, 1994; Krueger et al., 2000).

At first glance, we could have postulated that this personality type is related to a persistent antisocial trajectory. However, because these men shown no adjustment problems in adolescence, we would rather postulate that such a personality type is related to an *adult-onset antisocial trajectory*. Indeed, it seems very similar to the negative-affect type of alcoholism described by Zucker (1987; Zucker et al., 1995) and to adult-onset criminality (Rutter et al., 1998). Because individuals displaying high levels of Negative Emotionality tend to suffer as adolescents from a wide range of internalization problems (e.g., Clark et al., 1994; Krueger et al., 2000), perhaps these men showed some adjustment problems such as depression and anxiety during their adolescence, even if they displayed very few antisocial behaviors. Future studies will have to examine this issue because many theories postulate that individuals maladjusted during adulthood typically began to show difficulties during their adolescence or their childhood. Moreover, as we have noted, these men were among those who displayed the most explosive personality changes during early adulthood. Future studies will also have to determine if the observed worsening in their personality profile during early adulthood could be due to a lack of or an inadequate integration into adulthood roles which presumably could have enhanced their personality maturation (see Caspi, 1993, 1998).

The Overcontrolled are conceptually comparable to the stable difficult-temperament trajectory identified by Tubman et al. (1992) as well as to Block's Vulnerable-Overcontrollers. All of these groups displayed a longitudinal pattern of maladjustment from adolescence to adulthood. This developmental type is also conceptually very similar to the Overcontrollers identified in the tripartite non-developmental personality typology (Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998).

Some Implications of the Developmental-Typological Approach to Personality

The developmental-typological approach has many important implications. We outline three of them here. The first notable implication for personality psychology concerns theoretical development. This study stressed the potentials of building developmental and person-centered theories of personality (e.g., Block, 1971, 2000; Magnusson, 1999). This work is well underway in developing a theory based on the tripartite non-developmental

personality typology (Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). It is quite interesting that the developmental types of personality identified in the present study show clear conceptual similarity with this tripartite typology. This allowed us to apply similar labels to the developmental types. Moreover, considering the personality maturation observed in group analyses of mean-level continuity (Caspi, & Roberts, 1999; Helson et al., 2002; McCrae, Costa et al., 2000), we used the term “maturation” in each label to qualify this trend within a developmental-typological approach. These specific labels were simply assigned for ease of presentation and are not assumed to adequately describe the complex life pathways of these men. Furthermore, we do not assume to have identified a *replicable* developmental typology. In phenomenological terms, each individual follows a unique trajectory in each personality trait. However, given the important genetic background and socio-cultural modes of adaptation shared by all human beings, individuals are not all so different that an infinite number of types exists and that the identification of a parsimonious classification cannot be uncovered (Block, 1971; Magnusson, 1998, 1999; Meehl, 1992). In all likelihood, a limited number exists in nature. The four developmental types we identified are theoretically interesting but probably not the only fundamental ones in nature. Given the very broad nature of these empirically derived types and the many primary traits tapping the three personality traits we used, a number of meaningful subtypes certainly exist. Following the identification of a robust and replicable developmental typology of personality, researchers will have to identify a broader range of correlates explaining why some individuals follow a specific pathway (i.e., predictors) and to what kind of personal and social adjustment a specific pathway is related (i.e., outcomes). This could help in building a theory of personality development explicitly taking into account inter-individual differences in intra-individual change, as has been recommended by Block for many years (1971, 2000).

A second implication of the developmental-typological approach to personality concerns the study of continuity and change. Different types of continuity can be assessed (see Caspi & Roberts, 1999), but the present study is of particular interest for mean-level continuity. Caspi and Roberts have noted an interesting paradox in stating that “conceptually, it connotes the continuity of an attribute within a single individual, but it is typically assessed empirically by examining group means” (p. 305). The present study suggests that when using

a developmental-typological approach, both continuity and change are observable, depending on the developmental type considered. This approach could give new meaningful insights in resolving conflicting results about continuity and change in personality traits and thus, seems to be a very useful tool to complement group analyses – if not to say a more efficient tool.

A third implication of the developmental-typological approach to personality concerns theories of antisocial behavior development, particularly those emphasizing the role of personality (e.g., Caspi et al., 1994; Eysenck, 1989; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Jessor et al., 1991; Moffitt, 1993; Tarter et al., 1999; Wills et al., 2000; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985; Zucker, 1987; Zucker et al., 1995). For example, one of the dominant positions in criminology, Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) general theory of crime, postulates that self-control is the most important causal factors in explaining antisocial behaviors (not only criminality) across the life course. The self-control concept proposed by these theorists encompasses many aspects of the Disinhibition and Extraversion measures used in the present study (see Morizot & Le Blanc, *in press*). At first glance, the present study supported Gottfredson and Hirschi's claims because the Undercontrolled tended to be the most involved in antisocial behavior from adolescence to midlife. However, a very different personality type, the Overcontrolled, was also clearly related to antisocial behavior in adulthood. Thus, the use of a developmental-typological approach suggests that the role of personality (or self-control) in theories of antisocial behavior could arguably require a more specific formulation according to different developmental types of personality. In fact, the developmental-typological approach to personality, as exemplified in the present study, corresponds more closely to Moffitt's (1993, Moffitt et al., 2002) theory postulating that distinct antisocial trajectories are explained by distinct etiologic factors, including personality. However, in the present study, the relations between personality types and antisocial behavior are far from absolute, suggesting that personality may not be the most important explanatory factor of persistent antisociality, as postulated by Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990). Other factors moderating or mediating the relations between the two constructs seem to be necessary for an adequate explanation. Moreover, this study does not answer a crucial question: is personality maturation a precursor of change in antisocial behavior? Inversely, does the process of

desistance from antisocial behavior favor psychological maturation? Maybe neither of these aspects of individuals' lives has any causal relations with one another across time.

Strengths and Limitations of the Study

To our knowledge, this was the first study that searched for a developmental typology of personality in a sample of men representative of the general population for this period of the life course. The use of prospective longitudinal data gathered on four occasions from adolescence to midlife is important. Moreover, because in any typological enterprise sampling of individuals is critical, the representative nature of the sample is important for generalization. Indeed, even if it is not an ideal design, it remains grossly representative of the Caucasian French-speaking male population living in the Montreal metropolitan area and born in the early sixties. However, this strength has a negative side: the sample represents a single-birth cohort. Continuity and change in personality traits could be influenced by the specific social and economic context of the province of Quebec from the early seventies to the late nineties. Thus, the developmental typology identified in the present study may be specific to the MTSLS data. Only replication will answer this question. Nevertheless, the fact that the developmental types we uncovered generally converge with previous work on personality types conducted in a wide range of socio-cultural contexts supports the generalizability of the present research. If the representativeness of the sampling is critical, that of the personality variables is almost as important. Thus, another advantage of the present study concerns the personality measures employed, which represent a commonly used structural model of personality (i.e., Big-Three). Longitudinal studies using very similar measures exist, allowing eventual replication.

Despite these strengths, this study was not without limitations. The first one is contingent on the limitations of cluster analysis. We have noted that these methods have been criticized. However, the analytical strategy we followed addressed a number of concerns associated with these techniques. Other statistical analyses could have been used, but longitudinal cluster analysis can be considered an adequate tool for the preliminary construction of a developmental typology because it deals easily with multivariate data and

small samples such as ours (see Bergman, 1998, 2000; Dumenci & Windle, 2001). In all likelihood, a meaningful and replicable developmental typology should be identified with different analytical techniques, sample types, and personality measures. A second limitation of this study is that the results apply only to men. A third important limitation concerns the sole use of self-reported assessment. Indeed, correlations between two self-report measures may be confounded by content overlap between the two measures (i.e., some personality items within Disinhibition may include items related to aggression and antisocial behavior) and / or by response style such as socially desirable responding (i.e., the participant may fake good on some personality items and fake good on antisocial behavior items), both situations producing spurious correlations between the two constructs. Regarding the item overlap critic, a classic issue in criminology, some data tend to suggest that eliminating conceptually overlapping items in personality measures does not change the magnitude of the correlations between personality traits and antisocial behavior (e.g., Caspi et al., 1994). Regarding social desirability, because most items of the personality measures used in the present study are worded to measure the negative side of the trait continuum and there are very few items positively worded (i.e., reverse-scored), this possibility should be kept in mind. Despite bias associated with this type of assessment, both self-reported personality (e.g., Robins & John, 1997) and self-reported antisocial behavior (e.g., Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Rutter et al., 1998) are known to provide valid and reliable information. Self- and peer-reports often correlate to a level suggesting good construct validity of personality traits (e.g., Funder & Colvin, 1997). Peer ratings may not be more convenient because some studies have shown that they could be influenced by a self-based heuristic phenomenon. Regarding personality, when peers were asked to rate difficult-to-judge traits, they tend to report more on their own personality (Ready, Clark, Watson, & Westerhouse, 2000). For antisocial behavior, when the adolescents' friends report on delinquency and substance use, they tend to report more on their own behaviors (Kandel, 1996). A fourth limitation is that only personality traits were traced over time. Dispositional traits constitute fundamental units of personality, but are not the only ones. It would have been invaluable, for example, to determine the relations between trait-based developmental types of personality and life goals (Dweck, 1996), personal concerns and life narratives (McAdams, 1994b) and ego development stages (John, Pals, & Westenberg, 1998). A fifth limitation is that the external validation of the developmental

typology was conducted with a limited number of variables associated with the individual's adjustment. We asserted that antisocial behavior measures were theoretically relevant, but it will be critical to document the possible relations between developmental types of personality and a broader range of variables typically associated with personality development.

Conclusion

During the last decades of the twentieth century, most psychologists were considering personality traits as quite stable predispositions from the beginning of adulthood. However, recent longitudinal studies showed that personality traits can exhibit mean-level changes in the direction of greater maturity across the entire life course. Because virtually all studies were based on the variable-centered approach (i.e., group analyses), the hypothesis of a normative maturation applies to the “average person.” It was demonstrated in the present study that results derived from developmental-typological analyses raise an important issue for students of personality development. Although they are very useful in tapping general trends and provide an important heuristic for personality theory, it seems clear that the results from group analyses can hide various realities. Indeed, in a given sample, subgroups of individuals can demonstrate strong continuity of good adjustment or of maladjustment, others can display a maturational trend and others a deterioration in their personality profiles across the life course. Although most researchers now adopt a realistic view and recognize that both continuity and change can be observed in personality, there is a continuing polarization of viewpoints opposing “continuity and change” or “plaster and plasticity” in some students of personality. We think that future research adopting a developmental-typological approach to studying personality could certainly help in clarifying many issues raised by the proponents of both positions. A lot of research needs to be done before personality psychology can have a replicable and accepted developmental typology describing quantitatively and qualitatively distinct life pathways explained by distinct etiologic factors. In this beginning of the twenty-first century, we think this is a challenging and promising issue for contemporary personality researchers.

Table 1*Mean Scores in the Three Personality Traits for the Total Sample*

| | Disinhibition | | Negative Emotionality | | Extraversion | |
|----------|---------------|-----------|--------------------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| | | | 16 years | 30 years | 40 years | |
| 16 years | 49.39 | 9.95 | 49.79 | 9.93 | 50.58 | 9.87 |
| 30 years | 40.66 | 9.30 | 39.27 | 12.43 | 47.18 | 12.40 |
| 40 years | 37.38 | 8.16 | 35.92 | 12.24 | 43.04 | 12.55 |

Note. *T*-scores were calculated with raw data (*M* and *SD*) of age 16.

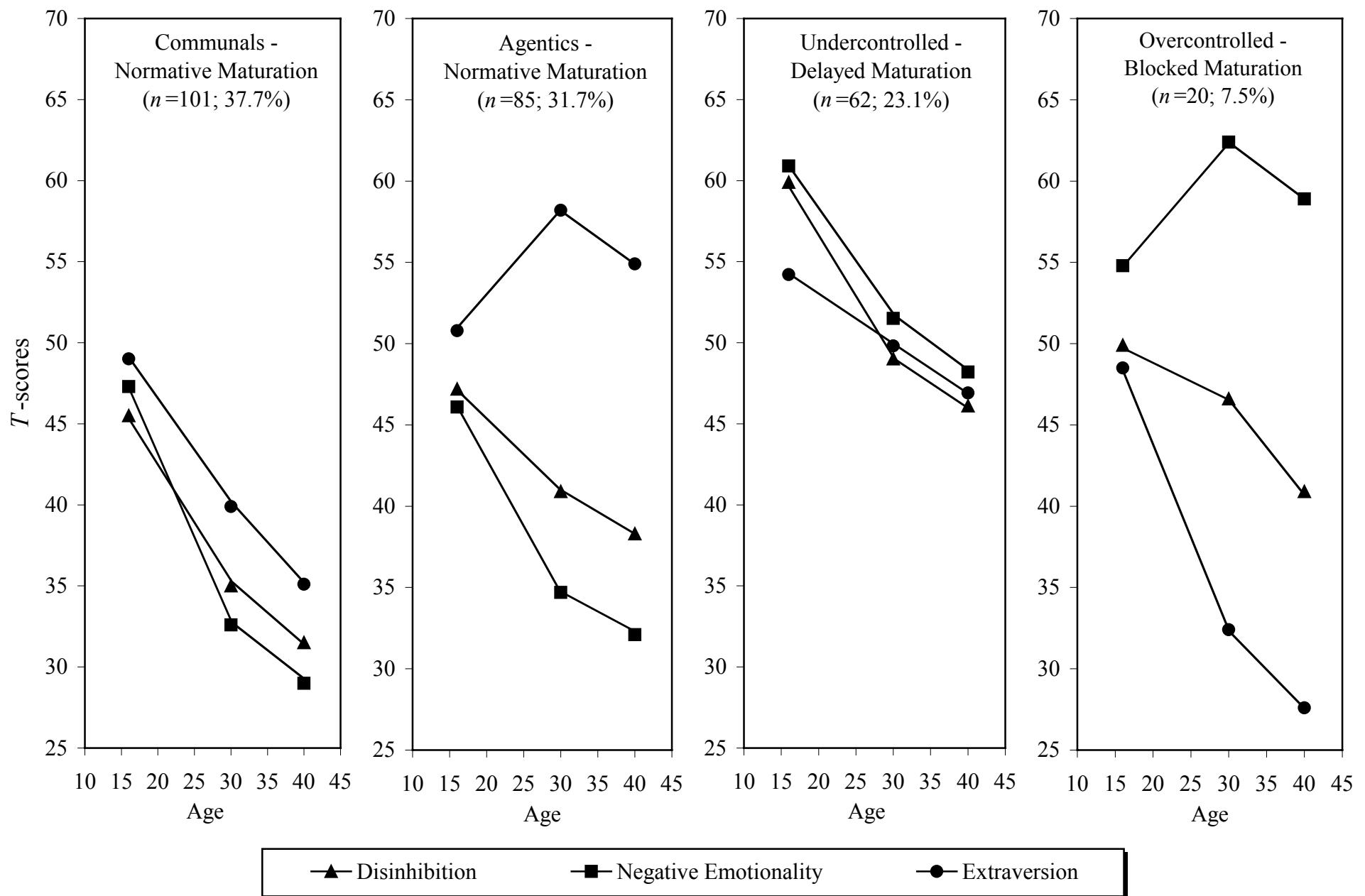


Figure 1. Mean Scores in the Three Personality Traits by Developmental Type

Table 2

Results of Univariate Tests and Contrasts of the Repeated Measures MANOVA on Personality Traits by Developmental Type

| Source | Disinhibition | | | Negative Emotionality | | | Extraversion | | |
|--------------------------|---------------|-----------|---------------------|-----------------------|-----------|---------------------|--------------|-----------|----------|
| | df | F | η^2 | df | F | η^2 | df | F | η^2 |
| Between (Dev. Type) | 3, 264 | 63.19*** | .42 | 3, 264 | 135.36*** | .61 | 3, 264 | 103.99*** | .54 |
| Within (Time) | 2, 528 | 145.68*** | .36 | 2, 528 | 88.63*** | .25 | 2, 528 | 61.83*** | .19 |
| Time × Dev. Type | 6, 528 | 5.08*** | .06 | 6, 528 | 17.57*** | .17 | 6, 528 | 28.12*** | .24 |
| <i>Planned Contrasts</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| Time | | | | | | | | | |
| Linear | 1, 264 | 250.37*** | .49 | 1, 264 | 149.82*** | .36 | 1, 264 | 103.83*** | .28 |
| Quadratic | 1, 264 | 4.47* | .02 | 1, 264 | 1.26 | .01 | 1, 264 | 0.04 | .00 |
| Time × Dev. Type | | | | | | | | | |
| Linear | 3, 264 | 6.85*** | .07 | 3, 264 | 22.69*** | .21 | 3, 264 | 38.19*** | .30 |
| Quadratic | 3, 264 | 2.69* | .03 | 3, 264 | 10.25*** | .10 | 3, 264 | 13.29*** | .13 |
| <i>Post Hoc</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 < 2, 1 < 3, 1 < 4 | | | 1 = 2, 1 < 3, 1 < 4 | | | 1 < 2, 1 < 3, 1 > 4 | | | |
| 2 < 3, 2 = 4, 3 > 4 | | | 2 < 3, 2 < 4, 3 < 4 | | | 2 > 3, 2 > 4, 3 > 4 | | | |

Note. 1 = Communals–Normative Maturation, 2 = Agentics–Normative Maturation, 3 = Undercontrolled–Delayed Maturation, 4 = Overcontrolled–Blocked Maturation. Polynomial contrasts adjusted for unequal time intervals. Post hoc tests = Tukey HSD significant at .05 alpha level, corrected for Type I error inflation.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$.

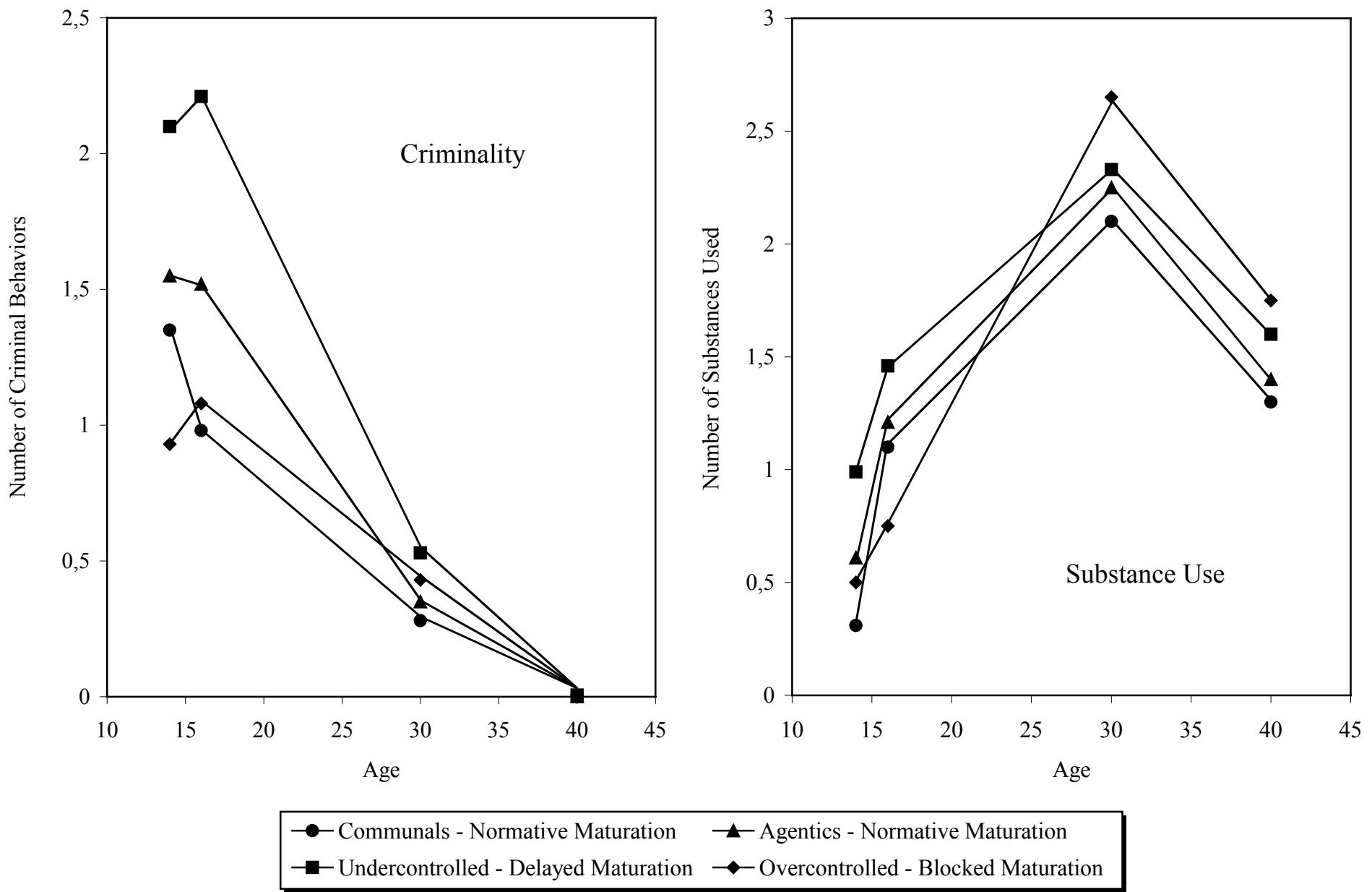


Figure 2. Number of Criminal Behaviors and Substances Used Across Time by Developmental Type of Personality

Table 3

Results of the Repeated Measures ANOVAs on Criminality and Substance Use Variety by Developmental Type of Personality

| Source | Criminality | | | Substance Use | | |
|---|-------------|-----------|----------|---|-------------------|----------|
| | df | F | η^2 | df | F | η^2 |
| Between (Dev. Type) | 3, 263 | 6.92*** | .07 | 3, 260 | 3.81** | .04 |
| Within (Time) | 3, 789 | 76.19*** | .23 | 3, 780 | 123.21*** | .32 |
| Time × Dev. Type | 9, 789 | 3.95*** | .04 | 9, 780 | 1.81 ^a | .02 |
| <i>Planned Contrasts</i> | | | | | | |
| Time | | | | | | |
| Linear | 1, 263 | 165.02*** | .39 | 1, 260 | 121.06*** | .32 |
| Quadratic | 1, 263 | 11.19** | .04 | 1, 260 | 233.37*** | .47 |
| Cubic | 1, 263 | 0.46 | .00 | 1, 260 | 12.73*** | .05 |
| Time × Dev. Type | | | | | | |
| Linear | 3, 263 | 6.65*** | .07 | 3, 260 | 2.54 ^a | .03 |
| Quadratic | 3, 263 | 1.65 | .02 | 3, 260 | 1.22 | .01 |
| Cubic | 3, 263 | 1.74 | .02 | 3, 260 | 1.48 | .02 |
| <i>Post Hoc</i> | | | | | | |
| 1 < 2, 1 < 3 , 1 > 4, 2 < 3 , 2 > 4, 3 > 4 | | | | 1 < 2, 1 < 3 , 1 < 4, 2 < 3^a , 2 < 4, 3 > 4 | | |

Note. Greenhouse-Geisser correction applied to Within and Interaction tests (i.e., df). 1 = Communals-Normative Maturation, 2 = Agentics-Normative Maturation, 3 = Undercontrolled-Delayed Maturation, 4 = Overcontrolled-Blocked Maturation. Polynomial contrasts adjusted for unequal time intervals. Post hoc tests = Tukey HSD corrected for Type I error inflation. Significant post hoc tests ($p < .05$) are presented in bold.

^a $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$.

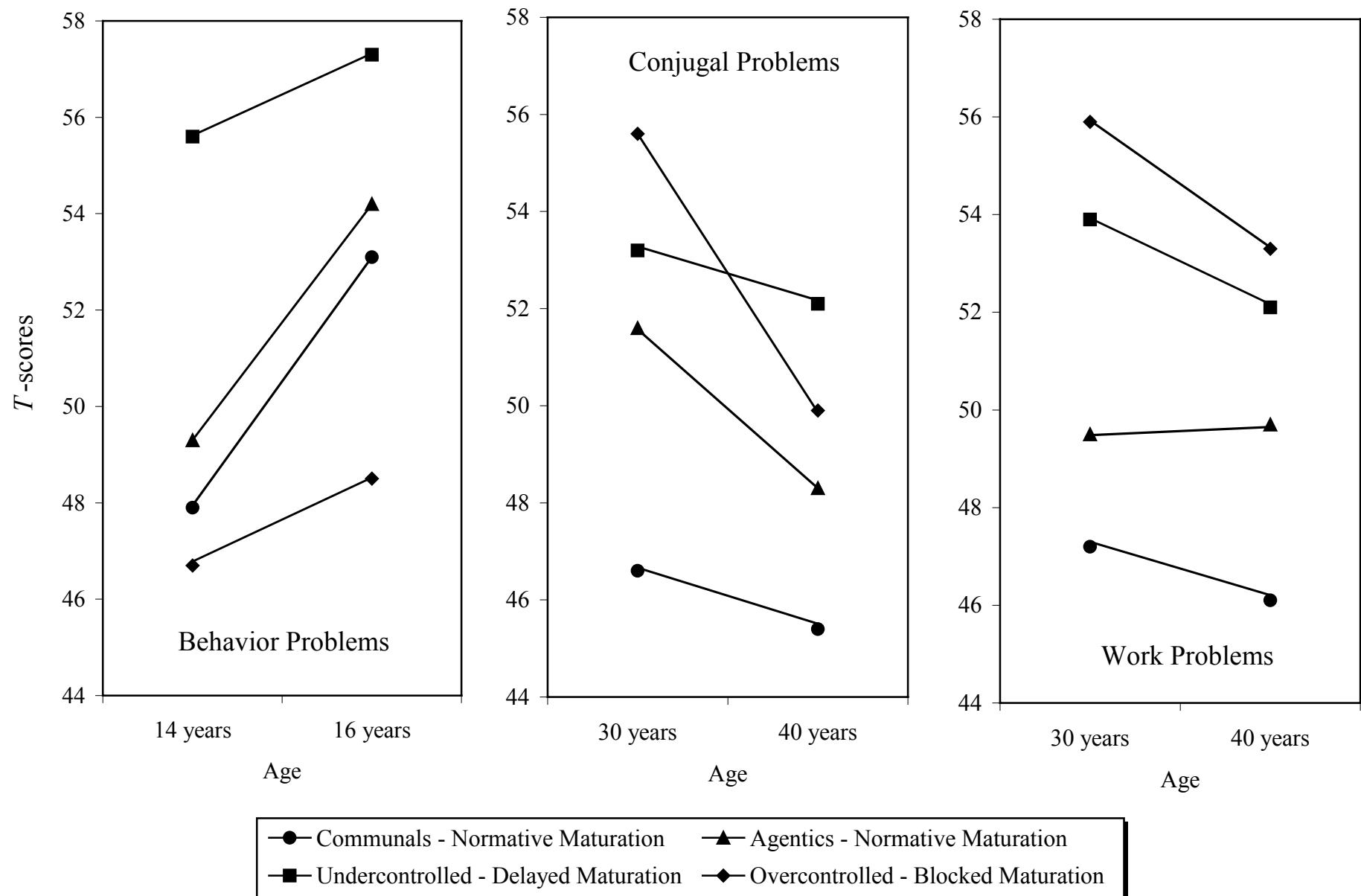


Figure 3. *Behavioral, Conjugal, and Work Problems Frequency Across Time by Developmental Type of Personality*

Table 4

Results of the Repeated Measures ANOVAs on Behavioral, Conjugal, and Work Problems Frequency by Developmental Type of Personality

| Source | Behavior Problems | | | Conjugal Problems | | | Work Problems | | |
|---------------------|--|---------|----------|---|----------|----------|---|-------|----------|
| | df | F | η^2 | df | F | η^2 | df | F | η^2 |
| Between (Dev. Type) | 3, 264 | 8.76*** | .10 | 3, 264 | 9.17*** | .09 | 3, 264 | 6.11* | .07 |
| Within (Time) | 1, 264 | 3.57* | .01 | 1, 264 | 24.35*** | .08 | 1, 264 | 0.05 | .00 |
| Time × Dev. Type | 3, 264 | 1.70 | .01 | 3, 264 | 2.49 | .03 | 3, 264 | 0.11 | .00 |
| <i>Post Hoc</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1 < 2, 1 < 3 , 1 > 4 | | | 1 < 2 , 1 < 3 , 1 < 4 | | | 1 < 2 , 1 < 3 , 1 < 4 | | |
| | 2 < 3 , 2 > 4, 3 > 4 | | | 2 < 3, 2 < 4, 3 < 4 | | | 2 < 3^a , 2 < 4 , 3 < 4 | | |

Note. Greenhouse-Geisser correction applied to Within and Interaction tests (i.e., df). 1 = Communal-Normative Maturation, 2 = Agentics-Normative Maturation, 3 = Undercontrolled-Delayed Maturation, 4 = Overcontrolled-Blocked Maturation. The two time points for Behavior Problems are ages 14 and 16, while the two time points for Conjugal and Work Problems are ages 30 and 40. Post hoc tests = Tukey HSD corrected for Type I error inflation. Significant post hoc tests ($p < .05$) are presented in bold.

^a $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$.

