Physical Activity, Fruit and Vegetable Intake, and Health-Related Quality of Life Among Older Chinese, Hispanics, and Blacks in New York City

Simona C. Kwon, DrPH, MPH, Laura C. Wyatt, MPH, Julie A. Kranick, MA, Nadia S. Islam, PhD, Carlos Devia, MA, Carol Horowitz, MD, and Chau Trinh-Shevrin, DrPH

The older population in the United States is rapidly growing, and it is projected that the number of persons aged 65 years or older will nearly double by 2050 and account for approximately 21% of the population.¹ The US Census Bureau projects that racial/ethnic minorities will constitute 57% of the population in 2060.² The population aged 65 years or older will also become more racially and ethnically diverse over the next 4 decades, as the older minority population is projected to increase from 20.7% in 2012 to 39.1% in 2050.¹ Healthy aging strategies, designed to "optimize the health of older adults" rather than focus on treatment and management of existing conditions,^{3(p5S)} include multilevel interventions.^{4,5} For example, communitylevel interventions may address neighborhood influences on diet and physical activity (PA).⁴ Understanding the needs of older populations within distinct racial/ethnic communities is essential to successful healthy aging strategies.

Health-related quality of life (HRQOL) is a health-focused quality-of-life measure of self-reported physical health, mental health, and social functioning used to understand the health status of a population.⁵ PA and diet are modifiable behaviors that contribute to healthier lifestyles and better quality of life, while simultaneously helping to prevent and manage chronic conditions.^{6,7} Even later in life, positive changes in PA and diet can improve healthy aging.8 Improving HRQOL and wellbeing, increasing PA, and improving diet are a few of the Healthy People 2020 national health initiative's goals for all persons in the United States.⁹ HRQOL is especially important for older adults; Healthy People has been modified to include a focus on quality of life, including lives that are free from preventable diseases, disabilities, and injuries.¹⁰

Objectives. We explored the relationship between health-related quality of life (HRQOL) and adequate physical activity (PA) and fruit and vegetable (F&V) intake among racial/ethnic minority groups aged 60 years or older living in New York City (NYC).

Methods. Survey data from 2009 to 2012 targeted minority groups in NYC ethnic enclaves; we analyzed 3594 individuals (Blacks, Hispanics, and Chinese) aged 60 years or older. Descriptive statistics were run; unadjusted and adjusted logistic regression evaluated the relationship of HRQOL with PA and F&V intake.

Results. Hispanics were most likely to engage in sufficient PA and eat recommended F&Vs and had significantly worse HRQOL. After multivariable adjustment, significant associations were found between PA and self-reported health, activity limitation and physical health days for all groups, and PA and mental health days for Hispanics. Significant associations were found between F&V intake and physical health days for Hispanics and F&V intake and self-reported health for Chinese.

Conclusions. Findings indicated variations between HRQOL and PA by racial/ethnic subgroup. Despite being highly insured, recommendations for PA and F&V intake were not met. There is a need to promote healthy living behaviors among aging NYC racial/ethnic populations. (*Am J Public Health.* 2015;105:S544–S552. doi:10.2105/AJPH.2015.302653)

HRQOL has been found to differ by racial/ ethnic group, with Blacks and Hispanics reporting worse health than Whites and Asians.^{11–13} In addition, among older adults, there are worse perceived health outcomes among racial/ethnic minority groups compared with Whites.^{14,15} Moreover, lifestyle behaviors such as healthy diet and PA are key factors of healthy aging and important modifiable risk factors in the prevention of chronic diseases.¹⁶ Few studies, however, have examined HRQOL and its relationship with dietary measures and PA among older adults,^{17–20} especially among specific racial/ethnic minority populations.²¹

Research suggests that food intake declines as age advances.²² In addition, older persons, especially older minorities, are less likely to meet PA recommendations.²³ Patterns of PA and fruit and vegetable (F&V) intake are dually influenced by individuals' personal preferences and their broader social ecology. Immigrant enclaves within New York City (NYC) exemplify how social, political, economic, and cultural forces influence health practices. These neighborhoods are typically characterized by their large concentration of new immigrants and fewer socioeconomic resources.²⁴ Neighborhood characteristics may also play an important role in healthy eating and PA by providing easy access to fresh F&Vs^{25,26} and parks and recreational areas.²⁷

In NYC, Asian Americans represent 13% of the population, and Chinese Americans constitute 47% of the Asian population, the largest ethnic Chinese population outside of Asia.²⁸ Similarly, Hispanics represent 29% of the NYC population, with the largest subgroups being Puerto Rican (31.0%), Dominican (24.7%), and Mexican (13.7%).²⁹ Blacks represent 26% of the NYC population.³⁰ Heterogeneity exists

within race/ethnicity with respect to health behaviors,^{31–33} and these differences are important when studying and interpreting health disparities.³⁴

Given the rapid growth of racial/ethnic minority older adults, findings from this study can help inform strategies and policies to promote effective healthy aging and add to the knowledge base on how best to optimize health for growing older populations. The goal of this study was to describe relationships between HRQOL and PA and F&V intake across racial/ ethnic groups (non-Hispanic Blacks, Hispanics, and non-Hispanic Chinese) among older adults living in 3 distinct racial/ethnic NYC neighborhoods. An enriched understanding of the relationship between HROOL and modifiable lifestyle factors can better inform our efforts to improve health outcomes, allowing for increased opportunities for independent living among the aging population.

METHODS

Racial and Ethnic Approaches to Health Across the United States (REACH US) is a program of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) that mobilizes and equips local communities and institutions to plan, implement, and evaluate community-based strategies to eliminate health disparities within racial/ethnic populations in the United States.³⁵ The REACH US Risk Factor Survey was conducted annually in 28 grantee communities as part of evaluation activities. This study examined 4 years of aggregated survey data (2009-2012). An address-based sampling method was used to target census tracts with racial/ethnic minority populations that matched each grantee community. One NYC grantee community targeted Asian Americans, while 2 communities targeted Blacks and Hispanics. The survey was conducted using in-person interviews (year 1 only), telephone interviews, and self-administered questionnaires. Household eligibility screening was performed for all telephone interviews, and up to 2 eligible adults per household were selected to participate. A complete description of survey methods can be found elsewhere.³⁶

Analyses were limited to individuals identifying as Hispanic, non-Hispanic Black, or non-Hispanic Chinese living in ethnic enclaves or areas in NYC characterized by high racial/ ethnic concentrations. These areas included the Lower East Side of Manhattan, Flushing in Queens, East Harlem in Manhattan, and Southwest Bronx. Respondents in this sample completed the survey in English, Chinese (Mandarin or Cantonese), or Spanish. A total of 3594 individuals were included in analyses.

