

Chapter 1

Counting Minorities: A Brief History and a Look at the Future

Since the inception of the Republic, a wide variety of race and ethnic groups has comprised the American population. Some, like the ancestors of today's African Americans, came unwillingly, others fled starvation or religious or political persecution, while still others came simply for the chance to better their lives economically. As the population's diversity has increased, so has the need for data on minority groups. Such data not only help describe this diversity, but also assist in understanding how well—or poorly—various minority groups are faring and give decisionmakers some information on which to base policy proposals.

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the evolution of the collection of data on minorities, focusing on the decennial census and the Current Population Survey (CPS), the Nation's labor force survey. The chapter begins with a brief history of immigration to this country. It then goes on to describe early efforts to collect data on minorities through the decennial census. Next, it describes changes that were made to the CPS to help monitor the status of minorities in the labor force. A section summarizing the current labor force situation of minority workers, including subsections on immigrants, expenditures, and Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) projections of minority participation in the labor force, follows. The chapter concludes with a discussion of current efforts to meet demands for better data on minorities, particularly persons of multiracial backgrounds.

A History of Immigration and Migration

Colonial era. Initially, Britain's North American colonies were peopled by immigrants from the British Isles. These immigrants included

not only those who came to the New World for economic gain, but also religious minorities, political dissidents, minor criminals, and indentured servants. Soon, however, the colonial economies began to grow rapidly, increasing their demand for labor. "By the beginning of the eighteenth century government officials had decided that it was in the interest of England to improve and thicken her colonies with people not her own."¹ Two strategies were followed in order to fill the gap. First, the slave trade was developed through royal charters. Second, Protestants from other European countries were actively sought as settlers, with funds often provided for their transportation.

Independence. After the Revolutionary War, immigrants continued to pour into the new country. Although the new nation had been able to end the British practice of transporting political and criminal prisoners, it was unable to put an end to the slave trade, despite the fact that many found it objectionable. Consequently, even though immigrants from Europe flowed to the United States in large numbers, it

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has been estimated that more Africans than Europeans came to the United States each year until 1840, and that cumulative European immigration did not surpass that of Africans until 1880.² This may seem shocking, considering that President Thomas Jefferson signed a bill in 1807 that made it illegal to import any person of color into the United States as a slave.³ However, little effort was made to enforce this law over the next 50 years. Shipbuilders from Baltimore even continued constructing slave ships, and underwriters still insured those ships.⁴

Early on, problems assimilating some of the immigrants began to arise. Among the European immigrants were a sizable number of Germans and Irish who were Roman Catholics. Anti-Catholic sentiment began to emerge and was adopted by such groups as the Native American movement (not to be confused with American Indians) in 1837, followed by the Know-Nothing party around 1850. These were the first major political movements endorsing the limitation of immigration of certain groups,⁵ thus marking the beginning of an exclusionary movement that eventually culminated in the highly restrictive National Origins Act of 1924.

The Great Irish Migration. During the 19th and early 20th centuries, Ireland, one of Europe's smallest countries, accounted for more immigrants than any other European nation. Indeed, for most of the second half of the nineteenth century, "the rate of Irish emigration was more than double that of any other European country, with as many as 13 per thousand emigrating on average each year."⁶ Altogether, about 4.5 million Irish immigrated to the United States between 1820 and 1930 according to American statistics,⁷ and the Irish represented at least a third of the foreign-born population of the country between 1850 and 1870. (See table 1-1.)

The failure of the Irish potato crop in 1845-46 helped provide the impetus for this mass migration. The Irish economy was largely agrarian, dependent upon the export of cattle and grain to England. Thus, most of the product of the Irish farmers was sold, leaving the potato as the staple food of the farmer and his family. Consequently, when the potato crop failed, famine ensued. The effects of this famine were profound; more than 1 million people died from starvation and disease.⁸ Millions of

Irish fled their homeland and, by 1891, the population of Ireland (4.7 million) was only 57 percent of what it had been 50 years earlier.⁹

Asian immigration and the origins of exclusionary legislation. While the Irish were crossing the Atlantic, Chinese laborers were crossing the Pacific. By the beginning of the Civil War, contract laborers from China had become abundant on the West Coast. However, they were soon perceived as competing with domestic labor; they typically worked long hours for considerably less pay than their domestic counterparts. In addition, their language and culture were very different from that of the predominant European-based culture. For a time, Chinese contract labor was concentrated largely on the west coast. But that changed following the completion of the Nation's first transcontinental railroad in May 1869. The next month, the Nation's first convention to discuss the importation of Chinese labor was held in Memphis, Tennessee, organized and attended by businessmen from nine southern States and California.¹⁰

A year later, 75 Chinese laborers arrived in North Adams, Massachusetts, to break a strike, working for pay less than half that of the striking workers.¹¹ Reacting to a perceived threat (Chinese labor was likened to slavery, and Chinese laborers were depicted as stealing food from honest white workers¹²), politicians began to introduce legislation aimed at limiting Chinese immigration or banning it altogether.

In 1879, the U.S. Congress passed the first immigration restriction law aimed at a particular nationality. The Fifteen Passenger Bill limited the number of Chinese passengers on any ship entering the United States to 15. But because it would have violated the 1868 Burlingame-Seward treaty between the United States and China, which recognized the rights of Chinese to emigrate, the bill was vetoed.¹³

In 1880, however, America and China signed a new agreement, called the Angell Treaty, that allowed the United States to limit Chinese immigration. Two years later, President Chester A. Arthur signed the Chinese Exclusion Act. This act barred Chinese immigrant laborers for 10 years. It was renewed in 1892, again in 1902 and, in 1904, was renewed for an indefinite length of time.¹⁴ The passage of this act paved the way for further restrictive legislation affecting not only Asians, but Europeans as well.

European immigration in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. There was a pronounced shift in the country of origin of European immigrants beginning in the late 19th century. Originally, European immigrants tended to come from northwestern Europe. (See table 1-1.) In the late 1800s, this trend gradually began to change and, by the early 1900s, the majority of European immigrants were from southern and eastern Europe. These new immigrants came from areas with cultural and linguistic traditions considerably different from those of the earlier European immigrants. Thus, the United States found itself confronted by problems in assimilating these new immigrants.

President Theodore Roosevelt helped set up a factfinding commission to resolve the problem.¹⁵ In 1911, the Immigration Commission published a report that “lamented the progressive shift in the sources of immigration away from northwestern and toward southern and eastern Europe, perceiving it as a decline in immigrant quality.”¹⁶ In 1917, a literacy act was passed (this had been attempted earlier, without success) to restrict European immigration and, in 1921, the United States passed the Emergency Quota Act, which applied immigration quotas based on nationality or origin. The provisions of this act were renewed and made more restrictive by the National Origins Act of 1924. The quota system was reaffirmed in the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952. With few exceptions, these quotas remained relatively intact until President Johnson signed the Immigration and Nationality Act of 1965, which finally did away with the system of national origin, race, or ancestry quotas for immigration to the United States.¹⁷ More recently, the Immigration Reform and Control Act of 1986 permitted some undocumented aliens to obtain lawful permanent residence, and the Immigration Act of 1990 increased the annual cap on immigration.¹⁸

The impact of these legislative changes can be seen in the statistics. In 1960, about 5 percent of the foreign-born population were Asian and 9 percent were from Latin America, while almost 75 percent were from Europe. By 2000, a little more than 25 percent of the foreign-born population came from Asia and 51 percent came from Latin America, compared with 15 percent from Europe. (See table 1-1.)

Blacks leave the South. Not all migrations have come from abroad. There have also been large shifts in population within our borders. One that has had far-reaching effects on the Nation was the mass movement of blacks out of the rural South. Between 1910 and 1920, the black population of the North rose by almost 700,000, and by 1930 nearly 1 million blacks had left the South.¹⁹ Some areas in South Chicago went from being predominantly white to predominantly black in a very short period.²⁰ Poverty, racial segregation, and Jim Crow laws in the South, coupled with a boom in war industries and a decline in immigrant labor from abroad, combined to bring about this population shift.

Not only did blacks move out of the South, they also moved to urban centers. In 1940, for instance, 48 percent of the black population was classified as urban. By 1960, this number had risen to 80 percent.²¹ Data from the Current Population Survey indicate that 86 percent of blacks lived in metropolitan areas in 1999, with 55 percent in central cities.²² This shift of the black population from the relative isolation of the rural South to urban centers in the North and elsewhere turned national attention to problems and tensions that had previously existed mainly in the South.

Counting Minorities

The decennial census. The counting of minorities began virtually at the inception of the Republic. A constitutional requirement established the United States as the first country to provide for “a regular periodic enumeration of its inhabitants.”²³ In order to determine each State’s share of direct taxes and congressional representation, a nationwide census of the population on a regular basis was established by the United States Constitution:

Representatives and direct Taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective Numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole Number of free Persons, including those bound to Service for a Term of Years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other Persons. The actual Enumeration shall be made within three Years after

the first Meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent Term of ten Years, in such Manner as they shall by Law direct. (Article 1, Section 2)²⁴

Since 1790, when the first decennial census was undertaken, there have been numerous approaches to counting various racial and ethnic groups. (See box on p. 19.) Many of the changes in the census questions coincide roughly with immigration milestones. For instance, in 1850, after the substantial Irish immigration got under way, a question was asked about the country of birth. The census of 1870 specifically counted Chinese just as concerns over Chinese contract labor were arising.

In 1910, a question was added about the native language of individuals (“mother tongue,” in the terminology of the day). This was an attempt to identify more clearly the ethnic groups coming to the United States from eastern and southern Europe. Many of these immigrants were coming from the great multiethnic empires of Austria-Hungary, Russia, and Germany, and it was felt that the question on country of origin was simply inadequate, if not altogether misleading, as a means of classifying these new émigrés by origin.²⁵ Beginning in 1960, Hispanics were identified by the census, and in each following decade, the number and variety of groups that were counted increased.

In most censuses, the enumerators determined the race of respondents. Beginning with the 1970 census, however, the respondents themselves identified their race and ethnicity category. (The 1970 census was also the first to be conducted primarily by mail; prior censuses had relied on personal visits by enumerators.)

At various times, the census has attempted to identify people of what is now termed multiracial ancestry. For instance, in 1850 a category designated “mulatto” was included. In 1870, this was expanded to include the categories of “quadroon” and “octoroon.” In 1930, however, the interviewer’s instructions did not provide for any mixed-race categories. Instead, people were categorized into a limited number of race and ethnic classifications. Essentially, the rule was that any combination of white and any other racial ancestry was reported as the race of the parent who was not white.²⁶ Seventy years later, in 2000, the census once again gave respondents the opportu-

nity to be identified as having multiracial ancestry by allowing them to check more than one race category.

In the mid-19th century, questions were added to several censuses to measure a nonrace and nonethnic minority—persons with certain kinds of disabilities. These were the blind, the deaf, the mute, the mentally ill, and the retarded. No further attempt was made to identify persons with disabilities until 1970, when a question was added regarding work disabilities. This question was further refined over the decades until, in 2000, the census attempted to identify persons with physical or mental conditions, or both, that impacted their lives.

The Current Population Survey. The Current Population Survey (CPS) is an ongoing monthly sample survey, conducted for the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) by the U.S. Census Bureau, that collects information on the employment status of persons. BLS uses this information to produce monthly estimates of employment and unemployment.²⁷ The survey is also the primary intercensal source for demographic and other socio-economic information on the population. Over time, it has become an important source of data on many of the Nation’s minority groups.

