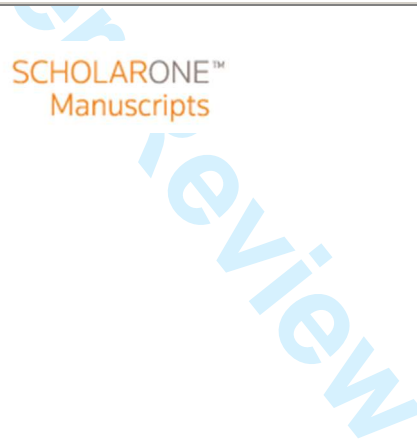




**Life Events and Personality Trait Change**

Journal:	<i>Journal of Personality</i>
Manuscript ID	JOPY-16-0145.R1
Manuscript Type:	Special Issue Manuscript
Date Submitted by the Author:	n/a
Complete List of Authors:	Bleidorn, Wiebke; University of California Davis, Department of Psychology Hopwood, Christopher; Michigan State University, Psychology Lucas, Richard
Keywords:	Big Five, personality development, life events, adulthood, longitudinal



**Life Events and Personality Trait Change**Wiebke Bleidorn<sup>1</sup>Christopher J. Hopwood<sup>2</sup>Richard E. Lucas<sup>2</sup><sup>1</sup> *University of California, Davis, United States*<sup>2</sup> *Michigan State University, United States*

Acknowledgements: Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Wiebke Bleidorn, Department of Psychology, University of California Davis, One Shields Avenue, Davis, CA 95616, United States. E-mail: [wiebkebleidorn@gmail.com](mailto:wiebkebleidorn@gmail.com)

Running head: LIFE EVENTS AND TRAIT CHANGE

**Abstract**

Theory and research have emphasized the impact of life events on personality trait change. In this article, we review prospective research on personality trait change in response to 9 major life events in the broader domains of love and work. We expected to find that life events lead to personality trait change to the extent that they have a lasting influence on individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behavior. Moreover, we predicted that love-related life events such as marriage or parenthood would be more strongly related to changes in traits that emphasize affective content whereas work-related life events would be more likely to lead to change in traits that reflect behavioral or cognitive content. The current state of research provided some evidence that life events can lead to changes in personality traits and that different life events may be differently related to specific trait domains. However, a more general conclusion emerging from this review is that the evidence for the nature, shape, and timing of personality trait change in response to life events is still preliminary. We discuss the implications of the results for theory and research and provide directions for future studies on life events and personality trait change.

Keywords: Big Five, personality development, life events, longitudinal, adulthood

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Personality traits are relatively enduring patterns of thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that distinguish individuals from one another. Their relatively stable nature notwithstanding, personality traits can and do change across the entire life span. In fact, the rank-order stability of personality traits is far from perfect over moderately long intervals (Lucas & Donnellan, 2001; Wortman, Lucas, & Donnellan, 2012; Roberts & DelVecchio, 2000; though see Ferguson, 2010) and it decreases over increasingly long delays. In addition, the majority of people experience medium-sized to large changes in their Big Five personality traits (agreeableness, conscientiousness, extraversion, neuroticism, and openness; Table 1) as they traverse adulthood (Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006; Roberts & Mroczek, 2008; Roberts, Wood, & Caspi, 2008; Soto, John, Gosling, & Potter, 2011; Specht et al., 2014).

The observed changes in personality traits have led to a great deal of speculation about the conditions and causes of these changes. All major theories of personality development emphasize the role of genes and intrinsic maturation processes in trait stability and change (e.g., McCrae & Costa, 2008; Roberts & Wood, 2006). Accounts differ in the role given to environmental influences, with some emphasizing the impact of major life events such as marriage, unemployment, or parenthood (e.g., Bleidorn, 2015; Hutteman, Hennecke, Orth, Reitz, & Specht, 2014; Kandler, Bleidorn, Riemann, Angleitner, & Spinath, 2012; Orth & Robins, 2014; Roberts, Wood, & Smith, 2005; Scollon & Diener, 2006). Such theories propose that life events have lasting effects on personality traits because they can modify, interrupt, or redirect life trajectories by altering individuals' feelings, thoughts, and behavior (Orth & Robins, 2014; Pickles & Rutter, 1991). For example, the birth of the first child is a non-reversible life event that requires sudden and oftentimes drastic changes in new parents' daily behavior, routines, and relationships, which may over time translate into personality

1  
2  
3 trait changes (Belsky & Rovine, 1990; Bleidorn, Buyukcan-Tetik, Schwaba, van Scheppingen,  
4  
5  
6 Denissen, & Finkenauer, 2016; Jokela, Kivimäki, Elovainio, & Keltikangas-Järvinen, 2009).  
7

8  
9         However, research on life events and personality trait change has yielded mixed  
10  
11 results. For example, Specht and colleagues (Specht, Schmuckle, & Egloff, 2011) examined  
12  
13 the effects of 12 major life events on Big Five personality traits using data from the German  
14  
15 Socio-Economic Panel (SOEP; Wagner, Frick, & Schupp, 2007). This study showed that life  
16  
17 events can lead to changes in personality traits but also that the effects varied considerably  
18  
19 between both life events and personality traits. For instance, conscientiousness was most  
20  
21 responsive to major life events including divorce, retirement, or the birth of the first child. In  
22  
23 contrast, neuroticism was largely unaffected by the experience of any of the life events in  
24  
25 this study. Conversely, other studies that focused on the impact of one particular life event,  
26  
27 such as the first romantic relationship (Neyer & Lehnart, 2007) or graduation from school  
28  
29 (Bleidorn, 2012) did report significant effects of these events on neuroticism.  
30  
31  
32  
33

34  
35         Overall, there seems to be some evidence to suggest that life events can trigger  
36  
37 changes in personality traits. However, some important questions remain. First, do different  
38  
39 life events differ in their effects on personality trait change? In other words, which life  
40  
41 events matter the most? Second, do different traits differ in their susceptibility to life  
42  
43 events? That is, which traits change the most in response to life events? A more general  
44  
45 question involves whether there is evidence for robust associations that replicate across  
46  
47 different datasets and populations.  
48  
49  
50

51  
52         In this paper, we review the findings from previous studies on life events and Big Five  
53  
54 personality trait change with regard to these questions. Specifically, we will discuss the  
55  
56 findings from longitudinal studies that have investigated whether and to what degree the Big  
57  
58 Five traits change in response to life events in the broad domains of love and work. Most of  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 these studies operationalized traits with self-report questionnaires and examined rank-order  
4  
5 stability and /or mean-level change. Rank-order stability refers to the relative ordering of  
6  
7 individuals in a population over time, commonly quantified as test-retest correlation ( $r$ )  
8  
9 across two assessment waves. Mean-level change reflects the degree to which a population  
10  
11 decreases or increases in a personality trait over a specific period, typically quantified as a  
12  
13 standardized mean difference between two time points (e.g., Cohen's  $d$ ). Before reviewing  
14  
15 the findings of these studies, we first offer a definition of life events and propose a general  
16  
17 model to explain why and how different life events may have different effects on different  
18  
19 Big Five traits.  
20  
21  
22  
23

### 24 25 **Life Events**

26  
27 From a developmental perspective, life events can be viewed as specific transitions  
28  
29 that require new behavioral, cognitive, or emotional responses (Hopson & Adams, 1976;  
30  
31 Luhmann, Hofmann, Eid, & Lucas, 2012; Luhmann, Orth, Specht, Kandler, & Lucas, 2014).  
32  
33 Consistent with this view, we adopted a working definition of life events as "time-discrete  
34  
35 transitions that mark the beginning or the end of a specific status" (Luhmann et al., 2012; p.  
36  
37 594). A status can refer to a certain position, rank, role, or condition.  
38  
39  
40

41  
42 On a more abstract level, status is a nominal variable with at least two different levels  
43  
44 (e.g., relationship status: single, married, divorced, or widowed). The transition from one  
45  
46 status to another designates a life event (e.g., from married to divorced). This definition of  
47  
48 life events excludes minor events (such as daily hassles) and experiences that do not involve  
49  
50 a status change (such as being victim of a crime) as well as slow transitions that are not time-  
51  
52 discrete (such as menopause or psychotherapy). Also, non-events (e.g., not finding a  
53  
54 romantic partner, involuntary childlessness) are not included in this working definition.  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3  
4 Our focus on this relatively narrow definition of life events is not meant to imply that  
5  
6 there are no other relevant correlates of personality trait change. In fact, several longitudinal  
7  
8 studies have found associations between personality trait changes and various life  
9  
10 experiences including, for example, work experiences (e.g., Hudson, Roberts, Lodi-Smith,  
11  
12 2012), leisure activities (e.g., Schwaba, Luhmann, Denissen, & Bleidorn, 2016) or health-  
13  
14 related changes (Mueller et al., 2016). However, in the present paper, we exclusively review  
15  
16 longitudinal studies that have examined the impact of distinct life events on changes in the  
17  
18 Big Five personality traits. In particular, we focus on nine life events in the two broad  
19  
20 domains of love (romantic relationships, marriage, parenthood, divorce, widowhood) and  
21  
22 work (graduation from school/ college; first job, unemployment, retirement). In addition, we  
23  
24 only included prospective studies in which the first measurement occasion took place before  
25  
26 the event.  
27  
28  
29  
30

### 31 32 **How do Different Life Events Lead to Change in Different Personality Traits?**

33  
34 According to our definition, a life event marks a change in status. However, not all  
35  
36 changes in status should affect all personality traits. Instead, the precise effects that an  
37  
38 event will have is likely to depend both on the ways that event changes a person's day-to-  
39  
40 day thoughts, feelings, and behaviors; and on the match between these changed thoughts,  
41  
42 feelings, and behaviors, and the specific personality trait that is affected. Below we describe  
43  
44 how the characteristics of the events and the features of distinct personality traits should  
45  
46 influence the extent to which personality traits change following an event.  
47  
48  
49  
50

### 51 52 **Which Life Events Have a Lasting Impact on Personality Traits?**

53  
54 Theory and research suggests that those life events that involve clearly defined and  
55  
56 unambiguous sets of behavioral, cognitive, or emotional demands are most likely to lead to  
57  
58 enduring personality changes (Caspi & Moffitt, 1993; Kandler et al., 2012; Neyer, Mund,  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 Zimmermann, & Wrzus, 2014; Roberts & Jackson, 2008; Specht et al., 2011). For example,  
4  
5 the transition to the first job usually requires people to be on time, to meet deadlines, and  
6  
7 to work thoroughly. In other words, at work, people are typically required to act  
8  
9 conscientiously. To the extent that the transition to the first job changes an individual's  
10  
11 conscientiousness-related thoughts, feelings, and behavior and to the extent that these  
12  
13 changes are stable and generalizable to other life domains, they should translate into  
14  
15 broader and lasting trait changes (Fleeson & Jolley, 2006; Roberts, 2006; Roberts et al.,  
16  
17 2005).

