

STUDENT-ATHLETE PARTICIPATION IN A SUMMER BRIDGE PROGRAM AND THE
IMPLICATIONS OF SOCIAL COMPARISON ON ACADEMIC SELF-EFFICACY

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Abstract

Many first-generation, low-income, and minority students enroll in higher education and encounter unanticipated challenges, finding themselves underprepared for the rigors of academia. Student-athletes have competing dual commitments to athletics and academics which exacerbates their strain when they come from any of these backgrounds and they are classified as at-risk. This study assesses the impact of participation in a Summer Bridge program, as a learning community at the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa, to examine social comparison behaviors and the acquisition of academic self-efficacy as a result of their mandatory placement. Respondents reported higher confidence relative to fellow Summer Bridge participants compared to other university students. Summer Bridge Program participation was associated with a perceived increase in academic self-efficacy and good academic behaviors. The overall results support Summer Bridge Program participation. Future research should explore the mandatory nature of student-athletes who receive or do not receive a scholarship.

Keywords: Summer Bridge program, at-risk students, higher education, learning communities, academic self-efficacy

Table of Contents

Introduction	1
Diversity in the U.S. College Populations	4
Student Success Programming.....	6
Learning Communities	8
Summer Bridge Program.....	11
Academic Self-Efficacy.....	14
Social Comparison Theory	16
Research Questions.....	19
Method	20
Participants	20
Procedure.....	21
Instruments.....	21
Results	22
Discussion	28
Conclusion.....	33
References	41

List of Tables

Table 1 *Academic behaviors of participants' pre- and post-Summer Bridge Program participation*..... 25

Table 2 *Interaction behaviors of participants' pre- and post-Summer Bridge Program participation*..... 26

Table 3 *Correlations of Year Students Entered the Summer Bridge Program* 27

List of Figures

Figure 1 *Initial Reactions to Mandatory Placement in the Summer Bridge Program*28

Figure 2 *Perceived Reasons for Mandatory Placement in the Summer Bridge Program*29

List of Appendices

Appendix A Consent to Participate in Research.....	34
Appendix B Part I Instructions	35
Appendix C Demographic Information	39

Student-Athlete Participation in a Summer Bridge Program and the Implications of Social Comparison on Academic Self-Efficacy

Introduction

Living the American dream is an ideal in which every person of every race, gender, and origin is afforded the opportunity to attain success and prosperity (Kopczuk, Saez, & Song, 2007). The belief pushes the notion that hard work will pave the way to social mobility and up the ladder of economic success. Around the world, people believe having an education and obtaining a degree accelerates and increases the range of opportunities and possibilities for one's future (Andersen, 2001; Davies & Guppy, 1997). However for many students, the route to success presents more complications relative to their more privileged or academically prepared peers. For minority students their low socioeconomic, minority, and first generation status often contribute to them being labeled at-risk. The term is a commonly used phrase that "refers to students who present credentials indicating high school grade point averages, college entrance exam scores and class ranks which do not meet regular admission standards" (Harris, 2007, p.9).

As colleges and universities across the United States become more diverse, preparatory programs emerged to assist students become more academically, as well as, socially integrated in the college environment (Walpole, Simmerman, Mack, Mills, Scales, & Albano, 2008). Federal education programs (e.g., Gear Up, AVID or Advancement via Individual Determination, No Child Left Behind) promote preparatory curriculum and instill college bound aspirations and viability, but they typically cease upon graduation from high school. With the democratization of higher education and broadened recruiting

potential for athletic coaches, it is increasingly evident that athletic participation and academic success present challenges for the institution, coaches, and students-athletes (Watterson, 2000). Therefore, managing athletics and academics is at the forefront of concerns for those monitoring athletic eligibility and progress toward degrees.

Following open admissions policies after the Civil Rights Act of 1964, Affirmative Action efforts, and other efforts to expand enrollment to underrepresented populations, the appropriateness of athletics in higher education has been debated (Ferris, Finster, & McDonald, 2004). Gaston-Gayles (2003) acknowledge the skepticism of institutional affiliates and the negative image on student-athletes receiving academic support services to keep them eligible. Criticism is compounded when student-athletes are admitted under special conditions. Controversy surrounding schools and coaches that have been accused of recruiting underprepared and very talented athletes over legitimate degree seeking students has sensationalized the media since the 1980s (Ferris, Finster, & McDonald, 2004). In 1990, in response to public outcry Congress passed the “Student Right to Know Act” and required schools to disclose graduation and completion rates. Section 104 requires institutions to report the same data as it relates to students on athletic scholarship or aid (Bailey, Calcagno, Jenkins, Leinbrach, Kienzi, 2006). These mandates in conjunction with those required by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) led to an evolution of academic support and services for student-athletes (Gaston-Gayles, 2003).

Student-athlete populations present significant matriculation risks such that intervention and specialized programming, such as remediation and prescriptive advising are often warranted (Kuh, 2008). Wolniak, Pierson, and Pascarella (2001) state that participation in collegiate athletics and competition produce limited influence on

motivation to succeed academically. Gill and Farrington (2014) suggest that student-athletes are at-risk because they place more emphasis on their athletic responsibilities and less their responsibility for degree attainment. The NCAA, the governing body over athletics, stipulates that universities have a duty to ensure academic progression exists prior to renewing scholarships via completion benchmarks (Smith, 2000).

Transitional assistance through a Summer Bridge Program helps student-athletes adjust to both social and academic challenges in college. In many cases Summer Bridge programs include social support with peer-mentoring programs and collaborative learning through structured learning communities. Literature in higher education research asserts the success of collaborative learning and group interaction (Bennett, 2011) as a means of serving a diverse range of students and sustaining academic standards (Yamauchi, 2001).

NCAA legislation requires colleges to provide academic support to student-athletes and there are varying ways of addressing these mandates across institutions (Carodine, Almond, & Gratto, 2001). Although many programs concentrate on eligibility and graduation rates, the range of intrapersonal challenges (e.g., first-generation university student, low socioeconomic status, underprepared academically, etc.) warrant some consideration especially on campuses with more liberal admissions policies. This study investigates a Summer Bridge Program and the developmental transitions of collegiate student-athletes. Specifically, this study examines the value of the non-voluntary enrollment process and its contribution to the individual academic self-efficacy through participation in a structured group environment and how it functions to equip underprepared students as they embark into their first year in college.

In addition, this study invokes social comparison theory to explore the way students view their own capabilities relative to their peers. Zhao and Kuh (2004) point out that first year students frequently encounter unanticipated challenges, consequently it is important to investigate how students develop the capacity to persist. As concerns regarding retention persist, it is important to understand whether a Summer Bridge Program is effective. In the following sections student diversity, student success programming, learning communities, a Summer Bridge Program, academic self-efficacy, and social comparison theory are explained in more detail to provide more context and background to evaluate how the program affects student-athletes success.

