The International Transmission of Local Economic Shocks Through Migrant Networks*

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Abstract

Using newly validated data on geographic migration networks, we study how labor demand shocks in the United States propagate across the border with Mexico. We show that the large exogenous decline in US employment brought about by the Great Recession affected demographic and economic outcomes in Mexican communities that were highly connected to the most affected markets in the US. In the Mexican locations with strong initial ties to the hardest hit US migrant destinations, return migration increased, emigration decreased, and remittance receipt declined. These changes significantly increased local employment and hours worked, but wages were unaffected. Investment in children's education also slowed in these communities. These findings document the effects in Mexico when potential migrants lose access to a strong US labor market, providing insight into the potential impacts of stricter US migration restrictions.

JEL codes: F22, J21, J23, J61, R23

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1 Introduction

Goods trade and capital flows are well-studied economic mechanisms that integrate markets across international borders, but international migration represents another potentially equilibrating force (Chiswick and Hatton 2003). International migration is driven partly by economic incentives, with migrants responding to relative economic conditions in sending and receiving locations. Research suggests that potential migrants choose destinations with higher expected earnings, and their choices affect the size and composition of the labor force in source and destination communities (Hanson and Spilimbergo 1999, Borjas 2001, Cadena 2013, Cadena and Kovak 2016). This earnings-maximizing behavior implies that local labor market conditions in potential destinations will affect demographic and economic outcomes in sending locations by changing both migration choices and the remittance behavior of existing migrants.

In this paper, we study how changes in US labor demand affect migration, demographic, and economic outcomes in migration-network-connected communities in Mexico. The United States is by far the most important destination for migrants from Mexico, as 98 percent of Mexicans living abroad are in the US and approximately 10 percent of the Mexican-born population lives in the United States.[1] Changes in US labor demand should thus have important consequences in Mexican communities. We focus on the effects of US labor demand declines during the Great Recession and show that these demand shocks affect outcomes across an international border in Mexican sending areas with strong ties to the hardest-hit US local labor markets. Our focus on sending communities contrasts with that of most of the literature on the economics of Mexico-US migration, which primarily evaluates the impacts of Mexican migration on US destination markets.[2] We know relatively little about the effects of US labor market conditions on outcomes in Mexico because of the lack of detailed information connecting migrants' sources and destinations at the sub-national level.

[1] Numbers living in the US and in other countries are available in Secretaría de Relaciones Exteriores (2015). Population numbers for 2010 and 2015 are available at https://www.inegi.org.mx/temas/estructura/.

[2] See National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2017) for a survey of the literature on the effects of immigration on earnings, employment, and wages in destination countries, and Mishra (2014) and Elsner (2015) for surveys of the literature on the effects of emigration on wages in source countries.

We overcome this challenge using newly validated administrative data from the *Matrícula Consular de Alta Seguridad* (MCAS) identification card program. These data measure the distribution of US commuting zones chosen by migrants from each Mexican *municipio* (similar to a US county). This network measure has far more geographic detail than is available in other data sources, allowing us to observe each Mexican sending community's ties to each US local labor market.[3] We derive a reduced-form estimating equation and shock measure from a simple location choice model, which shows how to leverage two key sources of variation: the heterogeneity across US commuting zones in employment declines during the Great Recession and differences in migration network connections between each Mexican municipio and each US destination. The resulting research design compares the change in outcomes between source municipios whose migrants face larger and smaller effective declines in US employment due to their source location's mix of US destinations.

In order for this analysis to have a causal interpretation, a municipio's network-weighted US demand shock must be uncorrelated with other factors affecting its demographic and economic outcomes. This exogeneity assumption is likely to hold in part because the relevant demand shocks for each municipio occur in another country (the US) and are thus unlikely to be related to other changes in Mexican source communities. To strengthen the causal interpretation, we include Mexican state fixed effects so that we compare only geographically proximate municipios, and we allow for differential trends based on pre-existing characteristics of the source community. Further, we follow the model-motivated estimation strategy by controlling for contemporaneous changes in observable source-level characteristics such as drug-related violence and network-weighted averages of destination-level changes in local immigration enforcement policy. We also control for the possibility that the Great Recession affected Mexican outcomes through international trade by including a measure of each municipio's exposure to declining US-Mexico trade over the same time period. The results are robust to the inclusion of these controls, bolstering the interpretation of the key coefficient as the causal effect of declining US labor demand on Mexican source community outcomes.[4]

[3]Caballero, Cadena and Kovak (2018) confirm the quality and representativeness of the MCAS data by comparing it against high quality household survey data. Other papers using various versions of the MCAS data include Albert and Monras (2022), Allen, Dobbin and Morten (2019), and Tian, Caballero and Kovak (2022).

[4]Due to the shift-share structure of the US employment shock faced by each Mexican migrant-sending community,

Using Mexican Census data, we find that source communities with strong initial ties to the US destinations hardest-hit by the Recession experienced roughly 20 percent faster population growth from 2005 to 2010, driven in large part by a similar percentage increase in return migration and decrease in emigration. The change in migration also increased the share of the local workforce that is male, although the educational attainment distribution was relatively unaffected. Beyond the movement of people, we also find a 20 percent decline in the likelihood that households receive remittances in Mexican sources facing larger US labor demand declines.

These changes in population size and composition directly lead to a substantial increase in the size of the local labor force. Further, the loss of US remittance income creates an incentive for additional household members to enter the labor force. Using data from the Mexican Economic Census, we examine the impact of these changes on municipio-level labor market outcomes (with similar results at the Mexican commuting zone level). As expected, we find clear evidence of an expansion in labor supply, with source communities facing the largest declines in US employment opportunities seeing larger increases in employment and total hours worked, especially among women. We reinforce this result with descriptive evidence showing that the relationship between labor supply and US labor demand shocks appears only in households who had migrants in the US during the Great Recession period. Interestingly, we find no evidence that this expansion of labor supply led to a relative decrease in local wages. This result is not driven by changes in the composition of the local labor force and is consistent with much of the literature on the effect of immigration on host labor markets, potentially reflecting the fact that the return of migrants also increased local labor demand.[5] We then document the effects of declining US labor demand on household investment behavior, both in durable goods and human capital. We find minimal effects on appliance ownership but find that children in the most affected communities are less likely to remain in school, especially at late primary school ages.

Taken together, these results demonstrate that migrant networks transmit changes in US local

we adjust standard errors and control for the share of the community's population that lives in the US, following Borusyak, Hull and Jaravel (2022).

[5]See National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2017) for a thorough literature review.

labor demand across the southern border with Mexico, leading to significant effects on a wide variety of outcomes in sending areas. Further, because our analysis focuses on job loss among migrants, the results show how losing access to US employment affects economic outcomes in Mexican migrant-sending communities. Policymakers have recently proposed limiting some migrants' ability to work in the US through other means, such as mandatory nationwide E-Verify, which would require firms to check a federal electronic database to see whether a job applicant has legal work authorization before hiring them.[6] Thus, in addition to documenting the impacts of the US Great Recession across Mexican communities, our findings provide insight into the potential impacts of proposed migration restrictions.

This paper contributes to multiple strands of literature. First, as mentioned above, many papers find that international migrants' location choices respond to local labor market conditions.[7] Borjas (2001) simulated how foreign-born workers' location choices might equalize native workers' wages across regional labor markets in the destination country, and Cadena and Kovak (2016) empirically measure these equalizing effects, showing that a metropolitan area's local population of Mexican-born workers with no more than a high school degree was strongly responsive to changes in local labor demand during the Great Recession. Here, we demonstrate that differential return migration to Mexico also contributes to the reallocation of immigrants across US markets, whereas previous work had provided only suggestive evidence of this channel's importance.

