Demographic and Socioeconomic Status of China's Minority Ethnic Population: Any Closing of the Gap?

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Abstract

In the 1990s, China experienced enviable economic growth but at the same time also faced rising inequality. One dimension of inequality that is of concern to government officials is the socioeconomic gap between minority ethnic groups and the Han majority. This paper examines recent trends in the demographic and socioeconomic status of China's ethnic groups, utilizing data from the 2000 and 1990 population censuses and a county-level data set that combines 2000 census results with other economic statistics. The paper assesses whether the ethnic gap is narrowing or widening and discusses the factors underlying the trends. Education attainment and employment are the major socioeconomic indicators evaluated in the paper. Changes in the geographic concentration of minority ethnic groups between 1990 and 2000 and the potential leveling effect of migration are also evaluated. Multivariate regression analysis is used to further disentangle the link between ethnicity and socioeconomic status.

INTRODUCTION

In the 1990s, China continued to experience enviable economic growth rates, even during the Asian financial crisis.[1] However, at the same time, the country also faced rising inequality along several dimensions. Numerous studies have documented and discussed increasing urban-rural inequality and the growing gap between the east coast and central and especially western China (Long, 1999; Lyons, 1998; Khan and Riskin, 1998; Chen, 2002). The Chinese government has proposed policies designed to address the inequality, although with limited success thus far (World Bank, 1999). Another dimension of inequality that has been of concern to government officials is the socioeconomic status of minority ethnic groups vis-a-vis the Han majority. Minority ethnic groups lag behind the Han majority in terms of most education and economic indicators (Hannum and Xie, 1998). Rising aspirations for independence among several minority groups along China's western border has added to government concern over the socioeconomic gap.

This paper assesses the current demographic and socioeconomic status of China's minority ethnic groups compared to the majority Han and investigates whether the gap is narrowing or widening. The assessment draws on results from China's 1990 and 2000 population censuses and economic data compiled by administrative levels.[2] The paper also discusses the factors underlying these trends, including the transition to a market economy and the efficacy of government policies aimed at promoting education and improved economic conditions for minority groups. First, we examine the geographic location of minority groups

[1] According to official statistics, real gross domestic product (GDP) grew by at least 7 percent each year from 1991 to 2000, with the growth rate exceeding 10 percent in 1992 through 1995. Some researchers have argued that GDP growth in the late 1990s was not as high as official statistics indicate (Rawski, 2001), but these arguments have been countered by other analysts (Holz, 2003).

[2] Available published census data cover the civilian population only and exclude the 2.5 million serving in the People's Liberation Army.

and trends in their growth. Next, the paper considers two major indicators of socioeconomic status: education and employment. This section of the paper compares educational attainment and employment data from the 1990 and 2000 population censuses for Han and minority ethnic populations. In the final section, further comparison is provided through analysis of a county-level data set that combines 2000 population census results with administrative data on other economic variables for the same year. Here we explore the interaction between ethnicity and socioeconomic status using a multivariate approach.

GROWTH AND DISTRIBUTION

While the Chinese population is overwhelmingly Han, representing almost 92 percent of the total population according to the 2000 census, minority groups still constitute sizeable populations given China's total population of 1.2 billion (Figure 1). The share of minority ethnic groups has risen from 5.8 percent in the 1964 census to 8.5 percent in 2000. The Chinese government officially recognizes 55 minority nationalities and there are more than 300 other ethnic groups not recognized individually (Wong, 2000). Together their population exceeded 105 million in the 2000 census. Nine minority ethnic groups have populations exceeding five million each – the Zhuang, Manchus, Hui, Miao, Uygurs, Tujia, Yi, Mongols, and Tibetans.

In the 1990s, the minority ethnic groups, with few exceptions, experienced higher population growth rates than the Han, which had an average annual growth rate of 0.9 percent (Table 1). Only the Zhuang, Manchus, Koreans, Daur, Nu, and Hezhen nationalities experienced positive but slower growth compared to the Han between the 1990 and 2000 censuses. The Uzbeks and Tatars were the only two minority groups to experience negative growth over the intercensal period.

The 1990-2000 intercensal average annual growth rate was lower (substantially lower in most cases) than the 1982-1990 intercensal average annual growth rate for all ethnic groups except the Bonan (Table 1). In the 1980s, minority ethnic growth rates were unusually high primarily because of reclassification (Gladney, 1995; Wong, 2000; Banister, 1987). Many members of ethnic minority groups chose to hide their ethnic identity prior to the onset of economic reforms in 1978. In the 1980s, the Chinese government implemented economic, education, and population policies that favored minority groups, providing strong incentives to claim minority ethnic status. Growth rates in the 1990s more likely reflect the effect of underlying demographic factors (that is, natural increase rates and international migration) rather than additional reclassification.

The 2000 census found the highest concentrations of minority groups in the west, southwest, and portions of the northeast (Map 1). The minority population continues to be concentrated in sparsely populated areas and the least developed regions of China. The autonomous regions of Xizang (Tibet), Xinjiang Uygur, Guangxi Zhuang, Ningxia Hui, and Nei Mongol (Inner Mongolia)[3] and the provinces of Qinghai, Guizhou, and Yunnan contain the most county-level units with minority population shares exceeding 40 percent. These regions and provinces are among the poorest in terms of per capita GDP and rural household income (Table 2). In the mid 1990s, China had 331 nationally designated poor counties, of which 43 percent were classified as minority ethnic counties (World Bank, 2003).

EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

This section of the paper compares education attainment and employment data from the

[3] In the 1950s, these five provinces with large minority populations were designated as autonomous minority nationality regions.

1990 and 2000 population censuses for the Han majority, minority ethnic populations collectively, and the nine most populous minority groups individually.[4]

Education

The Han majority saw an improvement in education at the primary, secondary, and post secondary levels.[5] In 1990, only 38 percent of the Han population ages 6 and above had received post primary schooling, while by 2000 the share had risen to 53 percent (Figure 2). Those achieving an education status beyond the junior high school level rose from 11 percent to 16 percent over the decade, while those with a post-secondary education more than doubled. However, the post-secondary share was still low at just under 4 percent in 2000.

Ethnic minorities collectively also saw substantial increases in educational attainment in the 1990s; however, their educational status in 2000 was very similar to that for the Han a decade earlier. Those advancing beyond the elementary school level rose from 27 percent to 39 percent. Those receiving an upper secondary or post secondary level of education rose from 8 percent in 1990 to 12 percent in 2000 for the minority ethnic population ages 6 and above.