The origins of the CPS date back to the late 1930s, when initial efforts were made to measure unemployment. Much of the developmental work during this period was done by the Works Progress Administration (WPA). By the early 1940s, the effort had been shifted to the Census Bureau. During the war years, the Census Bureau redesigned the sample and, in 1945, revised the questionnaire.²⁸

These early questionnaires collected demographic data on household members similar to that which is collected today. For instance, a CPS questionnaire from June 1946 asked about the respondent’s sex, age at last birthday, and “color.” Under “color,” three entries were allowed: White, Negro, and other. In 1952, this category was renamed “race,” although the same information was still collected.

In April 1973, a category labeled “ethnicity” was added, and the interviewer was instructed to indicate a numeric code that corresponded to the ethnic origin that the respondent identified from a flashcard. While “race” was a term used to indicate a division of the population into groups distinguished by physical characteristics, “ethnicity” was a concept

Selected information on personal characteristics collected by decennial census by year	
Year	Information collected (using terminology of the time)
1790	Free whites; and slaves
1800	Free whites (except Indians not taxed); and slaves
1810	Free whites (except Indians not taxed); and slaves
1820	Free whites (except Indians not taxed); foreigners not naturalized; free colored persons; and slaves
1830	Free whites; slaves; and free colored
1840	Free whites; slaves; free colored; deaf, dumb, and insane whites; and deaf, dumb, and insane colored
1850	White; black; mulatto; country of birth; deaf, dumb, and insane whites; and deaf, dumb, and insane coloreds
1860	White; black; mulatto; country of birth; number of slaves; deaf, dumb, and insane whites; and deaf, dumb, and insane coloreds
1870	White; black; mulatto; quadroon; octoroon; ¹ Chinese; Indian; country of birth; foreign-born parentage; and deaf, dumb, and insane
1880	White; black; mulatto; quadroon; octoroon; Chinese; Indian; country of birth; and country of birth of parents
1890	White; black; mulatto; quadroon; octoroon; Chinese; Japanese; Indian; country of birth; and country of birth of parents
1900	White; black; mulatto; Chinese; Japanese; Indian; country of birth; country of birth of parents; and year of immigration
1910	White; black; mulatto; Chinese; Japanese; Indian; other; country of birth; country of birth of parents; native language; and English fluency
1920	White; black; mulatto; Chinese; Japanese; Indian; other; country of birth; country of birth of parents; native language; native language of parents; and English fluency
1930	White; black; Chinese; Japanese; Indian; Mexican; country of birth; country of birth of parents; native language; and English fluency ²
1940	White; black; mulatto; Chinese; Japanese; Indian; Filipino; Hindu; Korean; country of birth; citizenship of the foreign-born; and country of birth of parents

¹ According to the 1870 census instructions, "the word 'black' should be used to describe those persons who have three-fourths or more black blood (sic); 'mulatto,' those persons who have from three-eighths to five-eighths black blood (sic); 'quadroon,' those persons who have one-fourth black blood (sic); and 'octoroon,' those persons who have one-eighth or any trace of black blood (sic)."

² The 1930 census had specific instructions for reporting race. "A person of mixed white and Negro blood was to be returned as Negro, no matter how small the percentage of Negro blood; someone part Indian and part Negro also was to be listed as Negro unless the Indian blood predominated and the person was generally accepted as an Indian in the community. A person of mixed white and Indian blood was to be returned as an Indian, except where the Indian blood is very small or where he or she was regarded as white in the community."

Selected information on personal characteristics collected by decennial census by year	
Year	Information collected (using terminology of the time)
1950	White; Negro; American Indian; Japanese; Chinese; Filipino; Hawaiian; part Hawaiian; Aleut, Eskimo, and so forth; country of birth; and country of birth of parents
1960	White; Negro or Black; Indian (American); Japanese; Chinese; Filipino; Hawaiian; Korean; other; country of birth; parents' place of birth; and Hispanic origin
1970	White; Asian Indian; Black or Negro; Hawaiian; Japanese; Guamanian; Chinese; Samoan; Filipino; Eskimo; Korean; Aleut; Vietnamese; Indian (American); other; Spanish/Hispanic origin or descent (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, other Spanish, none of these); country of birth; language spoken at home; ancestry; and work disability.
1980	White; Black or Negro; Indian (American); Eskimo; Aleut; Chinese; Japanese; Filipino; Asian Indian; Hawaiian; Samoan; Korean; Guamanian; Vietnamese; other race; Spanish/Hispanic origin (Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, Central or South American, other Spanish, none of these); country of birth; ancestry or ethnic origin; language spoken at home; English fluency; and disability.
1990	White; Black or Negro; Indian (American); Eskimo; Aleut; Chinese; Japanese; Filipino; Asian Indian; Hawaiian; Samoan; Korean; Guamanian; Vietnamese; other Asian and Pacific Islander; other race; Spanish/Hispanic origin; country of birth; ancestry or ethnic origin; language spoken at home; English fluency; and disability.
2000	White; Black or Negro; Indian (American); Eskimo; Aleut; Chinese; Japanese; Filipino; Asian Indian; Hawaiian; Samoan; Korean; Guamanian; Vietnamese; other Asian and Pacific Islander; other race; multiracial; Spanish/Hispanic origin; country of birth; ancestry or ethnic origin; language spoken at home; English fluency; and disability.

that divided the population into groups according to shared cultural, linguistic, or national origin characteristics. Thus, "ethnicity" was a concept that could cut across racial groups. In September 1974, the label was changed from "ethnicity" to "origin." The primary purpose of this question was to identify persons of Hispanic origin.

In January 1979, in response to OMB Directive 15,²⁹ the race category "other" was disaggregated into three groups: American Indians, Asians, and Pacific Islanders.

Determining an individual's race has always been somewhat problematic. According to the American Anthropological Association, "The concept of race is a social and cultural construction, with no basis in human biology—race can simply not be tested or proven scientifically."³⁰

Until the late 1970s (as was the case with the decennial census until 1970), the interviewer determined race. Following are the instructions concerning the determination and coding of race issued in 1961:³¹

The codes used for race: "W" for white, "Neg." for Negro, and "OT" for Other. Record Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, and other persons of Latin-American descent as white, unless they are definitely of Negro or other non-white race.

Enter "Neg." for Negroes and for persons of mixed white and Negro parentage. A person of mixed American Indian, and Negro blood should be entered as "Negro," unless you [the interviewer] know that the Indian blood

very definitely predominated and that he is regarded in the community as an Indian. Enter "OT" for races other than white or Negro, such as Japanese, Chinese, American Indian, Korean, Hindu, Eskimo, etc.

For persons of mixed parentage:

- 1) Mixture of white and nonwhite races, report race of nonwhite parent
- 2) Mixture of nonwhite races, report according to the race of the father.

You can usually determine race by observation, but should inquire in the case of servants, hired hands, or other persons unrelated to the household head.

While these instructions provided a systematic way of categorizing individuals by race, the classifications were rather arbitrary and dependent on the enumerator's preconceptions. And in the case of mixed parentage, that is, white and nonwhite or any combination of nonwhites, the classification directions were inconsistent.

Beginning in October 1978, the interviewer was no longer permitted to determine the race of household members by observation. Instead, the interviewer was required to ask the household respondent the race of each household member, presenting the respondent with a flashcard that listed racial categories. The purpose of this change was to provide more accurate estimates of characteristics by race. According to interviewer instructions:³²

It is important that you ask the question in all cases even though the respondent's race may seem obvious. Studies have indicated that there is a significant difference in the recording of racial categories between the procedures of asking race as opposed to marking it by observation. What may seem obvious to the observer is in some cases not what the respondent considers himself/herself. Misrecorded cases potentially have a serious impact on the quality of the final CPS data. Also, some households are comprised of persons of different races. The assumption that all household or family members are of the same race as the respondent is not valid.

Like the determination of race, the determination of "origin" was left up to the re-

spondent. He or she was shown a flashcard and asked to pick the appropriate origin or descent. The origin question was asked *in addition* to the race question. According to the interviewer's manual:³³

Origin or descent refers to the *national* or *cultural* group from which a person is descended and is determined by the nationality or lineage of a person's ancestors. There is no set rule as to how many generations are to be taken into account in determining origin. A respondent may report origin based on the origin of a parent, grandparent, or some far-removed ancestor.

During the last CPS revision, which began in 1986 and terminated when the current, redesigned survey system and questionnaire were placed in service in 1994, questions having to do with the demographic characteristics of household members were reviewed and revised where appropriate. The questions on race and origin, however, remained virtually unchanged.³⁴

Publication of Information on Minority Workers

Late 19th and early 20th century. During this period, data collection methods were crude and limited in scope by today's standards. As a result, studies frequently looked at conditions in limited geographic areas, and the data used were often of an anecdotal nature.

In May 1897, the Department of Labor (the name at the time of the Federal agency that would eventually evolve into today's Bureau of Labor Statistics) published a bulletin entitled "Conditions of the Negro in Various Cities," by George G. Bradford. The study focused on the very high mortality rates of blacks, as well as the characteristics of black families.

In 1898, the Department of Labor published W. E. B. Du Bois' first study on African Americans, "The Negroes of Farm-ville, Virginia." In 1899, the Department published another of Du Bois' works, "The Negro in the Black Belt," which was based on his students' experiences. (Du Bois was a professor of sociology at the University of Atlanta.)

In 1901, three more black studies, two by William Taylor Thom, and the third by Du Bois, were published, and another two were issued the next year (1902). For the next

decade and a half, little was published in the way of minority studies, as what was to become the Bureau of Labor Statistics underwent several reorganizations. Finally, in 1918 (by which time the Bureau of Labor Statistics had become part of a new Department of Labor), publication of studies on blacks resumed. (See box below.)

In the February 1918 edition of the Bureau's *Monthly Review*, a study by Abraham Epstein, entitled "The Negro Migrant in Pittsburgh," appeared. The migration of blacks from the South had begun to put a strain on the communities in the North. This study focused on the increase of blacks within the city of Pittsburgh, with the goal of producing information that would prove useful to other northern cities experiencing significant increases in black population.

In 1920, the *Monthly Labor Review* (the name of the *Monthly Review* was changed to *Monthly Labor Review* in July 1918) published an article examining the effect of black labor in the stove industry. The article argued in favor of the "cordial acceptance" of the black worker within this industry, while describing the black laborer's difficulties. The article further described black people as a part of American society, as legitimate as any other citizens of the country and having the same common needs. (It would appear that the editorial policy for the *Monthly Labor Review* in the early part of the 20th century gave authors a great deal more latitude in expressing opinions or

making recommendations regarding social policy than does today's politically- and policy-neutral *Review*.)

Blacks were not the only minority group for which information was presented in the *Monthly Labor Review*. A regular feature in the early years of the *Review* was the publication of national immigration figures. These figures were normally published every 2 months, and this continued until 1920. Interestingly, in June of 1918, there was a focus on Japanese migration for the previous year. A 1920 article looked at the situation in several western States that had seen an increase in the number of Mexican laborers. The Department of Labor had issued orders temporarily admitting Mexicans to alleviate labor shortages within agriculture. As a result, there was a widespread belief among domestic agricultural laborers that they were losing jobs to low-wage Mexican labor. The study found that "in the 25 towns and cities visited...the number of Mexicans displacing white men was negligible" and that "a dire and imperative need was met in making the exceptions and permitting Mexican labor to enter this country on easy terms to meet the abnormal demand for common labor."³⁵ Because immigration from Europe and elsewhere had practically ceased, the Mexican workers were found to provide an effective alternative to that lost labor source.

