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Intuition

BYU Undergraduate Journal of Psychology

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From the Editor
Trace Lund

The beauty of an academic journal lies in the efforts given to bring it to fruition, and this eighth edition of Intuition has been no exception. After many hours and plenty of work, we present it to you, the reader. In the time and effort spent, many changes have taken place. Within the journal, you will now find portraits of our authors included with their articles, as well as some new formatting and other choices we hope will add to the journal's overall presentation. Behind the scenes, we have had changes in advisement, leadership, processes, and a near complete overturn in our staff which has brought new, fresh views on the journal. We look forward to each of these continuing to improve the journal in the future.

Many individuals deserve thanks for helping bring this volume to publication: our past editors and advisors who left us a great place to start; our new editing staff, including our incoming editors-in-chief Cara Duchene and Melissa Woodhouse; and our new faculty adviser Dr. Ed Gantt. All have been a great help and strength to the journal.

Additional thanks to our wonderful authors who have given a great effort in editing and honing already strong articles, as well as faculty members who have helped review and advise. Both have proved invaluable in the journal's progress. Lastly, special thanks to Michael Davison and Gina Prows, both of whom have had an immense impact for the better on this edition. I can't say thank you enough for your efforts.

This volume, "Baby Eight," is a witness to your hard work.

Happy reading,

Trace W. Lund,
Editor-in-Chief

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Sexual Violence in South Africa:
A Review of the Literature

Maria Lowry

Sexual and nonsexual violence are perpetrated in South Africa at an alarming rate. While the precise rates of these phenomena are unknown, several attempts have been made to estimate these as well as factors that contribute to violence in South Africa, specifically sexual violence. Within the literature there are three probable factors that drive sexual violence in South Africa: gender norms, economic adversity, and age hierarchies. Other factors that may contribute to sexual violence, such as religion, cultural norms, social myths, misconceptions about HIV/AIDS, and a violent national history, may be a result of or contribute to the gender, economic, and age factors that will be discussed in this review. Using sex as a means of projecting power is an overarching theme in the literature and in each of these three phenomena. This review will give future research a foundation upon which to build studies and theories surrounding this power struggle.

Violence in South Africa is consistently reported to have higher rates than most regions of the world (Abrahams, 2005; Boonzaier, 2003). A combination of poverty, drug and alcohol consumption, and other sociohistorcal constructs create an environment in which domestic and public violence can flourish. According to the World Health Organization (2002) almost half of South Africa's injury-based deaths are caused by interpersonal violence (2002, Seedat, Niekerk, Jewkes, Suffla, & Ratele, 2009). This rate is more than four times the international rate. One type of violence that has recently receive local and international attention is sexual violence.

Until recently, rape in South Africa was legally defined as "the imposition of unwanted vaginal sex by an adult man upon an adult woman" (Posel, 2005, p. 242). This definition excluded intramarital rape, homosexual rape, sodemy, and emerging incidents of baby rape. While recent legal definitions have broadened to include these phenomena, social definitions are slower to change. It is now illegal to have coerced sex with another person, but the social attitudes toward coerced sex are still permissive. This protracted change has been the subject of both quantitative and qualitative evaluation, the vast majority of which are qualitative. Abrahams and Jewkes (2002) noted in their epidemiological study that reliable quantitative data is difficult to gather given the unreliability of official sources and the underreporting typically found in surveys. Because there are inconsistent quantitative data, it is difficult to find a strong statistical relationship between any one factor and sexual violence. However, in combination, several studies have shed considerable light on the issue. Researchers need to know the depth and breadth of reliable data in order to continue investigating this subject. A review of the available qualitative data can provide a foundation that can guide empirical investigations of sexual violence. This review will explore how the combination of socially constructed gender norms, economic hardship, and age hierarchies seem to contribute to the sexual violence that permeates South Africa.

Gender Norms

In South Africa, adult men dominate the social infrastructure. Men in this position demand respect from subordinates, such as women and children and competition from other adult men. Sexual violence is often used as a tool to assert dominance over both groups. This assertion is done in a number of ways, namely using sexual abuse as a means of projecting power over women (Seedat, Niekerk, Jewekes, Suffla, & Ratele, 2009), a punishment (Petersen, Bhana, and McKay, 2005; Wood, 2005), and a means of expressing sexual entitlement (Boonzaier & de la Rey, 2003).

According to a review of violence and injuries in South Africa by Seedat, Niekerk, Jewekes, Suffla, and Ratele, (2009), "[t]he dominant ideals of masculinity… are predicated on a striking gender hierarchy" (p. 1015). This hierarchy is primarily based on men dominating women. Boonzaier and de la Rey (2003) conducted a

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qualitative interview study of 15 female residents in Mitchell's Plain, South Africa female residents who had suffered abuse from an intimate partner. These women were interviewed in order to gain a better understanding of their conceptions of masculinity and femininity. Many of these women echoed the idea that Seedat et al. (2009) presented. They felt that their abuse stemmed from a need for their abusers to gain power over them. According Seedat et al., the sexual abuse of these women was based on their abusers' need to assert power.

Jewkes, Penn-Kekana, and Rose-Junius (2005) conducted another qualitative interview study with 77 South African and Namibian participants. These participants included children (abuse survivors and others), parents, community members, and public informants such as police and social workers. The study observed a key phenomenon in South African gender relations: respect. "In South Africa…social relations between people of hierarchically different levels are governed by a notion of 'respect', which dictates appropriate practices in speech and action" (Jewkes, Penn-Kekana, & Rose-Junius, 2005, p. 1813). Wood (2005) elaborated on this phenomenon in her review of group rape in South Africa. According to Wood (2005), women who demonstrated assertiveness in the face of unwanted propositions from peers could be readily interpreted as an unhealthy arrogance, which signaled 'disrespect', and were sometimes punished through rape (p. 308).

Violating this gender hierarchy by disrespecting a male adult is grounds for immediate punishment, ranging from slapping to sexual abuse. Using sexual abuse as a punishment was one arena of sexual abuse that Wood (2005) explored. Both within and outside of the home, women who show disrespect toward men are deemed "arrogant" and are sometimes punished through rape. Seedat et al. (2009) elaborates on the principle of sexual abuse as punishment: "Physical violence is used to manufacture gender hierarchy (i.e., teach women their place) and to enforce this hierarchy through punishment of transgression" (p. 1015). Wood (2005) concluded that rape is one way that men, and sometimes boys, assert their dominance over the women they raped.

Petersen, Bhana, and McKay (2005) conducted interviews that led to a similar conclusion. In this case study, 10 group and 10 individual interviews were conducted from a volunteer convenience sample of boys and girls from ages 12-17. In the course of one of the girls' group interviews, a girl, commenting on rape in general, said that "it's a way to show the girl that she is still under their control. Boys like to punish girls" (Petersen, Bhana,

& Mckay, 2005, p. 1238). She continued that a brother would punish a sister by raping her if she is behaving better than he is. Rape is a tool to both bolster the status of the man and diminish that of the woman.

Boonzaier and de la Rey (2003) noted a pattern of male sexual entitlement in their interviews with abuse victims. One interviewee, Kathryn, said that "[b]ecause a man doesn't think what they do to a woman can actually make them cold where sex is concerned" (2003, p. 1016). In other words, a man can do what he wants to a woman because she cannot deny him sex (as a function of her lower status). Petersen et al. (2005), in their interview study, discussed this notion of sexual entitlement. In one of the girls' smaller group discussions, one girl said that "boys grow up thinking that he should get whatever he wants from a girl. She is supposed to respect him without any refusal. If he wants sex….a woman has to agree" (Petersen et al., 2005, p. 1237). The cultural notion that men have the right to have sex whenever and with whomever perpetuates gender norms in South Africa.

The socialization of women to be compliant in the face of any command from a man is engrained in children, male and female, early on. Young boys learn from the men around them how to treat women; girls learn from the women around them how to respect men. In the interviews conducted by Boonzaier and de la Rey (2003), several women described the necessity of complying with the needs and abuse of their partners, despite knowing that what their partners did was wrong. The authors noted that "[w]omen were frequently advised to reconcile with their husbands [after abuse]. Standards of femininity as nurturing, caring, and reconciliatory were thereby reinforced" (Boonzaier & de la Rey, 2003, p. 1014). A common thread in the participants' interviews was that it was their duty to comply with their partners' wishes. This compliance is evidence that gender norms are not only perpetuated by men, the most frequent perpetrators of sexual violence, but also by women, the most frequent victims (Jewkes et al., 2005).

There is a clear hierarchical relationship between the men, women, and children of South African society, a relationship in which men reside at the top. While there are other major contributions to sexual violence in South Africa, the unequal status of men and women must be recognized and addressed in future research.

Economic Hierarchy

Poverty in South Africa is another factor that is closely tied to sexual violence. Several studies have postulated notable, but weak, correlations between economic adversity and gender violence (Boonzaier & de la Rey, 2003; Motapanyane, 2009; Shisana, Rice, Zungu, & Zuma, 2010; Wood, 2005; Seedat et al., 2009; Bryant & Vidal-Ortiz, 2008; Jewkes et al. 2005; Petersen et al., 2005). While a definitive relationship between economic status and sexual violence is yet to be identified, postulated correlations deserve recognition if only to invite future study and data collection.

Both Wood (2005) and Seedat et al. (2009) discussed the problem of unemployed men and their proclivity to resorting to violent means of entertainment and power. These men have time to spare and no legal means of income. Wood (2005) used the South African term tsotsi, a common label, to refer to a "disaffected, unemployed young man who survives on his wits, lives through criminal means and often uses fear and coercion to maintain personal power" (p. 306). Several studies conducted outside of South Africa indicate that "unemployment, in particular male youth unemployment…is the most consistent correlate of homicides and major assaults" (Seedat et al., 2009). Physical assault rates often indicate an underlying gender hierarchy that can promote sexual assault. Despite the currently tenuous correlation between these three variables (male unemployment, physical assault, and sexual assault), they warrant further exploration.

