CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter consists of a review and synthesis of the literature on diversity management training programs in the workplace and the potential impact of such programs on the individual. The chapter is divided into four major sections covering supporting paradigms, theories and models; national demographic and employment trends; diversity management training programs; and minority representation within the hospitality industry. The purpose of this chapter is to identify, analyze and integrate the theoretical underpinnings of the model used in the current study.

Supporting Paradigms, Theories and Models
Theoretical Underpinnings (Supporting Paradigms)

Diversity is perceived to be a new issue in the research arena and with that comes the thought that there is little, if any, available knowledge relevant to its development as a research topic. Nkomo and Cox (1996) stated that while researchers may not be able to find theories specifically entitled diversity, there is a great deal of academic support in organizational literature and various theories. Examples of such theories include social identity theory, inter-group theory, racioethnicity and gender research, organizational demography, and ethnology.

Due in part to the fact that there is no one specific theory supporting diversity management programs and/or multicultural programs, a great deal of consideration should be given to the various paradigms that have directed such programs in the workplace and have been available for numerous years.

Organizations have used different paradigms for various means of justifying the promotion of equality amongst employees. Based on the moral and religious premise that everyone is an individual and created equally, thus having more similarities than differences, the Golden Rule Paradigm promotes "doing unto others as you would have done unto you." Followers of this paradigm are most likely to promote the notion that one can be color and gender blind (Palmer, 1994). A similar paradigm entitled the Discrimination-and-Fairness Paradigm focuses on equal opportunity, fair treatment, recruitment, and compliance with federal equal employment requirements (Thomas &

Ely, 1996). The Right-the-Wrongs Paradigm acknowledges the fact that there are certain groups in society that have been systematically disadvantaged and programs promoting equality are justified. Value All Differences and Access-and-Legitimacy Paradigms focus on like issues and concerns. Here leaders seek a work environment in which individuals reach beyond their own experiences to understand and interact effectively with a wide range of others.

While no one paradigm is perfect, one may be better suited for a particular organization because of individual organizational needs. It may be that company A's objective is to stress morality while company B solely wants to tap into niche markets, specifically minority ethnic and gender groups. A new paradigm attempting to bridge the gap between morality and business is the Learning-and-Effectiveness Paradigm. As described by Thomas & Ely, this paradigm, like the Fairness and Golden Rule Paradigm promotes equal opportunity for all individuals; and like the Access and Value All Differences Paradigms, it acknowledges cultural differences among people and recognizes value in those differences (1996). The newly added component allows the organization to internalize differences among employees so that it learns and grows. The paradigm's ability to internalize differences distinguishes this paradigm from the ones of the past.

The use of the Thomas & Ely Learning-and-Effectiveness paradigm, along with a combination of supporting theories and diversity models provides, the most effective way to approach and understand diversity management. Together, these theoretical underpinnings provide the undertones necessary to complete both an ethical and business wise study.

<u>Theories of Minority Integration</u>

Theories of minority integration attempt to explain what happens when members of two or more societies meet. Do they get along on equal terms? Does one society group dominate the other? Is it possible that the two groups can become one? Does the level of integration hinge on when the individual came to the new society and where his/her original home is located? The answer to all of these questions is yes. Minority integration into a new society is seen in two major forms: assimilation and pluralism.

Assimilation

During assimilation, minorities integrating into a new society experience boundary reduction (Yinger, 1981), thus leading to a greater homogeneity in the new society (Abramson, 1980). Seen as a process, assimilation has four possible outcomes. These outcomes include the cultural, biological, social, and psychological fusion of distinct groups to create a new ethnically undifferentiated society (Yinger, 1981). At the point of complete assimilation, once distinct ethnic groups no longer exist. For some, European immigrants especially, this is easily accomplished after one or two generations have lived in the U.S. For others, especially those with physical features different from the host society, this is a difficult to impossible task to complete. Complete assimilation is rarely achieved either for the society as a whole or for the specific groups and individuals trying to fit in (Yinger, 1981). What normally happens is that individuals and minority groups assimilate at one or more, but not all, levels.

Cultural assimilation is the adoption of another's cultural traits, such as religion, language, diet, dress, etc. Under this same category is structural assimilation which is more specific to values, beliefs and lifestyles and an increased social interaction among different ethnic groups. This process is also referred to as acculturation and usually calls for the smaller group to take on the characteristics of the larger group. Biological assimilation is the merging of formally distinct groups, and psychological assimilation is the change in one's self-identity. Biological merging of cultures takes place when unions of individuals from different cultural groups produce children.

The manner in which one assimilates into a society is greatly influenced by several items. They include the manner of entrance to the host country, the time of entrance to the host country, demographic factors, the size and concentration of the assimilating population, cultural similarity to the majority/dominant culture, and the physical differences opposite of the host society (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986; Ogbu, 1992).

Thus, the theory in itself suggests that it is more difficult for Asians, blacks, Hispanics, Native Americans and Pacific Islanders to assimilate into the U.S. culture. Fordham & Ogbu go a step further and theorize that it is most difficult for blacks, Hispanics, and Native Americans to assimilate because of their history with the United

States government and how they came to their host country (1986). This distinction is referred to as voluntary and involuntary minorities.

The Melting Pot Theory is a type of assimilation model. It states that all diverse people blend their differences to form one united society.

Pluralism

Unlike assimilation, pluralism recognizes the persistence of racial and ethnic diversity. Pluralism theorizes that minorities can maintain their distinctive subcultures and simultaneously interact with relative equality in the larger society. Abramson defines pluralism simply as "conditions that produce sustained ethnic differentiation and continued heterogeneity" (1980). These social processes and conditions encourage group diversity and maintenance of group boundaries. There are two main types of pluralism more evident in modern society: equalitarian and inequalitarian. Equalitarian pluralism is characterized by interethnic relations in which groups retain their culture and, for the most part, structural integrity. All of this is to be accomplished while minority group members participate freely and equally with common political and economic institutions (Marger, 1994). Inequalitarian pluralism results in a society in which minority group members receive unequal shares of economic and political power within the various institutions. Here, ethnic groups are not only separated structurally and perhaps culturally, but also exist in a state of highly unequal access to power and privilege (Marger, 1994).

Pluralism theories support the importance of organizations implementing diversity management training programs in hopes of managing the differences that individuals possess and are not willing to give up in the workplace.

Supporting Theories or Research Areas for the Management of Diversity

Ethnology

Ethnology is a branch of anthropology that studies the cultures of contemporary or present societies comparatively. It is used to study the social and cultural characteristics of different groupings of people. When applied to organizational settings,

such studies have primarily focused on group identity based on nationality and have been applicable to the problems of unequal accessibility across identity groups to informal networks in organizations (Nkomo & Cox, 1996).

Embedded Intergroup Theory

The Embedded Intergroup Theory attempts to explain the effects of diversity in identities in organizations (Nkomo & Cox, 1996). Identity groups and organization group membership are thought to be highly related in their effects on social relations in organizations. One's identity group is defined by members who share common biological characteristics such as sex, have participated in equivalent historical experiences, are currently subjected to similar social forces, and as a result have like world views (Alderfer, 1987; Nkomo & Cox, 1996).

The theory has been used to study women and minorities. The research demonstrated how racial group identity influenced cognitions of race relations within the organization (Nkomo & Cox, 1996). The theory also suggests that identity group categorization will always be relevant in an organizational context.

Intergroup Theory

Intergroup theory defines a group as individuals that share common characteristics. The theory notes that some of these common properties are shared among minorities worldwide. Some common traits thought to constitute a minority group follow (Wagley & Harris, 1964).

