Cultural Assimilation during the Age of Mass Migration

Ran Abramitzky
Stanford University and NBER

Leah Boustan
UCLA and NBER

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Abstract: We explore cultural assimilation of European immigrants during the US during the Age of Mass Migration. First generation immigrants exhibit a strong tendency toward in-group marriage, which weakens by the second generation. At the same time, there is sizeable variation in the endogamy rate across countries of origin, with the strongest by Italians and the weakest by the Scots. On average, immigrant parents chose less foreign-sounding names for sons as they spend more time in the US (proxied by birth order); this pattern is muted for daughters, sons born abroad or sons of native-born parents. By this metric, German, Russian, and Scandinavian immigrants exhibit near-complete naming convergence with natives, while other groups – particularly Italian and Irish immigrants – retain distinctive naming patterns. Men given foreign names earned less than comparable sons of immigrant parents in 1940.

I. Introduction

Studies of immigrant assimilation in economics are mainly focused on labor market outcomes – in particular, whether immigrants' occupations and earnings converge to those of natives with time spent in the destination. Yet, public support for immigration restriction is often based on the perception that immigrants fail to *culturally* assimilate, continuing to speak foreign languages, live in enclave communities, and maintain their own cultural norms about schooling, work and leisure activities.

This paper provides one of the first quantitative analyses of the extent to which European immigrants experienced cultural assimilation in the United States during the Age of Mass Migration. We examine both an era of open borders to European immigration (1850-1916) and the subsequent period of immigration restriction (1917-1940). Although we cannot capture the full complexity of cultural assimilation, we propose to measure cultural assimilation in two ways: via inter-marriage rates and via the names that immigrant parents bestowed upon their native-born children.

Our preliminary analysis for marriage patterns considers immigrants in the 1920 and 1930 Census. We measure the share of immigrants who are married to spouses from the same country-of-origin, or to spouses whose parents hailed from that country. We find that first generation immigrants exhibited a strong tendency toward endogamy, which weakened by the second generation. There is sizeable variation in the endogamy rate across countries of origin, with the strongest endogamy for Italians and the weakest for the Scots.

Historical censuses allow us to observe the first name of all sons and daughters in immigrant and native households. Our preliminary analysis for naming practices is based on birth cohorts observed in the 1930 and 1940 Censuses. We find that immigrant parents selected

increasingly foreign-sounding names for children born between 1890 and 1915, as immigrant sending countries shift toward Southern and Eastern Europe. This pattern reversed for children born after 1915. Children born after 1915 received increasingly less foreign names, perhaps in response to a series of more restrictive immigration policies. Eventually, we plan to extend this Foreignness Index using the complete-count Census data from 1850-1940.

The swings in naming practices among immigrant parents were large enough to be culturally meaningful, being similar in magnitude to the notable adoption of distinctively black names among the African-American community in the late 1960s and early 1970s. Naming practice also attests to substantial variation in cultural assimilation by country-of-origin. By this measure, immigrants from England, for example, are already adapted to US culture upon arrival; Italian and Irish immigrants remain culturally separate over this period; and immigrants from Germany, Russia and Scandinavia exhibit a substantial degree of cultural assimilation.

We analyze the process of cultural assimilation in more detail by exploring name choices within households. We show that immigrant parents give more American names to children further down the birth order – that is, for those children born after their parents had spent more time in the US. No such relationship is found for children born abroad or for children of native-born parents, suggesting that the birth order patterns are not due to the practice of naming children after parents and grandparents (who themselves may have more foreign names). Furthermore, we find that parental time in the US only influences name selection for sons and not for daughters, perhaps because sons were more likely to be engaged in market work, while daughters participated in a (still largely endogamous) marriage market.

Finally, we estimate the return to having a less foreign-sounding name in the labor market. We find evidence that second-generation immigrants with less foreign names had higher

annual earnings. Names may be a proxy for having grown up in a more assimilated household, or may be a direct signal of ethnicity to employers. To disentangle these two channels, we plan to compare brothers from the same household with more/less foreign names.

II. Historical background

Opponents of open immigration often rely on cultural arguments to defend border restriction (Higham, 1955). From the 1890s onward, Congress proposed various measures to tighten immigration policies before finally imposing a literacy test in 1917 and strict quotas for entry in 1921 (Goldin, 1994). Henry Cabot Lodge, one of the main advocates of border closure in this period, argued that immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe "are not kindred either in race or language," and do not integrate themselves into US culture because they arrive "at an age when education is unlikely if not impossible and when the work of Americanizing them is in consequence correspondingly difficult." Summarizing the political debate over immigration restriction, King (2000, p. 11) writes that "hostility to economic migrants became subsumed into a more general fear of… so-called racially 'undesirable' immigrants. It was the unassimilability of new immigrants – in terms of several criteria such as race, mental compentance, or criminality – that vexed policy makers." Recent survey evidence suggests that, again today. cultural concerns outweigh economic factors in determining individual attitudes towards immigration policy (Citrin, Green, Muste and Wong, 1997; Hainmueller and Hiscox, 2007).

