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**AGING IN THE USA: SIMILARITIES AND
DISPARITIES ACROSS TIME AND SPACE**

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Aging in the USA: Similarities and Disparities Across Time and Space

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Abstract. We study biological aging of elderly U.S. Americans born 1904-1966. We use thirteen waves of the Health and Retirement Study and construct a health deficit index as the number of health deficits present in a person measured relative to the number of potential deficits. We find that, on average, Americans develop 5 percent more health deficits per year, that men age slightly faster than women, and that, at any age above 50, Caucasians display significantly less health deficits than African Americans. We also document a steady time trend of health improvements. For each year of later birth, health deficits decline on average by about 1 percent. This health trend is about the same across regions and for men and women, but significantly lower for African Americans compared to Caucasians. In non-linear regressions, we find that regional differences in aging follow a particular regularity, akin to the compensation effect of mortality. Health deficits converge for men and women and across American regions and suggest a life span of the American population of about 97 years.

Keywords: health; aging; health deficit index; United States.

JEL: I10, I19, J14, N32.

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1. INTRODUCTION

All humans age chronologically by a year each year. Biological aging, in contrast, is individual-specific and a 70-year-old can be as healthy as a 50-year-old. Notwithstanding these idiosyncrasies, there are strong regularities of aging discernible at the level of (sub-) populations. In this study, we present some of these regularities for elderly U.S. Americans. Using data from the Health and Retirement Study (HRS, 2019), we show that American men develop 5.6 (± 0.1) percent more health deficits with every year of age and that American women are on average less healthy but age slightly slower than men, at a rate of 5.0 (± 0.05) percent more health deficits per year. We show an almost constant trend at which biological aging improves over time. For every year of later birth, elderly Americans display about 1 percent less health deficits at any age, implying, for example, that a 70-year-old born in 1960 is predicted to be about as healthy as a 60-year-old born in 1910. The rate of progress in individual health is the same across the main U.S. American regions (Northeast, Midwest, West, South) and insignificantly faster for women than for men (1.0 ± 0.1 percent vs. 0.84 ± 0.16 percent). It is significantly faster for Caucasians compared to African Americans. In particular, African American men benefit very little from general technological progress.

In non-linear regressions (akin to the Gompertz-Makeham law of mortality) we explore the differences in biological aging between major regions of the U.S. Individuals are, on average, healthiest in the West and least healthy in the South. With increasing age, however, these differences converge such that there exists an age at which all Americans that survived to this age are predicted to be equally (un-) healthy, irrespective of gender or provenance. This population-specific parameter can be interpreted as the lifespan of a population (Gavrilov and Gavrilova, 1991). We estimate thus defined lifespan to be 97.1 (± 2.1) years.

We measure individual health by constructing a health deficit index, also known as frailty index, following the seminal work of Mitnitski et al. (2001, 2002).¹ The index simply records the fraction of a large set of aging-related health conditions that is present in an individual. It has been shown that it does not matter which particular health deficits are included in the unweighted index as long as there are sufficiently many (30 or more, see Searle et al., 2008, for methodological background). The intuition for this remarkable feature is that health deficits

¹Originally, the methodology was established by Mitnitski, Rockwood, and coauthors as the frailty index. Newer studies use also the term health deficit index (e.g. Mitnitski and Rockwood, 2016), which seems to be a more appropriate term when the investigated population consists to a significant degree of non-frail persons.

are connected to other health deficits. For example, hypertension is associated with the risk of stroke, heart diseases, kidney diseases, dementia, and problems of walking fast and sleeping well. This means that if a particular health deficit is missing from the list, its effect (on, for example, probability of death) is taken up by a combination of other health deficits. The health deficit index has a microfoundation in reliability theory (Gavrilov and Gavrilova, 1991), and in a network theory of human aging (Rutenberg et al., 2019). The gradual loss of functional capacity of human organs, which is estimated to be tenfold higher than needed for survival in young persons (Fries, 1980), is expressed as the gradual increase of the health deficit index as humans grow older. The index thus captures in one number the biological aging process defined as the intrinsic, cumulative, progressive, and deleterious loss of function (Arking, 2006; Masoro, 2006).

The quality of the deficit index is mostly demonstrated by its predictive power for death at the individual level, and for mortality at the group level. The prediction of mortality can be so accurate that chronological age adds insignificant explanatory power when added to the regression (Rockwood and Mitnitski, 2007). The elimination of chronological age in the determination of aging and death is the ultimate goal of any successful theory of aging (Arking, 2006). Other studies demonstrate the predictive power of the health deficit index for the risk of institutionalization in nursing homes and becoming a disability insurance recipient (Rockwood et al., 2006; Blodgett et al., 2016; Hosseini et al., 2019). Dalgaard and Strulik (2014) have integrated the health deficit index into an economic life cycle theory of health, aging, and death. The consideration of health deficits provides a biological foundation of health economic theory. It replaces the until then popular concept of unobservable health capital (Grossman, 1972) by an easily measurable concept established in gerontology and medical science and allows therewith for the development of quantifiable and testable health economic models.²

Another reason for the popularity of the health deficit index, which has been used by now in hundreds of studies in gerontology and medical science, is that it can be easily compared among samples, datasets, and populations (Searle et al., 2008). Comparing the results from this study suggests that Americans age faster than Canadians (Mitnitski et al., 2002; Mitnitski

²Applications consider, for example, the education gradient (Strulik, 2018), the long-term evolution of the age at retirement (Dalgaard and Strulik, 2017), the gender gap in mortality (Schuenemann et al., 2017b), the health gain from marriage (Schuenemann et al., 2019a), the demand for nursery care (Schuenemann et al., 2019b) and particular health behavior such as addiction (Strulik, 2018), self-control problems (Strulik, 2019), and adaptation to poor health (Schuenemann et al., 2017a)).

and Rockwood, 2016) and faster than Europeans from 14 different countries (Abeliansky and Strulik, 2018, 2019). Results from non-linear regressions suggest that lifespan is shorter for Americans than for Europeans (97 vs. 102 years; Abeliansky and Strulik, 2018). We also find that progress in health deficit reduction advances at a lower rate for Americans than for Europeans (0.9-1.0 percent per year of birth vs. 1.4-1.5 percent per year of birth, Abeliansky and Strulik, 2019). This is a remarkable result, in particular, if we consider health deficit reduction to be largely driven by advancing medical knowledge, which should in principle be available at the same levels in the U.S. as in Europe. These comparative results imply that the health wedge between Americans and Europeans widens over time. It is consistent with the more familiar phenomena that life expectancy improves in sync with healthy life expectancy (Salomon et al., 2012) and that life expectancy increased at a slower rate in the U.S. than in Europe. From 1950 to 2000, life expectancy at birth increased by 8.6 years (from 68.2 to 76.2) in the U.S. and by 11.3 years (from 67.0 to 78.3) in Western Europe (United Nations, 2019). However, if we divide the sample by ethnicity, we find that the health trend of Caucasian Americans (at a rate of 1.3-1.5 percent per year) differs insignificantly from the European estimates. The health trend of African Americans, in contrast, is substantially slower. In particular, elderly African American men seem not to benefit from generally improving health status.³ Here, we focus on regularities in the development of average health deficits in cohorts of subpopulations. As the number of average health deficits increases with age, the variance of health deficits also increases in a specific way, which has been explored in related literature (Mitnitski et al., 2006, Hosseini et al., 2019; see Grossmann and Strulik, 2019, for a discussion of implications on health inequality in the framework of optimal health insurance and retirement policy).

The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. The data and our empirical strategy is described in Section 2. Section 3 shows the results from log-linear regression on the force of aging and health-deficit reducing progress. Controlling for individual fixed effects, we focus on similarities and disparities of aging of Caucasian and African American men and women.

