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RESEARCH THAT MATTERS

ASIAN LGBT NON-CITIZEN IMMIGRANTS in California

NOVEMBER 2023

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This study used data gathered between 2015 and 2021 on the annual California Health Interview Survey to examine the demographic, socioeconomic, and health characteristics of Asian non-citizen LGBT immigrants. We focus on non-citizens¹ because they are a group at heightened vulnerability to low socioeconomic status and poor health. Information about U.S.-born Asian LGBT people and Asian non-LGBT non-citizens is presented to identify similarities and differences in the needs of these overlapping communities.

Overall, Asian LGBT non-citizens were younger and less likely to be married or raising children than their non-LGBT counterparts. However, they reported higher levels of English proficiency. Almost a third of Asian LGBT non-citizens were living at less than 200% of the federal poverty level, and over a third reported not having a usual source of health care. For those with low incomes, half reported food insecurity.

KEY FINDINGS

- More than half of Asian LGBT non-citizens, cisgender and transgender, identified as bisexual (58.2%) and 28.4% as gay/lesbian, while some (13.4%) identified as heterosexual and were also transgender.
- Among non-citizens, Asian LGBT people were younger than their non-LGBT counterparts. About two-thirds (67.7%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens were under the age of 35 compared to just over 40 percent (43.9%) of their non-LGBT counterparts.
- Slightly more than half (52.0%) of all Asian LGBT non-citizens were cisgender women, about one-third (32.7%) were cisgender men, and 15.3% were transgender (of all gender identities and both sexes assigned at birth).
- Among non-citizens, Asian LGBT people were less likely to be coupled and raising children than their non-LGBT counterparts. More than a quarter (28.0%) of LGBT non-citizens were married or living with a partner compared to 67.9% of their non-LGBT peers. About 7.4% of LGBT non-citizens had kids compared to 37.8% of their non-LGBT peers.
- Many Asian LGBT non-citizens are multi-lingual. Slightly more than half (51.8%) spoke one or more Asian languages at home, including Cantonese, Tagalog, Korean, and Vietnamese in addition to English. Another 26.5% spoke only languages other than English at home. Most (88.7%) LGBT non-citizens indicated they spoke English well or very well. However, more than one in ten (11.3%) reported not speaking English well.
- Although most (85.5%) Asian LGBT non-citizens were in the workforce, almost a third (31.0%) were living at less than 200% of the federal poverty level.

¹ Non-citizens include those who do not have authorization (“documentation”) from the U.S. government to be in the country, as well as those “authorized” to be in the U.S., including people who have a Permanent Resident Card (“Green Card”), work or student visas, and those seeking or who have received asylee or refugee status from U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services.

- While half (50.3%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens living at less than 200% of the federal poverty level were food insecure, relatively few (17.9%) were enrolled in the CalFresh food stamp benefits program.
- More Asian LGBT non-citizens were experiencing psychological distress than their non-LGBT non-citizen peers (26.8% vs. 4.6%, respectively).
- Over a third (38.8%) of LGBT non-citizens reported that they did not have a usual source of health care—more than twice the proportion of U.S.-born LGBT peers who said that they did not have a usual source of care (14.6%).

These findings indicate a need to address the socioeconomic and health challenges faced by Asian LGBT non-citizens, including poverty, food insecurity, barriers accessing health care, and higher rates of psychological distress. The findings also indicate a need to increase enrollment in primary health care and food support programs for Asian LGBT non-citizens. Outreach and support programs should consider that Asian LGBT non-citizens are younger and less likely to be married or have children than their non-LGBT counterparts. Finally, more research on Asian LGBT immigrants is needed, including research with large enough samples to compare the socioeconomic and health characteristics of Asian LGBT immigrants who are authorized to be in the U.S. by government officials with those who are not and to make comparisons by country of origin.

INTRODUCTION

There are over one million LGBT immigrants in the U.S.,² including an estimated 370,000³ who live in California. Here, we use the term *immigrant* to describe people who live in the U.S. and are not U.S. citizens at birth, including non-citizens and naturalized citizens. Among them are an estimated 89,000⁴ Asian LGBT immigrants, a group that is vulnerable to xenophobia and LGBT stigma at interpersonal and structural levels. Although Asian or Asian American and Pacific Islander (API or AAPI) populations are often studied together, this report focuses on immigrants and their U.S.-born counterparts who are Asian alone and not Hispanic. Please refer to the methods section in the Appendix for further information about inclusion and exclusion criteria.

Asian LGBT immigrants may experience overt antagonism in the form of anti-Asian prejudice, as well as structural marginalization and invisibility—as LGBT people who are immigrants and as immigrants who are LGBT.⁵ Anti-Asian hate crimes in the U.S. made national headlines during the COVID-19 pandemic,⁶ but such animus has long been embedded in U.S. history, culture, and policy.⁷ Historic examples include the exploitation of Asian labor for mining and railroads in the 1800s, the subsequent passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act in 1882 to curtail immigration from China, and the internment of people of Japanese heritage by the U.S. government during World War II.⁸ Asian people may also experience forms of racism distinct from other racialized groups (e.g., the “perpetual foreigner” stereotype) that create barriers to accessing social support and building connections to communities of primarily U.S.-born people.⁹

² Goldberg, S. K., & Conron, K. J. (2021, February). *LGBT Adult Immigrants in the United States*. The Williams Institute, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA. <https://williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/publications/lgbt-immigrants-in-the-us/>

³ See Methods section in the Appendix for further information.

⁴ See Methods section.

⁵ Cisneros, J., & Bracho, C. (2020). Undocuqueer Stress: How Safe are “Safe” Spaces, and for Whom? *Journal of Homosexuality*, 67(11), 1491–1511. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00918369.2019.1607684>; Gehi, P. (2009). Struggles from the margins: anti-immigrant legislation and the impact on low-income transgender people of color. *Women's Rights Law Reporter*, 30(2), 315–346; Allen, T. G. (2020). Effects of anti-immigration and anti-LGBT policies on K-12 students. In R. Papa (Ed.) *Handbook on Promoting Social Justice in Education* (pp. 2313–2342). Springer International Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-14625-2_65

⁶ Yam, K. (January 31, 2022). *Anti-Asian hate crimes increased 339 percent nationwide last year, report says*. NBCNews.com. <https://www.nbcnews.com/news/asian-america/anti-asian-hate-crimes-increased-339-percent-nationwide-last-year-repo-rcna14282>

⁷ Reny, T. T., & Barreto, M. A. (2022). Xenophobia in the time of pandemic: othering, anti-Asian attitudes, and COVID-19. *Politics, Groups & Identities*, 10(2), 209–232. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21565503.2020.1769693>; Cho, C., Lee, A., Chan, S., & Chen, T. (2023, May). *Righting wrongs: How Civil Rights Can Protect Asian Americans & Pacific Islanders Against Racism*. Stop AAPI Hate. <https://stopaapihate.org/wp-content/uploads/2023/05/23-SAH-CivilRightsReport-1.pdf>

⁸ Gover, A. R., Harper, S. B., & Langton, L. (2020). Anti-Asian hate crime during the COVID-19 pandemic: Exploring the reproduction of inequality. *American Journal of Criminal Justice*, 45(4), 647–667. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12103-020-09545-1>

⁹ Huynh, Q. L., Devos, T., & Smalarz, L. (2011). Perpetual foreigner in one's own land: Potential implications for identity and psychological adjustment. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 30(2), 133–162. <https://doi.org/10.1521/jscp.2011.30.2.133>; Nakamura, N., Chan, E., & Fischer, B. (2013). “Hard to crack”: Experiences of community integration among first- and second-generation Asian MSM in Canada. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*, 19(3), 248–256. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032943>; Huang, Y.-T., & Fang, L. (2019). “Fewer but not weaker.” Understanding

Further, LGBT migrants from Asia¹⁰ also have unique experiences before, during, and after they arrive in the United States that may increase their exposure to stressors in comparison to their U.S.-born LGBT and non-LGBT immigrant peers.¹¹ For instance, LGBT stigma differs across countries and may contribute to migration.¹² Although there is some diversity in LGBT acceptance across Asian countries, many have lower levels of public acceptance relative to most countries in Europe, North and South America, and Australia.¹³ Compounding the stress of migration for LGBT immigrants, in general, are experiences of violence and abuse in immigrant detention centers for those unable to enter the U.S. legally and who are detained by U.S. immigration officials.¹⁴

An accumulation of structural barriers to material resources, as well as stressors at the intersections of race, LGBT status, and nativity, is likely to have negative effects on mental, physical, and socioeconomic well-being. Prior research conducted in English with a large, nationally representative U.S. sample found that among Asian adults undifferentiated by nativity or citizenship, LGBT people had fewer economic resources and slightly worse health relative to non-LGBT people.¹⁵ Slightly more Asian LGBT people lived in low-income households (below 200% of the federal poverty level) than Asian non-LGBT people (32% vs 27%). Further, diagnoses of depression were more common among Asian LGBT adults compared to Asian non-LGBT adults (19% vs. 7%, respectively). Current smoking was also more common among Asian LGBT adults than their non-LGBT peers (15% vs. 10%, respectively). In addition, more Asian LGBT adults indicated that they did not always feel safe and secure compared to Asian non-LGBT adults (14% vs. 7%, respectively).

the intersectional identities among Chinese immigrant young gay men in Toronto. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry*, 89(1), 27–39. <https://doi.org/10.1037/ort0000328>

¹⁰ While most Asian immigrants in California are from Asian countries, some are not. According to AskCHIS, 97.1% of Asian non-citizens in California are from Asia and Pacific Islands.

