"Jumpstarting Integration: How the Age at Arrival of Hispanic and Asian Immigrants Impacts Ethnic Identification for Themselves and for Their U.S.-born Children"

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Abstract

Many U.S.-born descendants of immigrants do *not* identify with their ancestral ethnicity in response to the Hispanic origin and race questions asked in the Census and other government surveys. Analyzing microdata from the 2000 Census and the 2001-2023 American Community Surveys, we show that the age at arrival of Hispanic and Asian immigrants exerts an important influence on ethnic identification not only for these immigrants themselves but also for their U.S.-born children. Among immigrants who arrived as children, the rate of ethnic attrition—i.e., *not* identifying as Hispanic or Asian—is substantially higher for those who entered the United States at a younger age. Moreover, the children of these immigrants exhibit a similar pattern: greater ethnic attrition among children whose parents moved to the United States at a younger age. We unpack the relative importance of several key mechanisms—parental English proficiency, parental education, family structure, intermarriage, and geographic location—through which the age at arrival of immigrant parents influences the ethnic identification of their children. Prior research demonstrates that arriving at an early age hastens and furthers the integration of immigrants. We show here that this pattern also holds for ethnic identification and that the resulting differences in ethnic attrition among first-generation immigrants are transmitted to their second-generation children.

Many U.S.-born descendants of immigrants do *not* identify with their ancestral ethnicity in response to the Hispanic origin and race questions asked in the Census and other government surveys. Using microdata from the 2000 Census and the 2001-2023 American Community Surveys, we study how the age at arrival of Hispanic and Asian immigrants to the United States influences their ethnic identification and that of their U.S.-born children.

Our work draws upon and bridges two distinct literatures on the social and economic integration of U.S. immigrants and their descendants. The first literature shows that, among immigrants who arrived as children, those who migrated at a younger age possess as adults substantial advantages in English proficiency, educational attainment, earnings, and other indicators of socioeconomic assimilation, such as owning a home, having a U.S.-born spouse, and living outside of an ethnic enclave (Bleakley and Chin 2004, 2010; Myers, Gao, and Emeka 2009; Akbulut-Yuksel, Bleakley, and Chin 2011; Beck, Corak, and Tienda 2012; Hull 2023; Luik, Steinhardt, and Voss 2025). This literature also finds that immigrants who arrived at a younger age transmit some of these advantages to their U.S.-born children (Bleakley and Chin 2008).

The second literature that we draw upon analyzes the extent and selectivity of ethnic identification among the descendants of U.S. immigrants (Waters 1990; Perlmann and Waters 2007). For U.S.-born individuals with Hispanic or Asian ancestors, this literature demonstrates that "ethnic attrition"—i.e., *not* identifying as Hispanic or Asian—is both substantial and selective (Alba and Islam 2009; Duncan and Trejo 2011, 2017; Lopez, Gonzalez-Barrera, and Lopez 2017). Among persons with Hispanic ancestry, for example, those who identify as Hispanic possess much lower levels of socioeconomic attainment than their counterparts who do not identify as Hispanic. As a result, standard data sources understate the socioeconomic

attainment of U.S.-born descendants of Hispanic immigrants (Duncan and Trejo 2017; Duncan *et al*. 2020).

In the current paper, we show for the first time that the age at arrival of Hispanic and Asian immigrants exerts an important influence on ethnic identification not only for these immigrants themselves but also for their U.S.-born children. Among Hispanic and Asian immigrants who arrived as children, the rate of ethnic attrition is higher for those who migrated at a younger age. Moreover, the children of these immigrants exhibit a similar pattern: greater ethnic attrition among children whose parents moved to the United States at a younger age. We unpack the relative importance of several key mechanisms—parental English proficiency, parental education, family structure, intermarriage, and geographic location—through which the age at arrival of immigrant parents influences the ethnic identification of their children. The first literature mentioned above demonstrates that arriving at an early age hastens and furthers the integration of immigrants. We show here that this pattern also holds for ethnic identification and that the resulting differences in ethnic attrition among first-generation immigrants are transmitted to their second-generation children.

