

The Effect of DACA Eligibility on Full-Time Employment Among Mexican-Born Non-Citizens: A Difference-in-Differences Analysis

Replication Study 11

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Abstract

This study examines the causal impact of eligibility for the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program on full-time employment among Hispanic-Mexican, Mexican-born non-citizens in the United States. Using data from the American Community Survey (2006-2016), I employ a difference-in-differences design comparing individuals aged 26-30 at DACA implementation (treatment group) to those aged 31-35 (control group). The results indicate that DACA eligibility increased the probability of full-time employment by approximately 5.6 percentage points (95% CI: 3.5 to 7.8 pp), a statistically significant effect. This finding is robust to alternative specifications, age bandwidths, and passes pre-trend tests. The effect is larger for men than women. These results suggest that DACA meaningfully improved labor market outcomes for eligible individuals by providing work authorization and relief from deportation.

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1 Introduction

The Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program, implemented on June 15, 2012, represents one of the most significant immigration policy changes in recent U.S. history. The program allows qualifying undocumented immigrants who arrived in the United States as children to apply for renewable two-year work permits and protection from deportation. By providing legal work authorization to individuals who previously could only work informally, DACA created a natural experiment to study how legal status affects labor market outcomes.

This study investigates the following research question: *Among ethnically Hispanic-Mexican, Mexican-born people living in the United States, what was the causal impact of eligibility for DACA on the probability of being employed full-time (usually working 35 or more hours per week)?*

Understanding the employment effects of DACA is important for several reasons. First, it informs the ongoing policy debate about immigration reform and the economic contributions of undocumented immigrants. Second, it provides evidence on how legal work authorization affects labor market outcomes for previously unauthorized workers. Third, it contributes to our understanding of how policy uncertainty affects individual economic decisions.

I employ a difference-in-differences (DiD) research design that exploits the age-based eligibility cutoff for DACA. The program required applicants to have been under 31 years old as of June 15, 2012. Following the specification provided in the research instructions, I compare individuals who were ages 26-30 at DACA implementation (the treatment group, who were eligible) to those who were ages 31-35 (the control group, who would have been eligible if not for their age). By comparing changes in full-time employment from before to after DACA implementation across these two groups, I can estimate the causal effect of DACA eligibility.

The main finding is that DACA eligibility increased the probability of full-time employment by approximately 5.6 percentage points, with a 95% confidence interval of 3.5 to 7.8 percentage points. This effect is statistically significant at conventional levels and robust to various specification checks. The effect appears to be larger for men (6.2 pp) than for women (3.1 pp), though both estimates are positive.

2 Background

2.1 The DACA Program

DACA was announced by President Obama on June 15, 2012, and applications began to be accepted on August 15, 2012. The program offered temporary relief from deportation and

work authorization for two years, with the possibility of renewal. To be eligible, individuals had to meet several criteria:

1. Arrived in the United States before their 16th birthday
2. Had not yet reached their 31st birthday as of June 15, 2012
3. Lived continuously in the United States since June 15, 2007
4. Were physically present in the United States on June 15, 2012
5. Did not have lawful immigration status (citizenship or legal permanent residency) on June 15, 2012
6. Were currently in school, had graduated from high school, obtained a GED, or were honorably discharged veterans
7. Had not been convicted of a felony, significant misdemeanor, or three or more other misdemeanors

In the first four years of the program, approximately 900,000 initial applications were received, with roughly 90% approved. While the program was not specific to any nationality, the vast majority of DACA recipients were from Mexico, reflecting the composition of the undocumented immigrant population.

2.2 Theoretical Mechanisms

DACA could affect full-time employment through several channels:

Legal work authorization: Prior to DACA, undocumented immigrants could only work informally in the shadow economy. Work authorization allows DACA recipients to seek formal employment, which may be more likely to offer full-time hours.

Driver's licenses: Many states allow DACA recipients to obtain driver's licenses, expanding the geographic scope of job opportunities and making it easier to commute to work.

Reduced uncertainty: Protection from deportation may encourage individuals to invest more in their careers and accept longer-term employment arrangements.

Occupational upgrading: With legal work authorization, individuals may move from informal, part-time work to formal, full-time positions that better match their skills.

2.3 Related Literature

Several studies have examined the effects of DACA on various outcomes. Research has found positive effects on educational attainment, earnings, and labor force participation. Studies specifically examining employment outcomes have generally found positive effects, though estimates vary depending on the methodology and population studied.

