

UNIVERSITÉ DU QUÉBEC À MONTRÉAL

RECIPROCAL PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT OF BOTH PARTNERS
IN A ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIP, THEIR PERSONALITY SIMILARITY,
AND CORRELATES TO DYADIC ADJUSTMENT

THESIS
PRESENTED
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DOCTORATE IN PSYCHOLOGY

BY
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NOVEMBER 2019

UNIVERSITÉ DU QUÉBEC À MONTRÉAL

ÉVALUATION RÉCIPROQUE DE LA PERSONNALITÉ DE DEUX
PARTENAIRES DANS UNE RELATION AMOUREUSE, LEUR SIMILARITÉ,
ET LES LIENS AVEC L'AJUSTEMENT DYADIQUE

THÈSE
PRÉSENTÉE
COMME EXIGENCE PARTIELLE
DU DOCTORAT EN PSYCHOLOGIE

PAR
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NOVEMBRE 2019

UNIVERSITÉ DU QUÉBEC À MONTRÉAL
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DEDICATION

To my parents Bernard and Suzanne and my brother Philip,
thank you for always being supportive. To my husband Marc,
thank you for always encouraging me. To Ghassan, thank you
for giving me this opportunity and for trusting me with this project.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

I would like to extend my thanks to the many people who so generously contributed to the work presented in this thesis.

Firstly, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisor Dr. Ghassan El-Baalbaki for his continuous support of my doctoral studies and research, and for his patience, motivation, and knowledge. His guidance helped me write this thesis. I am thankful for having had him as an advisor and mentor during my studies. My Psy.D./Ph.D. has been an amazing experience and I thank Professor El-Baalbaki for giving me so many wonderful opportunities.

My sincere thanks also go to my research assistants Adèle Guérard and Claire Deken who helped me collect the data and interpret the results. I would also like to thank my lab mates Patrick Fadel, Delphine-Émilie Bourdon, Elie Rizkallah, Véronique Palardy, Catherine Fredette, Maxime Fortin, and Roxanne Hébert-Ratté for the stimulating discussions. They were always available to lend a helping hand and willing to share their research material and knowledge.

Profound gratitude goes to Hugues Leduc, who has been a truly amazing statistics consultant and teacher. Thank you for the countless hours we spent working on data analysis. His patience and ability to explain complex concepts in simple terms were vital to the success of this project.

I would like to thank my thesis committee, namely Dr. Stéphane Sabourin, Dr. Yvan Lussier, and Dr Claude Bélanger, for their insightful comments and encouragement, but also for their challenging questions which incentivized me to further my knowledge and see things from various perspectives.

Special mention goes to my parents Suzanne and Bernard, my brother Philip, and my husband Marc for their unbelievable support. This thesis would not have been made possible without their love, continued patience, and endless encouragement.

I gratefully acknowledge the funding sources that made my doctorate work possible. Thank you to SSHRC for the Insight Development Grant (430-2016-00950) and to FRQSC for the Doctoral Research Scholarship (201429).

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ACRONYMS

APIM: Actor-Partner Interdependence Model

A: Agreeableness

Ant: Antagonism

C: Conscientiousness

DAS: Dyadic Adjustment Scale

Det: Detachment

Dis: Disinhibition

DSM-IV: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders- 4th edition

DSM-5: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders- 5th edition

E: Extraversion

FFM: Five-Factor Model

MMPI-2-RF: Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2 Restructured Form

NEO-FFI-3: NEO Five-Factor Inventory-3

N: Neuroticism

Nega: Negative Affect

O: Openness to Experience

PAI: Personality Assessment Inventory

PD: Personality disorder

PID-5: Personality Inventory for DSM-5

Psy: Psychoticism

SEM: Structural Equation Modeling

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Pierre Plante, Ph.D.
Directeur du programme d'études de cycles supérieurs

PP/lg

C.C. Ghassan El-baalbaki, directeur de recherche

ÉVALUATION RÉCIPROQUE DE LA PERSONNALITÉ DE DEUX PARTENAIRES DANS UNE RELATION AMOUREUSE, LEUR SIMILARITÉ, ET LES LIENS AVEC L'AJUSTEMENT DYADIQUE

RÉSUMÉ

Contexte : Les écrits scientifiques portant sur les relations conjugales, montrent l'existence d'un intérêt à élucider les qualités personnelles que les conjoints désirent percevoir chez leurs partenaires. Certains chercheurs étudient la personnalité et son rôle dans les relations interpersonnelles. Ce projet examine la personnalité auto-rapportée et hétéro-rapportée (telle que perçue par le partenaire), la similarité entre ces deux modes d'évaluation et leurs effets interactionnels réciproques chez les partenaires. La personnalité d'un individu a un effet sur son ajustement dyadique, nommé effet acteur, et aussi sur celui du partenaire, nommé effet partenaire (modèle d'interdépendance acteur-partenaire, APIM). Le modèle des cinq traits centraux de la personnalité (Five Factor Model, FFM) est celui le plus utilisé dans l'évaluation de la personnalité. Le modèle de la personnalité pathologique (Maladaptive Personality Trait Model) du DSM-5 le permet et est démontré comme étant un complément au FFM. Il permet aux chercheurs et aux cliniciens d'évaluer l'expression dysfonctionnelle des traits de personnalité.

Méthodes : 113 jeunes couples ont été recrutés. Les deux partenaires devaient être âgés de 21 à 30 ans, en couple et en cohabitation depuis au moins six mois, et à l'aise en anglais pour pouvoir compléter les questionnaires. Chaque partenaire a complété sur SurveyMonkey deux versions du NEO Five-Factor Inventory-3 (NEO-FFI-3) et du Personality Inventory for DSM-5 (PID-5; une version auto-rapportée et une hétéro-rapportée), ainsi que le Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) auto-rapporté.

Analyses : Des analyses APIM ont été effectuées pour vérifier si les traits de personnalité positifs avaient des effets positifs sur l'ajustement dyadique, si les traits négatifs avaient des effets négatifs sur cet ajustement, si l'évaluation du partenaire avait un effet plus important sur l'ajustement dyadique que ne l'avait la personnalité auto-rapportée, si la similarité véritable (différence entre la personnalité auto-rapportée des deux partenaires) de la personnalité des deux partenaires était associée à l'ajustement dyadique, et si la similarité perçue de la personnalité des deux partenaires était associée à l'ajustement dyadique.

Résultats : Dans le premier article, un modèle APIM intégré a été utilisé. Plus spécifiquement, trois ensembles d'APIM ont été effectués pour évaluer les effets acteurs et partenaires de la personnalité auto-rapportée, hétéro-rapportée, et celle des deux ensembles d'effets simultanément dans un modèle APIM intégré. L'analyse séparée de la personnalité auto-rapportée et telle que perçue par le partenaire a révélé

plusieurs effets acteurs et partenaires. Cependant, la majorité des effets des modèles de personnalité auto-évaluée n'étaient plus significatifs lors de l'intégration des deux perspectives dans un seul modèle APIM intégré. De plus, la plupart des effets significatifs et les tailles d'effets les plus fortes étaient associés à l'évaluation qu'un individu faisait de l'autre, notamment l'évaluation que l'homme faisait de la femme. La taille d'effet la plus forte était celle associée au lien entre l'évaluation que l'homme faisait de l'esprit conscientieux de la femme et l'ajustement dyadique de celui-ci. Dans le deuxième article, deux ensembles d'APIM ont été effectués pour évaluer les effets de la similarité véritable et perçue de la personnalité sur l'ajustement dyadique des deux partenaires. Les similarités véritables et perçues ont été opérationnalisées en utilisant la méthode de la différence absolue entre les valeurs standardisées pour chaque trait de personnalité auto-rapporté et hétéro-rapporté pour chaque individu. Comme prévu, peu d'effets de similarité significatifs sur l'ajustement dyadique ont été observés au-delà des effets de la personnalité auto-rapportée et telle que perçue par le partenaire sur l'ajustement dyadique. Les similarités véritables en extraversion et en agréabilité étaient importantes pour les femmes. La similarité véritable au névrosisme était importante pour les hommes. Les similarités perçues par les femmes en extraversion, détachement, et à la dimension psychotique étaient importantes pour elles. La similarité perçue par les hommes à la dimension psychotique était importante pour les femmes. Toutes les tailles d'effets étaient faibles. Par conséquent, la perception qu'un partenaire a de l'autre sur l'ajustement dyadique des deux partenaires demeure le plus constant et le plus fort facteur prédicteur.

Conclusion : Ces résultats démontrent la valeur prédictive de l'évaluation du partenaire sur l'ajustement dyadique des deux partenaires. En d'autres termes, l'évaluation de la personnalité que les conjoints font de leurs partenaires semble avoir un impact déterminant sur leur ajustement dyadique.

Mots-clés : Five-Factor Model, Maladaptive Personality Trait Model, dyadic adjustment, personality similarity, Actor Partner Interdependence Model (APIM)

ABSTRACT

Background: Researchers have long tried to find what qualities people want in a potential life partner. Some study personality and how it is manifested in interpersonal relationships. This research looks at the effects of an individual's self-rated personality, partner-rated personality, and measures of personality similarity (actual and perceived similarity) and how they are at play between two partners reciprocally. That is, an individual's personality not only predicts his or her own dyadic adjustment, called actor effects, but also his or her partner's dyadic adjustment, called partner effects (Actor Partner Interdependence Model, APIM). The Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality traits is the most widely accepted measurement of the basic dimensions of personality. Many of the measures of the FFM are not designed to capture the extreme variations of the five traits. However, the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model of the DSM-5 has been shown to be an extension of the FFM and allows researchers and clinicians to assess the dysfunctional expression personality traits.

Methods: For this research, 113 young cohabitating dating were recruited. Couples could participate if both partners were 21 to 30 years old, they had been dating and living together since at least six months, and if they were fluent enough in English to complete a battery of questionnaires. Each partner completed both self- and partner-reports of the NEO-Five-Factor Inventory- 3 (NEO-FFI-3) and the Personality Inventory for DSM-5 (PID-5) as well as the self-report Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). The questionnaires were administered on SurveyMonkey.

Analyses: APIM analyses were used to verify if the positive traits have positive effects on both partners' dyadic adjustment, the negative traits have negative effects on both partners' dyadic adjustment, the individual's rating of their partner's personality has a stronger effect on their own dyadic adjustment than their self-reported personality, actual personality similarity is weakly associated with dyadic adjustment, and perceived similarity is weakly associated with dyadic adjustment.

Results: In the first article, three separate sets of APIM were run to estimate actor and partner effects of self-rated personality, partner-rated personality, and of both sets of effects simultaneously in an integrated model. When self- and partner-rating models were examined separately, several significant actor and partner effects were observed. When both self- and partner-rated personality were examined simultaneously in an integrated APIM, most effects from the self-rating models disappeared. Furthermore, most of the effects as well as the strongest one observed were associated with an individual's perception of their partner's personality, particularly men's perception of women's personality. Men's rating of women's conscientiousness and its association with their own dyadic adjustment was the strongest effect observed in this study. In the second article, two sets of APIM were run to estimate effects of actual similarity and perceived similarity on both partners' dyadic adjustment. Actual and perceived similarity were operationalized using the

absolutely difference score between each partner's standardized self-rated or partner-rated personality trait or maladaptive personality trait score. As predicted, only a few significant similarity effects predicted dyadic adjustment over and above self- and partner-reported personality. With regard to actual similarity, similarity in extraversion and agreeableness appear to be important for women. Furthermore, similarity in neuroticism appears to be important for men. With regard to perceived similarity, women's perceived similarity in extraversion, psychoticism, and detachment appear to be important for them. That is, they prefer to have partners whom they rate similarly in extraversion, psychoticism, and detachment to their own ratings on these traits. Men's perceived similarity in psychoticism is also important for women. However, all effect sizes were small. Therefore, personality partner-ratings remain the most consistent and strongest predictor of dyadic adjustment of both partners.

Conclusion: The results provide strong support for the incremental predictive utility of partner-rated scores for explaining dyadic adjustment. In other words, with regard to personality, the most important factor for dyadic adjustment is how individuals perceive their partner.

Keywords: Five-Factor Model, Maladaptive Personality Trait Model, dyadic adjustment, personality similarity, Actor Partner Interdependence Model (APIM)

CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND

1.1 Introduction

Measures of personality are predictive of several outcomes, including, among others, well-being, spirituality, identity, and community involvement. One's personality is manifested in behaviors and attitudes in daily life and especially in interpersonal relationships (Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006). Longitudinal studies show that measures of personality as early as in childhood can predict adult intimate relationships and even divorce (Roberts & Caspi, 2001). Researchers have long tried to find out what qualities people want in a potential life partner. This question can be answered in several different ways. Some researchers study personality and how it is manifested in interpersonal relationships (Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006). Others look at how personality affects one's perception of the behaviors and attitudes of others, which in turn affects the way one reacts to them (Karney & Bradbury, 2000). One approach to answering these questions is to study how, in romantic relationships, the effects of one's personality and perception of the other's personality are at play between two partners reciprocally (Orth, 2013). This interdependent dynamic translates either in healthy or dysfunctional relations. Another approach is to focus on similarity of partner characteristics and assess whether "like attracts like" or "opposites attract". This research addresses the interdependent effects of partners' reciprocal personality perceptions and personality similarity on dyadic adjustment.

1.2 Research Problem

The Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality traits captures the basic dimensions of personality, called neuroticism (N), extraversion (E), openness to experience (O), agreeableness (A), and conscientiousness (C) (McCrae and Costa, 2013). However,

personality traits lie along a continuum and the FFM and measures of the FFM are not designed to capture the extreme poles of the five domains, called emotional stability, introversion, closedness, antagonism (or low agreeableness), and disinhibition (or low conscientiousness) (Krueger & Eaton, 2010; Nestadt et al., 2008). There is a need for a model that can measure the extreme poles of the five domains as it will provide an alternative perspective and more information about personality. An issue with the personality disorder (PD) literature to date is that the classification of PDs, based on a choice of criteria, leads to excessive numbers of comorbid disorder diagnoses (Andersen & Bienvenu, 2011). Furthermore, most research has been based on individuals meeting formal diagnostic criteria, typically in treatment-seeking populations (Bouchard, Sabourin, Lussier, & Villeneuve, 2009). More recent literature indicates that PD symptomatology is best conceptualized using the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model (Krueger, Derringer, Markon, Watson, & Skodol, 2012), where disordered personality is described in terms of maladaptive variants of personality traits (Gore & Widiger, 2013). In light of the maladaptive personality traits model allowing for more meaningful observations beyond the simple presence or absence of a categorical diagnosis, it seems likely that a range of subclinical PD symptomatology exists in the community at large and that these symptoms may have important ramifications for interpersonal functioning (South, Turkheimer, & Oltmanns, 2008). Therefore, studying community samples using both the FFM and the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model may be informative and allow for a more complete picture of the role of personality in interpersonal relationships and particularly in romantic relationships.

Research on the relationship between personality and couple adjustment has so far used self-assessments of personality (each partner describes his/her own personality) using validated self-report inventories (Bouchard, Lussier, & Sabourin, 1999). However, with self-assessments of one's personality, individuals may rate themselves favorably due to social desirability, or they may lack insight about their personality therefore resulting in inaccurate assessments (South, Oltmanns, Johnson, & Turkheimer, 2011).

Moreover, an individual's perception of his/her partner's personality may have important implications for their own dyadic adjustment (Altmann, Sierau, & Roth, 2013). Additionally, the partners' perceptions of their mate's personality can have an effect on their mate's dyadic adjustment (Furler, Gomez, & Grob, 2014). Therefore, how we perceive our partner and ourselves has an important effect on not only our own dyadic adjustment but also on our partner's. Very few studies have taken into account these interdependent effects of personality in dyadic data.

The existing body of research on the association between personality similarity and couple satisfaction does not provide a clear picture. While some studies find that more similar couples show higher satisfaction (Gaunt, 2006), others reveal no associations (Dyrenforth, Kashy, Donnellan, & Lucas, 2010). Furthermore, few studies have looked at partner perceptions and the association between perceived similarity and couple satisfaction (Altmann et al., 2013; Decuyper, De Bolle, & De Fruyt, 2012; Tidwell, Eastwick, & Finkel, 2013). One meta-analysis that included studies that assessed partner perceptions demonstrated that perceived similarity shows a moderate and significant association with attraction in existing relationships (Montoya, Horton, & Kirchner, 2008). Moreover, several studies that assess the effect of personality similarity in couples don't control for each partner's individual level of personality (Robins, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2000), which leads to an overestimation of the association between similarity and satisfaction. Finally, a limitation of previous research is that almost all of the evidence has been collected from married couples. There is evidence that initial assortment over convergence is primarily responsible for couple similarity (Glickson & Golan, 2001; Watson, Klohnen, Casillas, Simms, & Haig, 2004). Newlyweds have been found to be similar to each other with regard to attitudes and personality (Watson et al., 2004), and couples don't tend to become increasingly similar over the years (Humbad, Donnellan, Iacono, McGue, & Burt, 2010), with length of marriage shown to not moderate couple similarity (Caspi, Herbener, & Ozer, 1992; Luo & Klohnen, 2005). Couple similarity may have different implications for

relationships at different stages of life. It may exert its greatest influence in the earliest stages of romantic relationships. Similarity may play such an important role on dyadic adjustment that it determines whether the partners pursue a relationship to the point of marriage. There is therefore a need to study both actual and perceived similarity and the association with dyadic adjustment in cohabitating dating couples using appropriate analytic techniques.

In the following, a comprehensive (non systematic) literature review of personality traits, personality disorders, and the association between personality and dyadic adjustment will first be outlined. Following will be a comprehensive literature review on the importance of using partner reports and the importance of considering interdependence when studying couple data. This section will be concluded with a comprehensive literature review on personality similarity, both actual and perceived, its association with dyadic adjustment, and advances in measurement and analytic techniques. The general introduction will be followed by an outline of the methodology. The two articles written as a result of the data generated by this research will follow the methodology. Finally, a conclusion and recommendations will be suggested to future researchers who wish to reproduce, perfect, and extend our research findings.

In the first article, the research will be the first to address, at the same time, a) associations between self-reported dyadic adjustment in a community sample of cohabitating dating couples and measures of personality, including self- and partner-reports of the full Five-Factor model and the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model, and b) the interdependent effects of partners' personality perceptions on their dyadic adjustment by using statistical analyses designed to measure the interdependence of the couple as a unit (Actor-Partner Interdependence Model, APIM). By adding to the individual's self-assessment of personality a measure of their partner's assessment of it, we can capture and compare partners' perceptions and account for them in the couples' dyadic analysis.

In the second article, the research will be the first to a) address associations between self-reported dyadic adjustment in a community sample of cohabitating dating couples and measures of both actual and perceived similarity using self- and partner-reports of the full Five-Factor model and the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model, and b) use the APIM, an appropriate statistical technique, to control for actor and partner effects of personality attributes before evaluating similarity effects.

This research will add to a scarce body of knowledge on the interdependence of partners' personality and the couples' adjustment. Furthermore, researchers have primarily focused on the study of married couples. There is a lack of data on personality and dyadic adjustment in cohabitating dating couples. This study will therefore use a sample of unmarried cohabitating heterosexual young adults. In an era where the proportion of couple separations (Brown, 2000) and the demand for couple therapy are increasing (Gurman & Fraenkel, 2004), a better understanding of the underlying variables of healthy and unhealthy relationships can be used in the development of preventive programs for new couples and in the enhancement of couple therapy programs for distressed couples. Studies have shown that interventions lead to changes in personality trait measures (De Fruyt, Van Leeuwen, Bagby, Rolland, & Rouillon, 2006). These changes happen faster than once thought, with most gains made within the first month of therapy. Changes in personality trait measures are enduring and have real consequences for clinical outcomes in both clinical and non-clinical samples (Roberts et al., 2017). Furthermore, maladaptive personality traits do significantly predict psychosocial functioning and life satisfaction and are therefore important prognostically (Wright et al., 2015). The use of personality traits and maladaptive personality traits is better suited for treatment planning than the categorical personality disorders because they are more distinct and homogeneous (Widiger & Presnall, 2013). Moreover, research shows that how one views their partner's personality can have important consequences for their own dyadic adjustment (Brock, Dindo, Simms, & Clark, 2016). Therefore, by including partner-reports, clinicians can understand how

partners perceive one another and identify dysfunctional and persistent dynamics within the relationship that may be causing problems.

1.3 Measures of Personality and Dyadic Adjustment

1.3.1 Personality traits

Personality theorists have long tried to define the basic common dimensions of personality in order to explain how people differ in terms of their emotional and interpersonal styles for example. The Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality traits is the most widely accepted measurement of the basic dimensions of personality (McCrae and Costa, 2013). The five factors have repeatedly been found in both self- and peer-ratings (McCrae & Costa, 1987), in the study of children and adults (Digman, 1997), and in several languages and cultures (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Altogether, the FFM has proven to be remarkably robust by providing a replicable phenomenon and a set of tools to be used in research.

Personality traits seem to be dimensional and apply to everyone to different degrees rather than being categorical in terms of being present versus absent. According to the FFM, normal personality is a multidimensional concept that can be described in terms of five basic dimensions, called Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E), Openness to Experience (O), Agreeableness (A), and Conscientiousness (C) (McCrae, 1991). Neuroticism describes the tendency to experience negative emotion and related processes in response to perceived threat and punishment. Agreeableness comprises traits relating to altruism, such as empathy and kindness. Conscientiousness describes traits related to self-discipline, organization, and the control of impulses. Extraversion reflects sociability, assertiveness, and positive emotionality. Finally, openness reflects imagination, creativity, intellectual curiosity, and appreciation of esthetic experiences (McCrae & Costa, 2010). The differences in these personality traits, particularly neuroticism/emotional stability and conscientiousness (Harris, Brett, Johnson, & Deary, 2016), have been shown to be relatively stable over the lifespan and much of

this stability is attributable to genetic factors. That is, genetic factors contribute to the preservation of individual differences over the life span. Individual differences in personality traits are stabilized in young adults and have important effects on relationships (Neyer & Asendorpf, 2001). Variations in the environment may result in short-term changes in personality phenotypes, but individuals can revert back to previous personality phenotypes (Caspi, Roberts, & Shiner, 2005). However, Roberts and Caspi (2001) argue that personality traits do change over lifetime and that we must take on a dynamic conceptualization of them and treat them as developmental constructs. Personality traits are related to identity formation in adulthood (Harris et al., 2016) and can change, typically for the better as one matures through adulthood (Milojev & Sibley, 2017; Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006). As such, there does appear to be developmental changes in young adult personality before the age of 30 (Durbin et al., 2016). Specifically, individuals younger than 30 years old score higher on N, E, and O, and lower on A and C than older adults (Costa & McCrae, 1994), and these findings are replicated cross-culturally therefore suggesting universal maturational changes (McCrae et al., 1999). Furthermore, the issue of gender differences across personality traits has received much attention, with studies finding that women rate higher on neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion and openness to feelings, whereas men rate higher in assertiveness and openness to ideas (Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Weisberg, Deyoung, & Hirsh, 2011).

1.3.2 Personality disorders

Personality disorders are distinguished from other disorders by the pervasive nature of their dysfunction and the chronicity of their associated impairments. In a typological approach to dysfunctional personality features, the American Psychiatric Association's classification is most widely used and it includes 10 personality categories grouped into three clusters; Cluster A (odd/eccentric: paranoid, schizoid, schizotypal), Cluster B (dramatic: antisocial, borderline, histrionic, narcissistic) and Cluster C (anxious:

avoidant, dependent, obsessive-compulsive) (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 5th Edition (DSM-5), American Psychiatric Association, 2013). Epidemiological studies have found prevalence rates in nonclinical populations between 9.0% and 15.7% for any personality disorder (Lenzenweger, 2008). Research has found that men are diagnosed more often with schizoid, antisocial, paranoid, schizotypal and narcissistic personality disorders and women are diagnosed more often with borderline, histrionic, dependent and avoidant personality disorders (Corbitt & Widiger, 1995). Personality pathology is often associated with chronic stress (Daley, Burge, & Hammen, 2000), partner violence (Edwards, Scott, Yarvis, Paizis, & Panizzon, 2003), and psychological distress including depression, anxiety and alcohol problems (Lund & Thomas, 2014). There are several limitations to the current categorical classification system. The classification of personality disorders based on a choice of criteria leads to excessive numbers of comorbid disorder diagnoses (Andersen & Bienvenu, 2011; Lenzenweger, Lane, Loranger, & Kessier, 2007). Furthermore, although the diagnostic criteria in the DSM-5 state that personality disorders are enduring and stable, several studies indicate that diagnoses and symptom counts are not (Grilo et al., 2004). To address some of the limitations of the current classification system, an alternative approach to describing personality pathology has been developed; the dimensional model of dysfunctional personality.

Personality dysfunction can be described in terms of basic personality traits (Trull, 1992). Most personality disorders have significant positive relationships with Neuroticism, and significant negative relationships with Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness (Samuel & Widiger, 2008). Personality traits are dimensional. That is, individuals who are diagnosed as having personality disorders are distinguishable from others only by the extent to which they manifest these traits (Widiger & Trull, 1992). Individuals vary according to where they lie along the continuum for each personality trait. At either end of this continuum are the highest or lowest expressions of the traits captured by the FFM (ex. introversion to extraversion).

However, while the FFM has been suggested to be bipolar, it was not created specifically to describe pathological personality dimensions (Nestadt et al., 2008). Inventories assessing normal and abnormal personality measure common traits but at varying points along the trait continuum. Many of the measures of the FFM are not designed to measure the negative poles of the five domains (Krueger & Eaton, 2010). The NEO Personality Inventory-Revised (NEO-PI-R; Costa & McCrae, 1992), for example, is limited in the assessment of the traits that describe dependent, obsessive-compulsive, schizotypal, and histrionic personality disorders (Miller, 2012). There is a need for a model that can measure the negative poles of the five domains, as it will provide an alternative perspective and more information about personality: Widiger and Simonsen (2005) originally identified 18 ways in which personality disorders from the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders- 4th edition (DSM-IV) could be organized dimensionally. The latest version of the dimensional model of dysfunctional personality is the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model found in Section III of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder- 5th edition (DSM-5) (Krueger et al., 2012), which includes twenty-five personality trait facets organized within five personality trait domains (i.e. negative affectivity, detachment, antagonism, disinhibition, and psychotism) (Krueger et al., 2011; Trull, 2012). The final model was operationalized by 220 items on the Personality Inventory for the DSM-5 (PID-5) (Krueger et al., 2012). Studies show that the alternative DSM-5 diagnostic approach captures the same constructs as those measured using the more traditional DSM-IV diagnostic system (Miller, Few, Lynam, & MacKillop, 2015; Morey, Benson, & Skodol, 2016). While the typological approach is still the current approach to personality disorders in Section II of the DSM-5, the dimensional model developed for the DSM-5 offers clinicians an alternative approach to personality disorders and addresses several limitations of the current approach. There are several revisions in Section III of the DSM-5 that address criticisms of previous versions of the DSM which provide more consistent results to the personality pathology literature (APA, 2013). This move toward a dimensional model of personality psychopathology identifies a

more inclusive and refined set of criteria.

The five personality trait domains of the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model have been shown to be an extension of the FFM, with negative affectivity lining up with neuroticism, detachment with introversion, psychotism with openness, antagonism of the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model with antagonism (low agreeableness) of the FFM, and disinhibition of the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model with disinhibition (low conscientiousness) of the FFM (Gore & Widiger, 2013). De Fruyt et al. (2013) conducted a joint EFA using the facets of the PID-5 and the 30 facets from the NEO-PI-3 (Costa & McCrae, 2010). This recovered a five-factor higher order structure and has been helpful in suggesting that the PID-5 has a higher-order factor structure that corresponds well with the domains of the FFM (Gore & Widiger, 2013). The association between the Section III model and the FFM is significant given that the FFM is generally conceived as a model of “normal” personality. The Section III model was, in part, designed in order to reflect the extreme range of these normal personality domains (Krueger et al., 2012) and, therefore, these empirical associations establish the important relationship between normal and pathological personality traits.

Most personality disorders are associated with one or several of the five factors (Samuel & Widiger, 2008). For example, Saulsman and Page (2004) found that all personality disorders have a positive relationship with neuroticism and a negative relationship with agreeableness, except dependent personality disorder which has a positive relationship with agreeableness. They also found that extraversion and conscientiousness play a discriminatory role across the personality disorder categories. That is, they both have large but directionally variable mean effect sizes across personality disorders. Finally, openness doesn't appear to play a role in personality disorder-FFM trait relationships. The DSM-5 Maladaptive Personality Trait Model conceptualizes disordered personality as lying at the extremes of normal personality variability, rather than categorically separate from it, which has the potential to explain much of the comorbidity seen in the current diagnostic system (Saulsman & Page,

2004). Studies have compared measures of personality traits to measures of personality pathology and have demonstrated its clinical applicability (Markon, Krueger, & Watson, 2005; Samuel, Simms, Clark, Livesley, & Widiger, 2010; Stepp et al., 2012). It allows clinicians to supplement their description of general personality using the FFM with a description of more maladaptive poles of the five-factors to provide clients with a more appealing way of communicating information about their dysfunctional personality profile and to help them improve treatment plans (Porter & Risler, 2014; Samuel & Widiger, 2006). The Maladaptive Personality Trait Model recognizes that individuals are more than just the disorder and that other aspects of the self can be adaptive despite the presence of maladaptive personality traits (Widiger & Presnall, 2013). By focusing on a more thorough multifaceted description of personality, clinicians can identify traits that could help with treatment adherence (Sanderson & Clarkin, 2002), it could help to de-stigmatize personality disorders (Hinshaw & Stier, 2008), and the traits could be used as a screener for maladaptive personality traits making them much more efficient than semi-structured interviews (Widiger, Livesley, & Clark, 2009). This shift in thinking captures a more nuanced definition of personality disorders as being the expression of maladaptive variants of personality traits that are evident within all persons (Widiger, Costa, Gore & Crego, 2013). Furthermore, clinicians currently often use Personality disorder not otherwise specified (PDNOS) as a description of personality disorder when symptoms don't meet the criteria of one of the 10 available personality disorder options because the existing diagnoses don't provide enough coverage (Verheul & Widiger, 2004). A dimensional model would allow for a more specific description of diagnostic constructs (Widiger & Lowe, 2007).

1.3.3 Personality and romantic relationships

Measures of self-rated personality predict a variety of life outcomes, even after controlling for other factors (Roberts, Kuncel, Shiner, Caspi, & Goldberg, 2007). These include individual outcomes such as subjective well-being, physical health and

longevity, social/institutional outcomes, and interpersonal outcomes such as romantic relationships (Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006). The quality of romantic relationships can have a profound impact on the quality of life of the partners. Maintaining a satisfying romantic relationship is a central feature of most adult lives, and personality traits emerge as predictors of positive and negative relationship outcomes (Watson, Hubbard, & Wiese, 2000). According to the vulnerability stress-adaptation model of marriage (Karney & Bradbury, 1995), individual characteristics, such as personality traits, contribute not only to the stressful experiences that couples face but also to how effectively the couples adapt to the experiences. By extension, it is also demonstrated that disordered personality, defined as the expression of maladaptive variants of personality traits, predicts interpersonal dysfunction (Stroud, Durbin, Saigal, & Knobloch-Fedders, 2010). Therefore, the study of personality and intimate relationships is important because it can help tailor clinical interventions for couples before enduring interpersonal dysfunction sets in and takes root in committed romantic relationships.