18  
19  
20  
21  
22 The idea that life events will not affect personality traits directly but indirectly via  
23  
24 their effects on momentary feelings, thoughts, and behaviors is consistent with the  
25  
26 sociogenomic model of personality (Roberts & Jackson, 2008; for an update, see Roberts &  
27  
28 Jackson, this issue). According to this model, life events most likely affect personality traits in  
29  
30 a bottom-up fashion through prolonged effects on an individual's personality-relevant  
31  
32 states. This proposition has important implications for the time course of personality trait  
33  
34 change. Specifically, changes in response to life events likely unfold in a slow and  
35  
36 incremental way over relatively long periods of time (Hennecke, Bleidorn, Denissen, &  
37  
38 Wood, 2014; Luhmann et al., 2014; Roberts & Jackson, 2008). This is not to say that there  
39  
40 can be no immediate effects of life events on personality traits. Indeed, research on change  
41  
42 in other personality-relevant characteristics such as subjective well-being (e.g., Lucas, 2007;  
43  
44 Luhmann et al., 2012) or self-esteem (Bleidorn et al., 2016; Chung, Robins, Trzesniewski,  
45  
46 Nofle, Roberts, & Widaman, 2013) has shown that change in response to life events is often  
47  
48 non-linear or discontinuous.  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54

### 55 56 **Why Do Different Life Events Lead to Change in Different Personality Traits?** 57 58 59 60



1  
2  
3  
4 Even though traits are thought to reflect relatively stable patterns of affect, behavior,  
5  
6 and cognition, these three components of traits have been found to be differentially  
7  
8 emphasized across the Big Five traits (Pytlik Zillig, Hemenover, & Dienstbier, 2002; Wilt &  
9  
10 Revelle, 2015). Across measures, each of the Big Five traits has been shown to be  
11  
12 operationalized and described by different levels of affect, behavior, and cognition; and each  
13  
14 trait seems to represent one of these three content domains more strongly than the others.  
15  
16 Specifically, neuroticism and to a lesser degree also extraversion are typically represented by  
17  
18 items that reflect affective content; agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness  
19  
20 emphasize behavioral content (with agreeableness and extraversion specifically emphasizing  
21  
22 social behavior; Wiggins, 1991); and openness is represented primarily by cognitive content  
23  
24 (Wilt & Revelle, 2015; Table 1). \

25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30 To the extent that different life events evoke different degrees of affective, cognitive,  
31  
32 or behavioral responses, they should have different effects on the rate of change and / or  
33  
34 rank-order stability of different Big Five traits. Some life events, such as the transition to the  
35  
36 first job, may be primarily associated with behavioral changes. Other life events might have  
37  
38 stronger implications for the affective or cognitive components of traits. For instance, the  
39  
40 transition to a long-term romantic relationship may be primarily associated with changes in  
41  
42 an individual's feelings and to a lesser degree with changes in their thoughts or social  
43  
44 behaviors. In contrast, the transition to the first job may be better characterized by evoking  
45  
46 behavioral and cognitive changes, and to a lesser degree with affective and social changes.  
47  
48  
49

50  
51 We hypothesize that life events have different effects on different Big Five traits  
52  
53 depending on the degree to which the traits reflect behavioral, social, affective, or cognitive  
54  
55 content. Specifically, we expect life events that are mainly associated with behavioral  
56  
57 changes to be most strongly associated with changes in conscientiousness. Life events with a  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 strong social and emotional component should impact agreeableness, extraversion, and  
4  
5  
6 neuroticism. Finally, openness to experience should be most sensitive to life events that  
7  
8 have implications for an individual's cognitive patterns and thinking. More generally, we  
9  
10 expect that life events that fall within the domain of love are more strongly related to  
11  
12 changes in traits that emphasize affect and social behavior (agreeableness, extraversion, and  
13  
14 neuroticism), whereas work-related life events are more likely to lead to change in traits that  
15  
16 reflect behavioral or cognitive content (conscientiousness and openness; Table 1).  
17  
18

## 20 **Love and Personality Trait Change**

### 22 **Romantic Relationships**

24  
25 In recent years, several longitudinal studies have examined the impact of romantic  
26  
27 relationships on Big Five personality trait change. These studies have typically compared the  
28  
29 personality trajectories of people who entered a romantic relationship with the personality  
30  
31 trajectories of people who remained single throughout the research period. A few studies  
32  
33 have also looked into the effects of separation on personality trait change by comparing the  
34  
35 personality trajectories of participants who separated from their romantic partners with  
36  
37 those who remained committed to their romantic partners (Neyer et al., 2014).  
38  
39

41  
42 One of the earliest studies by Neyer and Asendorpf (2001) used data from a  
43  
44 representative sample of German adults (age 18 – 30 years) who completed both personality  
45  
46 and relationship measures at two measurement occasions across four years. This study  
47  
48 found that participants who entered a romantic relationship for the first time showed more  
49  
50 pronounced decreases in neuroticism and increases in extraversion and conscientiousness  
51  
52 than participants who remained single across the study period. In contrast, ending a  
53  
54 romantic relationship was not associated with personality trait change.  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Neyer and Lehnart (2007) used the same sample to study the effects of the first partnership on personality trait change across three measurement waves over 8 years. The addition of a third measurement wave allowed them to compare personality changes among four different groups: stable singles (participants who remained single across 8 years), early beginners (participants who were in stable romantic relationship across the 8-year research period), timely beginners (participants who entered into a romantic relationship between the first two measurement occasions), and late beginners (participants who entered into a romantic relationship between the last two measurement occasions). With one exception, the results were largely consistent with the findings by Neyer and Asendorpf (2001). Early, timely, and late beginners showed decreases in neuroticism and increases in extraversion after they entered into a romantic relationship whereas stable singles remained stable on these traits throughout the 8-year period. However, for the group of late beginners the effects of relationship formation on conscientiousness did not replicate in the group of late beginners.

The decreasing effect of romantic relationship formation on neuroticism was replicated in another 8-year study from the United States that was comparable in terms of longitudinal design and age group but focused on changes in neuroticism only (Lehnart, Neyer, & Eccles, 2010). Compared to stable singles, participants who entered a romantic relationship for the first time showed decreases in facets of neuroticism such as depression and social anxiety.

Research on the influences of romantic status changes on personality traits highlights a general limitation of this area of research, that random assignment of participants to different life events or control conditions is usually not feasible or ethical. People typically select themselves into certain roles and environments. That is, the experience (or non-

1  
2  
3 experience) of most life events reflects selection effects implying that putative effects of the  
4  
5 life events are confounded with preexisting group differences (Foster, 2010). For instance,  
6  
7 singles and relationship beginners have been found to differ in a number of psychological  
8  
9 characteristics, including their personality traits (e.g., Neyer & Lehnart, 2007). Causal  
10  
11 interpretations of romantic relationship effects on trait change would be compromised to  
12  
13 the degree that these preexisting group differences drive the observed differences in  
14  
15 personality trait change.  
16  
17

18  
19  
20 Recently, Wagner, Becker, Luedtke, and Trautwein (2015) aimed to address this  
21  
22 problem and provided a more rigorous statistical test of the effects of the first partnership  
23  
24 experience on personality change by using propensity score matching techniques. Propensity  
25  
26 score matching can be used integrate the information on all observed covariates to create  
27  
28 matched samples that statistically differ only with regard to the experience of a particular  
29  
30 life event (Rosenbaum & Rubin, 1983; Thoemmes & Kim, 2011). Using matched samples and  
31  
32 4-year longitudinal data, the results of this study only partially replicated the findings of  
33  
34 previous studies. Specifically, the first partnership experience was related to higher  
35  
36 extraversion and conscientiousness and to lower neuroticism only in participants who had  
37  
38 their first partnership experience between the ages of 23 and 25 but not in participants who  
39  
40 established their first partnership between the ages of 21 and 23.  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

46  
47 Taken together, longitudinal research on romantic relationships and personality trait  
48  
49 change has frequently, but not always, found that the transition to first partnership is  
50  
51 associated with decreases in neuroticism. Less frequently, studies have found that entering a  
52  
53 partnership is associated with increases in extraversion. In contrast, research consistently  
54  
55 indicates that separating from one's romantic partner is not related to subsequent  
56  
57 personality trait change. Across all studies, the effect sizes of partnership formation on  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3  
4 personality traits were generally small and ranged around  $r \sim .20$ . Also, controlling for  
5  
6 observed differences between singles and people who entered a romantic relationship using  
7  
8 propensity score matching techniques, these effects were only replicated for young adults in  
9  
10 their early twenties.