Second, this study expands our understanding of the role networks play in driving international migration. Larger numbers of migrants from a sending community increase the likelihood of subsequent migration by lowering migration costs, especially for those with relatively low levels of education (Massey and Espinosa 1997, Winters, de Janvry and Sadoulet 2001, McKenzie and Rapoport 2007, Garip and Asad 2016). Migrant networks also affect migrants' destination locations,

[6]Related papers document population responses to Arizona's statewide E-Verify policy, with migration results similar to what we find in this paper (Bohn, Lofstrom and Raphael 2014, Caballero et al. 2018). The Comprehensive Immigration Reform Bill that passed the US Senate in 2013 included a mandatory national E-Verify provision. More recently, in February 2021, Senators Romney and Cotton proposed universal E-Verify as a condition for raising the federal minimum wage to $10 (King 2021).

[7]More generally, these results confirm the consistent finding that both initial and return migration respond to relative labor market conditions in sending and receiving communities (Wozniak 2010, McKenzie, Theoharides and Yang 2014, Abarcar 2017, Bertoli, Fernández-Huertas Moraga and Keita 2017).

occupational choices, and labor market success (Munshi 2003, Edin, Fredriksson and Åslund 2003). We extend this literature by developing a tractable model showing how migrant networks lead to source communities experiencing differential changes in foreign labor demand from the same macroeconomic shock. Our empirical analysis based on this model demonstrates that these network connections serve to transmit local economic shocks from one side of an international border to the other.

Third, our results relate to the substantial literature examining the effects of international migration on family members who remain in the source country. As summarized nicely in Antman (2013), demand shocks at the destination are one of two commonly used instruments in this body of work.[8] Relative to this literature, our analysis is distinct in two ways. First, we consider the effects of a decline in destination labor market opportunities and thus the effects of increased return migration, deferred emigration, and a decline in remittances. We therefore examine the inverse of typical studies in this literature, which focus on the effects of emigration. The second distinction is that we consider outcomes at the municipio level rather than the household level. This unit of analysis allows us to measure the overall effects on local markets including any cross-household spillovers resulting from spatial equilibrium and allows us to use a wide array of high-quality survey and administrative data sources to measure municipio-level outcomes.

Finally, we extend the literature examining how destination-market policies or labor demand affect sending communities. The studies most closely related to this paper consider the effects of changes in the US environment on economic outcomes in Mexico. Caballero et al. (2018) and Allen et al. (2019) use MCAS migration network data to show that migration enforcement reduces international migration between affected sources and destinations, and Caballero (2022) uses the rollout of the Secure Communities program to show that local migration enforcement at the destination reduces school enrollment in the most affected sources. Multiple papers study the impact of US labor demand conditions on a variety of Mexican outcomes, such as occupational choices, entrepreneurship, inequality, and education (McKenzie and Rapoport 2007, Schnabl 2007, Fajardo,

[8]Examples include Antman (2011) and Cortes (2015).

Gutierrez and Larreguy 2017, Conover, Khamis and Pearlman 2021).[9] While largely supporting the findings of this prior work, we make multiple additional contributions. Our location choice model clarifies how to combine information on migration network connections, variation in labor demand across US destinations, and source locations' exposure to the US labor market in an internally consistent empirical research design. We also use uniquely detailed geographic information in the US and Mexico. This detail allows us to measure shocks to well-defined US local labor markets (commuting zones) and to compare outcomes among municipios within the same Mexican state, strengthening causal identification.

Another set of closely related papers considers the effects of shocks to emigrants' earnings on sending communities in contexts other than the US and Mexico. Yang (2008), Theoharides (2018), and Khanna, Murathanoglu, Theoharides and Yang (2022) combine variation in the historical destination countries of migrants from different source communities within the Philippines with destination-level shocks.[10] Gröger (2021) uses a similar methodology focusing on Vietnamese households with migrants in different destination countries at the onset of the Great Recession. Our research design is closely related and reaches similar conclusions in the Mexico-US context. The setting we study has the advantage of using variation in labor demand across migrant destinations within the same country (the US). Because each municipio sends migrants almost exclusively to the US, our analysis is robust to other nationwide changes to the attractiveness of living abroad, including immigration enforcement, visa availability, or exchange rates. Dinkelman and Mariotti (2016) and Dinkelman, Kumchulesi and Mariotti (2022) use a particularly compelling research design leveraging the exogenous imposition and later lifting of emigration restrictions in Malawi to yield highly credible estimates of the causal effects of remittances on educational attainment, capital accumulation, and the structure of rural labor markets in migrant sources. In the absence of such

[9] In historical contexts, Kosack (2021) studies the effect of differential access to the US Bracero program on Mexican human capital investment, and Brum (2019) studies the effects of economic shocks in US counties on migration from Italian municipalities.

[10] Yang (2008) and Khanna et al. (2022) use exchange rate changes that alter the domestic value of remittances from different source countries, whereas Theoharides (2018) uses the overall flow of migrants from the Philippines to each source country. The Khanna et al. (2022) paper, contemporaneously developed with our paper, similarly considers the effects on sending community development and has the additional advantage of being able to study longer-term outcomes by using an initial shock from 1997.

policy changes in the Mexican context, our approach combines shocks across migrant destinations with persistent geographic migrant networks to generate similar variation across migrant sources in access to higher-paying foreign labor markets.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces our novel dataset and demonstrates that historical settlement patterns led to substantial variation in how Mexican source municipios experienced the US Great Recession. Section 3 develops the location choice model that leads to our estimation strategy. Section 4 discusses the variety of US and Mexican data sources we compile to execute our analysis. Section 5 shows that larger negative labor demand shocks in the US led to increases in source population through both increased return migration and decreased emigration, as well as a decline in the share of households receiving remittances. Section 6 then demonstrates that these changes increased local employment without decreasing average wages but that they led to a slowdown in local appliance purchases and a reduction in school enrollment among children. Section 7 concludes.

2 Motivation and Context

The analysis in this paper is based on the idea that potential migrants from different Mexican source communities face different changes in US labor demand. This variation comes from two sources: 1) changes in local labor demand were different across US local labor markets, and 2) migrant-sending communities in Mexico have historical ties to different sets of destinations within the US. In this section, we provide descriptive evidence supporting each of these two key facts.

2.1 Geographic Variation in Job Loss During the Great Recession

Identifying labor demand shocks is generally challenging because observed changes in employment and earnings normally reflect changes in both labor demand and labor supply. To overcome this challenge, we take advantage of the unique environment provided by the Great Recession. Beginning in December 2007 and lasting through June 2009, this decline in economic output was marked by a

more than five-percentage-point drop in the prime age employment-to-population ratio. During this time period, there was a dramatic reduction in hiring and a large increase in layoffs, but wages did not fall substantially along with employment (Rothstein 2012, Daly, Hobijn and Wiles 2012). This pattern suggests that the labor market adjusted primarily along the employment margin rather than through wage reductions. Given downward-rigid wages, one can measure local labor demand shocks over the Great Recession period (2006-2010) using only changes in payroll employment (Cadena and Kovak 2016, Clemens 2022).[11] Moreover, as emphasized in Section 3, our focus on outcomes in Mexico mitigates identification concerns that would have otherwise arisen had we focused on US outcomes.