Appendix A

Means and Standard Deviations in T-scores for All Traits by Developmental Type

| Communals – Normative maturation (n = 101) | 16 years | | 30 years | | 40 years | |
|---|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | 45.54 | 8.77 | 34.96 | 7.04 | 31.67 | 5.42 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 45.95 | 8.57 | 37.20 | 6.44 | 34.76 | 4.88 |
| Malignant Egotism | 45.31 | 8.76 | 40.89 | 5.90 | 39.63 | 5.44 |
| Callous Hostility | 48.09 | 9.19 | 41.85 | 8.26 | 38.97 | 6.35 |
| Impulsiveness | 47.83 | 9.81 | 37.26 | 6.18 | 35.75 | 4.50 |
| Antisocial Values | 47.01 | 9.37 | 35.96 | 7.66 | 32.55 | 6.34 |
| Authority Opposition | 47.68 | 10.31 | 38.72 | 7.88 | 34.94 | 5.96 |
| Societal Skepticism | 47.21 | 9.28 | 37.21 | 7.54 | 35.01 | 6.84 |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | 47.25 | 8.63 | 32.56 | 8.11 | 29.20 | 7.25 |
| Alienation | 47.19 | 7.90 | 35.92 | 5.60 | 34.57 | 4.76 |
| Mistrust | 47.65 | 8.71 | 36.22 | 6.68 | 35.29 | 6.41 |
| Self-Criticism | 47.63 | 8.11 | 39.82 | 7.30 | 38.59 | 5.61 |
| Schizotypy | 48.07 | 8.14 | 41.03 | 5.19 | 39.92 | 4.32 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 48.73 | 9.23 | 38.29 | 8.95 | 35.73 | 7.85 |
| Social Anxiety | 50.46 | 9.46 | 41.99 | 10.24 | 40.11 | 8.82 |
| Passivity | 47.69 | 9.06 | 39.25 | 7.59 | 37.02 | 7.25 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 47.66 | 9.86 | 34.31 | 10.13 | 30.23 | 9.34 |
| Anxiousness | 47.31 | 9.34 | 38.66 | 10.56 | 34.24 | 9.17 |
| Affective Distress | 49.32 | 10.34 | 39.60 | 10.37 | 36.85 | 10.67 |
| Irritability | 48.45 | 9.60 | 34.74 | 7.69 | 33.26 | 6.54 |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | 49.03 | 9.49 | 39.88 | 8.47 | 35.06 | 7.34 |
| Sensation Seeking | 49.00 | 9.53 | 33.89 | 9.40 | 29.60 | 7.74 |
| Sociability | 49.41 | 10.01 | 48.10 | 9.09 | 44.69 | 9.23 |

Appendix A (continued)

Means and Standard Deviations in T-scores for All Traits by Developmental Type

| Agencies – Normative maturation (n = 85) | 16 years | | 30 years | | 40 years | |
|---|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | 47.24 | 7.77 | 40.93 | 7.25 | 38.28 | 6.23 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 48.16 | 8.20 | 43.99 | 7.95 | 40.91 | 6.63 |
| Malignant Egotism | 48.89 | 8.36 | 46.68 | 6.99 | 45.89 | 6.64 |
| Callous Hostility | 48.51 | 8.48 | 45.61 | 8.55 | 42.37 | 7.98 |
| Impulsiveness | 48.25 | 8.46 | 43.30 | 9.33 | 39.71 | 7.18 |
| Antisocial Values | 46.95 | 8.27 | 39.96 | 7.35 | 38.25 | 6.63 |
| Authority Opposition | 47.87 | 7.86 | 40.72 | 7.91 | 39.46 | 6.27 |
| Societal Skepticism | 46.94 | 9.28 | 41.91 | 6.97 | 40.28 | 7.50 |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | 46.10 | 8.11 | 34.74 | 7.20 | 32.09 | 6.17 |
| Alienation | 46.61 | 7.10 | 38.17 | 4.94 | 36.31 | 4.19 |
| Mistrust | 47.58 | 8.07 | 40.40 | 7.73 | 38.50 | 7.15 |
| Self-Criticism | 47.32 | 8.08 | 40.90 | 6.26 | 39.88 | 5.72 |
| Schizotypy | 47.00 | 8.24 | 40.60 | 3.47 | 39.23 | 2.72 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 44.93 | 8.89 | 38.06 | 7.95 | 36.51 | 7.01 |
| Social Anxiety | 45.52 | 9.39 | 40.67 | 9.25 | 38.11 | 8.24 |
| Passivity | 46.22 | 9.27 | 40.04 | 7.58 | 39.91 | 6.76 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 48.39 | 9.77 | 36.98 | 9.39 | 34.19 | 8.50 |
| Anxiousness | 48.21 | 9.60 | 40.86 | 9.59 | 37.92 | 8.39 |
| Affective Distress | 49.64 | 10.45 | 41.71 | 9.76 | 39.71 | 9.69 |
| Irritability | 48.71 | 10.82 | 36.52 | 7.56 | 35.49 | 7.88 |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | 50.84 | 10.32 | 58.24 | 8.15 | 54.94 | 8.88 |
| Sensation Seeking | 50.75 | 9.03 | 51.63 | 10.09 | 45.89 | 11.79 |
| Sociability | 49.81 | 10.67 | 60.86 | 6.57 | 58.94 | 7.35 |

Appendix A (continued)

Means and Standard Deviations in T-scores for All Traits by Developmental Type

| Undercontrolled – Delayed maturation (n = 62) | 16 years | | 30 years | | 40 years | |
|--|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | 59.89 | 9.42 | 48.71 | 9.22 | 46.09 | 8.31 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 59.11 | 9.48 | 49.98 | 9.06 | 45.12 | 8.32 |
| Malignant Egotism | 56.06 | 9.53 | 48.45 | 7.15 | 45.87 | 7.25 |
| Callous Hostility | 58.39 | 9.30 | 52.66 | 9.08 | 48.82 | 8.97 |
| Impulsiveness | 55.77 | 9.66 | 48.97 | 10.41 | 43.75 | 8.20 |
| Antisocial Values | 59.60 | 9.69 | 46.28 | 9.20 | 44.22 | 8.94 |
| Authority Opposition | 57.49 | 9.96 | 45.68 | 9.09 | 43.88 | 8.66 |
| Societal Skepticism | 56.63 | 9.59 | 47.77 | 9.13 | 46.01 | 8.97 |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | 60.86 | 9.44 | 51.54 | 8.59 | 48.19 | 10.81 |
| Alienation | 60.61 | 9.15 | 44.93 | 7.75 | 42.37 | 8.63 |
| Mistrust | 58.47 | 9.15 | 46.18 | 8.94 | 44.38 | 10.60 |
| Self-Criticism | 56.83 | 10.31 | 44.50 | 8.36 | 43.97 | 9.00 |
| Schizotypy | 55.66 | 10.45 | 47.03 | 8.08 | 43.43 | 6.62 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 56.80 | 8.51 | 51.84 | 10.85 | 46.50 | 10.33 |
| Social Anxiety | 54.33 | 9.61 | 52.00 | 9.62 | 47.84 | 10.99 |
| Passivity | 56.52 | 9.01 | 51.06 | 11.05 | 46.59 | 10.68 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 55.30 | 9.85 | 51.39 | 11.66 | 47.76 | 12.95 |
| Anxiousness | 55.86 | 10.22 | 54.97 | 11.33 | 51.00 | 13.07 |
| Affective Distress | 52.69 | 9.93 | 51.01 | 11.10 | 49.34 | 10.77 |
| Irritability | 52.67 | 9.51 | 44.65 | 10.11 | 42.57 | 9.91 |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | 54.15 | 8.75 | 49.79 | 8.80 | 46.83 | 10.30 |
| Sensation Seeking | 53.81 | 9.53 | 46.82 | 10.93 | 43.00 | 12.31 |
| Sociability | 52.85 | 8.76 | 51.39 | 8.20 | 50.86 | 8.85 |

Appendix A (continued)

Means and Standard Deviations in T-scores for All Traits by Developmental Type

| Overcontrolled – Blocked maturation (n = 20) | 16 years | | 30 years | | 40 years | |
|---|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | 49.86 | 10.91 | 46.59 | 8.64 | 40.91 | 6.28 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 50.25 | 11.51 | 46.28 | 10.61 | 40.68 | 7.52 |
| Malignant Egotism | 50.57 | 12.99 | 48.11 | 11.24 | 42.78 | 6.81 |
| Callous Hostility | 49.95 | 9.65 | 47.98 | 10.53 | 44.28 | 8.39 |
| Impulsiveness | 49.93 | 9.67 | 44.75 | 8.73 | 41.33 | 7.76 |
| Antisocial Values | 48.61 | 9.81 | 47.23 | 8.40 | 42.97 | 6.22 |
| Authority Opposition | 47.36 | 8.36 | 45.53 | 8.49 | 42.23 | 6.57 |
| Societal Skepticism | 50.06 | 10.49 | 49.43 | 9.56 | 45.43 | 6.78 |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | 54.76 | 9.22 | 62.35 | 13.07 | 58.86 | 12.91 |
| Alienation | 51.25 | 9.79 | 54.03 | 14.67 | 49.13 | 13.41 |
| Mistrust | 50.35 | 10.16 | 55.07 | 16.02 | 49.76 | 13.00 |
| Self-Criticism | 48.21 | 9.37 | 51.72 | 14.29 | 48.75 | 12.13 |
| Schizotypy | 54.18 | 10.80 | 52.32 | 11.67 | 49.30 | 9.70 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 58.83 | 11.77 | 61.93 | 10.07 | 60.34 | 12.68 |
| Social Anxiety | 60.00 | 11.23 | 63.94 | 9.43 | 64.59 | 11.07 |
| Passivity | 54.70 | 11.39 | 56.07 | 10.51 | 53.28 | 12.00 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 49.85 | 11.23 | 63.76 | 11.65 | 59.82 | 11.79 |
| Anxiousness | 50.12 | 12.47 | 62.47 | 12.30 | 60.93 | 12.28 |
| Affective Distress | 46.88 | 8.95 | 62.88 | 7.89 | 58.85 | 8.50 |
| Irritability | 52.76 | 10.84 | 55.33 | 11.21 | 50.77 | 12.29 |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | 48.52 | 10.94 | 32.35 | 9.82 | 27.64 | 8.86 |
| Sensation Seeking | 48.90 | 10.48 | 38.20 | 8.81 | 33.58 | 9.83 |
| Sociability | 49.61 | 10.54 | 34.59 | 11.04 | 31.58 | 10.27 |

CHAPITRE IV

SEARCHING FOR A DEVELOPMENTAL TYPOLOGY OF PERSONALITY AND ITS RELATIONS TO ANTI SOCIAL BEHAVIOR : A LONGITUDINAL STUDY OF AN ADJUDICATED MEN SAMPLE¹

¹ Morizot, J., & Le Blanc, M. (in press). Searching for a developmental typology of personality and its relations to antisocial behavior: A longitudinal study of an adjudicated men sample. *Criminal Behaviour and Mental Health.*

Abstract

The search for an empirically based personality typology has regained the interest of researchers. To date, however, the empirical inquiries were mainly cross-sectional. In this study, an empirically based developmental typology of personality was identified using data from a prospective longitudinal study of a sample of men adjudicated during their adolescence and assessed on four occasions until midlife. Cluster analyses were performed on measures of Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion. Four developmental types of personality were identified. The first was characterized by average scores in the three traits in adolescence that decreased linearly until midlife. The second type displayed very high scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality in adolescence that decreased rapidly during early adulthood. The third type was characterized by very high scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality that remained stable until midlife, while Extraversion was average during adolescence and then decreased rapidly until midlife. The fourth type was characterized by high scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality in adolescence that was followed by cycles of decreases and increases until midlife. These four developmental types of personality seemed to be related to known antisocial behavior trajectories.

Personality tests had been used for many decades by criminologists eager to better understand the personal factors which could help explain involvement in antisocial behaviors (see the reviews by Andrews & Bonta, 1998; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985). Though many kinds of personality measures were used, the most commonly employed were self-reported personality trait questionnaires. The trait approach to personality has made important progress in recent years. Indeed, research about its structure, genetic bases and predictive utility suggest that traits are fundamental units of personality (e.g., Bouchard & Loehlin, 2001; Krueger, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2000; Matthews & Deary, 1998). The main assumption of the trait position is that traits represent partly inheritable predispositions manifested by the consistency in which people differ from one another in cognitive, emotional, attitudinal, interpersonal, and behavioral functioning across time and situations.

In 1990, with the publication of their book, Gottfredson and Hirschi provided a new impetus in criminological research by forcefully restating that the psychological dimension is a crucial explanatory factor of antisocial behavior. In fact, with the publication of this book, their theory became one of the dominant positions in contemporary criminology, and their book became the second most cited in criminological scientific publications (Cohn & Farrington, 1998). A first major postulate of their “general theory” is that *low self-control* is the most important causal factor in explaining antisocial behaviors (not only criminality) across the life course. Their second major postulate is that low self-control tends to remain stable across the life course in antisocial individuals.

According to Gottfredson and Hirschi’s (1990) view (see, pp. 89-91), people displaying low self-control (1) tend to search for easy or simple gratifications of their desires, regardless of social or societal norms, (2) tend to have difficulty in delaying this gratification, (3) tend to have difficulty to plan, (3) are self-centered and (4) insensitive to the suffering of others, (5) tend to search for sensation or excitement and (6) to be gregarious or sociable. These dimensions clearly correspond to well-known traits composing commonly used structural personality models (see Clark & Watson, 1999; Matthews & Deary, 1998). In general, the first four dimensions could be encompassed within Disinhibition, while the last two are part of Extraversion.

Although general theories such as the one by Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) are appealing due to their parsimony, they generally oversimplify reality, and a number of problems could be emphasized, particularly regarding the use of the specific low self-control construct as defined by Gottfredson and Hirschi. In recent years, there have been a number of encouraging attempts to assess its construct validity (e.g., Grasmick, Tittle, Bursik, & Arnekev, 1993; Longshore, Turner, & Stein, 1996; Vazsonyi, Pickering, Junger, & Hessing, 2001). These studies, however, yielded mixed results suggesting that self-control is a multidimensional construct. Few authors have paid attention to the critical issue of the content validity of this construct. Indeed, the fact that low self-control seems multidimensional is not surprising because, as we noted, the low self-control dimensions proposed by Gottfredson and Hirschi encompass two independent (i.e., orthogonal) higher-order personality traits, namely Disinhibition and Extraversion. Another problem is that Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) definition of low self-control did not propose any traits related to Negative Emotionality, even if several studies showed that this is one important predictor of antisocial behavior (e.g., Krueger et al., 2000; Miller & Lynam, 2001). Indeed, in comparing mean-level continuity of the representative and adjudicated men samples of the Montreal Two-Sample Longitudinal Study (MTSLS), Morizot and Le Blanc (in press) observed that Alienation (i.e., Mistrust, Self-Criticism, Schizotypy) was among the traits that distinguished best the two samples across time. Moreover, they showed that within Extraversion, while Sensation Seeking distinguished the two samples, Sociability did not. With these concerns in mind, we can argue that one way to further explore the issue of individual differences related to antisocial behavior is to rest on a replicable structural model of personality traits. This would provide a comprehensive and psychometrically defensible operational definition of individual differences explaining antisocial behavior. In the present paper, we intend to illustrate the usefulness of using such a structural personality model within a developmental-typological approach for better understanding antisocial behavior development.

Whatever the constructs used to define potential individual differences explaining antisocial behavior, two questions following the two major postulates of the general theory of Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) must be answered. First, are individuals involved in

antisocial behavior characterized by low self-control? If so, secondly, is this low self-control stable across the life course of antisocial individuals? The answer to the first question generally makes consensus in both criminology and psychology. Based on research using different measures tapping the self-control construct, Pratt and Cullen's (2000) meta-analysis tends to support the assertion that low self-control is associated with antisocial behavior. Based on research using personality measures, Wilson and Herrnstein's (1985) classical review suggested that delinquents typically display a significantly more unfavorable profile than non-delinquents on various personality traits (see also Andrews & Bonta, 1998; Morizot & Le Blanc, in press). Moreover, even if these relations are subjected to criticisms, Miller and Lynam's (2000) meta-analysis clearly showed that personality traits such as Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality are associated with antisocial behavior. Barnes et al.'s (2000) studies provided the same conclusion for the differences in personality traits between substance abusers and non-abusers.

The answer to the second question is, however, much more controversial and largely unanswered by criminologists and psychologists. Indeed, despite the claims of Gottfredson and Hirschi about the continuity of low self-control in antisocial individuals, prospective longitudinal data using measures of low self-control as defined by Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) are lacking. Students of personality development have generally adopted a different position about personality continuity. Indeed, although the notion of trait as a predisposition implies a certain level of continuity, this does not mean that they are developmentally static constructs. Even if personality traits tend to show a great deal of consistency across the life course, most scholars consider traits as dynamic dimensions of human individual differences (Caspi & Roberts, 1999; McCrae, Costa, et al., 2000). Nevertheless, prospective longitudinal studies of special populations such as antisocial individuals are also lacking. To our knowledge, there is only one study that tracked personality traits in a sample of adjudicated adolescents that could help answer the second question. In studying continuity and change in personality traits of the MTSLS's participants, Morizot and Le Blanc (in press) observed that the answer is mixed: there were both continuity and change. Estimates of *rank-order continuity* revealed that personality traits remained quite stable from adolescence to midlife for both samples of the MTSLS. Moreover, the correlations were stronger for the adjudicated

men, which is in line with Gottfredson and Hirschi's view. With respect to *mean-level continuity*, both samples showed a maturation in personality traits characterized by decline in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality from adolescence to midlife. The adjudicated men, however, clearly displayed higher scores and tended to show a slower maturation. The two groups did not differ in Extraversion, and this trait tended to remain more stable from adolescence to midlife, particularly for the adjudicated men. Therefore, although adjudicated men clearly showed a worse personality profile compared to men from the general population, it remains that they displayed a non-trivial psychological maturation. These findings tend to infirm Gottfredson and Hirschi's postulate of low self-control stability in antisocial individuals because the unfavorable personality profile of the adjudicated men did not remain stable: there were intra-individual changes.

Morizot & Le Blanc's (in press) study was, nonetheless, based on a variable-centered perspective (i.e., group analyses), whereas it is known that such analyses could hide various meaningful trajectories. Indeed, most researchers adopting a typological approach to studying personality would agree that there is clear inter-individual differences in general population samples (see Asendorpf, Borkenau, Ostendorf, & van Aken, 2001; Caspi, 1998; Magnusson, 1999; Meehl, 1992; Robins, John, & Caspi, 1998). Although research is lacking, it is fair to postulate that there are also such differences in special populations such as antisocial individuals. Because these inter-individual differences also apply to intra-individual changes, a developmental-typological approach to personality could be invaluable for improving personality development and antisocial behavior theories. Consequently, the current state of knowledge about the developmental-typological approach to personality and its relations to antisocial behavior will be reviewed.

Towards a Developmental-Typological Approach to Personality

In order to empirically disentangle the variability between individuals in a heterogeneous sample, clustering methods are used to carry out a *classification* of the individuals into homogeneous subgroups so that those within a group are similar and those between the groups are not. In social sciences, a classification that has theoretical and

practical implications is often called a *typology* and the subgroups are called *types* (or categories, classes, syndromes, taxa, depending on the discipline; Bailey, 1994; Bergman, 1998; Speece, 1994). A *personality typology* consists in a classification of persons into subgroups displaying qualitatively and quantitatively distinct personality profiles.

A number of excellent reviews of empirical studies on the typological approach to personality concluded that, despite the participants of existing studies differing in age, gender, ethnicity, language, culture, historical period and geographic region, three replicable personality types are generally identified, namely, Adjusted (or Resilients), Overcontrolled, and Undercontrolled (e.g., Asendorpf et al., 2001; Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). A number of cross-sectional and longitudinal studies examined the antecedents, concurrent correlates, and consequences of personality types. They revealed that the types display differentiated profiles in important cognitive, behavioral, and social adjustment variables. The *Adjusted*, the largest group in all studies, typically show a good or normative behavioral and interpersonal adjustment. The *Overcontrolled*, typically the smallest group, tend to manifest a pattern of maladjustment characterized by inhibition in behavioral and interpersonal functioning (e.g., social withdrawal, depression, anxiety). Finally, the *Undercontrolled*, typically 20% of the sample studied, often display a pattern of maladjustment characterized by marked disinhibition in behavioral and interpersonal functioning (e.g., impulsivity, aggressiveness, delinquency). As suggested by Caspi (1998) and Robins et al. (1998), these three types constitute a minimally necessary set for an accepted empirical personality typology.

The identification of this tripartite typology was a crucial step towards a better understanding of human inter-individual differences. Because these types displayed differentiated profiles on various cognitive and psychosocial adjustment variables, they proved to be theoretically and clinically useful. However, because they have been identified at one point in the life course of the individual's life (i.e., with cross-sectional data), they are developmentally "static." Indeed, one of the unresolved issues regarding the tripartite typology is the developmental stability of the types (however, see Asendorpf et al., 2001). We do not know, to date, if individuals classified in a certain type in adolescence, for

example, remain in the same type in adulthood. The individual's interpersonal and behavioral functioning is generally quite different in adolescence and adulthood. Block (1971) argued that the separate identification of non-developmental types during these two distinct periods would almost certainly reflect these differences.

Several longitudinal studies using the variable-centered perspective (i.e., group analyses) confirmed that mean-level changes occur in personality from adolescence to midlife (e.g., see Caspi & Roberts, 1999; McCrae, Costa, et al., 2000). In general, these changes are in the direction of growth or maturity. In terms of the Big-Three traits, these changes correspond to decreases in Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion. The empirical evidence points to a *normative psychological maturation*. However, and importantly, this maturation only applies to the "average" growing individual. Thus, at first glance, type membership changes are expected in the three non-developmental types just described. If one adopts a developmental perspective to personality and remains interested in the typological approach, simultaneous clustering of the same personality measures at multiple periods of the life course are needed in order to perform developmental-typological analyses (for an overview of this strategy, see Block, 1971; Morizot & Le Blanc, 2002). This strategy provides a clearer delineation of inter-individual differences in intra-individual personality change and allows us to infer a *developmental typology of personality*. In such a typology, each type is composed of individuals displaying a similar personality profile across multiple periods of their life, i.e., who follow a similar developmental trajectory. These subgroups of individuals are usually referred to as *developmental types of personality* (Block, 1971).

The objective of this study was to search for an empirically based developmental typology of personality using data from the adjudicated men sample of the Montreal Two-Sample Longitudinal Study (MTSLS; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Morizot & Le Blanc, in press). To our knowledge, the scientific community has paid very little attention to the task of identifying a meaningful and replicable developmental typology of personality. Indeed, we have found no study that had adopted a developmental-typological approach, that had covered approximately the same period of the life course, and

had used similar personality trait measures as the MTSLS. Moreover, we have found no study tracing personality traits in adjudicated adolescents until midlife. However, a few empirical studies serve as illustrations.

The classic example of a developmental typology of personality is the pioneering study by Block (1971). He studied men and women based on two measurement points, adolescence (14-17 years) and adulthood (30-37 years). Block derived five developmental types of men through Q-factor analyses of Q-sort ratings and presented empirical evidence that they tend to display differential relations to a number of intellectual, familial, and environmental variables. Three of these types showed relative stability from adolescence through adulthood and seemed to be conceptually similar to three types identified from cross-sectional data presented previously (Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). The *Ego-Resilients*, the largest group of the sample (30%), remained well adjusted from adolescence to adulthood. The *Unsettled-Undercontrollers*, the smallest group (16%), displayed a stable pattern of extrinsic adjustment problems over time. Finally the *Vulnerable-Overcontrollers*, approximately one fifth of the sample (19%), showed a stable pattern of intrinsic adjustment problems. Block (1971) derived two other developmental types of men showing significant change. The *Belated-Adjusters* (17.5%) showed extrinsic adjustment problems in adolescence that improved through adulthood. Thus, they displayed a psychological maturation. The *Anomic-Extroverts* (17.5%) were well-adjusted in adolescence, but showed a deterioration of their psychological adjustment by adulthood. Block's (1997) study was a seminal effort. However, to our knowledge these developmental types have never been replicated.

In a reanalysis of the New York Longitudinal Study's participants, Tubman, Lerner, Lerner and von Eye (1992) used longitudinal cluster analysis to identify four developmental types within three measurement points: adolescence (16-17 years), early adulthood (18-23 years), and middle adulthood (25-31 years). The clustering variable was an aggregated measure of difficult temperament (low Adaptability, low Approach, high Reactivity and Negative mood, and low Rythmicity). The first three of these temperamental trajectories scored in the normative range (i.e., within a standard deviation over and above the mean)

from adolescence through middle adulthood. The *first developmental type*, the largest of the sample (42.1%), showed moderately low scores in difficult temperament in adolescence that decreased linearly through adulthood. Thus, they displayed a temperamental maturation. The *second type* of individuals represented a fourth of the sample (24.8%) and had low scores of difficult temperament in adolescence which linearly increased over time. The *third type*, also comprising approximately a fourth of the sample (28.6%), manifested above-average scores in adolescence which increased in early adulthood and subsequently declined through adulthood below the initial level. The *fourth type* was the smallest (4.5%) and was composed of maladjusted individuals who displayed high scores in difficult temperament in adolescence which increased subsequently through adulthood. During their childhood, compared to the other three groups, the individuals of the stable-difficult temperament trajectory manifested significantly more aggressiveness, anxiety, undercompliance and peer difficulties at years 1-6, and showed more anxiety at years 7-12. During their adulthood, they also displayed lower self-evaluation, implementation of goals and adjustment to routines, as well as lower emotional, goal, coping, work, social, sexual, and communication adjustment. In contrast, the individuals who displayed a stable trajectory of low scores on difficult temperament had the better adjustment across time (i.e., highest ratings on all childhood and adulthood adjustment variables).

Finally, a third study can be described. Morizot and Le Blanc (2002) searched for a developmental typology of personality with data from the MTSLS's representative sample of the general population. The men were assessed on the same personality measures as those used in the present study at the ages of 16, 30, and 40. Four developmental types of personality were identified through longitudinal cluster analysis. The *Communals–Normative maturation*, the largest group (37.7%), was characterized by average scores in Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality and Extraversion in adolescence which decreased rapidly through age 30, and then continued to decrease linearly through midlife. The *Agentics–Normative maturation*, the second largest group (31.7%), was characterized by similar trajectories as the Communal men in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality from adolescence to midlife. The particularity of this type is the trajectory in Extraversion: this trait was average in adolescence and increased linearly through age 30, and then remained high through midlife. The

Undercontrolled-Delayed maturation, representing one fifth of the representative sample (23.1%), was characterized by high scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality in adolescence which decreased linearly through midlife. Finally, the *Overcontrolled-Blocked maturation*, the smallest group (7.5%), displayed average scores in Disinhibition and Extraversion in adolescence and average high scores in Negative Emotionality (i.e., higher than the two normative maturation types). Extraversion decreased rapidly through age 30, while Disinhibition decreased only slowly through age 30. Both of these two traits continued to decrease throughout midlife. However, Negative Emotionality increased rapidly through age 30, and then remained stable through midlife. A test of the external validity of this developmental typology was conducted with antisocial behavior measures. In general, the Communalists displayed the lowest levels of antisocial behavior across time. The Agentics displayed slightly higher antisocial behavior than the Communalists. The Undercontrolled tended to display the highest levels of antisocial behavior in adolescence. In adulthood, the Undercontrolled desisted from criminality and substance use, while they displayed high levels of conjugal and work problems. The Overcontrolled had fascinating relations to antisocial behavior across their life course: they showed the least antisocial behavior in adolescence, but in adulthood, they had the highest levels of substance use as well as conjugal and work problems.

Antisocial Behavior Trajectories as a Correlate of Developmental Types of Personality

The few aforementioned studies showed that the developmental types of personality seemed to be differentially related to a number of adjustment problems across the life course, particularly antisocial behavior.² Moreover, we previously noted that recent quantitative reviews suggest that personality traits predict antisocial behaviors such as criminality and substance use, both concurrently and prospectively (e.g., Barnes et al., 2000; Krueger et al., 2000; Miller & Lynam, 2001). Furthermore, as was mentioned, considering that personality

² Following the identification of a general syndrome of deviance or antisociality (e.g., McGee & Newcomb, 1992; Osgood et al., 1988), the term *antisocial behavior* is used as a generic concept (i.e., latent trait) which includes a number of more specific behaviors considered as conceptually similar manifestations of maladjustment against expected social and societal norms and values. Indeed, antisocial individuals often simultaneously manifest behaviors such as delinquency or criminality, substance use, problems at work and in conjugal relationships.

maturity seems to parallel desistance from antisocial behavior, some scholars consider that the personality profile characteristic of adolescents could be associated with the processes of activation and aggravation of antisocial behavior, while personality maturation through adulthood could be associated with the desistance process (DiClemente, 1994; Glueck & Glueck, 1974; Jessor, Donovan, & Costa, 1991; Le Blanc, 1997; Maruna, 2001; Wills, Sandy, & Yaeger, 2000; Tarter et al., 1999). In summary, both developmental-typological studies of personality and those using group analyses provide evidence of a longitudinal relation between personality and antisocial behavior across development.

The search for a robust and replicable developmental typology of antisocial behaviors has also gained the interest of researchers from various social sciences. A number of longitudinal studies provide the empirical evidence of four replicable antisocial behavior trajectories. As postulated by the general deviance (or antisociality) syndrome, these trajectories seem to apply to various antisocial behaviors such as criminality (Le Blanc, 2002; Le Blanc & Loeber, 1998; Moffitt, 1993; Rutter, Giller, & Hagell, 1998) and substance abuse (Jackson, Sher, & Wood, 2000; Kandel & Chen, 2000; Tubman, Vicary, von Eye, & Lerner, 1990; Zucker, 1987; Zucker, Fitzgerald, & Moses, 1995). The first two appear to be the most robust and replicable. The *persistent antisocial trajectory* (also called life-course persistent or early-onset) represents approximately 5% of the general population and is characterized by an early onset of behavior problems in childhood such as hyperactivity, impulsiveness, and aggressiveness, which develop by adolescence into varied and frequent antisocial conducts that tend to remain stable throughout adulthood. The *transitory antisocial trajectory* (also called adolescence-limited or late-onset) represents approximately 40% of the population and is characterized by an onset of antisocial behavior in early adolescence and by desistance by the end of adolescence or by early adulthood. There is also empirical evidence of a third trajectory. The *common antisocial trajectory* represents approximately 45% of the population and is characterized by an adolescent onset of occasional and intermittent minor antisocial behaviors and a more accelerated desistance by the end of adolescence (Dunford & Elliott, 1984; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989). Finally, a few studies suggest the possibility of an *adult-onset antisocial trajectory* (Rutter et al., 1998; Zucker, 1987; Zucker et al., 1995). The proportion of individuals who follow such a trajectory is not

well known, but could be between 5% and 15%. This trajectory is characterized by abstinence or very few antisocial behaviors during adolescence and by emerging antisocial behavior during early adulthood. It is not known, to date, if this trajectory is transitory or persistent during adulthood.