³Other studies on progress in human health focussed on improvements in nutrition and stature (Fogel and Costa, 1997; Dalgaard and Strulik, 2016) and mortality (Oeppen and Vaupel, 2002). Strulik and Vollmer (2013) show for a sample of developed countries that since the mid 20th century human lifespan increased in-sync with life-expectancy. Vaupel (2010) concludes that human senescence has been delayed by a decade in the sense that levels of mortality that used to prevail at age 70 now prevail at age 80, and levels that used to prevail at age 80 now prevail at age 90. Dalgaard et al. (2018) construct aggregate health deficit indices for the working-age population of 191 countries and show that, over the last quarter of century, the workforce did not age in physiological terms, although it got chronologically older.

Controlling for year-of-birth fixed effects we focus on cohort-specific aging and long-run health trends. Section 4 contains the results from non-linear regressions and focuses on regional disparities in aging and the convergence of the aging process of men and women and across regions. We also discuss the compensation effect of morbidity and estimate the lifespan of Americans. Finally, Section 5 concludes.

2. DATA AND EMPIRICAL STRATEGY

For our analysis, we used the Health and Retirement Study RAND HRS Longitudinal File 2016 (V1). This data was compiled by the RAND Center of the Study of Aging, with funding from the National Institute on Aging and the Social Security Administration (HRS, 2019). We used the public use dataset and considered waves 1 to 13. The first wave took place in 1992, the second one in 1993/1994, and wave 3 in 1995/1996. From then onwards the survey continued biennially. We considered respondents aged 50 and above at the time of their first interview. Because a significant share of the oldest old individuals show “super healthy” characteristics, we focus on individuals aged 90 and below to avoid selection effects. However, as shown in the Appendix, we obtain similar results when we abandon the age cutoff and when we apply an even stricter cutoff at age 85.

In line with our definition of aging as the (yearly) accumulation of health deficits, we created a health deficit index for each individual, following the methodology developed by Mitnitski et al (2001). We considered symptoms, signs, and disease classifications to construct the index. A summary of all 38 deficits considered is given in the Appendix (Table A1).

The health deficit index is computed as the proportion of deficits that a respondent suffers from out of the number of potential health deficits. We coded multilevel deficits using a mapping to the Likert scale in the interval 0-1. In case of missing data for an individual, we constructed the health deficit index based on the available information on potential deficits (i.e. if for a particular individual data were not available for x potential health deficits, the sum of the observed health deficits was divided by $38 - x$). From the surveyed individuals, we kept only those with information on at least 30 health deficits. Due to missing values in the creation of the health deficit index or because of the lack of sufficient deficits to reach the 30-item minimum, we lost less than 6% of the observations of the initial dataset. Further, we dropped observations where the region of residence and/or the place of birth was missing, besides those born outside

the U.S.. By excluding migrants we focus on a more homogenous group of individuals exposed to the U.S. American health environment for their whole life. The reduced dataset contains 177,502 observations.⁴

TABLE 1. SUMMARY STATISTICS

Variable	Sample	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Women						
Health Deficit Index	All	97,321	0.2285	0.1751	0	0.9722
	African American	18,273	0.2726	0.1914	0	0.9722
	Caucasian	76,282	0.2169	0.1685	0	0.9722
log(Health Deficit Index)	All	96,414	-1.8059	0.9249	-7.1389	-0.0282
	African American	18,224	-1.5917	0.8484	-6.0402	-0.0282
	Caucasian	75,442	-1.8608	0.9330	-7.1388	-0.0281
Age	All	97,321	67.8297	10.2679	50	90
	African American	18,273	65.5635	9.7246	50	90
	Caucasian	76,282	68.4958	10.3204	50	90
Year of Birth	All	97,321	1936.194	11.1351	1904	1966
	African American	18,273	1939.495	11.5279	1905	1966
	Caucasian	76,282	1935.205	10.8192	1904	1966
Men						
Health Deficit Index	All	80,823	0.1866	0.1548	0	0.9697
	African American	12,079	0.2114	0.1754	0	0.9429
	Caucasian	66,341	0.1814	0.1495	0	0.9697
log(Health Deficit Index)	All	80,042	-2.0197	0.9106	-7.1662	-0.0308
	African American	11,970	-1.9091	0.9225	-6.0403	-0.0588
	Caucasian	65,684	-2.0428	0.9058	-7.1663	-0.0308
Age	All	80,823	66.7760	9.6597	50	90
	African American	12,079	65.0423	9.2169	50	90
	Caucasian	66,341	67.2144	9.7112	50	90
Year of Birth	All	80,823	1937.047	10.6306	1904	1964
	African American	12,079	1939.818	11.2095	1905	1964
	Caucasian	66,341	1936.335	10.3627	1904	1964

Summary statistics are shown in Table 1. Individuals are born between 1904 and 1966 with an average year of birth of 1936. On average, elderly Americans display a health deficit index of about 20 percent. Women are on average more frail than men and African Americans are more frail than Caucasians. The difference between the number of all individuals and the sum of Caucasians and African Americans results from the presence of individuals of other ethnicities (Hispanics, Asians, etc). The sample contains 16,486 more female than male observations.

⁴In the first core sample, the HRS includes three oversamples. The sample is designed to increase African American and Hispanic individuals, and residents living in the state of Florida. The dataset includes compensatory weights. However, since the dataset is cleaned according to limitations described above, the original structure of the sample is not preserved. Thus, sample weights will be ignored for the main analysis. This approach is also supported by Yang and Lee (2009), who also used the HRS dataset to construct a health deficit index, refraining from using sample weights. They argue that it will not lead to significantly different results and they follow the recommendations of Winship and Radbill (1994).

We estimate the log-linear relationship between age and health deficits with the following equation:

$$\log D_{iw} = \beta + \alpha \cdot age_{iw} + \sum_{t=1}^{max} \gamma_t \cdot yob_{it} + \varepsilon_{iw} \quad (1)$$

where i represents the individual, w the wave, age represents the age at the end of the interview and yob is a set of year of birth fixed effects, t refers to the year of the birth and ε is the error term. We estimate (1) separately for gender given that previous research showed that men and women age differently (e.g. Mitnitski et al., 2002; Abeliansky and Strulik, 2018a). Since we have broad information on ethnicity, we also estimated the model for two subsamples (African American and Caucasian). The log-linear equation implies that health deficits accumulate exponentially with age, $D = Re^{\alpha \cdot age}$, with $R = e^{\beta}$, akin to the Gompertz (1825) law of mortality.

3. PANEL ESTIMATION RESULTS

3.1. Similarities and Disparities of Individual Aging. Results from log-linear regressions for women and men are shown in Tables 2 and 3. We first focus on individual aging and thus the preferred estimation method includes individual fixed-effects to account for unobserved heterogeneity at the individual level. Results are shown in columns (1) to (3). In line with previous research, we find that the age coefficient is higher for men than for women and the constant is lower for men. For the whole sample, the health deficit index for men increases by 5.6 percent and the one for women by 5.0 percent by each additional chronological year of age. This means that men age faster but start out healthier than women. The regional fixed-effects are mostly insignificant. Since we control for individual fixed-effects, the regional coefficients pick up the health impact of moving. The omitted region is the Northeast. Apparently, moving to the South is associated with less health deficits for both men and women. The causality, however, is unclear. It may well be that richer and thus healthier individuals are more motivated to move to a warmer climate after retirement. For Caucasians of both genders, the age coefficient is higher and the constant is lower than for African Americans, implying that initially healthier Caucasians age faster than African Americans.

Although attrition rates are low in the HRS (Banks et al., 2011), we performed a variable addition test, as suggested by Verbeek and Nijman (1992) and as employed by Contoyannis et al. (2004). We have added as an extra variable whether a person is present in the next wave or not. Although the added variable is statistically significant, we find no evidence of attrition

affecting our results. Tables A5 and A6 in the Appendix show these results. Moreover, we have performed another two robustness tests. The first is to reduce the maximum age from 90 to 85 and the second one to eliminate the age restriction. The results can be found in Tables A7-A10 in the Appendix and they do not differ significantly from those of Tables 2 and 3.

