

Daily Manifestations of Caregiver- and Self-Reported Maladaptive Personality Traits in  
Adolescent Girls

Aleksandra Kaurin<sup>a</sup>, Quyen B. Do<sup>b</sup>, Cecile D. Ladouceur<sup>c</sup>,  
Jennifer S. Silk<sup>b</sup>, & Aidan G.C. Wright<sup>b</sup>,

<sup>a</sup> Faculty of Health/School of Psychology and Psychiatry, Witten/Herdecke University, Witten,  
Germany

<sup>b</sup> Department of Psychology, University of Pittsburgh

<sup>c</sup> Department of Psychiatry, University of Pittsburgh School of Medicine

This study was supported by National Institutes of Health grants (R01 MH103241; UL1  
TR001857). The opinions expressed are solely those of the authors and not those of the  
funding source. Declarations of interest: *None*.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Aleksandra Kaurin,  
Department of Psychology, Witten/Herdecke University, Alfred-Herrhausen-Straße 44, 58455  
Witten, Germany. E-Mail: [aleksandra.kaurin@uni-wh.de](mailto:aleksandra.kaurin@uni-wh.de)

## Abstract

Establishing maladaptive personality traits at a younger age in a developmentally appropriate and clinically tangible way may alert clinicians to dysfunction earlier, and thus reduce the risk of significant impairment later in life. The DSM-5 Alternative Model for Personality Disorders (AMPD) provides a set of traits useful for organizing behavioral and experiential patterns central to daily personality functioning. The goal of the present study was to evaluate manifestations indicative of AMPD traits via ambulatory assessments in the daily lives of adolescent girls. Caregivers and girls ( $N=129$ ; age:  $M=12.27$ ,  $SD=.80$ ) provided baseline assessments of girls' trait vulnerabilities (negative affectivity, detachment, antagonism, disinhibition, psychoticism) and girls additionally completed a 16-day ecological momentary assessment protocol ( $N= 5036$  observations), rating social behaviors and experiences in their daily lives. Multilevel structural equation models revealed that trait vulnerabilities were linked to more extreme shifts in interpersonal experiences and behaviors from one moment to the next, suggesting that maladaptive personality traits were linked to greater variability. Furthermore, AMPD traits were positively and strongly related to negative affect in daily interpersonal situations. More specifically, girls' trait ratings were associated with elevated mean-levels in boredom, disappointment in others as well as interpersonal tension. Caregiver-reports complemented this perspective of dissatisfying social interactions, suggesting that especially detachment and antagonism accounted for lower levels of social connectedness and more variability in social activities in girls' daily lives. Results are discussed in terms of the short-term dynamics and related intervention targets of developmental personality pathology.

*Keywords:* adolescence; developmental personality pathology; interpersonal processes; ecological momentary assessment; multilevel structural equation modelling;

## Daily Manifestations of Caregiver- and Self-Reported Maladaptive Personality Traits in Adolescent Girls

Disrupted interpersonal and affective processes are defining features of personality pathology (APA, 2013; Hopwood et al., 2013; Wright & Ringwald, 2022). Individual differences in related behavioral and experiential patterns emerge long before adulthood (Sharp et al., 2018; Shiner & Tackett, 2014), and relevant trait vulnerabilities predict a multitude of poor outcomes such as low educational qualifications, official crime records, or victimization (De Fruyt & De Clercq, 2014; Wertz et al., 2020; Winsper, 2021). Because most empirical work has focused on structural models and developmental trajectories of maladaptive personality traits at a young age (Somma et al., 2018; Widiger et al., 2009; De Clercq et al., 2014b), we know little about how trait vulnerabilities manifest in the daily lives of youth (Scott et al., 2015; Vanwoerden et al., 2021). Such knowledge, however, is key to illuminate targets for sustainable treatment and prevention (e.g., Kaurin et al., 2022). To narrow this gap, we offer a conceptual perspective and preliminary data on developmental personality pathology as contextualized processes in the daily lives of adolescent girls. Thus, we illustrate how related research questions can be tested via ambulatory assessment (AA).

Adolescence is characterized by considerable cognitive and social-contextual development with important implications for the quality of social relationships (Blakemore & Mills, 2014; Nelson et al., 2005). During late childhood and adolescence, peers become key sources of social support and via social comparison adolescents use peer experiences as primary bases for identity and self-concept development (Dahl et al., 2018). Increases in autonomy and the expansion of social networks to close, intimate, and supportive friendships coincide with the frequency of negative peer and negative emotional events (Bailen et al., 2019; Griffith et al., 2021) with some evidence highlighting particular increases in interpersonal stressors among adolescent girls (Hankin et al., 2007). Although stressful interpersonal events as well as upticks in negative emotionality are – to some degree –

developmentally normative, they do not affect all youth equally (De Fruyt & De Clercq, 2014) and when severe and pervasive, they hinder successful coping with developmental stressors (Sharp et al., 2018).

Although maladaptive personality traits generally tend to decline in adolescence (Álvarez-Tomás et al., 2019), they do so much less in youth characterized by severe emotional sensitivity, impulsivity, as well as a interpersonal reactivity (De Clercq et al., 2009b; Cohen et al., 2005). Similarly, elevated symptoms of borderline personality disorder (BPD) in adolescence predict social, educational, work- as well as health-related impairment during the transition to adulthood (Wertz et al., 2020; Winsper et al., 2020; Wright et al., 2016). Moreover, these effects tend to remain significant even after clinical remission (Biskin et al., 2011) or after controlling for co-morbidity (Winograd et al., 2008; Wright et al., 2016). Conceivably, the contribution of trait vulnerabilities to poor functional outcomes is carried via frequent maladaptive interpersonal experiences (De Clercq et al., 2009a; Kerr et al., 2021; Vanwoerden et al., 2021). Elevated levels of emotional instability (Franssens et al., 2022; Verbeke et al., 2017), introversion or shyness (Coplan et al., 2004), disinhibition, as well as domains of psychoticism (De Clercq et al., 2017; Esterberg et al., 2010) all characterize youth that tend to experience difficulties with the formation of social autonomy via reliable peer relationships. In the long run, difficulties with the mastery of developmental milestones may likely contribute to persisting trait-correlated behaviors (Caspi & Shiner, 2006; Shiner & Caspi, 2003; Shiner & Masten, 2002).

Although theoretically well-established (De Fruyt & De Clercq, 2014; Sharp & Wall, 2021), to date only one study empirically tested the hypothesized trajectory of disrupted interpersonal processes toward personality pathology in the context of developmentally sensitive periods. In their study, Vanwoerden et al. (2021) found that maladaptive personality traits in childhood, especially those characterized by antagonism and emotional instability, predict self-function in young adulthood via a cascade of social problems in adolescence. By

highlighting the contextual importance of interpersonal interactions, these findings emphasize how important it is for clinically useful models of developmental psychopathology to assess trait-relevant behaviors, experiences and perceptions that vary *within* an adolescent, in addition to stable traits that vary *between* adolescents (Wright & Kaurin, 2020).

This distinction of dynamic within-person processes and stable between-person differences of maladaptive personality is key to the Alternative Model for Personality Disorders (AMPD) in DSM-5 Section III (De Clercq et al., 2009b; Sharp, 2020; Shiner, 2009). The model emphasizes self and interpersonal functioning (Criterion A) in the context of a dimensional trait model established by psychometric procedures (Criterion B; e.g., Wright & Kaurin, 2020). Criterion A comprises contextually sensitive within-person processes that match key developmental tasks in adolescence (e.g., empathy, interpersonal proximity, self-regulation). Criterion B is organized around individual differences in how these impairments are expressed and improves the existing diagnostic system by incorporating five dimensions consistent with decades of empirical literature on normative and pathological personality (negative affectivity, detachment, antagonism, disinhibition, and psychoticism). The Personality Inventory for the DSM-5 (PID-5; Krueger et al., 2012) is the most used measure on trait vulnerabilities of personality pathology (Criterion B) and has been validated for use in adolescents (De Clercq et al., 2014b; De Clercq et al., 2014; Somma et al., 2018). Previous work on the assessment of youth maladaptive personality traits, especially in the context of PID-5 based assessments, has largely relied on self-reports. However, because some aspects of behavior are more, or even exclusively, observable from another person's perspective (*see Oltmanns & Oltmanns (2021) for an overview*), especially caregiver-reports are key to comprehensive descriptions of youth maladaptive personality (Tackett, 2013). In that regard, previous work shows that caregiver-reports of youth personality pathology are strongly connected with externalizing problems in youth (Tackett et al., 2014), show stronger associations with biological variables relative to youth self-reports (e.g., Tackett, Herzhoff et

al., 2013, Tackett, Lahey, et al., 2013), and that they are related to daily self-function in early adulthood (Vanwoerden et al., 2021).