### 11 12 13 **Marriage**

14  
15 Ample research has examined the impact of marriage on happiness and well-being  
16  
17 (Lucas, 2007; Luhmann et al., 2012). In contrast, the question of how this life event may  
18  
19 affect newlyweds' personality traits has received relatively little attention. To date, only  
20  
21 three prospective studies have examined the effect of marriage on Big Five personality trait  
22  
23 change.  
24  
25

26  
27 To test whether it is the transition into a relationship versus the event of becoming  
28  
29 married that is most strongly associated with personality trait change, Neyer and Asendorpf  
30  
31 (2001) compared the personality trait changes of unmarried participants who were in a  
32  
33 romantic relationship ( $N = 176$ ) with those who got married ( $N = 67$ ) during the 4-year  
34  
35 research period. This study found no differences between married participants and  
36  
37 participants in a romantic relationship. Although this comparison is not well-powered to  
38  
39 detect small differences, this limited evidence suggests that it was not marriage but rather  
40  
41 beginning a partnership that triggered the abovementioned personality trait changes in  
42  
43 young adults.  
44  
45  
46  
47

48  
49 Costa, Herbst, McCrae, and Siegler (2000) used data from a sample of middle-aged  
50  
51 adults (39-45 years) to contrast Big Five personality trait change in participants who got  
52  
53 married vs. divorced across two measurement occasions. Although the sample sizes in this  
54  
55 study were quite small, they found divorced women ( $N = 29$ ) to show modest increases in  
56  
57 extraversion and openness relative to women who got married ( $N = 20$ ) across 6 to 9 years.  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 Divorced men ( $N = 79$ ) showed increases in facets of neuroticism and decreases in facets of  
4 conscientiousness; whereas married men ( $N = 68$ ) decreased in neuroticism. The effect sizes  
5 were small to medium-sized and ranged around 4 to 6  $T$ -Score points ( $r = .20 - .30$ ).  
6  
7  
8  
9

10  
11 These early studies on marriage and personality trait change should be interpreted  
12 with caution. The sample sizes of the participant groups who got married were small and it  
13 might be that the presumably small effects of marriage on personality went undetected due  
14 to a lack of statistical power. Also, both Neyer and Asendorpf (2001) and Costa et al. (2000)  
15 contrasted married participants with participants who had experienced a different love-  
16 related life event (new partnership vs. divorce) rather than a non-event during the research  
17 period. Specht and colleagues (2011) aimed to address these issues in their aforementioned  
18 large-scale representative longitudinal study on life events and personality trait change.  
19 Using two-wave longitudinal data, they contrasted Big Five trait changes in married  
20 participants ( $N = 664$ ) with those in participants who did not get married during the 4-year  
21 research period ( $N \sim 14,000$ ). They found that individuals who got married tended to show  
22 more pronounced decreases in extraversion and openness to experience as compared to the  
23 participants who did not get married. However, the effect sizes were small ( $r < .20$ ) and the  
24 researchers did not distinguish between first and later marriages.  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43

44 In summary, the scarcity of longitudinal research limits the conclusions that can be  
45 drawn concerning the effects of marriage on Big Five personality trait change. In particular,  
46 the lack of longitudinal studies with more than two measurement waves and longer time  
47 periods is problematic and perhaps surprising, given the societal importance of this life  
48 event. Also, no study to date has examined the impact of marriage on personality trait  
49 change using a matched control group design (e.g., by means of propensity score matching).  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

## Divorce

The hypothesized links between relationship formation and personality change are relatively straightforward and clear. Because secure romantic relationships are such an important (and relatively universal) experience, entering into such a relationship could be expected to impact the affective aspects associated with traits like neuroticism and perhaps extraversion. In addition, new relationship statuses that require a change in behavior (such as the changes that occur when cohabitating with one's partner) could also affect personality traits that are strongly linked with these behavioral components. However, the effect of relationship dissolution may be more complex. On the one hand, the dissolution itself may influence affective components in ways that correspond to relationship formation: it is possible that the loss of a valued relationship may lead to increases in the affective components of traits like neuroticism. On the other hand, it is unclear how behavioral changes that occur with the end of a relationship (which could reflect a return to behavior patterns from before the relationship began) will influence related traits.

The early work by Costa et al. (2000) discussed above suggested that divorce affects men and women differently. Specifically, they found that middle-aged divorced women show increases in extraversion and openness to experience after the divorce, whereas men tend to show decreases in conscientiousness and increases in facets of neuroticism. Specht et al. (2011) also examined the impact of divorce on personality trait change. The results indicated that both men and women who got divorced ( $N = 229$ ) became more agreeable and conscientious across the 4-year research period ( $r < .20$ ). The latter results seem to counter the proposition that stressful life events with less clear behavioral demands most likely trigger change in affective traits such as neuroticism.

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

More recently, Allemand, Hill, and Lehmann (2015) examined the impact of divorce on personality trait change in a sample of middle-aged German adults (age 45-46 years) across three measurement waves. Compared to the participants who did not experience a divorce ( $N=383$ ) those participants who did experience at least one divorce ( $N=143$ ) showed more pronounced decreases in extraversion during the 12-year research period ( $r < .20$ ).

Taken together, the impact of divorce on personality trait change is unclear. Although all the studies reviewed above found some associations between divorce and personality trait change, the specific traits that were implicated, the magnitude of change that occurred, and even the direction of the effects that emerged varied across studies. More longitudinal research and especially studies with multiple measurement occasions and matched control groups are needed to draw firmer conclusions about the potential effects of divorce on personality trait change.

### Parenthood

The transition to parenthood has been hypothesized to be a particularly relevant turning point to study change in personality traits (e.g., Bleidorn, 2015; Hutteman et al., 2014). In contrast to other life transitions, such as entering a first romantic relationship or marriage, the transition to parenthood is a relatively non-reversible event. Also, the birth of a child is associated with sudden and oftentimes drastic changes in new parents' behavior, thoughts, and feelings, which may have both sudden and continuous effects on their personality (Belsky & Rovine, 1990; Bleidorn et al., 2016). Furthermore, the event itself typically occurs at a period of life when relatively high levels of personality change occurs. Behavioral genetic research suggests that some of the personality changes during this period are specifically associated environmental influences (Bleidorn, Kandler, Riemann, Angleitner, & Spinath, 2009; Hopwood et al., 2011). Thus, it is plausible that life events during the



1  
2  
3 transition to parenthood would be moderately or even strongly associated with personality  
4  
5  
6 change.

7  
8 As with the other life events discussed so far, research on the impact of parenthood  
9  
10 on personality trait change is based either on relatively small samples specifically recruited  
11  
12 to examine life transitions or on large-scale panel studies that happen to assess personality  
13  
14 multiple times. For instance, the abovementioned study by Neyer and Asendorpf (2001) was  
15  
16 focused primarily on relationship status, but also examined the impact of parenthood as a  
17  
18 supplemental question. This study reported no significant effects of the transition to  
19  
20 parenthood on any of the Big Five traits across a four-year period and two measurement  
21  
22 occasions. Again, however, the sample size in this study was relatively small.  
23  
24  
25  
26

27  
28 More recently, Jokela et al. (2009) examined whether the transition to parenthood  
29  
30 was related to changes in sociability (a facet of extraversion) and emotionality (a facet of  
31  
32 neuroticism) across two measurement waves in sample of 1,839 young Finns. This study  
33  
34 found that emotionality remained relatively stable in participants who had no children  
35  
36 during the nine-year research period, but increased in individuals who had one ( $d = 0.14$ ) or  
37  
38 more children ( $d = 0.20$ ). Overall, having children was not associated with changes in  
39  
40 sociability. However, there was an interaction effect between gender, baseline sociability,  
41  
42 and number of children, such that increasing family size predicted increasing sociability in  
43  
44 men with high baseline sociability ( $d \sim .30$ ) and decreasing sociability in men with low  
45  
46 baseline sociability ( $d \sim -0.40$ ).  
47  
48  
49  
50

51  
52 In an investigation that relied on participants from a large-scale German panel study,  
53  
54 Specht et al. (2011) found that both men and women tended to decrease in  
55  
56 conscientiousness after the birth of a child. This result is somewhat counter to expectations,  
57  
58 as research examining life events generally attempts to explain descriptive patterns of  
59  
60

1  
2  
3  
4 change (such as the normative increase in conscientiousness in young adulthood) from  
5  
6 events that typically occur during that period of life. The fact that the personality change  
7  
8 that emerged in this sample of new parents appeared to run in the opposite direction to  
9  
10 normative change is a surprising finding.  
11

12  
13 Galdiolo and Roskam (2014) adopted a dyadic approach and compared the mean-  
14  
15 level personality trajectories of 204 parent couples with those of 215 non-parent couples.  
16  
17 Parents provided Big Five self-report data at three measurement occasions during  
18  
19 pregnancy, 6 months postpartum, and 1 year postpartum. The comparison group of non-  
20  
21 parents provided only two waves of data, collected across a 6-month interval. The results  
22  
23 suggested only one significant effect of parenthood: men but not women who had a child  
24  
25 showed decreases in extraversion.  
26  
27  
28  
29

30  
31 Research on parenthood raises an important complication in studying the impact of  
32  
33 life events on personality trait change. Like most other normative life transitions, the birth of  
34  
35 a child is not a random event. In almost all modern Western societies, the birth of a child is  
36  
37 usually planned and reflects an individual choice implying that putative socialization effects  
38  
39 of childbirth are confounded with selection effects. In fact, parents and people without  
40  
41 children have been shown to differ systematically in a large number of socioeconomic,  
42  
43 social, and psychological characteristics (Dijkstra & Barelds, 2009; Hutteman, Bleidorn,  
44  
45 Penke, & Denissen, 2013; Jokela et al., 2009; Jokela, Alvergne, Pollet, & Lummaa, 2011). To  
46  
47 statistically account for these selection effects, van Scheppingen et al. (2016) used  
48  
49 propensity score matching techniques and two-wave longitudinal data from a representative  
50  
51 Australian panel study (HILDA) to compare the Big Five mean-level change in first-time  
52  
53 parents and non-parents across a 4-year period. Before using propensity-score matching,  
54  
55 parents differed significantly from non-parents with regard to change in extraversion and  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 conscientiousness. Consistent with previous studies, the unmatched results indicated that  
4  
5  
6 parents but not non-parents decreased in these two traits (Galdiolo & Roskam, 2014; Specht  
7  
8 et al., 2011). However, after using propensity score matching, the differences between  
9  
10  
11 parents' and non-parents' trait changes were no longer significant. Especially in extraversion,  
12  
13 there was a clear effect-size decrease after using propensity-score matching, suggesting that  
14  
15 selection effects rather than socialization effects explain the differences in personality trait  
16  
17 change between parents and non-parents.  
18

19  
20 In summary, research on whether and how the transition to parenthood affects  
21  
22 parents' personality traits has provided mixed results. Whereas some studies pointed to  
23  
24 positive changes as indicated by increases in new fathers' extraversion (Jokela et al., 2009),  
25  
26 others suggested negative change as indicated by decreases in conscientiousness (Specht et  
27  
28 al., 2011), and still others found no differences between change in new parents' and non-  
29  
30 parents' personality traits (van Scheppingen et al., 2016). Interestingly, although the  
31  
32 transition to parenthood is one of the most salient (and most normative) events that occurs  
33  
34 in the relatively constrained period of the lifespan when personality change is greatest, few  
35  
36 studies have found strong support for an association between this transition and change in  
37  
38 personality traits.  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43

