

A COMPARATIVE DEMOGRAPHIC STUDY
OF NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN
CHINESE POPULATIONS IN THE
UNITED STATES

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D.
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Fu-ju Liu
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**By
Fu-ju Liu**

A THESIS

**Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of Michigan
State College of Agriculture and Applied Science
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of**

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Sociology and Anthropology

1953

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AN ABSTRACT

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J. Allan Beegle

ABSTRACT

The gradual shift of the Chinese population in the United States from foreign-born to native-born is of considerable demographic and cultural significance. The numerical gain on the part of the native-born Chinese-Americans has made the cultural cleavage between the two nativity groups more apparent and has drawn attention to the emergence of new problems confronting the native-born quite different from those faced by the foreign-born Chinese-Americans. Since social and cultural divergencies between the two groups have a direct bearing upon certain demographic phenomena, a comparative study of the two populations may yield basic information fundamental to a better understanding of the problems and adjustments of Chinese-Americans.

The purposes of this study are fourfold: (1) to review the development and present status of the Chinese population in the United States as background for a further comparison of its component groups; (2) to determine the underlying factors which have led to the present change in nativity status; (3) to compare the two nativity groups as to growth, composition, and characteristics; and (4) to state the probable trends of the Chinese population in this country on the basis of the foregoing analysis.

This investigation is primarily a demographic study which involves the compilation of census data and the presentation of these data in graphic form. The primary sources of data are the various publications issued by the United States Bureau of the Census. In addition to the primary sources published and unpublished materials about the Chinese-Americans in this country serve as secondary sources.

The major findings of the present study may be summarized as follows:

First, the development of the Chinese population in this country can be divided roughly into three periods: one of rapid increase from 1850 to 1880 with heavy concentration in the West; another of gradual decrease from 1880 to 1920 with dispersion eastward; and finally one of short-time increase from 1920 to 1940 with a redistribution of numbers in certain states. In 1940 there were 77,504 Chinese-Americans in the continental United States. They are characterized by concentration in a few localities, extremely high urbanization, and a predominance of adult males. The imbalance of the sex ratio is evidenced by the fact that many married men live in celibacy because their wives are not in the United States and a majority of marriageable males remain single.

Generally speaking, Chinese-Americans 25 years old and over receive much less formal education than the comparative

group in the total population of this country. In spite of the fact that a large proportion of Chinese-Americans are included in the labor force, the occupational opportunity for them is rather limited. About one-third of the total employed are confined to "service work, except domestic". There were about twenty-one thousand Chinese private households in this country in 1940. The average size was about three persons for each household.

Second, the change in nativity status among the Chinese-Americans is to be regarded as a result of fertility, mortality, and migration. The decline of the foreign-born group has been attributed to the excess of departures over arrivals and to high mortality. On the other hand, the increase of the native-born group is made possible by the generally high fertility of the Chinese-Americans. In comparing the two nativity groups, it is found that the native-born Chinese-Americans show somewhat greater concentration in some states, are more urban, are younger in age composition, have lower sex ratios, acquire higher educational status, and marry later than the foreign-born Chinese-Americans. However, the higher educational status achieved by the native-born does not greatly improve their occupational opportunity. A majority are still holding the same types of occupations as their foreign-born elders. In living arrangements, more native-born than foreign-born Chinese-

Americans are living in private households. Yet, the latter maintains more private household units with fewer relatives than the former. Evidently, there are many "one-man families" shared by several unrelated persons among the foreign-born Chinese-Americans.

Third, in view of the possibilities of an increasing number of marriages and the high fertility among the Chinese-Americans, coupled with a stable mortality and the unlikely large-scale migration either in or out of the United States in the future, a continuous increase of Chinese population in this country seems quite probable in the immediate future. Nevertheless, such an increase probably will not be great, nor will it last very long if future population growth relies solely upon natural increase. Due to the increasing importance of the native-born Chinese-Americans who are more accessible to the idea of a small sized, democratic family, an eventual decline of fertility may be expected.

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2. The second step is to do background research.
3. The third step is to form a hypothesis.
4. The fourth step is to test the hypothesis by conducting an experiment.
5. The fifth step is to analyze the data and draw a conclusion.
6. The sixth step is to communicate the results of the experiment.
7. The seventh step is to repeat the experiment to verify the results.
8. The eighth step is to use the results to make a prediction.
9. The ninth step is to use the prediction to make a hypothesis.
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PART ONE

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER I PROBLEM AND PROCEDURES

Statement of The Problem

The shift of the Chinese population in the United States from foreign-born to native-born¹ has been a noticeable phenomenon in the last several decades. At the turn of this century, nine out of every ten Chinese in this country were foreign-born, according to federal census reports. Today, the foreign-born group contributes less than one-half of the total Chinese population. Simultaneously, the number of their descendants has increased from nine thousand to more than forty thousand, an increase of about 450 percent. These numerical and proportional changes in nativity status are significant if the cultural factor is taken into account.

¹The term "Chinese population" in the United States is defined in this study as a racial group, because many Chinese legally can be Americans either by birth or through naturalization. Thus, they are distinguished, not by their nationality, but by their race. The term "Chinese-Americans" or "Americans of Chinese descent" is used throughout this study to denote the Chinese population living in the United States.

The demographic meanings of "native-born" and "foreign-born" follow the definition given by the U.S. Census Bureau, as: "a person born in the United States or in any of its territories or possessions is counted as native. Likewise, included as native is the small group of persons who, although born in a foreign country or at sea, were American citizens by birth because their parents were American citizens. The remainder of the population is classified as foreign-born". See 16th Census of U.S., Characteristics of the Nonwhite Population by Race, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1943, p.2.

The Chinese-Americans have long been considered one of the most culturally homogeneous groups in this country. This consideration was based on the fact that the bulk of the population was made up of the foreign-born. This group came from a cultural milieu which in many aspects is quite different from that of the American.² Thus, in spite of the length of their sojourn in this country, their acculturation and assimilation³ have been slow processes. It should be noted that the resistance to change was further enhanced by racial discrimination. Intermarriage has been rare between the

²Voluminous works have been devoted to this subject. However, one of the fundamental differences between the American and the Chinese cultures is the individualism versus familism from which social relations are developed and differentiated. Thus, in terms of Toennies' concepts, America would be a *Gesellschaft*-like society, and China would be a *Gemeinschaft*-like community. See Ferdinand Toennies, Fundamental Concepts of Sociology, translated and supplemented by Charles P. Loomis, New York: American Book Company, 1940.

³There are various definitions for the terms "acculturation" and "assimilation". However, the one indicated here seems more appropriate to the purpose of this study. Acculturation is used to denote "the social process through which peoples of diverse cultures in close contact with one another fuse their cultures into new forms comprising elements from both but different from either." On the other hand, "assimilation is the process through which the immigrant or alien loses the modes of behavior previously acquired in another society and gradually takes on the ways of the new society. When such an individual no longer thinks of himself as distinctly different and in turn is not treated in a special category apart from the natives or ordinary members of the society, then he is fully assimilated."

Logan Wilson and William L. Kolb, Sociological Analysis, New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1949, p. 686.

Chinese and other races.⁴ As a result, the Chinese immigrants became a unique cultural group, and gradually developed a strong group solidarity. All these conditions have resulted in:

1. a concentration of population in the metropolitan areas;
2. occupational withdrawal from the American labor market by restricting themselves to the few occupations which are least in direct competition with the native Americans; and
3. a complete isolation from the larger community, except to maintain a utility relationship that arises from need for the daily necessities.

These demographic phenomena could continue as long as the contributing factors remain unchanged. The presence of large numbers of native-born Chinese-Americans, however, has somewhat modified the situation. The young generation, born and educated here, is different in many cultural aspects. Through the public school systems these young Americans of Chinese descent acquire the prevailing American social values

⁴Intermarriages between Americans and Chinese are comparatively few because of a strong sentiment against them. In some states legislation prohibits such unions. The volume of such intermarriage is not known. However, local studies show Chinese prefer to marry within their own group. See, for examples, C. Panunzio, "Intermarriage in Los Angeles, 1924-1933," American Journal of Sociology, XLVII (March 1941), pp. 690-701; and Shepard Schwartz, "Mate Selection Among New York City's Chinese Males, 1931-38," American Journal of Sociology, LVI (May 1951), pp. 562-568.

and attitudes, such as individual freedom, democratic family, and social equality. As a group, their cultural orientation frequently sets them apart from their foreign-born elders, if not at an opposite position, at least in a different degree of opinion over various issues which may affect their future happiness, such as decision over marriage, education, and the selection of a vocation.

Studies of Chinese-American communities in some American cities not only indicate the existence of cultural divergencies between the two groups, but reveal a more complicated situation for the native-born.⁵ The one frequently mentioned is the marginal character of the young generation of Chinese descent. The acceptance of American culture could have easily taken them away from their parental group, had the racial visibility not become a barrier. Because of the skin color, they are denied many occupational opportunities, subjected to social segregation, and excluded from social participation. Culturally they are American, racially Chinese. And yet, they belong to neither group. The situation confronting the native-born Chinese-Americans, therefore, is quite different from that of the foreign-born Chinese.

⁵Ching Chao Wu, Chinatown: A study of symbiosis and assimilation, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1920; H.C.C. Loh, Americans of Chinese Ancestry in Philadelphia, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1945; Yu-chen Liu, Interactions within Chinese-American Families of Portland, Oregon, resulting from cultural differences, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oregon, 1951.

The main problem for the foreign-born Chinese is assimilation to the culture to which many have already made a partial accommodation. The constant decline of Chinese immigrants has reduced the magnitude of the problem as applied to the foreign-born. The problem for the native-born Chinese-Americans, however, is a social adjustment which is still far from being complete. While the number of the native-born Chinese-Americans was relatively few, their cultural divergencies could easily be overlooked and their problem could be left to the individual. Such problems were hardly serious enough to cause any social concern. However, with the gain in numerical importance, cultural cleavage became much more apparent and the magnitude of the problem expands. Of course, this is not uncommon in many immigrant groups. Nevertheless, each racial or ethnic group may exhibit unique behavior in accordance with the peculiar social and cultural conditions involved. Thus, the successful adaptation^{at} of the Chinese-Americans to American life will depend largely upon how their problems are being solved.

It would be interesting to know the answers to such questions as the following: Will the group solidarity dissolve in the process of cultural differentiation? What kinds of adjustments will the Chinese-Americans make before they gain more complete acceptance by the American community? Will the native-born Chinese-Americans be content to follow

the foot-steps of their foreign-born elders in the outlook upon life or will they develop a culture of their own? Any attempt to answer completely these vitally important questions concerning the Chinese-Americans would involved other approach but this study sheds some light on these questions. Before any intensive studies can be properly developed, basic information regarding their population must be collected and systematically analyzed. Such demographic knowledge is fundamental to a better understanding of the problems concerned.

If the Second World War had brought sympathy and friendship between the Americans and the Chinese, what would be the effect of the present conflict upon Chinese-Americans? If war should come, would the experience of the Japanese-Americans be repeated? ⁶ Regardless of the outcome, a knowledge of Chinese population, especially with respect to the two nativity groupings, is necessary for making sound future policies and programs.

⁶ After Japan attacked Pearl Harbor, the Japanese-American population along the West coast was moved to many relocation camps in the mountain states. See Dorothy S. Thomas and Richard S. Nishimoto, The Spoilage, Berkeley: University of California Press, 1948.

Purpose and Scope

The principal objective of the present study is well stated in the title. Several specific purposes may be stated as follows:

- (1) to review the development and present status of the total Chinese population in the United States as background for a further comparison of its component groups;
- (2) to determine the underlying factors which have led to the present change in nativity status;
- (3) to compare the two nativity groups as to growth, composition, and characteristics;
- (4) to state the probable trends of the Chinese population in this country on the basis of the foregoing analysis.

In pointing out the general demographic facts and the nativity differentials, it is hoped that the present investigation may contribute to the common fund of demographic knowledge to which the Chinese population is related.

The scope of this study depends largely upon the purposes mentioned and the availability of data. Since the study covers the total Chinese population in this country, there is no sampling involved. Theoretically, any person who is of Chinese descent and living in this country, whether born in or outside this country, is included.

Furthermore, he or she must have resided in the continental United States at the time when the 1940 census was taken. According to these criteria, the Chinese population in Hawaii and other territories and possessions are automatically excluded. The reason is that the data for the Chinese-Americans on the mainland have already formed a statistical unit. Any attempt to combine other data would invite complications. Besides, lack of adequate data for the Chinese population in the territories and possessions makes the incorporation of such data impossible.

In order that the material may be more meaningful, comparison with data from other corresponding groups, and the nation as a whole will be made from time to time, whenever and wherever it is deemed appropriate. Except in a few cases where the series of data may go back as far as 1850, the current population, as shown in the 1940 U.S. Census reports, is the main concern.

The availability and extent of demographic data have likewise limited the scope of the present study. The absence of complete vital statistics, for instance, precludes a full investigation of vital phenomena relating to the Chinese-American population. Nonetheless, it is recognized that this is an important phase in the course of any population growth.

Methodology

In accordance with the purpose and scope of this enquiry, certain methodological considerations must be mentioned. This involves: (1) a frame of reference and hypotheses; (2) statistical procedures; and (3) the demographic techniques.

First, it is necessary to state explicitly that the demographic composition and characteristics vary from one group to another as their social and cultural conditions differ. The relationship between the factors of population and the various conditions also proves to be functional rather than a causal one.⁷ In a functional relationship the make-up of a population is influenced by the various conditions under which it exists. Conversely, a change in its size, distribution, or composition may result in a modification of the various conditions of the group concerned. Therefore, data from a demographic source always serves as a concrete form of human behavior requiring a systematic study. Second, application of this approach to the study of Chinese-Americans is particularly valuable since the main groups involved are the native-born and foreign-born, revealing more differences in social and cultural orientation than

⁷The functional relationship between population and socio-cultural conditions is well illustrated in Paul Landis, Population Problem, New York: American Book Co., 1943, pp. 41-47.

in the biological one. Social and cultural divergencies between the two groups should have a direct bearing upon demographic differences; and in turn, a change in the demographic structure might affect social and cultural patterns.

As a guide to the study, the following hypotheses are offered:

1. The native-born Chinese-Americans are less concentrated than the foreign-born Chinese-Americans with respect to geographical distribution.

2. Proportionately more native-born than foreign-born Chinese-Americans are found in the rural areas, while proportionately more foreign-born than native-born Chinese-Americans reside in urban centers.

3. The sex ratio is lower among the native-born than among the foreign-born Chinese-Americans.

4. The age-sex distribution of the native-born Chinese population is "younger" while that of the foreign-born Chinese population is more characteristically "aged".

5. The native-born Chinese-Americans marry later than do the foreign-born Chinese-Americans.

6. The native-born Chinese-Americans receive more formal education than their foreign-born elders.

7. Occupational opportunity is greater for the native-born than for the foreign-born Chinese-Americans.

8. The native-born Chinese tends to restrict family size, while the foreign-born Chinese still prefers the large family.

In order to examine these hypotheses, the following statistical procedures may be outlined:

First, the statistical relationship between the characteristics within each nativity group will be presented.

Second, those established demographic relationships of one group will be compared with the other.

Third, analysis of relationships and interpretation of selected findings, in the light of general population principles and known facts, will conclude the procedure utilized.

The use of demographic techniques in this study primarily involves the compilation of demographic data and the presentation of these data in graphic form.⁸ Differences in various characteristics between the two nativity groups are measured by means of statistical devices, such as percentages, ratios, and rates.

⁸The discussion and illustration of some basic demographic techniques may be found in the following works:

A.J. Jaffe, Handbook of Statistical Methods for Demographers, Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1951.

T.Lynn Smith, Population Analysis, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1948.

Charles P. Loomis and J. Allan Beegle, Rural Social Systems, New York: Prentice-Hall, 1950.

In order to achieve a more realistic view of the nativity differentials, reference is frequently made to data for the United States as a whole. Definitions for the important terms will be found in the footnotes of the appropriate sections. As is usual in any population analysis, the work involves a tremendous amount of compiling, sifting, organizing, and analyzing of data. This study is not an exception to the rule.

Sources and Limitations of the Data

The primary sources of data for the present study are the various publications issued by the United States Bureau of the Census. Of these numerous publications containing data for Chinese population in this country, the special report, "Characteristics of the Nonwhite Population by Race," published in 1943, has been found to be most useful for the present purpose. The reason for using the 1940 census data is no more than that these are the latest available data with enough analytical detail. This special report includes data on a number of characteristics of Chinese population in this country by nativity, and is based on the sixteenth census of population in 1940. The demographic characteristics cover the subjects of age, sex, marital status, median number of school years and level of schooling completed, employment status, major occupation groups, and household composition. Detailed statistics on these subjects are presented by region, urban and rural areas, selected states and cities of 100,000 or more with a substantial number of Chinese-Americans.

The present analysis of these characteristics is restricted largely to Chinese-Americans in the United States as a whole. Data for the Chinese-Americans in the selected six states are not included here because they are almost identical with those on the national level, due to the concentration of Chinese-Americans in these areas. In addition to the census data,

statistical records concerning Chinese immigration, fertility and mortality are employed in this study. However, due to variable years and statistical units, data from the immigration office are not always comparable.⁹ The extensive use of vital statistics is also precluded by inadequate information on the births and deaths of the Chinese in this country.

Besides the primary sources enumerated here, published and unpublished materials about the Chinese-Americans in this country serve as additional sources. Information from such sources have proved to be valuable in analysis as well as in interpretation.

In this connection, factors affecting the reliability and accuracy of the data should be examined. Reliability of the census data always depends upon the cooperation that the enumerator could get from the informant. In the case of Chinese groups, like other foreign-born populations in this country, the enumerator usually encounters the language difficulty and a diverse culture. These would greatly hamper the relationship between the enumerator and the informant. Moreover, the reluctance of the informant to cooperate, either due to misunderstanding or suspicion, also tends to

⁹See Marian R. Davis, "Critique of Official United States Immigration Statistics," in International Migration, Vol. II, ed. by Walter F. Wilcox, New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1931, p. 645.

make the enumeration less reliable. Unfortunately, no study has been made, so far, to determine the extent of these effects on the reliability of data concerning the Chinese-American.

There are numerous factors influencing the accuracy of information according to each specific subject concerned. The possibility of underenumeration in the census data always exists, even in 1940.¹⁰ The general contributing factors for the underenumeration, such as low educational level, high mobility, and lack of permanent domicile, are probably valid when applied to the Chinese data. Since this population, especially the foreign-born, is characterized by comparatively low educational levels and a larger number of young males who always exhibit a high mobility, the possibility of underenumeration cannot be entirely ruled out.

The data regarding the Chinese-Americans have certain limitations. Mis-statement in reporting ages, marital status, and occupation are common to all population groups. There seems to be a tendency for the Chinese to miscalculate their age because of a difference in the method of reckoning age.

¹⁰ One study indicates that there was a probable underenumeration in the 1940 Census, when the records of registered males from Selective Service and the Census were compared. The underenumeration among the Negro population is striking. Should the number of registrants of minority groups other than the Negro have been kept separately, a study of the Chinese population following the same method would have revealed some interesting results. See Daniel J. Price, "A Check on Underenumeration in the 1940 Census," American Sociological Review, Vol. 12, pp. 44-49.

According to the Chinese custom, a baby when born is immediately considered one year old. The adding of age is not accomplished by reaching one's birthday but by using the lunar new year as a demarcation. Thus, if a baby were born in the eve of new year, before midnight, he would become two years old after midnight brought in the new year. This difference usually leads to confusion in reporting of age. Besides, many Chinese-Americans, mostly the foreign-born, can only remember their birthdays according to the lunar calendar. Frequently, finding an exact day in the Christian calendar is not easy for the Chinese. A tendency to report a higher occupational status than the actual is found in some segments.¹¹ It is not uncommon also that the foreign-born Chinese habitually states his marital status as single, when actually he has a wife in China. Aside from these limitations which might reduce the reliability and accuracy, the value of these data should not be underestimated.

¹¹Haitung King, An Analysis of Selected Demographic Aspects of Chinese-Americans in the United States, unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Louisiana State University, 1950.

Order of Presentation

The data, presented in the pages to follow, may be grouped into the following three parts: (1) the history and status of Chinese population in the United States; (2) comparison between the native-born and foreign-born Chinese populations in the United States; and (3) summary and conclusions.

The first part provides a demographic background against which the growth and characteristics of the Chinese population in this country are presented. Throughout part two, demographic comparisons of the native-born and foreign-born Chinese populations are made. Four chapters are devoted to differentiate growth patterns, number and distribution, and characteristics of the two populations. The last part serves to summarize the data and to enumerate the major conclusions.

PART TWO

THE HISTORY AND STATUS OF CHINESE POPULATION IN
THE UNITED STATES

CHAPTER II CHINESE IMMIGRATION

The demographic history of the Chinese population in the United States is one of growth, always affected by three factors, namely migration, fertility, and mortality. The influence from selective migration is particularly great in the case of the Chinese population. The demographic effects from selective migration, such as the selection of immigrants in the productive ages and the selection of males are still felt today.

In dealing with the Chinese immigration to the United States, it is necessary to point out the volume of the movement of Chinese into and out of this country, and the selectivity of this movement relative to age, sex, and some demographic characteristics. The social, economic, and legal aspects of Chinese immigration will be discussed briefly when explanation would appear to be needed. Since voluminous works have been written on these aspects of the Chinese immigration, it is unnecessary to repeat the details here.

In order to show the relationship between the Chinese migration to the United States and the migration to other countries, a general survey of Chinese world migration is given as background to the present study.

Chinese World Migration

The history of Chinese migration outside their country began as early as the 7th century when a group of Chinese emigrants settled in Formosa and islands to the southwest.¹ The contact with foreign countries by the Chinese is believed to have started even much earlier.² Throughout the long period of emigration from the 7th century to the 19th century, the Chinese emigrants went to other countries of their own free will. They might go either as traders for financial gain or as political refugees in search of a place of safety.³ As Lasker points out, "They were intrenched in Malacca before the coming of the Portuguese, in the Philippines before the coming of the Spaniards, in the Indian Archipelago before the coming of the British and the Dutch."⁴ However, their numbers

¹Ta Chen, Chinese Migration, With Special Reference to Labor Conditions, (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, No. 340), Washington: Government Printing Office, 1923, p.4.

²Victor Purcell, Chinese in Southeast Asia, New York: Oxford University Press, 1951, pp. 11-30.

³In the early times Chinese traders sailed to the countries of Southeast Asia and later settled down there. One of those early settlements was found in the north coast of Java at the end of T'ang period (ca. 10th century). When Cheng Ho, the Imperial Eunuch of the Ming Dynasty, and his colleagues made several voyages to the South Sea between 1045 and 1431, a number of Chinese communities were also found in Java and Sumatra. However, a substantial emigration was caused by the Chinese internal disturbance at the change-over from one dynasty to another. For instance, when Kublai Khan and the Manchus conquered the whole Chinese kingdom in 1260 and 1644, respectively, many royal subjects of the old dynasties took refuge in Indo-China, Siam, Burma, and the Philippines. (Chinese Year Book 1935-36, Shanghai: The Commercial Press, 1935, pp. 428-455.)

⁴Bruno Lasker, Asia On The Move, New York: Henry Holt Co., 1945, p.71.

were moderate, and their destinations were confined only to Asia, mainly Southeast Asia which the Chinese call "Nan Yang."

It was not until the middle of the 19th century when a large scale Chinese emigration took place. At this time, the Chinese spread beyond the boundaries of Asia. More important, however, the flow of the Chinese over a wider area was no longer dictated by their own free will, but rather, was controlled either by treaty provisions or by labor contracts. This means that they were subjected to the law of supply and demand. Thus, the Chinese were welcomed when laborers were needed in the tin mines or rubber plantations of Malaya, in the gold mines of South Africa, or on the west coast of the United States. Once they had served this purpose and were no longer found useful, they were often deported at any time as cheap labor. The experience of Chinese immigrants to foreign countries has been anything but happy during the last hundred years. Restrictions on Oriental labor in the white countries, such as the United States, Canada, and Australia, have taken the form of complete exclusion as soon as any sign of large-scale Chinese immigration started to flow into the country.⁵

In the countries of Southeast Asia lie vast areas of tropical and semi-tropical land where a great need for labor

⁵The Chinese immigration was first excluded from the United States in 1882, from Australia in 1901, and from Canada in 1923. Peru and Mexico have treaties with China in which Chinese laborers are prohibited to enter.

had been created by Western capital and enterprises, mainly by the British, French, and Dutch. Thousands of Chinese emigrants have gone to the Asiatic tropical regions since the coolie trade was first legalized by the government of Kwangtung in 1859.⁶ For the last hundred years, Nan Yang or South-east Asia has remained a favorite destination for the majority of the Chinese emigrants. Unfortunately, there are no available records to show how many Chinese have departed for this area and how many have returned. However, the fragmentary data from Indochina, Burma, Siam, Singapore, Indonesia, and the Philippines indicate a general excess of arrivals over departures to these destinations. The excess annual arrivals to these areas has amounted to several thousand up to hundreds of thousands. In times of world economic depression, the flow has usually been reversed. It was estimated, for example, that over half a million Chinese immigrants were forced to their homeland during the last world economic depression.⁷ Moreover, the growing anti-Chinese movements in Siam, the Philippines and the civil disturbance in Indonesia and Indochina have reduced their migration to a minimum number. In recent years the major flow of Chinese immigrants has been directly to British Malaya where the Chinese laborer is still in demand.

⁶Chen, op. cit., p.17.

⁷Lasker, op. cit., p. 77.

It is clear that the nature and magnitude of Chinese migration outside their country has changed greatly since the middle of the 19th century. To complete the whole picture, the causes of Chinese migration, the present status, and the future will be discussed, in that order.

The causes of Chinese emigration. Human migration frequently has been explained in terms of population pressure. This driving force, however, has never been strong enough as a single cause to explain the case of Chinese emigration. There usually has been a combination of circumstances which made each event of migration possible and unique in many respects. In the early period, as already indicated, most of the Chinese emigration either followed military expansion or was a direct result of political persecution attendant upon internal strife. Nevertheless, migration in the early period never was large-scale, even though population pressure, according to the estimates of one authority, had existed long before the middle of the 19th century.⁸

Other social forces, of course, undoubtedly have operated to discourage the Chinese from emigration. Of special

⁸According to G.E. Tyler's statement, "the increase in cultivated land between 1661 and 1833 was so far as the records are accurate, from 550 millions to 742 millions of mou (6.6 mou equal to 1 acre), an increase of roughly 35%. The increase of population between 1722 and 1812, according to one authority is put at 237 millions, or 190%; according to another estimate the increase from 1741 to 1851 was from 143 to 432 millions or about 200%." See G.E. Tyler, "The Taiping Rebellion, Its Economic Background and Social Theory," in Chinese Social and Political Science Review, Peking, China, Vol. XVI, No.4, 1933, pp. 545-614.

importance are the ancestral worship and the attitude of the Chinese government. Under the former Chinese social institution, only those outcasts and vagabonds who were forced to leave their homeland may desert their ancestor's graves without regular sacrificial offerings. For many centuries, obligations have served to bind the Chinese people to their native land. Certain local hardships form social disturbances which may occasionally compel Chinese to leave their homes, but such conditions generally represent temporary refuge not far away, from which they can return home easily.

As one writer says, "The Chinese never has shown a longing for the wilderness, and is reluctant to move beyond the reach of the civilization he knows."⁹ This observation unquestionably is true to some extent. In addition to the social customs, the law of the Manchu government prohibited any emigration and placed the death penalty on the violators.¹⁰

Thus, a large-scale Chinese emigration, which required a different set of circumstances, did not exist until the second half of the last century. During the period of western industrialization and the colonial expansion and economic explora-

⁹Lasker, op. cit., p. 3.

¹⁰According to Ta Tsing Liu Lee--the laws of the Penal Code, "all officers of government, soldiers and private citizens, who proceed to sea to trade, or who remove to foreign islands for the purpose of inhabiting and cultivating the same, shall be punished according to law against communicating with rebels and enemies and consequently suffer death by being beheaded." Purcell, op. cit., p. 9.

tion in the southeastern Asiatic countries by the British, Dutch, and French, a tremendous need of labor beyond that supplied by the natives had been created. Thousands of Chinese peasants, almost exclusively from the two southeastern coastal provinces of Fukien and Kwangtung, because of geographic contiguity and similar climate, were attracted by the existing economic opportunity. The discovery of gold in the United States, Canada, and Australia for the first time in history drew thousands of Chinese outside the limits of Asia. It is interesting to note that these large-scale Chinese migrations over wide areas occurred at a time when the population pressure actually had been relieved due to a succession of famines and internal disturbances.¹¹

It is the striking difference in economic opportunity between China and the foreign countries which led the Chinese peasants to break with their ancestral ties, to risk the violation of the law, and even to accept the unfavorable terms of labor contracts in the foreign lands. No longer the Chinese emigrants go to other countries of their own free will. Rather they are subjected to the fluctuations in economic opportunity and in the provisions on the part of the foreign countries.

¹¹The decrease of Chinese population after the middle of the 19th century is believed due to the tremendous loss of human lives from the famines between 1846 and 1864.

The status of overseas Chinese population. The total number of the overseas Chinese population, like the Chinese population at home, never has been beyond the stage of estimate. Any attempt to estimate the total number of overseas Chinese can hardly be made without a considerable error. The main difficulties are due to the lack of standard definition for overseas Chinese in various countries¹² and the variations in the year of available censuses. Thus, the number reported from various sources ranges between nine and fifteen million.¹³

With these limitations in mind, the present estimates are made on an ethnographic basis. There are, according to the Appendix Table 1, about eleven million Chinese abroad. Of these 97 percent are located in Asia, mainly concentrated in British Malaya (2,600,000), Siam (2,500,000), Indonesia (2,000,000) and Indochina (850,000). Hongkong, Macao and

¹²Some countries in Southeast Asia, like Malaya, Burma, and the Philippines where many Chinese are concentrated, follow a general practice like that in the United States, of defining Chinese by race. And yet, some other countries, such as Siam and Indochina, count the person as Chinese according to national status. This means children of other races born in these countries have been included with the native population unless the birth is registered with the consulate of the countries of origin. As a matter of fact, there were no Chinese consulates in Indochina before 1935 nor in Siam before 1946. Therefore, only immigrants from China were counted as Chinese. Since many Chinese were born in these countries, the official figures for overseas Chinese have been far below those estimates based on the racial definition.

¹³The Chinese Handbook 1950 gave a figure of 9,450,143 Chinese residing abroad. Another extreme figure estimated by the Overseas Commission of China is 15,405,945. Between these two extremes there are various estimates. Lasker, op. cit., p. 73.

the Philippines, because of their geographical proximity, are also accessible to a large number of Chinese, namely, 1,500,000, 400,000, and 120,000, respectively. The numbers of Chinese in Japan and Korea are comparatively few in spite of their nearness, geographically speaking. This may be explained, at least in part, by the state of hostility existing between China and Japan before and during the last World War.

Overseas Chinese outside Asia, on the other hand, constitute only 3 percent of the total population. Countries with more than ten thousand Chinese are the United States (110,000, including the Hawaiian Islands), Canada (46,000), Cuba (32,000), U.S.S.R. (30,000), France (17,000), Mexico (12,000), Peru (11,000), and Australia (10,000).

The successive records of Chinese show a continuous growth in numbers in practically every country of Southeast Asia during the last three decades or so. In the absence of vital statistics and complete data concerning their migration, it would be impossible to determine whether such continuous growth has been due mainly to net migration or to natural increase. But in view of the increasing number of Chinese females and the presence of growing native-born Chinese populations, the influence of natural increase cannot be ignored as an element in the growth of these populations.

The scarcity of Chinese females has been a general phenomenon among the Chinese immigrants everywhere. Nevertheless, this situation has been changed greatly, at least among the Chinese in Southeast Asia, by the influx of Chinese women during recent years. In 1939 the ratio of Chinese males to females was roughly three to one in Siam, Malaya, and the Philippines. The ratio was even less in Indonesia, or about three to two.¹⁴ The figures indicate a trend toward balance in the sex ratios as compared with the situation before the First World War when Chinese women were extremely scarce in these countries.

To compensate for this imbalance of the sexes, intermarriage between Chinese Immigrants and native women has been common for many years in Southeast Asia. It is not surprising, therefore, to find a large percentage of Chinese of mixed parentage among the overseas Chinese population. But the exact number of Chinese of mixed parentage still remains unknown because they are either not separated from those born to Chinese parents or they are simply included in the native population. However, they are believed to constitute a large proportion of the native-born Chinese group in Siam, Indochina, Indonesia, Burma and the Philippines. Malaya is

¹⁴Purcell, op. cit., p. 575.

probably the only exception since the majority of Chinese in this country were born to Chinese parents.¹⁵

Another characteristic commonly exhibited by the overseas Chinese population is urbanization. In most of the larger cities throughout the world there are Chinese communities. Except in a few places, the majority of Chinese immigrants in Southeast Asia and in many parts of the world are consistently found in town or city rather than in the rural areas. Considering the fact that many of them were peasants from the two southeastern provinces, the reverse situation might be expected. This phenomenon, however, may be interpreted as an extension of the cityward movement.¹⁶ In the city the overseas Chinese generally find better economic opportunities than elsewhere. However, the economic factor can not alone explain the whole situation insofar as all Chinese immigrants are

¹⁵Intermarriage in Malaya was reduced to a minimum due to the influx of Chinese women in 1937 and 1938. Figures show this group born to Chinese parents represent only 20% of their total population in that country in 1921. It increased to 31.2% in 1931. Finally, it jumped to 62.5% in 1947. These figures may be interpreted as the result from the influx of Chinese women. Purcell, op. cit., p. 270.

¹⁶Lasker asserts that movement of population from the margins to the center of natural wealth rather than from the center of population to the unsettled and less fertile margins characterize both primitive and highly advanced civilization. The European immigration to the United States throughout the 19th century occurred only during the era of expansion in Western civilization, roughly from the fifteenth to the end of the nineteenth century. The Russian settlement of Siberia, the recurrent expansion of Chinese beyond the Great Wall and to the Southwestern boundaries are the other examples. But this kind of pioneer migration historically is secondary. Lasker, op. cit., pp. 1-4.

concerned. The desire to glorify their ancestors always becomes a strong motivation behind the long voyage to a foreign land on the part of the Chinese immigrant. The gaining of the wealth would become meaningless if it could not be spent for the sake of the ancestors. From the beginning the Chinese immigrants have had no intention of settling permanently in foreign lands. They might first go to rural areas or mining districts under contract as farm laborers or miners, but after a short period they have made every effort to shift to the city. This tendency is understandable since agricultural pursuits usually do not yield high wages.

The Chinese immigrants, as a group, are usually rather unstable single males who want to get rich quick (of course, in terms of a moderate amount of money) and who wish to return home as soon as possible. They find the city is more attractive so far as their purpose is concerned. It is this combination of economic opportunity, ancestor worship, and various conditions specific to each locality that have exerted influence upon the pattern of residence and choice of occupations.