While unemployed men may contribute to many of the problems surrounding sexual violence and therefore require further research, employed women also necessitate further research. Women who stay home face the threat of sexual abuse, but employed women in South Africa face three unique threats: criticism, punishment and assault in the home, and the necessity of leaving children at home and vulnerable. Boonzaier and de la Rey (2003) noted that women who earned more than or equal to their partners were at increased risk of being abused (p. 1019). One employed woman recalled her husband saying, "If I hit you down now, then I will get you at the level that I want you" (p. 1019), implying that when the economic control of a household is in the hands of a woman, her male partner is likely to feel that his power is threatened.

This increases the likelihood of abuse.

In addition to physical and sexual threats while they are home, working women also face the risk of leaving their children unsupervised or supervised by equally vulnerable younger relatives. Jewkes et al. (2005) noted that children are at increased risk of being abused by older male relatives especially in the absence of their mothers. Motapanyane (2009) and Petersen et al. (2005) supported this claim. Motapanyane (2009) thoroughly examined the history of employed women in South Africa in her doctoral dissertation, and found that working mothers leaving their children for extended periods of time left those children susceptible to abuse from both young and adult men. Petersen et al. (2005) saw the problem of unsupervised children differently, but with just as much affiliation with sexual violence. In one boys group interview, they said that "in the olden days…boys were treated like children...They knew they had to be home at a certain time. Nowadays they go until late…and no one never knows if they have raped…maybe they are with a girl to whom they are proposing and may rape her" (p. 1241). Absent parents may create both a physical and socio-structural danger for potential perpetrators and victims.

Jewkes et al. (2005) and Boonzair and de la Rey (2003) identified perhaps the strongest relationship between economic hardship and sexual abuse: the woman's financial inability to leave the abuser. In many cases, women who face the prospects of greater poverty and losing the home, overlook rape as a means of survival (Jewkes et al., 2005, p. 1817). In other cases, "women described how their partners' economic control forced them to overlook their personal needs and sometimes even their basic survival needs" (Boonzaier & de la Rey, 2003, p. 1020). The issue of a mother's economic dependence on her abusive male partner is recurring. This intense economic sanction can easily perpetuate the acceptability of intimate partner violence.

Overall, economic adversity creates another power struggle in which men can, and often do, punish women. These punishments include sexual violence. In her editorial on Africa's sexual health and rights, Wasserman (2006) summarized that it is nearly impossible to negotiate when women are economically disempowered (p. 392). Thus, while an employed woman is more likely to be a threat to her partner, and thus abused, abused unemployed women are less likely to be able to leave the abuser.

Age Hierarchy

The final social construct that contributes to sexual violence in South Africa is the pervading age hierarchy in which the old have more power than the young. One interviewee in the study by Jewkes et al. (2005) summarized this concept: "[c]hildren have no status and if you are a girl you have less status" (p. 1813). The South African notion of respect and status are applicable beyond gender relations. Baby and child rape function within this archetype and has been the focus of several studies and reviews (Posel, 2005; Jewkes et al., 2005; Richter, 2003; Seedat et al., 2009). Sex as a means of control, as has been demonstrated throughout this review and in the literature, continues to be evident in exercising power of the older over the younger.

Both Seedat et al. (2009) and Sikweyiya and Jewkes (2009) make note of young boys taking advantage of younger boys. Sikweyiya and Jewkes (2009) conducted in-depth interviews of 31 young men aged 18-25. Many of their accounts recalled incidents of older boys sexually abusing them. Several participants recounted that perpetrators lure would-be victims by using material goods, such as toys or cigarettes. After these "gifts" were given, perpetrators would use their status as an older man and as a provider to coerce victims into sex. Most of these incidents occurred when there was no adult supervision present. Many of these cases are examples of obligatory, rather than forced rape. One boy recounted, "after that we got into the forest, this man said to me, 'Hey what I want is just for us to have sex, after that I will give you money'…and he drew up a knife and raped me" (Sikweyiya & Jewkes, 2009, p. 533). This particular interview is an example of rape.

One emerging phenomenon that pertains to the age hierarchy is baby rape. Richter (2003) offered an operational definition of child rape and its distinction from pedophilic obsession. On the one extreme, a pedophile chooses a child based on a preference of age or gender. On the other, a drunken stranger uses a child or infant as a prop to achieve a "quasi-masturbatory orgasm" (p. 396). She went on to report that 15% of rape victims in South Africa are under the age of 12, and that 10% of rape victims are under the age of 3 (p. 394-395). Jewkes et al. (2005) concurs with Richter's (2003) differentiation. "[C]hild rape is not a fringe activity of a small number of

psychologically disturbed men or pedophiles" (p. 1810).

In contrast to other researchers, Sikweyiya and Jewkes (2009) explored the existence of the age hierarchy between older women and younger boys. While the scope of this kind of abuse is unknown, it is part of the age hierarchy in which abuse is tolerated. Interviewed male victims recalled feeling intimidated and uncomfortable, but not necessarily abused by the women who "seduced" them. However, according to the United States Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (Program, 2007), intercourse with a person who is unable to decline because of intimidation or pressure constitutes sexual violence. According to the authors, "[t]he men recognized that they were interested in sex at the time they were seduced, but… there was a strong suggestion in the narratives that they had been taken advantage of by women who were much older" (Sikweyiya & Jewkes, 2009, p. 536). There was a consistent pattern of "seduction" as opposed to physical coercion. Older women tended to take advantage of the social necessity of the young obeying the old.

The most important element of the age hierarchy, from a research standpoint, is the cyclical nature of sexual violence. Seedat et al. (2005) argues that the previously discussed constructs of age, poverty, and gender lead to "intergenerational cycling of violence" (p. 1014). Girls who are exposed to sexual abuse early on are at increased risk of being raped as adults, while boys who are sexually abused are at increased risk of becoming sexual abusers (Seedat et al., 2009). Additionally, Abrahams and Jewkes (2005) conducted a study assessing the effects of sons witnessing the abuse of their mothers. Their results supported the cyclical nature of intimate partner violence by finding a significant correlation between male participants witnessing the abuse of their mothers and their tendency to abuse later in life. The correlation between early life events and later propensity to abuse warrants further study and recognition.

Conclusion

The discussed constructs feed off of each other, making identifying any singular cause nearly impossible. Their combination is what makes them so effective. If one hierarchy fails, then another can take its place. Any attempt to change attitudes and behavior surrounding sexual violence will have to attack all three hierarchies. These changes can only be made after much more research is conducted, awareness is raised, and laws enforced. By knowing exactly where the attitudes are coming from,

how they are perpetuated, and how they can be corrected, South Africa's men and women start to change the way they think about and prosecute sexual violence.

The vast majority of studies conducted in South Africa pertaining to sexual abuse are qualitative. Abrahams and Jewkes (2002) noted in their epidemiological study on sexual violence that reliable quantitative data were difficult to gather given the unreliability of official sources (hospital and police records) and the underreporting typically found in surveys (embarrassment, taboo, negative stigma, etc.). "We conclude that the rape statistic for the country is currently elusive but levels of non-consensual and coerced sex are clearly very high" (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002, p. 1231). Many other studies and reviews agree with this projection (Abrahams et al., 2005; Boonzaier & de la Rey, 2003; Ghanotakis, Mayhew, & Watts, 2009; Heaven, Connors, & Pretorius 1998; Petersen et al., 2005; Seedat et al., 2005; Wasserman, 2006).

Many other reports agree with that analysis and cite the difficulty of gathering accurate statistics. This difficulty lends justification to the high quantity of qualitative, small-scale studies. Interview studies of victims, their families and neighbors shed light on possible causes and contributing factors. However, Richter (2003) and many others insisted that no correlational data could pinpoint causes of sexual abuse. Boonzaier and de la Rey (2003) summarized that there are complex interrelated reasons why some individuals choose sexual violence (Hoff, 1995; O'Neill, 1998, p. 1020). While finding the rape statistic is problematic, future research should focus on finding out how widespread these attitudes about gender, money, and age are. The literature suggests that these attitudes are prevalent. The next step is to find out how prevalent they really are.

There are a plethora of additional reasons that individuals in South Africa may resort to sexual violence that are beyond the scope of this review. A few of these are religion, specifically Christianity and its perpetuation of patriarchy (Boonzaier, 2003), belief in rape myths (Jewkes et al., 2005), violent national history (Motapanyane, 2009), impunity (Jewkes & Abrahams, 2002; Wood, 2005), the Virgin Cleansing myth (Petersen, 2005; Richter, 2003), and many others.

Whether for these reasons or those discussed within this review, sexual violence in South Africa warrants further study. With the limited qualitative data available, it is paramount that quantitative studies analyze the possible relationships between the social constructs here discussed of sexual violence. Both further quantitative and qualitative data can help improve government, non-

governmental organizations, familial and individual approaches to prevention (Ghanotakis et al., 2009) and correction of sexual violence in South Africa.

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Gender & Visiting Hours:

Male and Female Adherence to the Visiting Hours as Stated by the BYU Honor Code

Taylor Smith Reeves, Kelli Dougal, Rachel Grant, Adrian Grow, and Kimberly Nelson

The intent of this study is to examine how closely males and females attending Brigham Young University report to adhering to The University's Honor Code regarding visiting hours, which are from 9 a.m. until midnight. Three-hundred-nineteen single students participated in our survey. The survey asked a series of integrity-based questions related to whether or not the participant complied with The University's strict Honor Code. There was no significant statistical difference between male and female knowledge of the visiting hours as outlined in the Honor Code. However, males reported they were less likely than females to adhere to the visiting hours and females were more likely than males to report speaking up regarding group obedience to the Honor Code visiting hours. This could be because guys believe such actions make them seem more independent and masculine, whereas girls are hoping to give off an opposite impression.

Brigham Young University (BYU) is known for having a strict "honor code" to which all students must adhere. Unlike most universities, students at BYU consent to observe dress and grooming standards, abstain from alcohol, use clean language, and participate in church services. Students who sign the Honor Code agree that they will abide by the residential living standards, which includes honoring the university-approved visiting hours. These visiting hour guidelines state that students cannot be in an apartment belonging to a member of the opposite sex after midnight (or after 1:30 AM on Friday nights). By signing the Honor Code, students consent not only to adhere to these guidelines, but they also agree that they will "encourage others in their commitment to comply with the Honor Code" (Brigham Young University, 2010). But just because a student signs the Honor Code, does this mean that he or she will strictly adhere to it? Not necessarily.