TABLE 2. PANEL ESTIMATION RESULTS: WOMEN

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Age	0.0504*** (0.00160)	0.0457*** (0.00127)	0.0517*** (0.00177)	0.0504*** (0.00161)	0.0457*** (0.00127)	0.0517*** (0.00178)
Midwest	-0.0406 (0.0431)	0.149* (0.0804)	-0.0757 (0.0501)	-0.0409 (0.0430)	0.149* (0.0804)	-0.0760 (0.0499)
South	-0.0652** (0.0321)	-0.0237 (0.0554)	-0.0691* (0.0365)	-0.0655** (0.0321)	-0.0235 (0.0555)	-0.0697* (0.0363)
West	-0.0547 (0.0444)	0.0175 (0.125)	-0.0750 (0.0479)	-0.0553 (0.0443)	0.176 (0.0125)	-0.0757 (0.0478)
Year of birth				-0.00989*** (0.00232)	-0.0104*** (0.00267)	-0.0152*** (0.00232)
Mean Age				-0.0419*** (0.00417)	-0.0434*** (0.00438)	-0.0455*** (0.00427)
Constant	-5.185*** (0.109)	-4.607*** (0.0972)	-5.350*** (0.122)	16.94*** (4.670)	18.58*** (5.407)	27.10*** (4.664)
Sample	All	African American	Caucasian	All	African American	Caucasian
Method	FE	FE	FE	Mundlak	Mundlak	Mundlak
Observations	96414	18224	75442	96414	18224	75442

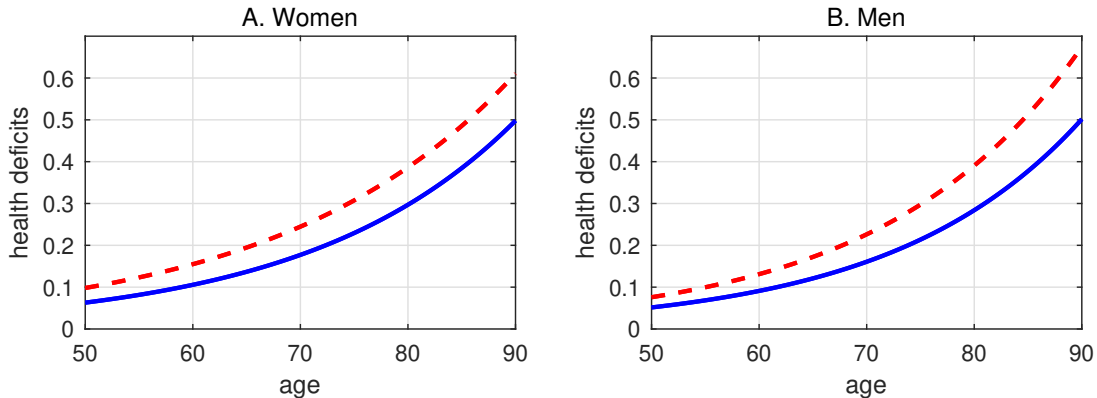
Robust standard errors clustered at the year of birth level in parenthesis. All columns include regional fixed effects, the baseline category is the region "Northeast", columns (1)-(3) further include individual fixed effects. Columns (4) - (6) further control for the year of birth and the (time) means of the time changing variables. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

TABLE 3. PANEL ESTIMATION RESULTS: MEN

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Age	0.0566*** (0.00122)	0.0546*** (0.00148)	0.0569*** (0.00128)	0.0565*** (0.00123)	0.0545*** (0.00148)	0.0568*** (0.00128)
Midwest	-0.0332 (0.0406)	-0.173 (0.118)	-0.00692 (0.0449)	-0.0331 (0.0406)	-0.168 (0.118)	-0.00742 (0.0450)
South	-0.112*** (0.0361)	-0.175** (0.0802)	-0.0985** (0.0419)	-0.112** (0.0362)	-0.177** (0.0786)	-0.0987** (0.0419)
West	-0.117** (0.0507)	-0.224** (0.107)	-0.105* (0.0552)	-0.115** (0.0511)	-0.207** (0.105)	-0.106* (0.0555)
Year of birth				-0.00835*** (0.00164)	-0.00172 (0.00227)	-0.0130*** (0.00177)
Mean Age				-0.0461*** (0.00273)	-0.0392*** (0.00325)	-0.0497*** (0.00295)
Constant	-5.725*** (0.0939)	-5.308*** (0.0977)	-5.811*** (0.101)	13.46*** (3.299)	0.408 (4.548)	22.62*** (3.572)
Sample	All	African American	Caucasian	All	African American	Caucasian
Method	FE	FE	FE	Mundlak	Mundlak	Mundlak
Observations	80042	11970	65684	80042	11970	65684

Robust standard errors clustered at the year of birth level in parenthesis. All columns include regional fixed effects, the baseline category is the region "Northeast", columns (1)-(3) further include individual fixed effects. Columns (4) - (6) further control for the year of birth and the (time) means of the time changing variables. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

FIGURE 1: HEALTH-DEPENDENT SURVIVAL AND SURVIVAL BY AGE



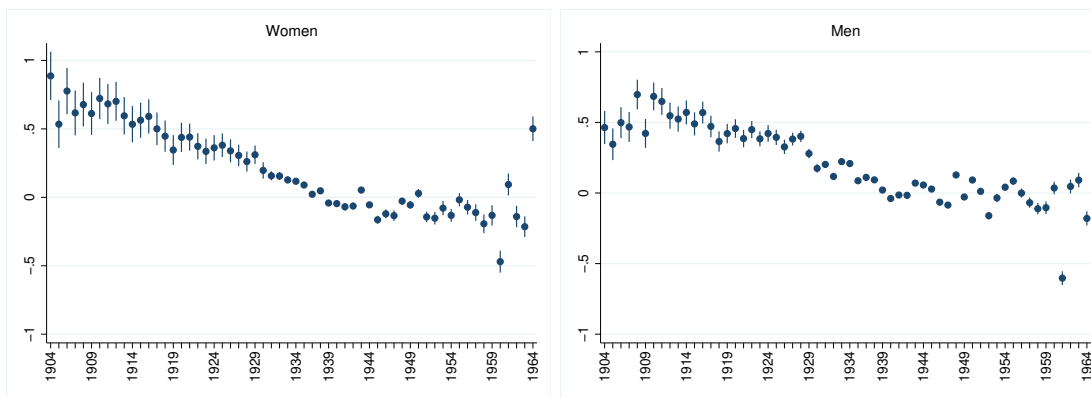
Solid (blue) lines: predicted health deficits by age for Caucasians. Red (dashed) lines: predicted health deficits by age for African Americans.

Figure 1 visualizes these estimation results by showing the predicted health deficits by age implied by the point estimates from column (2) and (3) in Table 2 and 3. It reveals a feature that is hard to discern from the estimates in Tables 2 and 3, namely that Caucasians (represented by blue solid lines), at any age, have developed less health deficits than African Americans (represented by red dashed lines). On average, African Americans display a 7 percentage points higher health deficit index and the difference between African Americans and Caucasians becomes larger as individuals grow older, in particular for men. The Figure also shows that about the same health deficit index is predicted for Caucasian men and women at age 90. Since women started with more health deficits (larger constant), this means that they display more health deficits at any age below 90 but that the difference between men and women vanishes as individuals grow older. We return to this feature in Section 4.

