

**NONRESIDENT STUDENTS
and the
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII**

LEGISLATIVE REFERENCE BUREAU

Report No. 3, 1963

S T A T E O F H A W A I I

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**UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
Honolulu 14, Hawaii**

FOREWORD

Legislative concern over the possible inadequacy of University facilities and state resources to meet the increasing local demands of higher education led to this study of nonresident students and the University. In recent years, there have been annual increases in nonresident students, and the likelihood is that this trend will continue given the University's present policies which set no quota on nonresident attendance nor require nonresident students to pay a tuition differential.

The legislative reference bureau, in providing the Legislature and the University with information essential to a re-examination of present policies, has gathered data on the present nonresident population at the University (Chapter II) and on the practices of selected mainland institutions which generally have provisions on residence classification, admission standards, and tuition differentials (Chapter III). In order to facilitate the reading of the report, summaries are presented in the beginning of each of these chapters, followed by detailed analyses.

Chapter I sets this study in perspective by considering some aspects of the national scene as far as nonresident students are concerned. The final chapter presents important aspects which should be considered in reaching a policy decision on nonresident students, presents a few alternative policy goals, and discusses the application of the available devices to achieve the desired goals.

The legislative reference bureau is grateful for the kind assistance it received from individuals in mainland institutions and at the University of Hawaii. Personnel at the University of Washington, University of Colorado, University of Minnesota, Michigan State University, University of Michigan, Wayne State University, and University of California Los Angeles were extremely helpful in discussing their provisions for nonresident students, as was the staff of the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education in discussing its recent conference on out-of-state students and in reviewing selected chapters of this report.

For furnishing basic data on the University, the bureau acknowledges the cooperation and aid of the graduate school, the office of admissions and records, the office of institutional research, the office of student personnel, and the East-West Center.

Various legislative reference bureau members participated in this study: Mrs. Mildred Terauchi gathered the data on the contributions of nonresident students to the academic and extra-curricular life on campus; and Angus McPherson, under the supervision of Dr. George Fujita of the office of student personnel, performed the chi-square analysis for Chapter II.

Tom Dinell
Director

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Universities and colleges in the United States draw their students from all parts of the country and from many parts of the world. While the proportions of resident students, nonresident American students, and foreign students vary from institution to institution, most are characterized by a certain degree of cosmopolitanism.

Migration of College Students

Over half a million Americans, representing 18 per cent of the approximately three million students enrolled in American institutions of higher education, annually attend institutions where they are classified as "nonresident" students. In addition, over 50,000 non-Americans annually enroll in American universities, where they comprise slightly less than 2 per cent of the total college student population.* Greater percentages of out-of-state and foreign students are enrolled in professional schools and graduate programs than at the undergraduate level. Figure 1 furnishes data on the distribution of students among undergraduate, professional, and graduate schools.

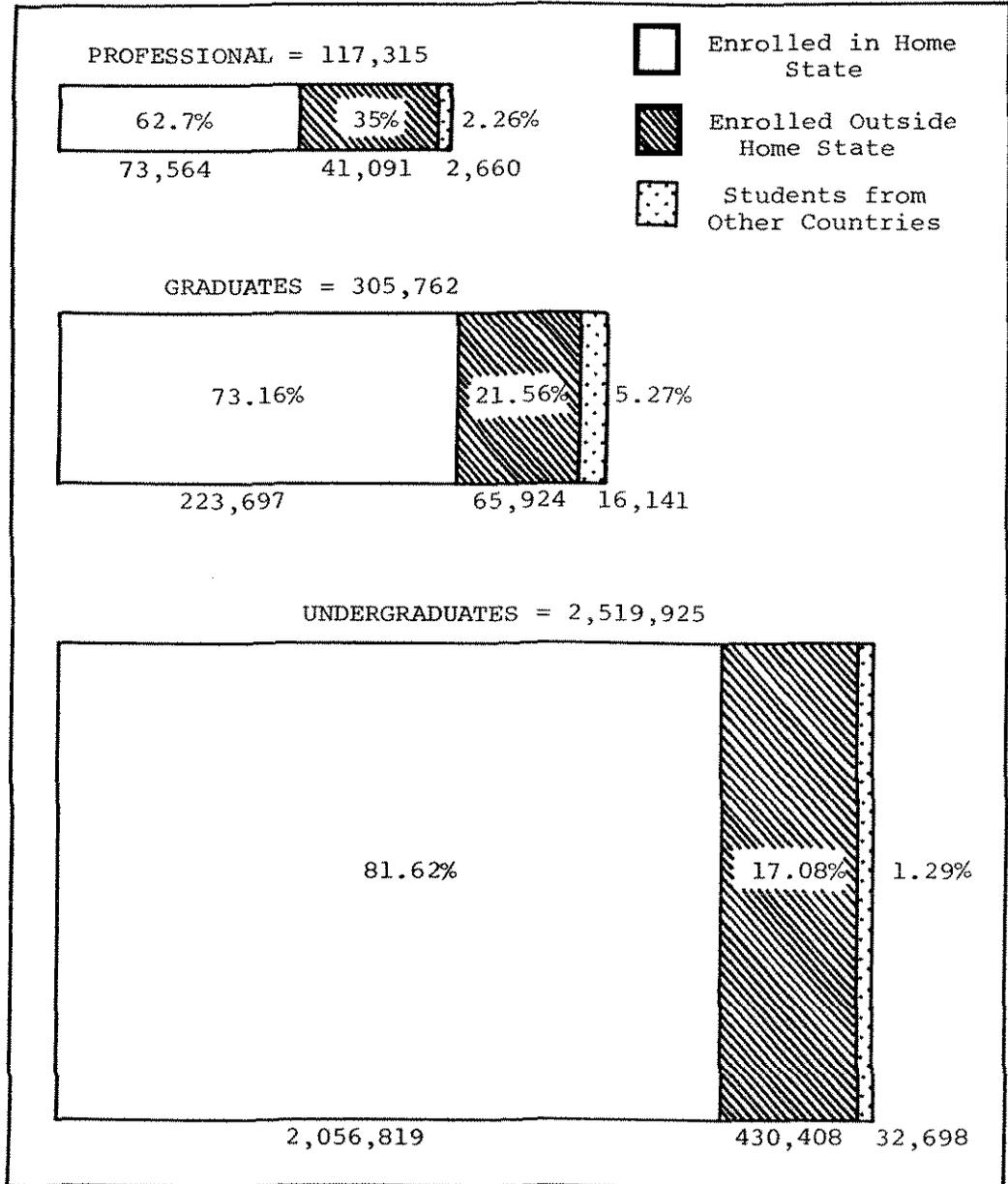
Explanations for American student migration are many.

. . . Some [students] want to study in programs not offered in their home states; others want to attend college where their parents were educated; still others wish to enroll in a church-related college, or one they consider distinguished in a specific field. Many simply want to learn from new sights and new people, or just to get away from home. Many others are not "residents" where they attend college only

*American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, Committee on Research and Service, A Supplement to the Home State and Migration of American College Students, Fall 1958 (Washington, D. C.: the Association, December 1959), p. 5. A recent survey of foreign students in the United States, conducted by the Institute of International Education for the academic year 1959-60, indicates the following: (a) Foreign students came from 141 countries and political areas; with the exception of Canada all of the seven largest nationality groups were from Asia or the Middle East; (b) The field of study most frequently reported by the foreign students was engineering, followed by the humanities, natural and physical sciences, and social sciences; (c) At least 41 per cent of the foreign students were receiving some form of financial support, either through government grants or aid from private organizations or institutions. Kenneth Holland, "Who is He?" The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science 335 (May 1961), pp. 10-11.

Figure 1

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF RESIDENT STUDENTS, NONRESIDENT AMERICAN STUDENTS, AND FOREIGN STUDENTS ENROLLED IN PRIVATE AND PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES FALL 1958



Source: American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, Committee on Research and Service, A Supplement to the Home State and Migration of American College Students, Fall 1958 (Washington, D. C.: the Association, December 1959), pp. 4-5.

because their families have not lived there long enough to earn legal resident status. All of these reasons reflect the trend toward increasing mobility among the American people, who now travel and move their homes in greater numbers than ever before.¹

Limits on Nonresident Students

Institutions of higher education generally pride themselves on having a student body from different geographical origins. Many private colleges and universities actively recruit all over the nation to insure such diversity. In such institutions, all students, regardless of geographical origin, pay the same tuition.

Public institutions, however, treat the phenomenon of nonresident students somewhat differently. Educators and legislators, while probably cognizant of the potential contributions that nonresident students may make and appreciative of the national and international character of the educational enterprise, have also recognized that public institutions of higher education must serve college-age youth in their respective states. "Taking care of one's own" is a primary consideration. Limits on the admission of nonresident students have oftentimes been set. As early as 1956 the trend was becoming apparent.

It is getting more difficult for students of one state to enter the publicly supported universities of other states.

Geographic quotas have been set up by a majority of these institutions. Some state universities will permit only 5 per cent of the student body to be out-of-state residents. Others may go as high as 25 or 30 per cent.

In almost every instance, a New York student, for example, would have to possess higher academic grades than a "native" to be considered. Also, the institutions charge a substantially higher tuition fee for the out-of-staters.

A study of the practices followed by the forty-eight state universities, made by the New York Times, shows that an overwhelming majority now limit the number of out-of-state students. And, it was found, every state charges nonresidents more than residents.²

Colorado, a state with a very high percentage of nonresident students (37 per cent), is taking steps to limit their admission in order to make sure that a greater proportion of existing and planned educational facilities is available for Colorado students by 1965 and thereafter. Colorado's Legislative Committee for Education Beyond High School recommended that all state colleges and universities, except the Colorado School of Mines, limit entering nonresident freshmen to no more than 20 per cent of the entering freshman class.³

The establishment of out-of-state tuition in public institutions is a second factor which serves to limit out-of-state enrollment. The surcharge to nonresidents serves "partially to equalize the cost of instruction between parents who live in the

area which partially supports the college by taxes, and . . . parents who live outside the geographic limits and are thereby exempt from such taxes."⁴

Recent data from the U. S. Office of Education indicate that the average institutional tuition and fee charges to nonresident students were 2.30 times as much as the average charges to resident students.⁵ Further meaning is added to this ratio by an examination of dollar amounts paid by resident and nonresident students.

. . . The median 1961-62 charge to resident students in 413 public institutions was \$189. The median charge to nonresident students at these institutions was \$431, or \$242 higher. It should be noted that whereas 90 percent of the institutions charged resident students under \$300, only 21.1 percent charged less than \$300 to nonresidents. Less than 1 percent of the institutions charged \$500 or more to resident students. On the other hand, over 15 percent of the institutions charged \$500 or more to nonresidents.

Classified according to the tuition and fee charges to residents, the median surcharge to nonresidents ranged from \$337 in institutions charging \$100-199 to residents, to \$623 for those institutions charging \$300-399 to residents. Evidently, nonresident charges are related to the resident charges: the higher the resident charges, the higher the surcharge to nonresidents--both on an absolute and a percentage basis.⁶

University of Hawaii Policy

Against this general background of increasing limits being placed on nonresident attendance at public institutions of higher education, the policy of the University of Hawaii stands out in sharp contrast. The University is unique among state universities in that it does not charge nonresident students a surcharge; all students pay a tuition of \$170 for the two-semester school year.

Admission requirements for nonresident students are slightly higher than those for resident students. Nonresident freshman applicants who are "borderline" cases are not admitted, while a few such resident freshman applicants may be admitted. In accordance with the general policies of many institutions of higher education, transfer students are required to have at least a 2.0 (C) grade point average, while freshmen enrolled at the University are required to have a 1.6 grade point average and sophomores a 1.8 grade point average.

At the present time there is no official policy limiting the admission of nonresident students. Lack of dormitory quarters and the magnitude of transportation costs, however, serve as deterrents to large numbers of undergraduates coming to Hawaii. Graduate students have not been numerous partly because of the relatively limited number of graduate degree programs in the past.

The practices of the University were recently reaffirmed

by the board of regents which adopted the following policy on nonresident student tuition at its May 17, 1962, meeting:

The Regents of the University of Hawaii believe firmly that substantial educational and cultural benefits are derived from having a significant number of out-of-state students in the University student body.

The University of Hawaii has a lesser percentage of out-of-state students than the average in similar mainland institutions. One reason for this is the substantial transportation expense of students coming to Hawaii from the mainland. Further, out-of-state students often bring economic gains to the State, in that they are more permanent tourists.

Special non-resident fees would impose a financial rather than an academic condition on acceptance at the University of Hawaii which might have an adverse effect on the quality of such students. Hawaii is widely recognized for its statesmanlike viewpoint regarding out-of-state fees.

In view of these considerations, the Regents affirm their continued support of the present policy which makes no distinction in tuition and fees between resident and non-resident students.

Purpose of This Study

Prior to the adoption of the above policy by the board of regents of the University of Hawaii, the Select Committee on Higher Education of the House of Representatives submitted a report (House Select Committee Report No. 12, 1962 Budget Session), which was adopted on April 11, 1962, stating:

It has been argued . . . that resident taxpayers should not be compelled to support non-resident students attending the University of Hawaii. Other state colleges and universities have differentials and for good reason. The day is rapidly approaching, if it is not here already, when our University's capacity and facilities will be severely taxed or become inadequate to accommodate all our resident students. The absence of differentials may very well lead to restricting resident student admission. Further, a growing number of non-resident students place an increasingly heavy financial burden on the State and may result in a higher tuition rate for resident students. . . .

The Select Committee made two recommendations; the first is a request that the University of Hawaii leave the present tuition and compulsory fee schedules unchanged, pending the findings of the U. S. Office of Education survey of higher education in Hawaii and further consideration of out-of-state tuition by the next Legislature.

The second recommendation requests the legislative reference

bureau to undertake a study on the out-of-state student problem which would include the following:

. . . (a) discussion of the University's present policies on the admission of out-of-state students and the effect of those policies on restricting or encouraging resident attendance, both in the present and in the future; (b) consideration of the effect of present non-resident attendance on the University's budget and of its possible effects in the future; (c) examination of the contributions of non-resident students to academic life at the University and to the economy of Hawaii; and (d) exploration of a workable definition of "residency" and formulation of possible means of implementing this definition effectively. The legislative reference bureau is also requested to investigate the possibility of establishing reciprocal arrangements between states relative to non-resident tuition.

This report presents data in fulfillment of the above requirements set by the Select Committee. Primary attention is given to nonresident American students since the State of Hawaii, in assuming the unique responsibility of serving as the site of the East-West Center, has already committed itself to the acceptance of a relatively large number of students from foreign countries. The University of Hawaii charges the federal government for the instruction of East-West Center grantees; therefore, they would not be affected by a change in the University's tuition policy. However, subsequent data will indicate that the State of Hawaii is making a financial contribution to the education of East-West Center students. Furthermore, other foreign students (not on East-West Center grants) might be affected if nonresident status is assigned to them for tuition differential purposes.

Chapter II discusses the characteristics of nonresident students at the University of Hawaii and explores their contributions to the academic and extracurricular life of the campus and to the economy of Hawaii, as well as attempts to estimate the instructional costs for nonresident students. Chapter III presents information on the treatment of nonresident students in selected universities in terms of residence classification, admission policies, and tuition-setting procedures. Chapter IV summarizes some of the essential facts and principles which might be studied by the University and Legislature and sets forth a few ways in which Hawaii may formulate policies relating to nonresident students.

Footnotes

1. Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, Out-of-State Students in the West's Public Colleges and Universities (Boulder, Colorado: the Commission, July 1962), p. 1.
2. Benjamin Fine, "Universities Limit Out-State Students", New York Times (June 10, 1956), sec. 1, p. 1.
3. Colorado, Legislative Committee for Education Beyond High School, Education Beyond High School: Report to the Colorado General Assembly, Committee Study No. 2 on Finance, Enrollments, and Faculty Preview (Denver: the Committee, January 1961), p. xxiv.
4. Charles Hoff, "Trends in Fees, Salaries, and Enrollments in 497 Colleges and Universities", School and Society 27 (September 1, 1951), pp. 84-85.
5. U. S. Office of Education, Higher Education Planning and Management Data, 1960-61; Salaries, Tuition and Fees, Room and Board, by W. Robert Bokelman, Circular 651 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1961), p. 52.
6. Louis A. D'Amico, W. Robert Bokelman, and Herbert S. Conrad, "Resident and Nonresident Charges for Tuition and Fees to Undergraduates in Public Institutions: 1961-62" (manuscript), p. 3.

CHAPTER II
THE UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
STUDENT BODY

During the last decade, there have been annual increases in the number of nonresident students attending the University of Hawaii. Furthermore, these increases in number have also resulted in nonresident students representing an increasing proportion in the student body. The data in Table 1 indicate that in the fall of 1950, nonresident American (mainland) and foreign students comprised only 4.1 per cent of the student body; in the fall of 1962, this proportion had increased to 15.9 per cent--more than tripling the proportion.¹ The establishment of the East-West Center will continue to give a noticeable impetus to nonresident attendance, both mainland and foreign.²

A word of caution: The data in Table 1--as well as the subsequent discussion of nonresident students--are not based on a clear-cut definition of what a resident student is at the University of Hawaii. Since there is no tuition differential for out-of-staters and since admission policies have not required residence classification, there has been no necessity for developing rules to define residence. Consequently, a student's residence has largely been determined on the basis of his "permanent home address". If it is not in Hawaii, the student has been classified as a nonresident.

This chapter attempts to provide some descriptive details about nonresident American students on the Manoa campus of the University of Hawaii, based on the following sources of information: (a) U. S. Office of Education questionnaire on student characteristics administered in February 1962, (b) University of Hawaii questionnaire on student facilities administered in February 1961, and (c) University of Hawaii questionnaire administered to students during the fall 1962 registration. In order to give more meaning to the observed differences in resident and nonresident student responses, as expressed in percentages, to particular items on the above questionnaires, statistical tests of significance were computed for selected questions from questionnaires (a) and (b) above. The chi-square test was employed because it is useful in testing the hypothesis that both Hawaii and mainland students come from the same homogeneous population. As a result of the chi-square test, if the assertion is made that there is a statistically significant difference between Hawaii and mainland students in their responses to particular items, this means that the probability of such a difference arising by chance is less than 5 in 1,000.

Contributions of nonresident students to the academic and extracurricular life of the campus are also explored. As a result of these types of data, there may emerge a better understanding of the effects of having nonresident students on the University campus.