The nine largest ethnic minority groups all saw advances in education over the 1990s, although the size of the improvement varied. Two of the ethnic groups, Manchus and Mongols, already had higher levels of education than the Han in 1990 and these two ethnic groups maintained this advantage in 2000. The Tibetans, Yi, and Miao stand out for their continued low

[4] In the 2000 population census, China administered a long form questionnaire for the first time to a random sample of households. Education data are from the short form (100-percent data) while employment data are from the long form (estimates from a 9.50 percent sample).

[5] A primary school education consists of six years of schooling. General secondary education is divided into three years of junior high school and three years of senior high school. After primary school or junior high school, students may go into any one of a variety of specialized secondary schools, including vocational and technical. These schools offer two or three-year programs at the lower or upper secondary level. Post-secondary institutions include full-time, regular universities that offer four to five years of education and advanced vocational schools that provide two to three years of training.

levels of education. Tibetans, in particular, still have only 13 percent of their population ages 6 and above advancing beyond primary school in 2000. While this is an improvement over the 8 percent in 1990, it is still only one-fourth the rate for the Han population.

As can be seen in Figure 2, the Han continue to have higher overall educational attainment levels than the ethnic minority, although the Manchus and Mongols are exceptions. Participation in post-secondary education is not too dissimilar between the Han (3.9 percent) and the minority population (2.7 percent) perhaps reflecting the effect of government affirmative action policies for university admission (Johnson and Nchhetri, 2000).

Ongoing implementation of the nine-year Compulsory Education Law contributed to the increases in post primary school education in the 1990s. A nine-year Compulsory Education Law, covering six years of primary school and three years of junior high school, was passed in 1986. Although the law was passed at the national level, with decentralized financing, its implementation has been determined at local levels. For example, Shandong planned to implement fully nine years of compulsory education by 2000 and Guizhou set a target of 80 percent of children completing primary school and 60 percent of primary school graduates continuing on to junior high school by 2000 (West and Wong, 1995). By 2000, nine-year compulsory education had already been achieved in most large cities and the coastal area. Poor and remote areas were still striving to implement universal primary education. As of 2000, Tibet, for example, had achieved universal primary school for only 46 percent of its population, although the autonomous region still planned to achieve nine-years of compulsory education by 2010 (*China Education Daily*, 2000).

If compulsory education had been implemented equally across the country in the 1990s, the percentage point increase in those receiving at least a junior high school education should

have been higher for the minority ethnic groups than for the Han because they started out with a lower share.[6] Instead, the Han saw a 15.4 percentage point increase while minority ethnic groups increased by only 12.6 percentage points. The reliance on local funding (township and county governments) for primary and secondary education counters the equalizing advantage of universal education.

The booming economy, development of labor markets, and increased demand for a more educated and skilled labor force drove the rise in education beyond the junior high school level. Opportunities for post secondary education increased with changes in college enrollment policies. Admission no longer is based on a quota tied to a state plan and determined solely on the basis of a national college entrance exam. Colleges now have more flexibility in selecting major fields of study to offer and in the number of students to enroll. Many colleges now offer two-year associate degrees in high demand fields and charge tuition.

The number of schools did not increase for the most part; in fact, there was some consolidation of schools in the 1990s. Rather, it was the utilization of existing schools that increased. According to annual statistics compiled by China's Ministry of Education, new students enrolling in post secondary education institutions rose steadily from 609,000 in 1990 to 2.2 million in 2000 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2001, p. 652). Technical and vocational schools at the secondary level catered to market demand and attracted record numbers of students in the 1990s. Technical secondary schools enrolled half a million new students in 1990, 1.7 million in the peak year of 1998, and 1.3 million new students entered in 2000 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2001, p. 652). Vocational secondary schools enrolled 1.2 million new students in 1990, saw this rise to a peak of 2.2 million in 1998, and matriculated 1.8 million new

[6] Collectively the minority ethnic groups have a younger age structure than the Han due to higher fertility rates and slightly higher mortality.

students in 2000 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2001, p. 652).

Employment

Over the 1990s, there was a shift in employment away from agriculture, declining from 72 percent of those employed in 1990 to 64 percent in 2000.[7] The transition out of agriculture and into the industrial or service sectors for employment is a key part of the development process and improves the economic prospects of rural families. For China, where cultivated land per rural laborer is only a quarter of a hectare (National Bureau of Statistics, 2002, pp. 31, 56), underemployment in rural areas is particularly acute. Nationally, the service sector saw the greatest increase in employment share while industry and construction also expanded slightly.

Both the Han majority and the non-Han collectively experienced these same shifts (Figure 3).[8] For the Han, agriculture's share of employment fell 8 percentage points from 71 percent in 1990 to 63 percent in 2000. Industry and construction accounted for a quarter of those shifting out of agriculture, while the service sector's share increased to accommodate the other three quarters. Minority groups did not experience as large a shift out of agriculture; the employment share only fell from 83 percent to 79 percent. However, similar to the Han, one-quarter of the employed ethnic minority shifting out of agriculture found employment in industry and construction and three-quarters in services.

The nine largest minority groups all saw agriculture's share of employment decline from

[7] For all employment statistics, the 1990 figures are 100-percent data, while the 2000 numbers are from a random sample of households in the census. The necessary information is not available to calculate the sampling error associated with the 2000 long form estimates, and thus we are unable to perform statistical testing on the comparisons made in the text.

[8] Industry and construction includes manufacturing, the extractive industry (geological survey and prospecting in 1990), power production and supply, and construction. Services includes geological and water conservancy management, transportation, storage, and communications, wholesale and retail trade, catering, finance and insurance, real estate development, social services, public health, education, culture, broadcast, scientific research and technology services, and government and nongovernment services.

1990 to 2000. However, for Tibetans and Mongols the decline was less than 1 percentage point (Tibetans fell from 86.7 percent to 86.4 percent and Mongols dropped from 71.9 percent to 71.1 percent).