Study Measures

All survey items were adapted from the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) interview, a previously validated survey.37 Weekly PA was based on recommendations by the US Department of Health and Human Services that all adults, regardless of age, should perform at least 150 minutes of moderate intensity or 75 minutes of vigorous intensity aerobic PA, or an equivalent combination, per week.⁷ The survey assessed days per week and amount of time per day that an individual engaged in vigorous and moderate PA. Vigorous activity was multiplied by 2 and combined with moderate activity. Once summed, a new PA variable represented no PA, insufficient PA (<150 minutes/week), and sufficient PA (≥ 150 minutes/week).

F&V intake was determined using a 6-item food frequency screener. Respondents reported the number of times per day, week, month, or year they consumed

- 1. fruit juice,
- 2. fruit,
- 3. green salad,
- potatoes (not counting fried potatoes or potato chips),
- 5. carrots, and
- 6. other vegetables.

Daily F&V intake was calculated from summed responses; weekly frequencies were divided by 7, monthly frequencies by 30, and yearly frequencies by 365. A new F&V consumption variable was created: 5 or more, 3 to fewer than 5, and fewer than 3 times daily. The BRFSS F&V module has been reported to be easily incorporated into surveillance system surveys to track intake at the population level and show differences by subgroup.⁶

Four HRQOL measures have been developed by the CDC and are validated.^{5,38,39} These measures include self-reported general health, days of poor physical health in the past month, days of poor mental health in the past month, and days of limited activities because of poor physical or mental health in the past month. General health was categorized as excellent/very good/good and fair/poor. Days of poor health within the past 30 days (physical, mental, and limited activity days) were categorized as 14 or more and fewer than 14 to reflect those with and without substantial impairment, respectively.²¹

Sociodemographic variables include gender, age, neighborhood, education, annual household income, nativity status, health insurance, last regular checkup, body mass index, smoking status, hypertension, and diabetes diagnosis.

Statistical Analyses

Descriptive statistics were run for the entire sample and across racial/ethnic groups. Percentages and standard errors were presented for categorical variables, and means and SEs were presented for continuous variables. Chi-square and t tests were run for categorical and continuous variables, respectively, across race, and P values were presented.

We further explored relationships between HRQOL and PA and F&V intake, stratifying by race/ethnicity. The χ^2 test compared differences in HRQOL categories by F&V intake and PA categories according to groups. Unadjusted and adjusted logistic regression models further examined the associations among groups. Hosmer-Lemeshow goodnessof-fit tests were conducted to test model fit. SAS-Callable SUDAAN version 11.0 (RTI, Research Triangle Park, NC), was used to account for the complex survey design; each sample was weighted to reflect the probability of selection, the number of eligible family members, and the age-gender population size of the surveyed population.

RESULTS

Table 1 presents the sociodemographic and health characteristics of the sample—both overall and by race/ethnicity. Most individuals had health insurance (93%) and had received a routine checkup in the past year (88%). Significant differences by race/ethnicity were found for education, income, country of birth, current smoking habits, and diabetes and high blood pressure diagnoses. Chinese and

TABLE 1-Adults Aged > 60 Years Old by Race and Ethnicity

Variable	Overall (n = 3594), % (SE) or Mean ±SD	Chinese (n = 1046), % (SE) or Mean ±SD	Blacks (n = 1012), % (SE) or Mean ±SD	Hispanics (n = 1536), % (SE) or Mean ±SD	Р
Female	55.9 (2.0)	53.6 (2.4)	61.5 (2.3)	54.4 (3.5)	.08
Age, y					.31
60-64	34.0 (2.3)	35.0 (2.2)	33.6 (2.1)	33.5 (4.4)	
65–69	18.3 (0.8)	16.8 (1.2)	19.4 (1.4)	18.7 (1.3)	
70-74	19.3 (1.3)	16.9 (0.9)	18.9 (1.2)	21.4 (2.1)	
75-79	13.8 (0.9)	15.1 (1.2)	12.7 (0.7)	13.5 (1.5)	
≥80	14.6 (1.0)	16.2 (1.3)	15.4 (1.8)	12.9 (1.7)	
Location					.06
East Harlem, Manhattan	38.4 (15.7)	0 (0.0)	45.2 (19.6)	63.0 (17.9)	
Southwest Bronx	29.5 (13.7)	0.6 (0.2)	54.2 (19.6)	36.4 (17.8)	
Lower East Side, Manhattan	22.0 (9.9)	68.5 (1.2)	0 (0.0)	0.4 (0.3)	
Flushing, Queens	10.1 (4.6)	30.9 (1.0)	0.6 (0.5)	0.2 (0.2)	
Education					.00
< high school	52.3 (1.6)	58.5 (1.4)	28.2 (1.4)	62.0 (1.2)	
High school	36.7 (2.0)	27.7 (0.7)	57.0 (1.2)	31.2 (1.8)	
College graduate	11.0 (0.9)	13.8 (1.3)	14.8 (1.1)	6.8 (0.8)	
Income, \$.03
< 25 000	68.4 (1.3)	68.0 (0.6)	60.3 (0.9)	73.3 (1.8)	
25 000-49 999	16.5 (0.9)	15.0 (0.2)	22.8 (1.2)	14.0 (1.2)	
≥ 50 000	6.5 (0.6)	7.3 (1.1)	9.1 (1.1)	4.4 (0.5)	
Don't know/refused	8.6 (0.6)	9.7 (0.7)	7.8 (0.9)	8.2 (1.2)	
Has health insurance	92.9 (0.6)	92.0 (0.9)	93.5 (0.3)	93.2 (0.9)	.40
Checkup in past year	87.5 (0.6)	88.4 (0.4)	88.3 (0.6)	86.3 (1.0)	.18
Born in the United States	33.6 (6.9)	2.5 (0.3)	83.7 (3.0)	26.9 (2.9)	.00
Body mass index					.05
Normal/underweight	38.9 (5.7)	64.8 (2.1)	26.8 (0.6)	26.5 (1.5)	
Overweight	33.9 (1.3)	29.3 (1.9)	34.3 (1.2)	37.3 (1.3)	
Obese	27.2 (4.7)	5.9 (0.5)	38.9 (1.4)	36.2 (1.9)	
Current smoker	12.0 (1.2)	7.3 (0.9)	15.9 (1.3)	13.2 (1.1)	.01
Diabetes diagnosis	32.2 (2.2)	23.7 (1.3)	33.8 (1.3)	37.6 (1.5)	.02
ligh blood pressure diagnosis	66.4 (2.6)	54.8 (1.4)	75.4 (1.1)	69.6 (1.3)	.01
General health					.01
Excellent/very good/good	45.4 (1.3)	42.2 (2.8)	57.4 (2.0)	40.7 (1.4)	
Fair/poor	54.6 (1.3)	57.8 (2.8)	42.6 (2.0)	59.3 (1.4)	
Poor physical health d in past mo					.00
Mean (SD)	6.9 ±0.5	5.0 ±0.4	6.8 ±0.4	8.5 ±0.2	
≥14 d	22.7 (1.7)	15.7 (2.0)	21.5 (1.6)	28.5 (0.9)	
Poor mental health d in past mo					.01
Mean (SD)	4.0 ±0.3	2.8 ±0.1	4.0 ±0.3	5.0 ±0.2	
≥14 d	12.9 (1.0)	9.0 (0.8)	12.7 (1.4)	16.0 (0.7)	
imited activity d in past mo	. ,				.00
Mean (SD)	3.7 ±0.4	2.0 ±0.2	3.7 ±0.3	5.0 ±0.2	
≥14 d	11.7 (1.4)	5.7 (0.7)	12.2 (1.2)	16.0 (0.9)	
/igorous exercise min/wk, mean (SD)	47.9 ±4.9	30.2 ±5.7	60.3 ±10.2	54.1 ±4.8	.00
Moderate exercise min/wk, mean (SD)	184.0 ±10.3	157.6 ±9.1	181.7 ±16.7	205.9 ±14.1	.02
otal exercise ^a min/wk, mean (SD)	261.3 ±15.0	207.7 ±17.6	281.1 ±23.5	289.7 ±9.4	.00