Can these four antisocial behavior trajectories be linked to the developmental types of personality? Even if the data remain scarce to date, based on research using group analyses as well as those using developmental-typological analyses, and based on theoretical positions such as those of Moffitt's (1993; Moffitt, Caspi, Harrington, & Milne, 2002), Jessor et al.'s (1991), and Zucker (1987; Zucker et al., 1995), it is highly probable that personality trajectories are closely related to antisocial behavior trajectories. Overall, theory and research support the use of antisocial behavior measures to establish the external validity of a personality typology. Consequently, the second objective of this study was to examine the relations between the developmental types of personality generated from the MTSLS's adjudicated men sample and the individuals' antisocial behavior trajectories. Due to the nature of the personality measures and the sample that were studied, this research allowed us to challenge a prominent criminological theory postulating that individual differences in personality (or self-control) is the most important correlate of antisocial behavior across the life course, namely Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) general theory. Concerning the sample studied, according to the policies and practices in the Montreal metropolitan area, adolescents who were adjudicated typically had significant personal and social adjustment problems and have committed many minor or at least a few serious offenses before their adjudication (Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989). Concerning the measures, we mentioned before that many personality traits used in the MTSLS are closely similar to a number of Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) low self-control dimensions. Moreover, Morizot and Le Blanc (in press) demonstrated that the adjudicated men showed an unfavorable personality profile from adolescence to midlife compared to men from the general population and could thus be assumed to be a "low self-control group," in Gottfredson and Hirschi's terms.

Which Developmental Types of Personality Could be Expected?

It is difficult to hypothesize which developmental types could be expected because there are so few comparable studies. However, based on past research using group analyses of mean-level personality continuity and on the few studies searching for a developmental typology, it is possible to hypothesize a number of potential developmental types. Moreover, research examining the relations between antisocial behavior trajectories and personality traits can also be used to hypothesize a number of developmental types. Indeed, generally the men's personality trajectory should similarly follow their own antisocial behavior trajectory, particularly for Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality. It was not possible to postulate such a hypothesis for Extraversion because developmental-typological studies of this trait are lacking and because studies examining the relations between Extraversion and antisocial behaviors provided conflicting results (e.g., Eysenck, 1989; Wilson & Hernstein, 1985). In general, we anticipated that at least four, or perhaps more, developmental types would emerge in our analyses of the MTSLS's adjudicated men sample.

We first expected to identify a group of men displaying a normative maturation from adolescence to midlife in the three personality traits. However, because this sample is composed of men displaying important behavioral and social maladjustment, in all likelihood this group would not be the largest, as was the case in past studies using representative or community samples. These men probably followed a transitory antisocial behavior trajectory. We expected a second larger group of men displaying high Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality in adolescence, followed by a progressive decrease across time. These men also probably followed a transitory antisocial behavior trajectory. We expected a third small group of men displaying a personality trajectory characterized by stable high Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality from adolescence to midlife. These men presumably followed a persistent antisocial behavior trajectory. Finally, we also expected a fourth small group of men displaying increasing Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality from adolescence to adulthood. However, because all the participants of this study have been selected due to their adjudication for delinquent behaviors and adjustment problems, we cannot assume that these men followed an adult-onset antisocial trajectory as it would be proposed for representative

samples. These men more likely constituted an adulthood-aggravated persistent antisocial behavior trajectory.

Method

Samples and Procedure

Data from the Montreal Two-Sample Longitudinal Study were used (MTSLS; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987). The MTSLS includes two samples of Caucasian French-speaking men first recruited around the middle of the 1970s. The first consists of a group of boys adjudicated during their adolescence and the second is a representative sample. In this paper, we used the sample of adjudicated adolescents. It included all the adjudicated males referred to the Montreal area Juvenile Court during their adolescence in 1974-1975, either under the Canadian Juvenile Delinquents Act or under the Quebec Youth Protection Act. These adolescents were also sentenced to probation or, in most cases, a residential placement. At the beginning of the study, this sample comprised of 470 boys who were from 13 to 18 years of age ($M = 15.1$; $SD = .89$). Although these individuals are actually former delinquents who were not necessarily adjudicated after adolescence, in this paper, for ease of presentation, we will refer to them as the *adjudicated men*. Details for sample size, reasons for attrition, and the age distribution at each wave of data collection were published elsewhere (Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Morizot & Le Blanc, in press).

At the first wave of data collection (spring of 1974 to spring 1975), trained interviewers met the participants and administered self-reported questionnaires and various types of questions from an interview protocol that operationalized an integrative multilayered theory of delinquent and antisocial behaviors (Le Blanc, 1997). Two years later (spring of 1976), at a mean age of 17.1, they completed the same interview. During adulthood, they were also met for an interview in 1988-1989 at an average age of 31.7 years and again in 1998-1999 at an average age of 40.8 years. For ease of presentation, we used the mean ages for the four measurement points: 15, 17, 30, and 40 years of age.

At each wave of data collection, the participants were asked about numerous aspects of their lives: their behaviors (e.g., delinquency, substance use, behavior problems at home, school, work), their family (e.g., involvement, attachment, supervision, discipline), their relationships with their peers, their routine activities, their beliefs and values, and their personality. Complete personality data were available for 122 individuals from adolescence to midlife. Detailed description of the procedure has been published elsewhere (Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989).

Measures

Personality Traits. The personality traits measures were elaborated in a recent study using the MTSLS archival data (Morizot & Le Blanc, in press). These measures were derived from exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses of the items from the French versions of the two personality questionnaires used in the MTSLS, which are well known in criminology (i.e., Jesness and Eysenck questionnaires). A hierarchical structure of personality was identified: a total of 15 primary traits formed three higher-order traits, namely Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion. Disinhibition is tapped by scales labeled Malignant Egotism, Callous Hostility, Impulsiveness, Authority Opposition, and Societal Skepticism. Negative Emotionality is represented by scales named Mistrust, Self-Criticism, Schizotypy, Social Anxiety, Passivity, Anxiousness, Affective Distress, and Irritability. Extraversion is tapped by scales labeled Sensation Seeking and Sociability. In the present study, the three higher-order traits of Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion were used for the identification of the developmental typology. They represent a broad description of personality traits comparable to other structural models of personality that were identified with various personality assessment devices and which are often called the Big-Three (see Clark & Watson, 1999; Matthews & Deary, 1998).

High scorers in *Disinhibition* are typically mean and self-centered, have poor consideration for others, react impulsively, reject conventional norms and rather endorse values supporting rebelliousness and dishonesty. Regarding *Negative Emotionality*, high

scorers typically have poor confidence in others, perceive themselves as inadequate, feel there is something wrong with their minds, are inhibited in interpersonal and social situations, display low levels of activity and attention, experience high levels of anxiety and negative mood, and are easily angered. For *Extraversion*, high scorers typically perceive themselves as lively and outgoing and seek pleasurable experiences by establishing warm relationships with others and by searching for thrills and excitement.

In general, the psychometric properties of these personality trait scales are adequate. Evidence from exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses suggested partial measurement invariance across time (i.e., from adolescence to midlife) and across groups (i.e., for representative and adjudicated men). For Disinhibition, the internal consistency indices were .90, .92, .91, and .94 at ages 15, 17, 30, and 40 respectively. For Negative Emotionality, the coefficients were .93, .94, .97, and .97 for the same ages. The internal consistency was lower for Extraversion with coefficients of .58, .62, .72, and .75 for the same four ages respectively.

Antisocial Behavior. Two different types of antisocial behavior scales were computed: variety (i.e., number of behaviors) and frequency (i.e., number of times for all behaviors). Variety scales of self-reported criminality and substance use were available at all measurement points. For these two behaviors, frequency measures were also computed. The behavior problems measure was available at the two first measurement points available (i.e., ages 15 and 17). The conjugal problems and work problems measure were available for the two last measurement points (i.e., ages 30 and 40). For these last three measures, only frequency was used.

Criminality (12 items): The items are “Minor theft (value of less than \$20),” “Shoplifting,” “Theft with breaking and entering,” “Common theft (more than \$20),” “Aggravated theft (against a person),” “Vandalism,” “Disorderly conduct (including disturbing public order, wandering),” “Motor vehicle theft (car and motorcycle),” “Armed robbery (including armed robbery and weapons violation or theft),” “Aggravated assault (including battery, attempted murder or homicide),” “Sexual offending (including solicitation, indecency, rape or attempted

rape)," and "Drug trafficking."³ At all assessments, participants reported the number of times they manifested each specific offense since the last interview, and since the onset for the first interview. In order to correct for severe non-normal distributions, responses were recoded as 0 = no offense, 1 = one or two times, 2 = 3 to 24 times, 3 = 25 to 49 times, 4 = 50 times or more. Internal consistency was satisfactory across time with Cronbach's alpha of .60, .54, .58, and .77 for ages 15, 17, 30, and 40 respectively. The low internal consistency indices were in part due to different base rates in the range of behaviors (i.e., some items have high base rates, while other show a low base rates).⁴

Substance Use (5 items): The items included are use of "Alcohol," "Cannabis," "Unprescribed medicine (tranquilizers, sedatives, analgesics, etc.)," "Chemical drugs (hallucinogens, stimulants, etc.)," and "Hard drugs (cocaine, heroin, and other opiates)." ⁵ At the two first measurement points (i.e., ages 14 and 16), participants reported one-year frequency. The response categories are 0 = never, 1 = one or two times, 2 = many times, 3 = very often. For the other two measurement points (i.e., ages 30 and 40), participants reported frequency since the last interview. The response categories are 0 = never, 1 = rarely, 2 = monthly, 3 = few times a month, 4 = weekly, 5 = few times a week, 6 = daily. Internal consistency was adequate from ages 15 to 40 with Cronbach's alpha ranging from .63 to .77.

Behavior Problems (5 items): The items assess inappropriate conducts related adolescent's adjustment at school (e.g., "Missing school without a reason") and at home (e.g., "Standing up to parental authority"). Participants reported one-year frequency. The response categories are 0 = never, 1 = one or two times, 2 = many times, 3 = very often. Internal consistency was

³ Violent criminality (Aggravated theft, Armed robbery, Aggravated assault, Sexual offending) and theft (Minor theft, Shoplifting, Theft with breaking and entering, Common theft, Motor vehicle theft) scales were also tested, but the developmental types of personality were not distinguished statistically with these scales. Thus, it was decided to report only the results with the general criminality scale.

⁴ In addition to large differences in base rates of items at each measurement point, at age 40, no participant reported having committed sexual offenses.

⁵ All analyses were also performed with a scale excluding alcohol use. Because the patterns and the magnitude of the differences between developmental types of personality were very similar, it was decided to keep alcohol use in the general substance use scale.

adequate at the two measurement points with Cronbach's alpha of .63 and .76 at ages 15 and 17 respectively.

Work Problems (6 items): The items assess inappropriate behaviors related to interpersonal (e.g., "Do you have problems with your bosses") and organizational (e.g., "Do you have problems with your productivity"). Participants reported frequency since the last interview. The response categories are 0 = never, 1 = rarely, 2 = occasionally, 3 = often. Internal consistency was adequate with Cronbach's alpha of .76 at age 30. At age 40, however, internal consistency was low with alpha of .51, principally due to lower base rates for some items.

Conjugal Problems (5 items): The items assess levels of perceived harmony (e.g., "Usually, how do you get along"), inappropriate conducts (e.g., "Do you have disputes [fights]"), and intimate partner violence (e.g., "Have you ever shaken or beaten your partner"). Due to different response formats, items were recoded in dichotomous form and summed. Internal consistency was low with alpha of .52 and .59 at ages 30 and 40 respectively, again due to low base rates for some items.

Attrition Analyses

The men for whom personality data were available at all measurement points were compared to the non-completers with three MANOVAs performed on the personality trait scales at age 15. None of the multivariate and univariate tests for any traits were significant. Thus, the men who completed the personality questionnaires at all four occasions can be considered as being representative of the total initial sample.

In order to determine whether participants who completed all interviews from age 15 are different from non-completers in antisocial behaviors, univariate ANOVAs were performed on three measures of antisocial behaviors available at age 15, namely behavior problems, criminality, and substance use. No differences were observed in any analyses. Thus, the men who completed all interviews were initially comparable in antisocial behavior

to those who were lost through attrition and can thus be assumed to be representative of the original sample.

Analytical Strategy

The identification of the developmental typology of personality was undertaken through direct longitudinal cluster analysis based on scores in Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion at the three measurement points simultaneously (for a Monte Carlo study of the efficiency of longitudinal cluster analysis, see Dumenci & Windle, 2001; see also Bergman, 1998, 2000). The goal was to divide the heterogeneous MTSLS's adjudicated men sample into more homogeneous subgroups based on a statistical distance measure. Thus, these subgroups would represent quantitatively and qualitatively distinct multivariate developmental trajectories. We discussed the analytical strategy in more detail in another paper (Morizot & Le Blanc, 2002).

Clustering techniques proved to be effective in identifying natural groups in a multivariate data set; however, they are not without limits and have been criticized on many grounds (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Gordon, 1999; Milligan & Cooper, 1987; Speece, 1994). Speece (1994) noted that, considering the state of advancement in clustering techniques, they should be considered an exploratory tool. Indeed, the most significant concerns are that different classifications can be obtained through different methods applied to the same data set (i.e., method artifact) and that there is no gold standard for determining the number of clusters or to determine cluster separation. Thus, a rigorous analytical strategy must be followed to circumvent these limitations. Moreover, in order for a classification (i.e., a typology) to be methodologically defensible and theoretically sound and useful, Skinner (1981) proposed that researchers must consider three crucial issues for assessing its construct validity: theory formulation, internal validity, and external validity. Internal and external validity are crucial aspects to be systematically assessed in an empirically derived typology.

In this study, a sequential strategy involving multiple clustering algorithms was adopted, as suggested by Milligan and Cooper (1987). An agglomerative hierarchical cluster

analysis with Ward's method and squared euclidean distance as the dissimilarity measure was first performed. The results of the hierarchical method were then used as seeds for an optimization partitioning method (k-means), also with squared euclidian distance. Because no independent sample was available for the present study, the MTSLS's representative sample was randomly divided into two subsamples in order to perform a cross-validation. The objective was to determine whether the final solution identified with the total sample could be identified in the subsamples. This strategy provides an estimate of the internal robustness of the classification and could help support the choice of the number of clusters of the final solution. Following the identification of the optimal number of groups, cluster separation was examined by a repeated measures MANOVA on personality-trait scores (see Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

Speece (1994) noted that the internal validity test was an assessment stage of the construct validity of a typology that has often been neglected in past studies. With the aforementioned limitations of cluster analysis in mind, a broad test of the internal validity of a classification was conducted. This test should be regarded as analogous to testing the null hypothesis which stipulates that no cluster exists in a data set (Gordon, 1999). In this study, the demonstration of the internal validity of the developmental typology was guided by seven criteria: (1) the extent to which the final cluster solution was reproduced with different clustering algorithms (i.e., consensus classification), (2) the extent to which the final cluster solution was internally robust (i.e., cross-validation with random subsamples), (3) the increase in the percentage of explained variance by each additional cluster solution (i.e., decrease in sum of squared distance; SSD),⁶ (4) the increase of the homogeneity measures (H ; measures the degree to which the variance within a particular cluster is smaller than the variance for the entire sample),⁷ (5) the extent to which each additional cluster provided a meaningful developmental type of personality (keeping in mind the importance of parsimony

⁶ $S^2_{\text{exp}} = 100 * (1 - \text{SSD}_{\text{within}} / \text{SSD}_{\text{total}})$.

⁷ $H_k = \sqrt{1 - [\text{SSD}_{\text{within } k} / \text{SSD}_{\text{total}}]}$. This index generally ranges from 0 to 1, where a coefficient of 0 indicates that the cluster is not more homogeneous than the total sample before clustering, and a coefficient of 1 indicates that the cluster is perfectly homogeneous (i.e., all individuals have the same score on all variables included in the cluster analysis). Typically, an index of .75 or more is considered excellent, an index between .50 and .74 is considered good, and an index between .25 and .49 is considered acceptable (Tryon & Bailey, 1970). Coefficients are often lower for clustering of repeated measures variables.

in theory formulation), (6) expectations from developmental typologies identified in previous studies, and (7) sample size (i.e., at least 5% of the total sample had to be represented in each cluster).

In addition to its internal validity, a final important construct validity test of a classification concerns its external validity (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Gordon, 1999; Skinner, 1981; Speece, 1994). The objective of this test is to determine whether the groups identified are linked to meaningful variables which were not used in the clustering. Speece (1994) noted that earlier studies have also been criticized for insufficient attention paid at this stage of the assessment of the construct validity of a typology. According to Speece, the most critical concern is the fact that external validation has appeared to be often post hoc rather than carefully planned during the theory formulation stage. As acknowledged in the introduction, the use of antisocial behavior measures is particularly important in validating a personality typology. With the antisocial behavior measures described beforehand, longitudinal comparisons were undertaken through repeated measures ANOVAs to determine whether the developmental types of personality were different in their level of involvement in the variety and frequency of antisocial behavior from adolescence to midlife.

Cluster analyses are based on the distance between scores in the data. Thus with multivariate classification, the clustered variables needed to be scaled appropriately. In order to have scales of equivalent importance, all analyses were performed with *T*-scores.⁸ For antisocial behaviors variety, raw scores were used in all analyses. For antisocial behavior frequency, because the same measures were not available at all measurement points, *T*-scores were used. Concerning missing data, with a criterion of 20% or more missing items for dropping a case, none of the 122 participants were dropped. For those cases that had less than 20% of missing responses, weighted means were computed. The presence of outliers was

⁸ In order to keep the developmental effect proper to raw data in the analyses, as well as to represent personality differences between adjudicated men with those of a normative population, the *T*-scores were calculated with means and standard deviations of the representative sample at age 16. Note that all longitudinal cluster analyses were also run with raw scores (i.e., bringing the scales to a denominator of 10) and the result patterns presented later were identical.

examined because they can significantly affect the results of cluster analysis (Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Gordon, 1999; Milligan & Cooper, 1987). However, because extremely problematic cases are important in a classification which has theoretical and clinical purposes (Speece, 1994), the decision was made to be less conservative in dropping outliers. With a criterion of four standard deviations from the mean on at least one of the personality scales to identify a case as an outlier, no participant was dropped for having extreme scores. Thus, the final sample was composed of the total 122 men.

Results

Identification of Developmental Types of Personality

Mean T -scores and standard deviations before clustering are presented in Table 1. Examination of standard deviations revealed that there was more variability in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality compared to Extraversion, and particularly in Negative Emotionality during adulthood. The different analyses conducted suggest that a four-cluster solution was the most appropriate.⁹ The results of the hierarchical method first followed by those using the optimization method converge in suggesting that this solution is optimal because additional clusters did not provide new meaningful clusters, either conceptually and statistically.¹⁰ The four-cluster solution derived with the total sample is also clearly reproduced in the two random subsamples. In a solution with an additional cluster, for example, the second cluster tended to split into two similar groups, with one displaying a slightly slower decline in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality. To sum up, the classification composed of four clusters was identified with the two clustering methods and in the total sample and the two random subsamples. Mean T -scores by developmental types are drawn in Figure 1. Appendix A presents mean scores and standard deviations for the three

⁹ The numerous results obtained with the analytical strategy adopted preclude their complete presentation due to space limitation. Only the final solution chosen is presented.

¹⁰ For ease of presentation, internal validity will be discussed separately in a later section.

higher-order traits and for all primary traits. The number of men and their proportion are also presented in Figure 1.

Insert Table 1 and Figure 1 about here

- ***Cluster 1: Resilients – Normative Maturation:*** The first group of men was characterized by average scores in Disinhibition, Negative Emotionality, and Extraversion at age 15. Afterward, these men showed a linear decrease of nearly one standard deviation through age 17, and again through age 30, particularly for Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality. Finally, there was another slight decrease through age 40. Extraversion tended to decrease linearly during early adulthood, but remained stable during adulthood. This type was labeled as “Resilient” because the personality profile of these men is conceptually similar to the Resilients identified in cross-non-developmental personality typology. Moreover, the label of Resilient is particularly pertinent because this type presented an adequate psychological adjustment across time, even within a sample of known maladjusted individuals. It was also labeled as “normative maturation” because the trait trajectories correspond to those observed in past studies using group analyses and because it was the largest group of the sample.
- ***Cluster 2: Undercontrolled – Accelerated Maturation:*** The second group of men was characterized by very high scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality at age 15, followed by a decrease of about one standard deviation in Negative Emotionality, but relative stability in Disinhibition through age 17, followed by a very important decrease in these two traits through age 30, and finally by a slight decrease through age 40. The Extraversion trajectory of these men was similar to that of the Resilients, but their scores tended to be higher. This type was labeled as “Undercontrolled” because the personality profile of these men is very similar to that of the Undercontrollers identified in non-developmental typology. The label of “accelerated maturation” was also given because there were explosive changes toward maturity during early adulthood.

- ***Cluster 3: Overcontrolled – Blocked Maturation:*** The third group of men was also characterized by very high scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality at age 15, but these traits remained relatively stable from adolescence to midlife, with the exception of Disinhibition which decreased slightly from age 17 to age 30. The Extraversion trajectory of these men was characterized by an important decrease from adolescence to midlife, of about one and a half standard deviations. This type was labeled as “Overcontrolled” because the personality profile of these men is conceptually similar to that of the Overcontrollers identified in non-developmental personality typology. The label of “blocked maturation” was also assigned to this type because there was clearly no progression in the personality profile across time. In fact, the personality profile rather worsened.
- ***Cluster 4: Anomics – Cyclical Maturation:*** The fourth group of men was characterized by high scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality at age 15, which decreased by about one standard deviation through age 17. Then, for the same two traits, there was an increase through age 30 (to the level of age 15), and finally there was another decrease through age 40, particularly for Negative Emotionality. Contrary to other personality types, the Extraversion trajectory of these men was characterized by stability from adolescence to midlife. This type was labeled as “Anomic” because the personality profile of these men is conceptually similar to the Anomic-Extroverts of Block’ (1971) developmental typology in the sense that there was a worsening of the personality during early adulthood. The label of “cyclical maturation” was also given to this type because there were no clear linear developmental trends in traits but rather cycles of decreases and increases across time.

Internal Validity

Explained Variance. The percentage of the total variance that can be accounted for by a cluster solution was calculated for solutions from two to 10 clusters and then plotted. A smooth knee point emerged from a three-cluster solution; however, it was not a clear knee

point. Consequently, this criterion did not help in choosing the number of appropriate groups. The final four-cluster solution explained 54% of the total variance.

Cluster Homogeneity. The homogeneity coefficients obtained for the final solution with four developmental types were all adequate. The coefficients for the Resilients ($H = .77$) and Undercontrolled ($H = .79$) types were excellent, while those for the Anomics ($H = .73$) and Overcontrolled ($H = .57$) types were adequate. The result for the Overcontrolled could suggest that this type was more heterogeneous than the others. This result may be due to real greater variability in this type in the adjudicated population. Also, because it is the smallest group, extreme cases may have had more disturbing effects on the homogeneity estimate. The coefficients for solutions with additional clusters provided just slightly higher estimates. Consequently this criterion also did not help in choosing the number of appropriate clusters.

Cluster Separation. In order to provide a clear answer concerning the issue of cluster separation, a 4×3 repeated measures MANOVA was undertaken on the clustered variables.¹¹ Using Wilk's lambda as the criterion, the between-subject ($\Lambda = .15$; $F(9, 282) = 38.02$; $p < .0001$) and within-subject ($\Lambda = .37$; $F(9, 110) = 21.07$; $p < .0001$) multivariate omnibus tests were significant. The multivariate test of the interaction Time \times Developmental Types was also significant ($\Lambda = .32$; $F(27, 322) = 5.64$; $p < .0001$), suggesting that the trends of change over time from adolescence to midlife, for all personality traits considered simultaneously, were not parallel for the four developmental types of personality. Results of univariate tests of the MANOVA, of the within-subject contrasts, and of the post hoc comparisons are reported in Table 2.

Insert Table 2 about here

¹¹ In plotting mean scores of the developmental types by each personality trait separately, rather than plotting mean scores of traits by developmental type as it is the case in Figure 1, the developmental similarities and differences between types can be more easily seen. Results of these analyses were not presented in detail in the text due to space limitation. Complete results are presented in Table 2.

The univariate tests of between-subject effects were all significant. They confirmed that the developmental types were different for all personality traits. Using eta squared as the measure of effect size, Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality appeared to be the traits that best distinguished the types across time. Because the multivariate test of interaction was significant, the univariate tests of interaction (i.e., parallelism tests) were examined in more detail. If a univariate interaction test was not significant, then the within-subject tests (i.e., flatness tests) were examined. The univariate within-subject tests were all significant, revealing that personality traits changed across time for the developmental types. Eta squared suggested that Negative Emotionality and Disinhibition were the traits that changed most over time, while Extraversion seemed more stable than the others. The univariate interaction tests were also all significant, revealing that the rate of change across time was not parallel for the four developmental types.

The planned contrasts helped to clarify these trends. For Disinhibition, there was a linear decrease across time for almost all types, except for Undercontrolled and the Overcontrolled which remained relatively stable between ages 15 and 17. However, as indicated by the interaction contrasts of the quadratic trend, between ages 17 and 30, all the types decreased linearly except the Anomics, who showed an increase in Disinhibition. Between the ages of 30 and 40, all the types remained quite stable in that personality trait. For Negative Emotionality, the interaction contrast of the quadratic trend confirmed that there was a decrease for all types between the ages of 15 and 17, except for the Overcontrolled, who remained stable. Between the ages of 17 and 30, the rate of decrease across time seemed less important but, as indicated by the interaction contrasts, this could be explained by the decrease for the Resilients and Undercontrolled, while the Overcontrolled and the Anomics increased. Between the ages of 30 and 40, all types decreased somewhat linearly, but the rate of decrease was higher for the Anomics. For Extraversion, again the interaction contrast of the quadratic trend revealed that there was significant change across time between ages 17 and 30. This suggests that, even when tested through developmental-typological analyses, this personality trait tended to remain stable across time. Between the ages of 17 and 30, all the types showed a slight decrease in this trait, except for the Undercontrolled, who showed an increase.

The post hoc tests confirmed that the developmental types were not significantly different at all measurement points. Indeed, all the types were well distinguished in Disinhibition across time. For Negative Emotionality, however, the Undercontrolled and Anomics were less well distinguished. For Extraversion, the results were different and suggested that the types were not well distinguished. The post hoc tests revealed that only the Resilients can be statistically distinguished from the Undercontrolled and the Anomics in Extraversion.

External Validity: Are the Developmental Types Differentially Related to Antisocial Behavior?

A first longitudinal test of the link between the developmental types of personality and the course of antisocial behavior was undertaken on criminality and substance use variety measures. Figure 2 presents mean raw scores in these measures by developmental types, and Table 3 presents results of the repeated measures ANOVAs. The between-groups tests were significant only for criminality, revealing that the developmental types of personality were differentially related to criminal behaviors variety across time, but not substances used. Moreover, the within-groups tests (i.e., time) were also significant for both criminality and substance use, but the interaction tests were not significant, suggesting that the change over time was somewhat parallel for all types. The planned contrasts suggested that for criminality, the decrease across time was linear for the Resilients and the Undercontrolled, while it was more cubic for the Overcontrolled and the Anomics. Indeed, between the ages of 15 and 17 all the types decreased, while between ages 17 and 30, two types remained stable (i.e., the Resilients and the Overcontrolled), one decreased (i.e., Undercontrolled) and one increased (i.e., Anomics). Between the ages of 30 and 40, the variety of criminality decreased in all personality types.

For substances use variety, all the types increased between the ages of 15 and 17 and the ages of 17 and 30, and then decreased between the ages of 30 and 40. The examination of Figure 2 clearly showed that the Resilients were the least engaged in substance use across

time. In general, the other types were less clearly distinguishable in these behaviors, particularly in adulthood, which was perhaps, in part, due to the low prevalence of these behaviors in adulthood. However, it is worth noting that the Undercontrolled and Overcontrolled tended to be those who were the most involved in criminality across time, while the Overcontrolled tended to be those who used the most psychotropic substances, particularly during adulthood.

Overall, all the antisocial behavior trajectories were coherently linked with the developmental types of personality. The post hoc tests revealed that the Resilients were engaged in significantly less criminal behaviors across time than the three other types. However, the types were not clearly distinguished statistically in substance use variety across time, perhaps because within a high-risk population sample such as adjudicated adolescents, many individuals use various psychotropic substances, reducing the necessary variability to clearly distinguish the types.

