Interpersonal Circumplex Measures

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Inspired by Sullivan's theoretical framework (Sullivan, 1953), the interpersonal model conceptualizes interpersonal processes as the vital foundations of both normal and abnormal personality. Indeed, an examination of normal personality terms across many languages reveals that more traits refer to aspects of interpersonal functioning than to any other domain of functioning (John, 1990). Likewise in the domain of abnormal functioning, the majority of the criteria for diagnosing personality disorders in the current Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (American Psychiatric Association, 2000) refer to interpersonal acts or reactions to actual, imagined, desired, or feared interpersonal situations. The topic of several recent books has been the centrality and utility of interpersonal models for understanding, diagnosing, and treating various forms of psychopathology (Horowitz, 2004; Kiesler, 1996), with a particular focus on personality disorders (Benjamin, 1996a). But the seminal book on applying interpersonal models to psychopathology was Leary (1957), which elaborated and popularized the interpersonal circle model developed by Freedman, Leary, Ossorio, and Coffey (1951).

The interpersonal circle or interpersonal circumplex (IPC) has in recent decades become the most popular model for conceptualizing, organizing, and assessing interpersonal dispositions (Kiesler, 1983; Wiggins, 2003). The IPC is defined by two orthogonal axes: a vertical axis (of status, dominance, power, or control) and a horizontal axis (of solidarity, friendliness, warmth, or love). In recent years, it has become conventional to identify the vertical and horizontal axes with the broad metaconcepts of *agency* and *communion* (Horowitz, 2004; Wiggins, 2003). Thus, each point in the IPC space can be specified as a weighted combination of agency and communion; or, in other words, the IPC offers a place for interpersonal dispositions reflecting all combinations of agency and communion.

Placing a person near one of the poles of the axes implies that the person tends to convey clear or strong messages (of warmth, hostility, dominance or submissiveness). Conversely, placing a person at the midpoint of the agentic dimension implies the person conveys neither dominance nor submissiveness (and pulls neither dominance nor submissiveness from others). Likewise, placing a person at the midpoint of the communal dimension implies the person conveys neither warmth nor hostility (and pulls neither warmth nor hostility from others).

The IPC can be divided into broad segments (such as fourths) or narrow segments (such as sixteenths), but currently most IPC inventories partition the circle into eight octants, as shown in Figure 15.1. As one moves around the circle, each octant reflects a progressive blend of the two axial dimensions. Also note that, by convention, each octant has a generic two-letter code (shown in parentheses). In this chapter I will review a variety of inventories designed to measure these eight IPC octants. I will focus on measures of interpersonal traits, interpersonal problems, interpersonal values, and interpersonal impacts. However, I will also briefly mention several more specialized IPC measures, as well as the SASB/INTREX questionnaires, which measure an alternative model of the interpersonal space. After introducing these measures, I will describe how they can help differentiate normal and abnormal interpersonal dispositions.

For an inventory to be considered an IPC measure, its octant scales should have the following properties: (a) scales that are closer to one another on the circle should have higher correlations than scales that are farther apart; (b) the scales' communalities on
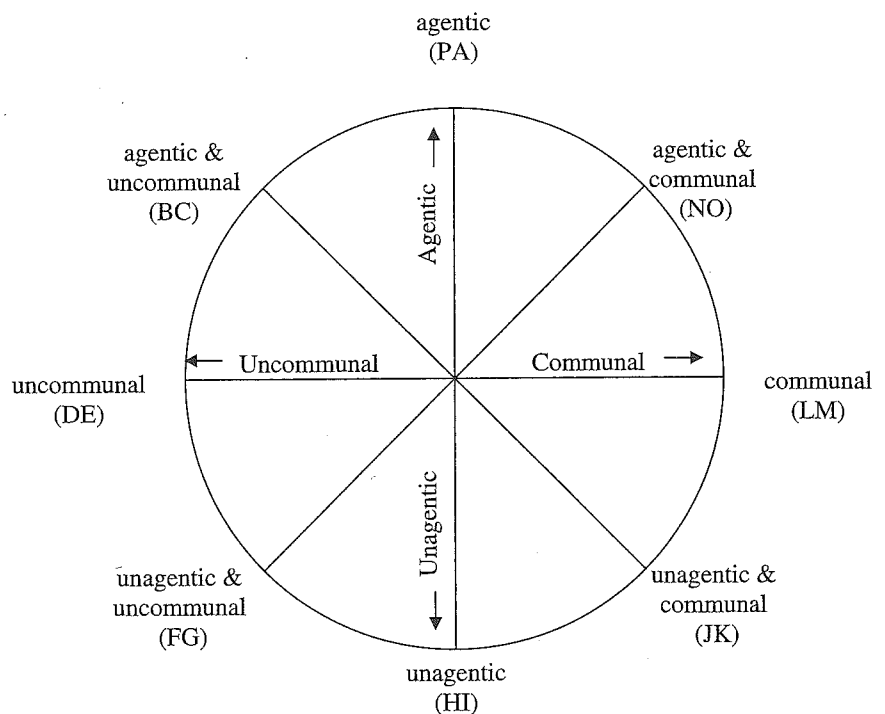
The interpersonal circumplex.

the two underlying dimensions of agency and communion should all be high and approximately equal; and (c) plotting the octant scales on the two underlying axes should show them to be distributed at approximately equal 45-degree intervals. Measures whose scales meet these criteria have the advantage of being amenable to the types of geometric analyses described in Pincus and Gurtman (this volume, chapter 4). The IPC measures reviewed below generally meet these criteria, albeit some better than others.