The Current Population Survey era. As noted above, the CPS is an extremely rich source of

Division of Negro Economics

World War I had brought a great many blacks to the cities, particularly in the North, to fill labor needs. In 1921, a *Monthly Labor Review* article examined a division of the Department of Labor that devoted itself to the results of this migration, and the situations it created. The Division of Negro Economics was responsible for looking into the problems that resulted when large groups of black workers sought jobs in northern defense plants.¹ The Division's director was Dr. George E. Haynes and, under his direction, 11 State committees and about 225 local county and city committees, with a membership numbering more than 1,000, were appointed. The work of these committees was to promote a national campaign "to create good feeling between the races, and to have both white and Negro citizens understand and cooperate with the purpose and plans of the department."² The division published an indepth report on the industrial experiences of blacks during and after World War I that included an investigation into race troubles in Chicago. This division contributed to normalizing race relations during the early 20th century. It was the first of its kind to attempt such work, and was the forerunner of later Federal programs to promote black equality.

¹ See U.S. Department of Labor, 2000.

² See "Industrial Relations," 1921, p.140.

demographic information for a wide variety of topics, including the labor force. It is not feasible, therefore, to present an exhaustive account of all published data from the CPS dealing with minorities here. This section will attempt merely to highlight some milestones in the publication of labor force data for minorities.

Labor force data by race from the CPS were first published in 1950 (the data were for 1949).³⁶ The estimates, which reported the “color” of workers, were expressed in percentages, not numbers, because the population controls needed to produce estimates of levels by race had not yet been developed. In January 1953, population controls based on the 1950 decennial census were introduced into the CPS estimation process and, later in the year (September), the process was further improved so that estimates by race could be produced. In 1955, employment levels for whites and nonwhites were first published.³⁷ (It should be noted that such data are available back to 1954.³⁸)

At first, data on race were published only for whites and a catchall group called nonwhites. For years, the nonwhite group was used to represent blacks because the overwhelming majority of nonwhites in the United States were blacks (92 percent in 1960 and 89 percent in 1970.) By 1980, however, blacks as a proportion of the total nonwhite group had shrunk to 84 percent. Thus, the nonwhite category had only limited value in analyzing changes in labor force activity either among blacks or among the other race groups, including Asians, Pacific Islanders, and American Indians. These other groups tended to have significantly different labor force characteristics than did blacks. Thus, in 1983 BLS began to publish data for blacks only. Black-only data also were computed for many series going back to 1972. For historical continuity, however, the Bureau continued to publish some basic series for the group now called “black and other.”³⁹

Interestingly, while the official change to the publication of black-only data came in 1983, there are examples of data for blacks being published almost a decade earlier. In the April 1974 issue of the BLS publication *Employment and Earnings*, Negro-only data were referred to for the first time in the “Concepts” section of the Technical Note.⁴⁰ The same publication contained a table with quarterly data for blacks only and for Hispanics.⁴¹ However, data for the combined “black and

other” group continued to appear in the Department of Labor’s monthly *Employment Situation* press release until the issuance of January 1982 data. That was when 1980 census population controls were incorporated into the CPS estimation procedures and data for blacks only and for Hispanics first appeared as a regular part of the monthly press release.⁴² Monthly data for blacks only did not appear in *Employment and Earnings* for another year, until the January 1983 estimates were published.⁴³ Monthly data for the “black and other” group also continued to be published in *Employment and Earnings* for about another decade.

Current Data on Minority Workers

Over time, the scope and variety of data published by BLS for black and Hispanic workers have increased enormously. This section presents an overview of these data and some of the major findings. It is intended to illustrate the range of information available, rather than being a comprehensive analysis of the status of minorities.

Labor force participation rates. In 2000, there was little difference among labor force participation rates for blacks (65.8 percent), Hispanics (68.6), and whites (67.4 percent). However, there were sizable differences among these groups when the rates by gender were compared. (See table 1-2.)

Labor force participation rates for black men (69.0 percent) continued to be lower than those for Hispanic or white men (80.6 percent and 75.4 percent, respectively). This same pattern of differences (Hispanic and white men as more likely than black men to be in the labor force) was true for every age group as well. Among women, labor force participation rates were higher for black women (63.2 percent) than for their Hispanic (56.9 percent) or white (59.8 percent) counterparts. For each age category except teenagers, Hispanic women’s participation rates were lower than those of the other two groups.

The overall participation rate for blacks has grown from 60.2 percent in 1973 to nearly 66 percent in recent years.⁴⁴ (See table 1-3.) This growth has been solely due to the increased participation of black women in the labor force: for black women, participation rates rose by nearly 14 percentage points, to 63.2 percent, from 1973 to 2000, while rates

for black men fell by 4.4 percentage points. The pattern of change was similar among whites but, among Hispanics, men's participation rates did not decline as much as those of black or white men.

Unemployment. From 1992 to 2000, jobless rates have declined dramatically for the major race and ethnic groups, with the decline for blacks being greater than those for the other two groups. For blacks, the rate dropped 6.6 percentage points, while that for Hispanics fell by 5.9 points, and that for whites declined by 3.1 points. (See table 1-4.) The decrease in unemployment among blacks may partly reflect gains for both men and women in the proportions with schooling beyond high school:

Percent of the labor force 25 years and older with more than a high school diploma

	1992	2000
Black:		
Men	39.9	49.2
Women	44.6	54.2
Hispanic:		
Men	29.4	30.9
Women	34.7	38.0
White:		
Men	52.7	57.8
Women	52.6	60.0

Yet, despite the improvements in the unemployment rates for blacks and Hispanics, blacks continue to be a little more than twice as likely as whites to be unemployed, while Hispanics are not quite 2 times as likely as whites to be unemployed.

Education and occupation. Education is an important predictor of labor market outcomes. The more educated the worker, the more likely he or she is to be in the labor force, and the less likely to be unemployed. Moreover, when those with more education are employed, they are much more likely to work in a high-paying managerial or professional occupation.

Although whites continue to have more education than do either blacks or Hispanics, black women and men have made remarkable educational progress in recent years. As the text table above shows, close to 40 percent of black men and 45 percent of black women in the labor force had at least some education beyond the high school level in 1992. By 2000, these proportions had grown to about 49 percent and 54 percent, respectively.

Because education level is an important factor in the occupational self-selection of workers, it is not surprising that the occupational distributions of blacks, Hispanics, and whites vary greatly. For instance, table 1-5 shows that white men are far more likely to be managers or professionals (29.2 percent) than are black or Hispanic men (18.5 percent and 11.4 percent, respectively). Among women, 24.8 percent of blacks and 17.8 percent of Hispanics are managers or professionals, compared with 33.4 percent of whites.

Earnings. Education and occupation, of course, impact earnings. Among full-time wage and salary workers, the median weekly earnings of blacks (\$468) and Hispanics (\$396) were much lower than those of whites (\$591). For both blacks and Hispanics, the earnings gap is more pronounced among men than among women—the median for black men was 75.2 percent of that of white men and that of Hispanic men was 61.9 percent of that of their white counterparts. Among women, blacks earned 85.8 percent of what white women earned, while Hispanics earned 72.8 percent. (See table 1-6.)

Since 1986, the earnings gap between black and white men has actually closed slightly. However, the gap between the earnings of the other minority groups (black women and Hispanics) and those of their white counterparts has grown.

Among workers paid hourly rates, there was very little difference among whites, blacks, and Hispanics in the proportions who worked for a wage at or below the prevailing Federal minimum wage (\$5.15 per hour) in 2000. Only about 3.2 percent of Hispanic hourly paid workers earned the minimum or less, as did 3.6 percent of blacks and 3.8 percent of whites.

Labor force projections, 1998-2008.⁴⁵ With the exception of profound social and cultural changes such as those that led to the surge of women into the labor force in the 1970s and early 1980s, population growth is the main engine behind labor force growth. The civilian noninstitutional population will continue to increase over the 1998-2008 period, at roughly the same rate as during the previous 10 years. Numbers of Asians (and others) and Hispanics are projected to continue to grow much faster than those of whites or blacks. One of the major factors underlying the growth in the Hispanic and Asian populations in recent years has been the massive migration to the United

States that started in the 1970s and continues today. And, while immigration is expected to decrease slightly between 1998 and 2008, projected net immigration will remain a sizable proportion of population growth over the 1998-2008 projection period.

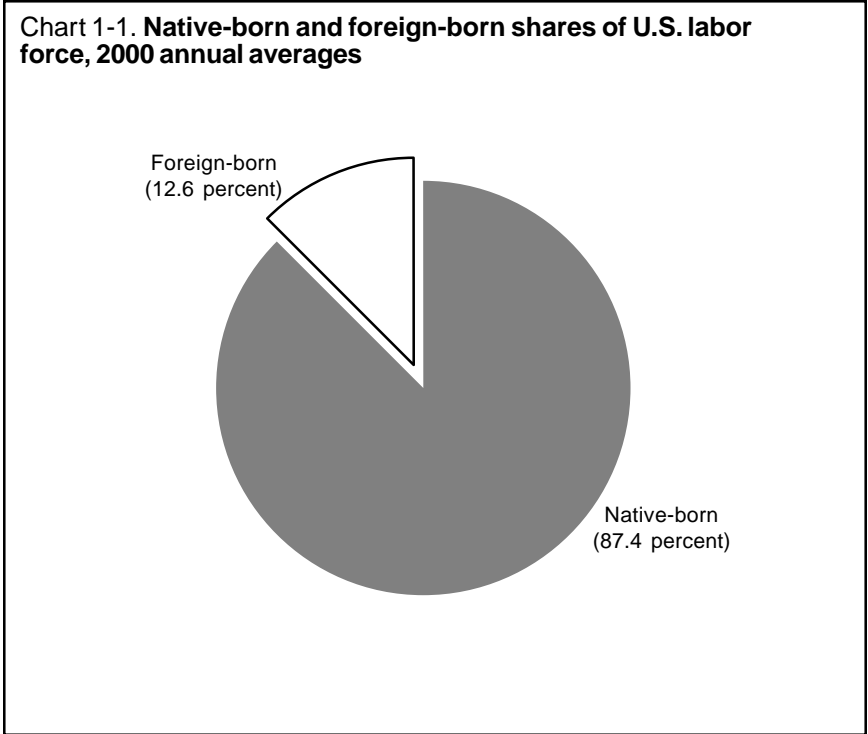
All of the race and ethnic groups in the labor force are projected to continue to grow between 1998 and 2008, but somewhat more slowly than over the preceding 10 years. Of the four race and ethnic groups shown in table 1-7, the "Asian and other" labor force is projected to increase the most rapidly, followed by Hispanics, and then blacks. As a result, by 2008 the Hispanic labor force is projected to overtake the black labor force in size. (The Asian labor force is less than half the size of either the black or the Hispanic labor force.) For all three groups, much of the change in labor force size is due to population growth, which, for Hispanics and Asians, will result from continued immigration.

Despite gains in the numbers in the labor force, relatively little change is anticipated in labor force participation rates overall during the 1998-2008 period (barring, of course, major secular or cyclical changes, or both.)

Indeed, as table 1-8 shows, the labor force participation rates for Hispanics and Asians are projected to remain virtually unchanged between 1998 and 2008. In contrast, the participation rate for blacks is expected to grow by 0.7 percentage point, and that for whites, by 0.6 percentage point.