3.2. Aging of Cohorts. We next look at cohort-effects on aging by including year-of-birth fixed effects. This implies that we have to drop the individual fixed effects. In order to still control for individual heterogeneity, we follow the Mundlak (1978) approach. The Mundlak estimator is composed of a random effects regression that includes time averages (at the individual level) of the time-changing variables. Results of the Mundlak specification are presented in columns (4) to (6) in Tables 2 and 3. The Mundlak term ‘Mean Age’ is statistically significant in all regressions, thus reinforcing the results of the Hausman test that there is heterogeneity at the individual level (correlated with the force of aging). The (rather) long Tables containing all year of birth dummies are included in the Appendix (Tables A3 and A4). The main takeaway

from these regressions is that the year of birth coefficient is always significant and that its size declines almost linearly in the year of birth. This feature is visualized in Figure 2. The reference year of birth is 1934.⁵ The declining trend is clearly visible and the impression of linearity is only blurred at very low and very high years of birth. This variation can be attributed to the low number of observations at both ends of the year-of-birth range, as shown in Table A2 in the Appendix.

FIGURE 2: YEAR OF BIRTH FIXED EFFECTS



Year of birth fixed effects retrieved from the Mundlak regressions (Tables 2 and 3, column (4))

Encouraged by the (almost-) linear decline of the year-of-birth coefficient, we replaced the year-of-birth dummies by a constant year of birth trend. Results are shown in columns (4) to (6) of Tables 2 and 3. Considering the whole sample, we observe that women have about 1 percent less health deficits per later year of birth. For men, the health trend is slightly but insignificantly smaller than for women (at 0.84 ± 0.16 percent per year). The health trend can be interpreted as access to better health care and improving health technology, broadly interpreted, including, for example, better knowledge about the health-damaging impact of smoking.

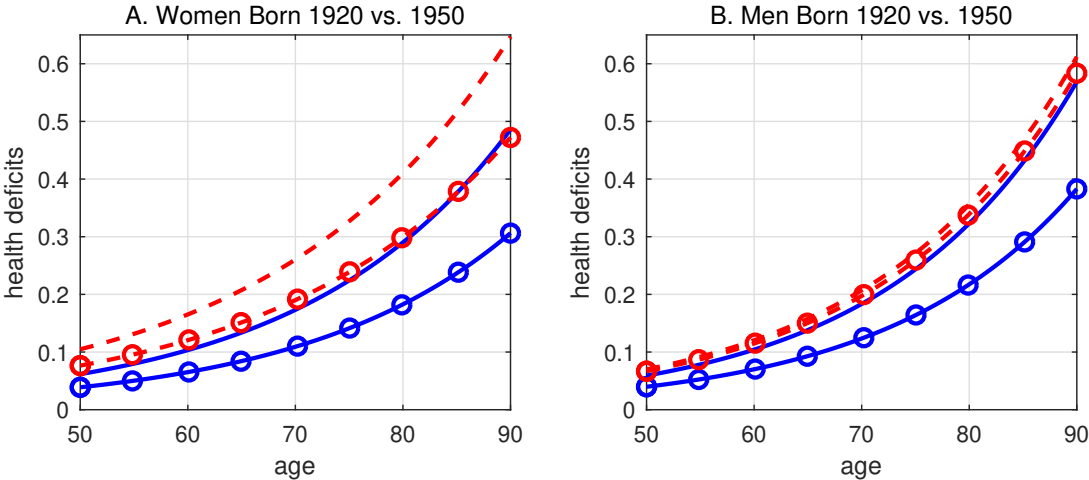
In earlier work, a higher health trend has been estimated for 14 European countries (Abeliansky and Strulik, 2019). Europeans displayed 1.4-1.5 less health deficits per later year of birth, with insignificant differences between men and women and between countries. Together, the results suggest that Americans benefit to a lower degree from perpetual medical progress. This is a remarkable result, since we would expect that medical knowledge advances not at a slower pace in a technological frontier country such as the U.S. The result, however, is refined when

⁵Alternatively, we have used two different reference values for the year of birth (1913 and 1953) and the results remained unchanged.

we split the sample by ethnicity. We then find that the health trends for Caucasian women (1.53 ± 0.27 percent) and men (1.32 ± 0.18 percent) differs insignificantly from the estimated European trends, see columns (5) and (6) in Table 2 and 3. African Americans, however, face a significantly slower health trend. In particular, the trend estimate differs insignificantly from zero for African American men, suggesting that this group does not benefit much from generally improving health status in the elderly population.

In Tables A3 and A4 in the Appendix we provide the results of the year of birth trend interacted with region fixed effects. For men and women the coefficients of the interaction are similar to the coefficient of the general year of birth trend and highly significant. This means that the observed decline of health deficits is not specific to a region - but observable and similar in size across all regions.

FIGURE 3: HEALTH-DEPENDENT SURVIVAL AND SURVIVAL BY AGE



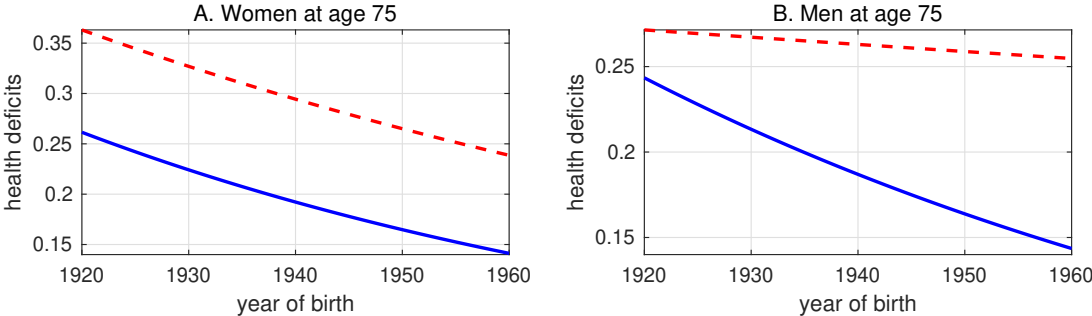
Predicted aging process from estimates in columns (5) and (6) of Tables 2 and 3: Caucasians (blue solid lines) and African Americans (red dashed lines) born 1920 (no markers) and born 1950 (circles).

Finally, we visualize the estimated health trends. Figure 3 shows the predicted aging process of Caucasians (blue solid lines) and African Americans (red dashed lines) born 1920 (no markers) and born 1950 (circles). The later born cohorts of Caucasian women and men are predicted to display significantly fewer health deficits at any age. On average, thirty years of later birth shifts the age trajectory of health deficits down by about 7 percentage points. The shift, however, is not parallel, the health gain from later birth increases in age. For example, the health deficit index that the 1920-cohort of women displayed at age 60 (age 75) is predicted for the 1950 cohort at age 67 (age 89). Caucasian men experience similar albeit slightly smaller health gains

from late birth. Significant improvements in health are also predicted for African American women. For example, a health deficit index of 0.21, displayed at age 65 of the 1920-cohort, is predicted for the 1950-cohort at age 72. At that age, the 1950-cohort of African American women arrives at about the same health deficit index of the 1920-cohort of Caucasian women. The 1950-cohort of Caucasian women, in contrast is significantly healthier, and displays a deficit index of 0.21 only at age 82. African American men born 1920 differed less from Caucasians than their female counterparts. However, they did not benefit from generally improving health and the 1950-cohort is still at any age less healthy than Caucasians born in 1920.

Figure 4 provides a different view on the same information. It shows the health deficits predicted by year of birth for a 75 year old person, separately for gender and ethnicity. Again, blue (solid) lines represent Caucasians and red (dashed) lines African Americans. The figure shows the steady improvement of health status with year of birth. For Caucasians, the health deficit index declined from a level of about 0.25 for the 1920 cohort to a predicted level below 0.15 for the 1960 cohort. The health deficit index that Caucasian women had in 1920 is reached by African American women of the 1951-cohort. In our dataset, which comprises only elderly Americans, the health status of African American and Caucasian men diverges over time. In contrast to the now young and middle-aged, this group was not much affected by the opioid epidemic. The evidence compiled in Case and Deaton (2017) suggests that the divergence result will not be robust with respect to mortality of later born cohorts due deteriorating health and premature death of young and middle-aged non-college educated Caucasians.