1.3.4 Personality traits and dyadic adjustment

A number of studies have examined the associations between personality traits and relationship satisfaction. Several have reported which self-reported personality traits are most highly correlated with self-reported relationship satisfaction. Neuroticism is so far the most extensively studied (Daspe, Sabourin, Peloquin, Lussier, & Wright, 2013) with several studies finding it to be the strongest personality correlate of relationship satisfaction (Bouchard et al., 1999; Karney & Bradbury, 1997). Emotional stability and other positive personality traits are also examined in conjunction with self-reported relationship quality (Malouff, Thorsteinsson, Schutte, Bhullar, & Rooke, 2010). Conscientiousness for example is associated with individuals working toward relationship success, being responsible and reliable, and upholding promises, all of which are much appreciated in relationships (Jackson, Wood, Bogg, Walton, & Harms,

2010). Individuals are more satisfied with their relationship when their partner rates high on traits of agreeableness, emotional stability (Botwin, Buss, & Shackelford, 1997), conscientiousness (Hill, Nickel, & Roberts, 2014) and extraversion (Malouff et al., 2010), and while the last trait, openness to experience, is the least-well understood and the least predictive of dyadic adjustment (Caspi et al., 2005; Claxton, O'Rourke, Smith, & DeLongis, 2012), one study shows that individuals are happier in their marriages if their spouses report openness traits (Botwin et al., 1997). Moreover, important gender differences in which traits predict satisfaction have been found, but results are inconsistent. While some found that women's neuroticism negatively predicts the satisfaction of both partners whereas the men's neuroticism does not (Geist & Gilbert, 1996), others found that the men's neuroticism is the better negative predictor of both partners' satisfaction (Karney, Bradbury, Finchman, & Sullivan, 1994). Furthermore, although previous research primarily focuses on married couples and older adults, some studies also interested in dating and engaged couples have found differences across couple types. Previous longitudinal studies have suggested that people become more confident, agreeable, conscientious, and emotionally stable with age (Roberts et al., 2006; Robins, Fraley, Roberts, & Trzesniewski, 2001) and that this change appears to be moderated by the transition to partnership (Neyer & Asendorpf, 2001). Conscientiousness and agreeableness in dating couples (Holland & Roisman, 2008) are found to be strong predictors of satisfaction (Watson et al., 2000), and emotional stability (low neuroticism) is an important predictor in married couples (Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Furler et al., 2014; Schaffhuser, Allemand, & Martin, 2014). Moreover, self-reported extraversion is shown to be more consistently associated with satisfaction in engaged (Holland & Roisman, 2008) and married couples (Watson et al., 2000). Watson et al. (2000) found gender differences across couple types, with extraversion as a predictor for women's satisfaction only in married couples and agreeableness as a predictor for women's satisfaction only in dating couples.

1.3.5 Personality disorders and dyadic adjustment

Personality pathology is often comorbid with Axis I disorders (Andersen & Bienvenu, 2011), so it can be particularly difficult to separate the effects associated with Axis I and Axis II disorders. Previous studies in clinical samples have found that comorbid PDs are associated with interpersonal dysfunction but only through their relation to mood disorder symptomatology (Alpert et al., 1997; Carpenter, Clarkin, Glick, & Wilner, 1995). However, researchers have more recently found personality pathology to be associated with social functioning. Cluster A symptoms show the strongest association with social functioning in all areas, even when depressed mood is controlled for (Chen et al., 2004; Oltmanns, Melley, & Turkheimer, 2002). Therefore, the study of personality pathology and its relationship to dyadic adjustment is relevant and important.

People with personality pathology features experience interpersonal difficulties because they have a difficult time viewing themselves accurately and therefore not perceiving the effect their behavior has on others (Chen et al., 2004; Oltmanns, Gleason, Klonsky, & Turkheimer, 2005). For example, individuals with borderline personality features attend to more negative reactions and cues in interactions (Lumsden, 1993) which is likely to affect their romantic relationships. In fact, research on healthy couples has shown that negative attributions about a partner's behavior are associated with increased conflict and lower relationship quality (Bhatia, Davila, Eubanks-Carter, & Burckell, 2013; Daley et al., 2000; Karney & Bradbury, 2000). In addition, research in community samples has demonstrated personality pathology features to have a negative association with dyadic adjustment (South et al., 2008), with paranoid personality features (Stroud et al., 2010) as well as borderline features (South, 2014) to have the strongest influence. Given the evidence that abnormal personality represents extreme variations in normal personality traits (Markon et al., 2005), these findings can also be explained using personality traits (Decuyper, Gistelinck, Vergauwe, Pancorbo, & De Fruyt, 2016). For example, studies have shown that

individuals with paranoid and borderline personality disorders exhibit high levels of neuroticism and low levels of agreeableness (Samuel & Widiger, 2008), extraversion, and conscientiousness (Trull, 1995), which are related to more negative couple interactions (Donnellan, Conger, & Bryant, 2004). Each of the DSM-IV PDs has unique relationships to the five domains of the FFM (Widiger, Trull, Clarkin, Sanderson, & Costa, 2002). Clinical scales assessing DSM-IV PDs have also been shown to tap pathological forms of the five dimensions, therefore demonstrating that all five dimensions are needed to understand DSM-IV personality pathology (Hopwood, Thomas, Markon, Wright, & Krueger, 2012; McCrae, 1991). This also applies to DSM-5 personality pathology given that diagnoses and criteria remained unchanged (American Psychiatric Association, 2013).

1.4 Partner Reports and Interdependence

1.4.1 Importance of partner-reports

The way we see other people and how other people see us is crucial for understanding the social world surrounding us. Especially in romantic relationships, how partners see each other is a fundamental source for an intimate, healthy and satisfying relationship (Murray, Holmes, & Griffin, 1996). However, while many studies on personality are now examining personality traits of both partners involved in romantic relationships, most only use self-assessment self-reported inventories (Bouchard et al., 1999; Robins et al., 2000) with very few using partner-reports (partners reporting how they perceive their mate's personality) (Kosek, 1996; Watson et al., 2000). On the one hand, it could be argued that correlating a participant's self-reported couple's satisfaction with their self-rated personality traits results in artificially inflated correlations due to confirmation bias. Self-reports could be inaccurate because of defensiveness and attempts, conscious or unconscious, to respond in a socially desirable manner. Moreover, partner-reports have been shown to be more internally consistent than self-reports and, more importantly, useful for predicting important outcomes (Balsis,

Cooper, & Oltmanns, 2015). Furthermore, how an individual perceives their partner has a strong impact on their satisfaction (Murray et al., 1996). In fact, studies show that correlations between a participant's dyadic adjustment and their rating of their partner's personality (partner-report) display stronger effects than self-reported personality on dyadic adjustment (Altmann et al., 2013; Brock et al., 2016; Schaffhuser, Allemand, Werner, & Martin, 2016). There are differences across couple types and gender. For example, an individual's rating of their partner's openness to experience is more important for a man's satisfaction in dating couples and for a woman's satisfaction in married couples (Orth, 2013). On the other hand, the lack of insight in people with dysfunctional personality features increases the likelihood of inaccurate assessment (Clifton, Turkheimer, & Oltmanns, 2004; South et al., 2011), weakening the construct and statistical validities of the research conclusions. Investigators have employed structured interviews (Riso, Klein, Anderson, Ouimette, & Lizardi, 1994) and questionnaires (Oltmanns et al., 2002) and found poor diagnostic agreement between judgments based on information from patients and informants. Therefore, informants provide useful information that is not redundant with the person's own description of their personality (Oltmanns et al., 2005; Oltmanns, Turkheimer, & Strauss, 1998). Finally, even though research has addressed issues of personality perceptions in romantic relationships with regard to accuracy and bias (Fletcher & Kerr, 2010), very few studies have linked different forms of personality perceptions, such as how we see our partner, how our partner sees us, to dyadic adjustment (Claxton et al., 2012; Holland & Roisman, 2008). For these reasons, adding partner-reports of personality assessments could have the potential to provide a) corroboration of self-reported personality assessments, b) an alternative view of the interpersonal aspects of dysfunctional personality features, c) crucial information about the role of personality in dyadic adjustment (Oltmanns et al., 1998; South et al., 2008), and d) the possibility of measuring the effect of the discrepancy between one's personality self-assessment and his/her partner's perception on the quality of their relationship (e.g. the higher the discrepancy the lower the satisfaction).

1.4.2 Interdependence

A unique characteristic of dyadic data is that the data from two couple members are not independent. That is, when studying interdependence, it is important to consider that an individual's personality not only predicts his or her own dyadic adjustment, called actor effect, but also his or her partner's dyadic adjustment, called partner effect (Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Robins, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2002). Another conceptual definition of dyadic nonindependence is that two scores from two members of a dyad are more similar to one another than are two scores from two members who are not members of the same dyad. Here, we define nonindependence that results from close interpersonal relationships such as friendships, married or dating couples, and roommates. The assumption is that two dyad members may have already been similar even before they were paired together. That is, couples are typically similar to one another on a wide range of variables, including education level, age, socioeconomic status, religion, and so on (Kenny, Kashy & Cook, 2006). When the assumption of independence is violated in the analysis of dyadic data, the test statistic and the degrees of freedom for the test statistic are inaccurate, and its statistical significance is biased (Kenny & Cook, 1999). Therefore, whenever there are nonindependent observations, it is necessary to treat the dyad rather than the individual as the unit of analysis (Kenny, 1995). However, rather than combining the scores of dyad members, a more informative approach is to retain the individual unit measures but treat them as being nested within the dyad which allows for the estimation of both individual and dyadic factors (Cook & Kenny, 2005). To account for the interdependence in statistical analyses, researchers have begun to frame their analyses in the Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM, figure 1 in Annex A¹ of the dissertation) (Kashy & Kenny, 2000; Kenny, 1996).

¹Click on the blue hyperlink to go straight to the Annex A

Although the effects of a person's personality on his or her own satisfaction have been well established, the literature examining partner effects for couples is less extensive and less consistent, and most of the studies rely on correlation analyses that fail to capture the interdependent nature of couple data (Decuyper et al., 2012; Watson et al., 2000). W. L. Cook and Snyder (2005), using the APIM, re-analyzed data from a longitudinal study on the effects of couple therapy using the APIM. They found that the difference between treatments explained the divorce rate in couples years after the termination of the study, which was not found in the original study, therefore highlighting the importance of considering the interdependent nature of couple data. Some studies using the APIM model have found that self-reported extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism have important partner-effects, and that all partner-reported Big Five traits also have strong partner effects (Furley et al., 2014; Orth, 2013). Furthermore, negative partner effects emerge for all self-reported personality pathology traits, particularly schizoid personality traits, suggesting that the more one partner rates on a personality pathology scale, the more dysfunctional his or her partner will experience the relationship to be (Daley et al., 2000; Knabb, Vogt, Gibbel, & Brickley, 2012; Stroud et al., 2010). How we rate our own personality and how we perceive our partner's personality have important effects on our partner's dyadic adjustment. Therefore, the APIM model is essential in dyadic research because it allows researchers to capture the truly interpersonal nature of personality relationships.

1.5 Personality Similarity and Dyadic Adjustment

1.5.1 Actual similarity and dyadic adjustment

There is now increasing interest to move beyond the relatively straightforward relationship between personality traits and couple adjustment to test whether couple-level characteristics, like personality traits, play a role in this relationship. Previous research shows evidence for assortative mating. That is, people initiate romantic relationships with individuals who are similar to themselves in things like age, religious

affiliation, level of education (Bekkers, van Aken, & Denissen, 2006), political attitudes (Leikas, Ilmarinen, Verkasalo, Vartiainen, & Lönnqvist, 2018), and personality (Montoya et al., 2008; Watson et al., 2004). Studies show that married couples are more similar in personality than would be expected from random pairings (Houts, Robins, & Huston, 1996). Personality traits are an important feature of what partners desire in each other. Research shows that individuals prefer partners who are similar to themselves in personality and who exhibit the characteristics they desire (Botwin et al., 1997). In fact, previous research has found that partners' personality traits are moderately correlated (Watson et al., 2004). Relationship researchers have long been interested in studying actual personality similarity, the degree to which one is actually similar to another individual, and trying to answer the question whether "like attracts like" or "opposites attract" (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). Actual similarity refers to the partners' self-rated personality and how similar these two ratings are. Some have examined correlational relationships between adjustment and personality traits of individual partners. A sizable positive correlation would be interpreted as evidence for similarity. Researchers have been interested in whether this couple similarity is predictive of relationship outcomes, like satisfaction and quality. They have long tried to identify factors that lead to relationship satisfaction and studies have taken either an individual or a dyadic approach. The proverb "like attracts like" clearly suggests the latter. Research that has taken a dyadic approach looks at couple features rather than looking at the partners independently. Couple similarity is a dyadic variable that is often used to predict relationship satisfaction (Luo & Klohnen, 2005). However, there is inconsistent empirical evidence and a lot of confusion. Some studies show that greater similarity between partners is associated with higher levels of satisfaction (Decuyper et al., 2012; Gaunt, 2006; Morry, 2005, 2007) and that married couples with similar traits tend to stay together longer (Rammstedt & Schupp, 2008). However, others show that the association is not detectable (Altmann et al., 2013; Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Furler, Gomez, & Grob, 2013; Leikas et al., 2018; Montoya et al., 2008; Watson et al., 2004). Researchers have used various statistical approaches, like the

absolute difference score and profile similarity correlations for example. These studies have found inconsistent results, some explaining that this is due to the length of the relationship and how well partners know each other at the time of participation (Luo & Klohnen, 2005). Previous research limitations include small sample sizes and selective samples of only married couples at various stages of their relationship (Glickson & Golan, 2001; Klohnen & Mendelsohn, 1998). These studies include longer married couples, they often don't distinguish between newer marriages and long-term marriages, and they often don't consider age as a moderator of the main effects of similarity. Previous research shows that similarity only affects relationship satisfaction in interaction with relationship duration. That is, certain traits improve satisfaction in the first years of their relationship, with that relation decreasing between ten and twenty-one years into the relationship, and increasing thereafter (Lampis, Cataudella, Busonera, & Carta, 2018). When couples are dating or are newlyweds, partner selection and the development of intimacy and attachment are particularly important (Murray et al., 1996). At this stage of the relationship, partners may be more likely to idealize each other and therefore report greater relationship satisfaction. Later in the relationship, when individuals' adult roles and responsibilities have changed, partners may experience more strain than at earlier relationship stages (Moen, Kim, & Hofmeister, 2001). These couples may disagree about finances and how to spend leisure time for example (Hatch & Bulcroft, 2004). Later in life, older couples report less conflict over instrumental problems and may even report spending too much time together. Therefore, personality similarity can have different roles various stages of the relationship. Given the lack of research on young cohabitating dating couples in committed relationships, there is a need to study the role that similarity plays at this earlier relationship stage. There is inconsistent empirical evidence and understanding the association between personality similarity and couple adjustment in younger couples may help to inform couple interventions. Furthermore, this understanding will serve as a springboard for subsequent studies on couples in other relationship stages

and for studies on the evolution of couple similarity and the role it plays in romantic relationships.

1.5.2 Advances in measurement and analysis techniques

Researchers have recently attempted to answer the question of whether personality similarity is associated with couple satisfaction using more elaborate procedures (Gattis, Berns, Simpson, & Christensen, 2004; Watson et al., 2004). They use various statistical approaches, like the absolute difference score and profile similarity correlations for example. The most common measure includes difference scores. Difference scores have intuitive appeal and are straightforward (Griffin, Murray, & Gonzalez, 1999). These scores are calculated at the trait level, taking the absolute value of the difference between the two partners' standardized personality scores. They indicate how (dis)similar two partners are with respect to a specific trait. Profile correlations, on the other hand, are more difficult to interpret. Personality similarity measured at the profile level represents both partners' overall personality profile similarity, that is how similar partners are on a set of personality traits. Some research shows that such profile-based similarity is more strongly associated with relationship satisfaction in married couples (Gaunt, 2006; Luo et al., 2008) while other research shows that the absolute difference score is a better predictor of relationship satisfaction in early dating couples (Luo, 2009). This may be due to partners finding it easier to find out more explicit levels of similarity in early relationship stages than less apparent configuration similarity (Luo, 2009). However, this approach has been criticized because the difference scores can be compounded with each partner's individual score. Frequently, interactions, like similarity, are statistically significant because the confounding actor and partner effects have not been removed (Kenny & Cook, 1999). Many studies fail to capture the interdependent nature of couple data and have treated dyadic data as if it were individual data. That is, they have conducted analyses separately for each partner or used simple correlational methods. In light of the dyadic

nature of couple data, it is necessary to use proper analytic techniques to test for the unique effect of personality similarity on couple satisfaction. When researchers use the difference score and partners' individual scores are included in the same analysis, actual personality similarity is shown to have little to no effect on satisfaction (Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Furler et al., 2013; Gattis et al., 2004; Tidwell et al., 2013). Also, only three known studies have used the APIM to study personality similarity (Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Furler et al., 2013, 2014). There is therefore a need for additional research on personality similarity using appropriate analytic techniques like the APIM, given the importance of controlling for actor and partner effects of personality traits before evaluating similarity effects. Furthermore, the absolute difference method will allow for the identification of precise associations between personality at the trait level and dyadic adjustment.

1.5.3 Perceived similarity and dyadic adjustment

Researchers have made the distinction between actual personality similarity and perceived personality similarity. Perceived personality similarity means the extent to which an individual's self-rated personality corresponds with their perception of their partner's personality. Individuals may perceive their partners to be similar to themselves because they think they are supposed to be similar to each other (Morry, 2005, 2007). Murray, Holmes, Bellavia, Griffin, and Dolderman (2002) argue that perceived similarity results from satisfied couple members assimilating their partner onto their own self-concept. That is, they perceive similarities that are not evident in reality but that predict greater feelings of being understood and feeling satisfied in their relationship. Very few researchers have studied the effect of perceived similarity on couple satisfaction (Altmann et al., 2013; Decuyper et al., 2012; Montoya et al., 2008; Tidwell et al., 2013). Nonetheless, all agree that couple satisfaction primarily depends on how each individual views their respective partner.

Perceived similarity has been shown to lead to positive feelings about a romantic relationship. Tidwell et al. (2013) demonstrated that perceived similarity in speed-dating partners predicted liking after the initial meeting. Luo and Snider (2009) found that newlywed partners' perceived similarity was significantly related to both partners' relationship satisfaction. Another study sampled different couple types at varying stages of a relationship and found that women's perceived similarity was positively related to their own relationship satisfaction but was unrelated to their partners' satisfaction, whereas men's perceived similarity was unrelated to either partners' satisfaction (Decuyper et al., 2012). While Montoya et al. (2008)'s meta-analysis revealed that perceived similarity shows a strong relationship with couple satisfaction in existing relationship studies, several of the included studies did not control for the main effects. The results may therefore be an overestimate of the true effects of perceived similarity on couple satisfaction. Therefore, while perceived similarity seems to be linked to relationship satisfaction, results are inconsistent. Researchers therefore need to reexamine the similarity-satisfaction effect using modern analytic tools. Only one known study has used the APIM to look at the association between perceived similarity and dyadic adjustment (Furler et al., 2014). However, the authors sampled older couples who had been together for over twenty years and the majority was married. There is therefore a need for research on the role of perceived similarity in younger couples. In order to further understand the similarity effect in newer relationships and in younger couples, the examination of both actual and perceived similarity is necessary. The current study is therefore unique in that it uses measures of both actual and perceived personality similarity in young cohabitating dating couples and the APIM to account for actor and partner effects and the interdependent nature of dyadic data.

1.6 Research Questions

In the first article of the present research, Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (Cook & Kenny, 2005) and structural equation model analyses will be used to verify if, as hypothesized, 1) all the positive factors of the full Five Factor Model (emotional stability, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) through actor-partner assessments of personality traits will have positive effects on both partners' self-reported dyadic adjustment. That is, higher self-reported and partner-reported ratings of emotional stability, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness will result in higher ratings of self-reported dyadic adjustment in both partners as evidenced by both actor effects and partner effects. The same analyses will be run with maladaptive personality traits to verify if, as hypothesized, 2) the presence of dysfunctional personality features as measured by the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model has a negative effect on both partners' self-reported dyadic adjustment. That is, higher self-reported and partner-reported ratings of negative affectivity, detachment, antagonism, disinhibition, and psychotism will result in lower ratings of self-reported dyadic adjustment in both partners as evidenced by both actor effects and partner effects. Furthermore, it is hypothesized that 3) an individual's rating of their partner's personality (partner-report) will have a stronger effect on their dyadic adjustment than their self-reported personality. As has been seen in Altmann et al. (2013), an individual's rating of their partner's agreeableness, extraversion, conscientiousness, emotional stability (low neuroticism), and openness to experience has a stronger influence on their own dyadic adjustment than their self-rated personality. Finally, there will be examination of the role of gender in the relationship between personality and dyadic adjustment. The effects of personality traits of actors and partners and their interaction with gender will be tested. Although there are no studies yet looking at the relationship between maladaptive variants of personality traits as measured by the DSM-5 Maladaptive Personality Trait Model and dyadic adjustment, and the results are inconsistent with respect to which traits are more

important to each gender when predicting dyadic adjustment, it is nonetheless predicted that gender will play a role in this study. There is evidence that shows important differences between men and women in personality traits and associated dyadic adjustment. The strength of the relation between personality traits and dyadic adjustment changes as a function of gender. It is therefore hypothesized that 5) gender will have a moderating effect on the link between personality and couple adjustment.

In the second article, Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (Cook & Kenny, 2005) and structural equation model analyses will be used to verify if, as hypothesized, 1) actual similarity is weakly, and perhaps nonsignificantly, related to dyadic adjustment. This prediction is congruent with reports of little or no association between actual similarity and couple satisfaction (Altmann et al., 2013; Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Furler et al., 2013; Montoya et al., 2008). Personality traits and personality trait domains will be studied separately. The same analyses will be run to verify if, as hypothesized, 2) perceived similarity will be weakly associated with dyadic adjustment. As mentioned previously, although some researchers have identified significant effects of perceived similarity on couple satisfaction (Altmann et al., 2013; Decuyper et al., 2012; Montoya et al., 2008; Tidwell et al., 2013), they often do not employ appropriate statistical analyses. One study that did use the APIM found that most of the estimates became non-significant after controlling for both partners' self- and partner-ratings of personality (Furler et al., 2014). It is therefore hypothesized that perceived similarity will have little effect on dyadic adjustment once actor and partner effects have been taken into account. Personality traits and maladaptive personality traits will be studied separately.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

2.1 Participants

184 couples were recruited over the course of two years. Of those, 113 heterosexual cohabitating dating couples were used for this research. All couples were in exclusive relationships. Large-scale models of the relationship between personality and relationship satisfaction have largely, although not exclusively, focused on a single couple type, that of married couples. There is a lack of data on cohabitating dating couples and given the difference in personality trait expression across age and the different relations personality traits have with dyadic adjustment across couple type. Furthermore, several participants were recruited in universities, a sample that consists largely of unmarried individuals. By focusing solely on these individuals, the sample remained homogeneous and results unbiased. Finally, this research is part of a bigger project that will follow participants longitudinally and also include married couples. This will allow for the direct comparison of dating and married couples with regard to personality trait expression, personality similarity, and relation to dyadic adjustment, as well as the examination of changes in personality trait expression across time, and which personality traits and whether personality similarity contribute to relationship termination, maintenance, or transition to marriage.

To participate in the study, both partners had to be capable of reading and writing in English because the tests were only available in that language. As such, participants had to be capable of interpreting the questions and of responding accurately. In order to make the study of personality in romantic partnerships pertinent, participants needed to be in a committed relationship. It was important for dating couples to also cohabit because research demonstrates an increase in commitment level from a dating, to cohabitating, to married relationship status (Nock, 1995; Stanley et al., 2004).

Furthermore, romantic development occurs over four phases, with the fourth phase being described as the ‘bonding phase’. During this phase, romantic relationships are characterized as long-term, exclusive, and committed (Brown, 1999). The transition to the bonding phase in young adulthood typically occurs at age 21 (Seiffge-Krenke, 2003). Furthermore, with a sharp increase in the number of individuals becoming couples around the age of 21 (Statistics Canada, 2011), with approximately 48% of couples mostly concentrated among young adults aged 20 to 29 (Statistics Canada, 2013b), this population was easily found. Moreover, studies demonstrate developmental changes in personality before the age of 30. To date, most researchers interested in personality and dyadic adjustment focus on older couples. Therefore, this study will examine personality and dyadic adjustment associations in individuals still going through maturational changes and will add to a scarce body of knowledge for this population. Thus, participants interested in the study will be aged between 21 and 30 years old. There are over 300,000 people enrolled in universities across Quebec (Statistics Canada, 2013a), with approximately 50% of those students being between the ages of 21 and 30 years old (Statistics Canada, 2007). Moreover, to guarantee that participants are involved in established relationships, couples will have had to be dating and cohabitating for at least six months.

2.2 Measures and Data Collection

2.2.1 General socio-demographic information

Please refer to the first article for information about the socio-demographic questionnaire.

2.2.2 Personality trait measure

The NEO Five-Factor Inventory-3 (NEO-FFI-3), developed to operationalize the FFM (Costa & McCrae, 1992), was used (refer to Appendix A of the dissertation). It is a 60-item questionnaire assessing the dimensions of the five-factor model of personality

(neuroticism, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness to experience). Each scale includes 12 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5= strongly agree), which assesses the extent to which the respondent considers each statement to be representative of himself or herself. The questionnaire allows for a quick assessment of general personality and takes 10-15 minutes to complete. Each participant completed two inventories; one inventory about their own personality characteristics (self-report (form S)) and a second inventory about their partner's personality (partner-report (form R)), the latter of which is differentiated by sex. The NEO-FFI-3 was adapted for online administration with copyright permission from Psychological Assessment Resources Inc.

The NEO-FFI has been validated and used extensively in cross-cultural studies of healthy adolescents and adults (McCrae et al., 2000). Retest reliability is shown to be high (Murray, Rawlings, Allen, & Trinder, 2003), ranging from 0.86 to 0.90 for the five scales (Robins et al., 2001), and internal consistency ranges from 0.68 to 0.86 (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The measure has been translated into several different languages and is one of the most widely used measures of the FFM (Pytlak Zillig, Hemenover, & Dlennsbier, 2002). The partner-report has also been shown to have acceptable levels of internal reliability. The five factors of the FFM emerge in the partner-report, and there is significant self-observer agreement for the five scales (Foltz, Morse, Calvo & Barber, 1997).

2.2.3 Maladaptive personality trait measure

The Personality Inventory for DSM-5 – Brief Form (PID-5-BF) - Adult, developed to measure 5 personality trait domains of maladaptive personality variation (negative affectivity, detachment, antagonism, disinhibition, psychotism) (Krueger, Derringer, Markon, & Watson, 2013) was used (refer to Appendix B of the dissertation). It is a 25-item questionnaire assessing the 5 personality trait domains of the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model. Each question is rated on a 4-point Likert scale (0= very false

or often false, 3= very true or often true), which assesses the extent to which the respondent considers each statement to be representative of himself or herself. Each personality trait domain provides an average domain score, with higher average scores indicating greater dysfunction in a specific personality trait domain. The questionnaire takes 5-10 minutes to complete and each participant completed two inventories; one inventory about their own personality characteristics (self-report, Adult version) and a second inventory about their partner's personality (partner-report). With permission from the authors of the informant report, a shorter partner-report was created by using the same structure as the original 220-item PID-5 informant report. Each item on the PID-5-BF was reformulated using the third person singular. The PID-5-BF was adapted for online administration with rights granted for researchers by the American Psychiatric Association.

The PID-5-BF has good construct validity and is shown to be a reliable measure of dysfunctional personality in community samples (Fossati, Somma, Borroni, Markon, & Krueger, 2015). It is also shown to reliably discriminate between psychiatric patients and a community sample, and to assess PD dimensions as well as a longer 100-item version of the PID-5-BF (Bach, Maples-Keller, Bo, & Simonsen, 2016). The original 220-item PID-5 has good convergent validity with other well-validated clinical instruments, like the Personality Assessment Inventory (PAI) (Hopwood, Wright, et al., 2013) and the PSY-5r scales of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory-2 Restructured Form (MMPI-2-RF) (Anderson et al., 2013). Furthermore, it is shown to be a reliable instrument able to capture personality pathology and the DSM-IV PDs in community samples (Fossati, Krueger, Markon, Borroni, & Maffei, 2013; Samuel, Hopwood, Krueger, Thomas, & Ruggero, 2013), and a valid measure to be used in psychiatric samples (Quilty, Ayearst, Chmielewski, Pollock, & Bagby, 2013). The original 220-item informant report is also shown to replicate the factor structure of the self-report form and to have good external validity with other measures (Markon, Quilty, Bagby, & Krueger, 2013). Conjoint factor analyses have also demonstrated that

the five higher-order domains of the PID-5 can be interpreted from the perspective of the FFM (De Fruyt et al., 2013; Thomas et al., 2013).

2.2.4 Couple adjustment measure

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS), a widely used instrument developed to assess the quality of adjustment in couples via a self-report format (Spanier, 1976), was used (refer to Appendix C of the dissertation). It is a 32-item questionnaire that provides scores on 4 subscales; consensus, satisfaction, cohesion, and affectional expression. Items are rated on various Likert-type scales, which assess the extent to which the respondent considers each statement to be representative of himself or herself. The subscales were combined into a single overall index of dyadic adjustment. The global score ranges from 0 to 151, with higher scores indicating more positive dyadic adjustment. Typically, cutoff scores between 95 and 105 are used to differentiate between distressed and nondistressed couples (Sabourin, Valois, & Lussier, 2005). This interval contains most of the cutoff scores used by couple researchers using the DAS. The questionnaire takes 10 minutes to complete. The DAS was adapted for cohabitating dating couples and for online administration with permission to copy from Multi-Health Systems Inc.

The DAS is shown to have good internal consistency and reliability across studies. A meta-analysis demonstrated the reliability of the global score to be high, averaging .915 for the studies considered (Graham, Liu, & Jeziorski, 2006). The DAS has been used for a wide variety of purposes and can be used to assess a wide range of romantic relationships (Spanier, 1976). It is perhaps the most widely used measure of relationship quality in the social and behavioral sciences literature. Spanier (1985) noted that the DAS had been used in more than 1,000 studies, within 10 years of its creation. Since that time, that number has continued to grow.

2.3 Procedure

Participants were recruited through publicity using posters, emails, and newsletters in Quebec's major universities, as well as in the community using online advertising (Kijiji) and social media (Facebook). The deans of faculties were contacted to ask for permission to diffuse the information to students. Each partner from interested couples emailed the researcher at an email address reserved solely for purpose of the study. They indicated their interest in participating in the study along with the name of their partner. Each participant received via email a brief outline of the procedure and a first web link to SurveyMonkey, a secure online survey tool. This online survey tool was used to upload the web-based questionnaires and to collect the data. SurveyMonkey allows the researcher to send email invitations to the participants and to track who has responded. The Email Invitation Collector is automatically tied to a specific email address therefore making it possible to tie a specific response back to the respondent who submitted it, and also making it possible to tie couple data together. Both partners in a couple received separate email invitations to the surveys. Once the participant logged in, they were instructed to complete the survey separately without consulting their partner. Previous studies have shown that there is low risk of bias when partners are not physically separated by researchers (Malouff et al., 2010).