I. Data

We use publicly available microdata from the 2000 U.S. Census and the 2001-2023 American Community Surveys (ACS).[1] We restrict our samples to U.S.-born children ages 17 and below residing with a parent who was born in an Hispanic or Asian source country and who migrated to the United States before age 18.[2] In addition, the current age of the immigrant parent

[1] We obtained these data from the IPUMS USA web site (Ruggles *et al*. 2024). The 2000 Census data are a 5 percent sample of the population, and the 2005-2023 ACS data are 1 percent samples. The sampling rates for the 2001-2004 ACS data vary between 0.38 and 0.43 percent.

[2] For foreign-born individuals, their approximate age at arrival in the United States is calculated from available information regarding current age, year of immigration, and survey year. Hispanic source countries are Puerto Rico, Mexico, Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Cuba, Dominican Republic, Argentina, Bolivia, Chile,

must be in the range 25-55.[3] We end up with two samples of U.S.-born children that we analyze separately: 784,670 children whose Hispanic immigrant parent arrived in the United States before age 18, and 224,935 children whose Asian immigrant parent arrived in the United States before age 18.

The Hispanic origin question in the Census and ACS elicits relevant information regarding the ethnic identification of the parents and children in our Hispanic sample (Humes, Jones, and Ramirez 2011). Respondents are asked whether they are "of Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish origin," and those who answer affirmatively are then given the opportunity to designate a specific national origin group (such as Mexican, Puerto Rican, or Cuban).[4] Here, because our sample includes people with ties to twenty different Hispanic source countries, we focus on the broader definition of ethnic identification: do respondents identify as Hispanic or not?

For our Asian sample, we instead examine whether individuals identify as Asian in response to the race question in the Census and ACS. The race question includes boxes that can be checked to register Asian responses such as Chinese, Vietnamese, Filipino, Korean, Asian Indian, and Japanese, and there is also a space for writing in other Asian responses (e.g., Pakistani, Cambodian, Hmong, etc.). Beginning with the 2000 Census, the race question permits multiple responses: respondents are instructed to "mark one or more races" (Humes and Hogan

Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, Venezuela, and Spain. Asian source countries are China, Hong Kong, Macau, Mongolia, Taiwan, Japan, North Korea, South Korea, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Vietnam, India, Bangladesh, Bhutan, Myanmar (formerly Burma), Pakistan, Sri Lanka (formerly Ceylon), and Nepal.

[3] We also require that the immigrant parent *not* be born abroad of American parents, because country of birth may be an unreliable indicator of ethnicity for such individuals. If a child is living with both of their parents and both parents meet the conditions for being an "immigrant parent who arrived in the United States before age 18," we assign the parent who arrived at a younger age to be the child's "immigrant parent." If both parents arrived at the same age, we assign the mother to be the child's immigrant parent.

[4] Typically, one adult will complete the Census or ACS questionnaire for the entire household, and we do not know which household member does so. As a result, reports of racial/ethnic identification in these data may not represent how respondents would have answered for themselves.

2009).[5] If a respondent provides any Asian response to the race question, we code them as "identifying as Asian," regardless of what other racial responses they may additionally provide.

II. Basic Patterns

Figure 1 illustrates how ethnic identification varies with parental age at arrival for the immigrant parents and U.S.-born children in our samples. Following Bleakley and Chin (2004, 2008, 2010), we treat age at arrival as exogenous for the parents in our sample who immigrated to the United States as children or teenagers, because the timing of their arrival was likely determined by family considerations largely independent of their individual circumstances.

The top panel of Figure 1 shows that parents from Hispanic countries who immigrated to the United States as very young children are less likely to identify as Hispanic than their counterparts who arrived as somewhat older children or teenagers. The pattern is qualitatively similar and more pronounced for the U.S.-born children of these Hispanic immigrants. The corresponding rate of ethnic attrition (i.e., *not* identifying as Hispanic) falls from 9 percent for children whose parents migrated to the United States as infants to 4 percent for children whose parents migrated at ages 15-17. The bottom panel of Figure 1 shows similar patterns for Asian immigrants and their U.S.-born children.