#### 44 **Widowhood**

45  
46 Widowhood is usually understood as an extremely stressful life event with both  
47  
48 sudden and gradual negative effects on subjective well-being (e.g., Luhmann et al., 2012). To  
49  
50 the best of our knowledge, the only longitudinal research that has examined the effect of  
51  
52 widowhood on personality trait change is the study by Specht and colleagues (2011). They  
53  
54 found that of those participants who were faced with the death of a spouse ( $N= 228$ ),  
55  
56 women showed an increase in conscientiousness whereas men showed a decrease in  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 conscientiousness ( $r \sim .20$ ). Clearly, more longitudinal research with multiple measurement  
4 occasions and matched control groups is needed to shed light on the effects of widowhood  
5  
6 on Big Five personality trait change.  
7  
8  
9

### 10 **Summary: Love and Personality Trait Change**

11  
12 Do love-related life events lead to changes in the Big Five personality traits? The  
13 existing research has painted a much more muddled picture than one would expect, given  
14 the societal and individual relevance of events such as marriage, parenthood, or divorce.  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19

20  
21 To date, one of the most studied life events in the love domain is the transition to the  
22 first partnership. Using different time scales, instruments, and samples from different  
23 nations, this research seem to converge on the finding that young adults tend to decrease in  
24 neuroticism and increase in extraversion when they enter the first romantic relationship.  
25  
26 Notably, the effect sizes are small and more rigorous statistical tests using matched control  
27 group designs suggest that these effects might only generalize to certain age groups.  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34

35  
36 The burgeoning literature on parenthood and personality change has yielded even  
37 less clear results. Some studies pointed to small effects on conscientiousness, neuroticism,  
38 and extraversion. Yet, the most recent and most rigorous test of the effects of parenthood  
39 on the Big Five indicated that there are no differences between parents and a matched  
40 group of nonparents. Finally, considerably less research has examined other love-related  
41 events such as ending a relationship, marriage, divorce, or widowhood. The dearth of  
42 research on these events preclude strong conclusion about the potential effects of these  
43 events on change in personality traits.  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52

### 53 **Work and Personality Trait Change**

54  
55 Because mean-level change in personality traits is often the greatest and rank-order  
56 stability is the weakest in young adulthood, ideas about the causes of these changes can be  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 developed by carefully considering what other changes are occurring during this period of  
4  
5 life. Just as patterns of relationships change in predictable ways across young adulthood,  
6  
7 work status evolves as young adults move from school to work or the home. Thus, although  
8  
9 a goal of personality research is to study personality change throughout the lifespan,  
10  
11 hypotheses about the most promising causal factors in personality change can be tested by  
12  
13 examining periods of greatest change. In this section, we focus on life events related to  
14  
15 school and work, emphasizing how the new roles these changes create may influence  
16  
17 personality traits.  
18  
19  
20  
21

### 22 **School and College**

23  
24 Graduation from some form of schooling is an almost universal life event that  
25  
26 members of modern societies generally aspire to experience during the transition from late  
27  
28 adolescence to early adulthood. This transition typically occurs at the beginning of a period  
29  
30 in life where one salient personality change often occurs—an increase in conscientiousness  
31  
32 that typically emerges between the late teens and the early thirties (see, e.g., Lucas &  
33  
34 Donnellan, 2011; Wortman, 2012; Roberts et al., 2006). Given the clear relevance of school  
35  
36 and work for conscientiousness, it is reasonable to assume that changes in these roles could  
37  
38 be associated with changes in conscientiousness. Of course, other role-related changes occur  
39  
40 at this time as well, so change may also extend to other traits in the Big Five.  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45

46 We are aware of two longitudinal studies that have examined the nature and shape  
47  
48 of Big Five personality trait change during this life event. Bleidorn (2012) followed a sample  
49  
50 of 360 German high school seniors over three measurement occasions before and after  
51  
52 graduation and compared their Big Five trait changes with the trait changes in a sample of  
53  
54 550 German high school juniors. Despite a very short observation period of only 1 year, this  
55  
56 study found significant mean-level changes in different Big Five traits. Specifically, senior  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 students experienced significant increases in conscientiousness ( $d = .34$ ), agreeableness ( $d =$   
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

students experienced significant increases in conscientiousness ( $d = .34$ ), agreeableness ( $d =$   
.24), and openness ( $d = .25$ ), and to a lesser degree decreases in neuroticism ( $d = -.07$ ).

Notably, these changes were most pronounced during the first two assessments before and  
after graduation. Junior students who completed all measurements while still enrolled in  
school showed less pronounced increases in conscientiousness ( $d = .20$ ) and openness ( $d =$   
.22) than seniors and no changes in agreeableness and neuroticism.

This study found further that, compared to their classmates, those students who  
invested more time and effort into studying and their homework showed more pronounced  
increases in conscientiousness and openness and more pronounced decreases in  
neuroticism. The latter finding provided some evidence for the sociogenomic model of  
personality (Roberts & Jackson, 2008; this issue) and other bottom-up approaches to  
personality development that promote the view that that much of development is likely to  
start with behavioral changes, typically in response to situations or in pursuit of goals.

In a somewhat similar study, Luedtke, Roberts, Trautwein, and Nagy (2011) also  
tracked German students ( $N \sim 2,000$ ) from high school to university, vocational training, or  
work, with 3 assessments over 4 years. Consistent with Bleidorn (2012), this study found  
significant mean-level changes in students' Big Five traits, particularly across the two  
assessments before and after graduation from school (see also, Luedtke, Trautwein, &  
Husemann, 2009). Specifically, students who graduated from high school showed increases  
in openness ( $d = .20$ ), agreeableness ( $d = .32$ ), and conscientiousness ( $d = .32$ ), and decreases  
in neuroticism ( $d = -.27$ ).

A second important finding of this study was that individuals' life paths after  
graduation were distinctively related to their Big Five trait changes. Individuals who took a  
more vocationally oriented path increased in conscientiousness at a faster rate than their

1  
2  
3  
4 peers who attended university. In contrast, they showed less pronounced increases in  
5  
6 agreeableness than those attending university. The links between life paths and personality  
7  
8 trait changes may reflect the idiosyncratic nature of the cognitive, affective, and behavioral  
9  
10 experiences associated with these different life paths. For example, people who take a  
11  
12 vocational track after school may face a more disciplined schedule that requires them to act  
13  
14 conscientiously. Conversely, students who take the university path may face fewer demands  
15  
16 to become conscientious, at least compared with those heading to work.  
17  
18

19  
20 Taken together, these two longitudinal studies found that the transition from school  
21  
22 to university or vocational tracks is related to personality maturation (Roberts, Wood, &  
23  
24 Caspi, 2008) in the form of increases in openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness, and  
25  
26 decreases in neuroticism. These changes occurred over relatively short time periods and  
27  
28 showed distinct relations to particular behaviors and experiences during and after  
29  
30 graduation from school. Again, however, it is important to caution that matched comparison  
31  
32 groups were not used in these studies, so it is not possible to rule out the idea that pre-  
33  
34 existing differences (rather than the event itself) may be responsible for the patterns that  
35  
36 were observed.  
37  
38  
39

#### 40 41 42 **First Job / New Job**

43  
44 In recent years, a large number of studies have examined the associations between  
45  
46 personality trait change and work experiences, such as job satisfaction, job demands, or  
47  
48 work investment (e.g., Hudson et al., 2012; Roberts, 1997; Roberts, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2003;  
49  
50 Roberts, Walton, Bogg, & Caspi, 2006). One robust finding to emerge from this literature is  
51  
52 that work experiences correlate with personality trait changes and—as might be expected—  
53  
54 these associations are particularly strong for conscientiousness. This broad interest in  
55  
56 personality change in the work context notwithstanding, few studies have examined  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 whether and how personality traits change during the transition to the first job or a new job.  
4  
5  
6 Specht et al. (2011) found that young adults who enter the labor market for the first time ( $N$   
7  
8 = 456) show considerable increases in conscientiousness over a period of 4 years ( $r \sim 0.20$ ).  
9  
10  
11 There were no effects on any of the other four Big Five traits.

12  
13 With a focus on upward job changes, Niess and Zacher (2015) recently used two  
14  
15 waves of an Australian panel study to examine whether the transition to a managerial or  
16  
17 professional position impacts changes in the Big Five. Specifically, they used propensity score  
18  
19 matching techniques to compare the participants who made an upward job change (into  
20  
21 managerial or professional positions;  $N = 247$ ) with participants who did not make such a  
22  
23 change (i.e., those who remained in non-managerial and non-professional positions;  $N =$   
24  
25 1,710). Somewhat surprisingly, effects did not emerge for the trait of conscientiousness.  
26  
27  
28 Instead, the authors found that, across four years, individuals who experienced upward job  
29  
30 changes scored significantly higher in openness than participants who did not experience  
31  
32 such changes ( $d = .21$ ) but not in any of the other Big Five traits.  
33  
34  
35

36  
37 Overall, there has been limited research on the question whether job transitions have  
38  
39 an effect on Big Five personality trait change. The few existing studies provide some  
40  
41 evidence to suggest that the entering the labor market is related to an increase in  
42  
43 conscientiousness and that the transition to a management or otherwise higher position is  
44  
45 related to an increase in openness to experience. Again, however, more studies would be  
46  
47 desirable to check the robustness of these effects.  
48  
49

### 50 51 **Unemployment**

52  
53 Unemployment has been consistently shown to have a strong and relatively  
54  
55 persistent negative effect on well-being (e.g., Lucas, 2007; Luhmann et al., 2012). Based on  
56  
57 this finding it has been hypothesized that the experience of unemployment may also affect  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 broad personality traits; particularly in terms of increases in neuroticism and decreases in  
4  
5 conscientiousness (Boyce, Wood, Daly, & Sedikides, 2015).  
6  
7

8  
9 In their study on personality development in middle adulthood, Costa et al. (2000)  
10 contrasted Big Five trait changes in groups of participants who were promoted ( $N = 432$ )  
11 versus fired ( $N = 91$ ) during a 6-9 year follow-up interval. Results indicated that individuals  
12 who were fired indeed exhibited an increase in neuroticism and a decrease in  
13 conscientiousness relative to individuals who were promoted.  
14  
15  
16  
17