Much more difficult, and perhaps hazardous, is to identify the effect of nonresident students on the University budget and on the Hawaii economy, as specified in the House Committee report giving rise to this project. While data on the economic status of these students and on estimated costs for college life in

Table 1
GEOGRAPHIC ORIGIN OF STUDENTS
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
FALL TERM, 1950 TO 1962

Fall Term	G e o g r a p h i c O r i g i n s						Students from Mainland and Foreign Countries		
	Hawaii		Mainland		Foreign Countries		Total	Number	Per Cent
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent			
1950	4,608	95.9	172	3.6	27	.6	4,807	199	4.2
1951*	4,470	95.3	187	4.0	35	.7	4,692	222	4.7
1952	4,359	94.8	199	4.3	42	.9	4,600	241	5.2
1953	4,327	93.8	222	4.8	66	1.4	4,615	288	6.2
1954	4,358	93.3	234	5.0	77	1.6	4,669	311	6.6
1955	4,817	93.0	270	5.2	93	1.8	5,180	363	7.0
1956	5,006	92.4	309	5.7	102	1.9	5,417	411	7.6
1957	5,235	91.2	353	6.1	153	2.7	5,741	506	8.8
1958	5,762	90.8	436	6.9	144	2.3	6,342	580	9.2
1959	6,197	89.4	565	8.1	172	2.5	6,934	737	10.6
1960	6,649	88.5	651	8.7	211	2.8	7,511	862	11.5
1961	7,037	85.5	753	9.1	441	5.4	8,231	1,194	14.5
1962	7,695	84.1	920	10.1	535	5.8	9,150	1,455	15.9

Sources: University of Hawaii, Office of Admissions and Records. Data for 1950-1959 were taken from: Harland Bartholomew and Associates, University of Hawaii, General Campus Development Plan, A revision of the Bachman Plan to include The Center for Cultural and Technical Interchange Between East and West in Hawaii (May 1960), p. 10.

*Figures for this year are estimates.

Hawaii may be helpful, they are partial indications at best.

A brief summary of the research results in the various areas immediately follows with some attempt being made to interpret the data. Subsequently are presented the detailed results of the bureau's analysis.

Summary

Nonresident students at the University of Hawaii, Manoa campus, come from practically every state in the Union and many foreign countries. Fewer than 200 of these students are either military personnel or military dependents. Approximately half of the undergraduate and two per cent of the graduate students from out-of-state entered as freshmen. Mainland students, both on the undergraduate and graduate levels, differ significantly from their local counterparts in their choice of curriculum--more mainlanders are in the College of Arts and Sciences and fewer are in the College of Education.

Socioeconomic Characteristics

Certain socioeconomic characteristics deserve mention: (a) About three-fifths of both local and mainland students on the undergraduate level and two-fifths of both groups on the graduate level do not work; (b) Mainland students tend to rely less than local students on their parents as the primary source of support for room, meal, and transportation costs; (c) Parents of mainland students, both undergraduate and graduate, tend to have had more years of formal schooling than the parents of local students; (d) Mainland students on the undergraduate level only seem to have a greater proportion of parents in the professions and protective services (includes military) than local students; (e) Mainland students on the undergraduate level only seem to come from families whose yearly incomes exceed those of local parents.

It would appear, from the above data, that mainland students on the undergraduate level are economically better off than local students. This does not seem to be true, however, of graduate students.

Academic Contributions

In view of the fact that slightly higher requirements are used for the admission and transfer of mainland students, one would expect them to perform well academically. Mainland students exceed the proportion they comprise in the student body when the following factors are considered: (a) inclusion on the Deans' List; (b) graduation with honors; and (c) membership in honorary societies. Mainland student participation in the University's honors program, however, has been limited and not very successful, but the program itself is still new. Slightly greater proportions of mainland students than would be expected (a) withdraw from school voluntarily and (b) are released from the University for poor academic performance. Exploring the reasons for these rates may be helpful in indicating the counseling needs of mainland students.

Extracurricular Participation

The claim is oftentimes made by those who would encourage even greater nonresident attendance than mainland students, because they come from different geographical origins, have much to contribute to campus life. In terms of the factors which were considered as reflective of extracurricular participation, undergraduate mainland students are not very active. Relatively few held campus positions of leadership last year; none was selected for the Real Deans award during the last three years. Unfortunately no data were available on the residence of members in the various clubs on campus.

Student government would appear to be a possible and effective means for local-mainland interchange. Part of the reason for the relative inactivity of nonresident students in student government may be the difficulty they experience in being elected to office or being selected for committee assignments because they are not widely known on campus. A "streetcar campus", by its very nature, makes it especially hard for the newcomer to gain exposure. Living together with other students in dormitories and participating in club activities might be helpful.

Economic Effects

Estimating the effect of nonresident students on the University budget and on the Hawaii economy is difficult because of the nature of the task as well as because of the tenuous nature of the available data. The effect on the University budget was based on estimated average instructional costs and student revenues derived from tuition and laboratory fees. The effect on the economy of the State was based on the estimated contribution of parents to the estimated college living expenses of nonresident students. The analysis reveals that the estimated instructional costs for nonresidents are offset by University revenues derived from students and by the estimated parental contributions to the economy.

Other factors which should be considered in evaluating the short- and long-term effects on the economy are mentioned in the final section of this chapter, but data on these aspects are not available.

General Description

The geographical distribution of students attending the University of Hawaii during the fall of 1962 is presented in Table 2. The greatest number of nonresident students at the University comes from California (223), followed by New York (81), Illinois (55), and Washington (46). All states, except Vermont, and the District of Columbia are claimed by at least one nonresident student as his home. Foreign students come from many parts of the world, but chiefly from the Asiatic countries and the Pacific area.

Among Hawaii's students, females slightly outnumbered males. The opposite is true for mainland and foreign students.

In fall 1962, there were some nonresidents with military affiliation: 9 undergraduates and 21 graduate students were

Table 2

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
FALL 1962

	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
Honolulu	2630	2721	5351
Rural Oahu	657	680	1337
Hawaii	215	248	463
Maui	165	168	333
Molokai	18	23	41
Lanai	9	11	20
Kauai	61	89	150
Total Hawaiian Islands	3755	3940	7695
Alabama	5	1	6
Alaska	7	4	11
Arizona	8	3	11
Arkansas	4	1	5
California	125	98	223
Colorado	7	11	18
Connecticut	7	6	13
Delaware	--	2	2
District of Columbia	4	1	5
Florida	6	6	12
Georgia	2	2	4
Idaho	8	5	13
Illinois	27	28	55
Indiana	9	2	11
Iowa	9	5	14
Kansas	6	5	11
Kentucky	4	--	4
Louisiana	3	1	4
Maine	1	1	2
Maryland	12	5	17
Massachusetts	17	8	25
Michigan	22	15	37
Minnesota	14	6	20
Mississippi	2	--	2
Missouri	14	6	20
Montana	5	1	6
Nebraska	3	4	7
Nevada	1	2	3
New Hampshire	--	1	1
New Jersey	18	13	31
New Mexico	2	2	4
New York	46	35	81
North Carolina	1	1	2
North Dakota	2	2	4
Ohio	17	11	28
Oklahoma	8	1	9
Oregon	15	23	38
Pennsylvania	24	8	32
Rhode Island	2	--	2
South Carolina	2	--	2
South Dakota	2	1	3
Tennessee	5	1	6

Table 2 (continued)

	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
Texas	11	9	20
Utah	5	2	7
Virginia	5	2	7
Washington	24	22	46
West Virginia	6	1	7
Wisconsin	20	4	24
Wyoming	4	1	5
Total U.S. Mainland	551	369	920
American Samoa	7	2	9
Australia	3	1	4
Borneo	3	2	5
Brazil	1	--	1
Burma	12	2	14
Cambodia	5	--	5
Canada	10	3	13
Ceylon	2	2	4
China	8	1	9
England	2	1	3
Ethiopia	1	--	1
Fiji	7	--	7
Formosa	24	12	36
Greece	1	--	1
Guam	2	2	4
Hongkong	37	11	48
India	23	7	30
Indonesia	11	8	19
Iran	2	--	2
Israel	1	1	2
Italy	1	--	1
Japan	72	25	97
Java	1	--	1
Jordan	1	--	1
Korea	22	5	27
Laos	3	--	3
Macao	2	--	2
Malaya	2	1	3
Mexico	2	--	2
Nepal	4	--	4
The Netherlands	1	--	1
New Zealand	--	2	2
Nigeria	1	--	1
Okinawa	24	5	29
Pakistan	11	2	13
Peru	--	1	1
Philippines	36	21	57
Singapore	4	2	6
Sudan	1	--	1
Suva	1	--	1
Switzerland	1	--	1
Tahiti	4	--	4
Thailand	19	13	32

Table 2 (continued)

	<u>MALE</u>	<u>FEMALE</u>	<u>TOTAL</u>
Trust Territory of the Pacific . .	19	2	21
Vietnam	3	1	4
West Germany	2	1	3
Total Foreign Countries	399	136	535
GRAND TOTAL	4705	4445	9150

Source: University of Hawaii, Office of Admissions and Records.

military personnel on active duty; 149 undergraduates and 13 graduate students were dependents of military personnel.

Selected Academic Characteristics: U. S. Office of Education Student Characteristics Survey

Several items in the Student Characteristics Survey, dealing with the academic background of students, were analyzed. See Appendix A for detailed data.

Among the conclusions which can be drawn are the following:

1. Entrance to the University: On both the undergraduate and graduate levels, there are statistically significant differences between Hawaii and mainland students. While 90 per cent of undergraduate Hawaii students entered as freshmen, 42 per cent of mainland students did. Among graduate students from Hawaii, 54 per cent entered the University as freshmen and 39 per cent transferred as graduate students; among mainland students, 2 per cent entered as freshmen and 96 per cent transferred as graduate students.
2. Major field of study: Hawaii and mainland students, undergraduate and graduate students alike, differ significantly in the selection of their major fields of study. On both the undergraduate and graduate levels, significantly greater percentages of Hawaii students are in education, while significantly greater percentages of mainland students are in arts and sciences. A significantly greater proportion of mainland students is in the graduate school.
3. First family member to enroll in college or university: Only among undergraduates, is there a statistically significant difference between Hawaii and mainland students, with 46 per cent of Hawaii and 35 per cent of mainland students indicating that they are the first member in their immediate families to enroll in college.

Selected Economic Characteristics: University of Hawaii Student Facilities Questionnaire

In February 1961 the Student Facilities Questionnaire was administered to students during registration. Several items, relating to the economic background of students, were selected for chi-square analysis; see Appendix B for detailed data. The only question reflecting the possible residence of a student was one dealing with the location of his high school; this was used as the basis for classifying students as Hawaii, mainland, or foreign students. Although this question is not ideal for determining residence, it is an acceptable criterion since many institutions use the location of a student's high school as the basis for making an initial residence classification.

The statistical analysis reveals that there are significant differences among students, as classified by their residence, on all items. The following statements on Hawaii and mainland students may be of interest:

1. Plans to seek employment while in school: Among students who do not work, greater percentages of mainland students in contrast to Hawaii students--both on the undergraduate and graduate levels--do not plan to seek employment.
2. Hours of work per week: Among undergraduate students, 69 per cent from Hawaii and 62 per cent from the mainland do not work; employed mainland students tend, however, to work for more hours per week. Among graduate students, about 40 per cent of both Hawaii and mainland students do not work; those who do work have quite similar working hours.
3. Primary source of support for room, meals, and transportation costs: Among undergraduate students from Hawaii, costs are borne by parents in at least 60 per cent of the cases, while approximately one-third of mainland students rely on their parents as the primary source. Among graduate students, about 45 per cent of Hawaii and 56 per cent of mainland students earn money to pay for most of these costs.

A study of student loans made on the campus indicates that approximately 10 per cent of the students receiving such loans are out-of-staters. Generally loans cover the cost of tuition and books (\$150-175 per semester); such loans bear no interest, and students are expected to make repayment by the end of the semester.

Parental Background: U. S. Office of Education Student Characteristics Survey

The following conclusions, based on detailed data found in Appendix A, are pertinent:

1. Educational level of parents: On both the undergraduate and graduate levels, there are statistically significant differences between Hawaii and mainland students. Among undergraduates, the parents of mainland students are more highly educated than those of Hawaii students; 40 per cent of mainland and 16 per cent of Hawaii students had parents who had graduated with at least a bachelor's degree. On the graduate level, the difference, though significant and favoring the educational level of mainland parents, is not so large as that for undergraduates.
2. Classification of father's occupation: There is a statistically significant difference between Hawaii and mainland students only on the undergraduate level. More mainland students have parents in the professions and in the protective services (includes military personnel), while more Hawaii students have parents performing clerical and sales work and skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled labor.
3. Total gross yearly income of family: About one-fourth of mainland and Hawaii students--on both the undergraduate and graduate levels--did not know their family

income. Among those responding a statistically significant difference between Hawaii and mainland students was found only on the undergraduate level. A significantly greater proportion of mainland students comes from families with yearly incomes in excess of \$18,000 (12 per cent of mainland and 5 per cent of Hawaii students) and in the \$15,000 to \$18,000 bracket (8 per cent of mainland and 4 per cent of Hawaii students).

According to the U. S. Office of Education report on higher education, the median family income for all students at the University is \$7,700--approximately \$1,300 higher than the 1960 median income for families in Hawaii. Comparisons with the family incomes of students in private and church-related colleges were made by the Office of Education; University of Hawaii students appear to come from homes with "greater economic resources".

Contributions to Academic Life

This assessment of the contributions of nonresident students to the academic life of the University is undertaken in terms of factors on which information is readily available and quantifiable. An examination was made of recent students who were on the "Deans' List", who participated in the Honors Program, who graduated with honors, who received awards and prizes at graduation, who were enrolled in honorary societies, who were dropped out of school, and who withdrew from school. While a probing of these areas may not give a complete picture of the academic performance of nonresident students, the results may be more helpful than generalizations based on necessarily limited observations.

In view of the higher academic standards applied to nonresident students who enter as freshmen or who transfer at some later date, one would expect nonresident students to perform better, on the average, than resident students. On the other hand, adjustment problems for the mainland students cannot be overlooked, for they may have a difficult time getting accustomed to the University of Hawaii. The recent annual report of the University's Counseling and Testing Service indicates that in 1961-62, 300 mainland students were counseled. This number represented 16 per cent of the total population who utilized the Service--at a time when the mainland students comprised 9 per cent of the student body.

Statistical Frame of Reference

Comparisons made between Hawaii and mainland students are especially meaningful if one bears in mind what percentage of the student body these groups comprise:

	<u>Hawaii</u>	<u>Mainland</u>	<u>Foreign</u>
1959-60	89.4%	8.1%	2.5%
1960-61	88.5	8.7	2.8
1961-62	85.5	9.1	5.4

Inclusion in the "Deans' List"

In order to be included in the "Deans' List" students must achieve a grade point average of 3.5 (4 = A) the preceding semester.

During the last three academic years, mainland students have comprised varying proportions on the Deans' List; the average proportion being 14.4 per cent. See Table 3 for details.

Table 3

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ON THE DEANS' LIST,
BY RESIDENCE OF STUDENT
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
1959-1962

Residence	1959-1960		1960-1961		1961-1962	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
Hawaii	421	86.8	343	79.4	547	85.3
Mainland U. S.	56	11.5	80	18.5	85	13.3
Foreign Country	7	1.4	8	1.9	6	.9
Unknown	1	.2	1	.2	3	.5
TOTAL	485		432		641	

Sources: University of Hawaii, Office of Admissions and Records and Office of Student Personnel.

Participation in the Honors Program

Regularly enrolled students at the University who wish to graduate "with honors" apply for admission to the Honors Program, generally near the end of their sophomore year. In addition to maintaining an average grade of B in all courses in the major subject or in all college courses taken during the junior and senior years, the Honors Program student is expected to fulfill three other requirements:

1. Each Honors student must pursue a program of independent reading or research in his major field culminating in a senior thesis. . . .
2. Each Honors student must pass a written comprehensive examination in his major field. . . .
3. Each Honors student will attend during his senior year an interdisciplinary colloquium to be held one evening a week. Broad topics of interest, particularly those

cutting across conventional subject matter boundaries, will be at the core of the colloquium. . . .³

The first group of Honors candidates was admitted in the summer and fall of 1960. Out of the total group of 44, 84.1 per cent (37) were students from Hawaii. When the majority of this group graduated in June 1962, there were: (a) only 13 students who graduated with honors; all but one are resident students and (b) 2 whose work did not reach the academic level set by the program; both are resident students. (There were four others still in the program who were to graduate at a later date; all are resident students.)

Of the seven mainland students in the Honors Program, one graduated with honors. Six students left the program, one because she disapproved of the program, another because she left Hawaii, and the remaining four for unknown reasons.

Graduation with Honors or with Academic Commendation

Prior to June 1962, students with an average grade point ratio of 3.4 or higher were graduated "with honors". This term is now applied only to those who fulfill the requirements of the Honors Program. Students who have an average grade point ratio of 3.4 or higher, but who do not participate in the Honors Program, are graduated with "academic commendation".

During the last three academic years, nonresident students comprised 22.7 per cent of 22 graduates so honored in 1959-60, 10.8 per cent of the 37 honored in 1960-61, and 20 per cent of the 40 honored in 1961-62.

Selection for Awards and Prizes

At each commencement, several students are honored as recipients of various awards and prizes. During the last three graduation exercises at the University, slightly more than four-fifths of the honorees have been resident students. Mainland students have tended to do well in creative writing and playwriting; of the 10 prizes won by mainland students during the last three years, 7 have been in the writing fields. Table 4 furnishes data on the nature of various prizes and the residence of the recipients for each prize.

Enrollment in Honorary Societies

The University has campus chapters of several national honorary societies. Election to Phi Beta Kappa is regarded as one of the highest undergraduate honors. Phi Kappa Phi is likewise an honorary society recognizing scholarly achievement. Other societies honor achievement in specified fields, such as science, physics, civil engineering, speech, and education.

An examination of Table 5 reveals that while 86 per cent of the 157 students in these organizations were resident students in 1960-61, this percentage dropped to 79 per cent of 146 students in 1961-62. The percentage for mainland students increased sharply--from 10 to 20 per cent.

Table 4

NUMBER OF STUDENTS SELECTED FOR AWARDS AND
PRIZES, BY RESIDENCE OF STUDENT
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
1959-1962

Note: Foreign students were omitted because they were not selected for these prizes. Activities in speech and Real Dean Awards are discussed under extracurricular activities.