Each partner filled out an eligibility survey by providing information about his or her sex, age, the length of the relationship, the length of cohabitating status, proficiency in English, a diagnosis of any psychiatric illness, current need for medication in relation to a psychiatric illness, and current drug use. Participants also provided information about their own history of parental divorce, how many previous romantic relationships they had been involved in, and how long they had been living in Canada. The respondent then consented to participate by choosing the 'agree' option in response to an informed consent form. They had the opportunity to email or call the researchers with any questions about the study before consenting. Those participants who did not consent and, therefore, chose the 'disagree' option were automatically exited from the

study. Consenting participants completed the NEO-FFI-3, the PID-5-BF, (one self-report personality questionnaire and one partner-report personality questionnaire for each) and the DAS via SurveyMonkey. They were allowed as much time as necessary to complete the materials (which required approximately 45 minutes). Participants could temporarily suspend participation after each report if they felt tired or distracted. Individuals who suspended their participation were contacted every seven days to remind them of the survey. Once the questionnaires were completed, the participant had the opportunity to indicate whether they completed the questionnaires together with their partner or separately. All partners responded that they completed the questionnaires separately. They received a thank you message for their participation in the study. After both partners completed the surveys, they received \$5 (\$10/couple) in exchange for their participation in the study.

This research is part of a bigger project that will not limit couple type to cohabitating dating couples. It will include participants who are married and who have been cohabitating for at least six months. Of the 184 recruited couples, 30 were married and 16 were engaged. Furthermore, couples were invited to a filmed dyadic problem-solving interaction. 121 couples agreed to complete this part of the study. The interpersonal dynamics were measured using macro behavioral coding and qualitative analysis of their filmed interaction. The analysis and behavioral coding of the filmed dyadic problem-solving interaction is not part of this research.

2.4 Data Analysis

In order for the study to have statistical power of .80 ($\beta = 0.20$) with a type I error fixed at 5% ($\alpha = 0.05$) to detect medium effect sizes ($f^2 = 0.20$) when running a linear multiple regression fixed model with R^2 deviation from zero for a model with up to 10 predictors, we needed to recruit 100 couples.

This study was correlational, and it used questionnaires. The raw scores for each dimension on the NEO-FFI-3 were converted to T scores, using norms developed with

a sample of American men and women. This allowed for direct comparison with other studies employing this questionnaire. Costa and McCrae (1992) suggest the following ranges to interpret scores on each dimension: Very low (t score= 34 or below), Low (t score= 35-44), moderate (t score= 45-55), High (t score= 56-65), and Very high (t score= 65 or above). The raw scores for each domain on the PID-5-BF and for dyadic adjustment on the DAS were also transformed to T scores using normative data from each questionnaire (for more information, please refer to article 1).

Actual and perceived similarity were operationalized using the absolute difference score between each partner's self-reported or partner-reported personality trait and personality trait domain score. The absolute difference score allows the researcher to study each individual trait similarity, rather than an overall measure of personality similarity, and the effects on dyadic adjustment. Actual similarity was calculated by subtracting one partner's self-reported personality trait or personality trait domain by the other partner's self-reported personality trait or personality trait domain. Perceived similarity was calculated by subtracting one partner's self-reported personality trait or personality trait domain by their partner's partner-reported personality trait or personality trait domain. Each partner had a perceived similarity score.

Interdependence tests revealed that dyadic adjustment between partners was significantly correlated therefore implying the necessity of dyadic analysis. The Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM; Kenny, Kashy & Cook, 2006) framework was therefore applied. The APIM was estimated using structural equation modeling (SEM). SEM allows for more than one equation to be estimated and tested simultaneously, and for the relationship between parameters in different equations to be specified. Moreover, SEM makes it possible to compare and statistically evaluate the size of parameters within the model and within a given role (ex. actor vs partner effect in women) (Kline, 2005). The dyad members were considered distinguishable by gender and the model consisted of mixed independent variables that varied both between and within dyads. The APIM treats the couple as the unit of analysis and accounts for the

interdependency between the two partners' scores. The data was organized as a dyad data file, with one record for each dyad. Several sets of models were conducted. First, actor and partner effects were estimated for individual self-rated personality traits. Next, actor and partner effects were estimated for individual partner-rated personality traits. Then an integrated model was run with both individual self- and partner-rated personality traits. For personality similarity analyses, a set of models were estimated using individual self-rated personality traits and actual similarity values. Another set of models were estimated using individual self- and partner-rated personality traits and perceived similarity values. Thus, a total of 50 models were run.

Prior to conducting the analyses, the data were examined for any potential outliers. One couple was eliminated from the sample. Analyses were conducted with the MPlus 8.0 program (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). An alpha level of .05 was used for all tests of statistical significance. The estimator was specified as MLR, a maximum likelihood estimation method with standard errors and a chi square test statistic that are robust to non-normality. Control variables were included in the models (participant age, relationship duration, cohabitation duration). All models were saturated. There was no missing data. Results were read from the StdYX output. This is one of the types of standardizations provided by MPlus in the output. The standardized option is used to request standardized parameter estimates and their standard errors and R-square. For models with constrained parameters to test for gender effects, comparative fit indices were used to evaluate model-fit across models. Values from the freely estimated model and the constrained model were used in a Satorra-Bentler Chi-Squared test. Significant results indicated a significant decrease in model fit, therefore indicating a significant gender difference with regard to the effect that an independent variable had on the outcome variable. Differences in path coefficients were tested in two ways: between genders within outcomes and within genders between outcomes.

Running head: PERSONALITY AND DYADIC ADJUSTMENT

CHAPTER III

ARTICLE 1

Reciprocal Personality Assessment of Both Partners in a Romantic Relationship

and its Correlates to Dyadic Adjustment

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Published in Social Sciences on September 27, 2019

Article

Reciprocal Personality Assessment of Both Partners in a Romantic Relationship and Its Correlates to Dyadic Adjustment

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Received: 14 August 2019 ; Accepted: 20 September 2019 ; Published: 27 September 2019

Abstract: This project examines the effects of self- and partner-rated personality and their reciprocal interaction between two partners. Personality in 113 young dating couples was measured with the Five-Factor Model and maladaptive personality trait model of the DSM-5. Partners completed self- and partner-reports of the NEO-FFI-3 and the Personality Inventory for DSM-5 (PID-5) as well as the self-report Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). Three sets of Actor-Partner Interdependence Models (APIMs) were run to estimate actor and partner effects of self-rated personality, partner-rated personality, and of both sets of effects simultaneously in an integrated model. When self- and partner-rating models were examined separately, several significant actor and partner effects were observed. However, the strongest effects were observed in the partner-rating models. When self- and partner-rated personality were examined at the same time, most effects from the self-rating models disappeared. Furthermore, most of the effects as well as the strongest one observed were associated with an individual's perception of their partner's personality, particularly men's perception of women's personality. This study demonstrates the incremental predictive utility of individuals' perception of their partner's personality for explaining their own dyadic adjustment.

Keywords: Five-Factor Model; maladaptive personality trait model; dyadic adjustment; APIM

1. Introduction

Measures of personality are predictive of several outcomes, including, among others, well-being, spirituality, identity, and community involvement. One's personality is manifested in behavior and attitudes in daily life and especially in interpersonal relationships (Ozer and Benet-Martinez 2006). Longitudinal studies show that measures of personality as early as in childhood can predict adult intimate relationships and even divorce (Roberts and Caspi 2001). Researchers have long tried to find out what qualities people want in a potential life partner. Some researchers study personality and how it is manifested in interpersonal relationships (Ozer and Benet-Martinez 2006). Others look at how personality affects one's perception of the behaviors and attitudes of others, which in turn affects the way one reacts to them (Karney and Bradbury 2000). One approach to answering the initial question is to study how, in romantic relationships, the effects of one's personality and perception of the other's personality are at play between two partners reciprocally (Orth 2013). This interdependent dynamic translates either in healthy or dysfunctional relations.

1.1. Personality Traits

Personality theorists have long tried to define the basic common dimensions of personality in order to explain how people differ in terms of their emotional and interpersonal styles. The Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality traits is the most widely used measure of the basic dimensions of personality (McCrae and Costa 2013). There are alternative models and some lexical studies have found support for six rather than five factors, like the HEXACO (Ashton and Lee 2001). However, the replicability of these six factors is not shown across all languages, including English. Furthermore, there is broad support for the FFM. It is therefore the model of choice for this study. While there are some who argue that the lexical approach and use of factor analysis in the early stages of the FFM should be looked at more critically (Block 1995), researchers agree that the five-factor structure nonetheless provides a simple way of describing how people can differ from one another. The five factors have repeatedly been found when using self- and peer-ratings (McCrae and Costa 1987), when studying adults and children (Digman 1997), and in several languages and cultures (McCrae and Costa 1997). Altogether, the FFM has proven to be remarkably robust by providing a replicable phenomenon and a set of tools to be used in research.

Personality traits seem to be dimensional. That is, everyone has varying degrees of each trait rather than simply having them or not, as would be the case in categorical terms. According to the FFM, personality is a multidimensional concept that can be described in terms of five basic dimensions, called Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E), Openness to Experience (O), Agreeableness (A), and Conscientiousness (C) (McCrae 1991). Although the five traits have been shown to load on pathological extensions of these traits (Guenole 2015), the FFM and measures of the FFM were not designed to capture the negative or extreme poles of the five domains, called negative affect, introversion, closedness, antagonism (or low agreeableness), disinhibition (or low conscientiousness), and psychotism (high openness) (Krueger and Eaton 2010; Nestadt et al. 2008). There is a need for a model that can measure the negative poles of the five domains as it will provide an alternative perspective and more information about personality.

1.2. Maladaptive Personality Traits

A few dimensional models were developed to measure maladaptive personality traits. For example, the Dark Triad is comprised of three maladaptive personalities; Machiavellianism, narcissism, and psychopathy. These personalities are shown to be distinctive constructs and can therefore be measured separately (Paulhus and Williams 2002). The Short Dark Triad (SD3) was therefore developed as a brief questionnaire to measure the Dark Triad (Jones and Paulhus 2014). Another example of a maladaptive personality dimensional model is Hogan and Hogan's (2001) derailment factors. The authors identified maladaptive personality characteristics that are associated with career derailment and developed the Hogan Development Survey (HDS, Hogan and Hogan 1997) to measure 11 factors that align with the DSM-IV personality disorders. Although these two examples of maladaptive personality dimensional models are known and used, more recent literature indicates that personality disorder symptomatology is best conceptualized using the maladaptive personality trait model found in Section III of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorder—5th edition (DSM-5; Krueger et al. 2012), where disordered personality is described in terms of maladaptive variants of personality traits (Gore and Widiger 2013). Furthermore, the five personality trait domains of the maladaptive personality trait model have been shown to be an extension of the FFM, the chosen model for this study, with negative affect lining up with neuroticism, detachment with introversion, antagonism with low agreeableness, disinhibition with low conscientiousness, and psychotism with openness (Gore and Widiger 2013). It is important to note that Gore and Widiger (2013) used a sample of undergraduate students and their results are therefore limited to sub-clinical populations. There are several advantages to the dimensional model. Practicing

psychologists report that a dimensional rating of personality is more useful than the DSM-IV personality disorders because it communicates information to clients, provides a global description of personality, and can even help with developing effective treatment interventions (Samuel and Widiger 2006). It allows clinicians to describe their patients with normal, adaptive terms rather than restricting the evaluation to maladaptive and dysfunctional ones. By focusing on a more thorough multifaceted description of personality, clinicians can identify traits that could help with treatment adherence (Sanderson and Clarkin 2002), it could help to de-stigmatize personality disorders (Hinshaw and Stier 2008), and the traits could be used as a screener for maladaptive personality traits making them much more efficient than semi-structured interviews (Widiger et al. 2009). This shift in thinking captures a more nuanced definition of personality disorders as being the expression of maladaptive variants of personality traits that are present in all individuals (Widiger et al. 2013).

1.3. Self-Rated Personality and Relationship Satisfaction

Measures of self-rated personality are related to a range of outcomes, including interpersonal outcomes like romantic relationships (Ozer and Benet-Martinez 2006). How individuals assess their romantic relationships can have an important effect on their quality of life. Several researchers have been interested in the associations between personality traits and relationship satisfaction. Neuroticism is so far the most extensively studied (Daspe et al. 2013) with several studies finding it to be the strongest personality predictor of relationship satisfaction (Bouchard et al. 1999; Karney and Bradbury 1997). Studies of positive personality traits reveal that individuals report higher satisfaction in their relationship when their partner rates high on traits of agreeableness, emotional stability (Botwin et al. 1997), conscientiousness, and extraversion (Malouff et al. 2010). While openness to experience is the least predictive of dyadic adjustment (Caspi et al. 2005; Claxton et al. 2012), one study shows that individuals are happier in their marriages if their spouses report openness traits (Botwin et al. 1997). Moreover, important gender differences in which traits predict satisfaction have been found, but results are inconsistent. While some found that women's neuroticism predicts the satisfaction of both partners (Geist and Gilbert 1996), others found that men's neuroticism better predicts both partners' satisfaction (Karney et al. 1994). Differences in measures and in methodological procedures explain these inconsistent results. While some researchers seek to answer research questions at the dyadic-level, their analyses are conducted at the individual level using simple correlations or multiple regressions. Furthermore, although previous research primarily focuses on married couples and older adults, some studies also interested in dating and engaged couples have found differences across couple types. For instance, self-rated agreeableness and conscientiousness in dating couples are found to better predict satisfaction than in married couples, whereas self-rated extraversion in married couples is shown to have a larger effect on satisfaction than in dating couples (Watson et al. 2000). Finally, only one known study has examined the effects of maladaptive personality traits on couple satisfaction. Results showed that self-rated negative affect and detachment were consistent negative predictors of relationship satisfaction or adjustment, whereas disinhibition and psychotism were less consistently associated, and antagonism was unrelated (Decuyper et al. 2018).

1.4. Importance of Partner-Reports

While many studies on personality are now examining personality traits of both partners involved in romantic relationships, most only use self-reported inventories (Bouchard et al. 1999; Robins et al. 2000) with very few using partner-reports (partners reporting how they perceive their mate's personality; Kosek 1996; Watson et al. 2000). While there can be overlap with regard to personality perceptions (self-report and partner-report) in couples who have known each other for long periods of time, partner-reports do provide valuable information that is often not captured in the use of self-reports alone. How an individual perceives their partner has a strong impact on their satisfaction (Murray et al. 1996). In fact, studies show

that correlations between a participant's dyadic adjustment and their rating of their partner's personality (partner-report) display stronger effects than self-reported personality on dyadic adjustment (Altmann et al. 2013; Brock et al. 2016; Schaffhuser et al. 2014; Schaffhuser et al. 2016). There are differences across couple types and gender. For example, an individual's rating of their partner's openness to experience is more important for a man's satisfaction in dating couples and for a woman's satisfaction in married couples (Orth 2013). In terms of maladaptive personality traits, one study shows that partner-rated negative affect, detachment, disinhibition, and psychotism were consistent negative predictors of relationship satisfaction or adjustment, whereas partner-rated antagonism was only associated with women's dyadic adjustment (Decuyper et al. 2018). Adding partner-reports of personality assessments can help to corroborate individuals' self-reported personality, provide another perspective with regard to the interpersonal effects that dysfunctional personality can have, and can provide crucial data about the effects of personality on dyadic adjustment (Oltmanns et al. 1998; South et al. 2008).

1.5. Interdependence

Dyadic data is unique because it comes from two partners from the same couple. That is, the partners are interdependent. When studying interdependence, it is important to consider that an individual's personality predicts their own dyadic adjustment (actor effects), and it also predicts their partner's dyadic adjustment (partner effects; Dyrenforth et al. 2010; Robins et al. 2000). In order to consider interdependent effects in statistical analyses, researchers are using the Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM, Kashy and Kenny 2000; Kenny 1996). Researchers have long been interested in the actor effects of personality on satisfaction. However, there is far less research and inconsistent results with regard to the partner effects of personality on couple satisfaction. Furthermore, most studies use correlation analyses which do not consider the interdependent nature of couple data (Decuyper et al. 2012; Watson et al. 2000). Some studies using the APIM model have found that self-reported extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism have important partner effects, and that all partner-reported Big Five traits also have strong partner effects (Furler et al. 2014; Orth 2013). One study examining the effects of maladaptive personality traits on couple satisfaction using both self- and partner-reports as well as the APIM found significant negative partner effects for partner-rated negative affect on both partners. Furthermore, the researchers found robust partner effects for detachment on both men and women's relationship satisfaction (Decuyper et al. 2018).

1.6. Integrating Personality and Dyadic Adjustment Assessments with Interdependence

When studying the role that personality plays in romantic relationships, it is important to consider both partners' perspectives. As previously discussed, the positive personality traits of the FFM tend to have positive effects on dyadic adjustment, whereas neuroticism tends to have a negative effect on dyadic adjustment. With regard to the negative personality traits of the maladaptive personality trait model, research shows that they have a negative effect on dyadic adjustment. While these trends are not surprising, it is important for researchers to consider the interdependent nature of couple data, that is, the effect that personality has on both partners' dyadic adjustment. When the assumption of independence is violated in the analysis of dyadic data, the test statistic and the degrees of freedom for the test statistic are inaccurate, and its statistical significance is biased. Therefore, researchers who study personality and couples use both self- and partner-reports of personality and appropriate statistical procedures like the APIM to capture the truly interpersonal nature of personality relationships.

1.7. This Study

The Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (Cook and Kenny 2005) and structural equation model analyses were used to verify if, as hypothesized, (1) positive factors of the Five-Factor Model (extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) through actor-partner assessments of

personality traits have positive effects on both partners' self-reported dyadic adjustment. The same analyses were run with maladaptive personality traits to verify if, as hypothesized, (2) the presence of dysfunctional personality features as measured by the maladaptive personality trait model has a negative effect on both partners' self-reported dyadic adjustment. Furthermore, it is hypothesized that (3) an individual's rating of their partner's personality (partner-report) has a stronger effect on their dyadic adjustment than their self-reported personality. While most studies examine self-rated and partner-rated personality in separate models, this study will also simultaneously examine both in an integrated APIM model to study the incremental predictive utility of partner-ratings. Finally, the role of gender in the association between personality and dyadic adjustment will be explored. Previous research has shown gender differences with regard to the effect that personality has on dyadic adjustment, but results have often been inconsistent due to methodological issues (Geist and Gilbert 1996; Karney et al. 1994). This is the first known study to examine the effects of both partners' personality on dyadic adjustment using appropriate statistical procedures and younger couples. Therefore, the examination of the role of gender in this study is exploratory in nature.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

Web-based questionnaires on SurveyMonkey were used to collect the data. Participants completed the questionnaires at home. Two hundred twenty-six participants (113 heterosexual couples) were recruited through Canadian universities and in the community using online advertising (Kijiji), social media (Facebook), and posters. This study chose to focus on heterosexual couples to ensure a homogeneous sample. Individuals were recruited (a) if both partners were willing to participate, (b) if both partners were between 21 and 30 years old, (c) if they had been in their current relationship since at least 6 months (only dating couples were used for this article), (d) if they had been living together for at least 6 months, and (e) if both partners were comfortable enough in English to answer a battery of questionnaires. The age of the participants was chosen based on the requirement that couples be in a committed relationship, which occurs in the fourth phase of romantic development, the bonding phase, and which typically occurs at age 21 (Seiffge-Krenke 2003). Furthermore, studies demonstrate developmental changes in personality before the age of 30 (Roberts et al. 2006). With previous research mainly focused on older couples, this study will examine personality and dyadic adjustment associations in individuals still going through maturational changes and will add to a scarce body of knowledge for this population. Moreover, personality traits have been shown to change over lifetime and they should be treated as developmental constructs (Roberts and Caspi 2001). As such, in order to map out these developmental changes, this study has chosen to initially focus on younger couples. Participants were informed about the purpose and procedure of the study. Confidentiality was explained to them. Once participants provided informed consent, they each received unique links to the questionnaires. Partners were told not to consult each other while completing the questionnaires. Once participants completed the study, they received \$5 (\$10/couple) in exchange for participation in the study. For sample characteristics, please refer to the results section.

2.2. Measures

2.2.1. General Socio-Demographic Information

The authors developed a socio-demographic questionnaire with 27 items. It verified that participants were eligible to participate, and also sampled information about their mother tongue and the language spoken between partners, previous relationships, whether participants came from a single- or double-parent household, their occupation, their ethnicity, their country of origin, whether they or their partner

was diagnosed with a psychiatric illness and whether they took any medication, and whether they or their partner use any substance. Each partner completed the socio-demographic questionnaire. The inclusion criteria and the participants' occupations were used in this study.

2.2.2. Personality (Self- and Partner-Reports)

The 60-item NEO-FFI-3 (McCrae and Costa 2010) was used to assess the Big Five personality traits. It assesses the five personality traits of the five-factor model of personality (neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness). Each scale includes 12 items which are rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). These items assess whether the participant considers the statement to be representative of themselves. Each participant completed two inventories; a first inventory about their own personality (self-report; form S) and a second inventory about their partner's personality (partner-report; form R). The computer software was used to transform the partners' scores on each trait into T scores. These T scores were based on the adult American norms in the NEO-FFI-3 manual (McCrae and Costa 2010).

The maladaptive personality traits were assessed with the 25-item Personality Inventory for DSM-5—Brief Form (PID-5-BF; Krueger et al. 2013). It was developed to measure the five maladaptive personality traits (negative affect, detachment, psychotism, antagonism, disinhibition). Each domain includes five items rated on a 4-point Likert scale (0 = *very false or often false*, 3 = *very true or often true*). The items assess whether the participant considers the statement to be representative of themselves. Each participant completed two inventories; a first inventory about their own personality (self-report, Adult version) and a second inventory about their partner's personality (partner-report, brief form). With permission from the authors of the PID-5, the partner-report was created by using the same structure as the original 220-item PID-5 informant report. Each item on the self-report PID-5-BF was reformulated using the third person singular. Reliability analysis was carried out on each trait domain each comprising five items. Reliability coefficients (α) indicated adequate internal consistency for each of the five domain scales (Negative Affect $\alpha = 0.75$; Detachment $\alpha = 0.61$; Antagonism $\alpha = 0.74$; Disinhibition $\alpha = 0.78$; Psychotism $\alpha = 0.78$). These results are similar to those found for the PID-5-BF in previous studies (Anderson et al. 2018; Bach et al. 2016; Fossati et al. 2017). The partners' scores on each trait were transformed to T scores using norms published by the authors of the PID-5 (Krueger et al. 2012; Markon et al. 2013).

2.2.3. Dyadic Adjustment (Self-Report)

The 32-item Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS; Spanier 1976) was used to assess dyadic adjustment. The DAS is a widely used instrument developed to assess the quality of adjustment in couples via a self-report format. It is comprised of four subscales; consensus, satisfaction, cohesion, and affectional expression. The DAS has different scales which assess how much each statement is representative of the respondent. For the purpose of this study, the subscales were combined into a single overall index of dyadic adjustment (Spanier 1976). Women and men's T scores could then be interpreted using the published guidelines (Spanier 1976) to determine whether they were well adjusted (T score >45) or whether there were concerns (T score <45).

2.3. Statistical Analyses

Partners' scores on each questionnaire were transformed to T scores. The NEO-FFI-3 (McCrae and Costa 2010) computer software automatically chose the T score as its standardized score. Therefore, the PID-5 (Krueger et al. 2013) and DAS (Spanier 1976) scores were also transformed to T scores for uniformity. In each case, T scores were calculated using American norms published by the authors of each questionnaire. While the DAS has Canadian norms (Baillargeon et al. 1986), the overall index of dyadic adjustment does not differ from that published by Spanier (1976). Furthermore, the other questionnaires

do not have Canadian norms. Therefore, in order to compare scores across all questionnaires, American norms were used.

Participants were considered distinguishable by their gender. The members of a distinguishable dyad can be differentiated on a within-dyad variable (e.g., gender) that has substantial meaning to distinguish members from one another (Kenny and Cook 1999). Several sets of Actor-Partner Interdependence Models (APIM, Kenny et al. 2006) were tested using structural equation modeling. APIMs consider the couple the unit of analysis. Therefore, a dyad-level dataset was used where the unit of analysis is the couple. Furthermore, APIMs consider the interdependent effects between the two partners, because they account for the actor and partner effects. Three sets of APIMs were analyzed in order to study the different personality effects on each partner's dyadic adjustment. All models represent saturated models.

The first set of APIMs involved self-rated personality. One personality trait was analyzed at a time in each model. Both partners' dyadic adjustment was predicted by each partner's self-rated personality (self-rating models). Therefore, ten models that estimated self-rated personality actor and partner effects were analyzed (one for each Big Five trait and maladaptive trait) (see Figure 1 for the self-rating model).

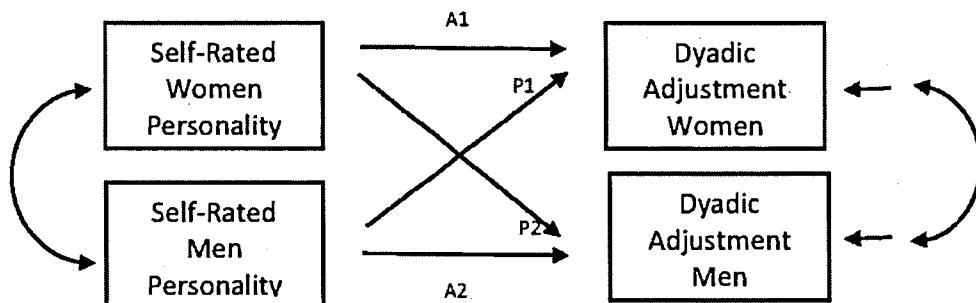


Figure 1. Self-rating model. Each partner's dyadic adjustment is predicted by each partner's self-rated personality.

The second set of APIMs involved partner-rated personality. The analyses were run the same as in the first set of analyses. Therefore, this second set of APIMs included ten models that estimated partner-rated personality actor and partner effects (one for each Big Five trait and maladaptive trait) (see Figure 2 for the partner-rating model).

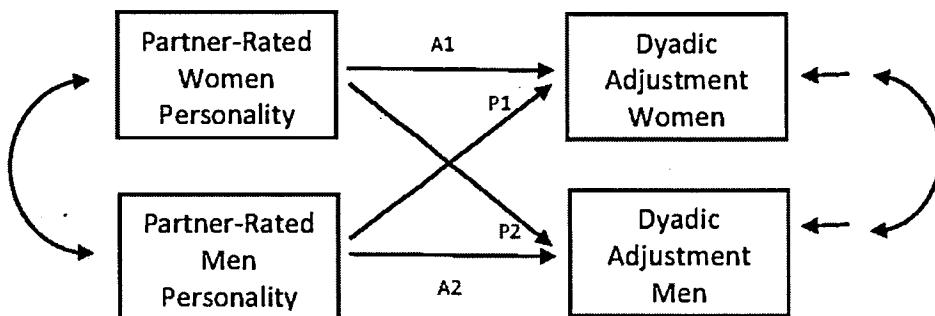


Figure 2. Partner-rating model. Each partner's dyadic adjustment is predicted by each partner's partner-rated personality. The label "Partner-Rated" represents the partner's rating of that individual's personality (e.g., partner-rated women represents the men's rating of the women's personality).

The third set of analyses consisted of both self- and partner-rated personality simultaneously analyzed in an integrated model. This allows for the assessment of the effects of partner-rated personality above and

beyond self-rated personality (and vice versa). Models were run separately for each Big Five trait and maladaptive trait. Therefore, this set of analyses included ten models that estimated self- and partner-rated personality actor and partner effects (one for each Big Five trait and maladaptive trait) (see Figure 3 for the integrated model).

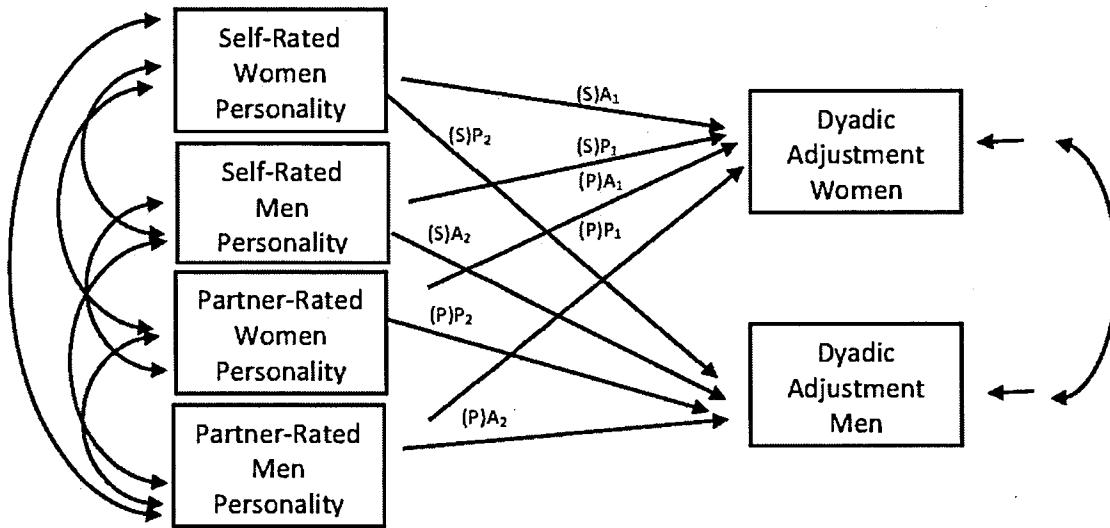


Figure 3. Model specification for the integrated models including self- and partner-rated personality.

Analyses were conducted using MPlus 8.0 (Muthén and Muthén 2017). An alpha level of 0.05 was used for all tests of statistical significance. The estimator was specified as MLR, a maximum likelihood estimation method with standard errors and a chi-square test statistic that are robust to non-normality.

3. Results

3.1. Sample Characteristics

The sample includes 113 couples. Female participants had a mean age of 24.2 ($SD = 2.3$, range = 21 to 30) and male participants had a mean age of 25.1 ($SD = 2.6$, range = 21 to 30). Length of relationship ranged from eight to 120 months ($M = 34.9$, $SD = 23.1$) and length of cohabitation ranged from six to 86 months ($M = 17.8$, $SD = 14.5$). Of the participants, 70.8% of the women and 50.4% of the men were students, 24.8% of the women and 46.9% of the men were employed, and 4.4% of the women and 2.7% of the men were unemployed.

3.2. Descriptive Analyses

For all measures, please refer to Table 1 for the means and standard deviations of the T scores, and Hedges' g effect sizes with their 95% CI centered on mean differences for the paired-sample t-tests for male and female partners. Women's dyadic adjustment ($M = 49.75$, $SD = 6.90$) was non-significantly higher than men's ($M = 48.83$, $SD = 7.09$). Using the interpretive guidelines (Spanier 1976), it appears that, on average, both women and men are well adjusted in their relationship. On closer inspection, 87 women report being well adjusted (T score >45) and 85 men report the same. Women and men differed significantly on some self-rated and partner-rated traits. Women scored significantly higher on self-rated conscientiousness ($t(112) = 2.21$, $p = .029$, 95% CI [0.31, 5.60]) and negative affect ($t(112) = 6.98$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [9.91, 17.76]), and on partner-rated (as they were rated by men) neuroticism ($t(112) = 2.59$, $p = .011$, 95% CI [1.08, 8.02]),

conscientiousness ($t(112) = 2.59, p = .011, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.93, 6.95]$), and negative affect ($t(112) = 4.16, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [3.31, 9.33]$). Men scored significantly higher on self-rated detachment ($t(112) = -2.10, p = .038, 95\% \text{ CI } [-4.33, -0.13]$) and disinhibition ($t(112) = -2.83, p = .006, 95\% \text{ CI } [-13.85, -2.43]$). Nonindependence for distinguishable dyads was computed using the partial Pearson product-moment correlation while controlling for the predictor variables. Partners' dyadic adjustment was significantly correlated, $r = .49, p < .001$. Therefore, women and men in this sample were significantly interdependent with regard to their dyadic adjustment. (For all other correlations, please refer to the Supplemental data. These correlations were not used for the interpretation of the results in this study.)

