A Sociodemographic Profile of Elderly Mexicans in the United States: The Case of the 0.25 Generation and Beyond*

by

Rogelio Saenz Texas A&M University Department of Sociology College Station, TX 77843-4351 e-mail: <u>rsaenz@tamu.edu</u>

and

Mercedes Rubio American Sociological Association 1307 New York Ave. NW Suite 700 Washington, DC 20005-4701 e-mail: <u>Mercedes@asanet.org</u>

*Paper presented at the Colorado Conference on the Estimation of Migration. Estes Park, CO. September 24-26, 2004.

A Sociodemographic Profile of Elderly Mexicans in the United States: The Case of the 0.25 Generation and Beyond

The Mexican-origin population represents one of the most rapidly growing and dynamic racial/ethnic group in the United States. The Mexican experience in the United States has been increasingly shaped by international migration over the last several decades. Researchers have amassed a substantial literature over the last decade focusing on the social and economic experiences of foreign-born Mexicans (and immigrants from other groups) that came to the United States at an early age. This group has been commonly referred to as the 1.5 generation. Research has demonstrated that members of the 1.5, and second for that matter, generation tend to have more favorable social and economic outcomes compared to their higher-order generation counterparts.

Much of the research on the 1.5 generation has been based on survey data and has focused on the educational outcomes of Mexican youth. Unfortunately, we continue to have limited information on the social and economic fortunes of Mexicans on the other side of the life course—the elderly. Part of this neglect stems from the fact that the Mexican population in this country is quite youthful. Indeed, persons 65 years of age and older accounted for 3.8 percent (or approximately 800,000) of the entire Mexican population in the United States in 2000. Over the last two decades, however, the growth of the Mexican elderly population (134% increase) has mirrored that of the entire Mexican population in this country (138% increase). Nonetheless, the latest population projections of the U.S. Census Bureau (2004) clearly suggest that the Latino—the Bureau does not produce population projections for specific Latino subgroups—elderly population throughout the 21st century. Consequently, the relative presence of the elderly within the Latino

population is projected to increase from 6 percent in 2000, to 11 percent in 2030, to 15 percent in 2060, to 20 percent in 2100.

However, despite its currently small relative size, the Mexican elderly population is far from uniform. Two of the most significant distinguishing factors of the Mexican elderly population consist of place of birth and, for the foreign-born, period of entry into the United States. In particular, as is the case with the definition of the contemporary 1.5 generation, the age at which foreign-born elderly first came to the United States is likely to be a significant factor that shapes their social and economic outcomes in this country. We use data from the 2000 5% Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS) to examine the outcomes of six subgroups of Mexican elderly (65 years of age and older) on selected social, economic, and health characteristics. In particular, we have the following two objectives:

- to assess the distribution of Mexican-origin elderly along the lines of the stage of their lives when they first entered the United States;
- to assess the characteristics of various subgroups of Mexican-origin elderly along the dimensions of marital status, living arrangements, language, labor force participation, poverty, and disability status.

Comments from the Literature

In the last decade or so, we have seen increasing amounts of interest in understanding the role of generational status on the social, economic, and health outcomes of Latinos, especially in the case of Mexicans. Two lines of investigation have stimulated this interest. The first of these stems from the discovery of the epidemiological paradox (Markides and Coreil 1986). The epidemiological paradox notes that Mexicans, despite their low socioeconomic status, have mortality rates that are comparable to those of non-Latino whites, with this pattern particularly apparent among foreign-born Mexicans who have been in the United States for a shorter period of time. The second line of investigation that has stimulated interest on the role of generational status on social, economic, and health outcomes has been the research on the 1.5 generation (Rumbaut 1997) and the second generation (Portes and Zhou 1993). This body of research has highlighted the more favorable outcomes of the 1.5 and second generation compared to the third-plus generation. Because these studies have been primarily based on youth, the focus has been on the educational achievement levels of these groups.

Despite the increasing interest on how generational status affects life experiences of Mexicans, there has been relatively little research on how generational status affects the social, economic, and health outcomes of elderly Mexicans. Our analysis focuses on the development of generational status categories based on the age when Mexican elderly arrived in the United States. We then examine the six generational categories (described below) on the basis of the following attributes: marital status, living arrangements, language use, labor force participation, poverty, and disability status. We are particularly interested in how Mexicans who immigrated to the United States at age 65 and older fare compared to the native-born population as well as to their foreign-born peers who came to this country at a younger stage of their lives. Moreover, we are also interested in how the Mexican elderly of the 1.5 generation (foreign-born individuals who came to the United States when they were 0 to 14 years of age) compare to their native-born counterparts. This will provide us knowledge on whether or not the advantages of the 1.5 generation are long term.

Our analysis draws on the life course perspective which argues that people's distal experiences in the area of socialization and stages in the life cycle impact social, economic, and health outcomes in the later stages of life (Coward et al. 1997; Hays and George 2002). This perspective is particularly useful in the examination of the age at which immigrants moved to the United States. Below we provide an overview of the literature related to the Mexican elderly, drawing significantly on the health literature which is the largest body of knowledge based on this population. We will also emphasize studies that take into account the effect of time dimensions (length of U.S. residence and age at immigration to the United States) on social, economic, and health outcomes.

Health Outcomes

Epidemiologists (Marmot et al. 1975; Marmot and Syme 1976) and social scientists (Guendelman and English 1995; Karno and Edgerton 1969; Markides and Coreil 1986) have explored the link between immigration and health. Researchers (Marmot and Syme 1976; Karno and Edgerton 1969; Markides and Coreil 1986; Guendelman and English 1995) have observed a negative association between acculturation (i.e., measured by native-born status, English language acquisition, etc.) and health outcomes.

Nonetheless, much of the current research that examines the relationship between immigration and health is based on findings for Mexican-origin adults ages 24 to 64. Given the socioeconomic disadvantaged status of persons of Mexican-origin, it is often assumed that their mortality patterns resemble those of African Americans. That is, African Americans and Mexicans have experienced a long history of discrimination that has limited their employment status, educational opportunities, and social mobility (Williams 1999). However, often in spite of economic disadvantage, lower educational attainment, and lack of medical coverage, many Mexican-origin individuals are in good health compared to whites (Scribner 1996). Indeed, the mortality and morbidity rates of persons of Mexican-origin resemble those of their white counterparts (Hummer et al. 1999). This counterintuitive health pattern is commonly referred to as the epidemiological paradox, or the Mexican paradox.

The nexus of this paradox stems from the relatively positive birth outcomes of Mexican-origin immigrant women. While Mexican-origin immigrant women have socioeconomic characteristics and discriminatory profiles that would predict unhealthy newborns, the data suggest the opposite (Singh and Yu 1996). This public health enigma has been documented across various immigrant groups, which suggests something unique about the immigrant experience (Frisbie et al. 1998, Hummer et al. 1999, Landale et al. 1999; Rumbaut and Weeks 1996). Various arguments, typically broad in scope, are used to explain the Mexican paradox. For example, one hypothesis is that the positive health outcomes may be related to the large percentage of Mexican-origin individuals who are foreign-born. Yet, research has shown that with increased time spent in the United States, the health status of persons of Mexican-origin and other immigrant groups begins to suffer and often declines, thus resembling the health profiles of the native-born population of low SES (Vega and Amaro 1994).

Another hypothesis is that international migration includes a health selective component. On the one hand, international migration selects healthy, eager individuals and this self-selection bias is related to positive health status. As such, the immigration process selects people who are healthy and have enough economic resources to make the

5

trip (Scribner 1996). On the other, some researchers (Abriaido-Lanza et al. 1999; Franzini et al. 2001; Palloni and Morenoff 2001) argue that health-selective migration also encompasses return migration of immigrants who have fallen ill and subsequently die in their country of origin. This is often referred to as "salmon bias" which posits an underestimation of mortality rates. However, Patel et al. (2004) show that the "salmon bias" accounts for only a small proportion of under-ascertained death of foreign-born individuals.

Yet another hypothesis is that positive health outcomes for the Mexican-origin population are linked to the health-related behaviors of less acculturated individuals. Mexican immigrants often have better diets, a closer-knit family support system, and engage in fewer risky behaviors, such as smoking and drinking, than do the native-born. Some argue that these protective characteristics may trump the high risks typically associated with being of lower socioeconomic status (Hummer et al. 1999; Scribner 1996).

Research (Brett and Higgins 2003; Gilbert 1987; Guendleman et al. 1990, Sundquist and Winkleby 1999; Ventura and Teffel 1985) has documented, across various dimensions of health outcomes, that lower levels of acculturation (as measured by the extent to which an immigrant group retains their traditional culture) protects Mexicanorigin individuals from poor health outcomes. For example, Ventura and Teffel (1985) and Guendleman et al. (1990) in studies of prenatal care found that generation/place of birth relates to the use of prenatal care among Mexican-origin women. Specifically while foreign-born women are less likely to use prenatal care, they have healthy birth outcomes. Gilbert (1987), using place of birth as a single-item proxy for acculturation, found that alcohol consumption among Mexican-origin women is higher for the more acculturated than for the less acculturated. As underscored by these studies, place of birth is an important component in the interplay between immigration and health. However, these researchers did not account for the role of age of immigration (or length of time in the United States).