The employment share in industry and construction rose for six of the nine most populous minority groups and fell for the Manchus (from 16 percent down to 14 percent), Hui (from 19 percent to 14 percent), and Mongols (from 9 percent to 8 percent). The decline for the Mongols and Manchus may be attributable to their geographic concentration in the northeastern rust belt (Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region and Heilongjiang, Jilin, and Liaoning provinces) where state-owned enterprises have been struggling and unemployment rising.[9] Contrary to the national trend, industry and construction employment fell from 17 percent to 14 percent in Inner Mongolia from 1990 to 2000. In both Liaoning and Heilongjiang it fell 10 percentage points (from 31 percent to 21 percent and from 26 percent to 16 percent, respectively). Jilin saw the share decline from 23 percent to 14 percent. The Hui population is not as geographically concentrated,[10] and the explanation for their employment decline in industry and construction is not as obvious.

In China's more marketized economy, the ability to change one's employment is increasingly enhanced through internal migration (both permanent and temporary). Thus, migration may play an important role in raising the socioeconomic status of minority ethnic groups. The 2000 census enumerated 145 million temporary migrants or 11.7 percent of the total population (Table 3).[11] Temporary migration was less common among ethnic minorities

[9] According to the 2000 census, 69 percent of Mongolians resided in Inner Mongolia and another 17 percent lived in the northeast provinces of Heilongjiang, Jilin, and Liaoning. Half of all Manchus lived in Liaoning province in 2000 and 19 percent resided in Jilin and Heilongjiang provinces (Department of Population, Social, Science and Technology Statistics, National Bureau of Statistics, 2002, pp. 78-106).

[10] The largest share (19 percent) of the Hui population resided in Ningxia. Ningxia combined with Gansu, Henan, Xinjiang, Qinghai, and Yunnan account for nearly two-thirds of the Hui population.

[11] Temporary migrants are defined as those residing away from their permanent household registration location for

(8.0 percent) than the Han majority (12.0 percent).

In addition, we can assess changes in the geographic concentration of minority ethnic groups between 1990 and 2000 (Table 4, data columns 1 and 2). First, we find that minority groups were less likely to reside in Guangxi province and the northeast (Heilongjiang, Jilin, and Liaoning provinces) in 2000 as compared to 1990. They were more likely to reside in Guizhou, Guangdong, Hunan, Sichuan and Chongqing, Zhejiang, Beijing, and Hebei. The poor economic performance and job prospects of the northeast may have encouraged minority populations to leave the area and migrate to more prosperous destinations, such as Guangdong and Beijing.

Results from the long form shed light on the role of migration, showing that 1.8 percent of the minority population migrated across provincial boundaries in the five years prior to the 2000 census.[12] More than one in four interprovincial minority migrants came from Guangxi. Over 80 percent of minority migrants leaving Guangxi during the five-year period were in Guangdong at the time of the 2000 census. Guangdong was the most popular destination for interprovincial minority migrants overall, accounting for 41.0 percent, followed by Zhejiang (7.8 percent) and Beijing (5.1 percent). One puzzling finding is that Guizhou was the second major source of interprovincial minority migrants – 17.1 percent and was not a major destination (only 1.5 percent). Alternative explanations for the increase in the share of minority population residing in Guizhou in 2000 as compared to 1990 may lie in differences in the natural increase rate across minority ethnic groups and/or relatively more ethnic reclassification among the population in Guizhou.

The share of minority ethnic groups in China's total population rose from 8.1 percent in

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more than six months at the time of the census. The 145 million figure includes those studying and working abroad and is 100-percent data.

[12] Data on timing and source of migration are from long form questions and, therefore, are estimates subject to sampling error.

1990 to 8.5 percent in 2000. At the province level, the minority share of the population increased in all but five provinces over the 1990s (Table 4, data columns 3 and 4). The five provinces experiencing declines were Jilin, Heilongjiang, Guangxi, Tibet, and Xinjiang. For Jilin, Heilongjiang, and Guangxi provinces it appears that out migration, as discussed above, is a major factor in this decline. For the other two provinces, another explanation appears likely. Tibet's share of the country's total minority population was unchanged from 1990 to 2000, suggesting no major net outflow of minority populations. The decline is also not due to a relatively lower natural increase rate for minority ethnic groups (the natural increase rate for Tibetans is 9.34 per 1000 population as compared to 3.73 for Han according to the 2000 census). An alternative explanation may be the in migration of Han over the 1990s. Estimates from long form data show that Tibet over the 1995-2000 period experienced net in migration of Han (about 45,000) and net out migration of minority ethnic groups (about 4,500). The in migration of Han is also a plausible explanation for the decline in the minority share of total population in Xinjiang. Similar to Tibet, Xinjiang's share of the country's total minority population was unchanged and the natural increase rate for Uygurs (the dominant minority group in the province) was 12.74 per 1000, well above the Han rate. Based on long form calculations, there was a net in migration of Hans (about 953,500) from 1995 to 2000 and a much smaller net in migration of minority population (about 46,700).

COUNTY LEVEL ANALYSIS

Further comparison of the majority Han and minority ethnic populations is provided through analysis of a county-level data set that combines 2000 population census results with other economic statistics for the same year. The data set contains 2,368 county-level

administrative units. A small number of units appear to be missing from the data set in Qinghai, Shanxi, and Shaanxi provinces (see missing counties identified in Map 1). According to figures published in the *China Statistical Yearbook* for the end of 2000, China had 2,074 counties, of which 400 were county-level cities, and 787 districts under the jurisdiction of cities. Some of the 787 districts are under county-level cities and do not contain a government that is on par with county governments. Only the *shiqu* or urban districts under prefectural or provincial level cities are included in the data set. The counties, county-level cities, and *shiqu* are considered to be at the same government level.

We divide the county-level administrative units into localities with 50 percent or more of their population identified as a member of a minority ethnic group and those with less than 50 percent. Table 5 summarizes a number of demographic and socioeconomic characteristics for these two categories of administrative units.[13] It is readily apparent that localities with dominant minority populations are more rural, have a younger population age structure, lower education, poorer housing conditions, and a lower per capita GDP. The population in the Han-dominated administrative units were 31 percent urban on average, while in minority-dominated units they were only 18 percent urban. The younger age structure in minority-dominated units is due to their higher fertility rate. The total fertility rate as measured by the long form questionnaire was 1.3 in Han-dominated units and 1.8 in minority. Minority-dominated administrative units had lower average educational attainment, obviously consistent with data we examined above for ethnic groups. We return to this characteristic shortly.