Table 1. Means and standard deviations for T scores, and Hedges' g effect sizes with their 95% CI for mean differences for the paired-sample t-tests for male and female partners.

Measure	Female		Male		<i>p</i>	95% CI	Hedges' g
	M (SD)		M (SD)				
Self-Report							
N	54.88 (11.11)		52.76 (10.04)		.109	(-0.48, 7.71)	.20
E	51.75 (12.02)		52.87 (11.25)		.431	(-3.91, 1.68)	.10
O	58.65 (10.93)		59.49 (9.97)		.476	(-3.14, 1.47)	.08
A	46.72 (10.11)		49.39 (11.06)		.056	(-5.42, 0.75)	.69
C	49.19 (10.23)		46.23 (11.74)		.029	(0.31, 5.60)	.27
Nega	60.60 (16.28)		46.76 (14.25)		.000	(9.91, 17.76)	.90
Det	49.03 (9.55)		51.26 (10.16)		.038	(-4.33, -0.13)	.23
Psy	62.93 (19.14)		62.12 (15.23)		.689	(-3.18, 4.79)	.05
Ant	51.40 (12.48)		50.94 (12.72)		.759	(-2.48, 3.39)	.04
Dis	41.16 (20.65)		49.30 (24.00)		.006	(-13.85, -2.43)	.36
Partner-Report							
Men's View of Women		Women's View of Men					
N	56.16 (11.79)		51.61 (12.89)		.011	(1.08, 8.02)	.37
E	51.08 (12.62)		52.55 (12.07)		.405	(-4.95, 2.01)	.12
O	59.28 (10.97)		60.83 (12.01)		.266	(-4.29, 1.20)	.13
A	50.43 (10.80)		51.75 (11.90)		.404	(-4.44, 1.80)	.12
C	52.35 (10.39)		48.41 (11.00)		.011	(0.93, 6.95)	.37
Nega	58.92 (11.45)		52.6 (11.15)		.000	(3.31, 9.33)	.56
Det	51.02 (9.92)		50.77 (9.50)		.835	(-2.12, 2.61)	.03
Psy	56.30 (13.96)		55.26 (12.83)		.531	(-2.24, 4.31)	.08
Ant	46.91 (8.26)		48.00 (9.61)		.302	(-3.17, 0.99)	.12
Dis	52.37 (11.72)		51.72 (11.83)		.667	(-2.35, 3.65)	.06
DAS	49.75 (6.90)		48.83 (7.09)		.177	(-0.42, 2.25)	.13

Note. The label "Partner-Report" represents the partner's rating of that individual's personality (e.g., partner-report for women represents the men's rating of the women's personality). N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychotism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition. Data in bold represent statistically significant values, $p < .05$.

3.3. Self-Rated Personality and Dyadic Adjustment

In the first set of analyses (see Figure 1), self-rated personality actor and partner effects on dyadic adjustment were estimated for each of the Big Five and maladaptive personality traits while controlling for each partner's age, and the length of the relationship and cohabitation. A summary of the results is in Table 2.

Positive actor effects were found for both women and men for agreeableness and conscientiousness. A positive actor effect was found for men for extraversion. These results support Hypothesis 1. Negative

actor effects were found for both women and men for neuroticism, detachment, and psychotism. Negative actor effects were found for women for negative affect and disinhibition. These results support Hypothesis 2. When women and men viewed themselves as high in agreeableness or conscientiousness, they reported greater dyadic adjustment. Men who viewed themselves as high in extraversion reported greater dyadic adjustment. However, when women and men viewed themselves as high in neuroticism, detachment, or psychotism, they reported lower dyadic adjustment. When women viewed themselves as high in negative affect or disinhibition, they reported lower dyadic adjustment. Effect sizes were small to medium ranging from $|\beta| = .18$ ($t(106) = 2.21, p = .027$) to $|\beta| = .34$ ($t(106) = -3.71, p < .001$) (see Table 2) (Cohen 1988). No actor effects were found for openness or antagonism.

Positive partner effects were found for women for conscientiousness and for men for agreeableness. These results support Hypothesis 1. Negative partner effects were found for both women and men for neuroticism and antagonism. Negative partner effects were found for men for negative affect, detachment, and psychotism. These results support Hypothesis 2. Therefore, women rated their dyadic adjustment as being higher when their partner viewed themselves as high in conscientiousness. Men rated their dyadic adjustment as being higher when their partner viewed themselves as high in agreeableness. However, women and men reported lower dyadic adjustment when their partner viewed themselves as high in neuroticism or antagonism. Men reported lower dyadic adjustment when their partner viewed themselves as high in negative affect, detachment, or psychotism. Effect sizes were small to medium ranging from $|\beta| = .18$ ($t(106) = -2.04, p = .042$) to $|\beta| = .44$ ($t(106) = 5.90, p < .001$) (see Table 2; Cohen 1988). No partner effects were found for extraversion, openness, or disinhibition.

Table 2. Results from self-rated models.

Scale	Self-Rated Model											
	Female DAS						Male DAS					
	A1	t	p	P1	t	p	A2	t	p	P2	t	p
N	-.302	-3.12	.002	-.245	-2.63	.009	-.193	-2.25	.025	-.222	-2.47	.014
E	.111	1.15	.252	.001	0.02	.988	.202	2.36	.018	.071	0.81	.418
O	.160	1.57	.116	.102	1.20	.229	.080	0.92	.360	.102	0.95	.341
A	.227	2.39	.017	.114	1.10	.270	.182	2.21	.027	.436	5.90	.000
C	.206	2.00	.045	.262	3.09	.002	.285	3.33	.001	.106	1.00	.320
Nega	-.243	-2.99	.003	-.158	-1.59	.111	-.155	-1.59	.111	-.253	-2.85	.004
Det	-.275	-2.96	.003	-.054	-0.52	.606	-.208	-2.32	.021	-.187	-2.07	.038
Psy	-.341	-3.71	.000	-.055	-0.56	.578	-.216	-2.51	.012	-.289	-2.79	.005
Ant	-.135	-1.50	.135	-.184	-2.04	.042	-.087	-0.81	.417	-.346	-3.91	.000
Dis	-.301	-3.12	.002	-.048	-0.52	.601	-.115	-1.49	.135	-.112	-1.01	.312

Note. Beta coefficients are standardized. Data in bold represent statistically significant values, $p < .05$. A1 = female actor effect; P1 = female partner effect; A2 = male actor effect; P2 = male partner effect; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychotism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition.

To test whether actor and partner effects differed among women and men, their corresponding actor and partner estimates were constrained to be invariant and the chi-square difference test was examined. Constraining the actor and partner estimates did not decrease model fit. Therefore, the actor and partner effects for both partners do not differ on the ten self-reported traits.

To test whose self-rated personality had the largest effect on each partner's dyadic adjustment, actor and partner estimates for each trait for one partner's dyadic adjustment were constrained to be invariant and the chi-square difference test was examined. Constraining men's actor and partner estimates for agreeableness to be invariant significantly decreased model fit ($\Delta\chi^2$ ($\Delta df = 5$) = 11.42, $p = .044$). Women's

self-rated agreeableness had a significantly larger effect on men's dyadic adjustment than men's self-rated agreeableness had on their own dyadic adjustment.

3.4. Partner-Rated Personality and Dyadic Adjustment

In the second set of analyses (see Figure 2), partner-rated personality actor and partner effects on dyadic adjustment were estimated for each of the Big Five traits and maladaptive personality traits while controlling for each partner's age, and the length of the couples' relationship and cohabitation. Please refer to Table 3 for a summary of the results. In these models, actor paths (A1 and A2) represent the association between the partner's view of the individual's personality ("how my partner sees me") and that individual's own dyadic adjustment. The partner paths (P1 and P2) represent the relationship between the individual's view of their partner ("how I see my partner") and their own dyadic adjustment.

Positive actor effects were found for both women and men for conscientiousness. Positive actor effects were found for women for openness, and for men for extraversion and agreeableness. These results support Hypothesis 1. Negative actor effects were found for both partners for neuroticism, negative affect, and antagonism. Negative actor effects were found for women for disinhibition, and for men for detachment and psychotism. These results support Hypothesis 2. Therefore, when women were viewed as high in openness or conscientiousness, they reported greater dyadic adjustment. Men who were viewed as high in extraversion, agreeableness, or conscientiousness reported greater dyadic adjustment. When women and men were viewed as high in neuroticism, negative affect, or antagonism, they reported lower dyadic adjustment. When women were viewed as high in disinhibition, they reported lower dyadic adjustment. When men were viewed as high in detachment or psychotism, they reported lower dyadic adjustment. Effect sizes were small to medium ranging from $|\beta| = .15$ ($t(106) = -2.10, p = .036$) to $|\beta| = .33$ ($t(106) = -4.07, p < .001$) (see Table 3; Cohen 1988).

Positive partner effects were found for both women and men for agreeableness and conscientiousness. Positive partner effects were found for men for extraversion and openness. These results support Hypothesis 1. Negative partner effects were found for both women and men for neuroticism, negative affect, detachment, psychotism, antagonism, and disinhibition. These results support Hypothesis 2. Therefore, when women and men viewed their partner as being high in agreeableness or conscientiousness, they reported greater dyadic adjustment. Men who rated their partner as being high in extraversion or openness reported greater dyadic adjustment. When women and men rated their partner as high in neuroticism, negative affect, detachment, psychotism, antagonism, or disinhibition, they reported lower dyadic adjustment. Effect sizes were small to large ranging from $|\beta| = .22$ ($t(106) = 2.45, p = .014$) to $|\beta| = .55$ ($t(106) = 9.41, p < .001$) (see Table 3; Cohen 1988).

Table 3. Results from partner-rated models.

Scale	Partner-Rated Model											
	Female DAS						Male DAS					
	A1	t	p	P1	t	p	A2	t	p	P2	t	p
N	-.325	-4.07	.000	-.353	-4.74	.000	-.158	-2.20	.028	-.471	-6.41	.000
E	.060	0.62	.534	.048	0.48	.631	.189	2.39	.017	.332	4.06	.000
O	.227	2.53	.011	.175	1.82	.070	.077	0.94	.346	.399	4.73	.000
A	.095	1.08	.280	.290	3.49	.000	.189	2.48	.013	.485	8.02	.000
C	.277	3.94	.000	.472	6.86	.000	.259	3.57	.000	.554	9.41	.000
Nega	-.324	-4.04	.000	-.328	-3.50	.000	-.211	-2.35	.019	-.438	-6.33	.000
Det	-.122	-1.38	.167	-.276	-3.52	.000	-.152	-2.10	.036	-.459	-6.21	.000
Psy	-.073	-0.66	.512	-.369	-3.86	.000	-.203	-2.52	.012	-.337	-3.91	.000
Ant	-.248	-2.21	.027	-.229	-2.15	.032	-.280	-3.24	.001	-.387	-5.07	.000
Dis	-.323	-4.18	.000	-.222	-2.45	.014	-.140	-1.62	.105	-.433	-6.26	.000

Note. Beta coefficients are standardized. Data in bold represent statistically significant values, $p < .05$. A1 = female actor effect; P1 = female partner effect; A2 = male actor effect; P2 = male partner effect; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychotism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition.

To test whether actor and partner effects differed among men and women, their corresponding actor and partner estimates were constrained to be invariant and the chi-square difference test was examined. Constraining the actor and partner estimates did not decrease model fit. Therefore, the actor and partner effects for both partners do not differ on the ten partner-reported traits.

To test whose partner-rated personality had the largest effect on each partner's dyadic adjustment, actor and partner estimates for each trait for one partner's dyadic adjustment were constrained to be invariant and the chi-square difference test was examined. Setting men's actor and partner estimates for agreeableness or conscientiousness to be invariant significantly decreased model fit ($\Delta\chi^2$ ($\Delta df = 5$) = 17.24, $p = .004$; $\Delta\chi^2$ ($\Delta df = 5$) = 19.06, $p = .002$). Therefore, men's dyadic adjustment appears to be influenced more by how agreeable or conscientious they think their partner is than by what women think of their agreeableness or conscientiousness.

3.5. Integrated Model with Both Self- and Partner-Rated Personality and Dyadic Adjustment

The third set of analyses (see Figure 3) consisted of actor and partner effects of self- and partner-rated personality on dyadic adjustment being estimated for each of the Big Five traits and maladaptive personality traits while controlling for each partner's age, and the length of the relationship and cohabitation. A summary of the results is in Table 4.

When all other effects were held constant, positive actor effects were found for both partners for partner-rated conscientiousness. A positive actor effect was found for women for partner-rated openness. These results support Hypothesis 1. Negative actor effects were found for both women and men for partner-rated antagonism and disinhibition. Negative actor effects were found for women for partner-rated negative affect and for self-rated detachment. These results support Hypothesis 2. When both self- and partner-rated personality were analyzed together, 90.9% of the significant actor effects that emerged were for relations between partner-ratings and dyadic adjustment. This supports Hypothesis 3. That is, when controlling for self-ratings, partners who were viewed as high in conscientiousness reported greater dyadic adjustment. Women who were viewed as high in openness reported greater dyadic adjustment. Furthermore, partners who were viewed as high in antagonism or disinhibition reported lower dyadic adjustment. Women who were viewed as high in negative affect reported lower dyadic adjustment. Finally, when controlling for partner-ratings, women who viewed themselves as high in detachment reported lower dyadic adjustment. Effect sizes were small to medium ranging from $| \beta | = .21$ ($t(104) = -2.28, p = .023$) to $| \beta | = .32$ ($t(104) = -3.65, p < .001$) (see Table 4; Cohen 1988). No actor effects were found for self-rated neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, conscientiousness, negative affect, psychotism, antagonism, or disinhibition when controlling for partner-ratings of these traits. No actor effects were found for partner-rated extraversion, agreeableness, detachment, or psychotism when controlling for self-ratings of these traits.

When all other effects were held constant, positive partner effects were found for both partners for partner-rated agreeableness and conscientiousness. Positive partner effects were found for men for self-rated agreeableness and for partner-rated extraversion and openness. These results support Hypothesis 1. Negative partner effects were found for both partners for partner-rated neuroticism, negative affect, detachment, psychotism, and disinhibition. A negative partner effect was found for men for partner-rated antagonism. These results support Hypothesis 2. Furthermore, a negative partner effect was found for men for self-rated extraversion. When both self- and partner-rated personality were analyzed together, 85.7% of the significant partner effects that emerged were for relations between partner-ratings and dyadic

adjustment. This supports Hypothesis 3. That is, when controlling for self-ratings, women and men who rated their partner as high in agreeableness or conscientiousness reported greater dyadic adjustment. Men who rated their partner as high in extraversion or openness reported greater dyadic adjustment. Women and men who rated their partner as high in neuroticism, negative affect, detachment, psychotism, or disinhibition reported lower dyadic adjustment. When controlling for partner-ratings, men reported greater dyadic adjustment when their partner viewed themselves as high in agreeableness. They reported lower dyadic adjustment when their partner viewed themselves as high in extraversion or antagonism. That is, while controlling for all other effects, when there was a greater difference between women's view of themselves and what men think of them on these traits, men's dyadic adjustment suffered. Effect sizes were small to large ranging from $|β| = .21$ ($t(104) = -2.18, p = .029$) to $|β| = .62$ ($t(104) = 8.61, p < .001$) (see Table 4; Cohen 1988). No partner effects were found for self-rated neuroticism, openness, negative affect, detachment, psychotism, antagonism, or disinhibition when controlling for partner-ratings of these traits.

Table 4. Results from integrated models.

Scale	Female DAS						Male DAS																	
	(S)A1	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(P)A1	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(S)P1	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(P)P1	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(S)A2	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(P)A2	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(S)P2	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(P)P2	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
N	-.180	-1.75	.079	-.207	-1.93	.053	-.120	-1.09	.275	-.260	-2.63	.009												
E	.152	1.16	.247	-.040	-0.30	.766	-.062	-0.48	.633	.082	0.59	.558												
O	.014	0.12	.903	.226	2.30	.021	-.029	-0.29	.774	.188	1.59	.112												
A	.199	1.72	.085	-.005	-0.05	.963	-.035	-0.26	.793	.274	2.38	.018												
C	.054	0.47	.636	.252	2.81	.005	-.005	-0.05	.957	.461	5.30	.000												
Nega	-.053	-0.57	.569	-.309	-3.38	.001	.065	0.65	.517	-.356	-3.36	.001												
Det	-.222	-2.45	.014	-.082	-0.79	.429	.066	0.55	.584	-.253	-2.94	.003												
Psy	-.198	-1.81	.071	-.018	-0.15	.879	.038	0.35	.730	-.288	-2.63	.008												
Ant	.049	0.44	.661	-.262	-2.03	.043	-.017	-0.17	.865	-.238	-1.95	.051												
Dis	-.113	-0.97	.334	-.300	-3.23	.001	.080	1.01	.315	-.210	-2.18	.029												

Note. Beta coefficients are standardized. Data in bold represent statistically significant values, $p < .05$. (S)A₁ = actor effect of women's self-rated personality; (P)A₁ = actor effect of men's rating of women's personality; (S)P₁ = partner effect of men's self-rated personality; (P)P₁ = partner effect of women's rating of men's personality; (S)A₂ = actor effect of men's self-rated personality; (P)A₂ = actor effect of women's rating of men's personality; (S)P₂ = partner effect of women's self-rated personality; (P)P₂ = partner effect of men's rating of women's personality; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychotism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition.

To see whether the constraining effects found in the individual self-rated and partner-rated models replicate in the integrated model, actor and partner estimates for men were constrained for self-rated agreeableness, and partner-rated agreeableness and conscientiousness. When controlling for all other

effects, constraining men's actor and partner estimates for self-rated agreeableness did not decrease model fit ($\Delta\chi^2 (\Delta df = 5) = .61, p = .987$). However, constraining men's actor and partner estimates for partner-rated agreeableness and conscientiousness did decrease model fit ($(\Delta\chi^2 (\Delta df = 5) = 12.80, p = .025; (\Delta\chi^2 (\Delta df = 5) = 22.55, p < .001$ respectively). Therefore, even after controlling for all other effects for men, men's perception of women's agreeableness and conscientiousness had a larger effect on their own dyadic adjustment than women's perception of men on these traits did.

4. Discussion

4.1. *Self- and Partner-Rated Personality Examined Separately*

Several personality traits significantly affected women and men's dyadic adjustment, which is in line with previous research. Neuroticism was most clearly associated with dyadic adjustment when examining both self- and partner-ratings as well as actor and partner effects. This is consistent with previous studies (Bouchard et al. 1999; Karney and Bradbury 1997). Neuroticism is defined as the tendency to experience and have trouble coping with negative emotions such as anxiety and anger (McCrae and Costa 2010). It has also been associated with mental health problems such as mood disorders (Malouff et al. 2005). Individuals who are higher on neuroticism tend to behave more negatively and have partners who behave more negatively during problem solving tasks (McNulty 2008). Therefore, individuals are less well adjusted when they view their partner as emotionally unstable. Conscientiousness was also significantly associated with dyadic adjustment for both partners in most cases. Conscientiousness is shown to increase as people age, particularly in young adulthood (Lucas and Donnellan 2009). This trait is also associated with performance of adult roles and successful adaptation to these demands. Therefore, those who exhibit these qualities and who have partners who exhibit these qualities tend to have more satisfying relationships (Watson et al. 2000). Furthermore, women's dyadic adjustment was often associated with negative affect, antagonism, and disinhibition, less frequently with agreeableness, detachment, and psychotism, and never with extraversion. Men's dyadic adjustment was consistently predicted by agreeableness, detachment, and psychotism, was often predicted by extraversion (unlike for women), negative affect and antagonism, and less frequently by disinhibition. Finally, similar to what has been previously found in the literature, both partner's dyadic adjustment was associated with men's rating of women's openness (Orth 2013). Individuals who rate high on this trait are described as being imaginative, creative, having flexible or unconventional values, and as having an interest in new activities or experiences. They may also use an intellectual approach to their perception of the world (Caspi et al. 2005). Given this project's sample being composed primarily of young professionals and university students, it is not surprising that openness to experience did show some effects on dyadic adjustment.

There were more significant predictors of men's dyadic adjustment than of women's. Overall, women and men's dyadic adjustment was more consistently predicted by negative traits than positive ones. It is not surprising to learn that self- and partner-reports of maladaptive personality traits were associated with lower dyadic adjustment. Research shows that individuals who rate higher on maladaptive personality traits are rigid, inflexible, and have difficulty adapting to social challenges which may in turn aggravate relationship issues (Johnson et al. 2004). It may be that individuals who rate higher on maladaptive personality traits seek out partners who also rate higher on these traits (Sleep et al. 2017), thereby contributing to the individual's maladjustment. Furthermore, this study's sample of participants was a community sample. Therefore, the significant negative effects underline the importance of considering subclinical personality disorder symptoms when studying couple adjustment.

With regard to positive traits, men's dyadic adjustment was more frequently associated with positive traits than women's dyadic adjustment was. Women are perceived more positively than men are because

of gender stereotypes (Prentice and Carranza 2002). It may be that men show a favorable reaction to women's positive traits because both partners expect and play out these gender stereotypes.

Furthermore, as predicted, most of the significant effects came from the partner-rated models. That is, of the 53 significant effects, 32 (60%) were from partner-rated models. Additionally, similar to previous findings (Altmann et al. 2013; Brock et al. 2016; Schaffhuser et al. 2016), effect sizes were largest for partner effects of partner-ratings. While the way individuals viewed their partner's personality played the most important role, how men viewed their partner's personality was consistently related to their own dyadic adjustment. The effects that an individual's rating of their partner's personality and that partner's rating of their own personality had on the individual's dyadic adjustment were quite different. Even though both variables measure the same thing, the effects on dyadic adjustment were markedly different. Therefore, the effects seen in the partner-rating models do not reflect actual characteristics of the partner's personality. The validity of the individual's personality judgment may have varied based on the quality of the information available to them (Funder 1995). The partners may have used their current level of dyadic adjustment as a basis for judging their partner's personality. Those who reported higher dyadic adjustment assessed their partners more favorably, and those who reported lower dyadic adjustment assessed their partners less favorably. Research shows that constructed representations, how individuals see their partners through filters driven by their ideals, predicts idealized impressions (Murray et al. 1996). For both women and men, their view of their partner's conscientiousness showed the overall strongest effect on their dyadic adjustment. Therefore, women and men who want a partner who is responsible and who view their partners as responsible tend to see an increase in their dyadic adjustment, at least among dating couples. Altogether, these results reflect the subjective perceptions of the partners rather than their objective traits.

The examination of gender revealed that it does play a role in the relationship between personality and dyadic adjustment in young couples. When examining constraints, some significant differences emerged. That is, men's dyadic adjustment was more significantly predicted by women's self-rated agreeableness than men's. It was also more significantly predicted by men's perception of women's agreeableness or conscientiousness than women's perception of men on these traits. Agreeableness involves interpersonal characteristics that foster friendly relationships with others, including cooperation, consideration, empathy, generosity, politeness, and kindness (McCrae and Costa 2010). Agreeableness and conscientiousness are also related in terms of their associations with responsibility, that is, being reliable and dependable (Roberts et al. 2004). They also both involve aspects of inhibition (Caspi et al. 2005). These qualities were important predictors for men's dyadic adjustment. Furthermore, gender stereotypes may explain this effect (Prentice and Carranza 2002). Young dating couples may expect women partners to be agreeable and conscientious and therefore women play out these roles while men judge them based on how well they play out these roles, which in turn influences how satisfied they are with the relationship. Men's dyadic adjustment may be projected onto their perception of their partner's personality. Furthermore, individuals, or women in this case, who rate high in agreeableness want to have positive relationships with others. Conscientiousness and agreeableness are also related to emotional control in that agreeable people try to control their expression of anger (Jensen-Campbell and Graziano 2001), for example, which may otherwise threaten the relationship. Women tend to report that they attempt to regulate negative emotions more than men do (Tobin et al. 2000) which may explain the positive effects on men's dyadic adjustment seen in this project.

4.2. Self- and Partner-Rated Personality Analyzed Together: Integrated Model

When self- and partner-rated personality were analyzed together in an integrated model, several significant effects disappeared. Most of the significant effects of women's and men's self-rated personality on women's dyadic adjustment were no longer significant. A somewhat similar pattern was observed in men. Most of the significant effects in the self-rating model for men were no longer significant. One new

significant negative partner effect emerged. Interestingly, this was found for extraversion. It appears as though men prefer partners who rate themselves similarly to how men rate them on extraversion. That is, men may not be well adjusted when their partners rate themselves as higher on extraversion, and the opposite might be true as well. Men may not be well adjusted when their partners rate themselves as lower on extraversion and as therefore lacking outgoing and social characteristics. Furthermore, some of the significant actor effects and all of the significant partner effects of partner-reported personality on men's dyadic adjustment remained in the integrated model. While each partner's view of the other's personality played the most important role, men's view of women's personality was consistently related to their own dyadic adjustment. Finally, similar to results in the separate models, effect sizes were largest for partner effects of partner-ratings, particularly for men's partner effects of partner-ratings (i.e., the effect of men's view of women's personality on men's dyadic adjustment), with men's rating of women's conscientiousness having the largest effect. Individuals high on conscientiousness are typically more goal-oriented, better at following norms and rules, and are better at controlling their impulses (Roberts et al. 2009). This study's sample was comprised largely of young professionals and students who often require these characteristics to be successful, and it can be assumed that an individual in their twenties wants a partner who has these qualities. Furthermore, with regard to negative traits, disinhibition, related to the extreme negative expression of conscientiousness, was most consistently associated with dyadic adjustment. That is, individuals who were perceived as and who perceived their partner as tending to prefer immediate gratification, a lack of consideration for past mistakes, and impulsive behavior (Decuyper et al. 2018), also reported dissatisfaction.

When reproducing constraints from the separate models, some significant differences remain in the integrated model. Even after all other effects were held constant, men's perception of women's agreeableness and conscientiousness had a larger effect on men's dyadic adjustment than women's perception of men on these traits did. Although men did rate women's agreeableness and conscientiousness to be higher than theirs, women's partner-rated agreeableness and conscientiousness were still within the average of what is expected in adults. Nonetheless, the men in this sample greatly appreciated having a partner who exhibited characteristics of these traits.

Overall, the results demonstrate significant evidence for the incremental predictive effects of partner-rated personality on dyadic adjustment, especially for partner effects (i.e., the effect of an individual's perception of their partner's personality on their own dyadic adjustment). That is, of the 32 significant effects in the integrated model, 28 (87.5%) were of partner-ratings, 18 (56.25% total, 64.29% of partner-ratings) of which were partner effects. In other words, with regard to personality, the most important factor for dyadic adjustment is how individuals perceive their partner. The results from this study can have important implications for couple therapists and the development of intervention strategies. Marital therapists are increasingly addressing personality characteristics with the belief that these characteristics are associated with distress and affect the outcomes of couple therapy (Gattis et al. 2004). Previous research mainly focuses on couples who have been together for several years and who are married. The current research focused on young dating couples and is therefore informative of the earlier stages of relationships. Therapists benefit from understanding how partners view each other and from knowing what personality traits predict successful relationships. If they understand how personality predicts dyadic adjustment at the beginning of relationships, it may be easier for them to intervene and help couples minimize or avoid rigid and dysfunctional patterns rather than try to work on them later. Couple therapy research demonstrates that couples continue to influence each other over the course of treatment (Cook and Snyder 2005). With couples gaining insight into how their personality patterns predict relationship dysfunction, they can become more sensitive to one another and respond more appropriately, thereby reducing conflict. Furthermore, personality trait ratings change more quickly in therapy than once thought, with these changes shown to maintain over time (Roberts et al. 2017). These results help clinicians tailor their treatments to address specific traits with high fidelity. Furthermore, addressing individuals' interpretations

of their partners' personality characteristics, rather than simply assessing actual characteristics, can have significant implications for the ways in which couple therapists intervene.

4.3. Limitations

Some limitations should be taken into account when interpreting the findings. First, the study is cross-sectional which therefore makes it not possible to discuss conclusions about causality. Future longitudinal studies will be able to address this issue and will further our understanding of the temporal direction between personality traits and dyadic adjustment. Most couples in this study have agreed to be contacted at a later date in order for there to be follow-up with regard to their couple status, personality traits, and dyadic adjustment if they are still in a relationship. A second limitation of the present study has to do with the generalizability of results. Only heterosexual couples were recruited for this study. Personality traits may play a different role in their relationship with dyadic adjustment in same-sex couples. Research shows that homosexual and heterosexual individuals differ significantly on several Big Five traits, the strongest of which is for openness to experience (Lippa 2005). It may be that our overall results would change if same-sex couples were included in the sample because there may be differences in these couples. Therefore, the current results may not align with those from same-sex couples. There are some studies that demonstrate the indirect effects of personality on relationship quality (e.g., Clausell and Roisman 2009). However, there are no known studies on the direct effect of personality traits on couple satisfaction in same-sex couples. Furthermore, the sample in this study remains relatively small. The participating couples are also quite satisfied overall, reducing the likelihood of finding small effects. Additional research using larger representative population samples will allow for more generalizable results. Moreover, research on relationships may create selection effects. The sample in this project consisted of volunteers. Research volunteers are shown to be significantly higher in conscientiousness than nonvolunteers (Lonnqvist et al. 2007), which may be explained by their sense of duty (McCrae and Costa 2010). Therefore, the incidence of conscientiousness may have played a role in couples' desire to spend time and effort to act as research participants and in their dyadic adjustment. Furthermore, participants who decide to participate in these types of studies may be more motivated to learn about and understand their relationship than the general population. Couples who are very well or very poorly adjusted may be more willing to seek out and participate. Research shows that respondents are higher in extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, and lower in neuroticism. This indicates that research volunteers are more psychologically adjusted than individuals who choose not to participate. Furthermore, the sample in this project consisted largely of young professionals and university students. These occupations demand qualities of self-control and achievement motivation. Those who are at the beginning of their career may strive for high standards and be persistent and determined in their pursuit of their goals. In their relationships, they may be better able to generate strategies for handling social conflicts and other emotionally arousing experiences. However, offering a monetary incentive may render the study more attractive and more difficult to refuse. Nevertheless, the monetary incentive in this study was judged appropriate (e.g., covers cost of travel and parking in downtown Montreal) by the ethics committee. Finally, future research that includes self-reports of behavior as well as the assessment of actual behaviors are needed to corroborate the results.