18  
19 Using the representative SOEP sample, Specht et al. (2011) found no differences in  
20 Big Five trait changes between participants who experienced unemployment ( $N = 860$ ) and  
21 those who did not report having experienced a period of unemployment. However, Boyce et  
22 al. (2015) used data from the same sample with a different analytic approach to take a closer  
23 look at the potential effects of unemployment on personality trait change. In contrast to the  
24 analyses by Specht et al., they only used data from participants who were employed at the  
25 first measurement occasion and contrasted Big Five trait changes across three different  
26 groups: (1) participants who remained employed across the 4-year period ( $N = 6,308$ ), (2)  
27 participants who experienced some unemployment but were reemployed by the follow-up  
28 assessment ( $N = 251$ ), and (3) participants who experienced unemployment and were still  
29 unemployment at the follow-up assessment ( $N = 210$ ). In addition, they tested whether the  
30 number of consecutive years spent unemployed between the two personality assessments  
31 moderated the effects of unemployment on personality trait change.  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49

50  
51 Mostly, in accordance with intuitions about the role of work in personality  
52 development, this study found that agreeableness, conscientiousness, and openness  
53 changed during unemployment relative to employment, with the influence being contingent  
54 upon the number of years of unemployment, gender, and reemployment. Specifically,  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 women tended to show linear decreases in agreeableness across 4 years of unemployment  
4  
5  
6 whereas men showed a non-linear pattern with increases during the first 2 years and  
7  
8 subsequent decreases during later years. Conscientiousness decreased linearly in men;  
9  
10 whereas women showed a nonlinear pattern with increases in the early and late stages of  
11  
12 unemployment but decreases in the medium term. Both men and women experienced non-  
13  
14 linear changes in openness. While men's openness seemed to slightly increase during the  
15  
16 first 2 years of unemployment, they start to decrease with longer time spent unemployed.  
17  
18 Women, on the other hand, showed sharp decreases in openness in the second and third  
19  
20 years of unemployment but rebounded in the fourth year.  
21  
22  
23

24  
25 Taking gender and number of years spent unemployed into account, the observed  
26  
27 effect sizes were considerably larger than those reported in previous studies, suggesting  
28  
29 effects that reach as high as a full standard deviation change in personality. Also, these  
30  
31 effects were specific to the relatively small group of individuals who remained unemployed;  
32  
33 no differences were found between individuals who were reemployed and those who  
34  
35 remained employed during the study period. Again, propensity score matching techniques  
36  
37 were not used. In the case of events like the loss of one's job, it is quite possible that the  
38  
39 personality changes observed to be linked to long-term unemployment may result from  
40  
41 other associated stressors (e.g., housing difficulties) or experiences (e.g., depressive  
42  
43 episodes) which, in turn, may affect scores on personality trait measures.  
44  
45  
46  
47

48  
49 Overall, the current state of research suggests that unemployment may precipitate  
50  
51 personality trait changes but that the nature, shape, and degree of such changes are more  
52  
53 complex than initially predicted. As highlighted by the study by Boyce et al. (2015), trait  
54  
55 changes can be contingent on multiple moderating factors such as gender or the continuity  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 of the event. Their study furthermore highlights that trait changes in response to life events  
4  
5 are at risk to be overlooked if they unfold in a nonlinear way.  
6  
7

### 8 **Retirement**

9  
10 Retirement may be associated with both costs and benefits (Kim & Moen, 2002;  
11  
12 Luhmann et al., 2012). For example, retirees do not face work-related stress and have more  
13  
14 time for social and other nonprofessional activities. Yet, retirement is also associated with a  
15  
16 loss of roles and work-related activities, reduced income, and less structured days. Due to  
17  
18 the multifaceted nature of retirement, the few longitudinal studies that have examined  
19  
20 personality trait change in the context of this life event have adopted an exploratory  
21  
22 approach with no specific hypotheses concerning changes in particular Big Five traits.  
23  
24 However, at least some studies have found a decline in conscientiousness in late life  
25  
26 (Donnellan & Lucas, 2008; Lucas & Donnellan, 2011), and it is possible that this decline is  
27  
28 related to the shift out of work-related roles.  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33

34  
35 Loeckenhoff, Terracciano, and Costa (2009) used data from the East Baltimore  
36  
37 Epidemiologic Catchment Area Study (ECA, Eaton et al., 1997) to compare the Big Five  
38  
39 trajectories of retirees ( $N = 63$ ) and individuals who remained employed ( $N = 304$ ) across two  
40  
41 measurement waves. Compared to participants who remained employed, retirees increased  
42  
43 in agreeableness and decreased in activity, a facet of extraversion. The observed effects  
44  
45 were medium-sized with observed changes amounting to almost half a standard deviation  
46  
47 over the 9-year research period. Specht et al. (2011) found no change in agreeableness or  
48  
49 extraversion, but significant changes in conscientiousness. Specifically (and consistent with  
50  
51 broader age-related trends found in the same sample by Lucas and Donnellan, 2011),  
52  
53 individuals who retired during the 4-year follow-up period showed significant decreases in  
54  
55 conscientiousness ( $r \sim -.20$ ).  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3  
4 In sum, there is some evidence to suggest that retirement is related to personality  
5  
6 trait change. However, the number of studies is too small to draw firm conclusions about the  
7  
8 effects of retirement on the extent and shape of change in specific Big Five traits. More  
9  
10 research, including studies using multiple measurement waves and matched control groups,  
11  
12 is needed to provide a more fine-grained examination of personality trait change as a  
13  
14 function of this life event.  
15  
16

### 17 18 **Summary: Work and Personality Trait Change** 19

20  
21 Similar to the literature on love-related events, relatively few prospective studies  
22  
23 have addressed the questions of whether and how work-related events lead to personality  
24  
25 trait change. One robust finding from this small body of research is that the transition from  
26  
27 school to college is associated with rapidly unfolding increases in openness, agreeableness,  
28  
29 and conscientiousness, and decreases in neuroticism among young adults. Preliminary  
30  
31 evidence also suggests that entering the work force is associated with increased  
32  
33 conscientiousness. The few studies that have examined other occupational changes  
34  
35 including promotions, unemployment, and retirement provide a less clear picture.  
36  
37  
38

### 39 40 **Discussion** 41

42  
43 In this article, we reviewed the existing prospective research on personality trait  
44  
45 change in response to 9 major life events in the broader domains of love and work. We  
46  
47 expected that changes in personality traits would occur to the degree that these life events  
48  
49 have a strong enough and lasting influence on individuals' thoughts, feelings, and behavior.  
50  
51 Moreover, we predicted that love-related life events such as marriage or parenthood would  
52  
53 be more strongly related to changes in traits that emphasize affective content and social  
54  
55 behavior (i.e. agreeableness, extraversion, and neuroticism) whereas work-related life  
56  
57 events would be more likely to lead to change in traits that reflect behavioral or cognitive  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 content (i.e., conscientiousness and openness). In the following, we will discuss the key  
4  
5 findings of our review in more detail, point out important gaps and constraints of previous  
6  
7 research, and provide directions for future studies on life events and personality trait  
8  
9 change.  
10  
11

### 12 13 **Which Life Events Matter the Most?** 14

15  
16 The current state of research only allows for tentative conclusions concerning the  
17  
18 impact of different life events on subsequent personality trait change. On average, we found  
19  
20 three prospective studies per life event; most of which included only two assessments and  
21  
22 relatively small subsamples of participants who experienced a particular life event.  
23  
24

25  
26 The most cohesive findings emerged for two life events that typically occur in young  
27  
28 adulthood. Specifically, the transitions to the first romantic relationship (increased  
29  
30 agreeableness and extraversion) and from school to college / work (increased  
31  
32 agreeableness, conscientiousness, openness, and decreased neuroticism) appear to  
33  
34 positively influence young adults' personality. There are at least three possible explanations  
35  
36 for these findings. First, young adulthood is the period in life when personality traits have  
37  
38 been shown to be most open to change (Bleidorn, 2015; Lucas & Donnellan, 2011; Roberts &  
39  
40 DelVecchio, 2000; Roberts et al., 2006). Hence, life events that normatively occur at this life  
41  
42 stage may be particularly likely to trigger personality change because personality traits are  
43  
44 more sensitive to environmental influences in early adulthood than in middle or late  
45  
46 adulthood.  
47  
48  
49

50  
51 Second, these two life events may have a relatively strong influence on young adults'  
52  
53 personality because they are normative and relatively universal experiences in Western  
54  
55 societies. In contrast to other non-normative or less scripted life events, such as divorce or  
56  
57 unemployment, graduation from school and the first partnership are characterized by  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 transparent behavioral scripts and relatively clear affective reactions and cognitive demands.  
4  
5 For example, expectations associated with graduation from school or college include being  
6  
7 task- and goal-directed, organized, delaying gratification, and following prescribed norms. To  
8  
9 the extent that these behaviors can be translated into trait terms (e.g., increases in  
10  
11 conscientiousness), graduation from school should form a strong reward structure for  
12  
13 personality trait change (Roberts & Wood, 2006).  
14  
15  
16

17  
18 Third, the differences between the pattern of results for these life events and others  
19  
20 may be due to differences in research designs, including the use of fairly large and  
21  
22 homogeneous samples of young adults using longitudinal designs with multiple  
23  
24 measurement waves over relatively short time intervals (e.g., Bleidorn, 2012; Neyer &  
25  
26 Lehnart, 2007). Statistical power and the use of appropriate time scales to detect changes in  
27  
28 personality traits might partly explain the stronger and more cohesive results pattern for  
29  
30 these life events.  
31  
32  
33

### 34 35 **Which Traits Change The Most?** 36

37 We hypothesized that life events that fall within the domain of love are more  
38  
39 strongly related to changes in traits that emphasize affective and social content, whereas  
40  
41 work-related life events are more likely to lead to change in traits that reflect behavioral or  
42  
43 cognitive content. The present state of research does not provide clear evidence for the  
44  
45 premise that different life events have different effects on different Big Five traits depending  
46  
47 on the degree to which the events elicit behavioral, affective, or cognitive content. Although  
48  
49 there is some evidence to suggest that work-related life events such as promotion to a  
50  
51 managerial position are related to changes in conscientiousness and openness, the effects  
52  
53 are small and need to be replicated in future studies with larger samples and more frequent  
54  
55 and adequately timed measurement occasions. Similarly, love-related events such as the  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 transition to the first partnership have been found to be related to both traits that  
4  
5 emphasize affective content such as neuroticism and traits that accentuate behavioral  
6  
7 content such conscientiousness.  
8  
9