FIGURE 4: HEALTH-DEPENDENT SURVIVAL AND SURVIVAL BY AGE



Predicted aging process from estimates columns (5) and (6) of Tables 2 and 3: Caucasians (blue solid lines) and African Americans (red dashed lines).

4. NONLINEAR REGRESSION RESULTS

4.1. Basic Results. In this section, we shift the focus from the aging of individuals and cohort to the aging of U.S. American sub-populations. We also abandon the log-linear specification and estimate a quasi-exponential relationship according to the Gompertz-Makeham structure. This approach is motivated by the conceptual similarity of aging understood as health deficit accumulation and aging understood as increasing mortality (Mitnitski et al., 2002a). Makeham (1860) proposed to add a constant (capturing non aging-related death) to the Gompertz (1825) model of mortality, resulting in a log-linear association of the rate of mortality with age. The Gompertz-Makeham model turned out to be very successful in predicting death at the population level and its parameters have been estimated with great precision (Arking, 2006; Olshansky and Carnes, 1997). If health deficits are also accumulated in Gompertz-Makeham fashion, then ignoring the Makeham-term would indeed seriously bias the results, as shown by Gavrilov and Gavrilova (1991). Using the pooled sample, we estimate the accumulation of health deficits with the following model:

$$D_i = A + R \cdot e^{\alpha \cdot age_i} + \epsilon_i, \quad (2)$$

separately for gender and ethnicity and later also separately for the main U.S. American regions. For linguistic convenience, we refer to A as the Makeham term and α and R as Gompertz terms. The Makeham term A measures environmental or region-specific factors such as the efficiency of health care institutions, i.e. factors that influence health deficits independently of age.

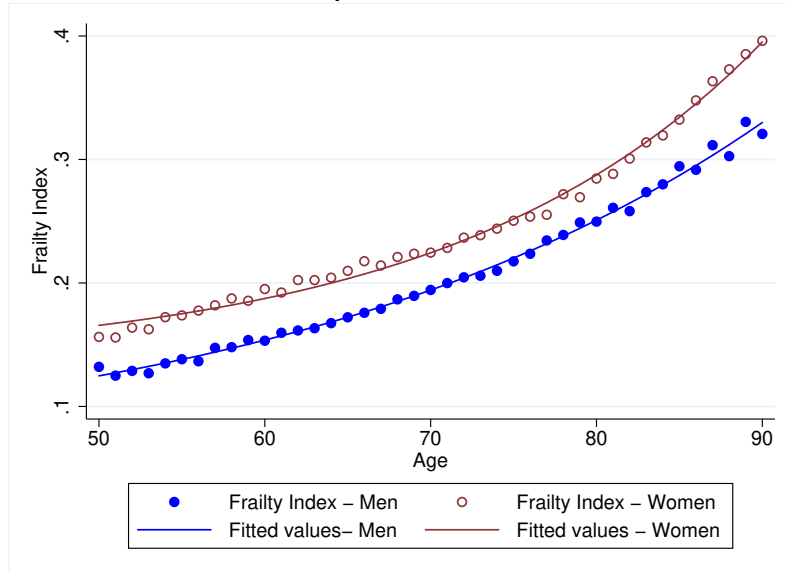
TABLE 4. RESULTS: NONLINEAR LEAST SQUARES

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
A	0.0525*** (0.0100)	0.138*** (0.00384)	0.112*** (0.0215)	0.165*** (0.0153)	0.0223* (0.0130)	0.108*** (0.00478)
R	0.0134*** (0.00328)	0.00209*** (0.000422)	0.00662 (0.00509)	0.00589* (0.00312)	0.0199*** (0.00503)	0.00329*** (0.000667)
α	0.0337*** (0.00245)	0.0534*** (0.00220)	0.0405*** (0.00809)	0.0429*** (0.00557)	0.0303*** (0.00246)	0.0493*** (0.00218)
Sample	All	All	African American	African American	Caucasian	Caucasian
Gender	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
R^2	0.0892	0.0900	0.0560	0.0682	0.1070	0.1153
Observations	80823	97321	12079	18273	66341	76282

Robust standard errors in parenthesis. * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$.

Regression results are shown in Table 4. The Makeham term is statistically significantly different from zero and larger for women than for men as well as larger for African Americans than for Caucasians. It is largest for African American women. These results may reflect that

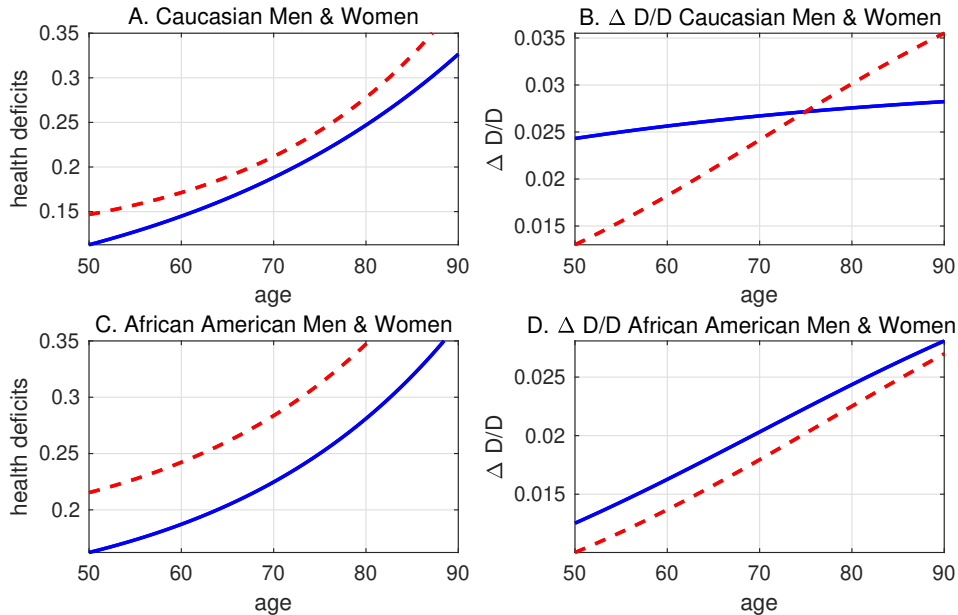
FIGURE 5: NONLINEAR LEAST SQUARES RESULTS AND BINNED DATA POINTS



access and quality of health care is biased against women and African Americans (Agency for Healthcare Research and Quality, 2014; Chapman et al, 2013; Hall et al, 2015). As indicated by the R^2 -values, the explained variation of health deficits is rather low. However, this feature simply reflects the fact that aging is highly idiosyncratic. At the population level, the accumulation of health deficits with age looks almost deterministic. This is shown in Figure 5 where the predicted health deficits from column (1) and (2) in Table 4 are confronted with the actual mean health deficit index by age. Averaging over age takes out most of the idiosyncrasies and the prediction fits the data reasonably well. This feature is also reflected in Table A13 in the Appendix, which shows an R^2 above 0.99 when the data is binned in annual age groups. The estimated coefficients in the binned regressions differ insignificantly from the results for the non-binned data. As an additional robustness test, Tables A11 and A12 in the Appendix show the results without age restriction for a lower cutoff age of 85. Again, results are very similar to those from the basic regressions of Table 4.

The estimated coefficient of the age-term (α) in Table 4 is larger for women than for men. This seemingly suggests a contradiction to the findings from log-linear regression, where the speed of aging of men was slightly higher. The speed of aging, however, can no longer be read of from the age-coefficient. It is given by $\dot{D}/D = \alpha Re^{at}/(A + Re^{at})$ and varies with age for $A \neq 0$. Figure 6 illustrates the regression results from column (3) to (6) of Table 4. The panels on the left-hand side confirm the earlier result that women (represented by red dashed lines) are predicted to display more health deficits than equally aged men (represented by blue solid

FIGURE 6: HEALTH DEFICIT ACCUMULATION AND SPEED OF AGING



Left-hand side: predicted health deficits by age. Right-hand side: predicted speed of aging $\Delta D/D$. Solid (blue) lines: Men. Red (dashed) lines: Women.

lines). The panels on the right hand side show the implied speed of aging, i.e. the rate at which new health deficits are accumulated. For Caucasian men, for which A is close to zero, the speed of aging is almost constant. For the other groups, the speed of aging is increasing with age. Compared to women, the speed of aging is greater for African American men and for Caucasian men below 75, which largely confirms the earlier results.