To highlight differences by the immigrant parent's age at arrival, Table 1 reports means (and standard errors of means) of key variables for the overall sample and also separately by whether the parent migrated to the United States at a younger (0-8) versus older (9-17) age. Although relatively few immigrant parents fail to identify in the expected manner, ethnic attrition rates are much higher for parents who arrived younger rather than older. Among immigrant

[5] In contrast, the Hispanic origin question solicits and reports only a single response for national origin. For example, respondents cannot identify as having both Mexican and Puerto Rican ancestry.

parents born in Hispanic countries, ethnic attrition increases from 1.0 percent for those who arrived in the United States at ages 9-17 to 2.5 percent for those who arrived before age 9. The corresponding increase among immigrant parents born in Asian countries is from 1.5 to 2.9 percent. Rates of ethnic attrition are significantly higher for the U.S.-born children of these immigrant parents, and parental age at arrival continues to exert a strong influence on ethnic identification even in this subsequent generation. Among children whose parent migrated to the United States before age 9, ethnic attrition is 8.0 percent for Hispanics and 9.2 percent for Asians, and for both groups these rates represent about an 80 percent increase relative to children whose parent instead immigrated at ages 9-17.

Consistent with previous research (e.g., Bleakley and Chin 2004, 2010), Table 1 also indicates that immigrants who arrived younger achieve greater socioeconomic integration as adults along several important dimensions. Compared to their counterparts who arrived in the United States at an older age, immigrant parents who arrived before age 9 have better English language skills, more schooling, and higher likelihoods of marrying someone who is U.S.-born or from a different racial/ethnic group. Evidently, family background and the home environment vary considerably among U.S.-born children of Hispanic and Asian immigrants depending upon the parent's age at arrival, and such differences could help to shape variation in these children's ethnic identification.

III. Regression Results

We use descriptive regressions to explore potential pathways or mechanisms through which the arrival age of Hispanic and Asian immigrant parents may influence the ethnic identification of their U.S.-born children. The dependent variable is a dummy indicating that a child does *not* identify as Hispanic or Asian, and the key independent variable is a dummy

indicating that a child's immigrant parent arrived in the United States before the age of 9. Table 2 reports the estimated coefficient on this independent variable from regressions that successively control for additional variables.

In specification (1), no additional variables are included in the regressions, and the point estimates reproduce the results (evident in Table 1) that ethnic attrition is higher—by 3.5 percentage points for Hispanics and by 4.2 percentage points for Asians—among children whose immigrant parent arrived in the United States before age 9 compared to those whose parent arrived at ages 9-17. This differential declines to 2.5 percentage points for Hispanics and changes very little for Asians in specification (2) when the regressions include dummy variables that control in detail for the survey year, the age and sex of both the immigrant parent and the child, and the immigrant parent's source country/region.[6]

Specification (3) in Table 2 shows the impact of further controlling for variables that we view as representing possible mediators—i.e., potential mechanisms through which an immigrant parent's age at arrival could influence their child's ethnic identification. These additional variables include detailed sets of dummies describing the immigrant parent's English proficiency and educational attainment, which parent(s) the child lives with (i.e., both parents, mother only, or father only), the nativity and race/ethnicity of the child's *other* parent (for children living with both of their parents), and state of residence. After conditioning on these additional variables, the estimated effect of parental age at arrival almost disappears for both Hispanics and Asians, falling to less than one-tenth of its initial size in specification (1).

[6] For Hispanics, specification (2) includes dummies indicating whether the immigrant parent was born in Puerto Rico, Mexico, Central America, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, South America, or Spain. For Asians, the corresponding dummies indicate whether the immigrant parent was born in China (including Hong Kong, Macau, Mongolia, and Taiwan), Japan, Korea (North and South), Southeast Asia (defined to include the Philippines, among other countries), or India (including Bangladesh, Bhutan, Myanmar, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka).