Assessing trait-relevant states of youth personality pathology such as those described by Criterion A, in contrast, requires repeated measures, ideally via intensive longitudinal research designs, such as AA. AA captures emotions, thoughts, or behaviors and context repeatedly and with high real-world relevance over time, thereby allowing researchers to quantify variability across time and context, or how much symptoms fluctuate from occasion to occasion (Wright & Kaurin, 2020). This is important, because variability is an essential indicator of reactive fluctuations in behavior and affect presumed to underlie personality pathology (Bender et al., 2011) and many of the concepts in the DSM-5 AMPD Criterion A suggest temporally dynamic processes (e.g., alternating between connection and rejection). Most variability research, however, has focused on adult BPD populations and relied on categorical diagnoses instead of instead of dimensional approaches to pathological personality traits such as the AMPD. Generally, this line of research showed that people diagnosed with BPD relative to non-clinical and clinical controls report significantly greater variability in negative affect, self-esteem, and interpersonal behaviors than non-clinical controls (Ebner-Priemer, 2007; Santangelo et al., 2017; Trull et al., 2008). Based on a situational judgement assessment, Franssens et al. (2022) further suggest that these findings generalize to youth samples, with cross-situational consistency in hostility and elevated variability in separation insecurity being linked to the severity of adolescent BPD symptoms. More recent research suggests that even essential features of BPD (e.g., affective instability) are transdiagnostic, and that variability in socio-affective processes may represent an indicator of general personality pathology (Ringwald et al., *in press*). This builds on prior work investigating the crosscutting dimensions of the DSM-5 PD traits as they manifest from day to day (Wright & Simms, 2016; Roche, 2018). For instance, Wright and Simms (2016) found that daily

expressions of PDs in adults were highly variable across days, such that half the total variability was associated with daily fluctuations.

The use of AA has also helped describe daily occurrences of several BPD symptoms, such as affective lability (Jahng et al., 2008), interpersonal devaluation, and rejection (Gadassi et al., 2014; Houben et al., 2018), impulsivity (Berenson et al., 2011; Coifman, et al., 2012), as well as other psychological symptoms including psychotic and dissociative symptoms (Glaser et al., 2010; Stiglmayr et al., 2008), quarrelsomeness (Sadikaj et al., 2012), and frequently co-occurring dysfunctional behaviors (e.g., suicidal ideation; e.g., Kaurin et al., 2020). Similar empirical work in youth at risk has just begun to emerge and has advanced our understanding of suicidality and non-suicidal self-injury (Andrewes et al., 2017; Selby et al., 2021), as well as the dynamics of anger-related difficulties (Scott et al., 2015) or the role of parental invalidation in momentary expressions of symptoms in youth diagnosed with BPD (Vanwoerden et al., 2022). This line of research is complemented by Vanwoerden et al. (2021), who asked young adult participants to complete a 14-day daily-diary protocol including one item on self-functioning. Those ratings were correlated with caregiver-reported childhood maladaptive personality traits – assessed 10 years ahead of the daily diary –with the highest correlation coefficient emerging for depressive traits, followed by disagreeableness and emotional instability.

**The Present Study.** Despite the waxing and waning course of personality pathology that generally leads to an attenuation over time, there is also evidence to suggest that social and occupational functioning tends to remain poor among those scoring high on trait vulnerabilities. Key to the promotion of sustainable improvements in functioning is the detection of developmentally sensitive intervention targets. For this to succeed, it is important to understand processes and mechanisms key to developmental tasks in youth that underlie pathological personality functioning.

Thus, the purpose of the present study was to explore associations of caregiver- and self-reports of maladaptive personality traits as defined by Criterion B of the AMPD with *mean-levels* as well as *variability* in momentary assessments of interpersonal and affective processes key to youth development. Capturing experiences within the everyday situations that are related to pathology, in near real time, aligns closely with how these processes are defined clinically and provide greater ecological validity. To the best of our knowledge, no study has systematically investigated links between caregiver- as well as self-reports of maladaptive personality traits and the relative fluctuation of socio-affective processes as they emerge in youth's daily lives. Our investigation is to be taken as a proof of concept and exploratory analysis because previous relevant data on the relationship of adolescent maladaptive personality traits and a wide range of real-world behaviors and experiences are lacking, and because our momentary measures of socio-affective processes were not specifically developed to comprehensively assess Criterion A. Instead, they represent a subset of measures from an ongoing study chosen to cover the breadth of interpersonal experiences representative of adolescent daily lives (Sequeira et al., 2021).

Based on more general work on self- and informant agreement on ratings of pathological personality, we did expect that that caregiver-reported traits of personality pathology would be more strongly related to observable behaviors (e.g., social activities), whereas girls' self-reports would be more strongly related to less visible processes (e.g., affect, disappointment; e.g., Tackett et al., 2014). Given previous work on the contextual reactivity of key symptoms of personality pathology, we further hypothesized that girls characterized by elevated levels of trait vulnerabilities would also show higher levels of variability in daily socio-affective processes (Franssens et al., 2022; Ringwald et al., *in press*).

We focused on early adolescence, because this developmental period is marked by greater emotional and interpersonal instability (Griffith et al., 2021). We further specifically focused on early adolescent girls because research suggests that girls tend to exhibit a stronger



relational orientation and greater affiliative needs in adolescence compared to boys (Vanwoerden et al., 2021), which likely contributes to greater interpersonal stress in girls (Kaurin et al., in press). Like in Sequeira et al. (2021), early adolescent girls completed a 16-day ambulatory assessment protocol, reporting on perceptions of their feelings of connectedness as well as negative affect across diverse social contexts, as well as experiences of interpersonal tension, disappointment, boredom, and social activities several times per day.

## Method

All study procedures were approved by the University of Pittsburgh Institutional Review Board (STUDY19070027). Participants were recruited for a longitudinal study of risk for anxiety and depression in adolescent girls via community advertisements. Informed consent and youth assent were obtained after a detailed study explanation, and participants received up to \$540 for study completion including neuroimaging and clinical interviews.

## Participants

Participants were 129 girls ( $M_{age}=12.27$ ,  $SD_{age}=.80$ ), of which 65% were white, 20% black/African American, 2% Asian, 1% Native American, 9% biracial, and 1% other. Of these  $N=129$  girls,  $n=127$  completed baseline assessments of personality pathology, for  $n=126$  self-reports were incremented by caregiver-reports, and  $n=117$  girls completed the AA protocol. Median total family income in this sample was between \$80,000 and \$90,000. Descriptive statistics are summarized in supplementary Table 1.

## Procedure

The current data were drawn from the initial assessment of a larger longitudinal study. Ratings of youth maladaptive personality traits were obtained during a baseline assessment. Girls then answered questions on a smartphone for 16 consecutive days (2 school weeks, 3 weekends). Prompts were randomly sampled within 3 blocks of time on weekdays (morning, after school and evening) and 4 blocks of time on weekends (morning, early afternoon, late afternoon, evening), for a maximum total of 54 samples. They were asked to respond to a 3-5-

minute series of prompts about mood and social context based on previous AA studies (Sequeira et al., 2021; Silk et al., 2022) using a study-provided smartphone that included WebDataExpress, an application for secure remote data collection developed by the Office of Academic Computing in the University of Pittsburgh Department of Psychiatry. On average, girls completed  $M=39.04$  prompts ( $SD=14.60$ ; range=1-54), and compliance in terms of overall percentage of prompts completed across all participants was high (79.71%).

**The Personality Inventory for DSM-5—Brief Form (PID-5-BF).** We employed adolescent- and caregiver-reports of the PID-5-BF, a personality trait assessment scale for children ages 11–17. The PID-5-BF assesses 5 personality trait domains (i.e., negative affect (NA), detachment (DET), antagonism (ANT), disinhibition (DIS), and psychoticism (PSY)), with each trait domain captured with 5 items (NA: “I get irritated easily by all sorts of things.”, DET: “I’m not interested in making friends.”, ANT: “It’s no big deal if I hurt other peoples’ feelings.”, DIS: “People would describe me as reckless.”, PSY: “My thoughts often don’t make sense to others.”). The items ask the adolescent or caregiver to rate how well a statement describes them or their child generally on a scale from 0 (“Very False/Often False”) to 3 (“Very True/Often True”). A mean score was calculated across all trait domains. Caregiver- and adolescent-reports were significantly correlated, with coefficients ranging from  $r=.20$  to  $r=.38$ , and both displayed acceptable to good levels of internal consistency (see Table 1). Expectedly, for internalizing traits (e.g., negative affect) agreement was lower, and for traits high in observability (e.g., disinhibition) it was higher.

**Ambulatory Assessment.** Before the initiation of the AA protocol, girls completed an AA orientation conducted by research staff. On each of these 16 days, girls were randomly sampled (indicated by a delivered survey “beep”) three times per day on weekdays (once in the morning between 7 AM and 8 AM and twice between 4 PM and 9:30 PM) and four times per day on the weekends between 10 AM and 9:30 PM, allowing for a maximum of 54 samples. The large number of samples allows for a more stable estimate of “typical

functioning,” even in the potential presence of several atypical days. To keep participant burden reasonably low, the questions took approximately 5 minutes to complete at each interval.

After being prompted, girls were guided through a series of questions about their recent interactions, behavior and mood. Specifically, they were asked to indicate social companions (e.g., alone, with peers) at the moment of the call, and were asked how *connected* they felt with those people using a 0 (“Not at all”) to 100 (“Extremely”) sliding scale. Girls were additionally asked to report on their *most recent negative interaction with a peer* (i.e., friend, other kid their age, boyfriend/girlfriend) and to type out details about this interaction in a free response box, which allowed for quality checking. Girls were also asked to report on how “worried,” “stressed”, “mad”, and “sad” they felt during each interaction, again using a 0-100 slider. After-school assessment allowed youth to report on interactions that occurred during the school day. Therefore, these items were aggregated across participants to obtain a global index of *negative affect* related to peer social interaction, in addition to the one-item outcome of *social connectedness*.

