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COMMENTARY

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continued

We critique Roy et al.'s (2020; this issue) approach to characterizing the item-level factor structure of the three scales of the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM), in light of the manner in which the TriPM scales were developed, the purposes they were designed to serve, and the growing body of evidence supporting their construct validity. We focus on three major points: (1) The TriPM scales are item-based factor scales – i.e., item sets designed to index broad factors of larger multi-scale (parent) inventories; (2) item-level structural analysis can be useful for representing broad dimensions tapped by such scales, but it cannot be expected to provide an accurate picture of narrower subdimensions (facets) assessed by their parent inventories; and (3) it is critical to consider the nomological networks of the TriPM scales (and other triarchic scale measures) in appraising their effectiveness as operationalizations of the triarchic model constructs. We illustrate the first and second of these points by applying Roy et al.'s analytic approach to the trait scales of the NEO-FFI, which were developed to index broad personality dimensions of the multi-scale NEO-PI-R. We address the third point with reference to the growing body of literature supporting the construct validity of the TriPM scales and demonstrating their utility for advancing an integrative understanding of psychopathy.

Keywords: triarchic model of psychopathy, Triarchic Psychopathy Measure, structural equation modeling, factor analysis, validity

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Why should we be in such desperate haste to succeed and in such desperate enterprises?

—Thoreau, *Walden* (1906)

Roy et al. (2020) reported item-level factor analyses of the three scales of the Triarchic Psychopathy Measure (TriPM) in six participant samples ($Ns = 150-1,064$). They concluded that the “3 original TriPM factors do not optimally represent the conceptual model underlying the TriPM” and that the TriPM in fact indexes “7 emergent factors” (p. 1). We take issue with their analytic approach and conclusions, given the manner in which the TriPM scales were developed, the purposes they were designed to serve, and the growing body of evidence supporting their construct validity.

Our commentary focuses on three points: (a) The TriPM scales are *item-based factor scales*—that is, they comprise items selected to index *broad factors* of larger multiscale (parent) inventories; (b) item-level structural analysis can be useful for *representing broad dimensions* tapped by such scales, but it cannot be expected to provide an accurate picture of narrower subdimensions (facets) assessed by their parent inventories; and (c) it is critical to consider the *nomological networks* of the TriPM scales (and other triarchic scale measures) in appraising their effectiveness as operationalizations of the *triarchic model constructs*. Following description of the triarchic model and TriPM scales, we illustrate the first and second of these points by applying Roy et al.'s analytic approach to the trait scales of the NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI), a short version of the revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R), which were developed to index broad personality dimensions of the multi-scale NEO-PI-R. We address the third point in the closing section of this commentary.

Triarchic Model of Psychopathy

The triarchic model was informed in part by the diversity of perspectives and approaches evident in the first edition of Christopher J. Patrick's *Handbook of Psychopathy* (Patrick, 2006). Another impetus for the model was a contentious dispute between prominent investigators in the psychopathy field regarding an article ultimately published in *Psychological Assessment* (Skeem & Cooke, 2010; for details regarding the dispute, see Poythress & Petrila, 2010). This dispute highlighted a longstanding source of acrimony among psychopathy researchers—namely, the failure to distinguish between theoretical constructs and manifest measures.

The triarchic model is a *construct-oriented* model developed to reconcile alternative conceptualizations of psychopathy and assimilate findings across studies using different assessment instruments. It focuses on broad trait dimensions represented in different historic characterizations of psychopathy and measures for assessing it and encourages exploration of their differential external correlates and etiologic bases. As such, the triarchic model is intended to be inclusive and integrative rather than exclusive or sectarian. Other key objectives of the model (Patrick & Drislane, 2015; Patrick, Fowles, & Krueger, 2009) are to (a) allow for *model-based* integration of findings across different studies (see Drislane & Patrick, 2017); (b) facilitate linkages between research on psychopathy in youth and adults through a focus on constructs with clear developmental referents; (c) provide a basis for linking psychopathic symptomatology more effectively with nonreport-based measures by focusing on constructs framed in biobehavioral terms with known physiological correlates; and (d) provide a basis for interfacing findings from psychopathy research with biologi-

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science at Washington University. This article contains no mention of the Personality Inventory for *DSM-5* (PID-5) and no citation or reference to work by Robert F. Krueger.

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cally oriented studies of general psychopathology through a focus on transdiagnostic biobehavioral constructs.