Insert Figures 2 and 3 and Tables 3 and 4 about here

Regarding antisocial behaviors frequency, Figure 3 presents mean *T*-scores and Table 4 presents the results of the repeated measures ANOVAs.¹² Examination of Figure 3 clearly shows that each developmental type of personality tended to display differential relations in antisocial behavior frequency at all measurement points. The between-group tests were significant for behavior problems and conjugal problems, while it was only marginally significant for work problems. This confirmed that the developmental types were differentially related to these behaviors across time. The tests for time were significant for behavior problems and conjugal problems, while the interaction of group and time tests were significant for conjugal problems only. For behavior problems, the four developmental types decreased rapidly between ages 15 and 17. For conjugal problems, two groups scored lower

¹² Results of analyses of criminality and substance use frequency were not reported because the patterns and magnitude of the differences were identical to the variety analyses.

than the other types and decreased slightly, namely the Resilients and the Undercontrolled. The Anomics showed important conjugal problems at age 30 which decreased rapidly through age 40. The Overcontrolled also showed important conjugal problems, which remained stable across time. For work problems, in general the Overcontrolled tended to show the most problems at age 30, which decreased through age 40. The other three types showed the same level of involvement in such behaviors at the two time points. Not all comparisons attained statistical significance, but the overall patterns of results were conceptually and empirically coherent with the personality profiles of the men at each of the four periods of the life course. During adolescence, the Undercontrolled and, to a lesser extent, the Overcontrolled, were the types which manifested the highest behavior problems frequency, delinquent behaviors and substance use compared with all other types, particularly with the Resilients. The Resilients tended to present the lowest level of antisocial behavior during adolescence. By adulthood, the more salient results were that the Resilients continued to display significantly less frequent antisocial behavior than any other type. It is very interesting to note that the levels of substance use as well as work and conjugal problems of the Undercontrolled was undifferentiated from that of the Resilients during adulthood. At the same time, the Undercontrolled tended to show the most stable criminality trajectory.

In summary, the Resilients were clearly the men who manifested the least varied and frequent antisocial behavior at each of the four developmental periods studied. The Overcontrolled tended to be those who reported the most stable antisocial behavior from adolescence to midlife, even if the Undercontrolled also manifested varied and frequent antisocial behaviors during adolescence.

Discussion

The objective of this study was to identify a developmental typology of personality from adolescence to midlife in an adjudicated men sample and establish its validity in the prediction of antisocial behavior. A developmental typology composed of four groups of men was identified. Each of them seemed to be differentially related to antisocial behavior across time.

Resilients – Normative Maturation

The Resilients displayed adequate personal and social control (i.e., low Disinhibition) and good emotional regulation (i.e., low Negative Emotionality) and a normative level of Extraversion during their adolescence. From the middle to the end of adolescence and through early adulthood, they followed a personality trajectory characterized by linear decreases in the three traits, but more particularly in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality which decreased by about one standard deviation and a half. Their psychological maturation in the three traits continued until midlife. This personality trajectory was the most comparable to the personality maturation observed in longitudinal studies of personality continuity using a variable-centered perspective (i.e., group analyses; Caspi & Roberts, 1999; McCrae, Costa, et al., 2000). The Resilients were the men who displayed the most favorable personality profile from adolescence to midlife.

As expected, the Resilients were those who reported the least varied and frequent antisocial behavior across time. During adolescence, these individuals were those who reported the least behavior problems at school and at home, committed the least delinquent behaviors and had the lowest level of substance use. This continued during adulthood because they were those who displayed the least criminal behavior and substance use and the least work and conjugal problems. Thus, it seems that such a personality type was associated with the theoretical developmental type labeled *transitory antisocial trajectory*. The present study allowed us to suggest that personality maturation can be considered a buffer against antisocial behavior and also a correlate of the desistance process in a transitory antisocial behavior trajectory. Glueck and Glueck (1974) were among the first to postulate that maturation is one of the most important factors in explaining desistance from crime.

The Resilients can be compared to the Ego-Resilients of Block (1971) and the low difficult-temperament group identified by Tubman et al. (1992), because these trajectories are characterized by a stable or increasing good adjustment. This type is also conceptually similar to the Resilients identified in non-developmental typology. In fact, it corresponds

more closely to the Communal subtype of Resilients (see Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). Concerning the MTSLS's representative sample of the general population, the Resilients clearly correspond to the developmental type labeled Communals–Normative maturation (Morizot & Le Blanc, 2002). Their trajectories in all three personality traits are very similar. Moreover, they both represent approximately 40% of their respective sample. This suggests that even if it was repeatedly observed through group analyses that adjudicated individuals typically show a more negative personality profile than individuals from representative samples (e.g., Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985), the use of a developmental-typological approach demonstrates that a large group of adjudicated individuals shows a normative psychological adjustment from adolescence onward, despite displaying important behavioral and social maladjustment.

Undercontrolled – Accelerated Maturation

The Undercontrolled were characterized by the lowest level of personal and social control (i.e., high Disinhibition) and the poorest emotional regulation (i.e., high Negative Emotionality) during their adolescence. They displayed the highest and most stable levels of Disinhibition during adolescence. They were also the most extraverted during adolescence. Their unfavorable personality profile, however, improved at an accelerated rate from adolescence to early adulthood, by about two standard deviations. Particularly, Negative Emotionality showed an explosive decrease. This maturation continued at a lower rate until midlife. As can be seen in Figure 1, despite its important maturation, the psychological adjustment of these men clearly lagged behind that of the Resilients until midlife, particularly for Disinhibition.

The Undercontrolled were those who reported the most varied and frequent problem behaviors at school and at home, delinquent behaviors, and substance use during adolescence. Caspi et al. (1994) also observed that men displaying low Constraint (i.e., high Disinhibition) and high Negative Emotionality tended to show more antisocial behaviors (see also Miller & Lynam, 2001). Moreover, while their level of criminality tended to remain high and the most stable, their levels of substance use tended to become the lowest of all other types in

adulthood. Moreover, similarly to the Resilients, the Overcontrolled did not display high levels of conjugal and work problems during adulthood. Thus, it seems that such a personality type was related to the theoretical developmental type labeled persistent antisocial trajectory, or more specifically to an empirical subtype we called *adolescence-aggravated persistent antisocial trajectory* (Le Blanc & Morizot, 2002). Indeed, even if the prevalence of antisocial behaviors such as criminality and substance use are known to remain stable across time in populations of adjudicated adolescents, the most prominent period of antisocial behavior of the Undercontrolled was during their adolescence, while during adulthood they were only slightly more involved in such behaviors than the Resilients, and more specifically in criminality. The identification of a developmental type of personality such as the Undercontrolled allows us to suggest that personality maturation can be considered as a correlate of the desistance process in an adolescent-aggravated persistent antisocial behavior trajectory.

The Undercontrolled are highly similar to Block's (1971) Belated-Adjusters and to the high difficult-temperament trajectory identified by Tubman et al. (1992). These groups displayed a longitudinal pattern of psychological maladjustment from adolescence to adulthood. The Undercontrolled identified in the present study are also conceptually quite similar to the Undercontrollers identified in non-developmental personality typology (Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). Concerning the MTSLS's representative sample, the Undercontrolled seem to correspond to the developmental type labeled Undercontrolled-Delayed maturation (Morizot & Le Blanc, 2002). They both represent approximately one quarter of their respective sample. However, the adjudicated Undercontrolled showed higher scores in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality during adolescence – which is not surprising for such a sample – and they clearly showed a more accelerated maturation from the end of adolescence to early adulthood. Thus, this type can be assumed to be a subtype within the developmental type labeled Undercontrolled-Delayed maturation in the MTSLS's representative sample.

Overcontrolled – Blocked Maturation

The Overcontrolled were characterized by the lowest level of personal and social control (i.e., high Disinhibition) and the poorest emotional regulation (i.e., high Negative Emotionality) during their adolescence, along with the Undercontrolled. After a small decrease in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality during adolescence, their unfavorable personality profile in these two traits remained quite stable across time. Indeed, unlike the Undercontrolled, Disinhibition decreased slowly until midlife while Negative Emotionality remained very stable. For Extraversion, there was an important decrease from adolescence to midlife, by about one and a half standard deviations. At midlife, these men were those who showed the highest Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality and the lowest Extraversion. As can be seen in Figure 1, these men were those who showed the most stable personality profile.

Along with the Undercontrolled, the Overcontrolled were those who reported the most varied and frequent problem behaviors at school and at home, delinquent behaviors, and substance use during adolescence. As noted previously, several studies showed that men displaying high Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality tend to show more antisocial behavior (Caspi et al., 1994; Miller & Lynam, 2001). Moreover, while their level of criminality decreased during adulthood, they seemed to remain highly involved in antisocial behavior during adulthood by displaying high levels of substance use as well as work and conjugal problems, significantly more than the Resilients and the Undercontrolled. This observation confirms results of past studies which observed that high Negative emotionality predicts substance use and other mental health problems (e.g., Barnes et al., 2000; Clark, Watson, & Mineka, 1994; Krueger et al., 2000). It seems that such personality type may be related to the theoretical developmental type labeled *life-course persistent antisocial trajectory*. Actually, even if the prevalence of antisocial behaviors such as criminality decreased during adulthood, making the types difficult to distinguish, the Overcontrolled displayed high levels of work and conjugal problems and substance use during adulthood, significantly more than the Resilients and the Undercontrolled.

The Overcontrolled are conceptually comparable to the stable difficult-temperament trajectory identified by Tubman et al. (1992) as well as to Block's Vulnerable-Overcontrollers and Unsettled-Undercontrollers. All these groups displayed a longitudinal pattern of maladjustment from adolescence to adulthood. This developmental type is also conceptually very similar to the Overcontrollers identified in non-developmental personality typology (Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). Concerning the MTSLS's representative sample, the Overcontrolled correspond fairly well to the developmental type also labeled Overcontrolled-Blocked maturation (see Morizot & Le Blanc, 2002). They are both the smallest group of their respective samples. Moreover, their personality profile was very similar, particularly during adulthood because both showed the highest Negative Emotionality and the lowest Extraversion. The adjudicated Overcontrolled, however, displayed higher levels of Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality during adolescence.

Anomics – Cyclical Maturation

The Anomics were characterized by low levels of personal and social control (i.e., high Disinhibition) and poor emotional regulation (i.e., high Negative Emotionality) during their adolescence. At age 15, they displayed a significantly worse personality profile than the Resilients, but significantly better than the Undercontrolled and the Overcontrolled. During adolescence there was important decrease in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality, by about one standard deviation. During early adulthood, however, their personality profile worsened, by approximately the same amount. Following that, the personality profile improved again through midlife, particularly in Negative Emotionality.

Though such a personality type was not clearly expected from previous studies, it was easily understandable that such an unstable course of psychological adaptation was related to varied and frequent antisocial behavior, particularly during adulthood when their personality profile worsened. During adolescence, the Anomics showed only slightly more behavior problems at home and school as well as slightly more criminal behaviors than the Resilients. The Anomics were even those who used the least drugs at age 15. During early adulthood, however, they were among those who showed the most various and frequent antisocial

behavior. Particularly, they reported the most varied criminal behaviors and conjugal problems during early adulthood. They were also the ones who showed the most stable high level of work problems. It is worth noting that this course in antisocial behavior was strikingly linked to their personality trajectory. At first glance, we could have postulated that this personality trajectory, characterized by cycles of increases and decreases in Disinhibition and Negative Emotionality, was related to the theoretical developmental type labeled persistent antisocial trajectory. However, because these men manifested lower levels of adjustment problems during adolescence as compared to the Undercontrolled and Overcontrolled and a comparable level to the Resilients, we would rather postulate that such a personality trajectory was related more specifically to an empirical subtype we called *adulthood-aggravated persistent antisocial trajectory* (Le Blanc & Morizot, 2002). Indeed, though the Anomics showed non-trivial adjustment problems during adolescence, as confirmed by their adjudication, they were much more involved in antisocial behavior during adulthood. Even if it is hard to associate this personality type with a known antisocial trajectory, Zucker et al. (1995) also described a negative affect type of alcoholism characterized by important increases in traits related to Negative Emotionality during early adulthood, which in turn is associated with subsequent alcohol abuse.

The Anomics do not correspond well to other types identified in previous studies. This developmental type is similar, however, to the second temperamental trajectory of Tubman et al. (1992) and to the Anomic-Extroverts of Block (1971) because all of these individuals displayed an adequate personality profile at the end of adolescence which worsened through early adulthood. The correspondence remains tentative, however, because neither of these studies included data prior to late adolescence and later than the thirties. No similar developmental type was identified in the MTSLS's representative sample. However, as for the adjudicated Undercontrolled, it seemed to correspond to a subtype within the developmental type labeled Undercontrolled-Delayed maturation in the MTSLS's representative sample. Although it was not expected from previous studies, this developmental type of personality is quite interesting. These men displayed low levels of antisocial behavior in adolescence, but because individuals displaying prominent Negative Emotionality tend to suffer as adolescents from a wide range of internalization problems (e.g.,

Clark et al., 1994; Krueger et al., 2000), perhaps these men showed some adjustment problems such as depression and anxiety during their adolescence. Future studies should examine this issue, because many theories postulate that individuals maladjusted during adulthood, as was clearly the case for the Anomies, typically began to show difficulties during their childhood or adolescence.

Some Implications of the Developmental-Typological Perspective to Personality

The developmental-typological perspective has important implications for researchers in both personality psychology and criminology. The first notable implication for personality psychology concerns theoretical development. This study forcefully stresses the necessity of building developmental and person-centered theories of personality (e.g., Block, 1971, 2000; Magnusson, 1999). This work is well underway in developing a theory based on the tripartite non-developmental personality typology (see Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). It is quite interesting that the developmental types of personality identified in the present study show a clear conceptual similarity with this tripartite typology. Moreover, the types identified in an adjudicated men sample show an impressive similarity to the types identified in the representative sample of the MTSLS (see Morizot & Le Blanc, 2002). Following the identification of a robust and replicable developmental typology, future studies will have to identify a broader range of correlates explaining why some individuals follow a specific personality trajectory (i.e., predictors) and to which kind of personal and social adjustment a specific trajectory is related (i.e., outcomes). This will help in building a theory of personality development which explicitly takes into account inter-individual differences in intra-individual change, as has been recommended by Block for many years (1971, 2000).

A second implication of the developmental-typological perspective concerns the study of continuity and change in personality traits. Different types of continuity can be assessed (Caspi & Roberts, 1999), but the present study is of particular interest for mean-level continuity. Caspi and Roberts have noted an interesting paradox in stating that “conceptually, it connotes the continuity of an attribute within a single individual, but it is typically assessed empirically by examining group means through repeated measures analyses of variance” (p.

305). The present study suggested that continuity and change were observable, depending on the type considered. The developmental-typological perspective could give new meaningful insights in resolving conflicting results about continuity and change in personality traits and thus, seems to be a very useful tool to complement group analyses – if not to say a more efficient tool. This conclusion is also relevant to criminologists studying continuity and change in low self-control measures.

A third implication of the developmental-typological perspective concerns theories of antisocial behavior development, and particularly those emphasizing the role of personality (e.g., Andrews & Bonta, 1998; Caspi et al., 1994; Eysenck, 1989; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Moffitt, 1993; Tarter et al., 1999; Wills et al., 2000; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985; Zucker, 1987; Zucker et al., 1995). For example, one of the dominant positions in contemporary criminology, Gottfredson and Hirschi's (1990) general theory of crime, postulates that self control is the most important causal factor in explaining antisocial behavior across the life course. It was mentioned before that, based on group analyses, the hypothesis of the stronger continuity in the personality profile of antisocial individuals seems partially supported (e.g., Morizot & Le Blanc, *in press*). The present study, however, is less supportive of a general theory of antisocial behavior. Indeed, in using developmental-typological analyses of a sample of antisocial men that can be assumed to be a persistent low self-control group as compared with normative individuals, different personality types were differentially related to antisocial behavior trajectories. First, the smallest group, the Overcontrolled, tended to be those who were the most highly involved in antisocial behavior across time. At first glance, the identification of such a personality type supports Gottfredson and Hirschi's claims. However, another quite different group, the Undercontrolled, tended to be as highly involved in antisocial behavior as the Overcontrolled during adolescence. Contrary to the Overcontrolled, whose problems remained stable, the Undercontrolled's antisocial behavior desistance parallels their psychological maturation. A general theory of antisocial behavior such as Gottfredson and Hirschi's does not account for such a personality type. Moreover, the largest group, the Resilients, displayed a normative personality profile in adolescence followed by a personality maturation until midlife. These men were the least involved in antisocial behavior across time. Again, a general theory of antisocial behavior

would not have predicted such a personality type. Finally, another group, the Anomics, displayed a very unstable personality profile across time. They displayed high levels of antisocial behavior during the worsening phases of their psychological profile. Once more, a general theory would not predict such a personality type. In a nutshell, the use of a developmental-typological approach suggests that the role of personality (or self-control) in the explanation of antisocial behavior would arguably require a more specific formulation according to different developmental types of personality. A number of contemporary scholars favor a developmental-typological theory of antisocial behavior postulating different antisocial trajectories (or developmental types) which are explained by different etiologic factors (see the reviews in Le Blanc, 2002; Le Blanc & Loeber, 1998; Rutter et al., 1998).

In summary, this study suggests that the developmental types of personality of adjudicated men tended to be differentially related to antisocial behavior across the life course. However, even if the relations between personality trajectories and antisocial behavior were conceptually coherent, they are far from absolute, suggesting that personality may not be the most important explanatory factor of antisocial behavior across the life course, as postulated by Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990), for example. Other factors moderating or mediating the relations between personality and antisocial behavior are necessary for an adequate explanation. Moreover, this study does not answer a crucial question: is personality maturation a precursor of change in antisocial behavior? Inversely, does the process of desistance from antisocial behavior favor psychological maturation? Maybe neither of these aspects of individuals' lives has any causal relations with one another across time.

Strengths and Limitations of the Study

To our knowledge, this was the first study to identify a developmental typology of personality in a sample of men adjudicated during their adolescence and followed-up until midlife. The use of prospective longitudinal data gathered on four occasions from adolescence to midlife is important. Moreover, the nature of the sample is interesting. This sample can be considered representative of the Caucasian French-speaking adjudicated adolescent male population living in the Montreal metropolitan area and born in the early

sixties. However, it should be kept in mind that this sample represents a single-birth cohort. Continuity and change in personality traits could be influenced by the specific social and economic contexts of Quebec from the early seventies to the late nineties. Only replications will answer this question. Another advantage of this study rests on the personality measures used. We advocated that these three higher-order traits represent a generally accepted broad structural model of personality (i.e., Big-Three). Longitudinal studies using very similar measures exist, allowing eventual replication.

Despite these strengths, this study was not without limitations. The first one is contingent on the limitations of cluster analysis. We have noted before that these methods have been criticized. However, the analytical strategy we followed addressed a number of concerns associated with these techniques. Other statistical techniques could have been used, but longitudinal cluster analysis can be considered an adequate tool for a preliminary construction of a developmental typology because it deals easily with multivariate data and small samples such as ours (see Bergman, 1998, 2000; Dumenci & Windle, 2001). In all likelihood, a meaningful and replicable developmental typology should be identified with different analytical techniques, samples types, and personality measures. A second limitation is that the results apply only to men. A second limitation of this study is associated with the sole use of self-reported assessment. A third important limitation concerns the sole use of self-reported assessment. Indeed, correlations between two self-report measures may be confounded by content overlap between the two measures (i.e., some personality items within Disinhibition may include items related to aggression and antisocial behavior) and / or by response style such as socially desirable responding (i.e., the participant may fake good on some personality items and fake good on antisocial behavior items), both situations producing spurious correlations between the two constructs. Regarding the item overlap critic, a classic issue in criminology, some data tend to suggest that eliminating conceptually overlapping items in personality measures does not change the magnitude of the correlations between personality traits and antisocial behavior (e.g., Caspi et al., 1994). Regarding social desirability, because most items of the personality measures used in the present study are worded to measure the negative side of the trait continuum and there are very few items positively worded (i.e., reverse-scored), this possibility should be kept in mind. Despite bias

associated with this type of assessment, both self-reported personality (e.g., Robins & John, 1997) and antisocial behavior (e.g., Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989; Rutter et al., 1998) are known to provide valid and reliable information. Indeed, peer ratings may not be more convenient because some studies have shown that they could be influenced by a self-based heuristic phenomenon. Regarding personality, when peers were asked to rate difficult-to-judge traits, they tend to report more on their own personality (Ready, Clark, Watson, & Westerhouse, 2000). For antisocial behavior, when adolescents' friends report on delinquency and substance use, they tend to report more on their own behaviors (Kandel, 1996). A fourth limitation is that the external validation of the developmental typology was conducted with a limited number of variables associated with individuals' adjustment. We asserted that antisocial behavior measures were theoretically relevant, but future studies will have to document the possible relations between developmental types of personality and a number of variables typically associated with personality development.

Conclusion

During the last decades of the twentieth century, most psychologists were considering personality traits as quite stable predispositions from the beginning of adulthood. However, recent longitudinal studies showed that personality traits can exhibit mean-level changes in the direction of greater maturity across the entire life course. Because virtually all studies were based on the variable-centered approach (i.e., group analyses), the hypothesis of a normative maturation applies to the "average person." It was demonstrated in the present study and a few past studies that results derived from developmental-typological analyses raise an important issue for students of personality development. Although they are very useful in tapping general trends and provide an important heuristic for personality theory, it seems clear that the results from group analyses could hide various realities. Indeed, in a given sample, subgroups of individuals can demonstrate strong continuity of good adjustment or of maladjustment, others can display a maturational trend and others a deterioration in their personality profiles across the life course. A lot of research needs to be done before personality psychology could dispose of a replicable and accepted developmental typology describing quantitatively and qualitatively distinct life pathways explained by distinct

etiological factors. In this beginning of the twenty-first century, we think this is a challenging and promising issue for contemporary personality researchers.

Criminologists and other social scientists have also begun the search for a robust and replicable developmental typology of antisocial behavior explained by distinct etiologic factors. Inter-individual differences in personality have been considered an important correlate of antisocial behavior for almost a century. The relations between developmental types of personality and antisocial behavior demonstrated in the present study are challenging to the scientific community, particularly to general theories of antisociality. We think that advances in the developmental-typological approach to personality offer great promise to better understand the factors explaining the various antisocial trajectories.

Table 1

Mean Scores in the Three Personality Traits for the Total Sample

| | Disinhibition | | Negative Emotionality | | Extraversion | |
|----------|---------------|-----------|-----------------------|-----------|--------------|-----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| 15 years | 61.22 | 14.61 | 61.57 | 14.78 | 51.88 | 10.54 |
| 17 years | 54.47 | 15.91 | 52.42 | 14.63 | 52.01 | 10.52 |
| 30 years | 49.13 | 12.52 | 48.06 | 16.97 | 47.03 | 12.61 |
| 40 years | 47.93 | 14.29 | 43.55 | 16.98 | 46.22 | 12.89 |

Note. *T*-scores were calculated with raw data (*M* and *SD*) of the representative sample at age 16.

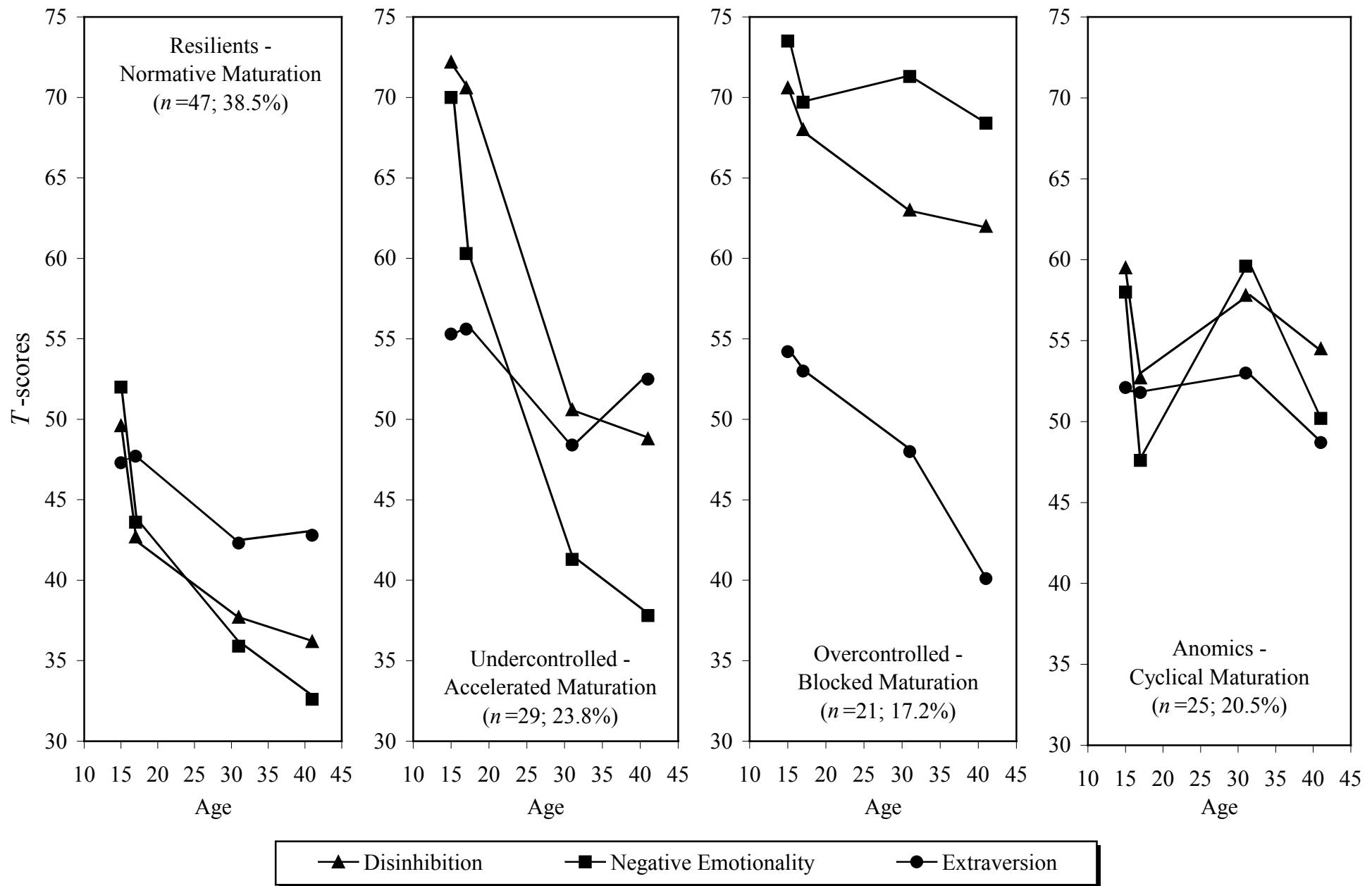


Figure 1. Mean Scores in the Three Personality Traits by Developmental Type

Table 2

Results of Univariate Tests and Contrasts of the Repeated Measures MANOVA on Personality Traits by Developmental Type

| Source | Disinhibition | | | Negative Emotionality | | | Extraversion | | |
|--------------------------|---------------|-----------|----------|-----------------------|-----------|----------|---------------------|----------|----------|
| | df | F | η^2 | df | F | η^2 | df | F | η^2 |
| Between (Dev. Type) | 1, 118 | 108.10*** | .73 | 1, 118 | 100.70*** | .72 | 1, 118 | 6.83*** | .15 |
| Within (Time) | 3, 354 | 43.88*** | .27 | 3, 354 | 50.43*** | .30 | 3, 354 | 12.79*** | .10 |
| Time × Dev. Type | 9, 354 | 27.14*** | .24 | 9, 354 | 8.49*** | .09 | 9, 354 | 17.55*** | .17 |
| <i>Planned Contrasts</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| Time | | | | | | | | | |
| Linear | 1, 118 | 82.97*** | .41 | 1, 118 | 104.18*** | .47 | 1, 118 | 24.74*** | .17 |
| Quadratic | 1, 118 | 18.43*** | .14 | 1, 118 | 1.00 | .01 | 1, 118 | 1.05 | .01 |
| Cubic | 1, 118 | 11.48** | .09 | 1, 118 | 34.68*** | .23 | 1, 118 | 0.04 | .00 |
| Time × Dev. Types | | | | | | | | | |
| Linear | 3, 118 | 19.72*** | .33 | 3, 118 | 29.42*** | .43 | 3, 118 | 2.78* | .07 |
| Quadratic | 3, 118 | 3.55* | .08 | 3, 118 | 8.93*** | .19 | 3, 118 | 3.90** | .09 |
| Cubic | 3, 118 | 2.96* | .07 | 3, 118 | 0.84 | .02 | 3, 118 | 0.66 | .02 |
| <i>Post Hoc</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| 1 < 2, 1 < 3, 1 < 4 | | | | 1 < 2, 1 < 3, 1 < 4 | | | 1 < 2, 1 = 3, 1 < 4 | | |
| 2 < 3, 2 > 4, 3 > 4 | | | | 2 < 3, 2 = 4, 3 > 4 | | | 2 = 3, 2 = 4, 3 = 4 | | |

Note. 1 = Resilients–Normative Maturation, 2= Undercontrolled–Accelerated Maturation, 3 = Overcontrolled–Blocked Maturation, 4 = Anomies–Cyclical Maturation. Polynomial contrasts adjusted for unequal time intervals. Post hoc tests = Tukey HSD significant at .05 alpha level, corrected for Type I error inflation.

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$.