At BYU, students are expected to uphold the Honor Code whether there is an authority figure present or not. Milgram (1963) found that people are prone to obey those that they perceive as authority figures; however, a review of the literature finds that there is a surprising lack of research on whether or not people obey rules when their behavior is not strictly monitored. There is clearly a need for more studies focusing on obedience in self-monitored situations. Our study aims to add to the literature by discovering whether or not there are sex differences in obedience when no authority figures are present, specifically by looking at which sex is more likely to encourage others to adhere to the rules. Due to the lack of research done on the differences of obedience between the sexes, our study was designed to measure adherence to the Honor Code policy.

Blass (1999), in reviewing Milgram's studies, found that there were no significant differences in sex obedience. Nevertheless, researchers have found differences in male and female conformity, especially when studied in group settings (Eagly & Chrvala, 1986). Eagly, Wood, and Fishbaugh (1981) found that females generally do not change their opinions when confronted with a group. In terms of obedience, this seems to suggest that even when faced with opposition, females will be likely to adhere to rules if they have previously decided to do so. However, they may not have an easy time influencing others to also comply with rules; while females can successfully exert influence over other females, males tend to resist influence by females, especially if the latter try to be direct in their approach (Carli, 2001).

On the other hand, researchers found that when males display dominance, it is more effective at encouraging influence than similar displays by females (Driskell, Olmstead, & Salas, 1993). In fact, in group interactions, people are more likely to overtly agree with and defer to the opinions of males than those of females (Wagner & Berger, 1997). In other words, males are more likely to have the power to influence a group than females are. This gives males a lot of influence over whether or not others decide to comply with guidelines such as the BYU Honor Code. But are males actually more likely to encourage obedience?

According to Eagly (1981) and her colleagues, males are concerned with not appearing easily influenced. As a result, males may adjust their behavior towards more stereotypical "masculine" traits such as independence and away from "feminine" traits such as submissiveness (Williams & Best, 1990). Thus, males may be less likely to conform to rules because they feel that nonconformity helps them to portray a more masculine image and appear less easily influenced.

In this study, we asked males and females questions regarding their obedience to the Honor code and believed that males would be more likely than females to advocate disobedience. While we recognize that visiting hour violations involve both a male and a female offender, we felt that males would be more likely to actively encourage breaking the Honor Code. Taking into consideration previous research, we also designed questions regarding an individual's willingness to speak up and speculate that females would be more likely to speak up and promote compliance with the visiting hour guidelines.

To test our hypothesis, we developed a questionnaire designed to measure BYU students' compliance with the visiting hour guidelines. The questionnaire assessed whether students themselves were obedient to the rules, but it also determined whether or not they tried to encourage others to obey as well.

Methods

Participants

Participants consisted of a convenience sample of 319 individuals. The sample included 111 males and 208 females. The Honor Code policy states that men and women cannot be in an apartment belonging to a member of the opposite sex after midnight or before 9 a.m. A survey that was constructed of 13 items was designed to measure the participant's adherence to the Honor Code policy. Four of the thirteen items were demographic questions. Three items on the survey were negatively worded and reverse scored to account for agreement bias. A face validity question was included to distinguish if participants could infer the purpose for the survey (see Appendix A for final questionnaire).

Test Administration

The survey was a standardized electronic survey that was administered over a 25-day span. The questionnaire was administered through an online third-party website called Qualtrics (www.qualtrics.com) to participants

recruited from a networking website, Facebook (www.facebook.com), through a BYU website (www.blackboard.byu.edu), a ward website (http://groups.google.com/group/BYU22/) and through hard copies administered in person.

Statistical Analysis

The reliability of the survey was measured using Cronbach's alpha to determine internal consistency. Validity measures included a face validity item. An independent samples t-test was conducted on each item to discern whether there were statistically significant differences between male and female responses. The statistical package SPSS 18 was used to analyze all data.

Results

According to an analysis of Cronbach's alpha, the test's internal consistency was highly reliable, demonstrating that the test had good internal consistency between questions ($\alpha = .866$; see Table B1). The majority of participants were able to correctly identify the purpose of the study; therefore, our survey had high face validity.

Independent samples t-tests revealed that there were statistically significant differences between male and female responses on items 6, 8, 11, and 12, demonstrating that females were more likely than males to answer "frequently" or "always" to the items "I speak to my roommates when they have visitors past visiting hours" and "I ask members of the opposite sex to leave my apartment when visiting hours end." Males were more likely to answer "frequently" or "always" to the items "I invite people over for an activity knowing it won't be over by the end of visiting hours" and "I allow people of the opposite sex to stay past visiting hours (see Tables B3-B6; see Appendix A).

Dicussion

Though this survey only measured one aspect of the BYU Honor Code, it provided a good starting point for measuring each sex's attitude towards obedience.

We predicted that males would be more likely to report breaking the Honor Code visiting hours and females would be more likely to report speaking up and promoting guideline compliance. The results partially supported these hypotheses. An examination of the responses to Item 5 (Did you know that the BYU Honor Code states that visiting hours start at 9AM?) demonstrated that males

were slightly more aware of the Honor Code stipulations regarding visiting hours according to the mean score; however, the difference between male and female responses was not statistically significant (see Figure B1 and Table B2). Results showed that despite having a greater knowledge of visiting hours specifications, males were slightly less likely than females to encourage others to comply with rules when no authority figures were present. Males reported feeling more comfortable than females allowing members of the opposite sex to say past visiting hours, and they were significantly more likely to invite people over for an activity knowing that it would go past visiting hours. A significantly greater number of females than males responded that they would ask the opposite sex to leave at the end of visiting hours. Also, when compared with males, more females reported that they would speak to roommates who frequently allowed visitors to stay past the visiting hours curfew.

It is important to note that although males reported a more lenient attitude, they did not seem to be actively encouraging non-compliance with the Honor Code. One explanation for this behavior is that males are expected to initiate relationships; thus, they may feel justified spending more time with females to invest time into such relationships, even if it means ignoring the visiting hours guidelines. However, further research is necessary to validate this conclusion.

A notable strength of our study was that a great number of respondents filled out our survey—we had over 300 participants. Another strength is that our questionnaire was administered by the survey-hosting site Qualtrics, which lent to its standardized administration. Items were given in the same order and participants were required to answer each question in order to continue the survey. Standardized administration gives this study high levels of reliability ($\alpha = .866$).

Inadequacies in our survey manifest themselves in the form of unequal representation of both sexes drawn from a convenience sample. An overwhelming majority of our sample were upperclassmen females. Freshman who live on campus are under housing rules that are more strictly enforced than seniors living off campus. If a more representative sample of sex and class rank had been achieved, the results would be more generalizable. Additionally, the study's sensitive nature may have caused students to feel apprehensive because it questioned their moral character. Although the study was anonymous, students may have answered in ways that did not accurately reflect their actions to decrease the risk of disciplinary

action and to appear more socially desirable.

This study is a beneficial addition and new starting point to the current research on sex differences in obedience, specifically when no authority figures are present. Future studies could explore other aspects of the Honor Code (i.e. academic honesty, language, observance of dress and grooming standards) as well gender differences in the workplace, relationships and even sporting events. This would allow conclusions to be generalized to other populations. Policy makers at BYU should be aware of differences between the sexes when it comes to upholding the Honor Code visitation hours. Males may have to be addressed differently than females when it comes to implementing new policies. With this said, there should be more research done before such actions are taken place.

Questionnaire

1.   Gender:
         Male--Female

2.   Relationship Status:
         Single--Married

3.   Year in school:
         Freshman--Sophomore--Junior--Senior

4.   Type of housing:
         BYU On-campus--BYU Off-Campus--Other (e.g. parents, grandparents, etc.)

5.   Did you know that the BYU Honor Code states that visiting hours start at 9AM?
         Yes--No

6.   I speak to my roommates when they have visitors
         Never--Rarely--Frequently--Always

7.   When I am in a group, I speak up when visiting hours end.
         Never--Rarely--Frequently--Always

8.   I ask members of the opposite sex to leave my apartment when visiting hours end.
         Never--Rarely--Frequently--Always

9.   When visiting someone of the opposite sex, I am asked to leave when visiting hours end.
         Never--Rarely--Frequently--Always

10. I feel comfortable leaving 10-15 minutes after visiting hours end.
         Never--Rarely--Frequently--Always

11. I invite people over for an activity knowing it won't be over by the end of visiting hours.
         Never--Rarely--Frequently--Always

12. I allow people of the opposite sex to stay past visiting hours.
         Never--Rarely--Frequently--Always

13. What do you think this survey is measuring?

Appendix B
Tables and Figure

Table 1
Chronbach's Alpha

	Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's alpha standardized	N
	.866	.866	7

Table 2
Independent Samples Test for Item 5

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Did you know that the BYU Honor Code states that visiting hours start at 9AM?	Equal variances assumed	8.77	.003	-1.30	399	.20	-.073
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.31	191.77	.1	-.073

Table 3
Independent Samples Test for Item 6

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
I speak to my roommates when they have visitors past visiting hours...	Equal variances assumed	5.21	.02	-2.42	399	.02	-.28
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.54	207.77	.01	-.28

Table 4
Independent Samples Test for Item 8

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
I ask members of the opposite sex to leave my apartment when visiting hours end.	Equal variances assumed	.52	.47	-2.46	399	.01	-.31
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.43	184.40	.02	-.31

Table 5
Independent Samples Test for Item 11

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
I invite people over for an activity knowing it won't be over by the end of visiting hours.	Equal variances assumed	.34	.56	2.62	399	.009	.28
	Equal variances not assumed			2.56if	179.58	.01	.28

Table 6
Independent Samples Test for Item 12

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
Did you know that the BYU Honor Code states that visiting hours start at 9AM?	Equal variances assumed	.97	.32	2.95	399	.003	.29
	Equal variances not assumed			2.73if	164.81	.007	.29