Item-Based Factor Scales

Classic writings on test validity (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Messick, 1981) emphasize the *purpose* for which a test is designed and the extent to which a test fulfills its intended purpose. This perspective on validity is reflected within the American Psychological Association's (APA) statements on testing standards (APA, 2014) and ethical principles for assessment (APA, 2017). The *purpose* for which the three scales of the TriPM were created was to provide brief but effective item-based measures of broad factors from two multiscale instruments, the Externalizing Spectrum Inventory (ESI; Krueger, Markon, Patrick, Benning, & Kramer, 2007) and the Boldness Inventory (BI; Patrick et al., 2019)—which can be viewed as the “parent inventories” for the TriPM scales. It bears noting that the TriPM scales, because of their brevity and broad-trait focus, were not intended to effectively index narrower facet dimensions assessed by their parent inventories.

The ESI as a Source of Items for TriPM Meanness and Disinhibition

The ESI (Krueger et al., 2007) was developed to comprehensively assess traits and problems within the externalizing spectrum of psychopathology. A major impetus for its development was behavior genetics research (Krueger et al., 2002), demonstrating a highly heritable factor accounting for appreciable variance in different externalizing disorders and disinhibitory personality traits. Scores on this broad factor correlate with both cognitive-brain measures (Patrick et al., 2006) and cognitive-performance measures (Young et al., 2009), largely as a function of shared genetic influences (Hicks et al., 2007; Young et al., 2009).

The ESI includes 23 *unidimensional facet scales* that assess different trait and behavioral expressions of externalizing proneness (general disinhibition; Patrick, Kramer, Krueger, & Markon, 2013). It was constructed using data from both offenders and nonoffenders (overall $N = 1,787$) to ensure effective measurement of the full range of each lower order facet dimension as well as the broad externalizing dimension. The ESI includes items with varying levels of difficulty to discriminate effectively at lower and higher trait levels. Follow-up research showed that scores on the general factor of the ESI related in expected ways to diagnostic symptoms and personality traits (Venables & Patrick, 2012), as well as cognitive-brain measures (Nelson, Patrick, & Bernat, 2011; Patrick, Venables, et al., 2013), indicating that its general factor indexes the heritable liability dimension identified by Krueger et al. (2002). As such, it served as one empirical referent (among others) for the *disinhibition construct* of the triarchic model.

Structural analyses of the ESI's 23 subscales also revealed two subsidiary factors, one reflecting callous-aggressive proclivities—defined especially by subscales indexing [lack of] empathy and different expressions of aggression—and the other problematic substance use. Observed correlates of the callous-aggressive subscale suggested that it tapped characteristics in common with the “affective” features of psychopathy, termed *callous-unemotionality* in the child literature (Frick, Ray, Thornton, &

Kahn, 2014). As such, this ESI subscale served as one empirical referent for the *meanness* construct of the triarchic model.

As reported by Patrick, Kramer, et al. (2013), brief item-based scales were developed to index the ESI's general factor and two subscales; these scales correspond to the Disinhibition and Meanness scales of the TriPM. The 20-item Disinhibition scale includes items from seven ESI subscales that loaded exclusively onto the ESI's general factor (Krueger et al., 2007, Table 5). The 19-item Meanness scale consists of items from six other ESI subscales that defined the Callous-Aggressive subscale. Items were selected for each scale based on various considerations including their contribution to effective estimation of the ESI factors, content coverage and nonredundancy, wording polarity, and ability to differentiate disinhibitory tendencies from callous-aggressiveness.

The BI as a Source of Items for TriPM Boldness

The parent inventory for the TriPM Boldness scale, the BI (130 items; Patrick et al., 2019), was developed to index the construct of boldness in terms of distinct but correlated facets using data from a total of 1,791 community participants. The BI's nine unidimensional content scales all load onto a general factor, with some scales loading additionally onto subscales reflecting emotional stability and venturesomeness. Of note, the BI structural model effectively accommodates the three subscales of the Psychopathic Personality Inventory (PPI/PPI-R; Lilienfeld & Widows, 2005) that define its Fearless Dominance factor—a major empirical referent for the boldness construct of the triarchic model.

The TriPM's 19-item Boldness scale was developed to index the general factor of the BI. Scores on this scale correlate very highly with scores on PPI-Fearless Dominance ($\sim .8$; Patrick et al., 2019; Sellbom & Phillips, 2013) and show parallel relations with criterion measures in domains of physiology, personality, and psychopathology (Patrick, 2018; Patrick & Drislane, 2015; Sellbom, 2018; Sellbom, Laurinavičius, Ustinavičiūtė, & Laurinaitytė, 2018).