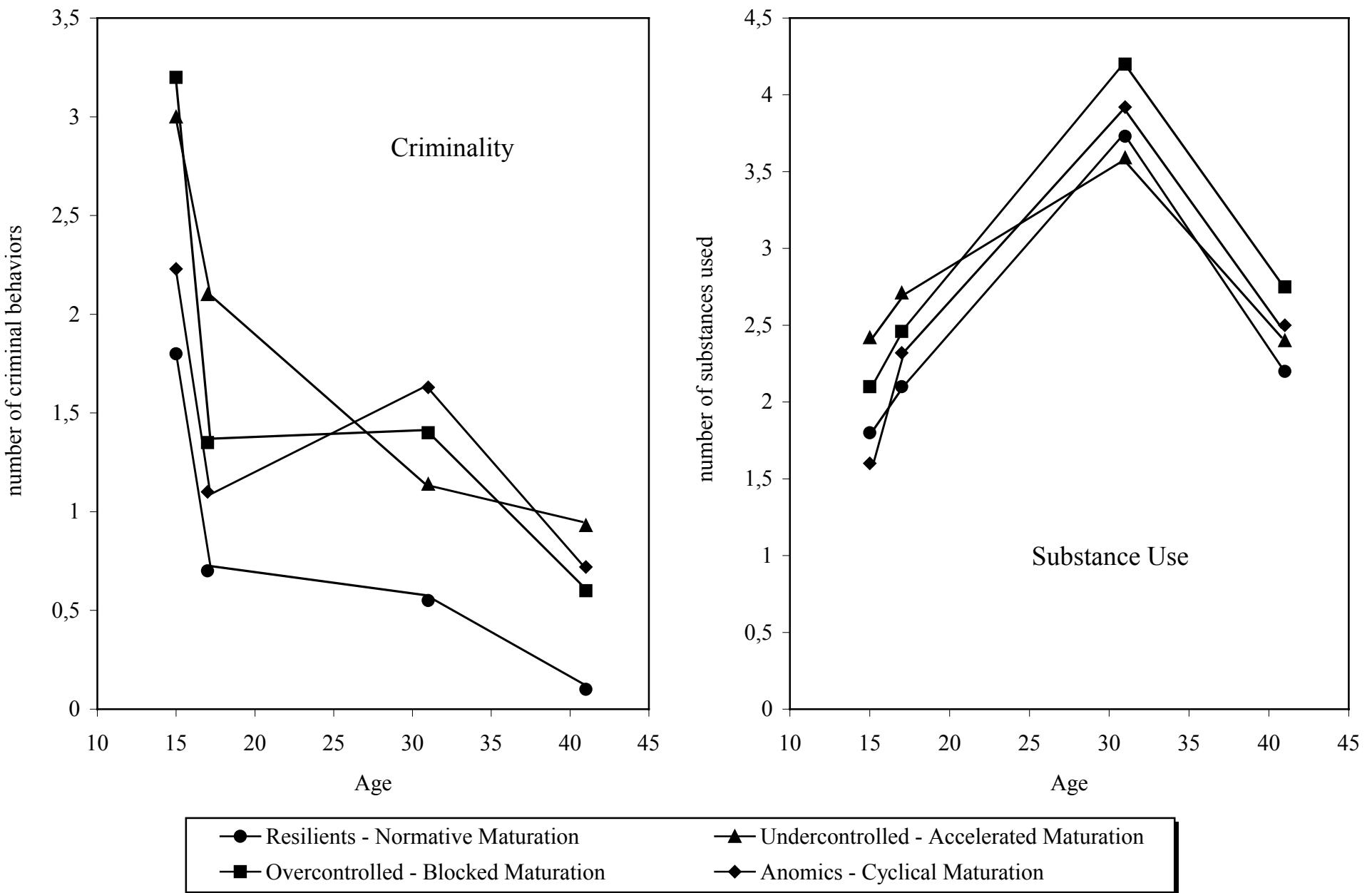


Figure 2. Number of Criminal Behaviors and Substances Used Across Time by Developmental Type of Personality

Table 3

Results of the Repeated Measures ANOVA on Criminality and Substance Use Variety by Developmental Type of Personality

| Source | Criminality | | | Substance Use | | |
|---|-------------|----------|----------|---|-----------|----------|
| | df | F | η^2 | df | F | η^2 |
| Between (Dev. Type) | 3, 118 | 6.21** | .14 | 3, 118 | 0.39 | .01 |
| Within (Time) | 3, 354 | 56.11*** | .32 | 3, 354 | 52.68*** | .31 |
| Time × Dev. Type | 9, 354 | 1.40 | .03 | 9, 354 | 0.86 | .02 |
| <i>Planned Contrasts</i> | | | | | | |
| Time | | | | | | |
| Linear | 1, 118 | 82.65*** | .41 | 1, 118 | 13.46*** | .10 |
| Quadratic | 1, 118 | 0.01 | .00 | 1, 118 | 176.16*** | .60 |
| Cubic | 1, 118 | 80.87*** | .41 | 1, 118 | 2.27 | .02 |
| Time × Dev. Type | | | | | | |
| Linear | 3, 118 | 1.36 | .03 | 3, 118 | 0.92 | .02 |
| Quadratic | 3, 118 | 1.25 | .03 | 3, 118 | 1.07 | .03 |
| Cubic | 3, 118 | 1.59 | .04 | 3, 118 | 0.45 | .01 |
| <i>Post Hoc</i> | | | | | | |
| 1 < 2, 1 < 3, 1 < 4^a, 2 > 3, 2 > 4, 3 > 4 | | | | 1 < 2, 1 < 3, 1 < 4, 2 < 3, 2 > 4, 3 > 4 | | |

Note. Greenhouse-Geisser correction applied to Within and Interaction tests. 1 = Resilients–Normative Maturation, 2 = Undercontrolled–Accelerated Maturation, 3 = Overcontrolled–Blocked Maturation, 4 = Anomies–Cyclical Maturation. Polynomial contrasts adjusted for unequal time intervals. Post hoc tests = Tukey HSD corrected for Type I error inflation. Significant post hoc tests ($p < .05$) are presented in bold.

^a $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$.

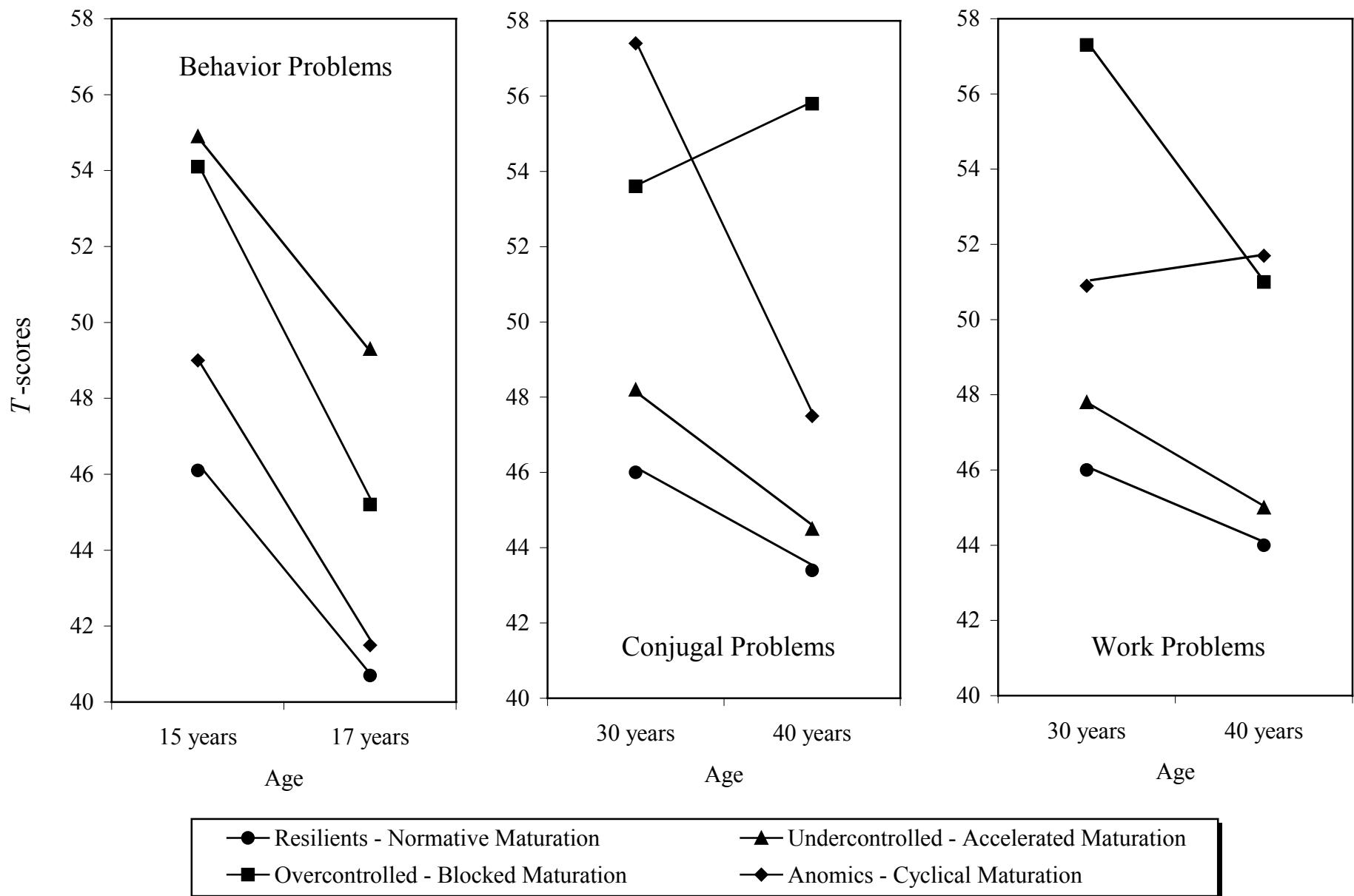


Figure 3. Behavioral, Conjugal, and Work Problems Frequency Across Time by Developmental Type of Personality

Table 4

Results of the Repeated Measures ANOVA on Behavioral, Conjugal, and Work Problems Frequency by Developmental Type of Personality

| Source | Behavior Problems | | | Conjugal Problems | | | Work Problems | | |
|---------------------|---|----------|----------|-------------------------------------|---------|----------|---|-------------------|----------|
| | df | F | η^2 | df | F | η^2 | df | F | η^2 |
| Between (Dev. Type) | 3, 118 | 4.04** | .09 | 3, 118 | 7.02*** | .15 | 3, 118 | 1.76 ^a | .04 |
| Within (Time) | 1, 118 | 41.39*** | .26 | 1, 118 | 8.56** | .07 | 1, 118 | 1.02 | .01 |
| Time × Dev. Type | 3, 118 | 0.28 | .01 | 3, 118 | 4.13** | .09 | 3, 118 | 1.78 | .04 |
| <i>Post Hoc</i> | | | | | | | | | |
| | 1 < 2, 1 < 3^a, 1 < 4 | | | 1 > 2, 1 < 3, 1 < 4 | | | 1 < 2, 1 < 3^a, 1 < 4 | | |
| | 2 > 3, 2 > 4, 3 > 4 | | | 2 < 3, 2 < 4, 3 > 4 | | | 2 < 3, 2 < 4, 3 > 4 | | |

Note. Greenhouse-Geisser correction applied to Within and Interaction tests. 1 = Resilients–Normative Maturation, 2 = Undercontrolled–Accelerated Maturation, 3 = Overcontrolled–Blocked Maturation, 4 = Anomies–Cyclical Maturation. Post hoc tests = Tukey HSD corrected for Type I error inflation. Significant post hoc tests ($p < .05$) are presented in bold.

^a $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .0001$.

Appendix A

Means and Standard Deviations in T-scores for All Traits by Developmental Type

| | 15 years | | 17 years | | 30 years | | 40 years | |
|---|----------|-------|----------|-------|----------|-------|----------|-------|
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| Resilients – Normative maturation (n = 47) | | | | | | | | |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | 49.58 | 11.54 | 42.75 | 9.56 | 37.72 | 6.79 | 36.22 | 7.91 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 49.26 | 11.76 | 42.45 | 9.70 | 38.44 | 6.62 | 36.62 | 7.04 |
| Malignant Egotism | 48.49 | 9.20 | 45.26 | 8.98 | 42.21 | 5.78 | 41.28 | 6.57 |
| Callous Hostility | 51.53 | 11.81 | 45.79 | 10.48 | 42.23 | 9.04 | 40.13 | 8.15 |
| Impulsiveness | 48.47 | 12.41 | 40.81 | 9.13 | 38.35 | 5.96 | 37.18 | 6.31 |
| Antisocial Values | 51.97 | 11.96 | 44.50 | 9.72 | 39.55 | 8.42 | 38.64 | 9.31 |
| Authority Opposition | 51.22 | 12.79 | 47.33 | 10.03 | 43.27 | 8.90 | 41.07 | 9.89 |
| Societal Skepticism | 52.10 | 11.26 | 43.48 | 9.95 | 39.04 | 7.96 | 39.49 | 9.37 |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | 52.09 | 12.08 | 44.56 | 9.52 | 35.89 | 9.72 | 32.61 | 8.26 |
| Alienation | 54.82 | 12.30 | 45.53 | 9.03 | 39.31 | 7.50 | 37.27 | 5.55 |
| Mistrust | 53.33 | 12.48 | 44.78 | 8.62 | 38.58 | 9.00 | 37.58 | 8.25 |
| Self-Criticism | 57.69 | 11.42 | 48.83 | 10.07 | 43.20 | 8.70 | 41.28 | 6.55 |
| Schizotypy | 51.16 | 10.35 | 46.41 | 8.31 | 43.54 | 5.93 | 41.46 | 5.38 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 54.00 | 11.48 | 46.19 | 8.91 | 41.19 | 9.73 | 37.80 | 8.52 |
| Social Anxiety | 51.85 | 11.28 | 45.59 | 9.55 | 42.13 | 10.02 | 41.23 | 10.47 |
| Passivity | 54.43 | 10.96 | 48.05 | 9.47 | 43.50 | 9.74 | 39.17 | 7.41 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 48.41 | 11.76 | 41.67 | 10.70 | 36.21 | 11.38 | 33.50 | 10.56 |
| Anxiousness | 49.92 | 11.50 | 43.44 | 9.48 | 40.36 | 9.24 | 38.46 | 10.55 |
| Affective Distress | 49.80 | 10.49 | 44.28 | 12.04 | 39.76 | 11.85 | 37.75 | 10.11 |
| Irritability | 45.74 | 11.42 | 43.02 | 11.36 | 37.23 | 10.55 | 34.72 | 7.31 |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | 47.27 | 11.17 | 47.67 | 10.38 | 42.30 | 12.68 | 42.82 | 12.19 |
| Sensation Seeking | 50.12 | 11.89 | 47.78 | 10.70 | 38.31 | 12.41 | 38.30 | 12.37 |
| Sociability | 46.99 | 9.64 | 50.50 | 9.45 | 48.13 | 12.28 | 48.86 | 11.06 |

Appendix A (continued)

Means and Standard Deviations in T-scores for All Traits by Developmental Type

| Undercontrolled – Accelerated maturation (n = 29) | 15 years | | 17 years | | 30 years | | 40 years | |
|--|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | 72.18 | 10.11 | 70.57 | 11.74 | 50.60 | 8.25 | 48.79 | 10.05 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 70.34 | 10.83 | 68.71 | 13.26 | 49.76 | 9.63 | 48.05 | 10.64 |
| Malignant Egotism | 64.43 | 9.79 | 64.43 | 11.89 | 49.16 | 8.85 | 50.43 | 9.71 |
| Callous Hostility | 66.67 | 10.05 | 64.12 | 11.40 | 53.76 | 11.46 | 47.98 | 10.58 |
| Impulsiveness | 65.68 | 12.89 | 64.21 | 14.08 | 45.92 | 10.64 | 46.32 | 10.71 |
| Antisocial Values | 69.13 | 10.41 | 68.11 | 10.11 | 51.24 | 8.51 | 49.71 | 10.61 |
| Authority Opposition | 65.19 | 8.53 | 68.10 | 12.05 | 50.67 | 11.13 | 51.35 | 11.31 |
| Societal Skepticism | 67.57 | 11.36 | 63.42 | 9.79 | 51.42 | 7.58 | 48.36 | 9.77 |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | 70.04 | 11.64 | 60.31 | 14.28 | 41.27 | 9.13 | 37.82 | 8.79 |
| Alienation | 75.00 | 9.86 | 64.23 | 13.19 | 46.26 | 8.72 | 43.34 | 6.93 |
| Mistrust | 72.19 | 11.59 | 63.63 | 14.80 | 47.61 | 10.16 | 44.63 | 8.17 |
| Self-Criticism | 71.55 | 10.61 | 62.71 | 12.80 | 46.31 | 8.49 | 45.75 | 7.68 |
| Schizotypy | 65.75 | 8.12 | 57.41 | 11.61 | 46.99 | 8.55 | 43.94 | 6.64 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 64.30 | 11.58 | 57.26 | 12.42 | 39.71 | 8.99 | 39.80 | 8.24 |
| Social Anxiety | 55.13 | 10.03 | 51.38 | 12.23 | 41.71 | 9.57 | 42.96 | 8.24 |
| Passivity | 67.12 | 12.72 | 59.74 | 11.96 | 41.63 | 7.57 | 40.69 | 8.09 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 59.76 | 13.27 | 53.61 | 15.97 | 42.14 | 11.40 | 37.50 | 11.77 |
| Anxiousness | 60.24 | 14.19 | 54.01 | 14.74 | 47.75 | 11.40 | 43.29 | 11.51 |
| Affective Distress | 53.77 | 12.03 | 50.03 | 13.07 | 42.38 | 11.78 | 39.94 | 12.31 |
| Irritability | 57.11 | 10.01 | 53.75 | 14.35 | 39.25 | 7.81 | 35.89 | 7.95 |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | 55.31 | 7.71 | 55.63 | 8.50 | 48.39 | 11.22 | 52.50 | 10.89 |
| Sensation Seeking | 58.99 | 9.05 | 55.80 | 9.55 | 45.44 | 13.95 | 47.63 | 13.19 |
| Sociability | 50.59 | 7.52 | 53.40 | 8.32 | 51.18 | 7.98 | 55.17 | 8.76 |

Appendix A (continued)

Means and Standard Deviations in T-scores for All Traits by Developmental Type

| Overcontrolled – Blocked maturation (n = 21) | 15 years | | 17 years | | 30 years | | 40 years | |
|---|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | 70.57 | 10.12 | 68.18 | 9.74 | 62.98 | 9.38 | 62.03 | 10.17 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 68.83 | 11.70 | 65.23 | 10.63 | 60.02 | 12.75 | 60.47 | 12.11 |
| Malignant Egotism | 61.42 | 11.95 | 60.41 | 10.64 | 53.00 | 12.03 | 54.44 | 11.12 |
| Callous Hostility | 65.58 | 11.88 | 64.03 | 10.52 | 59.81 | 10.50 | 60.98 | 9.92 |
| Impulsiveness | 67.22 | 13.83 | 60.42 | 9.53 | 61.87 | 11.93 | 59.54 | 13.30 |
| Antisocial Values | 69.11 | 11.30 | 67.20 | 8.85 | 63.06 | 8.79 | 62.23 | 9.29 |
| Authority Opposition | 67.61 | 9.54 | 66.16 | 11.13 | 64.42 | 10.50 | 60.15 | 10.67 |
| Societal Skepticism | 65.44 | 13.14 | 63.63 | 7.41 | 58.50 | 8.46 | 60.85 | 8.32 |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | 73.47 | 10.82 | 69.68 | 7.63 | 71.28 | 11.05 | 68.41 | 15.45 |
| Alienation | 76.08 | 10.77 | 69.85 | 8.86 | 68.94 | 13.14 | 66.21 | 14.04 |
| Mistrust | 70.91 | 10.89 | 68.09 | 11.08 | 63.97 | 12.73 | 63.85 | 14.19 |
| Self-Criticism | 71.17 | 12.84 | 66.28 | 12.82 | 66.80 | 13.66 | 63.45 | 15.52 |
| Schizotypy | 70.21 | 8.56 | 62.68 | 7.58 | 64.89 | 12.17 | 61.33 | 12.30 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 69.43 | 10.41 | 64.51 | 7.85 | 65.74 | 10.92 | 64.11 | 11.60 |
| Social Anxiety | 58.53 | 8.04 | 56.59 | 10.06 | 69.05 | 9.00 | 60.51 | 10.52 |
| Passivity | 71.93 | 10.77 | 66.18 | 5.90 | 62.48 | 12.08 | 62.21 | 12.65 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 62.04 | 10.76 | 60.93 | 8.29 | 66.54 | 12.23 | 63.25 | 15.90 |
| Anxiousness | 61.15 | 12.24 | 59.55 | 10.94 | 68.12 | 12.87 | 67.24 | 14.92 |
| Affective Distress | 54.37 | 9.88 | 54.78 | 9.38 | 58.60 | 10.89 | 54.33 | 14.35 |
| Irritability | 61.54 | 9.44 | 50.57 | 11.64 | 58.37 | 10.91 | 54.95 | 13.72 |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | 54.23 | 11.12 | 53.04 | 12.94 | 48.41 | 11.92 | 40.09 | 15.53 |
| Sensation Seeking | 63.28 | 8.86 | 58.49 | 11.50 | 57.11 | 11.78 | 47.48 | 12.91 |
| Sociability | 46.83 | 11.55 | 48.67 | 12.40 | 42.54 | 12.17 | 39.12 | 13.25 |

Appendix A (continued)

Means and Standard Deviations in T-scores for All Traits by Developmental Type

| Anomies – Cyclical maturation (n = 25) | 15 years | | 17 years | | 30 years | | 40 years | |
|---|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|
| | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i> | <i>SD</i> |
| <i>Disinhibition</i> | 59.46 | 13.07 | 52.68 | 10.38 | 57.76 | 7.44 | 54.48 | 12.95 |
| Tough-Mindedness | 59.78 | 14.01 | 50.00 | 9.38 | 55.57 | 7.76 | 55.00 | 14.37 |
| Malignant Egotism | 58.31 | 11.77 | 52.25 | 9.04 | 52.25 | 7.71 | 53.66 | 12.68 |
| Callous Hostility | 58.47 | 12.61 | 51.57 | 10.30 | 58.07 | 9.10 | 55.38 | 11.82 |
| Impulsiveness | 54.93 | 14.13 | 44.69 | 8.70 | 52.50 | 11.23 | 52.09 | 14.25 |
| Antisocial Values | 58.10 | 11.64 | 51.95 | 10.94 | 57.23 | 10.63 | 56.53 | 13.80 |
| Authority Opposition | 58.05 | 10.74 | 53.07 | 11.10 | 57.47 | 11.36 | 57.27 | 12.77 |
| Societal Skepticism | 56.04 | 11.61 | 50.47 | 10.49 | 55.15 | 9.27 | 54.19 | 12.43 |
| <i>Negative Emotionality</i> | 58.25 | 13.52 | 47.64 | 10.47 | 59.56 | 11.16 | 50.21 | 13.80 |
| Alienation | 64.55 | 12.97 | 51.01 | 10.71 | 60.25 | 11.98 | 52.73 | 11.68 |
| Mistrust | 61.25 | 13.36 | 50.70 | 12.45 | 58.74 | 12.71 | 52.45 | 14.04 |
| Self-Criticism | 65.51 | 11.57 | 53.18 | 12.82 | 59.24 | 10.99 | 53.71 | 10.98 |
| Schizotypy | 58.60 | 11.15 | 48.93 | 8.39 | 56.55 | 10.96 | 50.55 | 11.14 |
| Maladaptive Inhibition | 55.40 | 13.73 | 48.47 | 11.71 | 55.50 | 11.96 | 49.95 | 12.96 |
| Social Anxiety | 51.49 | 13.69 | 47.14 | 11.42 | 54.75 | 10.44 | 48.51 | 11.25 |
| Passivity | 56.84 | 12.25 | 50.15 | 11.08 | 54.20 | 11.39 | 51.20 | 13.26 |
| Emotional Reactivity | 50.26 | 14.39 | 45.14 | 10.60 | 56.28 | 12.61 | 47.97 | 15.71 |
| Anxiousness | 53.47 | 14.02 | 48.75 | 11.01 | 59.50 | 10.04 | 52.95 | 13.59 |
| Affective Distress | 46.08 | 13.11 | 42.50 | 10.71 | 54.00 | 12.83 | 45.03 | 14.66 |
| Irritability | 49.23 | 11.26 | 46.15 | 9.62 | 48.00 | 14.60 | 44.60 | 14.13 |
| <i>Extraversion</i> | 52.19 | 9.64 | 51.78 | 9.66 | 53.16 | 11.85 | 48.67 | 10.10 |
| Sensation Seeking | 53.12 | 11.83 | 51.50 | 8.17 | 55.43 | 12.87 | 48.10 | 11.83 |
| Sociability | 51.67 | 7.82 | 51.33 | 10.14 | 50.30 | 9.12 | 51.33 | 9.67 |

CHAPITRE V

CONCLUSION

Les travaux présentés dans cette thèse visaient à mieux comprendre le développement de la personnalité de l'homme depuis l'adolescence jusqu'au milieu de la vie. À cette fin, les données de l'*Étude longitudinale bi-échantillon de Montréal* ont été employées (ÉLBÉM; Fréchette & Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989). Cette étude comporte deux cohortes d'hommes québécois francophones nés dans les années cinquante : un échantillon représentatif de la population générale et un échantillon de garçons judiciarés durant leur adolescence sous la Loi des jeunes contrevenants ou sous la Loi de la protection de la jeunesse du Québec. Le développement de la personnalité de ces deux échantillons a été étudié selon deux grandes approches conceptuelles et méthodologiques, soit les approches centrée sur les variables et centrée sur les personnes. De façon générale, les études présentées dans chacun des trois chapitres précédents offrent une contribution originale à l'état des connaissances sur le développement de la personnalité. Dans les sections qui suivent, la structure hiérarchique des traits de personnalité identifiée sera d'abord mise en contexte avec les études antérieures. Par la suite, la contribution de l'étude du développement de la personnalité selon une approche centrée sur les variables sera passée en revue. Ensuite, la contribution de l'approche centrée sur les personnes à l'étude du développement de la personnalité sera mise en lumière. Enfin, la contribution de l'approche développementale-typologique de la personnalité pour une meilleure compréhension du comportement antisocial au cours de la vie sera brièvement soulignée.

UNE STRUCTURE HIÉRARCHIQUE DES TRAITS DE PERSONNALITÉ

À l'instar d'autres chercheurs, nous avions des réserves quant à l'utilisation des échelles originales des deux instruments employés dans l'ÉLBÉM, soit les questionnaires de personnalité de Eysenck (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1971) et de Jesness (1983). Pour l'identification de la structure des traits de personnalité, nous avons adopté une stratégie qui permet de limiter, du moins en partie, les problèmes de l'analyse factorielle exploratoire (voir McDonald, 1999; Nunnally & Berstein, 1994). Martin et Friedman (2000) ont employé une stratégie similaire à la notre pour analyser des données de personnalité d'archives. Nous avons d'abord éliminé des items qui auraient pu causer des artefacts de mesure dans la structure des traits de personnalité. Nous avons ensuite testé deux types de matrices de corrélations, mais plus particulièrement les corrélations tétrachoriques. Ces corrélations sont

plus appropriées pour les items dichotomiques et permettent généralement d'éviter le piège d'extraire trop de facteurs qui sont en fait des facteurs liés au niveau de difficulté des items (voir Waller, 1999; Waller et al., 1996). Cependant, dans la présente étude, les deux types de matrices de corrélations ont procuré des résultats tout à fait similaires. Nous avons aussi employé deux méthodes d'extraction des facteurs, soit l'analyse en composantes principales et la factorisation par axe principal, mais encore une fois les résultats se sont avérés similaires. Enfin, nous avons testé deux méthodes de rotation des facteurs, orthogonale et non orthogonale, qui ont aussi procuré des résultats similaires. Malgré les convergences, les résultats les plus clairs, pour les deux échantillons et à tous les moments de mesure, ont été dérivés à partir des corrélations tétrachoriques analysées par composantes principales avec une rotation orthogonale. Nous pouvons donc avoir confiance en la structure factorielle identifiée, mais il demeure que l'analyse factorielle n'est pas sans faille. Par exemple, quelques items affichant de fortes saturations sur plus d'un facteur ont été assignés à partir de décisions théoriques afin d'optimiser la validité de contenu. De plus, lorsque testée par le biais d'analyses factorielles confirmatoires, la structure à trois niveaux ne satisfaisait pas au critère de la structure simple de Thurstone et des spécifications mineures *a posteriori* ont été nécessaires (i.e., ajouter des saturations croisées). Toutefois, de telles spécifications sont communes pour la majorité des structures de personnalité (Church & Burke, 1994). De plus, les analyses confirmatoires ont aussi montré que la structure s'est avérée partiellement invariante entre les deux échantillons. En somme, comme nous nous y attendions, l'analyse de l'ensemble des items des deux questionnaires de personnalité initialement employés dans l'ÉLBÉM à l'aide d'une stratégie analytique rigoureuse a permis d'identifier une structure hiérarchique composée de traits de premier et de second ordre avec une bonne validité de contenu et une cohérence interne adéquate. Par ailleurs, l'invariance partielle de cette structure entre les deux échantillons est importante puisque les individus antisociaux et les individus de la population générale manifestent généralement des profils de personnalité très différents (Andrews & Bonta, 1998; Barnes et al., 2000; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985).

