

J. Tirapu Ustárroz¹
 A. Pérez Sayes¹
 R. Calvo¹
 I. Mata²

Proposal of a dimensional model of personality disorders

¹ Clinical Neuropsychology Service Ubarmin

Fundación Argibide

² Research Unit

Fundación Argibide

Pamplona (Navarra)

During recent years there has been a growing interest on several aspects regarding psychopathology in general and particularly with personality disorders, such as dual psychopathology, comorbidity and dimensional models. Going from the Eysenck's three-factor model to the Fiske's five-factor one, from the Cloninger's psychobiological model to the Millon's biosocial one, a wide variety of personality analysis models, as well as dimensions to which the different personality disorders should be anchored, have been proposed.

Here, we propose a dimensional model for personality disorders based on DSM-IV criteria, which are cognitive style (field dependence-independence), prevalent emotion (anger-fear), interpersonal style (submissiveness-dominance), and impulse control (impulsiveness-compulsiveness). We consider that these dimensions are related to different levels of cerebral complexity, assuming that evolution operates under the redundancy principle. Based on these dimensions, a bimodal model in which antisocial personality (high field dependence, anger, dominance, and impulsiveness) and schizotypal personality (low field dependence, fear, submissiveness, and compulsiveness) would be anchored in each extreme is proposed. Between these two extremes, the rest of personality disorders, such as borderline, paranoid, narcissist, histrionic, dependent, passive-aggressive, avoidant, obsessive-compulsive, paranoid, and schizoid, would be anchored.

Key words:

Personality disorders. Comorbidity. Dimensional models. Cognitive styles. Emotions. Interpersonal relationships. Impulse control.

Actas Esp Psiquiatr 2005;33(4):254-262

mo son las patologías duales, la comorbilidad y los modelos dimensionales. Desde el modelo de tres factores de Eysenck hasta el de los cinco factores de Fiske, del modelo psicobiológico de Cloninger al modelo biosocial de Millon son múltiples los modelos de análisis de la personalidad que se han propuesto, así como las dimensiones sobre las que anclar los diferentes trastornos de la personalidad.

En este trabajo se propone un modelo dimensional para los trastornos de la personalidad basándonos en los criterios del DSM-IV, es decir, en las dimensiones estilo cognitivo (dependencia-independencia de campo), emoción prevalente (ira-miedo), estilo interpersonal (sumisión-dominancia) y control de los impulsos (impulsión-compulsión). Consideramos que estas dimensiones se relacionan con diferentes niveles de complejidad cerebral partiendo del hecho de que la evolución opera desde el principio de la redundancia. Desde estas dimensiones se propone un modelo con un eje bimodal en cuyos extremos se hallan la personalidad antisocial (alta dependencia de campo, ira, impulsividad y dominancia) y la esquizotipia (baja dependencia de campo, miedo, compulsividad y sumisión). Entre estos extremos se hallarían la personalidad límite, paranoide, narcisista, histriónica, dependiente, pasivo-agresiva, dependiente, evitativa, obsesivo-compulsiva, paranoide y esquizoide.

Palabras clave:

Trastornos de personalidad. Comorbilidad. Modelos dimensionales. Estilos cognitivos. Emociones. Relaciones interpersonales. Control de impulsos.

Propuesta de un modelo dimensional para los trastornos de personalidad

En los últimos años asistimos a un emergente interés por aspectos relacionados con la psicopatología en general y con los trastornos de personalidad en particular co-

INTRODUCTION

After the emerging interest in dual diagnoses in recent years, abundant investigations focused on two fundamental aspects of comorbidity have developed. On the one hand, many studies have been published on comorbidity among the Axis I disorders and, on the other, between these and the Axis II disorders. Co-occurrence between different disorders is a phenomenon provoking increasingly more attention by the investigators and clinicians due to its important implications for nosology, psychopathological models and treatment.

Correspondence:

Javier Tirapu Ustárroz
 Servicio de Neuropsicología
 Clínica Ubarmin
 31486 Elcano (Navarra). Spain
 E-mail: jtirapu@cfnavarra.es

However, the limited number of studies that have focused on comorbidity between personality disorders is paradoxical. This may be related with several factors: *a)* DSM and ICD diagnostic criteria require better explanation; *b)* discrepancies between DSM and ICD criteria for personality disorders (see table); *c)* clinicians and investigators tend to focus on a single Axis I disorder that arises their interest; *d)* clinicians and investigators tend to focus on a single Axis II disorder that catches their interest; *e)* in the clinical practice, there is a tendency to excluding diagnoses in each Axis; *f)* the present hypothesis on the adequate approach to psychopathology based on dimensional criteria has still not made an impression on the professionals; *g)* reliability to establish Axis I-Axis I and Axis I-Axis II comorbidity is higher than between Axis II-Axis II, *y h)* pharmaceutical companies are more interested in Axis I-Axis I and Axis I-Axis II comorbidity because the psychodrugs have been shown to be more effective to affect the symptoms related with Axis I (table 1).