The unfavorable economic environment in minority-dominated areas is indicated by their relatively poor living conditions. The share of households without their own kitchen was twice as high in minority-dominated areas as in Han. The share of households with no tap water, bath

facilities, or lavatory in their homes was at least 10 percentage points higher for each in minority-dominated units than in Han. The 2000 census was the first census to ask housing questions and so it is not possible to assess the change over time for these indicators.

Per capita GDP was nearly two-thirds higher in Han versus minority-dominated areas. The data set was missing GDP statistics for 325 units, the vast majority of which were urban districts which tend to have a higher per capita GDP than counties or county-level cities. Of the 325 missing units, 321 were Han-dominated areas. Therefore, the GDP gap between Han-dominated and minority-dominated areas is likely even greater.

From the descriptive statistics discussed above it is not clear to what extent one can conclude that the lower status for those residing in a minority-dominated area is due to being a member of a minority group or to residing in an economically disadvantaged area (such as rural and/or western China). Therefore, we now turn to multivariate analysis to further disentangle the link between ethnicity and socioeconomic status. Specifically, we examine the extent to which lower schooling level can be explained by the presence of a large minority population and to what extent to it being a poor area.

Table 5 shows that average years of schooling among the population age 6 and over is higher for both males and females in Han-dominated areas and the gender gap is slightly smaller in Han-dominated areas (average years schooling for females is 86 percent of the male level while it is 79 percent in minority-dominated areas). Average years of schooling for the population age 6 and above is the dependent variable. Among the independent variables, we include the share of minority population in the administrative unit as well as per capita GDP. We also include an urbanization variable (percent of the population that is urban) because there is an urban/rural gap in the provision of education services. Wong and West (1997) found a

[13] See Table 5 for an identification of short form versus long form sources of data.

fiscal revenue gap between urban and rural areas due in large measure to the industry-centered tax base in China. Redistribution enhances rural expenditures to a limited degree, leaving major differences in the level and quality of basic service provision to residents in the two areas. Cities are further advanced than counties when it comes to compulsory education. The percentage of students who go on to junior high school and regular senior high school is higher in urban areas. Therefore, this variable may well have a role to play in explaining educational attainment differences. Our sample size is reduced to 2,043 because 325 county-level units lacked GDP data.

Among the three variables, the minority share of the population has the highest simple correlation with years of education for both males and females, followed by percent urban (not shown). Regression results for male and female average years of schooling are presented separately in Table 6. All three independent variables are highly significant and have the expected signs.[14] Even after controlling for both location (urban versus rural) and overall economic status (per capita GDP), males and females in areas with a greater concentration of minority ethnic population will have fewer years of schooling. Regression results (Table 6) show that a 10 percentage point increase in the minority share of the population within a county will lead to a 0.2 year decrease in education for both males and females. The results are generally consistent with Hannum's (2002) analysis of 1992 data on enrollment and education attainment by ethnic groups in China. However, the county-level data set used in this study precludes an examination of household effects and is not limited to current school enrollment.

[14] Per capita GDP and percent urban are correlated (0.5160) and hence lead to multicollinearity in the regression. However, the coefficients are not greatly affected. In a regression of male education without per capita GDP, the coefficient for percent minority is –0.01944 and for percent urban is 0.02715 with an adjusted R^2 of 0.6024. For the female education regression, the coefficient for percent minority is –0.02152 and for percent urban is 0.03227 with

CONCLUSION

Results from the 2000 population census clearly show that minority populations still lag behind the Han majority in socioeconomic status. Minority ethnic groups did see improvements in educational attainment over the 1990s; however, generally at a slower rate than the Han. Minority ethnic groups also did not transition out of agriculture as fast as the Han majority did in the 1990s. It appears that minority populations are participating in migration and in many cases they are migrating to a more prosperous destination; however, their participation is generally lower than that of the Han majority. The potential role of migration in helping to equalize the socioeconomic status of Han and minority ethnic groups will be better addressed when more detailed results of the 2000 census are available.

County-level census results further illuminate the divide between the majority and minority populations. From an education viewpoint, it is preferable to reside in a prosperous, urban location and to be Han. More detailed analysis of the socioeconomic status of minority ethnic groups should be possible with a census micro data set, allowing household effects to be incorporated as well.

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an adjusted R^2 of 0.5551.

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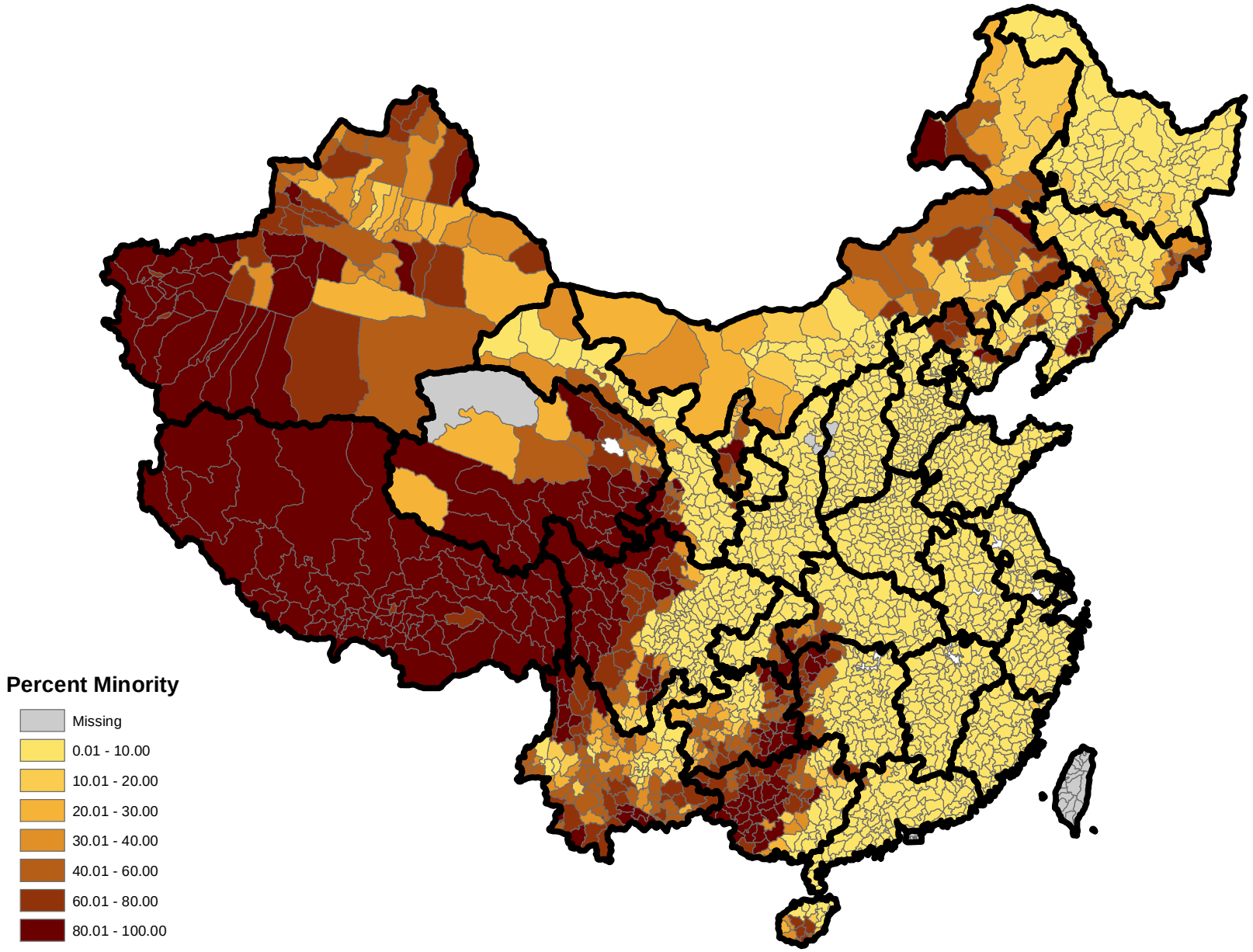
Map 1. Distribution of Minority Ethnic Population by County Level Administrative Units, 2000



Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2003, *2000 Population and Socioeconomic Indicators with County Map.*

Table 1. Average Annual Intercensal Population Growth Rates of China's Ethnic Groups, 1953-2000 (in percent)

Ethnicity	1953-1964	1964-1982	1982-1990	1990-2000
Han	1.66	2.02	1.30	0.90
Zhuang	1.82	2.60	1.88	0.39
Manchus	1.06	2.60	10.34	0.81
Hui	2.15	2.67	2.19	1.31
Miao	1.01	3.28	4.82	1.91
Uygurs	0.92	2.22	2.37	1.53
Tujia	NA	9.38	8.78	3.38
Yi	0.42	2.66	2.34	1.65
Mongols	2.76	3.06	4.28	1.91
Tibetans	-0.87	2.39	2.21	1.65
Bouyei	0.78	2.51	2.30	1.54
Dong	1.45	2.97	7.06	1.66
Yao	2.30	2.77	5.18	2.10
Koreans	1.70	1.53	1.07	0.00
Bai	2.00	2.62	4.31	1.51
Hani	2.43	2.90	2.12	1.37
Kazaks	-0.32	3.41	2.53	1.18
Li	1.78	3.91	2.83	1.15
Dai	1.01	2.50	2.50	1.22
She	NA	2.57	6.68	1.12
Lisu	-1.45	3.21	2.20	1.00
Gelao	NA	3.90	26.13	2.79
Lahu	2.90	2.58	3.78	0.98
Dongxiang	-0.50	3.55	3.63	3.18
Va	-3.24	2.22	2.06	1.19
Shui	1.42	3.38	2.38	1.59
Naxi	0.81	2.63	1.24	1.06
Qiang	2.91	4.11	8.21	4.34
Tu	3.39	4.03	2.34	2.25
Xibe	5.13	5.10	9.07	0.88
Mulam	NA	2.98	7.19	2.55
Kirgiz	-0.10	2.67	2.95	1.14
Daur	NA	2.20	3.19	0.86
Jingpo	-5.16	2.64	3.11	1.02
Salar	1.12	3.84	2.95	1.77
Blang	NA	2.19	4.29	1.09
Maonan	NA	2.96	8.00	3.93

Table 1. Average Annual Intercensal Population Growth Rates of China's Ethnic Groups, 1953-2000 (in percent)

Ethnicity	1953-1964	1964-1982	1982-1990	1990-2000
Tajiks	1.05	2.74	2.78	2.11
Pumi	NA	2.93	2.55	1.23
Achang	NA	2.94	3.81	2.02
Nu	NA	2.33	2.15	0.56
Ewenkis	6.09	3.86	3.84	1.45
Jing	NA	6.20	4.47	1.83
Jino	NA	NA	5.12	1.48
Benglong or Deang	NA	2.93	2.86	1.48
Uzbeks	-5.17	2.55	2.37	-1.77
Russians	-25.80	4.38	19.15	1.45
Yugurs	3.57	3.41	1.89	1.10
Bonan	0.30	3.14	3.24	3.46
Monba	NA	-6.70	23.55	1.74
Oroqen	1.64	2.31	6.68	1.57
Drung	NA	2.25	2.86	2.43
Tatars	-10.05	3.26	2.57	-0.35
Hezhen	NA	4.05	13.12	0.87
Gaoshan	0.97	8.37	6.95	4.39
Lhoba	NA	NA	9.73	2.44
Others ethnic groups not identified	-31.33	17.81	-0.76	-0.24
Naturalized foreigners	18.18	-2.26	-4.31	-13.13
Total	1.63	2.07	1.48	0.95

NA These ethnic groups had not yet been officially recognized as distinct ethnic groups.

Notes: Civilian population only. For 1982 table excludes Xizang indirect survey of 28,601 people. Results from this survey would increase the Monba population from 1,140 to 6,248 and the Lhoba population from 1,066 to 2,065.

Sources: Department of Population Statistics, National Bureau of Statistics and Economic Department, State Nationalities Affairs Commission, 1994, pp. 2-5; State Council and Population Census Office, State Council and Department of Population, Social, Science and Technology Statistics, National Bureau of Statistics, 2002, pp. 215-301.

Table 2. Economic Ranking of Autonomous Regions and Provinces with High Concentrations of Minority Ethnic Populations, 2000

Autonomous region/province	Per capita GDP rank	Per capita net income of rural households rank
Xizang (Tibet)	27	31
Xinjiang	12	25
Qinghai	21	26
Guangxi	29	23
Guizhou	31	30
Ningxia	24	24
Yunnan	26	27
Inner Mongolia	16	16

Note: Out of 31 autonomous regions and provinces.
Sources: National Bureau of Statistics, 2001, *China Statistical Yearbook 2001* , pp. 58-59 and 324.