¹¹ Ching, T. H. W., Lee, S. Y., Chen, J., So, R. P., & Williams, M. T. (2018). A model of intersectional stress and trauma in Asian American sexual and gender minorities. *Psychology of Violence*, 8(6), 657–668. <https://doi.org/10.1037/vio0000204>

¹² Shaw, A., & Verghese, N. (2022, July). *LGBTQI+ Refugees and Asylum Seekers: A Review of Research and Data Needs*. The Williams Institute, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA. <https://williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/publications/lgbtqi-refugees-asylum-seekers/>; Hopkinson, R. A., Keatley, E., Glaeser, E., Erickson-Schroth, L., Fattal, O., & Sullivan, M. N. (2017). Persecution experiences and mental health of LGBT asylum seekers. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 64(12), 1650–66. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00918369.2016.1253392>

¹³ Flores, A. R. (2021, November). *Social Acceptance of LGBTI People in 175 Countries and Locations: 1981 to 2020*. The Williams Institute, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA. <https://williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/projects/gai/>; Lower levels of acceptance in some Asian countries may, at least in part, be an artifact of heteronormativity and cisnormativity imposed through colonialization (e.g., Spanish and American colonialism in the Philippines). Sources: Laurent, E. (2005). Sexuality and human rights: An Asian perspective. *Journal of Homosexuality*, 48, 163–225. http://doi.org/10.1300/J082v48n03_09; Winter, S., Rogando-Sasot, S., & King, M. (2008). Transgendered women of the Philippines. *International Journal of Transgenderism*, 10(2), 79–90. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15532730802182185>

¹⁴ Turney, C. T. (2011). Give me your tired, your poor, and your queer: The need and potential for advocacy for LGBTQ immigrant detainees. *UCLA Law Review*, 58, 1343–1388; Gruberg, S. (2013, November). *Dignity Denied: LGBT Immigrants in U.S. Immigration Detention*. Center for American Progress. <https://www.americanprogress.org/article/dignity-denied-lgbt-immigrants-in-u-s-immigration-detention/>

¹⁵ Choi, S.K, Wilson, B.D.M., Bouton, B., & Mallory, C. (2021). *AAPL LGBT Adults in the US: LGBT Well-Being at the Intersection of Race*. The Williams Institute, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA. <https://williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/publications/lgbt-aapi-adults-in-the-us/>

Because large, representative surveys rarely include questions about sexual orientation, gender identity, nativity, and citizenship status, differences in socioeconomic status and health have yet to be examined by nativity and LGBT status. However, data collected by the U.S. Census Bureau shows that economic status and educational attainment vary by citizenship status in the general population. On average, earnings and educational attainment are the lowest for non-citizens, followed by U.S.-born adults, and are the highest for naturalized citizens.¹⁶ More naturalized and U.S.-born citizens have a college or graduate degree compared to non-citizens, while more non-citizens have less than a high degree education compared to citizens.¹⁷ The same citizenship status-based patterns in socioeconomic status have also been observed among adults in same-sex couples.¹⁸

Due to data gaps, little is known about how Asian LGBT immigrants are alike and different in socioeconomic, physical, and mental well-being from their U.S.-born Asian LGBT and non-LGBT immigrant counterparts. As a result, policymakers and practitioners have little information to guide their efforts to support this population. Resources to support LGBT people may leave out immigrants and people who are Asian, while resources to support immigrants may leave out LGBT people.¹⁹

This study aims to fill gaps in knowledge about Asian LGBT immigrants by providing information about demographics, time in the U.S., language proficiency, socioeconomic status, and health using data collected on the California Health Interview Survey (CHIS) between 2015 and 2021.²⁰ Our report focuses on describing the characteristics of Asian LGBT non-citizens, both those who are authorized to be in the United States and those who are unauthorized. LGBT non-citizens comprise an estimated 13.5%²¹ of California's Asian LGBT adult population and are the most socially marginalized Asian LGBT immigrant group that we can study with available data. Comparisons to U.S.-born Asian LGBT people and non-LGBT non-citizens—groups for whom programs and services are more common—are provided. Descriptive information about naturalized citizens is available in the Appendix.

¹⁶ US Census Bureau, *Table S0501. Selected Characteristics of the Native and Foreign-born Populations*, in *American Community Survey 2021, 1-year estimates*. <https://data.census.gov/table?q=S0501:+SELECTED+CHARACTERISTICS+OF+THE+NATIVE+AND+FOREIGN-BORN+POPULATIONS&g=010XX00US&tid=ACSST1Y2021.S0501>

¹⁷ Specifically, nearly 40% of naturalized citizens ages 25 and up who completed the 2022 American Community Survey had a bachelor's degree or more, whereas about 35.7% of U.S.-born adults and 28.9% of non-citizens had a college or graduate degree. At the other end of the continuum, slightly over a third (34.0%) of non-citizens ages 25 and up have less than a high school degree compared to 17.9% of naturalized citizens, and 7.2% of U.S.-born citizens.

¹⁸ Goldberg, S. K., & Conron, K. J. (2021, February). *LGBT Adult Immigrants in the United States*. The Williams Institute, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA. <https://williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/publications/lgbt-immigrants-in-the-us/>

¹⁹ Giwa, S., & Chaze, F. (2018). Positive enough? A content analysis of settlement service organizations' inclusivity of LGBTQ immigrants. *Journal of Gay & Lesbian Social Services*, 30(3), 220–243. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10538720.2018.1463889>; Adam, E. M. (2017). Intersectional coalitions: The paradoxes of rights-based movement building in LGBTQ and immigrant communities: Intersectional coalitions. *Law & Society Review*, 51(1), 132–167. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lasr.12248>

²⁰ UCLA Center for Health Policy Research. (n.d.). *California Health Interview Survey*. <https://healthpolicy.ucla.edu/chis/Pages/default.aspx>

²¹ Analyses conducted by the Williams Institute using pooled California Health Interview Survey (CHIS) data collected from 2015 to 2021.

More specifically, Asian LGBT non-citizens include those who are authorized to be in the country by the U.S. government, including people who have a Permanent Resident Card (“Green Card”),²² people who have work or student visas, and those seeking or who have received asylee or refugee status from U.S. Citizenship and Immigration Services, as well as those who are undocumented (“unauthorized”) to be in the U.S.²³

Due to sample size and other data limitations, we were unable to differentiate between Asian LGBT non-citizens who are authorized to be in the country and those who are not. Prior research indicates that undocumented non-citizens are more vulnerable than those who are authorized. For example, research conducted in a study of Asian and Latinx immigrants, undifferentiated by LGBT status, found that undocumented non-citizens faced greater vulnerability in employment and at work compared to those with documentation. Specifically, the RIGHTS Study found that about half (49.5%) of previously undocumented immigrants reported being unable to apply for jobs because of their legal status as compared to 21.6% of never undocumented peers.²⁴ Further, many undocumented immigrants settled for jobs that paid less than deserved (47.3%), were injured at work (36.7%), and were not paid for hours worked by their employer (28.1%).

Prior research has also shown that the income, education, authorization, and English proficiency of Asian immigrants in the United States varies greatly by country of origin. However, due to sample size constraints, we were also unable to examine potential health and socioeconomic status variability among LGBT Asian non-citizens by country of origin. Please refer to the discussion section for further consideration of this topic.

With those caveats in mind, we provide new information about the sociodemographic and health characteristics of LGBT Asian non-citizens, a group that has previously been largely invisible to policymakers. In addition, we lay out a research agenda to advance knowledge about the needs of this heterogeneous population.

²² Those with Permanent Resident Cards or “Green Cards” are the largest group of authorized non-citizens. Budiman, A. (August 20, 2020). Key Findings about U.S. Immigrants. Pew Research Center: <https://www.pewresearch.org/short-reads/2020/08/20/key-findings-about-u-s-immigrants/>

²³ Among Asian LGBT non-citizens in California, an estimated 69.6% have “Green Cards” and about 30.4% do not. Analyses conducted by the Williams Institute using pooled CHIS data collected from 2015 to 2021.

²⁴ Sudhunaraset, M., Nakphong, M.K., & De Trinidad Young, M.-E. (April 2022). *Latinx and Asian Immigrants Face High Levels of Job Exclusion, Workplace Violations in California*, in *Health Policy Fact Sheet*. UCLA Center for Health Policy Research, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA. <https://healthpolicy.ucla.edu/publications/Documents/PDF/2022/Latinx-Asian-Immigrants-Workplace-Violations-factsheet-apr2022-ADA.pdf>

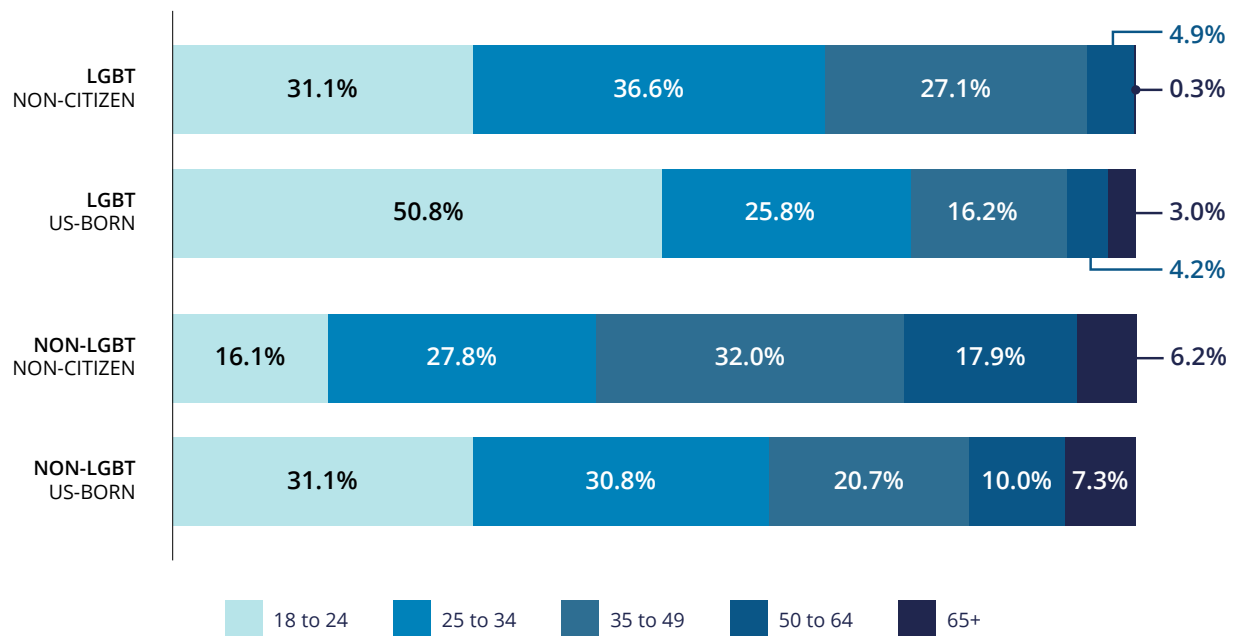
FINDINGS

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Compared to Asian non-LGBT non-citizens, Asian LGBT non-citizens were younger and were less likely to be married or raising children.

About two-thirds (67.7%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens were under the age of 35, including 31.1% who were 18 to 24 and 36.6% who were 25 to 34 years old.