Generally speaking, the majority of the overseas Chinese engage in trade and business. Of course, there are always some exceptions. In the tin mines and rubber plantations of British Malaya a large force of Chinese labor is still maintained. Some Chinese farmers may be found scattered throughout Indochina, Java, and Sumatra. In the United States and

Canada the Chinese are either restaurateurs or laundrymen. In Europe, they are mostly identified as seamen. Nevertheless, these instances are negligible and unimportant as compared to the Chinese merchants and traders throughout the countries of Southeast Asia. In these areas, the Chinese have played an important role in the economic development of their adopted country. It is common knowledge that the Chinese in Siam, Indochina, Indonesia and the Philippines have virtually controlled the rice mills and the retail trade.¹⁷ Their predominance in commerce and trade has been attributed to their superior enterprise.¹⁸ But the situation existing in these countries has made it possible for the Chinese to be successful. In the tropical and semi-tropical countries that the whites have conquered, few have cared to come and to stay except for the soldier, the administrator, and the wholesaler. The mass of the native population, on the other hand, are usually confined to agriculture and unskilled labor. The Chinese immigrants came to fill the gap as small businessmen, traders, or artisans. Consequently, they play an indispensable role as middlemen between the whites and the natives.

¹⁷Before the Second World War the Chinese owned 80 percent to 90 percent of the rice mills in Siam. In 1950 the Chinese still controlled 95 percent of the industry and internal trade of Indonesia. In the Philippines the Bureau of Commerce reported in 1938 that in 28 provinces, not including the capital city of Manila, Chinese made up 43 percent of the persons engaged in retail trade, as against 30 percent of the Philipinos, 9 percent of Americans, and 7 percent of Japanese. Purcell, op. cit., pp. 106, 708; and Lasker, op. cit., p. 78.

¹⁸Purcell, op. cit., p. 8.

From the available information, though fragmentary, the present status of the overseas Chinese population may be summarized in the following brief statements:

1. There are about eleven million Chinese population overseas. Of these 96 percent are concentrated in the countries of Southeast Asia.
2. The imbalance of the sexes still characterizes the Chinese overseas populations. The situation has been improving through intermarriage and the influx of Chinese women. These conditions eventually lead to the increase of the native-born Chinese population. In view of the legal restriction against any large-scale Chinese immigration to many countries, trends show that the native-born group will gradually replace the foreign-born group.
3. Contrary to the general belief that the Chinese immigrants are coolies or laborers, they are predominately merchants and traders, and in some countries they dominate these occupations.

The future of Chinese migration. After this brief survey of the overseas Chinese population in the past and the present, it seems necessary to assess probable future migration. The future roads open to the Chinese emigrants will depend on the balance between two groups of forces, namely, the attractions and the barriers on the part of the receiving

country, on one hand, and the push and the retentive forces on the part of the mother country, on the other. In the past the tremendous need of labor from the countries of Southeast Asia drew large numbers of Chinese immigrants. It would be doubtful whether this particular phase in the history of Western colonial expansion will repeat itself again. The rising nationalism among the Asiatic countries not only has shaken the colonial power but also has shadowed the possibility of future Chinese immigration. In Siam, the Philippines, and Indonesia the growing anti-Chinese movements have been identified as patriotic movements. On the other hand, the racial barrier set up against Oriental labor in most Western countries has already limited the Chinese immigration to a negligible number. It is unlikely to expect any radical change in the near future. The need for Chinese labor may still exist in a few countries for special reasons. The continuous demand for rubber and tin in the world market, for example, may possibly stimulate the flow of Chinese migrants between China and Malaya. However, the general trends indicate diminishing attractions and increasing barriers for the Chinese immigrants to foreign countries.

Concerning the forces in the country of origin, there is every reason to believe that the population pressure in China will remain, if not become worse.¹⁹ Industrialization may

¹⁹ Warren S. Thompson, *Population and Peace in the Pacific*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946, pp. 183-210.

raise the standard of living and eventually relieve the population pressure, provided it is accompanied by a positive check on human reproduction. In China it is unlikely that there will be any effective check for the near future, in view of governmental policy and her century-old social institution of ancestor worship. As long as the reproduction rate continues to increase, the danger from population pressure always exists. This means that the conditions for emigration will probably be present. Of course, large-scale land reclamation and the improvement of transportation can divert the out-flow population to a certain extent. Such a holding force will probably become stronger in the form of governmental control of emigration.

From the possibilities discussed above, the outlook for Chinese migration outside their country is gloomy, at least in the immediate future.

Chinese Immigration to the United States

Chinese immigration to the United States is a comparatively late development in the history of Chinese world migration. Although there have been speculations concerning the early Chinese who ventured to cross the Pacific,²⁰ the large-scale Chinese migration to this country did not occur until several years after the discovery of gold in California. At the end of 1854 more than thirteen thousand Chinese arrivals were recorded by the immigration authorities.²¹

As indicated before, the unfavorable economic conditions and the war destruction in China had provided a general background for modern Chinese migration. Nevertheless, the influx of Chinese immigration to this country materialized only through the striking opportunity in economic gain and the promotion on the part of the steamship companies.

²⁰ Sources about the early migration of Chinese to the United States are various. C.E. Chapman believed that Chinese came to America before the Spaniards and the English. (C.E. Chapman, A History of California: The Spanish Period, New York: MacMillan Co., 1939, p.8). But H.H. Bancroft asserted that between 1571 and 1746 Chinese laborers were already employed for shipbuilding in lower California. (H.H. Bancroft, History of California, San Francisco: The History Co., 1890, Vol. VII, p.335). Meany thought the first Chinese labor was introduced to the Pacific Coast in 1788. (E.S. Meany, History of the State of Washington, New York: MacMillan Co., 1924, p.26).

²¹ Annual Report of Commissioner General of Immigration, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1926, pp. 170-181. However, other source indicates that 20,000 Chinese arrived at San Francisco Customs House in 1852. (See M. Coolidge, Chinese Immigration, New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1909, p. 498.)

The economic opportunity was first created by the discovery of gold. The spell of gold continued to attract numerous Chinese immigrants for almost ten years. Before 1860 more than half of the Chinese population in California was engaged in mining. As soon as the period of the gold rush was over, the demand for labor by various newly-established industries became great. The employment of Chinese in shoe and cigar manufacturing, in agriculture, and in domestic service was very common and numerous in this period.

The construction of the railroads, first the Central Pacific and later the Southern Pacific, depended heavily upon Chinese labor.²² After the completion of the railroads, many Chinese shifted to land reclamation. It was this continuous demand for labor from the early Californian frontier that created the motivating force for Chinese immigration. In spite of numerous local legislation and agitation against them, Chinese immigrants continued to increase during the three decades from 1854 to 1882.

In addition to economic opportunity, the American steamship companies, namely, the Pacific Mail, and the Occidental and Oriental Steamship Companies exerted a great influence in promoting Chinese immigration. They did it, according to one authority, because "they could not be run profitably without the Chinese passenger traffic."²³

²²Elmer C. Sandmeyer, *Anti-Chinese Movement in California*, Illinois Studies in Social Sciences, Vol. XXIV, No. 3, 1930, Urbana: University of Illinois, pp. 14-15.

²³Loc. cit.

Practically all of the Chinese in this country have been drawn from the southern part of Kwangtung Province in south China. This fact is not surprising since the people of that province have a long experience with the foreign countries. As early as the sixteenth century, the capital city of Canton was contacted by the Europeans, and for the first four decades of the nineteenth century it was the only port open to foreign traders. Because of this situation, the Cantonese have long developed a spirit of adventure and independence. When the news of the discovery of gold first reach Canton in 1848, the Cantonese were ready for the adventure. Meanwhile, their fellow-countrymen in other parts of the Empire were still isolated from the outside world.²⁴ These facts may explain why the Chinese immigrants to the United States, unlike those to Southeast Asia, are exclusively from the province of Kwangtung, particularly from the district adjacent to the city of Canton.

From the beginning the Chinese immigrated to this country neither from any religious intolerance nor political persecution. Rather, they came because of a strong economic motivation. As the poor men who came to look for a small for-

²⁴Up to the year 1848 China had not yet widely opened her door for foreign trade, although Shanghai and some other sea-ports along the north China coast were accessible for this purpose after the Opium War in 1842. However, the use of these new treaty ports were still limited due to inadequate accommodations. Hence, most of the foreign ships still went to Canton. (Wu, op. cit.)

tune, they first joined the stream of gold rushers; later, they answered the call of frontier labor. For these reasons, the Chinese immigrants acquired a temporary status as migrant workers. As soon as they could accumulate a small amount of cash, they would return immediately to their native villages where they enjoyed a higher social status due to their financial gain from abroad.

It has been the lure of improved social standing that has led thousands of young Chinese peasants to go abroad. While the desire to improve one's social status has been strong, the custom of ancestral worship, has been equally strong in its appeal to the Chinese immigrant.

Many Chinese immigrants were very poor, and could not even afford to buy passage. Under these circumstances the prospective employers or the Six Companies--a Chinese merchant organization in San Francisco--might advance the immigrant's passage. In return, the latter worked off his debts. Because some of them came to this country through the arrangement of the so-called "credit-ticket" system, they were often accused of being contract laborers, or coolie traffic which resembled those Chinese immigrants to

Cuba and Peru in the middle of the last century.²⁵ However, there were differences between the contract labor and credit-ticket system. Under a contract the coolie was sold and retained no right to choose his employer. Under the credit-ticket system the laborer "was free to choose his employer so long as he could pay his debt."²⁶ Besides, this arrangement of advanced passage was not in violation of the American laws. Therefore, the immigration of Chinese laborers under the supervision of creditors was no more than the "padrone system"²⁷ developed in connection with European immigration.

²⁵The term "coolie" in its original sense simply means common laborers, with no implication whatever of involuntary servitude. But when it was applied to the Chinese immigrants by the foreigners, it did mean a system of transporting contract laborers to the mines and plantations in the West Indies and South America. It was estimated that more than 100,000 Chinese coolies were taken to Peru and 150,000 to Cuba during the middle of the last century. After 1876 this traffic was barred through the joint efforts of the British, Portuguese, and Chinese governments. There is evidence, however, that the trade continued illegally for some years longer. It was also known that some American steamship companies were engaged in this traffic by transporting Chinese coolies from China to the West Indies. But there is no evidence of transporting them to this country. Finally, the United States Government passed the so-called "Coolie Act" in 1862 to prohibit this participation by Americans. Foster R. Dulles, China and America, Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1946, pp. 82-3; Sandmeyer, op. cit., p. 26-27.

²⁶Sandmeyer, op. cit., p. 28.

²⁷Under this system a "padrone" or labor agent helped the employers to recruit laborers on one side, and aided the immigrant workers in transportation and the arrangement for jobs on the other. In return for this service the immigrant workers regularly payed the agent a fee. This system was practiced among southern and eastern European immigrants in the early years, and recently it has developed widely among the Mexicans and other seasonal workers in the West and Southwest parts of this country. See Maurice R. Davis, World Immigration, New York: Macmillan Co., 1949, p. 468.

The economic motivation, however, did not operate in full force in the case of the Chinese immigration. The artificial barrier--the treaty and legislation--has controlled the flow of the Chinese immigration to a greater extent. The two basic treaties of 1868 and 1880 between China and the United States, and a series of legislative acts in this country actually have determined the history of Chinese immigration for the last sixty years.

The Burlingame Treaty was signed in 1868 when the two countries were drawn closer by the extension of steamship service to the Orient in 1867, and by the approaching completion of the trans-continental railroad. As a result, tremendous trade possibilities between these two countries became a reality. Under these favorable conditions the treaty provided the mutual advantage of free migration between both countries. The effect of this treaty was an immediate increase of Chinese immigrant arrivals in 1869.

There were many new developments during the following decade, 1870-1880. First, the completion of the trans-continental railroad in 1869 had caused an economic panic in California. Thousands of construction workers were thrown out of work, 150,000 migrants from the East coast arrived between 1873 and 1875, and the local industries were placed in direct competition with those from the east coast. Second, the continuous influx of Chinese immigrants reached the highest level in the history, with a total of 123,201 Chinese arrivals for the decade between 1870 and 1880.

The presence of the large number of Chinese quickly became a target of the discontented, unemployed laborers and the frustrated late-comer for gold. The Chinese, as cheap labor and as economic competitors, were blamed for the situation in spite of the fact that they were actually engaged in work, such as land reclamation, which most of the white laborers refused to accept due to existing unhealthy conditions.

The cultural differences exhibited by the Chinese also accentuated such social sentiment. Within a short time the Anti-Chinese agitation had spread all over the west coast. As Sandmeyer observed, "diverse motives entered into the opposition of Californians to the Chinese. Fundamental to all of them was the antagonism of race, reinforced by economic competition."²⁸ The Anti-Chinese movement soon fell into the hands of organized labor. The Chinese question eventually became one of the top political issues in the nation after 1876. The pressure for the abrogation or modification of the Burlingame Treaty was increasingly high. It was under this changing situation that the treaty of 1880 was drawn up.

The new treaty gave the United States government a right to regulate, limit or suspend, but not to absolutely prohibit the coming of Chinese laborers.²⁹ Two years later, the Congress

²⁸Sandmeyer, op. cit., p. 109.

²⁹22 Stat. L., 826.

passed the first Chinese exclusion act in which the coming of Chinese laborers to this country was suspended for ten years, and the admission of Chinese to citizenship was forbidden.³⁰ As a result a sharp decline in their immigration was experienced in the following decade, after the peak year of 1882.

The Act of 1882 is significant for several reasons. First, it ended the thirty years of free Chinese immigration to this country, and it marked the beginning of the period of exclusion and restriction for the next sixty years. Second, it provided a broad foundation for a later exclusion of all Orientals, and thus affected the entire immigration policy of this country. Throughout this second period, a series of laws concerning Chinese immigrants were made. All of them centered either around the exclusion of Chinese laborers or the restriction of other Chinese groups and residents.

The main features of these acts can be summarized as follows:

(1) to prohibit Chinese laborers returning to the United States (1888 Act, 25 Stat. L., 746, 477);

(2) to extend the Exclusion Act of 1882 for another ten years, and to prohibit, not to suspend, the coming of Chinese laborers (1892 Act, 27 Stat. L., 25; as amended in 1893, 28 Stat. L., 7);

³⁰ 22 Stat. L., 58; as amended in 1854, 22 Stat. L., 115.

(3) finally, to continue all existing Chinese exclusion laws indefinitely and unconditionally, and to extend these laws to all United States territories and possessions. Furthermore, other Chinese groups, such as merchants, teachers, students and travellers, were permitted to enter this country only under strict regulations (1902 Act, 32 Stat. L., 176; as amended in 1904, 33 Stat. L., 394, 428).

Since 1904 there has been no new restrictive legislation concerning the Chinese immigrants. The problem remaining was only that of enforcing the established laws. Meanwhile the public attention was gradually shifted from the Chinese to the Japanese. The Chinese problem was consequently submerged in the national movement of Oriental exclusion. This new phase can be seen from later immigration legislation, namely the Immigration Act of 1917 and 1924. Of course, these two acts do not apply particularly to the Oriental immigrants, but rather aim to regulate the flow of all immigrants. Nevertheless, they do emphasize the Oriental exclusion by establishing the "barred zone" in the first act and by excluding all aliens ineligible to citizenship.³¹ The so-called "barred zone" covers China and the remainder of Asia and adjacent islands. Natives from the barred zone were prohibited from immigrating to the United States. The exclusion

³¹The "barred zone" regulation has been removed by the new Immigration Law of 1952. See Public Laws No. 414, (82nd Congress).

of all aliens ineligible to citizenship from coming to this country actually refers to the peoples of Asia, since only the white, the Negro and the inhabitants of the Western hemisphere can become American citizens under the naturalization law. Logically the Asiatic shared no annual quota which was allocated proportionally to the emigrants from all countries. These features were not new to the Chinese immigrants since the early exclusion laws had already excluded them from becoming naturalized. Therefore, the significance of these last two immigration laws, so far as the Chinese were concerned, was only that of reiterating the previous laws.

However, there have been minor effects upon the Chinese immigrants. The Quota Act of 1924 barred the alien wives who were ineligible to citizenship, even though they were wives of American citizens. Before the enactment of this law, the Chinese wives of American citizens were admitted. Thus, this type of restriction separated many Chinese immigrant families, and prevented many Chinese-Americans from marrying in China. In 1930 the law was modified to admit the Chinese wives whose marriages occurred prior to 1924.³² But it did not apply to those who married thereafter.

So far, the effective check of the exclusion laws left very few chances for the Chinese to immigrate to the United

³² Annual Report of Commissioner General of Immigration, 1930.

States except those who came as non quota immigrants, the only category under which the Chinese might be admitted as an immigrant, since no Chinese could enter as a quota immigrant under the exclusion law. They also could be admitted as non-immigrants, including returning residents, students, merchants and their wives and children, visitors, transits, government officials and their families. The non-quota immigrants comprised wives, husbands and unmarried children of American citizens, ministers, and professors and their immediate families.³³ As the spouses of Chinese-Americans were mostly barred by the law, and the number of Chinese ministers and professors was negligible, only those who could come by claiming themselves the sons or daughters of Chinese-Americans were left. Those foreign-born children, under the Act of 1924, are American citizens if their father is an American citizen and resided in America prior to their birth.³⁴ Unfortunately, complete records of the exact number admitted are not available. However, it is reasonable to believe that they comprise the majority of the Chinese non-quota immigrants admitted. After compiling some data from the immigration reports from 1917 to 1926, McKenize found that during the same

³³This classification for immigrant and non-immigrant are accorded to the 1924 act. (See Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1950, U.S. Government Printing Office, p. 102.) However, under the new Act of 1952, persons who come as professors are no longer entitled to non-quota status; instead they may qualify for quota immigrant.

³⁴Annual Report of the Commissioner-General of Immigration, 1932, pp. 37-8.

period, 24,000 Chinese were admitted by claiming American citizenship by birth. Of these 11,000, or 48 percent, were the foreign-born children of Chinese-Americans.³⁵

Another report from the immigration authorities revealed there were 6,000 Chinese of American citizenship returning to San Francisco from China during the period of 1926 to 1932. On their return, they claimed in the aggregate, 16,000 sons and 1,000 daughters. Of these children 12,000 sons and 900 daughters were living in China. These potential citizens could probably seek admission to this country at any time.³⁶ It is interesting to note that they claimed to have more sons than daughters, at an unbelievable ratio of 15 to 1. This does not mean, of course, that these Chinese actually gave birth to more boys than girls. Rather, it simply indicated that many girls were left unreported, and possibly they would never have the chance of coming to this country. In view of the importance of the son over the daughter in a Chinese family, such a practice is understandable.

As already indicated, the economic basis of the Chinese exclusion laws has lost its significance. On the other hand, the new emphasis on racial discrimination has created nothing

³⁵Roderick D. McKenzie, Oriental Exclusion, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1928, p. 68.

³⁶Annual Report of the Commissioner-General of Immigration, 1932, pp. 37-8.

but countless misunderstandings between the two peoples, as well as an effective weapon of Japanese propaganda against the United States before and during the Second World War. Through the increasing friendship between the United States and China, and through pressure from various groups in this country,³⁷ Congress finally repealed the Chinese exclusion laws in 1943.³⁸

It is understood that the repeal contains three main points:

(1) Those acts which relate to exclusion or deportation of persons of the Chinese race from the years of 1882 to 1913 are repealed in whole or in part.

(2) All Chinese persons entering the United States as immigrants should be allocated to an annual quota of 105 persons.

(3) Any Chinese person or persons of Chinese descent are eligible to American citizenship.

³⁷F. W. Riggs, Pressures on Congress: A Study of the Repeal of Chinese Exclusion, New York: King's Crown Press, 1950, 260 pp. An excellent analysis of the popular, administrative, and Congressional pressures for the repeal of Chinese exclusion laws.

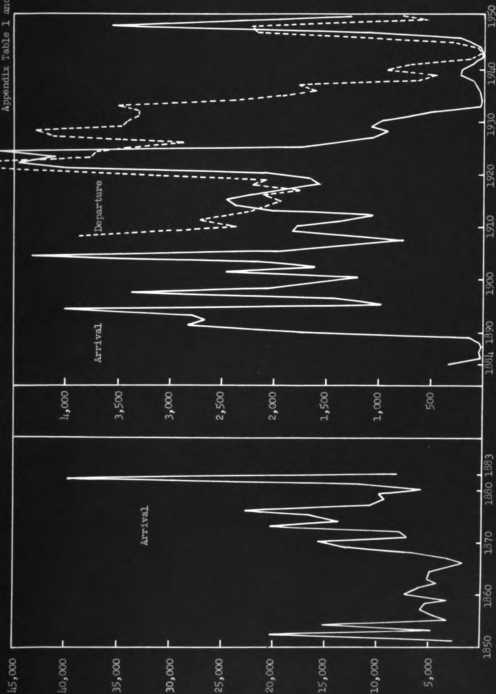
³⁸The full text of repeal may be found in U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, Immigration and Naturality Laws and Regulations, as of March, 1944, Washington: Government Printing Office, 1944, pp. 126-7.

Certainly, the negligible number of 105 annual immigrants from China will not cause unemployment or any economic competition in this country. But the moral significance is very important. Putting the Chinese immigrants on the same level with European immigrant groups will no doubt accelerate the process of their assimilation. Of course, it is still early to make conclusions concerning the various effects upon the Chinese population in this country. Nevertheless, it can be certain that the number of Chinese population will be little affected.

Arrivals, departures, and balance. The number of arrivals of Chinese, especially in the early period, has never been known exactly. However, the first Chinese arrival could not have been earlier than the 16th century, and the number was very small, according to available records. Since 1820 the United States government has kept records concerning immigration. The data, however, are not always uniform and comparable, due to the frequent shift of responsibility from one agency to another, and due to the changing definitions of immigrants over the years. For example, only "alien passengers arriving" were recorded before 1867. This was changed to "immigrant arriving" from 1868 through 1907. Since then, the "immigrant alien" has been adopted, and the records have been separated from the non-immigrant. Starting with the beginning of this century,

Figure 1. Annual Arrivals and Departures of Chinese Immigrants
in the United States, 1851 to 1950

Sources:
Appendix Table 1 and 2



immigrant aliens have also been classified by country of their last permanent residence and by race or nationality.

Therefore, there are two sets of data relating to the Chinese immigrants after 1900. Those classified by country would include some immigrants other than those of Chinese race. On the other hand, those classified by race would include a few more Chinese coming from countries other than China. Apparently, the latter data are more inclusive insofar as the Chinese are concerned. Thus, they are used for analysis here. Meanwhile, the other set of data is also included for the purpose of comparison, as shown in Table I.

Data concerning Chinese arrivals prior to 1820 are not available, and there were only 46 arrivals between 1820 and 1850. The mass of Chinese immigration began in 1854 when about thirteen thousand Chinese were admitted. A slack period of more than a decade then ensued. A heavy Chinese immigration again reached a peak of fifteen thousand in the year 1869 and 1870. The increasing number was broken by a temporary lull until 1876 when twenty-two thousand Chinese arrived. However, the peak year for the Chinese immigration was set by the admittance of forty thousand Chinese on the eve of the passage of the 1882 exclusion act. This is the largest number of Chinese admitted in a single year, and it reached its climax in the period of free migration for the Chinese to this country. Thereafter, the annual number ad-

TABLE I

ARRIVALS AND DEPARTURES OF CHINESE IMMIGRANTS IN THE UNITED STATES
BY DECADE, 1851 TO 1950¹

Decade	Arrivals ²			Departures ³			Net Migration	
	Immigrants arrived from China (by country of permanent residence)	Chinese immigrants arrived from China and other countries (by race)	Emigrants departed for China (by country of permanent residence)	Chinese emigrants departed (by race)	Immigrants arrived & departed (by permanent residence)	Chinese immigrants arrived & departed (by race)		
1851-1860	41,397	41,397						
1861-1870	64,301	64,301						
1871-1880	123,201	123,201						
1881-1890	61,711	61,711						
1891-1900	14,799	23,167						
1901-1910	20,605	19,702	9,705 ³	9,678 ³				
1911-1920	21,278	18,723	23,524	22,742	- 2,246	- 4,019		
1921-1930	29,907	24,345	41,416	40,376	-11,509	-16,031		
1931-1940	4,928	1,823	20,363	19,877	-15,435	-18,054		
1941-1950	16,709	8,955	7,289	7,566	9,420	1,389		

¹Years prior to 1868 are calendar years, thereafter are fiscal years ended June 30.

²Figures from 1851 to 1867 are alien passengers arriving; figures from 1868 to 1903 are immigrants arriving; figures thereafter are immigrant aliens admitted.

³The official record for emigrant aliens departed began in 1908. First figures listed (9,705 and 9,678) are for the years 1908-1910.

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States from 1891 to 1950.

mitted has never exceeded five thousand. The annual arrivals even dropped to less than one hundred persons in some of the "lean years". For the following forty years, the number of Chinese immigrants decreased continuously from a total of 62,000 in the decade of 1881-1890 to 19,000 in 1911-1920. A slight increase in total Chinese arrivals came in the following decade, but was quickly checked by the economic depression in the thirties. In spite of the Second World War, a slight increase in the total number admitted was recorded for the last decade, between 1940 and 1950. As previously noted, this increase occurred mostly in the post-war period.

An entire century has elapsed since the voluminous Chinese migration to this country began. During the whole period a total of four hundred thousand Chinese immigrants were admitted. Of the grand total, 72 percent came to this country before 1882. Data concerning the Chinese departures from this country are less complete than those concerning the arrivals. The official records began in 1908 and information prior to this year is not available. However, records from the San Francisco Customs House, a major port of entrance for Chinese immigrants, show a total of 151,000 Chinese departed between 1851 and 1882. Meanwhile, a total of 302,000 Chinese arrived. The excess of arrivals over departures for this period was 151,000.

Data concerning departures of Chinese are not available for the next twenty-five years (1883-1907). Nevertheless, in view of the legal restrictions and exclusion, it is believed that departures of Chinese possibly exceeded arrivals.

Beginning in 1908, official records for the emigrant aliens have been kept. Table I shows that the number of Chinese emigrant aliens departing has been larger than those admitted since 1908. This trend continued up to 1940. It was not until the last decade that the number of arrivals began to surpass the departures, during which period a net gain of 1,400 was experienced.

In the entire period from 1908 to 1950, a total of 58,000 Chinese immigrants were admitted, and a total of 100,000 departed. Thus, a net loss of 42,000 resulted from the excess of departures over arrivals. Of course, this figure could be less if the number of illegal entries were considered.

Characteristics of Chinese Immigrants. Migration usually involves a process of selectivity with respect to age, sex, and other characteristics. Long distance migration is also different from that of short distance in many respects. Because of travelling hazards and inconvenience involved, migration to distant places usually is undertaken by young men who elect to take the risk for economic opportunity. Chinese immigration to this country belongs to this type.

The selectivity of the Chinese population movement may be examined from immigration data on age, sex, marital status, and occupational distribution. In using these data, precaution should be taken in relation to their completeness. Except those for sex composition by decade, the remainder of the data under study represent only a selected period of time. It is believed that these data are representative of the entire period. Furthermore, for our purposes here, the laborious task of assembling completely this inaccessible data seemed to serve no purpose.

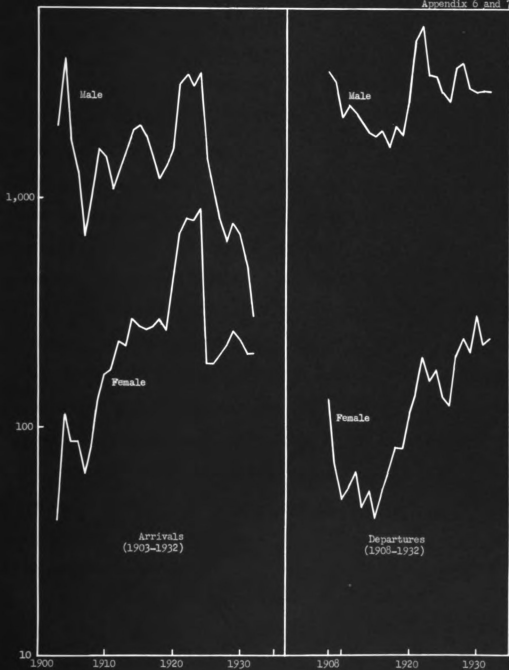
It is accepted knowledge that the process of migration usually carries away more persons in the productive ages than in either young or old ages. It is a general observation that the majority of the Chinese immigrants are in the young and productive ages. The sample data included here show the correctness of such observation. The age distribution among the Chinese immigrants annually admitted from 1901 to 1932 shows a concentration in the 16-44 age groups, ranging from 73 percent to 94 percent. Only a few of them, therefore, are under 16 years, or 45 and over. Generally speaking, there are only slight fluctuations from year to year. (Appendix Table 5.)

On the other hand, Chinese persons departing from this country for the period between 1908 and 1932 were largely older persons. The proportion of persons in the age group,

Figure 2. Sex Composition of Chinese Immigrants and
Emigrants from the United States, 1903 to 1932

Source:

Appendix 6 and 7



"45 years and over" run from 40 percent to 78 percent annually. Those of 16-44 years of age make up most of the balance. Very few young Chinese under 16 years left.

The sex distribution among the Chinese immigrants shows a very high proportion of males. The percentages of male immigrants rose from 95 in 1851-1880 to 99 in 1881-1890. Then it dropped to 81 percent in 1921-1930. Even though these percentages for males are still considered very high, the trend is clearly downward. Meanwhile, the proportions of females increased slowly but gradually since the turn of this century, or from 3 percent in 1891-1900 to 19 percent in 1921-1930. (Table II.) The data for single years between 1931 and 1935 showed a remarkable increase in the proportions of female immigrants. For the first two years, 1931-1932, the percentages jumped from 30 to 42. The percentage suddenly rose to 100 percent in the following year. (Appendix Table 6.) These years, it must be noted, reflected an abnormal situation in which the annual number of Chinese immigrants admitted had dropped to less than one hundred, due to the economic depression. In view of the admittance of Chinese alien wives of Chinese-Americans through the legislation in 1930, and the recent arrival of Chinese war brides, the number of Chinese women in this country will no doubt increase.

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE OF CHINESE IMMIGRANT ARRIVALS
BY DECADE, 1851 TO 1930

Year	Percentage	
	Male	Female
1851-1860	95.3	4.7
1861-1870	94.6	5.4
1871-1880	97.4*	2.6*
1881-1890	99.0	1.0
1891-1900	96.9	3.1
1901-1910	94.4	5.6
1911-1920	85.0	15.0
1921-1930	80.6	19.4

* Another source indicates 90.2 percent males and 9.8 percent females in 1871-1880. (Sandmeyer, Anti-Chinese Movement in California, p. 17.)

Source: Data from 1851 to 1880--Reports of Immigration Commission, Vol. 20, Pts. 1 and 2, (1911).

Data from 1881 to 1910--E.C. Sandmeyer, The Anti-Chinese Movement in California, Table 3, p. 17.

Data from 1911 to 1930--Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1910-1930.

As one may expect, more Chinese males than females left this country. From 1908 to 1935 the annual proportion of males among the Chinese departures never fell below 90 percent in any single year. (Appendix Table 7.) For the same period, there were 8,500 Chinese female immigrants admitted while 4,000 left. As a result, the net gain of females totaled 4,500 in a period of twenty-eight years.

The data regarding marital status are worthy of examination. Did the women come here as the potential mates for the excess number of marriageable Chinese men in this country, or, for example, did they come to join their husbands who had been here for a long time? In examining a series of data from 1923 to 1932, in Appendix Table 8, it was found that more than two-thirds of the Chinese female immigrants were married, less than one-third were single, and very few widowed or divorced.

On the other hand, the marital status of the Chinese male immigrants gradually shifted from married to single statuses. During the four year period from 1923 to 1926, approximately two-thirds of them were married. However, the proportion of married men had dropped to only one-third in favor of the single men from 1927 to 1932. This reversed trend suggests that many divided Chinese families here were re-united by the arrival of their female members.

Of the total Chinese males and females who left this country between 1923 and 1932, more than two-thirds of each sex was married, one-third was single, and a negligible percentage was widowed or divorced.

The distribution of occupational groups among the Chinese immigrants, according to the classification of the immigration authorities, contains four main categories, namely, professionals, skilled workers, miscellaneous, and no occupation. Since Chinese laborers, both skilled and unskilled, have been prohibited since 1882, the majority of the Chinese immigrants belong either to the few professionals permitted by law, such as teachers, ministers, and actors, or the immediate families of the Chinese-Americans.

The figures of the occupational distribution from 1923 to 1932 in Appendix Table 9 show very few Chinese professionals admitted, representing an annual average from 2 to 9 percent. For instance, of the 290 Chinese professionals admitted in 1924, 150 were actors, and 60 were teachers. It is believed that most of these teachers were employed in the Chinese language schools in this country. However, under the 1924 Immigration Act, most teachers, except professors, were barred from entry. The number and percentage of Chinese skilled workers were negligible. Between 1923 and 1925, approximately two-thirds of the total annual number admitted were classified as having miscellaneous occupations.

Among these miscellaneous occupations, merchants constitute half of the total number. The proportion for this miscellaneous group dropped to less than 10 percent between 1926 and 1932. The percentage for the "no occupation" group has risen steadily from 29 percent in 1923 to 85 percent in 1932. This group includes many women and children.

There are occupational differences between the Chinese immigrants admitted and those departed, according to Appendix Table 9. The main difference is that most of the number admitted have "no occupation" while those departed have occupations. The majority among the latter are laborers. The proportions of professional and skilled workers are also higher among the departures than among the arrivals. The data showing larger numbers of Chinese laborers and professionals leaving may suggest an improvement of occupational status after a sojourn in this country.

CHAPTER III THE VITAL PROCESSES AMONG THE CHINESE POPULATION

The term vital process refers to two aspects of population change, namely, fertility and mortality. The former is used to denote the actual reproduction of a population, and the latter refers to the reduction of population from deaths. Together with migration, the vital processes influence greatly the number, rate of growth, and composition of a population.

In the preceding chapter, the influence of migration upon the Chinese population in this country was discussed. However, migration has become a relatively constant factor since the first Chinese exclusion law was passed in 1882. During the ensuing years the vital processes have operated as the main force in the changing composition of the Chinese population. The shift of nativity status from foreign-born to native-born, for instance, is a result of the operation of the vital processes. Therefore, fertility and mortality are important to recent Chinese population change. Unfortunately, the available data concerning the Chinese vital statistics in this country are not adequate enough to go beyond the scope of general description. Perhaps, such a general description may still serve the purpose of providing a background orientation.

In order to describe the condition of the Chinese population with respect to fertility and mortality, several measures are used. In the case of fertility, the crude birth rate and fertility ratio are employed; in the case of mortality, the crude death rate, specific death rate, and infant mortality rate are used.

Fertility

The rate of reproduction among the Chinese in this country is an interesting case due to the abnormal demographic composition. In 1940 there were 1,098 births reported by the Chinese-Americans. Accordingly, the crude birth rate was 14 per 1,000 enumerated Chinese for that census year. This figure is rather low as compared with the rate for the United States as a whole (18). However, when the human reproduction is gauged by fertility ratio the situation is reversed. The Chinese-Americans showed a high fertility ratio of 443 in 1940, while the ratio for the total population of the United States was only 329. Apparently, the low crude birth rate shown by the Chinese-Americans is due largely to the high sex ratio. On the other hand, the comparatively high fertility ratio among the Chinese-Americans may indicate that the idea of large family is still cherished by some Chinese, particularly by the immigrant families.

There are differences in fertility among the residence groups. The fertility ratio for the urban Chinese-Americans

is lower than that for the rural groups. The urban fertility ratio is 438 as compared with the rural-nonfarm ratio of 477 and the rural-farm ratio of 537 (see Table III). It is evident from these ratios that the urban Chinese residents bear relatively fewer children than those living in the rural-farm and rural-nonfarm districts. Of course, the small number of Chinese females in the rural districts do not permit us to draw a definite conclusion.