Latent Variable Modeling of Item-Based Factor Scales

The TriPM's three scales were designed to index broad latent factors (dimensions) of the ESI and BI, as representations of theoretical constructs of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition. Roy et al.'s analytic strategy neglects the purpose for which these scales were developed, disregards the fact that items within each scale function as indicators of a broad target factor, and focuses on identifying lower order factors defined by subsets of items that cut across distinct ESI facet scales.

To illustrate the problematic aspects of their analytic approach, we report results from work applying this approach to a commonly used instrument whose factor structure is widely accepted, the 60-item NEO-FFI, a short version of the NEO-PI-R (Costa & McCrae, 1992). The NEO-FFI's five scales comprise items from the NEO-PI-R's 30 lower order facets selected to index broad domains of the NEO-PI-R corresponding to the dimensions of the five-factor model of personality (FFM). As such, the NEO-FFI scales are directly analogous to the TriPM scales in terms of their purpose and composition. If Roy et al.'s analytic approach fails to yield the expected five factors for the NEO-FFI, it would raise serious questions regarding its applicability to other broad-trait measures, including the TriPM.

The next section describes samples used in our analyses of the NEO-FFI, steps in the analyses we performed to mirror Roy et al., and results from this approach—then compares these with results obtained using exploratory structural equation modeling (ESEM; see online supplemental materials for additional details). It should be emphasized that this presentation is provided to illustrate our concerns with Roy et al.'s approach by applying it another widely used measure, not to advocate for use of their approach in other contexts.

Problems With Roy et al.'s Analytic Approach: An Empirical Illustration Focusing on the Item Set of the NEO-FFI

Hopwood and Donnellan (2010) critiqued confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) as a technique for modeling the latent structure of multifaceted personality inventories such as the NEO-PI-R, which are rarely marked by simple structure (see also Sellbom & Tellegen, 2019). They instead advocated for an alternative and more psychologically realistic analytic approach—ESEM (see also Marsh et al., 2009; Marsh, Morin, Parker, & Kaur, 2014). ESEM has become the method of choice for modeling the scale-level and item-level structures, respectively, of the NEO-PI-R (Furnham, Guenole, Levine, & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2013; Lui, Samuel, Rollock, Leong, & Chang, 2019) and NEO-FFI (Marsh et al., 2010; Rosellini & Brown, 2011).

Summary of Roy et al.'s Approach

Roy et al. first evaluated the fit of (a) an omnibus CFA model specifying three latent triarchic factors defined by items from the TriPM scales and (b) one-factor CFAs for each individual TriPM scale. Next, they performed separate exploratory factor analyses (EFAs) for the items of each TriPM scale to characterize factors underlying each, and then “removed items with subpar [$<.4$] loadings . . . and/or that exhibited substantial cross-loadings on other factors that significantly hamper[ed] interpretation of factors” (p. 4). Importantly, removing items that cross-load onto multiple factors *within a single scale* by definition eliminates items that operate to bind the scale together (i.e., that function best as indicators of the general factor underlying various items of the scale). When applied to a scale designed to index a broad construct encompassing different facets, this approach prioritizes item distinctiveness over item coherency and identifies small subsets of items bound together by common elements separate from general-factor variance.

NEO-FFI Data Sets

Our primary analyses used data ($N = 1,198$; $M_{\text{age}} = 28.8$) from the publicly available Human Connectome Project (HCP; Van Essen et al., 2013); interested readers can access these same data to corroborate our findings or perform their own analyses. We also report results for a separate replication sample ($N = 789$, $M_{\text{age}} = 19.4$) administered both the NEO-FFI and the TriPM. This research was approved by the institutional review board committee at Florida State University.

Analytic Steps and Findings

Following Roy et al., we used robust weighted least squares estimation to specify CFA/EFA models for the NEO-FFI's ordinal items. Mirroring the fit of the initial omnibus CFA for the TriPM in Roy et al.'s six samples, the correlated five-factor CFA for the full NEO-FFI exhibited inadequate fit in the HCP sample (see Table 1). Notably, the mean loadings of NEO-FFI items on their assigned factors were lower on average than those reported for TriPM items in Roy et al.'s Table 1 ($M \lambda = .54$ for NEO-FFI vs. $.65$ for TriPM). Also mirroring Roy et al., separate item-level CFAs for the NEO-FFI scales (see Table 1) yielded near-acceptable comparative fit index (CFI) values ($M = .88$ vs. $M = .87$ for the TriPM scales) but inadequate values of root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; $M = .11$, identical to the TriPM scales).