Other researches (Brett and Higgins 2003; Vega et al. 1998) have explored the heterogeneity within immigrant populations by accounting for within-group variations in terms of length of time in the United States and its relationship to health. For example, Vega et al. (1998) in a study of the lifetime prevalence of psychiatric disorders of non-institutionalized persons ages 18 to 59 found that despite very low educational and income levels, those of Mexican-origin have lower rates of lifetime psychiatric disorders compared with the U.S. population in the National Comorbidity Survey. They argue that psychiatric morbidity among those of Mexican-origin is primarily influenced by cultural variance than by SES. That is, individuals of Mexican-origin residing in the United States less than 13 years are less likely to suffer from any affective disorder, any anxiety disorder, and any substance abuse/dependence (i.e., alcohol and drug) than immigrant who have lived in the United States more than 13 years and their U.S.-born counterparts. In fact, the prevalence of psychiatric disorders of recent immigrants (less than 13 years in the U.S.) closely resembled their counterparts in Mexico.

In another study, Brett and Higgins (2003), using the 1998 and 1999 National Health Interview Survey, examined the prevalence of a hysterectomy among Latinas. These researchers found that foreign-born Latinas who have lived in the United States less than 10 years are least likely to have had a hysterectomy, whereas Latinas who have lived in the United States more than 10 years and U.S.-born Latinas have a prevalence of a hysterectomy that approximates that of white women. The independent effect of time in the United States on the prevalence of a hysterectomy remains significant after adjusting for socio-demographic characteristics. Additionally, the association between socio-demographic variability and hysterectomy is often found among White women, but not for Latinas.

Still other research has observed a relationship between length of residence in the United States and health care use among the foreign-born population in general. LeClere et al. (1994), using data from the 1990 National Health Interview Survey, observed that immigrants who have lived in the United States for a shorter period of time tend to be less likely to use health care than their counterparts that have been in the country for a longer period of time.

While much of the health-related research discussed thus far has been based on the general Mexican population, there is a small but increasing literature that has focused on the health patterns of elderly Mexicans. These studies tend to focus on lower body functioning (Markides et al. 2001), pain and disability (Patel et al. 2003; Snih et al. 2001;), health coverage (Angel et al. 2002), postmenopausal hormone replacement therapy (Newell et al. 2001), and mental health (Black et al. 1998; Gonzalez et al. 2001; Krause & Goldenhar 1992). These studies are important for they provide baseline information of the health status of the elderly Mexican-origin population. However, there are two notable cleavages. One is the extent to which immigration predicts health status of elderly persons of Mexican-origin the other is the extent to which the Mexican paradox holds across the life course. Furthermore, several studies (Black et al. 1998; Gonzalez et al. 2001; Krause and Goldenhar 1992) bridge the immigration and gerontology literatures. For example, Krause and Goldenhar (1992), using the 1988 National Survey of Hispanic Elderly People, examined the impact of acculturation and psychological distress among Latino elderly. They observed an inverse relationship between acculturation (measured by assessing English language proficiency) and psychological distress. In particular, individuals with higher levels of acculturation have lower depressed effect scores. Krause and Goldenhar (1992) argue that acculturation has a benefit effect on well-being primarily because more acculturated Latinos tend to experience fewer financial problems and less social isolation. A clear limitation of this study is that the Krause and Goldenhar did not explore the role of nativity on distress.

In addition, Black et al. (1998), using the Hispanic Epidemiologic Study of Elderly (EPESE), explore the prevalence of depressive symptoms and associated risks and various cultural measures such as immigration status, time in the United States, and acculturation. The findings suggest that immigrant women and recent immigrants (those in the U.S. less than five years) of both genders are at greater risk for depressive symptomatology than their U.S.-born counterparts. In contrast, immigrant men who have lived in the U.S. more than five years are at lower risk of depression. This study further underscores that men and women experience immigration differently and these differences have implications on health and well-being.

Finally, research has demonstrated that despite a convergence in the mortality rates of Mexican and white elderly, Mexican elderly have significantly higher levels of disability (Angel and Angel 1997; Angel and Angel 1998; Hazuda and Espino 1997; Jette et al. 1996; Lawrence and Jette 1996; Lopez and Alguilera 1991; Markides et al. 1997; Markides and Wallace 1996; Peek et al. 2003; Rudkin et al. 1997;Zsembik et al. 2000). It has been observed that the high rates of disability of Mexican elderly are aggravated by high rates of diabetes and obesity (Hazuda and Espino 1997; Mutchler and Angel 2000; Ostir et al. 1998) as well as low levels of medical insurance coverage (Mutchler and Angel 2000). Moreover, Hazuda (1995) discovered that less acculturated Mexican Americans in San Antonio had less favorable health outcomes including problems in performing instrumental activities of daily living (IADLs) compared to their more acculturated peers. Furthermore, Angel and Angel (1992), using data from the 1988 National Survey of Hispanic Elderly People, observed that people who had immigrated to the United States when they were older experienced greater problems associated with general morale and the performance of basic daily activities of living.

Non-Health Outcomes

Aside from the relatively large body of knowledge of the health outcomes of Mexican elderly, there is a smaller literature that has focused on non-health outcomes including living arrangements, poverty, and language. Research has demonstrated that foreign-born individuals tend to be more likely than their native-born counterparts be live with relatives (Angel et al. 1996; Angel et al. 1999; Angel et al. 2000). While there is a tendency to view this living arrangement as cultural in nature, there is growing evidence that this form of living arrangement represents an economic survival strategy among people with limited economic resources. Wilmoth et al. (1997) found that white, Latino, and Asian foreign-born elderly tend to be more likely than their native-born counterparts to be living with relatives, with the foreign-born who immigrated to the United States at age 60 or older being particularly likely to be in such living arrangements. Furthermore, Glick (2000), using data from the 1980 and 1990 PUMS, observed that older immigrants who have been in the United States for a shorter period of time tend to be particularly likely to be living in extended family households.

Research has also demonstrated consistently that foreign-born elderly Mexicans have higher rates of poverty compared to their native-born peers. Angel et al. (1999), using data from the Hispanic-Established Population for Epidemiological Studies of the Elderly (EPESE), found that elderly Mexicans that immigrated to the United States at older ages tended to exhibit particularly high levels of poverty. In addition, Hao and Kawano (2001) discovered that foreign-born persons (in general, as opposed to Mexicans) who immigrated to the United States when they were over 55 years of age were particularly likely to receive Supplementary Security Income (SSI).

Furthermore, research based on foreign-born adults (drawn from all racial and ethnic groups) has indicated that age at immigration is significantly related to Englishlanguage acquisition. For example, Stevens (1999), using data from the 1990 PUMS, has observed that foreign-born adults that immigrated to the United States at younger ages are more likely to be fluent in English compared to their counterparts who immigrated at older ages.

Finally, there is a series of studies based on international settings (primarily in Canada and Israel) that demonstrate the importance of age at immigration on selected social and economic outcomes of foreign-born individuals. For example, Boyd (1991) observed that women who immigrated to Canada when they were 65 years of age or older were the most likely to live with relatives, while those that immigrated when they were children were the least likely to be in this living arrangement. In addition, research (Hartman and Hartman 1994; Lewin and Stier 2003; Matras 1993) has documented the economically vulnerable position of immigrants who arrive in Israel when they are older due to their inability to accumulate resources and benefits needed to achieve economic independence.

Methods

Data from the 2000 5% U.S. Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS) are used to conduct the analysis. The primary advantage of this data source is that it is the most extensive dataset available to conduct research on a wide variety of social, economic, demographic, and general health indicators based on racial and ethnic groups. In particular, for our purposes, the PUMS dataset provides us sufficient numbers of cases to be able to examine six generational status groups on the basis of the selected social, economic, and health indicators. The primary shortcoming of the PUMS, however, is that the information is fairly general rather than providing in-depth measures for certain phenomenon. In our case, for example, the PUMS provides only a handful of general and self-reported measures of disability status. Despite this and related shortcomings, we believe that the PUMS serves our purpose for obtaining a wide and general sociodemographic profile of subgroups of Mexican elderly.

The analysis includes persons 65 years of age and older who indicated that they were Spanish/Hispanic/Latino and who reported that they were of Mexican origin in the 2000 census questionnaire. The sample used in the analysis consists of 41,730 Mexican elderly (18,415 males and 23,315 females). The PUMS dataset contains person weights to inflate the sample data to obtain population estimates. We use these weights to obtain

population estimates for our descriptive analysis, but do not use them in conducting our multivariate analysis.

Independent Variable

The major focus of our analysis is the examination of various subgroups of Mexican elderly (based on generational status and age at immigration) along various selected dimensions (described below). We divide the Mexican elderly population into six categories based on their nativity and, for immigrants, age at first entry to the United States. The six categories are listed below.

- Native-Born (2+ Generation)
- Foreign-Born, Immigrated at Age 0-14 (1.50 Generation)
- Foreign-Born, Immigrated at Age 15-24 (1.25 Generation)
- Foreign-Born, Immigrated at Age 25-44 (1.00 Generation)
- Foreign-Born, Immigrated at Age 45-64 (0.50 Generation)
- Foreign-Born, Immigrated at Age 65+ (0.25 Generation)

The age-at-immigration cutoff points for the foreign-born were set to parallel the stage of life in which people immigrated to the United States. From the life course perspective, we argue that the life experiences of the foreign-born in the United States are likely to be shaped by the age at which they immigrated to the United States. In the multivariate analysis, we measure generational status with a series of five dummy variables based on each of the foreign-born categories. For each of these dummy variables, individuals who immigrated to the United States at a given age category are assigned a value of "1" while all others are given a value of "0." Native-born individuals serve as the reference category.

Dependent Variables

Our interest is on the relationship between the generational status of Mexican elderly and selected variables including widowhood, extended family residence, English-

language acquisition, labor force participation, poverty, and disability status. We provide a brief description of the construction of these variables here. First, widowhood is measured with a dummy variable in which persons who are currently widowed are assigned a value of "1" while all others are given a value of "0."

Second, extended family residence is measured with a dummy variable in which persons who are not householders and who are living with a relative are given a value of "1" while all others are assigned a value of "0."