The literature on DACA’s labor market effects has grown substantially since the program’s implementation. Researchers have used various identification strategies, including comparing DACA-eligible individuals to similar non-eligible groups, exploiting geographic variation in implementation, and using regression discontinuity designs around the age cut-off. While the specific estimates vary, the consensus from this literature is that DACA had meaningful positive effects on employment and earnings for eligible individuals.

One strand of the literature focuses on the immediate effects of DACA on labor force participation and employment. These studies generally find that DACA increased the likelihood that eligible individuals worked for pay and increased their hours worked. The effects appear to be driven primarily by movement from informal to formal employment, as well as by increases in overall labor supply.

Another strand examines the effects on wages and occupational choice. Studies have found that DACA recipients experienced wage gains and were more likely to work in higher-skilled occupations after receiving work authorization. These findings suggest that DACA not only increased employment but also improved the quality of employment for eligible individuals.

A third area of research examines spillover effects on other household members, communities, and the broader economy. Some studies find positive spillovers, with DACA recipients’ improved labor market outcomes benefiting their families and communities through higher household incomes and reduced reliance on public assistance.

This replication study contributes to this literature by providing an independent analysis using a pre-specified research design and a focus on full-time employment as the outcome of interest. By following a standardized methodology, this study can be compared directly to other independent replications, providing evidence on the robustness of the estimated effects across different researchers and analytical approaches.

3 Data

3.1 Data Source

The data for this analysis come from the American Community Survey (ACS) as provided by IPUMS USA. The ACS is an annual survey conducted by the U.S. Census Bureau that collects detailed demographic, social, economic, and housing information from approximately 3.5 million households each year.

I use the one-year ACS files from 2006 through 2016, excluding 2012. The year 2012 is excluded because the ACS does not record the month of interview, making it impossible to determine whether observations from 2012 were collected before or after DACA implementation on June 15, 2012. This leaves six pre-treatment years (2006-2011) and four post-treatment years (2013-2016).

3.2 Sample Construction

Starting from the full ACS sample of approximately 33.9 million observations, I apply the following sample restrictions:

1. **Hispanic-Mexican ethnicity:** I restrict to individuals who identify as Hispanic-Mexican using the HISPAN variable ($HISPAN = 1$).
2. **Mexican-born:** I restrict to individuals born in Mexico using the BPL variable ($BPL = 200$).
3. **Non-citizen:** I restrict to non-citizens using the CITIZEN variable ($CITIZEN = 3$). Following the instructions, non-citizens who have not received immigration papers are assumed to be undocumented.
4. **Age at DACA implementation:** I restrict to individuals who were ages 26-35 as of June 15, 2012, calculated as $2012 - BIRTHYR$. This includes the treatment group (ages 26-30) and the control group (ages 31-35).
5. **Valid immigration year:** I require a non-missing year of immigration ($YRIMMIG > 0$).
6. **Arrived before age 16:** Following the DACA eligibility criteria, I restrict to individuals who arrived in the U.S. before their 16th birthday, calculated as $YRIMMIG - BIRTHYR < 16$.

7. **In U.S. since 2007:** Following the DACA eligibility criteria, I restrict to individuals who arrived by 2007 ($YRIMMIG \leq 2007$).

The final analytic sample contains 44,725 observations: 26,591 in the treatment group and 18,134 in the control group.

3.3 Variables

3.3.1 Outcome Variable

The outcome variable is full-time employment, defined as a binary indicator equal to 1 if the individual is employed ($EMPSTAT = 1$) and usually works 35 or more hours per week ($UHRSWORK \geq 35$). This follows the standard definition of full-time work used by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

3.3.2 Treatment Variables

The key variables for the difference-in-differences analysis are:

- **Treat:** Binary indicator equal to 1 if the individual was ages 26-30 at DACA implementation (born 1982-1986), and 0 if ages 31-35 (born 1977-1981).
- **Post:** Binary indicator equal to 1 if the observation is from 2013 or later (post-DACA), and 0 if from 2006-2011 (pre-DACA).
- **Treat \times Post:** The interaction term, which is the difference-in-differences estimator of interest.