In fact, when an attempt is made to establish comorbidity between the different personality disorders, it is interesting that both the DSM-IV¹ and Millon model² seem to be based on «intuition» (balance between knowledge and experience of the person elaborating it), there being no bibliographic review that can support their statements (although we do not doubt them) (table 2). Thus, the DSM-IV classifies them into three groups (see table 3), based on the «similarities of their characteristics», indicating that this grouping system, although it may be useful for research and teaching effects, has important limitations and has not been validated consistently.

Stating that the diagnosis used in these manuals represents the categorial perspective, according to which personality disorders are qualitatively differentiated clinical realities, is not new, although it is important. In fact, this categorial perspective is not accepted by almost anyone in the debate forums, although we cannot «become separated»

from them in the daily clinical practice. The alternative proposed for this categorial approach is the dimensional perspective according to which the personality disorders represent maladaptive variants of the personality traits that imperceptibly sink their roots into normality and are intermixed. The problem of dimensionality is presently focused on the lack of agreement on how many dimensions exist in both normal personality and in the disease as well as how we should place the disorders into each one of the dimensions. This leads us to hypothesize the need for an agreement on «dimensional minimums» in which the different personality disorders can be anchored.

This rebirth of dimensionality seems to be due to a series of reasons, among them the following: *a)* comorbidity has become a rule and not an exception in the present psychiatric diagnoses³; *b)* genetic studies of vulnerability show familial aggregation of disorders of different type, indicating that this inherited vulnerability is for a certain «spectrum» of disorders and not for a certain one, and *c)* the neurobiological investigation points towards the presence of similar disorders in neurotransmission in a wide range of disorders.

Although many dimensions have been proposed, we consider it adequate to reach this agreement of minimums, establishing it on the general diagnostic criteria for DSM-IV personality disorder, since we must not forget that these manuals, although they have significant limitations, have decisively served to enable the clinicians to speak a common language. Thus, this manual states that a personality disorder is an enduring pattern of inner experience and behavior that deviates markedly from the expectations of the individual's culture and that is manifested in two or more of the following areas: *a)* cognition; *b)* emotional response; *c)* interpersonal activity, and *d)* impulse control¹.

On the other hand, overlapping between the different personality disorders is very high, partially due to the fact that some diagnostic criteria are «duplicated» in several disorders (for example, social withdrawal in avoiders, paranoids, schizoids and schizotypal subjects or violent behaviors in the antisocial and borderline subjects). This may be indicating the dimensional character itself of these disorders where some nuclear traits are shared⁴. In the same way, this indicates that there are important limitations to diagnose and to investigate the etiology of the different disorders, since the entities are not well defined and thus, their diagnostic specificity and the guidelines for their evaluation and treatment are far from being adequate at present.

In this sense, it is adequate to hypothesize from the brain-mind relationship, if the diagnostic criteria for the personality disorders really respond to differentiated biological «realities» or rather to a shift in a continuum, which would favor the dimensional analyses. Another relevant feature that is favored by the dimensional analysis is the capacity that this type of analysis has to predict the course of a disorder and, perhaps, to suggest an adequate intervention since the interventions may shift the individual on the

Table 1		Diagnostic criteria for personality disorders	
DSM III-R	ICD 10	DSM IV	
Paranoid	Paranoid	Paranoid	
Schizoid	Schizoid	Schizoid	
Schizotypal		Schizotypal	
Antisocial	Dissocial	Antisocial	
Borderline	Emotional instability	Borderline	
Histrionic	Histrionic	Histrionic	
Narcissistic		Narcissistic	
Avoidant	Anxious (avoidant)	Avoidant	
Dependent	Dependent	Dependent	
Obsessive-compulsive	Anancastic	Obsessive-compulsive	
Passive-aggressive			

Table 2 Comorbidity between personality disorders according to Millon and differential diagnosis according to DSM-IV

	Avoidant	Dependent	Histrionic	Narcissistic	Antisocial	Compulsive	Schizotypal	Borderline	Paranoid
Schizoid	XO	X				XO	XO		XO
Avoidant		XO				O	X	X	X
Dependent			XO			XO		XO	
Histrionic				XO	XO			XO	XO
Narcissistic					XO			O	X
Antisocial								XO	XO
Compulsive									X
Schizotypal								O	O
Borderline									O
Paranoid									

X: comorbidity between personality disorders according to Millon. O: differential diagnosis to be established between personality disorders according to DSM-IV.

continuum, «taking him/her» towards a less serious disorder (the therapeutic intervention should not be understood from this all or none dichotomy).