Third, English-language acquisition is measured with a dummy variable in which persons who speak English at home (monolingual English speakers) or who speak a language other than English at home but who speak English "well" or "very well" (bilingual speakers) are assigned a value of "1" and those who speak English "not well" or "not at all" (monolingual Spanish speakers) are given a value of "0."

Fourth, labor force participation is measured with a dummy variable in which persons who are currently in the labor force are assigned a value of "1" while all others are given a value of "0."

Fifth, poverty is measured with a dummy variable in which persons whose income in 1999 was below the poverty threshold are assigned a value of "1" while all others are given a value of "0."

Finally, disability status is measured with a series of seven dummy variables based on specific disabilities—sensory disability, physical disability, mental disability, self-care disability, ability-to-go-out disability, work disability, and any disability (composite disability indicator). For each of these dummy variables, persons who have a respective disability are assigned a value of "1" while all others are given a value of "0."

Control Variables

In an effort to more accurately assess the relationship between the independent and dependent variables, we include two control variables (age and education) in the multivariate analysis. First, we measure current age with two dummy variables—1) 70-74 years of age and 2) 75 years of age and older. Persons 65 to 69 years of age serve as the reference category. Second, we measure education with three dummy variables—1) some high school education (9 to 11 years of education completed), 2) high school graduate, and 3) post-high school education. Persons with 0 to 8 years of education completed represent the reference category.

Analytical Plan and Statistical Procedure

The analysis is carried out in three stages. First, we analyze the distribution of Mexican elderly across the six generational status categories. Second, we provide a descriptive analysis of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Third, we use logistic regression to examine the relationship between the dependent, independent, and control variables. The analyses associated with the second and third stages are conducted separately for males and females. Finally, for comparative purposes, we have conducted background analyses based on the non-Latino white and non-Latino Asian populations. Results from these analyses are presented when appropriate.

Results

Distribution of Mexican Elderly by Generational Status

We begin the analysis with an overview of the distribution of Mexican elderly across the six generational status categories developed through the use of nativity and age at immigration. The majority (56.2%) of elderly Mexicans are U.S.-born (Table 1). Among the foreign-born, the greatest portion (28% of the entire Mexican elderly population) came to the United States when they were between 25 and 64. The groups that are particularly interesting to us are those that immigrated to the United States as youth (at ages less than 15) or as elderly (at age 65 or older). Note that there are no major gender differences in the distribution of the elderly across the generational status categories. Nonetheless, females (17.8%) are slightly more likely than males (14.9%) to have immigrated to the United States when they were 45 or older.

-- Table 1 about here--

The life experiences of the Mexican elderly are likely shaped by where they born and, for the foreign-born, when they immigrated to the United States. For example, the 1.5 generation immigrated to the United States as youth (0 to 14 years of age). As such, a significant portion of their socialization took place in the United States. In essence, they are likely to differ relatively little from their native-born counterparts. The 1.25 generation immigrated to the United States as young adults (15-24). For these individuals, the greatest portion of their socialization took place outside of the United States, although they came to the United States at a time when persons of their age are completing high school and entering the workforce. The 1.00 generation immigrated to the United States during the stage (25 to 44 years of age) where people typically are involved in marriage and family formation. Although these individuals were socialized exclusively outside of the United States, they may have experienced vicarious forms of socialization in the United States through the socialization experience of their children. The 0.50 generation immigrated to the United States during the typical post-marriage and family formation stage. Immigration at this stage of life may be motivated by marital disruption or family reunification, although people may still be active in the workforce in the United States. Finally, the 0.25 generation immigrated to the United States as elderly individuals 65 years of age and older. Immigration at this stage of life is likely to be motivated through the death of a spouse, health concerns, and reunification with adult children living in the United States.

Note also that individuals in the five foreign-born categories immigrated to the United States at different periods (see Table 1). The 1.5 generation generally immigrated to the United States between the Mexican Revolution and the Great Depression. The 1.25 generation tended to come to the United States between the end of World War II and Operation Wetback, at a time when the Bracero Program was in full force in the United States. The 1.00 generation immigrated to the United States between the mid-1950s and late 1960s, a period that saw the elimination of the Bracero Program and the enactment of Civil Rights legislation and immigration legislation that favored family reunification. The 0.50 generation generally came to the United States between the mid-1970s and late 1980s, a period that saw the enactment of the Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA) in 1986 which granted amnesty to many Mexicans who could prove that they had been in the United States on a continuous basis. Finally, the 0.25 generation tended to immigrate to the United States between 1991 and 1998, a period that saw economic expansion as well as welfare and immigration reform that made it more difficult for U.S. citizens to sponsor relatives to enter the United States as well as making it more difficult for immigrants to draw social services (Espenshade et al. 1998).

17

This conceptualization framework allows us to compare elderly Mexicans across the six generational categories on the basis of marital status, living arrangements, language, labor force participation, poverty, and disability status.

Descriptive Analysis

We now assess the social, economic, and health standing of the six generational status groups of Mexican elderly. Table 2 provides the results of the descriptive analysis. These descriptive results provide evidence for substantial differences across the six generational status categories on the basis of the dependent variables of interest. First, foreign-born elderly at the different ends of the generational status continuum (the 1.5 and 0.25 generations) are the most likely to be widowed. Women from these categories are particularly likely to be widowed (60.5% of the 0.25 generation; 53.5% of the 1.5 generation).

--Table 2 about here--

Second, there is a clear inverse relationship between generational status and extended family living arrangements. More than two-thirds of 0.25-generation men and more than three-fourths of 0.25-generation women were living in the households of a relative. In contrast, relatively few native-born elderly were living in such arrangements.

Third, there is also an association between generational status and language use. For example, upwards of 70 percent of persons who immigrated to the United States at age 45 or older (the 0.5 and 0.25 generations) are monolingual Spanish speakers. On the other hand, upwards of three-fifths of native-born individuals and persons from the 1.5 generation are bilingual speakers (i.e., they speak Spanish at home and speak English "well" or "very well"). Fourth, at least one-fifth of men from the 1.25, 0.5, and 0.25 generations were in the labor force with the 1.5 generation (13.2%) having the lowest labor force activity. Relatively few women were involved in the labor force, especially those from the 0.25 and 1.5 generations.

Fifth, there is an association between generational status and poverty, with those who arrived in the United States when they were 25 or older (the 1.0, 0.25, and 0.5 generations) having poverty rates of at least 20 percent. Poverty rates tended to be higher among females, with the disparity in poverty rates across generational status categories being greatest among males.

Sixth, there is a clear pattern between generational status and the prevalence of different types of disability. Regardless of type of disability, members of the 1.25 and 1.0 generations have the lowest disability rates while those from the 1.5 generation have the highest prevalence of disabilities. However, note that these patterns are likely to be driven by the varying age structures across the six generational status categories. Put simply, members of the 1.25 and 1.0 generations have the lowest median ages, while those from the 1.5 generation have the highest median ages.

In order to take account of these age variations across the six generational status categories, we developed age-adjusted disability rates by applying age-sex-specific disability rates (based on the 65-74, 75-84, and 85+ age categories) (see Appendix A) to a standardized population (in our case, the U.S. population in each of the three age categories of interest broken down by gender). Table 3 presents the age-adjusted disability rates. There is evidence that it is the 0.25 generation, consisting of the foreign-born who immigrated to the United States at age 65 or older, that have the lowest

disability rates. For example, it is members of the 0.25 generation that have the lowest rate on the composite disability rate (last two columns), with 42 percent of males and 52 percent of females having a disability. In addition, across the six types of disability across gender groups, it is also the 0.25 generation that has the lowest disability rates in six of the 12 comparisons. In contrast, among males, the 1.5 generation (those who immigrated at ages 0-14) has the highest composite disability rate, while among females it is the 0.5 generation (those that immigrated at 45-64) that has the highest composite disability rates. Furthermore, across the six types of specific types of disability and gender groups, it is the 0.5 generation that has the highest rates in five of the 12 comparisons.

--Table 3 about here--

To examine the extent to which the disability patterns among Mexican elderly are unique or similar to those of other groups, we develop age-adjusted disability rates for two comparison groups—non-Latino whites (herein referred to as "whites") and non-Latinos Asians (herein referred to as "Asians"). Figures 1a-1c plot out the disability rates on the composite disability measure for Mexicans (Figure 1a), whites (Figure 1b), and Asians (Figure 1c). Figure 1a clearly shows the low disability rates of the Mexican 0.25 generation especially in the case of males. Moreover, comparison of the disability rates of Mexicans to those of whites and Asians shows that as a whole Mexicans have the highest prevalence of disability with whites and Asians having substantially lower disability rates. However, among the 0.25 generation, Mexicans have the lowest disability rates compared to their white and Asian counterparts. However, we need to move to a multivariate analysis framework before we draw any firm conclusions. Indeed, in order to understand the relationship between generational status membership and the selected dependent variables, including the prevalence of disability, we need to introduce the two control variables (age and educational attainment) into the analysis.

Multivariate Analysis

We now turn to the results of the logistic regression analysis to assess the relationships between generational status and the selected dependent variables. Table 4 provides the odds ratios associated with selected demographic and socioeconomic characteristics (widowed, extended household membership, English-language acquisition, labor force participation, and poverty) broken down by gender. We will focus our discussion across each of the dimensions of interest. First, in the case of widowhood, compared to the native-born group, males of the 0.25 and 1.5 generations are the most likely to be widowed (about 1.3 times more likely), while members of the 1.0 generation are the least likely to have lost their spouse (being about 30 percent less likely compared to the native-born). In the case of females, all foreign-born groups, except those of the 0.5 generation, are significantly more likely to be widowed compared to their native-born counterparts, with women of the 0.25 generation being particularly likely to be widowed (1.65 times more likely than the native-born).

