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## Effects of lifestyle variables on commuter student grade point average, satisfaction, attrition and personal growth

#### **Abstract**

Commuter students represent 80% of the undergraduate students in the United States (Stewart and Rue, 1983), and projections rise to 90% for the near future (Hardwick and Kazlo, 1977). While commuter students seek the same benefits from higher education as resident students, their lifestyles vary considerably. Programs developed for traditional, residential students fail to meet the needs of non-resident students, traditional or non-traditional. Stewart and Rue (1983) found commuter students easy to ignore, because they generally arrive on campus after student affairs personnel go home. Ignoring commuter student programming prevents 1 the involvement Astin (1984) considers vital for student development. Involvement theory emphasizes the active participation of the student in the learning process. The learning process encompasses both the curriculum and the extracurriculum.

# EFFECTS OF LIFESTYLE VARIABLES ON COMMUTER STUDENT GRADE POINT AVERAGE, SATISFACTION, ATTRITION AND PERSONAL GROWTH

A Research Paper
Presented to
The Department of Educational Administration
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Steven Vincent Langerud
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This Research Paper by: Steven Vincent Langerud

Entitled: Effects of Lifestyle Variables on Commuter

Student Grade Point Average, Satisfaction,

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has been approved as meeting the research paper requirement for the Degree of Master of Arts in Education.

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Commuter students represent 80% of the undergraduate students in the United States (Stewart and Rue, 1983), and projections rise to 90% for the near future (Hardwick and Kazlo, 1977). While commuter students seek the same benefits from higher education as resident students, their lifestyles vary considerably. Programs developed for traditional, residential students fail to meet the needs of non-resident students, traditional or non-traditional.

Stewart and Rue (1983) found commuter students easy to ignore, because they generally arrive on campus after student affairs personnel go home. Ignoring commuter student programming prevents the involvement Astin (1984) considers vital for student development. Involvement theory emphasizes the active participation of the student in the learning process. The learning process encompasses both the curriculum and the extracurriculum.

This investigation is an attempt to identify, through a review of empirical studies, the lifestyle variables of commuter students that limit involvement in the learning process, and the effects of limited involvement on commuter student grade point average (GPA), satisfaction with education, attrition, and personal growth.

Sheer numbers suggest that commuter students deserve attention. Research has shown the value of involvement. If we are to suggest programs to increase commuter student involvement in the learning process, we must first understand commuter students' current status.

#### Lifestyle Variables

Understanding the lifestyles of commuter students revolves around three interdependent variables:

- 1. The divided life that commuter students lead. Off-campus living forces commuter students to choose between home and college for reinforcement of their values and interests. They belong to groups related to work and community rather than to college (Alfred, 1976). Stewart (1983) found that the social, emotional, and intellectual development of commuter students occurs in settings outside the university. Personal schedules and environmental demands, involving social, work, and academic issues, compete with school and prevent greater involvement in the learning process (Wisner, 1984; Stewart, 1983; Glass and Hodgin, 1977).
- 2. The necessity for time management. Problems cited by commuter students include scheduling conflicts dealing with social, work, and academic commitments; conflicts arising from the lack of study time, due to job responsibilities; and the actual time spent commuting to and from school (Breen and Uguroglu, 1984; Lonabocker, 1982; Johnson, 1978).
- 3. The role of work. Reichard and McArver (1975) found that two-thirds of the commuter students worked at least part-time, as compared to one-third of the resident students. Schuchman (1974), Harrington (1972), and Kuh and Ardailo (1979) also found that commuter students were more likely to be employed than were

resident students.

In summary, these variables work together to limit the commuter students' time on campus. The result of this limited time is a reduction in involvement in the learning process as described by Astin (1984).

#### Effects of Commuting

The reduction of involvement affects many areas of a student's life. For the purposes of this study, the effects on grade point average (GPA), satisfaction with the college experience, attrition, and personal growth are examined.

#### Grade Point Average

Generally, research reveals that commuter students have higher overall grade point averages than resident students. Lincoln, Graham, and Lane (1983) administered a questionnaire dealing with demographic and socioeconomic background, college major, motivation, satisfaction with the college experience, and participation in the college environment. They utilized two random samples with 250 students in each; one group was from a large non-urban residential state university and the other from a large urban commuter university. The t-test and regression analyses revealed that students at the commuter university had higher overall grade point averages than the residential university students.

Analysis of Covariance of questionnaire results dealing with living accomodations, distance commuted to school, age, sex, marital

status, religious affiliation, and with scores on the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test was performed by French, Klas, and Boak (1979).