In order to test the relationship between urbanization of the Chinese-Americans and their rate of reproduction, all Chinese populations amounting to as much as 1,000 in cities of 100,000 or more are listed and their fertility ratios are computed. Table IV shows that a high fertility ratio generally prevails among the Chinese-Americans in the nine principal cities. The ratio ranges from 281 for Chinese in Portland to 572 in Sacramento. In fact, the latter ratio is much higher than that for the total urban Chinese population. Chinese in San Francisco and Oakland, California and in Portland, Oregon are the only large cities having lower than average urban fertility. The rates are 357, 396, and 281 respectively. On the basis of the data from Table IV, no definite relationship between the degree of urbanization among the Chinese-Americans and their rate of reproduction is found.

TABLE III
FERTILITY RATIOS FOR THE CHINESE POPULATION
OF THE UNITED STATES, 1940

Residence and Regions	Number of Children Under 5	Females 15-44	Ratio per 1,000 Females 15-44
U.S. Total	4,375	9,886	443
Urban	3,988	9,103	438
Rural-nonfarm	264	554	477*
Rural-farm	123	229	537*
Northeast	788	1,607	490
North central	313	633	496*
South	449	617	728*
West	2,825	7,029	402

*Base less than 1,000 females aged 15-44.

Source: 16th Census of U.S. Population: Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, p. 8, Table 3.

TABLE IV
FERTILITY RATIOS FOR THE CHINESE POPULATION OF
NINE PRINCIPAL CITIES, 1940

City	Fertility Ratio per 1,000 Females 15-44	Rank by Chinese Fertility Ratio	Rank by Size of Chinese Population	Rank by Size of City
Boston, Massachusetts	478	3	9	4
Chicago, Illinois	447	6	5	2
Los Angeles, California	461	5	3	3
New York, New York	530	2	2	1
Oakland, California	396	7	4	8
Portland, Oregon	281	9	7	7
Sacramento, California	572	1	8	9
San Francisco, California	357	8	1	5
Seattle, Washington	476	4	6	6

Source: Based on data from 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Characteristics of Non-White Population, p. 86, Table 27; and 16th Census of U.S. Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1, p. 114, Table 49.

The regional differences in fertility among the Chinese population are striking, as shown in Table III. The Chinese population in the South exhibits the highest ratio (728). The lowest fertility ratio is found among Chinese in the West region (402). Chinese in the North Central region rank second, (496), and those in the Northeast region rank third (490). In spite of the generally high fertility shown by the Chinese-Americans, the trend has been downward between 1930 and 1940. Table V reveals that the crude birth rate dropped from 18.6 in 1930 to 14.2 in 1940. Table VI indicates that the fertility ratio decreased from 859 in 1930 to 443 in 1940.

The recent decline of Chinese fertility agrees with the national trend in the United States. This tendency may be attributed to the changing age and sex composition. It also suggests that more Chinese-Americans have adopted the ideal of the small family prevailing in this country.

Mortality and its Causes

There were 1,184 Chinese deaths reported from all causes in this country during the year of 1940. The crude death rate was 15 per 1,000 enumerated Chinese-Americans in that year. This rate appears high as compared to that for the total population of the United States, which was 11.

Since the death rate varies for males and females, it is necessary to compute death rate by sex. Accordingly, the crude death rates are 18 for the Chinese-American males, and

TABLE V

TRENDS IN CRUDE BIRTH RATES FOR THE CHINESE
POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES,
1920 TO 1940

Year	Total Population ¹ Enumerated	Number of Births Reported	Crude Birth Rate per 1,000 Enu- merated Persons
1920	50,216	778	15
1930	74,039	1,379	19
1940	77,504	1,098	14

¹Total Chinese populations are based on Census enumeration in corresponding year, rather than on mid-year population. Furthermore, total population of 1920 and 1930 are counted only for registration area. Since a number of states had not been included in the registration area before 1932, these figures tend to be less than the Census figures.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, "Populations," Vol. II, Pt. 1, p. 19.

Birth, Stillbirth and Infant Mortality Statistics, 1920 and 1930, Table 2.

Vital Statistics of the United States, 1940, Part 1, Table 2.

TABLE VI
TRENDS IN FERTILITY RATIOS FOR THE CHINESE
POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES,
1900 TO 1940

Year	Number of Children Under 5	Females 15-44	Ratio per 1,000
1900	1,157	2,524	459
1910	1,343	2,349	572
1920	2,898	3,609	803
1930	5,781	6,733	859
1940	4,375	9,886	443

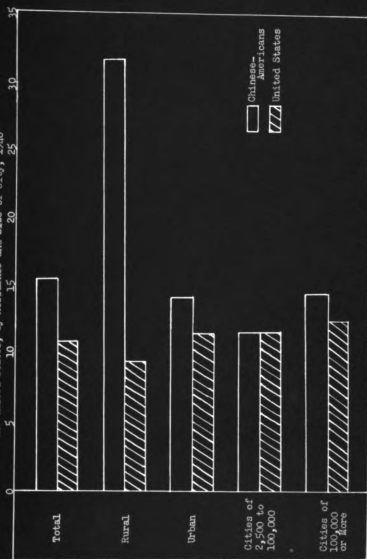
Source: 12th Census of the U.S. (1900): Population,
Vol. II, Pt. II, Table XVII, p. xi.

13th Census of the U.S. (1910): Population,
Vol. I, p. 306, Table 22.

14th Census of the U.S. (1920): Population,
Vol. II, Table 5, p. 157.

15th Census of the U.S. (1930): Population,
Vol. II, Table 15, p. 586.

Figure 3. Comparison of Crude Death Rate Between Chinese-Americans and the United States, by Residence and Size of City, 1940



Source: Vital Statistics of the United States, 1940, Part 1

7 for the Chinese-American females. Thus, a much higher mortality rate is shown among the Chinese-American males than among the Chinese-American females. In the United States the crude death rate for males is 12, and for females 9. The tremendous difference between the sexes is probably due to the abnormally high sex ratio and the concentration in the upper age groups on the part of the Chinese males.¹ Apparently, the exceedingly high mortality exhibited by the Chinese-American males is responsible for the generally high crude death rate for the total Chinese population in this country.

The residential difference in mortality shows that the rural Chinese-American residents have a much higher crude death rate than the urban Chinese-American residents. And yet, the general crude death rate for the Chinese-Americans appears less affected by the high mortality of the rural segment. Rather, it is influenced by the urban segment, as Table VII indicates that the 14 urban rate is nearer the 15 general rate than the 31 rural rate. Since the majority of Chinese-Americans are urban dwellers, the urban rate is the determining factor in the general rate.

The crude death rate for males also tends to determine the total resident rate. Among the rural Chinese-Americans,

¹See Figure 8, "Age-Sex Pyramid of Chinese population in the United States," (Chapter V).

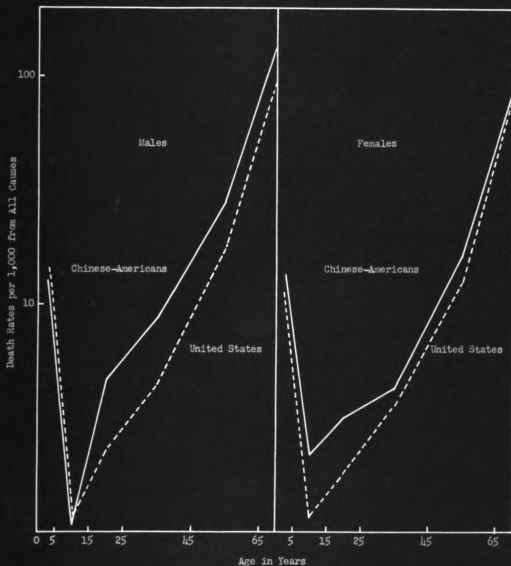
TABLE VII

CRUDE DEATH RATES FOR THE CHINESE POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES,
BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940

Residence	Enumerated Population		Number of Deaths		Crude Death Rate	
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total	77,504	57,389	20,115	1,184	1,049	135
Rural	7,278	5,524	1,754	229	209	20
Urban	70,226	51,865	18,361	955	840	115
					15	18
					31	38
					14	16
					7	11
					6	

Source: Vital Statistics of the United States, 1940, Part 1, p. 176 and 254, Tables 9 and 12.

Figure 4. Age and Sex—Specific Death Rates for
the Chinese-Americans and for the United States, 1940
(By place of occurrence)



Source: Vital Statistics of the United States, 1940, Part 1

the rate for males is 38 and for females 11. The respective rates among the urban group are 16 and 6. The high mortality among the rural segment of the Chinese-Americans reveals a pattern different from the general pattern of the United States. (Figure 4.) Moreover, the Chinese residing in cities of 100,000 or more have a higher crude death rate than those living in smaller cities of less than 100,000.

The general crude death rate cannot alone tell the whole story of mortality for a population, without some knowledge of the age and sex differentials in mortality. With this fact in mind, the age and sex specific death rates for the Chinese population are computed. The curves of these age-sex specific death rates, shown in Figure 4, are somewhat similar to those curves which represent the United States. However, the death rate for all specific age groups of each sex was higher among the Chinese-Americans than among the total United States in 1940. There is only one exception, namely, the male group under 5 years, in which the death rate for Chinese-Americans is slightly lower than that for the United States as a whole. The largest relative differences between Chinese-Americans and the total population are found at the ages 15 to 45 for the males and at the ages 15 to 24 for females. The high mortality of the Chinese-Americans in the productive ages suggests the existence of poor health conditions in the Chinese communities of this coun-

try. The causes of deaths for these specific age groups unfortunately are not known. However, in view of the high incidence and mortality from tuberculosis among the Chinese-Americans and the prevalence of this disease among younger persons, it is reasonable to believe that the high mortality among the young Chinese-Americans may be attributed to this communicable disease.

The trend of mortality for the Chinese population in this country shows a remarkable decline between 1920 and 1940. During these two decades the rate dropped from 23 to 15. Meanwhile this rate for the United States decreased from 13 to 11 during the same period. The rapid decline in mortality among the Chinese-Americans may be partially explained by the excess departures of many older persons, especially during the period of economic depression of the early thirties. Nevertheless, the lowering of Chinese mortality in this country can be regarded as an improvement in general health conditions among the Chinese-Americans.

This is particularly true when the infant mortality is taken into consideration. In 1920 the infant mortality rate for the Chinese population in this country was 73 per 1,000 live births. It fell to 41 in 1940. These figures are lower than in the United States, 86 and 47 for the same years.

TABLE VIII

TRENDS IN CRUDE DEATH RATES FOR THE CHINESE POPULATION
IN THE UNITED STATES (DEATH REGISTRATION
AREA), 1910 TO 1940

Year	Total Chinese Population in Registration Area ¹	Number of Chinese Deaths Reported ²	Crude Death Rate per 1,000 Persons
1910	60,682	1,055	17
1920	57,498	1,324	23
1930	74,744	1,342	18
1940	77,504	1,184	15

¹Numbers are based on Census records rather than on mid-year population. Furthermore, in accordance with the death registration area, the total number of Chinese were of 21 states, Washington, D.C., and 30 cities in non-registration states for 1910; of 43 states, Washington, D.C., and 14 cities in non-registration states for 1920; of 47 states, Washington, D.C., and 8 cities in non-registration Texas in 1930; and of all states in continental United States for 1940.

²Exclusive of stillbirth.

Source: 15th Census of U.S., 1930: Population, Vol. III, Table 17 for each state.

16th Census of U.S., 1940: Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1, p. 19.

Mortality Statistics, 1910, p. 304, Table 5; 1920, p. 74, Table 4; and 1930, p. 122, Table 4.

Vital Statistics of the United States, 1940, Part 1, p. 254, Table 12.

TABLE IX
 INFANT MORTALITY RATES FOR THE CHINESE POPULATION,
 BY DECADE, 1920 TO 1940

Decade	Live Births	Deaths Under 1 Year Old	Rate per 1,000 Live Births
1920	778	57	73
1930	1,379	76	55
1940	1,098	45	41

Source: Birth, Stillbirth, Infant Mortality, 1929, 1930.
Mortality Statistics, 1920, p. 174; 1930, p. 122.
Vital Statistics of the United States, 1940,
Part 1, Tables 2 and 12.

Of the 1,184 deaths reported by the Chinese-Americans in 1940, 208 persons or 18 percent died from tuberculosis. It represented the leading cause of death for the Chinese population of this country in 1940. This communicable disease was ranked as the number one public enemy to the health of this nation in the early part of this century. However, it dropped to eighth in the list of leading causes of death in 1940, as tremendous progress has been made by an effective control program.

According to several case studies among Chinese in San Francisco, New York, and Boston, the death rate and incidence of tuberculosis were generally higher among Chinese residents than among the total population of each city.² The survey of the housing situation as related to the tuberculosis problem in San Francisco's Chinatown also indicates that living conditions particularly have been responsible for the high tuberculosis death rate among the Chinese residents.³ No

²Detailed information may be found in the following reports: W.C. Woorsanger and G.B. Miller, "Case-findings in the Chinese Population of San Francisco," The American Review of Tuberculosis, Vol. XLIV, no. 4, Oct., 1941, pp. 463-473.

F.J. Liu, A Study of Health and Social Conditions of the Chinese Community in New York City: With Special Reference to the Problem of Tuberculosis, unpublished M.S. thesis, Columbia University, 1947.

D. Hayward, "TB Work Among the Chinese of Boston," in Massachusetts Health Journal, Jan., Feb., March, 1944.

³"Tuberculosis in Chinese Group," Bulletin of National Tuberculosis Association, Jan., 1945.

doubt, the high mortality of Chinese from tuberculosis could have been reduced had effective control programs been set up by all groups concerned. Unfortunately, the socio-economic and psychological implication made such a program far from successful.

The second leading cause of death among the Chinese-Americans is heart disease. There were 129 Chinese deaths from this disease in 1940, or 11 percent of the total number of deaths. Cancer and cerebral hemorrhage ranked third and fourth, with 111 and 70 fatal cases, or 9 and 6 percent, respectively. By comparison, heart disease and cancer are the two leading causes of death in the United States as a whole. Syphilis proved fatal to 68 Chinese-Americans and became the fifth leading cause of death. As indicated by Table X, these five diseases caused nearly half of the total deaths in the Chinese population of this country in 1940.

TABLE X

DEATHS FROM COMMON SELECTED CAUSES FOR THE CHINESE
POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1940

Cause of Death	Number	Percent
All causes	1,184	100.0
Tuberculosis	208	17.6
Heart disease	129	10.9
Cancer	111	9.4
Cerebral hemorrhage	70	5.9
Syphilis	68	5.7
Arteriosclerotic kidney	45	3.8
Suicide	35	3.0
Disease of coronary arteries	35	3.0
Bronchopneumonia	35	3.0
Diabetes mellitus	34	2.9
Other causes	398	33.6
Ill-defined and unknown causes	16	1.5

Source: Vital Statistics of the United States, 1940,
Part I, p. 480-5, Table 16.

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CHAPTER IV THE GROWTH OF CHINESE POPULATION

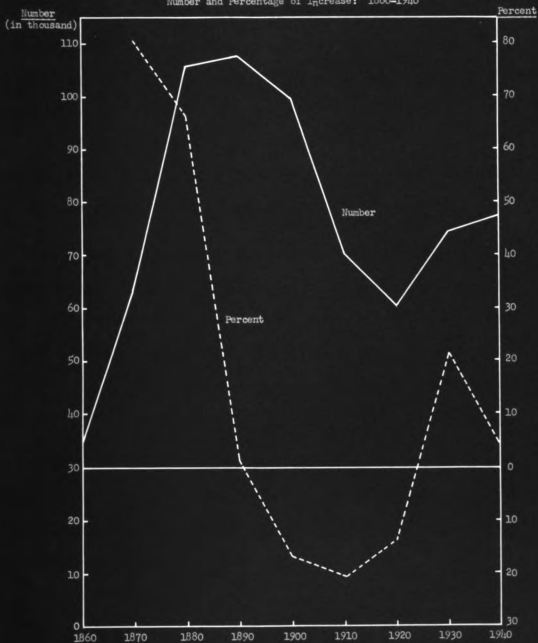
The study of population growth is one of the basic steps in the understanding of Chinese population in this country. In analyzing the population trends, attention might be focused primarily upon past growth, upon future growth, or a combination of both. The emphasis of this chapter is upon past growth, specifically that occurring in the period from 1850 to 1940. The forecast of the future growth of Chinese-Americans will be discussed at the end of this study after all relevant facts are put together and analyzed. As shown by Figure 5, the trend of the Chinese population growth is best represented by a curve that may be divided roughly into three phases, namely one of rapid growth, one of gradual decrease, and one of a short time increase. Each phase is designated as a period characterized by a different pattern of population distribution. Finally, any change of direction in growth may be explained in terms of migration, fertility, and mortality.

Three Periods of Growth and Redistribution

The earliest census records of Chinese population in this country date from 1850, although no Chinese were enumerated separately until ten years later. Prior to the earliest census records, however, Chinese in this country can be traced back as early as the 16th century.¹ But the number is negli-

¹See footnote 20 in Chapter II.

Figure 5. Growth of Chinese Population in the United States by
Number and Percentage of Increase: 1860-1940



Source: Table 11

gible and insignificant. The actual growth began only during the decade of 1850 to 1860 when a considerable number of Chinese were first enumerated. During the following decade the total number increased from 35,000 to 63,000, an increase of 81 percent over the preceding census. By 1880 the population reached a level considerably over the hundred thousand mark. In this first period, between 1850 and 1880, the Chinese population underwent a rapid growth. This growth continued to 1882, the peak year in terms of total numbers.

In the first decade of the second period, the number of Chinese showed a slight increase attributable to the large number of immigrants arriving during 1881 and 1882. However, for the rest of this period the number fell sharply from 107,000 in 1890 to 62,000 in 1920, indicating a 43 percent loss between these two census dates.

During the third period a slight increase was shown after 1920 as 75,000 were counted in 1930, a 22 percent increase over the preceding census. This upward trend continued through the next decade when 77,000 Chinese were reported in 1940. The percentage increase, however, was only 3 percent.

To summarize the whole period of growth, the total number of Chinese in 1940 was only two times as large as in 1860 when Chinese were first enumerated separately. Such a growth may be compared to the total United States population which has increased four times in the same period, or with the Japanese-

American population which has grown about sixty times, even within a shorter period (1890 to 1940).² Thus, the Chinese population is lagging with respect to rate of growth.

For the Chinese the period of rapid growth was accompanied by a concentration of population in certain localities. From the beginning, the Pacific states, particularly California, held the majority of the Chinese, as shown by the fact that 87 percent in 1850 and 99 percent in 1860 of all Chinese resided in California. The situation for the following two decades changed very little, except that the Mountain states began to attract a few Chinese.

In the second period, (1880 to 1920), the Chinese, instead of showing further concentration in the west, moved toward the East. In the course of the eastward movement, the Chinese also dispersed. And now, they may be found in every state of the Union. However, the middle Atlantic states, particularly New York, have absorbed more Chinese than any other state east of the Rocky Mountains. Only 4 percent of all Chinese resided in the middle Atlantic states in 1890. By 1920 the percentage increased to 14 percent, and was second only to that of the Pacific states. The general in-

²The total U.S. population had increased from 31 million in 1861 to 132 million in 1940. The Japanese did not emerge in a large scale immigration to this country until 1890. There were only 2,000 Japanese persons in this country in 1890; by 1940 they amounted to 127,000. (Bureau of the Census, 16th Census of the United States, 1940, Population, Vol. I, p. 139, Table 139; and Vol. II, Part 1, p. 19, Table 4.)

crease of Chinese population among all the states east of the Rocky Mountains actually has been at the expense of the Mountain and Pacific states since the total number of Chinese in these areas decreased throughout this period. In fact, the percentage of Chinese in the Mountain and Pacific states decreased from 90 percent in 1890 to 63 percent in 1920, although two-thirds of the total Chinese in this country were still living in these states.

In the third period, (1920 to 1940), a short-time increase has brought a redistribution of Chinese among the states. Again, the middle Atlantic states continued to gain throughout the period. By 1940 more than one-fifth of the total Chinese were found in this area. However, the gain is primarily due to the rising tide of Chinese in New York. The other two middle Atlantic states, namely New Jersey and Pennsylvania, are actually on the way to losing their Chinese population. A similar situation exists among the Pacific states which also showed a slight increase in percentage of Chinese. Of these states, California is the only one with an actual gain; Washington and Oregon show no significant changes. The percentage of Chinese in the New England and North central states proportionately was less than in the preceding period. There has never been many Chinese in the southern states.

In a word, the rapid growth of Chinese population from 1850 to 1880 had taken place mainly in the West through the

heavy concentration of numbers in that region. The decrease in the total Chinese from 1890 to 1920, on the other hand, had reduced only the numbers of Chinese in the West. On the contrary, Chinese in other states have experienced a general increase in numbers. Finally, the upward trend during the last two decades of 1920 and 1930 occurred only in two states, New York and California. Chinese in the remaining states either declined or became stationary.

Factors Affecting Growth

There are three basic factors which directly determine the rate of population growth, namely migration, fertility and mortality. Of these three, migration is by far the most important factor in determining the Chinese population growth in this country. This is especially true during the period of free immigration, without any restriction, to this country. In the absence of fertility and mortality data for the early periods, the following discussion may be used as a substitute in determining the extent of the effect of migration. The available data indicate that the Chinese population in this country increased about 105,000 between 1850 and 1880. On the other hand, Chinese net migration was 119,000 for the same period.³ In comparing these two figures, the effect of mi-

³According to the records of the San Francisco Customs House, 250,531 Chinese immigrants arrived and 131,708 departed from 1851 to 1880. Thus, the excess of arrivals over departures would be 118,823.

gration is overwhelming. Furthermore it is noted that the net migration figure is even larger than that of actual growth. This situation seems possible if several facts are taken into account. First, a large-scale Chinese immigration occurred in this period due to free migration. Second, the majority of Chinese immigrants are males. Very few Chinese females had come. Therefore, the birth rate may be expected to be low. Third, in spite of many Chinese immigrants returning to China before reaching an old age, the deaths from work hazards and disease in the frontier area were generally very high. Thus, the death rate from Chinese from general causes could easily exceed the birth rate. Fourth, it is possible that the Chinese population was underenumerated in California during the early period, since many Chinese laborers were scattered over numerous isolated mining districts and many could well have been overlooked by the census officials.

Whatever the precise situation may have been, the positive effect of migration in population growth is apparent. It was the continuous excess of arrivals over departures which set into motion a rapid rate of Chinese population growth that no rate of natural increase, even under normal conditions, could accomplish in such a short period.

If the increase of Chinese population in the first period was stimulated primarily by migration, what would be the determining factor in the decline throughout the second per-

iod? Unfortunately, there is no adequate information concerning either the vital statistics or emigration records for the Chinese from 1881 to 1908.⁴ Therefore, no definite cause can be known on a statistical basis. From the general evidence, however, the decline of Chinese population may be attributed to the probable low birth rate and few immigrants on one hand, and to the excess of departures and deaths on the other.

The increase of the Chinese population during the two decades between 1920 and 1940 cannot be explained from the available statistical data. As indicated in Table XI, the total Chinese population shown in 1930 had increased by 13,000 over the preceding census. However, neither the immigration records nor the vital statistics seem to justify such an increase. The immigration records indicate that there was a 16,031 excess of Chinese departures over immigrant arrivals during the ten-year period from 1921 to 1930. Accordingly, the Chinese crude birth rate was 15 in 1920, and 9 in 1930. The crude death rates were 23 and 18 for the same years, respectively. Possibly, a number of births occurred in areas not included in the registration area, but this number could not have been very large. Even though allowance is made to enlarge the 1920 birth registration area to a comparable size with that of the death registration area, the difference

⁴Official report of Chinese deaths in this country began in 1907, and the report on births was even later, 1915. Before 1908 no official records for emigrants departed were kept.

TABLE XI
CHANGE OF CHINESE POPULATION IN THE
UNITED STATES, 1850 TO 1940

Year	Number	Increase Over Preceding Census*		Number per 100,000 of U.S. Population
		Number	Percent	
1860	34,933			117.1
1870	63,199	28,266	80.9	163.9
1880	105,465	42,266	66.9	210.3
1890	107,488	2,010	1.9	170.8
1900	89,863	-17,625	-16.4	118.2
1910	71,531	-18,332	-20.4	77.8
1920	61,639	- 9,892	-13.8	58.3
1930	74,954	13,315	21.6	61.0
1940	77,504	2,550	3.4	58.7

*A minus sign denotes a decrease.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II,
Part 1, Table 4, p. 19.

still would not be significant. It can hardly be expected that the gain from births could compensate for the loss from deaths and the excess of departures. The actual figures of vital statistics for the Chinese, furthermore, indicate that 13,602 total births and 13,304 total deaths occurred during the decade of 1921 to 1930. Therefore, the balance between a gain from births and the loss from deaths and excess departures would be around 14,000. This means that the Chinese population had to lose 14,000 persons during the decade 1921 to 1930. Instead, the population increased 13,000 for the same period.

The possible explanation for this contradictory demographic phenomenon may lie in one or all of the following:

- (1) Under-registration of Chinese births;
- (2) Illegal entrance;⁵
- (3) Excess of non-immigrant arrivals over non-emigrant departures.

Unfortunately, not enough information concerning any of the above possibilities can suggest a probable explanation.

The increase of Chinese population between 1930 and 1940 posed a similar problem. Although the increase in num-

⁵C. Luther Fry, "Illegal Entry of Orientals into the United States Between 1910-1920," Journal of American Statistical Association, Vol. XXIII, New Series No. 162, June, 1928, p. 173.

bers is not as large as that in previous decades, the gain from births is still in no way sufficiently large to overcome the loss from deaths and excess of departures. There is no probable explanation for this actual increase except the several possibilities just mentioned.

CHAPTER V PRESENT STATUS OF CHINESE POPULATION

In the preceding chapters the historical background of Chinese population in this country was presented. To complete the whole picture, the demographic status of the Chinese population as shown in 1940 will be added in this chapter. In dealing with the demographic status at this date a general description is given of the following aspects: (1) geographical concentration and urbanization, and (2) selected demographic characteristics. The selected demographic characteristics include nativity, age, sex, marital status, education, and occupation.

In order to make the presentation meaningful, the Chinese-Americans will be compared with the United States as a whole and occasionally with the Japanese-American group from time to time when it is deemed necessary. Finally, the major trends of some characteristics also are indicated.

Geographical Concentration and Urbanization

With respect to the total number and current distribution of the Chinese population, the most noticeable facts are the comparatively small size and great concentration along the Pacific coast. According to the census report of 1940, 77,504 Chinese were enumerated in the continental United States.

Figure 6. Comparison of Population Growth Among Chinese-Americans, Japanese-Americans, and the United States, 1860 to 1940

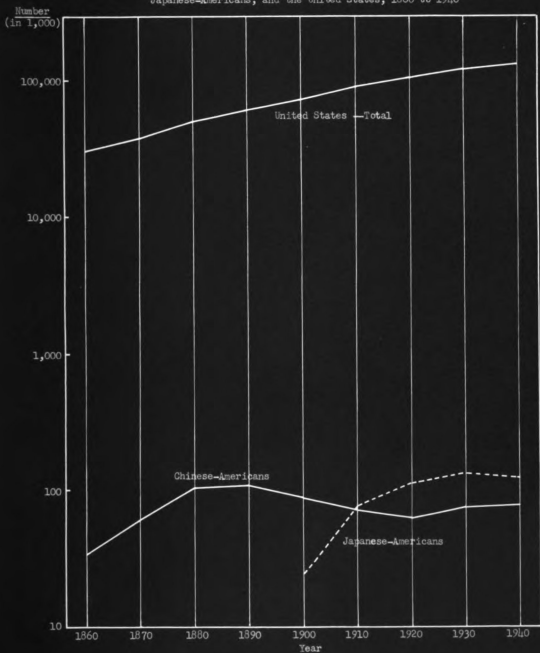




FIGURE 7- DISTRIBUTION OF CHINESE POPULATION, BY COUNTY, 1940. (18TH CENSUS, VOL. 2)

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This figure represented only 0.06 percent of the national population, or approximately six Chinese in every 10,000.

In comparison with other Asiatic populations, the Chinese population was larger than the Filipino (0.03 percent), but less than the Japanese-American (0.09 percent). In fact, there were fewer Chinese in this country in 1940 than generally assumed. The exclusion of Chinese, of course, has been the primary cause effectively limiting their numbers for years. The unbalanced sex ratio, as will be discussed later in this chapter, has also been responsible for this condition.

Like many other minority groups, the Chinese are highly concentrated in certain areas. Generally speaking, the majority of Chinese (60 percent), as indicated in Table XII, were confined to the West while the other one-third resided in the North. Very few Chinese were found in the South (6 percent).

The picture of concentration is made clear when the data are broken down by state of residence. Of the total Chinese, 62,687 or 81 percent lived in the following six states: California, New York, Massachusetts, Illinois, Washington, and Oregon. California and New York were the two leading states, with 51 percent and 18 percent of the total Chinese population, respectively. (See Appendix Table 12.)

TABLE XII

DISTRIBUTION OF CHINESE POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES,
BY REGIONS AND DIVISIONS, 1850 TO 1940

Regions and Divisions	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1940
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Northeast	6.5	0.4	0.2	1.6	5.8	16.4	16.3	20.1	23.8	25.4
New England	1.3	0.1	0.1	0.4	1.4	4.7	4.9	5.8	5.1	4.2
Middle Atlantic	5.2	0.3	0.1	1.2	4.4	11.7	11.4	14.3	18.7	21.2
North central	0.7	*	*	0.8	2.2	4.1	6.5	10.9	10.7	7.9
E. north central	0.7	*	*	0.4	1.2	2.8	4.8	8.2	8.4	6.2
W. north central	-	*	*	0.4	1.0	1.3	1.7	2.7	2.3	1.7
South	5.4	0.1	0.3	0.9	1.9	4.2	4.6	6.3	5.7	6.3
South Atlantic	1.0	0.1	*	0.1	0.6	2.0	2.2	2.9	2.5	2.6
E. south central	-	*	*	0.1	0.2	0.5	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.2
W. south central	4.4	*	0.3	0.7	1.1	1.7	1.8	2.5	2.2	2.5
West	87.4	99.4	99.4	96.8	90.1	75.3	72.5	62.6	59.8	60.4
Mountain	0.1	*	15.8	13.5	10.8	8.8	7.8	7.0	4.3	3.7
Pacific	87.3	99.4	83.6	83.3	79.3	66.5	64.7	55.6	55.5	56.7

* Less than one-tenth of one percent.

Source: 7th Census of U.S., 1850
8th Census of U.S., 1860
9th Census of U.S., 1870

It is not surprising that California has for a long time attracted many Chinese immigrants, since it is a port of entry, and since this state offered gold mining opportunity in the early days. Although the days of the gold rush are gone, the "old gold mountain" still remains as a symbol of fortune and opportunity to most of the recent Chinese immigrants as well as to the thousands left behind on the other side of the ocean. Because of its geographical location California will likely continue to absorb more Chinese than other states in the years to come.

The shift of Chinese population to the Atlantic seaboard, especially to New York, was not an accidental event, but rather a natural consequence of the anti-Chinese agitation in California throughout the last quarter of the 19th century. The completion of the trans-continental railroad, which occurred when the Central Pacific and the Union Pacific were connected in 1869, also accelerated this action.

Starting from the beginning of the eastward movement, New York has drawn more Chinese than the total number combined in its neighboring states in any census year. (See Appendix Table 12.) New York, no doubt, will remain the center of attraction to the Chinese on the east coast, just as California does on the west coast.

Except for California and New York, no other states claim Chinese populations of 3,000 or more in 1940. As a matter of

fact, most of the states in the Union contain less than 1,000 Chinese. New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Texas, Arizona, each have between 1,000 and 2,000 Chinese. States having Chinese populations between 2,000 and 3,000 are Massachusetts, Illinois, Oregon, and Washington. Of the above ten named states, five in the North, one in the South, and four in the West, all are either commercial or industrial or both except Texas and Arizona.

The Chinese in this country are a highly urbanized people. Ninety percent of their total number were classified as urban residents in 1940, and only ten percent as rural residents.¹ The urban character of the Chinese population is clearly seen when compared with the population of the United States as a whole or with the Japanese-American group in this country. Of the rural Chinese population two-thirds are nonfarm residents. In contrast, a higher percentage of the population of the United States and of the Japanese-Americans are rural-farm.

¹"Urban area" as defined in the 1940 Census Report, "is made up for the most part of cities and other incorporated places having 2,500 inhabitants or more." The rural area, on the other hand, is covered by territory "outside the limits of any city or other incorporated place." The rural population is further subdivided into two groups: (1) the rural-farm population "comprises all persons living on farms, without regard to occupation," and (2) the rural-nonfarm population "includes, in general, all persons living outside cities or other incorporated places having 2,500 inhabitants or more who do not live on farms." (See 16th Census of the United States, 1940, Population, Vol. II, Part I, p. 8.)

TABLE XIII

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE CHINESE-AMERICAN,
JAPANESE-AMERICAN AND TOTAL POPULATION OF
THE UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE, 1940

Race	Urban	Rural-nonfarm	Rural-farm
Chinese in U.S.	90.6	6.3	3.1
Japanese in U.S.	54.9	9.2	35.9
Total United States	56.5	20.5	22.9

Source: 16th Census of U.S., Population, Vol. II,
Part 1, Table 1, p. 18.

The Chinese in every region show a consistently urban character. Differences between regions are not great. In the Northeast and North central regions, as indicated in Table XIV, 97 percent and 95 percent of the Chinese population are urban dwellers. Since these two regions are predominately industrial and commercial, it is natural for the Chinese to seek a living in urban areas. Of the 46,840 Chinese in the West region 88 percent are classified as urban residents. Although numerically greater, the percentage of urban Chinese is a little less in the West than in the Northeast and North central regions.

The Chinese in the South are least urban, percentagewise, than in the other regions. Only 79 percent of Chinese in the South are urban residents.

Chinese in nearly every state are more largely urban than rural. Arkansas and Mississippi are the only exceptions, and in these two states the Chinese populations are predominately rural, 56 and 65 percent, respectively. Attention should be called to the fact that some states, especially in the South, have a small Chinese population. For that reason, it is necessary to compare percentage with the numerical count in order to gain a clear picture. Appendix Table 13 contains this breakdown.

New York and California, as has been indicated, are the two largest Chinese centers in this country. In New York,

TABLE XIV

CHINESE POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES
BY RESIDENCE AND REGION, 1940

Region	Total		Urban		Rural-nonfarm		Rural-farm	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Northeast	19,646	100.0	19,141	94.4	406	2.1	99	0.5
North central	6,092	100.0	5,805	95.3	248	4.1	39	0.6
South	4,926	100.0	3,900	79.2	908	18.4	118	2.4
West	46,840	100.0	41,380	88.3	3,325	7.1	2,135	4.6

Source: 16th Census of U.S., Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population, Table 3.

98 percent of the Chinese are living in urban areas; in California 89 percent. Thus, it can be seen that the Chinese population of California is relatively less urban than that of New York.