1. The group receives unequal treatment compared to other individuals with different characteristics.
2. The group is easily identifiable because of distinguishing physical and/or cultural characteristics that are held in low esteem by the dominant culture.
3. The group feels a sense of community, that each of them shares something in common with others like themselves.
4. Membership in the minority group is ascribed.
5. Group members practice endogamy; they tend to marry within their group, either by choice or by necessity because of their social isolation.

Understanding intergroup theory provides insight into why individuals tend to feel more comfortable around like persons.

Organizational Demography

Organizational demography refers to the study of the causes and consequences of the composition or distribution of specific demographic attributes of employees in an organization (Cox, 1993). Its central thrust has been to determine the impact of the demographic composition of organizations or work groups on work outcomes. This, according to Cox, relies heavily on the self-definition of ones' group identity (1993). More information on organizational demography and its role in the present study is presented in the Labor Statistics section of this chapter.

Racio-ethnicity and Gender Research

Prior to the late 1960s, little attention was paid to the issue of race and gender in the study of organizations (Cox & Nkomo, 1990; Dove, 1996; Ghiterlman, 1992; Gregory & Hughes, 1996; and Peceri, 1994), suggesting that employees were void of these identities (Nkomo & Cox, 1996). The topical awakening began shortly after the passage of equal employment opportunity and anti-discrimination legislation. Most of this literature revolved around categories covered by the newly passed legislation: sex, race, national origin, religion and age. The goal of much of the earlier research was to document differential treatment in organizations based on racio-ethnicity and gender (Nkomo & Cox, 1996). These narrowly focused studies often compared only blacks and whites and investigated racism and sexism along with other forms of discrimination.

Social Identity Theory

Originally proposed by Tajfel in 1974, the Social Identity Theory explains the groups' identity affect on human behavior (Nkomo & Cox, 1996; Strobe, Kruglanski, Bar-Tal, and Hewston, 1988; and Sanchez & Brock, 1996). This cognitive theory proposes that individuals tend to classify themselves and others into social categories and these classifications have a significant affect on human interactions and are also used as a means of self-reference (Nkomo & Cox, 1996; Strobe et al., 1988). Categories such as

nationality, ethnicity, and gender are internalized and are thought to constitute a potentially important aspect of the individual's self-concept, the social identity.

This theory suggests that individuals are not a static entity, but when a particular group membership does constitute a salient aspect of the momentary self image, the individual will come to apply the norms and stereotypes associated with that category to oneself and thus come to regard self as interchangeable with other in-group members (Stroebe et al., 1988). Simply put, individuals differ in their thresholds for perceiving groups as entities and differences in self-consciousness may affect an individual's propensity to identify with a particular social group.

In field studies of ethnic prejudice, the theory demonstrates that individual differences may explain variation in prejudice attitudes within rather than between particular social groups (Stroebe et al., 1988). The major contribution in the field of diversity, according to Nkomo and Cox, is the notion that "people within social groups differ in the relative importance that any particular social identity has in their self concept" (1996).

<u>Adams' 1965 Equity Theory (Figure 2.1)</u>

Developed in 1965, equity theory is known primarily as a motivational theory. It was originally designed to answer two major questions: 1) what do people think is fair and equitable; and 2) how do they respond when they feel they are getting far more or far less from their relationships than they deserve? It has been used to predict human reactions in four major areas: exploiter/victim relationships, philanthropist/recipient relationships, business relationships, and intimate relationships (Adams, 1965).

[INSERT ADAMS' MODEL FIGURE 2.1]

The theory attempts to explain satisfaction with outcomes and to predict changes in behavior (Dunham & Smith, 1979).

While the theory suggests equity, it was built around the notion that inequity or inequality exists among individuals. The theory starts with an exchange whereby individuals give something in return for something. The theory asserts that individuals evaluate their own circumstances by comparing them to others' circumstances (Dunham & Smith, 1979). What individuals bring to the relationship is considered to be inputs or investments in the relationship. Their returns on these personal investments are known as outputs.

According to the theory, four different perceptions may influence an individual's evaluation of a situation:

1. the person's perceptions of his or her own inputs to the situation (I_P);
2. the person's perceptions of the inputs of the comparison other to the situation (I_O);
3. the person's perceptions of his or her own outcomes (O_P);
4. the person's perceptions of the outcomes (O_O) of the comparison other.

According to the theory, a person will examine two ratios:

O_P/I_P = the ratio of the person's perceived outcomes to perceived inputs and;

O_O/I_O = the ratio of the person's perceptions of the comparison person's outcomes to the comparison person's inputs.

Upon comparing ratios, one of three conditions is thought to occur for the individual. Two of the three conditions are presented. The third one is beyond the scope of this study.

1. A state of perceived equality, thus the individuals are satisfied with this condition and try to maintain it.
2. The relationship reflects a state of inequality. In this case, the person perceives insufficient outcomes or excessive inputs in reference to the comparison other; thus the individual is dissatisfied with his or her condition and strives for a state of perceived equality. This state of equity or equality may be obtained by doing one or more of the following things:

a. decrease inputs;

b. increase outcomes;

c. distort inputs and/or outcomes cognitively;

d. leave the situation; and/or

e. change comparison other (the person with whom they compare themselves and who they see as their equal)

The model on a whole provides some valuable insight on the determinants of satisfaction and motivation (Dunham & Smith, 1979); more importantly, how employees perceive equity.

Possible inputs for Adams' Equity Theory include age, education, ethnic background, experience, health, intelligence, job effort, personal appearance, possession of tools, seniority, sex, skill, social status, spouse's characteristics, and training. Likely inputs within the equity theory model that are applicable to the business relationship are education, effort, job performance, loyalty, seniority, and skill.

Possible outputs for Adams' equity theory include benefits, fate uncertainty, intrinsic rewards, job perquisites, job status, monotony, pay, poor working conditions, satisfying supervision, seniority, and status symbols. Within the equity theory model that is applicable to the business relationship; job satisfaction, opportunity, pay, privileges, and recognition are used as outputs.

The major difficulty with using this theory is that it does not yield precise hypotheses and predictions (Miner, 1990). It is also unclear how people come to view various factors as inputs and outputs. The Adams' Model takes for granted the weight of importance of the inputs and outputs. There is a fair amount of research on the effectiveness of this model. Most of the studies have found it ineffective except when comparing personal inputs and pay. The 1965 model does not define nor profile the employee and organization, thus leaving a gray area.

Cox's 1993 Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (IMCD) (Figure 2.2)

The Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity is rooted in the belief that the theory of diversity is found in psychology, sociology, anthropology, and organizational behavior. Its framework suggests that a combination of "phenomena related to

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differences in the group identities of workers combine to create potent effects on their career experiences" (Cox, 1993). The basis for this argument states that there are three factors that together explain how a diversity climate influences individual career outcomes and the organizational effectiveness. Diversity climate has three levels of factors: individual-level factors, group/intergroup factors, and organizational-level factors. Please refer to Figure 2.2 for the IMCD.

[INSERT COX'S MODEL FIGURE 2.2]

Individual-level factors are defined by personal identity structures, prejudice attitudes, stereotyping, and personality. Cultural differences, ethnocentrism, and intergroup conflict define group/intergroup-level factors. Cultural and acculturation processes, structural integration, informal integration, and institutional bias in the human resources system define organizational-level factors.