Collectively, the covariates included in specification (3) account for almost all of the unconditional association between an immigrant parent's age at arrival and their child's ethnic identification.

To provide some insight into other determinants of children's ethnic identification besides their immigrant parent's age at arrival, Table 3 reports the estimated coefficients on selected regressors from specification (3) in Table 2. Several interesting patterns emerge. First, conditional on the other variables included in the regression, children's ethnic identification varies considerably with the immigrant parent's country/region of birth. Among Hispanics, rates of ethnic attrition are lowest for children of Mexican ancestry and highest for those with parents born in Cuba, South America, and Spain. Among Asians, ethnic attrition is particularly high for children of Japanese descent. Second, the estimated impact of parental English proficiency on children's ethnic attrition derives primarily from elevated rates of ethnic attrition among children whose immigrant parent currently speaks only English. Third, parental education is positively associated with children's ethnic attrition for Hispanics but negatively associated for Asians.[7] For both groups, these differences show up most strongly when children are distinguished by whether or not their parents have completed a bachelor's degree. Finally, ethnic attrition increases dramatically for children from interethnic marriages. For both Hispanics and Asians, the key factor is whether the "other" parent (i.e., the parent who is *not* the so-called "immigrant parent" that arrived in the United States as child) identifies as Hispanic or Asian, rather than whether this parent is foreign-born or U.S.-born.

To assess which potential mediators are driving the relationship between parent's age at

[7] This pattern is consistent with the evidence presented in Duncan and Trejo (2017) that the educational selectivity of ethnic attrition is positive for Hispanics and negative for Asians.

arrival and children's ethnic attrition, we employ the decomposition developed by Gelbach (2016). The first row of Table 4 redisplays the estimated coefficients on the dummy variable identifying parents who arrived young from the "base" regression specification (i.e., specification (2) of Table 2) and from the "full" specification (i.e., specification (3) of Table 2), and the other entry in this row reports the difference between these estimated coefficients. This difference represents the portion of the effect of a parent's age at arrival on their child's ethnic attrition that is "explained," collectively, by the additional variables included in the full regression specification.

The Gelbach decomposition allocates this difference between the estimated coefficients—i.e., the total "explained part" shown in the first row of Table 4—into components representing the portions attributable to individual variables or sets of variables.[8] In our context, this decomposition produces results that are both striking and intuitive. Intermarriage is the primary mechanism through which the age at arrival of immigrant parents affects the ethnic identification of their children, accounting for 73 percent of the explained part for Hispanics and 85 percent for Asians. Immigrants who arrived at a younger age are more likely to marry outside of their racial/ethnic group (see Table 1), and the rate of ethnic attrition is dramatically higher among children with mixed ethnic backgrounds (see Table 3). This finding echoes a recurring theme in the literature on ethnic attrition regarding the critical role of intermarriage (Duncan and Trejo 2011, 2017; Alba 2020).

In addition, Table 4 shows that the better English proficiency of parents who immigrated at a younger age helps to explain the relationship between an immigrant parent's age at arrival

[8] The Gelbach decomposition is based on the well-known equation—often used to analyze omitted variable bias—showing how a regression coefficient changes when additional covariates are included in the model.

and his child's ethnic identification. According to the Gelbach decomposition, parental English proficiency accounts for a sizeable portion of the decline in the effect of parent's age at arrival on children's ethnic attrition between the base and full specifications: 19 percent for Hispanics and 23 percent for Asians. Finally, for Hispanics, the increased educational attainment of parents who immigrated at a younger age also plays a role, accounting for 15 percent of the decline in the relevant coefficient. For Asians, however, the higher education level of parents who arrived younger works in the opposite direction, accounting for a 7 percent *increase* in the relevant coefficient, because parent's education is negatively related to children's ethnic attrition among Asians (see Table 3).