Diversity in the U.S. College Populations

Historically, federal initiatives such as the Morrill Act of 1862, also known as the Land Grant College Act aimed to reform higher education by extending opportunity to people of all social classes especially those in the field of agriculture, home economics, and mechanics (Schrader, 1969). The second Morrill Act of 1890 dedicated federal funds to supporting institutions through land grants (Schrader, 1969). In 1935, the Emergency Relief Act was enacted to provide greater means to educational opportunity by providing part-time employment aid to college students via the National Youth Administration. More recently, programs such as the G.I. Bill, civil rights movements (Kezar, 2000), the influence of the No Child Left Behind Act (Bragg, Kim, & Rubbin, 2005) and college preparation programs continue to emerge (i.e., Upward Bound, GEAR UP, Race to the Top) and continue to transform the diversity of colleges nationwide. Following these federal initiatives, many colleges and universities continue to offer admission to anyone who earns a high school diploma or equivalent and meets the education and admission requirements, including

those who may be underprepared in practical ways to handle the rigors of college and new or unfamiliar expectations (e.g., student-athletes) (Umbach, Palmer, Kuh & Hannah, 2006).

According to Ferris, Finster, and McDonald (2004) comparative research argues that athlete graduations and system wide graduation rates are nearly identical in Division I-A schools with means of 56.7% and 56.6%. However, the universities with brand appeal tend to draw privileged and more academically prepared students than the large public universities. For example, in the 2013-2014 school year Stanford University reported a football graduation success rate of 93% and large public universities, such as, San Jose State reported a graduation rate of 58% for student-athletes. Some of the variation is attributed to the diversity of the student body at the larger public universities, which include commuter students, lower income students, first generation, minority, and older non-traditional students (Ferris, Finster, & McDonald, 2004). Evidence suggests the diversity of student populations in the majority of higher education institutions is abundant (Engle & Tinto, 2008; Freeman, Anderman & Jensen, 2007; Gullat & Jan, 2003; Murphy, Gaughan, & Moore, 2010; Walpole, Simmerman, Mack, Mills, Scales, & Albano, 2008). Diversity is also predicted to increase (Seidman, 2005). The data presents concerns for administrators as graduation rates for minorities, first generation, and less privileged students are significantly lower than those who attend more affluent private universities with more selective admissions standards (McCurrie, 2009; Seidman, 2005).

Finn and Rock (1997) suggest the concept of being at-risk stems from the characteristics associated with being a minority and more likely to drop out or have academic difficulty. Some associate being from a low-income household or primarily speaking a language other than English a contributing factor to being at-risk (Thayer, 2000;

Seidman, 2005). Being academically underprepared further complicates the ability to adapt to the demands of higher education. Spann (2000) and Strayhorn (2011) argue that despite the costs, many high school graduates, particularly low-income students, enrolling in college requires more remedial course work and assistance.

Although program content differs, approximately 95 percent of 4-year institutions offer some sort of first year program as retention concerns continue to rise (Jamelske, 2009). Student affairs officials dedicate extended orientation and outreach programs to help students adjust to their new educational environment. For example, some institutions offer one-credit courses or transitional programs to offer assistance with college skills, and multiple social opportunities to help students establish a sense of belonging.

Although federal education initiatives target the types of students categorically more likely to be “at-risk,” the politics and perils do not erase the education gap that often affects the diverse student population (Henley, McBride, Milligan, & Nichols, 2007). At-risk students display characteristics that include but are not limited to: ethnic dissimilarity (e.g., variation from their hometown), being academically underprepared, financial instability, and familial obligations (Engle & Tinto, 2008). The range of obstacles and growing diversity on college campuses substantiate the need for student success and support programs. Programmatic goals of student success programs are to offer resources and assistance to students to retain them and help them thrive.

Student Success Programming

College professionals working in student affairs implement a variety of programs to promote student success. Tinto’s theory of departure (1987) has been the backbone driving these programs. Tinto’s theory of departure argues that there are psychosocial

needs that need to be met on college campuses and they are as important to student retention as financial or academic factors (Tinto, 1987). One such need is being engaged or involved. Being involved means being invested in academics, participating in extracurricular activities, and interacting with faculty and staff. Student-athletes participate in sports, but also feel trade-offs are necessary and pragmatic due to their athletic participation (Potuto & O'Hanlon, 2007).

Kuh (2005) suggests there are student driven and institution driven requirements when trying to predict student success. The student driven aspect reflects student motivation, time, and effort, whereas institution driven requirements refer to the amount of resources, student support services, and activities the institution is willing to deploy. Across the country there are many programs that are institution driven programs and include supplemental instruction, peer-mentoring programs, and mandatory advising.

Supplemental instruction is a student assistance program that targets challenging courses (i.e., 30 percent likelihood of receiving a D or F or withdrawal) and offers peer led meetings outside of class (Martin & Arendale, 1992). In these meetings students work with a peer and are in a more comfortable environment where they can engage and discuss course material.

Peer mentoring is characterized by two individuals, similar in age and/or experience who collaboratively work together through sharing experiences and strategies to overcome obstacles (Sanchez, Bauer, & Paronto, 2006). College student mentors also assist with cultural adjustments or feelings of academic disparities.

Mandatory advising requires students to meet with advisors and interact with professional staff on the campus (Creveling & Edelman, 2009). Campuses that implement

mandatory advising rules suggest there are greater opportunities to build student and faculty connections, provide clarifying information regarding academic options, and helps keep students on track to graduate in a timely fashion (Kuh, 2007). The National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) found “the quality of academic advising is the single most powerful predictor of satisfaction with the campus environment for students at four-year schools” (Carey, 2008, p. 12).

A Summer Bridge program is another example of a program designed to enhance support services to serve at-risk communities of students. The program provides a comprehensive learning environment for different segments of the student body where social and academic assistance are accessible (McCurrie, 2009). Students are purposively engaged in activities that prepare them for academic achievement. Positive results in terms of students’ academic satisfaction and effort are linked to these types of purposive interactions and lead to personal development and a sense of community in learning (Zhao & Kuh, 2004). In addition, Zhao and Kuh (2004) claim there are numerous benefits (e.g., collaborative learning, academic achievement, and overall satisfaction) to contemporary learning communities and they are linked with higher academic effort.

Learning Communities

Another type of student success program is the learning community. In the general sense, the learning community is a mechanism by which students share similar classes and have proximally situated opportunities to develop a connection with peers to lead to higher retention and persistence rates (Bean & Eaton, 2001). Zhao and Kuh (2004) argue that there is both development and cognitive benefit related to participation in a learning community.

According to Smith, (2004) a learning community restructures students' time, organizes experiences to build a sense of community, and fosters connections among students, faculty, and the college. Learning communities, such as a Summer Bridge Program, can be applied to a variety of groupings of students (e.g., minorities, special interest groups, students requiring academic development, students in specific degree programs, and athletics). The goal of the program is to bring students into a supportive learning environment, help them work through their challenges, and support their matriculation.

