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Interpersonal circumplex vector length and interpersonal decision making

Kenneth D. Locke *, Eric J. Adamic

Department of Psychology, University of Idaho, Moscow, ID 83844, USA

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ABSTRACT

Interpersonal circumplex scale scores can be combined into a single vector that shows a respondent's overall dispositions to be communal and agentic. We hypothesized that individuals with longer vectors—reflecting clear but restrictive dispositions with low scores in one region of the interpersonal circle (e.g., hostile dominance) and high scores in the opposite region (e.g., friendly submission)—would more readily resolve interpersonal dilemmas. As predicted, participants (total $n = 3758$) with longer vectors on circumplex measures of values, self-efficacy, and behavioral traits generally made interpersonal decisions more easily and confidently (although the effects were modest in size and were not uniform across the different measures). We suggest that because a long interpersonal vector may reduce flexibility as well as indecision, optimum vector length may depend on the context.

1. Introduction

The interpersonal circle or interpersonal circumplex (IPC) is a popular model for conceptualizing and assessing interpersonal dispositions (Fournier, Moskowitz, & Zuroff, 2011). Two orthogonal axes define the IPC: a vertical axis of dominance, control, or *agency* and a horizontal axis of friendliness, warmth, or *communion* (Wiggins, 2003). The IPC can be divided into broad segments (e.g., fourths) or narrow segments (e.g., sixteenths); however, inventories that have been designed to measure interpersonal dispositions from every IPC region typically divide the IPC into the eight octants shown in Fig. 1 (Locke, 2011).

The eight octants are often combined into a horizontal vector (showing a respondent's overall tendency to be communal *versus* uncommunal) and a vertical vector (showing a respondent's overall tendency to be agentic *versus* unagentic) as follows:

$$\text{Communal Vector} = \sum z_i * \cos(\theta_i) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Agentic Vector} = \sum z_i * \sin(\theta_i) \quad (2)$$

where z_i is the person's standard score on octant i and θ_i is octant i's angle in the IPC (for details, see Gurtman, 2011). Combining these two vectors yields an overall vector whose length can be computed using the Pythagorean theorem:

$$\text{Vector Length} = (\text{Communal Vector}^2 + \text{Agentic Vector}^2)^{1/2}. \quad (3)$$

Alternatively, employing the structural summary approach to summarizing IPC scale scores (Gurtman, 2011), vector length corresponds to the amplitude of the best fitting cosine curve.

A long vector indicates that the respondent has a simple, perspicuous interpersonal pattern with high scores in one region of the IPC and low scores in the opposite region. A short vector indicates that the respondent has equivalent (i.e., similarly low, similarly high, or similarly moderate) scores on opposite sides of the IPC. To illustrate, Fig. 1 displays the overall vectors for two hypothetical individuals, Lou Long and Sue Short. Both Lou and Sue scored above average in the agentic octants and below average in the unagentic octants; consequently, the overall vector for both Lou and Sue points upward. However, whereas Lou had extremely high scores in the agentic octants and extremely low scores in the unagentic octants, Sue had relatively moderate scores in every octant; consequently, Lou's vector was longer than Sue's.

Interpersonal theorists have generally emphasized potential negative consequences of longer vectors. The logic is that interpersonally adept people nimbly adjust their behavior to meet the requirements of the current situation (Carson, 1991; Leary, 1957; Paulhus & Martin, 1988). An individual whose personality encompasses dispositions from all regions of the interpersonal space (and thus has a short vector) will enjoy the flexibility to express whatever response—be it warm, cold, strong, or meek—that is most appropriate (Gurtman, 2011). Conversely, an individual with a long vector may be willing and able to express behaviors from just one narrow segment of the IPC, and consequently may often express behaviors that are inappropriate to the current situation.

The classic illustrations of the drawbacks of long vectors involve interpersonal complementarity. Complementarity refers to responding to one interpersonal act with another act that is similar in communion but opposite in agency (Sadler, Ethier, & Woody, 2011). For

* Corresponding author. Tel.: +1 208 885 4453; fax: +1 208 885 7710.
E-mail address: klocke@uidaho.edu (K.D. Locke).