Girls were also asked to report on behaviors indicative of *interpersonal tension*. They were given a checklist that included statements that describe how they may have been feeling or behaving during the interaction and were asked to check off which statements applied to them in the situation. These statements included how “angry”, “annoyed” with someone, “treated unfairly” or “stressed out” by someone they felt during that interaction, and whether they “disagreed” with their interaction partner.

Girls were further asked to indicate whether they felt *disappointed* by someone, or whether they felt *bored* during their interactions. Like girls’ reports on negative peer interactions, participants also described their *most recent positive interaction with a peer*.

Finally, to sample *social activities*, girls were also asked to recall their social interactions with peers since the previous “beep” during periods when AA sampling is not

feasible (i.e., during school, sporting events). They were shown a list of possible social interactions with peers and asked to place a checkmark next to any that they engaged in since the last sampling point. Possible social interactions included “make a phone call”, “send a text message”, “go to a friend’s house”, “invite a friend over to your house”, “go to a movie, shopping center, or restaurant with a friend or friends”, “go to a sporting event, amusement park, pool, or other outdoor activity with other kids”, “participate in a team sport, club or extracurricular activity with other kids”, “go to a party or dance”, “go to a sleepover or overnight event”, “talk to a kid you’ve never talked to before in person”, “talk to a kid you’ve never talked to before via text, email, or online”.

Because momentary items of interpersonal tension, negative affect, and social activities were strongly intercorrelated (range of  $r = .51-.86$ ), we created a sum score for each of the three scales.

## **Data Analysis**

Repeatedly sampling interpersonal and affective processes in youth’s daily lives results in a hierarchical data structure: Momentary assessments (within-person level) are nested within individuals (between-person level). Partitioning the variance into each level provides information about how much of the momentary ratings are attributable to individual differences, and what proportion of the variance is attributable to within-person momentary fluctuations in subjective ratings. To quantify the proportion of total variance of our momentary variables accounted for at the between-person level, we calculated the intraclass correlation (ICC), with  $1.0 - \text{ICC}$  capturing the proportion of within-person variance.

We adopted a multilevel structural equation modeling approach (MSEM; Sadikaj et al., 2021) for the second portion of our analyses. This framework allows us to test whether momentary departures from a girl’s mean-level (i.e., variability) as well as average levels of AA variables were affected by individual differences in caregiver- and self-reported

maladaptive personality traits. Separate models were run for each trait, outcome and informant. Figure 1 depicts the statistical models described below.

To assess the differential links of caregiver- and self-reported maladaptive personality traits with mean-levels of daily socio-affective processes, we regressed individual differences in means and variances of momentarily assessed variables on PID-5 scales at the between-person level. This is commonly referred to as a location (mean) scale (variances) model in the standard multilevel modeling literature. Within-person residuals were allowed to vary freely across individuals and become outcomes at the between-person level. Individual differences in residual variability can be interpreted as differences in variability around each person's own mean over time and individual differences in the random intercept reflect person-specific averages in behavioral or affective (in)consistency. These individual differences were regressed on caregiver- and self-reported trait vulnerabilities, controlling for girls' age.

In all models, time (i.e., time centered on mean of observations) was entered as within-person covariate to account for potential effects of time trends. By detrending momentarily assessed data in this way, the residual variances can be more readily interpreted as "true" variability rather than systematic patterns in the data. Given concerns about the overlap of variable means and variability (Wright & Ringwald, 2022), we adjusted for their association by correlating within-person residual variance of the outcome variables with the person-specific mean of the same variables (Hisler et al., 2020). MSEM was conducted using Mplus Version 8.8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2021), with Bayesian estimation because it allows modeling of heterogeneity in residual variances of outcome variables at the within-person level. Significance for all model parameters was based on 95% Credibility Intervals (CIs), with CIs that excluded zero being indicative of a parameter that differed significantly from zero. Missing data was assumed to be missing at random. A Bayesian approach to SEM uses all available data in estimation: with increasingly large samples, it provides similar results to Full Information Maximum Likelihood to address missing data.

Finally, to illustrate how specific processes co-fluctuated in the moment-to-moment stream of daily life, we further assessed within-person associations of interpersonal and affective processes in the daily lives of our participants.

## Results

**Stability and Variability of Socio-Affective Processes.** We first examined what proportion of variance in momentarily assessed socio-affective processes was attributable to between-person differences. Processes with the highest ICCs were negative affect (.52), social activities (.52) and connectedness (.51), suggesting that, on average, approximately half of the variance in these processes can be attributed to stable individual differences, and the remaining portion, to daily fluctuations. Processes characterized by much stronger situational variability were interpersonal tension (.29), boredom (.19), and disappointment (.08).

**Mean-Level Associations with Maladaptive Personality Traits.** The upper half of Tables 2 and 3 provide a detailed overview of coefficients for models based on self- and caregiver-reports respectively. Overall, adolescent-reported personality pathology was significantly positively related to average levels of reported momentary boredom ( $\beta = .23$ , CI: .06; .42), disappointment in others ( $\beta = .28$ , CI: .09; .45), as well as negative affect ( $\beta = .33$ , CI: .17; .49). Caregiver-reports of youth personality, however, were only significantly positively related to negative affect ( $\beta = .13$ , CI: .06; .30) and experiences of boredom ( $\beta = .21$ , CI: .01; .40).

Analyses at the domain level revealed that for adolescent-reports, negative affectivity was most strongly related to socio-affective processes in daily life, with significant positive associations emerging for negative affect in social interactions ( $\beta = .45$ , CI: .28; .60) and interpersonal disappointment ( $\beta = .33$ , CI: .15; .51). These were followed by correlations with psychoticism, which was positively related to interpersonal disappointment ( $\beta = .24$ , CI: .05; .43) and negative affect ( $\beta = .27$ , CI: .10; .44). Disinhibition was linked to disappointment ( $\beta$

=.21, CI: .02; .41), interpersonal tension ( $\beta = .33$ , CI: .06; .56) and negative affect ( $\beta = .30$ , CI: .07; .46). Antagonism and detachment were most strongly linked to boredom in social interactions ( $\beta = .23$ , CI: .06; .41;  $\beta = .24$ , CI: .07; .41).

Similarly, caregiver-reported psychoticism and disinhibition were positively linked to negative affect ( $\beta = .18$ , CI: .05; .36;  $\beta = .21$ , CI: .00; .38). Detachment was positively associated with boredom ( $\beta = .23$ , CI: .06; .41) and negatively with experiences of connectedness ( $\beta = -.33$ , CI: -.51; .09), while psychoticism was also positively linked to disappointment ( $\beta = .24$ , CI: .03; .45). Finally, negative affectivity was positively linked to interpersonal tension ( $\beta = .32$ , CI: .10; .54).

**Within-Person Variability and Maladaptive Personality Traits.** The lower half of Tables 2 and 3 provide a detailed overview of coefficients for models based on self- and caregiver-reports respectively. Adolescent-reported personality pathology was positively and significantly linked to individual differences in daily fluctuations in boredom ( $\beta = .24$ , CI: .09; .41), interpersonal disappointment ( $\beta = .21$ , CI: .05; .40) as well as negative affect ( $\beta = .25$ , CI: .06; .42). In addition to boredom and negative affect, caregiver-reports were also positively linked to variability in connectedness ( $\beta = .20$ , CI: .00; .38) as well as social activities ( $\beta = .23$ , CI: .04; .38) in youth's daily lives.

At the domain-level, variability in negative affect was positively linked to adolescent-reported psychoticism ( $\beta = .22$ , CI: .03; .39), disinhibition ( $\beta = .20$ , CI: .01; .37) and detachment ( $\beta = .23$ , CI: .03; .39). Variability in disappointment was positively linked to psychoticism ( $\beta = .19$ , CI: .02; .37), disinhibition ( $\beta = .24$ , CI: .07; .40) and negative affectivity ( $\beta = .22$ , CI: .03; .39), and variability in experiences of boredom with psychoticism ( $\beta = .18$ , CI: .03; .35), detachment ( $\beta = .22$ , CI: .06; .40), and antagonism ( $\beta = .25$ , CI: .12; .43). Finally, a significant positive association emerged between adolescent-reports of disinhibition and fluctuations in interpersonal tension ( $\beta = .19$ , CI: .00; .36).

For caregiver-reports, we found that the strongest associations emerged for negative affect (range of  $\beta$ s = .22-.30), with almost all domains showing significant positive associations, except for detachment. The daily process with the second most significant associations was interpersonal tension, being positively linked to negative affectivity ( $\beta$  = .23, CI: .05; .39), detachment ( $\beta$  = .18, CI: .01; .36) and antagonism ( $\beta$  = .19, CI: .02; .36). Variability in social activities was significantly positively linked to psychoticism ( $\beta$  = .22, CI: .06; .37), detachment ( $\beta$  = .26, CI: .08; .41), and antagonism ( $\beta$  = .20, CI: .02; .36). Finally, variability in boredom ( $\beta$  = .22, CI: .06; .40), connectedness ( $\beta$  = .19, CI: .01; .36) and disappointment ( $\beta$  = .27, CI: -.33; .89) all were positively linked to detachment.