Immigrants. Foreign-born⁴⁶ workers make up nearly 13 percent of the U.S. workforce. (See chart 1-1.) The labor force participation rates of the foreign-born, overall, are generally lower than those of their native-born counterparts, largely because foreign-born women are less likely to be in the labor force than are native-born women. (See table 1-9.)

The labor force participation rates of the foreign-born also vary by race and ethnicity. Among non-Hispanic whites, the foreign-born generally have lower participation rates than did natives, while, among non-Hispanic blacks and Hispanics, the foreign-born are more likely to be in the labor force than are their native counterparts. The participation rates of non-Hispanic foreign-born Asians are about the same as those of their native-born counterparts.



The Consumer Expenditure Survey

The data shown in this section are derived from the results of the Consumer Expenditure (CE) Surveys of 1994 (Hispanic comparison only) and 1999. The data collected are the most detailed source of consumer expenditures by demographic characteristic (age, income, and so forth) compiled by the Federal Government. The survey consists of two components: A quarterly Interview and a biweekly Diary. Participants in the Interview survey are asked to recall expenditures on a variety of items for the 3 months prior to the interview. Participants in the Diary survey are given a diary in which to fill out all their expenditures for a specified week. This diary is retrieved and replaced by a fresh one for the second consecutive (and final) week of participation. The samples for each survey are independently selected, so that no family is chosen to participate in both surveys.

Characteristics of the consumer unit are based on those reported for the reference person.¹ These include race and ethnicity. For race, the reference person may be reported to be white; black; American Indian, Aleut, or Eskimo; Asian or Pacific Islander; or of an other race. As for ethnicity, the reference person may be described as a member of one of several European ethnicities (English, Irish, French, German, and so on); as African-American; as one of several Hispanic ethnicities; or as a member of an "other" ethnic group. Hispanic ethnicities for which data are collected are: Mexican; Mexican-American; Chicano; Puerto Rican; Cuban; Central or South American; and other Spanish.

¹The reference person is the first member mentioned by the respondent when asked to "start with the name of the person or one of the persons who owns or rents the home." It is with respect to this person that the relationship of other consumer unit members is determined.

Foreign-born workers are about as likely to be unemployed as are the native-born. (See table 1-10.) Among the major race and ethnic groups, the unemployment rate among foreign-born non-Hispanic whites is about the same as that of their native-born counterparts. The jobless rates among foreign-born Asians (non-Hispanic), blacks (non-Hispanic), and Hispanics are lower than, or about the same as, the rates for their native-born counterparts.

Given the poorer educational backgrounds of many immigrants, it is not surprising that foreign-born workers were more likely than the native-born to be in occupations typified by low earnings. (See table 1-11.) In 2000, about 19 percent of the foreign-born were employed in service occupations, and the same proportion worked as operators, fabricators, and laborers. The proportion of native-born workers employed in each of these two categories was 13 percent. In contrast, the foreign-born were substantially less likely to be employed in high-paying occupations, such as managerial and professional specialty occupations, than were the native-born (23 percent versus 31 percent, respectively). Not

surprisingly, therefore, the median weekly earnings of foreign-born full-time wage and salary workers were \$447, or 76 percent of the \$591 that native-born workers earned weekly in 2000. The median earnings of foreign-born women were about 81 percent those of their native-born counterparts, while the median for foreign-born men was 71 percent of that of their native-born counterparts. (See table 1-12.)

How minorities spend their money. Expenditure amounts are dependent on income and, to a degree, on household size (Hispanic consumer units have, on average, more members than do black ones). Consequently, differences in expenditure patterns across demographic groups may be clearer if the expenditures are expressed in percentages of the total, rather than dollar amounts. (See box above for a description of the expenditure data source, the Consumer Expenditure Survey.)

Comparisons by race and Hispanic origin. There are some similarities between black and nonblack consumer units. For example, each has about the same family size, on average.

(Black consumer units have more children, but fewer persons over age 65.) They also have comparable numbers of earners. However, there are many differences. For example, reported income before taxes⁴⁷ is much lower for black families (\$30,427) than for nonblack families (\$45,688). Also, fewer than one-half of black consumer units reside in an “owned dwelling,” compared with more than two-thirds of nonblack ones. Blacks are about 3 years younger, on average, than are nonblacks; have fewer vehicles, on average; and are less likely to have attended college. Given these differences, it is not surprising to see differences in expenditure patterns for these groups. (See tables 1-13 and 1-14.)

Blacks allocate a larger share of total expenditures (10 percent) to food at home than do nonblacks (8 percent). It is likely that this difference reflects the fact that food needs for black and nonblack consumer units are similar, but that the income for blacks is lower, on average. However, each group spends about the same share (between 5 and 6 percent) on food away from home.

Data for housing are more challenging to analyze. As noted, black consumer units are much more likely to be renters than are nonblack consumer units. Also, many renters have utilities included in their rents. Therefore, comparing actual expenditure levels for shelter components is not appropriate. To adjust for this, expenditures for owned dwellings; rented dwellings; and utilities, fuels, and public services can be summed together into “basic housing.” When the summed expenditures are examined, it is found that black consumers allocate a larger share to housing (29 percent) than do nonblack consumers (25 percent).

Blacks also spend larger shares on apparel and services. However, shares for transportation are nearly identical for consumers of all races (19 percent). Black consumers allocate smaller shares for healthcare and entertainment.

Another measure of the status of different groups in the economy is their overall purchasing power—that is, the percentage of total expenditures in the entire economy accounted for by each of the different groups. These percentages are called “aggregate expenditure shares.”

As seen in table 1-14, blacks accounted for 12 percent of all consumer units in 1999, but for only 9 percent of total annual expenditures. This difference, of course, is due largely

to the fact that black income is lower, on average, than nonblack income. Thus, the gap between the proportion of the population and the proportion of total consumption becomes another means of measuring the relative well-being of the different groups. It is particularly interesting to note that this measure can indicate relative well-being in certain specific areas of consumption. For instance, black consumers account for 10 percent of total food-at-home expenditures and 7 percent of homeowner expenses. In contrast, they account for 16 percent of renter expenses, largely due to their disproportionate status as renters. Overall though, they account for less than 10 percent of total shelter spending.⁴⁸

Like blacks compared with nonblacks, Hispanics report less income, on average, than do non-Hispanics. (See table 1-15.) Hispanic consumer units allocate a larger share of total expenditures to food at home (11 percent) than do other units (8 percent), but this could be a function of family size as well as income. They allocate a slightly higher share to shelter and utilities (27 percent) than do non-Hispanics (25 percent), and the same is true for apparel and services (6.3 percent compared with 4.6 percent) and transportation (21 percent compared with 19 percent). However, they allocate smaller shares to healthcare and entertainment.

Aggregate expenditure shares are important for Hispanics for two reasons. First, they show how Hispanics fare compared with non-Hispanics currently (1999). (See table 1-16.) In 1999, Hispanics accounted for 8.4 percent of all consumer units. However, they accounted for only 7.5 percent of all consumer expenditures. They accounted for 10 percent of all food-at-home expenditures, and 8 percent of shelter expenditures. Like blacks, they account for a smaller share (6 percent) of owned dwelling expenditures and a much larger share of spending for rented dwellings (14 percent). They account for 10 percent of expenditures for apparel and services, perhaps because of their larger family sizes and larger number of children, but for only 4.8 percent of expenditures for healthcare and 5.5 percent of those for entertainment.

Second, Hispanics have been a growing segment of the population, and their share of total expenditures has grown too. (See table 1-17.) Accounting for fewer than 8 million consumer units in 1994, they numbered more than 9 million consumer units in 1999, an

increase of about 18 percent. In the same period, their share of aggregate expenditures rose from 6.3 percent to 7.5 percent.

Counting Minorities: New Directions

Early results of Census 2000 clearly show that the U.S. population is very diverse racially and ethnically. (See box on p. 29.) Additionally, legislation such as the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) has brought other kinds of minority groups to public attention. Consequently, the Federal Government is endeavoring to improve its ability to collect data that will reflect the diversity of the population more accurately.

In 1977, the U.S. Office of Management and Budget (OMB) issued standards for the reporting of statistical information on race and ethnicity by Federal agencies. Commonly referred to as "Directive No. 15," these standards provided the first consistent method for reporting race and ethnicity in the Federal Government. The standards required the collection of Hispanic data separately from race and, at a minimum, the collection of data on four racial categories—White; Black; American Indian, Eskimo, or Aleut; and Asian or Pacific Islander.

Beginning in the late 1980s, the standards came under criticism from those who believed that the minimum categories set forth in Directive No. 15 did not reflect the increasing diversity of our Nation's population that has resulted primarily from growth in immigration and in interracial marriages. In response to these criticisms, OMB announced in July 1993 that it would undertake a comprehensive review of the categories for data on race and ethnicity.

This review, conducted over a 4-year period, was done in collaboration with the Interagency Committee for the Review of the Racial and Ethnic Standards, which OMB established in March 1994 to facilitate the participation of Federal agencies in the review. The Committee, through its Research Working Group, carried out a research program to evaluate various proposals for revising the standards. This extensive research effort, including three national tests, examined alternative approaches for questions to collect data on race and ethnicity. The Committee recommended changes in the standards based on the research results, as well as on the consideration of related public comments and testi-

mony.

OMB adopted many of the changes to the standards recommended by the Committee in its new standards released on October 30, 1997, including the following:

1. A two-question format for the collection of data on race and ethnicity should be used in all cases involving self-identification, and the ethnicity question should precede the race question.
2. Individuals should be allowed to select more than one of the racial categories to identify their racial background.
3. The terms Eskimo and Aleut should be replaced by the term "Alaska Native."
4. Central and South American Indians should now be classified as American Indians.
5. The name of the "Black" category should be changed to "Black or African American."

In addition, OMB decided that the "Asian or Pacific Islander" category should be split into two categories—"Asian" and "Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander." OMB also changed the term used to refer to Hispanics from "Hispanic" to "Hispanic or Latino."

In order to comply with the new standards in the Current Population Survey (CPS), BLS and the Census Bureau conducted research to determine the race and ethnicity questions that meet the requirements of the standards and provide the most reliable and valid data. This research included a supplement to the CPS administered in July 2000. The race and ethnicity questions selected for use in the supplement were the following:

- A. Are you Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish?
 - (1) Yes
 - (2) No

If the respondent answered yes, then the interviewer asks for the name of the country of origin.

- B. Please select one or more of the following categories to describe your race.
 - (1) White
 - (2) Black, African American, or Negro
 - (3) American Indian or Alaska Native
 - (4) Asian
 - (5) Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

Census 2000

The 2000 Decennial Census contained questions on race and ethnicity similar to the ones being proposed for inclusion in the CPS. Respondents were thus able to report according to the revised race and ethnic guidelines from OMB. The results were released in early 2001. The population's race and ethnic profile at the time of the census (April 2000) is shown below:

	Percent
Total	100.0
One race	97.6
White	75.1
Black	12.3
American Indian or Alaskan Native9
Asian	3.6
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander1
Other	5.5
Two or more races	2.4
Hispanic origin ¹	12.5

¹ Hispanics can be of any race.

SOURCE: "Overview of Race and Hispanic Origin," Census 2000 Brief (Census Bureau, March 2001).

If the respondent indicates that his or her race is "other" (a category not shown to the respondent), he or she was asked for more-specific information.

Once the results of this test are analyzed and the new questions finalized, a new methodology for determining race and ethnicity will be implemented in the CPS in 2003.