TABLE 1—Continued

Recommended exercise					.072
Does not exercise	40.6 (1.2)	43.6 (1.2)	40.8 (1.3)	38.3 (2.0)	
< sufficient	22.6 (0.8)	22.1 (0.9)	27.2 (1.7)	20.2 (0.9)	
\geq sufficient	36.8 (0.9)	34.3 (1.0)	32.0 (1.1)	41.5 (2.1)	
Total fruits/d, mean (SD)	$1.8\ \pm0.1$	1.4 ± 0.1	$1.9\ \pm 0.1$	$2.1\ \pm 0.0$	< .001
Fruit juice/d, mean (SD)	$0.8\ \pm 0.1$	$0.3\ \pm 0.0$	0.9 ± 0.1	$1.1\ \pm 0.0$	< .001
Fruit/d, mean (SD)	$1.1\ \pm 0.0$	$1.2\ \pm 0.0$	1.0 ± 0.0	$1.1\ \pm 0.0$.001
Total vegetables/d, mean (SD)	$2.3\ \pm 0.1$	$2.3\ \pm 0.0$	2.3 ±0.1	$2.2\ \pm 0.1$.317
Green salad/d, mean (SD)	$0.6\ \pm 0.1$	$0.3\ \pm 0.1$	0.6 ±0.0	0.7 ± 0.0	<.001
Potato/d, mean (SD)	0.3 ± 0.0	$0.1\ \pm 0.0$	0.3 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	<.001
Carrots/d, mean (SD)	0.3 ± 0.0	$0.2\ \pm 0.0$	0.3 ± 0.0	0.4 ± 0.0	<.001
Other vegetables/d, mean (SD)	1.2 ± 0.1	1.7 ± 0.0	1.2 ± 0.0	0.8 ± 0.0	<.001
Total fruits and vegetables/d, mean (SD)	$4.0\ \pm 0.1$	3.7 ± 0.1	4.1 ±0.1	$4.2\ \pm 0.1$	< .001
Fruits and vegetables/d					.062
< 3 times	38.2 (1.2)	33.7 (1.3)	38.7 (1.4)	41.3 (0.7)	
3 to < 5 times	35.4 (2.5)	46.1 (2.3)	31.1 (1.5)	29.7 (1.2)	
\geq 5 times	26.5 (1.6)	20.2 (1.3)	30.2 (1.5)	29.0 (1.4)	

^aTotal exercise = 2 times vigorous + moderate.

Hispanics were more likely than Blacks to have less than a high school education (58.5% and 62.0% vs 28.2%, respectively), and most Chinese were born outside the United States (98%). Blacks were more likely to be smokers compared with Chinese. Smoking prevalence,

however, significantly differed by gender within race/ethnicity, and women had lower smoking prevalence than men (not shown); the

TABLE 2—Association of Health-Related Quality of Life With Recommended Level of Physical Activity by Race and Ethnicity

	Blacks-PA Level ^a			Hispanics-PA Level ^a			Chinese–PA Level ^a		
Variable	I	II	III	I	I	III	l	II	III
\geq 14 unhealthy d (mental)									
Unadjusted proportion (SE)	15.3 (2.2)	10.6 (1.6)	11.4 (1.7)	21.0 (1.2)	12.9 (2.6)	13.2 (1.3)	9.7 (1.8)	9.4 (3.5)	8.2 (0.6)
Crude OR (95% CI)	1.41 (0.92, 2.16)	0.91 (0.64, 1.30)	1.00 (Ref)	1.73 (1.38, 2.18)	0.97 (0.50, 1.89)	1.00 (Ref)	1.18 (0.82, 1.70)	1.18 (0.43, 3.26)	1.00 (Ref)
Adjusted OR, ^b (95% CI)	1.37 (0.82, 2.28)	0.89 (0.64, 1.24)	1.00 (Ref)	1.70 (1.42, 2.03)	0.91 (0.50, 1.66)	1.00 (Ref)	1.47 (1.01, 2.13)	1.30 (0.45, 3.77)	1.00 (Ref)
\geq 14 unhealthy d (physical)									
Unadjusted proportion (SE)	27.9 (2.0)	18.7 (1.5)	16.5 (2.6)	35.9 (1.5)	23.6 (1.5)	25.6 (1.4)	18.1 (2.4)	12.5 (3.3)	14.8 (1.8)
Crude OR (95% CI)	1.95 (1.30, 2.94)	1.16 (0.91, 1.47)	1.00 (Ref)	1.64 (1.43, 1.88)	0.91 (0.69, 1.20)	1.00 (Ref)	1.23 (0.80, 1.88)	0.83 (0.43, 1.60)	1.00 (Ref)
Adjusted OR, ^b (95% CI)	1.72 (1.05, 2.83)	1.18 (0.84, 1.66)	1.00 (Ref)	1.62 (1.39, 1.88)	0.93 (0.71, 1.23)	1.00 (Ref)	1.24 (0.85, 1.81)	0.84 (0.43, 1.63)	1.00 (Ref)
\geq 14 activity limitation d									
Unadjusted proportion (SE)	17.0 (1.9)	8.8 (1.8)	9.3 (1.3)	22.7 (2.3)	14.0 (2.7)	11.4 (1.0)	7.3 (1.2)	3.2 (0.9)	5.3 (0.6)
Crude OR (95% CI)	2.02 (1.23, 3.31)	0.93 (0.56, 1.54)	1.00 (Ref)	2.26 (1.69, 3.02)	1.26 (0.67, 2.39)	1.00 (Ref)	1.37 (0.92, 2.05)	0.59 (0.28, 1.25)	1.00 (Ref)
Adjusted OR, ^b (95% CI)	1.68 (0.88, 3.22	0.93 (0.48, 1.79)	1.00 (Ref)	2.41 (1.71, 3.39)	1.24 (0.69, 2.23)	1.00 (Ref)	0.94 (0.51, 1.73)	0.47 (0.22, 1.00)	1.00 (Ref)
Fair/poor self-reported health									
Unadjusted proportion (SE)	51.8 (3.5)	33.3 (3.3)	38.8 (2.4)	67.5 (1.3)	60.3 (4.1)	51.5 (1.6)	64.8 (3.8)	55.1 (4.6)	50.0 (1.5)
Crude OR (95% CI)	1.73 (1.32, 2.28)	0.79 (0.54, 1.17)	1.00 (Ref)	1.96 (1.74, 2.20)	1.45 (1.06, 1.99)	1.00 (Ref)	1.83 (1.38, 2.43)	1.22 (0.89, 1.65)	1.00 (Ref)
Adjusted OR, ^b (95% CI)	1.56 (1.22, 2.00)	0.78 (0.52, 1.18)	1.00 (Ref)	1.72 (1.48, 1.99)	1.34 (0.92, 1.97)	1.00 (Ref)	1.70 (1.27, 2.28)	1.33 (0.77, 2.27)	1.00 (Ref)