Momentary mean levels were moderately to strongly positively associated with variability in the matched dimension (e.g., momentary mean of negative affect and variability in negative affect), suggesting that girls that generally tended to experience more negative affect, also tended to be more reactive to situational demands.

**Within-Person Associations.** Generally, momentarily assessed socio-affective processes were linked to each other in expected directions, which speaks to the validity of our administered items. To illustrate, interpersonal interactions marked by experiences of boredom tended to coincide with disappointment in the interaction partner and in situations where girls experienced disappointment in others, these feelings tended to be accompanied by increased levels of interpersonal tension and negative affect. Conversely, feelings of connectedness with interaction partners coincided with more social activity. Overall, stronger associations emerged at the between-person level. Where differences appeared across levels of analyses, correlations tended to be significant on one, but not the other level. See Table 4 for a full overview of within- as well as between-person associations of momentarily assessed variables.

## Discussion



Personality pathology has significant interpersonal costs. These costs are particularly impactful during sensitive developmental periods such as early adolescence, which coincide with the foundation of social autonomy through successful peer relationships, and thus pave the way for future social-contextual and occupational functioning. We set out to illustrate how caregiver- and adolescent-reported individual differences in relevant trait vulnerabilities affect daily interpersonal and affective processes in adolescent girls. We found that socio-affective processes were highly variable, with momentary fluctuations accounting for ~50-90% in their overall variance, and that individual differences in this variability were meaningfully related to adolescent- and especially to caregiver-reports of youth's maladaptive personality traits. We also found that both parent- and self-reported traits were linked with average momentary reported behavior and emotions, albeit somewhat differently across reporters.

Two sets of implications arise from these findings. First, youth personality pathology occurs early in development, it can be reliably assessed, and caregiver- and adolescent-reports both represent meaningful sources of information that potentially complement each other. (Kraemer et al. 2003). Second, youth maladaptive personality traits appear to give rise to experiential and behavioral processes central to hypothesized etiological models of youth personality pathology, including temporally dynamic and contextually reactive processes. Conceivably, higher levels of variability in relevant socio-affective processes may be affected by stronger sensitivity to situational cues as well as impulsive modes of processing. As an example, youth who experience sustainably elevated levels of negative affect are likely more prone to react in a disproportionate way to situations elicited by emotional stressors such as peer conflict, which – in turn – could manifest in quarrelsome behaviors (Sadikaj et al., 2013). Generally, these broad processes are consistent with our results suggesting that trait vulnerabilities correlated with more extreme shifts in emotional and behavioral reactions from one moment to the next. More variability, however, may also be indicative of alternative person–environment transactions such as the selection into specific, potentially hostile, or less

supportive, environments as well as the evocation of dysfunctional responses from that environment (Hopwood et al., 2022). One possibility to disentangle and characterize these processes more precisely, would be to use a yoked ambulatory assessment design, in which youth provide data about an interaction and one of their peers, teachers, siblings or other family members is prompted to do the same.

We found convergence in the range of .2-.4 for self and parent reports, which is typical of dimensionally assessed traits (Oltmanns & Oltmanns, 2021). In general, associations with daily processes emerged for *internalizing* traits (i.e., negative affect, psychoticism) per girls' reports, whereas caregiver reports showed such daily associations with *externalizing* traits (i.e., antagonism), though the differential predictive value of caregiver- and self-report was not as clear-cut as expected. To illustrate, one notable exception to this general expected pattern was that caregiver-reported detachment was linked to interpersonal processes at levels comparable to antagonistic traits and disinhibition, both of which are highly externalizing. Possibly, distress (for both the adolescent and caregiver) associated with personality pathology traits may moderate their observability in addition to externalizing behavioral patterns (Yalch & Hopwood, 2016). Some traits might tend to bother people in a way that is not noticeable to others (e.g., derealization in psychoticism), whereas for other traits' intra- and interpersonal distress might be easily perceived (e.g., rejection associated with withdrawal in detachment; Kaurin et al., 2018). Additionally, because of enhanced peer-sociability that marks adolescence, distress related to social withdrawal may be more salient, and thus more likely to be picked up by caregivers during this developmental period.

Caregiver-reports of elevated personality pathology were related to adolescent daily socio-affective experience in several ways. Adolescent girls high in caregiver-reported personality pathology tended to report feeling less connected to their interaction partners in daily life. At the same time, almost all socio-affective experiences were related to variability, suggesting a behavioral profile of trait vulnerabilities that is potentially indicative of greater

456 reactivity. This finding is in line with previous work (e.g., Wright & Simms, 2016; Ringwald  
457 & Wright, 2022), signifying that adults with higher maladaptive trait levels generally report  
458 greater variability in daily personality disorder features.

459       Adolescent-reports of personality pathology were further linked to elevated mean-  
460 levels as well as variability in daily experience of boredom, or finding little stimulation in  
461 social contact, and the tendency to experience disappointment in others. Boredom is a  
462 common dysphoric experience that is consistently associated with youth (personality)  
463 psychopathology, both cross-sectionally and longitudinally (Spaeth et al., 2015; Speranza et  
464 al., 2012), but this is the first time it has been demonstrated in daily life of youth high in  
465 maladaptive personality pathology. In adult samples, boredom has been associated with  
466 arousal mechanisms that may plausibly lead to quarrelsomeness, but also to reckless  
467 behaviors, possibly due to poor affect-regulatory strategies (Miskewicz et al., 2015;  
468 Vanwoerden et al., 2022). In our study, momentary experiences of boredom were negatively  
469 linked to negative affect. This provides a plausible mechanism via which boredom, and  
470 impulsive behaviors in turn, might be perpetuated via experiences of reduced negative affect.

471       The consistent links to stability and fluctuation in disappointment in daily  
472 interpersonal interactions integrate well into the wealth of literature documenting a strong  
473 overlap between insecure attachment and personality pathology (Crawford et al., 2007).  
474 Moreover, heightened rejection sensitivity is to some degree developmentally normative (e.g.,  
475 Guyer et al., 2016; Masten et al., 2009; Silk et al., 2014). At the within-person level,  
476 significant positive links between momentary experiences of disappointment and negative  
477 affect as well as interpersonal tension further suggest that maladaptive personality is an  
478 important individual difference that may moderate adolescents' distress in response to  
479 perceived social exclusion.

480       Both reporting sources reliably picked up persistent experiences of negative affect in  
481 daily social interactions, with somewhat stronger and more consistent correlational patterns

emerging for caregiver-reports. This somewhat contradicts previous work, generally suggesting that the self is a better source for less visible traits or states (De Los Reyes & Kazdin, 2005; Kraemer et al., 2003). The negative affect subscale of the PID-5-BF represents a blend of states that differ in whether they are typically linked to more overt or covert signs of discomfort and distress. That is, caregivers are going to be able to pick up girls' irritable mood more than girls' "fear of being alone". In line with this reasoning, follow-up analyses at the item-level suggest that particularly high correlations with momentary negative affect emerged for caregiver-reported items indicative of externalizing domains such as irritability ( $r = .24, p = .010$ ), and lower ones for those indicative of internalizing such as the fear of being alone ( $r = .09, p = .331$ ). The reverse pattern was observed for adolescent reports (irritability:  $r = .25, p = .010$ ; fear of being alone:  $r = .42, p < .001$ ). Moreover, girls in our sample were pre-teens and early teens, and were possibly less autonomous socially, with caregivers being more involved in their private lives.

**Limitations.** Because AMPD-based youth personality pathology has not been studied with the use of AA, there are no well-validated momentary measures of Criterion A. The ad-hoc scale used in this study covers a breadth of interpersonal experiences that are relevant for adolescent social lives, but its nomological network needs to be assessed further to test its construct validity. Although our exploratory analyses generally returned plausible associations among AA and dispositional variables, some unexpected links emerged, that warrant further study. We know very little about the resolution of interpersonal and affective processes in daily life, and it is unlikely that the length of, for instance, an affective state is the same from one Individual to another or even from one social situation to the next (Kaurin et al., 2022). Such knowledge is key toward formalizing functional relationships between specific events and relevant intraindividual processes at any given time point. Thus, it may very likely be that the timing of our prompts did not match the "true" timescale of the processes we assessed and thus blurred momentary co-occurrences of socio-affective states.

Another limitation to consider is shared method variance between AA variables and self-reports, which likely explains why more correlates emerged for girls' reports. One alternative might be to use a yoked ambulatory assessment design, in which one person provides data about an event (e.g., conflict) and another is prompted to do the same (e.g., peers, caregivers; Ringwald et al., 2022). Because previous work has documented particularly high levels of informant discrepancies between caregiver- and adolescent-reports on questions about peer relationships (Kraemer et al. 2003), future studies further need to account for blind spots of both self- and caregiver-reports. This can be done by complementing these with teacher- and peer-reports, thereby providing a more complete assessment of the diverse daily social contexts of youth.