4.2. Regional Disparities. We next focus on aging in the four main U.S. American regions classified in the HRS Data: Northeast, Midwest, South, and West.⁶ Since there are too few African Americans in some regions for consistent estimates, we only keep the distinction between men and women and focus on the sample split by regions instead. Tables 5 and 6 show the results from nonlinear regressions. The Makeham term is significantly positive for women of all regions and everywhere greater than for men, suggesting that the potential health care bias obtained above for the whole country is also present in every region, with insignificant differences between regions. The estimated α -coefficients differ across regions. Since the α estimates are quite precise, this suggests that people age faster in some regions than others. Interestingly,

⁶The HRS divides the USA into eight Census Divisions. These Census Divisions are then recoded by the HRS into the larger four Census Regions. Since the sample size of the eight Census Divisions is too small to estimate consistently the parameters of interest, we use the four larger Census Regions for the analysis of the regional disparities.

regions that display a high α -coefficient simultaneously display a low value of the R -coefficient. Since $R + A$ captures initial health deficits at age 50 and since A does not systematically vary across regions (at least for women), the results suggest that there is regional convergence: people age faster in regions where they are initially healthier.

TABLE 5. NONLINEAR LEAST SQUARES BY REGION: WOMEN

	Northeast	Midwest	South	West
A	0.136*** (0.00919)	0.127*** (0.00701)	0.134*** (0.00779)	0.130*** (0.00661)
R	0.00223** (0.00112)	0.00215*** (0.000767)	0.00415*** (0.00128)	0.00119** (0.000507)
alpha	0.0517*** (0.00543)	0.0533*** (0.00387)	0.0464*** (0.00328)	0.0599*** (0.00471)
Observations	18443	26346	45008	19882
R^2	0.081	0.105	0.083	0.101

Robust standard errors in parenthesis. ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

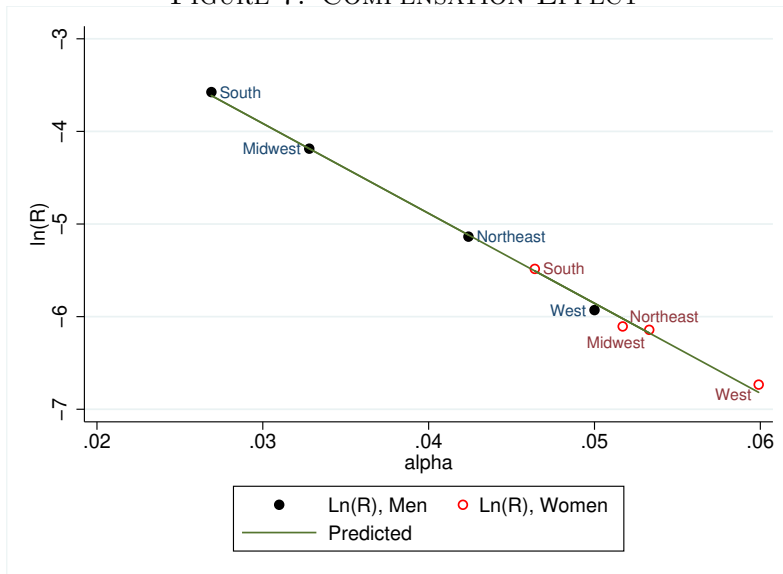
TABLE 6. NONLINEAR LEAST SQUARES BY REGION: MEN

	Northeast	Midwest	South	West
A	0.0683*** (0.0146)	0.0355* (0.0189)	0.0230 (0.0248)	0.0879*** (0.00990)
R	0.00588* (0.00306)	0.0152** (0.00653)	0.0280** (0.0113)	0.00266* (0.00140)
alpha	0.0424*** (0.00548)	0.0328*** (0.00425)	0.0269*** (0.00376)	0.0500*** (0.00574)
Observations	14246	21987	37199	17440
R^2	0.108	0.110	0.079	0.088

Robust standard errors in parenthesis. ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

The negative relationship between the parameters R and α is known in the demographic literature as Strehler-Mildvan (1960)-correlation, or “compensation effect of mortality” (Gavrilov and Gavrilova, 1991). There, sub-populations with lower initial mortality display a larger increase of mortality with age such that there exists a common age at which all sub-populations display the same mortality rate. This population-specific constant has been conceptualized as life span of the population (Gavrilov and Gavrilova, 1991; Strulik and Vollmer, 2013). Figure 7 shows that a similar regularity is also visible for health deficit accumulation in the U.S. Men from the South and Midwest are initially, at age 50, less healthy than men from the West but age subsequently slower. A similar relation exists for women. Taken together, the picture suggests a linear relationship between α and $\log R$.

FIGURE 7: COMPENSATION EFFECT



In order to explore this relationship further, we follow Mitnitski et al. (2002a) and regress $\log R$ on α across regions and gender:

$$\log R_{rg} = \beta - T \cdot \alpha_{rg}, \tag{3}$$

in which R_{rg} and α_{rg} are the regional- and gender-specific parameter estimates from Table 5 and 6. Results are shown in Table 7. The coefficient for T is estimated to be close to 97 in column (1). The next column controls for gender by adding a female dummy variable. The dummy variable is not significant and the point estimate for T increases by two years but differs insignificantly from the estimate of column (1). Since the female dummy is not statistically significant, we prefer the specification from column (1) because of the higher degrees of freedom. The estimate implies that individuals, across states and regardless of their gender, will accumulate the same aging-related level of health deficits at an age of 97.1 ± 2.1 . To see why T indicates a population-specific constant insert the estimate from equation (3) into equation (2) to obtain $D_i - A = Me^{-\alpha_{rg}(age_i - T)}$, with $M \equiv e^\beta$. Thus, controlling for aging-independent health A , the data predicts that on average, U.S. American men and women from all regions have developed the same health deficit index at age T .

5. CONCLUSION

In this paper we constructed a health deficit index for U.S. American individuals from 13 waves of the Health and Retirement Study and estimated biological aging as a (quasi-) exponential

TABLE 7. COMPENSATION EFFECT

	(1)	(2)
T	-97.10*** (2.126)	-99.09*** (3.121)
β	-1.001*** (0.0990)	-0.939*** (0.123)
female		0.0569 (0.0641)
Observations	8	8
R^2	0.997	0.998
Adjusted R^2	0.997	0.997

Standard errors in parentheses

* $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

process of health deficit accumulation. We found that, on average, Americans develop 5 percent more health deficits per year, that men age slightly faster than women, and that, at any age above 50, Caucasians display significantly less health deficits than African Americans. We also document a steady time trend of health improvements. For each year of later birth, health deficits decline on average by about 1 percent. This health trend is about the same across regions and for men and women but significantly lower for African Americans compared to Caucasians. The health trend implies, for example, that Caucasian women born 1950 display the same health deficit index at age 72 as women born 1920 at age 65. The health gain is similar for later born cohorts of Caucasian men. The health trend for Caucasians advances at 1.3–1.5 percent per year and differs insignificantly from the trend estimated for men and women from 14 European countries. Since these countries have very different health care systems but likely about the same access to medical technology, the results suggest that medical progress, broadly defined, advances at a rate of about 1.3 to 1.5 percent per year. While African American women also participate (albeit to a lower degree) at the generally improving health status, we find only insignificant health gains for African American men. This means that health disparities between ethnicities become larger over time. In non-linear regressions, we find that regional differences in aging follow a particular regularity, akin to the compensation effect of mortality. Health deficits converge for men and women and across American regions and suggest a life span of the American population of about 97 years. We also find non-aging related health deficits to be larger for women and African Americans than for Caucasian men, which corroborates previous findings on the presence of biased access to health care.