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example, if Pam gives directions (+A + C), then a complementary response is following Pam's directions (−A + C); and if Nicole seeks guidance (−A + C), then a complementary response is giving Nicole guidance (+A + C). Returning to our Fig. 1 examples, Sue (who lacks a strong interpersonal preference) may be able to give both Pam and Nicole a complementary response; whereas Lou (with his extreme +A vector) may be able to give only Nicole, and not Pam, a complementary response. Research shows that individuals with longer vectors are in fact less likely to make complementary responses (Tracey, 2005; Tracey & Rohlfing, 2010), presumably due to their more restricted interpersonal repertoires.

There are also reports that vector length has consequences for personal and interpersonal distress more generally (McCarthy, Gibbons, & Barber, 2008), but these findings have been neither strong nor robust, perhaps because sundry variables moderate the effects of vector length (Pincus & Wright, 2011). Perhaps another reason why the effects of vector length on distress have proven fragile is that long and short vectors both have benefits as well as costs. Individuals with short vectors, whose personalities contain competing interpersonal dispositions, may be more flexible, but also more vulnerable to uncertainty or ambivalence about which disposition to express. Conversely, individuals with long vectors may have a more restricted range of interpersonal actions, but also more certainty and clarity about which actions are appropriate for them.

The advantages of a short vector are most evident in situations where there is a plainly "correct" behavior, such as when someone makes an unambiguous interpersonal invitation (e.g., approaches you with open arms for a hug) and to avoid unpleasantness you must be flexible enough to provide the complementary response. Conversely, the advantages of a long vector are most evident in situations where no particular response is best. Everyday life is rife with complex decisions in which each alternative has potential costs and benefits (e.g., "Should I accept this leadership position?", "Should I share this secret?"). To decide, one must not only know the situation, but also know oneself (e.g., "I can give orders", "Disclosing makes me feel vulnerable"). An individual with clear and definite interpersonal dispositions—and thus an elongated overall vector—may more readily resolve these complex interpersonal conundrums.

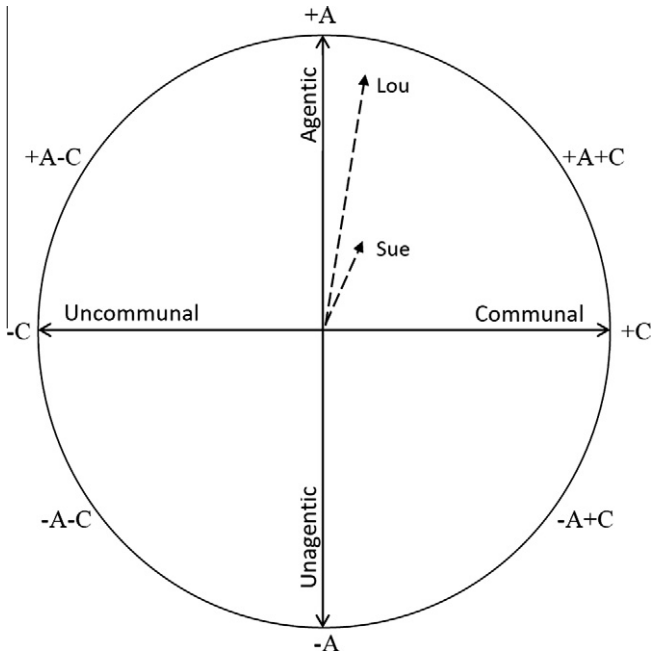

Fig. 1. The interpersonal circumplex. Displayed within the circumplex are the overall interpersonal vectors for two hypothetical individuals (Lou and Sue).

1.1. Overview of the studies

In four studies we tested the hypothesis that—when facing interpersonal dilemmas in which each option has potential costs and benefits—people with longer vectors will make a decision more readily. Studies 1 and 4 employed hypothetical interpersonal dilemmas; Studies 2 and 3 involved real interpersonal dilemmas. The results of the four studies did not differ in interesting or interpretable ways; therefore, in the analyses below we aggregated the four samples.