Local employment declines in the US were very spatially heterogeneous during the Great Recession for a variety of reasons including variation in ex-ante household indebtedness (Mian and Sufi 2014) and in the magnitude of the pre-Recession housing boom (Charles, Hurst and Notowidigdo 2016). Figure 1 shows the substantial variation in employment changes from 2006-2010 across US local labor markets. This map uses data from the County Business Patterns (CBP) and the American Community Surveys (ACS) to show changes in employment in US Commuting Zones (CZ), which define destination labor markets throughout the paper.[12] We account for the industry mix of Mexican workers' US employment by measuring the relevant employment change in each commuting zone d as $\sum_i \frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M}\left(\frac{Emp_{id}^{2010}-Emp_{id}^{2006}}{Emp_{id}^{2006}}\right)$, where Emp_{id}^{year} is employment in industry i in destination commuting zone d and $\frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M}$ is the share of Mexican-born workers in commuting zone d working in industry i in 2006.[13] This measure accounts for the fact that Mexican-born workers

[11] If wages are perfectly downward rigid, then negative shifts in labor demand are perfectly captured by changes in employment. More generally, during an environment with substantial unemployment, the departure of Mexican migrants is unlikely to affect the observed local employment level.

[12] We aggregate county-level information to the CZ level using the crosswalk in Dorn (2009) (`https://www.ddorn.net/data.htm` (file E7)), making manual adjustments to maintain consistent county boundaries over time. Because the most disaggregated sample available in the ACS is the Public Use Micro Areas (PUMA), we use another crosswalk from Dorn (2009) to match PUMAS to commuting zones (`https://www.ddorn.net/data.htm` (file E5)).

[13] The CBP data provide employment counts for the universe of employment in covered private industries and is thus the most accurate data source for measuring local employment declines in the private sector. Unfortunately, the CBP data does not include any demographic information and we therefore cannot use it to directly calculate job losses among Mexican-born workers. We therefore combine the CBP data with data from the 2006 American Community Survey (ACS) from IPUMS (Ruggles, Flood, Goeken, Grover, Meyer, Pacas and Sobek 2017) in order to construct this measure. The ACS data allows us to fill in employment changes for industries not covered by the CBP (including government and agriculture) and to measure the CZ-specific share of Mexican-born individuals working

are disproportionately represented in industries that are especially sensitive to the business cycle, such as construction.[14] Appendix C.1 provides descriptive statistics detailing the sources of spatial variation in this measure: variation in the pre-recession industry mix of employment among Mexican-born workers and spatial variation in industry-specific shocks. As Figure 1 shows, although most commuting zones experienced a decline in employment, there was substantial variation, with a 17 percent decline at the 25th percentile and no change at the 75th percentile.

2.2 Matrículas Consulares de Alta Seguridad

In addition to this spatial variation in US labor demand, we leverage variation in the destinations historically chosen by migrants from different Mexican source communities. We measure this variation using administrative tabulations from Mexico's *Matrícula Consular de Alta Seguridad* (MCAS) program, in which Mexican consulates issue identity cards to Mexican-born individuals living in the US. The cards, which provide a secure form of identification and verified current residence for banking and other purposes, are issued primarily to those without authorization to live and work in the US and who therefore cannot access other forms of identification.[15] Measuring connections between sending and receiving communities using the choices of unauthorized migrants is not a concern in our context for two main reasons. First, more than 90 percent of moves between Mexico and the US occur among unauthorized migrants during our sample period of 2006-2010 (authors' calculations using Mexican Migration Project data). Second, Caballero et al. (2018) show that the migration patterns in the MCAS data accurately reflect those of the broader Mexican-born population living in the US, irrespective of legal status.

To examine the variation in US destinations for migrants from different source municipios, we use the MCAS data to calculate $\frac{m_{sd}}{\sum_{d'} m_{sd'}}$, i.e. the share of migrants born in source municipio s who settled in destination commuting zone d in 2006. We use data from 2006 because it is the first year the MCAS tabulations are available and because it is prior to the onset of the Great Recession.

in each industry. We observe 20 separately identifiable industries at the CZ level.

[14]The main results are qualitatively similar, however, when using unweighted CZ-level employment declines.

[15]See Massey, Rugh and Pren (2010), Caballero et al. (2018), Albert and Monras (2022), and Allen et al. (2019) for examples of prior work using the MCAS data.

To calculate these shares at such a fine of a level of geography, we rely on a customized extract from the MCAS administrative database that captures Mexican-born individuals' birthplace and county of residence in the US.[16] The publicly available tabulations used in Caballero et al. (2018), in contrast, report only Mexican migrants' *state* of residence in the US. We aggregate destination counties to the commuting zone (CZ) level, continuing to treat CZs as separate local labor markets within the US.

2.3 Migrants from Nearby Sources Settle in Distinct Destinations

As a motivating example of the variation in migrant destinations, Figure 2 compares the destination distributions for two Mexican source municipios in the state of Guanajuato: Dolores Hidalgo and Jaral del Progreso. Our empirical analysis controls for Mexican state fixed effects, so we are especially interested in within-Mexican-state differences in chosen destinations. Despite these two source communities' close proximity to each other and thus roughly equal distances to each US labor market, there are large differences in the US destinations selected by migrants from these two municipios. Migrants from Dolores Hidalgo tend to concentrate in the commuting zones containing the main cities of Texas, while migrants from Jaral del Progreso concentrate in Chicago, the largest cities of California, and other cities in the Southwest. As shown in Figure 1, the Texas cities faced particularly mild labor demand declines during the Great Recession, while southern California and the Southwest saw larger negative shocks. Thus, migrants from Jaral del Progreso experienced a larger effective decline in US labor demand than did migrants from Dolores Hidalgo. Of course, migrants may move within the US after they apply for an MCAS card and their families may move within Mexico, reducing the accuracy of our MCAS-based measures of spatial migrant connections. If present, this kind of measurement error likely biases our estimates of the impact of shocks based on these data toward zero.

[16] See Appendix B for details on matching geographic locations in the MCAS extract to municipios and counties. Special thanks to Melanie Morten for providing the specific version of the extract used in this study.

3 Theoretical Framework and Research Design

To formalize the intuitive idea that potential migrants from different Mexican source locations experienced the US Great Recession differently, we use a location choice model in which Mexican-born individuals can choose to live in Mexico or in one of many potential destinations in the US. Potential migrants benefit from living alongside others from their place of birth, a model feature motivated by the variation in geographic migrant networks documented in Figure 2. We use comparative statics from the model to derive a tractable and intuitive expression relating source municipio population growth to the change in US employment faced by potential migrants from each source. This expression motivates our reduced-form estimating equation and clarifies the set of potential confounding variables that must be controlled for in order to identify the causal effect of US labor demand shocks on Mexican outcomes.

3.1 Location Choice Model

An individual j from Mexican source community s may choose to live in any destination d, including their municipio of birth s or any of the potential US destination commuting zones. For simplicity, we assume costless migration and ignore internal migration within Mexico. Individual j's utility from choosing destination d depends on three things: the common value v_d of living in that location, which does not depend on the migrant's origin community, a network component reflecting the presence of prior migrants from the potential migrant's source n_{sd}, and an iid type-I extreme value shock η_{jsd}.[17]

$$u_{jsd} = \alpha v_d + n_{sd} + \eta_{jsd} \tag{1}$$

Because in the MCAS data we observe migrants' birth location rather than their location prior to migrating to the US, this expression is the utility of choosing destination d for a person *born* in source s, irrespective of their current location. The probability that a person born in s chooses to

[17]The parameter α captures the importance of v_d relative to the idiosyncratic shock, η_{jsd}. The inclusion of α is only relevant once we parameterize v_d in equation (4).

live in d is then

$$P_s(d) = \frac{\exp\left(\alpha v_d + n_{sd}\right)}{\sum_{d'} \exp\left(\alpha v_{d'} + n_{sd'}\right)}. \tag{2}$$