Figure 1
Questionarre Means
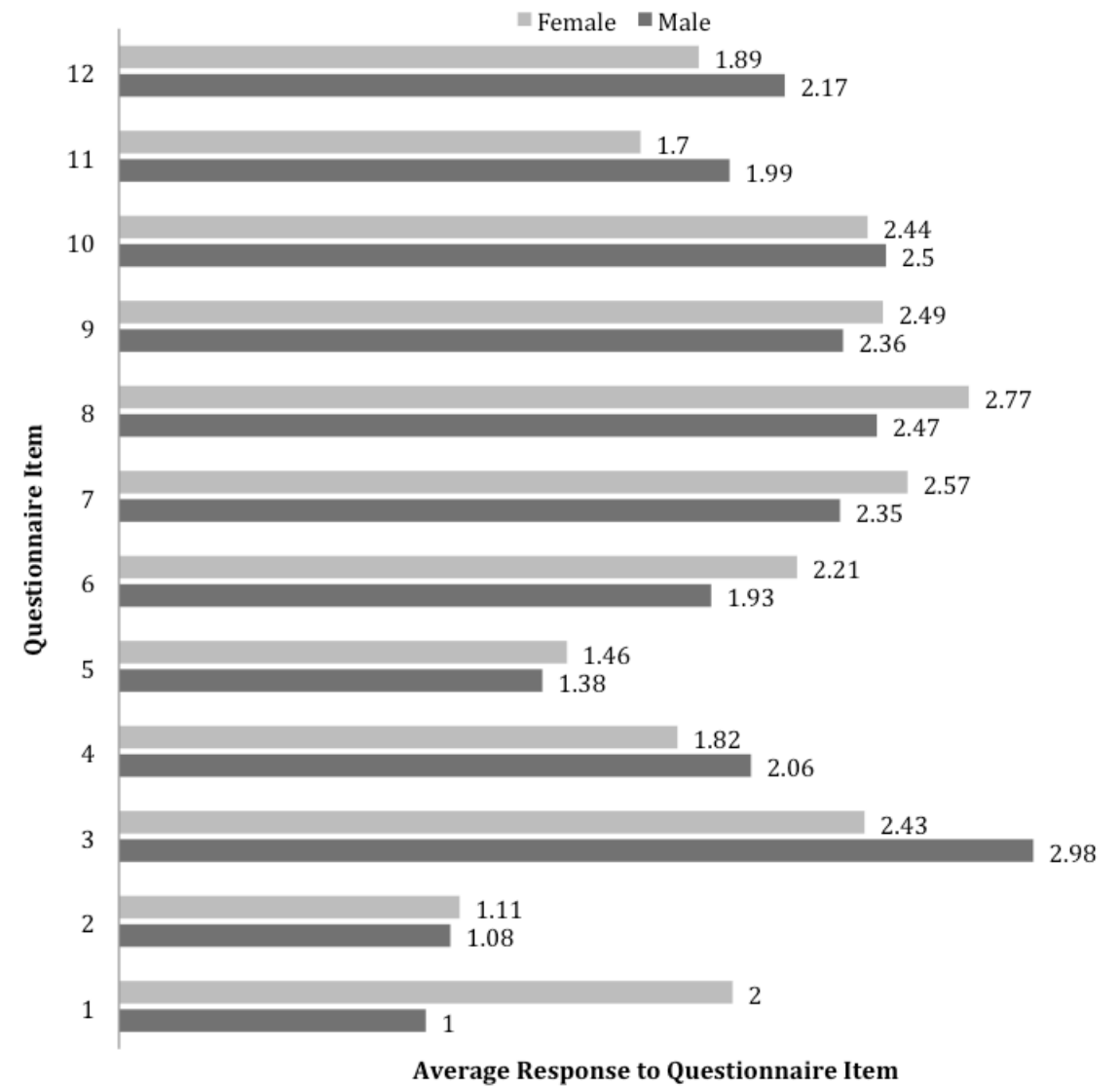
Numbers correspond with responses for each item on the questionnaire (e.g. a rating of 4 corresponds with "always," 3 with "frequently," 2 with "rarely," and 1 with "never")

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Narcissism in Social Interactions:
Measurement Design and Validation

Gwen Coulson, Katherine Ashby, and Annalisa Ellsworth

Narcissism, generally defined as selfish egotism, has a derogatory effect on personal relationships. In an effort to help employers and others anticipate and avoid social conflicts arising from narcissistic behavior, we created the Narcissism Sociability Index (NSI). Our hypothesis assessed narcissistic behavior in two domains, grandiose state of mind and severely disturbed social relations, in an attempt to shorten the previously established Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI. Raskin & Hall, 1979). The NSI is a 10-question self-report measure using a 6-point Likert scale. We used a convenience sample consisting of 105 Brigham Young University (BYU) students, their families, and friends. The NSI had questionable internal consistency (α = .62). Content validity ratios ranged from .12 to .92. Principal component analysis showed the highest loadings on the first and second components, which corresponded with our hypothesis. Only two questions loaded onto other factors. These results indicate that small revisions could lead to large increases in the reliability and validity of the NSI. Possible future directions for the NSI as a tool in the workforce are considered.

Narcissism may be best defined as a self-regulatory system that constantly adjusts in order to maintain and enhance positive self-views through utilizing the social environment (Campbell, Bush, Brunell, & Shelton, 2005). Over the past 30 years, from 1976 to 2006, narcissism rates among young adults have risen 30% and are continuing to rise (Twenge, Konrath, Poster, Campbell, & Bushman, 2008). Although many measures of narcissism have been created and rigorously analyzed, many of the measures seek to cover a wide range of the different dimensions of narcissism (i.e. superiority, grandiose exhibitionism, exploitativeness, entitlement, authority, self-absorption, etc.). Furthermore, the Narcissistic Personality Inventory (NPI), considered one of the most comprehensive measures of narcissism, has been critiqued as ambiguous due to the many dimensions it seeks to measure simultaneously (Watson & Biderman, 1993). According to Corry, Merritt, Mrug, and Pamp (2008), "additional NPI research is needed to rescale, modify, or omit several NPI items and develop gender-equivalent items" (p. 593). In addition to these suggested revisions to the current NPI, another need exists within the efforts to measure narcissim. This need is the creation of measures focused on explicitly measuring the different aspects of narcissim. Ackerman et al., (2011) proposed that the current version of the NPI uses an overall summary score that may be merging all of the different manifestations of narcissim. This approach is harmful because different aspects of narcissim may be overlooked and lost in the overall score (Ackerman et al., 2011).

Another condsideration when measuring narcissim is the length of the measure. Ames, Rose, and Anderson (2006) developed the NPI-16 in an effort to create a shorter measure of narcissim that could be administered more easily and quickly. While the NPI-16 proved to be a valid alternative to long forms measuring narcissim (i.e. the NPI- 40) it was unidimensional in its approach of the construct (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006). Therefore, combining focus with brevity, we strove to create a valid, compact measure of socially detrimental narcissism. Narrowing our focus we sought to measure a few of the aspects of narcissim that contribute to detrimental social interactions. We chose to create a measure of socially detrimental narcissim hoping it could lead to early detection of narcissistic behaviors and help employers and others anticipate and avoid social conflict arising from narcissistic individuals. In addition to narrowing the focus, we sought to shorten our measure of narcissim so it could be more easily administered in a wide variety of settings.

For the purposes of this study, we operationally defined narcissism as the degree to which one maintains a grandiose state of mind or is involved in severely disturbed interpersonal relations. A grandiose state of mind is defined as individuals perceiving themselves as superior to others and considering the concerns of others less important than their own (Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002; Dimaggio et al., 2002; Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Pincus et al.,

2009). Severely disturbed interpersonal relationships are defined as individuals being easily offended, having ideas of reference, and struggling to sustain long-term relationships (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Campbell et al., 2002; Dimaggio et al., 2002).

Many researchers agree that one of the main dimensions of narcissism is having a grandiose state of mind (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Campbell, Foster, & Finkel, 2002; Dimaggio et al., 2002; Pincus et al., 2009). Part of this state of mind is narcissists' belief that they are more valuable than and superior to others (Campbell et al., 2002). They have a strong egocentric bias and a lack of moralistic bias (Paulhus & John, 1998). Pincus et al. (2009) defines narcissistic grandiosity using several intrapsychic processes. These processes include repressing negative aspects of the self, having strong feelings of entitlement, distorting information that does not conform to a positive view of the self, and having an inflated self-image without the skills and accomplishments required to justify and sustain it. Other research has found narcissistic individuals with a grandiose state of mind are likely to openly regulate self-esteem through self-enhancement, denying weaknesses, and devaluing people who threaten their self-esteem. Narcissistic individuals also make demands of entitlement that are overbearing and show persistent anger in unmet expectations (Dickinson & Pincus, 2003).

The social consequence of narcissists continuously "working on" maintaining their grandiose view of themselves is that they see others primarily as a source of confirmation (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). In attempts to receive the feedback they desire, narcissists can frequently demand more from their relationships, and eventually destroy the very relationships upon which they are dependent (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001). A recent study found that narcissists see themselves as having the right to demand and take what they want, while others have the duty to give and admire them. This expectation leads to dysfunctional interpersonal relationships that are often interrupted as others refuse to supply the admiration that the narcissists demand (Dimaggio et al., 2002). This pattern of exploitation leads to a deficiency of close relationships (Morf & Rhodewalt, 2001; Campbell et al., 2002; Dimaggio et al., 2002), and explains why narcissists have difficulty in maintaining favorable relationships over time (Back et al., 2010; Holtzman, Vazire, & Mehl, 2010). Furthermore, narcissists are often oblivious to the dissonance between their expectations and reality and the impact that this dissonance has on their relationships

(Dickinson & Pincus, 2003).

Although there are many different dimensions of narcissism, a grandiose state of mind and severely disturbed relations are two domains that capture much of the socially undesirable behavior elicited by narcissists. Through creation of a concise measure, levels of narcissism in individuals can be effectively and efficiently identified. The purpose of this study, therefore, was to create a measure of social narcissism and test its factor structure, internal consistency, and validity to determine its utility for future use in identifying social narcissism. We hypothesized that the Narcissism Sociability Index (NSI) would reliably and validly measure socially inhibiting narcissism.

Method

Participants

The participants in our survey totaled 105. We gathered a convenience sample consisting of Brigham Young University (BYU) students, their friends, and family members. Participants included 31 males ages 15 to 58, (M =35.52, SD = 12.65), and 74 females ages 18 to 70, (M =34.58, SD = 15.68); one participant did not include age information (see Table 1 for demographic data). Participants were recruited by email and Facebook (www.facebook.com).