Although the IPC inventories described below typically are used as self-report measures of global dispositions, almost all of the measures can be and have been used in other ways. For example, most of the self-report measures (with perhaps a slight change in the wording of the instructions or the items) also have been used to obtain ratings by peer or observers. Likewise, IPC measures have been used to ask not only about a target's general dispositions, but also about the target's dispositions in specific situations (e.g., at work or at home), in specific relationships (e.g., with your spouse or with your therapist), or under specific conditions (e.g., when under stress or when relaxed). The benefit of greater specification is that it may yield greater understanding and predictive power; the cost is that the respondent is faced with more complex instructions to read and more items to answer, and the clinician or researcher is faced with more scales to interpret. Typically, the cost is greater than the benefit unless the clinician or researcher has an *a priori* reason for inquiring about those specific situations, relationships, or conditions.

Measures

Assessing Interpersonal Traits

The Interpersonal Check List (ICL; LaForge & Suczek, 1955) was the first IPC inventory. The ICL was designed to assess 16 segments of the interpersonal circle. Each segment was assessed by eight adjectives or verb-phrases (yielding a total of 128 items), each of which was weighted according to one of four levels of extremity. The ICL has been used in numerous studies (for a bibliography, see Clark & Taulbee, 1981). However, it has psychometric inadequacies. Specifically, the ICL has noteworthy measurement gaps in the top-right and bottom-left quadrants, and scales opposite each other on the circle are not actually polar opposites (Kiesler, 1983; Lorr & McNair, 1965; Paddock & Nowicki, 1986a,b; Wiggins, 1979, 1982). Wiggins (1979) and Wiggins, Trapnell, and Phillips (1988) developed the Interpersonal Adjective Scales (IAS) to address these inadequacies. Since the IAS has proven to have more desirable psychometric and circumplex properties than the ICL, IAS is now the preferred measure of interpersonal traits. Moreover, the basic methods used to develop the IAS have served as the model for developing all subsequent IPC measures.

The most recent version of the IAS (Wiggins, 1995) consists of 64 interpersonal adjectives. Example items are shown in Table 15.1. Respondents rate each adjective with respect to how accurately it describes a target (typically the self) on a scale ranging from 1 (Very Inaccurate) to 8 (Very Accurate) scale. The adjectives are combined into eight scales that assess each octant of the IPC. The IAS has acceptable internal consistency and a clear circumplex structure (Gurtman & Pincus, 2000; Wiggins et al., 1988), and its scales show a sensible sinusoidal pattern of correlations with numerous other

Table

Examples of Items from Each Octant of the IAS, IIP, CSIV, and IMI

Octant Scale	Sample IAS Items (Rate how accurately each describes you)	Sample IIP Items (Rate how distressing each problem has been)	Sample CSIV Items "When I am with him/her/them, it is important that..."	Sample IMI Items "When I am with this person, he/she makes me feel..."
LM (Communal)	Sympathetic	I try to please other people too much	they show concern for how I am feeling	appreciated by him/her
NO (Agentic and communal)	Perky	I tell personal things to other people too much	they respect what I have to say	that I could relax and he/she'd take charge
PA (Agentic)	Forceful	I try to control other people too much	they acknowledge when I am right	bossed around
BC (Agentic and uncommunal)	Boastful	I fight with other people too much	I keep the upper hand	that I want to stay away from him/her
DE (Uncommunal)	Ruthless	It is hard for me to show affection to people	they not know what I am thinking or feeling	distant from him/her
FG (Unagentic and uncommunal)	Unsociable	I am too afraid of other people	I not say something stupid	that I should tell him/her not to be so nervous around me
HI (Unagentic)	Timid	It is hard for me to be assertive with another person	I not make them angry	in charge
JK (Unagentic and communal)	Unargumentative	I am too gullible	they like me	that I could tell him/her anything and he/she would agree

self-report personality measures (Wiggins & Broughton, 1985, 1991) as well as ratings of nonverbal interpersonal behavior (Gifford, 1991; Gifford & O'Connor, 1987). One problem with the IAS is that respondents may find some of the adjectives (such as "uncrafty" and "uncunning") odd and unfamiliar.

Assessing Interpersonal Problems

The most common self-report measure of problems associated with each octant of the interpersonal circle is the Inventory of Interpersonal Problems (IIP; Horowitz, Alden, & Pincus, 2000). The IIP consists of eight 8-item***(CH REP) scales that assess problematic dispositions associated with each octant of the interpersonal circumplex. Example items are shown in Table 15.1. Respondents indicate how distressed they have been by each problem on a 0 (not at all) to 4 (extremely) scale. The items are divided into two sections, namely, "things you find hard to do with other people" and "things that you do too much". The octant scores show adequate internal and 1-week test–retest reliability (Horowitz et al., 2000), and meet the criteria for circumplex structure (Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 1990; Pincus, Gurtman, & Ruiz, 1998; Vittengl, Clark, & Jarrett, 2003). The scales also show convergent validity with circumplex measures of interpersonal traits (Alden et al., 1990) and interpersonal motives (Locke, 2000).