Awards and Prizes	1959-60		1960-61		1961-62	
	Hawaii	Main-land	Hawaii	Main-land	Hawaii	Main-land
Phi Kappa Phi Prize (Highest grade point average)	x		x		x	
Banks Memorial Prize (creative writing)	x			x		x
Theatre Group Play- writing Prizes	1	2	2	1	2	2
Dean Prize for Under- graduate Research	x		not awarded		2	
Carl F. Knobloch Prize (government)	x		x		x	
Das Prize in Asian History and Politics	not awarded		not awarded		x	
Charles F. Loomis Prize (Asian and Pacific Relations)	not awarded		not awarded		1	1
Kuykendall Prize in History	not awarded			x	x	
Hawaiian Botanical Society Award	x		x		not awarded	
Magistad Award of the American Chemical Society, Hawaiian Section	x		x		x	
Merck Index Award in Chemistry	2		x		x	
Foster Memorial Award (agriculture)	not awarded		not awarded		not awarded	
American Society of Civil Engineers Award	x		x		x	
Gamma Phi Beta Honor Award in Education	x		x		not awarded	
Hui Kahu Mai (nursing)	2		3		3	
United Business Education Association Award	x		x		x	

Table 4 (continued)

Awards and Prizes	1959-60		1960-61		1961-62	
	Hawaii	Main-land	Hawaii	Main-land	Hawaii	Main-land
Arnold L. Wills Memorial Award (industrial relations)		x	not awarded		not awarded	
Carey D. Miller Award (home economics)	x		x		x	
Crisco Award (home economics)	x		x		x	
Hawaii Dietetics Association	not awarded		x		x	
TOTAL	16	3	16	3	19	4
Per Cent	84.2	15.8	84.2	15.8	82.6	17.4

Sources: University of Hawaii, Commencement Programs for 1960, 1961, and 1962.

Table 5
 NUMBER OF NEWLY-ENROLLED MEMBERS IN NATIONAL HONORARY
 SOCIETIES WITH CAMPUS CHAPTERS, BY RESIDENCE OF STUDENT
 UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
 1960-1962

Honorary Society	1960-61				1961-62			
	Hawaii	Mainland	Foreign	Total	Hawaii	Mainland	Foreign	Total
Phi Beta Kappa	19	3	1	23	16	9	1	26
Phi Kappa Phi	27	7	0	34	24	8	0	32
Sigma Xi (sciences)	7	2	2	12*	2	2	0	4
Sigma Pi Sigma (physics)	5	0	2	7	2	2	1	5
Chi Epsilon (civil engineering)	8	0	0	8	7	0	0	7
Omicron Delta Kappa (leadership)	11	0	0	11	9	3	0	12
Pi Sigma Epsilon (marketing)	16	3	0	19	20	0	0	20
Delta Sigma Rho (speech)	2	0	0	2	6	1	0	7
Phi Delta Kappa (education)	9	0	1	10	8	4	0	12
Pi Lambda Theta** (education)	31	0	0	31	21	0	0	21
Total	135	15	6	157*	115	29	2	146
Per Cent	86.0	9.6	3.8		78.8	19.9	1.4	

Table 5 (continued)

Sources: University of Hawaii, Office of Admissions and Records; commencement programs for 1961 and 1962; officers and advisors of various organizations.

Note: Although the University once had a local chapter of Pi Gamma Mu (social sciences), it is not active at the present time.

*The residence of one student in this group is not known.

**This organization is presently a "proposed chapter" of the national organization; the chapter may be recognized during the 1962-63 school year.

Classification as "Drop-Out" Students

In contrast to students who withdraw from school on their own are "drop-outs" or students who have been dismissed from the University because of poor academic performance. Such students may apply for readmission, but normally it would not be granted until at least one semester of non-University activity has elapsed.

During the 1961-62 academic year, there were 1,161 "drop-outs"; 1,005 (86.6 per cent) were resident students, 142 (12.2 per cent) were mainland students, and 14 (1.2 per cent) were foreign students.

Classification as "Withdrawals"

"Withdrawals" are students who voluntarily decide to leave the University. An analysis was made of the reasons for withdrawing during 1961-62; results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

NUMBER OF STUDENT "WITHDRAWALS", BY RESIDENCE
OF STUDENT AND REASON FOR WITHDRAWING
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
1961-62

Reason for Withdrawal	R e s i d e n c e			
	Hawaii	Mainland	Foreign Country	Unknown
Academic	51	8	2	8
Financial	110	32	0	1
Personal	186	51	16	8
Transfer	1	1	0	0
Not Stated	16	4	0	0
TOTAL	364	96	18	17
Per Cent	73.5	19.4	3.6	3.4

Source: University of Hawaii, Office of Admissions and Records.

Out of 495 withdrawals in 1961-62, almost one-fifth were mainland students. Their reasons were various, but "personal" and "financial" problems were most common not only for nonresident students but for resident students as well.

Participation in Extracurricular Activities

Among the 171 campus positions of leadership, as listed in the 1961-62 student Telephone Directory, are 79 in student government, 30 in student-faculty boards, and 62 in campus organizations. These positions are held by 138 students; 121 (87.7 per cent) are resident students, 10 (7.2 per cent) are mainland students, 1 is a foreign student, and 6 whose residences are not known.

Each year the Associated Students of the University of Hawaii (ASUH) awards medals to students who have promoted ASUH activities through willing and untiring efforts. During the last three years, 5 persons were given such Real Dean Awards; all were resident students.

Hui Pookela is an organization to which women are elected for their academic performance and general character. During the last two years (1960-1962), all but one of the 19 selected were resident students.

During the last two years, two out of three students who received speech awards were resident students.

Effects on the University Budget and the Hawaii Economy

The effects of nonresident attendance on the University budget and on the Hawaii economy are difficult to ascertain. Estimates of these effects are attempted, but it should be noted that these estimates are based upon certain assumptions and involve qualifications on which there is no agreement.

In estimating the effects of nonresident students on the University budget, two factors are considered: (a) the cost of instruction at the University and (b) the income derived from nonresident students. From these data, it is possible to estimate the subsidy required to support nonresident attendance.

In exploring the effects of nonresident students on the Hawaii economy, the legislative reference bureau initially contacted several leading economists in the State; they noted that data on this subject are not available. The primary factors considered in estimating contributions to the general economy are: (a) the cost of college living and (b) the portion of college costs made up of parental contributions. These are based on mainland estimates.

Data on Instructional Costs and Student Revenues

Probably the most perplexing task in determining college instructional costs is the selection of factors that should be considered. The undertaking is further complicated by the fact that the cost of educating students is different in the several colleges of the University and that the instructional costs even in the same college are not the same for each of the four undergraduate years.

Information on instructional costs at the University of Hawaii was obtained from the office of institutional research. Included in these costs are all expenses charged to the colleges--i.e., salaries of faculty members, including their portion for research; salaries of secretaries in the various departments; expenses of the deans' offices; cost of supplies and equipment in instructional departments; and the cost of any other activities primarily the concern of the colleges. The office of institutional research reports that in 1962-63, the estimated average instructional costs for all colleges will be: (a) \$626 per full-time equivalent student on the undergraduate level and (b) \$2,588 per full-time equivalent student on the graduate level.⁴ The average cost for all colleges was determined because students take courses in colleges other than the ones in which they are registered.⁵

It was decided to use 1962-63 estimated costs because information on nonresident student enrollment on the Manoa campus in the fall 1962 registration was obtained with the assistance of the office of admissions and records.⁶ Instead of identifying nonresident students by their "permanent home address", they were so classified if they had not resided in Hawaii for twelve consecutive months prior to initial registration at the University. Foreign students are thus included in this analysis. The data in Table 7 indicate that there are 1,109 full-time undergraduate and 663 graduate students who had not resided in Hawaii for twelve consecutive months prior to initial registration at the University--a total of 1,772 students are classified as nonresidents for purposes of this analysis.⁷ Furthermore, it is assumed that all graduate students are carrying a full course load.

There are essentially three sources of University income from students:⁸

1. The annual tuition of \$170;
2. The laboratory fees charged for certain courses--the business office estimates that there is an average laboratory fee of \$14 per year for each full-time equivalent student; and
3. Special scholarships which cover more than tuition. The most prominent scholarship program is the one provided by the East-West Center: the federal subsidy is \$1,000 for most of the grantees at the present time; new ones entering in fall 1962 are subsidized at the rate of \$1,750. Another program under the National Defense Education Act bases its scholarship grant on actual instructional costs as defined by factors selected by the U. S. Office of Education, but sets a ceiling. The University's business office indicates that the estimated instructional costs for 1962-63 are: \$1,554 in botany, genetics, history, and psychology; \$1,409 in soil science; and \$2,989 in chemistry and biochemistry. Based on these figures, the average NDEA fellowship is approximately \$2,000.

Data on College Living Costs

A rough estimate of college living costs can be made on the basis of the University's figures on students' minimum expenses:

Table 7
NUMBER OF NONRESIDENT STUDENTS,
BY COLLEGE AND LEVEL OF INSTRUCTION
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
FALL 1962

College	Lower Division	Upper Division	Graduate	Total
Graduate School	--	--	49	49
Arts and Sciences	288	220	342	850
Business Administration	83	75	24	182
Education	71	63	51	185
Engineering	44	28	4	76
Nursing	13	16	--	29
Tropical Agriculture	20	10	56	86
Not Designated		178	137	315
TOTAL		1,109	663	1,772

Source: University of Hawaii, Office of Admissions and Records, based on questionnaire administered in fall 1962.

Minimum expenses are estimated at from \$1,250 to \$1,500 a year for board, room, tuition, registration, course fees, class and student body fees, and books. Off-campus living costs may be higher. These estimates do not include the cost of clothing, laundry, transportation, and other personal items. Students from outside the State should add the cost of transportation to and from Hawaii and additional items for adjustments in a new community. . . .⁹

Adding the cost of personal incidentals and deducting the cost of tuition and course fees, it is estimated that the cost of college living is approximately \$1,600 for nonresident students.¹⁰ The East-West Center grantee receives approximately \$1,700 per academic year for room, food, and personal expenses.

One can not assume, however, that all nonresident students contribute approximately \$1,600 annually to the Hawaii economy in view of the fact that close to 40 per cent of undergraduate mainland students and 60 per cent of graduate mainland students had part-time employment (see discussion on Student Facilities Questionnaire). While out-of-state parents doubtless are sending some money to their children attending the University of Hawaii, there is also the turnover of local money for students who are employed.¹¹ Such turnover, while increasing the circulation of local money, does not bring new money into the State. It does, however, add to economic values created in the State, assuming that normal market relations prevail in this employment so that mainland students are worth their hire.

In order to estimate parental contributions to the college living costs of nonresident students, the results of the Survey Research Center were used:

Main sources of funds: Of the total annual expenses of college students, roughly 60 percent on the average is met from money contributed by their parents. Of the average total cost for single students of \$1550, about \$950 came from parents, \$360 from money earned by the student, \$130 from scholarships, and \$110 from other sources. These estimates, however, are approximate and conceal much variation from student to student. For example, 2 percent of single students receive \$3000 or more from their parents.¹²

Based on a parental contribution amounting to 60 per cent of college costs, it is estimated that \$960 per nonresident student (not on an East-West Center grant) comes into the State.

Estimates of Economic Effects

Based on the data presented above on instructional costs, student revenues, and college living costs, Table 8 was prepared to summarize the estimated economic effects of nonresident students. Once again the reader is reminded of the tenuous nature of the data used in this analysis.

The data in Table 8 indicate that it annually costs the State approximately 2.4 million dollars to educate nonresident students. However, student revenues are estimated to be approximately 0.7 million dollars. While there results a 1.7 million dollar subsidy, nonresident students are making an estimated

Table 8

ESTIMATED EFFECTS OF NONRESIDENT STUDENTS
ON THE UNIVERSITY BUDGET AND THE HAWAII ECONOMY
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
1962-63

Students	Number	Estimated Cost of Instruction	Estimated University Income from Tuition, Fees, and Grants	Estimated Contribution to Living Costs from Outside of State
<u>Undergraduate</u>				
East-West Center Grantees*	45	\$ 28,170	\$ 63,000	\$ 76,500
Other Nonresident Students	1,064	666,064	195,776	1,021,440
SUB-TOTAL	1,109	\$ 694,234	\$258,776	\$1,097,940
<u>Graduate</u>				
East-West Center Grantees*	324	\$ 838,512	\$377,250	\$ 550,800
NDEA Fellows	25	64,700	50,000	24,000
Other Nonresident Students**	314	812,632	57,776	301,440
SUB-TOTAL	663	\$1,715,844	\$485,026	\$ 876,240
TOTAL	1,772	\$2,410,078	\$743,802	\$1,974,180

Sources: University of Hawaii, Business Office, Office of Admissions and Records, Office of Institutional Research, East-West Center.

Table 8 (continued)

*Although there are some resident students on East-West Center grants, they are included in this count. In fall 1962, there were 58 undergraduate and 414 graduate students with grants; only 369 were on the University campus--45 undergraduate and 324 graduate students. Although the University is given some compensation for handling study tours and study programs for the others, this amount is excluded since the students affected are not presently enrolled at the University.

The East-West Center was requested to estimate the number of students on the campus receiving \$1,000 and \$1,750 grants. Their estimates are as follows: 21 undergraduate and 253 graduate students on \$1,000 grants; 24 undergraduate and 71 graduate students on \$1,750 grants.

Omitted from this tabulation is the sum of approximately \$274,000 which the East-West Center gave in direct support for American studies, Asian studies, student services, and Sinclair Library.

**Does not consider the costs of supporting 74 graduate teaching and 33 research assistants who are tuition-exempt and who can be classified as nonresidents. These students do not ordinarily carry a full course load.

contribution to the general economy of close to 2 million dollars. If the estimated multiplier of 1.72, noted in footnote 11, is applied to the total of student revenues¹³ and contributions to living costs, it may be estimated that approximately 4.7 million dollars of income is generated within the State by the injection of new money spent in Hawaii by or for mainland students.

If East-West Center grantees are omitted from the analysis, the estimated instructional costs would be approximately 1.5 million dollars; student revenues approximately 0.3 million dollars; contribution to the general economy approximately 1.3 million dollars.

Two additional qualifications need to be added. While the data may indicate that student revenues plus contributions to the general economy exceed the estimated cost of instruction, especially if a multiplier is applied, no allowance has been made in the estimate contained in Table 8 for the additional increments of administrative, library, maintenance, and capital costs attributable to the presence of out-of-state students. Furthermore, a net addition to the economy as a whole does not mean that the contributions may be translated directly into tax revenues which may be tapped to offset the additional costs incurred by the University. Thus, in the short-run, the economy could conceivably benefit while at the same time the state general fund was being pinched.

Other Considerations

Other factors which might be included in the analysis of the short-range economic contributions of nonresident students are: (a) payment of transportation costs, and (b) expenditure of relatives and friends who visit Hawaii. Another factor is the part-time employment of students--this may enhance the economic welfare of the State if such employment is not depriving the local labor force of jobs, but rather making it possible for local needs to be met. Unfortunately, there is no information on this aspect. The University advises out-of-state students to "arrive prepared to meet their full expenses for the year."¹⁴

The dollar approach of immediate effects is not sufficient in exploring this subject. Long-term economic benefits need to be considered. One can argue that a certain proportion of nonresident students will decide to settle in the State, and thus make a life-long contribution to the economy. Those who return to the mainland or settle elsewhere may encourage other students to enroll at the University. Decisions, favorable to the economic development of Hawaii, may well be made by University alumni working elsewhere. (The reverse may also be true.)

The intangible economic benefits of enabling local students the opportunity for further development through their association with out-of-state students, although recognized, defy measurement.

Footnotes

1. In fall 1961, the proportions of Hawaii, mainland, and foreign students were 89, 8, and 3 per cent, respectively, for undergraduates and 70, 14, and 16 per cent, respectively, for graduate students.
2. Omitted from this discussion are student enrollments during the summer and in the College of General Studies. Reports from the Summer Session Office indicate that during the regular sessions of 1960, 1961, and 1962, mainland and foreign students comprised 36.4, 30.4, and 31.1 per cent, respectively, of the total enrollments. The College of General Studies estimates that about half of its enrollment is from out-of-state and that this group is largely composed of military personnel and military dependents.
3. Judson L. Ihrig, Undergraduate Honors and Related Programs at the University of Hawaii (September 1961), pp. 6-7.
4. A full-time equivalent student is one who registers for 32 credits per academic year.
5. See page 318 of the U. S. Office of Education report, University of Hawaii and Higher Education in Hawaii, for a different set of cost figures computed in a different way and based on different components.
6. A questionnaire was administered during the fall 1962 registration by the office of admissions and records to furnish the legislative reference bureau with data relative to the number of nonresident students on campus, their grade level and college, and their military affiliation.
7. According to data in Table 2, based on permanent home address, there are 1,455 nonresident students.
8. The registration fee is excluded because it is difficult to claim that it is used for "educational purposes".
9. University of Hawaii, General Catalogue 1962-1963, Bulletin, Vol. XLI (June 1962), p. 14.
10. The Survey Research Center of the University of Michigan reports that in 1959-60, the average annual expenses of unmarried college students were about \$1,550 per year. John B. Lansing, Thomas Lorimer, and Chikashi Moriguchi, How People Pay for College (Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, University of Michigan, 1960), p. 1.
11. A study of the impact of exports on the income of Hawaii was conducted by the First National Bank of Hawaii. In an unpublished manuscript, it is noted that the introduction of new money into the Hawaii economy from an outside source starts "a chain reaction which can be more important than the impact of the original spending. This is known as the 'multiplier effect' of injections of new money." The report concludes that there is a multiplier of 1.72 in Hawaii.
12. Lansing, et al, op. cit., p. 1.
13. The sum of University income from tuition, fees, and grants, shown in Table 8 as approximating \$740,000.
14. Material sent by the office of admissions and records to applicants from the Continental United States.

CHAPTER III

RESIDENCE CLASSIFICATION, ADMISSION POLICIES, AND TUITION FOR NONRESIDENT STUDENTS IN SELECTED UNIVERSITIES

One of the requirements of this project is to explore a "workable definition of residency". As a means of doing this and in order to show the variety of policies relating to nonresident students, the practices of selected universities were studied.* It should be pointed out, however, that existing practices should be considered in terms of the objectives of a nonresident student program. If this is done, varying practices can be effectively evaluated. In this chapter are presented examples of policies regarding residence classification, admission, and tuition for nonresident students. The chapter is illustrative rather than comprehensive in its coverage of institutional practices.

In view of the diversity of practices included in this chapter, a summary follows. Readers interested in the details should refer to the sections which follow the summary.

Summary

Policies on residence classification, admission, and tuition are usually developed by state institutions of higher learning to implement their decisions or those of their legislatures with respect to the participation of out-of-state students. These three types of policies are interrelated. They may be designed so that one policy reinforces another or so that one mitigates against the effect of another. For example, the policy to establish a high nonresident tuition differential may be offset, at least in part, by a less restrictive definition of residence. An institution's approach cannot be explained in terms of tuition differentials, admission quotas, or definitions of residency, as isolated factors, but only as a combination of policies in these three areas. Ideally, the particular policies developed by an institution are based upon the objectives which it desires to achieve.

Residence Classification

The residence classification of a student at a state institution is significant for at least two reasons. The first and most obvious is the amount of tuition that is charged. The admission requirements which are to be applied are also fre-

*This chapter is based largely upon information obtained in personal interviews held by the author on several campuses: University of Washington, University of Minnesota, University of Michigan, Michigan State University, Wayne State University, University of Colorado, and University of California Los Angeles. Information on other universities was gathered from their respective catalogues or through correspondence.

quently related to the student's residence classification. For a resident student, tuition is lower and admission may be easier than for a nonresident.