--Table 4 about here--

Second, the results show that foreign-born individuals, regardless of gender, are significantly more likely to live in the households of relatives. However, it is the 0.25 generation, those that immigrated at age 65 or older, that are the most likely to be in such

living arrangements. Indeed, these individuals are about 20 times more likely to be living as extended household members compared to their native-born counterparts.

Third, again, foreign-born individuals are significantly less likely than the nativeborn to speak English. In this case, it is the 0.5 and 0.25 generations, those that immigrated at age 45 or older, that have the lowest levels of English proficiency, each being more than 90 percent less likely than the native-born to be fluent in English.

Fourth, there is a clear relationship between generational status and labor force participation among males. All foreign-born groups, except for the members of the 1.5 generation, are significantly more likely to be participating in the labor force compared to the native-born. In addition, those that immigrated to the United States at age 45 or older (the 0.5 and 0.25 generations) are the most likely to be active in the labor force, being about twice as likely as native-born males to be part of the labor force. The patterns are less clear in the case of females. In this case, only two groups (the 1.5 and the 0.5 generations) are significantly less likely than the native-born to be labor force participants.

Finally, there is a clear relationship between generational status and poverty among males. Men who immigrated to the United States at age 25 or older (the 1.0. 0.5, and 0.25 generations) had significantly higher poverty rates than the native-born in 1999, being between 1.3 and 1.6 times more likely to be impoverished. The patterns are less clear in the case of females, with only members of the 0.5 generation being significantly more likely to be poor (16 percent more likely) compared to native-born females.

We provide here a brief overview of how the logistic regression results based on the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics compare to those of whites (see Appendix B) and Asians (see Appendix C). We highlight a few general observations. First, although whites of the 0.25 generation are the most likely to live with relatives, the levels are significantly lower than those of Mexicans and Asians of the 0.25 generation. Second, while Mexican males of the 0.5 and 0.25 generations are significantly more likely than their native-born counterparts to be active in the labor force, whites of these generations and Asians of the 0.25 generation are significantly *less* likely than their native-born peers to be part of the labor force. Finally, relative to the native-born, whites and Asians from the 0.5 and 0.25 generations are much more likely to be living in poverty compared to the internal variations among Mexicans. This likely reflects the greater status differences between the native-born and recent immigrants among whites and Asians compared to the case of Mexicans.

The last part of the analysis examines the relationship between generational status and disability among the Mexican elderly. Table 5 shows the odds ratios associated with the composite and specific disability indicators. The results show that as a general rule, foreign-born males have lower a lower prevalence of disabilities with the exception being the 1.5 generation who have comparably high levels of disability as their native-born peers. Among females, the 1.5 generation has consistently higher rates of disability compared to the native-born, while the foreign-born do not differ greatly from the nativeborn. Let us examine the composite disability indicator (last column in Table 5). In the case of males, foreign-born individuals who immigrated to the United States at age 15 or older have significantly lower rates of disability compared to the native-born. Males of the 0.25 generation, those who immigrated at age 65 or older, are the least likely to be disabled, being about 30 percent less likely to be in this condition compared to the nativeborn. In the case of females, again, it is the 0.25 generation that has the lowest prevalence of disability, being about 20 percent less likely than the native-born to be disabled. In contrast, females of the 1.5 generation are about 20 percent more likely to be disabled compared to their native-born peers.

--Table 5 about here--

When we compare the results based on the disability patterns of the Mexican elderly to those based on the white (see Appendix D) and Asian elderly (see Appendix E), there are clear differences. The results for the Mexican elderly show that the 0.25 generation is a healthy lot when it comes to disability status, while the 1.5 generation is less fortunate especially in the case of females. Among whites (males and females) and Asian males, the disability rates are particularly high among the 0.25 generation followed by the 0.5 generation. Among whites (males and females), the prevalence of disability is the lowest among the foreign-born who immigrated to the United States at a younger age (less than 45—i.e., members of the 1.0, 1.25, and 1.5 generations). Among Asian females, the highest rates of disability occur among members of the 1.5, 0.5, and 0.25 generations.

Conclusions

The results of the analysis have important substantive and policy implications. For example, our results contribute to extant efforts that have attempted to unravel the epidemiological paradox. In particular, our analysis contributes to ongoing discussions related to the degree to which Mexican elderly immigrants exhibit positive or negative outcomes on the selected attributes which we examine. Similarly, our results provide a historical basis to the existing 1.5-generation literature, which has focused primarily on immigrant youth today. Finally, our results have practical applications for policymakers, practitioners, and planners charged with assessing the needs of the elderly populations and the resources that are needed to meet such necessities.

References

- Abriaido-Lanza, A.F., B.P. Dohrenwend, D.S. Ng-Mak et al. (1999). The Latino mortality paradox: A test of the "salmon bias" and healthy migrant hypotheses. *American Journal of Public Health* 89, 1543-8.
- Angel, J.L. & R.J. Angel. (1992). Age at migration, social connections, and well-being among elderly Hispanics. *Journal of Aging & Health* 4, 480-499.
- Angel, J.L. & R.J. Angel. (1998). Aging trends—Mexican Americans in the southwestern USA. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Gerontology* 13, 181-290.
- Angel, J.L., R.J. Angel & K.S. Markides. (2000). Late life immigration, changes in living arrangements and headship status among older Mexican-origin individuals. *Social Science Quarterly* 81, 389-403.
- Angel, J.L., R.J. Angel, J.L. McClellan & K.S. Markides. (1996). Nativity, declining health, and preferences in living arrangements among elderly Mexican Americans: Implications for long-term care. *The Gerontologist* 36, 464-473.
- Angel, R.J. J.L. Angel. (1997). *Who will care for us? Aging and long-term care in multicultural America*. New York: New York University Press.
- Angel, R.J., J.L. Angel, G.Y. Lee & K.S. Markides. (1999). Age at migration and family dependency among older Mexican immigrants: Recent evidence from the Mexican American EPESE. The Gerontologist 39, 59-65.
- Angel, R.J., J.L. Angel & K.S. Markides. (2002). Stability and change in health insurance among older Mexican Americans: Longitudinal evidence from the Hispanic-EPESE. American Journal of Public Health 92,1264-1271.
- Black, S.A., K.S. Markides & T.Q. Miller. (1998). Correlates of depressive symptomatology among older community-dwelling Mexican Americans: The Hispanic EPESE." *Journal of Gerontology* 53B, S198-S208.
- Boyd, M. (1991). Immigration and living arrangements: Elderly women in Canada. *International Migration Review* 25, 4-27.
- Brett, K.M & J.A. Higgins. 2003. Hysterectomy prevalence by Hispanic ethnicity: evidence from a national survey. *American Journal of Public Health 93, 307-312*.
- Coward, R.T., C.W. Peek, J.C. Henretta, R.P. Duncan, M.C. Dougherty, & G.H. Gilbert. (1997). Race differences in the health of elders who live alone. *Journal of Aging & Health* 9, 147-170.
- Franzini, L., J.C. Ribble & A.M. Keddie. (2001). Understanding the Hispanic paradox. *Ethnicity & Disease* 11, 496-518.
- Frisbie, J., E. Garnica, M. Zumbrana & J.L. Bobadilla. (1996). Comprised birth outcomes and infant mortality among racial and ethnic groups." *Demography* 33, 469-481.
- Gilbert, M.J. (1987). Alcohol consumption patterns in immigrant and later generation Mexican American women. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Science* 9, 299-313.
- Glick, J. (2000). Nativity, duration of residence and the life course pattern of extended family in the USA. *Population Research & Policy Review* 19, 179-198.

González, H.M., M.N. Haan & L. Hinton. (2001). Acculturation and the prevalence of depression in older Mexican Americans: Baseline results of the Sacramento area Latino study of aging. *Journal of the American Geriatric Society* 49, 953-953.

Guendelman, S., J.B. Gould, M. Hughes et al. (1990). Generational differences in perinatal health among the Mexican American population: Findings from HHANES 1982-84. *American Journal of Public Health* 80 (Supplement), 61-5.

Hartman, M. & H. Hartman. (1994). International migration and retirement. International Journal of Sociology & Social Policy 14 (6/7), 25-57.

- Hays, J.C. & L.K. George. (2002). The life course trajectory toward living alone: Racial differences. *Research on Aging* 24, 283-307.
- Hazuda, H.P. (1995). Acculturation and socioeconomic status in healthy aging and disease. *American Journal of Human Biology* 7 (Abstract), 126.
- Hazuda, H.P. & D. Espino. (1997). Aging, chronic disease, and physical disability in Hispanic elderly. In K.S. Markides & M. Miranda (Eds.), *Minorities, aging, and health*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hao, L. & Y. Kawano. (2001). Immigrant's welfare use and opportunity for contact with co-ethnics. *Demography* 38, 375-389.
- Hummer, R.A., M. Biegler, P. de Turk, D. Forbes & W.P. Frisbie. (1999). Race/ethnicity, nativity and infant mortality in the United States. *Social Forces* 77 1083-1118.
- Jette, A.M., S.L. Crawford, & S.L. Tennstedt. (1996). Toward understanding ethnic differences in late-life disability. *Research on Aging* 18, 292-309.
- Karno, M. & R.B. Edgerton. (1969). Perception of mental illness in a Mexican-American Community. *Archives of General Psychology* 20, 233-238.
- Krause, N. & L.M. Goldenhar. (1992). Acculturation and psychological distress in three Groups of elderly Hispanics. *Journal of Gerontology* 47, S279-S288.
- Lawrence, R.H. & A.M. Jette. (1996). Disentangling the disablement process. *Journal* of Gerontology: Social Sciences 51B, S173-S182.
- Landale, N.S., R.S. Oropesa, D. Llanes & B.K. Gorman. 1999. Does Americanization have adverse effects on health?: Stress, health habits and infant health outcomes among Puerto Ricans. *Social Forces* 78, 1-29.
- LeClere, F.B., L. Jensen, & A.E. Biddlecom. (1994). Health care utilization, family context, and adaptation among immigrants to the United States. *Journal of Health & Social Behavior* 35, 370-84.
- Lewin, A. & H. Stier. (2003). Immigration, state support, and the economic well-being of the elderly in Israel. *Research on Aging* 25, 195-223.
- Lopez, C. & E. Alguilera. (1991). On the sidelines: Hispanic elderly and the continuum of care. Washington, DC: National Council of La Raza.
- Markides, K.S., S.A. Black, G.V. Ostir, R.J. Angel, J.M. Guralnik & M. Lichtenstein. (2001). Lower body function and mortality in Mexican American elderly people. *Journals of Gerontology* 56, M243-M247.
- Markides, K.S. & J. Coreil. (1986). The health of Hispanics in the southwestern United states: An epidemiological paradox. *Public Health Reports* 101, 253-265.
- Markides, K.S., L. Rudkin, R.L. Angel, & D.V. Espino. (1997). Health status of Hispanic elderly in the United States. In L. Martin & B. Soldo (Eds.), *Racial and*

ethnic differences in the health of older Americans (pp. 217-235). Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