Table 3. Share of Population Residing Away from Permanent Household Registration Location by Ethnic Group, 2000

Ethnicity	Percent
Total	11.68
Han	12.03
All minority ethnic groups	7.95
Zhuang	9.41
Manchus	10.12
Hui	11.67
Miao	6.93
Uygurs	5.44
Tujia	7.52
Yi	4.31
Mongols	11.10
Tibetans	4.63

Note: Population residing away from their permanent household registration location include those who have been away for more than six months, including those working or studying abroad.

Source: Department of Population, Social, Science and Technology Statistics, National Bureau of Statistics and Department of Economic and Development, State Ethnic Affairs Commission, 2003, *Tabulation on Nationalities of 2000 Population Census of China* , Vol. 1, pp. 100-101. Beijing: Ethnic Publishing House.

Table 4. Geographic Distribution of China's Minority Ethnic Population, 1990 and 2000

	As percent of country's total minority population		As percent of province's total population	
	1990	2000	1990	2000
Beijing	0.46	0.56	3.83	4.31
Tianjin	0.22	0.25	2.31	2.71
Hebei	2.66	2.76	3.94	4.35
Shanxi	0.09	0.10	0.29	0.32
Inner Mongolia	4.60	4.62	19.42	20.83
Liaoning	6.81	6.38	15.62	16.06
Jilin	2.79	2.33	10.24	9.15
Heilongjiang	2.21	1.68	5.67	4.89
Shanghai	0.07	0.10	0.47	0.63
Jiangsu	0.17	0.25	0.23	0.36
Zhejiang	0.23	0.38	0.51	0.86
Anhui	0.36	0.38	0.58	1.17
Fujian	0.51	0.55	1.55	1.71
Jiangxi	0.11	0.12	0.27	0.31
Shandong	0.56	0.60	0.60	0.70
Henan	1.11	1.09	1.18	1.25
Hubei	2.36	2.47	3.97	4.36
Hunan	5.33	6.09	7.95	10.13
Guangdong	0.39	1.21	0.56	1.49
Guangxi	18.30	15.99	39.24	38.38
Hainan	1.23	1.25	17.00	17.38
Sichuan	5.40	3.91	4.56	5.00
Chongqing		1.88		6.47
Guizhou	11.60	12.67	32.43	37.84
Yunnan	13.64	13.46	33.41	33.42
Tibet	2.33	2.34	96.18	93.94
Shaanxi	0.17	0.17	0.48	0.50
Gansu	2.05	2.09	8.30	8.75
Qinghai	2.07	2.11	42.14	45.97
Ningxia	1.71	1.80	33.27	34.56
Xinjiang	10.45	10.42	62.42	59.43

Sources: Economic and Development Department State Ethnic Affairs Commission and Department of Integrated Statistics State Statistical Bureau, 2000, *Zhongguo minzu tongji nianjian 2000* (China's ethnic statistical yearbook 2000), p. 434, Beijing: Ethnic Publishing House; Department of Population, Social, Science and Technology Statistics National Bureau of Statistics, 2002, *Zhongguo renkou tongji nianjian 2002* (China population statistics yearbook 2002), p. 78, Beijing: China Statistics Press.

Table 5. Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of Predominantly Han versus Minority Areas, China: 2000 (mean)

	<50 percent minority population	50 percent or higher minority population
Number of county-level areas	1,935	433
Percent of resident population with household registration in that locality*	89.91	93.14
Percent minority population*	4.87	79.97
Percent urban population*	31.37	17.86
Percent of population 1-14 years old*	23.67	28.40
Percent of population 15-64 years old*	69.39	66.01
Percent of population 65 and over*	6.93	5.58
Percent of population 15-49 years old*	27.78	26.26
Birth rate (per 1000 population)*	11.73	17.10
Death rate (per 1000 population)*	6.06	6.90
Natural growth rate (per 1000 population)*	5.67	10.20
Total fertility rate from census long form**	1.31	1.80
Average years schooling for population age 6 and over*	7.43	5.60
Average years schooling for males age 6 and over*	7.96	6.25
Average years schooling for females age 6 and over*	6.87	4.91
Percent population age 15 and over employed**	74.90	80.11
Of those employed percent employed in primary sector**	67.64	81.30
Of those employed percent employed in secondary sector**	14.32	5.14
Of those employed percent employed in tertiary sector**	18.04	13.56
Percent of households with no kitchen**	16.67	36.81
Percent of households with no tap water**	57.31	71.68
Percent households with no bath facilities**	78.73	89.35
Percent households with no lavatory**	30.43	52.78
GDP per capita (yuan)***	5,302.45	3,220.01
Percent of GDP from primary sector***	32.55	47.74

Notes:

* From short form question, 100-percent data.

** From long form question, estimate.

*** Administrative data. The number of county-level administrative units in <50 percent minority population areas is only 1614 and for 50 percent or higher minority population areas is 429.

Source: National Bureau of Statistics, 2003, *2000 Population and Socioeconomic Indicators with County Map.*

Table 6. Educational Attainment Determinants Across County Level Administrative Units, 2000