COMORBIDITY STUDIES

In an attempt to establish a dimensional model of the personality disorders, we have decided to review the principal studies performed on comorbidity between axis II disorders and the existing studies that try to establish comorbidity between a specific disorder of the personality with other Axis II disorders (table 4).

The results of this review are summarized in the table and show the following generic results:

- There is high comorbidity among narcissistic, histrionic, borderline, antisocial, dependent and paranoid disorders.

- There is high comorbidity among dependent, avoidant, obsessive-compulsive, paranoid, schizoid and schizotypal disorders.
- The lowest comorbidity is presented between antisocial and borderline with schizoid and schizotypal.
- Paranoid and dependent personality disorder are those shared by both comorbidity groups, so that it can be deduced that, when beginning from the center of a bimodal axis, these disorders are «replicated» in each dimension of the axis.

DIMENSIONAL MODEL

Going from the Eysenck three factors model^{24,25} to that of the Fisk five factors one^{26,27}, from the Cloninger psychobiological model^{28,29} to the Millon biosocial model², there are many models of personality analysis that have been proposed as well as the dimensions on which the different personality disorders are anchored.

Following the criterion of the «areas» of inner experience and behavior in which a personality disorder is formed, shaped and manifested according to the DSM-IV, we can suggest a dimension in each area on which a dimensional analysis of the disorders can be anchored, following the previous suggested «minimum criterion».

Cognitive style: field dependence-independence

This dimension has been studied most and validated and its background is found in the study of perception and specifically in trying to answer the following question: how do we know that our body or another object is in the vertical position?³⁰. Based on a series of tasks designed for this, it

Table 3 Personality disorder cluster according to DSM-IV

Group A	Paranoid Schizoid Schizotypal
Group B	Antisocial Borderline Histrionic Narcissistic
Group C	Avoidant Dependent Obsessive-compulsive

Table 4

Principal studies of comorbidity among personality disorders

Author	Subjects	Criteria	Results
Dolan et al., 1995 ⁵	275 PD 57 delinquents	PDQ-R	PD-borderline more prevalent and OCD-P less prevalent Delinquents more antisocial and less dependent
DeJong et al., 1993 ⁶	274 students 178 alcoholics	DSM-III (SIDP)	Students more paranoid and less schizoid Histrionic-borderline Histrionic-antisocial Dependent-passive aggressive
Grilo et al., 2002 ⁷	108 out-patients with borderline disorders	DSM-IV (DIPD-IV)	Borderline-antisocial Borderline-avoidant
Zanarini et al., 1998 ⁸	504 hospitalized patients with PD diagnosis	DSM III-R (DIPD-R) DIB-R	Borderline-dependent Borderline-avoidant Borderline-paranoid
Zlotinck et al., 2002 ⁹ Oldham et al., 1992 ¹⁰	130 borderline patients 100 patients with TP	DSM-IV DSM-III-R (SCID-II)	Borderline-antisocial Narcissistic-antisocial Histrionic-passive aggressive Avoidant-schizotypal-dependent Borderline-histrionic
Zimmerman and Coryell 1989 ¹¹	797 subjects without psychiatric disease	DSM-II (SIDP)	Schizotypal-avoidant Schizotypal-paranoid Histrionic-paranoid Borderline-histrionic-antisocial-paranoid
Numberg et al., 1991 ¹²	110 patients	DSM-III-R	Borderline-paranoid-antisocial-histrionic- narcissistic-passive aggressive Schizoid-schizotypal-avoidant-obsessive-compulsive
Coid, 1993	93 jailed women with psychopathy diagnosis	DSM-III (SCID)	Antisocial-borderline
Bejerot and Von Knorring, 1998 ¹⁴ Becker et al., 2000 ¹⁵	36 patients with OCD 68 adolescents 50 adults with borderline disorder	DSM-III-R DSM-III-R	Obsessive-compulsive-avoidant-paranoid In adolescents with all and in adults between borderline histrionic, antisocial and narcissistic
Stuart et al., 1998 ¹⁶	1.116 subjects	DSM-III-R	Avoidant-paranoid-schizoid-schizotypal Avoidant-dependent-obsessive-compulsive Narcissistic-borderline-histrionic
Fosati et al., 2000 ¹⁷	431 PD	DSM-IV (SCID-II)	Avoidant-dependent Paranoid-schizoid-schizotypal Histrionic-narcissistic-borderline-antisocial
Reich, 1996 Widiger and Rogers, 1989 ¹⁹	171 out-patients 568 out-patients and hospitalized patients	DSM-III-R DSM-III	Dependent-borderline-histrionic Borderline-antisocial Borderline-histrionic Borderline-schizotypal Avoidant-dependent-schizotypal Avoidant-passive aggressive
Marinangeli et al., 2000 ²⁰	156 hospitalized patients	DSM-III-R	Paranoid-borderline Schizoid-schizotypal Obsessive-compulsive Antisocial-histrionic
Watson and Sinha, 1998 ²¹	1,729 psychology students	DSM-III-R	Schizotypal-paranoid Schizotypal-passive aggressive Narcissistic-histrionic-passive aggressive
Trull et al., 1987 ²² Flick et al., 1993 ²³	84 hospitalized patients 352 patients with anxious depressive disorder	DSM-III DSM-III-R	Avoidant-schizoid-dependent Borderline-paranoid Borderline-histrionic Paranoid-narcissistic Avoidant-histrionic Paranoid-passive aggressive Narcissistic-passive aggressive