- Markides, K.S. & S.P. Wallace. (1996). Health and long-term care needs of ethnic minority elderly. In R. Coe, J. Romeis, & J. Morley (Eds.), *Planning for longterm services for the elderly in the future*. New York: Springer Publishing Company.
- Marmot M.G. & S.L. Syme. (1976). Acculturation and coronary heart disease in Japanese-Americans. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 104, 225-247.
- Marmot, M.G., S.L. Syme, H. Kato, J.B. Cohen, & J. Belsky. 1975. Epidemiologic studies of coronary heart disease and stroke in Japanese men living in Japan, Hawaii, and California: Prevalence of coronary and hypertensive heart disease and associated health factors. *American Journal of Epidemiology* 102, 514-525.
- Matras, J. (1993). Social and economic absorption and the aging of middle-aged and older immigrants to Israel, 1945-1980. Jerusalem: J.D. Brookdale Institute of Gerontology.
- Mutchler, J.E. & J.L. Angel. (2000). Policy development and the older Latino population in the 21st century. *Journa of Aging & Social Policy* 11, 177-188.
- Newell, D.A., K.S. Markides, L.A. Ray & J.L. Freeman. (2001). Postmenopausal hormone replacement therapy use by older Mexican-American women. *American Journal of Geriatric and Society* 49, 1046-1051.
- Ostir, G., K.S. Markides, S.A. Black, & J.S. Goodwin. (1998). Lower body functioning as a predictor of subsequent disability among older Mexican Americans. *Journal* of Gerontology: Medical Sciences 54A, M491-M495.
- Palloni, A. & J.D. Morenoff. (2001). Interpreting the paradoxical in the Hispanic paradox: Demographic and epidemiologic approaches. *Annals of the New York Academy of Science* 954,140-74.
- Patel, K.V., S.A. Black & K.S. Markides. (2003). Prevalence of and risk factors for exertional chest pain in older Mexican Americans. *American Journal of Public Health* 93, 433-435.
- Peek, M.K., K.J. Ottenbacher, K.S. Markides, & G.V. Ostiri. (2003). Examining the disablement process among older Mexican American adults. *Social Science & Medicine* 57, 413-425.
- Portes, A. & M. Zhou. (1993). The new second generation: Segmented assimilation and its variants. Annals of the American Academy of Political & Social Sciences 530 (Nov.), 74-96.
- Prislin, R., L. Suarez, D.M. Simpson & J.A. Dyer. (1998). When acculturation hurts: The case of immunization. *Social Science and Medicine* 47, 1947-1956.
- Rudkin, L., K.S. Markides, & D.V. Espino. (1997). Functional disability in older Mexican Americans. *Topics in Geriatric Rehabilitation* 12, 38-46.
- Rumbaut, R.G. (1997). Assimilation and its discontents: Between rhetoric and reality. *International Migration Review* 31, 923-960.
- Rumbaut, R.G. & J.H. Weeks. (1996). Unraveling a public health enigma: Why do immigrants experience superior perinatal health outcomes. *Research in the Sociology of Health Care* 13, 337-391.
- Scribner, R. (1996). Editorial: Paradox as paradigm--The health outcomes of Mexican Americans. *American Journal of Public Health* 86, 303-305.

- Singh, G.K. & S.M. Yu. (1996). Adverse pregnancy outcomes: Differences between U.S.- and foreign-born women in Major U.S. racial and ethnic groups. *American Journal of Public Health* 86, 837-843.
- Snih, S.A., K.S. Markides, L. Ray & J.S. Goodwin. (2001). Impact of pain on disability among older Mexican Americans. *Journal of Gerontology* 56, M400-M404.
- Stevens, G. (1999). Age at immigration and second language proficiency among foreign-born adults. *Language in Society* 28, 555-578.
- Sunquist, J. & M. Winkleby. (2000). Country of birth, acculturation status, and abdominal obesity in a national sample of Mexican-American women and men. *International Journal of Epidemiology* 29, 470-477.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2004). U.S. interim projections by age, sex, race, and Hispanic origin. Washington, DC: U.S. Census Bureau. Internet release date: March 18, 2004. Webpage address: http://www.census.gov/ipc/www/usinterimproj/.
- Vega, W.A. & H. Amaro. (1994). Latino outlook: Good health, uncertain prognosis. Annual Review of Public Health 15, 39-67.
- Vega, W.A., B. Kolody, S. Aguilar-Gaxiola, E. Alderete, R. Catalano & J. Caraveo-Anduaga. (1998). Lifetime prevalence of DSM-III-R psychiatric disorders among urban and rural Mexican Americans in California. *Archives of General Psychiatry* 55, 771-778.
- Ventura, S.J. & W.M. Taffel. (1985). Childbearing characteristics of US and foreign born Hispanic mothers. *Public Health Reports* 100, 647-652.
- William, D.R. (1999). Race, SES, and health: The added effects of racism and discrimination. *Annals of the New York Academy of Science* 896, 173-188.
- Wilmoth, J.M., G.F. DeJong, & C.L. Himes. (1997). Immigrant and non-immigrant living arrangements among America's white, Hispanic, and Asian elderly population. *The International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy* 17 (9/10), 57-82.
- Zsembik, B.A., M.K. Peek, & C.W. Peek. (2000). Race and ethnic variation in the disablement process. *Journal of Aging & Health* 12, 229-249.

Current Age	Sen	sory	Phys	sical	Me	ntal	Self	Care	Abil.C	io Out	Abil. T	o Work	Disa	bled
& Age to U.S.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.
Age 65-74:														
Native-Born	14.4	10.3	24.4	27.4	11.0	10.3	7.5	9.1	19.0	21.5	17.3	17.8	41.9	41.3
FB, 0 to 14	14.9	13.2	23.0	26.6	7.6	13.8	6.8	10.4	23.1	21.5	18.7	17.9	43.0	42.7
FB, 15 to 24	10.7	10.5	23.9	25.4	9.5	11.1	7.8	6.5	21.3	21.7	18.9	16.7	39.9	40.7
FB, 25 to 44	10.4	11.4	22.8	29.1	10.1	13.4	6.6	9.3	21.0	25.4	18.7	21.3	40.7	45.2
FB, 45 to 64	13.6	13.0	21.8	28.3	12.4	14.9	6.6	10.3	22.1	26.6	22.8	21.6	41.4	46.6
FB, 65+	9.9	11.4	18.0	23.2	7.3	9.2	6.0	6.6	19.7	23.7	20.3	19.7	31.3	39.3
Age 75-84:														
Native-Born	23.7	19.7	34.0	42.3	18.7	20.7	14.7	19.6	28.4	34.8	21.6	27.9	55.0	58.9
FB, 0 to 14	21.5	20.3	34.8	42.2	21.6	25.1	15.6	20.3	27.5	40.0	27.8	32.1	57.9	61.5
FB, 15 to 24	15.0	15.0	34.3	43.9	16.3	17.2	15.7	21.5	26.4	34.2	21.6	25.5	52.6	57.0
FB, 25 to 44	20.0	16.4	33.0	42.7	18.2	20.4	11.7	18.3	29.5	36.2	23.2	26.1	52.8	59.9
FB, 45 to 64	21.6	20.4	36.7	40.9	21.3	24.8	14.9	18.3	28.5	37.6	26.9	27.9	54.9	60.3
FB, 65+	22.1	22.9	34.7	38.4	19.6	23.9	13.5	18.6	27.6	34.1	27.9	29.5	53.5	59.2
Age 85+:														
Native-Born	42.6	41.4	56.1	65.1	35.0	43.3	32.6	42.2	45.3	56.3	39.3	47.3	74.5	82.2
FB, 0 to 14	35.5	38.1	52.2	68.3	28.3	41.2	28.4	41.5	44.6	58.7	31.2	43.7	71.8	79.3
FB, 15 to 24	48.9	45.4	55.9	72.8	37.3	48.8	29.3	50.2	52.6	74.7	36.4	50.2	78.5	88.9
FB, 25 to 44	40.4	37.8	51.5	65.2	35.2	35.6	29.0	45.1	41.0	60.1	31.9	53.5	70.4	80.6
FB, 45 to 64	34.4	39.3	46.6	60.2	32.3	41.2	27.7	41.9	47.2	56.8	45.3	45.5	69.8	80.6
FB, 65+	32.2	40.2	43.1	60.5	31.0	39.1	26.1	37.7	41.3	53.3	25.7	39.4	65.6	75.4

Appendix A. Percentage of Mexicans 65 Years of Age and Older with Different Types of Disabilities by Age Group, Nativity/Age Arriving in the U.S., and Sex, 2000.