Note. CI = confidence interval; OR = odds ratio.

^aPhysical activity (PA) level: I = none, II = insufficient, and III = \geq sufficient.

^bAdjusted for age, gender, neighborhood, education, smoking status, body mass index, and diabetes diagnosis.

prevalence among Chinese men (15%) was similar to that of Black (19%) and Hispanic men (17%), whereas Chinese women had the lowest prevalence (1%) compared with Black (14%) and Hispanic women (10%).

Significant differences by race/ethnicity were seen for all HRQOL measures. Hispanics and Chinese were most likely to self-report their health as fair or poor, and Hispanics reported the greatest number of mental health, physical health, and limited activity days in the past month.

Mean minutes per week of vigorous, moderate, and total exercise differed significantly among groups, with Chinese reporting the fewest minutes in each category. Overall, 41% of individuals reported no PA, and 37% received at least sufficient weekly PA. Chinese were most likely to report no PA (44%), and Hispanics were most likely to report at least sufficient PA (42%). Significant differences were seen among groups and individual food items. Table 1 details the mean of each F&V group by race/ethnicity. Twenty-seven percent of individuals consumed F&Vs 5 or more times a day; Blacks were most likely to consume F&Vs 5 or more times per day, followed by Hispanics and Chinese (30%, 29%, and 20%, respectively).

Physical Activity

To examine the association between PA and HRQOL, we estimated the odds of 14 or more unhealthy days (mental, physical, and activity limitation) and the odds of fair or poor selfreported health across PA group for each race/ ethnicity, while adjusting for age, gender, neighborhood, education, smoking status, body mass index, and previous diabetes diagnosis (Table 2). Older adults receiving no PA were more likely to report 14 or more unhealthy days compared with older adults receiving sufficient PA; these associations were significant for Hispanics (mental, physical, and limited activity days), Chinese (mental days), and Blacks (physical days). For example, the relative odds of having 14 or more unhealthy days (physical) for Hispanics receiving no PA was 1.62 (95% CI=1.39, 1.88) times that of Hispanics receiving sufficient PA. Older adults receiving no PA were also more likely to report fair or poor health compared with older adults receiving sufficient PA; these associations were significant across racial/ethnic groups.

Additional analyses examining correlations between log-transformed moderate and vigorous PA variables and HRQOL found that excellent/very good/good versus fair/poor self-reported health was significantly associated with moderate and vigorous PA; no association was found between unhealthy days (mental, physical, and activity limitation) and moderate or vigorous PA.

Fruit and Vegetable Intake

To examine the association between F&V intake and HRQOL, we estimated the odds of 14 or more unhealthy days (mental, physical, and activity limitation) and the odds of fair or poor self-reported health across the F&V group for each race/ethnicity, while adjusting for age, gender, neighborhood, education, smoking status, body mass index, and previous diabetes diagnosis (Table 3). In general, across racial/ ethnic groups, older individuals consuming F&Vs fewer than 3 times a day reported the highest proportion of unhealthy days (mental, physical, and activity limitation), but the relationships were not significant after adjusting for other variables. We found, however, that the relative odds of having 14 or more

	Blacks–F&V Intake ^a			Hispanics—F&V Intake ^a			Chinese—F&V Intake ^a		
Variable	I	II	III	I	II	III	I	II	III
\geq 14 unhealthy d (mental)									
Unadjusted proportion (SE)	13.3 (2.6)	10.9 (1.6)	14.2 (2.7)	18.0 (2.4)	13.6 (1.2)	16.8 (0.8)	9.2 (0.8)	9.2 (1.8)	7.1 (1.2)
Crude OR (95% CI)	0.94 (0.58, 1.50)	0.74 (0.36, 1.54)	1.00 (Ref)	1.08 (0.73, 1.60)	0.78 (0.61, 0.99)	1.00 (Ref)	1.29 (0.92, 1.81)	1.32 (0.91, 1.90)	1.00 (Ref)
Adjusted OR, ^b (95% CI)	0.81 (0.44, 1.48)	0.67 (0.30, 1.47)	1.00 (Ref)	1.05 (0.71, 1.56)	0.82 (0.62, 1.10)	1.00 (Ref)	1.46 (0.91, 2.34)	1.50 (0.98, 2.28)	1.00 (Ref)
\geq 14 unhealthy d (physical)									
Unadjusted proportion (SE)	23.6 (1.7)	22.2 (2.5)	18.9 (2.6)	31.6 (2.4)	29.0 (1.5)	26.2 (1.7)	14.3 (3.5)	17.0 (2.3)	14.4 (3.4)
Crude OR (95% CI)	1.34 (0.98, 1.83)	1.19 (0.76, 1.87)	1.00 (Ref)	1.33 (1.02, 1.73)	1.16 (0.87, 1.55)	1.00 (Ref)	1.01 (0.38, 2.72)	1.25 (0.71, 2.20)	1.00 (Ref)
Adjusted OR, ^b (95% CI)	1.37 (0.95, 1.97)	1.27 (0.79, 2.05)	1.00 (Ref)	1.40 (1.06, 1.86)	1.27 (0.91, 1.77)	1.00 (Ref)	1.02 (0.35, 2.97)	1.43 (0.70, 2.95)	1.00 (Ref)
$\geq\!14$ activity limitation d									
Unadjusted proportion (SE)	15.5 (2.5)	10.0 (1.6)	11.0 (1.8)	17.7 (1.4)	15.9 (0.9)	16.0 (1.4)	5.5 (1.9)	5.3 (1.3)	6.3 (2.0)
Crude OR (95% CI)	1.49 (0.83, 2.69)	0.90 (0.58, 1.42)	1.00 (Ref)	1.13 (0.86, 1.49)	1.00 (0.75, 1.33)	1.00 (Ref)	0.87 (0.25, 3.09)	0.80 (0.40, 1.63)	1.00 (Ref)
Adjusted OR, ^b (95% CI)	1.45 (0.76, 2.77)	0.96 (0.51, 1.83)	1.00 (Ref)	1.03 (0.78, 1.35)	1.01 (0.77, 1.32)	1.00 (Ref)	0.81 (0.15, 4.32)	1.01 (0.41, 2.49)	1.00 (Ref)
Fair/poor self-reported health									
Unadjusted proportion (SE)	45.0 (3.4)	43.4 (3.7)	39.3 (3.9)	62.3 (2.7)	58.8 (2.4)	56.0 (2.6)	62.1 (5.2)	59.1 (2.2)	46.6 (2.0)
Crude OR (95% CI)	1.30 (0.76, 2.24)	1.18 (0.84, 1.66)	1.00 (Ref)	1.30 (0.90, 1.88)	1.09 (0.83, 1.44)	1.00 (Ref)	1.91 (1.30, 2.82)	1.66 (1.46, 1.88)	1.00 (Ref)
Adjusted OR, ^b (95% CI)	1.34 (0.78, 2.30)	1.13 (0.78, 1.65)	1.00 (Ref)	1.32 (0.93, 1.89)	1.11 (0.80, 1.54)	1.00 (Ref)	1.84 (1.13, 3.01)	1.61 (1.27, 2.04)	1.00 (Ref)