Assimilation into a destination society takes many forms, including acquisition of language skills and networks required to succeed in the labor market; the decision to associate with native born as neighbors, friends and marriage partners; and the adoption of local attitudes and norms. The literature on immigrant assimilation in economics has mainly focused on labor

market outcomes – in particular, whether immigrants' occupations and earnings converge to those of natives with time spent in the destination (Chiswick, 1978; Borjas, 1985; Lubotsky, 2007). Early work on the Age of Mass Migration found that immigrants held substantially lower-paid occupations than natives upon first arrival, but that they converged after spending some time in the US (Hatton, 1997; Minns, 2000). In a recent study, we show that initial gaps between immigrants and natives varied substantially by sending country, with some immigrants starting out ahead of natives and others starting out behind (Abramitzky, Boustan and Eriksson, 2014). Yet, regardless of starting point, immigrants moved up the occupational ladder at the same rate as natives, preserving the size of initial gaps over time.

III. Endogamy rates as a measure of cultural assimilation

One sign of assimilation is a high rate of inter-marriage between immigrants and either US natives or members of other immigrant groups (Gordon, 1964; Lieberson and Waters, 1988). In contrast, groups that have not assimilated into US society may be more likely to enter endogamous marriages within their own community. Endogamy could be a direct measure of marriage preferences or could be a proxy for the degree of cultural segregation between groups. That is, immigrants may be more likely to marry each other because they are more likely to interact with each other at school or in their neighborhoods. Inter-marriage is a relatively stringent measure of cultural assimilation because it requires not only that immigrants want to integrate into their new society, but also that the native born are willing to interact with new immigrants (Kalmijn, 1998).

We take a preliminary look at marriage patterns by constructing the proportion of marriages that are endogamous by country of origin in 1920 and 1930 (see also Pagnini and

Morgan, 1990 on endogamy rates during this period). In particular, we calculated the share of married immigrants whose spouse is either a first or second-generation immigrant from the same country of origin; here, we report patterns from the 1920 1 percent IPUMS sample for first generation immigrants and from the 1930 1 percent sample for second generation immigrants. We will eventually look at both first and second generation immigrants in the complete-count Census data for all years between 1870 and 1940.

Figure 1 reports endogamy rates for immigrants from 16 sending countries. First generation immigrants exhibited a strong tendency toward endogamy, which weakened by the second generation. The mean probability of endogamous marriage falls substantially from 61 percent for the first generation to 32 percent for the second generation (endogamy rates were slightly higher for women). At the same time, there is sizeable variation in the endogamy rate across countries of origin. For example, 89 percent of first generation immigrants from Italy are married to another Italian, compared with only 28 percent of first generation immigrants from Scotland. Despite substantial variation in the endogamy rate across countries, there is considerable persistence in the endogamy rate across generations; the within-country correlation between the first and second-generation endogamy rates is 0.90.

We plan to improve our measure of endogamy in a number of ways. First, some portion of the variation in inter-marriage rates could be explained by the relative sizes of these country-of-origin groups in the US; for example, many Italians came to the US but fewer Finns, and so there may be a higher rate of endogamy among Italians for mechanical reasons. To address this concern, we plan to control for the size of the marriage pool in each group. Similarly, more men than women arrived from some sending countries and some immigrant groups clustered in particular states or regions; we will control for the sex ratio and geographic composition of

immigrants from each sending country. We also plan to use the complete-count census data newly available through the NBER, instead of the 1 percent samples, which is especially important for small sending countries. Finally, we plan to examine endogamy rates over time (from 1870 through 1940) in the context of expansions and contractions in the immigration flow from Europe.

IV. Naming practices as a measure of cultural assimilation

Naming practices provide a second measure of cultural assimilation. Immigrants who hoped to assimilate into US society might select more American or "native-sounding" names than would immigrants who planned to remain within an immigrant enclave or to eventually return to their home country. Because parents are free to select their preferred names for their children, name choice can reveal an immigrant's own preference for assimilation (Zelinsky, 1970; Lieberson and Bell, 1992). In contrast, marriage decisions reflect both choice and constraint (both whom I want to marry, and who wants to marry me), while costly actions, like moving out of an immigrant enclave, may be out of reach for some households.