Results from a sample of 102 students (54 men and 48 women) demonstrated that students who lived at home with parents had significantly higher grade point averages than students in university residence halls, off-campus apartments, or in boarding houses.

Similarly, a study by Simono, Wachowiak, and Furr (1984) showed commuter students to have higher grade point averages than resident students. More specifically, data for 448 undergraduates (250 on-campus students and 198 commuter students) revealed that married commuter students had higher grade point averages than single commuter students, single commuter students had higher grade point averages than resident students, and married commuter students had higher grade point averages than either single commuter students or students in residence halls.

In contrast to the above studies, a study by Chickering (1974) indicated that resident freshmen had higher grade point averages than commuter freshmen. Chickering's findings were based on the questionnaire responses of 26,745 freshmen attending a wide range of two- and four-year, religious and non-sectarian, public and private institutions.

Related findings by Liu and Jung (1980) demonstrated that grade point average and satisfaction were modestly and positively related for commuter students. A total of 782 undergraduates in

38 randomly selected classes at a medium-size Midwestern commuter college were given the Pace and Associates Higher Education Measurement and Evaluation KIT. Path Analysis also showed that perception of educational benefits was positively related to commuter satisfaction.

#### Satisfaction

Studies of overall student satisfaction generally show commuter students to be less satisfied than resident students.

Pascarella (1984), for example, utilized the Cooperative Institutional Research Program Survey to study 4191 students (2220 women and 1971 men) attending 74 four-year institutions (49 private and 25 public). He found that resident students were more likely than commuter students to have higher levels of general satisfaction with college.

Similar findings were obtained by Davis and Caldwell (1977). They administered a questionnaire on student attitudes to 527
University of Nebraska-Omaha commuter students and to 927 Michigan
State University resident students. Chi Square analysis showed that resident students, more than commuter students, agreed that they had received a good education at their university.

A third substantiating study was conducted by Sullivan and Sullivan (1980). A questionnaire on parent-son relations was administered to 318 senior boys from 12 high schools and to 127 mothers and 107 fathers. A follow-up questionnaire was administered to 242 of the 318 in the fall when they were boarders at, or

commuters to, college; 92 mothers and 65 fathers also participated. Questionnaire responses showed that boarders had higher levels of satisfaction than did commuter students.

Bare's study (1983) yielded conflicting results. A 50% random sample of students, registered at five commuter colleges of an eastern university, were given a questionnaire on student characteristics and perceptions of 30 aspects of the college environment. Statistical analyses revealed that overall student satisfaction was not related to any student characteristics.

Nelson's (1982) research involved a sample of 1150 full-time students and a questionnaire on demographic characteristics, ratings of services and activities, areas of concern, overall satisfaction, and academic ratings at a private university.

Multivariate analysis of variance showed no significant difference between resident students and commuter students in overall satisfaction with the university. Further, resident students participated more in services and activities and were generally less critical, but they were not any more satisfied than commuter students.

Expanding on the participation theme, Rich and Jolicoeur (1978) found commuter student satisfaction to be linked with interaction with faculty. The researchers used multiple regression analysis with data on personal background, college environment, and student impact. A 56% response rate from 300 students enrolled at

12 colleges and universities in California made up the sample. Results showed that commuter students perceived faculty attention to be lower than did residential students, and commuters had a less positive attitude towards college. Astin (1977) found that satisfaction with student-faculty interaction and closeness to faculty were negatively related to living at home. These results came from an ACE-Carnegie follow-up study of 25,399 students. Lui and Jung (1980) reported that commuter students' perceptions of educational benefits are positively related to student satisfaction.

#### Attrition

Another area affected by faculty interaction is commuter student attrition. Bainum (1984) sent student questionnaires to 57 former and currently matriculated students and conducted interviews with 18 parents. She found that male persisters and non-persisters did differ in their level of interaction with faculty. Other findings related to attrition for commuter students were: family influences on persistence did not differ in persisters and non-persisters, both male and female; closest companions influences on college persistence did differ between male persisters and non-persisters; persister and non-persister students of both sexes did not differ in rate of on-campus involvement; and male persisters and non-persisters did differ in level of non-university involvement in cultural and personal activities.

Wisner (1984) expanded the view of commuter student attrition.

He studied the 1977 entering class at the University of Michigan-Flint, both freshmen and transfers, by examining personal characteristics and plans, expectations and perceptions of the university, integration into the university environments, and obligations outside the university. The results showed the traditional persister/non-persister dichotomy of retention studies did not reveal significant differences. Transfer-outs resembled traditional students on younger age, full-time enrollemnt, and ambiguous degree plans. These findings demonstrate the diversity of commuter student populations and highlights the need to account for diversity in the study of attrition with non-traditional student bodies.