With regard to the measurement of persons with disabilities, BLS, along with the Department of Labor's Presidential Task Force on the Employment of Adults with Disabilities, is leading a multi-agency effort to design a short set of questions for use in a household survey (the CPS) that would identify persons with disabilities. This effort was mandated in 1998 by Executive Order 13078, which directed BLS to develop a statistically reliable method of determining the employment rate of adults with disabilities.

Work on the project began in 1999 with a careful examination of all the major disability survey instruments. The exhaustive review of these instruments revealed serious problems with the question sets that were used. Consequently, BLS had to conduct further research and testing of individual disability questions found in various surveys to try to construct a minimum set of questions needed to identify people with disabilities.

The set of questions identified in this phase was then placed in a major, nationwide survey (the National Comorbidity Survey—or NCS) for testing in a live household survey environment. Because the NCS focuses on disability issues, particularly mental illness, a rigorous comparison of the results from the test questions with those from the regular NCS questions will reveal how well (or poorly) the test questions identify persons with disabilities, and how the questions might be improved.

Conclusion

The race and ethnic mix of the Nation's population has diversified considerably since colonial times, as shown in table 1-18. The ways in which minorities have been counted, first in the decennial censuses and then in the CPS, have evolved over time, reflecting, in part, a need for data to describe this growing diversity. The waves of immigrants from different parts of the world obviously have spurred the development of questions in the census asking about country of origin. The migration of blacks from the South focused national attention on the problems of blacks and created a demand for more data.

It took time, of course, for this demand to be met. Statistical theory, survey meth-

odologies, and automated data processing technologies needed to be developed and refined.

The classification methodology for race has changed. At first, it was assumed that census enumerators and CPS interviewers could distinguish racial groups simply by observation and community standards. As researchers began to realize that race was much more complex than a set of physical attributes, interviewers were instructed to ask respondents about their race. The situation has now evolved to the point that respondents can choose to identify themselves with more than one racial group, thus creating a new category—multiracial.

What does the future hold? Probably more of the same. Barring a return to the exclusion-

ary immigration policies of the 1920s, the United States likely will continue to be a nation in which increasing racial and ethnic diversity is the rule, not the exception. As in the past, people of diverse backgrounds will continue to contribute to a common culture, while maintaining many elements of their own cultural identities that help link them to their origins. As researchers, policymakers, and the public try to understand this process and deal with some of the problems that will inevitably arise (if past history is any indication), there will be continuing demands to develop and refine statistical measures that better illuminate the changing race and ethnic characteristics of America's population.

Table 1-1. Geographic area of birth of the foreign-born population in the United States, 1850 to 2000

Geographic Area	Year													
	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920	1930	1960 ¹	1970 ¹	1980 ¹	1990 ¹	2000 ²
Total foreign born (in thousands)	2,244.6	4,138.7	5,567.2	6,679.9	9,249.5	10,341.3	13,515.9	13,920.7	14,204.1	9,738.1	9,619.3	14,079.9	19,767.3	28,379.0
Percent distribution														
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
Europe	90.5	92.0	88.8	86.1	86.8	85.9	87.4	85.6	83.0	74.5	59.7	36.6	22.0	15.3
Northern and Western	90.1	91.2	87.0	82.3	78.8	69.7	54.1	44.8	41.2	34.2	27.3	16.9	10.4	—
Ireland	42.8	38.9	33.3	27.8	20.2	15.6	10.0	7.5	5.2	3.5	2.6	1.4	—	—
Southern and Eastern4	.8	1.7	3.7	7.9	16.2	33.3	40.7	41.7	40.1	32.1	19.5	11.6	—
Asia1	.9	1.2	1.6	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.7	1.9	5.0	8.6	18.0	25.2	25.5
China	(³)	.9	1.1	1.6	1.2	.8	.4	.3	.3	1.0	1.8	2.0	2.7	—
Latin America9	.9	1.0	1.3	1.2	1.3	2.1	4.2	5.6	9.3	18.8	31.1	42.5	51.0
Mexico6	.7	.8	1.0	.8	1.0	1.6	3.5	4.5	5.9	7.9	15.6	21.7	—
Other	8.5	6.2	9.0	10.9	10.8	11.6	9.1	8.5	9.5	11.1	13.0	14.3	10.3	8.1

¹ Indicates sample data.

² Annual average data from the Current Population Survey.

³ Indicates less than 0.05 percent.

NOTE: Dash indicates data not available.

SOURCE: U.S. Census Bureau.

Table 1-2. Labor force status of the population by age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin, annual averages, 2000
(Numbers in thousands)

Age and sex	Black			Hispanic origin			White		
	Population	Labor force	Labor force as a percent of population	Population	Labor force	Labor force as a percent of population	Population	Labor force	Labor force as a percent of population
TOTAL									
Total, 16 years and older	25,218	16,603	65.8	22,393	15,368	68.6	174,428	117,574	67.4
16 to 19 years	2,468	967	39.2	2,341	1,083	46.3	12,707	7,075	55.7
20 to 24 years	2,690	1,932	71.8	2,775	2,155	77.7	6,312	2,800	44.4
25 to 54 years	14,931	12,155	81.4	13,667	10,928	80.0	97,730	82,796	84.7
55 to 64 years	2,351	1,227	52.2	1,819	983	54.1	20,324	12,192	60.0
65 years and older	2,778	322	11.6	1,791	218	12.2	28,947	3,749	13.0
Men									
Total, 16 years and older	11,320	7,816	69.0	11,064	8,919	80.6	84,647	63,861	75.4
16 to 19 years	1,213	473	39.0	1,205	613	50.9	6,496	3,679	56.6
20 to 24 years	1,235	906	73.4	1,457	1,299	89.2	7,420	6,308	85.0
25 to 54 years	6,753	5,699	84.4	6,817	6,295	92.3	48,529	44,984	92.7
55 to 64 years	1,015	580	57.1	826	573	69.4	9,811	6,692	68.2
65 years and older	1,105	157	14.2	759	138	18.2	12,390	2,198	17.7
Women									
Total, 16 years and older	13,898	8,787	63.2	11,329	6,449	56.9	89,781	53,714	59.8
16 to 19 years	1,255	494	39.4	1,136	470	41.4	6,211	3,396	54.7
20 to 24 years	1,455	1,026	70.5	1,319	856	64.9	7,300	5,455	74.7
25 to 54 years	8,178	6,455	78.9	6,849	4,633	67.7	49,200	37,813	76.9
55 to 64 years	1,336	647	48.4	993	410	41.3	10,513	5,500	52.3
65 years and older	1,673	165	9.9	1,032	80	7.7	16,557	1,550	9.4

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Table 1-3. Labor force participation rates by sex, race, and Hispanic origin, annual averages, 1973-2000

Year	Black			Hispanic origin			White		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1973	60.2	73.4	49.3	60.2	81.5	41.0	60.8	79.4	44.1
1974	59.8	72.9	49.0	61.1	81.7	42.4	61.4	79.4	45.2
1975	58.8	70.9	48.8	60.8	80.7	43.2	61.5	78.7	45.9
1976	59.0	70.0	49.8	60.8	79.6	44.3	61.8	78.4	46.9
1977	59.8	70.6	50.8	61.6	80.9	44.3	62.5	78.5	48.0
1978	61.5	71.5	53.1	62.9	81.1	46.6	63.3	78.6	49.4
1979	61.4	71.3	53.1	63.6	81.3	47.4	63.9	78.6	50.5
1980	61.0	70.3	53.1	64.0	81.4	47.4	64.1	78.2	51.2
1981	60.8	70.0	53.5	64.1	80.6	48.3	64.3	77.9	51.9
1982	61.0	70.1	53.7	63.6	79.7	48.1	64.3	77.4	52.4
1983	61.5	70.6	54.2	63.8	80.3	47.7	64.3	77.1	52.7
1984	62.2	70.8	55.2	64.9	80.6	49.7	64.6	77.1	53.3
1985	62.9	70.8	56.5	64.6	80.4	49.3	65.0	77.0	54.1
1986	63.3	71.2	56.9	65.4	81.0	50.1	65.5	76.9	55.0
1987	63.8	71.1	58.0	66.4	81.0	52.0	65.8	76.8	55.7
1988	63.8	71.0	58.0	67.4	81.9	53.2	66.2	76.9	56.4
1989	64.2	71.0	58.7	67.6	82.0	53.5	66.7	77.1	57.2
1990	64.0	71.0	58.3	67.4	81.4	53.1	66.9	77.1	57.4
1991	63.3	70.4	57.5	66.5	80.3	52.3	66.6	76.5	57.4
1992	63.9	70.7	58.5	66.8	80.7	52.8	66.8	76.5	57.7
1993	63.2	69.6	57.9	66.2	80.2	52.1	66.8	76.2	58.0
1994	63.4	69.1	58.7	66.1	79.2	52.9	67.1	75.9	58.9
1995	63.7	69.0	59.5	65.8	79.1	52.6	67.1	75.7	59.0
1996	64.1	68.7	60.4	66.5	79.6	53.4	67.2	75.8	59.1
1997	64.7	68.3	61.7	67.9	80.1	55.1	67.5	75.9	59.5
1998	65.6	69.0	62.8	67.9	79.8	55.6	67.3	75.6	59.4
1999	65.8	68.7	63.5	67.7	79.8	55.9	67.3	75.6	59.6
2000	65.8	69.0	63.2	68.6	80.6	56.9	67.4	75.4	59.8

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Table 1-4. Unemployment rates by sex, race, and Hispanic origin, annual averages, 1973-2000

Year	Black			Hispanic origin			White		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1973	9.4	8.0	11.1	7.5	6.7	9.0	4.3	3.8	5.3
1974	10.5	9.8	11.3	8.1	7.3	9.4	5.0	4.4	6.1
1975	14.8	14.8	14.8	12.2	11.4	13.5	7.8	7.2	8.6
1976	14.0	13.7	14.3	11.5	10.8	12.7	7.0	6.4	7.9
1977	14.0	13.3	14.9	10.1	9.0	11.9	6.2	5.5	7.3
1978	12.8	11.8	13.8	9.1	7.7	11.3	5.2	4.6	6.2
1979	12.3	11.4	13.3	8.3	7.0	10.3	5.1	4.5	5.9
1980	14.3	14.5	14.0	10.1	9.7	10.7	6.3	6.1	6.5
1981	15.6	15.7	15.6	10.4	10.2	10.8	6.7	6.5	6.9
1982	18.9	20.1	17.6	13.8	13.6	14.1	8.6	8.8	8.3
1983	19.5	20.3	18.6	13.7	13.6	13.8	8.4	8.8	7.9
1984	15.9	16.4	15.4	10.7	10.5	11.1	6.5	6.4	6.5
1985	15.1	15.3	14.9	10.5	10.2	11.0	6.2	6.1	6.4
1986	14.5	14.8	14.2	10.6	10.5	10.8	6.0	6.0	6.1
1987	13.0	12.7	13.2	8.8	8.7	8.9	5.3	5.4	5.2
1988	11.7	11.7	11.7	8.2	8.1	8.3	4.7	4.7	4.7
1989	11.4	11.5	11.4	8.0	7.6	8.8	4.5	4.5	4.5
1990	11.4	11.9	10.9	8.2	8.0	8.4	4.8	4.9	4.7
1991	12.5	13.0	12.0	10.0	10.3	9.6	6.1	6.5	5.6
1992	14.2	15.2	13.2	11.6	11.7	11.4	6.6	7.0	6.1
1993	13.0	13.8	12.1	10.8	10.6	11.0	6.1	6.3	5.7
1994	11.5	12.0	11.0	9.9	9.4	10.7	5.3	5.4	5.2
1995	10.4	10.6	10.2	9.3	8.8	10.0	4.9	4.9	4.8
1996	10.5	11.1	10.0	8.9	7.9	10.2	4.7	4.7	4.7
1997	10.0	10.2	9.9	7.7	7.0	8.9	4.2	4.2	4.2
1998	8.9	8.9	9.0	7.2	6.4	8.2	3.9	3.9	3.9
1999	8.0	8.2	7.8	6.4	5.6	7.6	3.7	3.6	3.8
2000	7.6	8.1	7.2	5.7	4.9	6.7	3.5	3.4	3.6