La structure hiérarchique des traits de personnalité que nous avons identifiée est intéressante pour plusieurs raisons. Premièrement, la plupart des tenants de l'approche des traits reconnaissent que la structure des traits de personnalité s'organise de façon hiérarchique (Costa & McCrae, 1992a; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1993; Paunonen, 1998; Tellegen &

Waller, *in press*). Deuxièmement, au niveau des traits de haut ordre, cette structure correspond clairement au modèle en trois facteurs, identifié à l'aide de questionnaires variés dans plusieurs langues (Clark & Watson, 1999; Matthews & Deary, 1998). En effet, la Désinhibition, l'Émotivité Négative et l'Extraversion correspondent tout à fait à des traits similaires identifiés par Eysenck (1970, 1981; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985), Gray (1991), Cloninger (1987), Conley (1985), Tellegen (1985; Tellegen & Waller, *in press*), Clark et Watson (1990, 1999) et Zuckerman (1994). À l'aide d'un échantillon de convenance, nous avons montré dans le deuxième chapitre que les trois traits de haut ordre que nous avons identifié corrèlent clairement avec les échelles conceptuellement similaires du questionnaire de Eysenck (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1971). Nous avons aussi vérifié les relations entre les traits que nous avons identifiés et des questionnaires connus du modèle en cinq facteurs (*i.e.*, FFI de Costa & McCrae, 1992; BFI de John et al., 1991; IPIP50 de Goldberg, 1999). De façon générale, les traits reliés à l'Émotivité Négative et les traits reliés à l'Extraversion corrèlent clairement tous entre eux. Quant à eux, les traits reliés à la Désinhibition sont négativement reliés à la Complaisance, et dans une moindre mesure à la Contrainte. Cependant, aucun des traits identifiés à l'aide des données de l'ÉLBÉM ne correspond à l'Ouverture à l'expérience. Troisièmement, ce modèle en trois traits de haut ordre est intéressant parce qu'il s'agit du modèle qui a fait l'objet des formulations théoriques les plus poussées à propos des bases biologiques de la personnalité (*e.g.*, Cloninger, 1987; Depue, 1996; Depue & Lenzenweger, 2001; Eysenck, 1981; Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985; Fowles, 1980; Gray, 1991; Zuckerman, 1994). Pour les auteurs de ce modèle, la structure des traits de personnalité doit nécessairement correspondre à des bases biologiques pour opérationnaliser le fonctionnement du système nerveux central (SNC; voir McBurnett, 1991; Nowakowski & Hawes, 1999). En effet, les différences interindividuelles dans l'activité et les processus du SNC causeraient une sensibilité différentielle à certains stimuli environnementaux, menant à l'expression des différences interindividuelles au niveau du phénotype psychologique que représentent les traits. Bien que le manque d'appui empirique ait été une critique souvent adressée à ces théories, plusieurs études empiriques récentes tendent à appuyer les théories psychobiologiques sous-jacentes à ces trois grands traits (Davidson, 2001; Depue & Lenzenweger, 2001; Grigsby & Stevens, 2000; Ledoux, 1996; Matthews & Gilliland, 1999; McBurnett, 1991; Panksepp, 1998; Pickering & Gray, 1999; Zuckerman, 1991, 1995). Bien que les termes employés et les structures diffèrent quelque peu, il y a souvent plus de

similitudes que de différences entre ces modèles (voir Clark & Watson, 1999; Depue & Lenzenweger, 2001). Tous ces modèles proposent que le SNC comporterait différents sous-systèmes physiologiques et hormonaux responsables de l'expression des traits.

- Les signaux de punition et de non-récompense seraient modulés par un *système d'inhibition comportementale* ou d'*évitement de la douleur*. Ce système active la peur et l'anxiété et inhibe le comportement. Le niveau d'activation et d'excitation de ce système serait produit par le système limbique et l'amygdale. Ce système serait modulé par l'activité de la norépinéphrine. La dopamine semble aussi interagir dans ce système. Il s'agirait du système à la source de l'Émotivité Négative.
- Les signaux de récompense et de non-punition seraient modulés par un *système d'activation comportementale* (SAC) ou d'*approche*. Ce système active les conduites d'approche et de recherche. Le niveau d'activation et d'excitation de ce système serait produit par les systèmes mésolimbique et cortico-réticulaire. Ces systèmes seraient modulés par l'activité de la dopamine et, dans une moindre mesure, des stéroïdes gonadiques ainsi que de certains neuropeptides tels que l'ocytocine et la vasopressine. Il s'agirait du système à la source de l'Extraversion.
- Un troisième système, soit le *système de combat-fuite* (SCF) ou de *dépendance aux récompenses*, répond aux stimuli négatifs inconditionnels et détermine si les facteurs externes et internes à l'organisme nécessitent une réponse. Ce système active soit l'agression et l'impulsivité ou le retrait. Ce système est encore peu connu, mais il est principalement modulé par l'activité de la sérotonine et, dans une moindre mesure, de la noradrénaline. La dopamine semble aussi interagir dans ce système. Il s'agirait du système à la source de la Désinhibition.

Bien que les études empiriques soient de plus en plus nombreuses, qu'elles emploient une méthodologie de plus en plus rigoureuse et qu'elles aient permis des avancées considérables au cours des dernières années, elles suggèrent toutes une seule conclusion : les systèmes neurologiques, physiologiques ou hormonaux agissent en interaction (Depue & Lenzenweger, 2001; Zuckerman, 1991, 1995). Or, la majorité des théories psychobiologiques de la personnalité qui sont essentiellement « locationnistes », c'est-à-dire qu'elles postulent

souvent une structure neurologique, un système physiologique ou un système hormonal unique. Puisque les traits de personnalité sont en fait modulés par des sous-systèmes biologiques multiples agissant de façon interactive et additive, les théories psychobiologiques existantes doivent être considérées avec une grande prudence. Il demeure que ces liens entre les traits de personnalité et la biologie constituent la seule façon pour les théories des traits de pouvoir postuler un « biologisme fort », pour reprendre les mots de Turkheimer (1998).

Il est important de mentionner que les traits de haut ordre représentent le niveau le plus élevé d'abstraction d'une structure de personnalité. Que ce soit le modèle en trois ou en cinq facteurs, il demeure que ces grands traits peuvent, d'un point de vue phénoménologique et clinique, manquer de spécificité. Comme l'a souligné McAdams (1992), il est préférable de considérer les traits de haut ordre comme des « catégories de traits » plutôt que comme des traits en soi. Au niveau des traits de premier et de second ordre que nous avons identifiés, les correspondances avec d'autres modèles sont moins claires. Quoi qu'il en soit, nous avons souligné dans le deuxième chapitre que plusieurs de ces traits ont été identifiés dans des études factorielles de symptômes de troubles de personnalité (e.g., Clark & Livesley, 2002) et de traits psychopathiques (Lilienfeld & Andrews, 1996). Ces correspondances ne sont pas étonnantes puisque l'objectif principal des auteurs des questionnaires de Jesness (1983) et de Eysenck (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1971) était de distinguer les adolescents en difficulté des adolescents sans problème. Par ailleurs, nous avons démontré empiriquement que les traits de premier ordre identifiés dans cette thèse présentent des relations cohérentes et significatives avec plusieurs facettes du modèle en cinq facteurs identifiés par Saucier (1998).

Il est aussi important de souligner que les propriétés psychométriques des traits identifiés ne sont pas optimales. Entre autres, la cohérence interne de certains traits de premier ordre semble faible, particulièrement pour l'échantillon représentatif. Cela ne signifie toutefois pas que les items de ces échelles ne soient pas corrélés. En effet, il est possible que ces résultats soient dus au fait que certaines échelles contiennent peu d'items ou au fait que les items dichotomiques procurent typiquement des estimations de cohérence interne plus basses (McDonald, 1999; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). En fait, une faible cohérence interne ne signifie pas toujours que l'échelle est peu fiable puisque ce qui est important c'est d'avoir des items mesurant les deux pôles du continuum de chaque trait donné

(Embretson & Reise, 2000; Reise, 1999). Il s'agit d'un problème potentiel des traits de personnalité identifiés dans cette thèse puisque la méthode de collecte de données dans l'ÉLBÉM consistait en des autoévaluations par questionnaires dans lesquels il y avait très peu d'items inversés mesurant le pôle positif des traits. Or, dans ces circonstances, certains chercheurs considèrent que les auto-évaluations peuvent être problématiques puisque les styles de réponse tels que la réponse aléatoire ou la désirabilité sociale sont plus difficiles à déceler (voir Tellegen, 1988; Viswesvaran & Ones, 1999). Certaines études montrent que ce problème est plus criant avec des adolescents judiciarés (Grossman & Wasyliv, 1988; Wasyliv, Grossman, Haywood, & Cavanaugh, 1988). Il faut donc garder cette limite à l'esprit avant de pouvoir généraliser les résultats dérivés de ces échelles. Quoi qu'il en soit, plus de cinquante ans de recherche empirique ont révélé que les mesures autorévélées de la personnalité constituent une source d'information fiable et valide (e.g., Robins & John, 1997). Les autoévaluations et les évaluations par des pairs qui connaissent bien l'individu évalué sont généralement corrélées à un point tel qu'on peut assumer une bonne validité de construit des traits (e.g., Funder, 1995; Funder & Colvin, 1997). Par ailleurs, les mesures par les pairs sont loin d'être optimales dans plusieurs cas puisqu'elles sont souvent influencées par un « heuristique centrisme ». Pour la personnalité, lorsque les proches d'une personne doivent évaluer certains traits difficiles à juger, ils vont souvent tendre à se référer à leur propre personnalité (Ready, Clark, Watson, & Westerhouse, 2000). Le même phénomène est observé pour les comportements antisociaux puisque lorsque les pairs doivent rapporter des conduites souvent clandestines telles que la criminalité et la consommation de psychotropes, ils vont aussi tendre à répondre en fonction de leurs propres comportements (Kandel, 1996).

En conclusion, les résultats de la présente thèse de même que les recherches sur les traits de personnalité en général permettent de croire que les traits constituent des unités de mesure scientifiques fondamentales des différences interindividuelles humaines. Nous avons souligné que la structure de haut ordre identifiée dans cette thèse était similaire à celle identifiée dans plusieurs pays et dans plusieurs langues. Cela signifie, à notre avis, que contrairement à ce que pensent plusieurs chercheurs qui banalisent, voire ignorent, les résultats obtenus par le biais d'analyses factorielles, ces trois grandes dimensions sont centrales dans la nature humaine. Cela ne signifie pas que nous appuyons sans restriction le modèle en trois facteurs plutôt qu'un autre modèle. Comme tout modèle identifié à l'aide

d'analyse factorielle, la structure que nous avons identifiée est tributaire des items inclus dans les analyses. Cette structure est donc clairement influencée par les théories, implicites ou explicites, de Eysenck et de Jesness (voir Burisch, 1984). Les études récentes laissent croire que de trois à sept facteurs de haut ordre sont essentiels, mais l'avancement des connaissances permettra certainement l'identification de d'autres facteurs importants (e.g., Ashton & Lee, 2001; Paunonen & Jackson, 2000; Tellegen & Waller, *in press*; Waller, 1999). Par ailleurs, compte tenu de plusieurs résultats récents dans le domaine, nous croyons que la communauté scientifique va probablement se diriger vers l'étude plus approfondie des traits de premier ordre (e.g., Costa et al., 2000; Paunonen & Ashton, 2001). Il n'existe encore aucun consensus à propos des traits de premier ordre les plus importants. À notre avis, les chercheurs ont procédé dans le mauvais ordre puisque, stratégiquement, il aurait fallu identifier les traits de premier ordre les plus importants d'abord, pour ensuite déterminer le nombre de traits de haut ordre représentant la structure la plus fondamentale de la personnalité humaine.

Malgré son apport intéressant, il est évident que l'approche des traits de personnalité ne constitue qu'un morceau du « casse-tête » de ce que constitue le concept intégratif de personnalité tel que l'entendent la plupart des chercheurs ou cliniciens. La personnalité humaine est évidemment bien plus qu'une série de traits identifiés dans la population et les complexes idiosyncrasies demeurent encore négligées (Epstein, 1994). Par exemple, les narrations de vie (McAdams, 1994b, 1996) et les mesures de personnalité comportant des questions ouvertes telles que celles des motivations (Winter, John, Stewart, Klohnen, & Duncan, 1998) et des stades de développement de l'ego (John, Pals, & Westenberg, 1998; Loevinger, 1976, 1993) devront être davantage considérées. Il serait aussi important de recueillir des mesures des buts ou des objectifs de vie (Dweck, 1996, 2000) et des processus socioaffectifs et sociocognitifs (Mischel & Shoda, 1995, 1999) afin de compléter l'information tirée des traits. L'utilisation de ces mesures qualitativement distinctes des traits serait cruciale afin de pouvoir intégrer les divers champs de la psychologie de la personnalité et afin de mieux comprendre le développement de la personne.

LE DÉVELOPPEMENT DE LA PERSONNALITÉ DANS UNE APPROCHE CENTRÉE SUR LES VARIABLES : CONTINUITÉ ET MATURATION DES TRAITS DE PERSONNALITÉ

Les résultats des analyses de la continuité et du changement des traits de personnalité des deux échantillons d'hommes de l'ÉLBÉM se sont avérés tout à fait similaires à ceux de plusieurs études longitudinales récentes employant des traits similaires. Trois formes de continuité de la personnalité ont été examinées : structurelle, différentielle et absolue.

En ce qui concerne la *continuité structurelle* de la personnalité, nous avons noté dans le deuxième chapitre que le fait que les chercheurs se soient peu intéressés à cette forme de continuité est très surprenant. En effet, si les traits ne peuvent être assumés comme ayant la même échelle de mesure psychométrique à différentes périodes du développement, les estimations des autres formes de continuité sont nécessairement biaisés par un artefact de mesure. Nous avons employé l'analyse factorielle confirmatoire, qui est reconnue comme un test sévère de l'invariance structurelle dans le temps (Panter, Tanaka, & Hoyle, 1994). Il est donc intéressant d'observer une invariance partielle de la structure des traits de personnalité identifiée à l'aide des données de l'ÉLBÉM. Ces résultats confirment les prétentions de Costa et McCrae (1997), qui n'étaient basées essentiellement que sur des études transversales. Par ailleurs, ces résultats convergent aussi avec l'étude longitudinale récente de Robins et al. (2001). Il demeure qu'il existe très peu de tests empiriques formels de ce genre dans la littérature. Les chercheurs devront nécessairement s'attarder à l'évaluation plus systématique de la continuité structurelle de la personnalité pour éliminer l'hypothèse alternative des biais psychométriques lorsqu'ils étudient les autres formes de continuité. En résumé, à l'intérieur du postulat de la stabilité propre à l'approche des traits, il est possible de spécifier que les traits semblent stables dans le temps sur le plan de l'échelle de mesure psychométrique. Il s'agit donc d'un appui important pour l'approche des traits.

Dans l'analyse de la continuité structurelle, nous avons utilisé une méthode sévère, soit l'analyse factorielle confirmatoire. Les résultats très encourageants que nous avons obtenus sont cependant basés sur les interrelations (i.e., covariances) entre les échelles à travers le temps. De fait, nous n'avons pas pu conduire ces analyses au niveau des items compte tenu des échantillons trop petits. Il reste donc à déterminer si la continuité structurelle

serait aussi satisfaisante au niveau plus spécifique des items. Cela serait fort peu probable puisque l'analyse factorielle confirmatoire au niveau des items est souvent un test trop sévère pour des modèles multiniveaux comportant beaucoup d'items, même pour des questionnaires de personnalité développés de façon très rigoureuse (e.g., Church & Burke, 1994).

En ce qui a trait à la *continuité différentielle* de la personnalité, les résultats dérivés des données de l'ÉLBÉM ainsi que ceux des études longitudinales récentes viennent infirmer la position de McCrae et Costa (1990; Costa & McCrae, 1997) stipulant que les différences entre les individus au niveau des traits de personnalité ne changent plus après l'âge de 30 ans. Cette position a dominé au cours des quinze dernières années chez les chercheurs intéressés au développement de la personnalité selon l'approche des traits. De fait, les corrélations que nous avons obtenues sont, de façon générale, tout à fait similaires à celles rapportées dans la méta-analyse de Roberts et DelVecchio (2000). Le fait que nous n'ayons pas appliqué de correction pour l'atténuation liée à la fidélité pourrait toutefois expliquer ces corrélations légèrement plus faibles. Le résultat le plus original de cette étude est que la continuité différentielle de la personnalité est légèrement supérieure pour les hommes judiciarés. En effet, comparativement aux hommes de la population générale, les différences de profil de personnalité entre les hommes judiciarés présentes dès l'adolescence demeurent plus stables jusqu'au milieu de la vie. De tels résultats soulignent l'importance d'une intervention auprès des adolescents judiciarés puisque leur profil de personnalité défavorable semble demeurer plus stable. Quoi qu'il en soit, les estimations de la continuité différentielle sont élevées pour les deux échantillons, surtout durant l'âge adulte. Ainsi, à l'intérieur du postulat de la stabilité propre à l'approche des traits, il est possible d'avancer que les différences interindividuelles semblent de plus en plus stables dans le temps. Encore une fois, il s'agit donc d'un appui pour l'approche des traits.

Dans l'analyse de la continuité différentielle, il faut noter que nous n'avons pas appliqué de correction pour l'atténuation liée à la fidélité. Bien que certains chercheurs considèrent important d'appliquer une correction pour avoir des estimations fiables de la continuité (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 1990; Costa & McCrae, 1997), ce genre de correction ne fait que déplacer un problème qui ne peut pas être résolu aisément. Il est évident que la fidélité peut être un des facteurs de « nuisance » qui fait diminuer les estimations de la

continuité. Cependant, appliquer une correction pour atténuation résulte souvent en des corrélations plus élevées que un. Cette correction provoque donc une surestimation des corrélations. À l'instar de McDonald (1999) et de Nunnally et Bernstein (1994), nous ne croyons donc pas que déplacer le problème de la nuisance psychométrique soit utile.

Pour ce qui est de la *continuité absolue* de la personnalité, là encore, les résultats dérivés des données de l'ÉLBÉM ainsi que ceux des études longitudinales récentes viennent infirmer la position originale de McCrae et Costa (1990; Costa & McCrae, 1997) stipulant que, après 30 ans, les niveaux moyens des traits ne changent pas de façon significative. Comme c'était le cas pour la continuité différentielle, cette position a dominé au cours des quinze dernières années chez les chercheurs intéressés au développement des traits. Toutefois, les résultats de plusieurs études longitudinales récentes ont démontré qu'il y a des changements significatifs au cours de la l'âge adulte, bien au-delà de la trentaine (e.g., Caspi & Roberts, 1999, 2001; Haan et al., 1986; Helson, Kwan, John & Jones, 2002; Roberts et al., in press). Ces études récentes ont amené McCrae, Costa et al. (2000) à révisé leur position à propos de la continuité absolue de la personnalité. Ces derniers ont proposé qu'une maturation psychologique devrait s'observer de l'adolescence jusque vers l'âge de trente ans et, après cet âge, cette maturation devrait être toujours significative, mais moins rapide. Cette position correspond exactement aux résultats que nous avons obtenus. En effet, à partir de l'adolescence, une maturation psychologique normative a été observée chez les hommes des deux échantillons de l'ÉLBÉM. Cette maturation s'opérationnalise par une diminution des scores aux traits liés à la Désinhibition, à l'Émotivité Négative ainsi qu'à une des dimensions de l'Extraversion, soit la recherche de sensation. Comme l'ont proposé McCrae, Costa et al. (2000), le rythme de cette maturation a décéléré après l'âge de 30 ans, surtout pour les hommes judiciarés.

Nous avons mentionné antérieurement que, de façon générale, les théories des traits classiques ne constituent pas des théories développementales. Elles ne peuvent donc pas nous aider à interpréter les analyses de la continuité et du changement des traits. Le premier à offrir une théorie sur le développement de la personnalité intégrant explicitement les traits fut Allport (1937). Après une recension exhaustive, Allport a proposé une intégration des théories du développement de la personnalité selon les perspectives psychodynamiques,

phénoménologiques et de l'apprentissage social. Selon Allport, pour la plupart des individus sains, il y aurait une maturation psychologique avec l'avancement en âge. Cette maturation s'exprimerait par des changements des traits de personnalité vers une meilleure connaissance, compréhension et acceptation de soi, une plus grande capacité à s'engager et à développer des liens d'attachement avec d'autres personnes, une plus grande capacité à contrôler sa réactivité émotive et affective, une perception plus juste des situations sociales, interpersonnelles et sociétales, le développement de valeurs favorisant la conjugalité et l'épanouissement professionnel ainsi qu'une conduite permettant l'expression de ses valeurs personnelles tout en respectant les normes sociétales.

À partir d'une recension des théories classiques de la personnalité, Roberts et al. (in press) ont proposé deux formes de maturation psychologique. La première forme, la *maturation humaniste*, correspond à une tendance vers l'actualisation de soi et la croissance personnelle. En termes de traits, elle correspond à une augmentation de l'Ouverture à l'expérience et de certaines dimensions spécifiques de l'Extraversion. La deuxième forme, la *maturation fonctionnelle*, correspond plutôt aux changements de la personnalité nécessaires pour faciliter l'adaptation aux transitions sociales normatives au cours de la vie. En termes de traits, elle correspond à une diminution de l'Émotivité Négative et à une augmentation de la Contrainte et de la Complaisance. La définition intégrative de la maturation proposée par Allport (1937) comprend ces deux formes de maturation. Roberts et al (in press) soulignent que les données empiriques appuient l'hypothèse d'une maturation fonctionnelle de la personnalité, mais pas celle d'une maturation humaniste. Compte tenu des traits évalués dans l'ÉLBÉM, la présente étude supporte aussi l'hypothèse d'une maturation fonctionnelle de la personnalité.

La maturation fonctionnelle dans les traits de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie correspond aussi aux théories de diverses perspectives, notamment les théories psychodynamiques, phénoménologiques et des stades de développement. Par exemple, les résultats de la présente thèse convergent vers ceux de l'étude longitudinale de Vaillant (1993) qui a observé qu'il y a une gradation dans l'utilisation des mécanismes de défense au fil du développement. Durant l'enfance, les individus utilisent d'abord des défenses psychotiques (projection paranoïaque, déni, distorsion) et, en vieillissant, étant de plus en plus soumis à

divers apprentissages sociaux, ils développent graduellement des défenses immatures (projection, fantaisie, hypocondrie, agressivité passive, passage à l'acte / extériorisation), des défenses névrotiques (déplacement, isolement / intellectualisation, répression, formation réactionnelle) et enfin des défenses matures (altruisme, sublimation, suppression, anticipation, humour). Il est aisément de constater que cette maturation des défenses correspond sensiblement à une diminution des scores à la Désinhibition et à l'Émotivité Négative. Il est aussi intéressant de souligner que cette maturation exprimée par des changements dans les traits de personnalité correspond à plusieurs théories de la personnalité construites autour de stades de développement. Par exemple, selon Loevinger (1976, 1993, 1997), l'adaptation psychologique de la personne se fait graduellement et peut durer toute la vie. Les enfants commencent au stade de l'impulsivité pour graduellement se développer vers l'égocentrisme, le conformisme, la conscience de soi, le contrôle de soi, l'individualisme et enfin l'autonomie. Cette maturation des traits est aussi conceptuellement similaire à presque toutes les théories des stades qui postulent une maturation psychologique graduelle de la personne en parallèle aux transitions sociales que vit la personne, notamment celles d'Erikson (1963; Withbourne, Zuschlag, Elliot, & Waterman, 1992), Kohlberg (1984), Kegan (1983), Levinson (1978, 1986), Neugarten (1979), Selman (1980) et Vaillant (1977).

La présente étude, plus particulièrement l'analyse de la continuité absolue, a clairement mis en lumière l'importance d'étudier la continuité de la personnalité au niveau des traits de premier ordre et pas seulement au niveau des traits de haut ordre comme c'est généralement le cas. Cette étude, en plus des études récentes de Costa et al. (2000) et de Roberts et al. (2001), suggère que l'analyse des traits de premier ordre pourrait permettre d'expliquer certains résultats conflictuels à propos de la continuité de la personnalité. Par exemple, la continuité de l'Extraversion a toujours été controversée puisque certains chercheurs ont observé une augmentation, d'autres une diminution et d'autres encore ont observé une forte stabilité. Dans cette thèse, les deux traits de premier ordre de l'Extraversion semblent présenter des trajectoires développementales distinctes. En effet, la Sociabilité demeure très stable de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie et ce, pour les deux échantillons, tandis que la Recherche de Sensation diminue de façon linéaire. Aussi, pour l'Émotivité Négative, presque tous les traits de premier ordre diminuent dans le temps, sauf l'Anxiété

Sociale, l’Anxiété Manifeste et la Détresse Affective qui semblent demeurer plus stables, surtout pour les hommes judiciarés.

En terminant, il est important de souligner que ces changements psychométriques révélés par l’examen de la continuité absolue nous informent peu sur les mécanismes psychologiques et sociaux sous-jacents à la continuité ou au changement. S’appuyant sur le fait que la maturation psychologique a été observée dans plusieurs pays du monde, McCrae et Costa (1999; McCrae, Costa et al., 1999, 2000) postulent que ces changements sont le fruit d’une maturation *intrinsèque endogène*. Cependant, il s’agit d’une conclusion pour le moins prématuree puisque les données longitudinales procurant de l’information sur l’héritabilité font défaut (mais voir McGue et al., 1993; Peterson & Reynolds, 1998; Viken et al., 1994). Une personne peut effectivement être stable à l’Extraversion au cours de sa vie parce qu’elle dispose d’une structure psychobiologique interne qui détermine son niveau d’Extraversion. Cependant, au moins quatre hypothèses alternatives sont fréquemment invoquées (voir Caspi, 1998; Caspi & Roberts, 1999, 2001; Caprara & Cervone, 2000; Pervin, 1994, 2002).

Premièrement, il est possible que les prédispositions soient stables parce que des facteurs environnementaux puissants, fortement liés à l’Extraversion, soient aussi très stables. Deuxièmement, il est possible que différentes personnes dans une population manifestent effectivement une forte continuité à l’Extraversion, mais pour différentes raisons. Des facteurs et mécanismes différents peuvent contribuer à un même score à l’Extraversion. Ce phénomène est appelé équifinalité (Cicchetti & Rogosch, 1996). Troisièmement, il est possible que la continuité des mesures de prédisposition telles que l’Extraversion prises à différentes périodes du développement n’ait pas la même valeur adaptative selon les périodes de développement, c’est-à-dire qu’elles ne soient pas similaires qualitativement. Ainsi, des mesures du niveau d’activité et de recherche de sensation – des traits de premier ordre de l’Extraversion – peuvent manifester une forte continuité de l’adolescence à l’âge adulte, mais les items typiques de l’adolescence peuvent ne pas refléter la réalité des mêmes individus à l’âge adulte. Enfin, quatrièmement, la continuité de la personnalité pourrait paradoxalement très bien être révélée par l’instabilité des comportements manifestes (Dweck, 1996, 2000; Sanderson & Cantor, 1999; Zelli & Dodge, 1999). Par exemple, lorsque les individus expérimentent une transition soudaine des circonstances environnementales, leurs compétences et leurs objectifs de vie peuvent produire des patrons cognitifs, émotifs et

comportementaux instables parce que les ressources disponibles les forcent à utiliser de nouvelles stratégies dans la poursuite de leurs objectifs. Cette thèse ne visait pas à examiner ces hypothèses alternatives, mais elles doivent être gardées en tête dans l'interprétation et la généralisation des résultats de la continuité absolue de la personnalité.

Dans l'analyse de la continuité absolue, nous avons conduit des analyses de variance mutivariées (MANOVA) à mesures répétées. La fiabilité de ces analyses a été remise en question pour l'analyse du changement et des alternatives ont été proposées (e.g., Rogosa, 1988). Par exemple, la modélisation des courbes de croissance latente (Meredith & Tisak, 1990) ou la modélisation linéaire hiérarchique (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002) auraient pu être employées. Cependant, notre objectif était de comparer les deux échantillons à travers le temps et la MANOVA est reconnue comme étant parmi les analyses les plus robustes pour *comparer systématiquement des groupes* (voir O'Brien & Kaiser, 1985; Tabachnik & Fidell, 2001). Notre objectif était aussi de démontrer les résultats obtenus à l'aide d'analyses centrées sur les variables couramment employées en recherche. Malgré le fait que certains chercheurs prétendent que l'analyse des courbes de croissance latente ou la modélisation linéaire hiérarchique tiennent compte des trajectoires individuelles, les résultats finaux de ces analyses constituent tout simplement un test de l'adéquation d'un modèle des courbes individuelles agrégées (voir West, 2003). Nous sommes donc d'avis que, en fin de compte, les analyses centrées sur les variables, que ce soit des analyses de variance ou d'autres, procurent substantiellement les mêmes résultats (voir Zumbo, 1999).

Avant de conclure cette section traitant de l'étude du développement de la personnalité selon une approche centrée sur les variables, il est important d'insister sur les différences dans les trajectoires des hommes de la population générale et des hommes judiciarés au cours de leur adolescence. En effet, non seulement ces différences des profils de personnalité sont importantes sur le plan théorique, mais elles ont des implications directes pour les politiques d'intervention auprès des adolescents en difficulté.

La personnalité des adolescents judiciarés et l'importance de l'intervention

L’analyse des traits de personnalité présentée dans cette thèse met clairement en lumière que les individus qui ont été judiciarés au cours de leur adolescence présentent une moins bonne adaptation psychologique que les hommes de la population générale. Comme il a été observé dans plusieurs études auparavant (Barnes et al., 2000; Gottfredson & Hirschi, 1990; Wilson & Herrnstein, 1985), les deux groupes se distinguent très clairement sur deux des traits de haut ordre, soit la Désinhibition et l’Émotivité Négative. Cela démontre bien l’importance de l’utilisation de questionnaires de personnalité pour identifier des cibles potentielles à inclure dans un plan d’intervention et pour suivre les progrès de l’intervention (Ben-Porath, 1997; Harkness & Lilienfeld, 1997). Ces traits de haut ordre offrent un aperçu général de deux grandes dimensions de la personnalité, mais ils manquent de spécificité. Ayant identifié des traits de premier ordre avec une validité de contenu adéquate, il est possible de dresser un profil de personnalité plus spécifique des individus antisociaux.

Désinhibition : Les adolescents judiciarés manifestent des mécanismes de régulation cognitive, émotive, affective et comportementale déficients.