Students from diverse backgrounds often have diverse external pressures (i.e., economic, familial, academic). Student-athletes, in particular, may feel their pressures are compounded by their commitment to sports. Potuto and O'Hanlon (2007) state that many student-athletes report financial aid and scholarships are crucial factors in their ability to attend college. They also found that student-athletes report feeling limited in their choices for majors because of their time constraints and demands as related to their sport. Student-athletes also report perceptions of being treated differently because of their involvement in athletics. Consequently building learning communities and facilitating involvement is critical to responding to their variety of developmental needs to transition into college.

Engstrom (2008) conducted a study across 19 institutions and found that the persistence rate for students in learning communities is improved by as much as 10 percent. Students in this study consistently attributed positive experiences of collaboration, support, and encouragement from their sense of belonging to their learning community.

Greater overall learning and development are predicted to become more pronounced as students learn to adapt to new challenges in a way that creates

disequilibrium (Zhao & Kuh, 2004). Because many contemporary/millennial students were raised by supportive parents and they are accustomed to being involved in a myriad of activities with highly structured schedules, these students may not have coping skills to transition to college on their own (Howe & Strauss, 2007). College may be the first experience millennials have with managing their own lives. Thus, cognitive expansion may be achieved as students develop schema for new methods of persevering through challenges alongside others having similar experiences.

Findings suggest students in learning communities are more engaged and at ease amongst their peers, which leads to greater persistence rates (Tinto, 2003; 2006). Structuring activities with other students who share academic goals and attitudes not only aids in students' development of knowledge, but it builds a sense of community with significant impacts on social and intellectual development for program participants (Seidman, 2005; Thayer, 2000; Tinto, 2003; Zhao & Kuh, 2004).

Building a sense of connectedness and belonging through learning communities has contributed to students maintaining motivation and persistence in a new university environment (Freeman, Anderman & Jensen, 2007). Distractions and challenges, such as suffering with feelings of homesickness often occur in college and can lead to deeper feelings of alienation which can then lead to premature departure. When students are actively engaged in a learning communities versus being passively present in the crowd, they develop social connections that increase their participation and matriculation.

The research surrounding learning communities and their effectiveness to aiding retention rates is abundant (Jaffee, 2007; Jamelske, 2009; Tinto, 1999; Scrivener, Bloom, LeBlanc, Paxson, Rouse, & Sommo, 2008) but it is worthwhile to investigate specifically the

effectiveness of Summer Bridge Programs. Research suggests that participation in programs that focus on assisting students to transition from high school to college, support peer networking, and interaction with faculty and administrators contribute greatly to persistence rates (Ishler & Upcraft, 2005). In the following section the characteristics and elements of Summer Bridge Programs will be detailed.

Summer Bridge Program

A Summer Bridge program takes place during the summer prior to students entering the first fall college semester and typically runs for five to seven weeks. Summer Bridge programs offer a brief introduction and often serve academically underprepared, first-generation, and low-income students to transition to college. Kezar (2000) suggests that activities vary by institution but efforts are often directed toward development of college level writing, reading, and study and exam skills. Structurally, students are interconnected through similar courses and they are co-registered in two to three classes.

Tinto (2008) argues that students may find more academic success in this type of learning community when they are registered in classes that involve challenging and developmental curriculum (i.e., a writing course) and a course with content related to social construction or development. Socially, one of the main goals of a Summer Bridge Program is to create a unique and shared experience that will be intellectually meaningful and significantly aid in students' retention rates and persistence toward graduation (Tinto, 2003). Summer Bridge programs dedicate a substantial amount of time (both non-instructional and instructional) addressing and assisting students transitioning to college life. As an intervention tool, Summer Bridge Programs focus on time-management, assessments of learning styles, introducing campus resources, and building relationships

with faculty and staff. For student-athletes it is important to further develop these skills as the demands of athletics may increasingly interfere with academics and intensify at the collegiate level.

When Summer Bridge Program participants are first-generation college students from low-income backgrounds, Strayhorn (2011) suggests academic and social benefits help ensure student success. Institutional decisions are made to achieve and facilitate a meaningful transition to college. Intra-university factors are frequently integrated in Summer Bridge programs (Strayhorn, 2011). For example, in order to develop a stronger sense of purpose within the college or university, Summer Bridge programs offer institutional degree program presentations with detailed descriptions, career assessments, and an introduction to institutional guidelines and policies. Extracurricular and culturally relevant activities are included to encourage engagement and connection to the campus community. Research indicates these practices are beneficial, when they group students with similar backgrounds, interests, and challenges as it promotes connectivity and understanding (Tinto, 1987).

Research has provided evidence of a Summer Bridge Program's success; students who participate reportedly earn higher grades, persist through the degree process, and increase their sense of confidence and self-esteem (Ackermann, 1990; Kezar, 2000; Walpole et. al., 2008). Summer Bridge programs strive to facilitate in students an acquired sense of academic self-efficacy and comfort with the college environment through facilitation in a learning community (Stefanou & Salisbury-Glennon, 2002). Programs that target at-risk students from first generation, low socioeconomic, or athletic backgrounds are widely researched. Given the amount of resources that are dedicated to Summer Bridge

programs, research is sparse when understanding student-athletes acquisition of academic self-efficacy through remediation. Aside from justifying the costs of running the programs, more empirical information is needed to demonstrate the impact that precollege Summer Bridge Programs have on successfully bridging the gap between high school and college and the long-term persistence rate of program participants.

Although the literature provides evidence of the success rates for Summer Bridge participants (Strayhorn, 2011, Walpole et. al., 2008), the current literature does not specifically address whether students maintain the necessary academic self-efficacy to adapt to new challenges in the fall and persist through upcoming semesters. Researchers may contend that Summer Bridge Programs improve the preparation, commitment, and engagement of students, but Tinto (1987) argues that students have been successful when they are integrated into academic and social networks to the extent that they feel included. In other words, schools need to assist students in making the adjustment by providing affective support, a sense of community, and a sense of cooperation.

A Summer Bridge Program has the potential to positively affect the emotional and functional adjustment of students facing early inhibitions or challenges. Further, the support and security experienced through Summer Bridge participation provides an opportunity for positive social comparison or connectedness. Positive social comparisons denote feelings of cohesion and membership in the campus community. It is intended to increase commitment and motivation, and strengthen academic self-efficacy. In the following section the construct of academic self-efficacy will be discussed.

Academic Self-Efficacy

Academic self-efficacy involves perceptions of individual students' view of the attainability of specific academic tasks (Byrne, 1984; Majer, 2009; Shavelson & Bolus, 1982). High academic self-efficacy includes a high level of confidence and willingness to engage in academics, goals, choices, perseverance, effort, and motivation. Bandura (1997) uses self-efficacy to describe individuals' judgments regarding being able to perform tasks. Schunk (1995) has found academic behavior is a result of an interplay between self-efficacy, motivation, and learning.