We examine how population growth in each source municipio is affected by a set of shocks to the value of locating in the various potential destinations. Let M_s be the number of people born in Mexican source s, and let M_{sd} be the number of people born in source s living in destination d. The population residing in s is therefore $M_{ss} = M_s P_s(s)$, i.e. the number of people born in s multiplied by the probability that a person born in s stays in that location. Assume that the total number of people born in source s (M_s) is invariant to changes in destination values (i.e. shocks do not affect mortality). As shown in Appendix A, taking the total derivative of M_{ss} with respect to changes in values v_d for all possible destinations and evaluating the changes in choice probabilities using (2) yields the following expression relating the proportional change in source s population to the shocks to the value of living in each potential location:

$$\frac{dM_{ss}}{M_{ss}} = \alpha \xi_s \left[dv_s - \sum_{d \neq s} \varphi_{sd} dv_d \right] \tag{3}$$

$$\text{where} \quad \xi_s \equiv (1 - P_s(s)) \quad \text{and} \quad \varphi_{sd} \equiv \frac{P_s(d)}{1 - P_s(s)}$$

This expression is intuitive. The term ξ_s is the share of people from source s who had chosen to live in the US prior to the shock, i.e. the source's baseline exposure to the US labor market. The first term in square brackets is the change in the value of living in the source community. As its own conditions improve, it attracts more residents, and this effect is larger when there are more residents abroad to attract, i.e. when exposure is higher. The second term in square brackets captures the effects of changing conditions in the US as mediated through the migrant network (n_{sd} in (1)). This term is a proper weighted average of shocks in US destinations, where the weights, φ_{sd}, reflect the baseline distribution of migrants from s across US destinations ($d \neq s$). As conditions in the US labor markets to which source s has existing network connections improve, more people move abroad, reducing municipio s's resident population.

To study how changes in labor demand across US destinations affected demographic and economic outcomes in Mexican source communities, we parameterize the value of living in each US destination commuting zone. The common value of living in US location d ($\neq s$) depends on expected earnings and other factors such that

$$v_d = w_d \cdot Pr(emp_d) + \Gamma_d, \tag{4}$$

where w_d is the real wage and $Pr(emp_d)$ is the probability of employment, their product is expected earnings in location d, and Γ_d captures other features affecting the attractiveness of destination d. We take the change in (4) holding w_d fixed based on the wage rigidity observed during the Great Recession (discussed in Section 2), and plug it into (3), yielding the following expression.

$$\frac{dM_{ss}}{M_{ss}} = \alpha\xi_s dv_s - \alpha\xi_s \left[\sum_{d\neq s} \varphi_{sd} w_d \; dPr(emp_d)\right] + \alpha\xi_s \sum_{d\neq s} \varphi_{sd} \; d\Gamma_d + \nu_s \tag{5}$$

This expression forms the basis of our reduced form estimation equation, which relates source municipio population growth to changes in the attractiveness of the source community (dv_s), changes in employment probabilities across US destinations ($dPr(emp_d)$), and other changes affecting the attractiveness of particular destinations within the U.S ($d\Gamma_d$).[18]

3.2 Estimating Equation

To empirically operationalize (5) we must first define the change in expected earnings in each US destination in terms of observable quantities. We assume that i) the employment probability facing Mexican-born residents of d is given by the employment to population ratio among the Mexican-born population, ii) baseline expected earnings are equal across US destinations, and iii) job losses in a given industry and commuting zone are allocated proportionately to Mexican-born and US-born workers.

[18]Note that we normalize $d\Gamma_s = 0$, so the $d\Gamma_d$ for $d \neq s$ reflect changes in the attractiveness of US destination d relative to staying in Mexico.

Given these assumptions (see Appendix A),

$$\sum_{d \neq s} \varphi_{sd} w_d \, dPr(emp_d) = \delta \sum_{d \neq s} \varphi_{sd} \sum_i \frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M} \cdot \frac{d \, Emp_{id}}{Emp_{id}}, \tag{6}$$

where δ is the baseline expected US earnings for Mexican workers, assumed constant across destinations, Emp_{id} is employment in industry i in destination d, Emp_{id}^M is Mexican employment in i and d, and Emp_d^M is overall Mexican employment in d. In Appendix A, we show that, under the additional assumption that wages are constant across locations, this shock to expected earnings can be interpreted as the wage times the number of US jobs lost per migrant.[19]

In addition to US employment shocks, (5) shows that source-municipio population growth is also affected by changes in amenities in the source municipio (dv_s) or US destinations ($d\Gamma_d$). We account for changes in source-municipio amenities in three ways. First, we include Mexican-state (*entidad federal*) fixed effects, $\phi_{e(s)}$ to account for changes in the value of living in one's home community that are common to municipios within the same Mexican state. Our identification strategy therefore relies on within-Mexican-state variation in US labor demand shocks, which comes from both the variation in the depth of recession shown in Figure 1 and within-state variation in network connections demonstrated in Figure 2. Second, we present specifications controlling for a vector ΔX_s of changes in municipio-level characteristics potentially affecting the attractiveness of each source, including changes in local homicide rates and trade shocks. Third, we present specifications including pre-Recession differences in outcome growth as additional explanatory variables to control for any unobserved changes in source-level amenities that vary persistently over time. By allowing the coefficient on this control to differ from one, we account for any differences in counterfactual outcome growth that are correlated with pre-existing outcome growth, without imposing the restriction that the pre-existing outcome growth would have continued absent the US employment shocks.

Equation (5) shows that changes in destinations' amenities (in addition to expected earnings) also enter the expression in a weighted average, where the weights, φ_{sd}, are identical to those

[19] Thanks to Craig McIntosh for suggesting this interpretation.

in the US employment shock measure. We therefore control for weighted averages of changes in CZ-level characteristics, ΔX_d, including local immigrant enforcement measures and employment policies. Our results are robust to including or excluding these various source- and destination-level controls.[20]

Finally, note that all of the terms on the right side of (5) are proportional to the source's exposure to the US labor market, ξ_s. For expositional clarity and to aid in interpreting the associated regressions, we divide the entire expression by ξ_s. This approach turns an estimating equation with heterogeneous effects by source s (5) into a version with homogeneous effects. We also plug in the controls just discussed and the observable US employment shock in (6), and replace the parameters α and δ with reduced-form regression coefficients, β, Λ, and Π, yielding the following estimating equation,

$$\frac{1}{\xi_s}\Delta y_s = \beta \left[\sum_{d \neq s} \varphi_{sd} \sum_i \frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M} \frac{d\ Emp_{id}}{Emp_{id}} \right] + \phi_{e(s)} + \Lambda \Delta \mathbf{X_s} + \Pi \sum_{d \neq s} \varphi_{sd} \Delta X_d + \varepsilon_s, \tag{7}$$

where $\varepsilon_s = \nu_s / \xi_s$. We have replaced the source population growth with Δy_s to indicate a change in a generic source-level outcome. Note that the Mexican state fixed effects, $\phi_{e(s)}$, subsume the standard intercept term. This equation relates the exposure-normalized change in outcome in municipio s to the change in US employment faced by migrants from that destination.[21] Incorporating the measure of exposure ξ_s in (7) also resolves the "incomplete shares problem" emphasized by Borusyak et al. (2022), as exposure reflects the overall share of the source municipio's population in the US labor market.

Because dividing the dependent variable by ξ_s may introduce heteroskedasticity, we use feasible GLS weighting to improve the efficiency of our estimates, following Wooldridge (2013) Section 8.4. We present two sets of standard error estimates. First, we report standard errors clustered at the Mexican commuting-zone level when reporting any regression coefficient.[22] Second, because the

[20] Table 2 presents specifications with and without the various controls, and Appendix C shows specifications with subsets of controls for the remaining outcomes.