There are wide variations as to which agency of government prescribes the definition of a nonresident student. In some states it is the legislature and the definition is incorporated in the law. In other states the definition is formulated by the governing board of the university or the coordinating board which governs several universities and appears in rules and regulations. In still other instances there are both statutory requirements and administrative rules.

Institutions of higher education vary greatly in the criteria they use in determining a student's residence. Among the common factors are the following: (a) length of residence in the state; (b) emancipation of minors; (c) status of wives; (d) classification of aliens; and (e) other regulations. Most states require resident students to have lived in the state for a designated period of time prior to their initial registration at the state university. In the case of students who are minors, the length of residence usually applies to their parents or guardians. When a minor is emancipated from his parents or guardians, he must usually qualify for resident status as an adult. Most frequently marriage or self-support is recognized as the sign of emancipation. The residence of a wife usually follows that of her husband though some states protect the female's resident status even though she marries a nonresident. The treatment of aliens varies. Some states accept them as residents if they have secured declaration of intent papers and otherwise meet the residence requirements. Many states note other types of evidence which may or may not be used in establishing resident status.

Various groups of individuals are granted the privilege of paying the resident tuition rate even though residence requirements are not met. Among these groups are military personnel and dependents, federal employees and dependents, staff members and public school teachers, and graduate students. Frequently state universities treat military personnel and their dependents as residents during the period that such personnel are stationed in the state. Several states apply a similar provision to federal employees who, as a result of civil orders, move into a state. There are also universities which make an exception to the out-of-state requirement for staff members and families and teachers in the public schools. Some institutions in defining residence have more liberal provisions for graduate than for undergraduate students.

The determination of residency is a complicated matter. Different universities have followed different procedures in making these determinations. Sometimes the reliance is placed on an individual officer, other times on a board. Frequently provision is made for appeal of a decision.

Admission Policies

Some students, classified as nonresidents for tuition purposes because they do not meet residence requirements, are

considered as residents for admission purposes. This means that admission is easier for such students than for the typical non-resident. While the particular groups of students given such special consideration vary among institutions, frequently the children of alumni are selected for this privilege.

Some institutions have established quotas for nonresident students as a means of insuring adequate facilities for the youth of their state. Quotas may have the effect of restricting the admission of out-of-state students to those with better than average academic qualifications.

A school may set higher academic requirements for nonresident students than resident students and thus reduce the number of incoming nonresident students. This policy may also have the effect of making the nonresident portion of the student body the brighter portion.

Tuition Policies

All land-grant colleges and state universities in the 50 states, except the University of Hawaii, charge nonresidents tuition rates which range from 1-1/2 to 3 times the rates for resident students. There has also been a tendency to increase nonresident tuition more rapidly than resident tuition.

The authority to set nonresident tuition may be lodged with the governing board of the university or the amounts may be specified in statute. The tuition may be the same for all non-residents, or there may be an attempt to relate tuition more directly to costs, resulting in different charges for the different colleges. Summer session fees are sometimes the same for residents and nonresidents, probably in part because of the administrative problems involved in residence classification.

Nonresident tuition is determined in several different ways. In some instances it is set to cover a percentage of the cost of instruction. Other schools, in setting this charge, are concerned about the level of charges at neighboring institutions. The concept of reciprocity has been employed occasionally in several different forms.

Attempts have been made to mitigate the effect of tuition differentials on out-of-state students by providing scholarships or permitting the remittance of a portion of the nonresident tuition for some of these students. Furthermore, there are special efforts made to give financial aid to out-of-state graduate students.

Residence Classification¹

The classification of students as "resident" or "non-resident" is a complex task. Rules and regulations are generally developed to serve as guides in a majority of cases, but from time to time there are "unique" or "peculiar" cases that must be handled on an individual basis. In some institutions, rather elaborate machinery has been set up for the processing of such cases and for the treatment of appeals.

Residence Requirements

Defining "residence" is no easy task. Corpus Juris Secundum states: "The word 'residence' is a noun . . . It has been variously characterized as an ambiguous, amorphous, broad, elastic, flexible, general, liberal, relative, slippery term."² This source then goes on to indicate that:

Two fundamental elements are essential to create a residence, and these elements are: (1) Bodily presence in a place. (2) The intention of remaining in that place. Residence is thus made up of fact and intention . . . Neither bodily presence alone nor intention alone will suffice to create a residence. There must be a combination and concurrence of these elements, and when they occur, and at the very moment they occur, a residence is created.³

In California, Colorado, Kansas, and Wisconsin, the non-resident student is defined by law. In Colorado, the legislature, in enacting legislation dealing with the classification of non-resident students, further indicated that all institutions of higher education were expected to apply the prescribed uniform rules. In other states, like Minnesota, the definition is formulated by the governing board of the university. In California and several other states the definitions of a nonresident are different for payment of tuition and for admission of the student. Residence requirements for admission purposes are generally more liberal than are those for tuition purposes.

A 1960 survey of all public four-year colleges and universities in the Western states, made by the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education (WICHE), showed that in about half of the Western states, residence requirements are established by state law, while boards of regents make rules in most of the remaining states, although in a few cases both statutory and administrative rules are developed.

Colleges and universities vary greatly in the factors they consider to be evidence of a student's residence. Just as variant are the exceptions to residence requirements provided for certain groups of students.

Factors. Among the factors commonly considered by institutions of higher education in determining a student's residence are the following:

1. Length of residence in the state. Many states require resident students to have lived in the state for a period of either 6 months or a year before the date of first registration in the university. The University of Minnesota, for example, provides the following:

No student is eligible for residence classification in the University, in any college thereof, unless he has been a bona fide domiciliary of the state for at least a year immediately prior thereto. . . . For University purposes, a student does not acquire a domicile in Minnesota until he has been here for at least a year primarily as a permanent resident and not

merely as a student; this involves the probability of his remaining in Minnesota beyond his completion of school.

A study of residence requirements indicates that in most states the age of majority is 21 and that:

The rule with respect to an adult student typically provides that he shall be considered a resident if he has maintained residence within the state for at least twelve consecutive months next preceding his registration, provided such residence has not been acquired while attending any school or college within the state. However, if the adult student is unable to qualify as a resident under the above rule he may be classified as such if his parents have resided in the state for the required time, provided the student has not acquired residence in another state.⁴

Michigan State University stipulates that the residence classification of a student shall not be affected by the residence of any person, other than a parent or legal guardian, who may furnish funds to the student for payment of fees.

In the case of students who are minors, the length of residence required is generally applied to the parents or guardians.

The State University of Iowa has a special provision for dependents of persons who find it necessary to be out-of-state for extended periods of time.

Dependents of persons whose legal residence is permanently established in Iowa, who have been classified as residents for tuition purposes, may continue to be classified as residents so long as such residence is maintained, even though circumstances may require extended absence of said persons from the state. Persons claiming residence in the state while living in another state or country must provide proof of a continual Iowa domicile, such as, evidence that (1) they have not acquired a domicile in another state, (2) they have maintained a continuous voting record in Iowa, and (3) they have filed regular Iowa income tax returns during their absence from the state.

2. Emancipation of minors. Colorado defines the "emancipated minor" thus: "a minor whose parents have entirely surrendered the right to the care, custody, and earnings of such minor and who no longer are under any duty to support or maintain such minor." If emancipation is established, the emancipated minor assumes responsibilities as an adult and must qualify for resident status as an adult.

The General Statutes of Kansas stipulates that minors who have neither lived with nor been supported by their parents for three years or more prior to enrollment can qualify for in-state status if certain residence requirements are met.

The University of Minnesota indicates that marriage constitutes emancipation of minors, both male and female.

The University of Washington recognizes that a minor is emancipated if he is married or fully self-supporting. Where self-support is claimed, parents are required to confirm this and to file a statement that they do not claim the minor as a dependent for income tax purposes.

3. Status of wives. There are varied regulations on the residence classification of wives:

University of Michigan: "The residence of a wife follows that of her husband; however, those women students who, by reason of the residence of parents, or those who, being twenty-one years of age, have acquired residence, may continue to register as residents of Michigan, although subsequently marrying nonresident students or other nonresidents."

Wisconsin: ". . . any female student who entered the university as a nonresident student and married a resident student after matriculation, shall be entitled to the exemptions [from fees for nonresident tuition] after attending the university for 2 full consecutive semesters as a nonresident, and while continuing to reside in this state."

University of Minnesota: "The domicile of a female becomes that of her husband and so remains while she continues to live with him. For University purposes, a nonresident female becomes eligible for resident status one calendar year after marriage to a Minnesota resident; conversely, a resident female loses residence privileges one calendar year after marriage to a nonresident."

All of the above examples show that the residence of a wife normally follows that of her husband. Some institutions, as noted above, protect a female's resident status, despite her marriage to a nonresident. On the other hand, there are other institutions which always assign an identical residence classification for both husband and wife.

Indiana University allows married students, while attending the University, to claim in-state status by certifying that their only home has been in Indiana for the required six months and that they intend to treat Indiana as their legal domicile.

4. Classification of aliens. The University of Michigan classifies an alien and his wife or children as residents of Michigan if the alien is (a) lawfully admitted for permanent residence in the United States and (b) met state residence requirements.

The University of Washington has a similar provision. The University further stipulates that an alien with a visitor's or student's visa has authorization to remain in the United States only on a temporary basis and for limited

purposes; therefore, such an alien is not free to establish a permanent residence within the United States and is consequently not competent to establish domicile in the state.

Michigan State University specifies that "Aliens who have secured the Declaration of Intent papers and have otherwise met the requirements for residence shall be considered residents."

5. Other regulations. Many institutions spell out other evidences which can not in themselves establish residence. The University of Minnesota has the following rule:

The following facts, standing alone, are not accepted as sufficient evidence of domicile: employment by the University as a fellow, scholar, assistant, or in any position normally filled by students; a statement of intention to acquire a domicile in this state; voting or registration for voting; the lease of living quarters; payment of local and state taxes; or automobile registration.

Colorado states that:

(a) Payment of Colorado income tax is highly persuasive evidence of domicile in Colorado.

(b) Nonpayment of Colorado income tax by a person whose income is sufficient to be taxed is highly persuasive evidence of non-Colorado domicile.

At the State University of Iowa the following facts, either singly or in combination, may be considered as evidence of domicile:

(1) Student is self-supporting, especially by employment of a type offering a future in the state extending beyond his university course; (2) student has acquired a family of his own; (3) he has purchased, or leased on a year-around basis, what may be considered as a home establishment; or (4) he has acquired interests in the community which are relatively permanent in character, other than those of attendance at the University.
(5) Evidence of payment of Iowa income tax must be presented.

Exceptions. The following groups of individuals are frequently charged resident tuition even though residence requirements are not met:

1. Military personnel and dependents. There are great variations in the degree of generosity with which military personnel and their dependents are treated for the purpose of residence classification.

Illinois and Wisconsin both grant military personnel, on active duty stationed in their respective states, and their dependents the privilege of attending their universities at the resident tuition rate during the period that such personnel are stationed in the state. Similarly do

both the University of Michigan and the state of Colorado grant military personnel and their dependents the privilege of paying the resident rate, but only after they have met a residence requirement--6 months in Michigan and one year in Colorado. The State University of Iowa has a provision similar to that of Michigan in regard to military personnel and dependents. The University of Minnesota grants "persons in Minnesota under military orders, not for educational purposes . . . the special privilege of paying tuition, beginning a year after their arrival, at the resident rate so long as their military assignment continues in the state."

2. Federal employees and dependents. The State University of Iowa grants the privilege of paying tuition at the resident rate to federal employees who move into the state as a result of civil orders from the government as well as to their minor children. The state of Washington provides that, for tuition purposes, the term "resident students" shall include "the children of federal employees residing within the state."

3. Staff members and teachers. While some institutions, like the University of Minnesota and Ohio State University, have no special provisions for the dependents of staff members, other institutions do. The University of Washington includes "children and spouses of staff members of the university" in the term "resident students". The University of Michigan stipulates that "Full-time members of the 'teaching staff', teaching fellows whose appointments require at least three contact hours of teaching each week in regularly assigned formal classes, and their dependents may register in the University as residents of the state of Michigan."

Even less restrictive is the provision of the University of Illinois:

Staff members and the spouses and dependent children of staff members of the University and allied agencies located in Urbana-Champaign on full-time appointment, members of the faculties of state-supported institutions of higher education in Illinois on full-time appointment, teachers on full-time appointment in the elementary and secondary schools in Illinois, and staff members on full-time appointment with allied agencies located elsewhere in Illinois, classified as nonresidents of Illinois, are permitted to attend the University upon paying the same tuition and other fees assessed against resident students during the period the staff member, faculty member, or teacher holds such appointment and during the summer immediately following the school year for which such appointment was effective.

Michigan State University has a similar provision for teachers in the public education system.

4. Graduate students. Some institutions give graduate students special attention. The University of Maryland, for example, charges all graduate students the resident tuition rate.

Another institution, which prefers to remain anonymous, provides that after six months as graduate students, such out-of-state students may be classified as resident students if they are: (a) over 21 years of age and (b) citizens of the United States. Although residence in the state is required, no check on this is made, so that it is relatively easy for graduate students to achieve resident status. It is also interesting to note that this provision can not be found anywhere in print; but the word gets around and increasing numbers of graduate students are seeking a change in their residence classification.

Wisconsin has an interesting provision; one that indirectly encourages prospective graduate students to enter as freshmen:

Any student who shall not have been a resident of the state for one year next preceding his first admission to the university, except as above provided [in special exemptions], shall not be exempt from the payment of the nonresident tuition fees until he shall have attended the university for four academic years; but if he shall have attended the university and thereafter shall continuously have been a resident of this state for a period of combined attendance at the university and subsequent residence in the state of not less than four years, he shall, while he continues a resident of the state, be entitled to exemption from payment of the nonresident tuition fees upon re-entering the university.

5. Other exceptions. Pastors and their dependents are allowed to pay the resident tuition rate, as of the date of their contracts, at Michigan State University.

A liberal provision is found at Indiana University:

. . . children of Indiana University alumni, children of nonresident taxpayers, and children whose parents have moved from Indiana to another state so recently that the student could not be classified as a resident in the new state are given the privilege of paying resident fees, even though their domicile is not in Indiana.

The 1960 WICHE study states:

. . . Other exceptions reported by one or two institutions include honor students, athletes recommended by their coaches, children of alumni, veterans, school teachers, residents of certain named states and territories, blind persons, foreign students, previous residents, and "nonresidents" who have attended the institute for three years. Only one Western public college reported it makes no exceptions to its residence requirements.

Of special interest to Hawaii is Oregon's provision which exempts Hawaii and Alaska students from the nonresident fee if they have been bona fide residents of their respective states for the major portion of the two years

immediately preceding registration for the term for which exemption is granted.

Concluding Remarks. According to some involved in residence classification work, their task is made especially difficult because of the increasing numbers of: (a) married students, (b) students 21 years and over, and (c) students from broken homes. One institution, which had developed its residence rules in 1935, is presently attempting to revise them in order to meet current problems more effectively.

Several institutions also made the observation that as the nonresident tuition fee rose, there was increasing pressure among nonresident students to alter their residence classification. One employee who handles such cases remarked: "Students tell all kinds of lies to get re-classified." In view of the trend to raise tuition and to increase the difference between resident and nonresident tuition, the future may demand residence requirements which are more precise and comprehensive. In this regard, it is interesting to note that the Michigan Council of State Colleges attempted to formulate common rules for residence classification. Although the attempt was not successful, it may portend future activity on the part of other states.

A recent attempt to define "residence" for college purposes was made by the coordinating board in New Mexico in response to a legal requirement. The results of this board are presented in Appendix C.

Residence Classification Procedures and Staff

There are many students who obviously can be classified as resident on the basis of the location of the secondary schools they attended or the in-state residence of their parents. If, however, the student's transcript is from out-of-state, his address or that of his parents is out-of-state, he is an alien, or there is any other fact disclosed by his correspondence or application that there may be a question as to his resident status, he is classified as a nonresident. In such cases, the burden of proof is placed directly on the student--he needs to prove that he is a resident.

In many universities, information on residence is sought in the application for admission. The 1960 WICHE survey indicates that a majority of Western states require a notarized affidavit of residence from the student in cases of doubt. Special questionnaires to determine residence classification have been developed by many institutions. A few of these are included in Appendix D for illustrative purposes.

There is some variation among institutions in their residence classification procedures, as indicated below:

University of Colorado: The Director of Admissions is responsible for residence classification. He uses formal and informal committees to aid him with the more difficult cases.

University of Minnesota: The responsibility for determining the residence status of a student is lodged in the Office of

Admissions and Records. Professional staff members screen all applications. For the purpose of determining the classification of difficult cases, the Dean of Admissions and Records is aided by a Board of Review for Residency Classification. This Board is made up of six members; five are appointed annually by the President and chosen from the faculties of the different colleges and different campuses; the chairman is the Dean himself. One of the Board members is a lawyer; this is deemed desirable because of the many legal complications which may characterize a case. The Board meets at least once a month and handles between 5 and 10 cases at each meeting. The Board invariably meets with the student and other witnesses may be called. Decisions are made by majority vote.

University of Washington: Students who are initially classified as nonresidents by the Admissions Office have the right to file an application for reclassification (see copy in Appendix D) with the Residence Classification Office. This Office is maintained in the Attorney General's Division of the University. An assistant attorney general (who works on other legal matters also) and two full-time clerks handle all residence cases.

The pattern of utilizing the admissions office or registrar to make the initial residence classification and of providing legal counsel to work on reclassification or appeals is a common one. The University of Illinois and Wayne State University follow this general procedure.

Instead of using a legal counsel, some institutions have established review boards or ad hoc committees to rule on doubtful cases. Among such institutions are the University of Minnesota, Michigan State University, Indiana University, and the State University of Iowa. (This method was criticized by at least one institution, which lodges all responsibility for classification in the admissions officer, on the basis that there is less opportunity for continuity and consistency when groups make decisions than when one individual does. This institution uses committees to make policies on residence classification when a new circumstance arises, but not to rule on individual cases.)

The University of Michigan assigns the task of reclassification of doubtful cases to the University Vice-President for Student Affairs.

In many institutions, students are given the right to appeal the decision of the review board or officer to the regents or trustees. However, such governing boards generally refer such cases to the reviewing agencies and thus reiterate their decisions.

Some institutions provide for students who may wilfully claim improper residence status. Wayne State University, for example, states:

Any student who improperly claims resident classification shall be required to pay the nonresident fees for all work carried under such improper classification, and will be subject to such disciplinary action as may be deemed appropriate. Willful misstatement of facts will subject the student to dismissal from the University.

As noted earlier, many institutions require that students notarize their applications for resident status.

