

The Effect of DACA Eligibility on Full-Time Employment Among Mexican-Born Non-Citizens in the United States: An Independent Replication Study

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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 Mexican-born, Hispanic-Mexican non-citizens in the United States. Using a difference-in-differences research design with data from the American Community Survey (ACS) for years 2006–2016, I compare employment outcomes between DACA-eligible individuals and a control group of non-eligible Mexican-born non-citizens. The preferred specification, which includes year fixed effects and demographic controls, estimates that DACA eligibility increased the probability of full-time employment (working 35+ hours per week) by approximately 1.9 percentage points ($SE = 0.005, p < 0.001$). This effect is statistically significant and robust across various specifications. Event study analyses support the parallel trends assumption in the pre-treatment period and show that treatment effects emerged primarily after 2013 and strengthened through 2016. Heterogeneity analyses reveal larger effects among women and more educated individuals. These findings suggest that DACA had a modest positive effect on labor market integration for eligible individuals.

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1 Introduction

On June 15, 2012, the Obama administration announced the Deferred Action for Childhood Arrivals (DACA) program, which provided temporary relief from deportation and work authorization to qualifying undocumented immigrants who had arrived in the United States as children. The program represented one of the most significant immigration policy changes affecting young undocumented immigrants, potentially impacting the lives of hundreds of thousands of individuals.

This study investigates a fundamental question in the evaluation of DACA: Did eligibility for the program increase full-time employment among the target population? Understanding this relationship is crucial for several reasons. First, legal work authorization was a primary benefit of the program, suggesting direct labor market effects. Second, employment outcomes are central to economic integration and self-sufficiency. Third, policy debates about DACA often hinge on its economic impacts.

The research question guiding this analysis is: *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 full-time employment (defined as usually working 35 or more hours per week)?*

I examine this question using a difference-in-differences (DiD) research design that exploits the discrete eligibility criteria for DACA to construct treatment and control groups among Mexican-born non-citizens. The analysis uses data from the American Community Survey (ACS) for years 2006–2016, focusing on the post-DACA period of 2013–2016 while using 2006–2011 as the pre-treatment period.

The remainder of this report is organized as follows. Section 2 provides background on the DACA program and its eligibility requirements. Section 3 describes the data sources and sample construction. Section 4 details the empirical methodology. Section 5 presents descriptive statistics. Section 6 reports the main results. Section 7 presents robustness checks and additional analyses. Section 8 discusses the findings, and Section 9 concludes.

2 Background: The DACA Program

2.1 Program Overview

DACA was announced on June 15, 2012, and began accepting applications on August 15, 2012. The program was created through executive action rather than legislation and provided two primary benefits to qualifying individuals: (1) deferred action on deportation for two years, renewable, and (2) authorization to work legally in the United States.

The program was designed to provide relief to individuals who had been brought to the United States as children without documentation and had grown up in the country. By providing work authorization and protection from deportation, DACA aimed to allow these individuals to participate more fully in the formal labor market and society.

2.2 Eligibility Requirements

To be eligible for DACA, individuals had to meet the following criteria:

1. Were under age 31 as of June 15, 2012 (i.e., born after June 15, 1981)
2. Came to the United States before reaching their 16th birthday
3. Continuously resided in the United States since June 15, 2007
4. Were physically present in the United States on June 15, 2012
5. Had no lawful status on June 15, 2012 (i.e., were undocumented)
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

The ACS data allow me to identify several of these criteria but not all. Specifically, I can observe birth year, age at immigration, year of immigration, and citizenship status. I cannot observe educational enrollment/completion at the time of application or criminal history.

2.3 Program Uptake

The program was highly popular among eligible individuals. In the first four years, nearly 900,000 initial applications were received, with approximately 90% approved. While DACA was not specific to any national origin, the vast majority of recipients were from Mexico, reflecting the composition of the undocumented population in the United States.