[21] Appendix C.3 shows that there is extensive variation in the municipio-level US employment shock for all values of exposure.

[22] In Appendix C.8, we present unweighted results along with Breusch-Pagan test statistics for heteroskedasticity.

US employment shock has a shift-share structure, in which each municipio potentially faces shocks in the same set of US destinations, we account for the resulting correlation across municipios by calculating standard errors (shown in square brackets) for this coefficient, following Borusyak et al. (2022).

Our coefficient of interest, β in (7), compares the change in outcome between municipios in the same Mexican state whose migrants face larger vs. smaller US employment declines during the Great Recession. To interpret this relationship as causal, there must be no unobserved variables that influence municipio outcome growth that are also correlated with the size of the US employment declines faced by the municipio's migrants. This assumption is plausible in our context because the shocks and outcomes apply to different countries—unobserved developments in Mexican municipios are unlikely to be related to US labor demand shocks in the municipio's historical migrant destinations. Here, we have taken the "exogenous shocks" approach to shift-share causal inference, following Borusyak et al. (2022) rather than the "exogenous shares" approach of Goldsmith-Pinkham, Sorkin and Swift (2020). We believe that both approaches are plausible in our setting, given that connections between Mexican municipios and US counties are often the results of historical accidents, as suggested by the comparison in Figure 2.[23]

Despite the plausible exogeneity of the shift-share shock variable, it remains possible that municipios that experienced larger negative shocks to US labor demand also experienced other shocks that affected residents' location choices or labor market outcomes. For example, migrant workers may specialize in a particular industry, and communities with out-migrants specialized in hard-hit industries in the US (e.g. construction or manufacturing) may experience larger local demand shocks due to the source location's similar industry mix. To address this class of remaining concerns, we include additional controls for the municipio's estimated drop in export demand due to the US

This additional analysis supports the conclusion that the weighted analysis is appropriate and improves efficiency. Mexican commuting zones are contiguous groups of economically integrated municipios. We assign municipios to Mexican commuting zones using the crosswalk constructed by David Atkin (Atkin 2016) and by making manual adjustments for municipio boundaries that changed over time.

[23] Appendix C.2 provides additional support for this interpretation by demonstrating baseline balance on observable demographic, educational, and labor-market characteristics across municipios with different primary migrant destinations in the US.

recession and for local drug-related violence.[24] As discussed above, the model-derived estimating equation provides clear guidance on how to construct these types of control variables, and, as shown in the following sections, our results are robust to omitting or including these controls in addition to controls for pre-Recession outcomes.

4 Data and Measurement

Throughout our analysis, we treat Mexican municipios as independent migrant source communities.[25] This is the finest level of geography identifiable across all of our various datasets, and, as shown in Figure 2, the US destination mix is often quite different even for migrants from geographically proximate municipios. We treat US Commuting Zones (CZs) as potential migrant destinations because each CZ is designed to represent an integrated local labor market.

The US employment shock, the term in square brackets in (7), is calculated using information on the migration network and changes in US employment from before to after the Great Recession. As in Section 2.2, we measure the migration network term as $\varphi_{sd} = m_{sd} / \sum_{d'} m_{sd'}$, i.e. destination d's share of MCAS cards issued to migrants from source s in 2006. Emp_{id} is employment in industry i and commuting zone d in 2006 (prior to the Great Recession), and $d\ Emp_{id}$ is its change from 2006 to 2010 (bracketing the Great Recession). We calculate these employment measures using the County Business Patterns and American Community Surveys as described in Section 2.1.[26] $Emp_{id}^{M} / Emp_{d}^{M}$ measures the share of Mexican-born workers living in CZ d who work in industry i, which we calculate using the 2006 American Community Survey. Combining this information as in (7) allows us to measure the relevant US shock for each source s.

The exposure term, ξ_s, reflects the share of those born in a given source municipio who live in the US. This stock of migrants at the source-destination level, M_{sd}, is not directly observable

[24] Mendez (2014) provides evidence that differential ties to the US through the manufacturing sector were an important driver of spatial variation in labor market outcomes over this same period.

[25] For a more detailed discussion of data sources and variable construction summarized in this section, see Appendix B. We also provide analysis of labor market outcomes using Mexican Commuting Zones, which better approximate local labor markets, in Appendix C.9.

[26] We primarily use CBP data, but we fill in data for non-covered industries from the ACS. See footnote 13 for details.

in any data source that we are aware of. We instead combine 2006 ACS estimates of the stock of Mexican-born migrants living in each US destination with migrant network information from MCAS to estimate ξ_s. Specifically, we apportion the 2006 Mexican-born population observed in each destination, M_d, to source municipios based the each source's share of identity cards issued to residents of that destination CZ in 2006:

$$M_{sd} = \left(\frac{m_{sd}}{\sum_{s'} m_{s'd}} \right) M_d \qquad \forall d \neq s. \tag{8}$$

Finally, we calculate the Mexican-born population living in each source municipio, M_{ss}, using the 2005 Mexican Inter-Censal Count. The exposure for source s is then the share of people from the source living in the US:

$$\xi_s = \frac{\sum_{d \neq s} M_{sd}}{M_{ss} + \sum_{d \neq s} M_{sd}}. \tag{9}$$

We examine the effects of US employment shocks on a variety of demographic and economic outcomes in Mexican municipios. We measure most outcomes using full-count tabulations from the 2005 Inter-Censal Count and 2000 and 2010 Mexican Censuses of Population. This survey timing allows us to measure key outcomes over the time period from 2005 to 2010, spanning the Great Recession, and to control for prior changes in outcomes from 2000 to 2005.[27] These dependent variables include population growth, return migration, the population sex ratio, educational attainment among adults, household appliance ownership, and school attendance among children. For emigration and household remittance receipt, we use the 2010 Census and the 2000 Census because the 2005 Inter-Censal Count omits questions on these topics. Finally, we measure municipio aggregate labor earnings and aggregate hours in the 1999, 2004, and 2009 Mexican Economic Census. This data source allows us to measure changes in earnings, hours, earnings to population ratio, and earnings per hour from 2004 to 2009, spanning the Great Recession, and pre-existing changes from 1999 to 2004.[28]

[27] While our main results control for pre-Recession outcomes, in Table 2 and Appendix C.6 we show results with and without these pre-shock controls. Appendix C.4 additionally presents placebo analyses relating pre-Recession municipio outcomes to the US employment shock subsequently faced during the Great Recession.

[28] The inclusion of these pre-Recession outcome controls directly addresses the possibility that pre-existing pop-

In addition to pre-Recession outcome controls, we present specifications controlling for other municipio-level developments, including changes in the local homicide rate and changes in trade with the US. Because these controls may themselves be affected by the US employment shocks, we show that our findings are robust to including or excluding them from the analysis in Appendix C.6. We control for local homicides to capture the effects of drug-related violence in Mexico during our study period. We use administrative data on homicides from the Mexican Statistical Office (INEGI) and measure the number of homicides during 2005-2010 divided by the 2005 population from the Inter-Censal Count. We control for the sharp reduction in trade between Mexico and the US during the Great Recession using a weighted average of industry-level changes in trade value from the period 2001-05 to the period 2006-10, weighted by the municipio's initial industry mix of employment in 2004.[29,30]

We also account for changes in US destinations (X_d) that affect their attractiveness to potential migrants for reasons other than the employment shocks. These controls include indicators for new state-level anti-immigrant employment legislation and indicators for new 287(g) agreements that allow local officials to enforce federal immigration law. Both variables are based on the immigration policy database complied by Bohn and Santillano (2017). For each of these measures, we follow (7) and calculate a weighted average of changes in the policy indicators with weights based on the destination distribution of migrants from the relevant municipio.