Because vector length may influence decision making in several ways, we used several different outcome measures. First, upon recognizing that multiple behavioral options exist, people with shorter vectors may be less likely than those with longer vectors to be drawn to one particular option; therefore, we assessed if participants felt ambivalent or *conflicted*. Second, people with shorter vectors may be more aware of trade-offs associated with each choice; therefore, we assessed if participants felt the choice was *difficult* and *worried* about making the wrong choice. Finally, even after making a choice, the price of paths taken and the benefits of paths not taken may remain salient to people with shorter vectors; therefore, we also assessed participants' *confidence* in their decisions.

2. Methods

2.1. IPC measures

Sundry interpersonal dispositions can be mapped onto the IPC (Locke, 2011). In our studies we assessed values (what interpersonal experiences are important to a person), self-efficacy (what interpersonal actions a person believes he or she can express), and traits (what interpersonal behaviors a person generally displays). Vector length may vary across different types of dispositions; for example, an individual may have unequivocal traits ("I often follow and rarely lead") but equivocal values ("I often want to follow and often want to lead").

Studies 1–4 assessed valuing of experiences from each IPC octant (e.g., feeling connected, being respected) with the Circumplex Scales of Interpersonal Values (CSIV; Locke, 2000). Respondents rated each experience on 0 (not important) to 4 (extremely important) scales. Study 1 participants (n = 181) completed the 64-item (8 per octant) version; Study 2–4 participants (n = 1612) completed the 32-item (4 per octant) version. Studies 2–4 assessed self-efficacy for actions from each IPC octant (e.g., giving orders, following orders) with the 32-item Circumplex Scales of Interpersonal Efficacy (CSIE; Locke & Sadler, 2007); respondents rated their confidence that they could perform each action on 0 (not at all) to 4 (extremely) scales. Studies 3–4 assessed behavioral traits from each IPC octant using the 32-item International Personality Item Pool-IPC (IPIP-IPC; Markey & Markey, 2009); respondents rated how well each phrase (e.g., "contradict others", "reassure others") described them on 0 (very inaccurate) to 4 (very accurate) scales.

We used randomization tests of hypothesized order relations to assess whether each measure's octant scales formed a circumplex (Tracey, 2000). A circular model makes 288 predictions about the relative magnitudes of correlations among eight octant scales (with stronger positive correlations between octant scales that are closer on the circle). The program RANDALL (Tracey, 1997) computes a correspondence index (*CI*) equal to the proportion of predictions met minus the proportion violated. The *CI* can range from −1.0 (all predictions violated) to 1.0 (perfect fit). Running

Table 1
Correlations among IPC variables.

	CSIV *M*	CSIV *C*	CSIV *A*	CSIV *VL*	CSIE *M*	CSIE *C*	CSIE *A*	CSIE *VL*	IPIP *M*	IPIP *C*	IPIP *A*	IPIP *VL*
CSIV *M*	1.0	**−0.01**	**−0.01**	**−0.03**								
CSIV *C*		1.0	**−0.10***	**−0.05**								
CSIV *A*			1.0	**0.05**								
CSIV *VL*				1.0								
CSIE *M*	**0.61***	0.09	0.24*	−0.07	1.0	**0.13***	**0.20***	**−0.19***				
CSIE *C*	0.01	**0.48***	−0.12*	−0.06		1.0	**−0.11***	**0.03**				
CSIE *A*	−0.04	−0.04	**0.50***	−0.04			1.0	**−0.17***				
CSIE *VL*	0.01	−0.03	−0.09*	**0.39***				1.0				
IPIP *M*	**0.27***	0.00	0.09	−0.05	**0.46***	−0.03	0.18*	−0.18*	1.0	**0.07**	**0.19***	**0.01**
IPIP *C*	−0.17*	**0.65***	−0.08	−0.10	0.30*	**0.72***	0.00	−0.16*		1.0	**0.02**	**−0.07***
IPIP *A*	0.14	0.04	**0.16***	−0.04	0.07	0.03	**0.45***	−0.12			1.0	**0.09***
IPIP *VL*	0.04	−0.14	0.00	**0.42***	0.01	−0.09	−0.02	**0.44***				1.0