Item Construction

The NSI was created from a pool of 30 items. Twenty-five members of an undergraduate psychology class judged the relevancy of 30 items to our two domains. Content validity ratio (CVR) ratings were computed and 10 items with CVR ratings ranging from .92 to .12 were selected (see Table 2). Three of the five negatively worded questions received less than an adequate CVR rating (the minimum acceptable value being .37), but were selected in order to avoid inaccurate responses due to thoughtless responss, or agreement bias effects. All negatively worded questions were reversed scored. We used a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly agree) to 6 (strongly disagree) in an effort to help participants more accurately rate their behaviors and to give them an option in the middle that still forced the participants to either side of the scale (see Appendix A for the NSI survey).

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Statistical Analysis

We used principal component analysis to find what factors our items loaded onto and eigenvalues and scree plot deflections were checked to ascertain factor structures. The reliability of the NSI was determined using Cronbach's alpha to measure internal consistency, and Pearson bivariate correlations to measure the strength of the linear relationships between test items. Face validity was checked by an open-ended question asking what participants thought the survey was measuring. All data were analyzed using SPSS 18.0.

Results

Factor Analysis

A factor analysis revealed four components with eigenvalues greater than 1 (eigenvalues = 2.47, 1.72, 1.19, and 1.05) that accounted for 64.37% of the variance (see Table 3). This four-factor solution was inconsistent with our initial intent of developing a questionnaire that accessed only two factors (see Figure 1). Most of the items had primary loadings on the first and second component, except for Items 3 and 5 of the questionnaire (see Appendix A; Table 3). Item 4 had equal loadings on the first and second components, indicating that this question was not objectively characterized by either factor. We conclude that only the first and second components of the NSI corresponded with our initial domains which included characteristics of a grandiose state of mind and severely disturbed interpersonal relations.

Reliability

Cronbach's alpha indicated that the test's internal consistency was questionable (α= .62; see Table 5), showing that the items did not efficiently assess the same intended construct and domain. A Pearson bivariate analysis revealed that 20 of 45 correlations were significant (see

Table 5), suggesting a weak linear relationship between the majority of test items ($p < .05$; see Table 6).

Validity

Two of 10 items had very high content validity ($\geq$ .82), one item had high content validity ($\geq$ .76), three items had adequate content validity (.60), and four items had low content validity ($\leq$ .12; see Table 2). Less than one percent of participants correctly identified the construct, indicating that the test is not face valid.

Discussion

Although there are many aspects of narcissism, we constructed the NSI in an effort to create a more valid, compact measure of socially detrimental narcissism. Factor analysis revealed that four components were captured by the NSI. Of the four components, the domain of grandiose state of mind was the most heavily weighted, accounting for much of the variance. Severely disturbed relationships, the only other domain intentionally measured, was the second most heavily weighted. While the domains of a grandiose state of mind and severly disturbed relationships were the most heavily weighted, the loadings on each domain suggest that the items did not discriminate well between the two domains. Moreover, the third and fourth components (non-identifiable) had multiple loadings on each factor. Further analysis revealed that the NSI had questionable internal consistency and reliability. This could have been due to the presence of the third and fourth components. Although the domains of grandiose state of mind and severely disturbed relationships were not the only two factors measured by the NSI, editing and revising the NSI could result in greater reliability and more accurate measurement of our desired domains.

A source of error that may have influenced the ratings of the NSI is participants' self-serving bias. The individuals' desire to portray themselves in a positive way may have suppressed the negative aspects of narcissism that they recognized in themselves. In addition, those with narcissistic traits seldom view themselves as narcissistic. Failing to report these traits could have also influenced ratings. Furthermore, our sample consisted of many more females than males. These gender differences may also have influenced our results. Although the NSI had low face validity, the questions still asked participants to admit undesirable attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, even though the overwhelming majority of participants did not know that the NSI was measuring narcissism, they

still could have felt the need to moderate their answers. This moderation may have resulted in inaccurate ratings and skewed results.

Error in the NSI could have also arisen from the non-expert panelists of the CVR. Panelists were undergraduates in a psychology course who were assigned to participate. They were not experts in the field of narcissism and rated few items as essential. While several factors may have contributed to rating decisions, most students are busy and always hurrying could have led panelists to speed through the ratings, not pausing to think about the construct and two domains. Questions chosen because of high CVR ratings may not have been the questions that best applied to the two domains.

External validity could be improved by capturing a more representative sample. Data were gathered from a convenience sample of Brigham Young University students and their close friends. Application of our measure in the workforce would require a sample of workers. A sample of working BYU students would provide a sample more representative of the workforce.

Although reliability and validity were questionable, the NSI scale did measure the targeted two domains. Extraneous measures of the third and fourth components could be eliminated by discarding Question 3, the only loading for Component 3, and Question 5, the only loading for Component 4. By replacing Questions 3 and 5 with questions that fall under our expected domains, reliability may increase and a more specific measurement of our two domains could be achieved that may yield significant results. Elimination of Questions 3 and 5 alone would not improve reliability, but would instead decrease

reliability (.42, see Table 7), largely due to the small number of questions used in our measure. To increase reliability, more accurate questions aimed at measuring our two domains would have to be added.

Although the NSI was an attempt to create brief, focused measurement of socially detrimental narcissim it did not prove to be as valid as the NPI-16 (Ames, Rose, & Anderson, 2006) and did not measure our hypothesized domains succinctly. Further development of the NSI is needed before it may be used in the workforce. However, use of a more accurate NSI could lead to early detection of narcissistic behaviors and help employers and others anticipate and avoid social conflict arising from narcissistic individuals. Although the goal of this measure of narcissism is to be as compact as possible, increasing the number of questions could prove beneficial, provided the NSI does not grow to the length of other measures (i.e. NPI-16, NPI-40). Continued editing of questions to apply more directly and accurately to our domains may yield a stronger measure of narcissism. It may also be advantageous to consider other domains of narcissism that are socially detrimental, such as narcissistic individuals' need for external validation.

The aim of the NSI was to measure socially detrimental narcissism accurately, concisely, and reliably. The NSI proved to have questionable reliability. Further research is needed not only to improve reliability and validity of this measure, but also to determine the most appropriate domains for a measure of socially detrimental narcissism and to ensure that the scale measures socially detrimental narcissism as accurately as possible.

Appendix A
Tables

Table 1
Demographics

	Male		Female		Sum	
Total	31	29.52%	74	71.43%	105	
Average age	35.52		34.58		35.05	
Married	18	17.14%	50	47.62%	68	64.76%
Single	10		17	16.12%	27	25.71%
Divorced	1	.95%	2	1.90%	3	2.86%
Widowed	1	.95%	1	.95%	2	1.90%
Separated	0	0%	3	2.86%	3	2.86%
Dating	1	.95%	3	2.86%	4	3.81%

Table 2
Content Validity Ratio

Item	CVR
1	.44
2	.76
3	.84
4	.20
5	.60
6	.12
7	.60
8	.60
9	.28
10	.92

Table 3
Component Matrix

	Component 1	Component 2	Component 3	Component 4
01		.55		.34
02	.50	-.50		
03	.30		.75	
04		.60	.51	.38
05	.52			.60
06	.45	.67		
07	.74			
08	.62			
09	.41	.50	-.44	
10	.68			-.52

Table 4

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.47	24.74	24.74	2.47	24.74	24.74
2	1.72	17.23	41.97	1.72	17.23	41.97
3	1.19	11.90	53.86	1.19	11.90	53.86
4	1.05	10.51	64.37	1.05	10.51	64.37
5	0.86	8.57	72.94			
6	0.77	7.69	80.63			
7	0.76	7.58	88.21			
8	0.45	4.52	92.73			
9	0.41	4.12	96.84			
10	0.32	3.16	100			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

% = Percentage

Table 6

Pearson Correlation Coefficients

	Item 01	Item 02	Item 03	Item 04	Item 05	Item 06	Item 07	Item 08	Item 09	Item 10
Item 01	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Item 02	.32**	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Item 03	.03	.23*	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Item 04	.22*	.35**	.14	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Item 05	.02	.28**	.17	.52**	1	-	-	-	-	-
Item 06	-.23*	.05	.15	.14	.09	1	-	-	-	-
Item 07	.12	.25**	.01	.27**	.16	.14	1	-	-	-
Item 08	.08	.08	.03	.20*	.26**	.33**	.06	1	-	-
Item 09	.16	.07	.18	.34**	.21*	.07	.28**	.28**	1	-
Item 10	.04	-.01	.04	.03	.21*	.03	.21*	.43**	.27**	1

* Significant at 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Significant at 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 5

Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Standardized	N
.62	.62	10

Table 7

Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Standardized	N
.41	.42	8

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Positive and Negative Effects
of Various Coaching Styles on Player Performance and Development

Aaron Singh

This review highlights the important role that coaches play in the physical and psychological development and performance of athletes under their stewardship; it also explores various types of techniques used by coaches to accomplish their goals and objectives and examines the effectiveness of these coaching techniques on the players and their ability to perform on the field. Two main ideals will be considered: the coaching techniques and the effects of those techniques on the athletes. Though there are various methods of coaching, this review will use three examples of coaching methods. The result of this review may prompt coaches to evaluate their coaching and leadership styles and make appropriate adjustments. For the purpose of this review, the coach will be placed as the leader role of the team.

The main purpose of a coach is to maximize the performance of his or her athletes, help them reach a higher level than they could have done alone, and develop a winning team. "Coaches are known to fulfill many different roles including leader, psychologist, friend, teacher, personnel manager, administrator, fundraiser and role model" (Côté, 2004).

The skill development of a player involves training and learning, therefore, it becomes important for the coach to use proper coaching techniques. The coach must find a balance between helping his or her players reach their full potential as athletes and achieving success through winning, so that one purpose does not inhibit the other. "During competition it is important that a coach wisely manages the tension between 'coaching to win' and coaching for learning" (Naylor, 2006). The question "What makes a good coach?" can then be debated between a coach that concentrates on the players and their individual development as an athlete, and a coach who measures success through a win/lose ratio. It may be argued that the ideal coach is the person who can balance or achieve both.