Throughout the nation the Chinese characteristically have become concentrated in metropolitan districts. In 1940, 55,023 or 78 percent of the total urban Chinese made their homes in ninety-two cities with a population of 100,000 or over. However, they are not distributed evenly among these cities, but rather tend to concentrate into a few major metropolitan centers, such as San Francisco, New York City, and Los Angeles. Table XV shows that there are 46,726 Chinese in nine principal cities. This figure represents 84.9 percent of the total Chinese who live in the ninety-two cities of 100,000 or more population.

The data, so far, have clearly demonstrated the essentially urban character of the Chinese population in this country. Nevertheless, such distribution gives no evidence to support the popular thesis that the larger the city the greater the concentration of Chinese population. San Francisco, for example, with a total population of less than a million, has the largest Chinese population of any city in this country. New York, on the other hand, the largest city of the nation, does not approach San Francisco with regard to the number of Chinese population. Boston, similar in size to

TABLE XV
CHINESE POPULATION IN NINE PRINCIPAL CITIES,
CLASSIFIED BY SIZE, 1940

City and Size		Number of Chinese
100,000 to 500,000		
Sacramento, California	(105,958)	1,508
Oakland, California	(303,163)	3,201
Portland, Oregon	(305,394)	1,569
Seattle, Washington	(368,302)	1,781
500,000 to 1,000,000		
San Francisco, California	(634,536)	17,782
Boston, Massachusetts	(770,816)	1,383
1,000,000 and over		
Los Angeles, California	(1,504,277)	4,736
Chicago, Illinois	(3,396,808)	2,013
New York, New York	(7,454,995)	12,753
Total		46,726

Source: 16th Census of U.S., Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1, p. 114, Table 49; and 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, p. 86, Table 27.

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San Francisco, has the smallest Chinese population among the nine principal cities shown in Table XV. Apparently, the common notion that the size of the city is somehow correlated with the concentration of the Chinese population has no statistical basis.

Geographical location seems to be a more appropriate explanation of the situation. Table XV reveals that seven out of nine cities are either seaports or close to seaports. Only Sacramento and Chicago are any distance from the coast. Furthermore, five of the seven seaports and their adjoining cities are along the West coast. Chinese immigrants came to this country by way of the Pacific, and many of them may be expected to remain at the port of entrance for some time, although they may plan to migrate to another part of the country.

The trend toward urbanization among the Chinese has been going on steadily since 1910. This increase in the relative importance of the urban segment during the last four decades is phenomenal. As indicated by Table XVI, 54,331 Chinese had taken up residence in urban areas as early as 1910, and this figure represented 76 percent of all Chinese in this country. Since that time the percentage has risen during each consecutive decade. In 1940 the proportion of urban Chinese was 91 percent and the highest ever recorded.

Another illustration of the trend in urbanization is the concentration of Chinese in the large cities of 100,000 popu-

TABLE XVI
CHANGE OF CHINESE POPULATION BY
RESIDENCE, 1910 TO 1940

Year	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
1910	71,531	100.0	54,331	76.0	17,200	24.0
1920	61,639	100.0	50,008	81.1	11,631	18.9
1930	74,954	100.0	65,778	87.7	9,176	12.3
1940	77,504	100.0	70,226	90.6	7,278	9.4

Source: 16th Census of U.S., Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1,
p. 21, Table 6.

lation and over. Table XVII shows an approximate threefold increase in the proportion of Chinese residing in these cities in the past sixty years. In 1880 only 22 percent of the total Chinese were found in twenty of these cities. By 1940 this figure had grown to 71 percent of Chinese spreading over all the 92 cities. Of course, the number of Chinese in each city varied from several to over ten thousand, as indicated before.

Chinese population in rural areas presents a different picture from that of the urban areas. Actually, only a few have settled in rural areas. Only 7,278 or 9 percent of the total Chinese were located in rural areas in 1940. The rural-nonfarm group is twice as large as the farm group, 6 percent as compared with 3 percent. Table XIV illustrates the consistency of this statement when applied to all regions. The highest percentage of the rural-nonfarm group is found in the South where 18 percent of the Chinese in that region are in this category. However, numerically speaking, the largest rural-nonfarm group (3,325) is located in the West.

The Chinese rural-farm population also is found predominantly in the West. They constitute more than the combined total of all other regions.

Data on rural Chinese population in each state are not broken down into farm and nonfarm in the Census Report of 1940. Appendix Table 13 contains the actual number of the Chinese rural residents in each state in 1940.

TABLE XVII

NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF CHINESE POPULATION IN
PRINCIPAL CITIES OF 100,000 AND OVER,
1880 TO 1940.

Year	Total	Number in Cities	Percent
1880	105,465	22,925	21.6
1890	107,488	32,664	30.3
1900	89,663	29,630	33.0
1910	71,531	29,002	40.5
1920	61,639	34,670	56.2
1930	74,954	48,068	64.1
1940	77,504	55,023	71.0

Source: Rose H. Lee, "The Chinese in the Rocky Mountain States," p. 36, Table VI.

No state, with the exception of California, claims more than 500 rural-farm and rural-nonfarm Chinese inhabitants. Mississippi, which has 485 rural Chinese, ranked second in number to California in this respect, and Mississippi is one of the two states where the distribution of Chinese is more rural than urban. The other state is Arkansas, with more Chinese residents living in rural areas. Those states having from 100 to 500 rural Chinese are Arizona (457), Arkansas (240), Nevada (134), New York (237), Oregon (177), and Washington (130). The remaining states all have less than 100 rural Chinese, ranging from one in Delaware to 92 in Idaho.

Some Selected Demographic Characteristics

Nativity. The importance of differentials in nativity among the Chinese population in this country has been pointed out at the beginning of this study. The native-born group, for the first time, constituted a majority of the Chinese in 1940, the percentages being 52 for the native-born and 48 for the foreign-born group. The situation, however, is somewhat different for the two sexes. Of the total Chinese-American males, 55 percent are still foreign-born, although 72 percent of the females are native-born. The overwhelming number of male immigrants, no doubt, has contributed to the low percentage of native-born among the males.

Differences also exist among residence groups. (Table XVIII.) The urban Chinese show a higher percentage of native-

TABLE XVIII

CHINESE POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES, BY NATIVITY, RESIDENCE,
REGIONS AND DIVISIONS, 1940

Regions and Divisions	United States				Urban				Rural			
	Total Native- born	Foreign- born	Total Native- born	Foreign- born	Total Native- born	Foreign- born	Total Native- born	Foreign- born	Total Native- born	Foreign- born	Total Native- born	Foreign- born
United States	100.0	51.9	48.1	100.0	52.3	47.7	100.0	48.2	51.8			
Northeastern	100.0	41.5	58.5	100.0	41.5	58.5	100.0	41.4	58.6			
New England	100.0	55.8	44.2	100.0	56.5	43.5	100.0	41.5	58.5			
Middle Atlantic	100.0	38.4	61.6	100.0	38.6	61.4	100.0	41.3	58.7			
North central	100.0	47.0	53.0	100.0	46.9	53.1	100.0	50.2	49.8			
East North central	100.0	46.9	53.1	100.0	47.0	53.0	100.0	44.4	55.6			
West North central	100.0	47.7	52.6	100.0	46.3	53.7	100.0	56.7	43.3			
South	100.0	52.2	47.8	100.0	53.5	46.5	100.0	52.6	47.4			
South Atlantic	100.0	53.5	46.5	100.0	57.3	42.7	100.0	61.1	38.9			
East South central	100.0	48.5	51.5	100.0	47.8	52.2	100.0	49.1	50.9			
West South central	100.0	52.5	47.5	100.0	52.0	48.0	100.0	54.7	45.3			
West	100.0	57.0	43.0	100.0	58.2	41.8	100.0	47.9	52.1			
Mountain	100.0	47.9	52.1	100.0	52.0	48.0	100.0	43.7	56.3			
Pacific	100.0	57.6	42.4	100.0	58.6	41.4	100.0	48.5	51.5			

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population
by Race, Table 1, p. b.

born (52 percent). The rural Chinese, both farm and nonfarm, on the other hand, show a higher percentage of foreign-born (52 percent).

The nativity status also varies among Chinese by regions, divisions, and states. Generally speaking, those in the Northeast and North central regions are more largely foreign-born (58 and 53 percent, respectively). Chinese in the South and West regions, however, are more largely native-born (52 and 57 percent, respectively).

On the divisional level, the Chinese in the New England, South Atlantic, West South central, and Pacific states contain more native-born than foreign-born persons. On the other hand, the foreign-born Chinese are relatively more important in the Middle Atlantic, Northeast central, Northwest central, Southeast central, and Mountain states. Generally, California is the center of native-born Chinese-Americans, while New York is the center of the foreign-born Chinese-Americans.

The changing nativity status among the Chinese has been in favor of the native-born group for the last several decades. As indicated by Tables XIX and XX, there has been a steady increase in proportions of native-born Chinese in every decade since 1900. Relative differences may be found between the two sexes and among residence groups, but the trends toward more native-born persons are consistent in the Chinese population.

TABLE XIX
CHANGE OF NATIVITY STATUS FOR CHINESE-AMERICANS,
BY SEX, 1900 TO 1940

Year	Both Sexes			Male			Female		
	Total	Native-	Foreign-	Total	Native-	Foreign-	Total	Native-	Foreign-
	born	born	born	born	born	born	born	born	born
Number									
1900	89,863	9,010	80,853	85,341	6,657	78,684	4,522	2,353	2,169
1910	71,531	14,935	56,596	66,856	11,921	54,935	4,675	3,014	1,661
1920	61,639	18,532	43,107	53,891	13,318	40,573	7,748	5,214	2,534
1930	74,954	30,868	44,086	59,802	20,693	39,109	15,152	10,175	4,977
1940	77,504	40,262	37,242	57,389	25,702	31,687	20,115	14,560	5,555
Percentage									
1900	100.0	10.0	90.0	100.0	7.8	92.2	100.0	52.0	48.0
1910	100.0	20.9	79.1	100.0	17.8	82.2	100.0	64.5	35.5
1920	100.0	30.1	69.9	100.0	24.7	75.3	100.0	67.3	32.7
1930	100.0	41.2	58.8	100.0	34.0	66.0	100.0	67.2	32.8
1940	100.0	51.9	48.1	100.0	44.8	55.2	100.0	72.4	27.6

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1, Table 4, p. 19.

TABLE XX
CHANGE OF NATIVITY STATUS FOR CHINESE-AMERICANS,
BY RESIDENCE, 1910 TO 1940

Years	Urban			Rural		
	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born
Number						
1910	54,331	12,534	41,797	17,200	2,401	12,799
1920	50,008	15,730	34,278	11,631	2,802	8,829
1930	65,778	27,401	38,377	9,176	3,467	5,709
1940	70,226	36,756	33,470	7,278	3,506	3,772
Percentage						
1910	100.0	23.1	76.9	100.0	14.0	86.0
1920	100.0	31.5	68.5	100.0	24.1	75.9
1930	100.0	41.7	58.3	100.0	37.8	62.2
1940	100.0	52.3	47.7	100.0	48.2	51.8

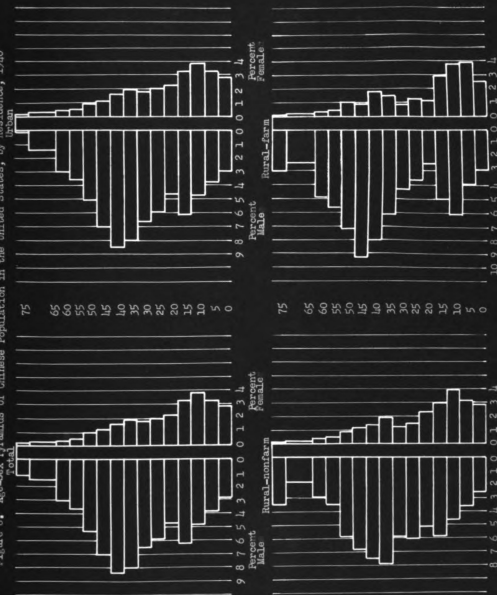
Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II, p.21.

Age distribution. The importance of age composition in a population is fundamental in understanding the socio-economic life and in planning for various community programs. On the other hand, the variations in age distribution generally result from the differential in fertility, death, and migration. The common device for comparing the variations is the age-sex pyramid.

The age profiles of the Chinese population, Figures 8 and 9, show an exceedingly high proportion of males between the ages of 30 to 50 years old, representing about thirty percent of the total male population in 1940. The excess of male persons in the productive ages make the other age groups, particularly the females 20 years and over, less significant, numerically and proportionally. Furthermore, the base and top of the age-sex pyramid for the total Chinese population appear narrow and pointed, due to the lack of children below 10 and of aged persons above 65 years old.

All these features peculiar to the Chinese age composition may suggest: (1) the effect of declining birth rates during the great depression of the thirties, (2) the influence of the foreign-born element which is made up largely of males in the productive ages, (3) the death and departures of older persons. As compared with the United States, the Chinese population has a larger proportion of male adults between the ages of 25 and 55 years old, but contains fewer children under

Figure 8. Age-Sex Pyramids of Chinese Population in the United States, by Residence, 1940



Source: Appendix Table 15

(Source: Appendix
Table 16)

Figure 9. Age-Sex Pyramids of Chinese Population in the United States, by Region, 1940



10 years. Differences in proportion of persons aged 65 and over is not significant between these two populations.

Rural-urban differences in age make-up among the Chinese are not great. As a whole, rural and urban groups are somewhat similar to the general pattern exhibited by the total population. However, some variation may be found in that the proportion of young adults between the ages of 20 and 35 years old in the rural-farm group is small in contrast to other residence groups.

Regional differences also exist. Male adults between the ages of 35 and 50 are relatively more numerous in the Chinese population of the North, while youth under 20 constitute a larger proportion among the Chinese in the South and West regions. Since the numbers of Chinese in rural areas, as well as in some regions, are negligible, it seems inadvisable to draw any conclusions only on the basis of the differences arising from residential and regional differentials.

Sex balance. One of the most unique features of the Chinese population in this country is the extreme imbalance between the sexes. Since many social and economic relationships are closely related to the balance of sexes in its population, the scarcity of females, as shown by the Chinese in this country, undoubtedly has a direct bearing upon such population indexes as marriage, birth, and death rates. The

measurement of sex balance used in this study is a generally accepted index, namely the sex ratio.²

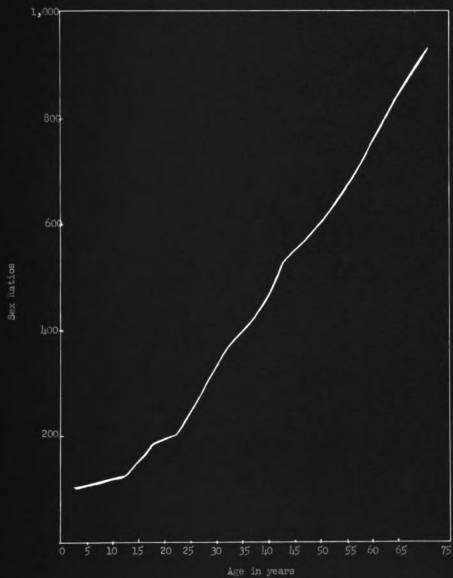
In 1940 there were 57,389 males and 20,115 females in the Chinese population. The sex ratio, thus, was 285. That means 285 Chinese men for every 100 Chinese women at this date. This ratio is excessively high as compared with the Japanese-American group and the United States as a whole for the same year, 131 and 101 respectively.

Of course, the highly masculine character of the Chinese population is due mainly to the bulk of immigrants who are predominately males. The sex ratio is higher in the rural group than in the urban group. Appendix Table 17 indicates that there were 282 males for every 100 females among the urban Chinese, 305 for the rural-nonfarm Chinese, and 336 for the rural-farm Chinese in 1940. These rural-urban differences agree with the general rule that males tend to predominate in the rural districts while the females tend to concentrate in the urban centers.

Furthermore, the sex ratios for each age group are computed for the Chinese population. The results are shown in the following graphic presentation, Figure 10. The curve of sex ratios for the Chinese population by age groups continues upward with increasing ages. The ratio starts at 101 for

²The sex ratio is expressed in number of males per 100 females.

Figure 10 Sex Ratios by Age for Chinese Population
in the United States, 1940



the age group under 5 years, and gradually climbs for each age level until 920 in the age group of 65 to 74 years is reached. Such a continuously upward curve, shown by the Chinese, is quite different from the accepted "normal curve" which was computed by Smith and Hitt from an assumed native-white population.³ The "normal curve" is based on the following established facts: (1) that the sex ratio at birth is around 105, (2) the mortality rate among males is higher at all ages than among females, and (3) that the native-white population of the United States is very slightly affected by emigration and immigration. Therefore, this "normal curve" descends slowly from around 105 or 106, reaching the base line 100 at about the age 35 to 45, and thereafter declining gradually to around 75 in the advanced ages. Generally, any one of the following factors,--migration, war, and errors in the data mostly due to the misstatement of age by women,⁴--likely affect the curve.

³T. Lynn Smith and Homer L. Hitt, The People of Louisiana, Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University Press, 1952, p. 64.

⁴As Smith and Hitt indicate, "for some strange reason many women who are above twenty-five years of age would like to be considered a few years younger, and they tenaciously insist that their age is somewhat less than the number of years since they were born. On the other hand, among the aged group there are those who derive an interest in life by talking about the length of time they have lived. During their fading years of life, undoubtedly, considerable confusion as to age occurs and some ages are overstated, rather than understated." Ibid, p. 65.

In the case of the Chinese population, the excess males at all ages of 15 years old and over could not be attributed only to errors in the data. Apparently, the immigration of Chinese males to this country is largely responsible for such an abnormal curve.

The trend toward a lowered sex ratio for the Chinese has been noted for the last few decades, although the present ratio still is considered very high. In 1890 there were 2,688 males per 100 females among the Chinese. However, after fifty years the sex ratio dropped to 285. The ratio in each decade before 1890 fluctuated greatly from 1,858 in 1860 to 1,284 in 1870, then climbed to 2,107 in 1880. This fluctuation might be regarded as the consequence of free immigration occurring in that period. After 1890 the gradual decline in the sex ratio could be attributed to the reduction of the foreign-born on one hand, and to the increase of the native-born element on the other. Decrease in the former group either by departures or death have reduced the number of males in the older ages. Increase in the latter group eventually balances the proportion of sexes at the younger ages.

Marital status. In analyzing the marital status of the Chinese population, the tremendous effect of the high sex ratio should not be overlooked. Before any comparison is made of marital status, one must not fail to recognize the numerical difference between the two sexes, both in the married and single states.

TABLE XXI

CHANGE OF SEX RATIOS FOR CHINESE-AMERICAN, JAPANESE-AMERICAN AND THE TOTAL POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, 1860 TO 1940

Year	Chinese-American	Japanese-American	United States
1860	1,858.1	-	104.7
1870	1,284.1	-	102.2
1880	2,106.8	-	103.6
1890	2,687.9	687.3	105.0
1900	1,887.2	2,369.6	104.4
1910	1,430.1	694.1	106.0
1920	695.5	189.8	104.0
1930	394.7	143.3	102.5
1940	285.3	130.9	100.7

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1, Table 4, p. 19.

According to the 1940 census, 25,790 Chinese males were reported as being married, but only 7,155 females were in the same category. This means that most of the 18,635 Chinese married men do not live with their wives in this country. Furthermore, Appendix Table 19 indicates that 21,352 Chinese males 15 years old and over and 4,163 females at the same age level are counted as being single. Evidently, there are not enough single women to match the single men among the Chinese in this country. Undoubtedly, the high sex ratio has forced many marriageable men remaining to be single. Since intermarriage is still not a common practice for the Chinese, mainly due to social and cultural barriers, the large number of bachelors either look for their future mates in China or maintain celibate lives. Those who could afford to marry in China would face another barrier set up against the entrance of their Chinese wives. It is only recently that the war veterans of Chinese descent can bring their Chinese war brides to this country.

The excess of bachelors, together with an overwhelming number of married men living in celibacy, has created an abnormal social situation among Chinese in this country. Keeping this particular point in mind, we now may proceed to the analysis of marital status. In discussing marital status, persons under 15 years of age are not included, since few of them are married. The marital condition of the Chinese population in 1940 indicated that larger proportions of females

than males over 15 years of age were married. The percentages, shown in Figure 11 and Appendix Table 19, are 53 for the males and 57 for the females. These percentages are relatively high as compared with the Japanese-Americans, but slightly lower than the United States.

Divorced and widowed persons are relatively few among the Chinese males, 3 percent of the males as compared with 9 percent of the females. The Japanese-Americans show the same tendency, while the figures for the United States are comparatively higher. The proportion of single persons among the Chinese males and females are 44 and 33 percent, respectively. In this respect, the Japanese-American group stands at one extreme in having a large portion of single persons of both sexes, while the general population of the United States stands at the other extreme.

The differentials in marital status between urban and rural Chinese are also indicated in Figure 12 and Appendix Table 19. Proportionally, more males in urban areas live in the married state than those in the rural areas, both farm and nonfarm. The corresponding percentages are 54, 47 and 48. In contrast, more females in rural-farm areas are married than in the rural-nonfarm areas or in the urban centers. The percentages are 60, 58, and 57, respectively. Thus, rural males are largely single, while urban females are largely single.

Figure 11
Marital Status by Sex for Chinese-Americans, Japanese-Americans and
the United States, 1940

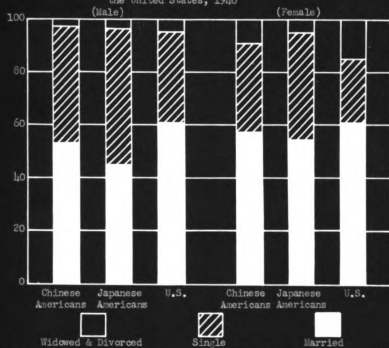
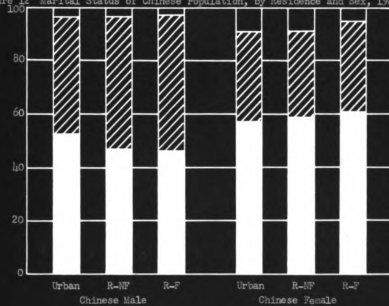
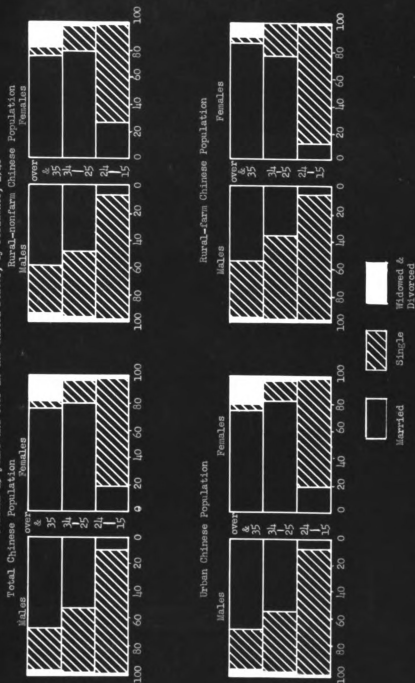


Figure 12
Marital Status of Chinese Population, by Residence and Sex, 1940



Source: Appendix Table 19

Figure 13 Age Distribution of Single, Married, Widowed and Divorced Chinese
Persons 15 years and over in the United States, 1940



Sources: Appendix Table 20

Males in the various residence groups exhibit little difference in proportions of divorced and widowed persons. Larger percentages of urban and rural-nonfarm females are divorced and widowed than among rural-farm females.

Educational status. Educational status of a population is one of the best indicators of the combined efforts made by the family and the community. In the case of an immigrant group, such as the Chinese, the successful adjustment to the adopted country depends in part upon educational achievement. In fact, a low educational status usually retards the process of acculturation and assimilation.

To ascertain this status, several devices have been used. One of the common measures is the median number of years of school completed for the population 25 years old and over.⁵ Another index is the level of educational attainment. This can be expressed by the proportion of the population 25 years old and over with no schooling, and by the proportion graduating from high school.

⁵"The median year of school completed may be defined as that year which divides the population into two equal groups, one-half having completed more schooling and one-half having completed less schooling than the median. These medians are expressed in terms of a continuous series of numbers representing years completed. For example, the completion of the first year of high school is indicated by 9." (16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1, p. 11.)

In analyzing the educational status for the Chinese population, both indices are used. The median number of years of school completed by the Chinese population 25 years old and over was 5.5 in 1940. (See Table XXII.) This is low in comparison with the United States as well as the Japanese-Americans, 8.6 and 8.7, respectively.

Among the residence groups, the Chinese rural-farm segment received even less education than the rural-nonfarm and urban segments. The median number of years of school completed are 3.3, 5.3 and 5.6 respectively. Comparatively, the United States and the Japanese-Americans occupy a favorable position over the Chinese. There are also differences among the regions. Generally speaking, the Chinese in the North central, the West and the South are far better educated than those in the Northeastern region.

To supplement the above information, the level of educational attainment by the Chinese is included. Table XXIII shows that, of the total Chinese population 25 years old and over in 1940, 23 percent received no schooling and 7 percent graduated from high school. Compared with the United States, the Chinese population contains more adults with no formal education and fewer graduates of high school. In the United States the comparable percentages are 4 and 14. Residential differentials are also indicated by the same Table. Chinese population in rural-farm areas are far less well educated

TABLE XXII

MEDIAN NUMBER OF SCHOOL YEARS COMPLETED BY CHINESE 25 YEARS OLD AND OVER
IN THE UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940

Region	Total			Urban			Rural-nonfarm			Rural-farm		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
United States	5.5	5.6	5.0	5.6	5.6	5.0	5.3	5.3	5.1	3.3	3.2	4.1
Northeastern	3.6	3.5	5.8	3.6	3.5	5.7	5.0	4.6	*	*	*	*
North central	6.4	6.3	7.3	6.5	6.4	7.1	3.9	3.3	*	*	*	*
South	5.9	5.9	5.6	5.8	5.7	5.9	6.3	6.5	*	*	*	*
West	6.2	6.4	4.5	6.4	6.7	4.6	5.1	5.2	4.3	3.1	3.0	3.4

*Median not shown where base is less than 100.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 6, pp. 34-43.

TABLE XXIII

YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY CHINESE POPULATION 25 YEARS OLD AND OVER
IN THE UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940

Years of School Completed	U.S. Total			Urban			Rural-nonfarm			Rural-farm		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Population 25 years and over	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
None	23.3	21.3	33.2	22.9	20.8	33.1	23.7	21.7	35.0	33.4	33.4	33.8
Grade school 1 to 4	21.4	22.6	15.7	21.5	22.6	15.9	20.6	22.1	12.1	21.5	22.2	16.4
5 and 6	14.1	15.3	7.9	14.2	15.4	7.9	13.6	14.5	8.2	12.2	13.0	7.2
7 and 8	18.3	19.1	14.4	18.5	19.3	14.3	17.6	18.2	13.8	15.4	14.8	18.8
High School 1 to 3	7.7	7.6	8.2	7.9	7.9	8.2	6.9	6.8	7.8	3.8	3.4	6.3
4	6.7	5.7	11.7	6.9	5.9	11.9	6.7	5.7	11.9	3.5	2.9	7.2
College 1 to 3	2.1	1.9	2.7	2.1	2.0	2.8	1.5	1.3	2.4	1.2	1.1	1.9
4 and more	3.0	2.8	3.7	3.1	3.0	3.7	2.0	1.7	8.9	0.7	0.6	1.4
Not reported	3.4	3.7	2.5	3.2	3.1	2.2	7.5	8.0	5.0	8.3	8.6	7.0

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population
by Race, Table 6, pp. 34-43.

than they are in the rural-nonfarm and urban areas, when educational status is judged by the two levels of school attainment. Finally, the analysis of educational condition would not be complete without some knowledge about the differences between sexes. In 1940, the Chinese females 25 years old and over were only slightly behind the males in regard to the median number of school years completed. This is in contrast to the prevailing situation in the United States. The low educational status among the Chinese women is probably due to the large number of foreign-born with no schooling. In spite of this fact, the Chinese women show remarkable achievement at the higher levels of educational attainment. Table XXIII indicates that they have larger proportion of high school graduates than the men. The same is true of all residence groups.

Since the educational status is generally higher among men than among women in the Chinese population, the accomplishment by the females at the high school level and college seems inconsistent. The possible explanation for this phenomenon is that many young Chinese in this country do not go beyond a grade school education in order to start working. Besides, many Chinese parents preferred to send their sons back to China for a high school education and even for college before the war. All these practices tend to reduce the proportion of high school and college students among the Chinese male population in this country.

Occupational status. The significance of occupational status in a population study lies in its reflection of the socio-economic life. Variations in occupational distribution are also related to rate of reproduction, sex composition and type of residence. Data regarding occupation generally are restricted to the population 14 years old and over, as most under that age level are in school under the compulsory education in this country.

In describing the occupational status for the Chinese population, the proportion in the labor force and occupational distribution of those employed are used. In 1940 about two-thirds of the 62,504 Chinese 14 years old and over were in the labor force. (See Table XXIV.) Among those in the labor force, nine out of every ten are employed. In the United States as a whole, a little more than half are in the labor force. The relatively high proportion of Chinese in the labor force can be expected due to the large proportion of male adults in the productive ages.

However, the proportions in the labor force are somewhat different between sexes. As indicated in Table XXIV, of total Chinese males 14 years old and over 75 percent are in the labor force while only 23 percent of the total females are in the labor force. As compared with the United States for the same age group (79 and 25 percent respectively), slightly lower percentages of Chinese men and women are absorbed into the labor force.

TABLE XXIV

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF CHINESE POPULATION 14 YEARS OLD AND OVER IN THE
UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940

Employment Status	United States			Urban			Rural-nonfarm			Rural-farm		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Population 14 years & over	62,504	49,475	13,029	56,657	44,711	11,946	3,953	3,194	759	1,894	1,570	324
Not in labor force	21,171	11,403	9,768	18,882	9,962	8,920	1,726	1,158	568	563	283	280
In labor force	41,333	38,072	3,261	37,775	34,749	3,026	2,227	2,036	191	1,331	1,287	44
Employed	36,992	34,081	2,911	33,626	30,918	2,708	2,066	1,903	163	1,300	1,260	40
On emergency work	402	336	66	380	318	62	13	11	2	9	7	2
Seeking work	3,939	3,655	284	3,769	3,513	256	148	122	26	22	20	2
Percentage												
Population 14 years & over	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Not in labor force	33.9	23.0	75.0	33.3	22.3	74.7	43.7	36.3	74.8	29.7	18.0	86.4
In labor force	66.1	77.0	25.0	66.7	77.7	25.3	56.3	63.7	25.2	70.3	82.0	13.6
Employed	89.5	89.5	89.3	89.0	89.0	89.5	92.8	93.5	85.3	97.7	97.9	90.9
On emergency work	1.0	0.9	2.0	1.0	0.9	2.0	0.6	0.5	1.0	0.7	0.5	4.5
Seeking work	9.5	9.6	8.7	10.0	10.1	8.5	6.6	6.0	3.7	1.6	1.6	4.5

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 7, p. 44.

Differentials in residence also exist. The same Table shows that a larger percentage of rural-farm Chinese are found in the labor force than of urban and rural-nonfarm Chinese. The percentages are 70, 67 and 57 percent, respectively. In regard to sex differences, more Chinese men but fewer Chinese women of rural-farm areas are in the labor force than is true of cities and rural-nonfarm districts.

In 1940 36,992 Chinese were reported as currently employed, or 89 percent of the total labor force. Of the employed Chinese 34,081, or 94 percent are males and 2,911, or 6 percent females. The distribution of occupation for the employed Chinese falls into twelve major categories, according to the Bureau of the Census.⁶ The largest occupational group among the Chinese population in this country is the "service worker, except domestic" which comprises 30 percent of the total employed. The next most important occupational groups are the following, in order: "operative and kindred workers" (22 percent), "proprietors, managers and officials" (20 percent), and "clerical, sales and kindred workers" (11 percent). These four groups make up 84 percent of the total number of employed workers. (See Table XXV.)

⁶Under these twelve major categories, 451 specific occupation titles were listed and classified. The principal title of occupations in each major category may be found in 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1, p. 17.

TABLE XXV

MAJOR OCCUPATIONS OF EMPLOYED CHINESE POPULATION 14 YEARS OLD AND OVER
IN THE UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940¹

Occupations	United States			Urban			Rural-nonfarm			Rural-farm		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total employed	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional workers	1.7	1.4	6.1	1.8	1.4	5.9	1.7	1.2	8.0	0.4	0.3	2.5
Semi-professional workers	1.0	1.0	1.5	1.1	1.1	1.4	0.5	0.4	2.5	-	-	-
Farmers and farm managers	1.3	1.3	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.1	0.7	0.7	-	28.3	29.0	7.5
Proprietors, managers & officials	20.3	21.3	8.7	20.4	21.5	8.7	29.7	31.3	11.0	1.3	1.3	-
Clerical, sales & kindred workers	11.3	10.0	25.8	11.5	10.3	25.1	13.2	11.4	39.9	1.1	0.7	12.5
Craftsmen, foremen & kindred workers	1.2	1.3	0.3	1.3	1.4	0.3	1.1	1.2	-	0.2	0.2	-
Operative and kindred workers	22.3	22.0	25.8	24.1	23.8	27.2	6.3	6.3	7.4	1.2	1.2	2.5
Domestic service workers	6.1	5.7	9.9	5.6	5.2	9.3	11.8	11.5	15.3	9.8	9.4	22.5
Service workers except domestic	29.9	30.9	19.3	31.3	32.3	19.9	22.3	23.1	12.9	6.5	6.6	2.5
Farm laborers & farm foremen	2.5	2.7	0.2	0.5	0.6	*	6.3	6.9	-	47.7	48.8	12.5
Farm laborers (unpaid family workers)	0.1	0.1	0.4	*	*	-	0.1	0.1	-	2.2	1.3	27.5
Laborers except farm	1.6	1.7	0.9	1.5	1.5	0.9	4.9	5.3	0.6	0.4	0.4	-

¹Number of persons not reporting their occupations are excluded.

*Less than one-tenth of one percent.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 8, p. 47.

Males generally differ from the females in occupation. Table XXV also indicates that both the Chinese males and females are concentrated in the same four major occupational groups which predominate among the employed Chinese workers. However, the Chinese men are numerous in service work rather than domestic, while most Chinese women are in "clerical, sales and kindred work" and "operational work."

Occupational status varies by residence. The largest proportion of urban Chinese is found to be service workers. Among the rural-nonfarm Chinese, however, the largest group is proprietors and managers, and as expected, farm workers predominate among the rural-farm Chinese.

Among the employed Chinese males, service workers are relatively important in the cities, proprietors and managers in the rural-nonfarm areas, and farm laborers in the rural-farm districts. On the other hand, of the employed Chinese females, clerical, sales and kindred workers rank high in the cities and rural-nonfarm sections, and domestic workers in the rural-farm sections.

Household composition. Though rudimentary, data on household composition provide some basic information from which the structure of the Chinese-American family can be discerned. Since household composition is greatly influenced by age, sex, and marital status, the following paragraphs may be regarded as a supplement to the foregoing discussion.

The 1940 census data concerning the Chinese household in this country are divided into the following: those in the private households, and those not in the private households. The private household, according to the census, is composed of family members and the unrelated lodgers, or of "a small group of unrelated persons sharing the same living accommodations as partners." The second group includes all persons not living in a private household, such as those living in a boarding or lodging house, an institution, a school, and so forth.