4.4. Conclusions

Despite these limitations, this study contributes to the existing literature on the association between personality traits and dyadic adjustment in several ways. The sampling of only dating couples in a limited age-range represents a strength of this study. Previous studies mostly use dating and/or married couples across a large age-range making it difficult to map the progression of personality and the effects it can have on dyadic adjustment across time and couple type. This study is part of a bigger project that will follow

participants in time and that will also include married couples. This will allow for the direct comparison of dating and married couples with regard to personality trait expression and relation to dyadic adjustment. It will also allow for the examination of changes in personality trait expression across time, and which personality traits contribute to relationship termination, maintenance, or transition to marriage. The study also used both self- and partner-ratings of personality to get a more complete picture of the relationship between personality and dyadic adjustment. Furthermore, the use of APIM models allowed for the consideration of the dyadic nature of the data, and the study also included an integrated APIM to examine the incremental predictive utility of partner-reports. Moreover, personality was assessed using two dimensional models that span the normal-abnormal spectrum and the study is among the first to address associations between maladaptive personality traits using the maladaptive personality trait model and dyadic adjustment.

Supplementary Materials: The following are available online at www.mdpi.com/xxx/s1, Table S1: Correlation matrix for women and men's self-rated personality, Table S2: Correlation matrix for women's self-rated personality and men's partner-rated personality, Table S3: Correlation matrix for women's partner-rated personality and men's self-rated personality, Table S4: Correlation matrix for women and men's partner-rated personality.

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Funding: This research was funded by the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC), grant number 430-2016-00950.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Supplemental data

Table S1

Correlation matrix for women and men's self-rated personality

M W \	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. N	.14	-.15	-.17	.09	-.12	-.06	.10	-.03	-.08	.17
2. E	-.15	.17	.04	.03	.05	-.02	-.09	.01	.03	-.07
3. O	-.00	.05	.30**	.05	.02	-.06	-.07	.14	.10	.05
4. A	-.03	.10	.18	.03	-.02	-.02	-.14	-.10	.04	-.05
5. C	-.13	.17	-.02	-.02	.17	-.09	-.20*	.01	-.04	-.11
6. Nega	-.00	-.08	-.13	.01	-.09	.05	.14	.08	-.02	.16
7. Det	.03	-.18	-.14	-.19*	-.04	.11	.35***	.20*	.06	.17
8. Psy	.14	-.23*	-.00	-.01	-.16	.21*	.20*	.19*	.09	.24*
9. Ant	-.13	-.18	-.17	.00	-.06	.05	.24*	.22*	.03	.21*
10. Dis	.06	-.14	-.13	-.07	-.03	.17	.26*	.07	.07	.05

Note. W = women; M = men; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychotism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition. Data in bold represent significant values.
 $p < .05$ *; $p < .01$ **; $p < .001$ ***

Table S2

Correlation matrix for women's self-rated personality and men's partner-rated personality

M W \	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. N	.12	-.07	-.19*	-.14	-.22*	.12	.08	.12	.20	.13
2. E	-.02	.03	.12	.03	.09	.08	.03	-.05	.01	.08
3. O.	-.10	.00	.29**	-.03	.13	.10	-.11	.22*	.14	.11
4. A	-.25**	.13	.26**	.15	.18	-.15	-.25**	-.36***	-.13	-.29**
5. C	-.28**	.13	-.09	.22*	.18	-.13	-.14	-.20*	-.28**	-.28**
6. Nega	.02	-.05	-.18	-.02	-.18	.16	.16	.18	.24*	.18
7. Det	.20*	-.09	.19	-.22*	-.20*	.18	.25**	.43***	.20*	.21*
8. Psy	.33***	-.23*	-.03	-.26**	-.17	.38***	.35***	.51***	.54***	.55***
9. Ant	.18	-.16	-.14	-.15	-.06	.24*	.36***	.44***	.29**	.44***
10. Dis	.30**	-.21*	-.10	-.20*	-.06	.24*	.26**	.27**	.37***	.39***

Note. W = women; M = men; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychoticism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition. Data in bold represent significant values.
 $p < .05$ *; $p < .01$ **; $p < .001$ ***

Table S3

Correlation matrix for women's partner-rated personality and men's self-rated personality

M W \	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. N	.11	.02	.01	-.04	-.26**	.00	.08	.17	.04	.25**
2. E	-.11	.06	.05	.07	.05	-.02	-.04	-.04	.04	-.03
3. O	-.08	.13	.31**	.08	.08	-.09	-.15	.14	.05	-.05
4. A	-.12	.04	.02	.12	.16	-.16	-.13	-.18	-.16	-.27**
5. C	-.14	.23*	.09	.17	.09	-.12	-.22*	-.13	.08	-.21*
6. Nega	.11	-.10	-.05	-.12	-.15	.14	-.21*	.22*	.08	.31**
7. Det	.13	-.23*	-.30**	-.18	-.11	.19*	.43***	.26**	.17	.31**
8. Psy	-.02	-.20*	-.05	-.12	-.14	.12	.39***	.23*	.17	.37***
9. Ant	.13	-.04	-.13	-.08	-.12	.32**	.28**	.38***	.106	.28**
10. Dis	.16	-.05	-.13	-.11	-.27**	.35***	.35***	.25**	.25**	.26**

Note. W = women; M = men; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychotism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition. Data in bold represent significant values.
 $p < .05$ *; $p < .01$ **; $p < .001$ ***

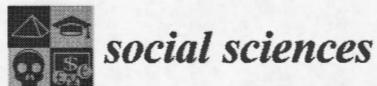
Table S4

Correlation matrix for women and men's partner-rated personality

M \ W	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. N	-.14	-.00	.02	-.11	-.22*	.24**	.13	.21*	.27**	.19*
2. E	.09	-.15	.04	.07	.04	.03	-.00	-.17	.02	.05
3. O	-.15	.06	.18	-.01	.10	-.12	-.25**	-.05	-.03	-.15
4. A	-.11	.04	-.02	-.08	.10	-.23*	-.20*	-.34***	-.21*	-.24*
5. C	-.15	.17	.06	.26**	-.14	-.23*	-.28**	-.35***	-.20*	-.30**
6. Nega	.07	-.08	-.12	-.01	-.16	-.02	.17	.23*	.33***	.27**
7. Det	.07	-.10	-.17	-.13	-.03	.14	.15	.18	.13	.20*
8. Psy	.12	-.06	.01	-.07	-.05	.06	.15	.32**	.11	.14
9. Ant	.23*	-.12	-.12	-.15	-.14	.30**	.37***	.23*	.25**	.24*
10. Dis	.33***	.00	-.13	-.10	-.20*	.34***	.24*	.19*	.07	.17

Note. W = women; M = men; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychoticism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition. Data in bold represent significant values.
 $p < .05$ *; $p < .01$ **; $p < .001$ ***

Annex

**CERTIFICATE of PUBLICATION**

Certificate of publication for the article titled:

Reciprocal Personality Assessment of Both Partners in a Romantic Relationship and Its Correlates to Dyadic Adjustment

Authored by:

Evelyne Smith; Adèle Guérard; Hugues Leduc; Ghassan El-Baalbaki

Published in:

Soc. Sci. 2019, Volume 8, Issue 10, 271Academic Open Access Publishing
since 1999

Running head: PERSONALITY SIMILARITY AND DYADIC ADJUSTMENT

CHAPTER IV

ARTICLE 2

Personality Similarity and its Correlated to Dyadic Adjustment

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Submitted to Personal Relationships on September 23, 2019

Abstract

The effects of personality similarity and their reciprocal interaction between partners were examined. The Five-Factor Model and the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model of the DSM-5 were used to measure personality traits. One hundred thirteen young cohabitating dating couples were recruited. Each partner completed both self- and partner-reports of the NEO-FFI-3 and the Personality Inventory for DSM-5 (PID-5) as well as the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). Actual and perceived similarity on each trait were calculated using the absolute difference score. Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM) analyses were used to verify if actual and perceived similarity were associated with dyadic adjustment. Few significant similarity effects predicted dyadic adjustment over and above actor and partner effects. All effect sizes were small.

Keywords: Five-Factor Model, Maladaptive Personality Trait Model, dyadic adjustment, personality similarity, APIM.

Personality Similarity and its Correlates to Dyadic Adjustment

Introduction

Previous studies have found important associations between personality and individual outcomes like well-being, as well as interpersonal outcomes like romantic relationships (Ozer & Benet-Martinez, 2006). To understand what qualities people want in a romantic partner, researchers have taken different approaches. Some have focused on similarity of partner characteristics to assess whether “like attracts like” or “opposites attract”. One approach to answering this question is to study how, in romantic relationships, the effects of personality similarity are at play between two partners reciprocally. This interdependent dynamic translates either into healthy or dysfunctional relations.

Personality

Personality researchers have long tried to define the basic dimensions of personality. The Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality traits is the most commonly used measure of the basic dimensions of personality (McCrae & Costa, 2013). According to the FFM, personality is a multidimensional concept that can be described in terms of five basic dimensions, called Neuroticism (N), Extraversion (E), Openness to Experience (O), Agreeableness (A), and Conscientiousness (C) (McCrae, 1991). However, while the FFM has been suggested to be bipolar, it was not created specifically to describe pathological personality dimensions (Nestadt et al., 2008). Therefore, researchers have developed the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model (Krueger, Derringer, Markon, Watson, & Skodol, 2012). The five personality trait domains of the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model are shown to be an extension of the FFM, with negative affect lining up with neuroticism, detachment with introversion, antagonism with low agreeableness, disinhibition with low conscientiousness, and psychotism with openness (Gore

& Widiger, 2013). The model provides a more nuanced definition of personality disorders by describing them in terms of maladaptive variants of personality traits (Gore & Widiger, 2013). By using both the FFM and the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model, researchers can provide a more accurate picture of personality in individuals who rate along the maladaptive-adaptive continuum.

Actual personality similarity and dyadic adjustment

Relationship researchers have long been interested in studying actual personality similarity, the degree to which one's personality is actually similar to another individual's (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). One way to measure the degree of actual personality similarity is to do the difference between both partners' self-rated personality. Previous research has found that partners' personality traits are moderately correlated (Watson, Kohnen, Casillas, Simms, & Haig, 2004) because people are attracted to those who are similar to themselves (Montoya, Horton, & Kirchner, 2008). However, there is inconsistent empirical evidence with regard to personality similarity's association with relationship satisfaction. Some studies show an association between actual partner similarity and couple satisfaction (Decuyper et al., 2012; Gaunt, 2006; Luo & Snider, 2009; Robins, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2000 instead), while others show the association to be non-detectable (Altmann, Sierau, & Roth, 2013; Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Gattis, Berns, Simpson, & Christensen, 2004; Montoya et al., 2008). For those who study individual personality trait similarity rather than overall personality similarity, similarity for extraversion, openness, emotional stability were related to relationship satisfaction in a sample of married couples (Dyrenforth et al., 2010). Furthermore, men's satisfaction was associated with greater similarity for openness and conscientiousness, and women's satisfaction was associated with greater similarity for positive emotions in a sample of newlywed couples (Watson et al.,

2004). Finally, similarity with regard to extraversion was found predict romantic liking in a group of speed-daters (Tidwell et al., 2013). These discrepant results are due to methodological issues, like the use of correlation analyses (Robins, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2000), as well as the use of various methodological approaches. A limitation of previous research is that most of the evidence has been collected from older married couples. There is evidence that couple similarity depends on initial assortment rather than convergence (Glickson & Golan, 2001; Watson et al., 2004). Couple similarity may exert its greatest influence in the earliest stages of romantic relationships and may determine whether the partners pursue a relationship to the point of marriage. There is therefore a need for the study of personality similarity in younger couples. Also, many studies are based on relatively small sample sizes (Glickson & Golan, 2001; Klohnen & Mendelsohn, 1998). These add to the interpretative difficulties of the findings. Additional research is therefore needed in order to further our understanding of how actual personality similarity in romantic relationships is associated to each partner's dyadic adjustment.

Perceived personality similarity and dyadic adjustment

Researchers have made the distinction between actual and perceived personality similarity. Very few researchers have studied the effects of perceived personality similarity, the degree of similarity between an individual's rating of their own personality and of their partner's personality, on couple satisfaction (Altmann et al., 2013; Decuyper et al., 2012; Montoya et al., 2008; Tidwell et al., 2013; Morry 2005, 2007; Fuler, Gomez, & Grob, 2014; Luo & Snider, 2009). One way to measure the degree of perceived personality similarity is to do the difference between an individual's self-rated personality and their perception of their partner's personality. Murray, Holmes, Bellavia, Griffin, and Dolderman (2002) argue that perceived personality similarity results from satisfied couple members assimilating their partner onto their own self-

concept. That is, they perceive similarities that are not evident in reality but that predict greater feelings of being understood and feeling satisfied in their relationship. While Montoya et al's (2008) meta-analysis revealed that perceived personality similarity in existing couples shows a strong relationship with couple satisfaction, several of the included studies did not control for the main effects. The results may therefore be an overestimate of the true effects of perceived similarity on couple satisfaction. Finally, there is only one known study that uses the APIM to look at the association between perceived personality similarity and dyadic adjustment (Furler et al., 2014). The researchers found that most of the effects lost their significance once they controlled for both partners' self- and partner-ratings of personality.

Advances in measurement and analysis techniques

Personality researchers have attempted to answer the question of whether personality similarity is associated with couple satisfaction using more elaborate procedures (Gattis, Berns, Simpson, & Christensen, 2004; Watson et al., 2004). The most common measure includes difference scores which are straightforward and have intuitive appeal (Griffin, Murray, & Gonzalez, 1999). Difference scores are calculated for each trait by computing the absolute value of the difference between the two partners' personality scores. However, this approach has been criticized because the absolute difference values can be compounded with the individual scores used to calculate them. Frequently, interactions, like similarity, are statistically significant because the compounding actor and partner effects have not been removed (Kenny & Cook, 1999). Also, most studies rely on correlation analyses which don't consider the interdependent nature of couple data (Decuyper, De Bolle, & De Fruyt, 2012; Watson, Hubbard, & Wiese, 2000). Personality and couple researchers need to use proper analytic techniques to test for the unique effect of personality similarity on couple satisfaction.

Interdependence

Couple data is dyadic in nature. What makes dyadic data unique is that it comes from two couple members who are interdependent. When studying interdependence, it is important to consider that an individual's personality predicts his or her own dyadic adjustment, called actor effects, as well as his or her partner's dyadic adjustment, called partner effects (Dyrenforth, Kashy, Donnellan, & Lucas, 2010; Robins, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2002). In order to consider interdependent effects in statistical analyses, researchers have begun using the Actor-Partner Interdependence Model (APIM; Kashy & Kenny, 2000; Kenny, 1996). Both dyadic-level (personality similarity) and individual-level (each partner's personality and satisfaction) data are included in the model. Therefore, the APIM accounts for all individual-level variables and allows for an examination of the unique contribution of personality similarity to couple satisfaction. Several previous studies have not accounted for interdependence in their analyses which therefore led to an overestimation of the main effects (Gonzaga, Campos, & Bradbury, 2007). Only three known studies have used the APIM to study personality similarity (Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Furler et al., 2013; Furler, Gomez, & Grob, 2014). When researchers use the difference score and partners' individual scores are included in the same analysis, personality similarity is shown to have little to no effect on satisfaction (Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Furler et al., 2013; Gattis et al., 2004; Tidwell, Eastwick, & Finkel, 2013).

Integrating personality similarity, dyadic adjustment, and interdependence

As previously discussed, there is inconsistent empirical evidence for the effects of personality similarity on couple adjustment. This is partly due to previous research often focusing on data collected from older married samples and the fact that it has failed to consider the interdependent nature of the couple data. Researchers have also neglected to control for

individual levels of personality in their models. Furthermore, they have often not considered the effects that perceived personality similarity may have on couple adjustment. Therefore, additional studies are needed to further our understanding of the associations between actual and perceived personality similarity and each partner's dyadic adjustment. The current study is unique in that it uses two measures of personality, measures of both actual and perceived personality similarity in cohabitating dating couples, and the APIM to account for actor and partner effects and the interdependent nature of dyadic data.

This study

This research will be the first to a) address associations between self-rated dyadic adjustment in a community sample of cohabitating dating couples and measures of both actual and perceived personality similarity using self- and partner-reports of the full FFM and the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model, and b) use the APIM, an appropriate statistical technique, to control for actor and partner effects of personality prior to evaluating similarity effects. Cook and Kenny (2005)'s Actor-Partner Interdependence Model and structural equation model analyses will be used to verify if, as hypothesized, 1) actual personality similarity is weakly, and perhaps nonsignificantly, related to dyadic adjustment. Previous research has shown little or no association between actual personality similarity and couple satisfaction (Altmann et al., 2013; Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Furler et al., 2013; Montoya et al., 2008). This study will therefore explore the effects of actual personality similarity on dyadic adjustment using appropriate analytic techniques to verify if these results are reproduced. Personality traits and maladaptive personality traits will be studied separately. The same analyses will be run to verify if, as hypothesized, 2) perceived personality similarity will be weakly associated with dyadic adjustment. As mentioned previously, although some researchers have identified significant

effects of perceived personality similarity on couple satisfaction (Altmann et al., 2013; Decuyper et al., 2012; Montoya et al., 2008; Tidwell et al., 2013), they often do not employ appropriate statistical analyses. One study that did use the APIM found few significant perceived similarity effects (Furler et al., 2014). However, the sample consisted of older married couples. Our study will attempt to verify if the lack of significant perceived similarity effects is replicated in a younger sample of cohabitating dating couples. This study will therefore explore the effects of perceived personality similarity on dyadic adjustment while considering the interdependent dynamics between the partners by using the APIM. Personality traits and maladaptive personality traits will be studied separately.

Method

Participants

Data were collected using Web-based questionnaires on SurveyMonkey. Two hundred twenty-six participants (113 heterosexual couples) were recruited through Canadian universities and in the community using online advertising (Kijiji), social media (Facebook), and posters. This study chose to focus on heterosexual couples to ensure a homogeneous sample. Individuals were recruited a) if both partners were willing to participate, b) if both partners were between 21 and 30 years old, c) if couples had been dating since at least 6 months, d) if they had been living together for at least 6 months, and e) if both partners were comfortable enough in English to answer a battery of questionnaires. Participants were given information about the purpose and procedure of the study and confidentiality was explained. Once participants provided informed consent, they received unique links to the questionnaires. Partners were told not to consult each other while completing the questionnaires. Participants received \$5 (\$10/couple) in exchange for participation in the study. For sample characteristics, please see the results section.

Measures

General socio-demographic information. The authors developed a socio-demographic questionnaire with 27 items. It verified that participants were eligible to participate, and also sampled developmental, occupational, and medical information. Each partner completed the socio-demographic questionnaire. The inclusion criteria and the participants' occupation were used for this study.

Personality (self- and partner reports). The Big Five personality traits were assessed with the 60-item NEO-FFI-3 (Costa & McCrae, 2010). It assesses the dimensions of the five-factor model of personality (neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, conscientiousness) with 12 items each on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*). Each participant completed two inventories; one inventory about their own personality (Form S) and a second inventory about their partner's personality (Form R). The computer software was used to transform the partners' scores on each trait into T scores. These T scores were based on the adult norms in the NEO-FFI-3 manual (Costa & McCrae, 2010).

The maladaptive personality traits were assessed with the 25-item Personality Inventory for DSM-5 – Brief Form (PID-5-BF; Krueger, Derringer, Markon, Watson, & Skodol, 2013). It was developed to measure five personality trait domains of maladaptive personality variation (negative affect, detachment, psychoticism, antagonism, disinhibition), each with five items rated on a 4-point Likert scale (0 = *very false or often false*, 3 = *very true or often true*). Each participant completed two inventories; one inventory about their own personality (Adult version) and a second inventory about their partner's personality (Brief form). With permission from the authors of the PID-5, the brief partner report was created by reformulating each item on the self-report PID-5-BF using the third person singular. Reliability analysis was carried out on each trait

domain each comprising five items. Reliability coefficients (α) indicated adequate internal consistency for each of the five domain scales (Negative Affect $\alpha = 0.75$; Detachment $\alpha = 0.61$; Antagonism $\alpha = 0.74$; Disinhibition $\alpha = 0.78$; Psychoticism $\alpha = 0.78$). These results are similar to those found for the PID-5-BF in previous studies (Anderson, Sellbom, & Salekin, 2018; Bach, Maples-Keller, Bo, & Simonsen, 2016; Fossati, Somma, Borroni, Markon, & Krueger, 2017). The partners' scores on each trait were transformed to T scores using norms published by the authors of the PID-5 (Krueger et al., 2012; Markon, Quilty, Bagby, & Krueger, 2013).

Dyadic adjustment (self-report). Dyadic adjustment was assessed with the 32-item Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS; Spanier, 1976). The DAS is a widely used self-report questionnaire developed to assess the quality of adjustment in couples. It provides scores on four subscales; consensus, satisfaction, cohesion, and affectional expression. Items are rated on various scales, which assess the extent to which the respondent considers each statement to be representative of him or herself. For the purpose of this study, the subscales were combined into a single overall index of dyadic adjustment. The partners' scores were transformed to T scores using published norms and guidelines (Spanier, 1976), and T scores could be examined to determine whether couples were well-adjusted (T score >45) or whether there were concerns (T score <45).

Statistical Analyses

Partners' scores on each questionnaire were transformed to T scores. The NEO-FFI-3 (Costa & McCrae, 2010) computer software automatically chose the T score as its standardized score. Therefore, the PID-5 (Krueger et al., 2013) and DAS (Spanier, 1976) scores were also transformed to T scores for uniformity. In each case, T scores were calculated using norms published by the authors of each questionnaire. While the DAS has Canadian norms

(Baillargeon, Dubois, & Marineau, 1986), the overall index of dyadic adjustment does not differ from that published by Spanier (1976). Furthermore, the other questionnaires do not have Canadian norms. Therefore, in order to compare scores across all questionnaires, American norms were used.

Actual and perceived similarity were operationalized using the absolute difference score. Actual similarity was calculated by subtracting one partner's self-rated maladaptive/personality trait from the other partner's self-rated maladaptive/personality trait (e.g. for Conscientiousness, we did |women's self-rated C - men's self-rated C|). Perceived similarity was calculated by subtracting one individual's self-rated maladaptive/personality trait from their partner's partner-rated (how the individual perceives their partner) maladaptive/personality trait (e.g. for women's perceived similarity with regard to Conscientiousness, we did |women's self-rated C - men's partner-rated C|). Each partner has a perceived similarity score.

In order to further investigate the similarity findings, exploratory analyses were conducted. We were interested in finding out if couples who rated themselves similarly on a given trait both rated as high, low, or within the average on that trait. Couples who were most similar and who both scored at or below half a standard deviation of each other (T score $M = 50$, $SD = 10$) were selected ($|\text{Self-women} - \text{self-men}| \leq 5$). Those selected were then coded based on whether both partners were rated as high (T score ≥ 56), low (T score ≤ 44), or within the average (T score 45-55) on the trait (McCrae & Costa, 2010). ANOVAs were then carried out to compare groups. Given the small sample sizes in each group, ANOVAs were mostly non-significant. However, groups mean differences could be compared using partial eta squared (η_p^2).

Members of a distinguishable dyad can be differentiated on a within-dyad variable (e.g., gender) that has substantial meaning to distinguish members from one another (Kenny & Cook,

1999). Therefore, participants were considered distinguishable by their gender. Structural equation modeling was used to test several APIMs (Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006). APIMs consider the couple as the unit of analysis. Therefore, a dyad-level dataset was used where the unit of analysis is the couple. Importantly, these analyses also address concerns evident in some of the existing literature by considering the interdependent effects between two partners and by controlling for the main effects of each partner's personality. Two sets of analyses were conducted in order to study the effects of actual and perceived personality similarity on both partners' dyadic adjustment. All models represent saturated models. Therefore, all possible paths are estimated and the models have zero degrees of freedom.

The first set of analyses included actual personality similarity. Each model was run separately for each self-rated personality trait and maladaptive personality trait. Each partner's self-rated personality and the couple's actual personality similarity ($|w\text{omen's self-rated personality} - m\text{en's self-rated personality}|$) on a trait predicted both partners' dyadic adjustment. Therefore, this first set of analyses included ten models that estimated actor and partner effects of personality traits and actual personality similarity on dyadic adjustment (one for each self-rated Big Five and maladaptive trait; see Figure 1 for an illustration of these models).

The second set of analyses included perceived personality similarity. The models were run separately for each personality trait and maladaptive personality trait. Both partners' dyadic adjustment was set to be predicted by each partner's self-rated personality and their view of the other's personality on a given trait as well as their perceived personality similarity ($|w\text{omen's self-rated personality} - m\text{en's partner-rated personality}|$) on that same trait. Hence, the second set of analyses included ten models that estimated actor and partner effects of personality traits and

perceived personality similarity (one for each Big Five and maladaptive trait; see Figure 2 for an illustration of these models).

Analyses were conducted with the MPlus 8.0 program (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). An alpha level of .05 was used for all tests of statistical significance. The estimator was specified as MLR, a maximum likelihood estimation method with standard errors and a chi square test statistic that are robust to non-normality.

Results

Sample Characteristics

The sample includes 113 couples. Mean age of participants was 24.2 for female partners ($SD = 2.3$, range = 21 to 30) and 25.1 for male partners ($SD = 2.6$, range = 21 to 30). Length of relationship ranged from 8 to 120 months ($M = 34.9$, $SD = 23.1$) and length of cohabitation ranged from 6 to 86 months ($M = 17.8$, $SD = 14.5$). Of the participants, 70.8% of the women and 50.4% of the men were students, 24.8% of the women and 46.9% of the men were employed, and 4.4% of the women and 2.7% of the men were unemployed.

Descriptive analyses

For all measures, Table 1 shows the means and standard deviations of the T scores for female and male partners. Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations for the absolute difference scores as well as the correlations between the values used to calculate the absolute difference scores on each Big Five and maladaptive personality trait. Overall, most partners' personality traits tended to be weakly correlated, with some traits being moderately correlated (partners' self-rated openness and detachment, women's self-rated and men's partner-rated antagonism and disinhibition, and men's self-rated and women's partner-rated openness, detachment, psychoticism, and antagonism) and one trait showing a strong correlation (women's

self-rated and men's partner-rated psychoticism). Women's dyadic adjustment ($M = 49.75, SD = 6.90$) was non-significantly higher than men's ($M = 48.83, SD = 7.09$). Using the interpretive guidelines (Spanier, 1976), it appears that, on average, both women and men are well-adjusted in their relationship. On closer inspection, 87 women report being well-adjusted (T score >45) and 85 men report the same. Women and men differed significantly on some self-rated and partner-rated traits. Women scored significantly higher on self-rated conscientiousness ($t(112) = 2.21, p = .029, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.31-5.60]$) and negative affect ($t(112) = 6.98, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [9.91-17.76]$) than men did. Men scored significantly higher on self-rated detachment ($t(112) = -2.10, p = .038, 95\% \text{ CI } [-4.33- -0.13]$) and disinhibition ($t(112) = -2.83, p = .006, 95\% \text{ CI } [-13.85- -2.43]$) than women did. Women scored themselves significantly higher on neuroticism ($t(112) = 2.18, p = .032, 95\% \text{ CI } [0.29-6.24]$), negative affect ($t(112) = 4.68, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [4.61-11.38]$), psychoticism ($t(112) = 5.04, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [4.65-10.68]$), and antagonism ($t(112) = 3.03, p = .003, 95\% \text{ CI } [1.17-5.62]$), and significantly lower on agreeableness ($t(112) = -3.71, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [-7.73- -2.35]$) and disinhibition ($t(112) = -5.73, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [-14.21- -6.91]$) than they scored their partners on those same traits. Men scored themselves as significantly higher on psychoticism ($t(112) = 3.78, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [2.77-8.87]$) and antagonism ($t(112) = 3.50, p = .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [1.75-6.31]$), and significantly lower on neuroticism ($t(112) = -2.47 p = .015, 95\% \text{ CI } [-6.12- -0.67]$), conscientiousness ($t(112) = -4.35, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [-9.90- -3.33]$), and negative affect ($t(112) = -7.60, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI } [-15.33- -8.99]$) than they scored their partners on those same traits. Nonindependence for distinguishable dyads was computed using the partial Pearson product-moment correlation while controlling for the predictor variables. Partners' dyadic adjustment was significantly correlated, $r = .49, p < .001$. Therefore, women and men in this sample were significantly interdependent with regard to their dyadic adjustment. (For all

other correlations, please refer to the Supplemental data. The correlations were not used for the interpretation of the results in this study.)

Actual personality similarity and dyadic adjustment

In the first set of analyses (see Figure 1), actor and partner effects of self-rated personality and actual personality similarity on dyadic adjustment were estimated for each Big Five and maladaptive trait while controlling for each partner's age and the length of the couples' relationship and cohabitation. A summary of the results is in Table 3.

For the purpose of this study, we are only interested in actual similarity effects. For actor and partner effects, please refer to Table 3. When discussing actual personality similarity effects, significant negative effects mean that as the discrepancy between how partners self-rate themselves on a given trait increases, an individual's dyadic adjustment decreases. In similarity terms, this means that as partners rate themselves more similarly on a given trait, an individual's dyadic adjustment increases. On the other hand, significant positive effects mean that as the discrepancy between how partners rate themselves on a given trait increases, an individual's dyadic adjustment also increases. In similarity terms, this means that as partners rate themselves more similarly on a given trait, an individual's dyadic adjustment decreases.

After controlling for the individual levels of personality in the models, few actual personality similarity effects were found. Among those that did emerge, partners' actual similarity on neuroticism increased men's dyadic adjustment ($\beta = -.17$, $t(105) = -2.01$, $p = .045$). Furthermore, partners' actual similarity on extraversion increased women's dyadic adjustment ($\beta = -.23$, $t(105) = -2.27$, $p = .023$), whereas actual similarity on agreeableness decreased women's dyadic adjustment ($\beta = .20$, $t(105) = 2.51$, $p = .012$). Effect sizes for actual similarity were small

ranging from $|\beta| = .17$ ($t(105) = -2.01, p = .045$) to $|\beta| = .23$ ($t(105) = -2.27, p = .023$) (see Table 3; Cohen, 1988). No other significant actual similarity effects were found.

Exploratory analyses were conducted. In the case of actual similarity on neuroticism ($F(2,36) = 2.38, p = .107, \eta_p^2 = .12$), there appeared to be a somewhat linear relationship with men's dyadic adjustment. That is, as both partners rated lower on neuroticism, men's dyadic adjustment increased, and vice versa (see Table 5). The size of that effect was between medium and large ($\eta_p^2 = .12$; Cohen, 1988). The positive effect of actual similarity on neuroticism on men's dyadic adjustment therefore appeared to be mostly driven by both partners rating lower on neuroticism. With regard to actual similarity on extraversion ($F(2,29) = 2.93, p = .070, \eta_p^2 = .17$), the relationship with women's dyadic adjustment was a bit more complex (see Table 5). In fact, the relationship between the two variables was curvilinear. Women's dyadic adjustment increased when both partners either rated as lower or as higher on extraversion, with women's dyadic adjustment being lower when partners' extraversion fell in the average range. The size of that effect was large ($\eta_p^2 = .17$; Cohen, 1988). Women's dyadic adjustment was the highest when both partners rated as high on extraversion. Finally, with regard to actual similarity on agreeableness ($F(2,30) = 1.31, p = .284, \eta_p^2 = .08$), the relationship with women's dyadic adjustment was linear. That is, as both partners rated lower on agreeableness, women's dyadic adjustment decreased, and vice versa (see Table 5). The size of that effect was medium ($\eta_p^2 = .08$; Cohen, 1988).