Names have been used as a measure of immigrant cultural integration in a number of contexts. To the best of our knowledge, Watkins and London (1994) is the only study of naming practices during the Age of Mass Migration; they focus on Italians and Jews in the 1910 Census. Gerhards and Hans (2009) and Algan, Mayer and Thoenig (2013) investigate the naming choices of recent immigrants to Germany and France, respectively. Sue and Telles (2007) analyze names given by Hispanic immigrants to Los Angeles County in the 1990s.[1]

[1] Relatedly, Hacker (1999) uses name choice as a measure of secularization, noting the decline in biblical names over the nineteenth century and the positive association between biblical naming and family size.

Collectively, these studies establish a series of regularities that hold across countries and over time. First, members of the second generation have less foreign-sounding names than did their parents. Second, parents bestow more native-sounding names on their daughters than on their sons, a fact that is consistent with the broader and more creative set of female names in the population (Lieberson and Bell, 1992). Third, as parents become more assimilated – as measured by time spent in the destination country, residence in integrated neighborhoods, intermarriage and adoption of citizenship – they select less foreign-sounding names for their children. Algan, et al. (2013) add that households living in areas with a stronger labor market penalty for foreign-sounding names select less foreign names for their children.[2]

Historical censuses allow us to observe the first name of all sons and daughters in immigrant and native households. Figure 2 provides an example of a 1940 census manuscript for one Italian family, the Belascos, who had six sons (Armando, Antonio, Vincenzo, Leonardo, Raymond, and Anthony), and one daughter (Nina). With the exception of Raymond, the sons in the Belasco family were given highly Italian-sounding names.

To measure the foreignness of a name more formally, we follow Fryer and Levitt (2004) and construct a Foreignness Index for given names:

$$Foreignness\ Index_{name} = \frac{\frac{\#\ foreigners_{name}}{total\ \#\ foreigners}}{\frac{\#\ foreigners_{name}}{total\ \#\ foreigners} + \frac{\#\ natives_{name}}{total\ \#\ natives}}$$

[2] Name practices have also been used to measure the degree of cultural separation between whites and blacks in the US (Lieberson and Mikelson, 1995; Fryer and Levitt, 2004). Fryer and Levitt (2004) show that the names chosen by white and black parents, particularly those living in segregated neighborhoods, diverged in the late 1960s and early 1970s. This change in naming practices coincided with – and serves as an independent measure of – the rise of the Black Power movement.

This Index ranges from zero to one, with a value of zero reflecting the fact that no men in the US with a given first name were foreign born (i.e., a distinctively native name) and a value of one assigned to a child whose first name is distinctively foreign. The foreignness of a name can change over time with shifts in the naming practices of both natives and immigrants. Therefore, to capture the foreignness of a name in the year it was given, we calculate a child's Foreignness Index based only on individuals born *before* the child in question. We also calculate this index separately for each nationality, so we can capture distinctively Norwegian names, distinctively Italian names, and so on.[3]

We start our analysis of naming practices with data from the 1 percent IPUMS samples of the 1930 and 1940 censuses.[4] We calculated the mean Foreignness Index for each birth cohort of men, separately for the children of immigrant and native parents. Our plan is to eventually analyze census data from 1870 onward, which will allow us to look at naming practices of children born in the US as early as 1800 (people who were 70 years old in 1870).

Figure 3 pools all sending countries together and graphs the Foreignness Index of immigrant and native-born sons for the birth cohorts of 1850 through 1940. The Foreignness Index of the children of immigrants holds steady from 1850 to 1890, and then increases from 1890 to 1915 as immigrant sending countries shifted towards Southern and Eastern Europe. Starting in 1915, a few years before the imposition of immigration restrictions, immigrant

[3] The Foreignness Index improves on the current approaches used to analyze immigrants' naming practices. First, existing studies consider only the most popular names; our measure classifies all names in the population (one exception is Algan, et al., 2013). Second, sociological work tends to categorize names as "native" or "foreign" by hand. In contrast, this measure uses the relative frequency of names in the population to empirically determine a name's connotation.

[4] We combine the 1930 and 1940 Censuses for our preliminary analysis in order to ensure a large enough sample size. In 1940, father's place of birth was a "sample line" characteristic, asked of only five percent of the population. Our final results will instead rely on the complete-count data, for which sample size will not be a concern.

parents began using increasingly native-sounding names, leading the Foreignness Index to decline. Surprisingly, US natives were also more likely to give their child an American name over time, particularly after 1870. Natives may have been responding to immigration by selecting names that distinguish their children from the foreign born.