Source: 2000 5% PUMS.

Note: FB=Foreign-Born.

		Extended			
		Household	Speak	Labor	
Selected Predictors by Gender	Widowed	Member	English	Force	Poverty
Malaa					<u> </u>
wrates:					
Generation/Age at Immigration:					
1.5 Generation (0-14)	1.271 **	1.320 **	0.169 **	0.894 **	0.949
1.25 Generation (15-24)	1.092 *	1.484 **	0.086 **	1.053	0.858 *
1.0 Generation (25-44)	0.810 **	1.468 **	0.022 **	0.990	0.984
0.5 Generation (45-64)	0.876 **	4.908 **	0.004 **	0.862 **	3.150 **
0.25 Generation (65+)	1.180 **	10.204 **	0.001 **	0.356 **	5.351 **
Age 70-74	1.731 **	1.182 **	1.189 **	0.618 **	0.962 *
Age 75 and Older	3.941 **	1.918 **	1.202 **	0.291 **	1.060 **
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.863 **	0.663 **	2.907 **	1.213 **	0.618 **
High School Graduate	0.742 **	0.605 **	3.491 **	1.553 **	0.361 **
Post-High School Education	0.561 **	0.326 **	4.455 **	2.355 **	0.200 **
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	28,181.7 **	6,371.6 **	30,736.6 **	37,774.5 **	12,811.9 **
df	10	10	10	10	10
N	650,311	650,311	650,311	650,311	629,994
Females:					
Generation/Age at Immigration:					
1.5 Generation (0-14)	1.218 **	1.374 **	0.122 **	0.910 *	0.740 **
1.25 Generation (15-24)	1.028	1.108 **	0.083 **	0.948	0.741 **
1.0 Generation (25-44)	0.900 **	1.339 **	0.021 **	0.908 **	0.829 **
0.5 Generation (45-64)	1.180 **	5.097 **	0.003 **	0.636 **	1.991 **
0.25 Generation (65+)	1.581 **	8.841 **	0.001 **	0.326 **	2.808 **
Age 70-74	1.465 **	1.131 **	1.119 **	0.564 **	1.043 **
Age 75 and Older	3.817 **	2.030 **	1.361 **	0.203 **	1.495 **
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.804 **	0.690 **	3.590 **	1.362 **	0.670 **
High School Graduate	0.618 **	0.591 **	5.047 **	1.769 **	0.357 **
Post-High School Education	0.499 **	0.360 **	5.484 **	2.571 **	0.245 **
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	89,156.70 **	16,838.2 **	49,996.6 **	45,061.0 **	25,115.1 **
df	10	10	10	10	10
N	912,260	912,260	912,260	912,260	854,004

Appendix B. Logistic Regression (Odds Ratios) of Selected Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics on Generational Status/Age at Immigration and Control Variables among Non-Hispanic White Elderly by Gender, 2000.

*Significant at the 0.05 level.

**Significant at the 0.01 level.

		Extended			
		Household	Speak	Labor	
Selected Predictors by Gender	Widowed	Member	English	Force	Poverty
Males:					
Generation/Age at Immigration:					
1.5 Generation (0-14)	0.949	2.075 **	0.446 **	0.920	1.834 **
1.25 Generation (15-24)	0.771	1.225	0.327 **	0.932	1.508 **
1.0 Generation (25-44)	0.861	1.915 **	0.142 **	1.185 **	1.990 **
0.5 Generation (45-64)	1.114	7.957 **	0.052 **	1.014	3.695 **
0.25 Generation (65+)	1.475 **	19.733 **	0.047 **	0.552 **	4.008 **
Age 70-74	1.588 **	1.050	1.054	0.484 **	1.120
Age 75 and Older	3.319 **	0.943	1.038	0.260 **	1.186 **
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	1.010	0.850 *	1.847 **	1.420 **	0.865
High School Graduate	0.934	0.940	3.267 **	1.828 **	0.692 **
Post-High School Education	0.624 **	0.610 **	8.511 **	2.885 **	0.487 **
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	617.9 **	3,154.0 **	5,766.1 **	1,514.0 **	604.7 **
df	10	10	10	10	10
Ν	16,304	16,304	16,304	16,304	16,087
Females:					
Generation/Age at Immigration:					
1.5 Generation (0-14)	1.784 **	2.950 **	0.161 **	0.718	1.041
1.25 Generation (15-24)	1.266 **	0.873	0.267 **	0.952	1.210
1.0 Generation (25-44)	1.178 **	1.227 **	0.156 **	0.946	1.478 **
0.5 Generation (45-64)	1.686 **	6.919 **	0.053 **	0.662 **	2.129 **
0.25 Generation (65+)	2.151 **	17.035 **	0.040 **	0.509 **	1.741 **
Age 70-74	1.378 **	0.889 **	1.057	0.536 **	0.979
Age 75 and Older	2.910 **	0.963	1.011	0.246 **	1.141
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.756 **	0.827 **	2.123 **	1.555 **	0.888
High School Graduate	0.678 **	0.737 **	3.394 **	1.756 **	0.663 **
Post-High School Education	0.547 **	0.584 **	8.326 **	2.983 **	0.524 **
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	2,174.1 **	5,531.4 **	8,631.0 **	1,205.8 **	444.0 **
df	10	10	10	10	10
Ν	22,050	22,050	22,050	22,050	21,613

Appenix C. Logistic Regression (Odds Ratios) of Selected Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics on Generational Status/Age at Immigration and Control Variables among Non-Hispanic Asian Elderly by Gender, 2000.

*Significant at the 0.05 level.

**Significant at the 0.01 level.

					Ability to	Ability	
Predictor Variables and Gender	Sensory	Physical	Mental	Self Care	Go Out	to Work	Disability
Males:							
Generation/Age at Immigration							
1.5 Generation (0-14)	0.921 *	0.862 **	1.033	1.079	1.129 **	0.978	0.923 **
1.25 Generation (15-24)	0.659 **	0.636 **	0.791 **	0.914	1.155 **	0.844 **	0.748 **
1.0 Generation (25-44)	0.548 **	0.585 **	0.724 **	0.682 **	1.103 **	0.791 **	0.715 **
0.5 Generation (45-64)	0.712 **	0.914	1.772 **	1.326 **	1.523 **	1.160 **	1.095 **
0.25 Generation (65+)	1.235 **	1.247 **	3.356 **	2.433 **	1.934 **	1.749 **	1.613 **
Age 70-74	1.300 **	1.165 **	1.274 **	1.350 **	1.266 **	1.041 **	1.216 **
Age 75 and Older	2.481 **	1.967 **	2.719 **	3.180 **	2.611 **	1.724 **	2.238 **
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.736 **	0.745 **	0.589 **	0.660 **	0.739 **	0.718 **	0.721 **
High School Graduate	0.589 **	0.561 **	0.445 **	0.537 **	0.561 **	0.626 **	0.516 **
Post-High School Education	0.482 **	0.432 **	0.340 **	0.393 **	0.378 **	0.506 **	0.373 **
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	22,632.7 **	26,460.6 **	24,618.5 **	21,230.3 **	31,301.6 **	13,424.0 **	42,694.7 **
df	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Ν	650,311	650,311	650,311	650,311	650,311	650,311	650,311
Females:							
Generation/Age at Immigration:							
1.5 Generation (0-14)	1.121 **	0.931 **	1.060 *	1.087 **	1.089 **	1.031	0.996
1.25 Generation (15-24)	0.775 **	0.656 **	0.774 **	0.771 **	0.927 **	0.831 **	0.742 **
1.0 Generation (25-44)	0.661 **	0.622 **	0.728 **	0.657 **	0.885 **	0.740 **	0.736 **
0.5 Generation (45-64)	0.993	1.097 **	1.836 **	1.407 **	1.447 **	1.218 **	1.351 **
0.25 Generation (65+)	1.357 **	1.437 **	3.096 **	2.071 **	1.736 **	1.624 **	1.769 **
Age 70-74	1.366 **	1.197 **	1.256 **	1.338 **	1.274 **	1.106 **	1.237 **
Age 75 and Older	4.182 **	2.791 **	4.155 **	4.584 **	3.911 **	2.822 **	3.236 **
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.699 **	0.698 **	0.567 **	0.615 **	0.661 **	0.679 **	0.655 **
High School Graduate	0.515 **	0.469 **	0.413 **	0.469 **	0.463 **	0.538 **	0.411 **
Post-High School Education	0.483 **	0.418 **	0.351 **	0.410 **	0.365 **	0.501 **	0.342 **
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	50,668.7 **	66,865.0 **	58,004.5 **	58,763.3 **	85,569.2 **	50,192.3 **	97,037.9 **
df	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
N	912,260	912,260	912,260	912,260	912,260	912,260	912,260

Appendix D. Logistic Regression (Odds Ratios) of Selected Disability Types on Generational Status/Age at Immigration and Control Variables among Non-Hispanic White Elderly by Gender, 2000.

*Significant at the 0.05 level. **Significant at the 0.01 level.