The IIP has been successfully applied to a variety of research questions. For example, Locke (2005) studied if there were connections between how people expected others to treat them in their everyday lives and the interpersonal problems assessed by the IIP. Some of the findings were that anticipating others being critical or dismissive predicted problems with being too agentic, whereas anticipating others being uninviting or unsupportive predicted problems with being too uncommunal. As another example, numerous studies of psychotherapy process and outcome have used the IIP (e.g., Alden & Capreol, 1993; Borkovec, Newman, Pincus, & Lytle, 2002; Gurtman, 1996; Horowitz, Rosenberg, & Bartholomew, 1993; Maling, Gurtman, & Howard, 1995; Muran, Segal, Samstag, & Crawford, 1994). While the findings have not been completely consistent, they generally suggest that problems in the "agentic and uncommunal" region predict poorer progress, at least in psychodynamic treatment.

Assessing Interpersonal Values and Motives

Individuals' feelings and behaviors in interpersonal situations depend in part on their interpersonal values. For example, being told what to do may be a relief to someone who values submission, but a humiliation to someone who values dominance. Consequently, many psychotherapies seek to change feelings and behavior by changing values; for example, cognitive and rational–emotive therapies often have clients question the extreme value they place on certain interpersonal experiences, such as *needing* others to show respect. The Circumplex Scales of Interpersonal Values (CSIV; Locke, 2000) is a 64-item measure of the value individuals place on interpersonal experiences associated with each octant of the IPC. The values the CSIV measures are akin to the "subjective values" of cognitive social learning theory (Mischel, 1973) and "incentive values" of expectancy-value theory (Atkinson, 1964; Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). While

these are sometimes referred to as "motives" (Horowitz, 2004), the term "values" follows McClelland's (1980, 1985) distinction between implicit "motives" that are measured by the Thematic Apperception Test and "values" that are measured by self-report inventories such as the CSIV.

The CSIV asks respondents to rate the importance of 64 interpersonal experiences, with eight items associated with each octant of the IPC. For each item, respondents indicate, on a scale from 0 (not important) to 4 (extremely important) how important it is that they act or appear or are treated that way in interpersonal situations. Sample items are shown in Table 15.1. The CSIV form, scoring program, and norms are available at www.class.uidaho.edu/klocke/csiv.htm. The scales have adequate internal consistency and test–retest reliability, a circumplex structure, and convergent and discriminant validity in relation to measures of interpersonal traits, interpersonal goals, interpersonal problems, personality disorders, and implicit power and intimacy motives assessed by the Thematic Apperception Test (Locke, 2000).

Assessing Interpersonal Impacts

The Impact Message Inventory-Circumplex (IMI; Kiesler & Schmidt, 1993; Kiesler, Schmidt, & Wagner, 1997) assesses the interpersonal dispositions of a target person, not by asking the target person directly, but by assessing the covert responses or "impact messages" (i.e., feelings, thoughts, and behavioral tendencies) that the target evokes in another person. The IMI asks the respondent to describe the covert reactions he or she typically experiences in the presence of the target. The IMI consists of 56 items grouped into eight 7-item octant scales. The items are designed to assess the types of reactions evoked by interpersonal behaviors from all regions of the interpersonal circle. Thus, items on the dominant scale are reactions likely to be evoked by a dominant target, whereas the items on the friendly scale are reactions likely to be evoked by a friendly target. Respondents indicate how accurately each item describes their reaction to the target using a 4-point scale ranging from *not at all* (1) to *very much so* (4). Example items are shown in Table 15.1.

The IMI scales show convergent validity with measures of interpersonal behavior; for example, the types of problems a target reports on the IIP predict the types of impacts they have on the IMI (Wagner, Kiesler, & Schmidt, 1995). The IMI octant scales have acceptable internal consistencies and also approximate a circumplex structure (Schmidt, Wagner, & Kiesler, 1999b). However, the IMI does not meet circumplex criteria as well as the other IPC measures reviewed above. Although the octant scales show a circular ordering around the interpersonal axes, they also show unequal spacing around the circumference and inconsistent vector lengths (Schmidt et al., 1999b). The IMI has been used successfully in numerous studies, but when conducting research using the IMI it would be prudent to verify that the IMI scales in your data set meet the criteria for a circumplex prior to combining them using trigonometric formulas of the sort described below.

Specialized IPC Measures

Various other IPC measures exist that may be useful within particular contexts. I will briefly mention three of these.

The Support Actions Scale-Circumplex

The Support Actions Scale-Circumplex (SAS-C; Trobst, 2000) is a 64-item measure of dispositions to provide agentic and communal support to those in need of assistance. Example of items are "give advice" (PA), "remind them whining doesn"t help" (DE), and "give them a hug" (LM). The SAS-C might be particularly useful for identifying the difficulties or conflicts experienced by people who are members of support groups or people who are giving support to physically or mentally challenged individuals.