TABLE 3—Association of Health-Related Quality of Life With Recommended Daily Fruits and Vegetables by Race and Ethnicity

Note. CI = confidence interval; OR = odds ratio.

^aFruit and vegetable (F&V) daily intake: I = <3 times, II = 3 to <5 times, and $III = \ge 5$ times.

^bAdjusted for age, gender, neighborhood, education, smoking status, body mass index, and diabetes diagnosis.

unhealthy days (physical) for Hispanics consuming F&Vs fewer than 3 times a day was 1.40 (95% CI=1.06, 1.86) times that of Hispanics consuming F&Vs 5 or more times a day, and the relative odds of fair or poor self-reported health for Chinese consuming F&Vs fewer than 3 times a day was 1.84 (95% CI = 1.13, 3.01) times that of Chinese consuming F&Vs 5 or more times a day. Additional analyses examined the relationship between HRQOL and individual F&V items. We found that among Hispanics, limited green salad consumption was related to more physically unhealthy days and fair/poor self-reported health, and among Chinese, limited consumption of green salad, potato, fruit, and fruit juice were each related to fair/poor self-reported health (data not shown). No additional relationships between HRQOL and F&V intake were significant.

DISCUSSION

The primary purpose of this study was to examine HRQOL by racial/ethnic group among older adults living in NYC ethnic enclaves and to describe the interrelationships between HRQOL and PA and F&V intake within each racial/ethnic group. HRQOL and well-being are both objectives of Healthy People 2020, as is increasing the proportion of adults reporting good mental and physical health.⁹ In general, participants perceived their health to be poor; more than half (55%) rated their health as fair or poor, compared with 25% of older adults in the United States and 40% of older adults in NYC in $2012.^{40,41}$ Hispanics were most likely to report 14 or more days of poor health (physical, mental, and limited activity days), as well as fair/poor health.

Results suggested that receiving sufficient PA is associated with better HRQOL. This association was most apparent among Hispanics; significance was seen across all HRQOL measures in adjusted analyses. Previous studies have shown a relationship between PA and HRQOL,^{21,42} as well as studies conducted among older adults.^{17,19,20} A longitudinal study in Australia found that HRQOL increased as total PA and walking increased among older women.¹⁹ In addition, a British study found that higher HRQOL was seen among older women

without obesity or chronic diseases.⁴³ National BRFSS data indicate that approximately half of adults aged 65 years or older performed sufficient PA,⁴⁴ and NYC data found that 38% of adults aged 65 years or older performed sufficient PA.⁴⁵ Hispanics in our sample reported having the highest prevalence of sufficient PA (41%).

The relationship between F&V intake and HRQOL was less apparent; however, an overall dose-response relationship was seen for the unadjusted proportions, and individuals eating F&Vs fewer times per day reported poorer HRQOL. In adjusted analyses, Hispanic individuals eating fewer than 3 F&Vs daily were significantly more likely than Hispanic individuals eating 5 or more F&Vs daily to experience 14 or more physically unhealthy days, and Chinese individuals eating fewer than 3 F&Vs daily were significantly more likely than Chinese individuals eating 5 or more F&Vs daily to self-report their health as fair or poor; no other relationships were significant. Overall, we found that older individuals in our sample had low F&V intake, with 20% of Chinese eating F&Vs 5 or more times daily, compared with 28% of adults aged 65 years or older nationally⁴⁶ and 11% of adults aged 65 years or older in NYC eating recommended daily F&Vs.⁴⁵ These data suggest that, in general, older racial/ethnic adults in NYC are less likely than older adults nationally to eat daily recommended F&Vs.

The CDC recommends that the BRFSS F&V module not be used to estimate the percentage of the population that meets dietary requirements but rather to track population-level consumption of F&V and to rank individuals.6 There is a growing literature regarding the variability of existing F&V intake assessments, often by racial/ethnic subgroup, in accurately assessing intake.47 Studies have reported that respondents often misunderstood definitions of F&Vs and what constitutes F&V intake.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ Furthermore, ethnic and cultural differences influenced how questions were interpreted⁴⁹ and how F&Vs were categorized, including a finding that nearly 20% of racial/ethnic minority respondents categorized rice as a vegetable.⁵⁰ Thus, although a lack of a strong association between HROOL and F&V intake was found in our study, this should not be taken as evidence that F&Vs are unrelated to

HRQOL; findings should be interpreted cautiously, as they suggest what kind of influence F&Vs may have. Further research should examine particular F&V items and how racial/ ethnic groups report them.