Coaching Techniques

From a humanistic perspective, a coach can conduct leadership through five different methods: training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support and positive feedback (Gardner, Shields, Bredermeier & Bostrom, 1996). "Coaching, from this point of view, capitalizes on a person's inherent tendency to self-actualize and looks to stimulate a person's inherent growth potential" (Ives, 2008). Similar to coaching, psychotherapy shares the purpose of developing individuals, enhancing their potential and creating a supportive relationship (Ives, 2008).

On the other hand, the goal-oriented approach is a strict goal-focused or solution-driven approach (Ives, 2008). One primary function is to promote autonomy of the players. In order to establish autonomy, the player must implicitly apply goals upon them self. According to Grant (2006), "Coaching is essentially about helping individuals regulate and direct their interpersonal and intrapersonal resources to better attain their goals." However, the concept of the goal-oriented approach is to increase performance and tactics of the team, without regard of individual feelings and thoughts (Ives, 2008).

Lastly, autonomy support from coaches shows the readiness of the coach "to take the others perspective, provide appropriate and meaningful information, offer opportunities for choice, while at the same time minimize external pressures and demands" (Black & Deci, 2000). The player's ability to become autonomous was determined by the type of environment that the coach put them in. Reinboth, Duda, & Ntoumanis (2004) said the fulfillment of the players basic needs and well-being (e.g. Do they have fun?) is essential for self-determined, goal-directed behavior. They also found that the majority of the players in their study agreed their coaches supported methods that induced autonomy amongst the players. Players

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who were placed in environments and were given duties generally had feelings of responsibility and accountability for their own behavior. However, not all players lived up to the expectations or wanted the responsibility given them. This feeling may change as the players continue to increase their skill and become more experienced. The coach places trust in the player by encouraging autonomy. This placement of responsibility and accountability may be part of player development.

Effects on Athletes

In order to receive positive results, the humanistic approach to coaching relies on positive feedback and a care for the individual's needs and feelings. Conroy & Douglas Coatsworth (2004) revealed that psychosocial training increased coaches' use of reward/reinforcement. Positive reinforcement through either a reward system or verbal compliments appears to increase performance.

The goal-oriented approach typically aims to achieve its goals in a comparatively short space of time and normally focuses on a relatively defined issue or end result (Ives, 2008). This method allows very little empathy for the players, and uses a negative psychological approach. A potential downfall to this method is that it usually focuses on a short-term end result, leaving little or no concern for long-term goals. The lack of empathy usually contributes to a negative relationship and environment between player and coach. Baker, Cotes and Hawkes (2000) "suggest that negative rapport between coach and athlete is an important contributor to athlete anxiety." Based on studies on negative coaching, this method may produce short-term results, but it can be unsustainable. The goal-oriented approach was unsuccessful, and destroyed team cohesion when coaches used negative techniques. These included abusive language, inequity, player ridicule, and poor relationship (Turman, 2003). However, when coaches used positive feedback, it promoted higher levels of task cohesion (Turman, 2003).

The type of autonomy made available to players depends on the coach because he or she is the authoritative figure. An interpersonal relationship, according to Reinboth et. al. (2004), can be a strong influence in determining the psychological, emotional, and physical effects (both positive and negative) of sport involvement. These influences are affective, yet have only been proven through short-term research. During the course of this review there appears to be no current research available on the long-term effects on players from the autonomous style of coaching.

Conclusion

Coaches play an important role in the level of enjoyment and performance of their players; parents share a similar role (Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1986). In comparison with the goal-oriented and autonomous methods of coaching, the humanistic style appears most affective for player development and performance; one of the determining factors for this was positive feedback from players about their coaches. These motivating factors included inspiration direction, personal relationship, inspirational devices and support. Turman (2003) found coaches could promote higher levels of task cohesion for their players by using training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support and positive feedback. His studies also found that positive feedback brought better team cohesion and therefore better overall performance. It may be argued that the humanistic approach to coaching is the most effective method that can balance both player development and winning. According to Grant (2006), "Coaching is essentially about helping individuals regulate and direct their interpersonal and intrapersonal resources to better attain their goals." Coaches who understand this concept may avoid negative punishment or reinforcement techniques and move toward a more positive approach.

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Women and Eating:
Cognitive Dissonance versus Self-Perception Theory

Brennan Atherton, Karen Call, and Kathryn Huff

Eating attitudes and eating beliefs in females might be explained by cognitive dissonance (conforming beliefs to match behaviors) or self-perception theory (beliefs inferred by behaviors). A sample of 129 female undergraduates, divided into three groups, were taken to see if the food they ate affected their attitude towards food or body image. A healthy food group consisted of low calorie foods, a junk food group consisted of high calorie foods, and a control group was given no food. Participants completed the Eating Attitudes Test (EAT) and Body Image Scale (BIS). There were no differences between groups on BIS (p=0.60), suggesting no differences in body image perception. The healthy food group scored significantly lower on the EAT (p<0.05) than the junk food and control groups, suggesting that cognitive dissonance is a possible explanation for the discrepancy. This is due to lower scores on the EAT, which are considered to be more healthy.

Knowledge about what it means to have healthy eating behaviors is more widespread than ever before, and is taught early in elementary schools (Blom-Hoffman, Kelleher, Power, & Leff, 2004). The internet has also become one way of spreading knowledge of healthy eating through websites, such as mypyramid.gov (http://www.mypyramid.gov). Since health information is so widespread, unhealthy eating choices can be puzzling. One study suggested that overweight and obese women may continue their eating behavior, due to them enjoying food (Barberia, Attree, & Todd, 2008). Additionally, eating disorders, such as anorexia and bulimia nervosa show a cause for concern (Swanson, Crow, Le Grange, Swendsen, & Merikangas, 2011). Although there is no conclusive evidence regarding dysfunctions in eating, two possible theories for this inconsistency are self-perception theory and cognitive dissonance theory.

Self-perception theory is the idea that a person assumes their attitudes are based on their actions (Bem, 1967). Hence, this theory suggests that women who eat poorly would infer that they continue to eat unhealthy food because they enjoyed it. This is consistent with the study of Barberia, Attree, & Todd (2008). Another study available on self-perception theory shows that people tend to make decisions about what foods they eat based on taste (Elfhag & Erlanson-Albertsson, 2006), and not based on societal attitudes regarding healthy food (Powell & Amsbary, 2004). In regards to women and eating behavior, the research in the field is lacking.

Cognitive dissonance occurs when a person's behaviors are not aligned with their beliefs (Festinger, 1957). The dissonance that occurs may bring them to change their beliefs, and to make them in alignment with their behaviors (Festinger & Carlsmith, 1959). One study showed that Irish females have existing beliefs about what is healthy eating. Participants in the study reported feeling more positive feelings when they followed the dietary guidelines accepted by society (Hearty, McCarthy, Kearney, & Gibney, 2007). Societal pressures can also cause cognitive dissonance in women. Researchers found that females who failed to meet societal expectations regarding thinness changed their attitudes about what was healthy eating (Greenfeld, Quinlan, Harding, Glass, & Bliss, 1987). In a similar study, researchers found that females were more likely to indulge in particular foods when they believed that the foods were lower in calories, when compared to other higher calorie foods (Gonzales & Vitousek, 2006).

Body image is also an important aspect, related to eating behavior. In this study, there were women who ate either a banana or a donut. Tension scores increased for those women who ate a donut, but decreased for those that ate a banana. Additionally, body image was affected by what food the women ate (Hayes, D'Anci, & Kanarek, 2011).

Because of the prevalence of unhealthy eating behaviors in our society, it is important to know whether cognitive dissonance or self-perception theory best explains the discrepancy between an individual's eating beliefs and attitudes, as well as a person's eating behaviors. No research

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has been done directly on this topic directly, however, there is research to support cognitive dissonance over self-perception theory in general (Ross, 1973; Woodyard, 1972; Green, 1974). Additionally, we believe that there is more preliminary research to support cognitive dissonance over self-perception theory when it comes to eating behavior, as previously mentioned. It is hypothesized that the discrepancy between eating attitudes and beliefs would be better explained by cognitive dissonance theory than by self-perception theory. A secondary hypothesis includes that women will have a lower body image if they eat unhealthy food, rather than healthy food.

Method

Design

This study consisted of three groups—two experimental and one control. Each group had a minimum of 30 randomly assigned participants. The dependent variables were the participants' body images and perceptions of food. The independent variable was the kind of food given to the participants in the two experimental groups—whether the participants were given junk food (i.e. fruity candies, cookies, and M&Ms, etc.) or healthy food (i.e. fruits and vegetables).

Participants

Participants were selected from college age females, using a convenience sample. Fliers were given in introductory psychology courses on the campus of Brigham Young University; also, fliers were distributed to various undergraduate psychology classes, and females were invited outside of the testing classrooms before the testing was to take place. There were 90 participants in the study that ranged in age from 18-25. The average age of the women was between 20 and 21 years of age. Most were white females from a middle class economic status. Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained prior to beginning the study. Each of the participants also signed an informed consent form prior to participating.

Measures

The students were each given the Eating Attitudes Test (EAT), which was a questionnaire to test the attitudes of women when it comes to eating. Lower scores on the EAT were considered more healthy. The EAT assessed dieting behaviors, thoughts about bulimia, food preoccupation, self-control, and perceived pressure from others to gain weight. Higher scores indicated a clinical eating disorder

(Ocker & Lamb, Jensen, & Zhang, 2007). The EAT was used in assessing those with eating disorders, such as anorexia and bulimia nervosa (Meadows, Palmer, Newball, & Kenrick, 1986). The EAT was used to diagnose each participant's attitudes in regards to eating behavior. Examples of test items included questions about dieting and guilt about over-eating (Garner & Garfinkel, 1979). Participants were asked to rate the statements on a Likert scale, from 1 (not very likely) and 5 (very likely). The validity and reliability of the EAT were established by Ocker et al. (2007), who calculated a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) of 0.91. A Body Image Scale (BIS) was given, where participants were asked to rate their body image on a scale of 1-10 with 1 being "not at all satisfied" and 10 being "highly satisfied." Each EAT was scored by the administrators, as well as the BIS. Four demographics questions were asked of the participants: age, year in school, height, and weight. Food pyramid questions were administered to test the participants' knowledge of the food pyramid questions were given, as well. These assessed how well they knew about the food pyramid from mypyramid.gov.