Admission Policies

While institutions of higher education generally admit all graduate students, regardless of geographical origin, on the same basis, there are usually differing policies relating to the admission of entering freshmen and transfer students. There are three policies which have special relevance to the nonresident student: (a) definition of residence for admission purposes (as separate from tuition purposes); (b) establishment of quotas for nonresident students; and (c) requirement of higher academic standards for nonresident students.

Residence Re-Defined

The University of Washington admits the children of out-of-state alumni on the basis of entrance requirements set for resident students but charges such children the nonresident tuition fee.

The University of California has separate rules for classifying a student as a resident for admission purposes only. A student is given such classification if he has met at least one of the following conditions:

1. He has resided continuously in California for at least three months prior to the semester in which he wishes to register.
2. His last semester of formal schooling, or at least three-fourths of his formal schooling after the eighth grade, was done in California.
3. At least one of his parents attended the University of California.
4. He can present convincing evidence that circumstances require that his parents or his spouse move to California before the end of the semester in which he wishes to register.
5. He or his parents are legal residents of California.
6. He has been assigned to the University by the Federal Government, such as, students subsidized by the Navy Five Term Program (not NROTC candidates who are required to meet out-of-state requirements).
7. He is a foreigner admitted to the United States under the quota system who has chosen California as his residence.⁵

In view of the tendency for institutions to limit nonresident enrollments by setting higher academic requirements, there is a distinct advantage for students to be classified as residents, if only for admission purposes.

Quotas Established*

The University of Michigan reports that traditionally over two-thirds of the freshman class have been residents of Michigan. This university furthermore gives priority, among qualified nonresident students, to the children of alumni. Michigan State University limits the nonresident freshman enrollment to 20 per cent of the class.

The 1960 WICHE survey indicates that 3 out of the 57 public four-year colleges and universities reported specific quotas on nonresident entering freshmen. One of these schools reported that although there is no formal quota, the governing board preferred the proportion of nonresident students to be no more than one-fourth.

Higher Academic Standards Set

The 1960 WICHE study reveals that out of 56 institutions replying, 27 reported no differences in their academic requirements for resident and nonresident students. The remaining 29 demand higher requirements for nonresidents than for residents. Among the 29, there are 17 which require higher grade point averages for nonresidents, 5 which require a higher rank in class, and 7 which require both or which employ other standards.

Some examples of what kinds of admission standards institutions set for resident and nonresident students are found below.

University of Washington:

All applicants are expected to present a college preparatory high school background which includes at least 16 units distributed as follows: 3 units in English; 2 units each in mathematics, one foreign language, and social science; 1 unit in laboratory science; and 2 units in electives from the foregoing areas. In addition, a nonresident must be eligible for admission to the University of his own state and meet the scholastic standards as listed below, which are based on Washington's four-point grading system.

Applying Directly From High School

3.00 (B) grade-point average or placement in the upper 25 per cent of the graduating class. For residents:
2.50 grade-point average.

Applying With Fewer Than 45 Acceptable College Quarter Credits

3.00 (B) grade-point average or placement in the upper 25 per cent of the high school graduating class, and a 3.00 (B) grade-point average in standard college

*The restrictions on nonresident freshman enrollment set by Colorado are presented in Chapter I of this report as is an excerpt from the Benjamin Fine article dealing with practices of universities in limiting out-of-state students.

courses. For residents: 2.30 for College of Engineering, 2.20 for College of Education, and 2.00 for other colleges.

Applying With 45 or More Acceptable College Quarter Credits

2.70 (B-) grade-point average in standard college courses. For residents: 2.30 for College of Engineering, 2.20 for College of Education, and 2.00 for other colleges.⁶

University of California:

It has been necessary to place some limitation on enrollment of applicants who are not residents of California, and therefore, only those of exceptional promise will be eligible for admission. The regulations . . . are designed to admit out-of-state applicants whose standing, as measured approximately by scholastic records and aptitude tests, is in the upper half of those who would be eligible under regular rules.⁷

California's Master Plan provides that resident students eligible for admission to the University be in the top 12-1/2 per cent of the graduates of the California public high schools. The above provision for nonresidents requires them to be in the top 6-1/4 per cent. Specific requirements for nonresident students in terms of test scores and grades indicate the following differences: (a) entering freshmen who are residents need a 3.0 (B) average in the required high school subjects while nonresident students need a 3.4 average; (b) freshmen admitted by examination who are residents need a total of 1650 on the basis of three achievement tests in subject fields while nonresident students need a total of 1725; (c) transfer students with 56 units of work or two years of prior work need a 2.4 grade point average if they are residents and 2.8 if they are nonresidents.⁸

Michigan State University requires entering freshmen who are nonresidents to have a score of 1100 or better on the scholastic aptitude test and to be in the top quartile of the high school graduating class. However, since out-of-state applications are so numerous from two states, their applicants, to be admitted, must have a score of 1400 and be in the top 5 per cent of the class.

Admission policies for nonresident students are sometimes stated in more general terms, as at the University of Minnesota. On January 29, 1937, when nonresident fees were established by the board of regents, the following policy was also set forth: "Students from outside Minnesota should not be admitted whose secondary school work, intelligence rating, or other measures of scholastic achievement do not give better than average promise of an ability to profit from courses of instruction and residence at the University of Minnesota."⁹

In contrast to the tendency to establish higher academic standards for nonresident students for admission or transfer purposes is the position that such requirements can be placed too high.

. . . Some feel that out-of-state students could become "unfair academic competition" for residents if too great a difference in requirements prevails. Others point out that our ways of predicting success in college are by no means fool-proof, and that standards placed too high will turn away many of the students who would make the greatest contributions to university life.¹⁰

Tuition Policies

All land-grant colleges (members of the American Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities) and state universities (members of the State Universities Association) in the 50 states, except the University of Hawaii, charge nonresident students a higher rate for tuition and required fees than that for resident students.

Magnitude of Tuition Differentials

Tuition for out-of-state students ranges from 1-1/2 to 3 times the tuition for resident students.¹¹ The lowest undergraduate nonresident fees in 1961-62 were found at Alabama Agricultural and Mechanical College (\$150), Lincoln University (\$220), Kentucky State College (\$236), and the University of Hawaii (\$241). The highest rates were found at Pennsylvania State University (\$1,050) and the University of Vermont (\$1,040).

Table 9 presents data on the ratios of average nonresident to resident tuition and fee charges in different geographical regions for 1960-61 as reported by the U. S. Office of Education. An analysis of the replies of 414 public institutions reveals that the average nonresident tuition is 2.30 times as much as the average resident tuition. The range in ratios varies between 2.11 for technological institutions to 2.90 for other professional schools and from 2.12 for institutions with enrollments of 5,000 to 9,999 to 2.40 for those with 2,500 to 4,999 students. By region, the ratio varies from 2.11 in the Great Lakes and Plains to 2.49 in the West and Southwest.

The U. S. Office of Education survey by Bokelman and D'Amico also reports that while resident tuition fees rose in 1961-62, the largest rate of increase was in nonresident tuition and fees in state universities--11 per cent. In this connection, it is interesting to note that in 1962-63 the University of Wisconsin will raise the annual out-of-state tuition fee to \$750 but the in-state fee remains at \$236. This tendency to increase nonresident tuition more rapidly than resident tuition was also found by WICHE in its 1960 survey of public colleges and universities in the West:¹²

	Average Tuition and Fees		Per Cent Increase
	1957-58	1960-61	
Resident Students	\$151	\$179	18.5
Nonresident Students	344	422	22.7

The WICHE report also observes that this trend had been noted over a decade ago by Charles Hoff in his national study of tuition and fees.

Table 9

RATIOS OF AVERAGE NONRESIDENTIAL TO RESIDENTIAL STUDENT
TUITION AND FEE CHARGES IN PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS, BY TYPE OF
INSTITUTION, BY SIZE OF ENROLLMENT, AND BY REGION
1960-61

Item	Type of Institution							Size of Enrollment						
	Total	Universities	Liberal arts	Teachers	Technological	Other professional	Junior colleges	Total	Below 500	500 - 999	1,000 - 2,499	2,500 - 4,999	5,000 - 9,999	10,000 & more
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
All regions														
No. institutions	414	78	64	118	15	2	137	414	91	68	108	64	45	38
Ratios	2.30	2.16	2.34	2.33	2.11	2.90	2.37	2.30	2.19	2.29	2.36	2.40	2.12	2.38
North Atlantic														
No. institutions	89	10	2	42	5	1	29	89	24	18	26	11	6	4
Ratios	2.37	2.12	1.49	3.06	1.89	2.88	2.03	2.37	2.15	2.24	2.78	2.57	2.28	1.91
Great Lakes and Plains														
No. institutions	111	23	10	32	2	--	44	111	26	14	28	17	12	14
Ratios	2.11	2.05	1.78	1.79	1.55	--	2.83	2.11	2.19	2.05	2.30	2.14	1.69	2.27

Table 9 (continued)

Item	Type of Institution							Size of Enrollment						
	Total	Universities	Liberal arts	Teachers	Technological	Other professional	Junior colleges	Total	Below 500	500 - 999	1,000 - 2,499	2,500 - 4,999	5,000 - 9,999	10,000 & more
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Southeast														
No. institutions	99	20	28	25	3	1	22	99	12	22	30	16	13	6
Ratios	2.20	2.17	2.28	2.08	2.21	2.92	2.26	2.20	2.01	2.53	2.04	2.28	2.04	2.65
West and Southwest														
No. institutions	115	25	24	19	5	--	42	115	29	14	24	20	14	14
Ratios	2.49	2.31	3.06	2.24	2.68	--	2.50	2.49	2.38	2.25	2.42	2.58	2.72	2.66

Source: U. S. Office of Education, Higher Education Planning and Management Data 1960-61: Salaries, Tuition and Fees, Room and Board, Circular 651, by W. Robert Bokelman (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1961), p. 53.

As a result of the frequency and magnitude of recent tuition increases, there has developed some concern about nonresident fees approaching private school tuition figures--a circumstance which, some people feel, jeopardizes the principle of public higher education. On the other hand, it should be noted that even with additional charges to nonresidents, "public institutions derive from tuition and required fees only an estimated 25 to 35 per cent of the total costs for educating a nonresident student."¹³

Characteristics of Tuition Policies

Information is presented below on the authorization of nonresident tuition as well as on the nature of tuition policies in selected universities.

Authorization of Nonresident Tuition. Some states have statutory provisions authorizing the governing boards of universities to set nonresident tuition. The Ohio Revised Code, for example, provides that "reasonable tuition for the attendance of pupils who are nonresidents of Ohio" may be charged by the board of trustees of the several state colleges and universities (Sec. 3345.01). The Revised Code of Washington goes one step further: it actually sets the general tuition fee for resident and nonresident students (Sec. 28.77.030).

In contrast to legal provisions authorizing nonresident tuition are the decisions of governing boards. The University of Minnesota, for example, has considerable autonomy. Its regents decided when nonresident fees were to be instituted; they also decide when those fees are to be revised.

Uniform or Differentiated Tuition for All Colleges. Some institutions charge all resident students the same tuition, and another uniform, but higher, rate to all nonresident students, regardless of college. For example, Michigan State University presently charges all resident students a sum of \$327.75 a year for tuition and fees, and all nonresident students a sum of \$873.75.

Other institutions, however, operate on the theory that tuition should be related more directly to cost and have different charges for each of the colleges. Among these universities are Ohio State, University of Minnesota, Indiana University, and the State University of Iowa. For example, Ohio State has the following fee schedule, effective the autumn quarter of 1962:

<u>College or School</u>	Fees for	Fees for
	Resident Students Per Quarter	Non-Resident Students Per Quarter
Agriculture and Home Economics	\$110	\$260
Arts and Sciences	110	260
Commerce and Administration	110	260
Education	110	260
Engineering	110	260
Graduate School	110	260
School of Nursing	110	260

School of Optometry	147	297
Dentistry	230	380
Dental Hygiene and Dental Laboratory Technology	157	307
Law	132	282
Medicine	230	380
Pharmacy	115	265
Veterinary Medicine	150	300

Universities with different tuition for each of the colleges and professional schools generally charge most for the schools of medicine and dentistry and least for the undergraduate colleges, like arts and sciences, education, business administration, and agriculture. In no institution, however, is the nonresident student charged the full, direct costs of instruction.

A few institutions make a special case of the graduate school in recognition of the desirability of having nonresident students from different institutions and the small likelihood of a sufficient number of in-state graduate students. At both the University of Maryland and the State University of Iowa, for example, both resident and nonresident students in the graduate school pay the same fees. At Iowa resident and nonresident students in the college of liberal arts pay \$145 and \$310, respectively, per semester, but all graduate students pay \$165 for the same period.

Fees for the Summer Session. There is no difference in the summer session fees charged resident and nonresident students at such institutions as the University of Washington, Indiana University, and the University of Minnesota. Oftentimes these credit hour charges are slightly higher than those for the academic year, particularly in institutions which expect summer session programs to be "self-supporting". Indiana, for example, charges \$7 and \$18 per credit hour to resident and nonresident students, respectively, during the academic year, but charges both groups of students \$9 per credit hour during the summer session. Furthermore, many institutions realize that their summer sessions attract non-degree students and new applicants and that administering residence classification would be too much of a task for the short summer term. (Both Indiana and Minnesota likewise have a flat charge for all students taking extension courses.)

Some institutions maintain a different fee schedule for resident and nonresident students during the summer. For example, the University of Wisconsin charges \$80 for residents and \$110 for nonresidents during the summer session.¹⁴ The University of Illinois charges \$37.50 and \$125.00, respectively, for resident and nonresident students.¹⁵

Determination of Nonresident Tuition

Presented below are the practices of several institutions that differ in the manner in which they determine nonresident tuition.

University of California: "The nonresident tuition fee is calculated essentially to cover the cost of instruction." Such fees are set by the Regents.¹⁶

University of Colorado: Acting in accordance with the recommendation of a legislative committee, the nonresident tuition is between 60 and 90 per cent of the instructional cost of maintaining a student. Costs are figured on a campus wide basis and not by college or class status. The computation of instructional costs excludes capital outlay. The biggest item is faculty compensation. Computation for 1962 resulted in a figure of \$1071 as the cost of instruction per pupil (full-time equivalent); Colorado will charge \$832 as nonresident tuition or 77.7 per cent of cost. (In addition there are required fees totaling \$72.)

Michigan State University: An important consideration in determining nonresident tuition is the fee that other institutions are charging. Another factor is legislative action, particularly as it relates to the university budget.

University of Minnesota: Over the years, Minnesota has tried to have its nonresident tuition at the median of the Big Ten Schools. Although this fee is not related intentionally to instructional costs, the observation was made that resident tuition covers approximately one-fourth of faculty and administrative costs while the nonresident tuition covers approximately one-half of similar costs.

To proponents of nonresident tuition, the idea of having a nonresident student pay "the full cost of his education" or a major portion thereof seems attractive. However, the computation of that cost is complex; the magnitude of the final figure depends on the factors which an institution believes to be part of "instructional costs". One economist-statistician has the following view:

. . . many people believe that the "unit cost" of a student's education is the institution's total "educational and general" cost divided by the number of students. This simply isn't true. It costs much less to teach students in the first two years of college than those in the last two years--and professional and graduate education may be many times as expensive as teaching a freshman. Also, the laboratory facilities and expensive instruments needed in the physical sciences usually push their costs far above those of a lecture-course in English literature. If we really tried to charge each student the cost of his education, we would have a whole scale of tuition charges--and we'd have to keep changing the figures.¹⁷

Another consideration in determining nonresident tuition is the principle of reciprocity. In a 1947 survey of state universities and land-grant colleges, 2 out of 61 institutions that replied did not have a uniform resident fee; "instead they assess such fees on a reciprocal basis, charging a student from a particular state the fee that his state university would charge residents of their states."¹⁸

Michigan State University had a similar provision during 1960-61:

For students coming from states where the land-grant

university of that state charges Michigan residents fees in excess of \$645 per year (\$215 per term), the fees charged by Michigan State University will be increased to equal the fees of the land-grant university in the state from which the student comes to a maximum of \$750.00 per year (\$250 per term).¹⁹

According to Michigan State's vice-president for business and finance, at that time there were about 15 states with nonresident tuition above \$645. The intent of the reciprocal provision was to discourage other institutions from establishing higher nonresident tuition. However, in 1961 Michigan State raised its tuition for nonresidents to \$750 and abandoned the reciprocal provision. The one-year trial period is considered too short to evaluate the effectiveness of this type of arrangement.

Other attempts at reciprocity were discussed by the executive secretary-treasurer of the Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges:

Several very interesting experiments in institutional inter-change, some involving reciprocal waiving of nonresident fees, are under way. Missouri has such arrangements with the Universities of Nebraska and Arkansas, each involving exchanges in fields not covered by the other institution, and waiver of non-resident fees. The New England public universities have a general agreement covering certain fields, under which any student from any New England state can enroll at institutions offering programs in these fields without paying the non-resident fee. Unfortunately the exchange is rather uneven and in time quotas and exchange of funds may have to be instituted. Minnesota has announced it will try to negotiate arrangements with surrounding states, under which each State will pay the differential between resident and non-resident fees for its students. . . .²⁰

The notion that each state should pay the differential between the resident and nonresident fees for its students is also discussed in another article on nonresident tuition:

. . . It is a matter of debate whether the additional charges to nonresidents should be assessed against the individual student or against the governing body of the community wherein the student's family resides. It could be argued that since the student's family pays taxes, he should be entitled to financial support from tax monies if he attends an out-of-State college or university, especially if comparable facilities are not available in his home State.²¹

Such an arrangement is found in the Western states all of which are members of the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education. Nonresident students in dentistry, medicine, and veterinary medicine may, under certain conditions, pay the resident tuition while the home state pays a supplementary fee to the professional school to help meet the cost of training.

Financial Aid to Nonresident Students

The University of Colorado, aware that its nonresident

tuition is high and that academically able students from out-of-state should not be penalized because of economic hardship, has a scholarship fund for nonresident students. Included in the nonresident fee yearly is \$15 for this scholarship fund.

Because of the magnitude of the charge [in nonresident tuition] and also because of the belief that the University should be in a position to compete aggressively for the most able students wherever located, the Board of Regents established the Non-resident Scholarship Fund financed by a specific fee paid by non-resident students. This year it is primarily used to cover hardship cases arising from the large increases in non-resident tuition and fees that have occurred. In the future it will also be used to make it possible for very able students of modest means to attend the University in spite of its high non-resident charges.²²

Wisconsin has a provision to give financial assistance to needy and worthy nonresident students by remitting all or part of the nonresident tuition but not in excess of a certain proportion of nonresidents. Another interesting provision relates to the role state senators and assemblymen may play in recommending nonresident students whose tuition is to be remitted.²³

Efforts to give financial aid to graduate students, the majority of whom may be nonresidents, are characteristic of most institutions. Such universities offer many assistantships and fellowships--both teaching and research--so that graduate students can be subsidized to a certain extent.