We then conducted item-level EFAs for the individual NEO-FFI scales and applied Roy et al.'s criterion of $\Delta\text{CFI} > .01$ to determine the number of latent factors for each.¹ This indicated a total of 19 factors within the NEO-FFI: three for Neuroticism, five for Extraversion, three for Openness, four for Agreeableness, and four for Conscientiousness. These EFA models fit reasonably well in both the HCP and replication samples (see Table SA in the online supplemental materials), mirroring results for EFAs of the TriPM scales in Roy et al. An omnibus EFA model that extracted 19 factors from the full NEO-FFI item set, reflecting those emerging from the individual-scale EFAs, exhibited acceptable fit (see Table SA in the online supplemental materials). These findings again parallel results for the omnibus seven-factor EFA of the full TriPM item set reported by Roy et al.

Next, we applied Roy et al.'s exclusion criteria—which dropped items with loadings $<.40$ and/or “substantial” cross-loadings (which we took to mean $\geq .40$)—to identify items within each scale not robustly or uniquely associated with any particular factor. After dropping items (10 altogether—one each from Neuroticism and Extraversion scales, two each from Openness and Conscientiousness, and four from Agreeableness), three of the 19 factors revealed by the EFAs were defined by only one item. Table 1 shows CFA results for the reduced item sets of the five NEO-FFI scales, excluding single-item factors (two for Extraversion and one for Agreeableness). These models exhibited acceptable fit in the HCP sample, mirroring results for reduced-length TriPM scale CFAs in Roy et al.; acceptable fit was also evident for CFAs of the reduced-length scales in our replication sample (RMSEAs = $.02$ – $.08$, CFIs = $.97$ – $.99$, Tucker–Lewis index = $.95$ – $.99$). As described in the online supplemental material (first subsection under “Results”), the factors “uncovered” for each scale reflected item polarity along with item content (NEO-PI-R facet assignment).

¹ We note that this practice of model comparison is actually inappropriate for multiple reasons. First, Cheung and Rensvold (2002) generated this recommendation in the context of conducting simulation studies comparing measurement invariance models across groups. Second, their simulation studies used maximum likelihood estimation and have not been replicated when using weighted least squares mean- and variance-adjusted estimators (Sass, Schmitt, & Marsh, 2014). And third, it is problematic in general to compare CFI values across models estimated via weighted least squares mean- and variance-adjusted estimators, because the cross-model χ^2 values (which serve as the main formulaic ingredients of CFI) are not on the same scale.

Table 1
Fit Statistics for CFA Models of NEO-FFI Scales in Human Connectome Project Sample ($N = 1,198$)

NEO-FFI CFA model	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	WLSMV- $\chi^2(df)$	M loading (range)
Full-original scales					
5-factor omnibus	.74	.73	.07	10,181.85 (1700)	.54 (.16–.80)
1-factor Neuroticism	.93	.92	.09	610.20 (54)	.61 (.46–.83)
1-factor Extraversion	.84	.80	.12	933.38 (54)	.52 (.32–.79)
1-factor Openness	.85	.81	.13	1,187.46 (54)	.50 (.16–.78)
1-factor Agreeableness	.87	.84	.10	693.75 (54)	.53 (.32–.72)
1-factor Conscientiousness	.89	.87	.12	967.21 (54)	.60 (.28–.78)
Reduced-length scales					
16-factor omnibus	.87	.85	.06	4,446.09 (914)	.67 (.30–.89)
3-factor Neuroticism	.97	.96	.07	267.29 (41)	.67 (.55–.80)
3-factor Extraversion	.97	.95	.06	138.12 (24)	.61 (.39–.87)
3-factor Openness	.97	.96	.07	205.41 (32)	.61 (.27–.88)
3-factor Agreeableness	>.99	>.99	.02	15.83 (11)	.70 (.53–.80)
4-factor Conscientiousness	.97	.95	.08	264.21 (29)	.75 (.63–.86)

Note. CFA = confirmatory factor analysis; NEO-FFI = NEO Five-Factor Inventory; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; WLSMV = weighted least squares mean- and variance-adjusted estimators. All negatively keyed items were reverse coded before model fitting to make M loading values interpretable. See main text for summary of fit statistics for these models in the replication sample and Table SB in the online supplemental materials for fit statistics of each individual model in the replication sample.