	• •				Ability to	Ability	
Predictor Variables and Gender	Sensory	Physical	Mental	Self Care	Go Out	to Work	Disability
Males:							
Generation/Age at Immigration							
1.5 Generation (0-14)	0.946	0.982	1.386 *	1.530 *	1.767 **	1.067	1.171
1.25 Generation (15-24)	1.023	1.140	1.072	1.068	1.295 **	1.035	1.074
1.0 Generation (25-44)	0.660 **	0.998	0.853	0.982	1.238 **	1.111	0.944
0.5 Generation (45-64)	0.819 **	1.209 **	1.542 **	1.183 *	1.408 **	1.363 **	1.216 **
0.25 Generation (65+)	1.134	1.241 **	1.758 **	1.272 **	1.495 **	1.492 **	1.335 **
Age 70-74	1.405 **	1.416 **	1.253 **	1.317 **	1.190 **	1.018	1.344 **
Age 75 and Older	2.709 **	2.652 **	2.528 **	3.161 **	2.035 **	1.744 **	2.338 **
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.812 **	0.865 *	0.750 **	0.824 *	1.036	0.938	0.939
High School Graduate	0.680 **	0.683 **	0.513 **	0.629 **	0.783 **	0.777 **	0.696 **
Post-High School Education	0.550 **	0.524 **	0.361 **	0.470 **	0.596 **	0.659 **	0.525 **
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	670.1 **	822.0 **	944.3 **	563.3 **	584.3 **	379.4 **	1,042.9 **
df	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Ν	16,304	16,304	16,304	16,304	16,304	16,304	16,304
Females:							
Generation/Age at Immigration:							
1.5 Generation (0-14)	1.480 *	1.737 **	1.966 **	2.468 **	1.696 **	1.721 **	1.575 **
1.25 Generation (15-24)	0.593 **	0.837 *	0.816	0.847	1.040	0.767 **	0.866
1.0 Generation (25-44)	0.822 *	0.901	0.831 *	0.850 *	1.154 **	0.985	1.064
0.5 Generation (45-64)	1.227 **	1.397 **	1.479 **	1.099	1.409 **	1.219 **	1.478 **
0.25 Generation (65+)	1.603 **	1.657 **	1.866 **	1.503 **	1.593 **	1.453 **	1.652 **
Age 70-74	1.217 **	1.224 **	1.218 **	1.323 **	1.262 **	1.140 **	1.250 **
Age 75 and Older	2.763 **	2.497 **	2.597 **	3.707 **	2.475 **	2.263 **	2.475 **
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.763 **	0.821 **	0.620 **	0.788 **	0.850 **	0.787 **	0.784 **
High School Graduate	0.574 **	0.579 **	0.443 **	0.607 **	0.669 **	0.653 **	0.569 **
Post-High School Education	0.558 **	0.587 **	0.368 **	0.535 **	0.599 **	0.602 **	0.531 **
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	1,066.7 **	1,565.8 **	1,729.8 **	1,226.8 **	1,228.1 **	1,024.4 **	1,856.9 **
df	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
N	22,050	22,050	22,050	22,050	22,050	22,050	22,050

Appendix E. Logistic Regression (Odds Ratios) of Selected Disability Types on Generational Status/Age at Immigration and Control Variables among Non-Hispanic Asian Elderly by Gender, 2000.

*Significant at the 0.05 level. **Significant at the 0.01 level.



Figure 1a. Age-Adjusted Percentages of Mexicans 65 Years of Age and Older with a Disability by Nativity/Age Arriving in the United States and Sex, 2000.

Source: 2000 5% PUMS. Note: The U.S. sex-specific population is used as the standard population; FB=Foreign-Born.



Figure 1b. Age-Adjusted Percentages of Non-Hispanic Whites 65 Years of Age and Older with a Disability by Nativity/Age Arriving in the United States and Sex, 2000.

Source: 2000 5% PUMS. Note: The U.S. sex-specific population is used as the standard population; FB=Foreign-Born.

Current Age	Sen	sory	Phy	sical	Me	ntal	Self	Care	Abil.C	io Out	Abil. T	o Work	Disa	Disabled	
& Age to U.S.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	
Native-Born	16.2	14.1	26.8	32.4	10.3	12.8	8.5	13.5	16.9	24.6	17.4	22.6	40.7	43.8	
FB, 0 to 14	13.2	13.3	21.8	27.3	8.9	11.4	7.9	12.1	16.2	23.1	15.5	20.6	35.7	39.7	
FB, 15 to 24	11.1	11.2	19.2	24.8	8.2	10.2	7.6	10.8	18.5	23.3	15.1	19.4	34.2	37.6	
FB, 25 to 44	10.1	11.1	18.6	25.7	8.5	11.4	6.3	10.7	19.2	24.9	14.9	19.5	35.0	40.6	
FB, 45 to 64	12.5	14.8	25.9	36.7	17.4	22.5	11.3	18.9	23.7	32.9	20.0	27.0	44.0	53.5	
FB, 65+	19.8	19.7	30.9	42.8	29.3	33.9	18.9	25.8	28.7	38.8	26.9	34.6	52.9	60.0	

Table 3. Age-Adjusted Percentage of Non-Hispanic Whites 65 Years of Age and Older with Different Types of Disabilities by Age Group, Nativity/Age Arriving in the U.S., and Sex, 2000.

Source: 2000 5% PUMS.

Note: The U.S. sex-specific population is used as the standard population in the computation of age-adjusted percentages. Note: FB=Foreign-Born.



Figure 1c. Age-Adjusted Percentages of Non-Hispanic Asians 65 Years of Age and Older with a Disability by Nativity/Age Arriving in the United States and Sex, 2000.

Source: 2000 5% PUMS. Note: The U.S. sex-specific population is used as the standard population; FB=Foreign-Born.

Current Age	Sen	sory	Phys	sical	Me	ntal	Self	Care	Abil.C	io Out	Abil. To	o Work	Disa	bled	F/M
& Age to U.S.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Ratio
			• • •	.						• • •					
Native-Born	14.5	12.0	20.5	24.4	10.1	13.3	7.7	12.0	18.6	24.0	15.5	20.3	37.5	38.4	1.02
FB, 0 to 14	11.7	14.5	16.2	30.8	10.0	22.3	9.9	19.8	29.2	31.2	15.5	28.1	38.7	46.3	1.20
FB, 15 to 24	12.9	10.9	21.0	26.2	9.8	16.0	7.2	13.4	20.6	25.3	16.0	17.9	35.9	37.7	1.05
FB, 25 to 44	10.4	12.4	19.9	24.0	8.7	14.4	7.4	10.4	20.0	26.2	15.9	20.9	35.3	40.5	1.15
FB, 45 to 64	13.2	16.5	24.5	33.8	15.9	21.4	9.3	13.9	24.7	31.9	21.4	25.7	43.0	51.3	1.20
FB, 65+	17.4	18.9	23.9	36.1	17.5	24.0	9.7	15.7	25.4	33.7	22.3	27.7	44.7	52.5	1.18

Table 3. Age-Adjusted Percentage of Non-Hispanic Asians 65 Years of Age and Older with Different Types of Disabilities by Age Group, Nativity/Age Arriving in the U.S., and Sex, 2000.

Source: 2000 5% PUMS.

Note: The U.S. sex-specific population is used as the standard population in the computation of age-adjusted percentages. Note: FB=Foreign-Born.

					Rar	nge	25th	75th
Nativity and Age at			Pct.	Median	Earliest	Latest	Quartile	Quartile
Immigration	Generation	Number	Distr.	Year	Year	Year	Year	Year
Native-Born	2+	449,091	56.2					
Foreign-Born:								
Immigrated at 0-14	1.5	31,417	3.9	1925	1910	1949	1917	1935
Immigrated at 15-24	1.25	56,307	7.0	1950	1922	1959	1946	1954
Immigrated at 25-44	1	130,543	16.3	1961	1932	1979	1956	1968
Immigrated at 45-64	0.5	93,257	11.7	1980	1952	1999	1975	1988
Immigrated at 65+	0.25	39,056	4.9	1995	1972	2000	1991	1998
Total		799,671	100.0					

Source: 2000 5% PUMS.

Note: These data have been inflated using person weights to obtain population estimates.

		Foreig	n-Born by Age	mmigrating to t	he U.S. and Ger	neration
	Native-Born	0-14	15-24	25-44	45-64	65+
Selected Characteristics by Gender	2+	1.5	1.25	1.00	0.5	0.25
Males:						
Marital Status:						
Pct. widowed	13.6	21.7	11.5	10.9	13.0	22.7
Living Arrangements:						
Pct. living as extended household member	7.7	13.6	13.8	18.6	38.3	68.0
Language Use:						
Pct. monolingual Spanish speakers	11.8	27.8	44.9	61.2	71.7	75.5
Pct. bilingual speakers	70.6	60.1	48.1	30.7	19.2	15.2
Pct. monolingual English speakers	17.7	12.1	7.0	8.1	9.1	9.3
Socioeconomic:						
Pct. in labor force	17.5	13.2	21.2	18.0	25.2	21.3
Pct. in poverty	13.1	16.3	14.6	20.3	23.6	22.5
Disability Status:						
Pct. with sensory disability	18.6	22.9	12.8	14.5	17.2	19.1
Pct. with physical disability	28.9	35.1	26.9	27.0	27.5	29.5
Pct. with mental disability	14.5	18.2	11.8	13.5	16.2	16.8
Pct. with self-care disability	10.9	15.8	10.1	9.1	10.3	12.9
Pct. with ability-to-go-out disability	23.1	30.5	23.3	24.3	25.6	27.1
Pct. with work disability	19.7	25.3	20.0	20.6	25.5	24.3
Pct. with any disability	47.4	56.1	43.6	45.5	47.0	46.8
Control:						
Median age	72	78	69	71	71	76
Pct. high school graduates	35.9	25.2	19.1	12.8	14.7	13.7
Fotal Male Population	195,877	12,793	27,394	59,898	35,919	16,151
Females:						
Marital Status:						
Pct. Widowed	39.0	53.5	38.9	39.4	48.7	60.5
Living Arrangements:						
Pct. living as extended household member	13.3	19.5	18.0	27.6	54.7	77.5
Language Use:						
Pct. monolingual Spanish speakers	15.8	30.0	48.8	65.6	75.1	76.9
Pct. bilingual speakers	66.9	59.0	41.7	25.0	14.2	11.4
Pct. monolingual English speakers	17.2	11.0	9.5	9.4	10.7	11.7
Table 1 (continued).						