The Check List of Interpersonal Transactions

The Check List of Interpersonal Transactions (CLOIT; Kiesler, Goldston, & Schmidt, 1991) is a 96-item measure of the degree to which a person has enacted interpersonal behaviors in each of 16 segments of the IPC. There is a version specifically for ratings of clients or counselors called the Check List of Psychotherapy Transactions (CLOPT). Examples of items are "act in a relaxed, informal, warm, or nonjudgmental manner" (LM) and "act in a stiff, formal, unfeeling, or evaluative manner" (DE). For each item the respondent simply indicates whether or not the target enacted that behavior; thus, the CLOIT and CLOPT are behavioral checklists, rather than measures of enduring dispositions. The CLOIT and CLOPT may be particularly useful for identifying patterns of behavior within particular situations or interactions, such as within a therapy session.

The Chart of Interpersonal Reactions in Closed Living Environments

The Chart of Interpersonal Reactions in Closed Living Environments (CIRCLE; Blackburn & Renwick, 1996) is a 49-item set of observer ratings that were designed to sample the interpersonal behavior of psychiatric inpatients. Examples of items are "dominates conversations" (PA), "sits alone or keeps to himself" (FG), and "helpful to other patients" (LM). The frequency of each behavior is rated on a 4-point scale. The eight octant scales demonstrate acceptable psychometric and circumplex properties. Being based on observer ratings, the CIRCLE may be particularly useful for assessment in inpatient populations or when self-reports are likely to be invalid (e.g., Blackburn, 1998).

SASB/INTREX Questionnaires

Whereas the preceding interpersonal inventories were based on the IPC model, the INTREX questionnaires are based on an alternative structural model of interpersonal space—the Structural Analysis of Social Behavior (SASB; Benjamin, 1974, 1996b). SASB codes interpersonal stances on two circles rather than just one. When the "focus" is on the other person, the interpersonal stance is coded on the transitive behavior circle. When the "focus" is on the self (reacting to the other person), the interpersonal stance is coded on the intransitive behavior circle. Both circles are defined by a horizontal dimension of affiliation (like that of the IPC) and a vertical dimension of independence—enmeshment (ranging from *give-autonomy* to *dominate* on the transitive circle and from *take-autonomy* to *submit* on the intransitive circle). Thus, theoretically, whatever

reaction a particular transitive action pulls for is coded at the corresponding point on the intransitive circle; for example, dominance and submission are coded at the same points on the transitive and intransitive circles, respectively. The full INTREX questionnaire contains 36 items for each circle (i.e., 4 or 5 items per octant).

While some find SASB/INTREX an appealing system for describing dyadic transactions, it has serious theoretical and psychometric problems. For example, the research does not support the existence of distinct transitive and intransitive dimensions of affiliation (Pincus et al., 1998). The most serious problems concern the independence dimension. In the IPC model, independence is maximized at the IPC origin (where stances do not exert interpersonal pulls in any direction), and interpersonal enmeshment increases as a person's stances deviate from the center (in any one direction or in multiple directions). In the SASB model, independence increases as one moves from the bottom to the top of the circle. Consequently, the IPC model puts the extremes of affiliation (e.g., *love* and *attack*) among the least independent stances, whereas the SASB model puts them at the midpoint of the independence dimension—a position that I find counterintuitive. Moreover, analyses of trait terms across numerous language groups reliably reveal the IPC dimensions, but not an independence dimension (Rolland, 2002). Even on the INTREX, friendly acts tend to co-occur and unfriendly acts tend to co-occur regardless of the autonomy those acts grant or deny, suggesting that independence is a less salient dimension. Because the affiliation dimension differentiates items better than does the independence dimension, the INTREX scales produce unequally spaced ellipses that fail to meet the "constant radius" and "equal spacing" criteria for circumplex measures (Pincus et al., 1998); consequently, the type of geometric formulas that can be applied to the IPC scales cannot be applied to the INTREX scales.

Other Noncircular Interpersonal Measures

There are many other instruments that measure aspects of interpersonal behavior, but whose scales conform to neither the IPC nor SASB circles for one of two reasons. First, some tests measure only subsets of the interpersonal space. For example, tests of the extroversion factor of the Five-Factor model (FFM) typically measure the FG-NO axis of the IPC, whereas tests of the agreeableness factor of the FFM typically measure the BC-JK axis (McCrae & Costa, 1989; Trapnell & Wiggins, 1990). Other examples would be a Machiavellianism scale or an interpersonal dependency scale (Gurtman, 1992; Pincus & Gurtman, 1995). Second, some instruments measure both interpersonal and non-interpersonal dispositions. An example is the Interpersonal Style Inventory (ISI; Lorr & Youniss, 1986). The ISI is a well-constructed 300-item self-report inventory consisting of fifteen bipolar scales that show good internal and temporal reliability. However, while some of the scales are specifically interpersonal (e.g., *Directive–Nondirective, Nurturant–Help Withholding*), other are not (e.g., *Conscientious–Expedient, Deliberate–Impulsive*). Consequently, factor analyses of the ISI scales (Lorr & DeLong, 1984) yield, not the two IPC factors, but instead five factors that are similar to the FFM factors. While any personality trait—including the "noninterpersonal" traits of the FFM (conscientiousness, emotionality, and culture)—*can* be expressed in and have effects on interpersonal situations, the IPC dimensions define the specifically interpersonal aspects of a relationship or interaction. That is why this chapter focuses on IPC inventories.