Compared with the initial five-factor CFA model, fit improved for an omnibus 16-factor model of the reduced NEO-FFI item set (i.e., 47 items across five scales, excluding ones indicative of single-item factors) and was comparable with that of the seven-factor omnibus TriPM model across samples in Roy et al. (M CFI = .87 vs. .89, M RMSEA = .05 vs. .05; see Table 1 and Table SA in the online supplemental materials).

Following Roy et al.'s logic, one might conclude from these analyses—substituting “NEO-FFI” for “TriPM” and “FFM” for “triarchic model”—that (a) “the [NEO-FFI] may not accord sufficiently with the [FFM of personality]” (p. 7), (b) “the [FFM] domains cannot be represented via an item-level [FFM], given [that] each [NEO-FFI] scale is clearly multidimensional” (p. 7–8), (c) “the [five] original [NEO-FFI] scales are misrepresenting important sources of covariation, and therefore, the [five-factor] model is mis-specified (i.e., does not accurately account for the structure of [NEO-FFI] item covariance” (p. 8)), (d) “results support use of the [sixteen] first-order factors as a guide for forming new composites with the [NEO-FFI] items” (p. 11), and (e) “continued use of five original [NEO-FFI] scales can lead to theoretical ambiguity and statistical washout effects, which will hinder our understanding of [personality constructs] with huge impact” (p. 13).

We object to these conclusions—whether applied to the NEO-FFI or the TriPM. For each inventory, there is a strong a priori expectation that its scales are each undergirded by a dominant broad factor because items of each scale were selected to index a general factor encompassing distinct facets represented in parent inventories. The presence of a dominant factor within each scale is evident from their scree plots, which in each case reveal a first eigenvalue exceeding the second by three or more times (Morizot, Ainsworth, & Reise, 2007). The presence of additional factors in each scale reflects diversity in thematic content and item characteristics such as wording, polarity, and difficulty that contribute to covariation patterns (see first subsection of online supplemental results). Importantly, the general factors indexed by the five scales of the NEO-FFI—corresponding to dimensions of the FFM as

indexed by the NEO-PI-R domains—have well-developed nomological networks that need to be considered in appraising their validity (Hopwood & Donnellan, 2010; Morey, 2019). We return to the important issue of external validity evidence for construct operationalizations in the final section of this commentary.

Comparative Results Using ESEM

Given these considerations, an alternative to the analytic approach of Roy et al. is needed to effectively model the broad latent factor underlying each of the NEO-FFI scales—one that does not rely on unrealistic expectations of simple structure and that accounts for covariation among particular subsets of items apart from their shared associations with the general factor. Somma, Borroni, Drislane, Patrick, and Fossati (2019) reported an alternative, target-rotated ESEM approach for this purpose, which they applied to the item-based factor scales of the TriPM. Their ESEM approach modeled a general factor for each scale while accounting for covariation among particular subsets of items not captured by the general factor and yielded good fit for an omnibus three-factor model incorporating all 58 items of the TriPM.

We briefly summarize results from counterpart ESEM models of the NEO-FFI here; further details regarding the rationale for ESEM, the specific analytic procedures of Somma et al. (2019), and findings from analyses applying these procedures to the NEO-FFI are provided in the online supplemental materials. As shown in Table 2, the five-factor target rotated ESEM for the full NEO-FFI item set exhibited excellent fit in both the HCP and replication samples. Speaking to Roy et al.'s concern about correlated residual terms, the model fit somewhat less well in these two samples without inclusion of correlated residuals (M CFI = .90, M RMSEA = .04)—but fit remained comparable with that of Roy et al.'s final seven-factor TriPM model (corresponding M s = .89 and .05).