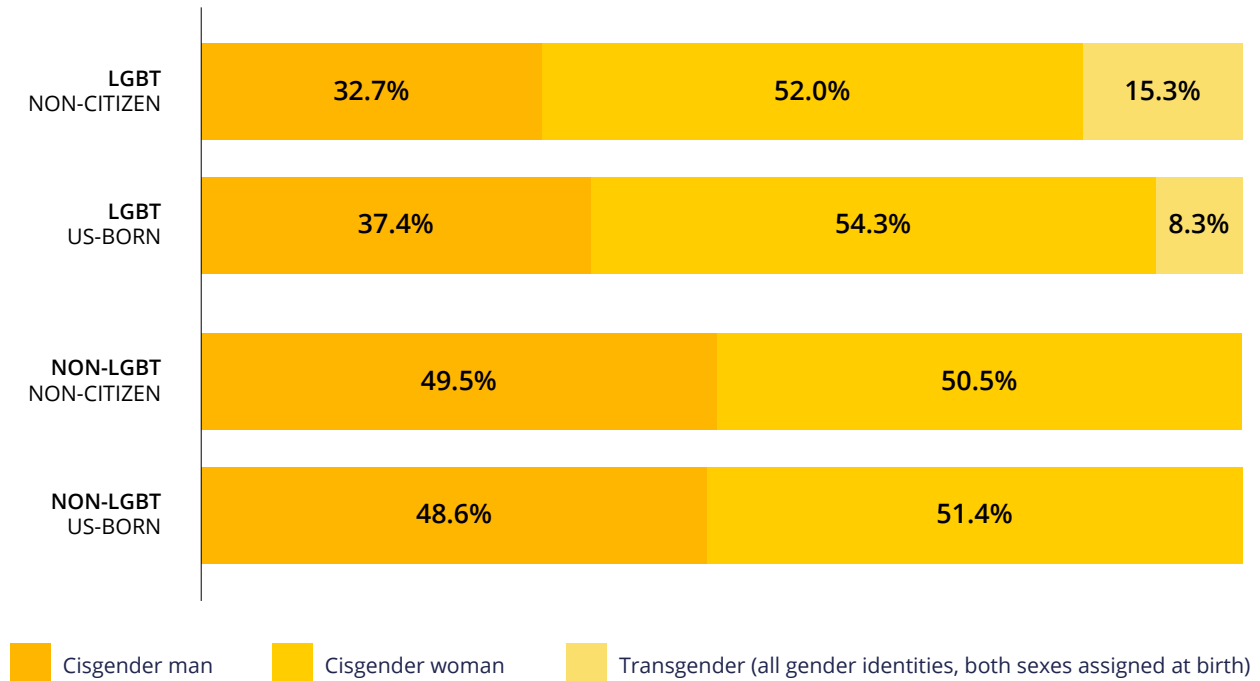
Figure 1. Age among Asian California adults (N=16,128) by LGBT and citizenship statuses, 2015-2021 California Health Interview Survey



More than half (61.7%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens reported that their sex assigned at birth is female.

Slightly more than half (52.0%) of all Asian LGBT non-citizens were cisgender women, about one-third (32.7%) of the group were cisgender men, and 15.3% were transgender (of all gender identities and both sexes assigned at birth).

Figure 2. Gender among Asian California adults (N=16,128) by LGBT and citizenship statuses, 2015-2021 California Health Interview Survey

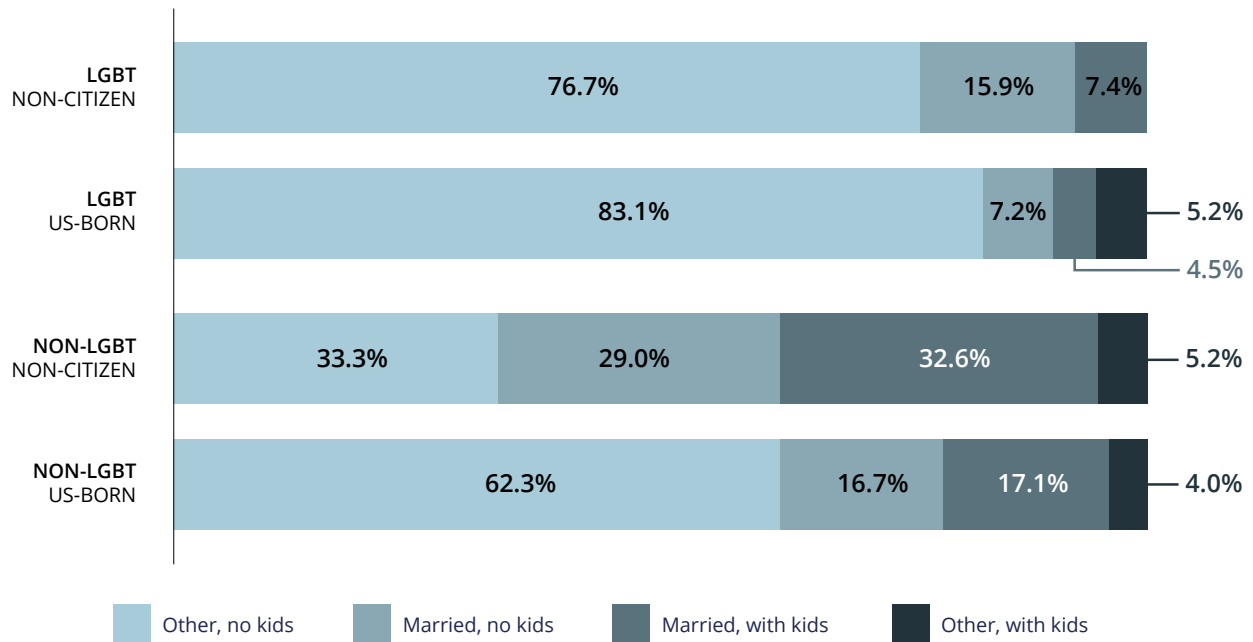


More than half of Asian LGBT non-citizens identified as bisexual (58.2%) (cisgender and transgender), more than a quarter (28.4%) as gay/lesbian (cisgender and transgender), and the rest (13.4%) as heterosexual (straight) and transgender. Two-thirds (66.1%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens were never married, while over a quarter had a partner—20.8% were married and 7.2% were living with a partner—and the remainder (5.9%) were widowed, separated, or divorced.

Asian LGBT non-citizens were statistically similar to their U.S.-born Asian American LGBT peers on most demographic characteristics; however, more U.S.-born LGBT people selected a non-binary transgender identity than was observed among Asian LGBT non-citizens (4.0% vs. 0.0%).

Asian LGBT non-citizens were younger than non-LGBT non-citizens and were less likely to be married. About two-thirds (67.7%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens were under the age of 35 compared to one-third (43.9%) of their non-LGBT counterparts (Figure 1). Fewer LGBT non-citizens were married (20.8% vs. 65.0%) (Table 1) and had children in the household (7.4% vs. 37.8%)—regardless of marital status (Figure 3) – than their non-LGBT non-citizen peers.

Figure 3. Household type* among Asian California adults (N=16,128) by LGBT and citizenship statuses, 2015-2021 California Health Interview Survey



*Adults not living with a married spouse are classified as “other.” Therefore, percent married reported in household type will differ from percent married reported under marital status.

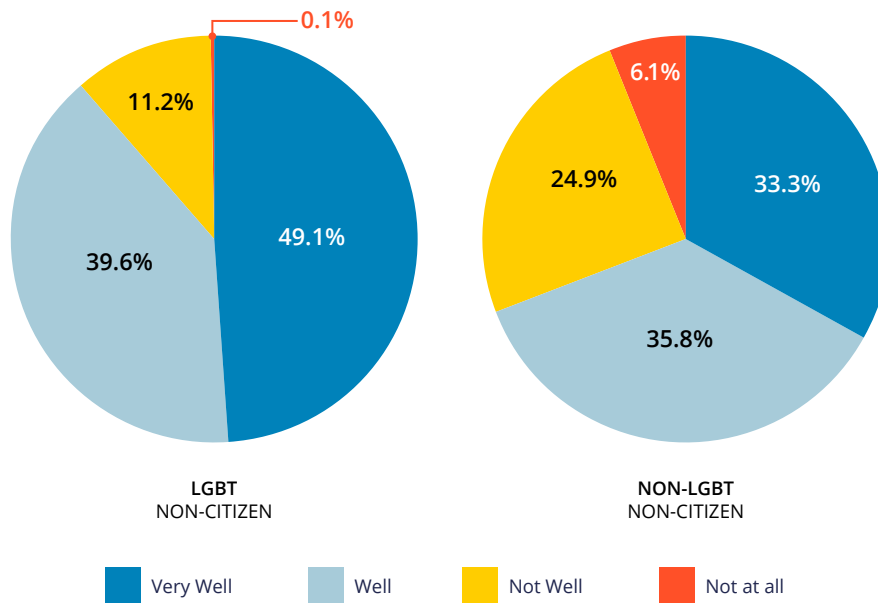
TIME IN THE US, LANGUAGE USAGE, AND ENGLISH PROFICIENCY

Asian LGBT non-citizens spent similar amounts of their lives in the U.S. as their non-LGBT non-citizen peers. However, they reported higher levels of English language use and proficiency.

Over twenty-three percent (23.3%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens have spent more than half of their lives in the U.S., 34.7% have spent a quarter to half of their lives in the U.S., and 42.1% have spent less than a quarter of their lives in the U.S (Table 2).