Although access to care was high (93% were insured and 88% had received a regular checkup in the past year), meeting PA and F&V recommendations was still low. We were unable to address quality of health care and insurance type; however, given the reported incomes of our sample it is likely that most individuals utilize public health insurance (Medicaid or Medicare) or receive health care through the NYC Health and Hospital Corporation, which provides health care access on a sliding scale, regardless of immigration status.⁵¹

Study Limitations

These findings are subject to several limitations. The cross-sectional nature of the data precludes inferences about cause and effect, including the link between limited PA and mobility. Limited mobility could directly influence an older adult's ability to engage in PA and access F&V and therefore lead to lower HRQOL.52 Older, lower-income individuals often rely on home delivery services, food stamps, or food pantries for meals, which may provide limited access to F&V. In addition, the BRFSS scale may be less valid than longer food intake scales, overestimating or underestimating the total daily intake.53 Moreover, as discussed previously, racial/ethnic differences may exist in the interpretation and understanding of F&V intake scales.47-50 Furthermore, predictor variables, such as health insurance and time since last routine checkup, had high prevalence and could not be used in adjusted analyses. Data collection limitations precluded us from examining additional factors such as US residency length and insurance type; our sample was largely foreign-born (66.4%), and differences have previously been shown for insurance type by racial/ethnic subgroup.54-56 In addition, whereas data for specific Asian subethnicity were collected. equivalent data for Black and Hispanic subgroups were not. Given that 73.1% of Hispanics and 16.3% of Blacks in our sample were foreign-born, this inability to disaggregate findings may mask ethnic and cultural

differences; previous studies have identified subethnic differences in HRQOL among Hispanics.^{57,58} Finally, study results may not be generalizable to other US areas, especially smaller regions with fewer older racial/ethnic groups.

Implications for Practice

As US racial/ethnic minority older adult populations continue expanding, this study adds to the limited body of literature that examines the relationship of HRQOL with PA and F&V intake of older Blacks, Hispanics, and Chinese who reside in largely ethnic enclaves. Findings suggest that differences exist among groups. Previous research indicates that Chinese and Hispanics who live in immigrant enclaves may have healthier diets but participate in less weekly PA than individuals who do not.⁵⁹ Our Hispanic and Black participants, however, came from neighborhoods with very low socioeconomic status compared with our Chinese participants; this may reflect some differences found in HRQOL.

Future research should develop a better understanding of HRQOL and the determinants that influence PA and F&V intake among older racial/ethnic adults. Neighborhood-level characteristics may be particularly important for older adults who spend more time in their neighborhood of residence and may be more sensitive to factors such as safety, the built environment, access to recreational areas and nutrition assistance programs, and socioeconomic status.⁶⁰⁻⁶² Neighborhood walking may be influenced by concerns about safety, poor walking surfaces, and inadequate lighting, as well as neighborhood surroundings and the presence of other people.⁶³⁻⁶⁵ Cultural barriers, such as a desire for leisure activity later in life or family priorities such as caregiving taking precedence over healthy practices, may also influence PA decisions.66-68 In addition, immigrant and racial/ethnic groups may not fully understand that PA can involve nondeliberate activities, such as house cleaning or walking to the store.⁶⁶ Future data collection should also allow for the disaggregation of all racial/ethnic subgroups and include ethnically and culturally relevant measures of F&V intake and PA.

Community-based programs and systemslevel policies that support healthy aging are important to provide appropriate care and

services and should be tailored to the sociocultural context of aging racial/ethnic populations. PA and F&V intake are modifiable and can influence HROOL and chronic disease risk factors. Understanding these unique factors within specific racial/ethnic groups can provide public health practitioners with muchneeded information to promote good health. Community-based, culturally tailored programs, such as those funded under the REACH program that incorporate local community engagement and partnerships, have provided beneficial results among racial/ethnic communities⁶⁹⁻⁷³ and may be particularly salient for older, more marginalized racial/ethnic minority adults.74,75

In summary, we found that PA was strongly associated with HRQOL and that a relationship between F&V intake and HRQOL was suggested. Overall, the prevalence of recommended weekly PA and daily F&V intake was low among this older population, highlighting the need for a better understanding of the behaviors of racial/ethnic minority groups as well as how to develop strategies to improve the health and well-being of the growing older population.

About the Authors

Simona C. Kwon, Laura C. Wyatt, Julie A. Kranick, Nadia S. Islam, and Chau Trinh-Shevrin are with the Department of Population Health, NYU School of Medicine, New York, NY. Carlos Devia is with Bronx Health REACH, New York. Carol Horowitz is with the Department of Health Evidence and Policy, Mount Sinai School of Medicine, New York.

Correspondence should be sent to Simona C. Kwon, DrPH, MPH, Department of Population Health, NYU School of Medicine, 550 First Avenue, VZN 841, New York, NY 10016 (e-mail: simona.kwon@nyumc.org). Reprints can be ordered at http://www.ajph.org by clicking the "Reprints" link.

This article was accepted February 19, 2015.

Contributors

S. C. Kwon and L. C. Wyatt created the study concept and design. S. C. Kwon acquired the data. S. C. Kwon and L. C. Wyatt analyzed and interpreted the data. L. C. Wyatt and J. A. Kranick performed the statistical analysis. All authors contributed to the intellectual content and provided critical review on all drafts. S. C. Kwon had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

Acknowledgments

This research was supported by grant numbers P60MD000538 from the National Institutes of Health National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities (NIH NIMHD), U58DP005621 and U48DP005008 from the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), and UL1TR000038 from the NIH National Center for Advancing Translational Sciences (NIH NCATS).

We thank Tina Sadarangani (New York University); Youlian Liao, MD (CDC); Charmaine Ruddock (Bronx Health REACH); and the New York sites of the REACH US Risk Factor Survey (B Free CEED: National Center for Excellence in the Elimination of Hepatitis B Disparities, Bronx Health REACH, and the Mount Sinai Communities IMPACT Diabetes Center).

Note. The funding agencies NIH NIMHD, NIH NCATS, and CDC had no role in the design and conduct of the study; collection, management, analysis, and interpretation of the data; preparation, review, or approval of the article; or decision to submit the article for publication.

Human Participant Protection

The NYU School of Medicine institutional review board (IRB) policy indicates this research study did not involve human participants and IRB review was not required.

References

1. US Census Bureau. Fueled by aging baby boomers, nation's older population to nearly double, Census Bureau reports. 2014. Available at: http://www.census. gov/newsroom/press-releases/2014/cb14-84.html. Accessed January 10, 2015.

2. US Census Bureau. US Census Bureau projections show a slower growing, older, more diverse nation a half century from now. 2012. Available at: https://www. census.gov/newsroom/releases/archives/population/ cb12-243.html. Accessed January 14, 2015.

 Anderson LA, Prohaska TR. Fostering engagement and independence: opportunities and challenges for an aging society. *Health Educ Behav.* 2014;41(1 suppl): 5S–9S.

 Harmell AL, Jeste D, Depp C. Strategies for successful aging: a research update. *Curr Psychiatry Rep.* 2014;16(10):476.

 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Measuring healthy days: population assessment of healthrelated quality of life. 2000. Available at: http://www. cdc.gov/hrqol/pdfs/mhd.pdf. Accessed January 10, 2015.

6. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Surveillance of fruit and vegetable intake using the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System. 2014. Available at: http://www.cdc.gov/brfss/data_documentation/PDF/fruits_vegetables.pdf. Accessed January 10, 2015.