TD: personality disorders.

was verified that while some subjects were guided by their perceptive opinions based on external data, others were guided from internal references. That is, the former had a cognitive style highly dependent on the field and the latter would be more independent of the context. In short, the dimension reflects the degree in which persons function autonomously and independently of the world around them. Those individuals who use their signs or inner reference systems to process the information provided by the stimuli are in one extreme of the dimension (field independence). Those subjects who base their information processing on the external signs of reference are on the other extreme (field dependence).

On the other hand, the information from clinical neuropsychology tells us about a group of patients who suffer an organic syndrome of the personality after a frontal injury, that is, after a lesion of the prefrontal cortex there is a change in the pattern of interaction with the environment³¹⁻³³. This pattern of interaction with the environment has been called pseudopsychopathic syndrome and/or pseudodepressive syndrome, according to whether there is an uninhibited behavior or apathic pattern. What is important about this is that the personality would be shaped in the prefrontal cortex and that the lesion of this cortical region produces changes with high or low field dependence. In fact, some authors such as Goldberg^{34,35} have recently studied the cognitive styles of both brain hemispheres, establishing the differentiation between high and low dependence of the context as a fundamental variable explaining the different cognitive styles.

Emotional response: anger-fear

There are many studies that have been carried out in differential psychology on cognitive styles and the relationship between these styles and personality characteristics. However, there are few studies on the emotions underlying this «consistent» manner of interacting with the world. This seems to be due to aspects that would merit much thought, but that go from «escape» from the emotional carried out by cognitive psychology to become distant from the psychodynamic trend to the difficulties of «measurement» of the emotions, even passing through a lack of consensus among the different authors when describing the different emotions³⁶.

Clearly, emotions are phylogenetically and ontogenically older so that it is difficult to imagine a personality development outside them and we should think that the cognitive styles are constructed and based on prevalent emotional responses to stimuli. It may be that cognitions act on a first level of the work but emotions work behind the senses, continuously orienting thoughts. Thus, emotions should be understood as internal signs that direct our survival, physiological states designed by natural selection, having a rapid and adaptive action that seeks to connect our biological na-

ture with the external world in which it is immersed. Thus, fear advises us of danger, repugnance distances us from the putrid and sadness indicates that we have lost status in our clan³⁷.

If we follow the criterion of «minimums» that we suggested in the beginning, it seems there are five basic emotions that are shared with other hominids and by human beings universally: happiness, sadness, anger, repugnance and fear. As we see, this is a single «positive» emotion (although all are positive when adaptive), which suggests that the differences should occur between the negative ones. Among these, we chose the dimension anger-fear because it responds to the fundamental pattern of exploratory-escape behavior and some studies state that there are emotions that seem to be closer to each other³⁸.

Interpersonal relationships: submissiveness-dominance

The so-called «interpersonal circle» is a useful outline to establish interpersonal styles. The two polar dimensions are given on certain characteristics: the degree of power or of control exerted on the social interactions gives rise to the submissiveness-dominance dimension. It seems that there is a lot of evidence on these two large archetypal systems of interpersonal relationships. The first would be more related with a more submissive behavior and would be related with concepts such as bond, affiliation, care of the other, fear or altruism. The second archetypal system refers to the relationships based on dominance and would be linked to other concepts such as territoriality, range, possession, anger or power³⁹.

The interpersonal style in personality disorders is characterized by being inflexible. Interpersonal skills are shown throughout the dimension, indicating different adaptive skills, those that crystallize during development, adopting a definite style in adulthood. As a style becomes more extreme or narrow, it has less flexibility. Someone with an extremely dominant style would have interactions especially in this style. This type of person may also demonstrate coercive and gregarious characteristics, but no submissiveness or docile behaviors. In any event, the behaviors will tend to be rigid and inflexible.