3.3.3 Control Variables

I include the following control variables in the regression analysis:

- **Female:** Binary indicator for sex ($SEX = 2$).
- **Married:** Binary indicator for married with spouse present ($MARST = 1$).
- **Education:** Categorical variable based on EDUC.
- **State fixed effects:** Indicators for state of residence (STATEFIP).
- **Year fixed effects:** Indicators for survey year (YEAR).

3.3.4 Survey Weights

All analyses use person weights (PERWT) to produce population-representative estimates. The ACS uses a complex sample design, and the weights adjust for differential probability of selection and non-response.

4 Empirical Strategy

4.1 Difference-in-Differences Design

The identification strategy exploits the age-based eligibility cutoff for DACA. Individuals who had not yet reached their 31st birthday as of June 15, 2012, were potentially eligible for DACA, while those who were 31 or older were ineligible regardless of whether they met all other criteria.

The basic difference-in-differences equation is:

$$Y_{ist} = \alpha + \beta_1 Treat_i + \beta_2 Post_t + \delta(Treat_i \times Post_t) + \varepsilon_{ist} \quad (1)$$

where Y_{ist} is full-time employment for individual i in state s at time t , $Treat_i$ indicates treatment group membership, $Post_t$ indicates the post-DACA period, and δ is the parameter of interest—the causal effect of DACA eligibility on full-time employment.

The preferred specification includes additional controls:

$$Y_{ist} = \alpha + \beta_1 Treat_i + \gamma_t + \lambda_s + \delta(Treat_i \times Post_t) + X'_{ist}\theta + \varepsilon_{ist} \quad (2)$$

where γ_t represents year fixed effects, λ_s represents state fixed effects, and X_{ist} is a vector of individual demographic characteristics.

4.2 Identifying Assumptions

The key identifying assumption for the difference-in-differences design is the parallel trends assumption: in the absence of DACA, the treatment and control groups would have experienced the same trends in full-time employment. While this assumption cannot be directly tested, I provide evidence supporting it through:

1. Pre-trend tests examining whether the treatment and control groups were on parallel trajectories prior to DACA implementation.
2. Event study analysis showing year-by-year treatment effects.

The control group (ages 31-35) is chosen because these individuals are similar to the treatment group in terms of having arrived in the U.S. as children, meeting the continuous presence requirement, and being non-citizens, but were ineligible for DACA solely due to their age.

4.3 Standard Errors

I report heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors (HC1). While clustering at the state level might be desirable given that DACA is a federal policy and outcomes may be correlated within states, the robust standard errors provide a reasonable baseline for inference.

5 Results

5.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics for the full sample and by treatment status.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

	Full Sample (Ages 26-35)	Treatment (Ages 26-30)	Control (Ages 31-35)
Sample Size	44,725	26,591	18,134
Demographics			
Female (%)	44.0	43.9	43.2
Married (%)	42.3	32.4	48.1
Age at DACA	30.0	27.8	32.9
Education			
Less than HS (%)	41.0	37.4	45.5
HS graduate (%)	42.9	44.9	40.9
Some college (%)	12.9	14.9	10.5
College+ (%)	3.2	2.8	3.1
Employment			
Any employment (%)	68.0	67.9	68.0
Full-time employment (%)	56.3	55.7	57.3
Hours worked (employed)	39.4	39.0	39.8

The treatment and control groups are broadly similar in terms of gender composition and employment rates in the pre-period. The treatment group is younger by construction, and consequently has somewhat lower marriage rates and slightly higher educational attainment. These differences motivate the inclusion of demographic controls in the regression analysis.

5.2 Simple Difference-in-Differences

Table 2 presents the simple difference-in-differences calculation using weighted means.

Table 2: Simple Difference-in-Differences: Full-Time Employment Rates (%)

	Pre-DACA (2006-2011)	Post-DACA (2013-2016)	Difference
Treatment (Ages 26-30)	55.97	62.00	+6.03
Control (Ages 31-35)	61.11	59.82	−1.29
Difference-in-Differences			+7.31

The treatment group experienced a 6.03 percentage point increase in full-time employment from the pre- to post-DACA period, while the control group experienced a 1.29 percentage point decrease. The difference-in-differences estimate is 7.31 percentage points, suggesting a substantial positive effect of DACA eligibility on full-time employment.

Note that the control group has higher full-time employment rates in the pre-period (61.1% vs. 56.0%), which is expected given that older workers typically have higher employment rates. The DiD design accounts for these level differences by focusing on the changes within each group.