A study that revealed no differences between resident and commuter students came from Pascarella (1984). Background information on 4191 students, gathered with the Cooperative Institutional Research Program survey, revealed that living oncampus had no indirect effects on either progress through college or plans to persist at the same institution.

However, other studies showed retention being enhanced by oncampus residence and residence in fraternity and sorority houses (Lenning, Sauer, and Beal, 1980); persistence being negatively affected by living with parents (Astin, 1977); and commuter students having significantly lower graduation rates than other students (Carney, 1980). Lonabocker (1982) examined the reasons for attrition among commuter students withdrawing from Boston College during 1977-1978. The students cited time spent commuting, need for a break, lack of housing, job/study conflicts, and lack of motivation.

In an attempt to combat attrition among commuter students, Schotzinger, Buchanan, and Fahrenback (1976) studied the impact of a peer program on attrition among commuter students. One hundred four participants were compared with 105 non-participants. Participants were given a 60 hour training program and then facilitated an orientation course. Results showed the annual attrition rate of participants was 17% compared to 25% for non-participants.

#### Personal Growth

If students do not attend, due to attrition, they obviously forfeit the opportunities for involvement in the university. One opportunity found by authors to be greatly enhanced by involvement and on-campus residence is personal growth (Trathen, 1985; Winter, McClelland, and Stewart, 1981; Lincoln, Graham, and Lane, 1983; Sullivan and Sullivan, 1980; Stafford and Pate, 1979; Pascarella and Terenzini, 1980).

While much research supports this finding, it is not without opposition. Pierog and Gloaninger (1981) administered the College Student Questionnaire Scale, measuring family and peer independence, social consciousness, and cultural sophistication, to a matched

sample of 50 students from resident and commuter colleges. The results showed commuter students significantly higher than resident students. The implication of these findings is that a residential environment does not always promote greater personal growth.

However, this finding is in the minority. Generally, resident students report more personal growth than commuter students. For example, Chickering (1974) studied 169,190 participants at 270 colleges of wide ranging types. He found commuter students expressed less interest in personal development than resident students, and felt the chief benefit of college was increased earning power.

Along these lines, Mahler's (1977) research on 75 subjects from an urban community college revealed a focus on careers.

Community colleges were not discovered to be resources for personal growth and identity development for the commuter student.

In summary, commuter students generally have higher grade point averages than do resident students, are less satisfied with their educations, exhibit higher levels of attrition, and demonstrate less personal growth than resident students. In conjunction with the lifestyle variables that limit involvement, these are the outcomes of commuting as revealed in the research literature.

#### Recommendations

Taken alone, the knowledge of lifestyle variables and effects of commuting will not change the lot of commuters. However, in combination with creative programming, perhaps the level of

involvement of commuter students can be increased. The literature provides a wealth of information about programs, both proposed and practiced, to enhance the experience of commuter students.

Student affairs personnel must be aware of the needs of commuters (Glass and Hodgin, 1977; Lackey, 1977; Hatala, 1977; and Carlson, 1981). Part of this recongition involves knowing who the students are. Hardwick and Kazla (1974) found this to be a major problem. They administered a 23-item questionnaire to 70 randomly selected institutions throughout the country (48% chose to participate). Analysis showed 10% didn't know the number of commuter students they had, less than 25% knew how far students commuted, 30% knew how students got to school, less than 50% knew how many commute from their own homes, and more than 60% could not report one program or service especially for commuters.

While specialized programs such as orientations (Saggaria, Higginson, and White, 1980) are helpful, making use of existing services may be more practical (Jacoby and Girrel, 1981). One means of accomplishing this goal is by extending the hours of institutions (Hatala, 1977; Cross, 1981; Carlson, 1981). As discussed previously, the divided life of commuting students often prohibits access to traditional daytime programs or services. Another way to increase involvement is with increased peer group and student/faculty interaction. Such interaction may occur in the classroom (Lackey, 1977), in a tutorial (Hatala, 1977), or in

cocurricular activities (Carlson, 1981; Glass and Hodgin, 1977; Arthur, 1977).

A final suggestion moves the focus away from campus. The community needs to be immersed in college affairs (Alfred, 1976; Hatala, 1977; Carlson, 1981). According to Frisz and Aylman (1980), this will require increased knowledge of the market to be reached and improved marketing techniques.

To summarize, there are many ways to increase commuter student involvement. However, none will prove effective unless we first recognize who the students are and determine what their needs are.

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