Given that TriPM data were also available for the replication sample, we modeled the full TriPM item set using Somma et al.'s ESEM approach and found good fit (as did Latzman et al., 2019 and Paiva et al., 2020) for an omnibus three-factor model—both

Table 2
*Fit Statistics for Five-Factor Omnibus ESEM With Target
 Rotation of Full-Original NEO-FFI Scales in Each
 Participant Sample*

Participant sample	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	WLSMV- $\chi^2(df)$
HCP sample ($N = 1,198$)	.94	.92	.03	3,430.20 (1416)
Replication sample ($N = 789$)	.94	.93	.03	2,421.48 (1416)

Note. ESEM = exploratory structural equation model; NEO-FFI = NEO Five-Factor Inventory; CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker–Lewis index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; WLSMV = weighted least squares mean- and variance-adjusted estimators; HCP = Human Connectome Project.

with and without inclusion of correlated residuals (CFIs = .99/.98, Tucker–Lewis index = .99/.98, RMSEAs = .04/.05; see online supplemental material for further details). We encourage Roy et al. to report findings for this omnibus ESEM model, with and without correlated residuals, in their participant samples.²

Conclusions

The foregoing results indicate that ESEM provides an effective method for modeling broad factors corresponding to N, E, O, A, and C using all items of the NEO-FFI, and broad factors corresponding to boldness, meanness, and disinhibition using all items of the TriPM. By contrast, Roy et al.’s method failed to model the broad dimensions these scales were designed to measure, and instead delineated narrow subfactors with poor resemblance to known facets of these broad dimensions. Lower order facets of N, E, O, A, and C could not be recovered (or “uncovered”) from the items of the NEO-FFI owing to their incomplete representation in these brief-form scales. Accordingly, researchers wishing to examine associations for lower order facets of the FFM are encouraged to use the NEO-PI-R (or its successor, the NEO-PI-3; [McCrae & Costa, 2010]), which provides effective facet-level coverage. Similarly, researchers wishing to examine associations for lower order facets of boldness, meanness, and disinhibition are encouraged to use relevant facet scales of the ESI and the BI.

Nomological Networks and Construct Validity

As a final point, broad factors of inventories such as the NEO-PI-R, the ESI, and the BI gain meaning and demonstrate utility through growing knowledge of their nomological networks—that is, their convergent and discriminant associations with measures of other types. Although investigations of the internal structure of measures are important, investigations of what Loewinger (1957) termed *external validity* are equally if not more critical when appraising their construct validity (Hopwood & Donnellan, 2010; Lykken, 1971).³

The NEO Personality Inventory, as a widely used FFM measure that has been available for many years, has a well-developed nomological network and has proven useful for many important purposes. Although the nomological network of the newer TriPM is less well-developed, considerable progress has been made in this regard (see Sellbom, 2018), and it has proven useful as a referent for comparing the content coverage of different psychopathy inventories (Drislane, Patrick, & Arsal, 2014; Sellbom & Phillips, 2013), for bridging the

youth and adult psychopathy literatures (Sica, Ciucci, Baroncelli, Frick, & Patrick, 2019; Somma, Borroni, Drislane, & Fossati, 2016), and as a clinical-predictive tool (Sellbom, Lilienfeld, Fowler, & McCrary, 2018). In addition, the TriPM (and other scales developed to index the triarchic model constructs; see, e.g.: Brislin et al., 2019; Drislane & Patrick, 2017) has been helpful for understanding associations of different physiological measures including aversive startle potentiation, oddball-P3 brain response, and fear–face brain reactivity with psychopathy (Patrick, 2018) and other clinical phenomena (Patrick, Venables, et al., 2013; Venables et al., 2017, 2018; Yancey, Venables, & Patrick, 2016).

From this standpoint, we view the TriPM and other triarchic-scale measures as serving aims complementary to those of the FFM and psychopathy inventories such as the Psychopathy Checklist-Revised (Hare, 2003) and the Self-Report Psychopathy scale (Paulhus, Neumann, & Hare, 2017). We believe that using and comparing different conceptualizations and measurement methods is valuable for advancing the study of psychopathy by allowing for integration and synthesis of the best supported features of each. Although we recognize that others may view alternative approaches in more competitive terms, it is important for all researchers to be cognizant of the purposes for which particular measures are designed, mindful of their nomological networks, and willing to apply the same standards regardless of personal scholarly preferences when selecting statistical modeling methods to apply to them.

² Our point regarding the appropriateness of an ESEM approach to modeling the structure of item-based factor scales applies also to the work of Collison, Miller, and Lynam (2020), who relied exclusively on EFA with parallel analysis to characterize the item-level structure of alternative triarchic (Tri-) scale measures and compare their content coverage. We encourage these and other investigators to model general factors of alternative Tri-scale measures using ESEM, as basis for evaluating their relative coherency and convergent/discriminant relations with one another.

³ This point regarding the importance of external criterion correlations as a basis for evaluating scale validity applies also to the work of Collison et al. (2020).

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