A closer look at the distribution of names suggests that immigrants were increasingly likely to give their son a "neutral" name (Foreignness Index of about 0.5) such as David, as opposed to a distinctively foreign name (Foreignness Index of 1) such as Antonio. At the same time, natives shifted from "neutral" names to distinctive American names such as Troy. Overall, there did not seem to be net convergence of naming patterns between immigrant and native households from 1850 to 1940.

We then turn to country-specific naming practices (for now, we restrict our attention to large countries given that we are currently using a 1 percent sample; we plan to extend this analysis with complete-count census data). Figure 4 reveals substantial variation across countries-of-origin.

Throughout this period, English, Scottish and Welsh immigrants had naming practices that were indistinguishable from that of natives. In contrast, Italian and Irish immigrants used very different names than US natives, and these groups exhibited little name assimilation over time. The same is true for immigrants from Austria, France, and Portugal. The above-mentioned Belasco family, for example, gave quite distinct Italian names to all but one of their children (Raymond). However, immigrants from Belgium, Germany, Russia, all of Scandinavia (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden), and Switzerland gave distinct foreign names to their children in the 1850s, but experienced substantial name assimilation over time. By 1940, the naming practices in these groups were very similar to that of natives.

V. Naming choices within households

We next explore name assimilation patterns within the household. We ask: as parents spend more time in the US, do they give their children less foreign names? Such behavior could be due to *learning* about US culture, or could be the result of a *decision* to stay in US, rather than return home. In order to facilitate a comparison with natives, we use fact that time in the US is highly correlated with children's birth order.

Table 1 tests whether immigrants gave less foreign names to sons later in the birth order by regressing the Foreignness Index (at birth) on a son's place in the birth order, controlling for age and for household fixed effects. The first two columns show that immigrant parents give less foreign names to their sons later in the birth order, consistent with a process of cultural assimilation. The next two columns demonstrate that such naming patterns do not occur for immigrants who had their children before coming to the US, suggesting that immigrant parents did not anticipate this aspect of assimilation.

The last two columns suggest that US natives also gave more American names to their sons born later in the birth order, although to a lesser extent. However, the main distinction for the children of natives is between the first born and all other sons (immigrants gave increasingly American natives at every step in the birth order). This pattern may be due to the fact that first-born sons were more likely to be named after parents or grandparents, who themselves had m more foreign names; we will explore this possibility in more detail as we proceed with the analysis.

Table 2 conducts a similar analysis for daughters. On average, native-born daughters of immigrant parents have less foreign-sounding names than do native-born sons (index value of 0.475 versus 0.511 for children living at home with parents in 1940). This pattern is consistent

with the strong regularity that boys are given "more traditional, less currently fashionable" names (Rossi, 1965), and that immigrants, in particular, are more likely to adopt names for their daughters from their new environment (Watkins and London, 1994; Sue and Telles, 2007; Gerhards and Hans, 2009).

Yet, we ask how parents change the set of names selected for their children as they spend more time in the US. Parents may become more aware that ethnic names can generate discrimination in the US labor market, which may be more relevant for sons than for daughters. For daughters, parents may instead have been concerned about (often endogamous) marriage markets. As we would expect, then, we find little change in name selection for the native-born daughters of immigrant parents by birth order. The second born daughters of immigrant parents are no more likely than the first born to be given a native-sounding name. Third or fourth born daughters are given slightly more native-sounding names, although this relationship is not statistically significant. Time spent in the US appears to affect parents' name choices for sons but not for daughters. This finding is consistent with Sue and Telles (2007), who document the same pattern for Hispanic immigrants in contemporary Los Angeles.

Going forward, we intend to use the variation across households in the spacing between children to compare children in the same rank in the birth order who were born after their parents spent more/less time in the US. We also plan to explore the relationship between our two measures of cultural assimilation – for example, naming practices could change as immigrants increasingly absorb other cultures by marrying outside of their own group.

VI. Labor market consequences of having a foreign name

Having a foreign name might influence an individual's success in the labor market. For example, employers might discriminate against individuals with ethnic-sounding names. Knowing this, immigrant parents may select native-sounding names for their children, particularly their sons, to avoid penalties on the labor market. In this section, we explore the relationship between the foreignness of a man's name and his labor market outcomes, focusing on the children of immigrant parents. Our analysis is related to studies that assess the economic return earned by immigrants who change either their first or last name to conceal their ethnic identity (Biavaschi, Giulietti and Siddique, 2013; Arai and Thoursie, 2009); the effects of having a distinctively black name on employment, education and health outcomes (Bertrand and Mullainathan, 2004; Fryer and Levitt, 2004; Figlio, 2005); or the consequences of having an identifiably ethnic surname among children in inter-ethnic marriages (Rubinstein and Brenner, 2014). Immigrants' earnings appear to increase substantially following a name change, suggesting that workers can avoid ethnic discrimination in the labor market by weakening the signal of their ethnicity. This finding is consistent with experimental evidence from Bertrand and Mullainathan (2004), who demonstrate that resumes attached to particularly white names receive 50 percent more interview requests than do identical resumes assigned a distinctively black name (10 versus 15 percent).[5]