More than one in five (21.7%) Asian LGBT non-citizens reported speaking only English at home, while slightly more than half (51.8%) spoke English and one or more Asian languages, including Cantonese, Tagalog, Korean, and Vietnamese, and 26.5% reported speaking only languages other than English or Spanish at home. Most Asian LGBT non-citizens indicated that they spoke English very well (49.1%) or well (39.6%); however, more than one in ten (11.3%) people in this group indicated that they did not speak English well or at all (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Spoken English proficiency among Asian California non-citizen adults (N=2,562) by LGBT status, 2015-2021 California Health Interview Survey



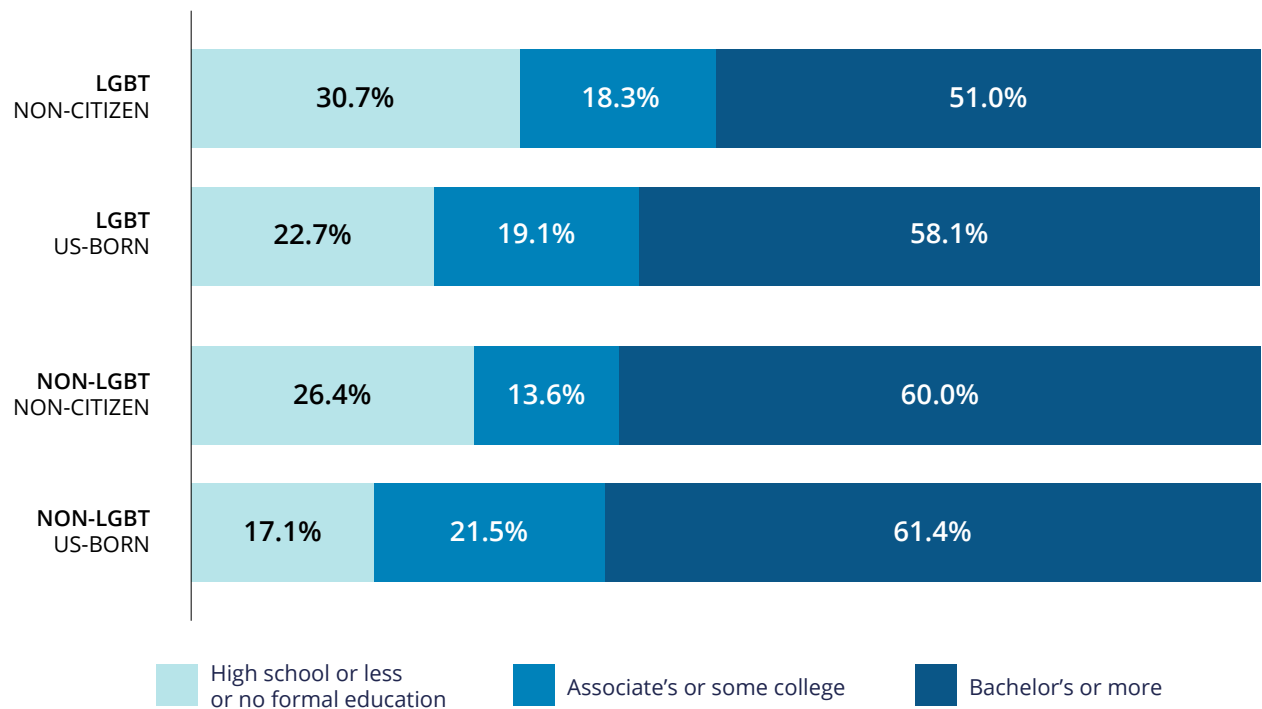
Asian LGBT non-citizens spent similar amounts of their lives in the U.S. as their non-LGBT non-citizen peers (Table 2). However, LGBT Asian non-citizens were much more likely to both use English at home and to be proficient in English. Half as many LGBT non-citizens spoke languages other than English (or Spanish) at home compared to their non-LGBT non-citizen peers (26.5% vs. 52.2%). Levels of self-reported spoken English language proficiency were also higher among LGBT non-citizens compared to their non-LGBT non-citizen peers. Fewer LGBT non-citizens reported that they did not speak English at all compared to non-LGBT citizens (0.1% vs. 6.1%) (Figure 4).

ECONOMIC WELL-BEING

Asian LGBT non-citizens were similar to their U.S.-born Asian American LGBT peers and non-LGBT non-citizen counterparts on all indicators of socioeconomic status, as well as food insecurity and participation in the CalFresh benefits program.

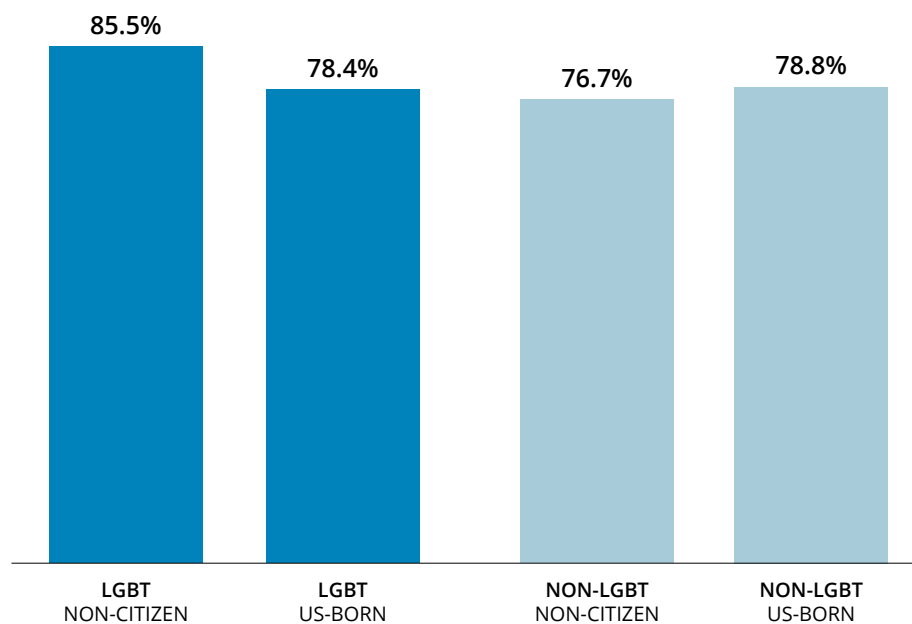
Among Asian LGBT non-citizens, almost a third (30.7%) had a high school degree or less formal education, 18.3% had an associate degree or some college, and 51.0% had a bachelor's degree or more.

Figure 5. Educational attainment among Asian California adults (N=16,128) by LGBT and citizenship statuses, 2015-2021 California Health Interview Survey



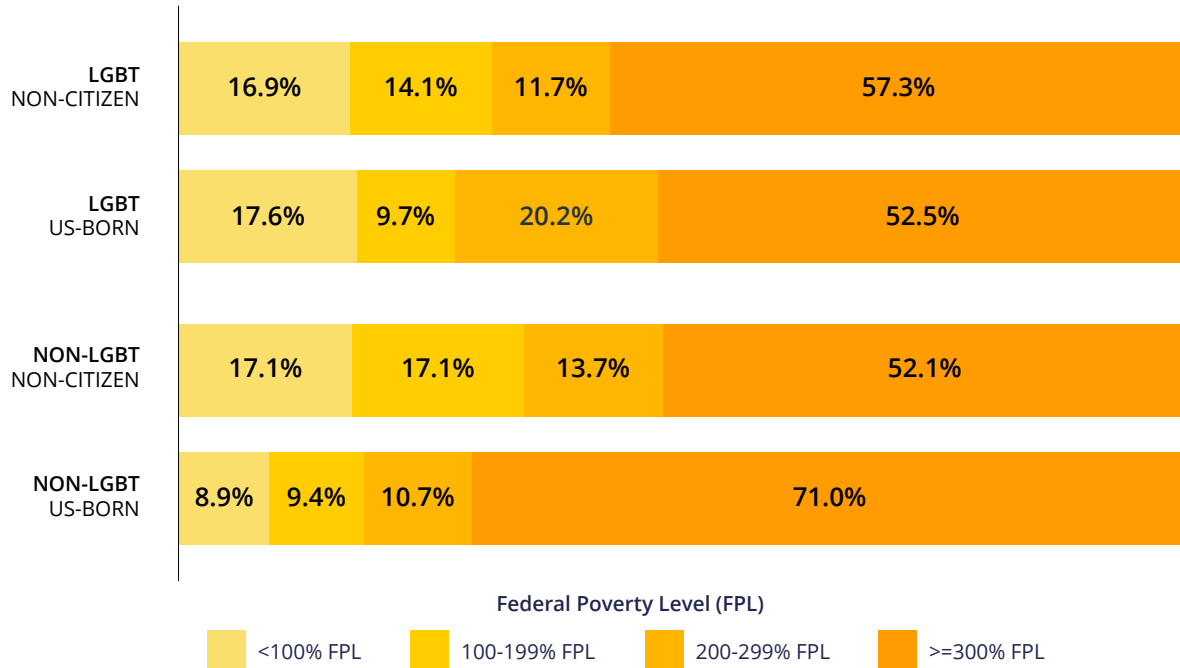
Most (85.5%) LGBT non-citizens were in the workforce, which may be due, in part, to the age composition of the group and the fact that relatively few LGBT non-citizens were raising children.

Figure 6. Workforce participation among Asian California adults (N=16,128) by LGBT and citizenship statuses, 2015-2021 California Health Interview Survey



Almost a third (31.0%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens were living below 200% of the federal poverty level (FPL) (earning less than \$26,128 for a one-person household in 2018),²⁵ 11.7% were at 200-299% of the FPL, and 57.3% were living at 300% of the FPL or more.

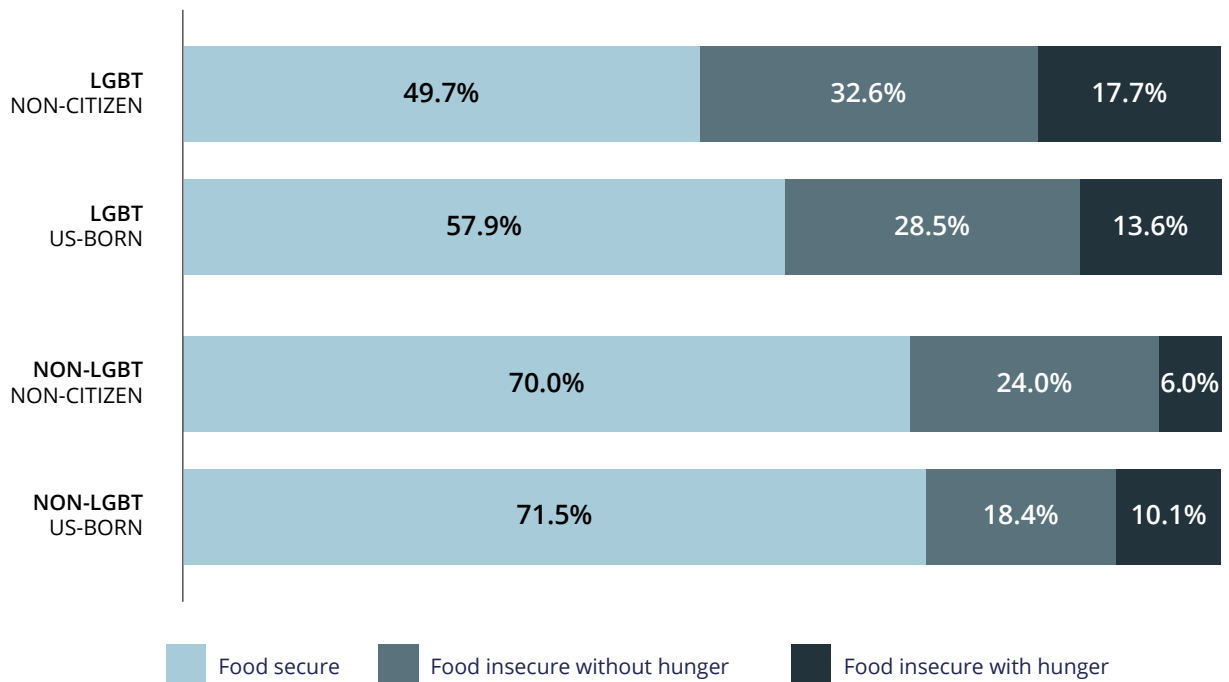
Figure 7. Household economic status among Asian California adults (N=16,128) by LGBT and citizenship statuses, 2015-2021 California Health Interview Survey



About half (49.7%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens living below 200% of the FPL indicated that they were food secure, while 17.7% experienced food insecurity with hunger, and another third (32.6%) experienced food insecurity without hunger. Among those living below 200% of the FPL, only 17.9% were enrolled in the CalFresh food stamp benefits program.