 US Department of Health and Human Services.
2008 Physical Activity Guidelines for Americans. 2008.
Available at: http://www.health.gov/paguidelines/pdf/ paguide.pdf. Accessed January 5, 2015.

 McReynolds JL, Rossen EK. Importance of physical activity, nutrition, and social support for optimal aging. *Clin Nurse Spec.* 2004;18(4):200–206.

9. US Department of Health and Human Services. Healthy People 2020: topics & objectives. 2014. Available at: https://www.healthypeople.gov/2020/ topicsobjectives2020. Accessed January 10, 2015.

10. Koh HK, Piotrowski JJ, Kumanyika S, Fielding JE. *Healthy People*: a 2020 vision for the social determinants approach. *Health Educ Behav.* 2011;38(6):551–557.

11. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Racial/ ethnic disparities in self-rated health status among adults with and without disabilities–United States, 2004–2006. *MMWR Morb Mortal Wkly Rep.* 2008;57(39):1069– 1073.

12. Jackson-Triche ME, Greer Sullivan J, Wells KB, Rogers W, Camp P, Mazel R. Depression and healthrelated quality of life in ethnic minorities seeking care in general medical settings. *J Affect Disord*. 2000;58(2): 89–97.

 Zhang L, Ferguson TF, Simonsen N, Chen L, Tseng TS. Racial/ethnic disparities in health-related quality of life among participants with self-reported diabetes from NHANES 2001–2010. *Diabetes Educ.* 2014;40(4): 496–506.

14. Ng JH, Bierman AS, Elliott MN, Wilson RL, Xia C, Scholle SH. Beyond Black and White: race/ethnicity and health status among older adults. *Am J Manag Care*. 2014;20(3):239–248.

15. Kandula NR, Lauderdale DS, Baker DW. Differences in self-reported health among Asians, Latinos, and non-Hispanic whites: the role of language and nativity. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2007;17(3):191–198.

16. World Health Organization. 2008–2013 Action Plan for the Global Strategy for the Prevention and Control of Noncommunicable Diseases. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 2008.

17. Acree LS, Longfors J, Fjeldstad AS, et al. Physical activity is related to quality of life in older adults. *Health Qual Life Outcomes*. 2006;4:37.

 Drewnowski A, Evans WJ. Nutrition, physical activity, and quality of life in older adults: summary. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci.* 2001;56(suppl 2): 89–94.

19. Heesch KC, van Uffelen JG, van Gellecum YR, Brown WJ. Dose-response relationships between physical activity, walking and health-related quality of life in mid-age and older women. *J Epidemiol Community Health.* 2012;66(8):670–677.

 Rejeski WJ, Mihalko SL. Physical activity and quality of life in older adults. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci*. 2001;56(suppl 2):23–35.

21. Brown DW, Balluz LS, Heath GW, et al. Associations between recommended levels of physical activity and health-related quality of life. Findings from the 2001 Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) survey. *Prev Med.* 2003;37(5):520–528.

22. Wakimoto P, Block G. Dietary intake, dietary patterns, and changes with age: an epidemiological perspective. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci.* 2001;56(suppl 2):65–80.

23. Prohaska T, Belansky E, Belza B, et al. Physical activity, public health, and aging: critical issues and research priorities. *J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci.* 2006;61(5):S267–S273.

24. Logan JR, Alba RD, Zhang WQ. Immigrant enclaves and ethnic communities in New York and Los Angeles. *Am Sociol Rev.* 2002;67(2):299–322.

25. Larson NI, Story MT, Nelson MC. Neighborhood environments: disparities in access to healthy foods in the US. *Am J Prev Med.* 2009;36(1):74–81.e10.

 Park Y, Neckerman KM, Quinn J, Weiss C, Rundle A. Place of birth, duration of residence, neighborhood immigrant composition and body mass index in New York City. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act.* 2008;5:19. 27. Moore LV, Diez Roux AV, Evenson KR, McGinn AP, Brines SJ. Availability of recreational resources in minority and low socioeconomic status areas. *Am J Prev Med.* 2008;34(1):16–22.

28. Department of City Planning, City of New York. Population facts. 2014. Available at: http://www.nyc. gov/html/dcp/html/census/pop_facts.shtml. Accessed January 10, 2015.

29. US Census Bureau. The Hispanic population: 2010. Available at: http://www.census.gov/prod/cen2010/ briefs/c2010br-04.pdf. Accessed January 10, 2015.

30. US Census Bureau. Profile of the general population and housing characteristics: 2010. Available at: http:// www.nyc.gov/html/dcp/pdf/census/census2010/ t_sf1_dp_nyc.pdf. Accessed January 10, 2015.

31. Islam NS, Khan S, Kwon S, Jang D, Ro M, Trinh-Shevrin C. Methodological issues in the collection, analysis, and reporting of granular data in Asian American populations: historical challenges and potential solutions. *J Health Care Poor Underserved.* 2010;21(4):1354–1381.

32. Holland AT, Palaniappan LP. Problems with the collection and interpretation of Asian-American health data: omission, aggregation, and extrapolation. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2012;22(6):397–405.

33. Weinick RM, Jacobs EA, Stone LC, Ortega AN, Burstin H. Hispanic healthcare disparities: challenging the myth of a monolithic Hispanic population. *Med Care*. 2004;42(4):313–320.

34. Ford CL, Harawa NT. A new conceptualization of ethnicity for social epidemiologic and health equity research. *Soc Sci Med.* 2010;71(2):251–258.

 Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Racial and Ethnic Approaches to Community Health (REACH).
2013. Available at: http://www.cdc.gov/nccdphp/dch/ programs/reach/about.htm. Accessed January 10, 2015.

36. Liao Y, Bang D, Cosgrove S, et al. Surveillance of health status in minority communities—Racial and Ethnic Approaches to Community Health Across the US (REACH US) Risk Factor Survey, United States, 2009. *MMWR Surveill Summ.* 2011;60(6):1–44.

 Nelson DE, Holtzman D, Bolen J, Stanwyck CA, Mack KA. Reliability and validity of measures from the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS). *Soz Praventivmed*. 2001;46(suppl 1):S3–S42.

38. Moriarty DG, Zack MM, Kobau R. The Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's Healthy Days Measures—population tracking of perceived physical and mental health over time. *Health Qual Life Outcomes*. 2003;1:37.

39. Moriarty DG, Kobau R, Zack MM, Zahran HS. Tracking Healthy Days—a window on the health of older adults. *Prev Chronic Dis.* 2005;2(3):A16.

40. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System: prevalence data and data analysis tools. 2012. Available at: http:// www.cdc.gov/brfss/data_tools.htm. Accessed January 10, 2015.

41. New York City Department of Health and Mental Hygiene. EpiQuery: NYC interactive health data. 2012. Available at: https://a816-healthpsi.nyc.gov/epiquery. Accessed January 10, 2015.