IV. Robustness

To explore the robustness of our results, we replicated these analyses using several alternative samples. For one set of analyses, we excluded children under age 13, because older children are more likely to have developed a sense of their own ethnic identity and conveyed this to parents and other adult family members who are asked to complete the Census or ACS questionnaire for the entire household. Therefore, racial/ethnic responses for older children in Census and ACS data may better reflect how these children view themselves. For another set of analyses, we excluded children whose immigrant parents arrived in the United States after age 14. The concern here is that immigrants arriving at ages 15-17 may be coming on their own rather than with parents, which makes their arrival age less exogenous. Finally, our benchmark samples include siblings, and so some immigrant parents appear in multiple observations (i.e., a parent will appear separately with each of their U.S.-born children included in the sample). In a third set of analyses, our samples include only one child for each immigrant parent (i.e., the oldest eligible child for each immigrant parent). For all of these alternative samples, the results

are similar to what we report above for the benchmark samples.

V. Instrumental Variable Estimates

To come.

VI. Conclusion

We explore how immigrant age at arrival influences ethnic identification for the immigrants themselves and for their U.S.-born children. Previous work demonstrates that immigrants who arrived in the United States as young children possess as adults substantial advantages in socioeconomic integration and attainment compared to their peers who immigrated as older children or teenagers. We show here for the first time that Hispanic and Asian immigrants who arrived as young children are also relatively less likely to identify as Hispanic or Asian in response to survey questions about ethnicity and race. Moreover, the higher rate of ethnic attrition observed for immigrants who arrived as younger rather than older children resurfaces in the next generation: among the U.S.-born children of these immigrants, those whose parents arrived younger are less likely to identify with their ancestral ethnicity. Decompositions suggest that increased intermarriage across racial/ethnic lines for parents who immigrated at a younger age is the primary mechanism through which the age at arrival of immigrant parents affects the ethnic identification of their children. Better English proficiency for immigrant parents who arrived younger also plays a significant role in this process, as does, for Hispanics but not for Asians, the higher educational attainment of parents who immigrated as young children.