High self-efficacy in academics can be attributed to motivational effort put forward by students (Bong & Clark, 1999). In educational settings self-efficacy directly influences decisions regarding the courses taken by students, the degree of effort they put into their studies, and their ability to persist through challenges. In other words, students with high self-efficacy are more likely to persist and accomplish their educational goals (Schunk, 1991; Zimmerman, 2001). Those who perceive a strong capability respond positively, work harder and more strategically when faced with challenges. Their intrinsic interest and expectation of satisfaction directly impact their performance and display the degree of confidence they have to complete tasks (Schunk 1991; Zimmerman, 2000).

Because self-efficacy beliefs are multidimensional and bounded by context (Zimmerman, 2000) perceptions of efficacy and performance depend on the environment (i.e., familiarity) and individual differences (i.e., confidence). High academic self-efficacy does not automatically ensure success, yet low belief in oneself usually does result in failure (Bandura, 1997; Majer, 2009). Nonetheless, in education settings academic self-efficacy among students is a critical part of academic success. Academic self-efficacy is self-

governed and is a marker of one's motivation and willingness to put forward effort (Bong & Clark, 1999). Zimmerman (2000) found that academic motivations are attributed to outcome expectancy. Consequently, lack of success in initial stages of coursework may create the impression that future success will not be likely and may create feelings of doubt and reduced academic self-efficacy.

Several studies on first-generation students found increased retention and a positive impact on GPAs as a result of first year experience programs. Research by Majer (2009) investigated the impact of being in a learning community on academic self-efficacy in relation to students from low socioeconomic backgrounds. The study included 96 first-generation college participants whose ethnic backgrounds included Latin-Americans, Asian-Americans, White, Native American, and Middle Eastern Americans. Surveys were given in two waves and the results showed that perceived self-efficacy was essential to persistence rates across ethnically diverse student groups in community colleges.

Research by Pan, Guo, Alikonis, and Bai (2008) focused on students who were voluntarily placed in a success challenge program, an academic help program, which include tutorial services. The study analyzed over 1,000 students' retention rates and GPA over three years. A multilevel longitudinal study echoed the findings of other studies regarding the benefits of early intervention, social interactions with faculty, social integration, and general orientation. The researchers found significant effects on retention and cumulative GPA. The researchers reiterate Tinto's (1975) model of departure which states that persistence is a result of being academically and socially connected with the institution.

Shea and Bidjerano (2010) examined the academic self-efficacy of students participating in distance education. The study included over 3,000 students in online and hybrid classes from 42 two- and four- year colleges. They found that teaching presence (i.e., synchronous engagement) and social presence (i.e., openness and availability) are significantly associated with academic self-efficacy. They also found that self-efficacy was stronger in blended learning environments (e.g., including a combination of instructional delivery methods) and among students who had face-to-face contact with other students. This suggests a lack of comprehensive support may exist when classes are purely asynchronous and online.

Although a number of studies show that academic self-efficacy is related to persistence, further research is needed to examine how academic self-efficacy will be impacted when taking courses outside the comfort of the learning community. This is especially relevant when trying to understand how at-risk students persist and interact with students outside their structured learning community. In the following section social comparison theory will be explored.

Social Comparison Theory

According to Festinger (1954) social comparison theory suggests that people are naturally driven to obtain information about their own efficiency by evaluating themselves against others. The theory formulates that under conditions of uncertainty, people will compare their perceptions of their own abilities against others they can identify with. Such social comparisons lead to feelings of being able to perform well or poorly. Some social comparisons may not be based on objective standards and may result in threats to one's self-esteem (Messweiler & Bodenhausen, 2002). Consequently, negative views could

increase feelings of inadequacy since people tend to avoid comparing themselves to others when they anticipate unfavorable results.

Several ideas are incorporated in social comparison theory. First, Festinger's (1954) original theoretical argument was that people will not evaluate themselves against people who are clearly superior. This type of threat is a form of upward comparison and can be harmful to one's own image and confidence, consequently is avoided outright. Researchers later suggested that upward comparisons happen more often and can have more impact, particularly in the classroom when there is the right amount of perceived similarity between the target and the evaluator (Buunk, Kuyper, & Van der Zee, 2005). In other words, if the situation presents opportunity where the evaluator feels competitive it can increase motivation to make comparisons. On the contrary, downward comparisons are typically associated with even greater confidence (Gibbons & Gerrard, 1989). Downward comparisons refer to feelings of superiority over others.

Spencer, Fein, and Lomore (2001) found that individuals with low self-esteem or low self-confidence lower their own estimates of their own abilities and performance in order to protect themselves from failure. The researchers designed a study using intelligence tests and studied how exposing half their subjects to affirmation affected their results. Half of the subjects participated in a self-affirmation exercise before taking the intelligence test and the other half did not. The results showed that being socialized with affirmation reduces the tendency to make upward comparisons among low-self esteem participants. For new college students, especially those who are initially admitted and labeled at-risk, findings indicate that students may be able to reduce their perceptions of inadequacy and build greater self-confidence and academic self-efficacy.

McCurrie (2009) suggests that Summer Bridge Program participants are more socially prepared for the unanticipated challenges of college. Given successful participation via a Summer Bridge Program, the intention is that students deemed underprepared may be positively motivated and academically strengthened to persist to graduation.

Researchers, such as Bahr (2010), found that students with academic deficiencies were able to acquire enough academic skills and motivation to succeed upon completion of some remediation. Consequently, it is important to investigate a Summer Bridge Programs to understand whether social comparisons are positive and whether academic self-efficacy develops. It is also important to investigate the impact a Summer Bridge program has on students beyond their first year and through their graduation.

Festinger's social comparison theory discusses how people view themselves relative to others. It explains that people evaluate their own abilities, which in turn affects their self-esteem by looking at people they can identify with and people who trigger feelings of inferiority. According to this theory, if someone is trying to engage in an academic challenge they will compare themselves to people around them. For Summer Bridge Program participants they may compare themselves to other participants within their learning community or they may compare themselves to non-participants and fellow classmates outside their learning community. Understanding how the comparisons occur will illuminate the impact of mandatory Summer Bridge participation on social comparison processes.

From the literature reviewed in this paper it could be assumed that students who possess strong academic skills would be confident in making comparisons to other students. In those cases it would be easy to engage in college courses and lead to positive

attitudes, which exemplify high academic motivation. However, this process is complicated when examining underprepared students. Therefore, it is beneficial to examine social comparison processes among Summer Bridge Program participants.

Research Questions

Given prior research on today's contemporary/millennial students, generally those born between the mid-1990s and the year 2000, it is understood that parental influence and educational environments have catered to engaged and ambitious college students, consequently these students are very accustomed to highly attentive and structured support (Howe & Strauss, 2007). Therefore it is useful for administrators in higher education to understand how the attentive nature of a Summer Bridge program supplements and supports at-risk students' acquisition of academic self-efficacy and their ability to work through academic insecurities and challenges.

To fully understand self-efficacy and motivational issues associated with being in a Summer Bridge program with mandated enrollment, this study will examine how students perceive themselves among other students. For example, do participants perceive being able to keep up with their peers in coursework? Do they believe they can produce quality assignments? Do programs, such as, a Summer Bridge Program provide the tangible support needed for students to persevere? Have they acquired confidence to face challenges and adjust to college curriculum?