This notion of inflexible interpersonal styles is coherent with that of personality disorders, characterized by also inflexible traits. Because many authors have reported personality disorders as being seen through interpersonal relationships, this circumflex model has been proposed to describe and classify them. Thus, over the dominance-submissiveness axis, complementarity is reciprocal (a dominant action causes a submissive response).

When describing the dysfunction interpersonal style, it is suggested that these interactions may create strong expect-

tations on how the other will react to oneself, and that these biased expectations then become self-fulfilling prophecies. Those theorizing on attachment have reached similar conclusions⁴⁰. Behavior is aimed at another to cause a certain reaction to appear and to fulfill expectations. For example, a hostile person expects hostile reactions from the others and behaves in such a way as to produce them. People with strong expectations will more likely generate situations that leave few different alternatives of reaction. Thus, extreme interpersonal styles are associated to a certain type of expectations. For example, dominant style would be associated to expectations of both dominance and submission of the other, and lack of skill to provoke other behaviors.

Impulse control: impulsiveness-compulsiveness

In Cloninger's temperament tetradimensional model, the author presents a temperament architecture based on dimensions of risk avoidance, reward dependence, persistence and novelty seeking. The novelty seeking dimension implies behavioral activation stimulated by stimuli of the environment characterized as novelty or reward or relief from suffering. Risk avoidance implies behavioral inhibition that occurs in response to signals having punitive character or absence of reward. In turn, reward dependence indicates the level of capacity to maintain a behavior without receiving a reward. The impulsiveness-compulsiveness connection arises in this trend or Kuhnian paradigm.

In fact, Hollander and Stein⁴¹ presented the idea of impulsiveness-compulsiveness as the extremes of a continuum that went from disinhibition to behavior restriction, both being characterized by incapacity to inhibit stereotyped behaviors. In this way, impulsiveness and compulsiveness become two poles on a continuum. In the impulsiveness extreme, we find personalities characterized by a search for immediate pleasure, underestimation of harm, persistent contact with risk, locus of external control, low behavioral persistence and hypersensitivity to external reward. In the compulsiveness extreme, personalities were found that tend to avoid suffering, overestimate harm, try to avoid any dangerous situation, have highly persistent behaviors in highly

predictable settings, represent low response to external reward and its control locus is internal⁴².

Based on the results found in our search, we propose a bimodal axis to locate the personality disorders based on the previously mentioned dimensions (fig. 1).

DISCUSSION

From DSM-I to DSM-IV, the personality disorders may be the area that has provoked more controversy. Some discussions have been focused on the exclusion or inclusion of some disorders, but in the background of this debate, there are three underlying basic problems such as the definition itself of personality, low reliability of the axis II diagnoses and high overlapping between the different disorders, above all those that are included in the same DSM-IV cluster. At present, some proposals to improve the present classification systems of personality disorders are beginning to emerge. These are, for example, the need to reduce the number of categories, identify and homogenize the latent dimensions in each category, strictly define the criteria of these dimensions, determine the dimensions or basic traits capable of describing the personality disorders or include the motivation of the behaviors defined as criteria.

On the other hand, the psychopathology classification systems have tried to emulate other disciplines of medicine, using categorial constructs that aim to establish an equation that is difficult to support when we approach the study of personality disorders such as that a disorder responds to a neurochemical alteration and thus will revert when an adequate psychopharmacological treatment is applied. What is even more difficult to propose in neuroscience is the reversibility of the equation, stating that if a psychopharmacological treatment is effective, the neurochemical etiology of that disorder is demonstrated and that a pathological cerebral state has returned to a previous state. In fact, we must recognize that we still have not found any drugs that help us to «cure», or even in many cases to alleviate, the suffering that these patients have or their lack of capacity to consider the suffering that they cause others.

Field dependence
Anger
Dominance
Impulsiveness

Field independence
Fear
Submissiveness
Compulsiveness

APD	BPD	PPD	NPD	HPD	DPD	PAPD	DPD	APF	OCPD	PPD	SPD	SCPD

APD: antisocial personality disorder; BPD: borderline personality disorder; PPD: paranoid personality disorder; NPD: narcissistic personality disorder; HPD: histrionic personality disorder; DPD: dependent personality disorder; PAPD: passive aggressive personality disorder; APF: avoidant personality disorder; OCPD: obsessive-compulsive personality disorder; SPD: schizoid personality disorder; SCPD: shizotypal personality disorder.