It is proposed that the diversity climate influences the individual career outcomes of individuals in two ways: affective outcomes and achievement outcomes. Affective Outcomes consist of how people feel about their work and their employer. It is measured by job/career satisfaction, organizational identification, and job involvement. For example, it is assumed that in many organizations employee morale and satisfaction are related to identity groups such as gender and racio-ethnicity. Job performance ratings, compensation, and promotion/horizontal mobility rates measure Achievement Outcomes of Individuals (or career outputs). These individual outcomes, in turn, are expected to have an impact on a series of first level organizational effectiveness measures, such as attendance, turnover, productivity, work quality, and recruiting success.

Cultural differences, structural integration, and informal integration are thought to have direct implications on the contributions of employees with regards to total quality initiatives that depend heavily on employee involvement (Cox, 1993). Within this model, this impact is thought to influence Creativity/Innovation and Work Group Cohesiveness and Communication directly. This relationship is noted in the model by the use of boxes and an arrow flowing from Diversity Climate into Organizational Effectiveness. In for-profit organizations, these outcomes ultimately translate into second-level results, such as market share, profitability, and achievement of formal organizational goals. In not-for-profit organizations, the individual contributions are still very important in determining the extent to which organizational goals are achieved (Cox, 1993).

The major difficulty with using the Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (Cox, 1993) in the proposed study lies in the fact that the model is too broad in its definition of diversity climate. More specifically, the model lacks the actual stimulus of diversity programs and/or sensitivity training. Diversity is seen as a climate and not one specific stimulus. The unit of analysis in the Interactional Model is the organization. In

order to measure the effectiveness of diversity programs and sensitivity training; the unit of analysis would need to be the individual.

<u>Charles' 1994 Proposed Relationships of Factors Affecting the Recruitment, Retention & Promotion of Blacks into Upper-Level Lodging Management Model (Figure 2.3)</u>

In 1994, Charles conducted an exploratory study designed to develop a career profile of black managers in the hotel industry. The information gathered from the study was designed to dispel or validate various beliefs surrounding blacks in the lodging profession. Charles presents a model outlining factors determined by the individual (inputs) and decisions controlled by the organization (outputs) much like the 1965 Adams' Model (Figure 2.1). In addition to the individual inputs and outputs, Charles profiles changing labor market forces, current labor laws, and the factors determined by the organization that together influence the decisions made by a company to recruit, retain and promote black lodging managers. Please refer to Figure 2.3 for the Charles Model.

[INSERT CHARLES'S MODEL FIGURE 2.3]

The conceptual framework is built around the premise that there are several factors that affect the status of blacks and other minorities in lodging management and a literature review (Charles, 1994). Charles stated that, "The decision to recruit, retain and promote persons in upper-level lodging management is heavily affected by, or dependent on, two sets of factors: those that are controlled by the individual and those that are controlled by the power structure governing the organization" (1994). Factors determined by the organization include race discrimination, training and development, diversity training, performance evaluation, and mentoring. These factors are thought to affect the outputs of the black or minority employees.

Factors determined by the individual include previous experience, education, leadership skills, and the perception of the service industry. These factors, according to Charles, influence or enhance the advancement possibilities of blacks in spite of discrimination (1994). Labor market forces were defined in the model as changing labor pools high diversity, labor law, Title VII, and affirmative action programs. Decisions (outputs) used in the model include recruitment, retention, and promotion.

The major problem with the use of this model is in its justification of variable selection and layout (the lack of direction in the model with regards to influence). While the model was tested only once with a sample size of seven black lodging managers, its findings are highly suggestive and can be supported by other sources not mentioned in the Charles study. The Charles study sheds insight on the importance of the organization of personal outputs and the underpinning influences (labor market forces and labor laws) affecting the proposed relationships of minority employees in hospitality management.

National Demographic and Employment Trends

The demographic composition of the labor force is expected to change because the population and workforce participation will change (Bowman, 1997). The supply of workers or labor force is projected to increase by 15 million over the 1996-2006 period, from 134 million to 149 million (Bowman, 1997). The composition of those participating in the 1996-2006 workforce will change with regard to age, gender and racio-ethnicity. The labor force age 45-64 will grow faster than any other age group as the baby-boomer (born 1946-64) continue to age. The participation of women in nearly all age groups is projected to increase. Men's labor force participation rates are projected to continue to decline for all groups under 45 years of age. The Asian and other (Pacific Islanders) labor force and Hispanic labor force are projected to increase faster than other groups, 41% and 36%, respectively. This is due in part to the high immigration and higher than average birth rates. The black labor force is expected to grow by 14%, faster than the 9% growth rate for the white labor force. By 2006, the black and Hispanic labor forces will nearly be equal in size, as more Hispanics than blacks will enter the labor force over the 1996-2006 period. Over this same time period, total employment is projected to increase by 14% or 19 million from 132 million in 1996 to 151 million in 2006. Refer to Table 2.1 for a profile of the projected labor force of 1996-2006. The following information is from the BLS Employment Projection for the 1996-2006 period.

[INSERT TABLE 2.1]

The service-producing industries will account for virtually all of the job growth (Bowman, 1997).   The U.S. lodging employment in 1996 was 1.7 million, up from approximately 1.6 million in 1990, and paid $17.6 billion in wages and salaries during 1996 (Dacy, 1998).   A portion of the civilian employment occupations with the largest job growth is profiled in Table 2.2.

[INSERT TABLE 2.2]

Diversity Management Training Programs

According to the Employment and Training Administration (ETA) of the U.S. Department of Labor, training is the transfer of work-related skills, knowledge, or information and is offered at the establishment or at another location during work hours or at other times (Horrigan, 1997). Training programs should stress learning, skill development, and behavioral changes. As noted by Haywood, the major purpose of training is to help an organization compete more effectively (1992). It is a means to an end, not the end product itself, and should be approached strategically in conjunction with other operational and business functions. Training can take place in an informal or formal manner. Formal training programs are planned in advance and are structured in nature.

In analyzing training programs, Haywood noted that successful training programs contained eight critical elements of common characteristics (1992).

1. Fundamental belief that employees represent a company's most important asset and have the potential to make great contributions to a company's success.

2. Organizational commitment to education, training and development, equality between people, involvement, and widespread opportunities.

3. Links to the inevitable evolutionary processes that affect strategic planning, product market, corporate identity, and corporate values systems.

4. Concern for organizational and departmental effectiveness that provides the opportunity or encouragement to apply newly learned knowledge, skills, or behaviors.

5. Interest in competency-based learning that not only goes beyond more awareness and understanding but focuses on current and future business concerns to help determine the achievement or maintenance of competitive advantage.

6. Determination of realistic and achievable goals for training in effecting and implementing change, followed by an identification of who should be trained, where, when, and at what cost.

7. Development of training specifications so methods can be matched to requirements, trainers can be selected, and training can be sequenced.

8. Establishment of an evaluation system to measure and communicate the effectiveness of training and to assess the commitment of all participants.

In a study conducted by the ETA of the U.S. Department of Labor, three different aspects of training were measured for the period in May through October of 1995. The study surveyed well over 1000 private nonagricultural establishments. A sample size of approximately 170 establishments was set for each industry class. Among the surveyed were establishments representing Standard Industrial Classification (SIC) 70 (lodging) and 58 (food service).

Of those surveyed, a greater number of hours were spent in computer training (2.1 hours per employee) than any other type of formal training. Formal training in job skills accounted for 67 percent of the total hours of training. Occupational safety training was provided by 72 percent of the surveyed establishments. Funds spent on in-house training salaries ranged from a low of $139 to a high of $236 per employee depending on the number of employees. Funds spent on outside training programs ranged from a low of $63 to a high of $135 per employee. Much of the difference across the dollar figures depended on the size of the company. On the average, larger companies spent more on training than did smaller ones.