Scoring and Interpreting IPC Inventories

Typically, the initial scoring of an IPC inventory yields eight raw octant scores. You can plot and compare the raw scores, but since people generally tend to report more agentic and communal dispositions than unagentic and uncommunal dispositions, it may be more informative to standardize the raw scores as follows: standardized score = (raw score − M)/SD, where M and SD are the mean and standard deviation from a relevant standardization sample. Of course, only examining the octant scores one at a time fails to take advantage of the remarkable capacity of IPC measures to systematically fuse together scales using trigonometric formulas. Different approaches to fusing or summarizing the scales exist, and the most useful approach for you will depend on how you will use the scores—for example, whether will you use the scores in research or will give feedback to individual patients or health care providers in a clinical context. The following approach is one way to quickly (and by hand) compute an individual's overall interpersonal trends; Gurtman (1994) offers a more sophisticated approach.

The first step is to compute the individual's overall dispositions to approach agency, avoid agency, approach communion, or avoid communion as follows:

$$\text{Agentic Vector} = (0.414)(\text{PA} + (0.707)(\text{BC} + \text{NO})$$
$$\text{Unagentic Vector} = (0.414)(\text{HI} + (0.707)(\text{FG} + \text{JK})$$
$$\text{Communal Vector} = (0.414)(\text{LM} + (0.707)(\text{JK} + \text{NO})$$
$$\text{Uncommunal Vector} = (0.414)(\text{DE} + (0.707)(\text{BC} + \text{FG})$$

To the extent that an individual is above average in both communal and uncommunal tendencies, or above average in both agentic and unagentic tendencies, that individual may be prone to problematic conflicts such as simultaneously wanting and fearing power, or alternately seeking and avoiding closeness. Moreover, dispositions to approach versus avoid may be associated with distinct neurophysiological, affective, cognitive, and behavioral patterns (Amodio, Shah, Sigelman, Brazy, & Harmon-Jones, 2004). For example, Locke (2005) found that more of any type of interpersonal problem measured by the IIP predicted more distress, but whereas agentic and communal dispositions predicted *too much* negative feeling (of anger or shame), unagentic and uncommunal dispositions predicted *too little* positive feeling (of confidence or connection). Thus, dispositions to approach versus avoid agency and communion may be related to the individual's broader pattern of affect (e.g., too much anger versus too little confidence), cognition (e.g., focus on rewards versus costs), and behavior (e.g., using approach versus avoidance to solve problems).

The second step is to compute the overall X and Y vectors. The agentic vector score minus the unagentic vector score yields the individual's overall tendency to be agentic versus unagentic (or Y coordinate). The communal vector score minus the uncommunal vector score yields the individual's overall tendency to be communal versus uncommunal (or X coordinate). The point in the IPC space defined by these X and Y coordinates shows the individual's overall interpersonal tendencies. The angle of this vector shows where the individual's pattern of octant scores has its predicted peak, and should reveal the individual's predominant interpersonal disposition. The length of this vector shows how intensely and consistently the target manifests this interpersonal disposition; the

longer the vector, the more the pattern of scores reflects a well-defined interpersonal pattern with a clear peak in one region, a clear trough in the opposite region, and moderate scores in between.

Using IPC Measures to Assess Abnormality

General Indicators

A maladaptive interpersonal disposition is one that contributes to *unnecessary* distress in the self or others *across relationships*. Note that to be maladaptive, the distress must be unnecessary. For example, sometimes arguing with your boss can be distressing yet necessary to protect the safety of your co-workers; at other times, not arguing with your boss can be distressing yet necessary to protect your job. Your behavior in these instances may be uncomfortable to you or your boss, but nonetheless be adaptive. Note also that to be a disposition, the distress must not be limited to just one relationship or situation; for example, if you get into arguments with your boss and nobody else, then blaming the arguments on your having a maladaptive interpersonal disposition would be an oversimplification.

The IPC model maps normal and abnormal dispositions onto the same interpersonal space, and does not define any particular segment of the interpersonal space as necessarily adaptive or maladaptive (Leary, 1957; Kiesler, 1996). In support of this view, analyses of clinical intake interviews shows that people complain of interpersonal problems associated with all segments of the IPC (Alden et al., 1990). Approaching agency and communion can be adaptive, and avoiding status or solidarity can be adaptive (Wiggins, 2003). Indeed, evolutionary psychology suggests that it is exactly because there are both costs and benefits of agency and communion that there exists variance in agentic and communal behaviors across persons and across situations. For example, communing with others creates opportunities not only for resource exchange and social support (that can have physiological, psychological, and material benefits), but also for contracting diseases or social responsibilities (that can have physiological, psychological, and material costs). Likewise, agency can increase not only access to valued resources, but also the likelihood of costly interpersonal competition.