Table 3 reports the correlation between the foreignness of a man's name and his annual earnings using the newly-digitized complete-count of the 1940 Census. Our sample is limited to men who were born in the US but whose father was born abroad. Having access to the complete-

[5] However, Fryer and Levitt (2004) show that, after controlling for family background, having a blacker name is not associated with poorer adult outcomes. Race is highly observable; therefore, even if black workers with racially ambiguous names garner more interviews, they might be rejected by employers later in the hiring process.

count data, rather than a 1 percent sample, is important for this analysis because father's place of birth is a 'sample line' variable available only for five percent of the population.

Across a series of specifications, we find that a wholesale shift from zero to one on the Foreignness Index (from a completely foreign to a completely foreign native) is associated with $100 to $150 additional annual earnings in 1940 dollars, a 10 percent gain relative to the sample mean (or $1,700 in 2014 dollars). The coefficient on the Foreignness Index falls by one-third when we control for father's country of birth, but remains statistically significant (column 2); this result suggests that second-generation immigrants from countries that retain high Foreignness Index values tended to earn less. The estimate rises slightly when we include the self-employed, assigning self-employed men the mean earnings among second-generation immigrants in their 1-digit occupation category, and again when we restrict the sample to men with non-zero earnings (columns 3 and 4).[6] In the fifth column, we include two measures of the Foreignness Index, one calculated in an individual's birth year and the other at the time that an individual is likely to have entered the labor market. The difference between these index values reflects changes in naming trends over time. As expected, an individual's labor market outcomes are more sensitive to the value of the Foreignness Index in the year that he enters the labor market.

Eventually, we plan to disentangle the effect of names as a signal of ethnicity from names as a proxy for family background by linking siblings from childhood to adulthood. We will compare siblings with more/less foreign names. For example, in the above-mentioned Belasco family, will American-sounding Raymond (Foreignness Index = 0.21) earn more than his older brother, Italian-sounding Leonardo (Foreignness Index = 0.91), and his younger brother Anthony

[6] We find no association between the Foreignness Index and an individual's propensity to be self-employed (coeff. = 0.025; s.e. = 0.165).

(Foreignness Index = 0.79)? We will also look at other labor market outcomes, including hourly wages, weeks worked during the year, unemployment and employment in a public works job. Beyond the labor market, we also plan to study the effect of having a foreign name on a child's own ethnic identity, as measured by inter-marriage rates and residential location in an immigrant enclave.