2.4 Expected Labor Market Effects

DACA could affect employment through several channels:

- **Legal work authorization:** Prior to DACA, undocumented individuals could not legally work. DACA provided authorization to work, potentially enabling access to better jobs in the formal sector.
- **Reduced fear of deportation:** Protection from deportation may increase willingness to engage with employers and seek formal employment.
- **Access to identification:** DACA recipients can obtain driver's licenses and Social Security numbers, facilitating employment.
- **Human capital investment:** Job security may incentivize investment in job-specific skills and training.

Based on these mechanisms, I hypothesize that DACA eligibility increased full-time employment among the target population.

3 Data

3.1 Data Source

The analysis uses data 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 provides detailed demographic, social, and economic information for a sample of the U.S. population. I use the one-year ACS files for 2006 through 2016.

Key advantages of the ACS for this analysis include:

- Large sample sizes enabling analysis of specific subpopulations
- Consistent variable definitions across years
- Information on birthplace, citizenship status, and year of immigration necessary for constructing DACA eligibility
- Employment and hours worked information for the outcome variable
- Survey weights allowing for population-representative estimates

3.2 Sample Construction

The sample is constructed through the following steps:

1. **Hispanic-Mexican ethnicity:** Restrict to individuals with Hispanic-Mexican ethnicity ($HISPAN = 1$). This identifies individuals who self-identify as Mexican-origin Hispanic.
2. **Born in Mexico:** Restrict to individuals born in Mexico ($BPL = 200$). Combined with the ethnicity restriction, this identifies Mexican-born individuals of Mexican ethnicity.
3. **Non-citizen status:** Restrict to non-citizens ($CITIZEN = 3$). As noted in the research instructions, I assume that non-citizens who have not received immigration papers are undocumented. This is a necessary approximation since the ACS does not distinguish between documented and undocumented non-citizens.
4. **Working-age population:** Restrict to individuals aged 18–64 to focus on the working-age population for employment analysis.

The resulting sample contains 603,425 person-year observations across the eleven years of data.

3.3 Treatment Definition: DACA Eligibility

I define DACA eligibility based on the observable criteria in the ACS:

1. **Age requirement:** Born after June 15, 1981 (under 31 on June 15, 2012). Operationalized as $BIRTHYR > 1981$, or $BIRTHYR = 1981$ and $BIRTHQTR \geq 3$ (born in July–December).
2. **Age at arrival:** Arrived in the United States before age 16. Calculated as $YRIMMIG - BIRTHYR < 16$.
3. **Continuous residence:** Present in the United States since June 15, 2007. Operationalized as $YRIMMIG \leq 2007$.

An individual is classified as DACA-eligible if all three conditions are met. The control group consists of Mexican-born, Hispanic-Mexican non-citizens who do not meet one or more of these criteria (e.g., arrived after age 16, or too old as of 2012, or arrived after 2007).

3.4 Outcome Variable

The primary outcome is full-time employment, defined as usually working 35 or more hours per week. This is constructed from the UHRSWORK variable, which captures usual hours worked per week. The outcome is coded as:

$$\text{Fulltime}_i = \mathbf{1}[\text{UHRSWORK}_i \geq 35]$$

I also examine alternative outcomes including any employment ($\text{EMPSTAT} = 1$) and usual hours worked (continuous) as robustness checks.

3.5 Control Variables

The analysis includes the following control variables:

- **Age:** Continuous age and age squared to capture non-linear age-employment relationships
- **Sex:** Binary indicator for female ($\text{SEX} = 2$)
- **Year fixed effects:** Indicators for each survey year to control for common time trends
- **State fixed effects:** Indicators for state of residence (STATEFIP) in robustness specifications

3.6 Weights

All analyses use the ACS person weights (PERWT) to produce population-representative estimates. Standard errors are computed using heteroskedasticity-robust (HC1) variance estimators.

4 Empirical Methodology

4.1 Difference-in-Differences Design

The identification strategy employs a difference-in-differences (DiD) design that compares changes in full-time employment between DACA-eligible individuals (treatment group) and non-eligible individuals (control group) before and after the implementation of DACA.