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Table 1-5. **Employed persons by occupation, race, Hispanic origin, and sex, annual averages, 2000**

(Percent distribution)

Occupation	Black			Hispanic			White		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Total, 16 years and older (thousands)	15,334	7,180	8,154	14,492	8,478	6,014	113,475	61,696	51,780
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Managerial and professional specialty	21.8	18.5	24.8	14.0	11.4	17.8	31.1	29.2	33.4
Executive, administrative, and managerial	9.9	8.9	10.7	7.4	6.3	8.9	15.3	15.8	14.8
Professional specialty	12.0	9.6	14.1	6.7	5.1	8.9	15.8	13.4	18.6
Technical, sales, and administrative support	29.3	18.8	38.6	24.2	14.9	37.2	29.2	19.7	40.5
Technicians and related support	3.2	2.6	3.7	2.1	1.7	2.7	3.2	2.9	3.5
Sales occupations	9.4	7.6	10.9	9.6	7.8	12.1	12.5	11.9	13.2
Administrative support, including clerical	16.8	8.5	24.0	12.5	5.5	22.5	13.5	5.0	23.7
Service occupations	21.5	17.4	25.2	19.8	15.2	26.2	12.4	9.1	16.4
Private household8	(¹)	1.4	1.7	.1	3.0	.6	(¹)	1.2
Protective service	3.1	4.7	1.6	1.4	2.0	.6	1.6	2.5	.6
Service, except private household and protective ...	17.7	12.6	22.1	16.6	13.1	21.6	10.2	6.5	14.6
Precision production, craft, and repair	7.8	14.2	2.1	14.3	22.2	3.3	11.6	19.5	2.1
Operators, fabricators, and laborers	18.5	29.0	9.1	22.1	28.1	13.6	12.9	18.4	6.4
Machine operators, assemblers, and inspectors	7.0	8.8	5.5	9.8	9.8	9.7	5.1	6.1	3.9
Transportation and material moving occupations	6.0	11.1	1.4	4.6	7.4	.6	3.9	6.6	.8
Handlers, equipment cleaners, helpers, and laborers	5.4	9.1	2.2	7.8	11.0	3.3	3.9	5.8	1.6
Farming, forestry, and fishing	1.1	2.1	.2	5.6	8.2	1.8	2.8	4.0	1.3

¹ Indicates less than 0.05 percent.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Table 1-6. Median usual weekly earnings¹ of full-time² wage and salary workers,³ by sex, race, and Hispanic origin, annual averages, 1986-2000

Characteristic	Year														
	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Black															
Both sexes	\$291	\$301	\$314	\$319	\$329	\$348	\$357	\$369	\$371	\$383	\$387	\$400	\$426	\$445	\$468
Men	318	326	347	348	361	375	380	392	400	411	412	432	468	488	503
Women	263	275	288	301	308	323	335	348	346	355	362	375	400	409	429
Hispanic origin															
Both sexes	277	284	290	298	304	312	322	331	324	329	339	351	370	385	396
Men	299	306	307	315	318	323	339	346	343	350	356	371	390	406	414
Women	241	251	260	269	278	292	302	313	305	305	316	318	337	348	364
White															
Both sexes	370	383	394	409	424	442	458	475	484	494	506	519	545	573	591
Men	433	450	465	482	494	506	514	524	547	566	580	595	615	638	669
Women	294	307	318	334	353	373	387	401	408	415	428	444	468	483	500
EARNINGS RATIOS															
Black to white	78.6	78.6	79.7	78.0	77.6	78.7	77.9	77.7	76.7	77.5	76.5	77.1	78.2	77.7	79.2
Black men to white men	73.4	72.4	74.6	72.2	73.1	74.1	73.9	74.8	73.1	72.6	71.0	72.6	76.1	76.5	75.2
Black women to white women ...	89.5	89.6	90.6	90.1	87.3	86.6	86.6	86.8	84.8	85.5	84.6	84.5	85.5	84.7	85.8
Hispanic to white	74.9	74.2	73.6	72.9	71.7	70.6	70.3	69.7	66.9	66.6	67.0	67.6	67.9	67.2	67.0
Hispanic men to white men	69.1	68.0	66.0	65.4	64.4	63.8	66.0	66.0	62.7	61.8	61.4	62.4	63.4	63.6	61.9
Hispanic women to white women	82.0	81.8	81.8	80.5	78.8	78.3	78.0	78.1	74.8	73.5	73.8	71.6	72.0	72.0	72.8

¹ Earnings are expressed in nominal dollars.

² Full-time workers include persons who usually work 35 hours or more a week on their sole, or principal, job.

³ Wage and salary workers exclude self-employed persons whether or not their businesses are incorporated.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Table 1-7. **Civilian labor force by age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin, 1988, 1998, and projected 2008**

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristic	Civilian labor force			Change, 1988-98		Change, 1998-2008	
	1988	1998	2008, projected	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total, 16 years and older	121,669	137,673	154,576	16,004	13.2	16,903	12.3
Age							
16 to 24 years	22,536	21,894	25,210	-642	-2.8	3,316	15.1
25 to 54 years	84,041	98,718	104,133	14,677	17.5	5,415	5.5
55 years and older	15,092	17,062	25,233	1,970	13.1	8,171	47.9
Sex							
Men	66,927	73,959	81,132	7,032	10.5	7,173	9.7
Women	54,742	63,714	73,444	8,972	16.4	9,730	15.3
Race and Hispanic origin							
Black	13,205	15,982	19,101	2,777	21.0	3,119	19.5
Hispanic origin	8,982	14,317	19,585	5,335	59.4	5,268	36.8
Asian and other	3,708	6,278	8,809	2,570	69.3	2,531	40.3
White	104,756	115,415	126,665	10,659	10.2	11,250	9.7

SOURCE: Table 2 in Howard N Fullerton, "Labor force projections to 2008: steady growth and changing composition," *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1999, p. 20.

Table 1-8. Civilian labor force participation rates by sex, age, race, and Hispanic origin, 1988, 1998, and projected 2008

(Numbers in thousands)

Characteristic	Participation rates			Percentage-point change	
	1988	1998	2008, projected	1988 to 1998	1998 to 2008
Age and sex					
Total, 16 years and older	65.9	67.4	67.6	1.5	0.2
16 to 24 years	68.4	65.9	66.2	-2.5	.3
25 to 54 years	82.9	84.1	85.4	1.2	1.3
25 to 34 years	83.3	84.6	85.9	1.3	1.3
35 to 44 years	84.6	84.7	86.0	.1	1.3
45 to 54 years	79.6	82.5	84.3	2.9	1.8
55 years and older.....	30.0	31.3	36.8	1.3	5.5
Men	76.2	74.9	73.7	-1.3	-1.2
16 to 24 years	72.4	68.4	68.0	-4.0	-.4
25 to 54 years	93.6	91.8	91.3	-1.8	-.5
55 years and older	39.9	39.1	43.5	-.8	4.4
Women	56.6	59.8	61.9	3.2	2.1
16 to 24 years	64.5	63.3	64.3	-1.2	1.0
25 to 54 years	72.7	76.5	79.7	3.8	3.2
55 years and older	22.3	25.0	31.2	2.7	6.2
Race and Hispanic origin					
Black	63.8	65.6	66.3	1.8	.7
Men	71.0	69.0	68.3	-2.0	-.7
Women	58.0	62.8	64.6	4.8	1.8
Hispanic origin	67.4	67.9	67.7	.5	-.2
Men	81.9	79.8	77.9	-2.1	-1.9
Women	53.2	55.6	57.9	2.4	2.3
Asian and other	65.0	67.0	66.9	2.0	-.1
Men.....	74.4	75.5	74.0	1.1	-1.5
Women	56.5	59.2	60.5	2.7	1.3
White	66.2	67.3	67.9	1.1	.6
Men	76.9	75.6	74.5	-1.3	-1.1
Women	56.4	59.4	61.5	3.0	2.1

SOURCE: Table 3 in Howard N Fullerton, "Labor force projections to 2008: steady growth and changing composition," *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1999, p. 24.

Table 1-9. Labor force participation rates of the foreign-born and native-born by selected characteristics, annual averages, 2000

Characteristic	Foreign-born			Native-born		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Age						
Total, 16 years and older	66.7	79.8	54.0	67.2	73.9	61.1
16 to 24 years	60.2	70.6	47.8	66.6	68.4	64.9
25 to 34 years	77.0	92.1	61.4	86.2	93.6	79.2
35 to 44 years	82.1	94.0	69.7	85.3	92.4	78.4
45 to 54 years	80.0	91.0	69.6	82.9	88.3	77.8
55 to 64 years	59.1	73.6	47.3	59.2	66.5	52.4
65 years and older	12.1	18.6	7.4	12.9	17.4	9.6
Education ¹						
Less than a high school diploma	59.0	78.0	41.4	37.4	46.7	29.2
High school graduates, no college	66.5	81.4	54.1	64.4	74.3	55.9
Some college, no degree	72.5	81.7	63.9	72.2	79.2	65.9
College graduates	76.9	85.3	67.4	79.9	84.3	75.2
Race and ethnicity ²						
Non-Hispanic black	75.0	80.6	69.4	64.9	67.6	62.8
Hispanic origin	69.5	85.4	52.5	67.7	74.8	61.4
Non-Hispanic Asian	67.3	77.8	58.2	66.1	70.0	62.3
Non-Hispanic white	59.1	71.0	48.0	67.6	74.9	60.8

¹ Data by educational attainment are for persons aged 25 years and older.

² Data for race and ethnicity groups will not sum to totals, because data for the "other races" group are not presented.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Table 1-10. Unemployment rates of the foreign-born and native-born by selected characteristics, annual averages, 2000

Characteristic	Foreign-born			Native-born		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Age						
Total, 16 years and older	4.2	3.8	4.9	4.0	3.9	4.0
16 to 24 years	7.9	7.4	8.7	9.5	10.0	8.9
25 to 34 years	3.9	3.1	5.1	3.7	3.5	3.9
35 to 44 years	3.8	3.2	4.7	2.9	2.7	3.1
45 to 54 years	3.2	2.9	3.5	2.4	2.4	2.3
55 to 64 years	3.9	3.8	4.1	2.3	2.3	2.3
65 years and older	4.1	4.7	3.1	3.0	3.2	2.7
Education ¹						
Less than a high school diploma ..	5.8	4.6	7.8	6.7	6.0	7.8
High school graduates, no college	3.3	2.9	3.9	3.5	3.5	3.5
Some college, no degree	3.3	3.0	3.7	2.8	2.6	3.0
College graduates	2.3	2.1	2.6	1.6	1.4	1.7
Race and ethnicity ²						
Non-Hispanic black	5.4	5.5	5.2	7.9	8.5	7.4
Hispanic origin	5.1	4.2	6.7	6.4	6.0	6.8
Non-Hispanic Asian	3.2	3.2	3.2	4.7	4.9	4.5
Non-Hispanic white	3.2	2.9	3.6	3.2	3.2	3.2

¹ Data by educational attainment are for persons aged 25 years and older.