10  
11 Clearly, more research at the interface of life events and personality trait change  
12  
13 would be needed to determine which traits change the most in response to certain life  
14  
15 events. In particular, a better understanding of the processes that underlie personality trait  
16  
17 change during major life transitions would be required to predict when and how specific  
18  
19 traits change in the context of environmental changes. Sociogenomic personality theory  
20  
21 (Roberts & Jackson, 2008; this issue) offers a framework to explain how continuous changes  
22  
23 in individuals' affective, cognitive, and behavioral states can translate into subsequent  
24  
25 personality trait changes. Other accounts have focused on self-regulated personality trait  
26  
27 changes and the role of expectations, goals, and self-control (e.g., Denissen, van Aken,  
28  
29 Penke, & Wood, 2013; Hennecke et al., 2014). Most recently, Wrzus and Roberts (2016) have  
30  
31 proposed a general framework on personality trait change that attributes long-term  
32  
33 personality development to repeated short-term sequences of triggering situations,  
34  
35 expectancies, states, and reactions through associative and reflective processes.  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40

41  
42 To better understand how volitional, behavioral, cognitive, and affective short-term  
43  
44 processes are linked to long-term changes in personality traits, prospective measurement  
45  
46 burst study designs (Nesselroade, 2004) are needed that assess personality traits  
47  
48 longitudinally as well as the relevant short-term processes repeatedly during the experience  
49  
50 of major life events. To illustrate, a recent longitudinal study on self-esteem development  
51  
52 during an academic exchange year has adopted such a design to examine the impact of  
53  
54 short-term state changes on long-term trait changes (Hutteman, Nestler, Wagner, Egloff, &  
55  
56 Back, 2014). This study found that increases in state self-esteem during one academic  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 exchange year predicted differential changes in trait self-esteem over one year and that the  
4  
5 experience of greater social inclusion prospectively predicted higher state self-esteem and  
6  
7 vice versa. Presumably, social inclusion and social activities during the academic exchange  
8  
9 year triggered changes in state self-esteem, which, in turn, led to changes in individuals' trait  
10  
11 self-esteem. Similar research designs are needed to gain more knowledge about the short-  
12  
13 terms processes during major life events and their distinctive effects on long-term changes  
14  
15 in different personality traits.  
16  
17  
18

### 19 20 **Overcoming Constraints of Previous Research** 21

22  
23 In this article, we reviewed the findings of prospective studies that examined the  
24  
25 impact of specific love- and work-related life events on personality trait change. These  
26  
27 studies yielded mixed and sometimes conflicting results concerning the nature and direction  
28  
29 of personality trait change in response to life events. The inconclusive nature of the current  
30  
31 state of research may be partly explained by the scope and quality of previous studies, many  
32  
33 of which were not explicitly designed to test the impact of life events on personality trait  
34  
35 change. In the following, we discuss the most important gaps and constraints of previous  
36  
37 research and provide directions for future research on life events and personality trait  
38  
39 change.  
40  
41  
42  
43

44  
45 First, most previous studies were restricted by two-wave designs, which limit the  
46  
47 analyses to linear-change models. In the case of many life events, however, non-linear or  
48  
49 discontinuous change models might be more suited to describe how change in personality  
50  
51 traits unfolds before, during, and after a life event (Luhmann et al., 2014). These models  
52  
53 require longitudinal data with more than three measurement occasions, a requirement that  
54  
55 has been rarely met in previous research on life events on personality trait change. Multiple  
56  
57 waves of data would also be needed to examine personality trait changes in the context of  
58  
59  
60



1  
2  
3 repeated similar events, such as repeated marriages or divorces, repeated unemployment,  
4  
5 or re-employment. Such designs would allow researchers to test whether the impact of later  
6  
7 events is similar, weaker, or stronger than the impact of the first event (cf., Luhmann & Eid,  
8  
9 2009; van Scheppingen, Denissen, Chung, Tambs, & Bleidorn, 2016)  
10  
11

12  
13 Second, a crucial question concerns the timing of personality trait change during  
14  
15 major life events (Luhmann et al., 2014). Change in personality traits may already occur  
16  
17 before an event occurs. In other words, the critical component of an event may not be  
18  
19 reflected in the measure of the event. For example, the critical affective, behavioral, and  
20  
21 cognitive changes associated with the dissolution of a marriage may occur long before the  
22  
23 legal act of divorce. These processes may have a more transformative influence on  
24  
25 personality traits than the canceling or reorganizing of the legal duties and responsibilities of  
26  
27 marriage. Similarly, new parents might experience personality trait changes already before  
28  
29 the birth of the child, for example, when they are planning to have child or during pregnancy  
30  
31 (van Scheppingen et al., 2016). Other events may have delayed effects on personality traits  
32  
33 that unfold in a slow and incremental way. Unemployment, for instance, is associated with  
34  
35 multiple negative social, economic, and psychological consequences, which may accumulate  
36  
37 over time and translate into maladaptive personality trait changes that unfold over longer  
38  
39 time periods following the event. Hence, studies that begin shortly before an event and  
40  
41 include only one or few follow-ups after the event may mistake pre-event changes for stable  
42  
43 pre-existing differences and / or not detect temporally delayed effects. To examine possible  
44  
45 pre- and post-event changes and to detect critical periods of change, prospective studies are  
46  
47 needed that measure personality multiple times before and after an event occurs.  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53

54  
55 Third, because experimental designs are not feasible to study the effects of life  
56  
57 events on personality trait change, the field must rely on designs that use additional pieces  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 of information to establish the nature and shape of change while ruling out potential  
4  
5  
6 confounds. Recently, studies on life events have begun to include matched control groups  
7  
8 who did not experience the event of interest (e.g., Wagner et al., 2015; van Scheppingen et  
9  
10 al., 2016). These designs allow researchers to account for the confounding influence of  
11  
12 observed control variables. A particularly well-matched control group that would allow to  
13  
14 also control for unmeasured influences would consist of monozygotic twin siblings.  
15  
16 Monozygotic twins share both a common genotype and a similar rearing environment.  
17  
18 Hence, longitudinal co-twin control studies on monozygotic twins who are discordant on  
19  
20 exposure to certain life events would combine the advantages of observational studies and  
21  
22 experimental designs, because monozygotic twins are matched on a multitude of known and  
23  
24 unknown potential confounding factors including their genetic background (Bleidorn,  
25  
26 Kandler, & Caspi, 2014; McGue, Osler, & Christensen, 2010). Particularly strong support for  
27  
28 the effect of life events on personality trait change would thus be provided by a  
29  
30 prospective co-twin control study showing that monozygotic twins who differ in the  
31  
32 experience of specific life events also differ in their personality trait trajectories.  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38

39 Fourth, in most studies, personality traits were assessed with self-reports which may  
40  
41 be prone to biases that distort conclusions regarding the impact of life events on personality  
42  
43 trait change. Multimethod approaches using informant reports, behavioral data, or other  
44  
45 kinds of assessments might stimulate research on life events and personality trait change  
46  
47 (Eid & Diener, 2006). Discontinuities in the patterns observed across assessment methods  
48  
49 might also be illuminating (Bornstein, 2012). Also, as outlined above, experience-sampling or  
50  
51 event-sampling designs have rarely been used to study personality trait change during the  
52  
53 experience of major life events (Wrzus & Roberts, 2016). These approaches, while often still  
54  
55 relying on self-report, have the advantage of measuring the underlying short-term processes  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 of personality trait change as they occur during the experience of life events and may help  
4  
5 distinguishing between specific (behavior) vs. generalized (disposition) trait changes  
6  
7  
8 (Bleidorn, 2009; Fleeson & Jolley, 2006; Wrzus & Roberts, 2016).  
9

10 Fifth, as mentioned above, the vast majority of studies have examined the impact of  
11  
12 live events on rank-order change or mean-level change in personality traits. These two types  
13  
14 of change describe changes in individual personality traits at the population level. However,  
15  
16 changes at the population level may not mirror changes at the individual level (Roberts et al.,  
17  
18 2008). Future research is needed to examine whether and how life events may influence the  
19  
20 configuration of traits within an individual across time (i.e., ipsative personality change).  
21  
22 Moreover, little is known about the effects of life events on correlated change in personality  
23  
24 traits. Correlated change describes the degree to which changes in one trait are related to  
25  
26 changes in other traits. For example, positive correlated change between extraversion and  
27  
28 conscientiousness would indicate that the same individuals who show increases in  
29  
30 extraversion also increase in conscientiousness, whereas individuals who decrease in  
31  
32 extraversion also decrease in conscientiousness (Klimstra, Bleidorn, Asendorpf, van Aken, &  
33  
34 Denissen, 2013). According to Soto and John (2012), the degree of correlated change  
35  
36 indicates the extent to which personality development is influenced by broadly acting  
37  
38 mechanisms that simultaneously affect multiple traits vs. narrowly acting mechanisms that  
39  
40 affect single trait domains in isolation.  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47

48 Sixth, large sample sizes are needed to test the presumably small effects of life  
49  
50 events on personality trait change with adequate statistical power. Many previous studies  
51  
52 compared relatively small subsamples of participants who had or had not experienced a  
53  
54 particular life event. Until replicated in future studies on larger samples, the results of these  
55  
56 studies should be interpreted with caution. Moreover, future research on more culturally  
57  
58  
59  
60

1  
2  
3 and demographically diverse samples is needed to test whether the observed effects  
4  
5  
6 generalize to individuals with different cultural and demographic backgrounds.  
7

### 8 **Conclusion**

9  
10  
11 Our review of past research provided some evidence that life events can lead to  
12  
13 changes in Big Five personality traits and that different life events may be differently related  
14  
15 to specific trait domains. The most consistent findings emerged for the transition to the first  
16  
17 romantic relationship and the transition from school to college / work, which have been  
18  
19 found to be related to positive personality trait changes. However, a more general  
20  
21 conclusion emerging from this review is that the evidence for the nature, shape, and timing  
22  
23 of personality trait change in response to life events is still at a preliminary stage. Future  
24  
25 work should use multimethod assessments to capture multiple assessment waves in large  
26  
27 samples with designs capable of ruling out potential confounds. We hope that this review  
28  
29 will inspire new longitudinal research that uses such designs to isolate when, how, and why  
30  
31 personality trait change occurs in the context of major life events.  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

Table 1. *Characteristics of Big Five Traits.*

Trait	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	Extraversion	Neuroticism	Openness
Maturation Trend in Young Adulthood	Increasing	Increasing	Stable/Increasing <sup>a</sup>	Decreasing	Stable
Content Emphasis	Social Behavior	Behavior	Affect/Social Behavior	Affect	Cognition
Expected Life Event Sensitivity	Love and Work	Work	Love and Work	Love	Work
Beginning a Relationship	Increase		Increase		
Ending Primary School/Beginning College or Work	Increase	Increase		Decrease	Increase

a. social dominance aspects of extraversion tend to increase whereas social vitality aspects of extraversion tend to be stable during the transition to adulthood (Roberts, Walton, & Viechtbauer, 2006).

b. Reliable findings were not observed for other examined life events including ending a relationship, marriage, divorce, parenthood, widowhood, job loss, or retirement.