The health deficit model implies that health deficits are accumulated in a (quasi-) exponential way with increasing age t , $D(t) = e^{\alpha t}$. The first derivative of this expression provides the increase of health deficits by age. It can be written as $dD(t)/dt = \alpha D(t)$. This means that unhealthy individuals, i.e. individuals who display already many health deficits, develop more new health deficits than healthy individuals. Another popular model in health economics, is based on the idea of health capital accumulation (Grossman, 1972). There, the assumption of health depreciation at a (potentially age-dependent) rate $\delta(t)$ implies that, at any age t , individuals lose health capital $\delta(t)H(t)$ through health capital depreciation, which means that healthy individuals who are equipped with a high health capital stock $H(t)$, lose more health capital through health depreciation than unhealthy individuals with low $H(t)$. In other words, the health capital model predicts the opposite of the health deficit model. The evidence in this paper rejects the health capital model and supports the health deficit model for the aging of U.S. Americans. It confirms earlier studies who found a similar (quasi-) exponential growth of health deficits for Canadians and Europeans.

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APPENDIX A. APPENDIX

TABLE A1. HEALTH DEFICIT ITEMS FROM THE HRS RAND DATASET

Dimension	Coding	Wave included
Arthritis	yes= 1, no=0	1
Stroke	yes= 1, no=0, TIA=0.5	1
Diabetes	yes= 1, no=0	1
Lung disease (expect Asthma)	yes= 1, no=0	1
Psychological problem	yes= 1, no=0	1
High Blood Pressure	yes= 1, no=0	1
Heart problem	yes= 1, no=0	1
Cancer	yes=1, no=0	1
Difficulties sitting 2h	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties dressing	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties bathing/showering w/o help	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties walking across room	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties lifting 10lbs	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties eating	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties pushing /pulling large object	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties using toilet	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	2
Difficulties using map	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties use a telephone	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	2
Difficulties kneeling/stoop/crouch	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties get in /out of bed	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties managing money	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	2
Difficulties taking medication	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	2
Difficulties shopping groceries	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	3
Difficulties preparing hot meals	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	2
Difficulties walking several blocks	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties jogging 1 mile	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties walk 1 block	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties get up from chair	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties climb several flight stair	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties climb 1 flight stairs	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties picking up a dime	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Difficulties reach/extend arms up	no=0, yes=1, can't do=1, don't do=.	1
Back problems	yes= 1, no=0	1
Frequency of moderate physical activity	everyday=0, > 1per week=0.25, 1per week=0.5, 1-3 per month=0.75, never=1	7
BMI	BMI \geq 30 or BMI \leq 18.5=1, 25 \leq BMI $<$ 30=0.5, 18.5 $<$ BMI $<$ 25=0	1
Hospital overnight stay	yes= 1, no=0	1
Nursing home stay prev 2 yrs	yes= 1, no=0	1
Living in nursing home at Interview	yes= 1, no=0	3

TABLE A2. NUMBER OF OBSERVATIONS BY YEAR OF BIRTH

Year of Birth	Observations	Year of Birth	Observations	Year of Birth	Observations	Year of Birth	Observations	Year of Birth	Observations	Year of Birth	Observations		
1904	2	1914	886	1924	2,771	1934	6,988	1944	2,559	1954	2,110	1964	13
1905	61	1915	1,076	1925	2,991	1935	7,198	1945	2,439	1955	1,922	1965	1
1906	83	1916	1,145	1926	3,423	1936	7,283	1946	3,452	1956	1,905	1966	4
1907	162	1917	1,479	1927	3,685	1937	7,700	1947	3,419	1957	2,112		
1908	237	1918	1,938	1928	3,935	1938	7,926	1948	2,994	1958	2,230		
1909	346	1919	1,955	1929	3,660	1939	7,911	1949	2,702	1959	2,180		
1910	401	1920	2,398	1930	4,482	1940	8,184	1950	2,920	1960	457		
1911	519	1921	2,608	1931	6,149	1941	8,345	1951	2,828	1961	132		
1912	714	1922	2,880	1932	6,548	1942	4,404	1952	3,287	1962	28		
1913	898	1923	2,771	1933	5,919	1943	2,559	1953	3,181	1963	7		

TABLE A5. ROBUSTNESS FE & MUNDLAK PRESENT NEXT WAVE, WOMEN

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Age	0.0494*** (0.00148)	0.0455*** (0.00127)	0.0505*** (0.00164)	0.0492*** (0.00147)	0.0454*** (0.00127)	0.0502*** (0.00163)
Midwest	-0.0403 (0.0429)	0.150* (0.0804)	-0.0762 (0.0498)	-0.0405 (0.0428)	0.150* (0.0804)	-0.0766 (0.0497)
South	-0.0640* (0.0321)	-0.0232 (0.0554)	-0.0680* (0.0363)	-0.0642** (0.0320)	-0.0229 (0.0555)	-0.0684* (0.0362)
West	-0.0540 (0.0441)	0.0180 (0.125)	-0.0745 (0.0474)	-0.0544 (0.0439)	0.0181 (0.125)	-0.0751 (0.0472)
Year of birth				-0.00924*** (0.00213)	-0.0103*** (0.00264)	-0.0143*** (0.00210)
Mean Age				-0.0398*** (0.00375)	-0.0429*** (0.00430)	-0.0428*** (0.00382)
Responded next wave	-0.0389*** (0.0105)	-0.00834 (0.0118)	-0.0493*** (0.0111)	-0.0461*** (0.0105)	-0.00940 (0.0115)	-0.0568*** (0.0111)
Constant	-5.085*** (0.0980)	-4.585*** (0.0980)	-5.224*** (0.110)	15.44*** (4.304)	18.31*** (5.342)	25.24*** (4.230)
Sample	All	African American	Caucasian	All	African American	Caucasian
N	96414	18224	75442	96414	18224	75442

Standard errors clustered at the year of birth level in parentheses. The (time) means of the time changing variables are included in columns (4) to (6).
 * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

TABLE A6. ROBUSTNESS FE & MUNDLAK PRESENT NEXT WAVE, MEN

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Age	0.0549*** (0.00107)	0.0540*** (0.00135)	0.0550*** (0.00112)	0.0546*** (0.00106)	0.0536*** (0.00133)	0.0547*** (0.00110)
Midwest	-0.0328 (0.0401)	-0.173 (0.117)	-0.00694 (0.0444)	-0.0327 (0.0400)	-0.167 (0.118)	-0.00744 (0.0445)
South	-0.109*** (0.0359)	-0.173** (0.0801)	-0.0963** (0.0417)	-0.109*** (0.0359)	-0.174** (0.0785)	-0.0963** (0.0417)
West	-0.115** (0.0502)	-0.221** (0.107)	-0.104* (0.0545)	-0.113** (0.0505)	-0.203* (0.105)	-0.105* (0.0547)
Year of birth				-0.00745*** (0.00148)	-0.00144 (0.00223)	-0.0118*** (0.00160)
Mean Age				-0.0429*** (0.00230)	-0.0378*** (0.00301)	-0.0461*** (0.00251)
Responded next wave	-0.0604*** (0.0130)	-0.0212 (0.0154)	-0.0700*** (0.0132)	-0.0702*** (0.0128)	-0.0303* (0.0158)	-0.0787*** (0.0129)
Constant	-5.568*** (0.0842)	-5.252*** (0.0908)	-5.628*** (0.0900)	11.69*** (2.975)	-0.146 (4.473)	20.34*** (3.226)
Sample	All	African American	Caucasian	All	African American	Caucasian
N	80042	11970	65684	80042	11970	65684

Standard errors clustered at the year of birth level in parentheses. The (time) means of the time changing variables are included in columns (4) to (6).
 * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