Relevant to the present study is the ETA's finding on awareness training. Defined as training that provides information on policies and practices that affect employee communication and employee development, awareness training was given little attention. Please refer to Tables 2.3 (Percentage Of Total Training Hours Spent In Various Formal-training Programs) and Table 2.4 (Number Of Formal-training Activities Per Employee) for a listing of all training programs, the percentages of hours spent in training, and the level of activities. Some 44 percent of establishments had mentoring programs, slightly more than 40 percent of the establishments reported using individualized career development plans, and 24 percent had formal apprenticeships.

Awareness training programs obtained lower ratings when compared to the other formal training programs with regard to the hours spent, not by the number of formal-training activities. ETA did not provide any insight as to why some programs faired better than others did.

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Table 2.3 Percent of Total Training Hours Spent in Various Types of Formal Training by Size of Establishment, May - October 1995

Characteristic	50 or more employees	50 - 99 employees	100- 499 employees	500+ employees
Type of Formal training:				
Any formal training	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Job Skills				
Management training	7.3	9.4	4.2	10.5
Professional & technical	11.8	14.1	7.8	15.8
Computer training	9.9	22.5	25.1	12.8
Clerical & administrative	5.1	3.2	5.8	4.8
Sales & customer relations	7.3	12.3	7.5	5.6
Service related	5.2	14.0	2.3	6.1
Production & construction	10.2	4.9	7.9	14.5
General skills				
Basic skills	1.0	0.0	1.1	1.1
Occupational safety	11.0	9.9	15.3	6.1
Employee health & wellness	1.5	1.2	2.3	0.5
Orientation training	5.7	5.7	6.6	4.7
Awareness training	0.5	0.0	0.1	1.0
Communications & quality	13.2	2.2	13.7	16.1
Other types of training	0.4	0.6	0.5	0.4

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics (Horrigan, 1997) Last modified: Friday, May 30 1997
URL: http://stats.bls.gov/news.release/sept1.t04.htm

Table 2.4 Number of Formal-Training Activities Per Employee by Type of Formal Training and Size of Establishment, May - October 1995

Characteristic	50 or more employees	50 - 99 employees	100- 499 employees	500+ employees
Type of Formal training:				
Any formal training	2.1	1.4	2.9	1.6
Job Skills				
Management training	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Professional & technical	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.3
Computer training	0.2	0.1	0.3	0.2
Clerical & administrative	0.1	0.0	0.1	0.1
Sales & customer relations	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.1
Service related	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Production & construction	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
General skills				
Basic skills	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Occupational safety	0.6	0.4	0.9	0.3
Employee health & wellness	0.1	0.0	0.2	0.0
Orientation training	0.1	0.1	0.2	0.1
Awareness training	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Communications & quality	0.3	0.1	0.4	0.3
Other types of training	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics (Horrigan, 1997) Last modified: Friday, May 30 1997
URL: http://stats.bls.gov/news.release/sept1.t04.htm

<u>Justifications for Diversity Management Training Programs</u>

For many organizations, the representation of minorities in the overall work population, and especially in the most powerful positions, is highly skewed (Cox, 1993). Demographic trends (Bowman, 1997), workplace discrimination (Brady, 1996; Charles, 1994; Farrar, 1996), and the tendency for in-group members to be favored over out-group members in human transactions combine to make dominance-subordination and other equal opportunity issues prominent aspects of diversity issues in organizations (Cox, 1993). This diversity will necessitate many changes in the hotel industry, including changes in the education of future managers in the industry and in training given to employees (Gamio & Sneed, 1992).

As mentioned in Chapter 1, for companies considering implementing a diversity management program, justification comes by two means. Organizations attempt to be moral, giving value to all individuals, or the organization understands the changing demographic patterns of the nation and the change is a business necessity (Perceri, 1994; Thomas, 1990). Whether justification for implementing diversity management and/or sensitivity training programs is a moral or professional decision, it must be accomplished if companies are to become and/or remain competitive.

For organizations that subscribe to a creed of equal opportunity, a major motive for investing in the implementation of diversity management initiatives is that it is morally and ethically the right thing to do (Cox, 1993). Such organizations subscribe to the original paradigms of the Golden Rule and Righting the Wrongs of the Past.

Certain aspects of diversity management are governed by legislation. Legislation includes the following:

1. The Equal Pay Act of 1963;
2. The Civil Rights Act of 1964;
3. The Age Discrimination Act of 1967;
4. The Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978; and
5. American With Disabilities Act of 1990 (ADA).

Together these laws prohibit discrimination in the workplace based on sex, race, color, religion, national origin, age, physical ability, and pregnancy. Executive Order

11246 requires that U.S. businesses wishing to serve as government contractors take steps to ensure that past discrimination is remedied and that discrimination does not occur in the future; Affirmative Action and the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission are also diversity supporting legislation.

To some managers, diversity training is simply a way to protect their firm from discrimination and harassment law suits and has almost become synonymous with affirmative action (Overmyer Day, 1995). For others, the more progressive managers, it is viewed as a strategic tool being used to gain an edge over competitors by helping to reduce turnover cost and increase resource acquisition, marketing creativity, and problem solving (McCune, 1996). Whatever the reason behind company implementation, the potential of avoiding costly court battles may be the motivation needed. Please refer to Table 2.5 for a few examples of bias settlements.

Table 2.5 Major Bias Settlements: The Headline Read "Doing penance for their diversity sins"

Company	Allegation	Financial Penalty (millions)	Training Penalty
Texaco	Racial discrimination	$176	Company wide diversity and sensitivity training
Home Depot	Gender discrimination	$88	Management training in "equal employment opportunity"
Smith Barney	Gender discrimination, sexual harassment	$2 plus individual claims	"Invest" $15 million in extensive diversity program
Southern California Edison	Racial discrimination	$11	"Mandatory" diversity training for all employees
Del Laboratories	Chief executive accused of groping secretaries	$1.2	"Discrimination prevention" training
Flagstar (Denny's)	Racial discrimination	$28	"Nondiscrimination" training
Primark's TIMCO	Racial discrimination, sexual harassment	$0.243	"Practice diversity exercises"
Publix	Gender discrimination	$82	Mandatory training in "equal employment obligations"

Source: Lubove (1997)

Diversity Management Training

Approximately 33 percent of all Fortune 500 organizations operated workplace diversity programs in 1995, and it is estimated that close to 66 percent of these firms will have a program by the year 2000 (McCune, 1996). With well over half of all U.S. firms that employee 100 or more individuals implementing some sort of diversity program, Lubove estimates that $10 billion is being spent "trying to change attitudes and putatively prepare these companies for multicultural workforces and marketplaces" (1997).

Diversity management programs, like all training programs, are implemented in both formal and informal manners depending on the needs of the organization. The present study does not distinguish between formal and informal diversity management training program initiatives. Informal diversity programs may appear in the form of various diversity initiatives. These initiatives are discussed in full detail later in Chapter 3 (Table 3.1). What makes any program informal is the time needed to plan and execute the training. Formal diversity training programs are well planned out, executed over a longer period of time, and often have, or should have, specific goals and objectives. Nemetz & Christensen identified six such programs listed in Table 2.6 (1996). The methodologies vary greatly along with the proposed target groups. These diversity programs, according to Thomas, are influenced and guided by eight common schools of thought known as paradigms (1996). Please refer to Table 2.7 for the diversity paradigm's action options.