Dependent variable: Years of schooling, males

Adjusted $R^2 = 0.5236$

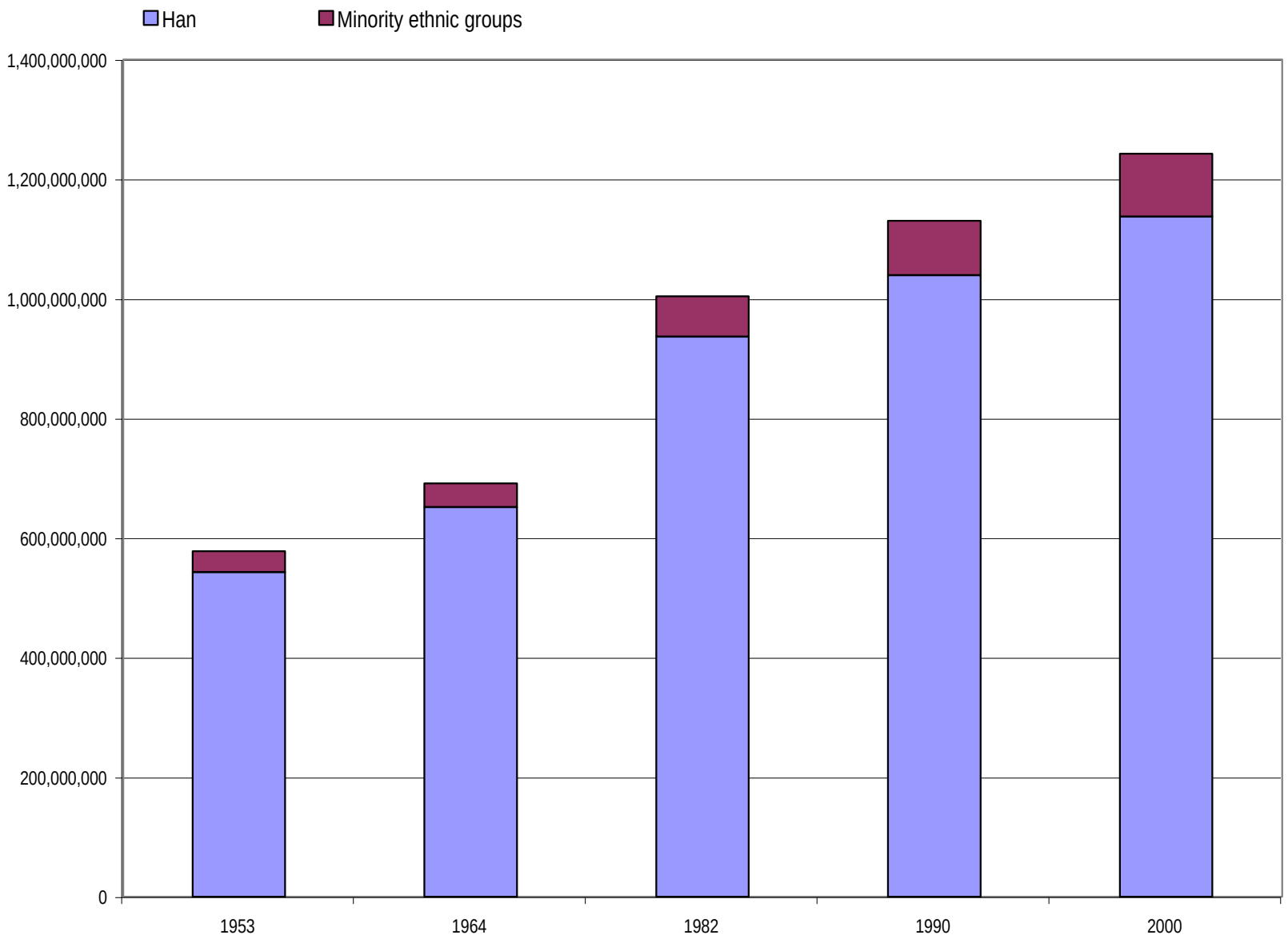
Variable	Coefficient	t Value	Pr > | t |
Intercept	7.14421	176.43	<.0001
Percent minority	-0.01932	-33.34	<.0001
Percent urban	0.02623	20.71	<.0001
Per capita GDP	0.00002353	3.49	0.0005

Dependent variable: Years of schooling, females

Adjusted $R^2 = 0.4847$

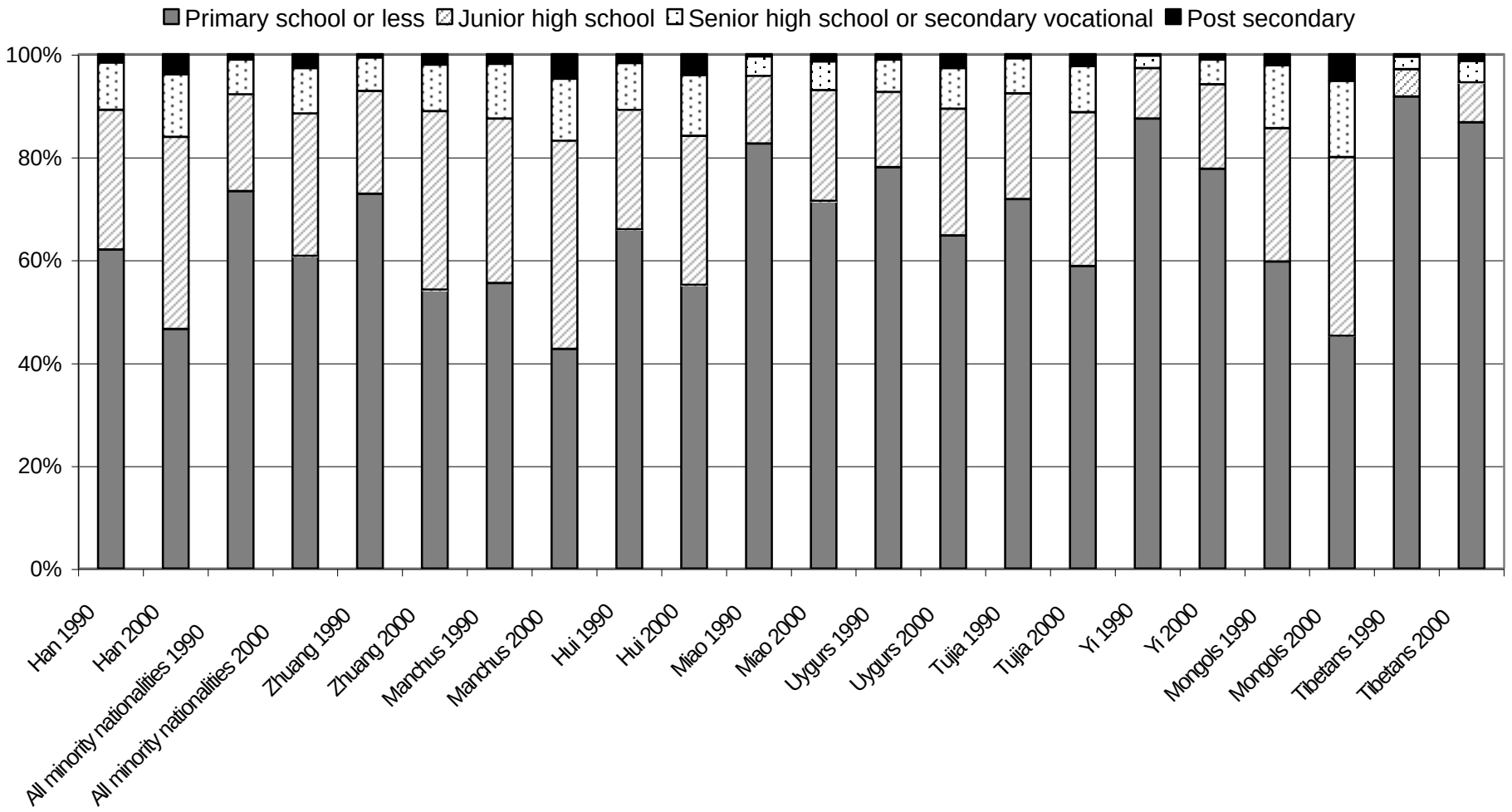
Variable	Coefficient	t Value	Pr > | t |
Intercept	5.81153	113.81	<.0001
Percent minority	-0.02114	-28.94	<.0001
Percent urban	0.03169	19.84	<.0001
Per capita GDP	0.00004089	4.81	<.0001