Figure 1 | Dimensional model for personality disorders.

We should suggest that trying to establish a relationship between neurobiology and personality disorders may lead us to a «greedy reductionism» in which the reduction of a complex reality to simple realities distances us from the understanding of the global phenomenon^{43,44}. Thus, these categorial systems try to potentiate the differential diagnosis to attempt to decrease the overlapping between disorders to a minimum as if each disorder of the personality would respond to a differentiated biological phenotype. As Mayr states⁴⁵: «on the molecular level, all the functions are due to physics and chemical laws..... However, bodies are fundamentally different from inert material. They are hierarchically ordered systems, with many emerging properties that are not observed in inanimated matter».

As an alternative to these categorial analyses of the personality disorders, the dimensional models arising from the following premise have been proposed: *a)* personality disorders sink their roots into the normal personality, representing maladaptive variants of it, and *b)* personality disorders are intermixed. From this perspective, the DSM-IV proposes three personality disorder groups (rare-eccentric, dramatic-emotional and anxious-fearful) that may be considered dimensions and that seek to represent the dysfunctions of personality in a continuum with the Axis I mental disorders. Although this dimensional proposal is more adequate than the categorial one, it does not explain how the personality disorders of the different clusters are related, so that we are immersed in a new categorial problem, although with extended categories.

On the other hand, the comorbidity concept, bond to that of dimensionality, is gathering increasingly greater importance in the present psychopathology. In the beginning, comorbidity refers to two or more disorders of different etiology that coexist or occur simultaneously. However, when it is linked to the concept of dimensionality, this first term becomes more adaptable and thus comorbidity suggests a possible closeness or proximity among the disorders from the premise that «that which is seen as united should belong to the same system and come from not very differentiated origins». In this sense, comorbidity should be understood as an attempt to go from the categorial to dimension, since stating that an individual has several personality disorders means accepting the limitation of the categorial models. Thus, comorbidity should have a double reading. On the one hand, it informs us about the proximity between certain disorders that are classified according to a categorial criterion and, on the other, and what is perhaps more important, it acquires knowledge on which disorders are most distanced in a dimensional analysis.

In this study, and beginning with the models based on dimensionality and on comorbidity studies, a bimodal axis is proposed for the personality disorders, based on the DSM-IV criteria, that is, on the cognitive style (field dependence-independence), prevalent emotion (anger-fear), interpersonal style (submissiveness-dominance) and impulse control (im-

pulsiveness-compulsiveness) dimensions. We consider that these dimensions suggest different cerebral complexity levels, beginning with the fact that the evolution operates from the principle of redundancy. That is, the nervous system does not invent original designs but rather adds other progressively more complex ones to old structures, preserving their function.

In fact, it seems quite plausible that a primary emotion as anger or fear would produce behavior exploratory or escape patterns, respectively. Individuals who respond to an anger-exploratory pattern will show a tendency to impulsiveness while those with a fearful-avoidance one will produce compulsive patterns. In this way, the «impulsive-explorers» require a pattern of interpersonal relationships based on the need for control while the fearful-avoidance subjects will tend toward submissiveness. Finally an impulsive-dominant explorer will have a high field dependence because his/her behavior will be very mediated by a locus of external control while the fearful-avoidant-submissive subject will show a low level of field dependence due to presenting a locus of internal control.

From these dimensions, a dimensional model is suggested for personality disorders, placing them in a bimodal axis whose extremes are antisocial personality (high field dependence, anger, impulsiveness and dominance) and schizotypal personality (low field dependence, fear, compulsiveness and submissiveness). Borderline, paranoid, narcissistic, histrionic, dependent, passive-aggressive, dependent, avoidant, obsessive-compulsive, paranoid, schizoid and schizotypal personality are found among these extremes. Comorbidity studies suggest that dependent and paranoid disorder is duplicated on the axis, although some would respond to the aggressive-enraged pattern and others to the passive-fearful one in the line of attempting to define the motivation of the behaviors defined as criteria.

As San Juan and Moltó point out⁴⁶, conceptualization of personality as stable guidelines of reaction is greatly related with certain determinism since the experiences introduced into our brain are indelible, so that we could introduce new experiences, but not substitute the past ones. Our way of processing stimuli or of reacting to environment situations is closely related with an internal state that is a product of the internal activity of the brain.

Attempts to build a bridge between levels of analysis between neuroscience and psychology and psychiatry have contributed interesting results in the study of aspects such as intelligence⁴⁷ (bond to the concept of executive functions) or consciousness. However, it seems that personality has remained outside the search for this translating code, which should lead us to suggest the relationship between personality and consciousness.