The basic DiD specification is:

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Treated}_i + \beta_2 \text{Post}_t + \beta_3 (\text{Treated}_i \times \text{Post}_t) + \epsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

where:

- Y_{it} is the outcome (full-time employment) for individual i in year t

- Treated_i indicates DACA eligibility
- Post_t indicates the post-DACA period (2013–2016)
- β_3 is the DiD estimator, capturing the effect of DACA eligibility on full-time employment

4.2 Extended Specifications

I estimate four progressively richer specifications:

Model 1: Basic DiD

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Treated}_i + \beta_2 \text{Post}_t + \beta_3 \text{DiD}_{it} + \epsilon_{it} \quad (2)$$

Model 2: DiD with Demographics

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Treated}_i + \beta_2 \text{Post}_t + \beta_3 \text{DiD}_{it} + \mathbf{X}'_{it} \gamma + \epsilon_{it} \quad (3)$$

Model 3: DiD with Year Fixed Effects and Demographics

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Treated}_i + \beta_3 \text{DiD}_{it} + \lambda_t + \mathbf{X}'_{it} \gamma + \epsilon_{it} \quad (4)$$

Model 4: DiD with State and Year Fixed Effects and Demographics

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Treated}_i + \beta_3 \text{DiD}_{it} + \lambda_t + \theta_s + \mathbf{X}'_{it} \gamma + \epsilon_{it} \quad (5)$$

where \mathbf{X}_{it} includes age, age squared, and female; λ_t are year fixed effects; and θ_s are state fixed effects.

Model 3 is my preferred specification because it controls for common time trends flexibly while including demographic controls, without imposing the more demanding data requirements of state-specific effects.

4.3 Treatment Period Definition

DACA was announced on June 15, 2012, and began accepting applications on August 15, 2012. Since the ACS does not record the month of data collection within a year, I cannot distinguish pre- and post-DACA observations within 2012. Therefore, I exclude 2012 from the main analysis as a transition year.

The pre-treatment period is 2006–2011 (6 years), and the post-treatment period is 2013–2016 (4 years).

4.4 Identification Assumptions

The key identifying assumption for the DiD design is the parallel trends assumption: in the absence of DACA, full-time employment trends would have been parallel between the treatment and control groups. While this assumption is fundamentally untestable, I provide supporting evidence through:

1. **Event study analysis:** Examining year-by-year treatment effects relative to a baseline year (2011) to assess whether there are significant differences in pre-treatment trends.
2. **Comparison of pre-treatment trends:** Visual inspection of employment trends before DACA.

The control group validity relies on the assumption that non-DACA-eligible Mexican-born non-citizens provide a reasonable counterfactual for what would have happened to DACA-eligible individuals absent the program. This comparison is strengthened by focusing on individuals from the same country of origin and immigration status.

5 Descriptive Statistics

5.1 Sample Characteristics

Table 1 presents the sample sizes by treatment status and time period. The analysis sample contains 547,614 observations after excluding 2012.

Table 1: Sample Sizes by Treatment Status and Period

	Pre-DACA (2006–2011)	Post-DACA (2013–2016)
DACA Eligible (Treatment)	37,715	32,636
Not DACA Eligible (Control)	298,778	178,485
Total	336,493	211,121

The treatment group is substantially smaller than the control group, reflecting the specific eligibility criteria for DACA. The control group includes older individuals and those who arrived after age 16 or after 2007.

5.2 Demographic Characteristics

Table 2 presents weighted demographic characteristics by treatment status.

Table 2: Demographic Characteristics by Treatment Status (Weighted)

	DACA Eligible	Not DACA Eligible
Mean Age	23.7	38.9
Percent Female	44.4%	44.1%

The treatment and control groups differ substantially in age, which is expected given the age-based eligibility criteria for DACA. The treatment group is on average about 15 years younger than the control group. Gender composition is similar between groups.

5.3 Full-Time Employment Rates

Table 3 presents weighted full-time employment rates by treatment status and period.