Table 2. Summary Statistics on Selected Characteristics for Mexicans 65 Years of Age and Older by Gender and Generational Status, 200

		Foreig	Foreign-Born by Age Immigrating to the U.S. and Generation						
	Native-Born	0-14	15-24	25-44	45-64	65+			
Selected Characteristics by Gender	2+	1.5	1.25	1.00	0.5	0.25			
с. · . ·									
Socioeconomic:	0.7	- 0	<u> </u>	- (<i>.</i> .				
Pct. in labor force	9.7	5.0	9.4	7.6	6.4	4.6			
Pct. in poverty	19.0	19.2	19.9	22.1	25.5	25.0			
Health:									
Pct. with sensory disability	15.7	24.0	13.1	14.2	17.4	22.4			
Pct. with physical disability	35.1	46.1	31.0	34.6	34.7	37.5			
Pct. with mental disability	16.2	27.0	14.1	16.4	20.0	21.7			
Pct. with self-care disability	15.0	24.3	11.3	13.6	15.3	18.2			
Pct. with ability-to-go-out disability	28.4	40.6	26.6	30.1	32.4	34.3			
Pct. with work disability	23.3	31.7	19.9	24.3	25.5	28.0			
Pct. with any disability	50.1	61.7	46.0	51.0	53.4	55.4			
Control:									
Median age	73	80	70	71	72	77			
Pct. high school graduates	30.7	20.9	19.7	17.6	10.9	10.3			
Total Female Population	253,214	18,624	28,913	70,645	57,338	22,905			

Source: 2000 5% PUMS.

Note: These data have been inflated using person weights to obtain population estimates.

0.

Table 3. Age-Adjusted Percentage of Mexicans 65 Years of Age and Older with Different Types of Disabilities by Age Group, Nativity/Age Arriving in the U.S., and Sex, 2000.

Current Age Sensory		sory	Phy	sical	Me	ntal	Self	Care	Abil.C	Go Out	Abil. T	o Work	k Disabled	
& Age to U.S.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.	Male	Fem.
Native-Born	20.0	18.3	30.4	38.3	15.7	18.9	12.1	17.8	24.4	31.4	20.6	25.8	49.1	53.7
FB, 0 to 14	18.9	19.4	29.5	38.4	14.1	21.9	11.6	18.6	26.4	33.7	22.8	26.8	50.5	54.9
FB, 15 to 24	15.4	17.2	30.1	39.1	14.2	18.8	12.3	18.3	25.7	34.0	21.3	24.8	47.5	53.7
FB, 25 to 44	16.2	17.1	28.7	39.3	15.0	19.2	10.2	17.8	25.6	34.4	21.3	27.8	47.3	55.7
FB, 45 to 64	18.1	19.5	29.0	37.5	17.1	22.3	11.2	17.8	26.4	35.0	26.1	27.4	48.4	56.6
FB, 65+	15.9	19.8	25.8	34.2	13.5	18.9	10.3	15.5	24.2	31.8	23.3	26.1	41.7	51.8

Source: 2000 5% PUMS.

Note: The U.S. sex-specific population is used as the standard population in the computation of age-adjusted percentages. Note: FB=Foreign-Born.

Extended										
		Household	Speak	Labor						
Selected Predictors by Gender	Widowed	Member	English	Force	Poverty					
Males:										
Generation/Age at Immigration:										
1.5 Generation $(0-14)$	1.279 *	1.743 **	0.433 **	0.986	1.098					
1.25 Generation (15-24)	0.919	1.786 **	0.216 **	1.289 **	1.005					
1.0 Generation (25-44)	0.712 **	2.451 **	0.114 **	1.311 **	1.319 **					
0.5 Generation (45-64)	0.887	6.603 **	0.064 **	1.962 **	1.555 **					
0.25 Generation (65+)	1.283 **	20.065 **	0.051 **	2.254 **	1.444 **					
Age 70-74	1.603 **	1.126 *	1.001	0.523 **	1.181 **					
Age 75 and Older	3.138 **	1.267 **	1.014	0.296 **	1.158 **					
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.784 **	0.864 *	3.732 **	1.328 **	0.567 **					
High School Graduate	0.770 **	0.847 *	5.282 **	1.509 **	0.424 **					
Post-High School Education	0.610 **	0.463 **	7.901 **	2.449 **	0.266 **					
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	663.0 **	2,301.7 **	7,007.8 **	1,078.2 **	618.0 **					
df	10	10	10	10	10					
Ν	18,415	18,415	18,415	18,415	17,999					
Females:										
Generation/Age at Immigration:										
1.5 Generation (0-14)	1.331 **	1.535 **	0.530 **	0.647 **	0.889					
1.25 Generation (15-24)	1.207 **	1.408 **	0.231 **	1.008	0.936					
1.0 Generation (25-44)	1.028	2.396 **	0.107 **	0.872	1.003					
0.5 Generation (45-64)	1.385 **	7.078 **	0.078 **	0.807 *	1.162 **					
0.25 Generation (65+)	1.647 **	19.486 **	0.071 **	0.846	1.100					
Age 70-74	1.431 **	0.921	0.876 **	0.594 **	0.984					
Age 75 and Older	3.167 **	1.206 **	0.913 *	0.278 **	1.165 **					
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.804 **	0.748 **	4.247 **	1.677 **	0.662 **					
High School Graduate	0.751 **	0.722 **	5.619 **	2.125 **	0.455 **					
Post-High School Education	0.589 **	0.600 **	8.058 **	4.046 **	0.377 **					
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	1,810.40 **	3,828.0 **	8,866.70 **	1,043.3 **	493.0 **					
df	10	10	10	10	10					
Ν	23,315	23,315	23,315	23,315	22,667					

 Table 4. Logistic Regression (Odds Ratios) of Selected Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics

 on Generational Status/Age at Immigration and Control Variables among Mexican Elderly by Gender, 2000.

*Significant at the 0.05 level.

**Significant at the 0.01 level.

¥ ¥ ¥	·				Ability to	Ability	
Predictor Variables and Gender	Sensory	Physical	Mental	Self Care	Go Out	to Work	Disability
Males:							
Generation/Age at Immigration:							
1.5 Generation (0-14)	0.929	1.005	0.938	1.068	1.102	1.082	0.998
1.25 Generation (15-24)	0.656 **	0.840 **	0.766 **	0.912	0.993	0.953	0.804 **
1.0 Generation (25-44)	0.675 **	0.786 **	0.751 **	0.727 **	0.965	0.916	0.800 **
0.5 Generation (45-64)	0.805 **	0.793 **	0.988	0.836 *	1.015	1.194 **	0.856 **
0.25 Generation (65+)	0.776 **	0.751 **	0.871	0.856	0.998	1.072	0.722 **
Age 70-74	1.264 **	1.236 **	1.371 **	1.500 **	1.283 **	1.056	1.286 **
Age 75 and Older	2.403 **	2.080 **	2.541 **	3.104 **	1.974 **	1.505 **	2.127 **
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.718 **	0.723 **	0.623 **	0.716 **	0.869 **	0.768 **	0.755 **
High School Graduate	0.664 **	0.603 **	0.556 **	0.732 **	0.766 **	0.727 **	0.636 **
Post-High School Education	0.653 **	0.575 **	0.430 **	0.537 **	0.644 **	0.652 **	0.588 **
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	567.2 **	616.1 **	631.1 **	532.6 **	396.2 **	232.2 **	724.2 **
df	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
Ν	18,415	18,415	18,415	18,415	18,415	18,415	18,415
Females:							
Generation/Age at Immigration:							
1.5 Generation (0-14)	1.262 **	1.189 *	1.358 **	1.291 **	1.367 **	1.221 **	1.214 **
1.25 Generation (15-24)	0.885	0.898	0.873	0.873	0.996	0.855 *	0.897
1.0 Generation (25-44)	0.848 **	0.928	0.988	0.897	1.059	1.016	0.960
0.5 Generation (45-64)	0.975	0.833	1.125 *	0.935	1.058	0.990	0.951
0.25 Generation (65+)	1.052	0.739 **	0.937	0.855	0.937	0.961	0.821 **
Age 70-74	1.187 **	1.192 **	1.100	1.336 **	1.205 **	1.065	1.143 **
Age 75 and Older	2.706 **	2.513 **	2.741 **	3.624 **	2.464 **	2.139 **	2.534 **
Some High School (9-11 Yrs.)	0.630 **	0.643 **	0.594 **	0.638 **	0.748 **	0.729 **	0.670 **
High School Graduate	0.594 **	0.586 **	0.521 **	0.646 **	0.665 **	0.689 **	0.556 **
Post-High School Education	0.552 **	0.532 **	0.496 **	0.584 **	0.567 **	0.719 **	0.499 **
Chi-Square Likelihood Ratio	950.4 **	1,333.7 **	1,151.6 **	1,214.9 **	1,097.8 **	746.4 **	1,533.9 **
df	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
N	23,315	23,315	23,315	23,315	23,315	23,315	23,315

Table 5. Logistic Regression (Odds Ratios) of Selected Disability Types on Generational Status/Age at Immigration and Control Variables among Mexican Elderly by Gender, 2000.

*Significant at the 0.05 level. **Significant at the 0.01 level.