Thus, Damasio^{48,49} has proposed a hypothesis on consciousness that may be related with the personality concept.

This has also been done by Edelman and Tononi⁵⁰ with their concepts of primary consciousness and superior order. In the case of Damasio, three levels of complexity of consciousness are indicated: the first called protoself in which a series of CNS structures (brain stem, hypothalamus, insula, S2 cortex and middle parietal) monitor the body status moment by moment. The following level is that called central consciousness where other cerebral structures such as the superior colliculus, thalamus and cingulate register the body status on encountering an object, the characteristics of it and the changes produced as a result of the encounter. Finally, extended or widened consciousness (subcortical nuclei, temporal and frontal superior cortex) is the result of the activation of our memory produced by the encounter with the object, which allows the spouting of the biographic identity and the continuity in time of the consciousness.

Neuroscience should open new roads to the study of the personality since when we refer to it as persistent patterns of perceiving, relating and thinking about the surrounding and oneself, the concept approaches that of consciousness. If we suggest that the brain deals with the inanimate world, the other and my own experiences as objects generating «pulses of consciousness», the sum of this pulsatile activity (in the sense of the Llinas quantum of knowledge⁵¹) generates predominant patterns of connection, which will give rise to this persistent pattern of relationship with myself and the surrounding world.

REFERENCES

- Asociación Psiquiátrica Americana (APA): DSM-IV. Manual diagnóstico y estadístico de los trastornos mentales. Barcelona: Masson, 1994.
- Millon T. Disorders of personality. DSM-IV and beyond. New York: Wiley and Sons, 1996.
- Barbado Alonso JA, Fernández Valencia M. El espectro obsesivo-compulsivo. En: Lamas S, editor. Trastorno obsesivo-compulsivo hoy. Vigo: Feito, 2000.
- Belloch A. Trastornos de la personalidad. Madrid: Síntesis, 2002.
- Dolan B, Evans C, Norton K. Multiple axis-II diagnoses of personality disorder. Br J Psychiatry 1995;166:107-12.
- DeJong CA, van den Brink W, Harteveld FM, van der Wielen EG. Personality disorders in alcoholics and drug addicts. Compr Psychiatry 1993;34:87-94.
- Grilo CM, Sanislow CA, McGlashan TH. Cooccurrence of DSM-IV personality disorders with borderline personality disorder. J Nerv Ment Dis 2002;190:552-4.
- Zanarini MC, Frankenburg FR, Dubo ED, Sickel AE, Trikha A, Levin A, et al. Axis II comorbidity of borderline personality disorder. Compr Psychiatry 1998;39:296-302.
- Zlotnick C, Rothschild L, Zimmerman M. The role of gender in the clinical presentation of patients with borderline personality disorder. J Personal Disord 2002;16:277-82.
- Oldham JM, Skodol AE, Kellman HD, Hyler SE, Rosnick L, Davies M. Diagnosis of DSM-III-R personality disorders by two structured interviews: patterns of comorbidity. Am J Psychiatry 1992;149:213-20.
- Zimmerman M, Coryell W. DSM-III personality disorder diagnoses in a nonpatient sample. Demographic correlates and comorbidity. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1989;46:682-9.
- Nurnberg HG, Raskin M, Levine PE, Pollack S, Siegel O, Prince R. The comorbidity of borderline personality disorder and other DSM-III-R axis II personality disorders. Am J Psychiatry 1991;148:1371-7.
- Coid JW. An affective syndrome in Psychopaths with borderline personality disorder? Br J Psychiatry 1993;162:641-50.
- Bejerov S, Ekselius L, Von Knorring L. Comorbidity between obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD) and personality disorders. Acta Psych Scand 1998;97:398-402.
- Becker DF, Grilo CM, Edell WS, McGlashan TH. Comorbidity of borderline personality disorder with other personality disorders in hospitalized adolescents and adults. Am J Psychiatry 2000;157:2011-6.
- Stuart S, Pfohl B, Battaglia M, Bellodi L, Grove W, Cadoret R. The cooccurrence of DSM-III-R personality disorders. J Personal. Disord 1998;12:302-15.
- Fossati A, Maffei C, Bagnato M, Battaglia M, Donati D, Donini M, et al. Patterns of covariation of DSM-IV personality disorders in a mixed psychiatric sample. Compr Psychiatry 2000;41:206-15.
- Reich J. The morbidity of DSM-III-R dependent personality disorder. J Nerv Ment Dis 1996;164:22-6.
- Widiger TA, Rogers JH. Prevalence and comorbidity of personality disorders. Psychiatric Annals 1989;19:132-6.
- Marinangeli MG, Butti G, Scinto A, Di Cicco L, Petrucci C, Dane-luzzo E, et al. Patterns of comorbidity among DSM-III-R personality disorders. Psychopathology 2000;33:69-74.
- Watson DC, Sinha BK. Comorbidity of DSM-IV personality disorders in a nonclinical sample. J Clin Psychol 1998;54(6):773-80.
- Trull TJ, Widiger TA, Frances A. Covariation of criteria sets for avoidant, schizoid, and dependent personality disorders. Am J Psychiatry 1987;144:767-71.
- Flick SN, Roy-Byrne PP, Cowley DS, Shores MM, Dunner DL. DSM-III-R personality disorders in a mood and anxiety disorders clinic: prevalence, comorbidity, and clinical correlates. J Affect Disord 1993;27:71-9.
- Eysenck HJ. Dimensions of personality. London: Routledge, 1947.
- Eysenck HJ. Personalidad y diferencias individuales. Madrid: Pirámide, 1987.
- Fiske DW. Consistency of factorial structures of personality ratings from different sources. J Abnor Social Psychol 1949;44:329-44.
- Zuckerman M, Kulhman M, Joireman J, Teta P, Kraft M. A comparison of three structural models for personality: the big three, the big five and the alternative five. J Person Soc Psychol 1993;65:757-68.
- Cloninger CR. A systematic method for clinical description and classification of personality variants: a proposal. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1987;44:573-88.
- Cloninger CR. A psychobiological model of temperament and character. Arch Gen Psychiatry 1993;50:975-90.
- Witkin HA, Goodenough DR. Field dependence and interpersonal behaviour. Psychol Bull 1977;4:661-89.
- Damasio AR, Tranel D, Damasio H. Individulas with sociopathic behaviour caused by frontal damage fail to respond autonomically to social stimuli. Behav Brain Res 1990;41:81-94.