²⁵ U.S. Census Bureau. *Poverty Thresholds*. <https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/income-poverty/historical-poverty-thresholds.html>

Figure 8. Food insecurity among Asian California adults (N=16,128) living at < 200% of the federal poverty level by LGBT and citizenship statuses, 2015-2021 California Health Interview Survey



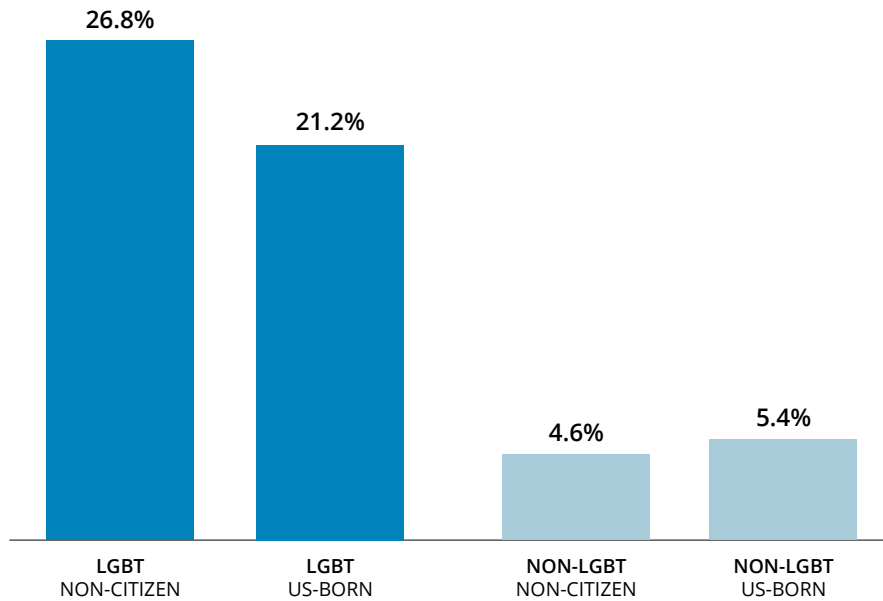
More than half (53.6%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens were renting housing, one-third (33.0%) owned a home, and 13.5% reported another living arrangement (Table 3).

HEALTH STATUS AND HEALTHCARE ACCESS

Asian LGBT non-citizens were similar to U.S.-born LGBT people and non-citizen non-LGBT people on most indicators of health status and healthcare access (Table 4), with two notable differences. More than a quarter (26.8%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens scored above the cutoff for psychological distress²⁶ in the past 30 days compared to only 4.6% of non-LGBT non-citizens.

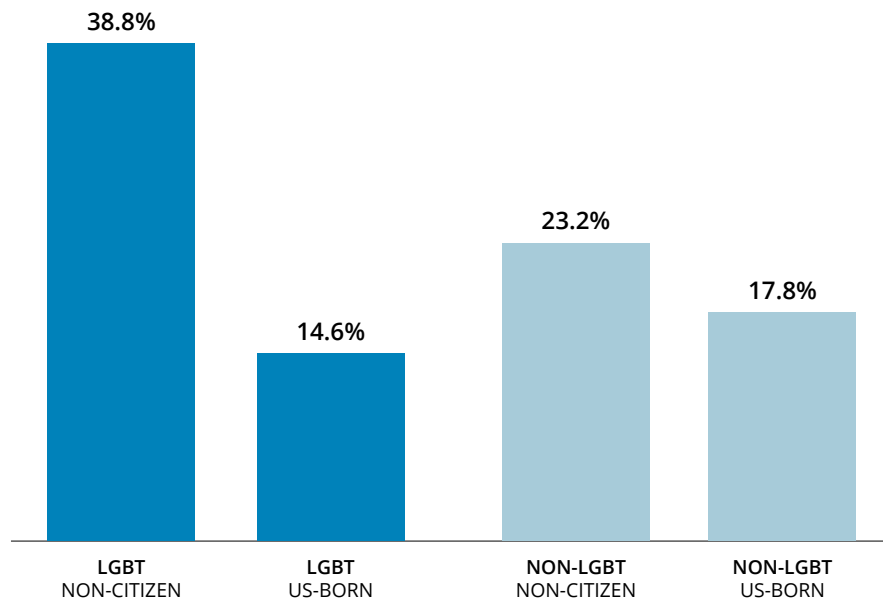
²⁶ Kessler, R. C., Barker, P. R., Colpe, L. J., Epstein, J. F., Gfroerer, J. C., Hiripi, E., Howes, M. J., Normand, S.L. T., Manderscheid, R. W., Walters, E. E., & Zaslavsky, A. M. (2003). Screening for serious mental illness in the general population. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 60(2), 184–189. <https://doi.org/10.1001/archpsyc.60.2.184>

Figure 9. Psychological distress (past 30 days) among Asian California adults (N=16,128) by LGBT and citizenship statuses, 2015-2021 California Health Interview Survey



Over a third (38.8%) of LGBT non-citizens reported that they did not have a usual source of health care—more than twice the proportion of U.S.-born LGBT peers who reported that they did not have a usual source of care (14.6%).²⁷

Figure 10. No usual source of healthcare among Asian California adults (N=16,128) by LGBT and citizenship statuses, 2015-2021 California Health Interview Survey



One in five (20.5%) of Asian LGBT non-citizens reported poor/fair health (Table 4). Slightly more than one in ten (10.8%) Asian LGBT non-citizens lacked health insurance.

²⁷ The difference between LGBT non-citizen and LGBT U.S.-born citizen participants in the proportions that reported lacking a usual source of health care was statistically significant at $p < 0.01$.

DISCUSSION

Our findings indicate that the demographic, health, and socioeconomic profile of Asian LGBT non-citizens is similar to that of U.S.-born Asian LGBT people and to non-citizen non-LGBT peers in many ways. However, some important differences between Asian LGBT non-citizens and their comparators emerged. Asian LGBT non-citizens are younger than their non-LGBT non-citizen counterparts and are less likely to be in a married or cohabitating relationship or to have children. Thus, they may have less immediate access to social support.

Although most Asian LGBT non-citizens are in the workforce, almost a third of Asian LGBT non-citizens are living at less than 200% of the federal poverty level. Of those living at less than 200% of the federal poverty level, half experience food insecurity—some (17.7%) with hunger. Relatively few (17.9%) of those living at less than 200% of the federal poverty level were enrolled in the CalFresh food stamp benefits program, indicating that outreach about benefits options and enrollment is needed.

Asian LGBT non-citizens are also far more likely to be experiencing psychological distress than their non-LGBT non-citizen counterparts, resembling the prevalence of distress observed among their U.S.-born LGBT peers. Yet, over a third (38.8%) of LGBT non-citizens reported that they did not have a usual source of health care as compared to just 14.6% of their U.S.-born LGBT peers.

Many Asian LGBT non-citizens were highly proficient in English; however, more than one in ten Asian LGBT non-citizens indicated that they do not speak English well. Our findings indicate a need, at minimum, to increase access to health care, particularly mental health care for Asian LGBT non-citizens that is both LGBT- and linguistically competent.²⁸

An investment in prevention is also warranted, given our finding on higher levels of psychological distress among Asian LGBT non-citizens, as well as prior research that showed higher levels of depression, smoking, and a lack of feeling safe and secure relative to Asian non-LGBT people.²⁹ Consultation with Asian LGBT immigrant community leaders and organizations on strategies to reduce exposure to adversities and promote well-being is recommended.³⁰

Further, and as noted previously, research is needed to disaggregate non-citizens by authorization status to understand the needs of undocumented Asian LGBT immigrants and to examine potential

²⁸ Ngo-Metzger, Q., Massagli, M. P., Clarridge, B. R., Manocchia, M., Davis, R. B., Iezzoni, L. I., & Phillips, R. S. (2003). Linguistic and cultural barriers to care: Perspectives of Chinese and Vietnamese immigrants. *Journal of General Internal Medicine*, 18(1), 44–52. <https://doi.org/10.1046/j.1525-1497.2003.20205.x>; Noe-Bustamante, L., Mora, L., & Ruiz, N. G. (2022, December). *In their own words: Asian immigrants' experiences navigating language barriers in the United States*. Pew Research Center. <https://www.pewresearch.org/race-ethnicity/2022/12/19/in-their-own-words-asian-immigrants-experiences-navigating-language-barriers-in-the-united-states/>

²⁹ Choi, S.K, Wilson, B.D.M., Bouton, B., & Mallory, C. (2021). *AAPI LGBT Adults in the US: LGBT Well-Being at the Intersection of Race*. The Williams Institute, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA. <https://williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/publications/lgbt-aapi-adults-in-the-us/>

³⁰ Matthews, A. K., Li, C.-C., Bernhardt, B., Sohani, S., & Dong, X. Q. (2022). Factors influencing the well-being of Asian American LGBT individuals across the lifespan: Perspectives from leaders of community-based organizations. *BMC Geriatrics*, 22(S1). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12877-022-03590-7>

differences in the well-being of undocumented Asian LGBT immigrants by country of origin. Research has shown that of any state in the U.S., California has the largest percentage (26%) of undocumented migrants from Asia and the Pacific Islands. Nationally, more than a quarter of undocumented Asian and Pacific Islanders live below the poverty line, despite the fact that, on average, undocumented Asians and Pacific Islanders are highly educated, and many work in “white collar” industries.³¹ Specifically, almost three-fourths of undocumented Asian Pacific Islanders have a college degree, and half are employed in management, business, science, and arts occupations.³² Identifying groups of undocumented Asian immigrants that are most vulnerable to poverty, which may include LGBT people, those with less education, and those who are underemployed or underpaid, will be an important next step in immigration research.