- Ils ont tendance à penser ou à planifier des actes interdits ou répréhensibles, sans égard aux conséquences; ils affichent une attitude très égocentrique qui se manifeste par le fait qu’ils se pensent plus forts, plus durs et plus intelligents que les autres.
- Ils ont tendance à faire des choses que les personnes en position d’autorité leur interdisent, à être durs, méchants et à mentir aux autres; ils ont peu de considération pour les autres et semblent insensibles à la souffrance d’autrui.
- Ils ont tendance à être très impulsifs, ce qui se reflète par le fait qu’ils rapportent pouvoir faire n’importe quoi si on les met au défi, qu’ils ont tendance à réagir très promptement dans des situations sociales ou interpersonnelles, souvent par de l’agressivité, sans pouvoir s’arrêter pour évaluer les conséquences de leurs réactions. Ce profil typique n’est toutefois pas prépondérant à l’adolescence, mais devient plus distinctif à l’âge adulte.

- Ils ont tendance à manifester un manque de respect aigu envers les personnes qui représentent la loi comme les policiers et les juges; ils considèrent que la tricherie, la rébellion, la corruption ou la violation de la loi ne sont pas si graves.
- Ils ont tendance à croire que les parents, les professeurs ou les patrons sont trop autoritaires, arrogants, et souvent inéquitables ou injustes envers eux; ils considèrent que, pour s'en sortir ou pour réussir dans la vie, il faut se montrer très durs et impitoyables envers les autres et qu'il faut se battre.

Émotivité négative : Les adolescents judiciarés se sentent aliénés socialement et montrent une forte propension à réagir aux obligations de la vie et au stress par des émotions négatives.

- Ils ont tendance à croire que les gens leur mentent et parlent d'eux dans leur dos, que les gens sont injustes et ne se préoccupent pas vraiment d'eux.
- Ils ont tendance à croire que les autres sont plus heureux et qu'ils font les choses plus facilement qu'eux; ils ont en même temps tendance à se blâmer eux-mêmes lorsque les choses vont mal.
- Ils ont tendance à croire que des choses étranges ou anormales qui n'arrivent pas aux autres leur arrivent; ils ont tendance à se sentir triste, à sentir ne pas avoir réellement de chez-soi, à se sentir souvent seuls, même en présence de d'autres personnes.
- Ils ont tendance à être colériques et à s'emporter à propos de plusieurs choses, qui sont parfois sans réelle importance, et ont beaucoup de difficulté à accepter les critiques ou les moqueries à leur égard. Ce profil typique n'est toutefois pas prépondérant à l'adolescence, mais devient plus distinctif à l'âge adulte.
- Ils ont tendance à être apathiques et rêveurs, à manquer d'attention dans des tâches structurées, à être peu organisés et à considérer qu'on ne peut pas faire grand chose pour s'en sortir lorsque les choses vont mal.
- Ils ont tendance à être nerveux, à s'inquiéter à propos de plusieurs choses et manifestent des symptômes somatiques d'anxiété tels que des tremblements, la moiteur des mains, des palpitations cardiaques ou un sommeil difficile. Ce profil typique n'est toutefois pas prépondérant à l'adolescence, mais devient plus distinctif à l'âge adulte.

- Cependant, ils n'ont pas tendance à être plus timides ou inhibés que les hommes de la population générale dans des situations interpersonnelles ou sociales ou lorsqu'ils parlent à des étrangers ou en public.
- Ils ne ressentent pas non plus davantage de sentiments de découragement, de culpabilité ou d'infériorité et ne sont pas non plus davantage préoccupés par ce que les autres pensent d'eux.

Extraversion : Les adolescents judiciarés manifestent un haut niveau d'énergie et d'activité et manifestent une propension à rechercher les activités ou les situations excitantes, procurant des sensations fortes.

- Ils ont tendance à rechercher les situations qui procurent de l'excitation et manifestent une attitude et des comportements qui traduisent une forte énergie et un haut niveau d'activité.
- Cependant, ils n'ont pas tendance à être plus sociables ou à rechercher davantage les contacts avec les autres; ils ne sont pas plus confiants lors de situations sociales que les hommes de la population générale.

En somme, l'analyse des traits de premier ordre a révélé que les caractéristiques qui distinguent le mieux les hommes antisociaux de ceux de la population générale sont leur tendance à se méfier des autres et, simultanément, leur tendance à se sentir inadéquats. Il est intéressant de noter que ce paradoxe constitue un cercle vicieux psychologique : ces individus se sentent inadéquats, mais n'auront pas tendance à rechercher ou accepter de l'aide même s'ils en prenaient conscience puisqu'ils ne font pas confiance aux autres (voir Benjamin, 1993, 1996). Cependant, alors qu'on aurait pu s'attendre à une faible sociabilité compte tenu de leur manque de confiance envers les autres, les deux groupes d'hommes ne se distinguent pas quant à leur tendance à la sociabilité. Une autre observation reliée peut sembler, à première vue, quelque peu paradoxale : les deux groupes d'hommes ne se distinguent pas sur le plan des sentiments de timidité ou de compétence sociale devant un groupe ou avec des étrangers. Les deux groupes ne diffèrent pas non plus quant aux sentiments de découragement ou d'infériorité ou par rapport à ce que les autres peuvent penser d'eux.

Comme nous l'avons mentionné plus haut, ces changements des traits correspondent à une maturation fonctionnelle de la personnalité, maturation qui est nécessaire pour qu'un individu s'adapte adéquatement aux transitions sociales auxquelles il est confronté à la fin de l'adolescence et au début de l'âge adulte. Non seulement les adolescents judiciarés manifestent un profil de personnalité plutôt défavorable durant l'adolescence, mais ce profil semble demeurer assez stable jusqu'à la quarantaine, à tout le moins plus stable que celui des hommes de la population générale. Puisque ce profil de personnalité est associé à divers problèmes d'adaptation personnelle et sociale, les présents résultats militent donc fortement en faveur d'une intervention ciblant les caractéristiques personnelles des adolescents qui entrent dans le réseau de justice des jeunes. Puisque, par définition, les traits de personnalité ne changent pas aisément, cette intervention devra être intensive et multimodale. Plusieurs recensions et méta-analyses ont montré que les interventions de nature cognitive-développementale et cognitive-comportementale, idéalement appliquées en milieu fermé, comportent différentes modalités d'intervention qui s'avèrent plutôt efficaces avec les adolescents en difficulté (Le Blanc et al., 1998; Lipsey & Derzon, 1998). De plus, puisque ces prédispositions tendent à être plus stables chez les adolescents en difficulté, cette intervention devrait être de longue durée. Comme le suggérait Le Blanc (1983) à la suite de son examen de l'efficacité des interventions psychoéducatives de Boscoville au Québec dans les années 1970, l'intervention auprès des adolescents en difficulté devrait avoir une durée d'au moins 12 mois pour avoir une efficacité non négligeable, et idéalement une durée d'au moins 15 mois. Les méta-analyses récentes de Palmer (1994) et de Lipsey (1995) confirment ce point de vue. En résumé, il semble essentiel d'intervenir afin de favoriser l'altération du profil de personnalité des adolescents judiciarés tout en favorisant l'accélération de leur maturation psychologique.

LE DÉVELOPPEMENT DE LA PERSONNALITÉ DANS UNE APPROCHE CENTRÉE SUR LES PERSONNES : VERS UNE TYPOLOGIE DÉVELOPPEMENTALE DE LA PERSONNALITÉ

Les résultats des analyses longitudinales des traits de personnalité selon une approche centrée sur les personnes constituent probablement l'aspect le plus original de cette thèse. L'approche typologique a regagné ces lettres de noblesse chez plusieurs chercheurs en psychologie de la personnalité. Cependant, malgré l'importance d'adopter une perspective

développementale, les chercheurs ne se sont pas, jusqu'à maintenant, attardés à l'identification d'une typologie développementale de la personnalité, comme nous l'avons tenté dans cette thèse. La recherche d'une telle typologie est pourtant recommandée depuis longtemps par des chercheurs d'envergure tels que Block (1971, 2000), Cairns (1986; Cairns & Rodkin, 1998) et Magnusson (1988, 1999). Dans les sections qui suivent, nous allons tenter de déterminer si les typologies identifiées dans chacun des deux échantillons de l'ÉLBÉM présentent une validité de construit adéquate. Par la suite, nous allons examiner les liens entre les deux typologies identifiées. Enfin, nous soulignerons les liens observés entre les types développementaux de personnalité et les trajectoires de comportement antisocial.

Validité de construit des typologies développementales identifiées

Afin qu'une classification (i.e., une typologie) soit méthodologiquement défendable et théoriquement fondée et utile, Skinner (1981) soutient que les chercheurs doivent considérer trois aspects cruciaux pour évaluer sa *validité de construit* : la formulation théorique, la validité interne et la validité externe (voir aussi Speece, 1994). En ce qui concerne la *formulation théorique*, les cinq questions primordiales proposées par Skinner ont été prises en considération. Premièrement, est-ce qu'un fondement théorique a guidé la recherche explicitement ou implicitement? La réponse à cette question est positive puisque les travaux de cette thèse sont basés sur l'approche centrée sur la personne, bien qu'il ne s'agisse pas d'une théorie (Bergman et al., 2000, 2003; Block, 1971; Cairns, Bergman, & Kagan, 1998; Magnusson, 1999). Deuxièmement, quel est l'objectif principal de l'identification d'une typologie développementale de la personnalité? Était-ce à des fins de prédition (pour la formulation d'une théorie) ou de communication (pour des raisons pratiques)? Cette question est également liée aux troisième et quatrième questions (abordées plus loin) et aux procédures utilisées pour déterminer la validité externe. Compte tenu de l'état des connaissances scientifiques sur l'approche développementale-typologique de la personnalité, le but est certainement la prédition. La communication fera suite à l'identification d'une typologie développementale robuste et reproductible. Troisièmement, est-ce que la sélection des participants à l'étude était reliée à la théorie? Dans la présente étude, la sélection était liée à la théorie puisque les objectifs des chercheurs de l'*Étude longitudinale bi-échantillon de Montréal* (ÉLBÉM) était de comprendre le développement des comportements antisociaux.

Pour ce faire, ils ont sélectionné un échantillon d'adolescents judiciarés. Par ailleurs, afin de comprendre le développement de l'antisocialité de la population générale, un échantillon représentatif a également été sélectionné. Quatrièmement, est-ce que les mesures employées pour la classification sont basées sur des fondements théoriques et sont techniquement adéquates? Nous avons démontré dans le deuxième chapitre que les mesures des traits de personnalité utilisées peuvent être considérées comme adéquates selon les standards psychométriques de base. De plus, même s'ils ne sont pas explicitement basés sur une théorie, les trois traits de haut ordre représentent une description de la personnalité généralement acceptée (e.g., Clark & Watson, 1999; Matthews & Deary, 1998). Cinquièmement, est-ce que les mesures de similarité entre les individus ainsi que l'algorithme d'agrégation statistique employés pour la classification sont appropriés? Skinner (1981) a placé cet aspect à l'étape de la validation interne, mais comme le mentionne Speece (1994), cet aspect est également pertinent à la formulation théorique. Il a été mentionné antérieurement que les mesures de similarité entre les individus ainsi que l'algorithme d'agrégation statistique qui ont été utilisés sont adéquats en fonction des objectifs spécifiques des travaux entrepris dans cette thèse.

En ce qui concerne la *validité interne*, Speece (1994) souligne que cette étape de l'évaluation de la validité de construit d'une typologie a souvent été négligée dans les études antérieures. Une stratégie analytique essayant de tenir compte des biais des analyses de regroupement a été adoptée dans cette thèse. Premièrement, tel que mentionné auparavant, les mesures de similarité entre les individus ainsi que des algorithmes d'agrégation statistique pertinents ont été utilisés. Deuxièmement, le choix de la solution finale et l'évaluation de sa validité interne ont été basés sur la concordance de critères multiples. Nous pouvons postuler que les typologies développmentales identifiées sont robustes, ne sont pas des artefacts de la méthode d'analyse et que leur validité interne est satisfaisante; en effet, les solutions finales ont été reproduites tant avec un algorithme hiérarchique que agrégatif, et ce, dans les deux sous-échantillons aléatoires. De plus, les solutions finales expliquent une proportion adéquate de la variance totale (i.e., près de 60 % dans les deux cas). Cette proportion est satisfaisante puisque Bergman (1998) suggère qu'une excellente solution explique typiquement les deux tiers de la variance. Les estimations de l'homogénéité des regroupements (i.e. types) sont également satisfaisantes. En ce qui concerne la séparation des types, des analyses de variance

multivariées (MANOVA) à mesures répétées ont été conduites. En règle générale, de tels tests d'inférence sur les variables ayant servi à la classification ne sont pas considérés comme adéquats pour tester la validité interne d'une classification (e.g., Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Milligan & Cooper, 1987). Par contre, les résultats de la présente étude ont montré l'importance de ces tests dans le cas d'une classification développementale. En effet, certains types développementaux ne diffèrent pas significativement au niveau des traits de personnalité pour une période de leur vie, mais deviennent différents dans une autre période, et vice-versa. De plus, les types peuvent tous différer dans le temps sur un trait, mais être semblables sur un autre trait. En résumé, les vérifications effectuées suggèrent une validité interne adéquate des typologies développementales identifiées dans cette thèse.

Pour les analyses développementales-typologiques, nous avons employé l'analyse de regroupement. Nous avons mentionné précédemment que ces analyses ont été critiquées (e.g., Aldenderfer & Blashfield, 1984; Milligan & Cooper, 1987). Bien que plusieurs de ces critiques soient fondées, le plus souvent, elles sont associées à une mauvaise utilisation plutôt qu'à des biais fondamentaux des algorithmes statistiques. Ces analyses gagnent en popularité dans tous les domaines des sciences sociales et plusieurs chercheurs recommandent leur emploi (Bergman, 1998, 2000; Bergman et al., 2003; Dumenci & Windle, 2001). D'autres types d'analyses auraient pu être employés, par exemple la modélisation agrégative de croissance latente (Muthén & Muthén, 2001), l'analyse en composantes principales tridimensionnelle (Kroonenberg, 1996), ou l'analyse de classes latentes à mesures répétées (Vermunt & Magidson, 2000). Cependant, les analyses de regroupement ne requièrent pas de rencontrer des postulats d'utilisation sévères et sont très efficaces avec des données multivariées et de petits échantillons, comme c'est le cas ici. Somme toute, une typologie développementale qui a une signification réelle dans la nature, donc qui est robuste, reproductible et valide, devrait être mise au jour par le biais de différentes méthodes quantitatives. De fait, en comparant l'efficacité relative de l'analyse de regroupement et la modélisation agrégative de croissance latente, Carrig et Bauer (2001) ont recouvré les mêmes trajectoires.

Finalement, la *validité externe* des typologies développementales a aussi été examinée de façon adéquate. Au même titre que pour la validité interne, Speece (1994) mentionne que

les études antérieures ont été critiquées pour avoir porté peu d'attention à cette étape de l'évaluation de la validité de construit d'une typologie. D'après Speece, ce qui est le plus problématique est que la validation externe a été le plus souvent abordée de façon a posteriori, avec les variables disponibles, plutôt que d'avoir été rigoureusement planifiée à l'étape de la formulation théorique. Avant d'entreprendre les travaux de cette thèse, les théories et recherches empiriques en psychologie de la personnalité et en criminologie ont servi de justification à l'utilisation de mesures du comportement antisocial pour déterminer la validité externe des typologies. Toutefois, les tests de la validité externe conduits dans cette thèse doivent être considérés comme préliminaires. Les types développementaux devront être validés en fonction d'autres corrélats connus du développement de la personnalité tels que les pratiques éducatives des parents, le fonctionnement et l'attachement dans la famille, les relations avec les pairs, les habiletés cognitives, la réussite scolaire et professionnelle, de même que les activités routinières et les loisirs des individus. De plus, l'influence de l'entrée dans les rôles sociaux d'adulte et de divers événements de vie devra être examinée.

Ces vérifications de la validité externe sont essentielles puisque, comme l'a souligné Meehl (1992), il existe toujours une hypothèse alternative aux types de personnalité. En effet, il est possible que certains types soient des *types tributaires de l'environnement*. Les types pourraient exister non pas en raison de prédispositions psychologiques intrinsèques discrètes, mais plutôt parce que la structure des éléments de l'environnement provoquerait des différences entre les groupes d'individus. Un exemple classique donné par Meehl (1992) sont les individus qui, à un moment donné de leur vie, s'engagent dans un groupe prônant une idéologie d'extrême droite. En effet, ces individus vont en venir rapidement à partager des valeurs, des attitudes, des motivations et des comportements très distincts si on les compare aux individus de la population générale. Bien que certaines prédispositions intrinsèques puissent rendre ces individus plus vulnérables à l'adhésion à ce genre de groupe, dans un tel cas, leur « nouveau » type de personnalité est plutôt tributaire de l'environnement. Il peut en être de même, par exemple, pour les hommes des types Sous-contrôlés dont la maturation psychologique semble retardée ou bloquée. En effet, il est tout à fait possible que ce soit leurs graves problèmes d'adaptation durant l'adolescence qui aient provoqué un retard et une désorganisation de l'entrée dans les rôles sociaux d'adulte, qui elle, en retour, ait pu favoriser un engagement prolongé avec une conjointe et des amis antisociaux. Ces relations ont pu

ensuite favoriser la persistance des valeurs, des attitudes et des comportements antisociaux (Caspi & Herbener, 1990). Tous ces facteurs environnementaux pourraient être les facteurs causaux initiaux qui aient modulé les trajectoires de personnalité plutôt que leurs prédispositions intrinsèques (voir Caspi, 1993, 1998; Clausen, 1991, 1993; Elder, 1998).

En somme, les questions reliées à la formulation théorique ainsi qu'à la validité interne et externe ont été sérieusement prises en considération et ont révélé des résultats satisfaisants. Ainsi, nous pouvons postuler que la validité de construit des typologies développementales de la personnalité identifiée dans les échantillons de l'ÉLBÉM est satisfaisante.

Convergence entre les typologies identifiées : Vers une typologie développementale hiérarchique de la personnalité

Nous avons souligné dans le chapitre d'introduction que les travaux empiriques suggèrent qu'une typologie non développementale tripartite de la personnalité a été identifiée de façon répétée. Plusieurs chercheurs ont aussi identifié des sous-types à l'intérieur de chacun des trois types généraux, suggérant une structure hiérarchique de la typologie non développementale de la personnalité (voir Robins et al., 1996; van Lieshout et al., 1998). Comme nous l'avons souligné dans les troisième et quatrième chapitres, la majorité des types développementaux identifiés à l'aide de l'échantillon représentatif et de l'échantillon d'hommes judiciarés de l'ÉLBÉM sont conceptuellement similaires aux trois types non développementaux. De plus, il est intéressant de noter que malgré des différences marquées entre les trajectoires moyennes de personnalité des hommes représentatifs et judiciarés, il y ait des correspondances conceptuelles impressionnantes entre les types développementaux de personnalité identifiés dans les deux échantillons. Évidemment, les hommes judiciarés manifestent des scores plus élevés pour la plupart des traits, mais le profil de personnalité demeure très similaire (voir la Figure 1 dans les deuxième et troisième chapitres). Puisque les adolescents judiciarés constituent un sous-groupe de la population générale, ces correspondances suggèrent que, comme c'est le cas pour la typologie non développementale tripartite, les types développementaux s'organisent de façon hiérarchique. La Figure 1 illustre

ces relations hiérarchiques hypothétiques. Celle-ci présente aussi les relations avec les trajectoires de comportement antisocial, dont nous discuterons plus loin.

Insérer Figure 1 ici

Comme on peut le voir dans la Figure 1, nous proposons l'hypothèse qu'il existe trois grands types développementaux de personnalité latents, à tout le moins dans les données de l'ÉLBÉM. Il s'agit bien sûr de types généraux ou à large spectre qui sont expliqués par un certain nombre de sous-types. D'abord, les hommes du type appelé Adaptés–Maturation Normative, qui représenterait environ 70 % de la population générale, regroupent deux sous-types, soit les Communales et les Agentifs. Ces deux sous-types sont identifiés dans l'échantillon représentatif de la population générale. Ce qui est très intéressant est que ces sous-types développementaux correspondent tout à fait aux deux sous-types d'individus adaptés aussi identifiés dans la typologie non développementale tripartite et que leurs proportions soient similaires (Asendorpf et al., 2001; Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). Ces proportions sont aussi similaires aux types comparables identifiés dans les études de Block (1971) et de Tubman et al. (1992). Ces deux sous-types développementaux de personnalité d'hommes bien adaptés correspondent aussi aux deux grandes trajectoires de vie identifiées par la méthode des narrations de vie (voir McAdams, 1993, 1996). Un groupe d'individus bien adaptés, très similaire au groupe des Communales, les Résilients, a aussi été identifié dans l'échantillon d'hommes judiciarés. Dans chacun des cas, ces hommes représentent environ 40 % de leur échantillon respectif. L'identification d'un type d'hommes bien adaptés est très surprenant dans le cas de l'échantillon d'hommes judiciarés. Ce résultat montre bien l'importance de l'approche centrée sur les personnes pour étudier le développement de la personnalité car aucune théorie ni aucune étude empirique n'aurait permis de prédire ce résultat. Dans notre étude de la personnalité selon l'approche centrée sur les variables (i.e., continuité absolue), ce phénomène important n'a pu être mis au jour.

Ensuite, des groupes d'individus qualifiés de Sous-contrôlés sont aussi identifiés dans les deux échantillons. En se basant sur les proportions de l'échantillon représentatif, ces

individus compteraient pour environ 20 % de la population générale. Encore une fois, ce résultat correspond tout à fait à ceux de la typologie non développementale tripartite (Asendorpf et al., 2001; Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998) de même qu'aux études de Block (1971) et Tubman et al. (1992). Cependant, dans l'échantillon d'hommes judiciarés, on retrouve deux groupes pour lesquels nous émettons l'hypothèse qu'ils représentent des sous-types inclus dans le type général des hommes Sous-contrôlés, identifié dans l'échantillon représentatif. D'abord le type Sous-contrôlés–Maturisation Accélérée semble clairement un sous-type des Sous-contrôlés, mais on ne s'étonnera pas que les hommes de ce type manifestent des scores plus élevés à la Disinhibition et à l'Émotivité Négative durant l'adolescence, suivis par une maturation psychologique plus rapide au début de l'âge adulte. Ensuite, un groupe qui apparaît de prime abord assez unique, les Anomiques–Maturisation Cyclique, semble aussi représenter un sous-type des Sous-contrôlés identifiés dans la population générale.¹ Néanmoins, ce type n'apparaît pas clairement dans l'échantillon représentatif et nous n'avons observé aucun autre type similaire dans les études passées, sauf peut-être un type de l'étude de Block (1971). Seule la reproduction de ce type dans d'autres échantillons pourrait permettre d'affirmer que ce type est réellement valide.

Enfin, un groupe d'hommes qualifiés de Sur-contrôlés–Maturisation Bloquée est aussi identifié dans chaque échantillon. Dans les deux cas, il s'agit du plus petit groupe de leur échantillon respectif. En se basant sur les proportions de l'échantillon représentatif, ces hommes comptent pour environ 10 % de la population générale, comme c'est le cas dans les études sur la typologie non développementale tripartite (Asendorpf et al., 2001; Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998). Des types similaires avec une même proportion d'individus sont aussi identifiés dans les études de Block (1971) et de Tubman et al. (1992). Bien que ces deux sous-types de Sur-contrôlés soient conceptuellement similaires (i.e., avec un profil tout à fait similaire pour les trois traits), le type Sur-contrôlés identifié dans l'échantillon d'hommes judiciarés manifeste des scores plus élevés à l'Émotivité Négative, et surtout, manifeste aussi de la Désinhibition; encore une fois, cela n'est pas surprenant puisqu'il s'agit d'un sous-

¹ Nous avons examiné les moyennes combinées des scores des types Sous-contrôlés–Maturisation Accélérée et Anomiques–Maturisation Cyclique identifiés dans l'échantillon d'hommes judiciarés et les trajectoires agrégées obtenues sont tout à fait similaires à celles du type général Sous-contrôlés–Maturisation Retardée identifié dans l'échantillon représentatif.

groupe d'une population d'individus manifestant de sérieux problèmes d'adaptation. C'est d'ailleurs pour cette raison que nous avons nommé ce sous-type les Sur-contrôlés / Désinhibés dans la Figure 1.

Il est intéressant de souligner que les deux grands types développementaux de personnalité qui se composent d'individus avec des problèmes d'adaptation, soit les Sous-contrôlés et les Sur-contrôlés, soient conceptuellement similaires aux deux grands types de problèmes de comportement identifiés dans les études portant sur des échantillons d'enfants et d'adolescents, soit les problèmes extériorisés et intérieurisés respectivement (voir Achenbach & Edelbrock, 1978; Achenbach, Conners, Quay, Verhulst, & Howell, 1989). En effet, les *problèmes extériorisés* (aussi appelés sur-réactifs ou sous-contrôlés) sont caractérisés par une activité perturbatrice qui se manifeste par de l'hostilité, de l'hyperactivité, de l'impulsivité ou de l'agressivité, alors que, pour leur part, les *problèmes intérieurisés* (aussi appelés sous-réactifs ou sur-contrôlés) sont caractérisés par une humeur dysphorique, de l'anxiété, de la timidité, de l'inhibition ou de l'isolement social. Ces deux grands types correspondent aussi aux syndromes d'extériorisation et d'intériorisation des troubles mentaux identifiés chez l'adulte (Krueger, Caspi, Moffitt, & Silva, 1998; Krueger, McGue, & Iacono, 2001). Considérant la nature des traits employés dans cette thèse, cette description correspond généralement aux deux types de personnalité composés d'individus avec une adaptation problématique.

En somme, il semble qu'une typologie développementale de la personnalité puisse s'organiser de façon hiérarchique. Cependant, il faut rappeler que toutes ces relations que nous avons proposées sont hypothétiques et requièrent des travaux supplémentaires. Les types développementaux identifiés dans cette thèse constituent des types à large spectre ou généraux, constitués par un certain nombre de sous-types. Le fait que de multiples traits de premier ordre expliquent les traits de haut ordre employés pour identifier les typologies suggère l'existence potentielle de plusieurs autres sous-types plus spécifiques. Une autre raison pourrait expliquer pourquoi les types développementaux que nous avons identifiés demeurent généraux. En effet, Lykken, Bouchard, McGue et Tellegen (1992) soutiennent que les types de personnalité les plus intéressants pour les chercheurs et les cliniciens ont

probablement une origine génétique (en raison de modifications minimes de certains chromosomes) et que ces types, le plus souvent, ont une prévalence très faible. Comme l'explique Meehl (1995), puisque plusieurs sous-types ont un taux de prévalence très bas dans la population générale, il faudrait idéalement de très larges échantillons (i.e., plusieurs milliers d'individus) afin d'être en mesure d'identifier des sous-types de façon statistiquement fiable. Il demeure néanmoins que des types développementaux de personnalité généraux tels que ceux que nous avons identifiés sont intéressants et les liens avec la typologie non développementale tripartite sont très encourageants pour une éventuelle intégration théorique (Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998).

Approche développementale-typologique de la personnalité et comportement antisocial

Il y a près de quarante ans, Robins (1966) fut une des premières à démontrer que les jeunes manifestant des comportements antisociaux ne devenaient pas tous des adultes antisociaux. En effet, dans son étude longitudinale, Robins a observé qu'un petit groupe d'individus ont effectivement développé un trouble de personnalité antisociale, alors que d'autres ont plutôt développé des formes différentes de problèmes d'adaptation et d'autres sont enfin devenus des adultes bien adaptés. Il s'agissait d'une des premières recherches soulignant l'hétérogénéité de l'antisocialité au cours de la vie. Cependant, ce fut Moffitt (1993, 1997) qui fut une des premières à proposer une théorie développementale-typologique de l'antisocialité. Presque au même moment, Patterson (Patterson, Reid, & Dishion, 1992; Patterson & Yoerger, 1993) a aussi proposé des types similaires à ceux de Moffitt. Ces chercheurs ont postulé l'existence de deux trajectoires antisociales expliquées par différents facteurs étiologiques, dont la personnalité. Les individus qui suivent une *trajectoire antisociale persistante*, qui représentent un peu plus de 5 % de la population générale, manifesteraient très tôt au cours de leur enfance des déficits neuropsychologiques, un quotient intellectuel bas (particulièrement au plan verbal) et des caractéristiques tempéralementales problématiques ou extrêmes telles que l'impulsivité et l'émotivité négative. Ces caractéristiques personnelles agiraient en interaction avec des facteurs environnementaux telles des pratiques éducatives inadéquates des parents. Bien que des conduites plus extrêmes, comme la criminalité violente par exemple, diminuent au début de l'âge adulte, les individus suivant une telle trajectoire antisociale peuvent persister jusqu'à un âge avancé dans

l'antisocialité en manifestant d'autres conduites comme la consommation abusive de psychotropes, les problèmes conjugaux et les problèmes au travail. Selon Moffitt (1993, 1997) et Zucker (1987; Zucker et al., 1995), les caractéristiques personnelles seraient l'agent causal initial le plus puissant pour expliquer l'engagement persistant dans l'antisocialité et elles seraient le fruit d'un bagage génétique spécifique. Cette trajectoire correspond clairement à *l'alcoolisme antisocial* proposé par Zucker (1987; Zucker et al., 1995).