Our analysis focuses on source municipios for which where we can accurately measure both the US employment shock and key dependent variables. Following the location-choice model in Section 3, we initially focus on municipio population growth and the contributions of decreased emigration and increased return migration. Because these dependent variables are measured as shares of the

ulation growth differed across sources facing different shocks (Monras 2020a). This approach also partly absorbs variation that might confound the analysis if markets adjust slowly to prior shocks (Jaeger, Ruist and Stuhler 2019). Because our migration network data begin in 2006, we are unable to calculate US shocks faced by migrants from different municipios during the period that preceded the Great Recession. Moreover, isolating demand shocks is more challenging in a non-recessionary environment.

[29]Because this trade control has a shift-share structure across tradable industries, we also control for the share of employment in nontradable sectors in 2004 to address the "incomplete shares problem" raised by Borusyak et al. (2022).

[30]See Appendix B for the details of the construction of these controls.

initial population, they are highly sensitive to measurement error in small-population municipios. Further, the US employment shock requires a sufficient number of MCAS observations to accurately measure each municipio's migrant-destination distribution. To address each of these concerns, we limit the main analysis sample to the 866 municipios that had at least 5,000 residents in the year 2005, had exposure $\xi_s > 0.066$ (the 25th percentile), and whose citizens received at least 100 MCAS cards in 2006. The municipios in our analysis sample account for more than 56 percent of the working-age Mexican population in 2005, and their residents received nearly 765,000 out of the roughly 923,000 MCAS identity cards issued in 2006. Appendix C.7 examines the robustness of the results to this sample choice and finds generally similar results when using the 1,194 municipios with at least 100 MCAS cards in 2006, without additional restrictions on population or US exposure.[31]

Descriptive statistics appear in Table 1. The difference between the 90th percentile and the 10th percentile US employment shock is 7.5 percentage points. We will use this difference to interpret the magnitudes of the estimated effects by comparing municipios facing relatively large and relatively small US employment declines. The average municipio in our sample had an exposure to the US labor market (ξ_s) of approximately 25 percent, reflecting the fact that our sample uses municipios with relatively strong migrant ties to the US.[32] Because we will divide each of the dependent variables by this exposure variable, interpreting the magnitude of the resulting coefficients requires a reference level of exposure, and we will use this average in our interpretation. Note that the descriptive statistics for the outcome variables listed in this table represent the values of the outcome variable prior to dividing by exposure.

Our identification strategy relies on within-Mexican-state variation in the network-weighted US employment shock faced by migrants and potential migrants from different source municipios. Figure 3 demonstrates the geographic variation in these employment shocks experienced by each

[31]The notable exception is population growth, which has a weaker and statistically insignificant relationship with the US employment shock in this alternative sample.

[32]Note that although 25 percent of the average municipio population lives in the US, only 4 percent of households report receiving remittances in the average municipio. This difference likely comes from multiple sources, including i) not all migrants send remittances, ii) many migrants move to the US with their family rather than supporting family in Mexico, iii) some remittances represent savings rather than income support to family members, and iv) remittance receipt may be under-reported.

Mexican source community, controlling for Mexican-state fixed effects. We show municipios facing larger US demand declines in darker blue and municipios connected to smaller declines in lighter blue. Municipios excluded from our analysis are shown in white. The differences in US employment shocks, even for geographically proximate municipios in the same state, provide the identifying variation driving the empirical results in the next section.

5 Results for Population Changes and Remittances

Our empirical analysis begins by finding the effect of US employment shocks on the overall growth of a municipio's population, following the comparative static modeled in Section 3. We then examine the contribution of both emigration and return migration to the total population response. Next, we use the same empirical specification to document additional effects on the demographic composition of the municipio population and the likelihood that households received remittance income. Together, the substantial effects on these initial outcomes represent the primary channels through which migrant networks transmitted US local economic shocks to Mexican sending communities. The next section examines how the loss of access to a strong US labor market affected Mexican labor market outcomes and household investment decisions.

5.1 Effects on Population Size and Migration

5.1.1 Population and Migration Measures

Municipio populations are directly observable every five years in the Census and in the Inter-Censal Count (Conteo). We measure working-age population growth as the proportional change in population ages 15-64 over a five-year interval. Both of these surveys also include questions about respondents' current location and their location of residence 5 years prior to the survey, allowing us to identify return migrants as those living in Mexico during the survey period and who lived in the

US 5 years earlier.[33] Given the timing of the surveys, we can identify return migrants who moved from the US to Mexico during three five-year spans: 1995-2000, 2000-2005, and 2005-2010. We then measure return migration's contribution to population growth as the number of working-age return migrants to a given municipio, divided by the community's population at the start of the period. Note that this measure is not a traditional return migration rate, as the denominator is the municipio population rather than the number of people born in the municipio who were living abroad.

Information on emigration is not available in the 2005 Conteo, so we have emigration measures only from the 2000 and 2010 Censuses. These surveys ask households in Mexico whether a household member emigrated to the US during during the five years prior to the date of the survey – 1995-2000 or 2005-2010, respectively. Because this question is available only in the long-form survey, we have information for an approximately 10% sample of the Mexican population. Although this measure allows us to observe instances where one or more family members move to the US while some of the household remains in Mexico, it does not capture whole-household migration in which no one remains in Mexico to be surveyed. Our emigration outcome is the contribution of emigration to population growth, measured as the number of working-age emigrants during a five-year interval divided by the municipio's working-age population at the start of the interval.

5.1.2 Results for Population Changes

Table 2 provides estimates of different versions of Equation (7) using population growth and migration outcomes. Recall from Section 3 that we divide all dependent variables by the municipio's exposure to the US labor market, i.e. the share of people born in municipio s who were living in the US in 2005. This adjustment accounts for the fact that population growth in sources with more people living in the US is more affected by any changes in the relative attractiveness of living at home or abroad.[34]

[33] The count of return migrants does not include any individuals who moved to the US and back within the five-year window.

[34] Through the lens of the model, dividing the outcome by ξ_s takes a specification with heterogeneous effects across source municipios, as in (5), and converts it into a specification with homogeneous effects, as in (7).

In columns (1)-(3), we provide results for population growth. The coefficient on the US employment shock is consistently negative and statistically significant, meaning that municipios connected to US destinations with larger job losses experienced larger increases in local population.[35] Column (1) presents the results of a regression of population growth from 2005-2010 on the US employment shock from 2006-2010 and Mexican-state fixed effects. Columns (2) and (3) include additional controls to account for possible omitted variable bias. In column (2), we control for population growth over the prior five-year period, allowing for pre-existing differences in population growth among municipios facing different demand shocks (see further discussion below in Section 5.1.4). Column (3) additionally includes controls of the type suggested by the model, including weighted averages of newly implemented destination-level immigration policies along with source-community trade shocks and homicide rates. It is possible that some of these controls were themselves affected by the US employment shocks, so we may be over-controlling to some degree in column (3). Nonetheless, while including these controls reduces the size of the coefficient of interest somewhat, it remains statistically significantly distinguishable from zero ($p < 0.05$).

Interpreting the magnitude of the coefficient requires three pieces of information: the coefficient estimate, a difference in shock size, and a value for exposure to the US. From Table 1, the typical municipio in our sample had approximately 25 percent of its population living in the US, and the 90-10 percentile difference in shock size was 0.075. Therefore, the estimate in column (3) implies that when comparing two municipios with average exposure and a substantial difference in shock size, the more affected municipio experienced 2.1 percentage points faster population growth ($(-1.125)(0.25)(-0.075) = 0.021$). A similar calculation can be implemented to compare predicted outcomes for the pair of municipios shown in Figure 2. Dolores Hidalgo and Jaral del Progreso both have exposure to the US of around 0.3 and have a difference in shock size of roughly 0.1, predicting 3.4 percentage points faster population growth in Jaral del Progreso ($(-1.125)(0.3)(-0.1) = 0.034$).