A further classification of persons in private households is made as follows: (1) head of the household, (2) relatives of head, and (3) not relatives of head. Such categories of relationship were first available in the 1940 census. Unfortunately, there is no further information to indicate the exact relationship of the family members to the head, so far as the Chinese-American data are concerned. Therefore, it would be impossible to present a statistical picture of the Chinese-American family without considerable haziness. However, it does provide certain basic information from which a general trend may be discerned.

In 1940 nine out of every ten Chinese-Americans lived in private households. In this respect, the proportion of women was even larger than of men, 98 and 90 percent, respectively. Nevertheless, the proportions for Chinese appear smaller than

TABLE XXVI
CHINESE POPULATION IN PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD AND OUTSIDE
PRIVATE HOUSEHOLD, BY RESIDENCE, 1940

Household	United States			Urban			Rural-nonfarm			Rural-farm		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Total	77,504	57,389	20,115	70,226	51,865	18,361	4,887	3,681	1,206	2,391	1,843	548
Not in private household	6,609	6,129	480	5,232	4,888	344	1,134	1,020	114	243	221	22
In private household	70,895	51,260	19,635	64,994	46,977	18,017	3,753	2,661	1,092	2,148	1,622	526
Head	21,326	20,178	1,148	19,804	18,720	1,084	1,026	969	57	496	489	7
Relative	34,463	16,683	17,780	31,676	15,367	16,309	1,823	851	972	964	465	499
Not relative	15,106	14,399	707	13,514	12,890	624	904	841	63	688	668	20
Percentage												
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Not in private household	8.5	10.7	2.4	7.5	9.4	1.9	23.2	27.7	9.5	10.2	12.0	4.0
In private household	91.5	89.3	97.6	92.5	90.6	98.1	76.8	72.3	90.5	89.8	88.0	96.0
Head	30.1	39.4	5.8	30.5	39.8	6.0	27.3	36.4	5.2	23.1	30.1	1.3
Relative	48.6	32.5	90.6	48.7	32.7	90.5	48.6	32.0	89.0	44.0	28.7	94.9
Not relative	21.3	28.1	3.6	20.8	27.5	3.5	24.1	31.6	5.8	32.9	41.2	3.8

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 5, p. 30.

for the United States as a whole. In this country 98 percent of the total population, or 97 percent of males and 98 percent of females lived in private households in 1940.

Among the urban Chinese-Americans large proportions reside in private households; proportions are smaller for the rural-nonfarm segment. Throughout all the residence groups, females exceed males in the percentage of persons living in private households.

The household composition is best seen from the following series of data. Of the 70,859 Chinese-Americans living in private households, 30 percent are classified as heads, 49 percent as relatives of head, and 21 percent as non-relatives of the head. Since the number of heads, according to the census report, is equal to the number of private households, the 21,326 Chinese-Americans classified as heads would mean the same number of Chinese-American private households in this country. In other words, there is an average of about three persons in each household.

PART THREE

THE COMPARISON OF NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN
CHINESE POPULATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

CHAPTER VI A COMPARISON IN POPULATION GROWTH

Before comparing the demographic status of the native-born and foreign-born Chinese populations in this country, it may be well to review the growth of these two populations. The importance of this process in a population analysis needs not to be emphasized here, especially since it has been repeatedly mentioned that the majority of Chinese-Americans has changed from foreign-born to native-born status. A comparison of the growth of these two populations will not only provide the essential facts for a comparative demographic study, but will also contribute to a better understanding of changes in the total Chinese population of this country.

Growth and Redistribution

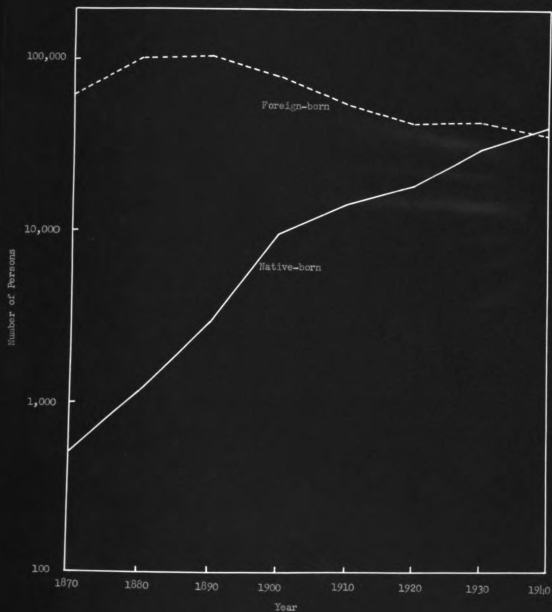
Over a period of seventy years (1870 to 1940) the trend in the numbers of native-born and foreign-born Chinese populations in this country has been in opposite directions. The trend of the former is one of growth, and this population tends to replace the latter, which is gradually declining.

There were only 517 native-born Chinese-Americans in the 1870 census, but in 1940, 40,262 were enumerated, indicating an increase of 7,688 percent between these two periods. On the other hand, the foreign-born Chinese-Americans numbered 62,682 in 1870, but in 1940 their numbers fell to 37,242, a decrease of 41 percent between these two dates.

The tremendous growth of the native-born Chinese-Americans has been quite in contrast to the decline of the foreign-born Chinese-Americans of this country. In fact, the ratios between the native-born and foreign-born Chinese were 100 to 12,120 in 1870 and 100 to 92 in 1940. Figure 14, in addition to presenting a comparative view of the general growth trends for the two groups, indicates the existence of some fluctuations within each curve. The fluctuations shown by the native-born Chinese-Americans are less great than those shown by the foreign-born Chinese-Americans. In the former, the fluctuations are only minor ones and the direction of the curve is always upward. In the latter, however, the fluctuations are somewhat different, since the slope of the curve shows greater variation in movement.

Table XXVII contains the numbers and percentages for these two population groups. Between 1870 and 1890 both populations were increasing although the rate of growth was not the same. The native-born Chinese-Americans increased in numbers from 666 between 1870 and 1880 to 1,747 between 1880 and 1890. Thus, the percentages of increase were 129 and 148 for the respective decades. The foreign-born Chinese-Americans, on the other hand, increased 41,600 between 1870 and 1880, but only 276 between 1880 and 1890. Accordingly, the percentages of increase dropped from 66.4 to 0.3, respectively.

Figure 14: Growth of Native-born and Foreign-born Chinese Populations in the United States, by decades, 1870 to 1940



Source: Table 27

TABLE XXVII

CHANGE OF NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE
POPULATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, BY
DECADE, 1870 TO 1940¹

Year	Number		Increase Over Preceding Census			
			Number		Percent	
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born
1870	517	62,682				
1880	1,183	104,282	666	41,600	129.2	66.4
1890	2,930	104,558	1,747	276	147.7	0.3
1900	9,010	80,853	6,080	-23,705	207.5	-22.6
1910	14,935	56,596	5,925	-24,257	65.8	-30.0
1920	18,532	43,107	3,597	-13,489	24.1	-23.8
1930	30,868	44,086	12,336	979	66.5	2.3
1940	40,262	37,242	9,394	-6,844	30.5	-15.5

¹There was no separate statement of native-born and foreign-born white and non-white populations in the Census reports before 1870.

Source: 12th Census of U.S., 1900, Population, Vol. II, Pt. 2, Table 1, p. 4VII.

16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1, Table 4.

In the period from 1890 to 1920, the native-born Chinese population showed a slowing in the rate of increase after reaching a peak of 207 percent between 1890 and 1900. The foreign-born Chinese population declined continuously in number and percentage between 1890 and 1920. Throughout the period from 1890 to 1920 the actual gain in the native-born Chinese population totaled 15,602, and the actual loss for the foreign-born Chinese population amounted to 65,451. This means for each gain of one native-born Chinese, there was a loss of more than four foreign-born Chinese in this country.

In the decade between 1920 and 1930 a temporary increase was observed for the two populations. However, the native-born group gained the largest number, 12,336, representing 66 percent increase over the preceding census. At the same time, the foreign-born group showed only a slight gain, 979 persons, or an increase of 2 percent. For the following decade the former continued to gain 9,394 persons, or only half as large a number as the preceding gain. Again, the foreign-born group lost 6,844 persons in the same period.

It should be noted, however, that the native-born, in spite of their continuous gain, could not replenish the heavy loss on the part of the foreign-born Chinese-Americans in a short time. It was only in 1940 that the former had gained sufficient numbers to overcome such a loss.

As pointed out previously, the majority of Chinese-Americans are located in the West, mainly in the Pacific states.

This is true of both the native-born and foreign-born segments. (See Table XXVIII.) More than half of each nativity group have resided in the Pacific states since 1900. However, the native-born are relatively more numerous than the foreign-born in these states. In the same period, the Northeast region, particularly the middle Atlantic states, has absorbed many native-born and foreign-born Chinese-Americans. This coincided with the eastward movement of the Chinese in this country during the period of 1880 to 1920. Comparatively, more foreign-born Chinese went to the east, largely to the mid-Atlantic states.

In the New England states and in the North central states, differences in the distributions of the two groups are not significant. Neither the native-born nor the foreign-born Chinese have been numerous in the South throughout the past decades.

The temporary increase of population between 1920 and 1930 brought a general increase among the native-born Chinese in the Pacific and middle Atlantic states; at the same time, the foreign-born increased in the middle Atlantic and East North central states. In the rest of the states, however, the two groups either decreased or were relatively stationary. The same pattern prevailed through the next decade except in the middle Atlantic states, where both the native- and foreign-born Chinese continued to increase. Of course, the number of foreign-born Chinese always exceeded that of the native-born Chinese in these areas.

TABLE XXVIII

DISTRIBUTION OF NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, BY REGIONS AND DIVISIONS, 1900 TO 1940

Regions and Divisions	1900			1910			1920			1930			1940		
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born
U.S. Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Northeast	11.5	16.9	15.4	16.6	16.6	21.7	17.9	27.9	20.2	30.9					
New England	4.6	4.7	6.2	4.5	5.7	5.9	4.9	5.2	4.5	3.8					
Mid-Atlantic	6.9	12.2	9.2	12.1	10.9	15.8	13.0	22.7	15.7	27.1					
North central	3.0	4.2	7.7	6.1	11.3	10.7	9.8	11.4	7.1	8.7					
E.N. central	2.2	2.9	6.3	4.4	8.8	7.9	7.6	9.1	5.6	6.8					
W.N. central	0.8	1.3	1.4	1.7	2.5	2.8	2.2	2.3	1.5	1.9					
South	4.2	4.2	5.2	4.5	6.6	6.2	5.8	5.5	6.4	6.3					
S. Atlantic	1.9	2.0	2.5	2.1	2.9	3.0	2.6	2.4	2.7	2.5					
E.S. central	0.7	0.5	0.7	0.6	1.0	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.2	1.3					
W.S. central	1.6	1.7	2.0	1.8	2.7	2.4	2.2	2.1	2.5	2.5					
West	81.4	74.7	71.7	72.8	65.5	61.4	66.5	55.2	66.3	54.1					
Mountain	5.1	9.3	6.2	8.3	6.3	7.3	4.0	4.6	3.4	4.0					
Pacific	76.3	65.4	65.5	64.5	59.2	54.1	62.5	50.6	62.9	50.1					

Source: Appendix Table 12.

Factors Affecting Growth

The differential growth exhibited by the native-born and foreign-born Chinese populations may be regarded as a direct consequence of fertility, mortality and migration. Mostly because of high fertility and low mortality the growth of the native-born Chinese population has been at a relatively high level. Since every birth to a Chinese person in this country is added to the total number of the native-born group, the population growth of this segment is greatly influenced by the reproduction rate. For this reason, the generally high fertility rate, partially, if not wholly, explains such rapid increase. Besides, the native-born Chinese in general are younger than the foreign-born Chinese. This would mean a lower death rate among the native-born Chinese.

Any fluctuation in the increase among the native-born group may be due to the irregular arrivals of Chinese female immigrants of child-bearing ages. The period of temporary increase between 1920 and 1930, for instance, was also the period in which the largest number of Chinese female immigrants was ever admitted to this country. (See Appendix Table 6.)

The decline of foreign-born Chinese population in this country, no doubt, is closely related to the factor of migration. Since the potential source of their growth, unlike the native-born group, entirely depends upon immigration, any ebb and flow of this population could easily affect the total num-

ber. It is supposed that a positive relationship exists between migration and population growth. However, by comparing the data of these two sources the situation is somewhat different. During the thirty-year period between 1910 and 1940, there was an excess of departures over arrivals among the Chinese immigrants. Thus, there is no possibility that the foreign-born Chinese population could increase or decrease by less than the excess of departures. In fact, the actual reduction in their population between 1910 and 1920 showed 13,489, much higher than the 4,019 excess of departures over arrivals in that decade. This difference may be attributable to the high mortality. This assumption is based on the fact that the average age in this group is relatively high. Nevertheless, the increase of 979 foreign-born Chinese in 1930 over that in 1920 seems inconceivable as the record shows the excess of departures over arrivals to be 16,031 for the same ten year period. Furthermore, the amount of reduction from their population between 1930 and 1940 was 6,844, while the excess of immigrants departed for the decade amounted to 18,054. It appears that the amount of decrease in population is far less than the loss from emigration, even though no deaths occurred among the foreign-born Chinese during the period. Of course, this is impossible. Such contradictory demographic data offer no hint of explanation except one or both of the following possibilities, namely, illegal entrance and the excess of non-immigrant arrivals over departures. Unfortunately, none of these two types of data are adequately available for further investigation at the moment.

CHAPTER VII A COMPARISON IN NUMBER AND DISTRIBUTION

Number and Geographical Distribution

For the first time in 1940, the native-born Chinese outnumbered the foreign-born Chinese in this country. The census counted 40,262 in the native-born group, a number 8 percent larger than the 37,242 foreign-born enumerated in 1940. Although the difference in size between the two groups is not great, it may be regarded as the beginning of a change in the structure of the Chinese population in this country. The present chapter is mainly concerned with a comparison of native- and foreign-born Chinese, relative to geographical distribution and residence.

It was mentioned in the previous chapter that some geographical preferences could be noted for the two groups in the past decades. The picture in 1940 represents a continuation of the past. Comparatively speaking, the native-born Chinese-Americans are numerically and relatively more numerous in the West and South while the foreign-born are more numerous in the North. (See Table XXVIII.) The distribution of the two groups among the divisions generally follows the pattern of the region into which the division falls. The native-born Chinese, for example, predominate in the Pacific division, while the foreign-born Chinese predominate in the mid-Atlantic division.

Figure 15 Distribution of Native-born Chinese Population
in the United States, 1940
(Each dot = 50 persons)



Source: 15th Census of U.S.
Population, Vol. II, p. 1 to 7

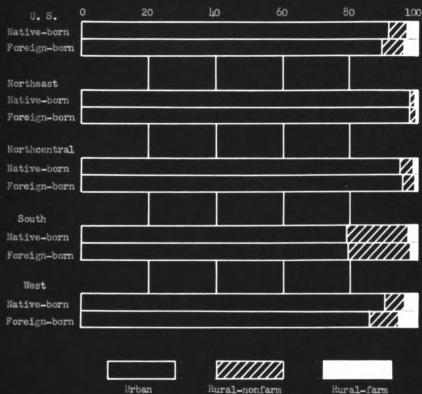


For the distribution of the two groups on a state level, differences may be examined for those states where both groups are highly concentrated. According to census records, these were six states with one thousand or more native-born or foreign-born Chinese in 1940, namely California, New York, Massachusetts, Illinois, Washington, and Oregon. It appears that the native-born Chinese in California, Massachusetts and Oregon are relatively more important than the foreign-born Chinese, while the condition in New York, Illinois and Washington is reversed. Insofar as the native-born and foreign-born Chinese in the six states are concerned, both groups show concentration. In fact, 82 and 80 percent of the respective groups resided within these states in 1940. The former shows a little higher concentration than the latter. On the basis of this statistical evidence the general assumption that "the native-born Chinese are less concentrated than the foreign-born with respect to geographical distribution" is not justified.

Residence

Since the concentration of population is correlated with the urbanization in the case of the Chinese population, it will be interesting to examine whether a relationship exists in distributions by residence for the native-born and foreign-born Chinese. Figure 17 shows that 91 percent of the native-born Chinese-Americans were classified as urban residents in 1940. The comparable percentage for the foreign-born Chinese-Americans

Figure 17 Comparison of the Native-born and foreign-born Chinese populations in the United States, by residence and region, 1940



Source: Appendix Table 21

for the same year is 90 percent. This difference of urban character between the two groups is especially great in the West, the percentages being 90 percent for the native-born group and 86 percent for the foreign-born group. However, for the other regions, the difference, if any, is less than 1 percent.

Due to the small numbers in many states, the comparison of the residential patterns of the two groups will be limited to those states having 500 or more native-born and foreign-born Chinese-Americans. In five out of the six states with 1,000 or more in each group, the native-born Chinese were more urban than the foreign-born Chinese in 1940. The corresponding percentages are 90.8 and 86.4 in California, 97.7 and 96.3 in Illinois, 97.6 and 95.3 in Massachusetts, 98.4 and 98.2 in New York, 92.2 and 90.6 in Oregon. The only exception among these six states is Washington where 94.7 percent of foreign-born Chinese are urban residents, as compared with 94.3 percent of the native-born Chinese.

The high degree of urbanization exhibited by the native-born Chinese in the above five states does not always appear among the states where their populations are more than five hundred but less than a thousand. In three out of these four states the foreign-born urban Chinese become relatively more important. The exact proportions may be found in Appendix Table 22. As far as the residential distribution on a state

level is concerned, the data clearly indicate that more native-born than foreign-born Chinese are urban residents in the states where both groups are highly concentrated, but the situation is reversed in the states where their populations are less concentrated. .

The degree of urbanization of the two populations may also be compared through the distribution in cities of 100,000 and over. It may be noted from the data that of the 36,756 urban native-born Chinese-Americans, 28,814 or 78.4 percent lived in cities of 100,000 and more as compared to 26,209 or 78.3 percent of 33,470 urban foreign-born Chinese for the same year. By approximately the same proportion both populations show a high concentration in the large cities. Nevertheless, when the data are broken down according to various sizes of city, there is a remarkable difference in their distribution. In general, more foreign-born than native-born Chinese make their homes in cities of 1,000,000 or more while the latter tends to surpass the former in cities of less than a million population. The percentages are indicated in Table XXIX.

In spite of the general fact that native-born Chinese are more urban, the center of their urban population is not in the largest cities, such as New York or Chicago. Instead, they are found largely in cities between 500,000 and 1,000,000 in size. It is interesting to note that most of these cities having relatively more native-born Chinese are located in the

TABLE XXIX

NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS IN
UNITED STATES CITIES OF 100,000 AND MORE, 1940

Cities by Size	Number		Percent	
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born
Total cities	28,814	26,209	100.0	100.0
Cities of 1,000,000 and more	8,915	12,092	30.9	46.1
Cities of 500,000 to 1,000,000	12,523	8,590	43.5	32.8
Cities of 250,000 to 500,000	5,235	3,728	18.2	14.2
Cities of 100,000 to 250,000	2,141	1,799	7.4	6.9

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1, Table 47, p. 114.

16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population, Table 2, p. 6.

West. On the other hand, those cities having relatively more foreign-born Chinese are located either along the East coast or in the Northeast.

This tendency may be observed clearly by comparing the percentage distribution in the cities of 100,000 and more where each of the native- and foreign-born Chinese amounts to 500 or more. Table XXX indicates that San Francisco and New York are the two cities having the largest populations of both native-born and foreign-born Chinese. Unlike the rest of the cities, the numerical and proportional differences between the two populations in these two cities are comparatively large and significant. New York City, for instance, contains 31 percent of the foreign-born Chinese as compared with only 16 percent of the native-born Chinese. San Francisco accounts for 27 percent of the former as compared to 37 percent of the latter. Thus, New York City may be considered the home of the foreign-born Chinese while San Francisco may be considered the home of the native-born Chinese.

Neither the native-born nor the foreign-born Chinese-Americans can claim to be rural people since an overwhelming majority of both groups are found in the urban areas. In fact, there were only 3,506 or 8.7 percent of the native-born group and 3,772 or 10.3 percent of the foreign-born group classified as rural residents in 1940. It appears that the native-born group is relatively less rural than the foreign-

TABLE XXX

NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE IN UNITED
STATES PRINCIPAL CITIES, 1940

Cities (Order by Size)	Native-born Chinese		Foreign-born Chinese	
	Number	Percent*	Number	Percent*
All cities of 100,000 and more	28,814	100.0	26,209	100.0
New York, New York	4,745	16.5	8,008	30.6
Chicago, Illinois	924	3.2	1,089	4.2
Los Angeles, California	2,540	8.8	2,196	8.4
Boston, Massachusetts	911	3.2	472	1.8
San Francisco, California	10,668	37.0	7,114	27.1
Seattle, Washington	951	3.3	830	3.2
Portland, Oregon	958	3.3	611	2.3
Oakland, Cali- fornia	2,126	7.4	1,075	4.1
Sacramento, California	961	3.3	547	2.1
Other cities	4,030	14.0	4,262	16.2

*The percentages shown in this table are based on the total of the respective populations in cities of 100,000 and more, from which the listed nine cities are included.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 2, p. 6; Table 27, pp. 86-7.

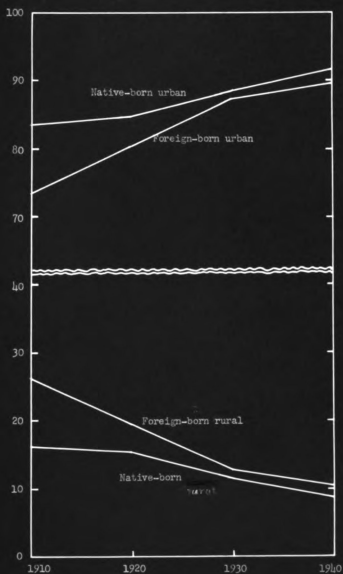
born group. In the case of both groups, the rural-nonfarm portion is twice as large as the rural-farm portion. The native-born group consistently shows smaller proportions in the rural-farm areas than the foreign-born group.

A larger portion of the rural-farm and rural-nonfarm Chinese, both native-born and foreign-born, are located in the West, and the percentage distribution of the two populations follows the general pattern. For the remainder of the regions, however, the differences between the two populations, if any, are not important. The rural data for the Chinese-Americans were not classified into farm and non-farm on a state level in 1940. Therefore, all data at this level concern "rural" Chinese.

As shown in Appendix Table 22, the rural native-born Chinese are more numerous than rural foreign-born in twenty-six out of the total forty-eight states. Although this is not consistent with the general pattern, the explanation rests in an examination of actual rural numbers. Such an examination reveals that the majority of the rural Chinese population is concentrated in a few states, especially in California, where foreign-born group is predominately rural.

The trends toward urbanization among the Chinese of both native-born and foreign-born has proceeded without interruption since 1910. When the curves shown in Figure 18 are examined, the one representing the native-born Chinese population has

Figure 18 Trends in the Percentage of Native-born and Foreign-born Chinese populations in the United States, by residence, 1940



Source: Appendix Table 23

been relatively more urban than the foreign-born Chinese population between 1910 and 1940. In spite of this fact, the speed of urbanization was much faster in the case of the foreign-born than in that of the native-born between these dates. As a result, the percentage of urban foreign-born Chinese has become closer to that of the native-born Chinese population in the last decade than ever before.

Conversely, the proportions of rural elements in the two groups have continuously decreased between 1910 and 1940. The rate of decline, of course, has been more rapid for the foreign-born than for the native-born between 1910 and 1930. This trend came to a stand-still in the last decade.

CHAPTER VIII A COMPARISON OF CHARACTERISTICS (I)

Age Composition

The age make-up of the native-born Chinese-Americans differs greatly from that of the foreign-born Chinese-Americans. As shown in Figure 19, the age-sex pyramid for the native-born Chinese population has a wide base but narrows as age advances. This is particularly true in the case of females. The contour for the foreign-born Chinese population, on the contrary, has an extremely narrow base, but contains a larger proportion of males in the productive ages. This sharp contract can be observed clearly by comparing the exact percentages found in Appendix Table 24. It is noted that more than half (51 percent) of the native-born Chinese are under 20 years of age, while only 8 percent of the foreign-born Chinese are under 20. On the other hand, almost two-thirds (64 percent) of the foreign-born Chinese are males between 20 and 55 years of age as compared with less than one-third (29 percent) of the native-born Chinese. Persons 55 years old and over are also relatively more numerous among the foreign-born Chinese population than among the native-born Chinese population, the percentages being 16 and 9 percent, respectively. However, the differences among females over 20 years old are not very great.

As a whole, the native-born population consists of more youth of both sexes, while the foreign-born population is com-

Figure 19 Age-Sex Pyramids of Native-born and Foreign-born Chinese Populations in the United States, by residence, 1940

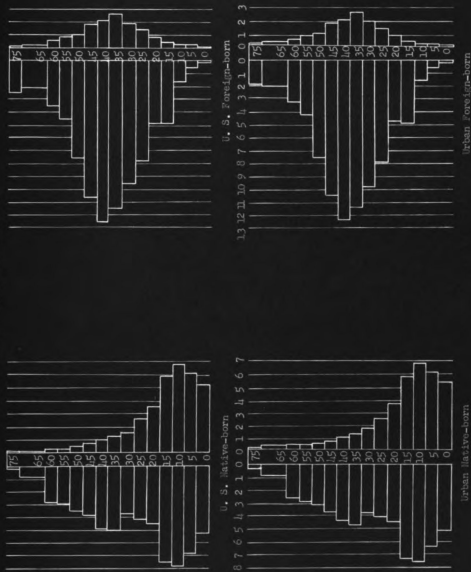
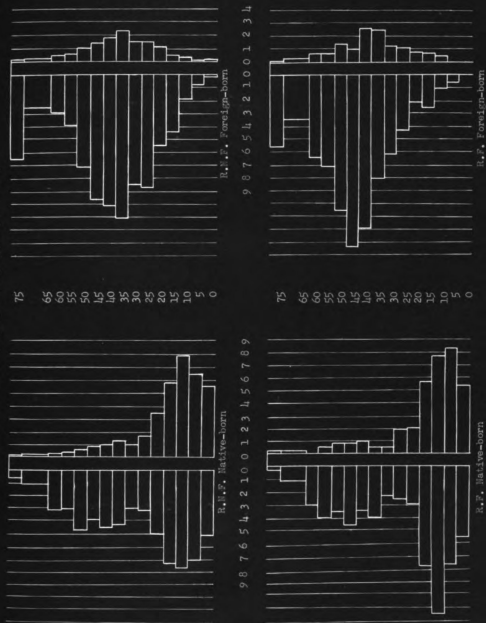


Figure 19 Age-Sex Pyramids of Native-born and Foreign-born Chinese Populations
in the United States, by residence, 1940 (Continued)



posed predominately of middle aged males. This holds true for those in various places of residence but mainly in the urban and rural-nonfarm areas.

The concentration of native-born Chinese youth under 20 is higher percentagewise in rural-farm districts than in any other residential category. In fact, 59 percent of the native-born Chinese rural-farm residents are under 20 as compared with only 5 percent of their foreign-born brothers in the same category. The lack of youth among the foreign-born Chinese-Americans in the rural areas is compensated for by the presence of large proportions of males in the middle and in the advanced ages, 57 and 26 percent, respectively.

Generally speaking, larger proportions of native-born youth and larger proportions of middle aged foreign-born males characterize the age distributions of the Chinese-Americans in all regions. (See Figure 20.) However, some variations are revealed by comparing the age contours of the native-born and foreign-born Chinese populations in the four regions. The age contours of the two populations in the West are much more nearly alike than is the case of other regions. In the Northeastern and North central regions, both groups contain large proportions of males between 35 and 65. Of course, the proportion of this male group is even greater among the foreign-born than among the native-born. Proportionally, more native-born youth and fewer foreign-born males in the productive ages are found in the South.

Figure 20 Age-Sex Pyramids of Native-born and Foreign-born Chinese
Populations in the United States, by Regions, 1940

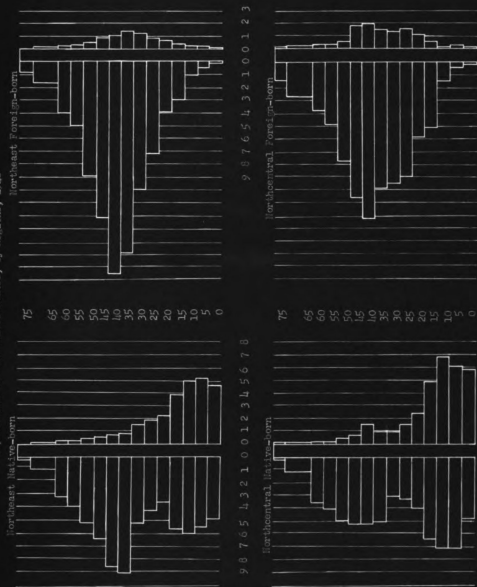


Figure 20 Age-Sex Pyramids of Native-born and Foreign-born Chinese
Populations in the United States, by Regions, 1990 (Continued)



Sources: Appendix Table 17

The native-born Chinese-Americans are a young population since half of their total number are under 20 years old. This fact may be attributed to the relatively larger proportion of Chinese women in the child-bearing ages. In 1940, 49 percent of the total Chinese females in this country were between the ages of 15 and 44. Inevitably, this fact would influence the rate of reproduction. The excess of males in the productive ages among the foreign-born Chinese is undoubtedly the result of a long distance migration which is highly selective of males. The Chinese social customs as well as the legal barrier, of course, have discouraged the entry of Chinese women into this country.

Balance of Sexes

It is a well-known fact that the Chinese population in this country is notoriously lacking in females. It is also understood that this abnormal condition is primarily due to selective migration. Thus, in speaking of the imbalance of the sexes among the Chinese-Americans, the nativity differential should be considered. This differentiation may be best expressed by the sex ratio. In 1940 there were 177 males for every 100 females among the native-born Chinese-Americans, and 570 for every 100 among the foreign-born. The ratio, therefore, is 223 percent higher than that of the native-born. The excess of males among the foreign-born over that of native-born prevails throughout the residence groups. However, the

difference in the sex ratio between both groups is much greater in rural-farm areas than in the rural-nonfarm and urban areas. The corresponding ratios can be compared in the following Table.

Regional differentiation also exists. Without any exception the foreign-born Chinese-Americans show a higher sex ratio than the native-born Chinese in all regions. The difference in the Northeastern region is the greatest, the ratios being 1,069 and 271, respectively. The two populations in the West not only have comparatively low sex ratios, but the smallest difference in sex ratios among all regions is found here. The ratios are 116 and 434, respectively. Because of very few Chinese women living in rural sections of most regions, the rural-urban differential is not known except in the West. Unlike the general pattern, the difference of the sex ratios for the two groups in the West is smaller in urban areas and greater in rural areas.

When a series of sex ratios are computed for the native-born and foreign-born Chinese in the cities of 100,000 or more, and where the Chinese totaled more than 1,000, the ratios for the former vary relatively little, or from 113 in Sacramento, California to 300 in Boston; those of the latter vary relatively more, or from 220 in Sacramento, to 1,262 in New York City. (See Table XXXII.) Furthermore, the sex ratios for both groups are relatively higher in the eastern cities, and lower in the western cities. Accordingly, the differential

TABLE XXXI

SEX RATIOS BY RESIDENCE AND REGION FOR NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN
CHINESE POPULATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1940

Region	Total		Urban		Rural-nonfarm		Rural-farm	
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born
United States	176.5	570.4	175.8	564.6	180.7	596.7	190.8	695.5
Northeastern	270.6	1,068.7	270.0	1,070.7	*	*	*	*
North central	297.1	725.6	193.4	709.7	*	*	*	*
South	164.6	483.1	169.9	529.5	154.6	*	*	*
West	155.8	433.8	153.3	420.9	173.4	601.6	197.9	757.5

*No ratio is computed when the base is less than 100.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 3, pp. 7-15.

TABLE XXXII

SEX RATIOS FOR NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE
POPULATIONS IN NINE SELECTED CITIES, 1940

Cities	Native-born		Foreign-born		Sex Ratio	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Native-born	Foreign-born
Boston, Massachusetts	683	228	407	65	299.6	*
Chicago, Illinois	621	303	971	118	204.9	822.9
Los Angeles, California	1,539	1,001	1,772	424	153.7	417.9
New York, New York	3,547	1,198	7,420	588	296.1	1,261.9
Oakland, California	1,144	982	760	315	116.5	241.3
Portland, Oregon	567	391	504	107	145.0	471.0
Sacramento, California	509	452	376	171	112.6	219.9
San Francisco, California	6,527	4,141	5,737	1,377	157.6	416.6
Seattle, Washington	612	339	675	155	180.6	435.0

✓ Included cities of 100,000 or more and where the Chinese populations amounted to as much as 1,000.

*Base less than 100.

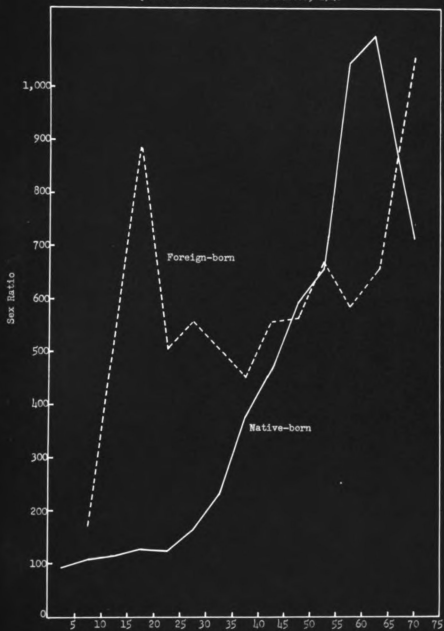
Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 27, pp. 86-7.

in sex ratio between the two groups is greater in the cities from the east than those from the west.

The highly masculine character of the foreign-born Chinese-Americans, so far, has been revealed through a comparison of sex ratios with the native-born. However, no knowledge of sex composition would be complete without an examination of the age-specific sex ratios. The importance is obvious. For this purpose, Figure 21 has been prepared. The ratios among the foreign-born Chinese are much higher at all ages except for the age groups 45 to 50 and 55 to 65. The curve representing sex ratios by age for the native-born Chinese does not rise rapidly until the age group 20 to 25 is reached; thereafter, it rises continuously with increasing age. In contrast, the curve for the foreign-born Chinese fluctuates considerably between the ages of 20 and 55.

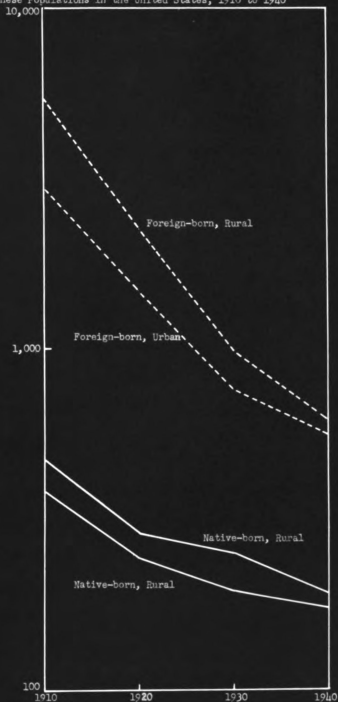
Figure 22 indicates that the trend toward a lowered sex ratio among the Chinese-Americans has shown up faster among the foreign-born than among the native-born, although the former has maintained a higher ratio for the past decades. The ratio for the foreign-born had dropped from 3,307 in 1910 to 570 in 1940, a decrease of 83 percent between the two dates. The ratio for the native-born, on the other hand, had dropped from 395 to 176 in the respective years, a decrease of only 58 percent. The same trend also prevails for both groups in urban as well as in the rural areas.