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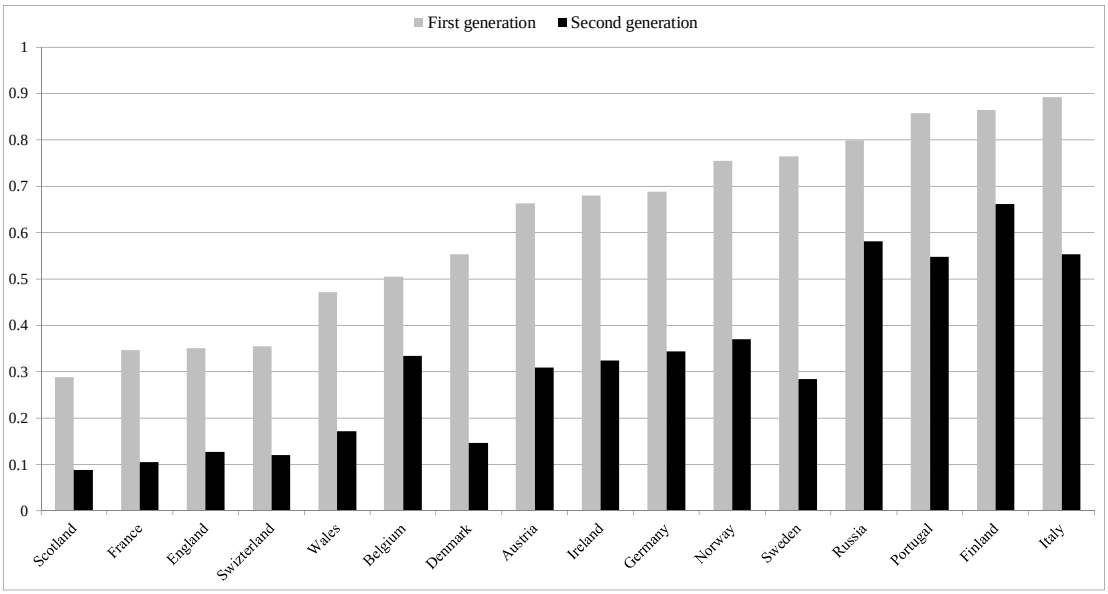
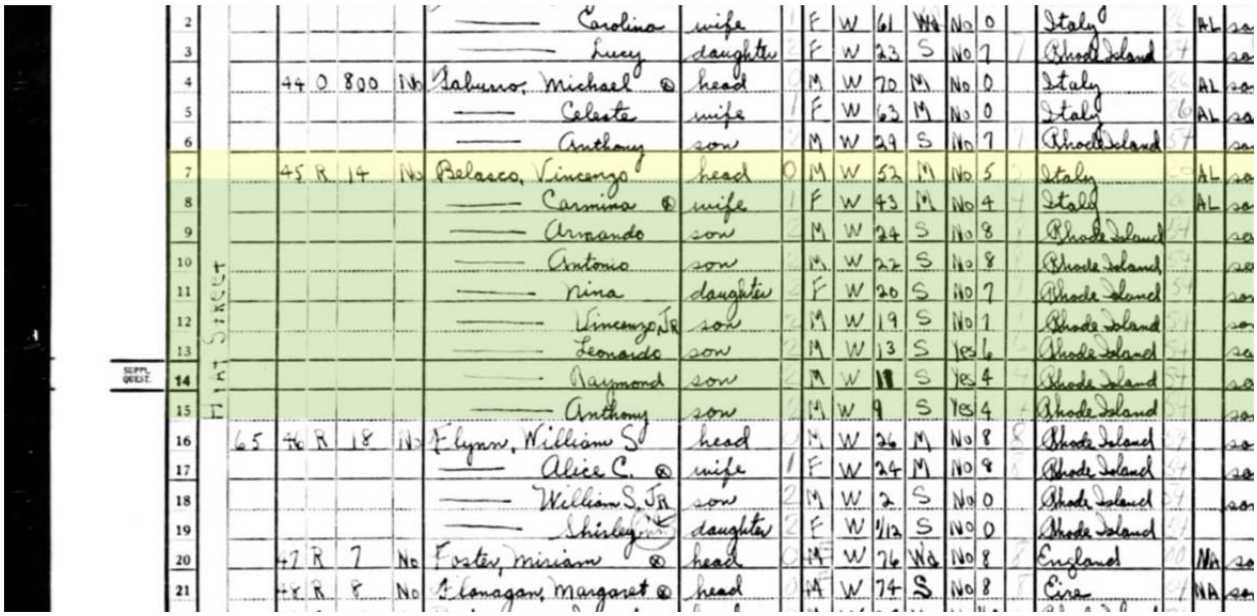
Figure 1: Share of first and second generation immigrants in endogamous marriage, by country of origin, 1920 and 1930



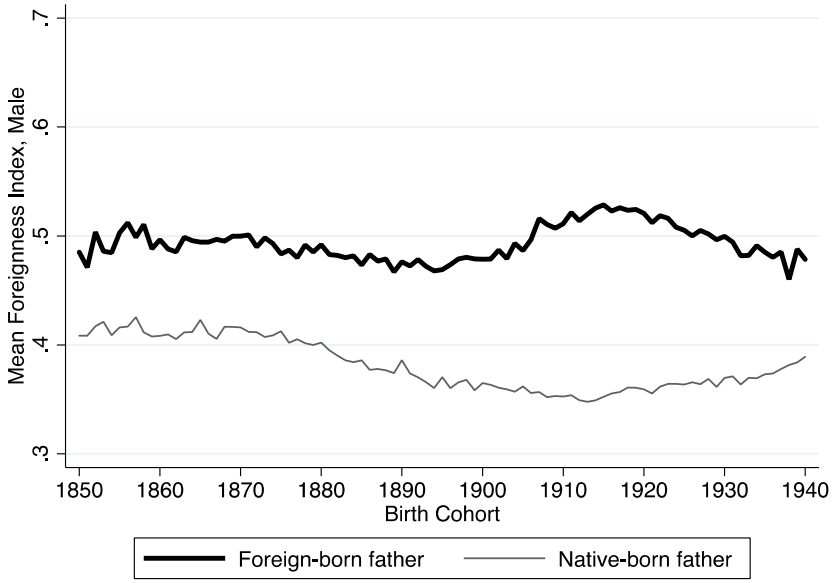
Notes: Endogamous marriage defined as marriage to first or second-generation immigrant from same country of origin. Shares calculated from IPUMS samples. First-generation immigrants includes men who migrated between 1900 and 1920 in the 1920 IPUMS and second-generation immigrants includes men in 1930 IPUMS who were born in the US and both of whose parents were born in country of origin.