Footnotes

1. The sources for this section on residence classification are:
 - (1) Colorado, House Bill No. 249, 1961 Session;
 - (2) University of Illinois, 1961-1962 Undergraduate Study, Volume 58, No. 64 (Urbana, Illinois: 1961), p. 76;
 - (3) General Statutes of Kansas 1949, Sec. 76-2701;
 - (4) University of Michigan, General Register 1961-62, Section I, pp. 69-70;
 - (5) Michigan State University, 1961-62 Catalogue (1961), p. 27;
 - (6) University of Minnesota, "University Residence Information Sheet" (October 1961);
 - (7) University of Minnesota, Office of Admissions and Records, "Regulations, Policies, and Practices in the Determination of Residence Status of Students for Admission and Fee Purposes Among the Big Ten Universities and the University of Chicago" (1958);
 - (8) University of Washington, "Residence Classification for Tuition Purposes--Procedure and Rules Followed at the University of Washington" (May 5, 1961);
 - (9) Wayne State University, "Present Regulations Regarding Residence" (Enacted in June 1946);
 - (10) Wisconsin Statutes 1959, Sec. 36.16; and
 - (11) Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, "The Requirement of 'Residence'", discussion material for conferees (1961).
2. Corpus Juris Secundum, Residence, p. 289.
3. Ibid., p. 295.
4. Lowell B. Howard, "Exploration of the Residence Problem", College and University 33 (Winter 1958), p. 173.
5. Letter from Frank L. Kidner, University Dean of Educational Relations, University of California, April 28, 1962.
6. University of Washington, Office of Admissions, "Admission and Fee Information - Nonresidents" (January 1962).
7. University of California, "Undergraduate Admissions Circular", Statewide Bulletin (April 1962), p. 10.
8. Interview with Dr. Robson, Admissions Office, University of California Los Angeles, August 9, 1962.
9. University of Minnesota, Board of Regents, Minutes, Volume 1936-37 (January 29, 1937), pp. 466-67.
10. Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, "Selection of Nonresident Students", discussion material for conferees (1961), p. 1.
11. U. S. Office of Education, Division of Higher Education, "Salaries and Fees in Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities, 1961-62", College and University Finance Series, OE-52004-1, by W. Robert Bokelman and Louis A. D'Amico (March 1962).
12. Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, "Fees for Nonresident Students", discussion material for conferees (1961), p. 1.
13. Louis A. D'Amico, W. Robert Bokelman, and Herbert S. Conrad, op. cit., p. 5.
14. University of Wisconsin, Graduate School, Announcement of Courses 1961-63, Vol. 1961, No. 1 (Madison: the University, 1961), p. 6.
15. University of Illinois, Graduate College 1961-62, Vol. 58, No. 59 (Urbana: the University, April 1961), p. 26.
16. Letter from Frank L. Kidner, op. cit.
17. Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, "Fees for Nonresident Students", op. cit., p. 4.

18. Leo M. Chamberlain, "A Study of Fees Assessed at 61 State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges and Payments Made by the V.A.", School and Society 66 (July 19, 1947), p. 47.
19. Michigan State University, Graduate School Catalogue 1961, Vol. 54, No. 14 (East Lansing: the University, June 1960), p. 26.
20. Letter from Russell I. Thackrey, Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges, June 4, 1962.
21. Louis A. D'Amico, W. Robert Bokelman, and Herbert S. Conrad, op. cit., p. 4.
22. University of Colorado, 1962-63 Request Budget; Documentation and Analysis (Mimeographed: November 7, 1961), Section 10, p. 2.
23. Wisconsin Statutes 1959, Sec. 3616 (d).

CHAPTER IV
**ALTERNATIVE POLICIES RELATING
TO NONRESIDENT STUDENTS**

Many public institutions of higher education adopted basic policies regarding residence requirements, academic standards, and tuition differentials for nonresident students during the period immediately following World War II. Generally the circumstances which prompted these policies were the same: increasing number and proportion of state youth seeking higher education; growing number and proportion of nonresident students in the student body; increasing sentiment that state facilities would not be adequate for local youth because of nonresidents; feeling that local taxpayer should not be subsidizing the education of nonresident students on the same basis as that of resident students.

Hawaii is presently facing similar circumstances. The State House of Representatives in adopting House Select Committee Report No. 12 in 1962 expressed concern that the University's facilities "will be severely taxed or become inadequate to accommodate all our resident students" and that "a growing number of nonresident students place an increasingly heavy financial burden on the State".

The board of regents of the University in re-affirming the policy of no tuition differentials for nonresident students did so for several reasons: nonresident students are recognized for their contribution to the educational and cultural life of the campus; the University has a smaller percentage of nonresident students than the average in similar mainland institutions; nonresident students bring economic gains to the State; nonresident fees would impose a financial condition on acceptance by the University.

The recent U. S. Office of Education study on higher education recommends that the setting of tuition should be the prerogative of the board of regents.¹ This would change present practice. Sec. 44-3, Revised Laws of Hawaii 1955, as amended, stipulates that the board of regents shall set the annual tuition fee not in excess of \$170.

Regardless of whether the board of regents or the legislature or the two in combination are the policy makers, there are certain essential aspects, discussed below, which should be considered in reaching a decision on the type and size of the desired nonresident student population. There are also a number of alternative policies which may be followed; the basic ones are discussed in this chapter. To implement the policy decision, a number of devices or tools, which have been described previously, are available. In this chapter, suggestions are made for applying the devices to implement certain alternative policies. Finally, there are aspects which should be considered regardless of which policy is followed. These are noted briefly at the end of the chapter.

Table 10 is included at this point to serve as an outline of the several aspects which need to be reviewed in reaching a policy decision on the type and size of the desired nonresident

Table 10

OUTLINE OF ASPECTS AFFECTING A POLICY DECISION
ON THE TYPE AND SIZE OF THE NONRESIDENT
STUDENT POPULATION ATTENDING THE UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII

I.	Basic Policy Question to be Determined:	Type and size of desired non-resident student population.
II.	Aspects Which Should be Considered in Reaching a Policy Decision:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Hawaii's share in the higher education enterprise; (2) Hawaii's unique role in higher education; (3) Expanding graduate program at the University; (4) Financial facts facing the University.
III.	Alternative Policies:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Continue present system of not restricting nonresident attendance; (2) Raise quality of nonresident students; keep their number constant; (3) Reduce number of nonresident students; (4) Increase nonresident attendance.
IV.	Basic Devices Which Are Employed in Implementing a Policy Decision:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Residence requirements; (2) Academic standards; (3) Tuition differential.
V.	Aspects Which Should be Considered Regardless of Which Policy is Followed:	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Feasibility of reciprocity; (2) Existence of opportunities for interchange; (3) Effectiveness of interchange.

student population. The decision-making process on this issue has several phases, and it is important to keep each in its proper perspective and place.

Aspects to be Considered in Reaching a Policy Decision

Higher education, in contrast with elementary and secondary education, is oftentimes considered as a national, rather than a state, enterprise because of the highly mobile college population and in recognition of the fact that many advanced degree recipients and professional school graduates do not receive their advanced training in their home state. In addition to examining whether Hawaii is doing its "share" in educating as many in-migrating students as there are out-migrating students, this section also discusses Hawaii's potentially unique contribution to international education.

The determination of policies regarding nonresident students requires knowledge of certain features about the University of Hawaii. Three important areas are scrutinized--expansion at the graduate level, sources of income for educational purposes, and magnitude of tuition and fees as compared with those of similar institutions.

Migration Patterns of Hawaii's College Youth

A considerable number of Hawaii's college youth go to the mainland for their college education. In fall 1958, about two-fifths of Hawaii's 9,696 undergraduate college students, all of the 299 professional students, and about three-tenths of the 1,436 graduate students migrated to the mainland.² According to the U. S. Office of Education survey team, only five states exceeded Hawaii's proportion of undergraduate students going out-of-state for their college education.

In all, 4,405 students (undergraduate, professional, and graduate) of Hawaii's college youth were studying on the mainland.³ College students coming to Hawaii for study numbered 1,137, the overwhelming majority being undergraduate students. In fall 1958, exclusive of foreign students, there were 3,268 more Hawaii students studying on the mainland than there were mainland students studying in Hawaii.

In total numbers, as well as in terms of level of training, more college students left Hawaii than came to Hawaii. Furthermore, Hawaii has no professional schools. Details on Hawaii students' out-migration to the various states and the in-migration from those states are included in Appendix E. Viewed in terms of numbers, Hawaii may be regarded as a debtor state--particularly when the in-migration figure for students coming to Hawaii from certain states (e.g., California, Oregon, Colorado) falls far below the number of Hawaii students attending institutions located in those states.

In order to evaluate Hawaii's seeming debtor status as far as economic effects are concerned, it would be necessary to examine a complex of factors. The basic approach would require data on the average instructional costs in the various states, the portion borne by students as reflected in nonresident fees,

and the portion borne by the state. Since Hawaii currently has no nonresident fees, contrary to mainland practice, the State bears a considerable portion of the instructional costs for nonresident students. Thus, a small number of in-migrating students from a particular state may conceivably cost more to Hawaii than that state may be expending for a larger number of Hawaii students, paying nonresident fees. An attempt to assess the creditor-debtor status of the various states, on the above basis, was undertaken for 1951-52, but Hawaii was omitted from the study.⁴

Since a large number of Hawaii students leave the State for their undergraduate training, an attempt was made to gain further information about such students. A 1962 report of the Department of Education was extremely helpful.⁵ Greater proportions of boys and girls in the higher quintiles of standing in class went to the mainland than in the lower quintiles. For example, about one-third of boys in the highest quintile and one-twentieth of boys in the lowest quintile went to the mainland. Of the 1,138 students on the mainland, 562 were from the public schools and 576 were from the private schools, representing 8 and 34 per cents, respectively, of graduates from their schools.

Hawaii's Potential Role in International Education

The establishment of the East-West Center at the University of Hawaii and the acceptance of this responsibility by the State indicate the significant role of Hawaii in international education.

The East-West Center was proposed for Hawaii because Hawaii

. . . stands as a brilliant symbol of the day by day success of the democratic processes as they respond to the creative impact of varied cultural and racial groups. Our newest state provides tangible demonstration of the cooperative accomplishments of peoples of diverse origins, working together as free men, with mutual respect and consideration. It represents the reality of the American dream, not as a bland assimilation of differences, but as a fulfilled promise in the useful employment of diversities for mutual good. Indeed, Hawaii's people constitute a visible proof that men can live together in harmony. . . .⁶

Although the federal government expends a considerable amount of money to support the East-West Center, it is important to remember that the State likewise gives financial support though the precise magnitude of this support is not known. (See Chapter II.) Hawaii has committed itself to play a unique role in serving as the site of the Center. The University presently has 441 foreign students who comprise 5 per cent of the student body. In the nation at large, non-Americans comprise 2 per cent of the total college student population.

If Hawaii is potentially valuable to the Asian student, Hawaii may be equally valuable to the mainland student. Hawaii's unique contribution to the family of American States may lie in its dedication to promote better understandings between East and West, with a heavy emphasis on the need for more Americans to broaden their horizons. Such an undertaking, if accepted by

Hawaii on a larger scale than is presently the case, would involve positive student recruiting on the mainland and a willingness to expend the necessary funds for increased instructional costs.

University's Expansion on the Graduate Level

Expansion on the graduate level has been rapid in recent years. In 1959-60, the University offered master's degrees in 33 fields of study and doctor's degrees in 7 fields. In 1962-63, master's degrees in 48 fields and doctor's degrees in 17 fields were being offered.⁷ Part of this growth is attributable to the impetus given by the East-West Center because its grantees are chiefly graduate students. The University, as the only state university in Hawaii, also has begun to feel a greater need for graduate programs in order to meet local needs as well as to increase its stature as an academic institution. While it is possible for small liberal arts colleges to gain their reputation for being good undergraduate schools, state universities which are highly regarded are generally those with strong graduate and/or professional schools.

It is difficult to say how long the trend toward increasing graduate offerings will continue. Many instructional departments at the University now offer the master's degree; many of these will probably strive to initiate doctoral programs. There are some fields in which it seems "natural" for the University to excel. On the other hand, graduate programs are more costly than undergraduate studies and enrollment in most doctoral programs is almost always chiefly comprised of nonresident students. At the University, for example, there are presently 727 advanced degree (master's or doctor's) candidates; only 182 (25 per cent) are Hawaii residents. The rest are nonresidents: 290 from the mainland and 255 from foreign countries.⁸

As noted in Chapter III, institutions oftentimes make special provisions for graduate students, enabling them to pay the resident tuition fee. The governor of Wisconsin recently proposed that its University place no restriction on enrollment of nonresident graduate students. This provision is in line with one of the guiding principles developed at a conference on out-of-state students sponsored by the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education: "Admission to graduate studies in our universities should be kept free from all restrictions based on geographical origin."⁹

University Sources of Income for Educational Purposes

The University has several sources of income for educational purposes--state appropriations, federal funds, student fees, and sales of services, gifts and grants. During recent years, there has been a decrease in the proportion composed of student fees. In 1956-57, for example, student fees accounted for 22 per cent of the educational income; in 1961-62 this figure was 12 per cent. See Appendix F for information on other sources of income for the last six years.

The recent U. S. Office of Education study also points out that the University, when compared to 52 land-grant colleges,

depends less on income from tuition and fees and more on income from the state and federal governments than is typical of sister institutions.

It is difficult to determine what should be the proportion of educational income composed of student fees. Seymour Harris reports that for public institutions of higher learning, tuition and fees comprise 25 per cent of general and educational income (and 62.5 per cent in private institutions).¹⁰ Hawaii, like her sister states, is concerned about how additional resources are to be provided for higher education made necessary by increasing enrollments and an expanding University.

The U. S. Office of Education survey team on higher education recommends:

That in order to meet more adequately the basic needs of the degree-credit programs at Manoa and Hilo campuses of the statewide university system of Hawaii, plans and efforts be extended to raise from sources typically drawn upon to finance the costs of general and educational functions, (principally State appropriations and student tuition charges) an amount increasing from the level of about \$14.6 million in 1962-63 to a level of approximately \$40.9 million by 1972-73.¹¹

The above recommendation, however, does not specify how much more students should be charged for tuition. Hawaii will probably be faced with arguments for high tuition and with support for low tuition. Resolving these different points of view will not be easy.

Advocates of the "high tuition" school emphasize that it is unfair for taxpayers to subsidize the education of relatively rich college students--that a fairer arrangement would be higher fees with a sufficient number of scholarships and a substantial loan fund. There is also the feeling that a college education enables graduates generally to obtain lucrative employment and that a college education should be regarded as a personal investment. Furthermore, proponents point to the rise in family incomes and argue that families are better able economically to pay for higher education.

In sharp contrast to the above philosophy is the "low tuition" viewpoint. Supporters emphasize that the state has the responsibility for providing higher education and that opportunity must be expanded to enable the qualified, regardless of their financial ability, to attend college. This position asserts that college training is a social investment, for democracy requires an educated citizenry.

In view of the above controversy, Ostheimer's study on the consequences of raising student fees is of interest. He concluded that "a percentage increase in the average student charge is accompanied by a percentage decrease in the enrollment ratio which is one-fifth as large, assuming that income, the adult educational achievement, and the proximity of population to universities and colleges are constant. For a given number of youth, a 25 percent higher average charge, for example, has associated with it a 5 percent decrease in enrollment, . . .¹²

It is generally believed that an increase in tuition will be necessary--nationally--in the next decade to meet the needs of higher education. The difference in opinion arises in determining the amount of increase.

Comparative Data on Tuition and Fees

In order to compare the University's tuition and fees with those of other institutions, data on resident and nonresident tuition and fees were gathered for: (a) 24 higher education institutions in the West--all state universities in the West were included as well as state colleges with student enrollments equal to or greater than that of the University (1960-61) and (b) 31 public, coeducational colleges and universities with enrollments of 7,500 or more in non-Western states (spring 1960).¹³ Among the significant facts are the following:

1. The University charge (for tuition and fees) for resident students is about 20 per cent above the mean for Western institutions and about equal to the mean for non-Western institutions.
2. The University charge for nonresident students is one-half or less than the mean for Western and non-Western institutions. For both groups of institutions, the University charge is the lowest, probably due to the fact that the University is the only institution without a differential for nonresidents.

Alternative Approaches

There is general agreement that the University should have nonresident students. No one, locally or nationally, has proposed that nonresident attendance is undesirable and should therefore be eliminated. All are agreed that nonresident students are an asset to the campus.

The problem then is not one of determining whether or not a tuition differential should be established for nonresident students, but rather one of deciding the type of nonresident population that is desired at the University. The several alternatives and the application of the basic devices to implement these alternatives are summarized in Table 11 and discussed below.

Alternative I. If the present policies of the University are continued, the nature of nonresident students will be left pretty much to chance. Selection is made from those who happen to apply for admission, and students who accept are those who can meet the tuition, transportation and living expenses. What is the desirable proportion of nonresidents in the student body is not clear nor is the desirable ratio of nonresident American students to foreign students clarified. These or similar areas should be explored as a minimal attempt to define the nonresident population.

Alternative II. Another possibility is to strive to raise the quality of the nonresident group, without increasing the present number or the present state subsidy of educational

Table 11

ALTERNATIVE POLICY GOALS GOVERNING
NONRESIDENT STUDENT ATTENDANCE AND AVAILABLE
DEVICES TO IMPLEMENT SUCH POLICIES

Alter- native	Alternative Policy Goals	Basic Devices as Applied to Nonresident Students			
		Residence Requirements	Academic Standards	Tuition Differentials	Other
I	Continue present system of not restricting nonresident attendance.	None.	Same as for residents or only slightly higher.	None.	
II	Raise quality of nonresident group; keep number constant.	Define.	Impose higher standard as number of applicants increases.	None or some if differential is used to finance scholarships for highly qualified but needy nonresidents.	
III	Reduce number of nonresident students.	Define strictly.	Set higher standards.	Adopt a differential.	Establish quotas.
IV	Increase nonresident attendance.	None.	Same as for residents.	None or small; if substantial should be easily waived.	Offer scholarships; initiate positive recruiting program.

Note: Different policy goals may apply at the graduate level as compared to the undergraduate level.

costs. Academic standards would have to be raised. This plan assumes that the number of mainland applicants will continue to rise and that by keeping the present number of nonresident students constant (which will in effect reduce the proportion they comprise in the student body), it will be possible to select the more able. There need not be a tuition differential, although residence requirements will need to be defined--at least for selection purposes. If an attempt is made to attract the very qualified students through the establishment of a special scholarship fund for nonresident students who may need financial assistance, the adoption of a differential might be desirable if a certain portion of those revenues is set aside for the fund.

Alternative III. Another approach is to reduce nonresident attendance. This can be accomplished by one or a combination of the following means: (a) formulate very strict residence requirements with few exceptions, (b) establish a quota for nonresident students, (c) set very high academic standards, (d) adopt a tuition differential, probably large enough to cover most of the instructional costs.