32. Bechara A, Damasio AR, Damasio H, Anderson SW. Insensitivity to future consequences following damage to human prefrontal cortex. *Cognition* 1994;50:7-15.
33. Saver JL, Damasio AR. Preserved access and processing of social knowledge in a patient with acquired sociopathy due to ventromedial frontal damage. *Neuropsychologia* 1991;29:1241-9.
34. Goldberg E, Podell K. Adaptive decision making, ecological validity and the frontal lobes. *J Clin Exp Neuropsychology* 2000;22:56-68.
35. Goldberg E. *El cerebro ejecutivo*. Madrid: Drakontos, 2002.
36. Power M, Dalgleish T. *Cognition and emotion: from order to disorder*. UK: Psychology Press, 1997.
37. Greenberg LS, Paivio SC. *Working with emotions in psychotherapy*. New York: Guilford Press, 1997.
38. Mayne TJ, Bonano GA. *Emotions: current issues and future directions*. New York: Guilford Press, 2001.
39. Stevens A, Price J. *Evolutionary Psychiatry: a new beginning*. London: Routledge, 2000.
40. Bowlby J. *El apego*. Barcelona: Paidós, 1998.
41. Hollander E. *Obsessive-compulsive related disorders*. Washington: American Psychiatric Press, 1993.
42. Tirapu Ustárroz J, Lorea I, Landa N. Conductas adictivas: de la neurobiología al evolucionismo. *Adicciones* 2003;15:255-73.
43. Dennett D. *Darwin's dangerous idea*. Evolution and the meaning of life. New York: Touchstone, 1995.
44. Sanjuan J. *Evolución cerebral y psicopatología*. Madrid: Triacastela, 2000.
45. Mayr E. *Así es la biología*. Barcelona: Debate, 1998.
46. San Juan J, Moltó MD. Trastornos de la personalidad: genética y evolución. En: Roca Bennasar, editor. *Trastornos de personalidad*. Barcelona: Psiquiatría Editores, 2004.
47. Tirapu Ustárroz J, Muñoz Céspedes JM, Pelegrín C. Funciones ejecutivas: necesidad de una integración conceptual. *Rev Neurol* 2002;34(7):673-85.
48. Damasio AR. La sensación de lo que ocurre: cuerpo y emoción en la construcción de la conciencia. Madrid: Debate, 2001.
49. Tirapu Ustárroz J, Muñoz Céspedes JM, Pelegrín C. Hacia una taxonomía de la conciencia. *Rev Neurol* 2003;36 (11):1083-93.
50. Edelman GM, Tononi G. *A universe of consciousness: How matter becomes imagination*. New York: Basic Books, 2000.
51. Llinás RR. *I of the vortex*. Cambridge: MIT Press, 2001.
52. Searle JR. Dos biólogos y un físico en busca del alma. *Mundo Cient* 1996;7-8:654-69.