Perceived personality similarity and dyadic adjustment

In the second set of analyses (see Figure 2), actor and partner effects of self- and partner-rated personality and perceived personality similarity effects on dyadic adjustment were

estimated for each Big Five and maladaptive trait while controlling for each partner's age, and the length of the couples' relationship and cohabitation. A summary of the results is in Table 4.

For the purpose of this study, we are only interested in the perceived similarity effects. Again, for actor and partner effects, please refer to Table 4. When discussing perceived personality similarity effects, significant negative effects mean that the more an individual perceives themselves and their partner to be different, the lower the individual's dyadic adjustment. In similarity terms, this means that as an individual rates themselves and their partner more similarly on a given trait, that individual's dyadic adjustment increases. On the other hand, significant positive effects here mean that the more an individual perceives themselves and their partner to be different, the higher the individual's dyadic adjustment. In similarity terms, this means that as an individual rates themselves and their partner more similarly on a given trait, that individual's dyadic adjustment decreases.

In the analyses for perceived similarity, there was little evidence for similarity effects beyond the individual contribution of each partner's personality. However, there are several more predictors in the perceived similarity model than in the actual similarity model. Therefore, any significant perceived similarity effects are that much more meaningful. First, it should be noted that significant perceived similarity effects were only found for women's dyadic adjustment. Women's perceived similarity with regard to their extraversion ($\beta = -.23$, $t(102) = -2.07$, $p = .039$) or psychoticism ($\beta = -.26$, $t(102) = -2.14$, $p = .033$) increased their dyadic adjustment. Furthermore, women's perceived similarity with regard to their detachment decreased their dyadic adjustment ($\beta = .27$, $t(102) = 3.37$, $p = .001$). Finally, men's perceived similarity with regard to their psychoticism increased women's dyadic adjustment ($\beta = -.25$, $t(102) = -1.97$, $p = .049$). Effect sizes were small ranging from $|\beta| = .23$ ($t(102) = -2.07$, $p =$

.039) to $|\beta| = .27$ ($t(102) = 3.37, p = .001$) (Cohen, 1988). No other significant perceived similarity effects were found.

In order to further investigate these findings, exploratory analyses were conducted. In the case of women's perceived similarity (|women's self-rated personality – men's partner-rated personality|) on extraversion ($F(2,30) = 1.35, p = .275, \eta_p^2 = .08$), there appeared to be a somewhat linear relationship with their own dyadic adjustment. That is, as both women rated themselves and their partners similarly and higher on extraversion, their dyadic adjustment increased, and vice versa (see Table 6). The size of that effect was medium ($\eta_p^2 = .08$; Cohen, 1988). The positive effect of women's perceived similarity with regard to their extraversion on women's dyadic adjustment therefore appeared to be mostly driven by both partners rating higher on that trait. Furthermore, two effects of psychoticism on women's dyadic adjustment emerged. With regard to women's perceived similarity on psychoticism ($F(2,34) = 2.96, p = .065, \eta_p^2 = .15$), the relationship with women's dyadic adjustment was somewhat linear. That is, as women rated themselves and their partners as lower on psychoticism, their dyadic adjustment increased, and vice versa (see Table 6). The size of that effect was large ($\eta_p^2 = .15$; Cohen, 1988). However, the relationship between men's perceived similarity on psychoticism and women's dyadic adjustment was a bit more complex ($F(2,33) = 1.19, p = .318, \eta_p^2 = .07$). In fact, the relationship between the two variables was curvilinear. Women's dyadic adjustment increased when men rated themselves and their partner as either both lower or both higher on psychoticism, with women's dyadic adjustment being lower when both ratings fell in the average range (see Table 6). The size of that effect was medium ($\eta_p^2 = .07$; Cohen 1988). In both cases, women's dyadic adjustment was the highest when both women and men rated themselves and their partner as low on psychoticism. Finally, with regard to women's perceived similarity on

detachment ($F(2,49) = 3.79, p = .029, \eta_p^2 = .13$), the relationship with women's dyadic adjustment was somewhat linear. That is, as women rated themselves and their partners as higher on detachment, their dyadic adjustment decreased, and vice versa (see Table 6). The size of that effect was between medium and large ($\eta_p^2 = .13$).

Discussion

This study attempted to examine personality similarity effects on dyadic adjustment. It did so by using both actual and perceived similarity. Furthermore, unlike most previous studies, only young cohabitating dating couples were recruited. The rationale here was that personality similarity may have more or less importance depending on the relationship stage. A future longitudinal study will allow for the direct comparison of young and older couples. This study also used an appropriate methodological approach by using absolute difference scores while controlling for each partner's personality ratings when assessing personality similarity effects. The use of the APIM made this possible. This is the first known study to use absolute difference scores and the APIM to control for each partner's personality ratings when assessing both actual and perceived personality similarity effects.

Actual similarity and dyadic adjustment

Women and men's self-rated openness, detachment, psychotism, and antagonism were positively and significantly correlated. However, women and men's similarity on these particular traits was not significantly associated with their dyadic adjustment. Therefore, this demonstrates that correlation analyses alone are not adequate for describing similarity effects. With regard to actor (effect of an individual's personality on their own dyadic adjustment) and partner (effect of an individual's personality on their partner's dyadic adjustment) effects, our results are in line with

previous studies (e.g. Dyrenforth et al., 2010). That is, individuals' self- and partner-rated personality traits have important actor and partner effects on both partners' dyadic adjustment.

With regard to actual personality similarity, only a few significant effects predicted dyadic adjustment over and above individual levels of personality. Furthermore, all effect sizes were small. Similar to what has been previously found (Hudson & Fraley, 2014; Robins et al., 2000), men's dyadic adjustment increased when they and their partners rated themselves similarly on neuroticism. Additional analyses allowed us to determine that among those couples whose partners rated themselves similarly, men's dyadic adjustment was the highest when both partners rated low on neuroticism. Given neuroticism's association with emotion expression, it is intuitive to assume that two partners who are similar in terms of their emotional stability would be well adjusted. They may be better able to predict their partner's emotional state because they have a more accurate sense of their personality given their similarity. Furthermore, similarity in neuroticism may help partners to be empathic and understanding of the others' emotional distress, which would in turn promote dyadic adjustment (Nemechek & Olson, 1999).

A further actual similarity effect emerged for women's dyadic adjustment. Women preferred to have partners who rated themselves similarly to their own self-rated extraversion. Among those couples whose partners rated themselves similarly on extraversion, women's dyadic adjustment increased when both partners rated either low or high on this trait, with their dyadic adjustment being the highest when both partners rated high on extraversion. One can imagine that partners who are both low on extraversion and are reserved and even-paced (McCrae & Costa, 2010) might gravitate toward each other because of their appreciation for the others' preference for doing things alone or with one or two people they feel comfortable with. The opposite appears to be true as well. Partners who both prefer large gatherings, are active and talkative, and like

excitement (McCrae & Costa, 2010) might be attracted to each other because of their sociability. Therefore, given the interpersonal quality of extraversion, women in our sample appear to prefer partners who rate themselves similarly in terms of extraversion because they may feel a close psychological bond to their partner due to their shared experience.

Finally, a third actual personality similarity effect emerged, that of agreeableness on women's dyadic adjustment. However, this relationship was negative. That is, women's dyadic adjustment suffered when they and their partners rated themselves similarly on agreeableness. This is consistent with some research that shows that similarity in agreeableness is significantly associated with negative marital satisfaction trajectories (Shiota & Levenson, 2007). In this case, additional analyses demonstrated that women's dyadic adjustment was lowest when both partners rated low on agreeableness. Given its connection to social evaluation (McCrae & Costa, 2010), women and men who rated low on agreeableness may be less motivated to maintain a positive relationship with their partner and may exhibit provocative behavior. This may prevent them from choosing constructive ways of resolving conflict (Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996). Individuals lower on agreeableness may also have narcissistic tendencies (McCrae & Costa, 2010) which has the potential to cause distress to partners in intimate relationships (Miller, Widiger, & Campbell, 2010). Given that narcissism reflects underlying problems with self-esteem and internal security, individuals with narcissistic tendencies may respond unfavorably to their partner when they have similar characteristics. They may feel that their position of dominance is threatened, which could trigger a competitive response.

Perceived similarity and dyadic adjustment

Women and men's self-rated openness, detachment, psychoticism, antagonism, and disinhibition were positively and significantly correlated to their respective ratings of their partners

on these same traits. However, similarity in only two of these traits was associated with dyadic adjustment. With regard to actor (effect of an individual's personality, as rated by themselves or their partner, on their own dyadic adjustment) and partner (effect of an individual's personality, as rated by themselves or their partner, on their partner's dyadic adjustment) effects, our results are in line with previous studies (e.g. Brock, Dindo, Simms, & Clark, 2016). That is, the association between an individual's rating of their partner's personality (partner's partner-report) shows the strongest effect on the individual's dyadic adjustment. Therefore, what an individual thinks about their partner's personality has important implications for the individual's dyadic adjustment.

With regard to perceived similarity effects, all effect sizes were small. Women and men who rated their partners similarly to themselves on psychoticism had positive effects on women's dyadic adjustment. Additional analyses revealed that women's dyadic adjustment was the highest when both partners were rated low on psychoticism. Individuals who express psychoticism characteristics exhibit unconventionality, eccentricity, and peculiarity (APA, 2013). They may have trouble regulating interactions between the inner and outer psychological worlds. This is associated with decreased feelings of life satisfaction (Piedmont, Sherman, Sherman, Dy-Liacco, & Williams, 2009) and decreased couple satisfaction (Decuyper, Gistelinck, Vergauwe, Pancorbo, & De Fruyt, 2016). On the other hand, partners who are open show more emotional expressivity, are curious about their worlds, and are open to unconventional ideas and values (McCrae & Costa, 2010). They may take a more intellectual approach to problem solving and may be more willing to analyze and work on their relationship, which would help to manage conflict constructively (Donnellan, Conger, & Bryant, 2004). It is therefore not surprising that women would report higher dyadic adjustment when both they and their partners rate themselves and each other similarly and low on psychoticism.

A third perceived similarity effect emerged for women's dyadic adjustment, that of women's perceived similarity on extraversion. Additional analyses revealed that as women rated themselves and their partner as higher on extraversion, women's dyadic adjustment increased. Similar to the reasoning for actual similarity on extraversion, women appear to prefer a partner whom they can share their social preference with, particularly when they are both outgoing and like excitement.

A fourth effect was found for women's perceived similarity with regard to their detachment on their own dyadic adjustment. Additional analyses revealed that women's dyadic adjustment was the lowest when they rated both partners as high on detachment. Individuals who exhibit detachment qualities typically avoid interpersonal interactions, have restricted affective experience and expression, and have limited hedonic capacity (APA, 2013). Therefore, it is expected that these characteristics would be associated with impairments in intimate relationships (Decuyper et al., 2016).

With regard to perceived similarity, significant effects only emerged for women. Their perceived similarity on certain traits may come from a need for consistency which drives them to believe that their partner believes what they believe. It may also result from a belief that partners should be similar to each other (Morry, 2005, 2007) or from a tendency to assimilate their partners into their own self-concept (Murray et al., 2002). Perceiving one's partner as similar to oneself can be beneficial for the individual's well-being and may foster feelings of closeness and understanding in romantic relationships.

Conclusion

While a few significant similarity effects did emerge, there is a lack of consistent evidence for associations between personality similarity and dyadic adjustment in young cohabitating dating couples. When sources of variance related to main effects are systematically removed, similarity effects become increasingly smaller. This is in line with previous studies that used appropriate methodological and statistical procedures (Furler et al., 2013; 2014). Therefore, this study further supports the importance of using appropriate analytic techniques for dyadic data (Kenny et al., 2006) and of controlling for each partner's personality when assessing the effects of personality similarity on dyadic adjustment. Research shows that similarity on other characteristics like personal values and political attitudes has a stronger effect on relationship satisfaction than similarity of personality traits does (Leikas, Ilmarinen, Verkasalo, Vartiainen, & Lönnqvist, 2018). Furthermore, it may be that more specific facets of personality (i.e. Neuroticism facet scales of Anxiety, Angry Hostility, Depression, Self-Consciousness, Impulsiveness, and Vulnerability) and their similarity in couples would have significant dyadic effects. It is therefore worth investigating the facets underlying the traits and their effects on dyadic adjustment in future research.

What the data did demonstrate is that both an individual's and their partner's personality traits are important for dyadic adjustment. Therefore, most of the association between personality and dyadic adjustment is driven by actor and partner effects. This is particularly true for the effect of individuals' ratings of their partner on their own dyadic adjustment (Brock, Dindo, Simms, & Clark, 2016). What matters most to individuals is how they perceive their partner. Their perception is subjective and is therefore based on cues that are not necessarily observable in the interaction. That is, the phenomenological experience is based on interpretations of the other's personality, and this appears to be more important for dyadic adjustment than are objective or actual characteristics.

The results from this study are of interest to couple therapists because they can better inform their interventions. As previously discussed, most couple research has been conducted with married participants and is therefore not informative of the earlier stages of the relationship. Therapists will benefit from understanding how personality predicts dyadic adjustment at the beginning stages of the relationship because it will allow them to do preventative work thereby making their interventions easier. Furthermore, addressing individuals' interpretations of their partners' personality characteristics, rather than simply assessing actual characteristics, can have important implications for the ways in which couple therapists intervene.

Limitations

The present study has limitations that should be taken into account when interpreting the findings. First, the study is cross-sectional therefore making it impossible to draw conclusions about causality. Personality similarity may play different roles at varying stages of a relationship. In order to fully understand the interpersonal effects of personality similarity, it would be important to explore whether personality similarity predicts future relationship outcomes. Future longitudinal studies will allow researchers to address this issue and to further our understanding of the temporal direction between personality similarity and dyadic adjustment. Most couples in this study have agreed to be contacted at a later date. This future sample will therefore include older and married couples as well. This will allow for the direct comparison of dating and married couples with regard to personality trait expression and relation to dyadic adjustment. It will also allow for the examination of changes in personality trait expression across time, and which personality traits contribute to relationship termination, maintenance, or transition to marriage.

A second limitation of the present study has to do with the generalizability of results. The sample only consisted of heterosexual couples. Personality traits may have unique implications for

dyadic adjustment in same-sex couples. Research shows that homosexual and heterosexual individuals differ significantly on a number of Big Five traits, with the strongest difference being for openness to experience (Lippa, 2005). Therefore, it may be that our results would differ if same-sex couples were included in the sample. There is one known study looking at associations between personality traits and relationship quality and stability (Kurdek, 2004) and one study demonstrating the effects of LGB identity similarity on relationship quality (Mohr & Fassinger, 2006). However, no known study has looked at the direct effects of personality similarity on couple satisfaction in same-sex couples.

Furthermore, the sample in this study remains relatively small. The participants also report good overall satisfaction with their relationship therefore reducing the likelihood of finding small effects. Additional research using larger representative population samples will allow for more generalizable results.

Moreover, the sample in this study consisted of research volunteers. Research volunteers are shown to be significantly higher in conscientiousness than nonvolunteers (Lonnqvist et al., 2007), which may have played a role in their dyadic adjustment and in their desire to spend time and effort to act as participants. However, offering compensation for participation may have rendered the study more attractive to all potential participants. The monetary incentive in this study was judged appropriate by the ethics committee.

Finally, future research that includes assessment of actual behaviors in addition to self-reports of behavior are needed to corroborate the results. It may be that personality traits moderate the relationship between behaviors and dyadic adjustment.

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Tables

Table 1 (back to text)

Means and standard deviations for T scores of self- and partner-ratings of the Big Five traits and maladaptive personality traits for women and men.

Measure	Female	Male
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Self-report		
N	54.88 (11.11)	52.76 (10.04)
E	51.75 (12.02)	52.87 (11.25)
O	58.65 (10.93)	59.49 (9.97)
A	46.72 (10.11)	49.39 (11.06)
C	49.19 (10.23)	46.23 (11.74)
Nega	60.60 (16.28)	46.76 (14.25)
Det	49.03 (9.55)	51.26 (10.16)
Psy	62.93 (19.14)	62.12 (15.23)
Ant	51.40 (12.48)	50.94 (12.72)
Dis	41.16 (20.65)	49.30 (24.00)
Partner-report		
	Men's view of women	Women's view of men
N	56.16 (11.79)	51.61 (12.89)
E	51.08 (12.62)	52.55 (12.07)
O	59.28 (10.97)	60.83 (12.01)
A	50.43 (10.80)	51.75 (11.90)
C	52.35 (10.39)	48.41 (11.00)
Nega	58.92 (11.45)	52.6 (11.15)
Det	51.02 (9.92)	50.77 (9.50)
Psy	56.30 (13.96)	55.26 (12.83)
Ant	46.91 (8.26)	48.00 (9.61)
Dis	52.37 (11.72)	51.72 (11.83)
DAS	49.75 (6.90)	48.83 (7.09)

Note. The label "partner report" represents the partner report on the individual (e.g. the partner report for women is men's view of women).

Table 2 (back to text)

Means and standard deviations for absolute difference scores, and correlations between the values used to calculate the absolute difference scores on each Big Five and maladaptive personality trait

	Actual personality similarity		Women's perceived personality similarity		Men's perceived personality similarity	
	(Self-women)-(Self-men)	Correlation self-women/self-men	(Self-women)-(Partner-men)	Correlation self-women/partner-men	(Self-men)-(Partner-women)	Correlation self-men/partner-women
Trait	M (SD)	r	M (SD)	r	M (SD)	r
N	11.07 (8.65)	.14	12.95 (9.81)	.12	11.75 (9.27)	.11
E	12.05 (8.92)	.17	13.42 (10.83)	-.03	13.58 (9.27)	.06
O	9.58 (7.80)	.30	10.80 (8.71)	.29	10.01 (7.16)	.31
A	11.82 (9.14)	.03	12.45 (8.80)	.15	11.36 (9.01)	.12
C	11.75 (8.44)	.17	10.64 (8.46)	.18	13.09 (9.40)	.09
Nega	19.63 (15.75)	.05	16.10 (11.51)	.16	16.29 (13.06)	.14
Det	9.37 (6.60)	.35	8.72 (7.88)	.25	7.62 (7.48)	.43
Psy	17.33 (12.46)	.24	12.94 (12.31)	.55	12.68 (11.84)	.37
Ant	12.00 (12.13)	.22	9.01 (8.48)	.44	9.83 (8.29)	.38
Dis	22.89 (21.82)	.07	18.33 (12.56)	.37	17.53 (16.52)	.25

Note. The label "partner" represents the partner report on the individual (e.g. the partner report for women is the man's view of the woman). Difference data in bold represent a statistically significant difference between the two values used to calculate the difference score, and correlations in bold represent statistically significant correlations, $p < 0.05$. N = neuroticism; E =

extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; NA = negative affect;
Det = detachment; Psy = psychotism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition.

Table 3 (back to text)

Results from actual similarity models

Scale	Female DAS					Male DAS			
	A1	t	p	P1	t	p	ASim	t	p
N	-.306	-3.07	.002	-.242	-2.62	.009	.054	0.59	.557
E	.132	1.44	.149	.000	-0.00	.998	-.226	-2.27	.023
O	.172	1.73	.084	.000	1.09	.276	.096	1.20	.230
A	.229	2.49	.013	.103	1.03	.302	.195	2.51	.012
C	.199	1.86	.064	.267	3.14	.002	.021	0.25	.799
Nega	-.309	-3.43	.001	-.100	-0.94	.348	.135	1.24	.215
Det	-.272	-2.89	.004	-.063	-0.55	.583	.031	0.42	.673
Psy	-.342	-3.79	.000	-.055	-0.56	.577	.005	0.05	.961
Ant	-.127	-1.08	.281	-.183	-2.07	.039	-.020	-0.16	.872
Dis	-.290	-3.01	.003	-.122	-0.75	.451	.108	0.66	.510

Note. Beta coefficients are standardized. Data in bold represent statistically significant values, p < 0.05. A1 = female actor effect; P1 = partner effect on the female; A2 = male actor effect; P2 = partner effect on the male; ASim = actual similarity; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; NA = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychoticism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition.

Table 4 (back to text)

Results from perceived similarity models

Female DAS												
Scale	(S)A1	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(P)A1	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(S)P1	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(P)P1	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
N	-.168	-1.60	.110	-.218	-1.88	.060	-.103	-0.79	.429	-2.70	-2.56	.011
E	.185	1.39	.165	-.050	-0.38	.702	-.063	-0.48	.631	.044	0.31	.757
O	.020	0.17	.863	.217	2.26	.024	.001	0.01	.992	.171	1.47	.143
A	.210	1.67	.095	.027	0.27	.790	-.029	-0.22	.830	.249	2.09	.037
C	.053	0.46	.645	.243	2.65	.008	.013	0.13	.899	.463	5.27	.000
Nega	-.108	-1.11	.269	-.344	-2.99	.003	.102	0.87	.382	-.316	-2.82	.005
Det	-.196	-2.13	.033	-.040	-0.43	.670	.043	0.39	.700	-.394	-4.13	.000
Psy	.073	0.55	.583	-.119	-1.00	.318	.172	1.27	.206	-.421	-4.79	.000
Ant	.027	0.19	.852	-.286	-2.26	.024	.058	0.54	.591	-.225	-1.88	.061
Dis	-.104	-0.73	.465	-.287	-2.95	.003	.105	0.92	.356	-.246	-2.07	.039

Male DAS												
Scale	(S)A2	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(P)A2	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(S)P2	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	(P)P2	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
N	-.132	-1.20	.229	-.110	-1.29	.207	.043	0.48	.631	-.453	-4.47	.000
E	.187	1.49	.137	.068	0.53	.595	-.271	-2.16	.031	.493	4.13	.000
O	-.078	-0.73	.460	.154	1.60	.109	-.203	-1.65	.100	.521	5.25	.000
A	.103	1.06	.290	.089	1.01	.312	.243	2.37	.018	.328	3.78	.000
C	.122	1.18	.237	.243	2.75	.006	-.199	-1.92	.055	.617	8.52	.000
Nega	-.093	-0.77	.439	-.200	-1.79	.073	-.022	-0.21	.836	-.334	-3.40	.001
Det	.011	0.12	.906	-.099	-0.94	.346	-.081	-2.08	.278	-.448	-6.12	.000
Psy	-.030	-0.30	.764	-.127	-1.24	.214	-.079	-0.62	.535	-.315	-2.63	.008
Ant	.244	1.86	.063	-.308	-3.54	.000	-.043	-0.38	.708	-.448	-4.72	.000
Dis	.105	0.92	.356	-.221	-2.31	.021	.144	1.16	.245	-.501	-6.50	.000

Perceived similarity												
Female DAS						Male DAS						
Scale	WPS	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	MPS	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	WPS	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	MPS	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
N	-.067	-0.53	.596	.060	0.48	.631	-.171	-1.57	.116	-.064	-0.58	.562
E	-.230	-2.07	.039	.017	0.16	.875	-.022	-0.23	.818	-.040	-0.39	.697
O	-.095	-0.91	.364	.070	0.77	.443	.012	0.12	.905	-.025	-0.29	.771
A	.125	1.26	.209	.040	0.44	.657	-.044	-0.51	.610	.014	0.17	.864
C	.002	0.03	.977	.032	0.37	.713	-.049	-0.65	.516	.009	0.10	.918
Nega	.160	1.70	.089	.041	0.32	.751	.013	0.12	.908	-.179	-1.49	.135
Det	.268	3.37	.001	-.004	-0.05	.964	-.077	-0.73	.464	-.018	-0.20	.841
Psy	-.260	-2.14	.033	-.250	-1.97	.049	-.066	-0.58	.566	-.163	-1.74	.081
Ant	.045	0.34	.737	-.121	-1.21	.227	-.030	-0.35	.726	-.153	-1.51	.132
Dis	.079	0.68	.497	-.110	-1.25	.212	.016	0.19	.850	-.140	-1.47	.142

Note. Beta coefficients are standardized. Data in bold represent statistically significant values, p < 0.05. (S)A₁ = actor effect of women's self-rated personality on women's dyadic adjustment; (P)A₁ = actor effect of men's rating of women's personality on women's dyadic adjustment; (S)P₁ = partner effect of men's self-rated personality on women's dyadic adjustment; (P)P₁ = partner effect of women's rating of men's personality on women's dyadic adjustment; (S)A₂ = actor effect of men's self-rated personality on men's dyadic adjustment; (P)A₂ = actor effect of women's rating of men's personality on men's dyadic adjustment; (S)P₂ = partner effect of women's self-rated personality on men's dyadic adjustment; (P)P₂ = partner effect of men's rating of women's personality on men's dyadic adjustment; WPS = women's perceived similarity; MPS = men's perceived similarity; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; NA = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychotism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition.

Table 5 ([back to text](#))

Descriptives for actual similarity additional analyses

Measure	Partner personality scores	Women's DAS	Men's DAS
		<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
N	Low		53.56 (4.10)
	Average		51.76 (6.41)
	High		48.36 (5.87)
E	Low	49.55 (7.55)	
	Average	47.42 (8.55)	
	High	54.56 (6.25)	
A	Low	44.65 (9.73)	
	Average	47.80 (6.60)	
	High	51.12 (5.54)	

Note. N = partners' neuroticism; E = partners' extraversion; A = partners' agreeableness; DAS = dyadic adjustment; Low = trait T score ≤ 44 ; Average = trait T score 45-55; High = trait T score ≥ 56 .

Table 6 ([back to text](#))

Descriptives for perceived similarity additional analyses

Women's DAS		
Measure	Partner personality scores	M (SD)
WE	Low	49.66 (5.11)
	Average	49.93 (5.99)
	High	52.99 (5.23)
WPsy	Low	54.09 (5.80)
	Average	52.72 (6.19)
	High	48.05 (5.69)
MPsy	Low	52.17 (5.50)
	Average	48.11 (10.52)
	High	48.59 (5.93)
WDet	Low	51.59 (5.46)
	Average	49.66 (6.17)
	High	45.59 (6.56)

Note. WE = partners' extraversion as rated by women; WPsy = partners' psychoticism as rated by women; MPsy = partners' psychoticism as rated by men; WDet = partners' detachment as rated by women; DAS = dyadic adjustment; Low = trait T score ≤ 44 ; Average = trait T score 45-55; High = trait T score ≥ 56 .

Figures

Figure 1. Model specification for the actual similarity models.

Figure 2. Model specification for the perceived personality similarity models including self- and partner-rated personality.

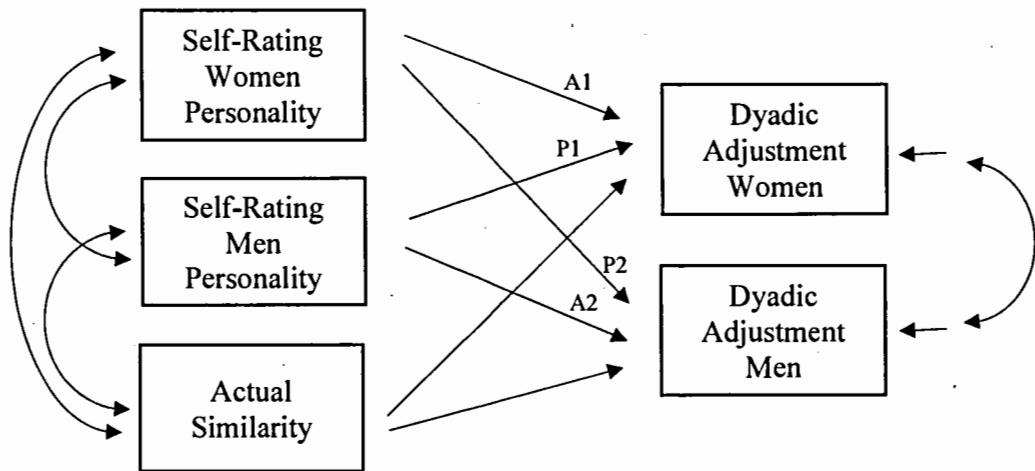


Figure 1. Model specification for the actual similarity models.

Note. Self-rated personality and actual similarity (absolute difference between both partners' self-rated personality on a given trait) were modeled as predictors of each partner's dyadic adjustment separately for each Big Five trait and maladaptive personality trait. A1 = female actor effect; P1 = female partner effect; A2 = male actor effect; P2 = male partner effect.

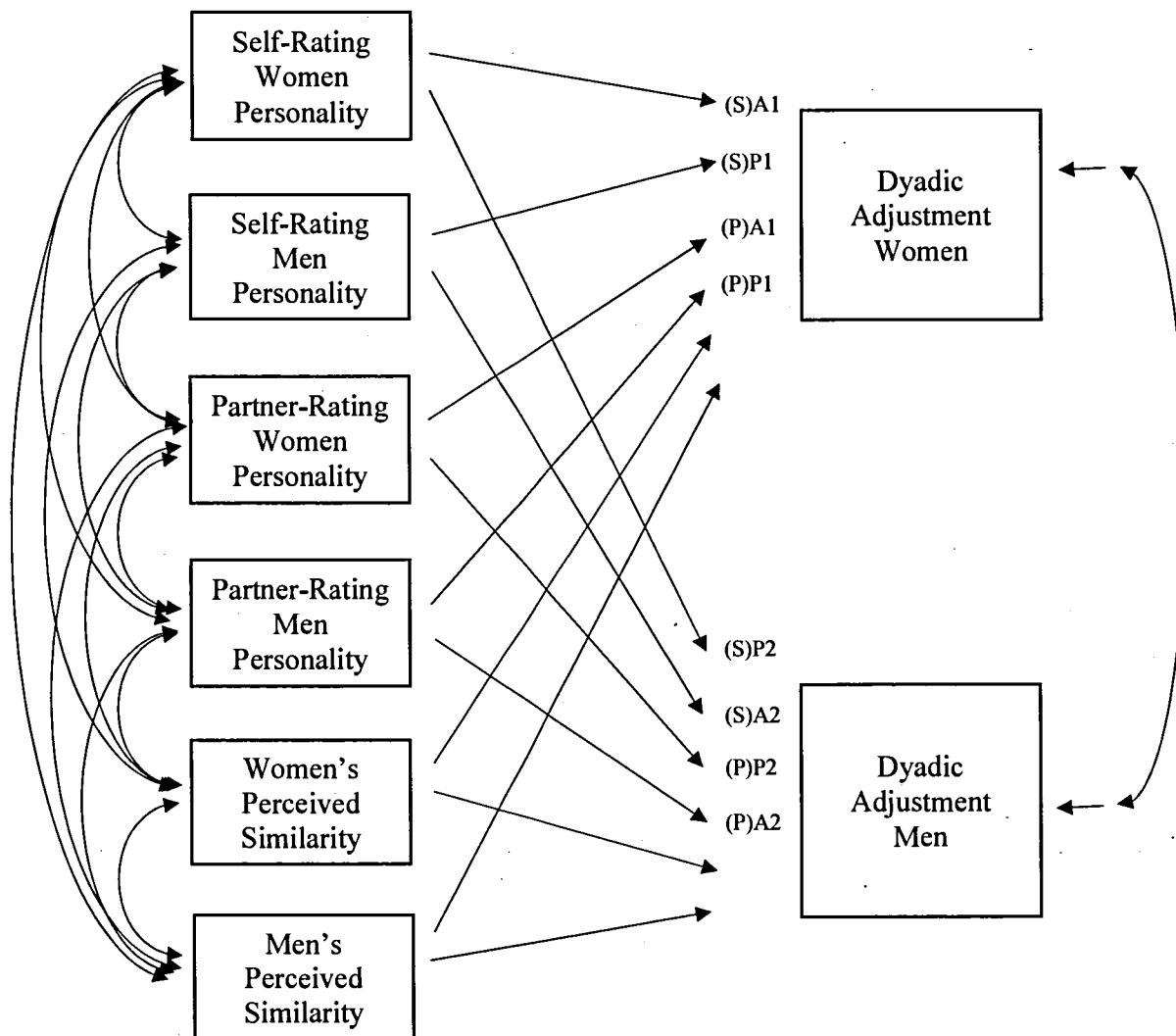


Figure 2. Model specification for the perceived personality similarity models including self- and partner-rated personality.