Note: Theoretically interesting correlations are in bold-face: Correlations above the diagonal are between variables from the same IPC measure; correlations below the diagonal are between the same variable from different IPC measures. *M* = Elevation; *C* = Communion; *A* = Agency; *VL* = Vector Length. For *r*s between CSIV variables, *n* = 1796; for *r*s between CSIE variables, *n* = 1602; for *r*s between IPIP-IPC variables, *n* = 1309; for *r*s between CSIV and CSIE variables, *n* = 660; for *r*s between IPIP and either CSIV or CSIE variables, *n* = 286.
* $p \leqslant .01$.

RANDALL on the current samples, the *CI*s were .86 for the CSIV, .65 for the CSIE, and .97 for the IPIP-IPC, all *p*s < .001. Thus, all measures showed significant fit to a circular model (though the fit was superior for the IPIP than the CSIE).

For each measure we computed not only agency and communion and vector length (i.e., Eqs. (1)–(3)), but also a participant's response "elevation" or mean rating across all eight octants. Elevation may reflect an acquiescent or intense response style, and elevation on the IPC measures may be confounded with elevation on our outcome measures; therefore, we included elevation as a predictor in our analyses.

Reliabilities for the agency and communion dimension scores were computed as $r_{yy} = 1 - ((\sum(1 - r_{ii})w_i^2)/\sigma_y^2)$, where σ_y^2 is the sample variance of the dimension scores, the w_i are the weights (i.e., the sine or cosine) of the octant scores, and r_{ii} are the octant scores' reliabilities. The Cronbach αs for the agentic dimension and communal dimension were 0.65 and 0.83 for the CSIV, 0.83 and 0.71 for the CSIE, 0.89 and 0.86 for the IPIP.

Table 1 shows the correlations among the IPC variables (within and between measures). Relevant correlations are in bold-face font: Those above the diagonal show correlations among different variables derived from the same IPC measure, while those below the diagonal show correlations between the same variable from different IPC measures. The "above diagonal" correlations show that associations among predictor variables occurred, but were modest and inconsistent across IPC measures. The "below diagonal" correlations indicate that people who score higher on a particular variable on one measure tend to score higher on that variable on the other measures; for example, people with relatively long CSIE vectors tended to have relatively long CSIV and IPIP vectors.

2.2. Study 1

University of Idaho undergraduates (63 male, 117 female, 1 unknown) participated for extra credit in psychology courses. After completing the CSIV, they imagined themselves facing a specific interpersonal dilemma. One dilemma (given to 101 participants) involved choosing between an undesirable job located near where their romantic partner was living and a desirable job far away. The other dilemma (given to 80 participants) involved whether or not to use confidential information disclosed by a friend to advance their career at the expense of the friendship. After indicating their decision, participants rated "confidence in your choice" and "how difficult a decision would this be for you?" on 1–7 scales.

2.3. Study 2

University of Idaho undergraduates (107 male, 261 female; *M* age = 21.5 years, *SD* = 5.4) participated for extra credit in psychology courses. Participants completed two web-based questionnaires. The first questionnaire asked participants to "Think of a decision you're currently facing that involves how close or connected or involved to be with another person…". Participants described the decision (using initials, not names); example responses were "breaking up with JD" and "rooming with SC". Then they rated "How conflicted do you feel about this issue?" and "How worried are you about making the wrong decision?" on 20-point scales. One week after completing the first questionnaire, they were e-mailed a link to the second questionnaire which displayed the dilemma they had been facing and asked if they had made a decision; 239 participants had made a decision and 129 had not.