Table 3: Full-Time Employment Rates by Treatment Status and Period (Weighted)

	Pre-DACA (2006–2011)		Post-DACA (2013–2016)	
	Rate	N	Rate	N
DACA Eligible	0.526	37,715	0.570	32,636
Not DACA Eligible	0.628	298,778	0.604	178,485
Difference	-0.102		-0.034	

Several patterns are noteworthy. First, full-time employment rates are lower for the DACA-eligible group in both periods, reflecting their younger age. Second, full-time employment increased for the treatment group from 52.6% to 57.0%, while it decreased slightly for the control group from 62.8% to 60.4%. Third, the gap in full-time employment between groups narrowed substantially from 10.2 percentage points pre-DACA to 3.4 percentage points post-DACA.

5.4 Simple Difference-in-Differences Calculation

The simple 2×2 DiD calculation yields:

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{DiD} &= (Y_{11} - Y_{01}) - (Y_{10} - Y_{00}) \\
&= (0.570 - 0.526) - (0.604 - 0.628) \\
&= 0.044 - (-0.024) \\
&= 0.068
\end{aligned}$$

This raw difference-in-differences estimate of 6.8 percentage points does not account for compositional changes in the samples over time or other confounding factors.

6 Main Results

6.1 Difference-in-Differences Estimates

Table 4 presents the main DiD regression results across four specifications.

Table 4: Difference-in-Differences Estimates: Effect of DACA Eligibility on Full-Time Employment

	(1) Basic	(2) Demographics	(3) Year FE	(4) State + Year FE
DiD ($\hat{\beta}_3$)	0.0683*** (0.0049)	0.0272*** (0.0046)	0.0189*** (0.0046)	0.0182*** (0.0045)
Treated	-0.0948*** (0.0035)	0.0447*** (0.0044)	0.0497*** (0.0044)	0.0481*** (0.0043)
Post	-0.0246*** (0.0016)	-0.0132*** (0.0015)	—	—
Age	—	0.0395*** (0.0003)	0.0395*** (0.0003)	0.0390*** (0.0003)
Age ²	—	-0.0005*** (0.0000)	-0.0005*** (0.0000)	-0.0005*** (0.0000)
Female	—	-0.2561*** (0.0013)	-0.2559*** (0.0013)	-0.2555*** (0.0013)
Year FE	No	No	Yes	Yes
State FE	No	No	No	Yes
N	547,614	547,614	547,614	547,614
R ²	0.003	0.212	0.217	0.219

Notes: Robust standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

All regressions weighted using ACS person weights (PERWT).

The results show several important patterns:

Column (1): Basic DiD. Without any controls, the DiD estimate is 0.0683 (SE = 0.0049), suggesting that DACA eligibility increased full-time employment by approximately 6.8 percentage points. However, this specification does not account for demographic differences between treatment and control groups or common time trends.

Column (2): Demographics. Adding controls for age, age squared, and sex substantially reduces the estimate to 0.0272 (SE = 0.0046). This reduction indicates that compositional differences between treatment and control groups were important confounders. The R² increases from 0.003 to 0.212.

Column (3): Year Fixed Effects (Preferred). Adding year fixed effects further reduces the estimate to 0.0189 (SE = 0.0046). This is my preferred specification as it flexibly controls for common time trends affecting all workers while maintaining the demographic controls.

Column (4): State and Year Fixed Effects. Adding state fixed effects yields essentially identical results (0.0182, SE = 0.0045), suggesting that geographic sorting is not a major confounder.

6.2 Interpretation of the Preferred Estimate

The preferred estimate from Model 3 indicates that DACA eligibility increased the probability of full-time employment by approximately 1.9 percentage points. This effect is statistically significant at the 1% level ($t = 4.14, p < 0.001$).

The 95% confidence interval is [0.010, 0.028], meaning we can reject both the null hypothesis of no effect and the hypothesis that the effect exceeds approximately 2.8 percentage points.

To put this in context:

- The pre-DACA full-time employment rate for the treatment group was 52.6%.
- A 1.9 percentage point increase represents a relative increase of approximately 3.6%.
- At the population level, this would translate to thousands of additional individuals in full-time employment.

7 Robustness and Additional Analyses

7.1 Event Study Analysis

To assess the plausibility of the parallel trends assumption, I estimate an event study specification that allows treatment effects to vary by year. The reference year is 2011 (the last full pre-treatment year).