Figure 21. Sex Ratios by Age for Native-born and Foreign-born Chinese Populations in the United States, 1940



Source: Appendix Table 27

Figure 22. Change of Sex ratios for Urban and Rural Native-born and Foreign-born Chinese Populations in the United States, 1910 to 1940



Source: Appendix Table 28

Marital Status

Marital status is usually closely related to the age and sex composition of a population. This is particularly true for the Chinese in this country. As indicated in Chapter V, the overwhelming number of Chinese males in the productive ages has created an abnormal marital situation in which a large proportion of married men are living in celibacy, and numerous marriageable men have remained single. An abnormal age structure and a high sex ratio have been found to be more characteristic of foreign-born Chinese-Americans than of native-born Chinese of this country. It seems clear that the abnormal age and sex distribution prevailing among the foreign-born group is attributed to the present marital situation of the Chinese-Americans.

In 1940, of the total 25,702 males and 14,560 females who were native-born, 17,731 or 69 percent, and 7,150 or 49 percent, respectively, were over 15 years of age. The sex ratio for this age group was 248. Meanwhile, of the total 31,687 males and 5,555 females classed as foreign-born, 30,902 or 97 percent, and 5,313 or 96 percent, respectively, were in the same age category. The sex ratio was 582.

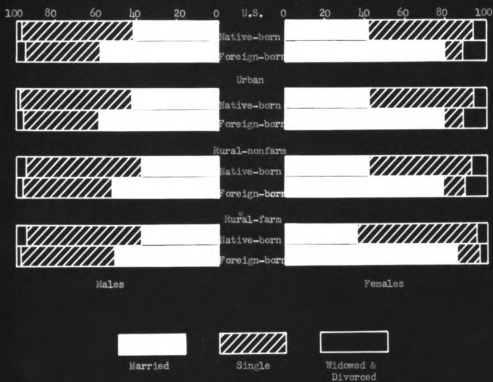
Obviously, the native-born Chinese population contains smaller percentages of persons over 15 years old with a relatively lower sex ratio as compared to the corresponding age group of the foreign-born. A further examination of the

marital data from Appendix Table 29 reveals that there are insufficient married women to match the married men, especially among the foreign-born Chinese. The number of married males is 7,580 for the native-born and 18,210 for the foreign-born. In contrast, the number of females is only 2,970 and 4,185 for the two nativity groups. If all the Chinese-Americans should marry within their own nativity group, there would be an excess of married men over married women of 4,610 for the native-born group and 14,025 for the foreign-born group. This means 255 married men for every 100 married women among the native-born Chinese-Americans, and 435 for every 100 among the foreign-born Chinese-Americans. However, in reality this is not always the case. Although many native-born persons prefer mates of the same group to foreign-born mates, marriage between the native-born and foreign-born is not uncommon among the Chinese-Americans. In fact, it is generally believed that more native-born women marry foreign-born men than the reverse, so far as the Chinese-Americans are concerned. The reason for this belief is that many of the foreign-born males are prosperous and occupy a relatively higher social position. Even so, there remains a far greater excess of foreign-born than native-born married men. This statistical evidence agrees with the general observation that many Chinese immigrants left their families behind when they came to this country.

Not only have many Chinese immigrants come to this country without their families, but also many of them arrived here in the marriageable ages but have remained single. This may be noted from the following figures. In 1940 among the foreign-born Chinese 15 years and over, 11,686 males and 467 females were reported as single. The corresponding figures for the native-born are 9,606 males and 3,696 females. In other words, there are 2,502 single males to every 100 single females among the foreign-born Chinese, and 260 to every 100 among the native-born Chinese. The considerable number of bachelors among the foreign-born Chinese may be partially due to the misstatement by some who are actually married but living in celibacy. Nevertheless, the fact of the excess number of foreign-born Chinese bachelors over the native-born Chinese bachelors remains true. The concentration of middle aged males among the foreign-born Chinese population is largely responsible for these numerical differences both in the married and single status. Therefore, one should not be content merely with the percentages without comparing the numerical figures. Appendix Table 29 contains these data.

Relatively speaking, more foreign-born than native-born Chinese are married. This applies to both sexes. As indicated in Figure 23, the largest percentage of married persons appears among foreign-born females, a number representing four-fifths of this group. The smallest percentage occurs

Figure 23 Marital Status of Native-born and Foreign-born Chinese
Populations 15 years and over in the United States,
by residence and sex, 1940



Source: Appendix Table 29

among the native-born females, a number indicating only a little more than two-fifths of this group.

In regard to the single status, the highest percentage is found among the native-born males and the lowest among the foreign-born females, the proportions being 54 and 9 percent, respectively.

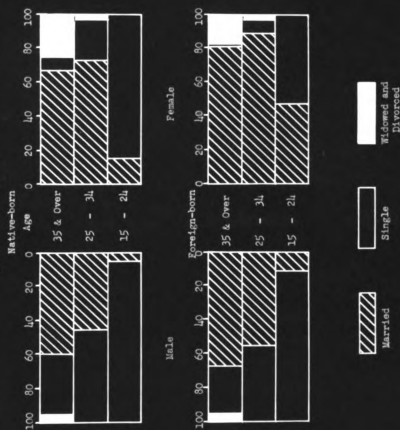
Divorced and widowed persons are few among the Chinese-Americans. However, a comparatively larger proportion of foreign-born than native-born females reported being widowed.

In order to understand the difference in marital status by age, Figure 24 has been prepared. Relatively, larger proportions of foreign-born Chinese women married at a distinctively earlier age and throughout all the age levels than their native-born sisters. This situation is also true among the males. As it might be expected, larger percentages of native-born persons, both males and females, reported being single at all the age levels.

In spite of the fact that more foreign-born Chinese women are married, a comparatively lower percentage are divorced and widowed persons, especially at the age level of 35 years and over, as compared to native-born Chinese women.

Up to this point, the marital data indicate that the native-born Chinese-Americans are predominately persons with single status, while the foreign-born Chinese are largely

Figure 24. Marital States of the Native-born and Foreign-born Chinese Populations by Age and Sex, 1940



Source: Appendix Table 30

married persons. Moreover, the latter group tends to marry at an earlier age than the former. Finally a comparison of marital difference by residence between the two groups can also throw some light on the subject under study.

As shown in Figure 23, a larger proportion of native-born Chinese males in urban centers are married persons than is true of those in the rural-farm and rural-nonfarm areas. This condition also prevails among the foreign-born Chinese males, although the percentages are higher. For the females the picture is rather different. While the native-born females still show a consistently high percentage of married persons in the urban areas, the largest proportion of foreign-born married women is found in the rural-farm rather than in the rural-nonfarm or urban areas.

Proportionally, more native-born Chinese males in rural-nonfarm and more native-born females in rural-farm areas reported being single than in other residence categories. On the other hand, the foreign-born Chinese males in rural-farm and foreign-born females in rural-nonfarm areas report the largest percentage of single persons.

Among the native-born Chinese-Americans the largest percentage of widowed males is found in rural-farm areas; the largest percentage of widowed females in rural-nonfarm areas. For the foreign-born Chinese-Americans the largest percentage

of widowed males is found in rural-nonfarm areas; the largest percentage of widowed females in urban areas. Since divorced persons are very few in both groups, the differences by residence are not significant.

CHAPTER IX A COMPARISON OF CHARACTERISTICS (II)

Educational Status

In general, the native-born population of this country is better educated than the foreign-born population, as measured by the median number of school years completed or by the percentage completing various levels of educational attainment. Without exception, such a condition applies to the Chinese-Americans. To examine the extent of the differences in educational status is the main purpose of this section.

First, in regard to the median number of school years completed, the native-born Chinese-Americans show attainments superior to their fellow foreign-born Chinese-Americans. The corresponding median numbers for both populations 25 years old and over were 6.8 and 5.0 in 1940. The higher median attainments of the native-born Chinese are found in all residence groups and regions, as shown in Table XXXIII. Furthermore, the differences in median numbers of school years completed for rural-farm and urban native-born Chinese are smaller than those for the foreign-born Chinese. The median numbers of school years completed for the rural-farm and urban native-born Chinese are 5.9 and 6.9, as compared to 2.6 and 5.0 for the foreign-born Chinese, respectively.

TABLE XXXIII

MEDIAN NUMBER OF SCHOOL YEARS COMPLETED BY NATIVE-BORN
AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS 25 YEARS OLD
AND OVER IN THE UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE,
REGIONS, AND SEX, 1940

(Median not shown where base is less than 100)

Regions and Residence	Both Sexes		Male		Female	
	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born
United States	6.8	5.0	6.2	5.3	8.6	1.6
Urban	6.9	5.0	6.3	5.4	8.6	1.6
Rural-nonfarm	6.0	5.0	5.8	5.3	8.8	1.3
Rural-farm	5.9	2.6	5.3	2.7	-	1.9
North eastern	4.9	3.2	4.1	3.3	8.5	1.3
Urban	4.9	3.2	4.1	3.3	8.6	1.2
Rural-nonfarm	-	4.8	-	4.6	-	-
Rural-farm	-	-	-	-	-	-
North central	7.0	6.2	6.3	6.3	10.3	4.1
Urban	7.0	6.3	6.3	6.4	10.6	3.9
Rural-nonfarm	-	2.7	-	2.5	-	-
Rural-farm	-	-	-	-	-	-
South	6.0	5.8	5.4	6.1	8.7	3.6
Urban	6.0	5.6	5.3	6.0	9.4	3.5
Rural-nonfarm	6.2	6.4	-	6.7	-	-
Rural-farm	-	-	-	-	-	-
West	7.4	5.5	7.1	6.1	8.6	1.3
Urban	7.5	5.7	7.2	6.4	8.6	1.5
Rural-nonfarm	6.1	4.8	5.4	5.1	9.5	0.9
Rural-farm	5.7	2.5	5.2	2.6	-	1.4

Source: 16th Census of U.S., Population: Characteristics of Non-white Population by Race, pp. 34-43, Table 6.

Regional differences also exist between native-born and foreign-born populations. The native-born Chinese in the West have achieved a higher attainment in median number of school years completed than in other regions. The foreign-born Chinese of the North central region are superior in this respect to those in any other region. The lowest median number of school years completed for both populations among the regions is found in the Northeast.

When the median number of school years completed by two populations 25 years old and over are compared by sex, the native-born males are in a more favorable position than the foreign-born males, the median being 6.2 and 5.3, respectively. The median number of school years completed for the native-born females is much higher than that for the foreign-born females, the medians being 8.6 and 1.6, respectively. The same order of differentials holds for almost all residence and regional groups. Only one exception is found, namely in the South, where the foreign-born Chinese males show a slightly higher median number of school years completed than the native-born Chinese males.

Another striking difference in median number of school years completed may be observed when sex differentials within each population are considered. The native-born Chinese women 25 years old and over are generally better educated than native-born men in the same age category. On the contrary,

the foreign-born Chinese women 25 years old and over fall below the foreign-born men in this respect.

The second index with which to measure the differential in educational status is the level of school attainment. In this regard the native-born Chinese-Americans again show the achievement of higher educational levels than the foreign-born Chinese-Americans. According to Table XXXIV, 11 percent of the native-born Chinese-Americans 25 years old and over were high school graduates in 1940. This figure is high as compared to only 4 percent of the foreign-born Chinese who were high school graduates in the same age category for the same year. This type of differential is true not only at the high school level but also at the level of grade school, as well as college. Table XXXIV indicates that of the total native-born Chinese population 25 years old and over, 20 percent completed grade school and 4 percent completed college. The corresponding percentages for the foreign-born Chinese population of the same age group are 17 and 3.

As may be expected, the foreign-born Chinese-Americans contain a larger percentage of persons without formal schooling than native-born Chinese-Americans, the figures being 26 and 18, respectively. The residential differences among the native-born group varies somewhat from that among the foreign-born group. The largest percentage of high school graduates among the native-born Chinese is found in the urban segment while the largest one among the foreign-born Chinese is in

TABLE XXXIV

YEARS OF SCHOOL COMPLETED BY NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS
25 YEARS OLD AND OVER IN THE UNITED STATES, BY SEX AND RESIDENCE, 1940

Regions, Nativity, and Sex	Popu- lation 25 yrs. old & over	Year of School Completed									
		None	Grade School			High School			College		Not re- ported
			1 to 4	5 & 6	7 & 8	1 to 3	4	1 to 3	4 or more		
U.S. Total											
Native-born	100.0	18.4	19.0	12.1	20.2	9.2	11.2	3.4	3.7	2.8	
Foreign-born	100.0	25.8	22.6	15.0	17.4	7.0	4.5	1.4	2.6	3.7	
Male											
Native-born	100.0	19.0	21.2	13.6	20.3	7.9	8.3	3.0	3.4	3.3	
Foreign-born	100.0	22.4	23.2	16.1	18.5	7.5	4.5	1.4	2.6	3.8	
Female											
Native-born	100.0	16.0	10.8	6.5	19.6	14.1	21.9	4.8	4.8	1.5	
Foreign-born	100.0	45.4	19.1	8.9	10.7	4.0	4.5	1.3	2.8	3.3	
U.S. Urban											
Native-born	100.0	18.0	19.1	12.2	20.1	9.4	11.3	3.4	3.9	2.7	
Foreign-born	100.0	25.4	22.7	15.2	17.6	7.2	4.5	1.5	2.7	3.2	
Male											
Native-born	100.0	18.5	21.3	13.7	20.3	8.1	8.5	3.0	3.7	2.9	
Foreign-born	100.0	21.9	23.3	16.3	18.9	7.7	4.5	1.5	2.7	3.2	
Female											
Native-born	100.0	16.0	10.8	6.5	19.5	14.3	21.9	4.8	4.9	1.3	
Foreign-born	100.0	45.5	19.5	9.0	10.6	3.8	4.5	1.3	2.8	3.0	

TABLE XXXIV, continued

Regions, Nativity, and Sex	Popu- lation 25 yrs. old & over	Year of School Completed									
		None	Grade School			High School			College		Not re- ported
			1 to 4	5 & 6	7 & 8	1 to 3	4	1 to 3	4 or more		
U.S. Rural-nonfarm											
Native-born	100.0	20.9	20.2	11.3	19.8	7.6	9.2	2.9	2.2	5.9	
Foreign-born	100.0	24.9	20.7	14.5	16.5	6.6	5.6	0.9	2.0	8.3	
Male											
Native-born	100.0	22.3	22.3	12.2	20.2	6.6	5.8	2.5	1.7	6.4	
Foreign-born	100.0	21.5	22.0	15.5	17.3	6.8	5.7	0.9	1.7	8.6	
Female											
Native-born	100.0	14.7	10.4	7.4	17.8	12.3	25.2	4.9	4.9	2.4	
Foreign-born	100.0	46.0	13.0	8.7	11.7	5.3	4.7	1.0	3.3	6.3	
U.S. Rural-farm											
Native-born	100.0	25.7	15.4	11.5	22.1	4.9	8.6	2.9	1.5	7.4	
Foreign-born	100.0	36.1	23.6	12.5	13.0	3.4	1.7	0.6	0.4	8.7	
Male											
Native-born	100.0	27.3	16.4	12.6	20.5	4.1	7.3	2.3	1.2	8.0	
Foreign-born	100.0	35.4	24.2	13.1	13.0	3.2	1.5	0.7	0.4	8.5	
Female											
Native-born	100.0	17.9	10.4	6.0	29.8	8.9	15.0	6.0	3.0	3.0	
Foreign-born	100.0	41.4	19.3	7.9	13.6	5.0	3.6	-	0.7	8.6	

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 6, p. 34.

rural-nonfarm segment. The rural-farm segment of both populations, however, have the smallest proportions of persons graduating from high school.

Since the educational status, as measured by the median number of school years completed, is generally higher for women than for men among the native-born Chinese population and reversed among the foreign-born Chinese population, it might be supposed that the same is true in the level of school attainment. However, this is only partially true. As shown in Table XXXIV, high school and college graduates are relatively more numerous among native-born Chinese women 25 years old and over than among the native-born men. On the other hand, more men than women receive no schooling among the native-born Chinese-Americans. But, among the foreign-born Chinese-Americans 25 years old and over there is no difference in this respect between sexes. At the college level, the women do a little better than the men, in spite of the fact that the latter report a higher median number of school years completed. The lower median number of school years completed on the part of the foreign-born Chinese females is mainly due to the larger proportion having no schooling.

The higher level of educational attainment by the females characterizes the native-born Chinese in various residence groups. However, no definite pattern is found among the foreign-born Chinese as far as the proportion of high school graduates in various residence groups is concerned.

Occupational Status

In comparing the occupational status of the native-born and foreign-born Chinese populations in this country, it is important to examine differences in proportions in the labor force and the occupational distribution of those employed. These differences are indicated in Table XXXV. In 1940, 57.3 percent of the 26,106 native-born Chinese-Americans 14 years old and over were reported in the labor force. This percentage appears rather small as compared to 72.5 percent of the 36,399 foreign-born Chinese of the same age in the labor force. Not merely is a larger proportion of foreign-born persons in the labor force, but a higher percentage of those in the labor force are employed. Such a favorable employment situation for the foreign-born Chinese prevails in all residence groups. The situation varies somewhat between the sexes. More than two-thirds of the males and less than one-third of the females among the native-born Chinese are in the labor force; four-fifths of the males and one-fifth of the females among the foreign-born Chinese were so reported. Although more males than females are absorbed into the labor force, the proportion of those employed is generally higher for the females than for the males. This is true of both populations.

Residential difference in employment status is much the same for the native-born males and for the foreign-born males. But differences are shown between the native-born females and

TABLE XXXV

EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF THE NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS
14 YEARS OLD AND OVER, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940

Sex and Employment Status	United States			Urban			Rural-nonfarm			Rural-farm		
	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Foreign- born
Both sexes												
Population 14 years & over	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Not in labor force	42.7	27.5	42.3	26.7	48.8	40.5	42.3	23.0	57.7	77.0		
In labor force	57.3	72.5	57.7	73.3	51.2	59.5	57.7	77.0				
Employed	86.4	91.2	86.0	90.7	90.7	93.9	94.5	98.9				
In emergency work	2.1	0.3	2.2	0.3	1.6	6.0	2.0	0.2				
Seeking work	11.4	8.4	11.8	8.9	7.8	0.1	3.4	0.9				
Male												
Population 14 years & over	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Not in labor force	30.5	18.6	30.0	17.6	39.1	34.8	27.9	13.6	72.1	86.4		
In labor force	69.5	81.4	70.0	82.4	60.9	65.2	72.1	86.4				
Employed	86.2	91.2	85.7	90.7	91.4	94.5	95.2	98.9				
In emergency work	2.0	0.3	2.1	0.3	1.5	-	1.7	0.1				
Seeking work	11.7	8.5	12.1	9.0	7.1	5.5	3.1	1.0				

TABLE XXXV, continued

Sex and Employment Status	United States		Urban		Rural-nonfarm		Rural-farm	
	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born
Female								
Population 14 years & over	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Not in labor force	71.9	79.4	71.5	79.3	74.6	75.1	83.5	89.0
In labor force	28.1	20.6	28.5	20.7	25.4	24.9	16.5	10.4
Employed	87.6	92.5	87.8	93.0	85.7	84.9	85.7	100.0
In emergency work	2.7	0.7	2.6	0.8	1.9	-	7.1	-
Seeking work	9.7	6.8	9.6	6.2	12.4	15.1	7.1	-

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population
by Race, Table 7, p.44.

foreign-born females. The former are relatively numerous in the labor force in the urban areas, while the latter contribute more in the rural-nonfarm districts.

In general, the occupational distribution is similar for both native-born and foreign-born Chinese, except for a few minor exceptions which may be noted in Table XXXVI. The largest occupational group among the two employed populations is the "service worker, except domestic," which comprises almost one-third of the total employed persons in both groups.

The next most important occupations for the native-born and foreign-born Chinese populations are "operative and kindred workers," 18 and 24 percent, respectively; "proprietors, managers and officials," 19 and 22 percent, respectively; and "clerical, sales and kindred workers," 15 and 9 percent, respectively. These four occupations make up 81 percent of the total employed native-born Chinese-Americans, and 86 percent of the total employed foreign-born Chinese-Americans.

Of the remaining occupational categories, the native-born show a slightly higher percentage employed as professional and semi-professional workers and as domestic service workers, while the foreign-born show slightly larger percentages of farm laborers. However, these differences often are not great.

In urban centers the largest occupational group for both populations is "service workers, except domestic." In rural-

TABLE XXXVI

MAJOR OCCUPATIONS FOR EMPLOYED NATIVE-BORN AND
FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS, 14 YEARS
OLD AND OVER IN THE UNITED STATES,
BY RESIDENCE, SEX AND REGION, 1940

	Total Employed*	Professional Workers	Semi- Professional Workers	Farmers and Farm Managers	Proprietors, Managers and Officials	Clerical, Sales, and Kindred Workers	Craftsmen, Foremen and Kindred Workers	Operatives and kin- dred workers	Domestic Service Workers	Service Workers ex- cept Domestic	Farm labor- ers and Farm Foremen	Farm labor- ers (Unpaid Family Workers)	Laborers Except Farm
U.S. Total													
Native-born	100.0	2.7	1.5	1.3	18.8	14.6	1.9	18.5	6.7	29.6	1.6	0.1	2.1
Foreign-born	100.0	1.2	0.8	1.2	21.6	9.5	0.9	24.4	5.7	30.2	3.0	0.1	1.4
Male													
Native-born	100.0	1.5	1.5	1.5	20.8	11.6	2.2	18.6	6.0	30.9	1.8	0.1	2.3
Foreign-born	100.0	1.1	0.8	1.2	21.5	9.3	0.9	23.7	5.6	30.8	3.1	0.1	1.4
Female													
Native-born	100.0	6.2	1.3	0.2	6.9	32.1	0.4	18.1	10.5	21.7	0.2	0.3	1.0
Foreign-born	100.0	5.5	1.8	0.2	12.0	14.0	0.2	40.0	8.8	14.8	0.3	0.6	0.6
U.S. Urban													
Native-born	100.0	2.7	1.6	0.3	18.8	14.9	1.9	19.6	6.3	30.8	0.4	*	2.1
Foreign-born	100.0	1.3	0.9	0.2	21.3	9.7	1.0	26.6	5.1	31.6	0.6	-	1.2
Male													
Native-born	100.0	2.1	1.6	0.3	21.0	11.9	2.2	19.7	5.7	32.2	0.5	*	2.2
Foreign-born	100.0	1.1	0.8	0.2	21.7	9.6	1.0	25.9	5.0	32.4	0.6	-	1.2
Female													
Native-born	100.0	5.9	1.3	-	6.8	31.8	0.4	18.9	10.0	22.6	-	-	1.1
Foreign-born	100.0	5.8	1.6	0.2	12.3	12.3	0.2	43.1	8.1	14.8	0.1	-	0.5
U.S. Rural-nonfarm													
Native-born	100.0	3.0	0.6	0.6	25.8	16.5	2.4	8.6	10.3	20.6	5.9	0.3	4.9
Foreign-born	100.0	1.0	0.5	0.7	31.7	12.2	0.4	5.2	12.6	23.1	6.6	-	4.9
Male													
Native-born	100.0	1.6	0.5	0.7	27.9	12.8	2.8	9.0	9.2	22.3	6.7	0.3	5.6
Foreign-born	100.0	0.9	0.3	0.8	32.8	10.7	0.4	4.9	12.6	23.4	7.0	-	5.1
Female													
Native-born	100.0	12.2	1.1	-	11.1	41.1	-	5.6	17.8	8.9	-	-	-
Foreign-born	100.0	2.7	4.1	-	11.0	38.4	-	9.6	12.3	17.8	-	-	1.4
U.S. Rural-farm													
Native-born	100.0	1.1	-	37.4	2.0	3.1	0.6	2.5	10.9	5.3	30.7	4.5	0.6
Foreign-born	100.0	0.1	-	24.8	1.1	0.3	-	0.7	9.3	6.9	54.1	1.3	0.3
Male													
Native-born	100.0	0.9	-	39.2	2.1	1.8	0.6	2.4	10.5	5.7	32.0	3.3	0.6
Foreign-born	100.0	0.1	-	25.3	1.1	0.3	-	0.8	9.0	6.9	54.9	0.6	0.3
Female													
Native-born	100.0	4.2	-	12.5	-	20.8	-	4.2	16.7	-	12.5	20.8	-
Foreign-born	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	31.3	6.3	12.5	37.5	-

*Number of persons not reporting occupation are excluded

*Less than one-tenth of one percent.

Source: 16th Census of U.S. 1940: Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 8, p.47.

nonfarm districts "proprietors, managers and officials" rank first for the two populations. In rural-farm areas more than half of the employed foreign-born Chinese are "farm laborers," whereas "farmers and farm managers" predominate among the employed native-born Chinese-Americans.

Sex differences in occupations are also indicated in Table XXXVI. Although the employed males of both populations are concentrated in the same four major occupations, the occupational distribution among the employed females presents a different picture. The largest occupational group among the native-born females is "clerical, sales and kindred workers," while the "operatives and kindred workers" are most numerous among the foreign-born females. The same situation exists in the urban as well as in the rural-nonfarm areas. In rural-farm districts, however, the native-born males are largely farmers, while a larger percentage of farm laborers exist among the foreign-born males. As may be excepted, most of the native-born and foreign-born females in rural-farm districts are either laborers or unpaid family workers.

Household Composition

In a previous chapter, it was reported that the foreign-born Chinese population contains a large proportion of married men not living with their wives in this country. This abnormal marital status, no doubt, has a greater effect upon the household composition of the foreign-born group than upon the

native-born group. In fact, Table XXXVII indicates that more native-born than foreign-born Chinese are living in private households, 94 compared to 88 percent, respectively. Furthermore, those foreign-born persons living in private households are mostly heads of the households, 42 percent, and not relatives of the head, such as lodgers or hired hands, 31 percent. On the contrary, the households of the native-born Chinese are composed of fewer heads or non-relatives, and of more relatives, such as wives, children and parents. The corresponding percentages are 20, 2 and 68. Therefore, the foreign-born Chinese population maintains more household units with fewer relatives as compared to the native-born Chinese population. In other words, there are evidently many "one-man families," shared by several unrelated persons among the foreign-born Chinese population in this country.

Some residential differences may be observed between native-born and foreign-born Chinese. In the former, the largest percentage in private households is found in the rural-farm areas, and the smallest in the rural-nonfarm areas. Among the latter the largest percentage in private households is found in the urban centers and the smallest in rural-nonfarm districts.

Relatively more females than males are included in the private households. The difference is greater among the foreign-born than among the native-born, especially in the rural-nonfarm districts. Concerning household composition, more than half of the native-born males in the private house-

TABLE XXXVII

HOUSEHOLD COMPOSITION FOR NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940

Household and Sex	United States			Urban			Rural-nonfarm			Rural-farm		
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born
<u>Both sexes</u>												
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Not in private household	5.6	11.7		4.9	10.2		16.1	29.9		4.6		15.2
In private household	94.4	88.3		95.1	89.8		83.9	70.1		95.4		84.8
Head	20.3	42.0		20.5	42.0		18.1	37.7		16.0		30.3
Relative	67.8	26.5		67.7	26.7		68.4	26.1		69.4		20.0
Not relative	1.9	31.5		11.8	31.3		13.5	36.2		14.6		49.7
<u>Male</u>												
Total	100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0		100.0		100.0
Not in private household	7.5	13.3		6.8	11.6		19.8	33.3		5.5		16.4
In private household	92.5	86.7		93.2	88.4		80.2	66.7		94.5		83.6
Head	30.2	47.3		30.6	47.9		27.0	44.4		23.9		34.9
Relative	52.7	15.1		52.5	15.5		54.2	13.0		55.2		8.4
Not relative	17.1	37.6		16.9	36.6		18.8	42.6		20.9		56.7

TABLE XXXVII, continued

Household and Sex	United States			Urban		Rural-nonfarm		Rural-farm	
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born
Female									
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Not in private household	2.2	2.8		1.7	2.2	9.6	9.1	2.8	7.0
In private household	97.8	97.2		98.3	97.8	90.4	90.9	97.2	93.0
Head	3.7	11.4		3.8	11.9	3.9	8.2	1.3	1.4
Relative	92.9	84.2		92.9	84.1	91.4	83.5	95.8	92.5
Not relative	3.4	4.4		3.3	4.0	4.7	8.3	2.9	6.1

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 5, p. 30.

holds are relatives of the head, while nearly one-half of the foreign-born males are heads. Among the females, the native-born Chinese-Americans have a larger percent of persons who are relatives than do the foreign-born, although the majority of both groups are also relatives of the head.

PART FOUR

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER X SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A Summary of Chinese Population in the United States

The growth of the Chinese population in this country can be divided roughly into three periods according to rate of change and the pattern of distribution: (1) 1850 to 1880, a rapid increase with heavy concentration in the West; (2) 1880 to 1920, a gradual decrease with dispersion of numbers to the Eastward; and (3) 1920 to 1940, a short-time increase with a redistribution of numbers in certain states.

The rise and decline of population has been attributed primarily to the fluctuations in Chinese immigration. The available data reveal that a total of four hundred thousand Chinese immigrants were admitted into this country over the past hundred years. Almost three-fourths of the total admitted came before 1882 while Chinese immigration to this country was free from any restriction. The Chinese exclusion law in 1882 and the subsequent legislation has controlled the flow of immigration to a very considerable extent.

Official records on Chinese departures were not available until 1908. Whereas, various sources indicate an excess of arrivals over departures before 1882, the situation has been reversed thereafter.

Due to an abnormal age and sex composition, natural increase has played only a minor role in the growth of the Chinese-American population. The number gained from natural increase could never compensate the loss from excess of departures. The recent increase of the Chinese population seems unjustified on the basis of available migration and vital statistic records. The possible explanation may lie with one or all of the following: (1) under-registration of births in some areas, (2) illegal entrance, and (3) excess of non-immigrant arrivals over non-emigrant departures.

According to the 1940 census, 77,504 Chinese-Americans were enumerated in the continental United States. This number represents six Chinese-Americans in every 10,000 of the national population. Two-thirds are found in the West region. Four-fifths are concentrated in the six states of California, New York, Massachusetts, Illinois, Washington, and Oregon. They are also a highly urbanized people, as nine out of every ten are classified as urban residents. In fact, the overwhelming majority of these urban Chinese-Americans are located in only a few principal metropolitan centers, notably San Francisco and New York City. The Chinese-Americans are predominantly adult males. Chinese women are notoriously scarce, especially at the ages of twenty years and above. This imbalance of the sex ratio is evidenced by the fact that many married men do not live with their wives

in this country, and a majority of marriageable males remain single. This abnormal situation leads to a larger proportion of married females and early marriage for them. Simultaneously, divorced and widowed persons are very few. Generally speaking, the Chinese-Americans 25 years old and over receive less formal education than the comparable group in the total population.

In spite of the fact that a large proportion of Chinese-Americans are included in the labor force, the occupational opportunity for the Chinese-American is rather limited. The records show that more than eighty percent of the total employed Chinese-Americans are confined to one of the following four occupational groups: "service work, except domestic," "operational and kindred work," "proprietors and managers," and "clerical, sale and kindred work." There are about twenty-one thousand Chinese private households in this country. The average size is about three persons for each household.

A Summary of Comparative Study of the Native-born
and Foreign-born Chinese Populations

Factors leading to the change in nativity status. Since the source of potential growth for the foreign-born population is immigration, the excess of departures over arrivals among the Chinese immigrants during the past decades has greatly influenced the decline of this population. High mortality among the foreign-born is another contributing factor for population decrease. Despite many Chinese immigrants returning to China before reaching old age, the concentration of persons in the upper age groups contribute to a high mortality. The arrival of Chinese female immigrants, on the other hand, has been relatively numerous, and in contrast to those who left at an older age, most of them came during the child-bearing ages. These potential mothers have tended to raise the rate of reproduction. In fact, the fertility ratio has been comparatively higher among the Chinese-Americans than among the total population of the United States. Since every birth to Chinese-Americans in this country will be added to the total number of the native-born group, the potential growth of this segment is obviously favorable. Besides, the native-born Chinese-Americans are relatively younger than the foreign-born Chinese. This would mean a lower mortality rate among the native-born, although no detailed vital statistics are available for proof.

Findings. The comparison presented in this study is based on the general assumption that social and cultural divergencies between native-born and foreign-born Chinese-Americans have a direct bearing upon certain demographic phenomena. Accordingly, several hypotheses were set up for testing in the case of Chinese-Americans. The following findings are derived mainly from the verification of these hypotheses which reflect important similarities and dissimilarities shown by the two nativity groups in 1940.

1. Geographical distribution. Both the native-born and foreign-born Chinese-Americans are highly concentrated with respect to geographical distribution. Comparatively speaking, the former is important in the West while the latter is numerous in the North. While a majority of the Chinese-Americans are found in six states, more native-born than foreign-born Chinese-Americans reside in this restricted area.

2. Residence. Neither the native-born nor the foreign-born Chinese-Americans can claim to be rural people since an overwhelming majority of both groups are classified as urban residents. The native-born Chinese-Americans, however, are slightly more urban than the foreign-born Chinese-Americans. The centers of the urban native-born Chinese population are not in the largest cities, such as New York or Chicago. Instead they are located in the cities between 500,000 and 1,000,000 in size. Many of these medium sized cities having

large numbers of native-born Chinese are situated in the West. On the other hand, the centers of urban foreign-born Chinese-Americans are in the cities of 1,000,000 or more, and are located either along the East coast or in the North.

3. Age composition. The native-born Chinese population is made up of large proportions of youth under 20 years old while the foreign-born Chinese population is predominately made up of middle aged persons. The former has a younger age distribution and the latter is more characteristically aged.

4. Balance of the sexes. The sex ratio is lower among the native-born than among the foreign-born Chinese-Americans in all sections of the country. In spite of this fact, the trend toward a lowered sex ratio has been more rapid for the foreign-born than for the native-born Chinese during the past decades.

5. Marital status. The native-born group contains a larger proportion of single persons in contrast to the foreign-born Chinese, who are more largely married persons. Because of the differential in the sex ratio, the numbers of married men living in celibacy and of the marriageable men remaining single are much higher among the foreign-born than among the native-born Chinese-Americans. Furthermore, relatively larger proportions of foreign-born Chinese-Americans, especial-

ly the women, marry at a distinctively earlier age than the native-born Chinese-Americans.

6. Educational status. The median number of school years completed and the level of school attainment, without exception, are higher for the native-born than for the foreign-born Chinese-Americans 25 years old and over. The educational status is generally better for women than for men among the native-born; the reverse is true among the foreign-born Chinese.

7. Occupational status. Proportionately more foreign-born than native-born Chinese-Americans are included in the labor force and are gainfully employed. In general, the occupational distribution is similar for both native-born and foreign-born Chinese. The largest occupational group among the two employed groups is the "service worker, except domestic," which comprises almost one-third of the total employed persons in both groups.

8. Household composition. More native-born than foreign-born Chinese-Americans are living in private households. Yet, the foreign-born Chinese maintain more private household units with fewer relatives than the native-born Chinese. Evidently, there are many "one-man families," shared by several unrelated persons among the foreign-born Chinese-Americans.