The IPC model predicts that abnormal profiles generally will be either more rigid and extreme or more conflicted and chaotic (Kiesler, 1996). With respect to rigidity, being close or distant or controlling or yielding can be adaptive when done judiciously, but being *indiscriminately* or *excessively* close or distant or controlling or yielding tends to be maladaptive. Consequently, normal (moderate and flexible) dispositions tend to be located near the center of the IPC, whereas abnormal (extreme and rigid) dispositions tend to be located near the periphery of the IPC (Sim & Romney, 1990). Because rigid and extreme behaviors, values, and impacts can all contribute to interpersonal distress, any of the measures reviewed above can be used to identify potentially maladaptive dispositions.

Conflicted interpersonal profiles (higher than average scores on opposing vectors) may also be problematic because they suggest internal conflicts and the likelihood of sending messages that are confusing and ambiguous or that are inconsistent either across

time or across different channels (Kiesler, 1996). For example, with respect to motives, a person who strongly values both closeness and distance (i.e., who wishes to be loved and embraced but fears being exploited or suffocated) is likely to experience distressing conflicts. The person who then actually does both—pulling another person close, and then pushing them away—is likely to cause unnecessary distress in themselves and others. The person who communicates "mixed messages" across verbal and nonverbal channels also tends to create confusion and distress.

Specific Disorders

While there are some inconsistent findings, overall the research shows that people who score high on measures of negative affectivity (such as depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, or the emotionality or neuroticism dimension of the Five-Factor model) tend to describe themselves and to be described by others as having less $+ A + C$ dispositions or more $- A - C$ dispositions on interpersonal circle measures (e.g., Alden & Phillips, 1990; McCullough et al., 1994; Schmidt, Wagner, & Kiesler, 1999a; Trapnell & Wiggins, 1990).

Since interpersonal dispositions are key features of most personality disorders, IPC measures are particularly useful for identifying or differentiating personality disorders (Kiesler, 1996; Leary, 1957). A number of studies have examined correlations between personality disorder measures and IPC measures (e.g., Blackburn, 1998; Locke, 2000; Matano & Locke, 1995; Pincus & Wiggins, 1990; Soldz, Budman, Demby, & Merry, 1993; Sim & Romney, 1990; Wiggins & Pincus, 1989). Across a variety of measures and samples, personality disorders and IPC dispositions tend to be related as follows.

Interpersonal dispositions (e.g., values, behaviors, problems) in the "low agency and low communion" region are associated with avoidant, schizoid, and (to a lesser extent) schizotypal personality styles. Individuals with these personality disorders tend to avoid connections with and attention from others, presumably as a means of self-protection (Horowitz, 2004). Whereas schizoid and schizotypal individuals tend to show non-specific interpersonal discomfort and withdrawal, avoidant persons tend to be especially sensitive to and avoidant of social situations and interactions in which they might experience rejection, criticism, and humiliation.

Interpersonal dispositions in the "low agency and high communion" region are associated with the dependent personality style. Dependent individuals perceive others as having more status and competence than themselves. Thus, they seek from others not only solidarity but also protection and guidance, and they offer up trust and submission to others in return. Interpersonal dispositions at the opposite end of the IPC—in the "high agency and low communion" region—are associated with antisocial or paranoid personality styles. Individuals with these personality disorders tend to view interpersonal interactions in cynical or hostile terms, and are prone to insensitive or aggressive interpersonal behaviors. However, whereas the "controlling and unfriendly" actions of antisocial persons tend to be pre-emptive or instrumental, the actions of paranoid persons tend to be reactive or self-protective (in response to perceived abuse or malice).

Interpersonal dispositions in the "high agency and high communion" region are associated with the histrionic personality style, and dispositions in the "high agency" (but neither high nor low in communion) region are associated with a narcissistic personality style. The positive feelings and self-worth of histrionic individuals appear highly

dependent on the status and solidarity they are currently experiencing in their interpersonal relationships, and therefore they tend to display inviting yet controlling interpersonal behaviors that demand attention and engagement. While narcissistic persons are also sensitive to how they believe others perceive them, they are more concerned with status (respect, admiration) and less concerned with solidarity (support, love) than are histrionic persons, and are correspondingly less likely to use warm, inviting behaviors as a means to gain status.

Finally, the borderline and obsessive–compulsive personality disorders do not appear to be associated with any one segment of the IPC. One reason may be that the core problems in these disorders are not interpersonal, but instead reflect extreme levels of noninterpersonal traits, such as neuroticism in the case of borderline personality disorder and conscientiousness in the case of obsessive–compulsive personality disorder (Widiger & Hagemoser, 1997). Another reason may be that the interpersonal dispositions associated with these disorders are complicated, and thus not limited to one IPC region. Obsessive–compulsive persons who want to avoid mistakes and blame may act remarkably dutiful and compliant (in the lower right of the IPC) when accepting another's authority, but act critical and controlling (in the upper left of the IPC) when in authority themselves. Likewise, borderline persons who crave being nurtured and fear being abandoned may be trusting and deferent (in the lower right) when they perceive the other person to be nurturing, but quickly become demanding and vindictive (in the upper left of the IPC) when they perceive the other person to be withdrawing.