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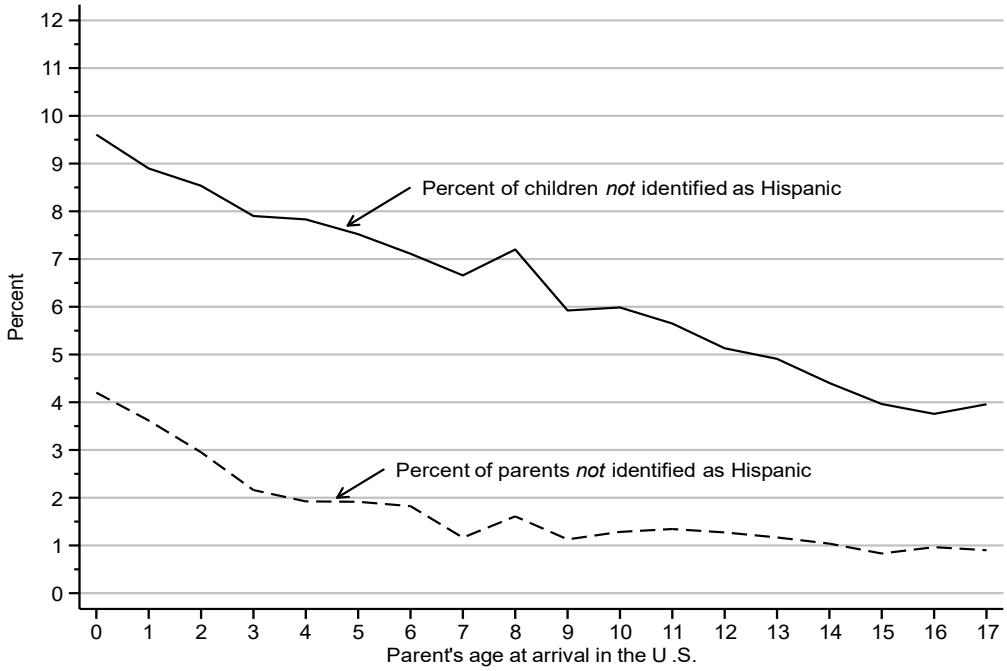
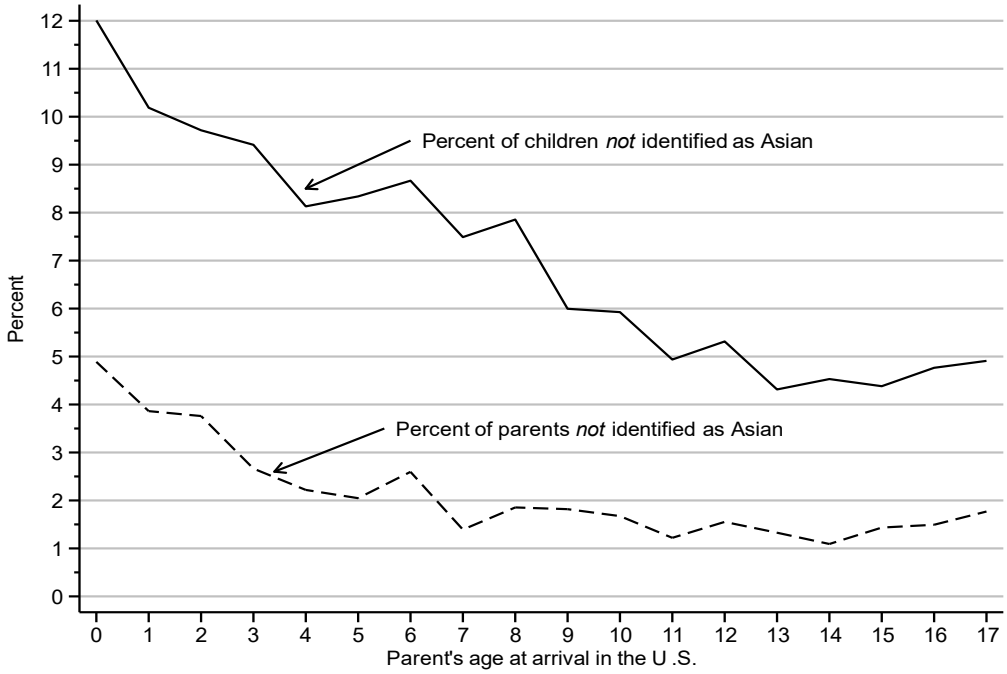
Figure 1: Ethnic Identification of Immigrant Parents and Their U.S.-born Children, By Parent's Age at Arrival in the U.S.

A. Hispanics



B. Asians



Source: 2000 U.S. Census and 2001-2023 American Community Survey microdata from IPUMS USA.
Note: See the text and the note to Table 1 for information about the sample. Sampling weights were used in the calculations.

Table 1: Means of Key Variables, by Age at Arrival of Immigrant Parent

	Hispanics			Asians		
	Parent's age at arrival in U.S.:			Parent's age at arrival in U.S.:		
Variable	0-8	9-17	0-17	0-8	9-17	0-17
Immigrant parent arrived in U.S. before age 9	1.000	0.000	0.347	1.000	0.000	0.434
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.001)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.001)
Immigrant parent's age at arrival in U.S.	3.803	14.103	10.532	3.913	13.380	9.271
	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.006)	(0.009)	(0.007)	(0.011)
Immigrant parent does *not* identify as Hispanic/Asian	0.0246	0.0104	0.0153	0.0286	0.0149	0.0209
	(0.0003)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0005)	(0.0003)	(0.0003)
Child does *not* identify as Hispanic/Asian	0.0800	0.0451	0.0572	0.0917	0.0497	0.0679
	(0.0005)	(0.0003)	(0.0003)	(0.0009)	(0.0006)	(0.0005)
Immigrant parent speaks English very well	0.800	0.389	0.532	0.892	0.663	0.762
(or immigrant parent speaks *only* English)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Immigrant parent's years of schooling:						
< 12	0.208	0.473	0.381	0.030	0.074	0.055
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
> 12	0.381	0.180	0.250	0.788	0.679	0.726
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Child lives with both parents	0.805	0.828	0.820	0.909	0.901	0.905
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Among children living with both parents,						
other parent is:						
U.S.-born	0.486	0.257	0.335	0.518	0.240	0.361
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Not Hispanic/Asian	0.204	0.091	0.130	0.388	0.179	0.271
	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.001)
Sample size	275,191	509,479	784,670	97,089	127,846	224,935