Alternative IV. Still another possibility is to increase nonresident attendance by initiating a positive recruiting program. Under this plan, the University might attempt to define what it considered to be a desirable "student mix" and recruit accordingly. Residence requirements, if any, should not be restrictive; academic standards should be left as they are; scholarships should be offered; a small or no tuition differential should be charged (or if the differential is substantial, it should be easily waived for certain groups of nonresidents whom the University is especially desirous of attracting).

The above list of alternatives should not be considered to be exhaustive. Obviously combinations of alternatives are possible; further it may be desirable to treat different groups of nonresident students differently. In particular, should Hawaii decide to alter its present policies on nonresident students, it will be necessary to decide whether graduate students, for tuition purposes especially, should be treated as resident or nonresident students.

Determining future policies on nonresident students should be based, at least in part, on the aspects discussed in the previous section: evaluation of whether or not Hawaii is doing its "share" in the higher education enterprise; recognition of Hawaii's unique role in international education; awareness of the expanding graduate program at the University; and knowledge of certain financial factors. Regardless of the alternative selected, there are several general aspects which should be considered.

General Considerations

The financial consequences of having nonresident students on campus are oftentimes a concern. Although the tuition differential is generally used to ease the economic burden, some institutions are making reciprocal provisions for selected groups of students, as noted in Chapter III.

Should Hawaii decide to explore the possibilities of reciprocity, it might initiate discussions with those states which have approximately the same number of Hawaii students as Hawaii has of their students. Another possibility is to request the Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education to examine the ramifications of a Western regional compact for graduate education.

Attractive as reciprocity may seem, it may be difficult to achieve. The author discussed its possible use with administrators in California, Washington, Colorado, Minnesota, and Michigan; all felt that their legislatures would not look upon reciprocity with favor and that the nonresident differential was a pretty well established practice. Furthermore, some pointed to the complex job of bookkeeping which would be required.

Hawaii is fortunate in having students from all parts of the nation and from many foreign countries. It is not enough, however, merely to have a cosmopolitan student body. What happens to the nonresident student at the University? Does he in fact make the valuable contribution he is reputedly able to offer? It is difficult to assess how much interaction there is between resident and nonresident students. The observation made by the U. S. Office of Education survey team is of interest: students "strongly believed that there should be both social and academic interaction between the students from the United States and students from other countries studying at the university."¹⁴

Meaningful interaction can take place in the classroom, but the living arrangements of students oftentimes offer a more continuous and effective opportunity for the exchange of ideas. For this reason, East-West Center plans for student living provide for residential units.

Presently the University's limited dormitory facilities are largely occupied by resident students. More residential units will soon be ready and conceivably some nonresident students will be occupying them. If the potential values of having nonresidents on campus are to be realized, it would be helpful for nonresident students to be given opportunities to share residential units with resident students or to be provided with facilities on campus for "mixing". On the other hand, Hawaii has much to offer nonresident students besides academic learning, and the realization of this objective likewise requires an environment conducive to interaction.

Miss Maizie Yamada prepared the manuscript for printing.

Footnotes

1. U. S. Office of Education, op. cit., p. 311.
2. American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, Committee on Research and Service, A Supplement to the Home State and Migration of American College Students, Fall 1958 (December 1959), p. 38.
3. Includes five students who went to Guam.
4. Thad L. Hungate, A New Basis of Support for Higher Education; A Study of Current Practices, Issues and Needed Changes (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1957).
5. Hawaii, Department of Education, Research and Statistics, "Survey of 1961 High School Graduates By Quintiles of Standing in Class" (April 24, 1962).
6. University of Hawaii, Recommendations for the Organization and Operation of the Center for Cultural and Technical Interchange Between East and West in Hawaii (1960), pp. 7-8.
7. Includes agricultural economics which begins its doctoral program in February 1963, but excludes physics which will initiate its doctoral program in fall 1963.
8. A recent proposal that the federal government finance graduate study points out that: "Four out of every five persons holding Ph.D. degrees in the United States are now working in states other than that in which they were educated. The same proportion are not working in the state in which they were born. Three in four did not receive their graduate education in the state of their birth. . . ." Richard G. Fowler, "Who Should Pay for the Ph.D.?" Saturday Review XLV (June 16, 1962), p. 56.
9. Out-of-State Students in the West's Public Colleges and Universities, p. 14.
10. Seymour E. Harris, Higher Education: Resources and Finance (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962), p. 116.
11. The University of Hawaii and Higher Education in Hawaii, p. 623.
12. Richard H. Ostheimer, Student Charges and Financing Higher Education (New York: Columbia University Press, 1953), p. 101.
13. Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, Fact Book on Western Higher Education (1960), section 7, pp. 2-9; Life Insurance Agency Management Association, The Cost of Four Years of College (New York: New York Life Insurance Company, [1961]).
14. The University of Hawaii and Higher Education in Hawaii, p. 149.

Appendix A

DATA ON REPLIES TO SELECTED ITEMS FROM THE U. S. OFFICE
OF EDUCATION "STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS" QUESTIONNAIRE
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
FEBRUARY 1962

A. How did you enter the University?

	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS			GRADUATE STUDENTS		
	Hawaii	Main-land	Total	Hawaii	Main-land	Total
1. As a Freshman	4695	205	4900	502	3	505
2. Transferred in Freshman Year	114	36	150	9	0	9
3. Transferred in Sophomore Year	254	102	356	20	1	21
4. Transferred in Junior Year	164	126	290	35	3	38
5. Transferred in Senior Year	21	15	36	6	1	7
6. Transferred as Graduate	14	4	18	367	190	557
TOTAL	5262	488	5750	939	198	1137

B. In what college is your major field of study?

	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS			GRADUATE STUDENTS		
	Hawaii	Main-land	Total	Hawaii	Main-land	Total
1. Tropical Agriculture	268	19	287	42	7	49
2. Engineering	678	17	695	15	0	15
3. General Studies	93	21	114	11	7	18
4. Business Administration	787	50	837	44	4	48
5. Education	1445	88	1533	416	33	449
6. Nursing	218	25	243	16	0	16
7. Arts & Sciences	1727	269	1996	328	116	444
8. Graduate School	73	14	87	78	35	113
TOTAL	5289	503	5792	950	202	1152

C. Are you the first member of your immediate family (parents and siblings) to enroll in a college or university?

	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS			GRADUATE STUDENTS		
	Hawaii	Main-land	Total	Hawaii	Main-land	Total
1. Yes	2456	168	2624	400	76	476
2. No	2837	334	3171	555	126	681
TOTAL	5293	502	5795	955	202	1157

D. Which one best describes your parents educational level?

	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS			GRADUATE STUDENTS		
	Hawaii	Main-land	Total	Hawaii	Main-land	Total
1. 1-5	388	10	398	121	2	123
2. 6-8	1191	37	1228	202	21	223
3. 9-11	904	46	950	127	33	160
4. High School Graduate	1537	150	1687	215	46	261
5. Technical School Graduate	393	56	449	59	23	82
6. Bachelor's Degree	509	106	615	90	33	123
7. Professional Degree	177	47	224	73	21	94
8. Master's Degree	107	32	139	22	16	38
9. Doctoral Degree	39	11	50	16	6	22
TOTAL	5245	495	5740	925	201	1126

E. Which category is most nearly applicable to your father's present or last paid occupation?

	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS			GRADUATE STUDENTS		
	Hawaii	Main-land	Total	Hawaii	Main-land	Total
1. Professional	588	130	718	176	57	233
2. Semi-Professional	227	24	251	48	9	57
3. Managerial or Official	1264	140	1404	248	53	301
4. Clerical or Sales	602	31	633	94	17	111
5. Domestic or Personal	144	6	150	15	2	17
6. Protective Services	234	58	292	19	3	22
7. Building Services	32	3	35	7	1	8
8. Agriculture, Fishing, Forestry	274	23	297	75	18	93
9. Skilled Labor	1150	56	1206	141	27	168
10. Semi-Skilled Labor	430	19	449	60	12	72
11. Unskilled Labor	310	6	316	64	3	67
TOTAL	5255	496	5751	947	202	1149

F. Which category includes your family's total yearly gross income?

	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS			GRADUATE STUDENTS		
	Hawaii	Main-land	Total	Hawaii	Main-land	Total
(in thousands)						
1. 18+	237	60	297	90	18	108
2. 15-18	185	38	223	55	8	63
3. 10-15	789	99	888	161	40	201
4. 8-10	586	43	629	111	19	130
5. 7-8	409	30	439	67	14	81
6. 6-7	519	32	551	64	14	78
7. 5-6	466	24	490	69	14	83
8. 4-5	285	23	308	52	7	59
9. 3-4	239	13	252	33	7	40
10. 2-3	119	7	126	11	2	13
11. 1 - under	28	0	28	3	0	3
12. Unknown	1430	133	1563	229	59	288
TOTAL	5292	502	5794	945	202	1147

Source: Data were furnished by the University of Hawaii, Office of Student Personnel, using questionnaires prepared by and distributed for the U. S. Office of Education.

Appendix B

DATA ON REPLIES TO SELECTED ITEMS FROM THE
UNIVERSITY "STUDENT FACILITIES" QUESTIONNAIRE
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
FEBRUARY 1961

A. Plans to seek employment

Interest to Seek Employment	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS					GRADUATE STUDENTS				
	Location of High School Attended					Location of High School Attended				
	Hawaii	Mainland or Possessions	Foreign Country	No Reply	Total	Hawaii	Mainland or Possessions	Foreign Country	No Reply	Total
1 Yes	933	133	45	12	1123	92	28	17	1	138
2 No	984	188	40	14	1226	118	110	60	13	301
3 Undecided	1035	81	30	7	1153	31	24	20	5	80
4 No reply	1324	252	49	16	1641	290	182	27	8	507
TOTAL	4276	654	164	49	5143	531	344	124	27	1026

B. Hours worked per week

Hours Worked	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS					GRADUATE STUDENTS				
	Location of High School Attended					Location of High School Attended				
	Hawaii	Mainland or Possessions	Foreign Country	No Reply	Total	Hawaii	Mainland or Possessions	Foreign Country	No Reply	Total
0	2903	396	114	30	3443	213	140	92	17	462
1-9	268	26	10	1	305	12	7	1	1	21
10-19	570	60	13	5	648	22	10	6		38
20-29	251	51	16	3	321	61	61	19	5	146
30-39	86	22	7	1	116	46	24		1	71
40-49	127	78	2	5	212	155	82	3	2	242
50-59	4	8			12	4	5	1		10
60-69	1	2		1	4		2			2
70-79							2			2
No reply	66	11	2	3	82	18	11	2	1	32
TOTAL	4276	654	164	49	5143	531	344	124	27	1026

C. Source of payment for room

Source	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS					GRADUATE STUDENTS				
	Location of High School Attended					Location of High School Attended				
	Hawaii	Mainland or Possessions	Foreign Country	No Reply	Total	Hawaii	Mainland or Possessions	Foreign Country	No Reply	Total
1 Parents	3209	236	56	15	3516	178	10	8	1	197
2 Spouse	109	115	15	8	247	75	87	10	3	175
3 Earn money	393	190	24	13	620	209	185	30	11	435
4 Work for	125	27	7	1	160	6	9	1		16
5 Other	175	57	47	7	286	29	46	70	9	154
X No reply	265	29	15	5	314	34	7	5	3	49
TOTAL	4276	654	164	49	5143	531	344	124	27	1026

D. Source of payment for meals

Source	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS					GRADUATE STUDENTS				
	Location of High School Attended					Location of High School Attended				
	Hawaii	Mainland or Possessions	Foreign Country	No Reply	Total	Hawaii	Mainland or Possessions	Foreign Country	No Reply	Total
1 Parents	3079	227	58	13	3377	163	10	11	1	185
2 Spouse	113	107	15	7	242	72	82	9	3	166
3 Earn money	644	204	32	16	896	221	186	26	12	445
4 Work for	105	25	5	1	136	4	4	1	0	9
5 Other	154	57	40	5	256	31	48	70	9	158
X No reply	181	34	14	7	236	40	14	7	2	63
TOTAL	4276	654	164	49	5143	531	344	124	27	1026

E. Source of payment for transportation

Source	UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS					GRADUATE STUDENTS				
	Location of High School Attended					Location of High School Attended				
	Hawaii	Mainland or Possessions	Foreign Country	No Reply	Total	Hawaii	Mainland or Possessions	Foreign Country	No Reply	Total
1 Parents	2596	190	54	14	2854	121	7	12	1	141
2 Spouse	110	102	11	7	230	68	80	7	3	158
3 Earn money	1044	244	46	17	1351	262	188	27	11	488
4 Work for	44	16	0	0	60	1	3	2	0	6
5 Other	232	62	36	5	335	34	52	70	9	165
X No reply	250	40	17	6	313	45	14	6	3	68
TOTAL	4276	654	164	49	5143	531	344	124	27	1026

Source: Data were furnished by the University of Hawaii, Office of Institutional Research.

Appendix C

DEFINITION OF "RESIDENCE" FOR HIGHER EDUCATION PURPOSES DEVELOPED BY NEW MEXICO

1. General Definition of Resident Student:

A resident student is defined as one who shall be a bona fide resident of and domiciled within [this State] for a reasonable period, not less than one year, immediately preceding his or her registration for a term or semester in any State-supported college or university in [the State]. A minor will generally be presumed to be a resident of the place of his parents' or guardian's domicile (See Section 5).

2. Definition of residence or domicile:

Domicile is a person's permanent home, to which he intends to return at the termination of any temporary residence at another place. A person can have but one domicile at any time. In changing domicile, he retains his old one until he fully acquires a new one. "Permanent home" means that place which the person considers to be his home either permanently or for the indefinite foreseeable future.

3. Presumptions and Proof of Residence:

Any student whose residence has not been in this State for twelve months before his matriculation at [an in-state] educational institution may be presumed a non-resident for tuition purposes. Proof of residency for tuition purposes requires a written declaration of intent to relinquish residency in another State and establish it in [this state] if he is an adult, or from his parents or guardian declaring their residency in [this state], if he is a minor.

In addition the declaration of residence must, set out or be accompanied by enough facts, plus such other evidence as the facts of the particular case seem to call for, such as evidence that he (or his parents if he is a minor) has accomplished at least one of the following overt acts:

- (a) Registering for the purpose of voting in [this state]
- (b) Gainfully employed on a regular basis in [the State]
- (c) Living with spouse at [an in-state] residence
- (d) Possessing . . . resident hunting or fishing license
- (e) Having received Veterans Tax Exemption Claims in [this state]
- (f) Possessing a license to participate in a profession in [the State]
- (g) Participated in judicial proceedings in this State in which the posture of . . . residence [in this State] has been necessary and successfully maintained.

4. Attendance at institution as temporary; effect of payment of taxes, etc., on residence status in educational institutions:

Attendance at an educational institution is temporary residence; a student neither gains or loses domicile solely by such attendance. Purchase of property, and payment of taxes in [this State] are not necessarily proof of residence in the State for the purpose of enrolling in a State-supported institution of higher education. If any or all of these are consummated by a non-resident student while normally enrolled in a State educational institution, or by his parents or guardians, such student shall be deemed to retain his original residence and not to have acquired one in [this State] except as provided in Section 6; nor does birth in [the State], or direct descent from [State] forbears or alumni of [the State's] higher educational institutions, or attendance at or graduation from [an in-State] high school necessarily prove residence [here].

5. Residence of minor (any male or female under 21 years of age):

The residence of a minor (any male or female under 21 years of age) is that of his father; or of his mother, if his father be not living or if the parents are separated and the minor habitually resides with the mother; or, if both parents are dead, of his legally appointed guardian or any one else with whom he habitually resides in the absence of formal legal designation.

6. Change of residence status:

Residence or non-residence status once established shall be presumed to continue, but such status may be reviewed upon the application of the school officials or of the student on any occasion of registration or re-registration for any term or semester.

7. Emancipation of a minor:

A minor may become emancipated (freed from parental domicile) through marriage, formal court action, abandonment by parents, death of both parents and lack of legally appointed guardian, or positive action on his own and his parents part evidential of his release from parental control. To qualify under the last category, the minor must have completely separated himself from the parental domicile and prove that such separation is complete and permanent. Mere absence from the parental domicile is not proof of its complete abandonment.

8. Residence of a married woman:

The residence of a married woman is that of her husband if they are living together, except as noted further in this paragraph. A wife not living with her husband may establish separate domicile. A non-resident woman who marries a resident of [this State] shall become a resident at the beginning of the next semester or term following such marriage.

A resident woman who marries a non-resident shall keep her resident status as long as she maintains residence in [this State], but loses it if her husband establishes a family home elsewhere. If a resident woman marries an alien, she shall not by that act alone be deemed to have alienated her . . . residence [in this State].

9. Persons enjoying majority privileges:

An adult (over 21 years of age) who has had his domicile in [the State] preceding his initial enrollment in a series of consecutive academic years shall be presumed a resident until he changes his domicile elsewhere.

10. Teachers:

Any person who teaches in a public or parochial school system in [this State] on a full-time basis for a full school year of approximately nine months may thereafter (unless he qualifies under another provision of this definition) be classified as a resident of [the State] for tuition fee purposes, providing such person intends to make this State his permanent home.

11. Federal Service:

Any person entering the active Service of the United States while a resident of [this State] and who enters a State institution of higher education in [the State] after his separation from such Service may be classified as a resident of the State for tuition-fee purposes, provided: (1) he has not while in Service done anything (such as vote in another State) to show abandonment of [his State] residence; (2) he has not established residence in some other State subsequent to his being retired from Service; (3) he returns to [this State] within a reasonable time after his separation from Service with the intention of making this State his home; (4) he is not a minor with parents or guardians whose place of residence classifies him as a non-resident of [this State].

12. Non-resident fees:

Any person unable to qualify as a resident for tuition purposes shall be required to pay the non-resident fee upon enrollment, during any semester or quarter of the regular 9-months academic year, in a course of study consisting of 8 or more semester or quarter hours. Non-residents shall be charged non-resident fees for summer session attendance on a per credit hour or flat fee basis, according to the practice of the institution. A non-resident will not be entitled to any refund of fees by becoming a resident during a term.

13. Non-citizens (aliens):

Non-citizens and their children shall be classified as residents or non-residents on the same basis as citizens of the United States of America, except that non-citizens and their children on diplomatic or student visas shall be classified as non-residents. Service in the United States Armed Forces or, in the case of a female, marriage to a citizen of the United States shall entitle the non-citizen student to be classified as a resident or non-resident on the same basis as citizens.

14. Any commitment made prior to July 1, 1955, to any student granting resident classification for tuition purposes by any institution shall not be affected by these regulations.

Source: State of New Mexico, coordinating board for higher education.