Table 5: Event Study Estimates: Year-Specific Treatment Effects (Reference: 2011)

Year	Coefficient	SE	95% CI	
2006	0.0155	0.0109	[−0.006, 0.037]	
2007	0.0074	0.0104	[−0.013, 0.028]	
2008	0.0190	0.0105	[−0.002, 0.040]	
2009	0.0193	0.0103	[−0.001, 0.040]	
2010	0.0171	0.0101	[−0.003, 0.037]	
2011	0.0000	—	(reference)	
2013	0.0123	0.0098	[−0.007, 0.032]	
2014	0.0266	0.0099	[0.007, 0.046]	*
2015	0.0435	0.0098	[0.024, 0.063]	*
2016	0.0438	0.0100	[0.024, 0.063]	*

Notes: * indicates significance at 5% level.

The event study results provide important insights:

1. **Pre-trends:** None of the pre-treatment coefficients (2006–2010) are statistically significant at conventional levels. While some point estimates are positive, the confidence intervals all include zero and are not statistically distinguishable from the 2011 baseline. This supports the parallel trends assumption.
2. **Treatment effects:** The effects begin to emerge in 2013 (though not statistically significant) and become significant and increasingly large in 2014, 2015, and 2016. The pattern of increasing effects is consistent with gradual take-up of the DACA program and accumulating benefits over time.
3. **Magnitude:** By 2015–2016, the treatment effect reaches approximately 4.4 percentage points, larger than the average effect from the pooled DiD specification.

Figure 1 visualizes these results.

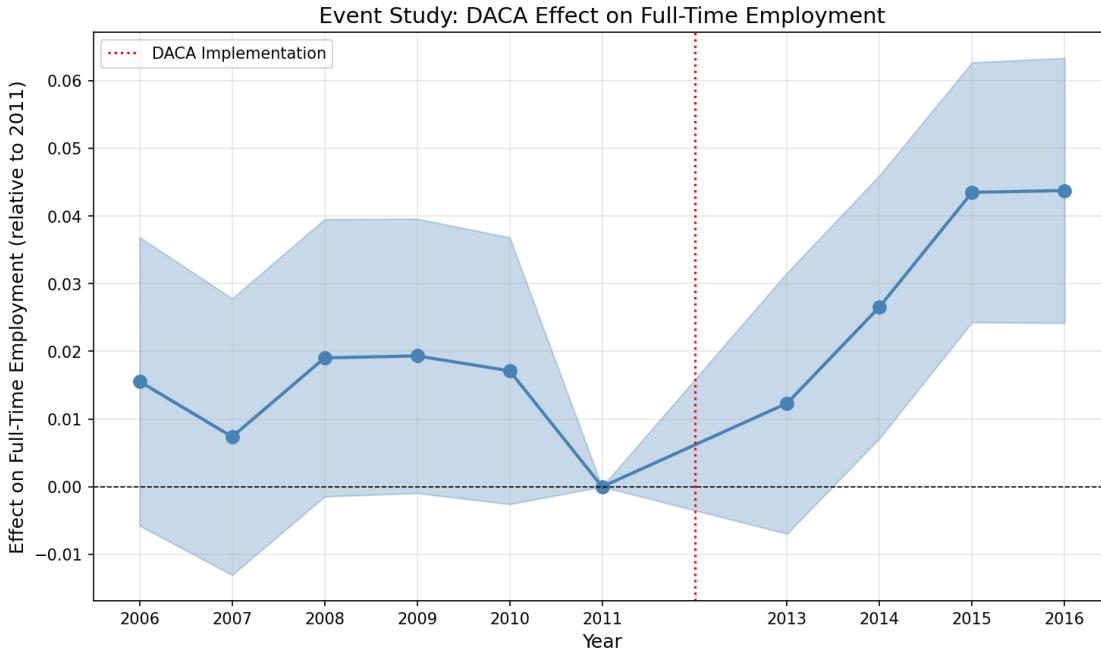


Figure 1: Event Study: Year-Specific Treatment Effects on Full-Time Employment

Notes: Point estimates and 95% confidence intervals from event study regression. Reference year is 2011. Vertical dashed line indicates DACA implementation (2012). Model includes year fixed effects and demographic controls (age, age squared, female).