Source: 2000 U.S. Census and 2001-2023 American Community Survey microdata from IPUMS USA.

Note: Standard errors of the means are shown in parentheses. The samples include U.S.-born children ages 17 and below residing with a parent who was born in an Hispanic or Asian country and who migrated to the United States before the age of 18. The samples are further restricted to include only children whose immigrant parent was *not* born abroad of American parents and is currently 25-55 years of age. Sampling weights were used in the calculations.

Table 2: Effect of Immigrant Parent's Age at Arrival on Child *Not* Identifying as Hispanic/Asian

	Hispanics			Asians		
Regressor	(1)	(2)	(3)	(1)	(2)	(3)
Immigrant parent arrived in U.S. before age 9	.0349	.0245	.0030	.0420	.0444	.0016
	(.0008)	(.0008)	(.0008)	(.0016)	(.0016)	(.0016)
Baseline controls:						
Survey year	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Age and sex of child	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Age and sex of immigrant parent	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Immigrant parent's country/region of birth	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes
Additional variables:						
Immigrant parent's English proficiency	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Immigrant parent's educational attainment	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Parent(s) that child lives with	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
Other parent's nativity and ethnicity	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
State of residence	No	No	Yes	No	No	Yes
R-squared	.0051	.0688	.1942	.0068	.0334	.1569

Source: 2000 U.S. Census and 2001-2023 American Community Survey microdata from IPUMS USA.
Note: The reported figures are estimated coefficients from least squares regressions in which the dependent variable is a dummy indicating that a child does *not* identify as Hispanic or Asian (depending on the sample). The key independent variable is a dummy indicating that a child's immigrant parent arrived in the United States before the age of 9. Heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors are shown in parentheses. See the text and the note to Table 1 for information about the sample. The sample size is 784,670 for Hispanics and 224,935 for Asians. Sampling weights were used in the calculations.

Table 3: Determinants of Child *Not* Identifying as Hispanic/Asian, Full Specification

Regressor	Hispanics	Asians
Immigrant parent arrived in U.S. before age 9	.0030	.0016
	(.0008)	(.0016)
Baseline controls:		
Survey year fixed effects	Yes	Yes
Age of child fixed effects	Yes	Yes
Age of immigrant parent fixed effects	Yes	Yes
Child is female	-.0003	.00001
	(.0006)	(.00139)
Immigrant parent is female	.0031	-.0090
	(.0007)	(.0016)
Immigrant parent's country/region of birth		
Mexico (reference group for Hispanics)		
Puerto Rico	.0283	
	(.0022)	
Central America	.0382	
	(.0012)	
Cuba	.0805	
	(.0038)	
Dominican Republic	.0271	
	(.0025)	
South America	.0945	
	(.0025)	
Spain	.1840	
	(.0143)	
Southeast Asia (reference group for Asians)		
China		-.0016
		(.0018)
Japan		.1827
		(.0094)
Korea		-.0063
		(.0025)
India		.0279
		(.0023)
Additional variables:		
Immigrant parent's English proficiency		
Speaks English not at all (reference group)		
Speaks English not well	.0004	-.0028
	(.0008)	(.0068)
Speaks English well	.0010	.0040
	(.0009)	(.0069)
Speaks English very well	-.0020	.0133
	(.0009)	(.0069)
Speaks only English	.0825	.0395
	(.0023)	(.0072)