Moreover, the choice of a homogeneously female (defined by sex at birth) sample oversampled for fearful temperament was motivated by our goal to represent a developmentally sensitive period of hypervigilance to peer processes. Thus, we cannot be sure of the extent to which gender identity or sex potentially moderated the extent of judgment accuracy in our study. Elevated levels of shy temperament may have also contributed to a restricted range of externalizing behaviors, particularly so for caregiver-reports, which were consistently and significantly lower than girls' self-reported maladaptive traits. Similarly, in our study, the total number of AA entries was negatively related to personality pathology, which further diminishes the variance in negatively experienced social interactions or even disruptive behaviors. Thus, to evaluate whether our findings are representative, they need to be replicated in a sample of youth at risk for personality pathology, that is, youth characterized by elevated emotional sensitivity, impulsivity, and reactivity to environmental demands (De Clercq et al., 2009b). The relative frequency of specific processes or events key to adolescent daily lives also has direct implications for the optimal length of AA protocols. To illustrate, frequent daily assessments help capturing short-term dynamics of interpersonal and affective processes. However, when administered over a relatively short period,

researchers may likely miss rare and episodic events and high-risk time windows, such as those when affective dysregulation may escalate into rare, but critical events that are prevalent in personality pathology (e.g., self-injury). Similarly, brief protocols also offer little in the way of illustrating periodical shifts in processes central to psychopathology (e.g., exacerbating symptoms from week to week or during a developmentally critical period; e.g., Ren et al., 2022). Relatedly, our study needs to be replicated with different measures of personality pathology. The PID-5-BF has been shown to have generally good psychometric properties, but it does not assess some aspects of personality pathology, such as self-harm and antisocial behavior, that may limit its utility for assessing consequential clinical problems.

**Future Directions.** Most empirical research on developmental personality pathology in the context of the AMPD is based on the analysis of between-person variation (Fossati & Somma, 2021) and there is evidence to suggest that personality pathology can be reliably framed within a single structural framework across the lifespan (De Clercq et al., 2014b).

What is, however, missing in the literature are studies that test which processes moderate the persistency of elevated personality pathology across development. We extend this line of research by analyzing variation within adolescent girls across trait relevant contexts in daily life, uniting the benefits of dimensional and clinical approaches. However, future studies are needed to illustrate whether and how daily interpersonal and affective experiences foster vicious circles that disrupt complex developmental tasks, thereby accumulating into stable inter-individual differences (De Fruyt & De Clercq, 2014; Vanwoerden et al., 2021). Crucial to the success of this undertaking are empirical designs that study long-term developmental trajectories in accord with changes in daily interpersonal and affective processes. Similarly, despite the waxing and waning course of personality pathology and a general attenuation of pathological traits over time, social and occupational functioning tend to remain poor and relatively stable in individuals with clinically relevant manifestations of personality pathology (Winsper et al., 2021). Moving forward, we need broader measures

of individual treatment progression and recovery experiences. Assessing experiential and behavioral patterns as they emerge in the moment-to-moment stream of daily life of youth offers a clinically useful approach to relevant perpetuating mechanisms as well as sustainable steps of intervention that directly target idiosyncrasies of functional impairment.

Moreover, through labelling and conceptualizing personality pathology in line with the processes that are most indicative of it, we can focus our assessment on processes of dysfunction rather than diagnosing the person as the disorder (e.g., interpersonal disorder; Wright & Ringwald, 2021). Despite studies that demonstrate sufficient levels of malleability over the life course, clinicians are worried about negative effects of stigma of formal PD diagnoses in youth (Laurensen et al., 2013). A stricter focus on dysregulated interpersonal and affective processes in daily life, therefore, may also reform the professional and public view on personality pathology, which is dominated by perceptions of destiny rather than manageable risk.

### Conclusion

We found that self- and caregiver-reported trait vulnerabilities were consistently linked to interpersonal experiences primarily characterized by negative affect, boredom, and disappointment as well as a behavioral and experiential profile marked by variability. Future studies are needed to more clearly characterize whether associated shifts in socio-affective processes are primarily indicative of pronounced reactivity to social-contextual demands, or whether mechanisms of selection into certain interpersonal contexts as well as evocation of specific responses from one's environment may be equally plausible sources of variability. It is also important to further examine the mechanism through which costs of socio-affective dysregulation coalesce into clinically relevant personality pathology later in life, and how risk may fluctuate as a function of developmental tasks. Formalizing risk at a younger age in a developmentally appropriate and clinically tangible way may bring dysfunction much earlier to attention, and thus reduce the risk of significant impairment later in life.

**References**

- Álvarez-Tomás, I., Ruiz, J., Guilera, G., & Bados, A. (2019). Long-term clinical and functional course of borderline personality disorder: A meta-analysis of prospective studies. *European Psychiatry*, 56(1), 75-83.
- American Psychiatric Association, D. S., & American Psychiatric Association. (2013). *Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental disorders: DSM-5* (Vol. 5). American Psychiatric Association.
- Andrewes, H. E., Hulbert, C., Cotton, S. M., Betts, J., & Chanen, A. M. (2017). Ecological momentary assessment of nonsuicidal self-injury in youth with borderline personality disorder. *Personality Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment*, 8(4), 357.
- Bailen, N. H., Green, L. M., & Thompson, R. J. (2019). Understanding emotion in adolescents: A review of emotional frequency, intensity, instability, and clarity. *Emotion Review*, 11(1), 63–73.
- Biskin, R. S., Paris, J., Renaud, J., Raz, A., & Zelkowitz, P. (2011). Outcomes in women diagnosed with borderline personality disorder in adolescence. *Journal of the Canadian Academy of Child and Adolescent Psychiatry*, 20(3), 168.
- Blakemore, S. J., & Mills, K. L. (2014). Is adolescence a sensitive period for sociocultural processing?. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 65, 187-207.
- Caspi, A., & Shiner, R. L. (2006). Personality Development. In N. Eisenberg, W. Damon, & R. M. Lerner (Eds.), *Handbook of child psychology: Social, emotional, and personality development* (pp. 300–365). John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Cohen, P., Crawford, T. N., Johnson, J. G., & Kasen, S. (2005). The children in the community study of developmental course of personality disorder. *Journal of personality disorders*, 19(5), 466-486.
- Coplan, R. J., Findlay, L. C., & Nelson, L. J. (2004). Characteristics of preschoolers with lower perceived competence. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology*, 32(4), 399-408.



- Crawford, T. N., John Livesley, W., Jang, K. L., Shaver, P. R., Cohen, P. & Ganiban, J. (2007). Insecure attachment and personality disorder: a twin study of adults. *European Journal of Personality*, 21(2), 191–208. <https://doi.org/10.1002/per.602>
- Dahl, R. E., Allen, N. B., Wilbrecht, L., & Suleiman, A. B. (2018). Importance of investing in adolescence from a developmental science perspective. *Nature*, 554(7693), 441-450.
- De Clercq, B., De Fruyt, F., De Bolle, M., Van Hiel, A., Markon, K. E., & Krueger, R. F. (2014). The hierarchical structure and construct validity of the PID-5 trait measure in adolescence. *Journal of Personality*, 82(2), 158-169.
- De Clercq, B., De Fruyt, F., & Widiger, T. A. (2009a). Integrating a developmental perspective in dimensional models of personality disorders. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 29(2), 154-162.
- De Clercq, B., Van Leeuwen, K., Van Den Noortgate, W., De Bolle, M., & De Fruyt, F. (2009b). Childhood personality pathology: Dimensional stability and change. *Development and Psychopathology*, 21(3), 853-869.
- De Clercq, B., Verbeke, L., De Caluwé, E., Vercruysse, T., & Hofmans, J. (2017). Understanding adolescent personality pathology from growth trajectories of childhood oddity. *Development and Psychopathology*, 29(4), 1403-1411.
- De Los Reyes, A., & Kazdin, A. E. (2005). Informant discrepancies in the assessment of childhood psychopathology: a critical review, theoretical framework, and recommendations for further study. *Psychological Bulletin*, 131(4), 483–509. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.131.4.483>
- De Fruyt, F., & De Clercq, B. (2014). Antecedents of personality disorder in childhood and adolescence: Toward an integrative developmental model. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*, 10, 449-476.

- 636 Edershile, E. A., & Wright, A. G. C. (2021). Fluctuations in grandiose and vulnerable  
637 narcissistic states: A momentary perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social*  
638 *Psychology*, 120(5), 1386–1414. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pspp0000370>
- 639 Esterberg, M. L., Goulding, S. M., & Walker, E. F. (2010). Cluster A personality disorders:  
640 schizotypal, schizoid and paranoid personality disorders in childhood and  
641 adolescence. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment*, 32(4), 515-528.
- 642 Fossati, A., & Somma, A. (2021). The assessment of personality pathology in adolescence  
643 from the perspective of the alternative DSM-5 Model for personality disorder. *Current*  
644 *Opinion in Psychology*, 37, 39-43.
- 645 Franssens, R., Giletta, M., Vanwoerden, S., & De Clercq, B. (2022). Bullying perpetration  
646 and victimization as social mechanisms in the development of borderline personality  
647 traits during adolescence: a longitudinal study. *Psychopathology*, 1-7.
- 648 Franssens, R., Van Raemdonck, L., Abrahams, L., Verbeke, L., & De Clercq, B. (2022,  
649 February 23). Capturing Within-Person Variability of Borderline Traits in Youth from  
650 A Developmentally Sensitive Situational Judgement Perspective.  
651 <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/jubp7>
- 652 Griffith, J. M., Clark, H. M., Haraden, D. A., Young, J. F., & Hankin, B. L. (2021). Affective  
653 development from middle childhood to late adolescence: Trajectories of mean-level  
654 change in negative and positive affect. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 50(8),  
655 1550–1563.
- 656 Guyer, A.E., Silk, J.S., & Nelson, E.E. (2016). The Neurobiology of the emotional  
657 adolescent: From the inside out. *Neuroscience and Biobehavioral Reviews*, 70, 74-85.  
658 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2016.07.037>
- 659 Hankin, B. L., Mermelstein, R., & Roesch, L. (2007). Sex differences in adolescent  
660 depression: Stress exposure and reactivity models. *Child Development*, 78(1), 279-  
661 295.