42. Goodwin RD. Association between physical activity and mental disorders among adults in the United States. *Prev Med.* 2003;36(6):698–703. 43. Dale CE, Bowling A, Adamson J, et al. Predictors of patterns of change in health-related quality of life in older women over 7 years: evidence from a prospective cohort study. *Age Ageing.* 2013;42(3):312–318.

44. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System: prevalence and trends data. 2011. Available at: http://www.cdc.gov/ brfss/data_tools.htm. Accessed January 10, 2015.

45. The New York City Department of Health and Mental Hygiene. Community Health Survey. 2012. Available at: http://www.nyc.gov/html/doh/html/data/ survey.shtml. Accessed January 10, 2015.

46. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System: prevalence and trends data. 2009. Available at: http://www.cdc.gov/ brfss/data_tools.htm. Accessed January 10, 2015.

47. Roark RA, Niederhauser VP. Fruit and vegetable intake: issues with definition and measurement. *Public Health Nutr.* 2013;16(1):2–7.

48. Thompson FE, Subar AF, Smith AF, et al. Fruit and vegetable assessment: performance of 2 new short instruments and a food frequency questionnaire. *J Am Diet Assoc.* 2002;102(12):1764–1772.

49. Wolfe WS, Frongillo EA, Cassano PA. Evaluating brief measures of fruit and vegetable consumption frequency and variety: cognition, interpretation, and other measurement issues. *J Am Diet Assoc.* 2001;101 (3):311–318.

50. Thompson FE, Willis GB, Thompson OM, Yaroch AL. The meaning of 'fruits' and 'vegetables.' *Public Health Nutr.* 2011;14(7):1222–1228.

51. New York City Health and Hospitals Corporation. Public hospitals renew commitment to keep patient immigrant status private. 2011. Available at: http:// www.nyc.gov/html/hhc/html/news/press-release-20110516-immigrant-status-private.shtml. Accessed January 10, 2015.

 Beard JR, Blaney S, Cerda M, et al. Neighborhood characteristics and disability in older adults. *J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci.* 2009;64(2):252–257.

53. Kim DJ, Holowaty EJ. Brief, validated survey instruments for the measurement of fruit and vegetable intakes in adults: a review. *Prev Med.* 2003;36(4):440– 447.

54. Alegría M, Cao Z, McGuire TG, et al. Health insurance coverage for vulnerable populations: contrasting Asian Americans and Latinos in the United States. *Inquiry.* 2006;43(3):231–254.

 Carrasquillo O, Carrasquillo AI, Shea S. Health insurance coverage of immigrants living in the United States: differences by citizenship status and country of origin. *Am J Public Health.* 2000;90(6):917–923.

56. Choi S. Insurance status and health service utilization among newly-arrived older immigrants. *J Immigr Minor Health.* 2006;8(2):149–161.

 Torres JM, Wallace SP. Migration circumstances, psychological distress, and self-rated physical health for Latino immigrants in the United States. *Am J Public Health.* 2013;103(9):1619–1627.

 Hajat A, Lucas JB, Kington R. Health outcomes among Hispanic subgroups: United States, 1992–95. Advance data from vital and health statistics; no. 310. Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health Statistics; 2000.

59. Osypuk TL, Diez Roux AV, Hadley C, Kandula NR. Are immigrant enclaves healthy places to live? The Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis. *Soc Sci Med.* 2009;69(1):110–120.

60. Bowling A, Stafford M. How do objective and subjective assessments of neighbourhood influence social and physical functioning in older age? Findings from a British survey of ageing. *Soc Sci Med.* 2007;64 (12):2533–2549.

61. Friedman D, Parikh NS, Giunta N, Fahs MC, Gallo WT. The influence of neighborhood factors on the quality of life of older adults attending New York City senior centers: results from the Health Indicators Project. *Qual Life Res.* 2012;21(1):123–131.

62. Yen IH, Michael YL, Perdue L. Neighborhood environment in studies of health of older adults: a systematic review. *Am J Prev Med.* 2009;37(5):455–463.

63. Lee C, Ory MG, Yoon J, Forjuoh SN. Neighborhood walking among overweight and obese adults: age variations in barriers and motivators. *J Community Health.* 2013;38(1):12–22.

64. Tucker-Seeley RD, Subramanian SV, Li Y, Sorensen G. Neighborhood safety, socioeconomic status, and physical activity in older adults. *Am J Prev Med.* 2009;37 (3):207–213.

65. Gallagher NA, Gretebeck KA, Robinson JC, Torres ER, Murphy SL, Martyn KK. Neighborhood factors relevant for walking in older, urban, African American adults. *J Aging Phys Act.* 2010;18(1):99–115.

66. Bird SR, Radermacher H, Sims J, Feldman S, Browning C, Thomas S. Factors affecting walking activity of older people from culturally diverse groups: an Australian experience. *J Sci Med Sport.* 2010;13(4): 417–423.

67. Cantu AG, Flueriet JK. The sociocultural context of physical activity in older Mexican American women. *Hisp Health Care Int.* 2008;6(1):27–40.

68. King AC, Castro C, Wilcox S, Eyler AA, Sallis JF, Brownson RC. Personal and environmental factors associated with physical inactivity among different racial-ethnic groups of US middle-aged and older-aged women. *Health Psychol.* 2000;19(4):354–364.

69. Zhou H, Tsoh JY, Grigg-Saito D, Tucker P, Liao Y. Decreased smoking disparities among Vietnamese and Cambodian communities—Racial and Ethnic Approaches to Community Health (REACH) project, 2002–2006. *MMWR Surveill Summ.* 2014;63(suppl 1):37–45.

70. Galloway-Gilliam L. Racial and ethnic approaches to community health. *Natl Civ Rev.* 2013;102(4):46–48.

71. Fox AM, Mann DM, Ramos MA, Kleinman LC, Horowitz CR. Barriers to physical activity in East Harlem, New York. *J Obes.* 2012:719140.

72. Gutierrez J, Devia C, Weiss L, et al. Health, community, and spirituality: evaluation of a multicultural faith-based diabetes prevention program. *Diabetes Educ.* 2014;40(2):214–222.

73. Pollack H, Wang S, Wyatt L, et al. A comprehensive screening and treatment model for reducing disparities in hepatitis B. *Health Aff (Millwood).* 2011;30(10):1974–1983.

74. Stewart AL, Verboncoeur CJ, McLellan BY, et al. Physical activity outcomes of CHAMPS II: a physical activity promotion program for older adults. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci.* 2001;56(8):M465–M470.

75. Islam NS, Zanowiak JM, Wyatt LC, et al. A randomized-controlled, pilot intervention on diabetes prevention and healthy lifestyles in the New York City Korean community. *J Community Health.* 2013;38 (6):1030–1041.