Table 2.6 Types of Formal Diversity Training

Types of Training	Description
Ethnic, Black, or Feminist Studies	Scholarly academic class using in-depth analysis to review status of minority groups in dominant society.
Psychotherapeutic Approaches	Group therapy involving groups experiencing conflict. The approach is based on the belief that the roots of ethnic hostility lie in the infantile need to externalize unwelcome self -images; ethnic rival becomes target of projected guilt and self-loathing
Sensitivity Training	Sensitizing individuals to feelings provoked by discrimination.
Dissonance Creation	Purposely creating cognitive dissonance with the hope that the target will resolve problems by changing attitudes.
Cultural Awareness	Exploration of cultural and gender differences.
Legal Awareness	Explaining discrimination laws.

Sources: Nemetz & Christensen, 1996

Table 2.7 Diversity Paradigm's Action Options

Option	Description
Include/exclude	Include by expanding the numbers and variability of mixture components. Or exclude by minimizing the number and variability of mixture components
Deny	Minimize mixture diversity by explaining it away.
Assimilate	Minimize mixture of diversity by insisting that "minority" components conform to the norms of the dominant factor.
Suppress	Minimize mixture of diversity by removing it from your consciousness. Assign it to the subconscious
Isolate	Address diversity by including and setting "different" mixture components off to the side.
Tolerate	Address diversity by fostering a room-for-all attitude, allow for limited superficial interactions among the mixture components
Build relationships	Address diversity by fostering quality relationships - characterized by acceptance and understanding - among the mixture components
Foster mutual adoptions	Address diversity by fostering mutual adoption in adaptation which all components change somewhat, for the sake of achieving common objectives

Source: Thomas, 1996

Benefits

As previously mentioned in Chapter 1, organizational benefits from diversity programs are well documented and may enhance a company's ability to increase market share; compete more effectively; create better organizational structures and policies; and enhance recruitment, retention and development efforts (Wheeler, 1996). It is also thought that these programs enhance personal effectiveness and creativity (Thomas, 1994); better interpersonal communication among employees; aid in the responsiveness to social and demographic changes; help reduce the amount of litigation (Nemetz & Christensen, 1996) and speed up the resolution of disputes; and create a climate of fairness and equality (Overmyer Day, 1995). Additional benefits from diversity management programs include the creation of emotions, attitudes, and behaviors consistent with bias reduction (Dovidio, 1993), and the focus of appreciation of differences among cultures (Brady, 1996). Keys to success include "recognizing and valuing the characteristics and contributions of all people - including white males" (Overmyer Day, 1996), "tailoring the programs for the specific organization" (Cox, 1993; Thomas, 1990; Overmyer Day, 1996; Yountan Kay, 1996), "selecting the appropriate diversity consultants" (Brady, 1996; Lubove, 1997; Overmyer Day, 1996; Van Eron, 1996), and establishing program goals and objectives that stem from a well defined diversity program (Overmyer Day, 1996).

Challenges and Issues

Common problems with diversity programs include improperly trained consultants employing "unorthodox" training techniques that cause "backlash" (Lubove, 1997; Nemetz & Christensen, 1996; Overmyer Day, 1996). Lubove states that it "stirs up hostility, anguish and resentment, but doesn't give people the tools to deal with the feeling (1997)." This is what is known as backlash. Emotions, attitudes and behaviors consistent with confusion, disorder, resentment, vulnerability and anger are common (Lubove, 1997; Nemetz & Christensen, 1996; Thomas, 1994). At the root of many of these programs was the lack of a clear and precise definition of diversity and minority. Not knowing exactly whom these programs were to target caused concern.

Minority Representation within the Hospitality Industry

<u>Historical Overview</u>

From a historical point of view, the recording of diversity issues was introduced to the lodging industry in the 1960s. This date reflects the beginning history for the publishing of the *Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly*, as it was the only academic research outlet for the lodging industry. Within the journal's first ten years of publication, the Federal Civil Rights Act and its implications were among the top five most published topics. Sherry's 1965 article on the Federal Civil Rights Act was among the most noted articles on the subject matter.

A well-known hotel attorney at the time, Prof. John H. Sherry investigated how the Civil Rights Act of 1964 affected the hospitality industry. Sherry's major publications centered on the "separate but equal" premise that became common law after the passing of the Fourteenth Amendment.

In 1875, common law duty was to admit all that applied. Interpretation of this law remained at the discretion of innkeepers, until one Judge Dick resolved the separate but equal issue with the following comments, "The law only requires innkeepers, common carriers, etc., to furnish accommodations to colored men, equal to those provided for white men, when the same price is paid. Innkeepers may have separate rooms and accommodations for colored men, but they must be equal in quality and convenience to those furnished to white men..." These statements established the separate but equal doctrine as it related to the lodging industry (Sherry, 1965). The innkeeper was at liberty to exclude colored people, because he/she was not obligated to maintain separate accommodations. The separate but equal doctrine soon permeated the transportation industry and was approved by the Supreme Court in the Plessy v. Ferguson 1896 court case.

Following the Civil War, state legislatures enacted civil rights laws outlawing discrimination in places of public accommodation on the bases of race, creed, color or national origin, but then the country was introduced to Jim Crow Laws. During the early 1930s, the New Deal, which was designed to cure the depression, made the first attempt to rectify the nation's complacency toward its

colored citizens. In 1941, President Roosevelt banned discrimination in defense industries. In 1948, President Truman ordered an end to discrimination in the armed forces and established a committee on civil rights with a mandate to investigate the civil rights situation. In 1954, the court in <u>Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka</u> stated that separate but equal was inherently unequal.

After numerous years of civil unrest, changes were finally seen in 1964 with the passing of the Federal Civil Rights Act. The lodging industry was greatly affected by Titles II and VII of this Act. Title II went into effect on July 2 of 1964 and prohibited racial and religious discrimination in places of public accommodation. Title VII began to go into effect on July 2 of 1965 and was fully introduced into industry by 1968. This Act prohibited similar discrimination by employers, unions, and employee agencies (Sherry, 1965).

It was at this time in history that it became illegal for an employer to fail or refuse to hire, or to discharge a person on a discriminatory basis, because of race, color, religion, sex, or national origin, or to limit, segregate or classify employees in a way that would deprive an individual employment opportunities or adversely affect employment opportunities. The aforementioned items are two of the many regulations now in place to guard against discrimination. It should be noted that Sherry also stated the potential worth of the Negro workers and the customer bases that might be brought in from their business (1965).

In the years between 1970 and 1979, issues of diversity again top lodging publication lists. During this decade, diversity topics were seen in the form of legal issues (focusing on women and their rights and development in the workplace). Again, Sherry's voice was heard as his 1973 article on equality and the female employee hit the press.

In reviewing the economic impacts of the disparities in the industry for women, Sherry outlined the impact of federal legislation and reviewed the trends of state legislation and predicted the economic consequences to the industry of the inevitable growth of employment opportunities and advancement for women (1973). This was all in response to the feminist movement towards equality, which was first introduced in 1948. Influencing this movement was the Equal Pay Act of 1963, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964,

and Executive Order 11375. The Equal Employment Act of 1972 significantly strengthened the enforcement of Title VII.

Key points from the Sherry 1973 article included:

* Economic and Social aspects: There were 30.5 million women workers 16 years of age or older in the U.S. in 1969. This was an increase of 1.3 million from 1968.