Figure 2: 1940 census manuscript of the Belasco family



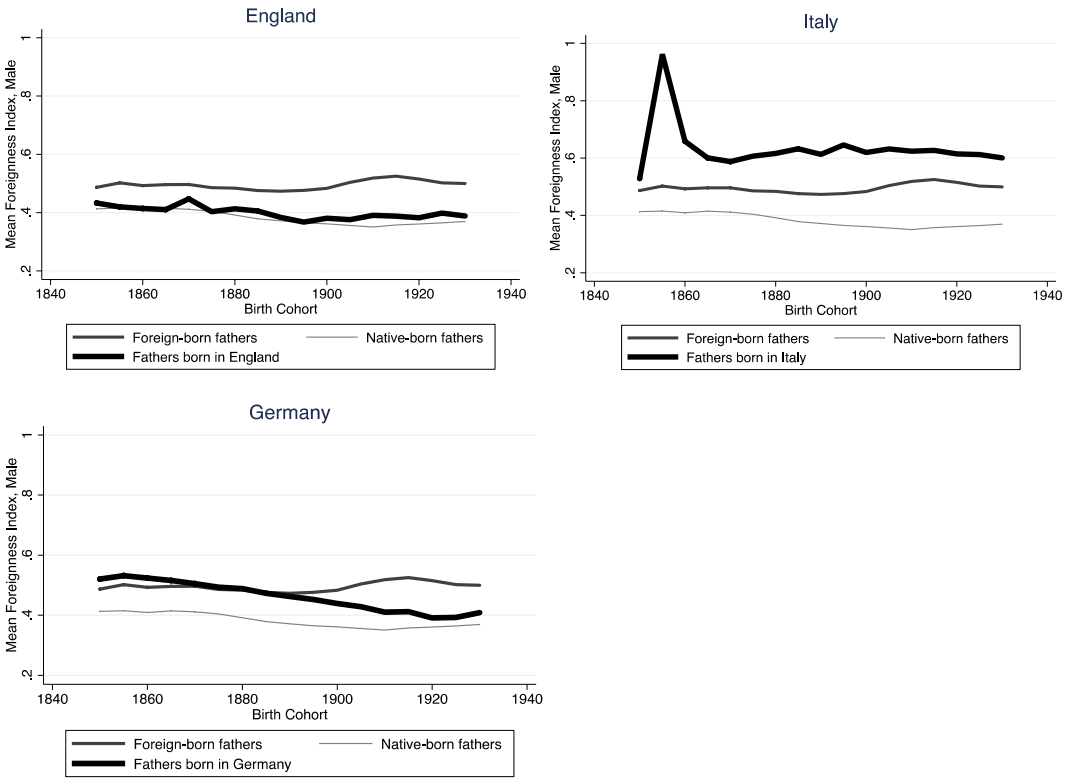
2							—— Carolina	wife		F	W	61	Wd	No	0		Italy		AL	sa
3							—— Lucy	daughter		F	W	23	S	No	7		Rhode Island			sa
4			44	O	800	No	Gaburro, Michael ⊗	head		M	W	70	M	No	0		Italy		AL	sa
5							—— Celeste	wife		F	W	63	M	No	0		Italy		AL	sa
6							—— Anthony	son		M	W	29	S	No	7		Rhode Island			sa
7			45	R	14	No	Belasco, Vincenzo	head		M	W	52	M	No	5		Italy		AL	sa
8							—— Carmina ⊗	wife		F	W	43	M	No	4		Italy		AL	sa
9							—— Armando	son		M	W	24	S	No	8		Rhode Island			sa
10							—— Antonio	son		M	W	22	S	No	8		Rhode Island			sa
11							—— Nina	daughter		F	W	20	S	No	7		Rhode Island			sa
12							—— Vincenzo, JR	son		M	W	19	S	No	7		Rhode Island			sa
13							—— Leonardo	son		M	W	13	S	Yes	6		Rhode Island			sa
14							—— Raymond	son		M	W	11	S	Yes	4		Rhode Island			sa
15							—— Anthony	son		M	W	9	S	Yes	4		Rhode Island			sa
16		65	46	R	18	No	Flynn, William S	head		M	W	26	M	No	8		Rhode Island			sa
17							—— Alice C. ⊗	wife		F	W	24	M	No	8		Rhode Island			sa
18							—— William S, JR	son		M	W	2	S	No	0		Rhode Island			sa
19							—— Shirley	daughter		F	W	1/12	S	No	0		Rhode Island			
20			47	R	7	No	Foster, Miriam ⊗	head		M	W	76	Wd	No	8		England		NA	sa
21			48	R	8	No	Flanagan, Margaret ⊗	head		M	W	74	S	No	8		Eire		NA	sa