- 662 Hisler, G.C., Krizan, Z., DeHart, T., Wright, A.G.C. (2020). Neuroticism as the intensity,  
663 reactivity, and variability in day-to-day affect. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 87,  
664 103964.
- 665 Hopwood, C. J., Wright, A. G., & Bleidorn, W. (2022). Person–environment transactions  
666 differentiate personality and psychopathology. *Nature Reviews Psychology*, 1(1), 55-  
667 63.
- 668 Hopwood, C.J., Wright, A.G.C., Ansell, E.B., & Pincus, A.L. (2013). The interpersonal core  
669 of personality pathology. *Journal of Personality Disorders*, 27(3), 271-295.
- 670 Kaurin, A., King, K. M., & Wright, A. G. (in press). Studying Personality Pathology with  
671 Ecological Momentary Assessment: Harmonizing Theory and Method. *Personality*  
672 *Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment*.
- 673 Kaurin, A., Sauerberger, K. S., & Funder, D. C. (2018). Associations between informant  
674 ratings of personality disorder traits, self-reports of personality, and directly observed  
675 behavior. *Journal of Personality*, 86(6), 1078–1101.  
676 <https://doi.org/10.1111/jopy.12376>
- 677 Kaurin, A., Sequeira, S. L., Ladouceur, C. D., McKone, K. M., Rosen, D., Jones, N., Wright,  
678 A. G. C., Silk, J. S. (in press). Modeling Sensitivity to Social Threat in Adolescent  
679 Girls: A Psychoneurometric Approach. PsyArXiv.
- 680 Kerr, S., Penner, F., & Sharp, C. (2021). Interpersonal problems in parents and adolescent  
681 borderline personality disorder features. *Journal of Personality Disorders*,  
682 35(Supplement B), 74-93.
- 683 Knafo, A., & Jaffee, S. R. (2013). Gene–environment correlation in developmental  
684 psychopathology. *Development and Psychopathology*, 25(1), 1-6.
- 685 Kraemer, H. C., Measelle, J. R., Ablow, J. C., Essex, M. J., Boyce, W. T., & Kupfer, D. J.  
686 (2003). A new approach to integrating data from multiple informants in psychiatric  
687 assessment and research: mixing and matching contexts and perspectives. *The*

*American Journal of Psychiatry*, 160(9), 1566–1577.

<https://doi.org/10.1176/appi.ajp.160.9.1566>

Krueger, R. F., Derringer, J., Markon, K. E., Watson, D., & Skodol, A. E. (2012). Initial construction of a maladaptive personality trait model and inventory for DSM-5.

*Psychological Medicine*, 42(9), 1879-1890.

Laurensen, E. M. P., Hutsebaut, J., Feenstra, D. J., Van Busschbach, J. J., & Luyten, P.

(2013). Diagnosis of personality disorders in adolescents: a study among

psychologists. *Child and Adolescent Psychiatry and Mental Health*, 7(1), 1-4.

Masten, C. L., Eisenberger, N. I., Borofsky, L. A., Pfeifer, J. H., McNealy, K., Mazziotta, J.

C., & Dapretto, M. (2009). Neural correlates of social exclusion during adolescence:

understanding the distress of peer rejection. *Social Cognitive and Affective*

*Neuroscience*, 4(2), 143–157. <https://doi.org/10.1093/scan/nsp007>

Miskewicz, K., Fleeson, W., Arnold, E. M., Law, M. K., Mneimne, M., & Furr, R. M. (2015).

A contingency-oriented approach to understanding borderline personality disorder:

Situational triggers and symptoms. *Journal of Personality Disorders*, 29(4), 486–

502. <https://doi.org/10.1521/pedi.2015.29.4.486>

Muthén, L.K. and Muthén, B.O. (2019). Mplus User's Guide (2021). Eighth Edition. Los

Angeles, CA: Muthén & Muthén

Nelson, E. E., Leibenluft, E., McClure, E. B., & Pine, D. S. (2005). The social re-orientation

of adolescence: a neuroscience perspective on the process and its relation to

psychopathology. *Psychological Medicine*, 35(2), 163-174.

Oltmanns, J. R., & Oltmanns, T. F. (2021). Self–other agreement on ratings of personality

disorder symptoms and traits: Three meta-analyses. In T. D. Letzring and J. S. Spain

(Eds.), *The handbook of accurate personality judgment: Theory and empirical*

*findings*. Oxford University Press.

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780190912529.013.19>

- Ren, B., Balkind, E. G., Pastro, B., Israel, E. S., Pizzagalli, D. A., Rahimi-Eichi, H., ... & Webb, C. (2022). Predicting states of elevated negative affect in adolescents from smartphone sensors: A novel personalized machine learning approach. *Psychological Medicine*. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0033291722002161>
- Ringwald, W.R., Pilkonis, P.A., & Wright, A.G.C. (2022). Filling gaps in the nomological networks for dominance and affiliation by examining self-informant agreement on momentary interpersonal behavior. *Manuscript submitted for publication*. <https://osf.io/u5nyx/>
- Ringwald, W. R., & Wright, A. G. (2022, February 28). Overcoming the Confound of Means and Variability for Measuring Everyday Emotion Dynamics Related to Neuroticism. <https://doi.org/10.31234/osf.io/nxbyd>
- Sadikaj, G., Wright, A.G.C., Dunkley, D., Zuroff, D. & Moskowitz, D.S. (2021). Multilevel structural equation modeling for intensive longitudinal data: A practical guide for personality researchers. In J.F. Rauthmann (Ed.) *Handbook of Personality Dynamics and Processes* (pp. 856-887). Elsevier.
- Sadikaj, G., Moskowitz, D. S., Russell, J. J., Zuroff, D. C. & Paris, J. (2013). Quarrelsome behavior in borderline personality disorder: Influence of behavioral and affective reactivity to perceptions of others. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 122(1), 195–207. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030871>
- Scott, L. N., Stepp, S. D., Hallquist, M. N., Whalen, D. J., Wright, A. G., & Pilkonis, P. A. (2015). Daily shame and hostile irritability in adolescent girls with borderline personality disorder symptoms. *Personality Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment*, 6(1), 53.
- Selby, E. A., Kondratyuk, S., Lindqvist, J., Fehling, K., & Kranzler, A. (2021). Temporal Bayesian Network modeling approach to evaluating the emotional cascade model of

borderline personality disorder. *Personality Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment*, 12(1), 39.

Sequeira, S. L., Silk, J. S., Edershile, E. A., Jones, N. P., Hanson, J. L., Forbes, E. E., & Ladouceur, C. D. (2021). From scanners to cell phones: neural and real-world responses to social evaluation in adolescent girls. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, 16(7), 657-669.

Sharp, C. (2020). Adolescent personality pathology and the Alternative Model for Personality Disorders: Self development as nexus. *Psychopathology*, 53(3), 198-204.

Sharp, C., Vanwoerden, S., & Wall, K. (2018). Adolescence as a sensitive period for the development of personality disorder. *Psychiatric Clinics*, 41(4), 669-683.

Sharp, C., & Wall, K. (2021). DSM-5 level of personality functioning: Refocusing personality disorder on what it means to be human. *Annual Review of Clinical Psychology*, 17, 313-337.

Shiner, R., & Caspi, A. (2003). Personality differences in childhood and adolescence: Measurement, development, and consequences. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 44(1), 2-32.

Shiner, R. L., & Masten, A. S. (2002). Transactional links between personality and adaptation from childhood through adulthood. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 36(6), 580-588.

Shiner, R. L., & Tackett, J. L. (2014). Personality disorders in children and adolescents. In E. J. Mash & R. A. Barkley (Eds.), *Child Psychopathology* (pp. 848–896). The Guilford Press.

Shiner, R. L. (2009). The development of personality disorders: Perspectives from normal personality development in childhood and adolescence. *Development and Psychopathology*, 21(3), 715-734.

Silk, J.S., Nelson, E., Dahl, R.E., Stroud, L., Lee, K.H, & Siegle, G.J. (2014). Increased

neural response to peer rejection associated with adolescent depression and pubertal development. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, 9(11), 1798-1807.

<https://doi.org/10.1093/scan/nst175>

Silk, J. S., Sequeira, S. S., Jones, N. P., Lee, K. H., Dahl, R. E., Forbes, E. E., ... & Ladouceur, C. D. (2022). Subgenual Anterior Cingulate Cortex Reactivity to Rejection Vs. Acceptance Predicts Depressive Symptoms among Adolescents with an Anxiety History. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, 1-16.