To facilitate interpretation of the coefficients of interest, we provide similar calculations in all tables reporting the effects of the US employment shock on outcomes. The row labeled "Implied

[35] When we allow the sample to include municipios with few migrants in the US (low values of ξ_s), the population estimate has smaller magnitude and loses statistical significance. See Appendix C.7.

shock impact" multiplies the coefficient on the US employment shock by the sample average exposure (25 percent) and the 90-10 difference in shock size (-0.075). To provide further context for the magnitude of the estimated shock impact, we report the mean of the dependent variable (without dividing by exposure) for the quartile of municipios with the smallest declines in US employment demand. As an example of how these two values can be combined to understand the magnitude of the estimates, column (3) implies that the most-affected municipios saw population growth that was 18 percent higher compared to the least affected municipios (0.021/0.114).

5.1.3 Results for Return Migration and Emigration

A decline in US labor demand should lead to both an increase in return migration to Mexico and a decline in emigration to the US. Figure 4 confirms this intuition in the aggregate. Following substantial net migration to the US in the 1990s and early 2000s, during 2005-2010 emigration to the US fell by 32 percent and return migration to Mexico quadrupled.[36] These patterns are consistent with the interpretation that a decline in labor market opportunities led to a slowdown in net migration to the US. The remainder of Table 2 leverages spatial variation in demand conditions to further examine this hypothesis.[37]

Because our return migration and emigration measures are scaled by the initial municipio population, they can be interpreted as the contribution of each migration flow to local population growth. The coefficients on the US shock have the expected sign for both outcomes: municipios exposed to larger US job losses saw substantially larger population growth from return migration among people living in the US in 2005 (columns (4)-(6)) and substantially less emigration of the local population to the US during the 2005-2010 time period (columns (7)-(9)). The coefficients on the US employment shock are relatively stable across specifications, and the magnitudes are

[36]The substantial increase in the early 2000s has been documented elsewhere, including in Card and Lewis (2007), with explanations including the poor economic performance of Mexico after the ratification of the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) in 1990 and the Mexican Peso crisis of 1991 (Chiquiar and Salcedo 2013, Monras 2020b, Fajardo et al. 2017). Other analysis of higher-frequency data also shows a substantial slowdown over this time period, with annual net arrivals of fewer than 200,000 migrants (Passel, Cohn and Gonzalez-Barrera 2012).

[37]The nationwide emigration numbers shown in this figure are from CONAPO, which does not allow for the calculation of municipio-specific migration rates.

similar (although oppositely signed) for both the return migration and emigration outcomes. This similarity suggests that both return migration due to lost jobs and potential migrants choosing not to leave for the US while demand was weak were important drivers of population adjustment in Mexican sources.

One notable feature of these results is that the estimated impact on the total population in column (3) is larger than the sum of the estimated contribution of increased return migration (6) and decreased emigration (9). We consider possible sources for this discrepancy in Appendix C.5. We find that the US Employment Shocks are not related to internal migration within Mexico or to aging in to or out of the sample. Instead, the shocks are related to a residual component of population growth. It is possible that this residual component represents unmeasured return migration, with residents who were previously in the US failing to list that as their prior location, or unmeasured emigration of whole households that is not captured by the Census emigration measure. It is also possible, however, that a portion of the estimated change in local population is due to statistical noise or some other channel of population adjustment. Nevertheless, we interpret the results in Table 2 as demonstrating that, as a result of the US employment shocks, changing location choices led to relative increases in population growth in the most-affected municipios by roughly 1–2 percentage points, with the lower bound reflecting the combined effects on return migration and emigration and the upper bound reflecting the measured effect on overall population.

5.1.4 Pre-Shock Trends in Population Changes

Table 3 provides an additional set of results useful for interpreting the estimates in Table 2. It examines the relationship between changes in municipio outcomes *prior* to the Great Recession and the US employment shocks those municipios would later face *during* the Great Recession. Ideally, these pre-Recession trends would be unrelated to subsequent shocks. In that case, the sudden appearance of a relationship between the outcomes and the shocks immediately after the shock would provide strong support for the interpretation of that relationship as causal. That said, the existence of a pre-existing relationship between the outcome variables and a future shock does

not necessarily indicate that an observed post-shock relationship is spurious, and controlling for the prior trend in the dependent variable avoids misinterpreting the simple continuation of a prior trend as the response to a shock.

The results shown in Table 3 demonstrate that pre-existing trends are more prominent for some outcomes than for others. Columns (1) and (2) indicate that municipios that would later experience larger declines in US employment already had somewhat smaller population growth during the pre-Recession period. This relationship is consistent with the fact that introducing the pre-shock population growth control in columns (2) and (3) of Table 2 results in a meaningful reduction in the magnitude of the coefficient estimate. In contrast, columns (3)-(6) find no such pre-existing relationship for return migration or emigration as a share of initial population, again consistent with the findings in Table 2.

Because failing to account for pre-existing trends would present a challenge to the interpretation of the results, all of the subsequent sets of results include controls for the prior change in the dependent variable. These specifications therefore examine whether the connected labor market shocks led to a change in trend rather than simply asking whether the shocks are related to trends in the outcome variables around the the time of the shocks. For completeness, we provide pre-trend analyses analogous to Table 3 for all further outcomes in Appendix C.4.

5.2 Effects on Population Composition and Remittance Receipt

Along with effects on the *size* of local populations in Mexico, US employment declines may have altered the *composition* of the population because the characteristics of return migrants and of discouraged emigrants differed on average from those of the overall Mexican population. Residents who chose not to emigrate in response to the decline in labor demand are not directly observable but return migrants are identified in the Census, and we expect the two groups to have reasonably similar characteristics. Table 4 and Figure 5 use 2010 Mexican Census data to compare return migrants to non-migrants, demonstrating that return migrants are much more likely to be male (69 percent vs. 49 percent) and are more likely to have primary-school education rather than higher

or lower levels. They are also more likely to be married, and they have higher levels of labor force attachment, each of which is likely related to the fact that return migrants disproportionately fall in the 25-45 age range.

The first five columns of Table 5 examine the relationship between changes in the composition of source communities and the US employment shock. The positive (though marginally significant) coefficient estimate in column (1) suggests that municipios facing larger US employment declines had larger declines in the sex ratio of the working age population, consistent with return migrants being disproportionately male.[38] The coefficient's magnitude implies that the sex ratio in a municipio facing the 90th percentile shock fell by 0.009 more than in a municipio at the 10th percentile, which is 23 percent of a standard deviation in the change in sex ratio over this time period. Based on the comparisons shown in Table 4, it was possible that the US employment shocks also changed the distribution of educational attainment in affected municipios. The results in columns (2)-(5) of Table 5, however, show no statistically significant relationship between the shock and the share of population with any particular level of education. Note, however, that the educational composition estimates are sensitive to controlling for the pre-Recession outcome measure (Appendix Table C11), so they should be interpreted with caution. Together, these results imply only a limited scope for the US shocks to affect wages in Mexican municipios because they alter only the aggregate amount of labor in a given municipio and not the relative supplies of different skill levels. Consistent with this interpretation, we find no substantial wage effects in the next section.