Procedures

After the consent form was signed by the participants, the study was administered to 90 female college students that were conveniently assigned to one of three different groups. The control group was brought into a room and given the EAT, the BIS, demographic questions, and food pyramid questions. After filling out the forms, the control group participants were given a debriefing and a snack as compensation for participating.

The first experimental group was brought into the room and each participant was given a variety of junk food to choose from and eat before the experiment started. After this, the EAT, BIS, demographic questions, and food pyramid questions were administered. After completing the measures, the participants were debriefed.

The second experimental group was given healthy food to eat. After eating their food, the participants of this group were given the EAT, the BIS, the demographic questions, and the food pyramid questions. They were asked to fill out the surveys and then they were debriefed in the same manner as the first two groups.

Results

Analytic Strategy

Data was analyzed using both inferential and descriptive statistics. The means and standard deviations of each groups' demographics were used to determine whether or not there were any differences between groups. Analyses of variance (ANOVA) on the dependent variables were conducted using the General Linear Model (GLM) in SPSS.

Data Quality and Manipulations Check

There were no significant demographic differences between the three groups, when using an ANOVA; the groups were sufficiently randomized. See Appendix A.

The dependent variables were roughly normally distributed. See Appendix A. Results on the EAT were negatively skewed. See Appendix C. Results on the BIS were slightly positively skewed. See Appendix C. However, the skewness was slight enough that the analyses were not affected. See Appendix A.

The manipulation check for this experiment was a series of questions given at the end of the EAT. Most participants in both experimental groups responded that they were not affected. See Appendix A.

Findings

The authors first compared the three groups on the EAT. As can be seen in Table 1 of Appendix A, there was no difference between the junk food group (M = 110.85) and the control group (M = 110.76). However, the difference between the control group and the healthy food group (M = 103.15) approached significance (p = 0.086). The authors noticed that some participants in the experimental groups did not take the food they were offered, which was the experimental manipulation. Seventy-five percent of participants in the healthy food group took the food offered, but only 51.9% of the participants in the junk food group accepted the offered food (the difference is statistically significant with p < 0.05). The authors controlled for whether or not the participants in the experimental groups ate the food they were offered, and the difference between the groups were significant (p < 0.05). This meant that, on average, participants in the healthy food group scored lower on the EAT than the control group. Hence, participants in the healthy food group had healthier eating attitudes than participants in the control group.

A secondary hypothesis was that those who ate the junk food would have a lower score on the BIS than those in the control group, and that those who ate the healthy food would have a higher score on the BIS. No difference between the groups was found. As evidenced in Table 1, all three groups had a relatively similar score on the BIS (p = 0.60). This hypothesis that eating junk food or healthy food would affect how the participants viewed their bodies was not supported.

Only 10.9% answered one or more of the food pyramid questions incorrectly, with only six missing more than one and just three people incorrectly answering all four questions. See Appendix B. There were no significant differences between groups (p = .382). This infers that nearly 90% of the women in this study had a high knowledge of what healthy eating was. Therefore, they could not infer healthy or unhealthy eating attitudes, based off of their behavior.

Dicussion

The authors hypothesized that eating different kinds of food would have an effect on the attitudes and beliefs that females have about food and about eating. The idea was that any difference the authors found would be explained by cognitive dissonance theory. The difference the authors found between the scores on the EAT of the control group and the healthy food group suggest that eating healthy food does indeed lead to a difference in attitudes about eating and about food in general. The differences could not be explained by self-perception theory, due to the preexisting knowledge of the food pyramid questions.

Most participants seemed to have preexisting ideas and attitudes about eating, based on their correct answers to the food pyramid questions. Therefore, self-perception theory could not be a correct explanation for the test results. Instead, cognitive dissonance provides a more feasible explanation for why a difference was found between the groups. The authors' experimental manipulation led to cognitive dissonance within the participants, who then changed their attitudes about food and about eating. This was made evident when comparing the healthy food group with the other two groups. Why else would the attitudes change to a significant level? We purport that the healthy food group changed their attitudes to align with their healthy eating behavior. What is still not understood is why eating the junk food did not shift women's EAT scores significantly higher than the control. They stayed

relatively the same.

More people chose to indulge in the healthy food than the junk food ($p < 0.05$). See Appendix A. This is similar to the results of the Gonzales and Vitousek (2006) study, which found that when females believed a food had a lower calorie value, they were more likely to indulge in that food. Based on this evidence, it seems that people are aware of their need to eat healthier foods; however, an implication of the fact that there are still a lot of people eating unhealthily is that this knowledge needs to become more widespread than it is.

Another implication of more females eating the healthy food than the junk food is that if females knew the calories healthy food possessed, they would be more likely to indulge in healthy food, rather than in junk food. In addition, the caloric value of healthy food is not something that is readily accessible in society, due to there not being nutritional labels placed on healthy food in some instances. Also, the availability of junk food is more conveniently accessible than the availability of healthy food. Due to junk food being cheaper than healthy food, females seem to be encouraged to eat junk food. Healthy food should be made more available and cheaper than junk food, encouraging even more women to eat healthy food rather than junk food.

Limitations

A potential limitation is that some females may have wanted to present themselves in a certain way, and some may have answered the questions based on what they thought the authors wanted. The authors had no way to control for this, and it possibly could have affected the face validity of the study. Another limitation is that not all participants accepted the food that they were offered, stating that they were not hungry or that they did not like the food offered. In the healthy food group, 25% of the participants did not accept the food offered. In the junk food group, 48.1% of the participants refused the offered food. This limited the impact of the experimental manipulation on the dependent variables.

Future Directions

Future research in this area of study should take into account the limitations of the authors' study. The specific question of how a person's eating attitudes would change immediately after eating a certain kind of food was not answered by the authors' cross-sectional study. Instead of conducting a cross-sectional study, researchers could follow participants and test them before and after eating different kinds of food. Researchers could also conduct a study incorporating a more broad population of females than just females at Brigham Young University, which would make the results more generalized. Future researchers could conduct the study at a consistent time of day, such as lunchtime or dinnertime, when participants would be more likely to accept food because of their hunger. Researchers could also compare results on tests given at lunch or dinner. This would show results at other times of the day when participants would not normally eat. In this way, any effects of hunger on eating behaviors and attitudes could be shown.

Appendix A
Demographics and Variables

Table 1
Demographics and Independent Variables.

Demographics	Experimental Group #1 (Health food)	Experimental Group #2 (Junk food)	Control Group	p value
Age	20.14 (4.64)	20.28 (2.34)	21.12 (5.12)	.528
Year (% freshmen)	57.5%	35.2%	24.2%	.119
Height (inches)	65.49 (2.24)	65.86 (2.20)	65.18 (3.46)	.492
Weight (pounds)	136.75 (23.47)	138.47 (21.59)	137.97 (19.48)	.929
Affected by eating food (% Yes)	27.5%	20.8%		0.449
% Ate food	75%	51.9%		0.022
Dependent variables				
EAT	103.15 (13.09)	110.85 (19.66)	110.76 (19.43)	.021
BIS* (1-10)	6.73 (2.11)	6.58 (1.85)	6.24 (2.31)	.60

*Body Image Scale

Appendix B
Incorrect Responses

Table 1
Number and percent of participants who incorrectly answered questions about the food pyramid used to measure for self-perception theory.

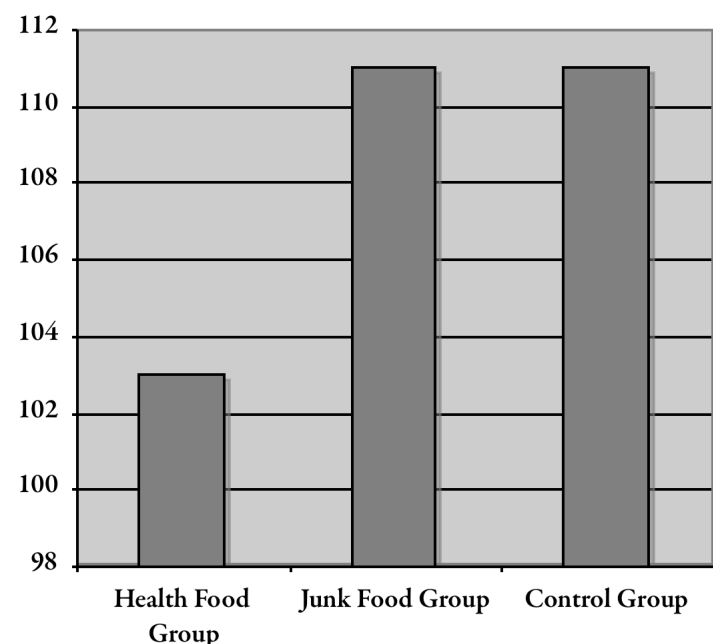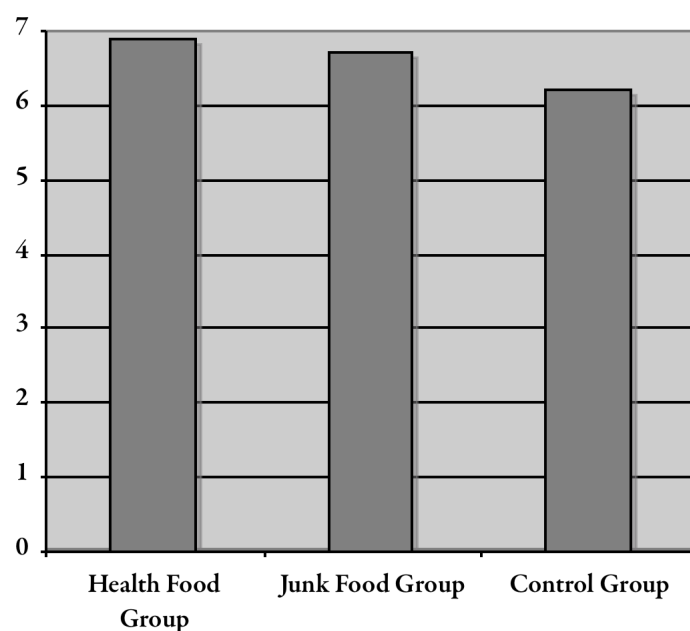|	Missed 0	Missed 1	Missed 2	Missed 3	Missed 4
Group 1 (healthy)	34 (82.9%)	5 (12.2%)	1 (2.4%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.4%)
Group 2 (junk)	50 (90.9%)	3 (5.5%)	1 (1.8%)	0 (0%)	1 (1.8%)
Group 3 (control)	31 (93.9%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (3.0%)	1 (3.0%)
Total	115 (89.1%)	8 (6.2%)	2 (1.6%)	1 (0.8%)	3 (2.3%)

Appendix C

Figure 1
EAT Means by Group

Figure 2
BIS Means by Groups

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Getting the Internship

By Gina Prows and Trace Lund

Internships can be a great opportunity to explore potential areas of interest, make meaningful connections, and gain experience in the workplace. However, even the market for internships can be competitive. Here we present some relevant questions answered by our community of internship hiring professionals from several organizations. These contributing organizations offer internship experiences in a variety of fields and range in location from on-campus to out-of-state. We're confident that their insight will be an extremely valuable resource to psychology undergraduates and recent graduates hoping to take advantage of some unique opportunities in the internship world.