Table 3, continued

Regressor	Hispanics	Asians
Immigrant parent's educational attainment		
No schooling (reference group)		
Preschool through grade 4	-.0145	.0410
	(.0020)	(.0207)
Grades 5-8	-.0110	.0014
	(.0017)	(.0083)
Grade 9	-.0102	-.0145
	(.0018)	(.0074)
Grade 10	-.0111	-.0184
	(.0020)	(.0069)
Grade 11	-.0121	-.0167
	(.0020)	(.0067)
Grade 12	-.0033	.0047
	(.0017)	(.0043)
Some college, no degree	-.0008	-.0061
	(.0020)	(.0046)
Associate degree	.0007	-.0101
	(.0024)	(.0047)
Bachelor's degree	.0151	-.0202
	(.0025)	(.0044)
Advanced degree	.0137	-.0274
	(.0034)	(.0046)
Parent(s) that child lives with		
Both parents (reference group)		
Mother only	.0041	.0431
	(.0009)	(.0027)
Father only	.0159	.0290
	(.0019)	(.0039)
Other parent's nativity and ethnicity (if child lives with both parents)		
Born in Hispanic/Asian country (reference group)		
Born in foreign country that is not Hispanic/Asian	.2770	.1668
	(.0061)	(.0055)
U.S.-born and identifies as Hispanic/Asian	-.0189	.0017
	(.0006)	(.0013)
U.S.-born and does *not* identify as Hispanic/Asian	.2401	.2003
	(.0024)	(.0030)
State of residence fixed effects	Yes	Yes

Source: 2000 U.S. Census and 2001-2023 American Community Survey microdata from IPUMS USA.
Note: The reported figures are estimated coefficients from least squares regressions in which the dependent variable is a dummy indicating that a child does *not* identify as Hispanic or Asian (depending on the sample). The key independent variable is a dummy indicating that a child's immigrant parent arrived in the United States before the age of 9. Heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors are shown in parentheses. The underlying regressions are those listed as specification (3) in Table 2. Sampling weights were used in the calculations.

Table 4: Gelbach Decomposition of Potential Mechanisms Underlying the Effect of Immigrant Parent's Age at Arrival on Child *Not* Identifying as Hispanic/Asian

	Hispanics			Asians		
	Specification		Explained	Specification		Explained
Regressor	Base	Full	Part	Base	Full	Part
Immigrant parent arrived in U.S. before age 9	.0245	.0030	.0214	.0444	.0016	.0428
	(.0008)	(.0008)	(.0004)	(.0016)	(.0016)	(.0009)
			[100.0%]			[100.0%]
Additional variables:						
Immigrant parent's English proficiency	No	Yes	.0041	No	Yes	.0099
			(.0003)			(.0007)
			[19.0%]			[23.2%]
Immigrant parent's educational attainment	No	Yes	.0031	No	Yes	-.0030
			(.0002)			(.0003)
			[14.7%]			[-7.0%]
Parent(s) that child lives with	No	Yes	.00004	No	Yes	-.0004
			(.00001)			(.0001)
			[0.2%]			[-1.0%]
Other parent's nativity and ethnicity	No	Yes	.0157	No	Yes	.0363
			(.0003)			(.0007)
			[73.2%]			[84.8%]
State of residence	No	Yes	-.0015	No	Yes	.00001
			(.0001)			(.00016)
			[-7.0%]			[0.03%]

Source: 2000 U.S. Census and 2001-2023 American Community Survey microdata from IPUMS USA.
Note: This table reports the decomposition described in Gelbach (2016), where the "base" and "full" specifications are from specifications (2) and (3) of Table 2, respectively. Both specifications include controls for the survey year, the age and sex of both the immigrant parent and the child, and the immigrant parent's source country/region. Standard errors are shown in parentheses. Displayed in brackets is the percentage of the total explained part that is accounted for by each group of additional variables included in the full specification. Sampling weights were used in the calculations.