Somma, A., Borroni, S., Kelley, S. E., Edens, J. F., & Fossati, A. (2018). Further evidence for the validity of a response inconsistency scale for the Personality Inventory for DSM-5 in Italian community-dwelling adolescents, community-dwelling adults, and clinical adults. *Psychological Assessment*, 30(7), 929.

Spaeth, M., Weichold, K., & Silbereisen, R. K. (2015). The development of leisure boredom in early adolescence: Predictors and longitudinal associations with delinquency and depression. *Developmental Psychology*, 51(10), 1380–1394.

<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039480>

Speranza, M., Pham-Scottez, A., Revah-Levy, A., Barbe, R. P., Perez-Diaz, F., Birmaher, B., & Corcos, M. (2012). Factor structure of borderline personality disorder symptomatology in adolescents. *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry. Revue Canadienne de Psychiatrie*, 57(4), 230–237. <https://doi.org/10.1177/070674371205700406>

Tackett, J. L., Herzhoff, K., Reardon, K. W., De Clercq, B., & Sharp, C. (2014). The externalizing spectrum in youth: Incorporating personality pathology. *Journal of Adolescence*, 37(5), 659-668.

Tackett, J. L., Herzhoff, K., Reardon, K. W., Smack, A. J., & Kushner, S. C. (2013). The relevance of informant discrepancies for the assessment of adolescent personality pathology. *Clinical Psychology: Science and Practice*, 20(4), 378-392.

Tackett, J. L., Lahey, B. B., Van Hulle, C., Waldman, I., Krueger, R. F., & Rathouz, P. J.

(2013). Common genetic influences on negative emotionality and a general psychopathology factor in childhood and adolescence. *Journal of abnormal psychology*, 122(4), 1142.

Vanwoerden, S., Byrd, A. L., Vine, V., Beeney, J. E., Scott, L. N., & Stepp, S. D. (2022). Momentary borderline personality disorder symptoms in youth as a function of parental invalidation and youth-perceived support. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 63(2), 178-186.

Vanwoerden, S., Franssens, R., Sharp, C., & De Clercq, B. (2021). The development of criterion a personality pathology: The relevance of childhood social functioning for young adult daily self-functioning. *Child Psychiatry & Human Development*, 1-13.

Verbeke, L., De Caluwé, E., & De Clercq, B. (2017). A five-factor model of developmental personality pathology precursors. *Personality Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment*, 8(2), 130–139.

Wertz, J., Caspi, A., Ambler, A., Arseneault, L., Belsky, D. W., Danese, A., Fisher, H. L., Matthews, T., Richmond-Rakerd, L. S., & Moffitt, T. E. (2020). Borderline symptoms at age 12 signal risk for poor outcomes during the transition to adulthood: findings from a genetically sensitive longitudinal cohort study. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 59(10), 1165-1177.

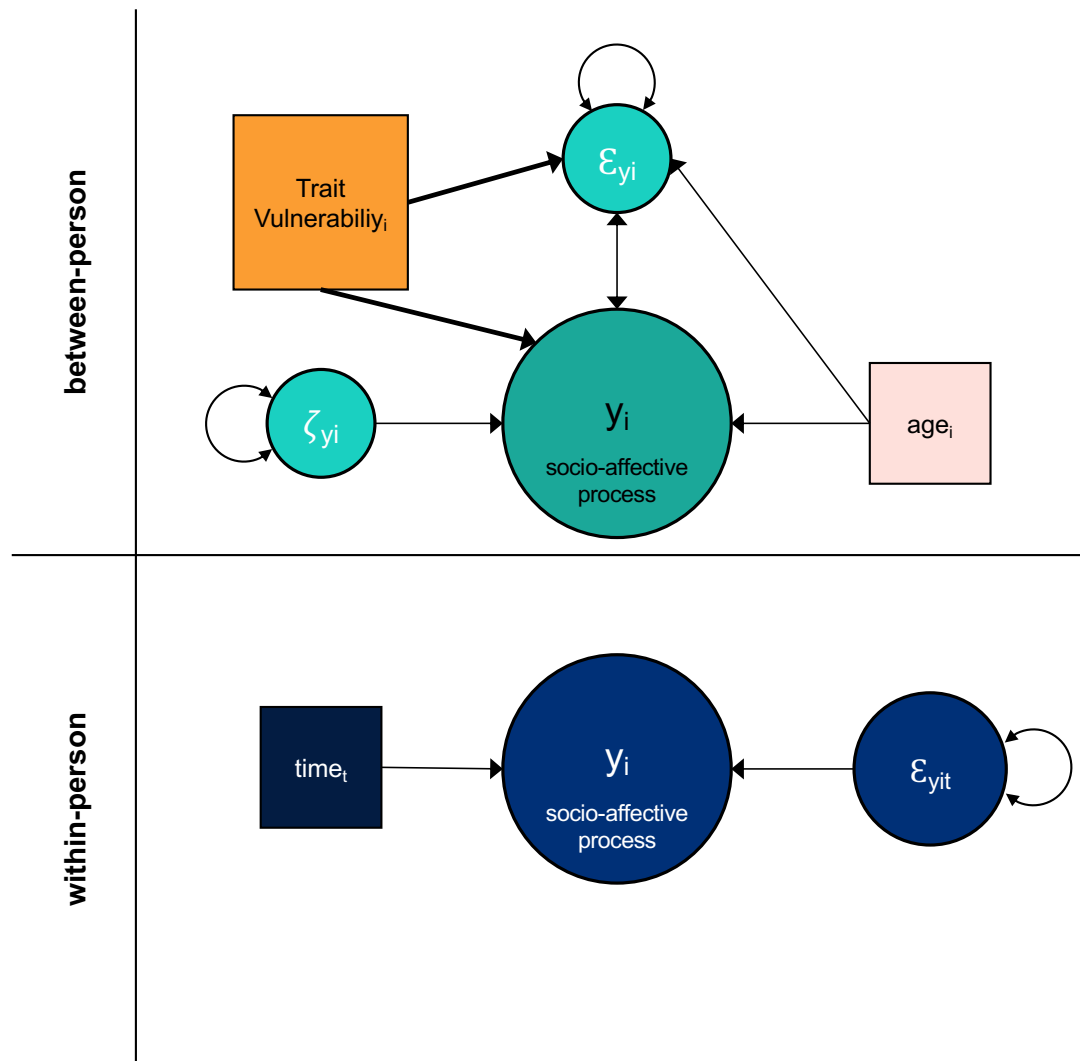
Widiger, T. A., De Clercq, B., & De Fruyt, F. (2009). Childhood antecedents of personality disorder: An alternative perspective. *Development and Psychopathology*, 21(3), 771–791.

Winsper, C. (2021). Borderline personality disorder: course and outcomes across the lifespan. *Current Opinion in Psychology*, 37, 94-97.

Winsper, C., Wolke, D., Scott, J., Sharp, C., Thompson, A., & Marwaha, S. (2020). Psychopathological outcomes of adolescent borderline personality disorder symptoms. *Australian & New Zealand Journal of Psychiatry*, 54(3), 308-317.



- 817 Winograd, G., Cohen, P., & Chen, H. (2008). Adolescent borderline symptoms in the  
818 community: prognosis for functioning over 20 years. *Journal of Child Psychology and*  
819 *Psychiatry*, 49(9), 933-941.
- 820 Wright, A. G. C., Hopwood, C. J., Skodol, A. E., & Morey, L. C. (2016). Longitudinal  
821 validation of general and specific structural features of personality pathology. *Journal*  
822 *of Abnormal Psychology*, 125(8), 1120–1134.
- 823 Wright, A. G. C., & Kaurin, A. (2020). Integrating structure and function in conceptualizing  
824 and assessing pathological traits. *Psychopathology*, 53(3), 189-197.
- 825 Yalch, M. M., & Hopwood, C. J. (2016). Convergent, discriminant, and criterion validity of  
826 DSM-5 traits. *Personality Disorders*, 7(4), 394–404.  
827 <https://doi.org/10.1037/per0000165>  
828



829

830 **Figure 1.** Schematic depiction of the model used for all analyses. Single-headed arrows represent  
 831 regression paths, double-headed arrows represent variances.  $y$  represents all momentary outcome  
 832 variables. The two bolded paths indicate the associations of central interest summarized in Tables 2  
 833 and 3.  $\epsilon_{yit}$  represents systematic within-person variance, and  $y_i$  is the estimate of an individual's  
 834 average.  $\zeta_{yi}$  represents variance in  $y_i$  not explained by trait vulnerabilities.