Despite the hypothesis that the native-born Chinese-Americans would be less concentrated and more rural than the

foreign-born Chinese-Americans, there is little disparity in these respects between the two groups. On the contrary, the native-born Chinese show somewhat greater concentration in some states and are more urban. The data have verified those hypotheses that the native-born Chinese-Americans are younger in age composition, have lower sex ratios, acquire higher educational status, and marry later than the foreign-born Chinese-Americans. The young age distribution of the native-born Chinese population is attributed to the relatively larger proportion of Chinese women in the child-bearing ages. On the other hand, the excess of adult males among the foreign-born Chinese is undoubtedly the result of a long distance migration which is highly selective of males. The Chinese social customs as well as the legal barrier have also discouraged the entry of Chinese women into this country. The impact of the highly masculine character can be seen from the data regarding marital status. The imbalance of sex, particularly among the foreign-born, may take many years to approach equilibrium, unless there is a change in the present immigration policies. There is a discrepancy between educational attainment and occupational opportunity among the native-born Chinese-Americans. The higher educational status achieved by the native-born does not greatly improve their occupational opportunity. A majority are still holding the same types of occupations as their foreign-born elders. Therefore, the hypothesis that

occupational opportunity is greater for the native-born than for the foreign-born Chinese-Americans seems unjustified. The data being examined here show no conclusive evidence that the native-born Chinese-Americans tend to restrict the family size while the foreign-born Chinese still prefer the larger family.

Probable Trends in the Chinese Population
of the United States

After examining the past and the present status of the Chinese population in this country, and nativity differentials, it seems necessary to add a note concerning the future. Any attempt to make a long range population forecast for the Chinese-American, of course, would be highly improper at present, due to many uncontrolled factors. However, the analysis of the composition and growth of the Chinese-Americans has provided some clues for a general discussion of probable future trends.

In examining the growth of Chinese population in this country, a temporary increase is evident for the last couple of decades. No matter what the precise causes of this increase are, a continued growth will probably continue for the near future. Such a short time increase seems possible on the basis of the facts revealed from studying the demographic data.

First, the coming of age of many native-born Chinese-Americans, the recent arrival of many Chinese war brides, and the general prosperity in this country, all have tended to increase the number of marriages among the Chinese population. Consequently, the rate of reproduction will probably increase.

Second, mortality among the Chinese-Americans should remain stable, if not lowered, due to fewer aged in their population and to the general improvement of health conditions.

Third, the departure of Chinese immigrants will be reduced to a large extent since the arrival of Chinese immigrants is under control and since a gradual adaptation to American life is in process. Unless racial relations in this country take a new turn, the integration of Chinese-Americans into the larger community will be faster than ever before.

In view of the conditions outlined, a continuous increase of Chinese population in this country seems quite probable. However, such an increase can hardly be expected to exceed the number of Chinese-Americans attained during the peak years of the immigration. Nor will it go beyond 0.1 percent of the total population of the United States.¹

Furthermore, as long as the present immigration policy of this country remains unchanged, any large-scale Chinese

¹Warren S. Thompson & P.K. Whelpton, Population Trends in the United States, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1933, p.11.

immigration will be unlikely. This means that the future growth of the Chinese-American population will rely solely upon natural increase, particularly fertility. In spite of the fact that the fertility ratio is relatively high among the Chinese, the trend toward a decline has been in evidence for the past several decades. A decline in fertility may be expected due to the increasing importance of the native-born Chinese-Americans, who are more accessible to the idea of a small-sized, democratic family.

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APPENDIX TABLES

TABLE 1

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF CHINESE OVERSEAS POPULATION¹

Country	Number	Date
Asia:	<u>10,501,192</u>	
Indochina	850,000 ²	1947
Burma	300,000	1947
Siam (Thailand)	2,500,000 ³	1947
British Malaya	2,615,000 ⁴	1947
Sarawak	145,000	1947
British North Borneo	59,000	1941
Dutch East Indies (Indonesia)	1,900,000	1947
Philippine Islands	120,000	1948
Portuguese Timor	3,500	1938
Hongkong	1,500,000	1940
Macao	435,000	--
India	17,314	1944
Ceylon	1,000	1937
Afghanistan	24	1947
Turkey	7,000	1930
Mecca	6,100	1938
Japan	29,461	1947
Korea	12,793	1947
Americas:	<u>209,039</u>	
United States	80,613	1943
Canada	46,000	1937
Mexico	12,500	1943
Guatemala	745	1945
Salvador	167	1944
Nicaragua	1,500	1945
Costa Rica	600	1945
Honduras	400	1944
Panama	2,000	1945
Cuba	32,000	1942
Dominican Republic	362	1945
Haiti	40	1945
British Trinidad	5,000	1938
British Jamaica	8,000	1945
Dutch Curacao	700	1945
Peru	10,915	1940
Chile	1,500	1945
Argentina	200	1945
Brazil	592	1940
Uruguay	55	1945
Colombia	550	1943
Venezuela	1,500	1941
Ecuador	800	1939
Guiana	2,300	1930

TABLE 1, continued

Country	Number	Date
Europe:	<u>53,609</u>	
Great Britain	2,546	1941
U.S.S.R.	29,620	1940
Denmark	900	1940
Switzerland	41	1940
Spain	44	1940
Germany	300	1944
Italy	350	1948
Rumania	16	1940
France	17,000	1948
Portugal	73	1948
Luxemburg	52	1920
Czechoslovakia	250	1932
Belgium	95	1947
Netherlands	2,017	1937
Poland	88	1947
Hungary	49	1929
Yugoslavia	37	1929
Greece	2	1948
Austria	98	1930
Finland	11	1918
Norway	3	1947
Bulgaria	7	1932
Sweden	10	1948
Oceania:	<u>57,274</u>	
Australia	10,439	1947
New Zealand	3,400	1944
Hawaiian Islands	29,237	1941
Fiji Islands	2,000	1940
Samoa Islands	2,198	1940
Nauru Islands	5,000	1940
Tahiti Islands	5,600	1930
Africa:	<u>14,851</u>	
Egypt	22	1948
South Africa	4,000	1937
East Africa	500	1944
Islands in Indian Ocean	10,329	1939
<u>Grand Total</u>	<u>10,835,965</u>	

TABLE 1, continued

¹Data for Indochina, Burma, Siam, British Malaya, Sarawak, British North Borneo, Indonesia, and the Philippines are from the Table of "Ethnic Chinese in Southeast Asia" in Victor Purcell, Chinese in Southeast Asia, p. 2. The source for the remainder comes from the Chinese official report by Overseas Chinese Affairs Commission. See China Handbook 1950, New York: Rockport Press, Inc., 1950, pp. 22-3.

²This figure was estimated by the Ministere de la France d'Outre-Mer in 1947. It includes both legal and ethnic Chinese.

³The Siamese official figure for Chinese in 1947 totaled 792,691 which is understood to represent only those legal Chinese holding alien's registration certificates in that country.

⁴This includes 4,908,000 ethnic Chinese in the Federation of Malaya, and 730,000 in the colony of Singapore.

TABLE 2

ANNUAL ARRIVALS OF CHINESE IMMIGRANTS TO THE
UNITED STATES, 1820 TO 1950

Year ¹	Number ²	Year	Number	Year	Number
1820-1830	3	1881	11,890	1917	1,843
1831-1840	8	1882	39,579	1918	1,576
1841-1850	35	1883	8,031	1919	1,697
		1884	279	1920	2,148
1851	-	1885	22	1911-1920	19,263
1852	-	1886	40		
1853	42	1887	10	1921	4,017
1854	13,100	1888	26	1922	4,465
1855	3,526	1889	118	1923	4,074
1856	4,733	1890	1,716	1924	4,670
1857	5,944	1881-1890	61,711	1925	1,721
1858	5,128			1926	1,375
1859	3,457	1891	2,836	1927	1,051
1860	5,467	1892	2,728	1928	931
1851-1860	41,397	1893	2,828	1929	1,071
		1894	4,018	1930	970
1861	7,518	1895	975	1921-1930	24,345
1862	3,633	1896	1,441		
1863	7,214	1897	3,363	1931	748
1864	2,975	1898	2,071	1932	545
1865	2,942	1899	1,660	1933	44
1866	2,385	1900	1,247	1934	24
1867	3,863	1891-1900	23,167	1935	41
1868	5,157			1936	42
1869	12,874	1901	2,452	1937	59
1870	15,740	1902	1,631	1938	90
1861-1870	64,301	1903	2,192	1939	124
		1904	4,327	1940	106
1871	7,135	1905	1,971	1931-1940	1,823
1872	7,788	1906	1,485		
1873	20,292	1907	770	1941	73
1874	13,776	1908	1,263	1942	13
1875	16,437	1909	1,841	1943	4
1876	22,781	1910	1,770	1944	34
1877	10,594	1901-1910	19,702	1945	109
1878	8,992			1946	233
1879	9,604	1911	1,307	1947	1,136
1880	5,802	1912	1,608	1948	3,574
1871-1880	123,201	1913	2,022	1949	2,490
		1914	2,354	1950	1,289
		1915	2,469	1941-1950	8,955
		1916	2,239		
				Grand Total	
				1820-1950	387,371

¹Years prior to 1868 are calendar years, thereafter fiscal years ended June 30.

TABLE 2, continued

²Figures for 1820 to 1850 are Chinese arrivals.
Figures for 1851 to 1867 are Chinese alien passengers arriving.
Figures for 1868 to 1900 are Immigrants arrived from China.
Figures for 1901 to 1950 are Chinese immigrant aliens.
Figures prior to 1901 refer to country where aliens came, thereafter they are classified by race.

Source: Roderick D. McKenzie, Oriental Exclusion, pp. 185-186.

U.S. Bureau of the Census, Statistical Abstract of the United States, from 1877 to 1950.

TABLE 3

ANNUAL DEPARTURES OF CHINESE EMIGRANTS FROM
THE UNITED STATES, 1908 TO 1950

Year ¹	Number ²	Year	Number
Grand Total	100,239		
1908	3,898		
1909	3,397		
1910	2,383		
1908-1910	9,678		
1911	2,716	1931	3,333
1912	2,549	1932	3,311
1913	2,250	1933	3,500
1914	2,059	1934	2,293
1915	1,959	1935	1,956
1916	2,148	1936	1,605
1917	1,799	1937	1,779
1918	2,239	1938	661
1919	2,062	1939	498
1920	2,961	1940	941
1911-1920	22,742	1931-1940	19,877
1921	5,253	1941	735
1922	6,146	1942	124
1923	3,788	1943	4
1924	3,736	1944	49
1925	3,263	1945	257
1926	2,873	1946	770
1927	4,117	1947	2,168
1928	4,300	1948	2,238
1929	3,496	1949	547
1930	3,404	1950	674
1921-1930	40,376	1941-1950	7,566

¹Fiscal year ended June 30.

²Figures are taken from table classified by race.

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1908 to 1950.

TABLE 4

CHINESE ARRIVED AND DEPARTED FROM SAN FRANCISCO
CUSTOMS HOUSE, 1820 TO 1882

Year	Arrivals	Departures	Year	Arrivals	Departures
1820-1830	3	-	1871	5,542	3,264
1831-1840	8	-	1872	9,773	4,887
1848	3	-	1873	17,075	6,805
1849	325	-	1874	16,085	7,710
1850	450	-	1875	18,021	6,305
			1876	15,481	8,525
1851	2,716	-	1877	9,468	8,161
1852	20,026	1,768	1878	6,675	8,186
1853	4,270	4,421	1879	6,969	9,220
1854	16,084	2,339	1880	5,950	7,496
1855	3,329	3,473			
1856	4,807	3,028	1881	18,561	8,926
1857	5,924	1,932	1882*	26,902	10,366
1858	5,427	2,542			
1859	3,175	2,450			
1860	7,343	2,088			
1861	8,434	3,594			
1862	8,188	2,795			
1863	6,435	2,947			
1864	2,696	3,911			
1865	3,097	2,298			
1866	2,242	3,113			
1867	4,794	4,999			
1868	11,085	4,209			
1869	14,994	4,896			
1870	10,869	4,232			

* Included Jan. 1 to Aug. 4 only.

Source: M.E. Coolidge, Chinese Immigration, p. 489.

E.C. Sandmeyer, The Anti-Chinese Movement in California, p. 16.

TABLE 5

CHINESE IMMIGRANTS ARRIVED AND DEPARTED FROM
THE UNITED STATES, BY AGE, 1901 TO 1932

Year	Chinese Immigrants Admitted							
	Total		Under 16 years		16-44 years		45 years and over	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1901	2,452	100.0	56	2.3	2,309	94.1	87	3.6
1902	1,031	100.0	29	1.8	1,506	92.3	96	5.9
1903	2,192	100.0	32	1.5	2,055	93.7	105	4.8
1904	4,327	100.0	90	2.1	3,804	87.9	433	10.0
1905	1,971	100.0	28	1.4	1,666	84.5	277	14.1
1906	1,485	100.0	67	4.5	1,210	81.5	208	14.0
1907	770	100.0	85	11.0	662	86.0	23	3.0
1908	1,263	100.0	150	11.9	1,064	84.2	49	3.9
1909	1,841	100.0	232	12.6	1,514	82.2	95	5.2
1910	1,770	100.0	221	12.5	1,397	78.9	152	8.6
1911	1,307	100.0	112	8.6	1,049	80.3	146	11.1
1912	1,608	100.0	207	12.9	1,327	82.5	74	4.6
1913	2,022	100.0	189	9.3	1,530	75.7	303	15.0
1914	2,354	100.0	144	6.1	1,736	73.7	474	20.2
1915	2,469	100.0	118	4.8	1,860	75.3	491	19.9
1916	2,239	100.0	149	6.6	1,737	77.6	353	15.8
1917	1,843	100.0	135	7.3	1,481	80.3	227	12.4
1918	1,576	100.0	129	8.2	1,178	74.7	269	17.1
1919	1,697	100.0	172	10.1	1,278	75.3	247	14.6
1920	2,148	100.0	242	11.3	1,712	79.7	194	9.0
1921	4,017	100.0	415	10.7	3,344	83.2	258	6.1
1922	4,465	100.0	461	10.3	3,570	80.0	434	9.7
1923	4,074	100.0	434	10.6	3,084	75.7	556	13.7
1924	4,670	100.0	396	8.5	3,459	74.1	815	17.4
1925	1,721	100.0	76	4.4	1,246	72.4	399	23.2
1926	1,375	100.0	128	9.3	1,001	72.8	246	17.9
1927	1,051	100.0	150	14.3	798	75.9	103	9.8
1928	931	100.0	149	16.0	752	80.8	30	3.2
1929	1,071	100.0	172	16.0	883	82.4	16	1.6
1930	970	100.0	139	14.3	805	83.0	16	2.7
1931	784	100.0	97	13.0	643	86.0	8	1.0
1932	545	100.0	64	11.7	465	85.3	16	3.0

TABLE 5, continued

Year	Chinese Emigrants Departed							
	Total		Under 16 years		16-44 years		45 years and over	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
1901	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1902	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1903	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1904	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1905	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1906	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1907	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
1908	3,898	100.0	33	0.8	1,982	50.8	1,883	48.3
1909	3,397	100.0	30	0.9	1,253	36.9	2,114	62.2
1910	2,383	100.0	57	2.4	950	39.9	1,376	57.7
1911	2,716	100.0	11	0.5	1,036	38.1	1,669	61.4
1912	2,549	100.0	6	0.3	765	30.0	1,778	69.7
1913	2,250	100.0	2	1.7	564	25.1	1,684	73.2
1914	2,059	100.0	7	0.3	506	24.6	1,546	75.1
1915	1,959	100.0	9	0.5	430	21.9	1,520	77.6
1916	2,148	100.0	13	0.6	706	32.9	1,429	66.5
1917	1,799	100.0	19	1.0	611	34.0	1,169	65.0
1918	2,239	100.0	24	1.1	973	43.4	1,242	55.5
1919	2,062	100.0	15	0.7	903	43.8	1,144	55.5
1920	2,961	100.0	13	0.5	1,049	35.4	1,899	64.1
1921	5,253	100.0	37	0.7	1,763	33.6	3,453	65.7
1922	6,146	100.0	31	0.6	2,344	38.1	3,771	61.3
1923	3,788	100.0	26	0.7	1,652	43.6	2,110	55.7
1924	3,736	100.0	39	1.1	1,686	45.1	2,011	53.8
1925	3,263	100.0	44	1.3	1,353	41.5	1,866	57.2
1926	2,873	100.0	24	0.9	1,714	59.6	1,135	39.5
1927	4,117	100.0	29	0.7	2,112	51.3	1,976	48.0
1928	4,300	100.0	58	1.2	2,421	56.3	1,830	42.5
1929	3,496	100.0	41	1.1	2,023	57.9	1,432	41.0
1930	3,404	100.0	74	5.1	1,713	50.3	1,517	44.6
1931	3,333	100.0	41	1.3	1,684	50.5	1,608	48.2
1932	3,311	100.0	62	1.9	1,693	51.1	1,556	47.0

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1901 to 1927.

Annual Report of Commissioner General of Immigration, 1928 to 1932.

TABLE 6

CHINESE IMMIGRANTS ARRIVED TO THE UNITED STATES,
BY SEX, 1853 TO 1880, AND 1903 TO 1935

Year	Number		Year	Number		Year	Number	
	Male	Female		Male	Female		Male	Female
1853	42	-	1873	19,403	889	1915	2,182	287
1854	12,427	673	1874	13,533	243	1916	1,962	277
1855	3,524	2	1875	16,055	382	1917	1,563	280
1856	4,717	16	1876	22,521	260	1918	1,276	300
1857	5,492	452	1877	10,518	76	1919	1,425	272
1858	4,808	320	1878	8,641	351	1920	1,719	429
1859	2,990	467	1879	9,264	340			
1860	5,438	29	1880	5,732	70	1921	3,304	713
						1922	3,622	843
1861	7,003	515	1903	2,152	40	1923	3,239	835
1862	2,983	650	1904	4,209	118	1924	3,732	938
1863	7,213	1	1905	1,883	88	1925	1,526	195
1864	2,811	164	1906	1,397	88	1926	1,182	193
1865	2,932	10	1907	706	64	1927	830	221
1866	2,380	5	1908	1,177	86	1928	668	263
1867	3,859	4	1909	1,706	135	1929	800	271
1868	5,111	46	1910	1,598	172	1930	721	249
1869	11,900	974						
1870	14,624	1,116	1911	1,124	183	1931	523	225
			1912	1,367	241	1932	317	228
1871	6,786	349	1913	1,692	330	1933	-	44
1872	7,605	183	1914	2,052	302	1934	3	21
						1935	-	41

Source: For 1851 to 1880, see Report of Immigration Commission, Vol. 20, Pt. 1 and 2 (1911).

For 1903 to 1935, see Statistical Abstract of the United States, 1903 to 1935.

TABLE 7

CHINESE EMIGRANTS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED
STATES, BY SEX, 1908 TO 1935

Year	Number		Year	Number	
	Male	Female		Male	Female
1908	3,760	138	1923	3,625	163
1909	3,325	72	1924	3,553	183
1910	2,334	49	1925	3,124	139
			1926	2,746	127
1911	2,660	56	1927	3,910	207
1912	2,483	66	1928	4,049	251
1913	2,204	46	1929	3,279	217
1914	2,005	54	1930	3,086	318
1915	1,918	41			
1916	2,093	55	1931	3,097	236
1917	1,735	64	1932	3,061	250
1918	2,156	83	1933	3,179	321
1919	1,979	83	1934	2,103	190
1920	2,844	117	1935	1,761	195
1921	5,112	141			
1922	5,943	203			

Source: Statistical Abstract of the United States, from 1908 through 1935.

TABLE 8

MARITAL STATUS OF CHINESE IMMIGRANTS ARRIVED AND DEPARTED FROM
THE UNITED STATES, 1923 TO 1932

Year	Males						Females					
	Total		Single		Married		Total		Single		Married	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Immigrants												
1923	3,239	100.0	1,314	40.6	1,921	59.3	835	100.0	128	15.3	705	84.4
1924	3,732	100.0	1,112	29.8	2,615	70.1	938	100.0	205	21.9	729	77.7
1925	1,526	100.0	378	24.8	1,148	75.2	195	100.0	71	36.4	121	62.1
1926	1,182	100.0	452	38.2	729	61.7	193	100.0	78	40.4	114	59.1
1927	830	100.0	544	65.5	286	34.4	221	100.0	68	30.8	151	68.3
1928	668	100.0	509	76.2	157	23.5	263	100.0	74	28.1	187	71.1
1929	800	100.0	621	77.6	178	22.3	271	100.0	93	34.3	178	65.7
1930	721	100.0	533	73.9	188	26.1	249	100.0	93	37.3	156	62.7
1931	523	100.0	381	72.8	142	27.2	225	100.0	75	33.3	150	66.7
1932	317	100.0	202	63.7	115	36.3	228	100.0	53	23.2	175	76.8
Emigrants												
1923	3,625	100.0	1,012	27.9	2,609	72.0	163	100.0	60	36.8	102	62.6
1924	3,553	100.0	898	25.3	2,650	74.6	183	100.0	62	33.9	121	66.1
1925	3,124	100.0	619	19.8	2,498	78.0	139	100.0	33	23.7	106	76.3
1926	2,746	100.0	751	27.3	1,987	72.4	127	100.0	44	34.6	83	65.4
1927	3,910	100.0	983	25.1	2,919	74.7	207	100.0	57	27.5	147	71.0
1928	4,049	100.0	1,000	24.7	3,044	75.2	251	100.0	75	29.9	171	68.1
1929	3,279	100.0	782	23.8	2,484	75.8	217	100.0	62	28.6	153	70.5
1930	3,086	100.0	823	26.7	2,242	72.7	318	100.0	89	28.0	222	69.8
1931	3,097	100.0	711	23.0	2,375	76.7	236	100.0	63	26.7	168	71.2
1932	3,061	100.0	649	21.2	2,389	78.0	250	100.0	76	30.4	169	67.6

Source: Annual Report of Commissioner General of Immigration, 1923 to 1932.

TABLE 9

OCCUPATIONAL STATUS OF CHINESE IMMIGRANTS ARRIVED
AND DEPARTED, 1923 TO 1932

Year	Total		Profession- als		Skilled Workers		Miscel- laneous ¹		No occu- pation ²	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Arrivals										
1923	4,074	100.0	157	3.9	73	1.8	2,660	65.3	1,184	29.1
1924	4,670	100.0	293	6.3	111	2.4	3,082	66.0	1,184	25.3
1925	1,721	100.0	41	2.4	75	1.5	1,115	64.8	540	31.4
1926	1,357	100.0	50	3.7	21	1.5	609	44.9	695	51.2
1927	1,051	100.0	29	2.8	21	2.0	199	18.9	802	76.3
1928	931	100.0	33	3.5	9	1.0	76	8.2	813	87.3
1929	1,071	100.0	39	3.6	11	1.0	64	6.0	957	89.4
1930	970	100.0	53	5.5	9	0.9	52	5.4	856	88.2
1931	748	100.0	38	5.1	3	0.4	41	5.5	666	89.0
1932	545	100.0	48	8.8	1	0.2	35	6.4	461	84.6
Departures										
1923	3,788	100.0	60	1.6	94	2.5	3,459	91.3	175	4.6
1924	3,736	100.0	50	1.3	63	1.7	3,414	91.4	209	5.6
1925	3,263	100.0	76	2.3	63	1.9	2,668	81.8	456	14.0
1926	2,873	100.0	71	2.5	57	2.0	2,264	78.8	481	16.7
1927	4,117	100.0	113	2.7	85	2.1	3,220	78.2	699	17.0
1928	4,300	100.0	154	3.6	52	1.2	3,370	78.4	724	16.8
1929	3,496	100.0	99	2.8	44	1.3	2,727	78.0	626	17.9
1930	3,404	100.0	118	3.5	199	5.8	2,295	67.4	792	23.3
1931	3,333	100.0	82	2.5	211	6.3	2,367	71.0	673	20.2
1932	3,311	100.0	89	2.7	264	8.0	2,159	65.2	799	24.1

¹Includes persons such as merchants, bankers, servants, and laborers, etc.

²Includes women and children.

Source: Annual Report of Commissioner General of Immigration, from 1923 through 1932.

TABLE 10

NUMBER OF BIRTHS AND DEATHS FOR CHINESE POPULATION IN
THE UNITED STATES,¹ BY SEX, 1907 TO 1940

Year	Births ²			Deaths ³		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
1907	-	-	-	958	-	-
1908	-	-	-	984	-	-
1909	-	-	-	997	-	-
1910	-	-	-	1,055	-	-
1911	-	-	-	1,060	973	87
1912	-	-	-	1,090	1,011	79
1913	-	-	-	1,053	949	104
1914	-	-	-	1,018	945	73
1915	74	33	41	1,158	1,073	85
1916	97	53	44	1,102	1,020	82
1917	138	88	50	1,249	1,147	102
1918	177	99	78	1,765	1,578	187
1919	700	338	362	1,344	1,235	109
1920	778	391	387	1,324	1,204	120
1921	935	487	448	1,366	1,233	133
1922	1,213	647	566	1,294	1,176	118
1923	1,270	681	589	1,244	1,107	137
1924	1,563	832	731	1,341	1,197	144
1925	1,499	804	695	1,299	1,148	151
1926	1,417	734	683	1,317	1,169	148
1927	1,526	812	714	1,332	1,184	148
1928	1,425	727	698	1,316	1,164	152
1929	1,372	724	648	1,453	1,291	162
1930	1,379	715	664	1,342	1,213	129
1931	1,359	717	642	1,301	1,153	148
1932	1,267	672	595	1,250	1,116	134
1933	1,190	617	573	1,198	1,086	112
1934	1,064	533	531	1,134	1,015	119
1935	970	492	478	1,129	1,034	95
1936	1,007	513	494	1,080	968	112
1937	-	-	-	1,227	1,090	137
1938	-	-	-	1,119	1,009	110
1939	-	-	-	1,128	1,022	106
1940	1,098	-	-	1,184	1,049	135

TABLE 10, continued

¹All data of births and deaths were compiled from the continental U.S. Registration Area which did not cover all of the states until 1933. New York and California, where Chinese are numerous, were admitted in 1906 and 1919 respectively.

²Official records of births for Chinese in the United States began in 1915. There were also no separate records of births for the Chinese between 1937 and 1939, except as included in "Other Race."

³Official records of mortality in this country started in 1900. The Chinese reported deaths, however, were grouped together with Japanese before 1907, and were not broken down by sex between 1907 and 1910.

Source: Bureau of the Census, Dept. of Commerce, Births, Stillbirth and Infant Mortality Statistics for the Birth Registration Area of the United States, from 1915 through 1936, Table 2.

 , Mortality Statistics, from 1907 through 1936.

 , Vital Statistics of the United States, from 1937 through 1940, Part I.

TABLE 11

COMPARISON OF AGE AND SEX SPECIFIC DEATH RATE BETWEEN
CHINESE-AMERICANS AND THE UNITED STATES, 1940

Age	Chinese-American		United States	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Under 5 years	12.8	13.8	14.4	11.3
5 to 14 years	1.1	2.2	1.2	1.2
15 to 24 years	4.7	3.2	2.3	1.8
25 to 44 years	8.8	4.3	4.5	3.6
45 to 64 years	28.8	16.6	18.0	12.5
65 years and over	107.3	66.6	77.5	66.3

Source: Computed from data in Vital Statistics of the United States, 1940.

TABLE 12

DISTRIBUTION OF CHINESE POPULATION BY REGIONS,
DIVISIONS AND STATES, 1850 TO 1940

Regions, Divi- sions, States	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900			1910			1920			1930			1940		
						Total	Native- born	Foreign- born	Total	Native- born	Foreign- born	Total	Native- born	Foreign- born	Total	Native- born	Foreign- born	Total	Native- born	Foreign- born
U.S. Total	758	35,563*	63,199	105,465	107,488	89,863	9,010	80,853	71,531	14,935	56,596	61,639	18,532	43,107	74,954	30,868	44,086	77,504	40,262	37,242
Northeast	49	147	137	1,628	6,177	14,693	1,034	13,659	11,688	2,303	9,385	12,414	3,069	9,345	17,799	5,511	12,218	19,646	8,146	11,500
New England	10	46	90	401	1,488	4,203	414	3,789	3,499	933	2,566	3,602	1,048	2,554	3,794	1,509	2,285	3,238	1,806	1,432
Mid-Atlantic	39	101	47	1,227	4,689	10,490	620	9,870	8,189	1,370	6,819	8,812	2,021	6,791	14,005	4,002	10,003	16,408	6,340	10,068
North central	5	15	9	813	2,351	3,668	267	3,401	4,610	1,143	3,467	6,721	2,102	4,619	8,078	3,043	5,035	6,092	2,864	3,228
E.N. central	5	9	3	390	1,254	2,533	195	2,338	3,415	936	2,479	5,043	1,636	3,407	6,340	2,337	4,003	4,799	2,251	2,548
W.N. central	-	6	6	423	1,097	1,135	72	1,063	1,195	207	988	1,678	466	1,212	1,738	706	1,032	1,293	613	680
South	41	39	222	912	2,116	3,773	377	3,396	3,299	774	2,525	3,900	1,216	2,684	4,194	1,783	2,411	4,926	2,570	2,356
S. Atlantic	8	17	11	74	669	1,791	175	1,616	1,582	374	1,208	1,824	539	1,285	1,869	804	1,065	2,047	1,096	951
E.S. central	-	12	17	90	274	427	62	365	414	102	312	542	183	359	743	303	440	944	458	486
W.S. central	33	10	194	758	1,173	1,555	140	1,415	1,303	298	1,005	1,534	494	1,040	1,582	676	906	1,935	1,016	919
West	663	35,363	62,831	102,102	96,844	67,729	7,332	60,397	51,934	10,715	41,219	38,604	12,145	26,459	44,883	20,531	24,352	46,840	26,682	20,158
Mountains	1	2	9,990	14,274	11,572	7,950	458	7,492	5,614	929	4,685	4,339	1,174	3,165	3,252	1,233	2,019	2,853	1,367	1,486
Pacific	662	35,361	62,841	89,828	85,272	59,779	6,874	52,905	46,320	9,786	36,534	34,265	10,971	23,294	41,631	19,298	22,333	43,987	25,315	18,672
New England																				
Maine	3	3	1	8	73	119	19	100	108	45	63	161	63	98	115	60	55	92	53	39
New Hampshire	-	2	-	14	58	112	11	101	67	14	53	95	30	65	84	33	51	63	24	39
Vermont	-	-	-	-	32	39	5	34	8	2	6	11	7	4	34	15	19	21	7	14
Massachusetts	2	28	87	229	984	2,968	315	2,653	2,582	728	1,854	2,544	756	1,788	2,973	1,187	1,786	2,513	1,424	1,089
Rhode Island	-	2	-	27	69	366	24	342	272	60	212	225	67	158	197	69	128	257	148	109
Connecticut	5	11	2	123	272	599	40	559	462	84	378	566	125	441	391	145	246	292	150	142
Middle Atlantic																				
New York	34	77	29	909	2,935	7,170	416	6,754	5,266	836	4,430	5,793	1,307	4,486	9,665	2,362	7,301	13,731	5,138	8,593
New Jersey	4	3	5	170	608	1,393	76	1,317	1,139	220	919	1,190	270	920	1,783	674	1,109	1,200	505	695
Pennsylvania	1	21	13	148	1,146	1,927	128	1,799	1,784	314	1,470	1,829	444	1,385	2,557	964	1,593	1,477	697	780
E. North central																				
Ohio	3	3	1	109	183	371	50	321	569	176	393	941	320	621	1,425	584	841	921	479	442
Indiana	-	2	-	29	92	207	16	191	276	78	198	283	84	199	279	90	189	208	72	136
Illinois	1	3	1	209	740	1,503	78	1,425	2,103	554	1,549	2,776	870	1,906	3,192	1,094	2,098	2,456	1,117	1,339
Michigan	1	-	1	27	120	240	29	211	241	63	178	792	280	512	1,081	428	653	924	432	492
Wisconsin	-	1	-	16	119	212	22	190	226	65	161	251	82	169	363	141	222	290	151	139
W. North central																				
Minnesota	-	-	-	24	94	166	20	146	275	38	237	508	153	355	524	210	314	551	258	293
Iowa	-	3	3	33	64	104	13	91	97	24	73	235	55	180	153	59	94	81	30	51
Missouri	-	3	3	91	409	449	10	439	535	84	451	412	105	307	634	250	384	334	179	155
North Dakota	-	-	-	8	28	32	2	30	39	12	27	124	32	92	103	33	70	56	23	33
South Dakota	-	-	-	230	195	165	16	149	121	24	97	142	47	95	70	25	45	36	15	21
Nebraska	-	-	-	18	214	180	8	172	112	23	89	189	55	134	194	101	93	102	65	37
Kansas	-	-	-	19	93	39	3	36	16	2	14	68	19	49	60	28	32	133	43	90

2. The second part outlines the specific procedures for recording transactions. It details the steps involved in the accounting process, from the initial entry to the final reconciliation.

3. The third part addresses the role of the accounting department in ensuring compliance with relevant regulations and standards. It highlights the need for ongoing monitoring and reporting.

4. The fourth part discusses the importance of regular audits and reviews. It explains how these processes help identify potential issues and ensure the integrity of the financial data.

5. The fifth part provides a summary of the key points discussed in the document. It reiterates the commitment to high standards of financial management and transparency.

6. The sixth part of the document provides a detailed overview of the financial performance of the organization over the past year. It includes a breakdown of revenue, expenses, and profit.

7. The seventh part discusses the challenges faced by the organization and the strategies implemented to address them. It highlights the resilience and adaptability of the management team.

8. The eighth part outlines the future goals and objectives of the organization. It sets a clear vision for the coming years and identifies the key areas for growth.

9. The ninth part provides a summary of the financial data presented in the document. It includes a table showing the key figures and trends.

10. The tenth part concludes the document with a statement of appreciation for the support and cooperation of all stakeholders. It expresses confidence in the organization's future success.