2.4. Study 3

We used Amazon's Mechanical Turk website (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011) to recruit English-speaking participants; usable participants (who finished the questionnaire and provided coherent responses to some open-ended questions) received $0.35 USD. The participants' genders were 106 male, 179 female, 9 unknown; their ages were *M* = 35.3 years, *SD* = 13.7; over 90% were American or Canadian, and 78% were of European ancestry.

The online questionnaire prompted participants to recall four different real interpersonal dilemmas using four prompts randomly selected from a set of 12 brief prompts; examples of these prompts are "*Please think of the most recent time when you had to choose between meeting new people versus keeping to yourself*" and "*Please think of the most recent time when you had to choose between going along with what others wanted versus sticking to what you wanted*". For each prompt participants briefly described the situation and then rated "How easy or difficult a decision was this for you?", "How conflicted or ambivalent did you feel about the choice you made?", and "How confident or certain did you feel about the choice you made?" on 7-point scales. We also administered the CSIV, CSIE, and IPIP-IPC (in varying orders interspersed between the dilemmas).

2.5. Study 4

We used Amazon's Mechanical Turk to recruit English-speaking participants (*n* = 2520); usable participants (who completed the online questionnaire and gave coherent responses to an open-

ended question) received between $0.12 and $0.18 USD. We also recruited 395 University of Idaho undergraduates. The participants' genders were 1106 male, 1798 female, 11 unknown; their ages were $M = 33.5$ years, $SD = 13.3$; approximately 95% were American or Canadian, and 76.6% were of European ancestry.

We created 20 hypothetical interpersonal dilemmas; two examples of these dilemmas are:

> You are at the movies. A few rows ahead there is a group of kids who are laughing and talking loudly at inappropriate times during the movie. Would you tell them to quiet down or would you just try to ignore them?

> You accept an invitation to go to a birthday party for one of your co-workers. When you get there, you end up sitting at a table with some of your co-worker's family and long-time friends. They all appear to know each other, but you do not know any of them. Would you try to break into the conversation or just listen quietly?

Each participant read one dilemma. After indicating what they would do, they rated "Would deciding what to do in this situation be easy or difficult for you?", "How confident or sure are you that this is what you would do?", and "Would you feel conflicted or ambivalent about your decision?" on 7-point scales. Next, they briefly described what they would be thinking or feeling (we just used this item to screen for unusable questionnaires). Finally, participants completed the CSIV ($n = 952$), CSIE ($n = 940$), or IPIP-IPC ($n = 1023$). Thus, each participant was randomly assigned to one of 60 different questionnaires (20 scenarios $\times$ 3 IPC measures).

3. Results

To review, Studies 1, 3, and 4 assessed if participants felt the decision was "difficult" and felt "confident" in their decision; Studies 2–4 assessed if participants felt "conflicted"; and Study 2 assessed if participants "worried" about choosing poorly and made a decision after one week. Because multiple studies assessed the same outcomes, we combined the four studies' data. To control for variance due to procedural variations, we standardized the outcome variables within studies and within different types of prompts or dilemmas before combining the data.

To control for variance shared between vector length and overall elevation and angular location on the IPC, we used hierarchical regression, first entering Elevation, then entering Agency and Communion, and then Vector Length. Consequently, effects of vector length were not confounded with individuals' general response tendencies and angular locations on the IPC. Table 2 shows the results.

As hypothesized, people with longer vectors were generally more decisive. Specifically, longer CSIV, CSIE, and IPIP vectors predicted resolving interpersonal dilemmas with less difficulty and more confidence. In addition, people with longer CSIV vectors felt less worried about making the wrong choice; people with longer IPIP vectors felt less conflicted or ambivalent; and people with longer CSIE vectors were more likely to have resolved a real interpersonal dilemma within 1 week. Although the pattern of results supported the hypotheses, the effects were typically stronger for the CSIV and IPIP than the CSIE, and were most robust for feelings of confidence.