² Data for race and ethnicity groups will not sum to totals, because data for the "other races" group are not presented.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Table 1-11. Occupational distribution of the foreign-born and the native-born by selected characteristics, annual averages, 2000

Characteristic	Foreign-born			Native-born		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Total (in thousands)	16,954	10,067	6,887	118,254	62,226	56,028
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Executive, administrative, and managerial	9.9	9.8	10.0	15.3	15.8	14.8
Professional specialty	13.5	12.9	14.5	15.9	13.6	18.5
Technical	2.9	2.7	3.2	3.3	3.0	3.6
Sales	9.8	8.7	11.3	12.4	11.8	13.1
Administrative support	8.9	4.6	15.3	14.5	5.6	24.5
Service	18.9	13.4	26.9	12.7	9.5	16.4
Protective service8	1.1	.4	1.9	2.9	.8
Private household	1.8	.1	4.4	.4	—	.8
Other	16.3	12.2	22.2	10.4	6.5	14.8
Precision production, craft, and repair	12.8	19.0	3.6	10.8	18.7	2.0
Operators, fabricators, and laborers	18.9	22.7	13.5	12.8	18.8	6.1
Farming, forestry, and fishing	4.4	6.3	1.6	2.2	3.3	1.1

NOTE: Dash indicates less than 0.05 percent.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Table 1-12. Median weekly earnings of foreign-born and native-born full-time¹ wage and salary workers² by selected characteristics, annual averages, 2000

Characteristic	Foreign-born			Native-born		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Age						
Total, 16 years and older	\$447	\$477	\$407	\$591	\$676	\$500
16 to 24 years.....	314	320	300	369	387	347
25 to 34 years.....	433	443	418	574	624	500
35 to 44 years	499	555	423	652	755	534
45 to 54 years	516	586	445	690	804	579
55 to 64 years	483	533	415	635	757	514
65 years and older	381	408	344	457	580	385
Education³						
Less than a high school diploma	322	355	286	389	464	313
High school graduates, no college	420	468	377	514	607	426
Some college, no degree	524	584	478	604	710	506
College graduates	852	964	724	902	1,032	764

¹ Full-time workers include persons who usually work 35 hours or more a week on their sole, or principal, job.

² Wage and salary workers exclude self-employed persons whether or not their businesses are incorporated.

³ Data by educational attainment are for people aged 25 years and older.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Current Population Survey.

Table 1-13. Consumer unit characteristics by race and ethnicity of reference person, 1999

Item	All consumer units	Race of reference person		Hispanic origin of reference person	
		White and other	Black	Hispanic	Non-Hispanic
Number of consumer units (in thousands)	108,465	95,293	13,172	9,111	99,354
Percent of all consumer units	100.0	87.9	12.1	8.4	91.6
Income before taxes ¹	\$43,951	\$45,688	\$30,427	\$33,803	\$44,955
Age of the reference person	47.9	48.3	44.9	41.2	48.5
Average number in consumer unit					
Persons	2.5	2.5	2.7	3.5	2.4
Children under 187	.6	.9	1.3	.6
Persons 65 and older3	.3	.2	.2	.3
Earners	1.3	1.4	1.3	1.6	1.3
Vehicles	1.9	2.0	1.3	1.6	2.0
Percent distribution					
Housing tenure:					
Homeowner	65	68	47	44	67
With mortgage	38	39	29	30	39
Without mortgage	27	28	17	14	28
Renter	35	32	53	56	33
Race of reference person:					
Black	12	-	100	4	13
White and other	88	100	-	96	87
Education:					
Elementary (1-8)	6	6	8	22	5
High school (9-12)	39	38	48	45	38
College	55	56	44	32	57
Never attended and other	(²)	(²)	(²)	1	(²)
At least one vehicle owned or leased	87	89	73	82	88

¹ Components of income and taxes are derived from "complete income reporters" only.

² Indicates less than 0.5 percent.

NOTE: Dash indicates data not applicable.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Consumer Expenditure Survey.

Table 1-14. Allocation of average annual expenditures per consumer unit, and aggregate expenditure shares by race of reference person, 1999

Item	Shares of total expenditures		Aggregate expenditure shares	
	White and other	Black	White and other	Black
Number of consumer units (in thousands)	95,293	13,172	95,293	13,172
Percent of all consumer units	87.9	12.1	87.9	12.1
Total expenditures	\$38,323	\$27,340	\$3.7 trillion	\$0.4 trillion
Percent	100.0	100.0	91.0	9.0
Food	13.4	15.1	89.9	10.0
Food at home	7.7	9.7	88.9	11.1
Food away from home	5.7	5.4	91.4	8.5
Alcoholic beverages9	.6	93.7	6.0
Housing	32.3	35.5	90.2	9.8
Shelter	18.8	20.1	90.5	9.5
Owned dwellings	12.5	9.8	92.8	7.2
Rented dwellings	5.0	9.8	83.9	16.1
Other lodging	1.3	.5	96.4	3.7
Utilities, fuels, and public services	6.2	8.8	87.7	12.3
Household operations	1.8	1.7	91.7	8.3
Housekeeping supplies	1.3	1.3	91.0	8.8
Household furnishings and equipment	4.1	3.6	92.0	8.0
Apparel and services	4.5	6.9	86.9	13.1
Transportation	19.0	18.7	91.2	8.8
Vehicle purchases (net outlay)	9.0	8.7	91.3	8.7
Gasoline and motor oil	2.9	2.8	91.3	8.7
Other vehicle expenses	6.1	6.1	90.9	9.1
Public transportation	1.1	1.1	91.2	8.9
Healthcare	5.4	4.0	93.2	6.8
Health insurance	2.5	2.1	92.5	7.4
Medical services	1.6	.9	94.8	5.2
Drugs	1.0	.9	92.1	7.7
Medical supplies3	.2	93.5	6.2
Entertainment	5.3	3.4	93.9	6.0
Personal care products and services	1.1	1.5	88.1	11.9
Reading4	.3	93.9	6.2
Education	1.7	1.5	92.1	7.8
Tobacco products and smoking supplies8	.8	91.7	8.4
Miscellaneous	2.4	2.2	91.7	8.2
Cash contributions	3.3	2.0	94.4	5.6
Personal insurance and pensions	9.4	7.7	92.6	7.4

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Consumer Expenditure Surveys.

Table 1-15. **Consumer unit characteristics by ethnicity of reference person, 1994 and 1999**

Item	Non-Hispanic reference person		Hispanic reference person	
	1994	1999	1994	1999
Number of consumer units (in thousands)	94,479	99,354	7,730	9,111
Percent of all consumer units	92.4	91.6	7.6	8.4
Income before taxes ¹	\$37,000	\$44,955	\$26,750	\$33,803
Age of the reference person	48.2	48.5	41.1	41.2
Average number in consumer unit				
Persons	2.5	2.4	3.4	3.5
Children under 187	.6	1.3	1.3
Persons 65 and older3	.3	.2	.2
Earners	1.3	1.3	1.5	1.6
Vehicles	2.0	2.0	1.6	1.6
Percent distribution				
Housing tenure:				
Homeowner	65	67	42	44
With mortgage	37	39	28	30
Without mortgage	27	28	14	14
Renter	35	33	58	56
Race of reference person:				
Black	12	13	3	4
White and other	88	87	97	96
Education:				
Elementary (1-8)	7	5	25	22
High school (9-12)	43	38	45	45
College	49	57	29	32
Never attended and other	0	(²)	1	1
At least one vehicle owned or leased	86	88	80	82

¹ Components of income and taxes are derived from "complete reporters" only.

² Indicates less than 0.5 percent.

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Consumer Expenditure Surveys.

Table 1-16. Average annual and aggregate expenditure shares by ethnicity of reference person, 1999

Item	Expenditure shares		Aggregate shares	
	Hispanic reference person	Non-Hispanic reference person	Hispanic reference person	Non-Hispanic reference person
Number of consumer units (in thousands)	9,111	99,354	9,111	99,354
Percent of population	8.4	91.6	—	—
Total expenditures	\$33,044	\$37,356	\$0.3 trillion	\$3.7 trillion
Percent	100.0	100.0	7.6	92.4
Food	16.6	13.3	9.4	90.6
Food at home	10.8	7.6	10.5	89.5
Food away from home	5.9	5.7	7.9	92.1
Alcoholic beverages8	.9	7.3	92.7
Housing	33.3	32.5	7.7	92.3
Shelter	20.5	18.8	8.1	91.9
Owned dwellings	9.6	12.4	5.9	94.1
Rented dwellings	10.4	5.1	14.2	85.8
Other lodging5	1.3	3.1	96.9
Utilities, fuels, and public services	6.4	6.4	7.5	92.5
Household operations	1.4	1.8	5.9	94.1
Housekeeping supplies	1.3	1.3	7.7	92.3
Household furnishings and equipment	3.6	4.1	6.7	93.3
Apparel and services	6.3	4.6	10.2	89.8
Transportation	20.6	18.8	8.2	91.8
Vehicle purchases (net outlay)	10.2	8.8	8.5	91.5
Gasoline and motor oil	3.4	2.8	8.9	91.1
Other vehicle expenses	6.0	6.1	7.4	92.6
Public transportation	1.0	1.1	7.3	92.7
Healthcare	3.4	5.4	4.8	95.2
Health insurance	1.6	2.6	4.9	95.1
Medical services9	1.6	4.7	95.3
Drugs6	1.0	4.9	95.1
Medical supplies2	.3	4.8	95.2
Entertainment	3.8	5.2	5.6	94.4
Personal care products and services	1.2	1.1	8.5	91.5
Reading2	.4	3.7	96.3
Education	1.1	1.8	4.9	95.1
Tobacco products and smoking supplies5	.8	4.8	95.2
Miscellaneous	1.9	2.4	6.2	93.8
Cash contributions	2.1	3.3	4.8	95.2
Personal insurance and pensions	8.2	9.4	6.6	93.4

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Consumer Expenditure Surveys.

Table 1-17. **Aggregate expenditure shares for Hispanics, 1994 and 1999**

Item	1994	1999
Number of consumer units (in thousands)	7,730	9,111
Percent of all consumer units	7.6	8.4
Average annual expenditures per consumer unit	\$26,433	\$33,044
Percent of all consumer expenditures		
Total expenditures	6.3	7.6
Food	7.7	9.4
Food at home	9.3	10.5
Food away from home	5.2	7.9
Alcoholic beverages	5.7	7.3
Housing	6.7	7.7
Shelter	7.1	8.1
Owned dwellings	5.0	5.9
Rented dwellings	12.1	14.2
Other lodging	2.5	3.1
Utilities, fuels, and public services	6.8	7.5
Household operations	5.5	5.9
Housekeeping supplies	6.9	7.7
Household furnishings and equipment	5.3	6.7
Apparel and services	8.7	10.2
Transportation	6.1	8.2
Vehicle purchases (net outlay)	6.0	8.5
Gasoline and motor oil	6.9	8.9
Other vehicle expenses	5.7	7.4
Public transportation	5.9	7.3
Healthcare	4.6	4.8
Health insurance	4.4	4.9
Medical services	5.3	4.7
Drugs	3.9	4.9
Medical supplies	3.6	4.8
Entertainment	4.5	5.6
Personal care products and services	8.6	8.5
Reading	3.5	3.7
Education	5.5	4.9
Tobacco products and smoking supplies	4.0	4.8
Miscellaneous	5.8	6.2
Cash contributions	3.6	4.8
Personal insurance and pensions	5.2	6.6

SOURCE: Bureau of Labor Statistics, Consumer Expenditure Surveys.