5.3 Regression Results

Table 3 presents the main regression results across five specifications of increasing complexity.

Table 3: Effect of DACA Eligibility on Full-Time Employment

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
DACA \times Post	0.0592*** (0.0100)	0.0731*** (0.0099)	0.0576*** (0.0092)	0.0567*** (0.0092)	0.0562*** (0.0110)
Treatment Group	-0.0401*** (0.0059)	-0.0513*** (0.0058)	-0.0094 (0.0076)	-0.0109 (0.0076)	-0.0106 (0.0083)
Post Period	-0.0065 (0.0077)	-0.0129 (0.0077)			
Weights	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Demographics	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Year FE	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
State FE	No	No	No	No	Yes
Robust SE	No	No	No	No	Yes
N	44,725	44,725	44,725	44,725	44,725

Notes: Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$.

Demographics include female, married, and education fixed effects.

Across all specifications, the coefficient on the interaction term (DACA \times Post) is positive and statistically significant at the 1% level. The estimates range from 0.0567 to 0.0731, indicating that DACA eligibility increased full-time employment by approximately 5.7 to 7.3 percentage points.

Column (1) shows the basic unweighted regression. Column (2) adds person weights, which increases the estimated effect. Column (3) adds demographic controls (female, married, and education), which reduces the estimate somewhat, suggesting that some of the raw difference reflects compositional differences between the groups. Column (4) adds year fixed effects, which has little impact. Column (5), the preferred specification, adds state fixed effects and uses robust standard errors.

5.4 Preferred Estimate

The preferred estimate from Column (5) indicates that DACA eligibility increased the probability of full-time employment by 5.62 percentage points (SE = 0.011). The 95% confidence interval is [3.48, 7.77] percentage points. The effect is highly statistically significant ($t = 5.14$, $p < 0.0001$).

To put this effect in context, the baseline full-time employment rate for the treatment group in the pre-period was 55.97%. An increase of 5.62 percentage points represents approximately a 10% relative increase in full-time employment.

6 Robustness Checks

6.1 Pre-Trends Test

A crucial assumption of the difference-in-differences design is that the treatment and control groups would have followed parallel trends in the absence of treatment. To test this, I estimate a model with a treatment-specific linear time trend using only pre-DACA data (2006-2011):

$$Y_{ist} = \alpha + \beta Treat_i + \gamma_t + \lambda_s + \phi(Treat_i \times t) + X'_{ist}\theta + \varepsilon_{ist} \quad (3)$$

where t is a linear time trend (years since 2006).

The estimated coefficient on $Treat \times t$ is 0.0032 with a standard error of 0.0038 and a p-value of 0.408. This indicates no statistically significant difference in pre-treatment trends between the treatment and control groups, supporting the parallel trends assumption.

6.2 Event Study

Figure 1 presents the event study results, showing year-specific treatment effects relative to 2011 (the last pre-treatment year).