Examples of IPC Profiles

In order to illustrate some of the points the preceding sections made concerning interpreting and using IPC measures, let us consider three examples. The examples will be the CSIV scores of the three individuals from the sample of participants in Locke (2000, Study 3) whose MCMI-III (Millon, 1994) profiles most clearly suggested an antisocial, a dependent, or a borderline personality disorder. Specifically, these three individuals were the ones whose BR score on the antisocial, dependent, or borderline scale was (a) greater than 85; (b) at least 10 units higher than their scores on any other personality disorder scale; (c) and higher than the scores of anyone else who met the first two criteria.

The CSIV octant means for these individuals are shown in Figures 15.2–15.4, and are consistent with the predictions made in the previous section. (Recall that CSIV scores can range from 0, "not at all important", to 4, "extremely important"). Experiencing agency without communion was very important to the antisocial person but not the dependent person, whereas experiencing communion without agency was very important to the dependent person but not the antisocial person. The wishes and fears of the borderline person were not limited to particular regions. The arrows on Figures 15.2 to 15.4 point to the mean (X,Y) coordinate or vector, and are consistent with the preceding observations. The overall interpersonal tendencies of the antisocial and dependent persons were in the "uncommunal and agentic" and "communal and unagentic" regions, respectively. The borderline person's overall tendencies were in the agentic region, but because her interpersonal tendencies were less consistent, her vector was shorter than that of the antisocial or dependent person.
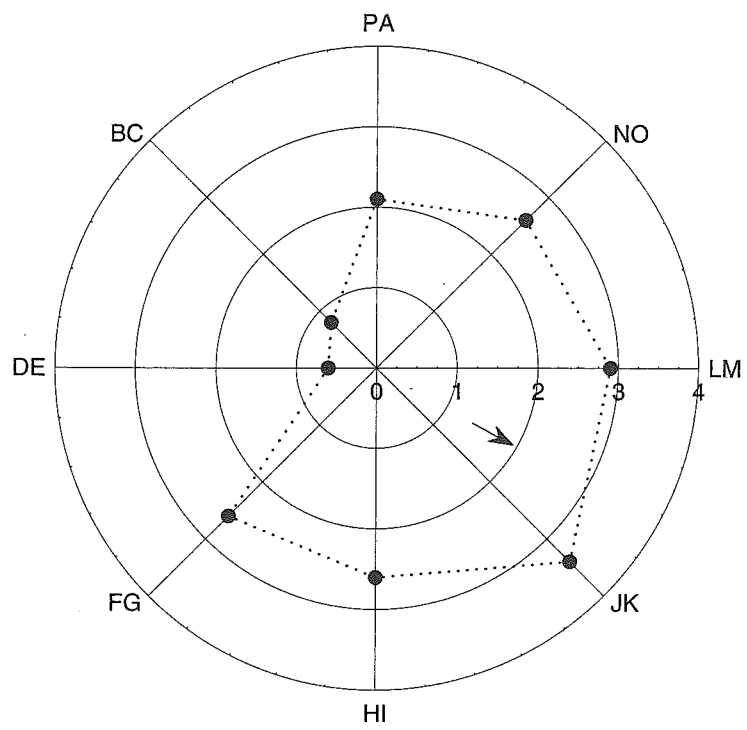
Table 15.2 shows the four "cardinal" vectors (agentic, unagentic, communal, and uncommunal) for each individual. The scores have been standardized to show how many
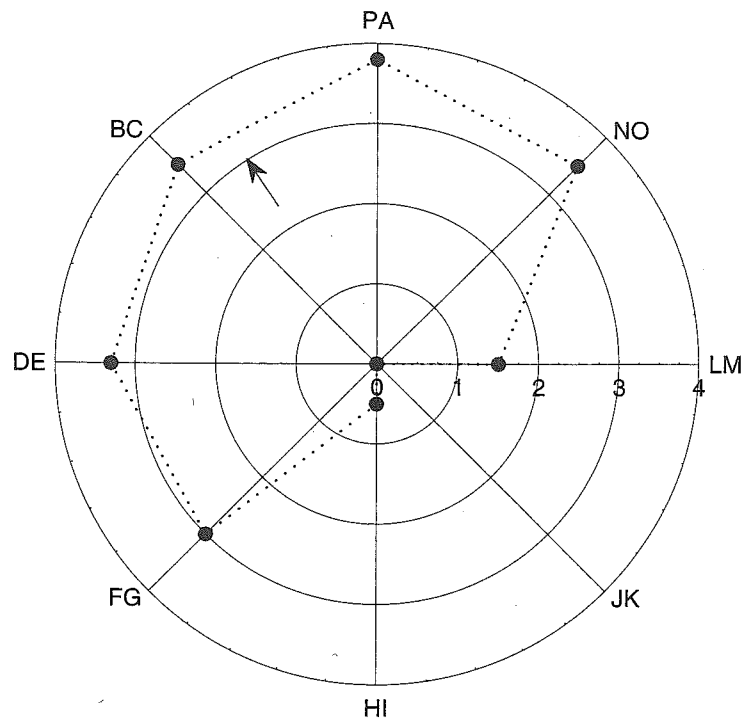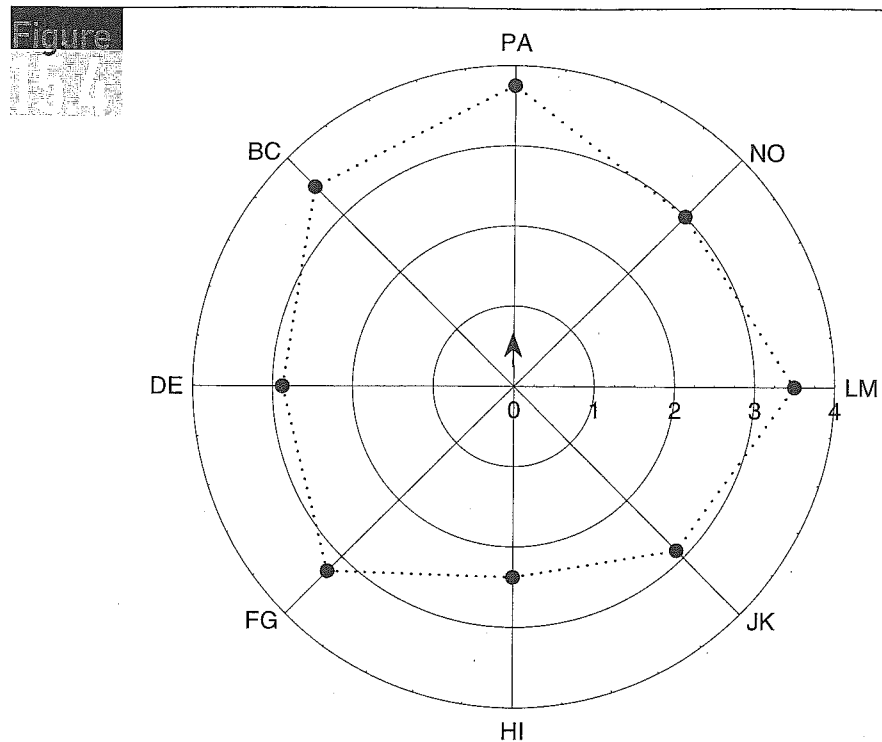
CSIV octant scores of a person with antisocial personality disorder symptoms.