Research is also needed that examines the specific experiences of different Asian LGBT communities by country of origin.³³ While we do not have detailed country-of-origin data for Asian LGBT non-citizens in California, information about Asian non-citizens by ethnic identity was obtained by querying AskCHIS, an online data platform maintained by the UCLA Center for Health Survey Research. Over half of Asian non-citizens in California are from China and South Asia (including India), followed by the Philippines, South Korea, and Vietnam.³⁴

Asian ethnicity among Asian (alone) non-citizen adults in California, CHIS 2015-2021

	%
Chinese	33.1%
Japanese	3.6%
Korean	12.6%
Filipino	16.0%
South Asian	21.3%
Vietnamese	7.9%
Other Asian/2+ Asian Types	5.5%

The socioeconomic status of Asian migrants, in general and in California, varies widely by country of origin and likely reflects differences in the timing and circumstances of migration, the motivations and socioeconomic status of those who migrate, and match to the needs of U.S. employers.³⁵ Information

³¹ Millet, Evin (June 2022). *A Demographic Profile for Undocumented Immigrants from Asia and the Pacific Islands*. <https://cmsny.org/undocumented-aapi-millet-061322>

³² Millet, Evin, (June 2022).

³³ Shimkhada, R., Scheitler, A. J., & Ponce, N. A. (2021). Capturing racial/ethnic diversity in population-based surveys: Data disaggregation of health data for Asian American, native Hawaiian, and pacific islanders (AANHPIs). *Population Research and Policy Review*, 40(1), 81–102. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11113-020-09634-3>

³⁴ As expected, this distribution of ethnicity mirrors the country of birth distribution for Asian non-citizens in the U.S. Nationally, immigrants from India (35%) and China (20%) account for more than half of the Asian and Pacific Islander undocumented population, followed by the Philippines (10%), South Korea (8%), and Vietnam (6%). Millet, Evin. (June 2022).

³⁵ U.S. immigration statistics show that employer-supported immigration is currently higher for people from India and China than most other countries. Among people who received “Green Cards” in FY2019, the largest number of sponsorships were for migrants from India, China, and South Korea. U.S. Department of Homeland Security. (2021). *2019 Yearbook of Immigration Statistics*. Retrieved from <https://www.dhs.gov/immigration-statistics/yearbook/2019/>

from 2015 to 2021 pooled CHIS data shows that the educational composition, occupations, and poverty rates of Asian non-citizens in the state vary considerably by country of origin.³⁶ For example, among those ages 25 and up, 90.1% of non-citizens from India have a four-year degree, only 64.1% of those from China and 54.5% of those from the Philippines do, compared with only 19.6% of those from Vietnam. More than a third (43.7%) of Vietnamese non-citizen adults ages 25 and up do not have a high school degree. The most common occupational groups in which employed non-citizens work also differ across ethnic groups. Employment in computer, engineering, and science occupations was common among employed non-citizens from South Asia and China (52.9% and 31.7%, respectively), while employment in service occupations was more common among people who are Filipino and Vietnamese (40.4% and 27.5%, respectively), and jobs in management, business, and finance were the most common among Japanese and Korean non-citizens workers (26.1% and 18.5%, respectively). Economic status varies widely in the state by country of origin, with over a third (38.5%) of non-citizens from Vietnam and 24.1% of non-citizen Filipinos living in poverty compared to 8.9% of non-citizen peers from South Asia. Understanding whether observed country-of-origin patterns in socioeconomic status (SES) are the same for LGBT non-citizens will be an important next step in LGBT immigration research—particularly given the relationship between SES and quality of life.³⁷

Accordingly, a core recommendation of this report is that more research on Asian LGBT immigrants is needed, including the following:

- Research should be conducted to compare the sociodemographic and health characteristics of Asian LGBT immigrants who are authorized to be in the U.S. by government officials to those who are not.
- Research should be conducted to make comparisons by country of origin.³⁸
- Although CHIS was administered in several languages, results are not generalizable to Asian people (e.g., Hmong, Laotian, Cambodian) who could not complete surveys in the languages offered. Future research should be conducted in additional Asian languages.
- This report did not provide information about Native Hawaiians or Pacific Islanders due to

[table11](#). In FY2021, the U.S. government approved over 300,000 employment-sponsored H-1B visas for people from India, followed by slightly over 50,000 for workers from China and less than 4,000 from any other single country. U.S. Department of Homeland Security. (2022). *Characteristics of H-1B Specialty Occupation Workers: Fiscal Year 2021 Annual Report to Congress*. https://www.uscis.gov/sites/default/files/document/data/H1B_Characteristics_Congressional_Report_FY2021-3.2.22.pdf H-1B visas are for workers with specialized knowledge and at least a B.A. who are underrepresented in the U.S. workforce. Little is known about employer-supported immigration or other pathways to legal residence for LGBT people due to gaps in federal immigration, asylee and refugee data collection systems; however, heterogeneity of experience is likely among LGBT Asian immigrants. Shaw, A., Luhur, W., Eagly, I., Conron, K. (March 2021). *LGBT Asylum Claims in the United States*. The Williams Institute, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA. <https://williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/wp-content/uploads/Asylum-LGBT-Claims-Mar-2021.pdf>

³⁶ AskCHIS queries. <https://ask.chis.ucla.edu/>

³⁷ Braveman, P. A., Cubbin, C., Egerter, S., Williams, D. R., & Pamuk, E. (2010). Socioeconomic disparities in health in the United States: What the patterns tell us. *American Journal of Public Health*, 100 Suppl 1, S186-196. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2009.166082

³⁸ Shimkhada, R., Scheitler, A. J., & Ponce, N. A. (2021). Capturing racial/ethnic diversity in population-based surveys: Data disaggregation of health data for Asian American, Native Hawaiian, and Pacific Islanders (AANHPIs). *Population Research and Policy Review*, 40(1), 81–102. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11113-020-09634-3>

the relatively small size of the population—particularly when examining differences by LGBT status and citizenship status. Community-based research is recommended to assess the needs of LGBT Native Hawaiians and Pacific Islanders.

- Research that explores differences in the health and socioeconomic status of Asian LGBT immigrants by specific gender identity and sexual orientation would also be valuable, given that inequities observed in studies of the general U.S. adult LGBT population³⁹ are likely to be present.
- Research that explores topics that could not be examined in this study (e.g., violence, harassment, discrimination) due to limitations of currently available data is also needed.
- Finally, research that embraces a community-based participatory model is recommended to elevate the voices of Asian LGBT immigrants in creating and sustaining long-term change.⁴⁰

³⁹ Meyer, I. H., Wilson, B. D. M., & O'Neill, K. (June 2021). *LGBTQ People in the US*. The Williams Institute, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA. <https://williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/wp-content/uploads/Generations-TransPop-Toplines-Jun-2021.pdf>

⁴⁰ Vaughn, L. M., Jacquez, F., Lindquist-Grantz, R., Parsons, A., & Melink, K. (2017). Immigrants as research partners: A review of immigrants in community-based participatory research (CBPR). *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health*, 19(6), 1457–1468. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10903-016-0474-3>

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RESEARCH THAT MATTERS



APPENDIX

METHODS

This study analyzed data collected on the California Health Interview Survey (CHIS) conducted by the UCLA Center for Health Policy Research.⁴¹ The CHIS survey is administered annually—collecting data from a representative sample of more than 20,000 adults ages 18 and up on a range of demographic and health topics. In 2019, the CHIS began utilizing a mixed-method approach (web and telephone) using a random sample of California addresses. Prior to 2019, CHIS was administered only via telephone using random digit dialing (RDD). The survey is offered in English, Spanish, Mandarin, Cantonese, Korean, Vietnamese, and Tagalog. In 2015, questions needed to differentiate between transgender and cisgender respondents were added to the CHIS survey. Thus, we pooled data collected from 2015 to 2021 to examine the demographic, socioeconomic, and health characteristics of adults who were Asian non-Hispanic (N=16,128) by LGBT and citizenship statuses. Pooling data over these years allowed us to produce more stable point estimates for small population groups.

Respondents who were Asian (alone) and were not Hispanic were eligible for this study based on their responses to two questions. Respondents who answered “No” to the question, “Are you Latino or Hispanic?” were classified as non-Hispanic. Those who selected Asian as their only response to the question, “Please tell me which one or more of the following you would use to describe yourself. Would you describe yourself as...?” Response options were: White, Black, or African American, Asian, American Indian, or Alaska Native, Pacific Islander, Native Hawaiian, and Other (Specify: _____) were classified as Asian (alone).

Native Hawaiians and Pacific Islanders were not included in this study for two reasons: 1) prior research indicates that aggregated population analyses hide important differences in socioeconomic status and health between people who are Asian and those who are Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islander,⁴² and 2) all Native Hawaiians and some Pacific Islanders who live in the U.S. or its territories (i.e., U.S. Samoa, Guam, and the Northern Mariana Islands)⁴³ are U.S. citizens. In California, between 2015 and 2021 (pooled), an estimated 0.3% of adults were Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander. Therefore, analyses of differences in health and socioeconomic status among Native Hawaiians and Pacific Islanders by citizenship status, regardless of sexual orientation and gender identity, would not be possible due to sample size constraints.

⁴¹ California Health Interview Survey (CHIS). *CHIS Design and Methods*. <https://healthpolicy.ucla.edu/our-work/california-health-interview-survey-chis/chis-design-and-methods>.

⁴² Joint Economic Committee Democrats, (May 26, 2022). *The Economic State of Asian Americans, Native Hawaiians, and Pacific Islanders in the United States*. U.S. Senate. https://www.jec.senate.gov/public/_cache/files/ad7d7ce9-21b5-45c5-a65b-c4d91f536904/aanhpi-fact-sheet-final.pdf; Choi, S.K, Wilson, B.D.M., Bouton, B., & Mallory, C. (2021). *AAPI LGBT Adults in the US: LGBT Well-Being at the Intersection of Race*. The Williams Institute, UCLA, Los Angeles, CA. <https://williamsinstitute.law.ucla.edu/publications/lgbt-aapi-adults-in-the-us/>

⁴³ Monte, L. M., & Shin, H. B. (May 25, 2022). *20.6 Million People in the U.S. Identify as Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander*. U.S. Census Bureau. <https://www.census.gov/library/stories/2022/05/aanhpi-population-diverse-geographically-dispersed.html>

Responses to questions about sex assigned at birth (“On your original birth certificate, was your sex assigned as male or female?”) and current gender identity (“Do you currently describe yourself as male, female, or transgender?”) were used to classify respondents as transgender or cisgender. Those who selected a gender identity (male or female) that differed from their sex assigned at birth or who selected “transgender” (regardless of their sex assigned at birth) were classified as transgender. Respondents who selected gender identity options (male or female) that were the same as their sex assigned at birth (male or female) were classified as cisgender. Those who selected “none of these” as their response to the gender identity question were not classified as transgender or cisgender.