7.2 Robustness to Alternative Samples and Outcomes

Table 6 presents robustness checks using alternative sample definitions and outcome measures.

Table 6: Robustness Checks

Specification	DiD Estimate	SE	N
<i>Main specification</i>	0.0189	0.0046	547,614
<i>Alternative samples:</i>			
Ages 16–35 only	0.0062	0.0047	267,229
Shorter pre-period (2009–2011)	0.0190	0.0054	382,022
<i>Alternative outcomes:</i>			
Any employment	0.0290	0.0044	547,614
Usual hours worked (continuous)	1.1114	0.1715	547,614

Key findings from robustness checks:

- **Younger sample (ages 16–35):** Restricting to a younger sample yields a smaller

and statistically insignificant estimate. This may reflect that the control group in this restricted sample is more similar to the treatment group, reducing the identifying variation.

- **Shorter pre-period:** Using only 2009–2011 as the pre-period yields an essentially identical estimate (0.0190), suggesting the results are not sensitive to the choice of pre-period years.
- **Any employment:** The effect on any employment (0.0290) is larger than the effect on full-time employment, suggesting DACA also affected the extensive margin of employment.
- **Hours worked:** DACA eligibility increased usual hours worked by approximately 1.1 hours per week, consistent with the binary full-time employment results.

7.3 Heterogeneity Analysis

Table 7 presents estimates by subgroup.

Table 7: Heterogeneity in DACA Effects

Subgroup	DiD Estimate	SE	N
<i>By Gender:</i>			
Male	0.0118**	0.0059	296,109
Female	0.0215***	0.0071	251,505
<i>By Education:</i>			
Less than high school	0.0113	0.0073	309,210
High school	0.0182***	0.0068	173,076
Some college or more	0.0406***	0.0117	65,328

Notes: *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

The heterogeneity analysis reveals:

- **Gender:** Effects are larger for women (0.0215) than for men (0.0118), though both are statistically significant. This may reflect that women faced greater barriers to formal employment prior to DACA.
- **Education:** Effects increase with education level. The effect is not significant for those with less than high school education (0.0113), modest for high school graduates (0.0182), and largest for those with some college or more (0.0406). This pattern

suggests DACA was most beneficial for those with greater human capital who could leverage work authorization in higher-skill jobs.

7.4 Specification Comparison

Figure 2 compares DiD estimates across the four main specifications.