Festinger (1954) argues that people want to identify themselves as similar or different than others, at least to some degree. It is therefore valuable to examine social comparison processes and program participants' perceptions of their academic self-efficacy. Because multiple levels and types of support are offered in a Summer Bridge

program it is possible that there is a single or a combination of factors that contribute toward increasing self-efficacy. Thus, the following research questions are posited:

RQ1: What is the nature of Summer Bridge Program participants' social comparison processes relative to other Summer Bridge Program participants, as well as, other students who did not participate in a Summer Bridge Program?

RQ2: Do Summer Bridge Program participants perceive higher academic self-efficacy as a result of Summer Bridge participation?

RQ3: Do levels of academic self-efficacy among Summer Bridge participants change over time?

Method

Participants

To explore the nature of Summer Bridge Program participants' social comparison processes relative to other Summer Bridge Program participants and students who did not participate in a Summer Bridge Program a self-report instrument was developed. Participants were recruited via email and received no compensation for their time. The sample consisted of 41 undergraduate students from a large Pacific university.

Majority of participant's were male (87.8%) and did not have a parent who graduated from college (70.7%). The participants' were ethnically diverse and consisted of 9.8% White/Caucasian, 19.5% African-American, 7.3% Asian American, 9.8% Native Hawaiian, 24.4% Samoan, 14.6% Tongan, 9.8% multi-racial, and 4.9% declined to provide their ethnicity. 31.7% of participants reported being from Hawai'i, 58.5% from the Continental U.S., 31.7%, and 9.8% from outside of the U.S. Participants completed an informed consent (Appendix A) before beginning any part of the study.

Procedure

With approval from the Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects, participants received an e-mail invitation to participate in the study, which was conducted with Google Forms. The entire study was completed online and the participants were never identified. Participants were asked demographic questions based on the First Year College Survey, which assessed their academic record, typical classroom behavior, and academic standing in high school and in the first year of college. Data collection also involved questionnaires focusing on social comparison and academic self-efficacy. The online questionnaire consisted of various established scales including the skills rating survey.

Instruments

Your First College Year. The Your First College Year (YFCY) was adapted from the Higher Education Research Institute (2002) and has been used to study the academic social adjustment of first-year college students. Participants were instructed to think about their perceptions regarding their mandatory placement in a Summer Bridge Program. The demographic questions asked about their year of entry, gender, academic standing, ethnicity, and if they had parents who attended high school. Reliability for the scale was high (Cronbach's alpha = .83). Items were coded so that higher scores represented more positive feelings toward participation.

Social Comparison. Participants' were asked they perceived themselves relative to fellow Summer Bridge participants and non-Summer Bridge participants in terms of being academically prepared, academic ability, motivation, and overall readiness. The 5-point Likert-type scale was anchored using 1 "Less" and 5 "More." Reliability was high for the set

of items comparing participants to fellow Summer Bridge participants (Cronbach's Alpha = .85) and for the set related to non-Summer Bridge participants (Cronbach's Alpha = .90).

Academic Self-Efficacy. The participants' perceptions of their academic behaviors were measured by asking questions regarding academic behaviors before and after participation in a Summer Bridge Program (i.e., turning in assignments late, skipping class, researching their homework, etc.). Each item was scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 being "not at all" and 5 being "often." The 9-items were aggregated to categorize "good" and "poor" academic behaviors. Reliability for the scales regarding academic behaviors was high (Cronbach's Alpha = .90)

Student interactions were assessed also with before and after reports on interacting with faculty, teaching or graduate assistants, counselors and advisors, etc. Each item was scored on a 5-point Likert-type scale with 1 being "not at all" and 5 being "very often (daily)." Reliability for the academic interaction items was moderate (Cronbach's Alpha = .72).

Results

The primary purpose of this study was to measure the impact of mandatory participation in a Summer Bridge. Descriptive statistics were computed and participants reported their feelings of happiness ($M=2.85, SD=1.29$), excitement ($M=2.71, SD=1.22$), disappointment ($M=2.87, SD=1.08$), and frustration ($M=2.95, SD=1.24$) regarding mandatory participation in the program. Similarly perceptions of initial reactions necessitating placement in a Summer Bridge Program included questions regarding being able to become more academically prepared ($M=4.31, SD=.96$); an opportunity to get a head start ($M=4.61, SD=.74$); help with learning academic skills that would allow more

future success ($M=4.26$, $SD=1.00$); and needing help getting prepared for university level classes ($M=3.68$, $SD=1.29$).

Research Question 1

The first research question asked about the nature of Summer Bridge Program participants' social comparison processes relative to other Summer Bridge Program participants, as well as, other students who did not participate in a Summer Bridge Program. The present study asked a set of questions asked about students' perceptions of themselves relative to their fellow Summer Bridge participants and a second set of questions asked about their perceptions of themselves to non-Summer Bridge participants.

Individual Perceptions Relative to Other Summer Bridge Program Participants		
Being academically prepared	$M = 3.46$	$SD = 1.32$
Academic ability	$M = 3.39$	$SD = 1.30$
Academic motivation	$M = 3.87$	$SD = 0.92$
Overall readiness	$M = 3.41$	$SD = 1.02$

Individual Perceptions Relative to Non-Summer Bridge Program Participants		
Being academically prepared	$M = 3.29$	$SD = 1.12$
Academic ability	$M = 3.17$	$SD = 1.09$
Academic motivation	$M = 3.65$	$SD = .99$
Overall readiness	$M = 3.21$	$SD = 1.06$

Paired sample t-tests on each item showed that participants' perceptions of themselves relative to other Summer Bridge participants versus non-Summer Bridge

Program (other students), were not significantly different, except for one item: overall preparedness. The results revealed higher confidence relative to fellow Summer Bridge participants ($M = 3.46, SD = 1.32$) than those who did not have mandatory placement in a Summer Bridge program ($M = 3.29, SD = 1.12$). In other words, Summer Bridge participants were more confident amongst their Summer Bridge peers and reported being less prepared relative to non-Summer Bridge participants.

Overall, participants report that their overall readiness was higher relative to other Summer Bridge participants, but lower when compared to others who were not Summer Bridge participants. Summer Bridge participants' mean ratings for overall preparedness was $M=3.41$ ($SD = 1.02$) relative comparisons with university students who did not participate $M=3.21$ ($SD = 1.06$), $t(40) = 2.08, p < .05$.

Research Question 2

The second research asked whether Summer Bridge Program participants perceived higher academic self-efficacy as a result of Summer Bridge participation. When asked about their initial assessments of themselves, just over 70% reported estimating themselves to be somewhere between average and the bottom 20% of all students at their college prior to starting a Summer Bridge Program. In terms of high school grade point average (GPA), approximately 35% reported having a GPA of 2.50 or lower. In addition, about 20% disclosed having educational accommodations in high school. Table 1 illustrates how students reported their tendency to perform “good” academic behaviors (i.e., study with other students, research their homework, etc.) and “poor” academic behaviors (i.e., turning in assignments late, skipping class, etc.). Table 2 illustrates how students reported their

tendency to interact with academic personnel (i.e., faculty during office hours, teaching assistants, counselors, etc).