Au contraire, les individus qui suivent une *trajectoire antisociale limitée à l'adolescence* s'engagent plus tardivement au début de l'adolescence dans l'antisocialité et seraient plutôt influencés par d'autres facteurs étiologiques, particulièrement par diverses formes d'apprentissage social, par le biais de l'affiliation, de l'engagement et de l'attachement avec des pairs antisociaux (Kandel, 1996; Thornberry & Krohn, 1997; Vitaro, Tremblay, & Bukowski, 2001). Ces amis antisociaux seraient en fait les individus qui poursuivent une trajectoire persistante, et qui ont déjà débuté une antisocialité qui s'est cristallisée. Toutefois, les données empiriques s'accumulent pour suggérer qu'il y a certainement plus de deux trajectoires antisociales. D'ailleurs, les études empiriques récentes de Moffitt semblent confirmer l'existence de ces types supplémentaires (Moffitt et al., 2002). Il semble que la trajectoire limitée à l'adolescence, telle que proposée par Moffitt et Patterson, est trop générale et semble inclure deux trajectoires empiriquement distinctes (Dunford & Elliott, 1984; Fréchette et Le Blanc, 1987; Le Blanc & Fréchette, 1989). Les individus qui suivraient une *trajectoire antisociale transitoire*, qui représenteraient environ 40 % de la population générale, débuteraient leur antisocialité tôt au début de l'adolescence et la termineraient généralement au début de l'âge adulte. Les facteurs expliquant cette trajectoire seraient l'affiliation aux pairs antisociaux, en interaction avec des relations parents-adolescent difficiles et certaines caractéristiques de personnalité, mais moins problématiques que celles des individus qui suivent une trajectoire antisociale persistante. Cette trajectoire correspond clairement à *l'alcoolisme développemental cumulatif* proposé par Zucker (1987; Zucker et al., 1995). Quant aux individus qui suivent une *trajectoire antisociale commune*, qui représenteraient environ 45 % de la population, ils débuteraient leur antisocialité un peu plus tard et la termineraient aussi plus tôt, dès la fin de l'adolescence ou au début de l'âge adulte. Ces individus seraient aussi engagés dans une antisocialité moins variée, fréquente et régulière que ceux qui suivent une trajectoire transitoire. Les facteurs associés à cette

trajectoire antisociale seraient surtout un manque de supervision des parents en interaction avec les opportunités offertes par les activités routinières des adolescents (Felson, 1998; Osgood et al., 1996) de même que la fréquentation de certains pairs antisociaux. Cette trajectoire correspond clairement à *l'alcoolisme développemental limité* proposé par Zucker (1987; Zucker et al., 1995).

Enfin, quelques recherches appuient l'existence d'une quatrième trajectoire (Rutter et al., 1998; Zucker, 1987; Zucker et al., 1995). Certains individus suivant une *trajectoire antisociale débutant à l'âge adulte*, qui représenteraient entre 5 % et 15 % de la population, manifesteraient très peu ou pas de problèmes de comportement durant l'enfance et l'adolescence. Leur antisocialité débuterait avec l'entrée dans l'âge adulte. Compte tenu de leur engagement tardif dans l'antisocialité, ces individus seraient davantage engagés dans des conduites telles que la consommation de psychotropes ou les problèmes dans le couple ou au travail plutôt que dans des conduites comme la criminalité et la violence. Le nombre d'études disponibles étant limité, on ne sait toujours pas si cette trajectoire est transitoire ou persistante durant l'âge adulte. Les facteurs associés à cette trajectoire sont peu connus, mais certaines études indiquent qu'il s'agirait de l'apparition de troubles mentaux graves ou d'une dégradation du profil de personnalité, qui s'exprime particulièrement par de l'émotivité négative telles que l'aliénation, l'anxiété sociale, une faible estime de soi et une humeur dysphorique. Zucker (1987; Zucker et al., 1995) considère que cette trajectoire soit potentiellement le fruit d'un bagage génétique particulier. Cette trajectoire correspond clairement à *l'alcoolisme affectif négatif* proposé par Zucker (1987; Zucker et al., 1995).

Puisque le comportement antisocial constitue un corrélat classique de la personnalité, nous avons choisi a priori d'examiner la validité externe des typologies développementales de la personnalité à l'aide de mesures du comportement antisocial. Puisque nous étions particulièrement intéressés à vérifier ces relations dans une perspective développementale, nous avons sélectionné des mesures qui représentent le comportement antisocial de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie. De plus, puisque dans les théories dont nous venons de parler les trajectoires se caractérisent par différentes formes de comportement antisocial, nous avons sélectionné des mesures permettant de les vérifier de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie. À l'adolescence, nous avons examiné la délinquance et la consommation de psychotropes

ainsi que les problèmes de comportement à la maison et à l'école. À l'âge adulte, nous avons examiné les mêmes mesures de criminalité et de consommation de psychotropes et avons ajouté des mesures de problèmes conjugaux et au travail. Conceptuellement, ces deux dernières mesures correspondent respectivement aux problèmes de comportement à la maison et à l'école mesurés à l'adolescence.

Les relations que nous avons observées entre les types développementaux de personnalité et les trajectoires de comportement antisocial se sont avérées tout à fait intéressantes. Ces relations sont illustrées dans la Figure 1 présentée plus haut. En effet, dans l'échantillon représentatif de l'ÉLBÉM, les types de personnalité correspondaient assez clairement aux quatre trajectoires antisociales que nous venons de décrire plus haut. Les Communales semblent être abstinents ou bien suivre une trajectoire antisociale commune. Un peu plus antisociaux que les Communales, les Agentifs semblent suivre une trajectoire commune ou transitoire. Les Sous-contrôlés, quant à eux, semblent suivre une trajectoire antisociale plus persistante que tous les autres types. En effet, même si ces hommes se désistent des conduites plus graves telles que la criminalité au début de l'âge adulte, ils persistent en étant engagés dans la consommation de substances psychotropes et en manifestant des problèmes dans le couple et au travail. Enfin, les Sous-contrôlés semblent débuter leur antisocialité au cours de l'âge adulte seulement. Dans l'échantillon d'hommes judiciairisés, les relations avec les trajectoires antisociales connues dans la littérature sont toutefois moins claires. Puisqu'il s'agit d'un groupe d'individus sélectionnés pour leurs difficultés marquées au cours de l'adolescence, il n'est pas étonnant de constater qu'à l'exception d'un type (i.e., les Résilients), les hommes judiciairisés présentent tous une antisocialité plus variée et plus fréquente que dans l'échantillon représentatif. Ces correspondances intéressantes ne constituent toutefois pas une preuve claire de l'existence des quatre trajectoires antisociales présentées antérieurement. En effet, les relations entre les types développementaux de personnalité et les trajectoires antisociales sont intéressantes sur le plan conceptuel, mais elles ne sont pas absolues sur le plan empirique. Une stratégie méthodologique impliquant l'identification de trajectoires antisociales, indépendamment des types développementaux de personnalité, suivie d'une vérification empirique des liens absolus, constituerait probablement un test plus solide. De plus, les résultats obtenus dans

l'échantillon d'hommes judiciarés suggèrent que des sous-types supplémentaires à ces quatre grands types développementaux de comportement antisocial existent probablement.

En somme, bien que les relations entre types développementaux de personnalité et trajectoires antisociales ne soient pas parfaites, les correspondances suggèrent clairement la possibilité que des études ultérieures permettent d'identifier des types développementaux de nature « syndromale », c'est-à-dire tenant compte de plusieurs dimensions importantes de l'adaptation de la personne (voir Krueger, 2002; Krueger et al., 2002). Comme nous l'avons mentionné dans les troisième et quatrième chapitres, malgré le fait que les théories générales de l'antisocialité telle que celle de Gottfredson et Hirschi (1990) soient très populaires en criminologie, les travaux de cette thèse ont permis de constater qu'elles pourraient rapidement perdre leur attrait auprès des chercheurs avec l'avancement des travaux sur l'approche développementale-typologique de la personnalité. De tels travaux pourraient contribuer à la reconnaissance croissante des théories développementales-typologiques de l'antisocialité. Nous pouvons certes conclure que les résultats de la présente thèse soulignent avec force que les traits de personnalité constituent des corrélats importants du comportement antisocial.

Ces relations entre le développement de la personnalité et les trajectoires antisociales sont théoriquement intéressantes, mais elles ne nous disent pas *pourquoi* les traits de personnalité produisent une covariation avec plusieurs comportements antisociaux au cours de la vie. Voyons quelques mécanismes possibles. Les comportements antisociaux tels que la criminalité, la consommation de psychotropes, les problèmes au travail ou dans le couple ainsi que certains traits de personnalité comme la Désinhibition, l'Émotivité Négative et l'Extraversion ont tendance à se manifester simultanément (i.e., covariation), ce qui a mené plusieurs chercheurs à proposer un « syndrome désinhibtif ». Certains appellent ce syndrome celui de la *personnalité désinhibitive* (Gorenstein & Newman, 1980; Nigg, 2000; Sher & Trull, 1994; Young et al., 2000), d'autres le *syndrome d'extériorisation* (Krueger, 2002; Krueger et al., 2002) et d'autres encore le *syndrome désexécutif* (Grigsby & Stevens, 2000). Un tel syndrome latent correspond en fait clairement au syndrome général de déviance initialement proposé par Jessor et Jessor (1977; voir aussi Jessor et al., 1991). Toutefois, les facteurs expliquant ce patron de covariation ne sont pas bien connus. Plusieurs études récentes laissent croire qu'il s'agirait d'une prédisposition génétique à la désinhibition. Par

exemple, Krueger et ses collègues (Krueger, 2002; Krueger et al., 2002) ont évalué un modèle biométrique incluant la criminalité, la consommation de psychotropes et le trait de personnalité de la Désinhibition. Ces trois mesures ont expliqué un facteur latent, qu'ils nomment syndrome d'extériorisation, et dont l'héritabilité est de 81 %, ce qui est tout à fait impressionnant (voir aussi Fu et al., 2002). DiLalla, Gottesman et Carey (2000) ont aussi observé un syndrome très similaire, mais avec l'Émotivité Négative. Grigsby et Stevens (2000) mentionnent que la forte héritabilité de ce syndrome suggère qu'il s'opérationnalise en partie par les structures et mécanismes biologiques de l'organisme. Grigsby et Stevens postulent qu'il s'agit d'un *syndrome de dysfonctionnement des fonctions exécutives*. Ce syndrome provoque des problèmes d'introspection, qui eux, en retour, amènent une incapacité à mettre en action et à inhiber certains types de comportement (i.e., incapacité d'inhiber des comportements inappropriés ou impertinents et incapacité d'initier des comportements utiles ou nécessaires). En somme, compte tenu des corrélats biologiques de ce syndrome, il serait important de déterminer si les différents types développementaux de personnalité manifestent des estimations d'héritabilité différentes, et s'ils manifestent des profils différents quant à l'intégrité des structures neurologiques et à la régulation physiologique et hormonale. De plus, puisque ce sont les trajectoires antisociales persistantes et débutant à l'âge adulte qui sont hypothétiquement génétiquement déterminées, un tel syndrome ne rendrait donc pas compte des trajectoires communes et transitoires, qui elles seraient davantage le résultat de profils de facteurs d'adaptation et d'intégration sociale.

Cette hypothèse d'un syndrome désinhibitif largement héréditaire ne nous donne cependant pas d'explication sur le *comment*, c'est-à-dire sur les mécanismes par lesquels les traits de la personnalité désinhibitive agissent. D'abord, il faut noter que les chercheurs n'incluent généralement pas le trait de l'Émotivité Négative, qui est pourtant fortement associé au comportement antisocial (Kruger et al., 2000; Miller & Lynam, 2001). Selon Caspi et al. (1994) et Cooper et al. (1995), il est probable que ces fortes prédispositions à réagir par de l'Émotivité Négative soient les précurseurs du passage à l'acte. En effet, dans certaines situations ou avec certaines personnes, l'Émotivité Négative solliciterait les capacités adaptatives biologiques et psychologiques des individus et briserait l'homéostasie de l'organisme. Par la suite, les individus qui manifestent en plus de fortes tendances à la Désinhibition seraient plus enclins à s'engager dans des conduites antisociales variées. Il est

probable que des mécanismes sociocognitifs soient à l'œuvre. Certains théoriciens des traits, McCrae et Costa (1999) par exemple, considèrent que les traits sont responsables du développement des processus sociocognitifs et socioaffectifs (pour une critique, voir Cervone & Shoda, 1999). Dans cette perspective, les variables sociocognitives seraient des modératrices ou des médiaterices de l'effet des traits sur le comportement antisocial. Une telle conception correspond au point de vue récent de Mischel et Shoda (1995, 1999) qui ont intégré les prédispositions intrinsèques (i.e., les traits) à leur théorie sociocognitive de la personnalité. De fait, Dodge (1993; Dodge & Schwartz, 1997) a bien démontré l'importance des biais sociaux-cognitifs pour prédire le comportement antisocial et la violence.

SOMMAIRE DES LIMITES ET CONTRIBUTIONS DE LA THÈSE

Nous avons déjà mentionné les principales limites de cette thèse dans les deuxième, troisième et quatrième chapitres ainsi que plus tôt dans ce chapitre conclusif. Il y a d'abord des limites méthodologiques. Résumons-les brièvement. Premièrement, les échelles de traits de personnalité que nous avons identifiées sont adéquates selon les principes psychométriques de base, mais leurs propriétés psychométriques sont bien sûr imparfaites. Deuxièmement, bien que les traits soient des unités de mesure scientifiques fondamentales de la personnalité, l'étude du développement de la personne requiert plus que les traits. Troisièmement, les analyses statistiques effectuées sont adéquates et rigoureusement appliquées, mais, comme toute méthode quantitative, elles présentent des limites inhérentes. Quatrièmement, les deux échantillons de l'ÉLBÉM constituent des cohortes d'hommes québécois qui sont uniques sur le plan historique. Comme l'a clairement démontré Elder (1998), les forces sociohistoriques modulent les trajectoires d'adaptation dans la famille, à l'école et au travail; ces dernières influencent, en retour, les trajectoires de personnalité et comportementales des individus. Les trajectoires de vie doivent être comprises à l'intérieur des contraintes imposées par les circonstances économiques, sociales et historiques. En conséquence, l'ensemble des résultats obtenus à l'aide des données de l'ÉLBÉM peut être spécifique au contexte socioéconomique du Québec depuis le début des années soixante-dix jusqu'à la fin des années quatre-vingt-dix. Compte tenu des bases génétiques de la personnalité, bien que ce soit peu probable, certains résultats pourraient même être tributaires de certaines spécificités du bassin génétique de la population du Québec (Scriver, 2001). Seule la réPLICATION permettrait de rejeter ces

hypothèses alternatives. Enfin, puisqu'il est connu que les trajectoires de personnalité des hommes et des femmes sont différentes (Cohn, 1991; Feingold, 1994), les résultats de la présente thèse ne peuvent s'appliquer qu'aux hommes. Il y a aussi des limites conceptuelles non négligeables. D'abord, cette thèse compare deux approches conceptuelles et méthodologiques, elle ne teste pas une théorie. Ces travaux sont essentiellement descriptifs et exploratoires. De plus, la limite probablement la plus importante de cette thèse est qu'elle ne renseigne pas sur les processus qui expliquent le développement de la personnalité.

Malgré ces limites non négligeables, cette thèse apporte certaines contributions intéressantes. Premièrement, l'utilisation d'un échantillon représentatif est important car il existe très peu d'études longitudinales dans lesquelles il y a eu une procédure de sélection des participants selon une stratification semi-aléatoire incluant différentes strates socioéconomiques de la population générale. Un tel échantillon est avantageux pour la généralisation des résultats. Deuxièmement, il s'agit d'une des premières études à avoir examiné formellement la continuité structurelle de la personnalité à l'aide de données longitudinales prospectives pour une longue période de la vie des individus. Troisièmement, à notre connaissance, il s'agit de la toute première étude à examiner la continuité différentielle et absolue de la personnalité d'un échantillon d'hommes judiciarés de l'adolescence au milieu de la vie. Cet examen est important, notamment pour ses implications théoriques et cliniques. Quatrièmement, il s'agit aussi de la première étude à identifier une typologie développementale de la personnalité pour une telle période de la vie des individus avec des mesures de traits et un échantillon représentatif de la population. Enfin, cinquièmement, il s'agit aussi de la première étude à identifier une typologie développementale de la personnalité à l'aide d'un échantillon d'hommes judiciarés.

ÉPILOGUE

L'étude de la personnalité humaine est aussi complexe et difficile que toute autre science ou toute autre branche de la psychologie. Elle impose plusieurs contraintes méthodologiques et théoriques. Notamment, l'étude de la personnalité est difficile parce que le concept intégratif que représente la personnalité ne peut être étudié avec des aspects isolés du fonctionnement (i.e., seulement les émotions, seulement les comportements, etc.). Le

psychologue de la personnalité vise à évaluer l’individu dans sa totalité. Le sujet d’intérêt est la personne entière. C’est justement pour cette raison que l’étude des traits est inévitable. Dans le chapitre introductif, nous avons démontré que l’approche des traits a maintenant atteint un statut scientifique satisfaisant. Bien que les traits aient été l’objet de critiques (Block, 1995, 2001; Lamiell, 1997; McAdams, 1992, 1994a; Pervin, 1994; Westen, 1995, 1996), nous sommes d’avis qu’il n’existe pas de façon plus adéquate et parcimonieuse d’obtenir un aperçu des multiples facettes de l’adaptation de la personne. De telles mesures sont plus simples à administrer auprès de larges échantillons; elles facilitent l’étude du développement, ce qui nécessite l’évaluation des mêmes individus à plusieurs reprises.

Les résultats de la présente thèse ont démontré que l’étude de la personnalité, selon une approche centrée sur les variables, est utile. D’abord, l’approche centrée sur les variables est nécessaire pour l’identification d’unités de mesure de la personnalité (i.e., traits) scientifiquement défendables. Les résultats dérivés de l’approche centrée sur les variables permettent aussi de suggérer que certains postulats de l’approche des traits devront être révisés, plus particulièrement le postulat de la stabilité des traits. Pour ce qui est de la continuité différentielle, les analyses centrées sur les variables sont importantes puisqu’elles permettent d’appuyer et de relativiser le postulat de la stabilité des différences entre les individus. En effet, il est possible d’affirmer que les différences interindividuelles au niveau des traits soient assez stables et se cristallisent avec l’âge. Pour ce qui est de la continuité absolue, les analyses centrées sur les variables sont également essentielles parce qu’elles procurent une heuristique de départ afin de mieux comprendre les trajectoires des traits de personnalité. Ces analyses permettent aussi de relativiser le postulat de la stabilité des traits puisqu’au niveau quantitatif, la majorité des traits ne sont pas stables, mais changent : il y a une maturation psychologique de l’adolescence jusqu’au milieu de la vie.

Cependant, les résultats de cette thèse ont aussi clairement révélé que l’approche centrée sur les variables comporte des limites conceptuelles non négligeables. L’étude du développement de la personnalité, selon une approche centrée sur les personnes, telle que présentée dans les troisième et quatrième chapitres, a clairement démontré, à notre avis, que les estimations de la continuité absolue procurent une vision biaisée en agrégeant les trajectoires individuelles en une seule trajectoire moyenne. Comme nous l’avons déjà noté,

cela revient en quelque sorte à considérer les individus qui se démarquent de façon significative de la trajectoire moyenne du groupe comme des « valeurs extrêmes », ou pire encore, comme des « erreurs de mesure aléatoires ». Ces résultats soulignent avec force que le postulat de la stabilité de l'approche des traits devrait être complètement révisé en fonction des types de personne. De plus, cela remet clairement en question le postulat de la distribution continue des traits dans la population. En effet, non seulement les chercheurs ont-ils démontré dans les études antérieures que des types de personnalité reproductibles existent bel et bien (Asendorpf et al., 2001; Caspi, 1998; Robins et al., 1998), mais nous avons en plus montré dans cette thèse que des types développementaux existent probablement aussi.

À l'instar d'un nombre grandissant de chercheurs, nous croyons qu'une des tâches majeures de la psychologie – pas seulement de la psychologie de la personnalité – en ce début de vingt et unième siècle est de se décenter du modèle linéaire traditionnel, c'est-à-dire de l'approche centrée sur les variables (Bergman et al., 2000, 2003; Block, 2000; Butz, 1997; Cairns et al., 1996, 1998; Kelso, 1995; Lamiell, 1997; Magnusson, 1996). En fait, il est assez ironique de constater qu'une approche, qui s'intéresse explicitement aux différences entre les individus, se soit presque exclusivement centrée sur les variables plutôt que sur les personnes. Pour reprendre la métaphore de Richters (1997) à propos du développement théorique en sciences sociales, les chercheurs ont peut-être pointé l'objectif de leur « satellite de cueillette de données » dans la mauvaise direction. Afin de mieux comprendre le développement de la personne selon la perspective holistique–transactionnelle, la psychologie devra se diriger plus sérieusement vers l'adoption d'une approche méthodologique centrée sur les personnes. Cette approche est nécessaire afin de bien comprendre les différences interindividuelles dans le développement de la personnalité. Le fait qu'il existe des formes de développement de la personnalité qualitativement et quantitativement différentes est tellement évident que presque aucun chercheur n'oserait nier cette réalité. Il est donc très étonnant de constater que l'approche centrée sur les personnes n'ait pas été appliquée encore à l'étude du développement de la personnalité. Selon Block (1971, 2000) et Kagan (1994), les psychologues continuent d'être réticents à l'idée des types de personnalité et continuent plutôt à utiliser des continuums en raison de l'absence de théorie pouvant aider à grouper les individus et expliquer ces regroupements. En suggérant l'identification d'une typologie empirique, cela ne signifie pas que la tâche doive être « antithéorique ». Les chercheurs

devront plutôt se servir des théories existantes pour aider à comprendre les types identifiés empiriquement. En fait, l'approche développementale-typologique illustrée dans cette thèse constitue un exemple de la façon dont les chercheurs pourront améliorer les connaissances sur le développement de la personnalité. Comme l'ont suggéré Block (1971) et Magnusson (1999), cette approche est compatible avec la perspective holistique-transactionnelle et pourrait bien être la base d'une théorie de la personnalité postulant différentes trajectoires de vie expliquées par des facteurs étiologiques distincts.

L'adoption d'une approche typologique soulèvera certaines questions épistémologiques. Kagan (1994) note qu'encore aujourd'hui, il est politiquement incorrect de parler de personnalité et surtout de types de personnalité avec des fondations héréditaires. La majorité des chercheurs et des politiciens continuent de croire que l'environnement module ou même construit totalement l'individu et la question des types de personnalité qui résulte de facteurs héréditaires demeure un sujet tabou. Plusieurs ont encore peur que cela ne fasse la promotion des préjugés à l'endroit des pauvres ou les gens d'origines ethniques différentes. Mais l'acceptation de l'existence de types de personnalité ne signifie pas un accès différent à la liberté et au pouvoir. L'acceptation de variations intrinsèques discrètes entre les individus de la société est parfaitement compatible avec la démocratie et l'égalitarisme. Affirmer qu'une personne schizophrène représente un type qualitativement distinct des autres ne fait aucun doute et personne ne se pose de questions sur cette « étiquette ». Mais l'approche typologique moderne est différente puisque des types de personnalité pourraient s'appliquer à tous les individus de la population. Tous pourraient se voir étiquetés. Comment doit-on alors composer avec un type d'adolescents qui ont un profil qui augmente leur vulnérabilité à s'engager dans des actes prohibés, des agressions et de développer une dépendance aux substances psychotropes? Devrait-on être plus conciliants et pardonner plus facilement à ces personnes qu'à d'autres qui commettent des actes prohibés simplement pour de l'argent, par exemple. Devrait-on intervenir précocement auprès de tels individus, même s'ils ne manifestent pas de problème d'adaptation sérieux à une période donnée? Il s'agit surtout de questions éthiques, pas scientifiques.

Quoi qu'il en soit, nous croyons que les cliniciens et les décideurs politiques seraient en définitive mieux servis par une approche centrée sur les personnes parce que la plupart des

décisions de la vie courante impliquent un choix entre des individus, non pas entre des scores à des variables. En effet, assigner un individu à une intervention particulière ou formuler une théorie développementale requiert nécessairement une approche qui peut rendre compte des différences naturelles dans le développement des personnes. Une théorie de la personnalité devrait avoir une fondation sociale, c'est-à-dire qu'elle devrait proposer des solutions utiles aux problèmes personnels et sociaux. Pour l'instant, les chercheurs se concentrent surtout sur la description, donc les typologies actuelles constituent surtout des taxinomies descriptives. Toutefois, l'objectif ultime de l'approche typologique devrait plutôt être une taxinomie explicative, c'est à dire qui permette d'expliquer les processus psychologiques et biologiques liés aux types, pour éventuellement faire de meilleures prédictions et offrir des interventions différentielles (voir Le Blanc et al., 1998).

Les résultats dérivés des approches centrée sur les variables et centrée sur les personnes auront des qualités et des implications différentes. La pertinence de l'une ou l'autre des approches ne doit pas être déterminée en fonction de celle qui prédit le mieux des variables critères, comme le pensent souvent plusieurs chercheurs. Le seul critère est de savoir à quel point elle contribue à une meilleure compréhension des processus complexes et dynamiques du développement de la personne. Nous sommes d'avis que l'emploi de l'approche centrée sur les personnes est sans équivoque supérieure pour étudier d'une manière profitable le développement de la personnalité. Plusieurs autres chercheurs en sciences sociales ont commencé à explorer les apports de l'approche typologique et de l'approche développementale-typologique plus particulièrement. En dépit du fait que la plupart des chercheurs en sciences sociales défendent implicitement la perspective holistique-transactionnelle, assez paradoxalement, plusieurs chercheurs dans le domaine de la psychologie de la personnalité demeurent sceptiques quant à la supériorité de l'approche centrée sur les personnes au-delà de l'approche centrée sur les variables. Quoi qu'il en soit, l'identification d'une typologie développementale de la personnalité incluant de multiples traits de l'adaptation humaine qui soit robuste, reproductible et qui propose des facteurs et mécanismes étiologiques distincts pour chacune des trajectoires de vie des personnes constitue un des défis importants auxquels les chercheurs devront s'attaquer. Nous nous attendons – et surtout souhaitons – à ce que l'approche centrée sur les personnes prenne un essor important en sciences sociales dans les prochaines années.

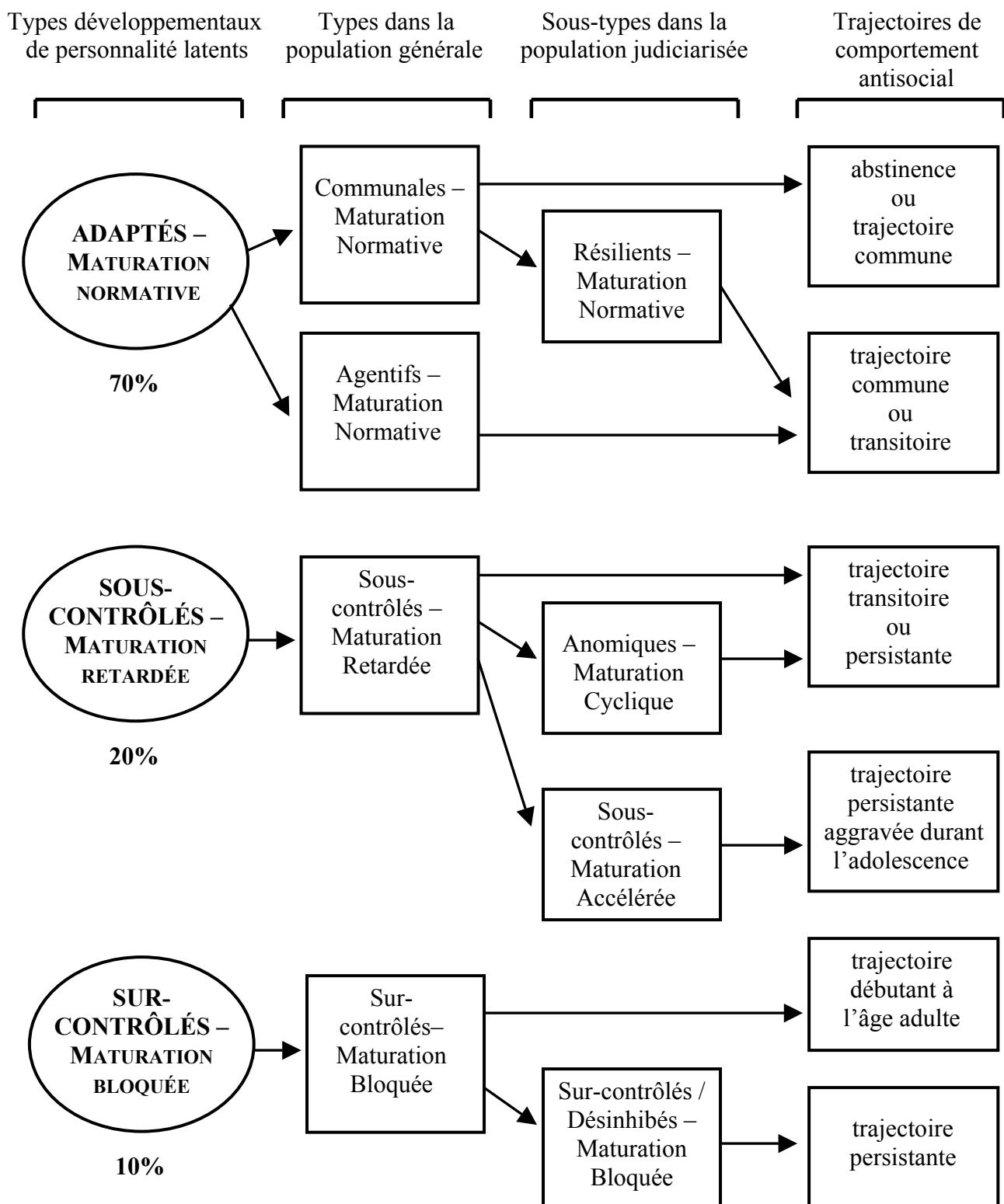


Figure 1. Structure hiérarchique hypothétique des types développementaux de personnalité et leurs relations avec les trajectoires antisociales

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