Note. Self- and partner-rated personality and perceived similarity [absolute difference between an individual's self-rated personality and their partner's partner-rated personality (i.e. the individual's perception of their partner) on a given trait] were modeled as predictors of each partner's dyadic adjustment separately for each Big Five trait and maladaptive personality trait.

(S)A₁ = actor effect of women's self-rated personality on women's dyadic adjustment; (S)P₁ =

partner effect of men's self-rated personality on women's dyadic adjustment; (P)A₁ = actor effect of men's rating of women's personality on women's dyadic adjustment; (P)P₁ = partner effect of women's rating of men's personality on women's dyadic adjustment; (S)P₂ = partner effect of women's self-rated personality on men's dyadic adjustment; (S)A₂ = actor effect of men's self-rated personality on men's dyadic adjustment; (P)P₂ = partner effect of men's rating of women's personality on men's dyadic adjustment; (P)A₂ = actor effect of women's rating of men's personality on men's dyadic adjustment

Supplemental data

Table S1

Correlation matrix for women and men's self-rated personality

M W \	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. N	.14	-.15	-.17	.09	-.12	-.06	.10	-.03	-.08	.17
2. E	-.15	.17	.04	.03	.05	-.02	-.09	.01	.03	-.07
3. O	-.00	.05	.30**	.05	.02	-.06	-.07	.14	.10	.05
4. A	-.03	.10	.18	.03	-.02	-.02	-.14	-.10	.04	-.05
5. C	-.13	.17	-.02	-.02	.17	-.09	-.20*	.01	-.04	-.11
6. Nega	-.00	-.08	-.13	.01	-.09	.05	.14	.08	-.02	.16
7. Det	.03	-.18	-.14	-.19*	-.04	.11	.35***	.20*	.06	.17
8. Psy	.14	-.23*	-.00	-.01	-.16	.21*	.20*	.19*	.09	.24*
9. Ant	-.13	-.18	-.17	.00	-.06	.05	.24*	.22*	.03	.21*
10. Dis	.06	-.14	-.13	-.07	-.03	.17	.26*	.07	.07	.05

Note. W = women; M = men; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychoticism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition. Data in bold represent significant values.
 $p < .05$ *; $p < .01$ **; $p < .001$ ***

Table S2

Correlation matrix for women's self-rated personality and men's partner-rated personality

M \ W	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. N	.12	-.07	-.19*	-.14	-.22*	.12	.08	.12	.20	.13
2. E	-.02	.03	.12	.03	.09	.08	.03	-.05	.01	.08
3. O	-.10	.00	.29**	-.03	.13	.10	-.11	.22*	.14	.11
4. A	-.25**	.13	.26**	.15	.18	-.15	-.25**	-.36***	-.13	-.29**
5. C	-.28**	.13	-.09	.22*	.18	-.13	-.14	-.20*	-.28**	-.28**
6. Nega	.02	-.05	-.18	-.02	-.18	.16	.16	.18	.24*	.18
7. Det	.20*	-.09	.19	-.22*	-.20*	.18	.25**	.43***	.20*	.21*
8. Psy	.33***	-.23*	-.03	-.26**	-.17	.38***	.35***	.51***	.54***	.55***
9. Ant	.18	-.16	-.14	-.15	-.06	.24*	.36***	.44***	.29**	.44***
10. Dis	.30**	-.21*	-.10	-.20*	-.06	.24*	.26**	.27**	.37***	.39***

Note. W = women; M = men; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychoticism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition. Data in bold represent significant values.
 $p < .05$ *; $p < .01$ **; $p < .001$ ***

Table S3

Correlation matrix for women's partner-rated personality and men's self-rated personality

M W \ M	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. N	.11	.02	.01	-.04	-.26**	.00	.08	.17	.04	.25**
2. E	-.11	.06	.05	.07	.05	-.02	-.04	-.04	.04	-.03
3. O	-.08	.13	.31**	.08	.08	-.09	-.15	.14	.05	-.05
4. A	-.12	.04	.02	.12	.16	-.16	-.13	-.18	-.16	-.27**
5. C	-.14	.23*	.09	.17	.09	-.12	-.22*	-.13	.08	-.21*
6. Nega	.11	-.10	-.05	-.12	-.15	.14	-.21*	.22*	.08	.31**
7. Det	.13	-.23*	-.30**	-.18	-.11	.19*	.43***	.26**	.17	.31**
8. Psy	-.02	-.20*	-.05	-.12	-.14	.12	.39***	.23*	.17	.37***
9. Ant	.13	-.04	-.13	-.08	-.12	.32**	.28**	.38***	.106	.28**
10. Dis	.16	-.05	-.13	-.11	-.27**	.35***	.35***	.25**	.25**	.26**

Note. W = women; M = men; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychoticism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition. Data in bold represent significant values.
 $p < .05$ *; $p < .01$ **; $p < .001$ ***

Table S4

Correlation matrix for women and men's partner-rated personality

M W \	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. N	-.14	-.00	.02	-.11	-.22*	.24**	.13	.21*	.27**	.19*
2. E	.09	-.15	.04	.07	.04	.03	-.00	-.17	.02	.05
3. O	-.15	.06	.18	-.01	.10	-.12	-.25**	-.05	-.03	-.15
4. A	-.11	.04	-.02	-.08	.10	-.23*	-.20*	-.34***	-.21*	-.24*
5. C	-.15	.17	.06	.26**	-.14	-.23*	-.28**	-.35***	-.20*	-.30**
6. Nega	.07	-.08	-.12	-.01	-.16	-.02	.17	.23*	.33***	.27**
7. Det	.07	-.10	-.17	-.13	-.03	.14	.15	.18	.13	.20*
8. Psy	.12	-.06	.01	-.07	-.05	.06	.15	.32**	.11	.14
9. Ant	.23*	-.12	-.12	-.15	-.14	.30**	.37***	.23*	.25**	.24*
10. Dis	.33***	.00	-.13	-.10	-.20*	.34***	.24*	.19*	.07	.17

Note. W = women; M = men; N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; Nega = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychoticism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition. Data in bold represent significant values.
 $p < .05$ *; $p < .01$ **; $p < .001$ ***

Annex

The screenshot shows the ScholarOne Manuscripts interface. At the top, there's a navigation bar with links for Home, Author, and Review, and a dropdown for Evelyne Smith. On the right of the navigation bar are links for Instructions & Forms, Help, and Log Out. Below the navigation bar is the "Personal RELATIONSHIPS" journal logo. The main area is titled "Submitted Manuscripts". A sidebar on the left is titled "Author Dashboard" and lists the following items:

- 1 Submitted Manuscripts
- Start New Submission
- Legacy Instructions
- 5 Most Recent E-mails
- English Language Editing Service

The main content area displays a table of submitted manuscripts:

STATUS	ID	TITLE	CREATED	SUBMITTED
ADM: Kashy, Deborah ADM: Harvey, Rachel	PERE-OA-09-18-0199	Personality Similarity and its Correlates to Dyadic Adjustment View Submission	19-Sep-2019	23-Sep-2019

CHAPTER V

GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In the following, a summary of the results from articles 1 and 2 will first be presented while putting them in perspective with recent literature and providing additional explanations for the results. The results will be discussed by personality trait. They will be followed by a presentation of the results' clinical applications. Finally, the research's strengths will be outlined, followed by the limitations to be considered when interpreting the results, and finally some recommendations for future research will be discussed.

5.1 Articles 1 and 2

The first article addressed the associations between self-reported dyadic adjustment in a community sample of cohabitating dating couples and measures of personality, including self- and partner-reports of the full Five-Factor model and the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model. It did so by accounting for the interdependent effects of partners' personality perceptions on their dyadic adjustment by using the appropriate statistical analyses (APIM). Three sets of analyses were conducted to examine the effects of personality on dyadic adjustment. The first set of analyses focused on self-ratings of personality. The second set of analyses focused on partner-ratings of personality. The third set of analyses focused on an integrated model to examine both sets of effects simultaneously. This allowed for the examination of incremental predictive utility of partner ratings above and beyond that of self-ratings (and vice versa). Most of the effects from the self-rating models disappeared when self- and partner-ratings of personality were considered simultaneously in an integrated model. That is, the effects from the partner-rating models were greater than the effects from the self-rating models. Results from the integrated models are briefly discussed. Diagrams in Annex B provide a visual representation of the results.

The second article addressed the associations between self-reported dyadic adjustment in a community sample of cohabitating dating couples and measures of personality similarity, including actual similarity² and perceived similarity³. Both self- and partner-reports of the full Five-Factor model and the Maladaptive Personality Trait Model were sampled and the interdependent effects of partners' personality similarity on their dyadic adjustment were calculated by using the appropriate statistical analyses (APIM). Actual and perceived similarity were calculated using the absolute difference score approach. The absolute difference score allows the research to study each individual personality trait similarity, rather than an overall measure of personality similarity, and the effects on dyadic adjustment. Only two known studies have used absolute difference scores and the APIM when examining personality similarity effects (Dyrenforth et al., 2010; Furler et al., 2013). However, both only studied actual similarity. This is therefore the first known study to use absolute difference scores and the APIM to control for each partner's personality ratings when assessing both actual and perceived personality similarity effects. Furthermore, although the absolute difference method did not allow further interpretation of the results, additional analyses did. That is, additional analyses allowed for the determination of whether both partners rated low, high, or within the average on each trait and what effects these differences had on dyadic adjustment. As predicted, only a few similarity effects emerged as predictors of dyadic adjustment beyond the individual contribution of each partner's personality. With regard to perceived similarity, significant effects only emerged for women. Their perceived similarity on certain traits may come from a need for consistency which drives them to believe that their partner believes what they believe. It may also result from a belief that partners should be similar to each other (Morry, 2005, 2007) or from a tendency to assimilate their partners into their own self-concept (Murray et al., 2002). Perceiving one's partner as similar to oneself can be beneficial

² Actual similarity refers to the partners' self-rated personality and how similar these two ratings are.

³ Perceived similarity refers to the extent to which an individual's self-rated personality corresponds with their perception of their partner's personality.

for the individual's well-being and may foster feelings of closeness and understanding in romantic relationships. Results are briefly discussed in the following section.

5.1.1 Neuroticism and negative affect

With regard to neuroticism and negative affect, none of the effects for these traits from the self-rating model remained in the integrated model. However, most effects from the partner-rating model remained. Neuroticism is defined as the tendency to experience and have trouble coping with negative emotions such as anxiety and anger (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Neuroticism has also been associated with mental health problems such as mood disorders (Malouff, Thorsteinsson, & Schutte, 2005). It may be that neuroticism is related to individuals' behaviors in the relationship. That is, individuals who are higher on neuroticism tend to behave more negatively and have partners who behave more negatively during problem solving tasks (McNulty, 2008). Therefore, individuals are less well adjusted in their couples when they view their partner as emotionally unstable. It is not surprising then that negative affectivity, a more pronounced expression of high neuroticism, was also an important negative predictor of dyadic adjustment. Therefore, an individual's perception of their partner's expression of this trait at varying points along the continuum significantly predicted dyadic adjustment in both partners. Please refer to Figure 2 in Annex B for a visual representation of the results.

Neuroticism also played a role with regard to similarity. When both partners were most similar and rated themselves as low on the trait, men's dyadic adjustment was the highest. Lower levels of neuroticism are associated with higher emotional stability. The sample of young adults may be establishing roles and structures in their life (e.g. career, family) that promote stability (Caspi et al., 2005). Those low on neuroticism may be better able to adapt to stressful experiences and better able to express negative affect or be less reactive to their partner. This adaptation impacts relationship adjustment in

a positive way, especially when both partners are able to do this. Please refer to Annex C for a visual representation of the results.

5.1.2 Extraversion and detachment

With regard to extraversion and detachment, detachment continued to be a predictor of women's dyadic adjustment in the integrated model, whereas men's dyadic adjustment was predicted by both extraversion and detachment. Extraversion is related to the experience of positive emotions and is characterized by sociability, dominance, and activeness (McCrae & Costa, 2010). Of particular interest was the negative effect that men's view of women's extraversion had on their own dyadic adjustment. That is, a greater discrepancy between women's self-rated extraversion and men's rating of them on this trait had a negative impact on men's dyadic adjustment. When women rated themselves as higher or lower on this trait, men's dyadic adjustment suffered. With regard to women rating lower on this trait, it may be that women perceive themselves to be less extraverted than the men perceive them to be. Furthermore, men expect women to be extraverted. It may be that women who are less extraverted compensate by engaging in overt social behaviors but rate themselves more accurately according to their covert social preference. With regard to women rating higher on extraversion, it may be that these women pose a threat to the relationship. Research shows that cheaters rate themselves as significantly higher on extraversion (Orzeck & Lung, 2005). Furthermore, detachment is characterized by an avoidance of interpersonal interactions, a restriction of affective experience and expression, and a limited hedonic capacity (APA, 2013). Given detachment's interpersonal quality, it is expected that it would be associated with impairments in intimate relationships, and the findings confirm this hypothesis. Research shows that detachment is associated with elevated Cluster A symptoms which play an important role in relationship satisfaction in intimate couples (South, 2014; Stroud et al., 2010). Cluster A in the DSM-5 represents

a group of personality disorders that have descriptive similarities (APA, 2013). Please refer to Figure 3 in Annex B for a visual representation of the results.

With regard to actual similarity in extraversion, women's dyadic adjustment was higher when both partners rated as either low or high on the trait, with their dyadic adjustment being the highest when both partners rated as high on the trait. With regard to perceived similarity in extraversion, women's dyadic adjustment increased when they rated themselves and their partner higher on extraversion. Although extraversion is shown to decrease in younger cohorts, up to about 30 years of age (Milojev & Sibley, 2017), couples in which both partners rated high on extraversion saw the female partner report the highest dyadic adjustment. This is not surprising given extraversion's link with positive emotionality (Tobin, Graziano, Vanman, & Tassinary, 2000). Therefore, women appear to prefer being in a relationship when they and their partner have similar social preferences. When both partners shared this preference, it was shown to have positive effects on women's dyadic adjustment. Finally, in the case of perceived similarity in detachment, additional analyses revealed that women's dyadic adjustment was the lowest when they rated themselves and their partner higher on this trait. Relationships necessarily imply interaction, so it is expected that partners who are disconnected and who have limited affective expression would report lower dyadic adjustment (Decuyper et al., 2016), particularly when they both rate higher on this trait. Please refer to Annex C for a visual representation of the results.

5.1.3 Openness to experience and psychoticism

With regard to openness and psychoticism, only effects from the partner-rating model remained in the integrated model. Men were sensitive to their view of women at both positive and extreme ends of the openness trait continuum, whereas women were not affected by openness. Openness to experience is shown to increase in adolescence and young adulthood, with a tendency to decrease in old age (Caspi et al., 2005). Individuals who rate high on this trait are described as being imaginative, creative,

having flexible or unconventional values, and as having an interest in new activities or experiences. They may also use an intellectual approach to their perception of the world (Caspi et al., 2005). Given this sample being composed primarily of young professionals and university students, it's not surprising that openness to experience did show some effects on dyadic adjustment. Furthermore, there is a cultural expectation that women embody the qualities of openness to experience. Women therefore may play out this role and men expect to see women play out this role. Furthermore, women may not yet solicit openness from their male partners. However, this trait may be more important to women at later stages on the relationship. Future research would have to explore this hypothesis. At the extreme end of the continuum for this trait is psychoticism. Individuals who express characteristics of psychoticism exhibit unconventionality, eccentricity, perceptual problems, and peculiarity (APA, 2013). While some of these qualities can be appreciated when expressed within the normal range, as was seen with openness to experience, those who were viewed to exhibit extreme variations of this trait were in relationships that saw a decrease in dyadic adjustment for both partners. Please refer to Figure 4 in Annex B for a visual representation of the results.

Psychoticism played a role with regard to similarity. Women and men's perceived similarity in psychoticism had a positive effect on women's dyadic adjustment. That is, women's dyadic adjustment increased when both women and men rated themselves and their partners lower on psychoticism. Given psychoticism's association with incongruent behaviors and cognitions (APA, 2013), it is not surprising that individuals would prefer a partner who rates low on this trait. Please refer to Annex C for a visual representation of the results.

5.1.4 Agreeableness and antagonism

Agreeableness was a good predictor of both partners' dyadic adjustment in the integrated model, particularly for men. Men benefited from having a partner who was

rated as high on agreeableness. Agreeableness involves interpersonal characteristics that foster friendly relationships with others, including cooperation, consideration, empathy, generosity, politeness, and kindness (McCrae & Costa, 2010). Therefore, these qualities were important for men. Individuals who are agreeable are motivated to maintain positive relationships. They are better able to make use of compromise in conflict situations, which is positively related to dyadic adjustment (Jensen-Campbell & Graziano, 2001). Furthermore, agreeableness is shown to be an important predictor of active-empathic listening (Sims, 2017), and women are better able to express empathic behaviors which is important for active-empathic listening (Pence & James, 2015). It is therefore not surprising that women's agreeableness had a positive effect on men's dyadic adjustment. Moreover, the sample consisted of young adults many of whom were young professionals and graduate students. Given their need for success in these social roles, they may have felt compelled to behave in ways associated with agreeableness. It is therefore not surprising that antagonism also played a negative role in both partners' dyadic adjustment. Partners' dyadic adjustment was predicted by both their view of the other on this trait and their partner's view of them on this trait. Antagonism involves callous or antisocial traits as well as grandiosity and attention-seeking. Research shows that those who are low in agreeableness have more difficulty regulating emotions during interpersonal interactions and therefore have more conflictual relationships (Donnellan et al., 2004). This may in turn impede their ability to maintain successful roles in society as well as satisfying romantic relationships. Altogether, whether partners viewed each other as being high or very low on agreeableness (i.e. antagonism), their dyadic adjustment was affected. Please refer to Figure 5 in Annex B for a visual representation of the results.

Agreeableness also played a role with regard to similarity. Additional analyses showed that women's dyadic adjustment decreased when both partners self-rated low on the trait. Agreeableness deals with social behavior and with motives for maintaining positive relations with others, which in turn have consequences for relationships (Tobin

et al., 2000). Agreeableness is associated with reports of sexual satisfaction and marital quality (Donnellan et al., 2004). Therefore, when partners rate low on this trait, there may be several detrimental impacts on the relationship. This was particularly evident in women. Please refer to Annex C for a visual representation of the results.

5.1.5 Conscientiousness and disinhibition

Conscientiousness appeared to be the most important trait in the integrated model for the prediction of dyadic adjustment in young cohabitating dating couples. Conscientiousness individuals are purposeful, strong-willed, and determined (McCrae & Costa, 2010). Individuals were sensitive to ratings on both ends of the continuum for this trait. The strongest effects in the integrated model were found for conscientiousness among the Big Five traits and disinhibition among the maladaptive traits. Conscientiousness is shown to increase as people age, particularly in young adulthood (Lucas & Donnellan, 2009). This trait is also associated with performance of adult roles and successful adaptation to these demands. Therefore, those who exhibit these qualities and who have partners who exhibit these qualities tend to have more satisfying relationships (Watson et al., 2000) which is consistent with the findings in this study. At the other end of the continuum is disinhibition. This trait was an important predictor of both partners' low dyadic adjustment. Individuals who rate high on disinhibition prefer immediate gratification and therefore engage in impulsive behavior. They have a hard time considering past mistakes or the consequences of their actions (Decuyper et al., 2016). These behaviors can therefore have detrimental effects on a relationship. Please refer to Figure 6 in Annex B for a visual representation of the results.

5.2 Integrating the Results and Clinical Applications

While both positive and negative traits showed effects on dyadic adjustment, certain traits were more consistent predictors than others. When examining the effects of traits

on dyadic adjustment, conscientiousness appeared to be a strong predictor for both women and men's dyadic adjustment. Conscientious individuals are responsible, attentive, persistent, orderly, and planful (Caspi et al., 2005). The sample in this research consisted of volunteers. Research volunteers are shown to be significantly higher in conscientiousness than nonvolunteers (Lonnqvist et al., 2007), which may be explained by their sense of duty (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Therefore, the incidence of conscientiousness may have played a role in couples' desire to spend time and effort to act as research participants and in their dyadic adjustment. Furthermore, the sample consisted largely of young professionals and university students. These occupations demand qualities of self-control and achievement motivation. Those who are at the beginning of their career may strive for high standards and be persistent and determined in their pursuit of their goals. In their relationships, they may be better able to generate strategies for handling social conflicts and other emotionally arousing experiences. Conscientiousness appeared to be particularly important for the men in the sample. Although they did rate women's conscientiousness to be higher than theirs, women's partner-rated conscientiousness was still within the average of what is expected in adults. Men also rated women's conscientiousness to be significantly higher than women rated themselves on this trait. Therefore, men had a favorable perception of women's conscientiousness, they had an idealized construction of their personality. The overestimation of positive traits is known as the halo effect (Berman & Kenny, 1976). The positive effect of men's favorable perception of women's conscientiousness on their own dyadic adjustment is in line with the projected illusions hypothesis. Furthermore, this favorable perception also had a significant positive effect on women's dyadic adjustment. This is in line with the reflected illusions hypothesis (Murray et al., 1996). Therefore, the men in this sample greatly appreciated having a partner who exhibited characteristics of this trait, and the women appreciated being viewed so positively. Interestingly, they were also strongly negatively affected by women's expression of the extreme low end of this same trait, disinhibition. Disinhibited individuals are irresponsible, unreliable, careless, and distractible (APA,

2013) which are shown to have detrimental effects on relationship functioning (Decuyper et al., 2016). Men rated women's disinhibition to be higher than women's rating of themselves on this trait. Therefore, men's perception of women's disinhibition may not reflect actuality but nonetheless had important ramifications for their dyadic adjustment. Overall, in a young cohabitating dating sample, both conscientiousness and disinhibition were important predictors of dyadic adjustment, particularly in men.

Agreeableness was also a good predictor of men's dyadic adjustment. Agreeableness and conscientiousness are related in terms of their associations with responsibility, that is being reliable and dependable (Brent W. Roberts, Bogg, Walton, Chernyshenko, & Stark, 2004). They also both involve aspects of inhibition (Caspi et al., 2005). Both traits are expected to increase with age which may be explained by the maturity principle (Caspi et al., 2005). That is, changes in these traits are associated with the performance of adult roles (Milojev & Sibley, 2017). Women typically score significantly higher on agreeableness than men do (Costa et al., 2001) which may in part be explained by gender roles (Prentice & Carranza, 2002). Although women's partner-rated agreeableness was within the average of what is expected in adults, men's perception of agreeableness' qualities in women had positive effects on their own dyadic adjustment. Agreeableness also played a role in women's dyadic adjustment. However, it involved the similarity in women and men's low agreeableness and the negative effect this can have on women's dyadic adjustment. Low agreeableness is associated with narcissistic tendencies and individuals who are egocentric and competitive. Individuals with narcissistic tendencies may prefer a partner who is higher on agreeableness with dependent qualities (Wells, Hill, Brack, Brack, & Firestone, 2006). However, when both partners were low on agreeableness, women were less well-adjusted in their relationship. Low agreeableness is associated with negative interaction which is associated with partner depressive symptoms (Marshall, Simpson, & Rholes, 2015). Individuals low in agreeableness may have difficulty controlling themselves and acting constructively. That is, they may lack the motivation

to maintain positive relationships with others and have difficulty trusting their partners, therefore making it difficult for them to manage their behaviors in a positive way. They are more vulnerable to threatening information about their relationship and respond in a negative manner (e.g. criticism, threats) (Perunovic & Holmes, 2008).

While other traits also had a role in predicting dyadic adjustment, two other trends were evident. Dyadic adjustment in our young cohabitating dating couples appeared to be most strongly and consistently predicted by how individuals rate their partners' personality, above and beyond how they rate themselves, how their partner rates them, and how similar partners are and perceive themselves to be. Relationships are evaluative. Individuals tend to have an external locus of causality, that is, they look to others to explain their self and to assign a cause for their current functioning. This can be done in a self-serving fashion. Furthermore, maladaptive variants of personality traits had significant effects on both partners' dyadic adjustment.

In the following two subsections, a description of the tentative explanatory model of the overall results will be presented (Annex D).

5.2.1 The development of self-concept

Individuals are influenced by external cues. These external influences contribute to individuals' development and to emotional experiences. Their experiences lead them to search for and perceive certain information in their social interactions. Individuals perceive others through the lens of their self-views, which are associated with their emotional experiences. This is based on their schemas. A schema is part of a cognitive system, a network of associations that organizes and guides an individual's perception (Baldwin, 1992). According to schema theory, what the individual perceives is based on the information available to them interacting with their preexisting schemas. When a schema is cognitively available, the individual may invoke it. The schema is invoked because of the interaction between the individual and their partner (Baldwin, 1992). Relational schema is based on the notion that people develop cognitive structures

representing predictable patterns in interpersonal interactions (Baldwin, 1992). People develop working models of their relationships which they use as cognitive representations to help them navigate their social world (Baldwin, 1992). Gender also plays a role in the development of schemas which in turn plays a role in the development of the self-concept. That is, gender can play a role in the individual deciding whether certain information is an important part of their self-concept. Self-concept is defined as an individual's perception of themselves, which is formed through their interactions and experiences with the environment and reinforced by their schemas (Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976). Schemas in the self-concept can affect how one perceives and assesses the behavior of others (Funder, 1995). All societies attribute adult roles on the basis of sex and expect these attributed roles when socializing children. Boys and girls are expected to develop sex-specific self-concepts and personality characteristics. Sex typing is the process of translating female/male into feminine/masculine. The individual learns to process information in terms of a gender schema and the self-concept is then defined by their gender schema. An individual may then change their behavior so that it fits with society's expectations of their maleness and femaleness (Lipsitz Bem, 1981). For example, women may be socialized to be more extraverted or agreeable. They are therefore expected to play out this role. Given the expectation that women be extraverted and agreeable, men may search for this information in their interactions with women therefore being primed to perceive particular cues. Therefore, people can draw upon their schemas to understand their partner's personality even when concrete evidence is lacking (Tidwell et al., 2013). Individuals can therefore develop internal representational schemas of their partner that are not in line with objective reality (Snyder, 1999).

5.2.2 Interaction between two individuals

Personality assessment necessarily involves at least two people, and any interaction between two people is a relationship. Therefore, there is a two-way interaction between the judge and the target. In romantic relationships, how partners see each other plays a

significant role in determining whether they have an intimate, healthy, and satisfying relationship. Each partner's personality shapes and is shaped by the couple's interactions with each other (Cooper & Sheldon, 2002). When individuals rate their partners' personality, they are attempting to identify their partners' psychological properties like personality traits (please refer to the introduction for a definition of personality traits). This helps them to explain what their partners have previously done and to predict what they will do next (Funder, 1991). Personality assessment is the product of the characteristics and behavior of the target and the observations and perceptions of the judge. The judge uses relevant cues that are available to them and that they can detect and use in order to make their personality assessment. The relationship between the two individuals is unique in that their interaction is based on a unique set and interaction of characteristics and this can influence the judgments each partner makes of the other and how accurate these judgments are. When partners know each other well, they may perceive personality characteristics in the other that the individual doesn't see themselves. This would be particularly true if an individual exhibits dysfunctional personality features as they may lack insight into their trait expression and the effect this has on their partner (Clifton et al., 2004). Judgment mistakes happen frequently in everyday life. This is not necessarily a problem unless it causes distress. That is, a judgment is viewed as accurate if it leads to successful social interaction. However, if an individual's behaviors and thoughts cannot be predicted by observation, they may be hiding something, be self-monitoring, or have a disorganized personality (Funder, 1995) which would have an impact on the relationship. Therefore, the way partners judge each other's personalities may not be accurate because of inconsistent or unavailable cues or because of an error in detection of those cues.

Personality judgments due to available cues, detection errors, or schemas and internal working models have important effects on dyadic adjustment (please refer to the introduction for a definition of dyadic adjustment) in romantic relationships. Overall, dyadic adjustment in our young cohabitating dating couples appears to be most strongly

predicted by what individuals think of their partners, above and beyond what they think of themselves, what their partner thinks of them, and how similar partners are and perceive themselves to be. In particular, conscientiousness appears to play the most important role in the young cohabitating dating couple sample. We think conscientiousness was particularly influential for these couples because of the adult roles they are embracing and appropriating for themselves. As previously discussed, conscientiousness qualities are needed in order for these young professionals to be successful in their adult roles. Furthermore, men's perception of women's conscientiousness resulted in the largest effect on their own dyadic adjustment. Women may be playing out their expected gender role in an era where academic and occupational achievement are highly regarded. Therefore, men in their twenties appear to benefit from being in a relationship with a female partner who has ambition and drive. It would be interesting to follow these couples over time in order to determine whether this remains true once partners marry and have a family. We could suspect that other traits such as agreeableness become more important later in a relationship. While this data is currently lacking, re-sampling of these couples in a few years will allow for a longitudinal study of the evolution of personality traits and their effects on dyadic adjustment through time and by couple type.

Another important finding was that women's dyadic adjustment in particular appeared to be affected by similarity in personality traits. They may prefer to be in relationships where they feel a sense of shared experience and closeness. While similarity in personality traits played a role in women's dyadic adjustment at the beginning of their relationship, it would be interesting to study whether this remains true at a later stage in their relationship. Once again, a future longitudinal study will allow for this investigation.

5.2.3 Clinical applications

The results from these studies can have important implications for couple therapists and the development of intervention strategies. Marital therapists are increasingly

addressing personality characteristics with the belief that these characteristics are associated with distress and affect the outcomes of couple therapy (Gattis et al., 2004). Previous research mainly focuses on couples who have been together for several years and who are married. The current research focused on young cohabitating dating couples and is therefore informative of the earlier stages of relationships. Therapists benefit from understanding how partners view each other and from knowing what personality traits predict successful relationships. If they understand how personality predicts dyadic adjustment at the beginning of relationships, it may be easier for them to intervene and help couples minimize or avoid rigid and dysfunctional patterns rather than try to work on them later. Couple therapy research demonstrates that couples continue to influence each other over the course of treatment. For example, men's level of distress at baseline exacerbates women's distress over the course of therapy, whereas women's positivity at baseline enhances men's positivity at termination (Cook & Snyder, 2005). With couples gaining insight into how their personality patterns predict relationship dysfunction, they can become more sensitive to one another and respond more appropriately, thereby reducing conflict. Furthermore, therapy that lasts four or more weeks has been shown to increase individuals' emotional stability (neuroticism) half of the expected amount in young adulthood through middle age. Changes in personality trait ratings change more quickly than once thought, with these changes shown to maintain over time. The two traits that change the most are emotional stability (neuroticism) and extraversion for both clinical and non-clinical studies (Roberts et al., 2017). These results help clinicians to tailor their treatments to address specific traits with high fidelity. Furthermore, addressing individuals' interpretations of their partners' personality characteristics, rather than simply assessing actual characteristics, can have significant implications for the ways in which couple therapists intervene.