Responses to questions about sexual orientation identity (“Do you think of yourself as straight or heterosexual, as gay/lesbian or homosexual, or bisexual?”) were used to classify respondents as lesbian, gay, or bisexual (LGB) or straight. Respondents who were transgender (regardless of their sexual orientation identity) and/or LGB were classified as LGBT, while respondents who were cisgender and straight were classified as non-LGBT. Respondents who could not be classified as either transgender or cisgender were excluded from analyses. Further, respondents who were cisgender and selected “Not sexual, celibate, or none of the above” or “Other” as their sexual orientation identity or were missing a response to sexual orientation identity were excluded from analyses.

Citizenship status was determined based on responses to a series of sequential questions regarding country of birth (“In what country were you born?”) and citizenship (“Are you a citizen of the United States?”). Based on responses to these questions, respondents were classified into one of three categories (U.S.-born citizen, naturalized citizen, and non-citizen). If respondents selected the United States or any of its territories as their country of birth, they were classified as U.S.-born citizens. If respondents selected any country outside of the U.S., they were asked about U.S. citizenship (Yes or No). Those who selected “Yes” were classified as naturalized citizens, and “No” were classified as non-citizens.

We performed descriptive analyses of the pooled CHIS data through the CHIS data access center (DAC), which is managed by the UCLA Center for Health Policy Research. We performed descriptive analyses using design-based F-tests (Rao-Scott Chi-square tests) of differences in proportions to assess whether sociodemographic and health characteristics varied across citizenship status groups in analyses stratified by LGBT status. Findings were deemed statistically different at an alpha of 0.05. Confidence intervals (95% CI) were included to communicate the degree of uncertainty around and estimate due to sampling error. Non-overlapping confidence intervals were indicative of statistical significance at an alpha of 0.05 for comparisons between any two groups. All analyses were performed on Stata v17.1 and were weighted using person-level weights provided by the UCLA Center for Health Policy Research. All sample sizes (n) are unweighted.

Approach to Population Estimation

To estimate the number of LGBT immigrants and LGBT Asian immigrants, we relied upon estimates available through AskCHIS, an online data query platform maintained by the UCLA Center for Health Survey Research. We conducted our queries of citizenship status, sexual orientation, gender identity, and race-ethnicity in the CHIS pooled 2015 to 2021 data. First, we obtained counts of cisgender lesbian, gay, and bisexual immigrant adults (using sexual orientation – 4 level) by citizenship status (3-level, naturalized and non-citizen groups collapsed) and restricted to cisgender adults (329,000).

Next, we obtained counts of transgender (gender identity-2 level) immigrants (citizenship 3-level, naturalized and non-citizen groups collapsed) (of any sexual orientation) (41,000) and summed them to obtain an estimate of 370,000 LGBT immigrants.

To estimate Asian LGBT immigrant adults (89,000), we obtained counts of immigrants (3-level, naturalized and non-citizen groups collapsed) who were Asian (alone), non-Hispanic (race OMB/ Department of Finance variable)—restricted first to LGB cisgender adults (77,000)—and then to transgender adults (of any sexual orientation) (12,000) and summed them up.

TABLES

Table A1. Demographic characteristics of Asian adult participants (N=16,128) in the California Health Interview Survey, 2015-2021, by LGBT and citizenship statuses

	LGBT (N=665)							NON-LGBT (N=15,463)						
	CITIZENSHIP TYPE							CITIZENSHIP TYPE						
	Non-citizen (n=83)		Naturalized (n=290)		US-born (n=292)		F#	Non-citizen (n=2,479)		Naturalized (n=8,429)		US-born (n=4,555)		F#
	%	95% CI ^y	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	p-value	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	p-value
Age							< .01							< .01
18-24	31.1	14.0, 55.8	12.4	6.4, 22.7	50.8	39.6, 61.9		16.1	13.5, 19.0	4.9	3.8, 6.2	31.1	28.4, 33.9	
25-34	36.6	19.5, 57.9	20.1	12.2, 31.2	25.8	18.1, 35.3		27.8	24.5, 31.3	10.3	9.0, 11.8	30.8	27.7, 34.2	
35-49	27.1	13.6, 46.9	32.9	23.5, 43.9	16.2	9.2, 26.8		32.0	28.7, 35.5	29.3	27.2, 31.4	20.7	18.4, 23.3	
50-64	4.9	1.5, 15.1	20.1	12.7, 30.4	4.2	2.5, 7.1		17.9	15.2, 21	30.1	27.6, 32.8	10.0	8.6, 11.7	
65+	0.3	0.0, 1.5	14.5	8.7, 23.2	3.0	1.4, 6.4		6.2	4.9, 7.9	25.4	23.0, 28.0	7.3	6.0, 8.8	
Sex assigned at birth							0.51							0.08
Male	38.3	21.2, 58.9	49.4	38.5, 60.4	41.7	31.6, 52.4		49.5	46.3, 52.7	45.1	43.2, 46.9	48.6	45.9, 51.3	
Female	61.7	41.1, 78.8	50.6	39.6, 61.5	58.3	47.6, 68.4		50.5	47.3, 53.7	54.9	53.1, 56.8	51.4	48.7, 54.1	
Gender (detailed)							0.55							--
Cisgender man	32.7	18.0, 51.9	46.2	35.5, 57.2	37.4	28.0, 48.0		49.5	46.3, 52.7	45.1	43.2, 46.9	48.6	45.9, 51.3	
Cisgender woman	52.0	31.7, 71.6	42.2	31.5, 53.7	54.3	43.8, 64.4		50.5	47.3, 53.7	54.9	54.1, 56.8	51.4	48.7, 54.1	
Transgender man	5.8	0.7, 36.0	2.0	0.7, 5.6	2.8	0.3, 20.7								
Transgender woman	9.5	1.6, 40.8	6.5	2.9, 14.1	1.5	0.4, 5.6								
Transgender (all other gender identities)	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.8, 10.9	4.0	1.0, 14.4								
Gender (reduced)							0.57							--
Cisgender man	32.7	18.0, 51.9	46.2	35.5, 57.2	37.4	28.0, 48.0		49.5	46.3, 52.7	45.1	43.2, 46.9	48.6	45.9, 51.3	
Cisgender woman	52.0	31.7, 71.6	42.2	31.5, 53.7	54.3	43.8, 64.4		50.5	47.3, 53.7	54.9	54.1, 56.8	51.4	48.7, 54.1	
Transgender (all gender identities, both sexes assigned at birth)	15.3	4.0, 43.8	11.6	6.4, 20.2	8.3	3.1, 20.2								

	LGBT (N=665)							NON-LGBT (N=15,463)						
	CITIZENSHIP TYPE							CITIZENSHIP TYPE						
	Non-citizen (n=83)		Naturalized (n=290)		US-born (n=292)		F#	Non-citizen (n=2,479)		Naturalized (n=8,429)		US-born (n=4,555)		F#
	%	95% CI ^y	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	p-value	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	p-value
Sexual orientation							0.57							--
Straight or heterosexual	13.4	3.1, 42.5	7.4	3.5, 15.1	S ^a	S		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Gay, lesbian, or homosexual	28.4	15.4, 46.3	47.6	36.7, 58.8	39.5	29.7, 50.3								
Bisexual	58.2	37.3, 76.6	43.7	32.6, 55.5	53.9	42.3, 65.2								
Not sexual, celibate, none, "other"	0.0	0.0	1.2	0.4, 3.7	S	S								
Marital status							< .01							< .01
Married	20.8	11.0, 35.8	35.5	26.4, 45.7	11.9	6.4, 21.1		65.0	61.4, 68.4	70.1	68.0, 72.2	33.8	30.7, 37.0	
Living with partner	7.2	2.7, 17.6	13.5	7.3, 23.6	9.9	5.7, 16.5		2.9	2.0, 4.3	2.2	1.3, 3.8	6.0	4.7, 7.6	
Widowed, separated, or divorced	5.9	0.9, 30.8	11.2	5.8, 20.5	1.8	0.7, 4.7		6.3	4.8, 8.2	13.2	11.9, 14.8	5.6	4.2, 7.4	
Never married	66.1	47.6, 80.7	39.9	29.8, 50.9	76.3	66.4, 84.0		25.8	22.8, 29.1	14.4	12.7, 16.3	54.6	51.3, 57.9	
Household type*							0.02							< .01
Other, no kids	76.7	61.3, 87.3	62.0	51.6, 71.4	83.1	73.0, 89.9		33.3	30.0, 36.7	28.5	26.4, 30.7	62.3	59.0, 65.4	
Married, no kids	15.9	7.9, 29.4	23.8	16.7, 32.7	7.2	3.5, 14.4		29.0	25.4, 32.9	39.3	37.0, 41.7	16.7	14.6, 19.1	
Married, with kids	7.4	2.3, 21.5	11.4	5.4, 22.4	4.5	1.4, 13.5		32.6	29.2, 36.2	28.8	26.2, 31.5	17.1	14.8, 19.6	
Other, with kids	0.0	0.0	2.9	1.2, 6.5	5.2	1.8, 13.8		5.2	4.0, 6.7	3.4	2.6, 4.4	4.0	2.8, 5.7	

*CI: Confidence Interval. #F test for test of difference in proportions; F tests cannot be calculated when all rows are empty. ±S represents suppressed data due to small cell sizes and deductive disclosure concerns. *Adults not living with a married spouse are classified as "other." Therefore, percentages for married reported in household type will differ from those reported under marital status. Bold p-values are statistically significant.