Table 1. *Academic behaviors of participants' pre- and post-Summer Bridge Program participation. 1 = "not at all," 5 = "often"*

Academic Behavior	Mean (pre-SB program)	SD (pre-SB program)	Mean (post-SB program)	SD (post-SB program)
*Turned in course assignments late	2.85	1.15	2.04	.86
Spoke up in class	3.82	1.00	3.87	1.08
Studied with others	3.87	1.08	2.71	.72
Discussed materials outside of class	3.90	1.04	2.80	.87
*Went to class late	2.51	1.00	1.95	.89
*Skipped class	2.34	1.00	1.51	.75
Worked with a teacher on a project	4.36	.97	4.41	.95
Research your homework	3.49	1.12	2.90	.83
*Turned in assignments that were NOT best work	2.87	.81	2.17	.78

*Items assessing poor academic behaviors were recoded such that perceptions of a decrease in poor academic behaviors and increase in positive academic behaviors after Summer Bridge Program participation show improvement in academic behavior.

Table 2. Interaction behaviors of participants' pre- and post-Summer Bridge Program participation. 1 = "not at all," 5 = "often"

Interactions	Mean (pre-SB program)	SD (pre-SB program)	Mean (post-SB program)	SD (post-SB program)
Faculty during office hours	1.92	1.14	1.98	1.04
Faculty outside of office hours	1.61	1.05	1.54	1.03
Teaching or Graduate Assistants	1.76	1.04	2.07	1.01
Counselors or Advisors	1.83	1.14	3.76	.92
Other School Personnel	2.12	1.25	2.37	1.56

Although the scores in Table 1 and 2 reflect scores on individual items, a paired samples t-test was then computed to compare aggregated pre-Summer Bridge participants' frequencies of engaging in "poor" academic behaviors and post-Summer Bridge "poor" behaviors. There was a significant difference in the scores for pre-Summer Bridge participation $M=3.40$ ($SD=.78$) and post- Summer Bridge participation $M=2.71$ ($SD=.64$) perceptions; $t(40) = 6.22$, $p < 0.01$ with higher perceived frequency of poor behaviors reported prior to Summer Bridge Program participation than afterward. The effect size for the analysis was found to be large $\eta^2 = .49$.

Another paired samples t-test was then computed to compare aggregated pre-Summer Bridge participants' frequency to interact with campus faculty and staff and post-Summer Bridge interactions with campus faculty and staff. There was a significant difference in the scores for pre-Summer Bridge participation $M=1.85$ ($SD=.93$) and post-Summer Bridge participation $M=2.34$ ($SD=.78$) perceptions; $t(40) = -3.65$, $p < 0.01$ with greater perceived frequency of interactions with campus personnel after Summer Bridge

participation than prior to the program. The effect size for the analysis was also found to be large $\eta^2 = .25$.

Research Question 3

The third research question asked whether levels of academic self-efficacy changed over time. Table 3 illustrates how the Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated for the relationship between participant's year of enrollment and their general self-efficacy scores. With all participants included, no significant correlation was found between the year that students enrolled in the university and academic behaviors ($r = .11, ns$) as well as with their interactions with faculty and staff ($r = -.10, ns$). **Table 3. Correlations of Year**

Students Entered the Summer Bridge Program with Academic Behaviors

		Year entered	Academic behaviors after Summer Bridge	Interactions after Summer Bridge
Year entered	Pearson Correlation	1	.110	-.102
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.494	.525
	N	41	41	41
Academics behaviors after Summer Bridge	Pearson Correlation	.110	1	.230
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.494		.148
	N	41	41	41
Interactions after Summer Bridge	Pearson Correlation	-.102	.230	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.525	.148	
	N	41	41	41

Discussion

The focus of this study was to examine the role of a Summer Bridge Program and the perceptions of participants in terms of social comparison and acquisition of academic self-efficacy. Students that participated in a Summer Bridge Program were surveyed about their perceptions regarding their mandatory placement and the benefits they felt they gained as a result of their participation. The results show that initial reactions toward mandatory participation were not particularly happy, excited or disappointed, or frustrated (see Figure 1). Most participants revealed that getting a head start was the primary reason for their participation along with being able to become more academically prepared (see Figure 2).

Figure 1. *Initial Reactions to Mandatory Placement in the Summer Bridge Program*

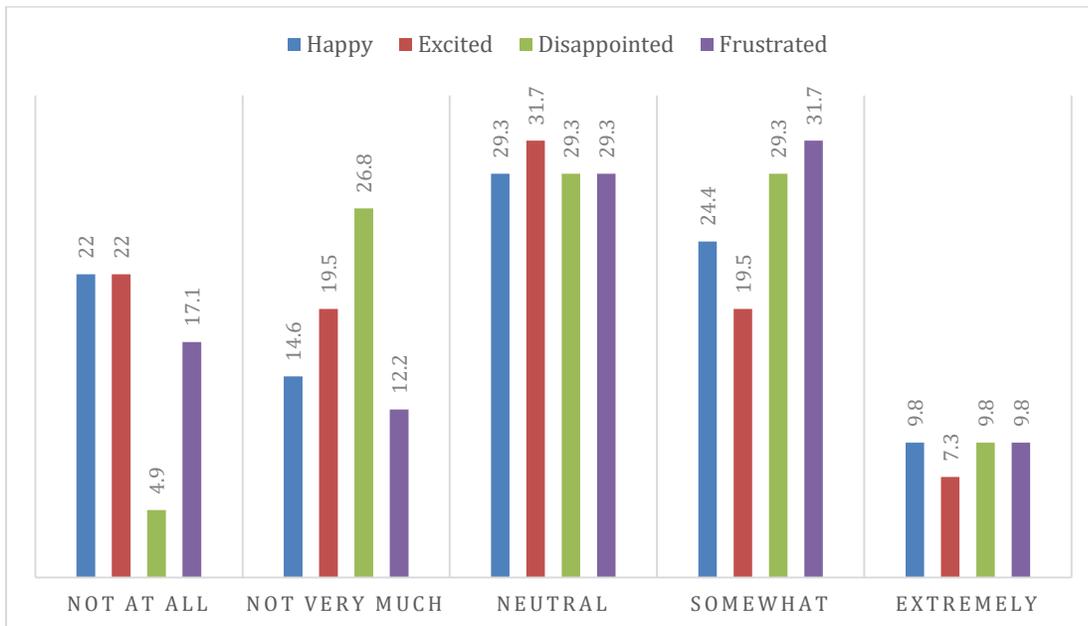
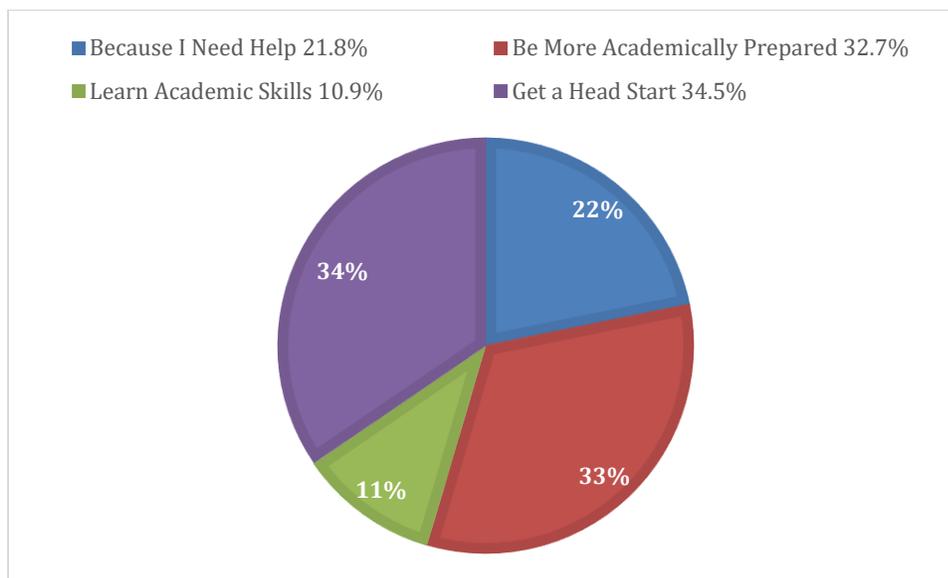