CSIV octant scores of a person with dependent personality disorder symptoms.

CSIV Octant scores of a person with borderline personality disorder symptoms.

Standardized CSIV Vector Scores of Persons with an Elevation on the MCMI-III Antisocial Scale, Dependent Scale, or Borderline Scale

CSIV Vector	Antisocial	Dependent	Borderline
Communal	−2.01	0.25	0.63
Uncommunal	3.05	−0.17	2.92
Agentic	2.43	−0.82	2.16
Unagentic	−1.43	1.30	1.26

Note: The values shown represent the number of standard deviations above or below the vector means of the standardization sample (*n* = 1,200).

standard deviations each score is above or below the mean of the CSIV standardization sample. Note that since most people value getting along with others, the tendencies of the dependent person—when viewed as standardized scores—do not appear too extreme. Conversely, the tendencies of the antisocial person—when viewed as standardized scores—appear very extreme. Note also the borderline person scored above average on all of the scales. Consequently, the borderline person may be prone to distressing conflicts, especially between wanting control (since her "agentic" vector was over two standard deviations above average) and wanting to give in to avoid friction (since her "unagentic" vector, while smaller, is still over one standard deviation above average).

Caveats and Conclusions

The IPC measures reviewed above were designed to differentiate interpersonal dispositions with respect to levels of agency and communion, not with respect to levels of normality and abnormality. While unusually extreme or conflicting interpersonal tendencies tend to be maladaptive, IPC measures by themselves cannot determine whether or not a disposition is adaptive. Indeed, the scales and norms for most IPC measures were derived using normal samples. More research is needed on the efficacy and incremental validity of IPC instruments in clinical populations, and may show the need to revise existing instruments (or develop new instruments) in order to enhance their utility in clinical settings. Furthermore, there are many other personality dimensions, in addition to those assessed by IPC inventories, that contribute to adaptive versus maladaptive functioning. Therefore, when used for diagnostic purposes, IPC measures are used in conjunction with other measures of functioning.

On the other hand, problematic interpersonal dispositions are a major impetus for seeking psychotherapy, and play an important role in a wide variety of disorders and in the process and outcome of psychotherapy (Horowitz, 2004). Therefore, it is important to include measures of interpersonal dispositions when conducting assessments that inform judgments concerning the causes, nature, and treatment of abnormality. The IPC measures reviewed in this chapter give researchers and clinicians a variety of ways to efficiently assess and summarize the domain of interpersonal dispositions described by the IPC, which remains the most geometrically elegant and empirically robust model of the cardinal vectors on which people chart the course of their interpersonal lives.

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