Question 1

Sometimes students are unable to obtain an internship or job because they don't have the right kind of experience. What kind of work can a student do independently to stand out as a competitive applicant for an internship?

L. Campbell: Students should have volunteer experience of some kind. It shows they have served in some capacity in high school, in their community, or church. Many times it is not necessary to have experience in the same field, but just show you have been willing to serve. You can also express how willing you are to work with a certain population.

S. Duncan: Applicants should have excellent writing and library research skills, and ability to work well alone.

J. Kennedy: If an internship specifically requires graduate-level education and work, you may be out of luck.

What we're looking for is someone who has gone above and beyond just going to class. Stand-out applicants have founded or held leadership roles in clubs or non-profits, worked any job (even at the cafeteria!) while going to class, volunteered for non-profit organizations, or conducted research projects. I had an applicant once whose only extracurricular activity was her soccer club, but she had been treasurer and led fundraisers for that club. That's the kind of initiative I want to see.

S. Larsen: It is helpful if students have applicable volunteer time in a similar environment, or work life experiences/passion in the field or study courses that related to the type of careers they are seeking. This shows an interest in developing the experience into a career choice. We want our program to enhance the person's background and course of study.

M. Russon: In today's day and age, you absolutely have to be able to effectively use computers. The basics like Microsoft Word, Excel, and PowerPoint. We also like to see evidence of good drive and motivation. We can't teach that like we can other skills, so it's nice to see that an applicant already has that from past experiences.

A. Viveiros: They should have a good GPA, a motivating purpose for wanting to intern with our agency (i.e. wanting the experience of working with relationship assessments because they hope to work with couples as a career, etc.), and have taken courses in our field of study.

Question 2

What are some specific factors that can make a potential intern more appealing? Are there certain qualities that may deter you from hiring someone?

L. Campbell: The most appealing factor to us is someone who has a game plan. When someone comes in and says, "We just want to hang out with the kids," that is an automatic red flag. We want self-motivated individuals who have energy and new ideas. We want someone who wants to try new things. It is a fine line because you don't know what things you are allowed to do. If you are too pushy or aggressive, that can be bad also. Basically, be enthusiastic about some of the things you are studying and sharing that knowledge.

S. Duncan: I like to see excellent writing and research skills and a strong work ethic as noted by references.

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J. Kennedy: The most appealing factor for any potential intern is passion. I can teach an intern just about everything she or he needs to do the work – but I can't make her or him want to be here. If you are enthusiastic and responsible, you'll do well. Being a strong writer definitely helps.

I tend to be more forgiving than my co-workers in hiring interns – I'll let it slide if you didn't research on our organization before the interview (even though you should have!). To me, it's a rookie mistake and a teachable moment. But I'm very wary about potential candidates who seem like they need a lot of handholding. If you call me to ask if we have any internships without checking our website or if you call and e-mail repeatedly about a position, it makes me worry that you are going to require a lot more work.

S. Larsen: Students need to follow the instructions for applying for the position. I request a current resume and cover letter asking the intern to articulate their interest in the position, their career objectives and availability. Those that stand out are those that fulfill the requirements. I also look at good sentence structure, spelling and general content in the cover letter. Some of the behaviors I like to see from the student are demonstrated dependability and commitment to a project, activity or class.

M. Russon: You need to be able to multi-task. We consistently have a lot of things that need to be done, and we need someone who can handle that. You also should be a self-starter; someone who can see a problem and can just have the drive to go fix it rather than needing to be told to do it. A prevalent negative quality is simply a bad attitude. A bad attitude will keep you out of a lot of opportunities. You should be professional and helpful or you won't find much success.

A. Viveiros: Motivation is key. I can tell if the student is wanting to intern with us because they want to versus wanting to intern with us because they have to.

Question 3

What types of responsibilities should potential interns be expecting? How do interns fit into your organization's overall structure?

L. Campbell: Interns can expect as much responsibility as they are willing to take on. Interns need to know what the job will be like. They should get "real life" experience when possible. We will never leave interns alone with youth, but we do expect interns to run groups, teach classes, and create new programs. In our programs, we hire interns for staff, because we know how they perform.

S. Duncan: Forever Families is a web-based family life education site. Students are responsible to write 1-2 sets of articles for the site and/or revise existing ones. Their titles are research assistant. They also give feedback on the overall needs of the site.

J. Kennedy: For our organization, interns should expect a range of work. I like to split time between big projects that boost an intern's portfolio and help our organization (like writing our Annual Report), getting interns hands-on experience in software they'll need for the workplace (Excel, donor databases, accounting software), and then some mundane but necessary work – taking a day every month to make paper records electronic. I've also learned that interns really seem to love shredding documents for some reason.

Interns fit well into our organization structure. We invite them to staff and department meetings and have special intern-only lunches once a week with seminar. We really like "teaching moments" here, and we appreciate what they bring and their enthusiasm for learning. But that really depends on the internship – there are some industries where all you will do is grunt work, but you'll love it anyway just to get your foot in the door.

S. Larsen: We use our interns to assist employees in all aspects of the job. They may begin by observing and then move into a more supporting roles such as entering information, taking minutes, leading a project. Generally we don't expect the intern to do the work but be learning the responsibilities. We have great respect for our interns and depend on them to help with children and parents. They fulfill an important role for us.

M. Russon: In the school system it's always changing, so you should be prepared for a variety of responsibilities.

A. Viveiros: We have several areas in our agency where we need the help of interns: translating our assessments into difference languages, helping with research projects, interpreting results to couples who have completed one of our assessments, and so on. We are always in need of interns and customize our internships to cater the individual's needs.

Question 4

Can you share any common pitfalls or general advice that potential applicants should be aware of?

L. Campbell: Applicants should be brave. Have confidence, be sure that they can handle the assignment, then make sure you understand what is expected. Many times interns feel they have failed because their responsibilities were never made known to them. You should be able to own your internship as much as possible, and not be micromanaged.

S. Duncan: You need to enjoy writing, write well, and work well flexibly without a lot of supervision.

J. Kennedy: For your application, make sure your cover letter is specific to the organization you're applying to! Don't just send me a generic letter that says "Dear Madam, please see attached my resume for your consideration." I want you to want this position at this organization. Make sure that your resume and cover letter are error-free and easy to read.

For the interview, make sure you read up about the organization enough to answer the basic question, "Why do you want to intern here?" In general, you should prepare for interviews. Phone interviews are especially difficult because it's hard to know when you're not interrupting when you can't see someone's body language. The trick is to be relaxed enough that you sound confident and poised but not so relaxed you say something you'd say to a friend and not an employer. It takes a lot of practice to get there.

Interviews are really the trickiest part of the job search. What I tell people is that any candidate who makes it to the interview stage is capable.

S. Larsen: Resumes and cover letters need to be professional and error-free. Time schedules have to match our needs.

M. Russon: Complaining is a pitfall to be aware of. We work in a positive environment where we need to get things done when problems arise. Complaining doesn't help.

A. Viveiros: Social skills are important. Make sure you seem interested and self-motivated. Don't come in looking confused, unprepared or unmotivated to do the internship.

Question 5

What tools or resources ould students be aware of in their pursuit of an internship?

L. Campbell: Be sure to find out about the company you are contacting. Have knowledge of what kinds of internships are available, be sure you contact the proper person in charge, be persistent, and follow through with what is asked.

S. Duncan: FHSS Internship office on 9th floor of the SWKT. Go there first.

J. Kennedy: You can do mock interviews at school or look up questions on the Internet and practice saying them out loud. The career center at your university is a great place to start. I like some of the information on www.internships.com – the blogs in particular can be really great. Also, if you know what field you want to work in, you should start reading the top blogs in that field.

Don't tell your parents I said this, but be wary of some of their advice; some candidates make poor decisions based on outdated parental advice. I see parents tell their children to show up in person and hand deliver a printed resume with no appointment, show up 30 minutes early for an interview, and call every 3 days to check on the position. I think that used to be the way to show enthusiasm, but it actually stresses me out. I don't like to worry about you waiting at the receptionist desk because I had a meeting. E-mail is the preferred method of communication.

S. Larsen: Classes on how to write a resume that is compelling. Be able to express interest and reasons for seeking the internship besides it being a requirement!

M. Russon: There are a lot of opportunities in the Provo area that will help a student be well rounded. That can really help.

welcome you to contact any of these people directly. Their contact information, as well other current internship listings, is available in the BYU psychology internship office, 1007 SWKT. You can also contact the office by e-mail at psychinternship@byu.edu.

2012 SUBMISSION GUIDELINES

Call for submissions for the Winter 2012 issue of
Intuition: BYU Undergraduate Journal of Psychology

Submissions must adhere to the following guidelines:

• The author (or first author) must be an undergraduate student at a BYU campus during the time he or she wrote the submitted work.
• Articles submitted for publication cannot have been accepted for publication elsewhere.
• Articles must be at least 1,000 words in length and must conform to APA style.
• An electronic copy of all articles must be submitted (see below for further directions). Preferred format for the electronic copy is Microsoft Word. All graphics or photos must be of high resolution (300 dpi).

Types of submissions

• Brief and extended reports of theoretical development or original research (or both). We accept submissions from any field of study in psychology.
• Creative works (visual media for potential cover art, and personal narratives related to research experience).
• Topical reviews, book reviews, and essays (reviews must be of recent publication and noteworthy).

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