Elevation, agency, and communion—although not the focus of our research—also had interesting effects. Elevation's effects were inconsistent across the IPC measures, suggesting that elevation reveals more than just acquiescent or extreme response tendencies. Specifically, people with elevated CSIV scores reported more worry, difficulty, and internal conflict, perhaps because they invest interpersonal situations with greater importance. Conversely, people with elevated CSIE scores, while worried about choosing poorly, ultimately chose with less difficulty and more confidence, perhaps because they enjoy a generalized sense of confidence that they can handle diverse interpersonal situations effectively.

Although the effects of agency and communion were somewhat inconsistent, greater agency and communion generally predicted more positive feelings. Our findings accord with many other findings suggesting that agentic and communal dispositions (e.g., extraversion) predict well-being. These findings also make sense in the current context: Agentic people pride themselves on being

Table 2
Outcomes as a Function of Elevation, Agency, Communion, and Vector Length.

Outcome		Elevation		Communion		Agency		Vector Length		
IPC Measure	*n*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*b*	*SE*	*% variance*
Worried (at week 1)										
CSIV	368	0.25**	.05	0.02	.05	0.03	.05	−0.10*	.05	1.1
CSIE	368	0.11*	.05	−0.08	.05	−0.13*	.05	−0.05	.05	0.2
Undecided (at week 2)										
CSIV	368	0.14	.11	0.03	.11	0.11	.11	−0.14	.12	0.4
CSIE	368	0.16	.11	−0.10	.11	0.11	.11	−0.30**	.12	1.6
Conflicted										
CSIV	1612	0.18**	.02	−0.01	.02	−0.10**	.02	−0.04†	.02	0.2
CSIE	1602	−0.06*	.03	−0.04†	.03	−0.11**	.03	0.02	.03	0.0
IPIP	1309	0.03	.03	−0.10**	.03	−0.08**	.03	−0.06*	.03	0.4
Difficult										
CSIV	1664	0.11**	.02	0.01	.02	−0.06**	.02	−0.10**	.02	1.0
CSIE	1473	−0.11**	.03	−0.02	.03	−0.09**	.03	−0.05†	.03	0.2
IPIP	1309	0.00	.03	−0.06*	.03	−0.05†	.03	−0.10**	.03	1.0
Confident										
CSIV	1665	−0.03	.02	0.07**	.02	0.09**	.02	0.12**	.02	1.5
CSIE	1473	0.20**	.03	0.09**	.03	0.06*	.03	0.09**	.03	0.7
IPIP	1309	0.02	.03	0.10**	.03	−0.03	.03	0.12**	.03	1.4

Note: Standardized regression coefficients. Elevation entered in Step 1; Communion and Agency in Step 2; Vector Length in Step 3. The final column shows the percent unique variance explained by vector length. The variable *Undecided* was dummy-coded (0 = decided, 1 = undecided) and subjected to logistic regression.

† $p \leqslant .1$.

* $p \leqslant .05$.

** $p \leqslant .01$.

decisive; and communal people favor socially desirable and normative actions (Leary, 1957), which may help them feel more confident about their choices.

4. Discussion

As hypothesized, people with longer vectors tended to make decisions with greater ease and confidence. Specifically, individuals with long vectors on the values measure—who presumably know what matters to them—made decisions with greater ease and less worry and felt more confident about their choices. Individuals with long vectors on the self-efficacy measure—who presumably know which interpersonal actions they can and cannot do—made quicker decisions and were more confident about their decisions. Finally, individuals with long vectors on the trait measure—who presumably know how they typically act—experienced less difficulty and ambivalence and more confidence.

Our results suggest that when facing dilemmas in which each alternative has potential costs and benefits, people whose interpersonal dispositions are less ambiguous and more perspicuous may more readily commit to a course of action. For example, a decision about whether to voice one's opinions at the risk angering others should be easier for individuals who value self-expression more than interpersonal harmony than it is for individuals who value self-expression and harmony equally. Moreover, the latter individuals may be prone to doubts even after taking action (e.g., if they express themselves they may regret any consequent disharmony, but if they silence themselves they may regret their timidity).