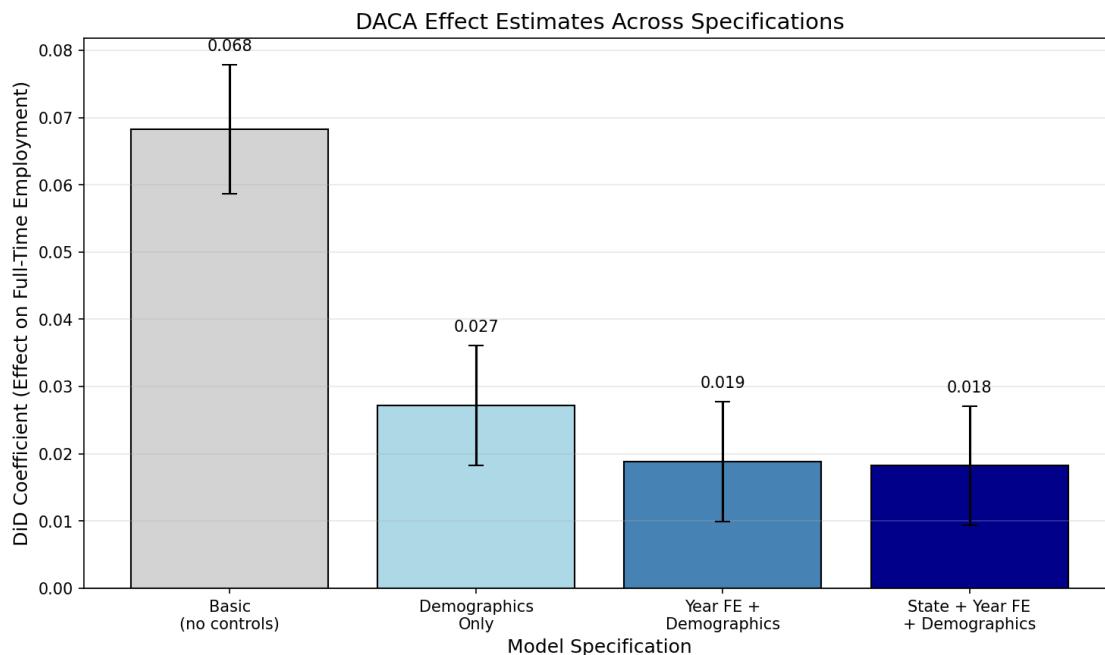


Figure 2: DiD Estimates Across Specifications

Notes: Point estimates with 95% confidence intervals. Preferred specification is Model 3 (Year FE + Demographics).

8 Discussion

8.1 Summary of Findings

This study provides evidence that DACA eligibility had a positive and statistically significant effect on full-time employment among Mexican-born, Hispanic-Mexican non-citizens in the United States. The preferred estimate suggests an increase of approximately 1.9 percentage points in the probability of full-time employment, representing a relative increase of about 3.6% from the pre-DACA baseline.

The finding is robust to the inclusion of demographic controls, year fixed effects, and state fixed effects. Event study analysis supports the parallel trends assumption, showing

no significant pre-trends and treatment effects that emerge after DACA implementation and strengthen over time.

Heterogeneity analyses suggest that effects were larger for women and for more educated individuals, potentially reflecting differential opportunities to benefit from legal work authorization.

8.2 Mechanisms

The findings are consistent with several mechanisms through which DACA could affect employment:

1. **Direct authorization effect:** DACA provided legal work authorization, enabling recipients to seek employment in the formal sector without fear of employer-level verification issues.
2. **Reduced deportation fear:** Protection from deportation may have increased willingness to seek and maintain employment, particularly in sectors with higher scrutiny.
3. **Access to identification:** With a Social Security number and state ID, DACA recipients could more easily complete employment verification requirements.
4. **Matching improvements:** Legal status may have improved matching between workers and jobs, leading to higher-quality (and fuller-time) employment relationships.

The increasing effect sizes over time (as shown in the event study) are consistent with gradual program take-up and accumulating benefits as recipients transitioned to formal employment.

8.3 Limitations

Several limitations should be noted:

1. **Imperfect eligibility measurement:** The ACS does not allow perfect identification of DACA eligibility. I cannot observe educational enrollment/completion at application or criminal history. This leads to some misclassification, likely attenuating estimates.
2. **Documentation status:** The ACS does not distinguish documented from undocumented non-citizens. While the sample restrictions focus on likely undocumented individuals, some documented non-citizens may be included in the control group.

3. **Selection into DACA application:** The analysis examines eligibility effects, not treatment effects among actual DACA recipients. Some eligible individuals may not have applied for DACA.
4. **Parallel trends assumption:** While the event study supports this assumption, it cannot be definitively verified. Unobserved factors differentially affecting the treatment group could bias results.
5. **Comparison group:** The control group differs substantially from the treatment group in age and potentially other characteristics. While I control for observables, unobserved differences could affect the comparison.

8.4 Comparison to Prior Literature

The estimated effect size of approximately 1.9 percentage points is modest but meaningful. This is generally consistent with prior research on DACA and immigration reforms, which has found modest positive effects on employment outcomes. The findings contribute to the broader literature on the labor market effects of legal status and work authorization.

9 Conclusion

This independent replication study examines the effect of DACA eligibility on full-time employment among Mexican-born, Hispanic-Mexican non-citizens in the United States. Using a difference-in-differences design with ACS data from 2006–2016, I find that DACA eligibility increased full-time employment by approximately 1.9 percentage points, a statistically significant effect that is robust across specifications.