Figure 2. *Perceived Reasons for Mandatory Placement in the Summer Bridge Program*



The first research question examining the relationship between social comparison to those who also participated and those who did not participate were explored using frequencies and paired samples t-tests. The results show that participants believed that they were not as prepared for higher academia compared to non-Summer Bridge Program participants, but interestingly felt they were more prepared than their fellow Summer Bridge Program participants. However, being prepared, academic ability, and academic motivation did not result in significant differences regarding the comparisons between themselves with fellow Summer Bridge Program participants and non-participants. It is possible that significant results could have been found with a larger sample size. Nonetheless, it makes sense that students admitted on the athletic merit perceive confidence amongst their peers over those who were admitted for other reasons, especially when they are often considered to be “at-risk” before the start of their first semester.

The second research question examined how participants felt their academic self-efficacy was enhanced as a result of Summer Bridge Program participation. Theoretically, a

Summer Bridge Program is intended to increase academic readiness and improve the academic confidence of its participants. The results showed that Summer Bridge Program participants reported fewer “poor” academic behaviors, such as, turning in assignments late, speaking up in class, discussing materials outside of class, studying with other students, going to class late, skipping class, working with teachers or professors, doing research, and turning in assignments that are not the students’ best work.

The positive impact was also reported in the interactions with faculty, graduate or teaching assistants, counselors or advisors, and other university personnel.

The third research question aimed to examine any change in perceptions of academic self-efficacy over time. The lack of correlation between cohort year and academic behaviors may suggest that the results remain constant. Each participant’s scores were compared to their academic behaviors and interaction with faculty and staff at their college. Given the small sample size, it is not surprising that relationships were not apparent. Despite not being able to adequately example impact of the program over time, further studies should be conducted with a larger pool of participants. It would also be worthwhile to investigate whether increasing self-efficacy results in downward or equal social comparison in the years following their graduation from a Summer Bridge Program and to explore whether the effects of a Summer Bridge Program persist.

In terms of the theoretical framework, this study was not able to fully investigate whether students are integrated into academic and social networks to the extent that they feel included (Tinto, 1987). Tinto (2003) states learning communities result in greater engagement and greater persistence. A Summer Bridge Program serves contemporary/millennial students, including those who are underrepresented, first

generation, and low income to structure support both socially and academically. Therefore, it would be beneficial to specifically investigate the extent to which these students are developing coping skills and increasing academic self-efficacy as a result of their inclusion in a Summer Bridge Program, as a learning community.

Promising results of the study were the findings that suggest students who participate in a Summer Bridge Program are likely to decrease “poor” academic behaviors and increase their interaction with a variety of university personnel during their first fall semester. Self-report ratings significantly differed in a positive direction in terms of behavior and interaction before and after a Summer Bridge Program. This suggests that a Summer Bridge Program may be a valid avenue of providing the necessary motivational support needed by contemporary/millennial students and it is possible that greater academic self-efficacy led to “good” academic behaviors. It also suggests that expanding the Summer Bridge Program to other populations may be warranted and may provide lasting results that aid in persistence.

Limitations. This study had a number of limitations. Challenges related to synchronizing and obtaining the necessary approval to begin data collection and the start of the program negated the ability to gather participants’ perceptions prior to the inception of a Summer Bridge Program. Failing to collect the initial data prior to the start of a Summer Bridge Program and/or having a control group made it impossible to capture preliminary reactions toward mandatory participation. However, in terms of academic self-efficacy the reflective and intrapersonal nature of the responses is relevant and indicative of meaningful data.

Second, a fairly low number of participants comprised the data set. Although some results contained significant effect sizes, the results should be interpreted with caution. In addition, majority of the Summer Bridge participants were in the middle of their active playing season and while under a new coaching staff. This may have contributed to the challenges with obtaining responses in addition to extended travel from Hawai`i to the continental U.S., sport related injuries, fatigue, and the multiple meetings and workouts required of student-athletes.

Third, in regards to instrumentation other scales used to measure academic self-efficacy may need to be considered. A more effective scale of high school and college interactions with faculty and staff needs to be created. The different measurements regarding interactions were problematic as high school and college contexts are substantially different. For example, the questions regarding interacting with professors or teachers during office hours may not be relevant to students in high school as they are in classes where question and answer sessions are more commonplace than in college. Teaching and graduate assistants are not found in high school settings. Finally, counseling and advising are not mandatory in high school as they are currently in many colleges and universities.

Future Research. Current literature on the contemporary/millennial generation indicate today's students have been catered to by their parents and often, their primary and secondary education institutions (Howe & Strauss, 2007). Contemporary/millennial students are characterized as actively seeking help in accomplishing their goals (Elam, Stratton, Gibson, 2007). Future research should extend the literature in this area by assessing the degree to which students gain academic self-efficacy skills that garner greater

independence. Open-ended questions with open spaces for responses may also be helpful. Combining quantitative with qualitative data will provide a richer, more comprehensive picture of the development of the acquisition of stronger academic self-efficacy.

Researchers should also consider the mandatory nature of student-athlete participation and the implications of receiving or needing to earn an athletic scholarship. Future research should consider whether the student has received or is awaiting a scholarship offer or paying for their tuition out-of-pocket as it may contribute to the motivation of the student. Impending possibilities of earning a scholarship may positively influence motivation to build academic self-efficacy and the overall attitude toward willful participation and academic success. In addition, items regarding future goals of earning a degree and achieving superstardom in their sport may also provide insight to academic performance.