Many interpersonal theorists have emphasized the benefits of interpersonal flexibility because they have conceptualized personality as existing within "interpersonal fields of force" (Wiggins, 2003). If these fields of force make a particular interpersonal vector preferable, then having the flexibility to behave in that preferred manner is adaptive. For example, when someone makes a friendly offer to help, the complementary response is to accept the offer; but people who rigidly eschew unagentic communal ($-A + C$) behaviors may reflexively reject such offers, even when doing so entails unpleasant personal and interpersonal consequences. On the other hand, in situations that are too complex or cloudy to suggest a "correct" response, definite self-views (e.g., "I can take control", "I prefer to be quiet") can help provide clarity and overcome indecision. Beliefs about oneself—one's abilities, traits, and values—constitute an inner compass that can provide direction when the external situation alone cannot; by extension, one's overall interpersonal vector is like the needle of that internal compass, providing directions that are easier to perceive and follow if the needle is long than if it is short.

4.1. Limitations

The significant effects of vector length were modest in size (on average explaining just 1.1% of the variance in outcomes). Because interpersonal dilemmas arise frequently in everyday life, over time even these small effects may cumulatively have practical significance (in addition to their inherent theoretical significance). Nonetheless, the effect sizes affirm that vector length is just one of many factors influencing how readily people resolve interpersonal dilemmas.

Another reason for the modest effects may be that vector length measures the distinctness of an individual's interpersonal dispositions only to the extent that the individual's lay model of interpersonal behavior resembles the IPC (i.e., with dominance and submission as opposites, closeness and distance as opposites, and dominance and closeness as independent). Indeed, vector length has been shown to better predict the well-being and behavioral reactions of people whose intuitive model of interpersonal behavior more closely matches the IPC (Tracey & Rohlfing, 2010).

A related concern is the effects of vector length were inconsistent across the different IPC and outcome measures. For example, the effects of vector length were less robust for the CSIE than for the CSIV or IPIP-IPC. One explanation is that while knowing what one can and cannot do may clarify what actions are realistic, even unrealistic alternatives may be appealing. For example, people who lack self-efficacy for being assertive may readily decide to yield to others; however, if they recognize merits in being assertive, then they may still feel conflicted about their decision.

The participants we studied and measures we used may limit the generalizability of the results. First, our participants were almost all Americans and therefore may not be representative of people embedded in other cultural contexts. Second, our outcomes were self-report measures; replicating the findings using behavioral or physiological measures of distress or indecision (e.g., salivary cortisol) would help clarify the mechanism and rule out the influence of self-report biases. Third, we only studied a few of the available IPC measures, and our results may not generalize to IPC measures that we did not study, particularly measures of problems. For example, the Inventory of Interpersonal Problems (IIP; Horowitz, Alden, Wiggins, & Pincus, 2000) asks respondents to rate the degree to which they have been distressed by problematic interpersonal behaviors associated with each IPC octant. People with long IIP vectors express well-defined interpersonal dispositions, but problematic ones that have repeatedly contributed to actions they regret (e.g., being overly domineering); thus, it is counterintuitive that long IIP vectors would predict feeling untroubled when making interpersonal decisions.

4.2. Concluding thoughts

Is a well-defined but narrow set of interpersonal dispositions healthy or unhealthy? There may be no simple answer. Perhaps there exists an optimal "mid-length" vector that deftly navigates between the twin dangers of extremity (due to having a vector that goes too far in one direction) and uncertainty (due to having a vector so small that it provides no direction at all). More likely, though, is that the optimal vector length varies across contexts, and thus no one length is optimal in all contexts. Instead, what is optimal is to appreciate when better outcomes will arise from being more responsive to prevailing interpersonal pressures and when better outcomes will arise from being more responsive to one's enduring dispositions; however, while available IPC inventories can measure the degree to which respondents express specific interpersonal dispositions, they cannot discern whether respondents demonstrate this type of more encompassing interpersonal wisdom.

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