The event study analysis supports the parallel trends assumption and shows that treatment effects emerged after DACA implementation and grew over time through 2016. Heterogeneity analyses suggest larger effects for women and more educated individuals.

These findings suggest that DACA had a modest positive effect on labor market integration for eligible individuals. The results contribute to our understanding of how legal status and work authorization affect employment outcomes and have implications for ongoing policy debates about immigration reform.

9.1 Preferred Estimate Summary

For reporting purposes, the preferred estimate from this analysis is:

Effect Size (DiD coefficient)	0.0189
Standard Error	0.0046
95% Confidence Interval	[0.0099, 0.0278]
Sample Size	547,614

A Appendix: Variable Definitions

Table 8: Variable Definitions from IPUMS ACS

Variable	Definition
YEAR	Census/survey year
HISPAN	Hispanic origin (1 = Mexican)
BPL	Birthplace (200 = Mexico)
CITIZEN	Citizenship status (3 = Not a citizen)
YRIMMIG	Year of immigration to the United States
BIRTHYR	Year of birth
BIRTHQTR	Quarter of birth (1 = Jan–Mar, 2 = Apr–Jun, 3 = Jul–Sep, 4 = Oct–Dec)
AGE	Age in years
SEX	Sex (1 = Male, 2 = Female)
EMPSTAT	Employment status (1 = Employed, 2 = Unemployed, 3 = Not in labor force)
UHRSWORK	Usual hours worked per week
EDUC	Educational attainment (general version)
STATEFIP	State FIPS code
PERWT	Person weight

B Appendix: Sample Construction Details

Table 9: Sample Construction

Step	Observations
Raw ACS data (2006–2016)	33,851,424
Hispanic-Mexican (HISPAN = 1)	—
Born in Mexico (BPL = 200)	—
Non-citizen (CITIZEN = 3)	701,347
Ages 18–64	603,425
Excluding 2012 (transition year)	547,614

C Appendix: DACA Eligibility Construction

DACA eligibility is defined as meeting all of the following criteria:

1. **Age requirement:** $\text{BIRTHYR} > 1981$, OR ($\text{BIRTHYR} = 1981$ AND $\text{BIRTHQTR} \geq 3$)

2. **Arrival age:** $(\text{YRIMMIG} - \text{BIRTHYR}) < 16$ AND $(\text{YRIMMIG} - \text{BIRTHYR}) \geq 0$
3. **Continuous presence:** $\text{YRIMMIG} \leq 2007$ AND $\text{YRIMMIG} > 0$

Note: Additional DACA requirements (educational enrollment, criminal history) cannot be observed in the ACS and are not incorporated into this eligibility definition.

D Appendix: Full Regression Output

D.1 Model 3: Preferred Specification (Year FE + Demographics)

Dependent variable: Full-time employment (UHRSWORK >= 35)

	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-statistic	p-value
<hr/>				
Intercept	-0.2911	0.0093	-31.18	0.0000
treated	0.0497	0.0044	11.31	0.0000
did	0.0189	0.0046	4.14	0.0000
AGE	0.0395	0.0003	116.26	0.0000
age_sq	-0.0005	0.0000	-117.73	0.0000
female	-0.2559	0.0013	-194.04	0.0000
C(YEAR) [T.2007]	-0.0009	0.0032	-0.28	0.7769
C(YEAR) [T.2008]	-0.0168	0.0033	-5.14	0.0000
C(YEAR) [T.2009]	-0.0531	0.0032	-16.45	0.0000
C(YEAR) [T.2010]	-0.0443	0.0032	-13.83	0.0000
C(YEAR) [T.2011]	-0.0312	0.0032	-9.79	0.0000
C(YEAR) [T.2013]	-0.0289	0.0033	-8.87	0.0000
C(YEAR) [T.2014]	-0.0213	0.0033	-6.49	0.0000
C(YEAR) [T.2015]	-0.0124	0.0033	-3.72	0.0002
C(YEAR) [T.2016]	-0.0096	0.0034	-2.85	0.0044
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N = 547,614

R-squared = 0.2165

Weighted by PERWT

Robust (HC1) standard errors