1  
2  
3  
4  
5  
6  
7  
8  
9  
10  
11  
12  
13  
14  
15  
16  
17  
18  
19  
20  
21  
22  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27  
28  
29  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

**Declaration of Conflicting Interests**

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

**Funding**

The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship, and/or publication of this article.

For Peer Review

**References**

- 1  
2  
3  
4  
5 Allemand, M., Hill, P. L., & Lehmann, R. (2015). Divorce and personality development across  
6 middle adulthood. *Personal Relationships, 22*, 122-137.  
7  
8  
9 Belsky, J., & Rovine, M. (1990). Patterns of marital change across the transition to  
10 parenthood: Pregnancy to three years postpartum. *Journal of Marriage and Family,*  
11 5-19.  
12  
13  
14 Bleidorn, W. (2009). Linking personality states, current social roles and major life  
15 goals. *European Journal of Personality, 23*, 509-530.  
16  
17  
18 Bleidorn, W. (2012). Hitting the road to adulthood: Short-term personality development  
19 during a major life transition. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 38*(12),  
20 1594-1608.  
21  
22  
23 Bleidorn, W. (2015). What accounts for personality maturation in early adulthood? *Current*  
24 *Directions in Psychological Science, 24*, 245-252.  
25  
26  
27 Bleidorn, W., Buyukcan-Tetik, A., Schwaba, T., van Scheppingen, M. A., Denissen, J. J., &  
28 Finkenauer, C. (2016). Stability and change in self-esteem during the transition to  
29 parenthood. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, published online before  
30 print April 29, 2016, doi:10.1177/1948550616646428  
31  
32  
33 Bleidorn, W., Kandler, C., & Caspi, A. (2014). The behavioral genetics of personality  
34 development in adulthood – Classic, contemporary, and future trends. *European*  
35 *Journal of Personality, 28* (3), 244-255.  
36  
37  
38 Bleidorn, W., Kandler C., Riemann, R., Angleitner, A., & Spinath, F. M. (2009). Patterns and  
39 sources of adult personality development: Growth curve analyses of the NEO-PI-R  
40 scales in a longitudinal twin study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 97,*  
41 142–155.  
42  
43  
44 Bleidorn, W., Klimstra, T. A., Denissen, J. J. A., Rentfrow, P. J., Potter, J., & Gosling, S. D.  
45 (2013). Personality maturation around the world – A cross-cultural examination of  
46 Social Investment Theory. *Psychological Science, 24* , 2530-2540.  
47  
48  
49 Bornstein, R.F. (2012). Toward a process-focused model of test score validity: Improving  
50 psychological assessment in science and practice. *Psychological Assessment, 23*, 532-  
51 544.  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56 Boyce, C. J., Wood, A. M., Daly, M., & Sedikides, C. (2015). Personality change following  
57 unemployment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 100*, 991-1011.  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3  
4 Caspi, A., & Moffitt, T. E. (1993). When do individual differences matter? A paradoxical  
5 theory of personality coherence. *Psychological Inquiry, 4*, 247-271.  
6
- 7 Costa, P. T., Herbst, J. H., McCrae, R. R., & Siegler, I. C. (2000). Personality at midlife: Stability,  
8 intrinsic maturation, and response to life events. *Assessment, 7*, 365-378.  
9
- 10  
11 Chung, J. M., Robins, R. W., Trzesniewski, K. H., Nofhle, E. E., Roberts, B. W., & Widaman, K. F.  
12 (2014). Continuity and change in self-esteem during emerging adulthood. *Journal of*  
13 *Personality and Social Psychology, 106*, 469-483. doi: 10.1037/a0035135  
14  
15
- 16  
17 Denissen, J. J., Aken, M. A., Penke, L., & Wood, D. (2013). Self-regulation underlies  
18 temperament and personality: An integrative developmental framework. *Child*  
19 *Development Perspectives, 7*, 255-260.  
20  
21
- 22  
23 Dijkstra, P., & Barelds, D. P. (2009). Women's well-being: The role of individual differences.  
24 *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology, 50*, 309-315. doi:10.1111/j.1467-  
25 9450.2009.00711.x  
26  
27  
28
- 29  
30 Donnellan, M. B., & Lucas, R. E. (2008). Age differences in the Big Five across the life span:  
31 evidence from two national samples. *Psychology and Aging, 23*, 558-566.  
32
- 33  
34 Eid, M. & Diener, E. (2006). *Handbook of multimethod measurement in psychology*.  
35 Washington DC: American Psychological Association.
- 36  
37 Fleenon, W., & Jolley, S. (2006). A proposed theory of the adult development of  
38 intraindividual variability in trait-manifesting behavior. In D. Mroczek & T. D. Little  
39 (Eds.), *Handbook of personality development* (pp. 41-59). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- 40  
41 Ferguson, C. J. (2010). A meta-analysis of normal and disordered personality across the life  
42 span. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 98*, 659-667.  
43  
44
- 45  
46 Foster, E. M. (2010). Causal inference and developmental psychology. *Developmental*  
47 *Psychology, 46*, 1454-1480. doi:10.1037/a0020204  
48
- 49  
50 Galdiolo, S., & Roskam, I. (2014). Development of personality traits in response to childbirth:  
51 A longitudinal dyadic perspective. *Personality and Individual Differences, 69*, 223-230.  
52
- 53  
54 Hennecke, M., Bleidorn, W., Denissen, J.J.A., & Wood, D. (2014). A three-part framework for  
55 self-regulated personality development across adulthood. *European Journal of*  
56 *Personality, 28*, 289-299.  
57
- 58  
59 Hopson, B., & Adams, J. (1976). Towards an understanding of transition: Defining some  
60 boundaries of transition dynamics. In J. Adams, J. Hayes, & B. Hopson (Eds.),