TABLE A7. LINEAR RESULTS WOMEN, AGE RESTRICTION 50-85

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Age	0.0485*** (0.00125)	0.0448*** (0.00119)	0.0495*** (0.00139)	0.0485*** (0.00127)	0.0449*** (0.00119)	0.0496*** (0.00141)
Midwest	-0.0245 (0.0433)	0.145* (0.0816)	-0.0596 (0.0505)	-0.0225 (0.0431)	0.149* (0.0816)	-0.0577 (0.0501)
South	-0.0571* (0.0316)	-0.0233 (0.0510)	-0.0617* (0.0364)	-0.0561* (0.0315)	-0.0231 (0.0514)	-0.0603* (0.0363)
West	-0.0417 (0.0458)	0.0793 (0.114)	-0.0673 (0.0494)	-0.0399 (0.0455)	0.0782 (0.114)	-0.0649 (0.0491)
Year of birth				-0.0112*** (0.00245)	-0.0112*** (0.00268)	-0.0169*** (0.00253)
Mean Age				-0.0433*** (0.00400)	-0.0435*** (0.00427)	-0.0470*** (0.00411)
Constant	-5.040*** (0.0832)	-4.538*** (0.0920)	-5.189*** (0.0940)	19.58*** (4.939)	20.09*** (5.414)	30.55*** (5.086)
Sample	All	African American	Caucasian	All	African American	Caucasian
N	91386	17609	71102	91386	17609	71102

Standard errors clustered at the year of birth level in parentheses. The (time) means of the time changing variables are included in columns (4) to (6).
 * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

TABLE A8. LINEAR RESULTS MEN, AGE RESTRICTION 50-85

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Age	0.0554*** (0.00107)	0.0537*** (0.00140)	0.0557*** (0.00112)	0.0554*** (0.00108)	0.0536*** (0.00140)	0.0557*** (0.00113)
Midwest	-0.0361 (0.0397)	-0.159 (0.118)	-0.0116 (0.0441)	-0.0365 (0.0397)	-0.155 (0.119)	-0.0126 (0.0442)
South	-0.103*** (0.0351)	-0.150* (0.0794)	-0.0921** (0.0414)	-0.105*** (0.0351)	-0.153** (0.0777)	-0.0933** (0.0414)
West	-0.117** (0.0504)	-0.181* (0.102)	-0.110** (0.0546)	-0.117** (0.0508)	-0.167* (0.0996)	-0.111** (0.0548)
Year of birth				-0.00939*** (0.00178)	-0.00234 (0.00235)	-0.0142*** (0.00192)
Mean Age				-0.0471*** (0.00276)	-0.0401*** (0.00327)	-0.0508*** (0.00299)
Constant	-5.631*** (0.0846)	-5.254*** (0.0957)	-5.710*** (0.0909)	15.60*** (3.583)	1.716 (4.700)	25.21*** (3.876)
Sample	All	African American	Caucasian	All	African American	Caucasian
N	77308	11681	63265	77308	11681	63265

Standard errors clustered at the year of birth level in parentheses. The (time) means of the time changing variables are included in columns (4) to (6).
 * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

TABLE A9. LINEAR RESULTS WOMEN, WITHOUT UPPER AGE RESTRICTION

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Age	0.0518*** (0.00183)	0.0465*** (0.00136)	0.0532*** (0.00200)	0.0518*** (0.00183)	0.0465*** (0.00136)	0.0531*** (0.00201)
Midwest	-0.0371 (0.0418)	0.154* (0.0827)	-0.0719 (0.0484)	-0.0374 (0.0417)	0.154* (0.0827)	-0.0724 (0.0483)
South	-0.0628* (0.0317)	-0.0217 (0.0560)	-0.0649* (0.0359)	-0.0632** (0.0316)	-0.0215 (0.0560)	-0.0655* (0.0357)
West	-0.0501 (0.0442)	0.0224 (0.126)	-0.0692 (0.0482)	-0.0506 (0.0441)	0.0225 (0.126)	-0.0699 (0.0481)
Year of birth				-0.0105*** (0.00235)	-0.0105*** (0.00261)	-0.0162*** (0.00240)
Mean Age				-0.0414*** (0.00418)	-0.0421*** (0.00414)	-0.0454*** (0.00434)
Constant	-5.294*** (0.126)	-4.675*** (0.103)	-5.467*** (0.141)	17.73*** (4.736)	18.47*** (5.267)	28.87*** (4.811)
Sample	All	African American	Caucasian	All	African American	Caucasian
N	98914	18591	77545	98914	18591	77545

Standard errors clustered at the year of birth level in parentheses. The (time) means of the time changing variables are included in columns (4) to (6).
 * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

TABLE A10. LINEAR RESULTS MEN, WITHOUT UPPER AGE RESTRICTION

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Age	0.0573*** (0.00133)	0.0552*** (0.00154)	0.0576*** (0.00138)	0.0572*** (0.00133)	0.0551*** (0.00155)	0.0575*** (0.00138)
Midwest	-0.0315 (0.0414)	-0.176 (0.119)	-0.00483 (0.0460)	-0.0314 (0.0414)	-0.171 (0.119)	-0.00532 (0.0461)
South	-0.108*** (0.0360)	-0.182** (0.0813)	-0.0944** (0.0414)	-0.109*** (0.0361)	-0.183** (0.0798)	-0.0946** (0.0415)
West	-0.120** (0.0504)	-0.270** (0.114)	-0.102* (0.0552)	-0.119** (0.0508)	-0.253** (0.114)	-0.103* (0.0554)
Year of birth				-0.00884*** (0.00169)	-0.00189 (0.00228)	-0.0136*** (0.00182)
Mean Age				-0.0460*** (0.00282)	-0.0388*** (0.00326)	-0.0498*** (0.00302)
Constant	-5.782*** (0.101)	-5.346*** (0.101)	-5.872*** (0.108)	14.37*** (3.395)	0.669 (4.571)	23.80*** (3.653)
Sample	All	African American	Caucasian	All	African American	Caucasian
N	81034	12083	66552	81034	12083	66552

Standard errors clustered at the year of birth level in parentheses. The (time) means of the time changing variables are included in columns (4) to (6).
 * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

TABLE A11. NONLINEAR LEAST SQUARE

	Men	Women
A	0.0572*** (0.0111)	0.116*** (0.00775)
R	0.0118*** (0.00353)	0.00601*** (0.00174)
alpha	0.0350*** (0.00307)	0.0417*** (0.00309)
Observations	78088	92292
R^2	0.073	0.061
Adjusted R^2	0.073	0.061

Robust Standard errors in parentheses, age restriction 50-85, with initial values (M:(A 0.02 R 0.0031198 alpha 0.043), W:(A 0.02 R 0.0097548 alpha 0.031)). * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

TABLE A12. NONLINEAR LEAST SQUARE

	Men	Women
A	0.0506*** (0.00884)	0.136*** (0.00295)
R	0.0140*** (0.00289)	0.00221*** (0.000299)
alpha	0.0333*** (0.00204)	0.0528*** (0.00142)
Observations	81816	99821
R^2	0.101	0.123
Adjusted R^2	0.101	0.123

Robust Standard errors in parentheses, at least 50 years old without upper age restriction, with initial values (M:(A 0.02 R 0.0031198 alpha 0.043), W:(A 0.02 R 0.0097548 alpha 0.031)). * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

TABLE A13. NONLINEAR LEAST SQUARE

	Men	Women
A	0.0520*** (0.00987)	0.135*** (0.00552)
R	0.0136*** (0.00308)	0.00214*** (0.000562)
alpha	0.0335*** (0.00218)	0.0533*** (0.00278)
Observations	41	41
R^2	0.995	0.993
Adjusted R^2	0.995	0.993

Standard errors in parentheses. One-year binning, 50 - 90 age cutoff, with initial values (M:(A 0.02 R 0.0031198 alpha 0.043), W:(A 0.02 R 0.0097548 alpha 0.031)). * $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$