* According to the August 1969 U.S. Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) Employment and Earning figures, the hotel, tourist and motel industry employed 328,800 women. That figure accounted for 50% of their total employees. In 1972 this figure was up to 52 %.

* While education obtained by women was somewhat equal to that of men, pay, position and promotion lag behind that of male counterparts. Figures for those in the hospitality industry were closer than overall averages.

Sherry suggested that since women in the workplace were inevitable, companies needed to begin dispelling the myths and stereotypes regarding women and their performances in the workplace (1973). Women were to be seen as untapped human resources. A footnote of caution was also given to managers regarding illegal practices when hiring and working with women.

As the years progressed, the *Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly* was joined by the *Hospitality Research Journal, FIU, The International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, and numerous trade publications including *Lodging Magazine, Lodging Hospitality, Hotel & Motel Management*, and others. Approximately 53 articles were found representing human resource management topics during the 1980s, and diversity issues were again highly published. During this decade, these issues focused on ethnic minorities.

The first sentence made in the Morgan article addressing equality and inequality states that a chronic problem facing the hospitality industry is the shortage of workers and that this problem is further complicated by the hospitality image perceived by many

minorities (1982). While the main purpose of the Morgan article was not to call for altruistic measures to correct past injustices faced and experienced by minorities, the author did suggest that various improvements within the organizations may provide a more inviting place for minorities and thus reduce the labor shortage.

It was noted that inequalities existed amongst minorities and non-minorities in the hospitality industry with regard to pay, promotions and job type (Morgan, 1982). Wage was an industry wide discriminatory vehicle across both gender and ethnic lines. Young people experienced inequalities with regard to youth wages (training pay) and minimum wage.

Morgan suggested that closing the gap between such inequalities would help minority retention rates within the industry, since the industry already had a high number of minority employees (1982). Morgan's footnote of wisdom stated that illegal aliens and refugees were beginning to replace black workers at greater numbers and this too would have major implications.

Current State of Diversity Management within the Lodging Industry

Based on a survey of 535 domestic hotels, Quek found that 5.2 nationalities were represented in the average property; 23 percent of employees spoke English as their second language and 6.3 percent did not speak English at all (1997). The "traditional hotel labor force" of workers age 16-24 has shrunk and left hotel operators looking for a new source of entry level workers (Dove, 1996). On a whole, the hotel industry faces increased multicultural diversity with regard to ownership, employees and customers (Christensen, 1993; Dove, 1996; Gamio & Sneed, 1992; Gregory & Hughes, 1996; Quek, 1997).

If the aforementioned reasons were not enough to motivate a lodging organization to implement a diversity program, Dove gives an extra incentive with the following statements.

" The need to attract and retain high-quality employees is the first reason hoteliers cannot afford to ignore diversity and the second is productivity. As with all service-oriented business, we need well-trained, productive employees who can reach their full potential" (1996).

The literature suggests that lodging operations should move toward understanding multicultural values, flexibility, constructive communication about differences, acknowledgement of stereotypes and cultural assumptions and 'move away from we are all the same, and let's cooperate' (Dove, 1996).

In the few empirical studies on diversity or multicultural issues in lodging, several commonalties surfaced. The first commonality of the studies was low response rates: they ranged from a high of 19 percent to a low of 14 percent (Gamio & Sneed, 1992, Gregory & Hughes, 1996, and Lee, 1994). The low response rates reduce the generalizability of the studies. Gamio & Sneed suggest that this is symptomatic of a larger problem in both the area of multicultural studies and the hospitality field as a whole (1992).

The second commonality among the studies was the percentage of diversity programs offered by the company: they ranged from a high of 60 to a low of 4.9 percent (Lee, 1994; Gamio & Sneed, 1992; Gregory & Hughes, 1996). Reasons given for diversity programs not being implemented were cost and the lack of necessity. When asked how the program's effectiveness was measured, companies stated that associated opinion surveys, employee focus groups, and manager evaluations were used (Gregory & Hughes, 1996). Training methods used by the companies were on-the-job training, lecture-pupil instruction, workshops or seminars, simulation, case studies, mentor programs, new membership orientation and minority advisory groups (Lee, 1994).

Using a sample of 16 professional hoteliers, in upper-level management positions in full service hotels, Charles & McCleary (1997) asked three very important questions on a survey. They are as follows:

1. Does race discrimination affect the recruitment, retention and promotion of African-Americans into upper-level management positions in the lodging industry?

2. What factors impede or facilitate the recruitment, retention and promotion of African-American managers in the lodging industry?

3. What can hotel companies do to enhance management possibilities for African-Americans and other ethnic minorities?

The results of the study indicated that ethnicity did affect recruitment, retention and promotion of black managers (Charles & McCleary, 1997).

Presently the lodging industry has problems in the area of diversity. Please refer to Table 2.8 for newspaper headliners and Table 2.9 for a snapshot review of academic articles on diversity in the hospitality industry. Listed as a "Hot Topic" by the American Hotel & Motel Association, diversity management and employment has taken a front seat on the bus to equality. The Labor Statistics Issue reads:

"One of the biggest challenges the lodging industry continues to face is attracting and retaining skilled workers from an ever-shrinking and competitive labor pool. As the industry continues to prosper, hotels continue to struggle to fill staffing needs. Record-level U.S. unemployment levels further compounds this problem. As a result, several hotel companies have begun to implement supportive employment practices that demonstrate their commitment to attracting and retaining quality employees. Perks such as child-care facilities, flexible work hours, transportation to work, and literacy classes are offered to assist workers (particularly hourly-wage workers) in balancing work and family life. The industry at large will begin to embrace these types of programs as a way of adapting to the country's changing diverse workforce (Dacy, 1998)."

Another issue that has fueled the diversity fire for many in the lodging industry was the threat of a boycott of major hotel chains by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP). According to a highly publicized article, blacks account for 25 percent of line-level employees, but represent only 2 percent of corporate officers and 4.8 percent of corporate professionals (Lister, 1997). A boycott was called of "Holiday Inn, Best Western and other leading hotel chains" (Associated Press, 1997). Of the sixteen companies surveyed, six received a passing score. Marriott International and Hilton Hotels Corp. both received C's (the highest grade awarded); Hyatt Hotel Corp., Adam's Mark Hotels and the Ritz-Carlton Hotel Corp. were graded C-minus; HFS Corp. operators of Days Inn, got a D. Ten firms with lower grades were targeted for the boycott, among them were ITT Sheraton Corp. and Promus Hotel Corp. (Associated Press, 1997).

As human resource specialists look ahead to the next century they find an industry still plagued with problems of the past. Enz profiles a future calling for collaborative efforts between companies; customers and universities as changing customer needs, increased competition, technological advances, globalization, and a more diverse workforce create the organization of tomorrow (1993).