Appendix D

SAMPLES OF FORMS DEALING WITH RESIDENCE CLASSIFICATION

Sample Form 1

UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO PETITION FOR IN-STATE TUITION STATUS

Do not write in this space	Student's Name _____
	Matriculation Number _____

TO THE STUDENT:

Your residence for tuition purposes can be determined only if complete answers are given to the following questions. All information submitted will be held in strictest confidence and will be used only for the purpose of determining your residence status. Please feel free to supplement the material on this form with any other information that will have a bearing on your case.

The education which you have had prior to coming to the University of Colorado may be pertinent to this application. Therefore it is important that you have filed complete admission credentials with the Office of Admissions.

Please study the University rules regarding residence status before submitting this application. These rules may be found in any of the bulletins of the several schools and colleges under the heading "Classification of Residents and Non-residents." A student who willfully gives wrong information to evade payment of non-resident tuition shall be subject to serious disciplinary action.

WHO SHOULD COMPLETE THIS FORM:

- A. The Student should complete this form only if he or she is over 21 years of age or an emancipated person wholly dependent on his or her resources. (Married women, see item C, below.)
- B. The Father of the student should normally complete this form if the student is less than 21 years of age. (In case the parents are separated, the form should be completed by the parent having legal custody or the legally appointed guardian. In the event that no person has been designated as having legal custody, the form is to be completed by the parent with whom the student makes his home. If the guardian or person having legal custody is a married woman, her husband should complete the form. (See item C, below.)
- C. The Husband of a married woman student should complete this form since her residence is that of her husband.

PROCEDURE FOR FILING THIS FORM:

When the form is completed, it should be returned to the Committee on Tuition Status; Macky 121; University of Colorado; Boulder, Colorado.

IDENTIFYING INFORMATION		Miss --- Mr. --- Mrs. ---	Street & No.	
1. Student's Name Last First Middle		2. Address For Reply City State		
3. For what term is in-state status desired?				
4. Name of person completing this form. Last First Middle Miss --- Mr. --- Mrs. ---				
5. Birthdate of person completing this form. Month Day Year				
6. What is your relationship to the student? (Please use the space at right to explain any unusual circumstances of the relationship, such as court order giving custody of children, legal guardianship, and etc.)		Use this space to more fully explain items 6 and 8.		
7. Your present home address Street City State				
8. Your present mailing address. (Use space at right to explain any unusual circumstances.) Street City State				
9. If you have attended the University of Colorado, give terms and dates (example, fall and spring, 1960-61.)				
10. List previous collegiate institutions attended and give dates of attendance. institution dates 1. 2. 3. 4.				
FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO RESIDENCY		Full Name Street City State		
11. Give names and addresses of two persons, not members of your immediate family, who can verify the statements made herein. a. _____ b. _____				
12. When did you first come to Colorado? Month Year		Use this space to more fully explain items 13 and 14.		
13. When did your present stay in Colorado begin? (Use space at right to explain your whereabouts between the dates in items 12 and 13, if they are not the same.) Month Year				
14. For what purpose did you come to Colorado?				
15. Where did you live before coming to Colorado? City State		16. How long did you live there? Years Months		

FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO RESIDENCY, Continued					
17. When and in what state did you file your most recent state income tax return?		Place	Date	18. When and in what state did you file your most recent federal income tax return?	
19. If you own a car, in what state was it licensed?		Last year	This year	20. In what county and state was your motor vehicle operators license issued?	
21. Describe any Colorado real estate which you may own.					
22. If you are a registered voter, please name the county clerk's office where such status can be verified.					
23. If you hold membership in a church, professional association, club, or lodge, give name and location.					
24. If you have a checking account, give name and address of the bank.					
25. If employed, give name and address of employer.					
26. When and with whom was your most recent out-of-state employment?					
27. Where is your home?					
MILITARY SERVICE					
Note: This section need be filled out only if the person completing the form has had recent military service.					
28. Dates of military service: from					
29. If part of your tour of duty was spent in Colorado, give dates: from					
30. If you decided to make Colorado your true home during the period that you were stationed in Colorado, please explain in the space at right what evidence might substantiate your intent.					
31. Where did you live prior to induction?					
32. How long did you live there? from:					

MILITARY SERVICE, Continued)			
33. If you did not come directly to Colorado upon being separated from service, please explain your whereabouts during that interim.			
34. If you have applied for any state benefits for veterans, please name the state and approximate date of application.			
	State	Month	Year
STUDENT'S FINANCIAL RESOURCES			
35. What are sources of student's support? (Indicate percentages)			
SUPPLEMENTAL STATEMENT			
36. Please state why you believe that in-state classification is appropriate in this case.			
I hereby certify that the questions in this application have been answered accurately and completely.			
_____ Date		(Signed) _____ Person completing this form	

UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA
Minneapolis 14

APPLICATION FOR RESIDENT CLASSIFICATION

(For Admission and Fee Purposes)

1. Name _____ Date _____

2. Permanent home address _____

3. College of your choice (Arts, Duluth, Engr., Grad., etc.) _____

4. Date of birth _____ Place of birth _____
Month Day Year City and State

5. If foreign born, have you been naturalized or taken steps toward it? _____ Explain _____

6. When did you come (or last return) to Minnesota to live _____ From (place)? _____

Explain any earlier stay here _____

7. Supply the following information:

a. Father's name _____

His address _____

b. Mother's name _____

Her address _____

c. If parents' addresses differ, explain _____

d. If neither parent is living, or if you have a guardian, guardian's name _____

Address of guardian _____

Date guardianship began _____ Legal or informal? _____

8. Marital Status: Single _____ Married _____ Separated _____ Divorced _____

If married, spouse's name _____ Place of marriage _____

Date of marriage _____ Place of spouse's residence before marriage _____

9. Regulations

The following rules and practices regarding nonresident students, both men and women, have been approved by the University:

1. No student is eligible for residence classification in the University, in any college thereof, unless he has been a bona fide domiciliary of the state for at least a year immediately prior thereto. This requirement does not prejudice the right of a student admitted on a nonresident basis to be placed thereafter on a resident basis provided he has acquired a bona fide domicile of a year's duration within the state. Attendance at the University neither constitutes nor necessarily precludes the acquisition of such a domicile. For University purposes, a student does not acquire a domicile in Minnesota until he has been here for at least a year primarily as a permanent resident and not merely as a student; this involves the probability of his remaining in Minnesota beyond his completion of school.

2. The responsibility of registering under proper residence is placed on the student. If there is any possible question of a student's residence under the rules of the Board of Regents, he should raise the question with the Office of Admissions and Records.

3. A Board of Review for Residence Classification, made up of the Dean of Admissions and Records and five other staff members of the University, passes on all doubtful or disputed cases of residence classification. In making its decisions the board is guided by the following basic rules:

- a. For a parent's domicile to be in Minnesota, he must have connections with the state other than the mere fact of presence with his children while they are attending the University or any other Minnesota school or college.
- b. The domicile of a minor follows:
 1. That of the parents or surviving parent; or
 2. That of the parent to whom custody of the minor has been awarded by a divorce or other judicial decree; or
 3. That of the parent with whom the minor in fact makes his home, if there has been a separation without a judicial award of custody; or
 4. That of an adoptive parent, where there has been a legal adoption, even though the natural parents or parent be living; or
 5. That of a "natural" guardian, such as grandparent or other close relative with whom the minor in fact makes his home, where the parents are dead or have abandoned the minor.
- c. Where a general guardian has been appointed by the state of the ward's domicile at the time of appointment, the ward's domicile presumptively remains in that state. The appointment by a Minnesota court of a resident guardian of a minor not domiciled in this state at the time of appointment has no effect upon the domicile of the ward.
- d. A child emancipated by the law of his domicile has the same power as an adult to acquire another domicile. Marriage constitutes emancipation of minors, both male and female. The domicile of a female becomes that of her husband and so remains while she continues to live with him. For University purposes, a nonresident female becomes eligible for resident status one calendar year after marriage to a Minnesota resident; conversely, a resident female loses residence privileges one calendar year after marriage to a nonresident.
- e. For either an adult or an emancipated minor to acquire a domicile in this state he must have permanently left his parental home, must have acquired interests of a relatively permanent character in this state other than attendance in school, must be actually making a home in Minnesota, and must have no present definite intent of removing therefrom as of a time certain in the relatively near future.
- f. The following facts, standing alone, are not accepted as sufficient evidence of domicile: employment by the University as a fellow, scholar, assistant, or in any position normally filled by students; a statement of intention to acquire a domicile in this state, voting or registration for voting, the lease of living quarters, payment of local and state taxes, or automobile registration.
- g. An out-of-state student enrolled for a full program, or substantially a full program, is considered to be in Minnesota primarily for the purpose of attending school, and is presumed not to be here as a permanent resident. Continued presence in Minnesota during vacation periods does not of itself overcome the presumption.
- h. A student who has come from another state has the burden of establishing by convincing proof his eligibility for University resident classification.

10. Applicant's Statement

(Required for normal consideration. Note that this is to be notarized on the following page.)

Read the Regulations on the preceding page and make as clear and complete a statement as you can covering the following: (a) Your purpose in coming or last returning to Minnesota, (b) A chronology of dates and events related to your coming here and your activities and places of residence, from the time when you were living at home and attending high school, until the present, (c) Facts that, in your opinion and in the light of the regulations, tend to establish your residence here, (d) Your immediate and long range plans. Be specific but be brief; attach additional pages if necessary for a complete statement on only the facts of residence.

11. What are the sources of your support? (If several, itemize amounts or percentages) _____

12. What portion of your funds, if any, do you obtain from your parents? _____

13. Signatures and Action

This statement should be supported with any appropriate attached documentary evidence, signed below before a notary public, and submitted to the Office of Admissions and Records of the University.

Signature of applicant _____

Present mailing address _____

Telephone No. _____

STATE OF _____ }
County of _____ } ss.

Subscribed and sworn to me this _____ day of _____ 19 _____

at _____
City, State

Notary Public

Seal

Action on Petition _____

Signed _____ Date _____ Notified by _____

Action by Board _____

Date _____
Dean of Admissions and Records

Scheduled before Board (date) _____

Decision of Board sent (date) _____ By _____

UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON
Residence Classification Office
Seattle 5

APPLICATION FOR RESIDENT CLASSIFICATION

IMPORTANT: Before filling in blanks, read the following carefully: In order to be classified as a resident for tuition purposes, a person must have made his permanent home in the state of Washington for one full year during the year immediately preceding his registration at the University with the intent to maintain permanent residence. Complete answers to questions 6 and 7 must be given in order that your residential status may be determined. Temporary residence merely for the purpose of attending school, for employment, or for the performance of military or other governmental service, is not sufficient to establish residence for tuition purposes. The representations made in this application are made for the purpose of determining the legal domicile of the student. All statements are subject to investigation and verification, and any misstatement made for the purpose of misleading or defrauding the University and the State is punishable by expulsion from the University and may result in legal action against the maker. Except in case of misstatement, all information given by the student will be held strictly confidential.

If you are either single or not yet 22 years of age, fill in Parts I and II.

If you are a married woman, fill in Parts I and III.

If you have served in the armed forces of the United States, fill in Parts I, II, and IV.

If you do not come within any of these categories, fill in Part I.

PART I

1. Date Full name
(Last) (First) (Middle)
2. Seattle address (street and number) Zone Telephone
3. Permanent home address
4. Age in years and months Month, day, and year of birth
- Place of birth
5. Marital status: Single Married Divorced Widowed If married, how long?
6. When and for what purpose did you first come to the state of Washington? Date
- Born here Attend school Employment Military service
- Other (specify)
7. When and for what purpose did your present (i.e., your latest) stay in the state of Washington begin?
- Month day year
8. Which of the following steps have you taken to make your permanent home in Washington?
- Registered to vote Parents registered voters Maintained permanent home here for several years
- Other (specify)

9. Where did you live before your present stay in Washington began?.....
10. How long did you live there?.....
11. If you were once a resident of Washington and left the state, did you do so for any purpose other than to attend school?..... If so, for what purpose?.....
12. List all persons by whom you have been employed within the past two years (start with most recent employer):
- | Employer | Address | Dates |
|----------|---------|-------|
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
| | | |
13. Are you a citizen of the United States?..... If not, what is your nationality?.....
14. If an alien, when do you expect to return permanently to your own country (give approximate date)?.....
 What form of passport visa do you hold? Student..... Visitor..... Permanent resident.....
 Alien Card Number:..... Date:.....
15. If an alien, have you made formal declaration to become a citizen of the United States?..... If so, when and where?.....
16. Are you registered for voting?..... Where? (Precinct name or number).....
17. If you have ever voted, when did you vote last?..... Where?.....
18. If you are eligible to vote under the laws of any state or country, what do you regard as your proper voting place?.....
19. What high schools have you attended (names, location, dates)?.....
20. List all previous attendance at the University of Washington, including present attendance but not including extension classes.....
21. For which quarter do you intend to enroll?.....

Be sure to sign on last page

22. Give names of higher institutions of learning formerly attended and periods attended at each.

School Location Dates

.....
.....

23. Prior to this, have you ever, here or elsewhere, made a statement or affidavit pertaining to your residence?.....

If so, when and where?.....

24. Did you pay a nonresident tuition fee at any other institution?.....

PART II

25. Is your father or stepfather living?..... If so, give his full name and permanent address.....

.....

How long has he been living in that state?.....

What state did he live in previous to that?.....

How long did he live there?.....

Is he a registered voter?..... Where?.....

When did he vote last?..... Where?.....

What is his business or occupation and business address?.....

.....

If your father or stepfather is not living, when did he die, and where was his residence at his death?.....

.....

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING ONLY IF YOUR FATHER (OR STEPFATHER)
IS NOT LIVING OR YOUR PARENTS ARE DIVORCED

26. Is your mother living?..... If so, give her full name and permanent address.....

.....

How long has she been living in that state?.....

What state did she live in previous to that?.....

How long did she live there?.....

Is she a registered voter?..... Where?..... When did she last vote?..... Where?.....

If your mother is not living, when did she die, and where was her residence at her death?.....

.....

27. If your parents are divorced, was any court order made assigning you to the custody of your mother?.....

If so, when, where, and by what court?.....

.....

PART III

- 28. Full name of husband.....
- 29. His permanent home address.....
- 30. How long has he been living there?.....
- 31. His previous home.....
How long did he live there?.....
How long has he lived in the state of Washington?.....
- 32. His business or occupation and place of business.....
.....
- 33. Is he a citizen of the United States?..... If not, has he made a formal declaration of intention to become a citizen?..... If so, when and where?.....
Alien Card Number:..... Date:.....
- 34. When did he vote last?..... Where or through what state?.....
Where is he registered to vote? (Precinct No.).....
- 35. Are you legally separated?..... If so, when and where did you separate?.....
Are you divorced?..... If so, when, where, and by what court?.....

PART IV

- 36. From what state did you enter the service?..... When?.....
How long had you lived there prior to entering the service?.....
- 37. What was your permanent home address on your service records?.....
- 38. When were you separated from service?..... Where?.....
- 39. If stationed in Washington, did you establish residence off the post?.....

Address	Dates
.....
.....
- 40. If separated from the service less than three years, where have you been and what have you been doing? (Give approximate dates.).....
.....

.....
Signature of Student

(Revised 9/59)

Appendix E

COMPARISON OF NUMBER OF HAWAII STUDENTS ATTENDING
COLLEGES IN THE VARIOUS STATES AND OF NUMBER OF
OUT-OF-STATE STUDENTS STUDYING IN HAWAII*
FALL 1958

	<u>Out-Migration:</u> Number of Hawaii Students Attend- ing College in the State	<u>In-Migration:</u> Number of Students from the State Attending Institu- tions in Hawaii	<u>Net Effect:</u> Out-Migration minus In-Migration
Alabama	4	9	-5
Alaska		2	-2
Arizona	22	8	+14
Arkansas	5	14	-9
California	1,263	223	+1,040
Colorado	305	15	+290
Connecticut	16	17	-1
District of Columbia	50	3	+47
Delaware		2	-2
Florida	8	33	-25
Georgia	9	12	-3
Idaho	37	10	+27
Illinois	230	52	+178
Indiana	211	25	+186
Iowa	122	20	+102
Kansas	95	13	+82
Kentucky	15	15	0
Louisiana	25	8	+17
Maine	1	6	-5
Maryland	33	13	+20
Massachusetts	114	34	+80
Michigan	153	61	+92
Minnesota	72	18	+54
Mississippi	5	9	-4
Missouri	133	29	+104
Montana	18	6	+12
Nebraska	57	4	+53
Nevada			--
New Hampshire	10	5	+5
New Jersey	21	42	-21
New Mexico	26	8	+18
New York	163	82	+81
North Carolina	5	18	-13
North Dakota	1	2	-1
Ohio	106	32	+74
Oklahoma	22	19	+3
Oregon	399	20	+379
Pennsylvania	49	63	-14
Rhode Island		4	-4
South Carolina	3	2	+1
South Dakota	4	2	+2
Tennessee	23	17	+6
Texas	47	53	-6
Utah	117	6	+111
Vermont	1	4	-3
Virginia	14	11	+3
Washington	190	43	+147
West Virginia		6	-6
Wisconsin	190	32	+158
Wyoming	6	3	+3

	<u>Out-Migration:</u> Number of Hawaii Students Attend- ing College in the State	<u>In-Migration:</u> Number of Students from the State Attending Institu- tions in Hawaii	<u>Net Effect:</u> Out-Migration minus In-Migration
Guam	5	2	+3
Total	4,405	1,137**	+3,268

Source: American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers, Committee on Research and Service, A Supplement to The Home State and Migration of American College Students, Fall 1958 (December 1959), pp. 38-39.

*Includes undergraduate, graduate, and professional school students.

**Does not include 171 students from foreign countries studying in Hawaii.

Appendix F

SOURCES OF INCOME FOR EDUCATIONAL PURPOSES*
UNIVERSITY OF HAWAII
1956-57 to 1961-62

Source	1956-57		1957-58		1958-59		1959-60		1960-61		1961-62	
	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent	Amount	Per Cent
Territorial or State Appropriation	\$3,330,663	55.75	\$4,128,181	58.87	\$4,501,972	55.06	\$ 6,204,656	57.70	\$ 7,408,365	54.17	\$ 8,589,087	46.49
Student Fees	1,293,008	21.64	1,362,019	19.43	1,799,454	22.01	1,942,244	18.06	2,076,652	15.18	2,216,166	12.00
Federal Funds	836,620	14.00	978,905	13.96	1,439,206	17.60	2,105,814	19.58	3,581,318	26.19	6,456,872	34.95
Sales of Services, Gifts and Grants	514,429	8.61	542,741	7.74	436,329	5.33	500,470	4.65	609,978	4.46	1,212,258	6.56
TOTAL	\$5,974,720		\$7,011,846		\$8,176,961		\$10,753,184		\$13,676,313		\$18,474,383	

Sources: University of Hawaii, Annual Reports for 1956-57 to 1960-61, and Business Office.

*Excludes funds for capital improvements. Dollar amounts have been rounded to the nearest dollar.