- 1  
2  
3  
4       *Transition: Understanding and managing personal change* (pp. 3–25). London,  
5       England: Martin Robertson.  
6
- 7       Hopwood, C.J., Donnellan, M.B., Blonigen, D.M., Krueger, R.F., McGue, M., Iacono, W.G., &  
8       Burt, S.G. (2011). Genetic and environmental influences on personality trait stability  
9       and growth during the transition to adulthood: A three-wave longitudinal. *Journal of*  
10       *Personality and Social Psychology, 100*, 545-556.  
11
- 12       Hudson, N. W., Roberts, B. W., & Lodi-Smith, J. (2012). Personality trait development and  
13       social investment in work. *Journal of Research in Personality, 46*, 334-344.  
14
- 15       Hutteman, R., Bleidorn, W., Keresteš, G., Brković, I., Butković, A., & Denissen, J. J. A. (2014).  
16       Reciprocal associations between parenting challenges and parents' personality  
17       development in young and middle adulthood. *European Journal of Personality, 28* ,  
18       168-179.  
19
- 20       Hutteman, R., Bleidorn, W., Penke, L., & Denissen, J. J. (2013). It takes two: A longitudinal  
21       dyadic study on predictors of fertility outcomes. *Journal of Personality, 81*, 487–498.  
22       doi:10.1111/jopy.12006  
23
- 24       Hutteman, R., Hennecke, M., Orth, U., Reitz, A. K., & Specht, J. (2014). Developmental tasks  
25       as a framework to study personality development in adulthood and old  
26       age. *European Journal of Personality, 28*, 267-278.  
27
- 28       Hutteman, R., Nestler, S., Wagner, J., Egloff, B., & Back, M. D. (2015). Wherever I may roam:  
29       Processes of self-esteem development from adolescence to emerging adulthood in  
30       the context of international student exchange. *Journal of Personality and Social*  
31       *Psychology, 108*, 767-783.  
32
- 33       Jokela, M., Alvergne, A., Pollet, T. V., & Lummaa, V. (2011). Reproductive behavior and  
34       personality traits of the Five Factor Model. *European Journal of Personality, 25*, 487–  
35       500. doi:10.1002/per.822  
36
- 37       Jokela, M., Kivimäki, M., Elovainio, M., & Keltikangas-Järvinen, L. (2009). Personality and  
38       having children: a two-way relationship. *Journal of Personality and Social*  
39       *Psychology, 96*, 218.  
40
- 41       Kandler, C., Bleidorn, W., Riemann, R., Angleitner, A., & Spinath, F. M. (2012). Life events as  
42       environmental states and genetic traits and the role of personality: A longitudinal  
43       twin study. *Behavior Genetics, 42*, 57-72.  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3  
4 Kim, J. E., & Moen, P. (2002). Retirement transitions, gender, and psychological well-being a  
5 life-course, ecological model. *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological*  
6 *Sciences and Social Sciences, 57*, 212-22.  
7  
8  
9 Klimstra, T. A., Bleidorn, W., Asendorpf, J. B., Van Aken, M. A., & Denissen, J. J. (2013).  
10 Correlated change of Big Five personality traits across the lifespan: A search for  
11 determinants. *Journal of Research in Personality, 47*, 768-777.  
12  
13  
14 Löckenhoff, C. E., Terracciano, A., & Costa Jr, P. T. (2009). Five-factor model personality traits  
15 and the retirement transition: longitudinal and cross-sectional  
16 associations. *Psychology and Aging, 24*, 722-728.  
17  
18  
19 Lucas, R. E. (2007). Adaptation and the set-point model of subjective well-being: Does  
20 happiness change after major life events? *Current Directions in Psychological Science,*  
21 *16*, 75–79.  
22  
23  
24 Lucas, R. E., & Donnellan, M. B. (2009). Age differences in personality: evidence from a  
25 nationally representative Australian sample. *Developmental Psychology, 45*, 1353-  
26 1636.  
27  
28  
29 Lucas, R. E., & Donnellan, M. B. (2011). Personality development across the life span:  
30 longitudinal analyses with a national sample from Germany. *Journal of Personality*  
31 *and Social Psychology, 101*, 847-861.  
32  
33  
34 Luedtke, O., Roberts, B. W., Trautwein, U., & Nagy, G. (2011). A random walk down  
35 university avenue: Life paths, life events, and personality trait change at the  
36 transition to university life. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 101*, 620–  
37 637.  
38  
39  
40 Luedtke, O., Trautwein, U., & Husemann, N. (2009). Goal and personality trait development  
41 in a transitional period: Assessing change and stability in personality development.  
42 *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 35*, 428 – 441.  
43  
44  
45 Luhmann, M., & Eid, M. (2009). Does it really feel the same? Changes in life satisfaction  
46 following repeated life events. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 97*, 363-  
47 381.  
48  
49  
50 Luhmann, M., Hofmann, W., Eid, M., & Lucas, R. E. (2012). Subjective well-being and  
51 adaptation to life events: a meta-analysis. *Journal of personality and social*  
52 *psychology, 102*, 592-615.  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3  
4 Luhmann, M., Orth, U., Specht, J., Kandler, C., & Lucas, R. E. (2014). Studying changes in life  
5 circumstances and personality: It's about time. *European Journal of Personality, 28*,  
6 256-266.  
7  
8  
9 McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P. (2008). The Five-Factor Theory of Personality. In O. P. John, R. W.  
10 Robins & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research (3rd ed.)*  
11 (pp. 1-58). New York, NY, US: Guilford Press.  
12  
13  
14 McGue, M., Osler, M., & Christensen, K. (2010). Causal Inference and Observational Research  
15 The Utility of Twins. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 5*, 546-556.  
16  
17  
18 Mueller, S., Wagner, J., Drewelies, J., Duzel, S., Eibich, P., Specht, J., ... & Gerstorf, D. (2016).  
19 Personality Development In Old Age Relates to Physical Health and Cognitive  
20 Performance: Evidence from the Berlin Aging Study II. *Journal of Research in*  
21 *Personality*. Available online 23 August 2016,  
22 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2016.08.007>.  
23  
24  
25  
26  
27 Neyer, F. J., & Asendorpf, J. B. (2001). Personality–relationship transaction in young  
28 adulthood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81*, 1190-1204.  
29  
30  
31 Neyer, F. J., & Lehnart, J. (2007). Relationships matter in personality development: Evidence  
32 from an 8-year longitudinal study across young adulthood. *Journal of Personality, 75*,  
33 535-568.  
34  
35  
36 Lehnart, J., Neyer, F. J., & Eccles, J. (2010). Long-term effects of social investment: The case  
37 of partnering in young adulthood. *Journal of Personality, 78*, 639-670.  
38  
39  
40 Neyer, F. J., Mund, M., Zimmermann, J., & Wrzus, C. (2014). Personality-relationship  
41 transactions revisited. *Journal of Personality, 82*, 539-550.  
42  
43  
44 Nesselroade, J. R. (1991). Interindividual differences in intraindividual change. In L. M. Collins  
45 & J. L. Horn (Eds.), *Best methods for the analysis of change: Recent advances,*  
46 *unanswered questions, future directions* (pp. 92-105). Washington, DC: American  
47 Psychological Association.  
48  
49  
50 Nesselroade, J. R. (2004). Intraindividual variability and short-term change: Commentary.  
51 *Gerontology, 50*, 44-47. doi: 10.1159/000074389  
52  
53  
54 Nieß, C., & Zacher, H. (2015). Openness to experience as a predictor and outcome of upward  
55 job changes into managerial and professional positions. *PloS one, 10*,  
56 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0131115>  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3  
4 Orth, U., & Robins, R. W. (2014). The development of self-esteem. *Current Directions in*  
5 *Psychological Science*, 23, 381-387.  
6  
7 Pickles, A., & Rutter, M. (1991). Statistical and conceptual models of “turning points” in  
8 developmental processes. In D. Magnusson, L. R. Bergman, G. Rudinger, & B.  
9 Törestad (Eds.), *Problems and methods in longitudinal research: Stability and change*  
10 (pp. 133–165). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.  
11  
12 Zillig, L. M. P., Hemenover, S. H., & Dienstbier, R. A. (2002). What do we assess when we  
13 assess a Big 5 trait? A content analysis of the affective, behavioral, and cognitive  
14 processes represented in Big 5 personality inventories. *Personality and Social*  
15 *Psychology Bulletin*, 28, 847-858.  
16  
17 Roberts, B.W., Caspi, A., & Moffitt, T. (2003). Work experiences and personality development  
18 in young adulthood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84, 582-593.  
19  
20 Roberts, B. W., & DelVecchio, W. F. (2000). The rank-order consistency of personality traits  
21 from childhood to old age: a quantitative review of longitudinal studies. *Psychological*  
22 *Bulletin*, 126, 3-25.  
23  
24 Roberts, B. W., & Jackson, J. J. (2008). Sociogenomic personality psychology. *Journal of*  
25 *personality*, 76, 1523-1544.  
26  
27 Roberts, B.W., & Mroczek, D. (2008). Personality trait change in adulthood. *Current*  
28 *Directions in Psychological Science*, 17, 31-35.  
29  
30 Roberts, B. W., Walton, K., Bogg, T., & Caspi, A. (2006). De-investment in work and non-  
31 normative personality trait change in young adulthood. *European Journal of*  
32 *Personality*, 20, 461-474.  
33  
34 Roberts, B. W., Walton, K. E., & Viechtbauer, W. (2006). Patterns of Mean-Level Change in  
35 Personality Traits Across the Life Course: A Meta-Analysis of Longitudinal Studies.  
36 *Psychological Bulletin*, 132(1), 1-25. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.132.1.1  
37  
38 Roberts, B. W., & Wood, D. (2006). Personality development in the context of the neo-  
39 socioanalytic model of personality. In D. K. Mroczek, T. D. Little, D. K. Mroczek, & T. D.  
40 Little (Eds.), *Handbook of personality development* (pp. 11–39). Mahwah, NJ:  
41 Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.  
42  
43 Roberts, B. W., Wood, D., & Caspi, A. (2008). The Development of Personality Traits in  
44 Adulthood. In O. P. John (Ed.), *Handbook of Personality: theory and research* (3. ed  
45 ed., pp. 375-398). New York, US: Guilford Press.  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3  
4 Roberts, B. W., Wood, D., & Smith, J. L. (2005). Evaluating Five Factor Theory and social  
5 investment perspectives on personality trait development. *Journal of Research in*  
6 *Personality, 39*(1), 166-184. doi: 10.1016/j.jrp.2004.08.002  
7  
8  
9 Rosenbaum, P. R., & Rubin, D. B. (1983). The central role of the propensity score in  
10 observational studies for causal effects. *Biometrika, 70*, 41–55.  
11 doi:10.1093/biomet/70.1.41  
12  
13  
14 Scollon, C. N., & Diener, E. (2006). Love, work, and changes in extraversion and neuroticism  
15 over time. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 91*, 1152-1165.  
16  
17  
18 Specht, J., Bleidorn, W., Denissen, J. J., Hennecke, M., Hutteman, R., Kandler, C., ... &  
19 Zimmermann, J. (2014). What drives adult personality development? A comparison of  
20 theoretical perspectives and empirical evidence. *European Journal of*  
21 *Personality, 28*(3), 216-230.  
22  
23  
24 Specht, J., Egloff, B., & Schmukle, S. C. (2011). Stability and change of personality across the  
25 life course: the impact of age and major life events on mean-level and rank-order  
26 stability of the Big Five. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 101*, 862-882.  
27  
28  
29  
30 Soto, C. J., & John, O. P. (2012). Development of big-five domains and facets in  
31 adulthood: Mean-level age trends and broadly versus narrowly acting mechanisms. *Journal*  
32 *of Personality, 80*, 881-914.  
33  
34  
35 Soto, C. J., John, O. P., Gosling, S. D., & Potter, J. (2011). Age differences in personality traits  
36 from 10 to 65: Big Five domains and facets in a large cross-sectional sample. *Journal*  
37 *of Personality and Social Psychology, 100*, 330-348.  
38  
39  
40  
41 van Scheppingen, Denissen, J. J. A., Chung, J. M., Tambs, K. & Bleidorn, W. (2016). *Self-*  
42 *esteem and relationship satisfaction during the transition to motherhood*. Manuscript  
43 submitted for publication.  
44  
45  
46 van Scheppingen, M. A., Jackson, J. J., Specht, J., Hutteman, R., Denissen, J. J. A., & Bleidorn,  
47 W. (2016). Personality development during the transition to parenthood: A test of  
48 social investment theory. *Social Psychological and Personality Science, first published*  
49 *on February 8, 2016, doi:10.1177/1948550616630032*  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54 Thoemmes, F. J., & Kim, E. S. (2011). A systematic review of propensity score methods in the  
55 social sciences. *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 46*, 90-118.  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60

- 1  
2  
3  
4 Wagner, J., Becker, M., Lüdtke, O., & Trautwein, U. (2015). The First Partnership Experience  
5 and Personality Development A Propensity Score Matching Study in Young  
6 Adulthood. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 6(4), 455-463.  
7  
8  
9 Wagner, G. G., Frick, J. R., & Schupp, J. (2007). The German Socio-Economic Panel Study  
10 (SOEP): Scope, evolution and enhancements. *Schmollers Jahrbuch*, 127, 139–169.  
11  
12  
13 Wiggins, J.S. (1991). A psychological taxonomy of trait-descriptive terms: The interpersonal  
14 domain. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37, 395-412.  
15  
16  
17 Wilt, J., & Revelle, W. (2015). Affect, Behaviour, Cognition and Desire in the Big Five: An  
18 Analysis of Item Content and Structure. *European Journal of Personality*, 29, 478-497.  
19  
20  
21 Wortman, J., Lucas, R. E., & Donnellan, M. B. (2012). Stability and change in the Big Five  
22 personality domains: Evidence from a longitudinal study of Australians. *Psychology*  
23 *and Aging*, 27, 867-874.  
24  
25  
26  
27 Wrzus, C., & Roberts, B. W. (2016). Processes of Personality Development in Adulthood The  
28 TESSERA Framework. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*. Manuscript  
29 published online before print June 2, 2016, doi: 10.1177/1088868316652279  
30  
31  
32  
33  
34  
35  
36  
37  
38  
39  
40  
41  
42  
43  
44  
45  
46  
47  
48  
49  
50  
51  
52  
53  
54  
55  
56  
57  
58  
59  
60