**Table 1**  
*Key Standardized Coefficients from Multilevel Structural Equation Models Linking Adolescent-Reported Trait Vulnerabilities to Daily Socio-Affective Processes (Means  $y_i$  and Variances  $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )*

	<b>boredom</b>	<b>connectedness</b>	<b>disappointment</b>	<b>interpersonal tension</b>	<b>negative affect</b>	<b>social activities</b>
	$\beta$ [CI]	$\beta$ [CI]	$\beta$ [CI]	$\beta$ [CI]	$\beta$ [CI]	$\beta$ [CI]
PSY ( $y_i$ )	.16 [-.02; .35]	-.02 [-.20; .18]	<b>.24 [.05; .43]</b>	.09 [-.14; .29]	<b>.27 [.10; .44]</b>	-.10 [-.29; .12]
NA ( $y_i$ )	.08 [-.08; .26]	.04 [-.16; .23]	<b>.33 [.15; .51]</b>	.19 [-.05; .39]	<b>.45 [.28; .60]</b>	.02 [-.17; .25]
DIS ( $y_i$ )	.07 [-.12; .26]	.07 [-.12; .29]	<b>.21 [.02; .41]</b>	<b>.33 [.06; .56]</b>	<b>.16 [-.01; .33]</b>	.01 [-.15; .21]
DET ( $y_i$ )	<b>.23 [.06; .41]</b>	-.15 [-.34; .05]	.12 [-.06; .32]	.09 [-.13; .30]	.16 [-.04; .33]	-.01 [-.22; .19]
ANT ( $y_i$ )	<b>.24 [.07; .41]</b>	-.04 [-.23; .19]	.01 [-.19; .19]	.08 [-.13; .28]	.10 [-.08; .28]	-.07 [-.28; .14]
Total ( $y_i$ )	<b>.23 [.06; .42]</b>	-.02 [-.20; .19]	<b>.28 [.09; .45]</b>	.21 [-.03; .40]	<b>.33 [.17; .49]</b>	-.07 [-.29; .11]
PSY ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	<b>.18 [.03; .35]</b>	-.02 [-.19; .16]	<b>.19 [.02; .37]</b>	.06 [-.11; .24]	<b>.22 [.03; .39]</b>	<b>.22 [.06; .37]</b>
NA ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	.06 [-.10; .24]	.04 [-.15; .21]	<b>.25 [.09; .41]</b>	.15 [-.02; .31]	.18 [-.01; .35]	.07 [-.09; .28]
DIS ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	.08 [-.11; .26]	.06 [-.12; .22]	<b>.24 [.07; .40]</b>	<b>.19 [.00; .36]</b>	<b>.20 [.01; .37]</b>	-.12 [-.33; .08]
DET ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	<b>.22 [.06; .40]</b>	.15 [-.03; .31]	.19 [-.15; .22]	-.01 [-.17; .18]	<b>.23 [.03; .39]</b>	.13 [-.06; .30]
ANT ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	<b>.25 [.12; .43]</b>	-.13 [-.31; .05]	.12 [-.17; .20]	-.02 [-.18; .16]	.07 [-.13; .26]	.05 [-.11; .27]
Total ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	<b>.24 [.09; .41]</b>	.02 [-.15; .19]	<b>.21 [.05; .40]</b>	.11 [-.06; .28]	<b>.25 [.06; .42]</b>	.05 [-.11; .26]

*Note.* NA = negative affect; DET = detachment; ANT = antagonism; DIS = disinhibition; PSY = psychoticism; between-person ( $y_i$ ) variance for adolescent  $i$  during assessment  $t$ .  $y$  represents all momentary outcome variables.  $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$  represents paths predicting systematic within-person variance, and  $y_i$  represents paths predicting an individual's average of momentarily assessed variables.

841 **Table 2**  
 842 *Key Standardized Coefficients from Multilevel Structural Equation Models Linking Caregiver-Reported Trait Vulnerabilities to Daily*  
 843 *Socio-Affective Processes (Means  $y_i$  and Variances  $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )*

	<b>boredom</b>	<b>connectedness</b>	<b>disappointment</b>	<b>interpersonal tension</b>	<b>negative affect</b>	<b>social activities</b>
	$\beta$ [CI]	$\beta$ [CI]	$\beta$ [CI]	$\beta$ [CI]	$\beta$ [CI]	$\beta$ [CI]
PSY ( $y_i$ )	.13 [-.04; .31]	-.00 [-.23; .23]	<b>.24 [.03; .45]</b>	.20 [-.08; .48]	<b>.18 [.05; .36]</b>	.01 [-.26; .28]
NA ( $y_i$ )	.11 [-.08; .29]	-.13 [-.34; .10]	.08 [-.12; .28]	<b>.32 [.10; .54]</b>	.20 [-.00; .40]	.06 [-.15; .24]
DIS ( $y_i$ )	.07 [-.12; .26]	-.06 [-.27; .17]	.07 [-.12; .29]	.13 [-.11; .37]	<b>.21 [.00; .38]</b>	-.11 [-.30; .07]
DET ( $y_i$ )	<b>.23 [.06; .41]</b>	<b>-.33 [-.51; -.09]</b>	.13 [-.06; .38]	.20 [-.04; .47]	.14 [-.09; .33]	.07 [-.13; .25]
ANT ( $y_i$ )	.11 [-.10; .31]	-.13 [-.35; .10]	.11 [-.11; .30]	.18 [-.05; .46]	.07 [-.14; .25]	.01 [-.17; .20]
Total ( $y_i$ )	<b>.13 [-.06; .30]</b>	-.18 [-.40; .06]	.20 [-.02; .39]	.25 [-.03; .47]	<b>.21 [.01; .40]</b>	.03 [-.18; .22]
PSY ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	.14 [-.04; .31]	.14 [-.05; .33]	.15 [-.05; .33]	.14 [-.06; .32]	<b>.26 [.06; .43]</b>	<b>.22 [.06; .37]</b>
NA ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	.13 [-.05; .28]	.10 [-.10; .29]	.10 [-.08; .28]	<b>.23 [.05; .39]</b>	<b>.22 [.02; .39]</b>	.12 [-.10; .29]
DIS ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	.08 [-.11; .26]	.17 [-.04; .35]	.05 [-.12; .25]	.13 [-.04; .29]	<b>.30 [.07; .46]</b>	.09 [-.11; .25]
DET ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	<b>.22 [.06; .40]</b>	<b>.19 [.01; .36]</b>	<b>.27 [-.33; .89]</b>	<b>.18 [.01; .36]</b>	.16 [-.04; .34]	<b>.26 [.08; .41]</b>
ANT ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	.13 [-.06; .32]	.14 [-.07; .33]	.12 [-.06; .31]	<b>.19 [.02; .36]</b>	<b>.26 [.07; .44]</b>	<b>.20 [.02; .36]</b>
Total ( $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$ )	<b>.14 [-.03; .29]</b>	<b>.20 [.00; .38]</b>	.15 [-.04; .32]	.22 [.02; .39]	<b>.32 [.13; .49]</b>	<b>.23 [.04; .38]</b>

844 *Note.* NA = negative affect; DET = detachment; ANT = antagonism; DIS = disinhibition; PSY = psychoticism; between-person ( $y_i$ ) variance for  
 845 adolescent  $i$  during assessment  $t$ .  $y$  represents all momentary outcome variables.  $\mathcal{E}_{yit}$  represents paths predicting systematic within-person variance, and  
 846  $y_i$  represents paths predicting an individual's average of momentarily assessed variables.

**Supplementary Table 1***Descriptive Statistics of Trait Constructs.*

	adolescent-report (N=127)		caregiver-report (N=126)		$\Delta$		agreement	
	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> ), range	$\alpha$	<i>M</i> ( <i>SD</i> )	$\alpha$	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Psychoticism	0.80 (0.73), 0-3.0	.81	0.21 (0.4), 0-2.0	.72	<b>9.12</b>	<.001	<b>0.32</b>	<.001
Negative Affect	0.72 (0.64), 0-2.8	.76	0.51 (0.59), 0-2.4	.72	<b>3.09</b>	.002	<b>0.20</b>	.028
Disinhibition	0.56 (0.53), 0-2.6	.70	0.39 (0.53), 0-2.2	.82	<b>3.10</b>	.002	<b>0.38</b>	.001
Detachment	0.64 (0.45), 0-2.0	.40	0.45 (0.48), 0-2.2	.59	<b>3.47</b>	<.001	<b>0.21</b>	.021
Antagonism	0.37 (0.41), 0-2.0	.60	0.40 (0.52), 0-2.4	.74	-.60	.550	<b>0.20</b>	.026
Total Score	0.62 (0.41), 0-1.72	.87	0.39 (0.4), 0-2.2	.91	<b>5.17</b>	<.001	<b>0.30</b>	.001

Note.  $N=124$  cases containing adolescent- and caregiver-reports, thus  $df=123$  for paired samples t-Tests;

**Supplementary Table 2***Descriptive statistics and correlations among momentarily assessed study variables at within- and between-person levels.*

	1	2	3	4	5	6
(1) boredom		.00	<b>.26</b>	.02	.06	.01
(2) connectedness	.01		.00	<b>-.27</b>	-.11	.18
(3) disappointment	<b>.03</b>	.02		<b>.45</b>	<b>.32</b>	-.01
(4) interpersonal tension	-.01	-.05	<b>.22</b>		<b>.29</b>	-.16
(5) negative affect	<b>-.07</b>	-.01	<b>.15</b>	<b>.25</b>		.10
(6) social activity	-.00	<b>.08</b>	.02	-.02	<b>.07</b>	
<i>M</i>	2.74	61.81	3.26	8.71	21.44	5.43
<i>SD</i>	4.94	20.49	4.05	7.26	15.96	5.76
range	0-31	19.54-100	0-24	0-31.25	0.12-78.45	0-39.74

Note.  $N_{between}=117$ ;  $N_{within}= 5024$ ; values below diagonal represent within-person coefficients and values above diagonal represent between-person coefficients. Values in bold are those for which the credibility interval did not contain zero.