TABLE 12, continued

Regions, Divisions, States	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900			1910			1920			1930			1940		
						Total	Native-born	Foreign-born	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born
South Atlantic																				
Delaware	-	-	-	1	37	51	-	51	30	1	29	43	11	32	38	14	24	39	18	21
Maryland	1	5	2	5	189	544	64	480	378	81	297	371	96	275	492	209	283	437	245	192
D. of Columbia	1	-	3	13	91	455	39	416	369	100	269	461	117	344	398	177	221	656	294	362
Virginia	3	4	4	6	55	243	13	230	154	34	120	278	76	202	293	139	154	208	124	84
West Virginia	-	-	-	5	15	56	11	45	90	31	59	98	39	59	86	28	58	57	24	33
North Carolina	2	-	-	-	32	51	8	43	80	20	60	88	26	62	68	22	46	83	42	41
South Carolina	1	3	1	9	34	67	7	60	57	11	46	93	30	63	41	17	24	27	15	12
Georgia	-	5	1	17	108	204	26	178	233	60	173	211	65	146	253	113	140	326	213	113
Florida	-	-	-	18	108	120	7	113	191	36	155	181	79	102	200	85	115	214	121	93
E. South central																				
Kentucky	-	8	1	10	28	57	13	44	52	20	32	62	23	39	60	24	36	100	64	36
Tennessee	-	2	-	25	51	75	11	64	43	5	38	57	19	38	70	25	45	60	25	35
Alabama	-	-	-	4	48	58	4	54	62	18	44	59	24	35	52	28	24	41	27	14
Mississippi	-	-	16	51	147	237	34	203	257	59	198	364	117	247	561	226	335	743	342	401
W. South central																				
Arkansas	-	-	98	133	92	62	13	49	62	18	44	113	47	66	251	90	161	432	241	191
Louisiana	33	10	71	489	333	599	51	548	507	161	346	387	129	258	422	207	215	360	205	155
Oklahoma	-	-	-	-	25	58	-	58	139	14	125	261	90	171	206	89	117	112	64	48
Texas	-	-	25	136	710	836	76	760	595	105	490	773	228	545	703	290	413	1,031	506	525
Mountains																				
Montana	-	-	1,949	1,765	2,532	1,739	76	1,663	1,285	186	1,099	872	222	650	486	172	314	258	115	143
Idaho	-	-	4,274	3,379	2,007	1,467	57	1,410	859	84	775	585	93	492	335	79	256	208	66	142
Wyoming	-	-	143	914	465	461	39	422	246	41	205	252	63	189	130	45	85	102	43	59
Colorado	-	-	7	612	1,398	599	25	574	373	57	316	291	85	206	233	85	148	216	92	124
New Mexico	-	1	-	57	351	341	31	310	248	46	202	171	50	121	133	57	76	106	60	46
Arizona	-	-	20	1,630	1,170	1,419	126	1,293	1,305	287	1,018	1,137	411	726	1,110	492	618	1,449	753	696
Utah	1	1	445	501	806	572	30	542	371	59	312	342	92	250	342	128	214	228	120	108
Nevada	-	-	3,152	5,416	2,833	1,352	74	1,278	927	169	758	689	158	531	483	175	308	286	118	168
Pacific																				
Washington	-	1	234	3,186	3,260	3,629	198	3,431	2,709	418	2,291	2,363	671	1,692	2,195	908	1,287	2,345	1,185	1,160
Oregon	2	425	3,330	9,510	9,540	10,397	1,055	9,342	7,363	898	6,465	3,090	944	2,146	2,075	1,070	1,005	2,086	1,250	836
California	660	34,933	49,277	75,132	72,472	45,753	5,621	40,132	36,248	8,470	27,778	28,812	9,356	19,456	37,361	17,320	20,041	39,556	22,880	16,676

*The total number indicated here is different from the one of 34,933 which appears on Table 4 of 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1, p. 19.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1 to 7, Table 4 for each state.

TABLE 13

CHINESE POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES, BY
RESIDENCE AND STATE, 1940

Division and State	U.S. Total		Urban		Rural	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
New England	3,238	100.0	3,079	95.1	159	4.9
Maine	92	100.0	89	96.7	3	3.3
New Hampshire	63	100.0	56	88.9	7	11.1
Vermont	21	100.0	19	90.5	2	9.5
Massachusetts	2,513	100.0	2,428	96.6	85	3.4
Rhode Island	257	100.0	245	95.3	12	4.7
Connecticut	292	100.0	242	82.9	50	17.1
Middle Atlantic	16,408	100.0	16,062	97.9	346	2.1
New York	13,731	100.0	13,494	98.3	237	1.7
New Jersey	1,200	100.0	1,128	94.0	72	6.0
Pennsylvania	1,477	100.0	1,440	97.5	37	2.5
East North central	4,799	100.0	4,646	96.8	153	3.2
Ohio	921	100.0	905	98.3	16	1.7
Indiana	208	100.0	207	99.5	1	0.5
Illinois	2,456	100.0	2,381	96.9	75	3.1
Michigan	924	100.0	877	94.9	47	5.1
Wisconsin	290	100.0	276	95.2	14	4.8
West North central	1,293	100.0	1,159	89.6	134	10.4
Minnesota	551	100.0	532	96.6	19	3.3
Iowa	81	100.0	75	92.6	6	7.4
Missouri	334	100.0	302	90.4	32	9.6
North Dakota	56	100.0	52	92.9	4	7.1
South Dakota	36	100.0	30	83.3	6	16.7
Nebraska	102	100.0	99	97.1	3	2.9
Kansas	133	100.0	69	51.9	64	48.1
South Atlantic	2,047	100.0	1,903	93.0	144	7.0
Delaware	39	100.0	38	97.4	1	2.6
Maryland	437	100.0	405	92.7	32	7.3
D. of Columbia	656	100.0	656	100.0	-	-
Virginia	208	100.0	198	95.2	10	4.8
West Virginia	57	100.0	54	94.7	3	5.3
North Carolina	83	100.0	71	85.5	12	14.5
South Carolina	27	100.0	22	81.5	5	18.5
Georgia	326	100.0	314	96.3	12	3.7
Florida	214	100.0	145	67.8	69	32.2

TABLE 13, continued

Division and State	U.S. Total		Urban		Rural	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
East South central	944	100.0	404	42.8	540	57.2
Kentucky	100	100.0	56	56.0	44	44.0
Tennessee	60	100.0	54	90.0	6	10.0
Alabama	41	100.0	36	87.8	5	12.2
Mississippi	743	100.0	258	34.7	485	65.3
West South central	1,935	100.0	1,593	82.3	342	17.7
Arkansas	432	100.0	192	44.4	240	55.6
Louisiana	360	100.0	307	85.3	53	14.7
Oklahoma	112	100.0	105	93.8	7	6.2
Texas	1,031	100.0	989	95.9	42	4.1
Mountain	2,853	100.0	2,079	72.9	774	27.1
Montana	258	100.0	225	87.2	33	12.8
Idaho	208	100.0	116	55.8	92	44.2
Wyoming	102	100.0	91	89.2	11	10.8
Colorado	216	100.0	205	95.0	11	5.0
New Mexico	106	100.0	84	79.2	22	20.8
Arizona	1,449	100.0	992	68.5	457	31.5
Utah	228	100.0	214	93.9	14	6.1
Nevada	286	100.0	152	53.1	134	46.9
Pacific	43,987	100.0	39,301	89.3	4,686	10.7
Washington	2,345	100.0	2,215	94.5	130	5.5
Oregon	2,086	100.0	1,909	91.5	177	8.5
California	39,556	100.0	35,177	88.9	4,379	11.1

Source: 16th Census of U.S., Population, Vol. II, Pt. 1 to 7, Table 6 for each state, except District of Columbia, Table 2.

TABLE 14

NUMBER OF CHINESE POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES,
BY NATIVITY, RESIDENCE AND STATE, 1940

Division and State	Urban			Rural		
	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born
New England	3,079	1,740	1,339	159	66	93
Maine	89	52	37	3	1	2
New Hampshire	56	18	38	7	6	1
Vermont	19	5	14	2	2	-
Massachusetts	2,428	1,390	1,038	85	34	51
Rhode Island	245	144	101	12	4	8
Connecticut	242	131	111	50	19	31
Middle Atlantic	16,062	6,197	9,865	346	143	203
New York	13,494	5,055	8,439	237	83	154
New Jersey	1,128	463	665	72	42	30
Pennsylvania	1,440	679	761	37	18	19
East North central	4,646	2,183	2,463	153	68	85
Ohio	905	468	437	16	11	5
Indiana	207	71	136	1	1	-
Illinois	2,381	1,091	1,290	75	26	49
Michigan	877	415	462	47	17	30
Wisconsin	276	138	138	14	13	1
West North central	1,159	537	622	141	76	65
Minnesota	532	245	287	19	13	6
Iowa	75	26	49	13	4	9
Missouri	302	156	146	32	23	9
North Dakota	52	19	33	4	4	-
South Dakota	30	10	20	6	5	1
Nebraska	99	63	36	3	2	1
Kansas	69	18	51	64	25	39
South Atlantic	1,247	714	533	144	88	56
Delaware	38	18	20	1	-	1
Maryland	405	228	177	32	17	15
D. of Columbia						
Virginia	198	118	80	10	6	4
West Virginia	54	24	30	3	-	3
North Carolina	71	34	37	12	8	4
South Carolina	22	12	10	5	3	2
Georgia	314	205	109	12	8	4
Florida	145	75	70	69	46	23

TABLE 14, continued

Division and State	Urban			Rural		
	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born
East South central	404	193	211	540	265	275
Kentucky	56	36	20	44	28	16
Tennessee	54	24	30	6	1	5
Alabama	36	22	14	5	5	-
Mississippi	258	111	147	485	231	254
West South central	1,593	829	764	342	187	155
Arkansas	192	105	87	240	136	104
Louisiana	307	182	125	53	23	30
Oklahoma	105	58	47	7	6	1
Texas	989	484	505	42	22	20
Mountain	2,079	1,029	1,050	774	338	436
Montana	225	104	121	33	11	22
Idaho	116	34	82	92	32	60
Wyoming	91	43	48	11	-	11
Colorado	205	82	123	11	10	1
New Mexico	84	47	37	22	13	9
Arizona	992	535	457	457	218	239
Utah	214	115	99	14	5	9
Nevada	152	69	83	134	49	85
Pacific	39,301	23,040	16,261	4,686	2,275	2,411
Washington	2,215	1,117	1,098	130	68	62
Oregon	1,909	1,152	757	177	98	79
California	35,177	20,771	14,406	4,379	2,109	2,270

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II,
Pt. 1 to 7, Table 6 for each state.

TABLE 15
AGE DISTRIBUTION FOR CHINESE POPULATION IN THE
UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940

Age	U.S. Total		Urban		Rural-nonfarm		Rural-farm	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
All ages	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Under 5 years	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.8	2.7	2.5
5 to 9 years	3.7	3.3	3.7	3.3	3.6	3.1	3.9	3.9
10 to 14 years	4.8	3.7	4.7	3.7	4.6	4.0	6.1	3.8
15 to 19 years	6.2	3.3	6.2	3.3	5.9	3.0	5.0	2.9
20 to 24 years	4.6	2.3	4.6	2.3	5.1	2.3	2.4	1.1
25 to 29 years	5.9	2.0	5.9	2.0	6.0	1.5	3.6	1.2
30 to 34 years	6.5	1.7	6.6	1.8	5.8	1.3	4.3	0.8
35 to 39 years	8.0	1.9	8.0	1.9	7.9	1.8	6.2	1.5
40 to 44 years	8.4	1.6	8.5	1.6	7.5	1.4	8.0	1.8
45 to 49 years	7.0	1.2	7.0	1.2	6.8	1.2	9.3	0.8
50 to 54 years	5.3	0.8	5.2	0.8	5.9	0.8	7.2	1.0
55 to 59 years	3.6	0.5	3.6	0.5	3.5	0.5	5.7	0.4
60 to 64 years	3.0	0.4	3.0	0.4	3.0	0.4	4.9	0.3
65 to 74 years	3.0	0.3	2.9	0.3	3.5	0.4	4.8	0.3
75 years & over	1.2	0.08	1.0	0.08	3.5	0.1	3.0	0.08

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 3, p. 8.

TABLE 16

AGE DISTRIBUTION FOR CHINESE POPULATION IN THE
UNITED STATES, BY SEX AND REGIONS, 1940

Age	N. Eastern		N. Central		South		West	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
All ages	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Under 5 years	2.0	2.0	2.3	2.8	4.3	4.8	3.1	2.9
5 to 9 years	2.4	2.2	3.6	3.1	4.6	4.0	4.1	3.8
10 to 14 years	3.1	2.2	4.1	3.2	5.4	3.6	5.5	4.4
15 to 19 years	4.2	1.8	5.8	2.6	6.1	3.1	7.0	4.0
20 to 24 years	3.6	1.3	4.9	1.8	4.5	2.3	4.9	2.7
25 to 29 years	6.0	1.3	6.2	1.5	6.3	1.9	5.7	2.3
30 to 34 years	8.0	1.4	6.3	1.3	6.0	1.7	5.9	1.9
35 to 39 years	12.5	1.2	7.6	1.4	6.5	1.8	6.3	2.2
40 to 44 years	13.2	1.1	8.9	1.7	7.4	1.7	6.4	1.8
45 to 49 years	9.7	0.7	8.2	1.3	6.0	1.4	5.9	1.4
50 to 54 years	7.4	0.8	6.4	0.5	4.8	0.8	4.3	1.0
55 to 59 years	4.7	0.2	4.5	0.3	3.2	0.3	3.1	0.7
60 to 64 years	3.6	0.1	3.6	0.2	3.3	0.2	2.7	0.5
65 to 74 years	2.7	0.1	4.0	0.2	2.8	0.2	3.0	0.4
75 years & over	0.4	0.02	0.9	0.1	0.9	0.1	1.6	0.1

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 3, pp. 11-15.

TABLE 17
SEX RATIOS BY AGE AND RESIDENCE FOR CHINESE
POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1940

Age	U.S. Total	Urban	Rural-nonfarm	Rural-farm
All ages	285.3	282.5	305.2	336.3
Under 5 years	100.5	100.7	94.1	*
5 to 9 years	110.6	110.6	116.3	*
10 to 14 years	128.5	128.4	114.9	*
15 to 19 years	188.0	187.9	196.6	*
20 to 24 years	201.0	199.5	220.4	*
25 to 29 years	296.7	291.9	385.5	*
30 to 34 years	371.4	365.7	*	*
35 to 39 years	425.3	425.0	446.8	*
40 to 44 years	525.7	528.3	541.2	*
45 to 49 years	572.4	562.3	*	*
50 to 54 years	665.5	660.2	*	*
55 to 59 years	717.9	702.0	*	*
60 to 64 years	803.4	785.1	*	*
65 to 74 years	920.3	908.1	*	*
75 years and over	*	*	*	*

* Base less than 100.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 3, p.8.

TABLE 18
SEX RATIOS BY AGE AND REGIONS FOR CHINESE
POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES, 1940

Age	N. Eastern	N. Central	South	West
Under 5 years	100.5	80.9	87.9	105.2
5 to 9 years	110.6	115.9	113.6	109.6
10 to 14 years	140.9	128.4	150.0	124.1
15 to 19 years	230.3	224.5	196.7	176.1
20 to 24 years	280.9	279.6	193.1	179.1
25 to 29 years	457.7	*	*	246.3
30 to 34 years	568.7	*	*	304.8
35 to 39 years	1,035.9	*	*	282.1
40 to 44 years	1,167.6	535.3	*	361.9
45 to 49 years	1,281.9	*	*	418.7
50 to 54 years	*	*	*	427.5
55 to 59 years	*	*	*	456.7
60 to 64 years	*	*	*	518.8
65 to 74 years	*	*	*	679.4
75 years and over	*	*	*	*

* Base less than 100.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 3, pp. 11-15.

TABLE 19

MARITAL STATUS OF CHINESE POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OVER IN THE
UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940

Sex and Marital Status	Number				Percentage			
	U.S.	Urban	Rural- nonfarm	Rural- farm	U.S.	Urban	Rural- nonfarm	Rural- farm
Male								
Total	48,633	43,941	3,152	1,540	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	21,352	19,053	1,536	763	43.9	43.4	48.7	49.5
Married	25,790	23,566	1,499	725	53.0	53.6	47.6	47.1
Widowed	1,314	1,175	95	44	2.7	2.7	3.0	2.9
Divorced	177	147	22	8	0.4	0.3	0.7	0.5
Female								
Total	12,463	11,436	723	304	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	4,163	3,823	237	103	33.4	33.4	32.8	33.9
Married	7,155	6,550	421	184	57.4	57.3	58.2	60.5
Widowed	1,070	993	62	15	8.6	8.7	8.6	4.9
Divorced	75	70	3	2	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.7

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite
Population by Race, Table 4, p. 17.

TABLE 20

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF SINGLE, MARRIED, WIDOWED, AND DIVORCED CHINESE
PERSONS 15 YEARS AND OVER IN THE UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE, 1940

Age and Residence	Male 15 Years and Over			Female 15 Years and Over		
	Total	Single	Married & Divorced	Total	Single	Married & Divorced
U.S. Total						
15 - 24	100.0	91.9	8.0	100.0	80.2	19.5
25 - 34	100.0	46.6	52.5	100.0	17.4	80.0
35 & over	100.0	30.0	65.3	100.0	3.9	75.9
Urban						
15 - 24	100.0	91.8	8.1	100.0	80.3	19.3
25 - 34	100.0	46.0	53.2	100.0	17.2	80.1
35 & over	100.0	29.1	66.3	100.0	3.8	75.6
Rural-nonfarm						
15 - 24	100.0	92.7	7.2	100.0	73.8	25.7
25 - 34	100.0	50.3	48.0	100.0	20.0	79.2
35 & over	100.0	36.6	58.0	100.0	5.2	75.2
Rural-farm						
15 - 24	100.0	93.7	6.2	100.0	88.6	10.3
25 - 34	100.0	63.3	36.1	100.0	24.0	76.0
35 & over	100.0	40.6	55.0	100.0	3.1	86.6

Source: 16th Census of U.S., Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite
Population by Race, Table 4, pp. 17-19.

TABLE 21

NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATION IN THE
UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND REGIONS, 1940

Residence and Region	Number		Percentage	
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born
United States	40,262	37,242	100.0	100.0
Urban	36,756	33,470	91.3	89.7
Rural-nonfarm	2,372	2,515	5.9	6.8
Rural-farm	1,134	1,257	2.8	3.5
Northeastern	8,146	11,500	100.0	100.0
Urban	7,937	11,204	97.4	97.4
Rural-nonfarm	161	245	2.0	2.1
Rural-farm	48	51	0.6	0.5
North central	2,864	3,228	100.0	100.0
Urban	2,720	3,085	95.0	95.6
Rural-nonfarm	118	130	4.1	4.0
Rural-farm	26	13	0.9	0.4
South	2,570	2,356	100.0	100.0
Urban	2,030	1,870	79.0	79.4
Rural-nonfarm	466	442	18.1	18.8
Rural-farm	74	44	2.9	1.8
West	26,682	20,158	100.0	100.0
Urban	24,069	17,311	90.2	85.9
Rural-nonfarm	1,627	1,698	6.1	8.4
Rural-farm	986	1,149	3.7	5.7

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 3, pp. 7-16.

TABLE 22

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN
CHINESE POPULATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES, BY
RESIDENCE AND STATE, 1940

State	Native-born			Foreign-born		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
New England						
Maine	100.0	98.1	1.9	100.0	94.9	5.1
New Hampshire	100.0	75.0	25.0	100.0	97.4	2.6
Vermont	100.0	71.4	28.6	100.0	100.0	-
Massachusetts	100.0	97.6	2.4	100.0	95.3	4.7
Rhode Island	100.0	97.3	2.7	100.0	92.7	7.3
Connecticut	100.0	87.3	12.7	100.0	78.2	21.8
Middle Atlantic						
New York	100.0	98.4	1.6	100.0	98.2	1.8
New Jersey	100.0	91.7	8.3	100.0	95.7	4.3
Pennsylvania	100.0	97.4	2.6	100.0	97.6	2.4
East North central						
Ohio	100.0	97.7	2.3	100.0	98.9	1.1
Indiana	100.0	98.6	1.4	100.0	100.0	-
Illinois	100.0	97.7	2.3	100.0	96.3	3.7
Michigan	100.0	96.1	3.9	100.0	93.9	6.1
Wisconsin	100.0	91.4	8.6	100.0	99.3	0.7
West North central						
Minnesota	100.0	95.0	1.5	100.0	98.0	2.0
Iowa	100.0	86.7	13.3	100.0	96.1	3.9
Missouri	100.0	87.2	12.8	100.0	94.2	5.8
North Dakota	100.0	82.6	17.4	100.0	100.0	-
South Dakota	100.0	66.7	33.3	100.0	95.2	4.8
Nebraska	100.0	96.9	3.1	100.0	97.3	2.7
Kansas	100.0	41.9	58.1	100.0	56.7	43.3
South Atlantic						
Delaware	100.0	100.0	-	100.0	95.2	4.8
Maryland	100.0	93.1	6.9	100.0	92.2	7.8
D. of Columbia	100.0			100.0		
Virginia	100.0	95.2	4.8	100.0	95.2	4.8
West Virginia	100.0	100.0	-	100.0	90.9	9.1
North Carolina	100.0	81.0	19.0	100.0	90.2	9.8
South Carolina	100.0	80.0	20.0	100.0	83.3	16.7
Georgia	100.0	96.2	3.8	100.0	96.5	3.5
Florida	100.0	62.0	38.0	100.0	75.3	24.7

TABLE 22, continued

State	Native-born			Foreign-born		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
East South Central						
Kentucky	100.0	56.3	43.7	100.0	55.6	44.4
Tennessee	100.0	96.0	14.0	100.0	85.7	14.3
Alabama	100.0	81.5	18.5	100.0	100.0	-
Mississippi	100.0	32.5	67.5	100.0	36.7	63.3
West South central						
Arkansas	100.0	43.6	56.4	100.0	45.5	54.5
Louisiana	100.0	88.8	11.2	100.0	80.6	19.4
Oklahoma	100.0	90.6	9.4	100.0	97.9	2.1
Texas	100.0	95.7	4.3	100.0	96.2	3.8
Mountain						
Montana	100.0	90.4	9.6	100.0	84.6	15.4
Idaho	100.0	51.5	48.5	100.0	57.7	42.3
Wyoming	100.0	100.0	-	100.0	81.4	18.6
Colorado	100.0	89.1	10.9	100.0	99.2	0.8
New Mexico	100.0	78.3	21.7	100.0	80.4	19.6
Arizona	100.0	71.0	29.0	100.0	65.7	34.3
Utah	100.0	95.8	4.2	100.0	91.7	9.3
Nevada	100.0	58.5	41.5	100.0	49.4	50.6
Pacific						
Washington	100.0	94.3	5.7	100.0	94.7	5.3
Oregon	100.0	92.2	7.8	100.0	90.6	9.4
California	100.0	90.8	9.2	100.0	86.4	13.6

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol II,
Pt. 1 to 7, Table 6 for each state.

TABLE 23

TRENDS IN THE PERCENTAGE OF NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN
CHINESE POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES, BY
RESIDENCE, 1910 TO 1940

Year	Native-born			Foreign-born		
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural
Number						
1910	14,935	12,534	2,401	56,596	41,797	12,799
1920	18,532	15,730	2,802	43,107	34,778	8,829
1930	30,868	27,401	3,476	44,086	38,377	5,709
1940	40,262	36,756	3,506	37,242	33,470	3,772
Percentage						
1910	100.0	83.9	16.1	100.0	73.9	26.1
1920	100.0	84.9	15.1	100.0	80.7	19.3
1930	100.0	88.8	11.2	100.0	87.1	12.9
1940	100.0	91.3	8.7	100.0	89.9	10.1

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II,
Pt. 1, Table 6, p. 21.

TABLE 24
AGE DISTRIBUTION FOR NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS
IN THE UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940

Age	U.S. Total						Rural-nonfarm						Rural-farm					
	Native-born			Foreign-born			Native-born			Foreign-born			Native-born			Foreign-born		
	M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F		M	F	
All ages	100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0		100.0	100.0	
Under 5 years	5.3	5.3	0.1	0.1			5.3	5.3	0.2	0.1			5.2	5.5	0.2	0.2		
5 to 9 years	6.7	6.2	0.5	0.3			6.6	6.1	0.5	0.3			6.9	6.4	0.6	0.1		
10 to 14 years	7.8	6.9	1.5	0.3			7.7	6.8	1.5	0.3			7.5	7.8	1.8	0.4		
15 to 19 years	7.5	5.8	4.7	0.5			7.5	5.8	4.8	0.5			7.3	5.7	4.6	0.5		
20 to 24 years	4.5	3.5	4.7	0.9			4.5	3.6	4.7	0.9			4.8	3.5	5.4	1.2		
25 to 29 years	4.1	2.5	7.8	1.4			4.2	2.6	7.9	1.4			3.2	1.5	8.6	1.6		
30 to 34 years	3.7	1.6	9.5	1.9			3.8	1.7	9.7	1.9			3.0	1.0	8.4	1.6		
35 to 39 years	4.8	1.3	11.4	2.5			4.9	1.3	11.5	2.5			4.4	1.3	11.1	2.1		
40 to 44 years	4.7	1.0	12.4	2.2			4.7	1.0	12.6	2.2			4.6	0.9	10.3	1.8		
45 to 49 years	3.8	0.6	10.5	1.9			3.8	0.6	10.5	1.9			3.9	0.8	9.6	1.6		
50 to 54 years	3.3	0.5	7.5	1.1			3.2	0.5	7.4	1.1			4.4	0.5	7.3	1.2		
55 to 59 years	2.9	0.3	4.4	0.7			2.9	0.3	4.3	0.8			3.1	0.3	3.9	0.7		
60 to 64 years	2.8	0.3	3.4	0.5			2.7	0.3	3.3	0.5			3.3	0.2	2.8	0.6		
65 to 74 years	1.8	0.2	4.3	0.4			1.7	0.3	4.1	0.4			2.0	0.3	4.9	0.5		
75 and over	0.2	0.1	2.4	0.1			0.2	0.1	1.9	0.1			0.5	0.1	6.3	0.1		

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 3, pp. 7-15.

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TABLE 25

AGE DISTRIBUTION FOR NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS
IN THE UNITED STATES, BY SEX AND REGIONS, 1940

Age	Northeast						North central						South						West					
	Native-born			Foreign-born			Native-born			Foreign-born			Native-born			Foreign-born			Native-born			Foreign-born		
	M	F	100.0	M	F	100.0	M	F	100.0	M	F	100.0	M	F	100.0	M	F	100.0	M	F	100.0	M	F	100.0
All ages	100.0	4.7	4.7	0.1	0.1	100.0	100.0	4.7	5.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	8.1	9.1	0.04	0.2	5.3	5.1	100.0	100.0	0.2	0.1	0.2
Under 5 years	4.7	4.7	4.7	0.1	0.1	100.0	100.0	4.7	5.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	8.1	9.1	0.04	0.2	5.3	5.1	100.0	100.0	0.2	0.1	0.2
5 to 9 years	5.5	5.1	5.5	0.3	0.2	100.0	100.0	7.2	6.3	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	8.3	7.6	0.6	0.1	6.8	6.4	100.0	100.0	0.6	0.3	0.6
10 to 14 years	6.0	5.0	6.0	1.0	0.2	100.0	100.0	7.2	6.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	9.0	6.7	1.5	0.3	8.3	7.5	100.0	100.0	1.7	0.4	1.7
15 to 19 years	5.7	3.9	5.7	3.1	0.3	100.0	100.0	6.6	5.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	6.1	5.3	6.0	0.7	8.3	6.5	100.0	100.0	5.4	0.6	5.4
20 to 24 years	3.4	2.2	3.4	3.9	0.6	100.0	100.0	4.0	2.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	3.4	3.2	5.8	1.4	5.0	4.1	100.0	100.0	4.9	1.0	4.9
25 to 29 years	4.3	1.8	4.3	7.3	1.0	100.0	100.0	3.1	1.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	2.6	1.8	10.3	2.0	4.3	2.9	100.0	100.0	7.7	1.5	7.7
30 to 34 years	5.1	1.5	5.1	10.0	1.3	100.0	100.0	2.9	1.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	2.5	1.0	9.8	2.5	3.5	1.7	100.0	100.0	9.2	2.2	9.2
35 to 39 years	9.1	0.9	9.1	14.9	1.4	100.0	100.0	5.3	1.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	3.9	0.7	9.4	2.9	3.6	1.5	100.0	100.0	9.8	3.2	9.8
40 to 44 years	8.5	0.8	8.5	16.5	1.3	100.0	100.0	5.4	1.4	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	4.3	0.8	10.7	2.7	3.4	1.1	100.0	100.0	10.4	2.7	10.4
45 to 49 years	6.4	0.4	6.4	12.1	1.0	100.0	100.0	5.4	0.7	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	3.0	0.7	9.3	2.1	2.9	0.7	100.0	100.0	9.8	2.3	9.8
50 to 54 years	5.3	0.3	5.3	9.0	0.5	100.0	100.0	4.9	0.5	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	3.3	0.4	6.4	1.2	2.6	0.6	100.0	100.0	6.7	1.6	6.7
55 to 59 years	3.9	0.1	3.9	5.3	0.3	100.0	100.0	4.0	0.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	3.2	0.1	3.2	0.5	2.5	0.4	100.0	100.0	3.9	1.1	3.9
60 to 64 years	3.1	0.1	3.1	4.0	0.1	100.0	100.0	3.4	0.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	2.8	0.03	3.8	0.4	2.6	0.3	100.0	100.0	2.9	0.8	2.9
65 to 74 years	1.9	0.1	1.9	3.3	0.1	100.0	100.0	2.2	0.2	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.5	1.2	4.2	0.1	1.7	0.3	100.0	100.0	4.6	0.6	4.6
75 years & over	0.1	0.02	0.1	0.7	0.01	100.0	100.0	0.2	0.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.1	0.1	1.7	0.04	0.2	1.1	100.0	100.0	3.5	0.2	3.5

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 3, pp. 7-15.

TABLE 26
SEX RATIOS OF NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE
POPULATIONS IN SELECTED STATES, 1940

State	Total	Native-born	Foreign-born
United States	285	176	570
California	224	154	420
Illinois	390	213	830
Massachusetts	366	255	689
New York	602	292	1,236
Oregon	233	155	510
Washington	293	185	544

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II,
Table 6 for each respective state.

TABLE 27
SEX RATIOS BY AGE FOR NATIVE-BORN AND
FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS IN
THE UNITED STATES, 1940

Age	Native-born	Foreign-born
Under 5	99.6	*
5 to 9	108.0	171.4
10 to 14	113.3	544.6
15 to 19	128.8	888.4
20 to 24	126.5	509.3
25 to 29	162.4	554.8
30 to 34	230.2	500.6
35 to 39	376.4	452.4
40 to 44	460.0	557.9
45 to 49	590.0	565.7
50 to 54	655.4	670.4
55 to 59	1,043.0	584.5
60 to 64	1,099.0	649.5
65 to 74	713.0	1,057.6
75 and over	*	*

* Due to base less than 100.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Non-white Population by Race, Table 3, p. 7.

TABLE 28

CHANGE OF SEX RATIOS BY RESIDENCE FOR NATIVE-BORN AND
FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS IN THE UNITED
STATES, 1910 TO 1940

Year	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born	Native-born	Foreign-born
1910	395.5	3,307.3	385.2	2,902.7	475.1	5,401.5
1920	255.4	1,601.1	249.9	1,487.7	289.7	2,254.4
1930	203.4	785.8	198.2	761.6	251.6	991.6
1940	176.5	570.4	175.8	564.6	183.9	626.8

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Vol. II,
Pt. 1, Table 6, p. 21.

TABLE 29a

MARITAL STATUS OF NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS
15 YEARS OLD AND OVER IN THE UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX,
1940

Sex and Marital Status	U.S. Total		Urban		Rural-nonfarm		Rural-farm	
	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born
Male	17,731	30,902	16,208	27,733	1,061	2,091	462	1,078
Single	9,666	11,686	8,785	10,268	618	918	263	500
Married	7,580	18,210	7,002	16,564	400	1,099	178	547
Widowed	391	923	346	829	29	66	16	28
Divorced	94	83	75	72	14	8	5	3
Female	7,150	5,313	6,621	4,815	379	344	150	154
Single	3,696	467	3,409	414	198	39	89	14
Married	2,970	4,185	2,763	3,787	154	267	53	131
Widowed	431	639	400	593	25	37	6	9
Divorced	53	22	49	21	2	1	2	-

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population
by Race, Table 4, pp. 17-19.

TABLE 29b

MARITAL STATUS OF NATIVE-BORN AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS
15 YEARS OLD AND OVER IN THE UNITED STATES, BY RESIDENCE AND SEX,
1940

Sex and Marital Status	U.S. Total			Urban		Rural-nonfarm		Rural-farm	
	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born	Foreign- born	Native- born
Male	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	54.5	37.8	54.2	37.0	58.2	43.9	56.9	46.4	56.9
Married	42.8	58.9	43.2	59.7	37.7	52.5	38.5	50.7	38.5
Widowed	2.2	3.0	2.1	3.0	2.7	3.1	3.5	2.6	3.5
Divorced	0.5	0.3	0.5	0.3	1.4	0.5	1.1	0.3	1.1
Female	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	51.7	8.8	51.5	8.6	52.3	11.3	59.4	9.1	59.4
Married	41.5	78.8	41.8	78.7	40.6	77.6	35.3	85.1	35.3
Widowed	6.0	12.0	6.0	12.3	6.6	10.8	4.0	5.8	4.0
Divorced	0.7	0.4	0.7	0.4	0.5	0.3	1.3	-	1.3

TABLE 30

AGE DISTRIBUTION OF SINGLE, MARRIED, WIDOWED AND DIVORCED NATIVE-BORN
AND FOREIGN-BORN CHINESE POPULATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES,
BY RESIDENCE AND SEX, 1940

Age, Nativity and Residence	Male 15 Years and Over				Female 15 Years and Over					
	Total	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced	Total	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced
United States										
Native-born										
15 - 24	100.0	94.6	5.4	-	-	100.0	84.2	15.6	0.1	0.1
25 - 34	100.0	52.5	46.4	0.3	0.8	100.0	23.5	73.6	1.3	1.6
35 & over	100.0	35.4	60.0	3.9	0.7	100.0	7.9	67.4	23.4	1.3
United States										
Foreign-born										
15 - 24	100.0	88.2	11.7	.02	-	100.0	52.3	47.3	0.4	-
25 - 34	100.0	43.8	55.6	0.4	0.2	100.0	9.3	88.7	1.8	0.2
35 & over	100.0	27.5	67.7	4.3	0.3	100.0	1.9	80.1	17.4	0.6
Urban										
Native-born										
15 - 24	100.0	94.5	5.5	-	-	100.0	84.4	15.4	0.1	0.1
25 - 34	100.0	52.0	46.9	0.2	0.8	100.0	23.3	73.7	1.4	1.6
35 & over	100.0	34.9	60.7	3.8	0.6	100.0	7.6	67.5	23.6	1.3
Urban										
Foreign-born										
15 - 24	100.0	88.2	11.8	.03	-	100.0	52.0	47.6	0.4	-
25 - 34	100.0	43.0	56.4	0.3	0.2	100.0	8.8	89.1	1.9	0.2
35 & over	100.0	26.3	69.0	4.3	0.3	100.0	2.0	79.7	17.8	0.6

TABLE 30, continued

Age, Nativity and Residence	Male 15 Years and Over			Female 15 Years and Over		
	Total	Single	Married	Widowed	Divorced	Total
Rural-nonfarm						
Native-born						
15 - 24	100.0	96.5	3.5	-	-	100.0
25 - 34	100.0	56.5	42.2	0.7	0.7	100.0*
35 & over	100.0	41.0	52.4	4.5	2.1	100.0
Foreign-born						
15 - 24	100.0	88.4	11.6	-	-	100.0*
25 - 34	100.0	48.3	50.1	1.6	1.6	100.0*
35 & over	100.0	34.7	60.6	4.7	4.7	100.0
Rural-farm						
Native-born						
15 - 24	100.0	95.0	5.0	-	-	100.0*
25 - 34	100.0*	67.9	32.1	-	-	100.0*
35 & over	100.0	38.6	54.0	8.0	8.0	100.0*
Foreign-born						
15 - 24	100.0	91.0	9.0	-	-	100.0*
25 - 34	100.0*	61.4	37.8	0.8	0.8	100.0*
35 & over	100.0	41.3	55.4	3.3	3.3	100.0

*Base less than 100.

Source: 16th Census of U.S., 1940, Population, Characteristics of Nonwhite Population by Race, Table 4, p. 17-19.

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