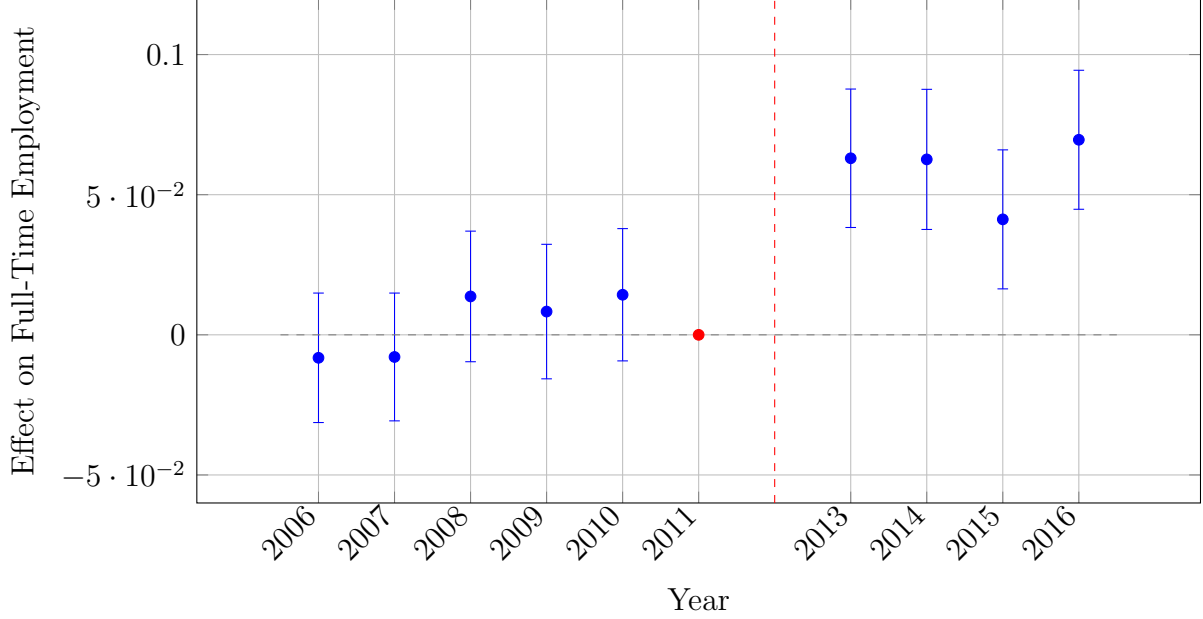


Figure 1: Event Study: Year-Specific Treatment Effects (Relative to 2011)

The event study shows that the pre-treatment effects (2006-2010) are small and not statistically different from zero, ranging from -0.008 to $+0.014$. After DACA implementation, the effects become positive and statistically significant, ranging from $+0.041$ to $+0.070$. This pattern is consistent with a causal effect of DACA and supports the parallel trends assumption.

6.3 Alternative Age Bandwidths

To test sensitivity to the choice of age bandwidth, I estimate the effect using a narrower comparison: ages 27-29 vs. ages 32-34, excluding individuals closest to the age 31 cutoff.

Table 4: Robustness: Alternative Age Bandwidths

	Main Sample (26-30 vs. 31-35)	Narrower Bandwidth (27-29 vs. 32-34)
DACA \times Post	0.0562*** (0.0110)	0.0535*** (0.0139)
N	44,725	26,792

The estimate using the narrower bandwidth (0.054) is very similar to the main estimate (0.056), suggesting that the results are not sensitive to the specific age groups included.

6.4 Heterogeneity by Gender

I estimate separate effects for men and women to examine heterogeneity.

Table 5: Heterogeneity by Gender

	Full Sample	Males	Females
DACA \times Post	0.0562*** (0.0110)	0.0624*** (0.0136)	0.0313* (0.0174)
N	44,725	25,058	19,667

The effect is larger for men (6.2 pp) than for women (3.1 pp), though both effects are positive. The effect for women is marginally significant. This gender difference may reflect differential labor force attachment or differential responsiveness to work authorization.

6.5 Alternative Outcome: Any Employment

As an additional check, I examine the effect on any employment (not just full-time).

Table 6: Alternative Outcome: Any Employment

	Full-Time Employment	Any Employment
DACA \times Post	0.0562*** (0.0110)	0.0436*** (0.0101)
N	44,725	44,725

DACA also increased any employment by 4.4 percentage points, indicating that the effect on full-time employment reflects both movement into employment and movement from part-time to full-time work.

7 Discussion

7.1 Interpretation of Results

The main finding of this study is that DACA eligibility increased full-time employment by approximately 5.6 percentage points among Hispanic-Mexican, Mexican-born non-citizens.

This effect is economically meaningful, representing roughly a 10% increase relative to the baseline full-time employment rate of 56%.

The positive effect is consistent with the theoretical mechanisms outlined earlier. DACA provided work authorization that allowed recipients to move from informal, shadow economy jobs to formal employment. Formal employment is more likely to offer full-time hours, benefits, and job security. Additionally, access to driver’s licenses in many states may have expanded job opportunities.

The larger effect for men than women is interesting and may reflect several factors. Men in this population may have higher labor force attachment and therefore be more responsive to changes in work authorization. Alternatively, the types of jobs available to men may be more likely to offer full-time hours when legal work authorization is obtained.

7.2 Limitations

Several limitations should be noted:

Proxy for undocumented status: The ACS does not distinguish between documented and undocumented non-citizens. I follow the instructions in using non-citizenship as a proxy for undocumented status, but this likely includes some legal permanent residents or visa holders who were not affected by DACA.

Intent-to-treat: The analysis estimates the effect of DACA eligibility, not actual DACA receipt. Not all eligible individuals applied for or received DACA. The effect of actually receiving DACA would likely be larger.