Table 2.8 Newspaper and Trade Publication Headliners in the Hospitality and Tourism Industry Regarding Diversity Management

Headliner	Source
"Black Workers Sue Amtrak"	*Associated Press* - Washington, D.C. April 8, 1998
"Anatomy of A Nightmare: Denny's Discovers Diversity"	*The Public Relation Strategist* Winter 1998
"Resort Understands Diversity"	*Hotel & Motel Management* September 1, 1997
"Is Diversity the Answer to Labor Woes?"	*Restaurant Hospitality* April 1997
"Reinventing Sofitel"	*Lodging* April 1997
"By Any Means Necessary?"	*Lodging* April 1997
"Is diversity the answer to labor woes?"	*Restaurant Hospitality* April 1997
"Programs aim to attain gender equality"	*Hotel & Motel Management* April 7, 1997
"NAACP call for boycott of major hotel chains"	*Associated Press* - Washington, D.C. February 27, 1997
"Change is Coming: Workforce diversity trends demand action by the hospitality industry"	*Lodging* July 1996

Table 2.9 Academic/Research Headliners in the Hospitality and Tourism Industry Regarding Diversity Management: A recent sample of what is being written in the industry on diversity

Title	Source
"Building a New Paradigm for Managing Workforce Diversity"	*Hospitality & Tourism Educator* 1996
"Common Misconceptions about Generation X"	*Cornell H. R.A. Quarterly* 1996
"Managing a Diverse Workforce"	*Hospitality & Tourism Educator* 1996
"Women at Work in Hospitality: Fair Notice for the Nineties"	*Hospitality & Tourism Educator* 1994
"Multicultural Strategies in Tourism"	*Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly* 1994
"An Employment Program that Preserves Cultural Integrity"	*Hospitality & Tourism Educator* 1994
" A Study of Cultural Diversity Training Practices in Company-Owned Franchise Restaurants"	*Unpublished Mater's Thesis – VA Tech* 1994
"The Diversity Dynamic: Implications for Organizations in 2005"	*Hospitality Research Journal* 1993
"Cross Cultural Training Practices and Needs in the Hotel Industry"	*Hospitality Research Journal* 1992
"Cultural Diversity: The Lesson of Toronto's Hotels"	*Cornell H.R.A. Quarterly* 1992
"Perceptions of Discrimination Among Women as Managers in Hospitality Organizations"	*Florida International University Journal* 1990
"Recruitment, Selection and Retention of Managers in the Hotel and Restaurant Industry"	*Florida International University Journal* 1990
"Hospitality Management In A Multicultural Environment"	*Hospitality Educational & Research Journal* 1987
"Equality Vs Inequality Amongst Hospitality Workers"	*International Journal of Hospitality Management* 1982

Summary

While there is no one paradigm, theory or model to support the need for a diversity management training program, the literature review does support the impacts of diversity on the individual, group and organization; thus, leading to the potential importance of diversity management training programs. With paradigms indicating a shift in the approach to handling diversity issues, diversity management is now being seen as a business necessity and an operational tactic of survival. The supporting models lend a structural outline to methods used to approach such issues presented by the demographical and employment shifts.

Literature on diversity management training programs represents a growing area of business interest. Companies implementing diversity programs have found common similarities in both the organizational benefits and challenges. Also common to the organizations were the diversity management training initiatives and their unrecorded impacts on employees.

What little is known about the hospitality industry's diversity management practices suggests that they are all in the beginning stages of growth. The literature suggests that the hospitality industry is a prime target for diversity issues with its high number of minority employees and continual growth potential.

The chapter supports the necessity of implementing diversity programs and highlights the void supporting the need for the proposed study.

Personal Inputs
Education
Effort
Job Performance
Loyalty
Seniority
Skill

Employee

Organization

Personal Outcomes
Job Satisfaction
Opportunity
Pay
Privileges
Recognition
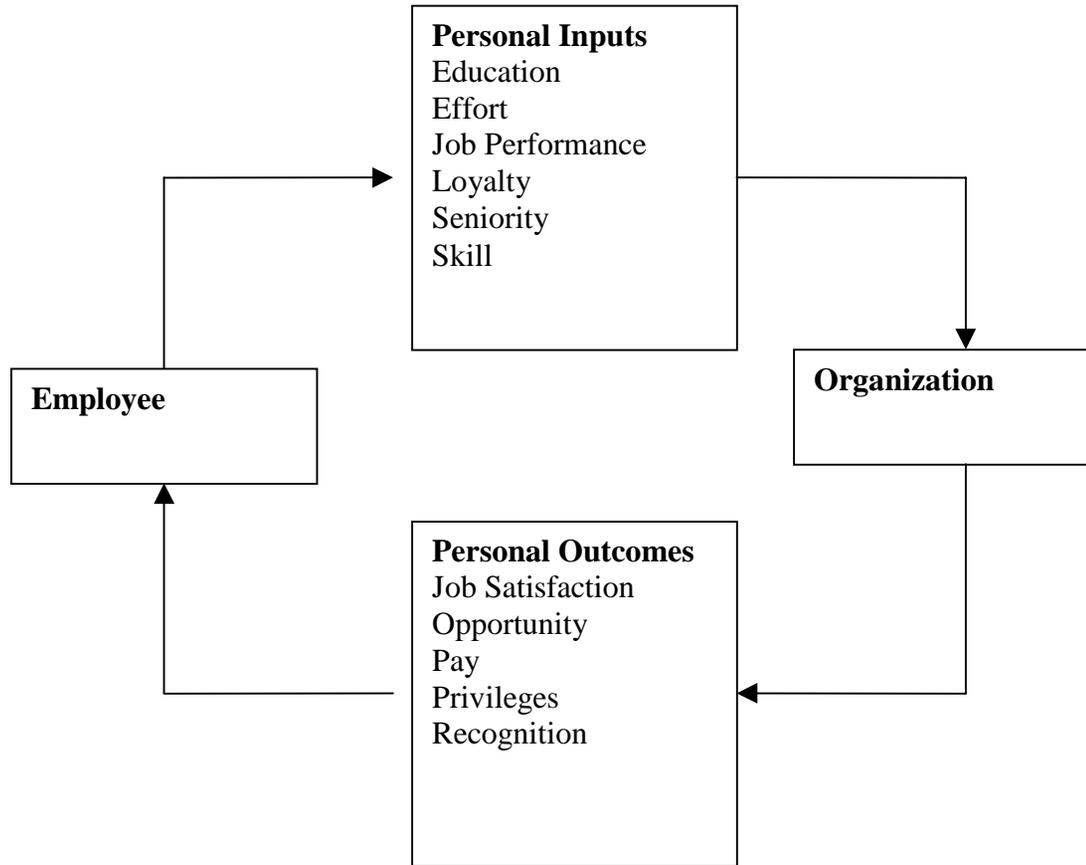
Figure 2.1 Adams' 1965 Equity Theory Model

DIVERSITY CLIMATE

Individual - Level Factors

- Identity Structures
- Prejudice
- Stereotyping
- Personality

Group/Intergroup Factors
- Ethnocentrism
- Cultural Differences

Organizational -Level Factors

- Cultural and Acculturation Process
- Institutional Bias in Human Resource System
- Structural Integration

- Informal Integration

INDIVIDUAL CAREER OUTCOMES

Affective Outcomes

- Job/Career Satisfaction
- Organizational Identification
- Job Involvement

Achievement Outcomes

- Job Performance Ratings
- Compensation
- Promotion/Horizontal Mobility Rates

ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

First Level

- Attendance
- Turnover
- Productivity
- Work Quality
- Recruiting Success

- Creativity/Innovation
- Work group Cohesiveness and Communication

Second Level

- Market Share
- Profitability
- Achievement of Formal Organizational Goals

Figure 2.2 Cox's 1993 Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity

FACTORS DETERMINED BY THE ORGANIZATION

    Race Discrimination
    Training and Development
    Performance Evaluation
    Mentoring

DECISION:

Recruitment
Retention
Promotion

LABOR MARKET FORCES
Changing Labor Pool
High Diversity

LABOR LAW
Title VII
Affirmative Action

FACTORS CONTROLLED BY THE INDIVIDUAL

Previous Experience
Education
Leadership Skills
Perception of Service Industry
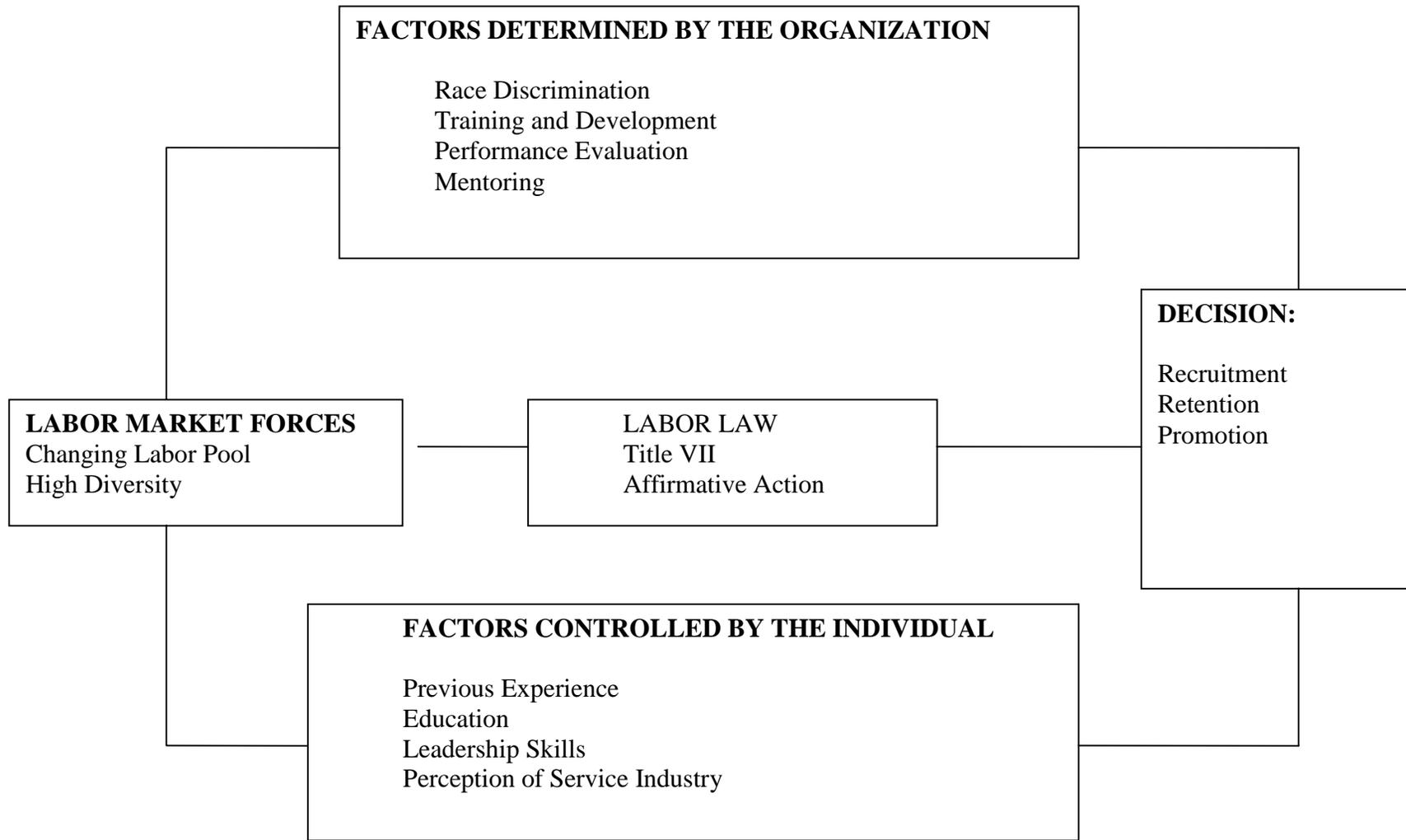
**Figure 2.3 Charles' 1994 Relationship of Factors Affecting the Recruitment,
Retention & Promotion Of Blacks Into Upper-Level Lodging Management Model**

Table2.1 Civilian labor force by sex, age, race, and Hispanic origin, 1986, 1996, and projected 2006 - Numbers in thousands

Group	Level			Change			Percent Change		% Distribution			Annual Growth Rate (Percent)	
	1986	1996	2006	1986 - 1996	1996- 2006	1986- 1996	1996- 2006	1986	1996	2006	1986- 1996	1996- 2006
Total, 16 years and over	117,834	133,943	148,847	16,109	14,904	13.7	11.1	100.0	100.0	100.0	1.3	1.1
Men, 16 years and over	65,422	72,087	78,226	6,665	6,139	10.2	8.5	55.5	53.8	52.6	1.0	0.8
Women, 16 years and over	52,413	61,857	70,620	9,444	8,764	18.0	14.2	44.5	46.2	47.4	1.7	1.3
White	101,801	113,108	123,581	11,307	10,473	11.1	9.3	86.4	84.4	83.0	1.1	0.9
Black, 16 years and over	12,654	15,134	17,225	2,480	2,091	19.6	13.8	10.7	11.3	11.6	1.8	1.3
Asian and other, 16 years and over[1]	3,371	5,703	8,041	2,332	2,338	69.2	41.0	2.9	4.3	5.4	5.4	3.5
Hispanic origin, 16 years and over	8,076	12,774	17,401	4,698	4,627	58.2	36.2	6.9	9.5	11.7	4.7	3.1
Other than Hispanic origin, 16 years and over	109,758	121,169	131,446	11,411	10,276	10.4	8.5	93.1	90.5	88.3	1.0	0.8
White non-Hispanic, 16 and over	94,026	100,915	108,166	6,890	7,251	7.3	7.2	79.8	75.3	72.7	0.7	0.7

[1] The "Asian and other" group includes (1) Asians and Pacific Islanders and (2) American Indians and Alaska Natives. The historical data are derived by subtracting "black" from the "black and other" group; projections are made directly, not by subtraction.

Source: Bowan (November 1997) *Monthly Labor Review*

Table 2.2 Civilian Employment in Occupations with the Largest Job Growth
Occupations are in descending order of absolute employment change 1992-2005 (moderate growth). The totals include wage and salary jobs, self-employed, and unpaid family members. Estimates are based on the Current Employment Statistics estimates and the Occupational Employment Statistics estimates. SIC 70 and 58 only.

OCCUPATION	EMPLOY-MENT (1,000) 1994	EMPLOY-MENT (1,000) 2005[1] Low	EMPLOY-MENT (1,000) 2005[1] Moder-ate	EMPLOY-MENT (1,000) 2005[1] High	PERCENT CHANGE 1994-2005 Low	PERCENT CHANGE 1994-2005 Moder-ate	PERCENT CHANGE 1994-2005 High
Total, all occupations[2]	127,014	140,261	144,708	150,212	10.4	13.9	18.3
Waiters and waitresses	1,847	2,361	2,326	2,291	27.8	25.9	24.0
Food service & lodging mgrs.	579	776	771	769	34.0	33.2	32.9
Food preparation workers	1,190	1,368	1,378	1,393	14.9	15.7	17.0
Amusement & recreation Attendants	267	398	406	414	49.2	52.0	55.2
Cooks, restaurant	704	839	827	815	19.3	17.5	15.8

- *1 Based on low, moderate, or high trend assumptions.*2 Includes other occupations, not shown separately.
Source: U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Monthly Labor Review, November 1995.
 http://stats.bls.gov/newsrels.htm