One approach that has been shown to be successful in addressing cognitive interpretations is cognitive therapy. The cognitive theory of PDs focuses on the dysfunctional beliefs thought to underlie pathological behavior. The assumption of this

model is that these beliefs tend to be rigid and pervasive because they emanate from deeply engrained schemas. However, once the underlying beliefs are made accessible, the patient can then apply realistic, logical reasoning to modify them (Beck & Freeman, 1990). The goal for the clinician is to identify these core schemas and resulting beliefs, and to help the client understand how these beliefs lead to dysfunction. The identification of traits can allow for the development of cognitive formulations by identifying core beliefs that could represent treatment targets (Hopwood, Schade, Krueger, Wright, & Markon, 2013).

Cognitive restructuring can be used to alter partners' interpretations of each other's behavior. The goals of cognitive restructuring in couple therapy are to facilitate the partners' ability to identify their cognitions that are associated with relationship dysfunction, to test the validity or appropriateness of those cognitions, and to modify dysfunctional cognitions. The therapist can help the couple identify exceptions that can then challenge their selective attention to negatives. To change attributions and expectancies, the therapist can use logical analysis to examine the evidence in order to develop an explanation about the partner. To change assumptions and standards, the therapist can use Socratic questioning by asking the partners to assess the consequences of living according to their standards and assumptions (Christensen & Heavey, 1999). These interventions have been shown to be effective in changing personality traits, both in clinical and nonclinical populations (Roberts et al., 2017).

A key aspect of couple therapy is identifying the dysfunctional, persistent dynamics in the relationship that may be resulting in conflict and distress. By understanding how partners perceive one another, clinicians might isolate important factors triggering maladaptive dynamics. They could engage the couple in discussing the relevant behaviors and how their perceptions of each other create, maintain, or exacerbate maladaptive ways of relating to each other. Clinicians could routinely assess partner-ratings of personality and consider them in combination with self-ratings of personality (Brock et al., 2016).

Furthermore, the results from these studies can also have important implications for the development of more effective and accurate algorithms to match mates on online dating websites. Online dating is commonly used to find a date or a long-term partner. When individuals are matched on these online platforms, it is not random. They are matched based on many attributes, including their personality (Hitsch, Hortaçsu, & Ariely, 2010). This has changed the romantic acquaintance process in that individuals have access to more information about the other than in an in person first meeting. It has also changed the compatibility matching process by using complex mathematical matching algorithms rather than individuals' intuition or advice from loved ones (Finkel, Eastwick, Karney, Reis, & Sprecher, 2012). Although online dating services don't have superior matching outcomes than in-person matching, the research results can nonetheless further enhance the accuracy and predictability of the online dating software by providing online dating companies selective representative data.

5.2.4 Subclinical symptoms and intervention

Another important trend detected in this research was the role that maladaptive variants of personality traits played in romantic relationships in a community sample. The boundary between normal personality functioning and a personality disorder is hypothetical in nature and doesn't have an exact definition. In fact, this has led to an excessive number of comorbid disorder diagnoses (Andersen & Bienvenu, 2011). At the extremes, there is a clear differentiation between personality disorder and its absence. However, there is considerable variation in between such extremes, ranging from average functionality to subclinical symptoms of little clinical concern to subclinical symptoms worthy of treatment. This implies viewing PD as a continuum of severity rather than simply a categorical diagnosis. The dimensional model preserves information about subclinical manifestations of personality pathology that may have significant functional consequences (Stepp et al., 2012). Individuals with greater subclinical symptoms report greater dysfunction in their romantic relationships (Daley

et al., 2000). Furthermore, being in a relationship with an individual who scores higher on maladaptive personality traits is also distressing. Those with higher maladaptive personality trait scores engage in maladaptive attributions, which is linked to higher rates of observed negative behavior and greater reciprocation of negative behavior in couple interactions, which predicts declines in relationship quality over time. For example, individuals high in negative affectivity tend to evaluate many social stimuli in a pessimistic and negative fashion, and they are expected to make relatively maladaptive attributions for events in the relationship. Individuals who are in a relationship with a partner who is relatively high in negative affect will also make maladaptive attributions, because a partner who is consistently negative and pessimistic may come to elicit critical attributions from the partner. Distressed partners are more likely than nondistressed partners to attribute marital problems and negative partner behaviors to stable and global characteristics of the partner and to view the partner as behaving intentionally, in a blameworthy manner. This is in line with the vulnerability-stress-adaptation model (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). From a clinical point of view, the exact boundary between personality difficulties and personality disorder is not the only consideration related to the decision to intervene. Many individuals who seek therapy for interpersonal difficulties, but who do not meet the level of dysfunction of a personality disorder, may still need and benefit from clinical intervention (Clarkin, Meehan, & Lenzenweger, 2015). Therefore, in order to best respond to the needs of the client, it is important for the clinician to consider subclinical symptoms in community samples and the effects these can have on romantic relationships. It was clear in the community sample that those who perceived maladaptive variants of personality traits in their partner also reported lower dyadic adjustment. This confirms the increasing recognition of the importance of maladaptive personality traits in the study of romantic distress and adjustment.

5.3 Strengths

This research attempted to examine actor, partner, and similarity effects of personality on dyadic adjustment. It did so by collecting data using Web-based questionnaires. Participants completed both self-rated and partner-rated questionnaires measuring personality traits with the NEO-FFI-3 (Cost & McCrae, 1992), and maladaptive personality traits with the PID-5 (Krueger, Derringer, Markon, Watson, & Skodol, 2013). The Maladaptive Personality Trait Model has been shown to be an extension of the FFM with each maladaptive personality trait lining up with a trait from the Big Five (negative affect with neuroticism, detachment with introversion, psychoticism with openness, antagonism with low agreeableness, and disinhibition with low conscientiousness (Gore & Widiger, 2013)). The inclusion of a measure of maladaptive personality traits allowed for a more meaningful observation of the role of personality in dyadic adjustment. It allowed us to provide a picture of the subclinical symptomatology in the community and determine whether they had important ramifications in romantic relationships. Furthermore, previous research mainly focused on self-ratings of personality which has the potential to artificially inflate the results due to confirmation bias. Also, those studies that sampled partner-ratings have demonstrated that they have the strongest effects on dyadic adjustment, over and above self-ratings. Therefore, we thought it imperative to sample both self-ratings and partner-ratings. Furthermore, when studying data from couples, it is important to consider that they are interdependent. That is, the partners' personality affects not only their own dyadic adjustment but also their partner's. Several previous studies have not accounted for this interdependence in their analyses which has led to an overestimation of the main effects. Therefore, this research used an appropriate statistical approach by using the APIM which accounts for interdependence. The use of self-rated and partner-rated personality traits and maladaptive personality traits, as well as the APIM, make this research unique.

Another strength of this research is the sampling of young cohabitating dating couples in the community. Large-scale models of the relationship between personality and relationship satisfaction have largely, although not exclusively, focused on a single couple type, that of married couples. There is a lack of data on cohabitating dating couples and given the differential effects that personality traits can have on dyadic adjustment across couple type, there is a need for research that examines the effects of personality and personality similarity on dyadic adjustment in a younger cohabitating dating sample. Moreover, there are differences in personality trait expression across age. Studies demonstrate developmental changes in personality before the age of 30. To date, most researchers interested in personality and dyadic adjustment focus on older couples. Therefore, this research examined personality and dyadic adjustment associations in individuals still going through maturational changes and adds to a scarce body of knowledge for this population.

5.4 Limitations

The present research has limitations that should be taken into account when interpreting the findings. First, the study is cross-sectional, therefore making it impossible to draw conclusions about causality. Further longitudinal studies are needed to address and enhance the comprehension of the temporal direction between personality traits and dyadic adjustment. Most couples in this study have agreed to be contacted at a later date in order for there to be follow-up with regard to their couple status, personality traits, and dyadic adjustment. A future longitudinal study will therefore be conducted.

A second limitation of the present study has to do with the generalizability of results. The sample consisted of only heterosexual couples. Personality traits may have unique implications for dyadic functioning for same-sex couples. Research shows that homosexual and heterosexual individuals differ significantly on a number of Big Five traits, with the strongest difference being for openness to experience (Lippa, 2005). There is one known study looking at associations between personality traits and

relationship quality and stability (Kurdek, 2004) and some studies that demonstrate the indirect effects of personality on relationship quality (Clausell & Roisman, 2009). Furthermore, there is one study demonstrating the effects of LGB identity similarity on relationship quality (Mohr & Fassinger, 2006). However, no known study has looked at the direct effects of personality similarity on couple satisfaction in same-sex couples. Therefore, there is a need for researchers to study same-sex couples to further our understanding of the role personality plays in their romantic relationships. Furthermore, the sample in this study remains relatively small. Additional research using larger representative population samples will allow for more generalizable results.

A third limitation is that research on relationships may create selection effects. That is, participants who decide to participate in these types of studies may be more motivated to learn about and understand their relationship than the general population. Couples who are very well or very poorly adjusted may be more willing to seek out and participate. Research shows that respondents are higher in extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, and lower in neuroticism. This indicates that research volunteers are more psychologically adjusted than individuals who choose not to participate. Furthermore, participants may feel a sense of duty (conscientiousness), a need for social interaction (extraversion), or a need for compliance (agreeableness) (Lonnqvist et al., 2007). However, offering a monetary incentive may render the study more attractive and more difficult to refuse. Nonetheless, it is difficult to know whether couples who agree to participate in research on relationship adjustment represent the general population.

A fourth limitation is the use of self-reports of behavior. Future research that includes assessment of actual behaviors is needed in order to corroborate the results. Traits are inferred from behaviors and are therefore less visible than the behaviors themselves. Self-report measures are not very sensitive to dyadic dynamics and can also be biased by social desirability or by the tendency to under-evaluate the level of distress.

Observational coding uses independent raters to assess dyadic dynamics of both partners and therefore circumvents the possible bias and lack of sensitivity of self-report measures. It may be that personality plays a moderating role in the relationship between behaviors, like problem-solving, and adjustment. For example, problem solving may be more positively correlated with dyadic adjustment for individuals with a high openness to experience score. With regard to personality similarity, problem solving may be more negatively correlated with dyadic adjustment for partners who differ in terms of their agreeableness, or who are similar in terms of (high) neuroticism). Additional data was collected for this study but not used in this research. Couples were invited to a filmed dyadic problem-solving interaction. The interpersonal dynamics were measured using macro behavioral coding and qualitative analysis of their filmed interaction. This data will be used in a future dissertation and article.

5.5 Future Research and Recommendations

Some recommendations for future research are worth mentioning. First, it is recommended that more researchers commit to doing longitudinal studies of personality and relationship outcomes. Given the selective sampling of young cohabitating dating adults, it is clearer what role personality plays in earlier relationship phases. It would be greatly beneficial to sample couples at varying stages of their relationship as well as at different ages. However, this must be done using selective samples of couples within a restricted age range in order to properly map out the evolution of personality traits across couple type and age and the effects these may have on couple adjustment.

Second, it would be worth administering the longer versions of the NEO and the PID-5 in order to sample lower personality trait facets. Results at this level may be useful in developing more specific trait profiles that are indicative of relationship functioning. They may also help to inform more precise interventions. More specific connections between dysfunctional beliefs and pathological traits could be mapped out at a lower

level of the hierarchy. Meaningful individual differences can be seen within domains. Examination of facet scales can provide a more fine-grained analysis of persons or groups. For example, conscientiousness involves several subcomponents, including orderliness, ambition, and self-discipline. An individual may be pleased with their partner if they have some aspects (e.g. ambition and self-discipline) and displeased if they lack others (orderliness). Therefore, it would be helpful for clinicians to look at specific facets that may affect the relationship.

Third, given lack of evidence for consistent personality similarity effects on dyadic adjustment, it may be worth assessing general perceived similarity. That is, asking participants how similar they feel to one another rather than generating indirect measures of personality similarity. The results clearly highlight the importance of partner perceptions in the determination of dyadic adjustment. It may be that partners' explicit report of their perceived similarity would have stronger and more consistent effects on dyadic adjustment.

Fourth, it is recommended that researchers use other measures of adjustment and interaction in order to better understand the dynamics of personality in couples. Behavioral coding systems provide a way of coding positive and negative dimensions of couple interaction based on communication behaviors and patterns that are shown to differentiate between functional and dysfunctional communication processes. This data could add to our understanding of the role of personality in couple adjustment.

5.6 Conclusion

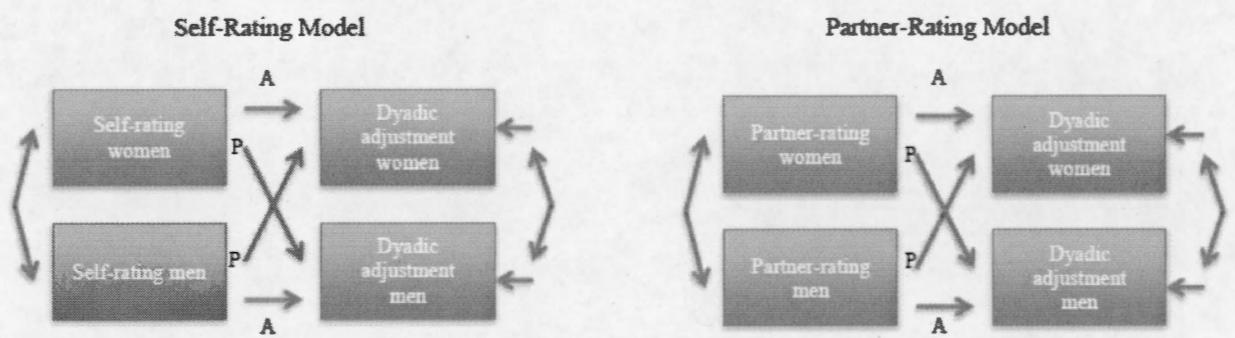
In conclusion, the study of personality and couple adjustment revealed that an individual's perception of their partner's personality is most consistently predictive of dyadic adjustment. Furthermore, while personality similarity didn't appear to be a particularly strong predictor of dyadic adjustment in young cohabitating dating couples, it may be that it becomes more important at later stages of the relationship. Future research can test this hypothesis. The take-away message for clinicians is to not

solely rely on self-report measures of personality but rather to focus more on the perception that each partner has of the other. In some cases, these perceptions are favorable and relationship-serving, in other cases the perceptions are negatively distorted and contribute to a maladaptive cycle of behaviors. These perceptions, which are subjective and context dependent, can be retrained to be more realistic and adaptive. Increasing the couple's acceptance that each partner contributes to the interactional pattern is an important step in treatment.

ANNEX

Annex A: Figure 1. APIM ([back to text](#))

Figure 1. APIM model where "A" is the actor effect and "P" is the partner effect



Annex B. Results from Article 1 Integrated Model

Figure 2. Results from Integrated Model for Neuroticism and Negative Affect
[\(back to text\)](#)

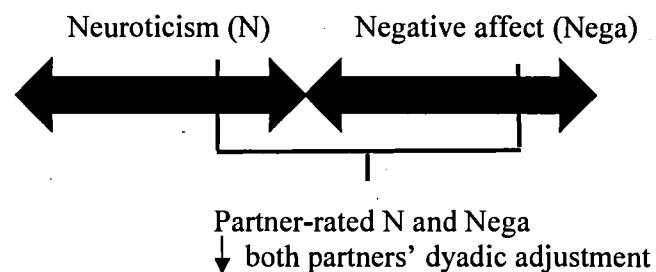


Figure 3. Results from Integrated Model for Detachment and Extraversion
[\(back to text\)](#)

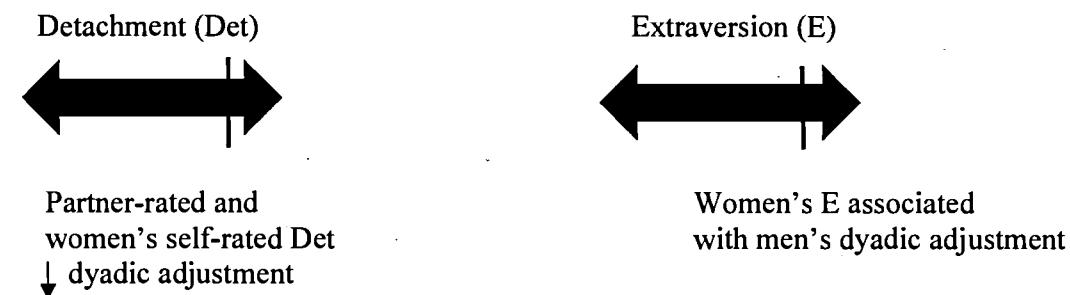


Figure 4. Results from Integrated Model for Openness and Psychoticism
[\(back to text\)](#)

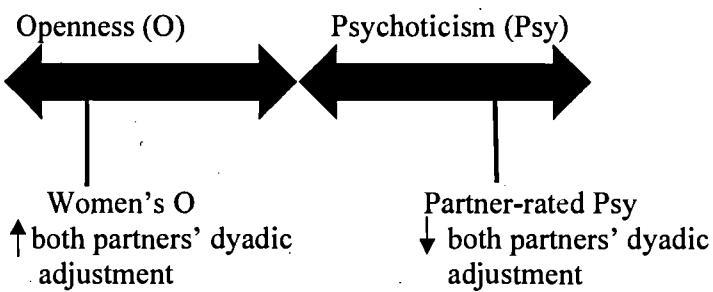
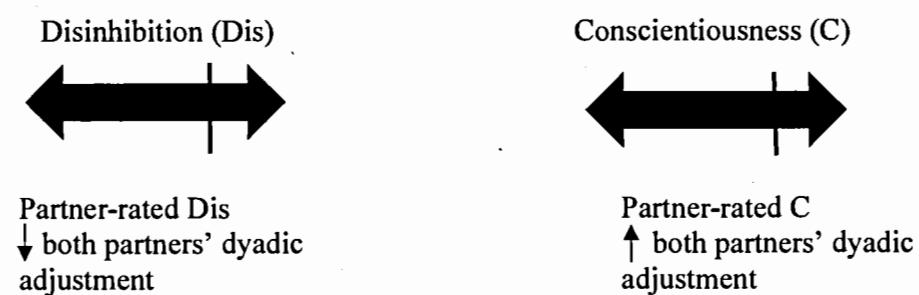


Figure 5. Results from Integrated Model for Antagonism and Agreeableness
[\(back to text\)](#)



Figure 6. Results from Integrated Model for Disinhibition and Conscientiousness
[\(back to text\)](#)

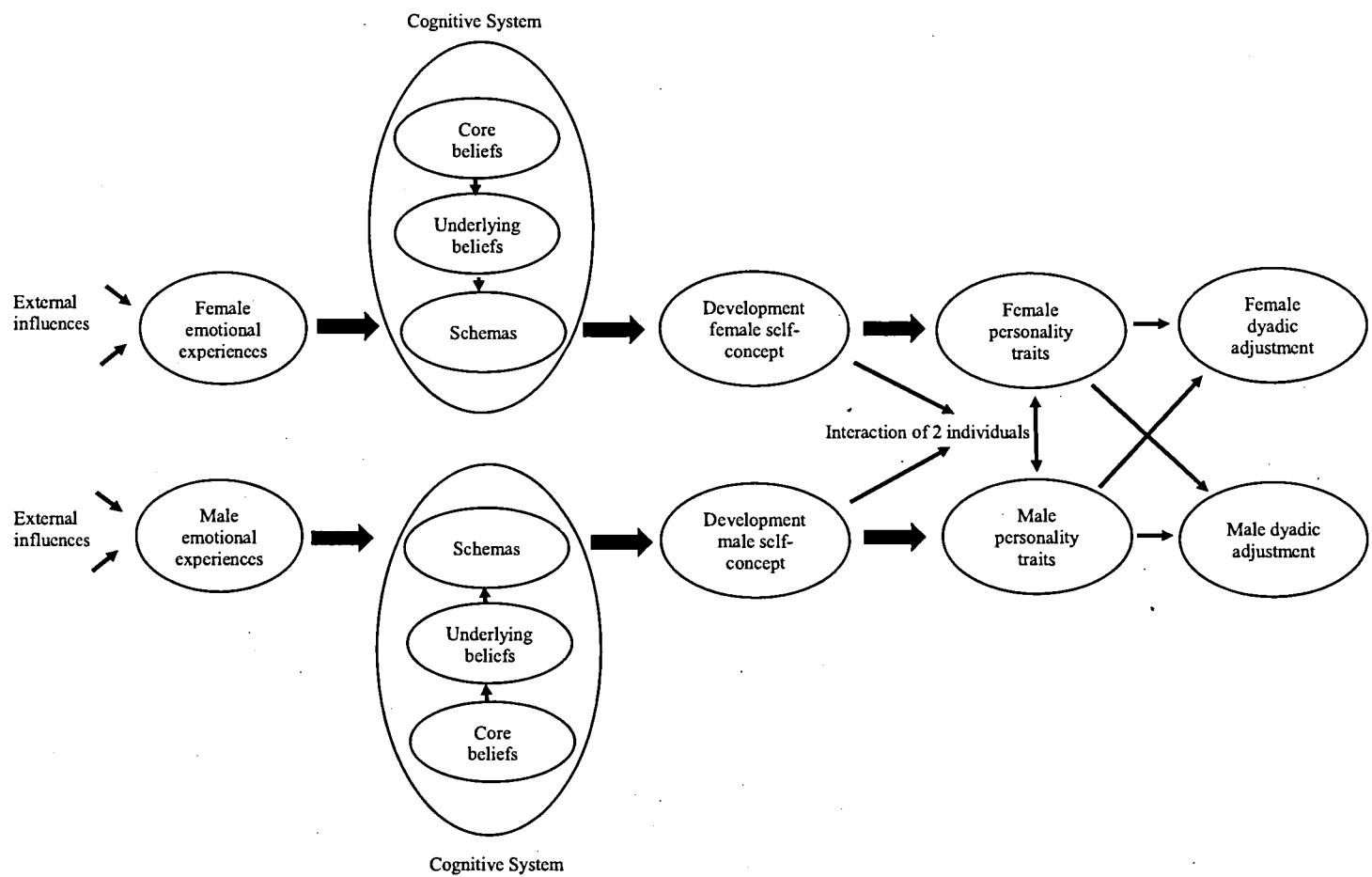


Annex C. Results from Article 2 (back to text)

Table 1. Results from Article 2

		Trait	Actual similarity		Women		Men	
			Higher DAS in ♀ ♂	Lower DAS in ♀ ♂	Higher DAS in ♀ ♂	Lower DAS in ♀ ♂	Higher DAS in ♀ ♂	Lower DAS in ♀ ♂
HIGH	Extraversion		X		X			
	Detachment					X		
LOW	Extraversion		X					
	Neuroticism			X				
	Agreeableness				X			
	Psychoticism					X		X

Annex D. Figure 7. Model representation of overall results (back to text)



APPENDIX

Appendix A: Self-Rated NEO-FFI-3 (Costa & McCrae, 2010) [\(back to text\)](#)

NEO FFI3 (EN)

1. I am not a worrier. (R)
2. I like to have a lot of people around me.
3. I enjoy concentrating on a fantasy or daydream and exploring all its possibilities, letting it grow and develop.
4. I try to be courteous to everyone I meet.
5. I keep my belongings neat and clean.
6. At times I have felt bitter and resentful.
7. I laugh easily.
8. I think it's interesting to learn and develop new hobbies.
9. At times I bully or flatter people into doing what I want them to. (R)
10. I'm pretty good about pacing myself so as to get things done on time.
11. When I'm under a great deal of stress, sometimes I feel like I'm going to pieces.
12. I prefer jobs that let me work alone without being bothered by other people. (R)
13. I am intrigued by the patterns I find in art and nature.
14. Some people think I'm selfish and egotistical. (R)
15. I often come into situations without being fully prepared. (R)
16. I rarely feel lonely or blue. (R)
17. I really enjoy talking to people.
18. I believe letting students hear controversial speakers can only confuse and mislead them. (R)
19. If someone starts a fight, I'm ready to fight back. (R)
20. I try to perform all the tasks assigned to me conscientiously.
21. I often feel tense and jittery.
22. I like to be where the action is.
23. Poetry has little or no effect on me. (R)
24. I'm better than most people, and I know it. (R)
25. I have a clear set of goals and work toward them in an orderly fashion.
26. Sometimes I feel completely worthless.
27. I shy away from crowds of people. (R)

28. I would have difficulty just letting my mind wander without control or guidance. (R)
29. When I've been insulted, I just try to forgive and forget.
30. I waste a lot of time before settling down to work. (R)
31. I rarely feel fearful or anxious. (R)
32. I often feel as if I'm bursting with energy.
33. I seldom notice the moods or feelings that different environments produce. (R)
34. I tend to assume the best about people.
35. I work hard to accomplish my goals.
36. I often get angry at the way people treat me.
37. I am a cheerful, high-spirited person.
38. I experience a wide range of emotions or feelings.
39. Some people think of me as cold and calculating. (R)
40. When I make a commitment, I can always be counted on to follow through.
41. Too often, when things go wrong, I get discouraged and feel like giving up.
42. I don't get much pleasure from chatting with people. (R)
43. Sometimes when I am reading poetry or looking at a work of art, I feel a chill or wave of excitement.
44. I have no sympathy for beggars. (R)
45. Sometimes I'm not as dependable or reliable as I should be. (R)
46. I am seldom sad or depressed. (R)
47. My life is fast-paced.
48. I have little interest in speculating on the nature of the universe or the human condition. (R)
49. I generally try to be thoughtful and considerate.
50. I am a productive person who always gets the job done.
51. I often feel helpless and want someone else to solve my problems.
52. I am a very active person.
53. I have a lot of intellectual curiosity.
54. If I don't like people, I let them know it. (R)
55. I never seem to be able to get organized. (R)

- 56. At times I have been so ashamed I just wanted to hide.
- 57. I would rather go my own way than be a leader of others. (R)
- 58. I often enjoy playing with theories or abstract ideas.
- 59. If necessary, I am willing to manipulate people to get what I want. (R)
- 60. I strive for excellence in everything I do.

ÉCHANTILLON

Appendix B: Self-Rated PID-5-BF (Krueger et al., 2013) ([back to text](#))

The Personality Inventory for DSM-5—Brief Form (PID-5-BF)—Adult

Name: _____ Age: _____ Sex: Male Female Date: _____

Instructions: This is a list of things different people might say about themselves. We are interested in how you would describe yourself. There are no right or wrong answers. So you can describe yourself as honestly as possible, we will keep your responses confidential. We'd like you to take your time and read each statement carefully, selecting the response that best describes you.					Clinician Use	
		Very False or Often False	Sometimes or Somewhat False	Sometimes or Somewhat True	Very True or Often True	Item score
1	People would describe me as reckless.	0	1	2	3	
2	I feel like I act totally on impulse.	0	1	2	3	
3	Even though I know better, I can't stop making rash decisions.	0	1	2	3	
4	I often feel like nothing I do really matters.	0	1	2	3	
5	Others see me as irresponsible.	0	1	2	3	
6	I'm not good at planning ahead.	0	1	2	3	
7	My thoughts often don't make sense to others.	0	1	2	3	
8	I worry about almost everything.	0	1	2	3	
9	I get emotional easily, often for very little reason.	0	1	2	3	
10	I fear being alone in life more than anything else.	0	1	2	3	
11	I get stuck on one way of doing things, even when it's clear it won't work.	0	1	2	3	
12	I have seen things that weren't really there.	0	1	2	3	
13	I steer clear of romantic relationships.	0	1	2	3	
14	I'm not interested in making friends.	0	1	2	3	
15	I get irritated easily by all sorts of things.	0	1	2	3	
16	I don't like to get too close to people.	0	1	2	3	
17	It's no big deal if I hurt other peoples' feelings.	0	1	2	3	
18	I rarely get enthusiastic about anything.	0	1	2	3	
19	I crave attention.	0	1	2	3	
20	I often have to deal with people who are less important than me.	0	1	2	3	
21	I often have thoughts that make sense to me but that other people say are strange.	0	1	2	3	
22	I use people to get what I want.	0	1	2	3	
23	I often "zone out" and then suddenly come to and realize that a lot of time has passed.	0	1	2	3	
24	Things around me often feel unreal, or more real than usual.	0	1	2	3	
25	It is easy for me to take advantage of others.	0	1	2	3	
Total/Partial Raw Score:						
Prorated Total Score: (if 1-6 items left unanswered)						
Average Total Score:						

Krueger RF, Derringer J, Markon KE, Watson D, Skodol AE.
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[Appendix C: Self-Rated DAS \(Spanier, 1976\) \(back to text\)](#)

D A S

Graham B. Spanier, Ph.D.

Client ID _____

Sex M F

Age _____

Marital Status _____

Most people have disagreements. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list. Circle only one star for each item.

1. Handling family finances
2. Matters of recreation
3. Religious matters
4. Demonstrations of affection
5. Friends
6. Sex relations
7. Conventionality (correct or proper behavior)
8. Philosophy of life
9. Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws
10. Aims, goals, and things believed important
11. Amount of time spent together
12. Making major decisions
13. Household tasks
14. Leisure time interests and activities
15. Career decisions

16. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or termination of your relationship?
17. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight?
18. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well?
19. Do you confide in your mate?
20. Do you ever regret that you married (or lived together)?
21. How often do you and your partner quarrel?
22. How often do you and your mate get on each others' nerves?

23. Do you kiss your mate?

24. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together?

How often do the following occur between you and your mate?

25. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas
26. Laugh together
27. Calmly discuss something
28. Work together on a project

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree or disagree. Indicate if either item caused differences of opinions or were problems in the past few weeks.

29. Being too tired for sex
30. Not showing love

31. The stars on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Circle the star below the phrase which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

Extremely Unhappy	Fairly Unhappy	A Little Unhappy	Happy	Very Happy	Extremely Happy	Perfect
*	*	*	*	*	*	*

32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship? Write the statement number in the box.

- 5 I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does.
- 4 I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does.
- 3 I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.
- 2 It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.
- 1 It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.
- 0 My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

Choose
Number

Appendix D: Raw Data for All Variables

Table 1 (back to [article 1](#), to [article 2](#))

Mean raw scores for women and men's personality and dyadic adjustment

Scale	Self W	Partner W	Self M	Partner M
N	26.08	26.83	21.06	19.95
E	30.06	29.11	28.67	28.58
O	34.65	31.69	33.27	31.62
A	31.72	31.77	29.66	31.27
C	32.00	34.28	29.95	31.19
Nega	1.54	1.37	0.93	0.99
Det	0.73	0.82	0.85	0.80
Psy	1.38	0.75	1.33	0.70
Ant	0.68	0.58	0.70	0.65
Dis	0.80	0.84	1.04	0.81
DAS	114.35		112.65	

Note. Self W = self-rated women; Partner W = partner-rated women (as women were rated by men); Self M = self-rated men; Partner M = partner-rated men (as men were rated by women); N = neuroticism; E = extraversion; O = openness; A = agreeableness; C = conscientiousness; NA = negative affect; Det = detachment; Psy = psychoticism; Ant = antagonism; Dis = disinhibition; DAS = dyadic adjustment

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