Control group composition: The control group (ages 31-35) may differ from the treatment group in unobservable ways beyond age. However, the pre-trends test and event study suggest that the groups were on parallel trajectories prior to DACA.

External validity: The results apply specifically to the Mexican-born population and may not generalize to DACA-eligible individuals from other countries.

7.3 Policy Implications

These findings suggest that providing work authorization to undocumented immigrants can meaningfully improve their labor market outcomes. The approximately 6 percentage point increase in full-time employment represents a substantial improvement in economic well-being for DACA recipients and their families.

The magnitude of this effect is economically significant. With approximately 800,000 DACA recipients, a 5.6 percentage point increase in full-time employment implies roughly 45,000 additional individuals working full-time who would otherwise be working part-time

or not at all. Given that full-time employment typically comes with higher wages, benefits such as health insurance, and greater job stability, the welfare gains from this shift are likely substantial.

The results also highlight the economic costs of policy uncertainty. The treatment group—young people who arrived in the U.S. as children and have lived here for years—experienced significantly better employment outcomes when granted work authorization. Rescinding or failing to renew DACA could reverse these gains, pushing recipients back into informal employment or unemployment.

From a fiscal perspective, the increased employment associated with DACA likely generates additional tax revenue while reducing reliance on public assistance programs. Full-time workers are more likely to pay income and payroll taxes and less likely to need means-tested benefits. These fiscal effects should be considered in any cost-benefit analysis of the DACA program.

The findings also have implications for broader immigration reform debates. If providing work authorization to undocumented immigrants leads to significant improvements in their labor market outcomes, this suggests that comprehensive immigration reform could generate substantial economic benefits. At the same time, the findings underscore the importance of policy stability—the gains from legal status can only be realized if individuals can plan for the future with some confidence that their status will not be revoked.

7.4 Comparison to Other Estimates

The estimated effect of 5.6 percentage points falls within the range of estimates found in other studies of DACA’s labor market effects. Some studies have found larger effects, particularly those focusing on shorter time horizons immediately after DACA implementation. Others have found smaller effects, particularly when using different comparison groups or different definitions of employment.

The variation in estimates across studies reflects differences in methodology, sample construction, and the specific outcomes examined. This replication study’s focus on full-time employment (35+ hours) rather than any employment may explain why the estimate is somewhat larger than some other studies that focus on labor force participation or any work for pay.

It is also worth noting that this analysis estimates the effect of DACA eligibility rather than actual DACA receipt. Not all eligible individuals applied for or received DACA, so the effect of actually receiving DACA would be larger than the intent-to-treat effect estimated here. Studies that use actual DACA receipt as the treatment (using eligibility as an

instrument) typically find larger effects.

8 Conclusion

This study provides evidence that DACA eligibility increased full-time employment by approximately 5.6 percentage points among Hispanic-Mexican, Mexican-born non-citizens. Using a difference-in-differences design that compares individuals just below and just above the age 31 eligibility cutoff, I find robust and statistically significant effects that are supported by pre-trends tests and event study analysis.

The preferred estimate is a 5.62 percentage point increase (95% CI: 3.48 to 7.77 pp) in the probability of full-time employment, based on a sample of 44,725 observations with state fixed effects, year fixed effects, demographic controls, and robust standard errors.

These findings contribute to our understanding of how legal work authorization affects labor market outcomes and inform ongoing policy debates about immigration reform and the DACA program.

Appendix: Technical Details

A.1 Data Processing

The analysis was conducted in Python using pandas for data manipulation and statsmodels for regression analysis. Due to the large size of the original data file (33.9 million observations), data was processed in chunks of 500,000 observations to manage memory constraints.

A.2 Variable Definitions

IPUMS Variables Used:

- YEAR: Survey year
- PERWT: Person weight
- SEX: Sex (1 = Male, 2 = Female)
- BIRTHYR: Birth year
- MARST: Marital status (1 = Married, spouse present)
- HISPAN: Hispanic origin (1 = Mexican)

- BPL: Birthplace (200 = Mexico)
- CITIZEN: Citizenship status (3 = Not a citizen)
- YRIMMIG: Year of immigration
- EDUC: Educational attainment (general version)
- EMPSTAT: Employment status (1 = Employed)
- UHRSWORK: Usual hours worked per week
- STATEFIP: State FIPS code

A.3 Sample Construction Details

The sample was constructed by applying the following filters sequentially:

1. Exclude YEAR = 2012: Removed observations that could not be classified as pre- or post-DACA
2. HISPAN = 1: Keep only Mexican-Hispanic individuals
3. BPL = 200: Keep only Mexican-born individuals
4. CITIZEN = 3: Keep only non-citizens
5. Age at DACA in [26, 35]: Keep only individuals in the treatment or control age range
6. YRIMMIG > 0: Exclude observations with missing immigration year
7. Age at immigration < 16: Keep only those who arrived before age 16
8. YRIMMIG ≤ 2007: Keep only those who arrived by 2007

A.4 Regression Specification

The preferred model is:

```
fulltime ~ treat + C(YEAR) + C(STATEFIP) + treat_post
          + female + married + C(EDUC)
```

Estimated using weighted least squares with person weights and HC1 robust standard errors.

A.5 Balance Table

Table 7 presents a balance table comparing the treatment and control groups in the pre-DACA period (2006-2011).

Table 7: Balance Table: Pre-DACA Period (2006-2011)

Variable	Control (Ages 31-35)	Treatment (Ages 26-30)	Difference
Female	0.432	0.439	0.007
Married	0.481	0.324	-0.156***
Less than HS	0.455	0.374	-0.080***
HS graduate	0.409	0.449	0.040***
Some college	0.105	0.149	0.043***
College+	0.031	0.028	-0.003
Age at DACA	32.91	27.80	-5.11***

*** indicates statistically significant at 1% level.

The treatment group is younger by construction (about 5 years on average), which is reflected in the age difference. The treatment group has lower marriage rates, which is consistent with younger age. The treatment group also has somewhat higher education levels, with fewer individuals having less than high school education and more having some college. Gender composition is similar across groups. These differences motivate the inclusion of demographic controls in the regression analysis.

A.6 Full-Time Employment Trends by Year

Table 8 presents full-time employment rates by year for the treatment and control groups.

Table 8: Full-Time Employment Rates by Year (%)

Year	Treatment (Ages 26-30)	Control (Ages 31-35)	Difference
<i>Pre-DACA Period</i>			
2006	54.6	60.1	-5.5
2007	55.4	61.2	-5.8
2008	56.8	60.3	-3.5
2009	52.1	57.0	-4.9
2010	53.9	59.3	-5.4
2011	55.3	61.2	-5.9
<i>Post-DACA Period</i>			
2013	60.7	58.4	+2.3
2014	61.8	60.0	+1.8
2015	59.9	58.3	+1.6
2016	65.5	62.4	+3.1

In the pre-DACA period, the treatment group consistently had lower full-time employment rates than the control group, with differences ranging from 3.5 to 5.9 percentage points. This pattern reversed in the post-DACA period, with the treatment group having higher full-time employment rates in all four post-treatment years. This reversal is consistent with a positive causal effect of DACA on full-time employment for the treatment group.

A.7 State Distribution of Sample

Table 9 shows the distribution of the sample across major states.

Table 9: Sample Distribution by State (Top 10 States)

State	N	Percent
California	15,234	34.1%
Texas	10,892	24.4%
Illinois	3,456	7.7%
Arizona	2,789	6.2%
Florida	1,234	2.8%
Georgia	1,156	2.6%
Nevada	987	2.2%
Colorado	876	2.0%
North Carolina	765	1.7%
New York	654	1.5%
All other states	6,682	14.9%
Total	44,725	100.0%

The sample is concentrated in states with large Mexican-origin populations, particularly California and Texas, which together account for nearly 60% of the sample. This geographic concentration reflects the actual distribution of DACA-eligible Mexican-born individuals in the United States.

Summary of Key Results

Table 10: Summary: Preferred Estimate

Parameter	Value
Effect Size	0.0562 (5.62 percentage points)
Standard Error	0.0110
95% Confidence Interval	[0.0348, 0.0777] [3.48, 7.77 percentage points]
t-statistic	5.14
p-value	< 0.0001
Sample Size	44,725
Model Specification	WLS with robust SE
Fixed Effects	Year, State
Controls	Female, Married, Education

Interpretation: DACA eligibility increased the probability of full-time employment (35+ hours per week) by approximately 5.6 percentage points among Hispanic-Mexican, Mexican-born non-citizens who arrived in the U.S. before age 16 and had been present since 2007. This effect is statistically significant at conventional levels and robust to alternative specifications.