Figure 3: Name assimilation of immigrant cohorts, 1850-1940



Notes: Sample is restricted to US native-born males. The Foreignness Index is calculated for each name using the complete-count (100 percent) sample of the 1940 census after applying the NYSIIS algorithm to the first names. We then assign an index value to men in the 1 percent IPUMS sample of the 1930 census for birth cohorts 1850 to 1930, and to men in the 1 percent IPUMS sample of the 1940 census for birth cohort from 1931 to 1940. Index values are based only on men born *before* the individual in question. Father's nativity is determined using the father's place of birth variable in the 1930 Census and using the place of birth of the household head for the young cohorts in the 1940 Census.

Figure 4: Name assimilation for three country types:
Name similarity (England), no assimilation (Italy), and complete assimilation (Germany)



Notes: See notes to Figure 3 for details on the calculation and assignment of the Foreignness Index. Country of origin is defined by father's birthplace. The graphs plot the Foreignness Index by birth cohort, averaged over 5-year intervals. Other countries that fall into these name assimilation categories include Scotland and Wales (name similarity); Austria, France, Ireland and Portugal (no assimilation) and Belgium, Russia, all Scandinavian countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway and Sweden) and Switzerland.

Table 1: Do immigrants give less foreign name to sons later in the birth order?

	Native born sons, Foreign born parents		Foreign born sons, Foreign born parents		Native born sons, Native born parents	
Panel A						
Birth order	-0.008***		0.006		-0.003*	
	[0.003]		[0.021]		[0.001]	
Panel B						
I (second born)		-0.011***		-0.005		-0.007***
		[0.004]		[0.025]		[0.002]
I (third born)		-0.018***		-0.000		-0.006**
		[0.007]		[0.047]		[0.003]
I (fourth or more)		-0.022**		0.076		-0.006
		[0.009]		[0.091]		[0.004]
N	38,113	38,113	2,961	2,961	182,216	182,216
Mean of F-index	0.511	0.511	0.535	0.535	0.367	0.367

Notes: Regressions control for age and household fixed effects. Panel A includes a linear birth order variable, defined over sons within a household. Panel B contains separate indicator variables for location in the birth order.

Table 2: Do immigrants give less foreign name to daughters later in the birth order?

	Native born daughter, Foreign born parents		Foreign born daughter, Foreign born parents		Native born daughter, Native born parents	
Panel A						
Birth order	-0.005		0.016		-0.002	
	[0.003]		[0.022]		[0.002]	
Panel B						
I (second born)		-0.001		0.019		-0.004*
		[0.004]		[0.027]		[0.002]
I (third born)		-0.008		0.051		-0.004
		[0.007]		[0.047]		[0.003]
I (fourth or more)		-0.016		-0.002		-0.007
		[0.010]		[0.086]		[0.005]
N	34,710	34,710	2,665	2,665	166,786	166,786
Mean of F-index	0.475	0.475	0.515	0.515	0.380	0.380

Notes: Regressions control for age and household fixed effects. Panel A includes a linear birth order variable, defined over daughters within a household. Panel B contains separate indicator variables for location in the birth order.

Table 3: Name Foreignness Index and Annual Earnings in 1940

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
F-index at birth	-152.803***	-99.290***	-88.571***	-110.575***	-17.968
	[8.408]	[9.047]	[8.047]	[9.909]	[39.171]
F-index at 18 years					-88.113**
					[41.158]
N	278,964	278,964	328,686	228,270	278,964
Ancestry dummy	N	Y	Y	Y	Y
Self-employed	N	N	Y	N	N
Earn > 0	N	N	N	Y	N

Notes: Regressions are based on complete-count data from the 1940 Census. The sample includes native-born men 18 years and older whose fathers were born abroad and who are not self-employed. All regressions contain birth year fixed effects. Column 2-5 add a vector of indicator variables for father's place of birth. Column 3 adds self-employed men to the sample, assigning them the mean annual earnings for second-generation immigrants by 1-digit occupation code.