Conclusion

This study confirmed the notion that a Summer Bridge Program is a useful tool for supporting incoming freshmen and transitioning students to college in terms of improving their “good” academic behaviors and increasing their interactions with faculty and staff. With the changing demographics of incoming college students it is encouraging to recognize the success that can be found in support programs, especially those serving at-risk student populations. Moreover, the results of this study demonstrate that social comparison processes are complex and vary across populations and the impact on academic self-efficacy should be further explored.

Appendix A

Consent to Participate in Research

The Impact of a Summer Bridge Program on students labeled “at-risk”

This study is being conducted by: Katie Tuisalo’o, and advised by Dr. Krystyna Aune, University of Hawai`i at Mānoa – Department of Communicology.

You are invited to be in a research study looking at students and their communicative practices. We ask that you read the information sheet and ask any questions to the researcher Katie Tuisalo’o before you agree to participate in this study.

Background Information:

The purpose of this study is to explore the impact of participation in a Summer Bridge program and how it affects different students. Participation will consist of answering questions on a survey and this should take no longer than 30 minutes. Approximately 100 students will participate in this study.

Risk and Benefits:

There are no risks or benefits to participate in the study.

Confidentiality:

Your name will not be linked to any information you provide on the survey. The records of this study will be kept private. At no time in the survey will your name be asked. Any information you provide will not be linked to you in any way. Any report that may be published, based on this research, will not include information that will make it possible to identify you. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:

Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Hawai`i at Mānoa. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time.

Contacts and Questions:

The researcher conducting this study is Katie Tuisalo’o. If you have any questions, you are encouraged to contact her at katiekt@hawaii.edu. If you have questions or concerns regarding your rights or injury in the study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, you are encouraged to call the Committee on Human Studies, 1960 East-West Road, BIOMED Building, Room B-14, Honolulu, HI, 96822, 808-956-5007 or uhirb@hawaii.edu. Please keep this page for your records.

By responding to the items in the survey you freely agree to participate in the study

Appendix B

Part I. Instructions: *Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements regarding your placement in a Summer Bridge Program:*

1. To better prepare me to become more academically prepared.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

2. Because it was an opportunity to help me get a head start.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

3. To help me learn academic skills that would allow me to be more successful.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

4. Because I need some help getting prepared for university classes.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

5. How do you feel about your placement in a Summer Bridge Program?

a. Happy

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely

b. Excited

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely

c. Disappointed

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely

d. Frustrated

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely

6. Relative to other Summer Bridge program, participants, did you feel....

Less Prepared	1	2	3	4	5	More Prepared
Academically Weaker	1	2	3	4	5	Academically Stronger
Less Motivated	1	2	3	4	5	More Motivated
Overall Less Ready	1	2	3	4	5	Overall Ready

7. Relative to other, Summer Bridge Program participants who were not a part of a Summer Bridge program, did you feel...

Less Prepared	1	2	3	4	5	More Prepared
Academically Weaker	1	2	3	4	5	Academically Stronger
Less Motivated	1	2	3	4	5	More Motivated
Overall Less Prepared	1	2	3	4	5	Overall Ready

8. BEFORE participating in a Summer Bridge Program how did you rate yourself:

Bottom 20%	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Top 20%
1	2	3	4	5

9. BEFORE completing a Summer Bridge Program, indicate how often you:

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	Very Often
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Turned in course assignments late b. Spoke up in class c. Discussed course content with students outside of class d. Studied with other students e. Came late to class f. Skipped class g. Worked with a professor on a project h. Researched your homework i. Turned in assignments that did NOT reflect your best work 						

10. How often did you interact with the following people when you were in high school (e.g., by phone, e-mail, or in person):

Very Often (daily)	Somewhat Often (once per week)	Often (twice per month)	Seldom (once per month)	Not Often at all
5	4	3	2	1

- a. Faculty during office hours
- b. Faculty outside of class or office hours
- c. Teaching assistants during office hours

- d. Academic advisors or counselors
- e. Other high school personnel

11. After completing a Summer Bridge program how did your academic confidence change in the following areas:

Much Less	Somewhat	Stayed the	Somewhat	Much More
	Less	Same	More	
1	2	3	4	5

- a. Attending class/lab
- b. Studying
- c. Developing study strategies
- d. Understanding how to prepare for exams
- e. Doing research
- f. Writing papers
- g. Public speaking
- h. Speaking up in class
- i. Speaking with your professor

12. After completing a Summer Bridge Program, how confident are you about being able to finish your education?

Not at all confident	1	2	3	4	5	Extremely Confident
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13. After completing a Summer Bridge Program, indicate how often you:

Not at all	1	2	3	4	5	Very Often
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- a. Turned in course assignments late
- b. Spoke up in class
- c. Discussed course content with students outside of class
- d. Studied with other students
- e. Came late to class
- f. Skipped class
- g. Worked with a professor on a project
- h. Used the Internet for research or homework
- i. Turned in assignments that did NOT reflect your best work

14. Indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 Strongly Agree

- a. It is important that I do better than other students
- b. My goal is to get better grades than most students
- c. I am striving to demonstrate my ability
- d. I am motivated by the thought of outperforming my peers
- e. It is important for me to do well compared to others in my class whom I don't know
- f. I want to do well in my classes to show my friends, family, and others

15. After completing a Summer Bridge Program, how often did you interact with the following people when you were in high school (e.g., by phone, e-mail, or in person):

Very Often (daily)	Somewhat Often (once per week)	Often (twice per month)	Seldom (once per month)	Not Often at all
5	4	3	2	1

- f. Faculty during office hours
- g. Faculty outside of class or office hours
- h. Teaching assistants during office hours
- i. Academic advisors or counselors
- j. Other high school personnel

Appendix C

Demographic Questionnaire

1. What year did you enter UH Mānoa

- 2016
- 2015
- 2014
- 2013
- 2012

2. What is your gender?

- Male Female

3. Place of birth

- Hawai'i
- Continental U.S.
- Outside the continental U.S.

4. Do you have a parent that attended college? Yes No Not Sure

5. Do you have a parent that attended but did not graduate from college? Yes No Not Sure

6. Did you have special accommodations in elementary, middle, or high school? Yes No
 Prefer not to answer

7. Please indicate your overall cumulative grade point average

- 3.51 to 4.00
- 3.01 to 3.50
- 2.51 to 3.00
- 2.01 to 2.50
- 2.00 or lower

8. Please indicate your overall high school cumulative grade point average

- 3.51 to 4.00
- 3.01 to 3.50
- 2.51 to 3.00
- 2.01 to 2.50
- 2.00 or lower

9. How would you classify yourself?

- White/Caucasian
- African American
- Asian American
- Native Hawaiian
- Samoan
- Tongan
- Other Polynesian
- Hispanic or Latino
- Multiracial
- Prefer not to answer

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