Figure 1. Han and Minority Ethnic Civilian Population, China: 1953-2000



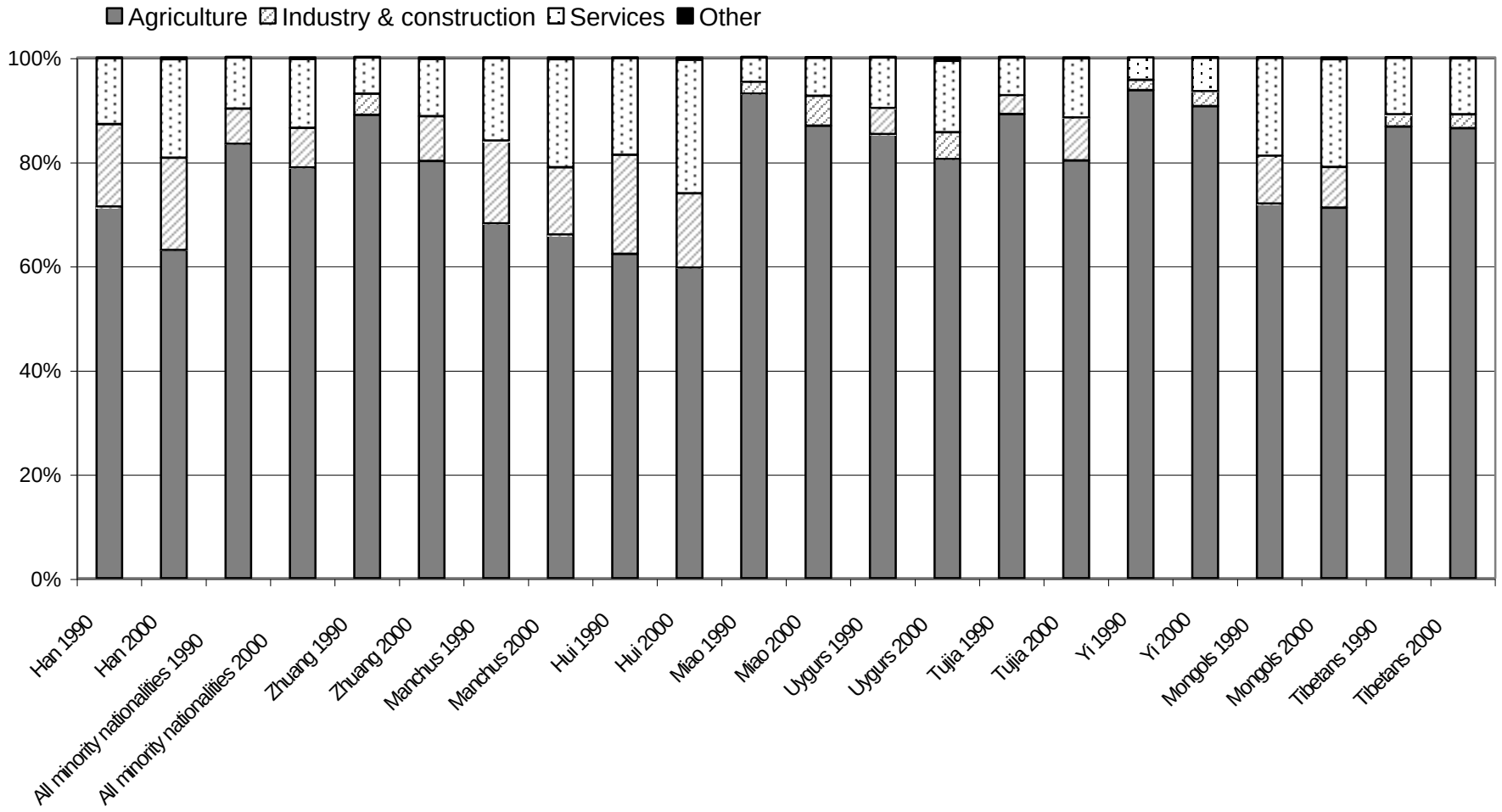
Sources: Department of Population Statistics, National Bureau of Statistics and Economic Department, State Nationalities Affairs Commission, 1994, p. 2; State Council and Population Census Office, State Council and Department of Population, Social, Science and Technology Statistics, National Bureau of Statistics, 2002, p. 215.

Figure 2. Education Level of Population Ages 6 and Above by Ethnic Group, China: 1990 and 2000



Source: Population Census Office, State Council and Department of Population Statistics, National Bureau of Statistics, 1993, *Tabulation on the 1990 Population Census of the People's Republic of China* , Vol. 1, pp. 380-397, 700-703, 722-727; Population Census Office, State Council and Department of Population, Social, Science and Technology Statistics, National Bureau of Statistics, 2002, *Zhongguo 2000 nian renkou pucha ziliao* (Tabulation on the 2000 population census of the People's Republic of China), pp. 563-567.

Figure 3. Employment by Sector and Ethnic Group, 1990 and 2000



Source: Population Census Office, State Council and Department of Population Statistics, National Bureau of Statistics, 1993, *Tabulation on the 1990 Population Census of the People's Republic of China* , Vol. 1, pp. 740-751; Population Census Office, State Council and Department of Population, Social, Science and Technology Statistics, National Bureau of Statistics, 2002, *Zhongguo 2000 nian renkou pucha ziliao* (Tabulation on the 2000 population census of the People's Republic of China), pp. 815-820.