Table A2. Time in US, language spoken at home, and English proficiency of Asian adult participants (N=16,128) in the California Health Interview Survey, 2015-2021, by LGBT and citizenship statuses

	LGBT (N=665)							NON-LGBT (N=15,463)						
	CITIZENSHIP TYPE							CITIZENSHIP TYPE						
	Non-citizen (n=83)		Naturalized (n=290)		US-born (n=292)		F#	Non-citizen (n=2,479)		Naturalized (n=8,429)		US-born (n=4,555)		F#
	%	95% CI*	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	p-value	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	p-value
Percent of life in U.S.							< .01							< .01
<= 25%	42.1	24.4, 62.0	5.7	3.1, 10.4				60.3	56.7, 63.8	9.5	8.0, 11.3			
26%-50%	34.7	19.4, 54.1	31.1	22.4, 41.4				27.2	24.1, 30.6	34.9	32.4, 37.5			
51%-75%	19.4	5.2, 51.3	28.2	19.7, 38.5				9.2	7.3, 11.5	36.7	34.2, 39.4			
76%-100%	3.9	0.8, 16.9	35.0	24.6, 47.0	100.0	100.0		3.3	2.2, 4.9	18.8	16.9, 20.9	100.0	100.0	
Years in U.S.							< 0.01							< 0.01
<5 Years	19.4	8.7, 37.8	0.1	0.0, 1.4	S [±]	S		33.1	29.6, 36.7	1.1	0.7, 1.7			
5-10 Years	34.6	17.1, 57.7	12.3	7.6, 19.5	S	S		32.6	28.5, 36.9	7.7	6.4, 9.3			
>10 Years	45.9	25.1, 68.3	87.5	80.4, 92.3	S	S		34.4	30.8, 38.1	91.2	89.5, 92.6			
Language spoken at home							--							< .01
English	21.7	6.8, 51.0	19.9	12.5, 30.2	52.7	41.8, 63.4		7.4	5.7, 9.5	17.4	15.7, 19.3	54.1	50.6, 57.4	
Spanish	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		S	S	0.0	0.0, 0.1	S	S	
English & Spanish	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		S	S	0.4	0.2, 0.8	S	S	
English & Asian Languages	51.8	30.5, 72.5	50.3	39.7, 61.0	37.4	27.3, 48.7		40.3	36.8, 43.8	41.7	39.3, 44.1	36.2	32.9, 39.6	
Other language(s)	26.5	13.4, 45.6	29.4	20.6, 40.0	7.4	3.7, 14.3		52.2	48.6, 55.7	40.5	38.3, 42.7	9.0	7.3, 10.9	
Spoken English proficiency							< .01							< .01
Very well	49.1	29.9, 68.6	65.4	53.2, 75.9	95.7	88.4, 98.5		33.3	29.7, 37.0	38.2	35.8, 40.7	85.2	81.0, 88.6	
Well	39.6	20.8, 62.0	24.1	15.1, 36.1	4.3	1.5, 11.6		35.8	32.1, 39.6	32.3	29.8, 34.9	13.6	10.3, 17.7	
Not well	11.2	2.8, 35.8	9.5	5.1, 17.0	0.0	0.0		24.9	20.9, 29.3	24.6	22.6, 26.8	1.2	0.6, 2.5	
Not at all	0.1	0.0, 1.3	1.1	0.3, 3.3	0.0	0.0		6.1	4.5, 8.2	4.9	4.0, 6.0	0.0	0.0	

*CI: Confidence Interval. #F test for test of difference in proportions; F tests cannot be calculated when all rows are empty. Bold p-values are statistically significant. ±S represents suppressed data due to small cell sizes and deductive disclosure concerns.

Table A3. Economic well-being of Asian adult participants (N=16,128) in the California Health Interview Survey, 2015-2021, by LGBT and citizenship statuses

	LGBT (N=665)							NON-LGBT (N=15,463)						
	CITIZENSHIP TYPE							CITIZENSHIP TYPE						
	Non-citizen (n=83)		Naturalized (n=290)		US-born (n=292)		F#	Non-citizen (n=2,479)		Naturalized (n=8,429)		US-born (n=4,555)		F#
	%	95% CI [¥]	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	p-value	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	p-value
Education							0.84							< .01
High school or less	30.7	14.1, 54.4	18.7	11.2, 29.5	22.7	14.5, 33.9		26.4	23.4, 29.7	27.8	26.1, 29.6	17.1	14.6, 19.8	
Associates or some college	18.3	5.0, 48.6	17.9	10.5, 28.9	19.1	11.4, 30.3		13.6	11.4, 16.2	14.2	12.5, 16.0	21.5	18.8, 24.5	
Bachelor's or more	51.0	30.0, 71.7	63.4	51.9, 73.6	58.1	46.1, 69.3		60.0	56.4, 63.4	58.0	55.8, 60.2	61.4	57.9, 64.8	
In the workforce							0.55							< .01
No	14.5	5.4, 33.2	24.9	16.9, 35.0	21.6	13.5, 32.7		23.3	20.6, 26.1	33.4	31.3, 35.7	21.2	18.6, 23.9	
Yes	85.5	66.8, 94.6	75.1	65.0, 83.1	78.4	67.3, 86.5		76.7	73.9, 79.4	66.6	64.3, 68.7	78.8	76.1, 81.4	
Poverty							0.64							< .01
<100% federal poverty level (FPL)	16.9	7.3, 34.5	10.9	5.8, 19.7	17.6	10.4, 28.2		17.1	14.1, 20.5	13.0	11.6, 14.6	8.9	7.3, 10.9	
100%-199% FPL	14.1	5.2, 33.0	14.8	7.5, 27.2	9.7	4.1, 21.2		17.1	14.4, 20.1	17.0	15.4, 18.7	9.4	7.8, 11.3	
200%-299% FPL	11.7	4.0, 29.6	13.1	7.8, 21.3	20.2	12.0, 31.9		13.7	11.4, 16.4	11.2	9.9, 12.6	10.7	8.6, 13.2	
>= 300% FPL	57.3	37.4, 75.1	61.2	49.5, 71.8	52.5	40.6, 64.1		52.1	48.9, 55.4	58.8	56.6, 60.9	71.0	68.0, 73.9	
Food security (among those at < 200% FPL)							0.47							0.03
Food secure	49.7	20.1, 79.5	80.8	58.3, 92.7	57.9	33.7, 78.9		70.0	63.8, 75.5	68.3	64.3, 72.0	71.5	64.5, 77.6	
Food insecurity without hunger	32.6	9.1, 70.1	S [±]	S	28.5	12.2, 53.4		24.0	19.2, 29.5	27.0	23.4, 30.9	18.4	13.9, 24.0	
Food insecurity with hunger	17.7	7.5, 36.4	S	S	13.6	2.4, 50.4		6.0	3.9, 9.2	4.7	3.1, 7.3	10.1	6.2, 15.9	
Has CalFresh benefits (among those at < 200% FPL)	17.9	2.1, 69.0	23.3	8.2, 50.9	20.1	8.6, 40.0	0.95	17.5	12.9, 23.2	18.6	15.4, 22.4	18.3	12.9, 25.3	0.93
Housing status							0.16							< .01
Own	33.0	14.4, 59.1	51.7	40.1, 63.1	50.0	38.6, 61.5		37.5	34.1, 41.0	66.9	64.8, 69.0	63.2	60.1, 66.2	
Rent	53.6	31.9, 74.0	46.0	34.7, 57.7	40.6	29.9, 52.3		58.4	54.8, 62.0	29.4	27.4, 31.5	31.4	28.6, 34.5	
Other arrangement	13.5	4.5, 33.7	2.3	1.0, 5.1	9.3	5.2, 16.1		4.1	3.0, 5.6	3.6	2.8, 4.7	5.4	3.9, 7.5	

¥CI: Confidence Interval. #F test for test of difference in proportions; Bold p-values are statistically significant. ±S represents suppressed data due to small cell sizes and deductive disclosure concerns.

Table A4. Health status and healthcare access of Asian adult participants (N=16,128) in the California Health Interview Survey, 2015-2021, by LGBT and citizenship statuses

	LGBT (N=665)							NON-LGBT (N=15,463)						
	CITIZENSHIP TYPE							CITIZENSHIP TYPE						
	Non-citizen (n=83)		Naturalized (n=290)		US-born (n=292)		F#	Non-citizen (n=2,479)		Naturalized (n=8,429)		US-born (n=4,555)		F#
	%	95% CI*	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	p-value	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	%	95% CI	p-value
Self-reported health condition status							0.50							< .01
Excellent	21.4	9.8, 40.5	18.9	10.6, 31.6	16.1	9.5, 25.9		17.6	15.0, 20.6	16.2	14.6, 18.0	22.4	19.4, 25.7	
Very good/good	58.1	36.3, 77.2	70.8	58.5, 80.6	62.7	51.4, 72.9		65.9	62.5, 69.2	61.9	59.4, 64.2	67.5	64.2, 70.5	
Poor/fair	20.5	5.4, 53.5	10.3	5.9, 17.5	21.1	13.3, 31.9		16.5	14.1, 19.2	21.9	19.9, 24.1	10.2	8.1, 12.7	
Psychological distress (30 days)							0.44							0.02
Yes	26.8	10.7, 53.0	14.7	7.8, 25.9	21.2	13.4, 31.8		4.6	3.5, 6.2	3.3	2.7, 4.2	5.4	4.1, 7.1	
No	73.2	47.0, 89.3	85.3	74.1, 92.2	78.8	68.2, 86.6		95.4	93.8, 96.5	96.7	95.8, 97.3	94.6	92.9, 95.9	
Health insurance type							0.23							< .01
Uninsured	10.8	5.0, 22.1	4.5	2.2, 9.0	2.0	0.5, 7.6		11.4	9.3, 13.9	4.5	3.6, 5.7	5.1	3.7, 7.0	
Medi-Cal	27.2	12.5, 29.5	24.0	16.1, 34.1	33.1	23.0, 45.0		24.9	21.6, 28.5	24.0	22.2, 26.0	15.2	13.1, 17.5	
Employment-based	39.5	21.7, 60.6	59.4	49.0, 69.0	46.8	36.2, 57.7		53.0	49.0, 57.0	51.3	49.0, 53.6	62.5	59.2, 65.6	
Other	22.4	6.4, 55.1	12.1	7.1, 19.9	18.1	10.8, 28.8		10.7	8.6, 13.3	20.1	18.5, 21.9	17.3	14.8, 20.1	
Has usual source of health care							0.02							< .01
No	38.8	20.3, 61.2	15.0	8.1, 26.1	14.6	9.6, 21.6		23.2	20.4, 26.3	9.5	8.1, 11.2	17.8	15.2, 20.7	
Yes	61.2	38.8, 79.7	85.0	73.9, 91.9	85.4	78.4, 90.4		76.8	73.7, 79.6	90.5	88.8, 91.9	82.2	79.3, 84.8	

*CI: Confidence Interval. #F test for test of difference in proportions. Bold p-values are statistically significant.