Table 1-18. Selected characteristics of the resident population, 1750 to 1999

(In thousands)

Date	Sex		Race					Hispanic origin ¹
	Men	Women	White	Black	Other			
					Total	American Indian, Eskimo, Aleut	Asian, Pacific Islander	
Estimated:²								
1750	-	-	1,040	220	-	-	-	-
1754	-	-	1,165	260	-	-	-	-
1760	-	-	1,385	310	-	-	-	-
1770	-	-	1,850	462	-	-	-	-
1780	-	-	2,383	562	-	-	-	-
Decennial Census Data: .								
1790 ³	-	-	3,172	757	-	-	-	-
1800 ³	-	-	4,306	1,002	-	-	-	-
1810 ⁴	-	-	5,862	1,191	-	-	-	-
1820 ⁴	-	-	7,867	1,772	-	-	-	-
1830 ⁴	-	-	10,537	2,329	-	-	-	-
1840 ⁴	-	-	14,196	2,874	-	-	-	-
1850 ⁵	-	-	19,553	3,639	-	-	-	-
1860 ⁵	-	-	26,923	4,442	-	-	-	-
1870 ⁵	-	-	33,589	4,880	-	-	-	-
1880 ⁵	-	-	43,403	6,581	-	-	-	-
1890 ⁵	-	-	54,984	7,470	-	-	-	-
1900 ³	38,816	37,178	66,809	8,834	351	-	-	-
1910 ³	47,332	44,640	81,732	9,828	413	-	-	-
1920 ³	53,900	51,810	94,821	10,463	427	-	-	-
1930 ³	62,137	60,638	110,287	11,891	597	-	-	-
1940 ³	66,062	65,608	118,215	12,866	589	-	-	-
1950 ³	74,833	75,864	134,942	15,042	713	-	-	-
1950 ³	75,187	76,139	135,150	15,045	1,131	-	-	-
1960	88,331	90,992	158,832	18,872	1,620	-	-	-
1970 ⁶	98,926	104,309	178,098	22,581	2,557	-	-	-
1980 ^{7,8}	110,053	116,493	194,713	26,683	5,150	1,420	3,729	14,609
1990 ^{7,9}	121,284	127,507	208,741	30,517	9,534	2,067	7,467	22,379

Table 1-18. Selected characteristics of the resident population, 1750 to 1999—Continued

(In thousands)

Date	Sex		Race					Hispanic origin ¹
	Men	Women	White	Black	Other			
					Total	American Indian, Eskimo, Aleut	Asian, Pacific Islander	
Current Population Survey data:								
1991 (July 1) ¹⁰	122,956	129,197	210,975	31,137	10,041	2,112	7,929	23,391
1992 (July 1) ¹⁰	124,424	130,606	212,874	31,683	10,473	2,149	8,324	24,283
1993 (July 1) ¹⁰	125,788	131,995	214,691	32,195	10,897	2,187	8,710	25,222
1994 (July 1) ¹⁰	127,049	133,278	216,379	32,672	11,276	2,222	9,054	26,160
1995 (July 1) ¹⁰	128,294	134,510	218,023	33,116	11,664	2,256	9,408	27,107
1996 (July 1) ¹⁰	129,504	135,724	219,636	33,537	12,055	2,290	9,765	28,099
1997 (July 1) ¹⁰	130,783	137,001	221,333	33,989	12,461	2,326	10,135	29,182
1998 (July 1) ¹⁰	132,030	138,218	222,980	34,427	12,840	2,361	10,479	30,252
1999 (July 1) ¹⁰	133,277	139,414	224,611	34,862	13,217	2,397	10,820	31,337

¹ Persons of Hispanic origin may be of any race.

² Data are from Wright, Carroll D., *The History and Growth of the United States Census* (New York, Johnson Reprint Corporation, 1966).

³ Excludes Alaska and Hawaii.

⁴ Source: *Historical Statistics of the United States, Colonial Times to 1970, Bicentennial Edition, Part 2* (Census Bureau, 1975).

⁵ See Campbell J. Gibson and Emily Lennon, "Historical Census Statistics on the Foreign-born Population of the United States: 1850-1990," Population Division Working Paper No. 29 (Census Bureau, February 1999).

⁶ The revised 1970 resident population count is 203,302,031, which incorporates changes due to errors found after tabulations were completed. The race and sex data shown here reflect the official 1970 census count.

⁷ The race data shown have been modified to be consistent with the guidelines in Federal Statistical Directive No. 15 issued by the Office of Management and Budget. Figures are not comparable with the 1990 census race categories.

⁸ Total population count has been revised since the 1980 census publications. Numbers by age, race, Hispanic origin, and sex have not been corrected.

⁹ The April 1, 1990, census count (248,765,170) includes count resolution corrections processed through August 1997 and does not include adjustments for census coverage errors except for adjustments estimated for the 1995 Census Test in Oakland, CA; Paterson, NJ; and six Louisiana parishes. These adjustments amounted to a total of 55,297 persons.

¹⁰ Estimated.

NOTE: Dash indicates data not available.

SOURCE: *Statistical Abstract of the United States, 2000: The National Data Book* (Census Bureau, 2000).

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Endnotes

- ¹ See Baseler, 1998, p. 34.
- ² See Hatton and Williamson, 1998, p.7.
- ³ See Thomas, 1997, p. 552.
- ⁴ See Thomas, p. 568.
- ⁵ See Jenks, Lauck, and Smith, 1922, p. 368.
- ⁶ See Hatton and Williamson, 1998, p. 75.
- ⁷ Immigration and Naturalization Service, "Immigrants, Fiscal Year 1998," *Statistical Yearbook of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, 1998* (Washington, U.S. Government Printing Office, 2001), table 2.
- ⁸ See Japiske, 1994.
- ⁹ See Hatton and Williamson, 1998, p.75.
- ¹⁰ See Gyory, 1998, p. 31.
- ¹¹ Gyory, p.40.
- ¹² Daniels, Roger, *Asian America: Chinese and Japanese in the United States since 1850* (Seattle, University of Washington Press, 1988), p. 52.
- ¹³ See Gyory, p. 216.
- ¹⁴ See Chan, 2000.
- ¹⁵ See Hatton and Williamson, 1998, p.124.
- ¹⁶ See Hatton and Williamson, p. 149.
- ¹⁷ See Schmidley and Gibson, 1999, p.9.
- ¹⁸ See Schmidley and Gibson, 1999, p. 9.
- ¹⁹ See Wynn, "Black Americans," 1993, p. 251.
- ²⁰ See Rutkoff and Scott, 2000.
- ²¹ See Wynn, "Black Americans," 1993, p. 262.
- ²² See McKinnon and Humes, 2000, p. 1.
- ²³ See Wright, 1900, p. 13.
- ²⁴ "All other persons" referred to slaves, who were assigned a count equal to three-fifths of free persons.
- ²⁵ See Perlman, 2001.
- ²⁶ See Norwood and Klein, 1989, p. 16.
- ²⁷ The CPS is a monthly survey of households conducted for BLS by the Census Bureau through a scientifically selected sample designed to represent the civilian noninstitutional population. Respondents are interviewed to obtain information about the employment status of each member of the household 16 years of age and older. The inquiry relates to activity or status during the calendar week, Sunday through Saturday, which includes the 12th day of the month. This is known as the "reference week." Actual field interviewing is conducted in the following week, referred to as the "survey week."
- Each month about 50,000 occupied units are eligible for interview. Some 3,200 of these households are contacted but interviews are not obtained because the occupants are not at home after repeated calls or are unavailable for other reasons. This represents a noninterview rate for the survey that ranges between 6 and 7 percent. In addition to the 50,000 occupied units, there are 9,000 sample units in an average month, which are visited but found to be vacant or otherwise not eligible for enumeration. Part of the sample is changed each month. The rotation plan, as explained later, provides for three-fourths of the sample to be common from one month to the next, and one-half to be common with the same month a year earlier.
- ²⁸ For a brief history of the Current Population Survey, see "Design and Methodology, Current Population Survey," Technical Paper 63 (Census Bureau, March 2000), pp. 2-1 through 2-5.
- ²⁹ "AAA recommends 'race' be scrapped; suggests new government categories," Press Release/OMB 15 (American Anthropological Association, Sept. 8, 1997).
- ³⁰ Ibid.
- ³¹ See *Enumerator's Reference Manual, Current Population Survey and Housing Vacancy Survey* (Census Bureau, January 1961), p. D-50.
- ³² See *Interviewer's Reference manual, Current Population Survey* (Census Bureau, December 1971 (rev. July 1985)), pp. D3-44–D3-45.
- ³³ Ibid., p. D3-48.
- ³⁴ See *Current Population Survey Interviewing Manual* (Census Bureau, January 1999), pp. C3-23–C3-28.
- ³⁵ See "Labor Conditions," 1920, p. 225.
- ³⁶ *Annual Report on the Labor Force: 1949, Current Population Reports*, Series P-50, No. 19 (Census Bureau, Mar. 2, 1951), table 18, p. 23.
- ³⁷ *Annual Report on the Labor Force: 1955, Current Population Reports*, Series P-50, No. 67 (Census Bureau, March 1956), table 4, p. 20.
- ³⁸ "Nonwhite" as a distinct racial category has not been in use for a number of years. Hence, data by race that can be found in publications like the *Handbook of Labor Statistics* (as published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics) or in Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey, are only for whites. But, of course, the nonwhite estimates can be de-

rived by subtraction.

³⁹ See Gloria P. Green, Khoan tan Dinh, John A. Priebe, and Ronald A. Tucker, "Revisions in the Current Population Survey Beginning in January 1983," *Employment and Earnings*, February 1983, p. 14.

⁴⁰ See *Employment and Earnings*, April 1974, p. 137. "The term 'Negro' is used in tables when the relevant data provided is for Negroes exclusively."

⁴¹ See *Employment and Earnings*, April 1974, table A-60, p. 63.

⁴² See "The Employment Situation: January 1982," USDL 82-40 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, Feb. 5, 1982).

⁴³ See *Employment and Earnings*, February 1983, table 3, p. 20.

⁴⁴ Prior to 1972, data were for "black and other," or equivalently, "nonwhites." This change made very little difference in terms of labor force data at the time since more than 90 percent of nonwhites were blacks.

⁴⁵ See Howard N Fullerton, Jr., "Labor force projections to 2008: steady growth and changing composition," *Monthly Labor Review*, November 1999, pp. 19-32.

⁴⁶ The foreign-born population, although

primarily composed of legally admitted immigrants, includes refugees, temporary residents such as students and temporary workers, and undocumented immigrants. "Natives" are persons born in the United States, Puerto Rico, or an outlying area of the United States such as Guam or the U.S. Virgin Islands, and persons who were born in a foreign country but who had at least one parent who was a U.S. citizen. All others are foreign-born.

⁴⁷ Income data are described for complete reporters only. In general, a consumer unit that provides values for at least one of the major sources of its income, such as wages and salaries, self-employment, and Social Security income is classified as a "complete income reporter." However, even complete income reporters may not provide a complete accounting of all sources of income.

⁴⁸ Note that total shelter, as defined in tables 14 and 15, omits utilities, but includes other lodging (such as for vacation stays or room at school). Because blacks are noticeably underrepresented in other lodging (4 percent), this diminishes the overall shelter share. However, other lodging is a small component of shelter for both black and nonblack consumers.