Declines in US labor demand not only reduce the relative value of locating in the US, but they also decrease migrants' ability to send money back to Mexico. Column (6) of Table 5 examines the relationship between US shocks and the share of households receiving remittances from abroad in 2010. Because households are not asked about remittance receipt in the Conteo, we control instead for the year-2000 share of households receiving remittances to account for pre-existing differences in remittance behavior across municipios.[39] The coefficient on the US labor demand shock is

[38]For concision, Table 5 only shows specifications with the full set of controls. Results for alternative specifications appear in Appendix C.

[39]This specification is therefore similar to the return migration specification that asks whether more affected municipios received more return migrants, controlling for the amount of return migration in the prior five years.

positive and strongly statistically significant, implying that households in the municipios facing larger declines in US labor demand were less likely to receive remittances, even after controlling for the baseline remittance share in 2000. The point estimate of 0.5 in column (6) implies that, for municipios with average exposure to the US, a strongly affected community saw a roughly 1 percentage point larger decline in the share of households receiving remittances compared to a less affected community. This is a substantial decrease compared to the mean among less-affected municipios of 5 percent.

Together, the results in this section show that US local labor demand shocks during the Great Recession affected Mexican sending communities through a variety of channels. Because many US destination markets became much less attractive during this time period, former migrants returned to Mexico, and potential migrants chose not to move to the US. These shifts led to increased population growth in municipios facing larger US labor demand declines and reduced the share of Mexican households receiving remittances from abroad. In the following section, we examine how these changes in the size of the local labor force and the reduction in household budgets due to declining remittances affected employment, earnings, and household investment behavior in migrant source communities.

6 Labor Market and Investment Outcomes

6.1 Labor Market Outcomes

We next consider the impact of these network-connected shocks on local employment rates and wages. To credibly measure labor market outcomes at the detailed municipio level, we use full-count tabulations from the 2004 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census, which cover all formal economic activity in Mexico outside agriculture, livestock, forestry and a few service industries.[40] These data allow us to measure municipio-level employment (separately by gender), aggregate yearly earnings,

[40]Service sectors that are not covered by the Economic Census include mass transit, taxis, farmers' insurance funds, political organizations, and domestic employees (INEGI 2009).

and aggregate yearly hours worked in covered sectors. For consistency with earlier findings, we present municipio-level results here. One might be concerned that municipios in the same Mexican commuting zone might be part of an integrated labor market in equilibrium. In Appendix C.9, we find very similar results when aggregating the unit of analysis to the Mexican commuting zone level, showing that the choice of Mexican market aggregation does not substantially affect our findings.

There are three primary ways that the loss of access to higher-wage jobs in the US is likely to affect local labor market outcomes in Mexico. First, a larger local working-age population increases both local labor supply and local labor demand, and the combination of these changes affects equilibrium wages and employment. Second, changes in net migration lead to compositional shifts in the population of the municipio. Based on the descriptive results in Table 4 showing that return migrants have higher employment rates compared to non-migrants, this compositional change likely increases the average labor market attachment of local residents. Finally, the loss of remittance income may lead some households to substitute into paid employment and away from home production.[41]

Table 6 examines the net effect of all of these forces and finds substantial increases in employment and hours worked but minimal changes in hourly earnings. All of the coefficients in this table come from specifications including the full set of controls as in the earlier analyses. We first consider changes in the share of the local working-age population that is employed. Column (1) of Table 6 examines the change in the municipio employment-to-population ratio from 2004 to 2009, using employment from the Economic Census and population from the 2005 Inter-Censal Count or 2010 Census, respectively. The negative coefficient estimates for the US employment shock imply that sources facing larger US employment declines exhibited larger increases in the employment to population ratio. Panels B and C make clear that the overall effect in Panel A is driven almost entirely by women.[42] The coefficient of -0.663 in Panel B implies that a strongly affected municipio

[41]It is also possible that these factors change workers' formality, but given the nature of our data, we are unable to examine this channel of adjustment empirically.

[42]Although this analysis is not limited to married women, this result is similar to the "added worker effect" in which married women enter the labor force after their husbands lose employment. See Stephens (2002) for a thorough review of this literature. In Section 6.2, we present descriptive evidence suggesting that differences in labor supply are driven primarily by women in households with US migrants.

with average exposure to the US experienced a 1.2 percentage point larger increase in employment to population ratio among women compared to a similar municipio that was less affected. Employment rates for men, however, did not change differentially based on the municipio's US labor demand shock, in spite of the fact that the vast majority of return migrants were men. This pattern of results suggests that return migrants and non-emigrants did not substantially crowd out employment in source communities. The reduction in household income from losing access to US jobs, however, likely led more women to enter the workforce.[43]

Columns (2)-(4) demonstrate that local labor markets were able to accommodate substantial increases in the supply of hours worked without substantially reducing wages. The second and third columns show that both total municipio-level hours worked and total earnings increased in the most affected source communities. Note that both of these aggregate outcomes are affected directly by the increase in population shown in the previous section. Comparing two municipios at the 90th and 10th percentiles of the shock distribution, the more affected municipio experienced a 6.9 percentage point larger increase in local hours and a 7.7 percentage point larger gain in total earnings, both of which represent meaningfully larger increases compared to the average changes in less-affected municipios. If the increase in labor supply had put downward pressure on wages, total earnings would have risen by a smaller percentage than hours did. Instead, as confirmed in the final column, which uses earnings per hour as the dependent variable, the negative coefficient on the US shock implies a very small increase in the average hourly wage rate for municipios facing more negative US shocks, although this estimated effect is not statistically significant.[44]

This set of results is somewhat surprising, as one may have expected the relative increase in local labor supply to lead to a substantial negative impact on wages. To understand this result, we first note that compositional effects appear to be relatively unimportant. Appendix Table C10 shows that the results in Panel A of Table 6 are qualitatively unchanged when including controls

[43] Although the focus of this paper is on economic adjustments immediately following the Great Recession, we are able to extend the analysis for this particular outcome through 2019. Appendix C.10 shows that both the increase in female employment and the lack of a change among men lasted through the end of that follow-up period.

[44] With unweighted regressions, the estimate in column (4) of Table 6 is exactly the difference between the estimates in columns (2) and (3) – see Appendix Table C25.

for changes in each municipio's demographic and educational composition.[45] It therefore seems unlikely that compositional changes are masking negative impacts. Second, positively correlated labor demand declines in migrant sources and destinations (not captured by our controls) are unlikely to explain the lack of negative wage effects, as this correlation would lead to negative bias on the US Employment Shock coefficient.

Instead, we interpret the lack of strong wage impacts as consistent with the broader international migration literature, which typically finds modest effects of migration-related population growth on local equilibrium wages (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine 2017). The implied relative increase in local population due to the loss of US jobs is roughly 2 percentage points for municipios whose shocks differ by the 90-10 percentile gap (see Table 2). This is a meaningful change but still substantially smaller than the 7 percent increase in local population in Miami due to the well-known Mariel Boatlift (Card 1990). Further, recall that Table 5 found no significant effects on the educational composition of municipios' working-age populations. Because there was no change in the skill mix in affected municipios, the lack of a wage effect could be explained by modest capital adjustments over a five year period (Borjas 2013). Further, former migrants often return with lump-sum savings (Amuedo-Dorantes, Bansak and Pozo 2005), which could further stimulate local demand and mitigate downward wage pressure. Note that we are unable to disaggregate earnings or hours by gender or migration status, so we cannot directly address whether particular subgroups experienced negative relative wage effects.[46]

6.2 Supporting Evidence from Cross-Sectional Analysis

Our interpretation of the results in Table 6 presumes that the observed labor supply responses occurred in Mexican households with US migrants, as these were directly affected by a loss of US employment opportunities during the Great Recession. An ideal analysis would assess this inter-

[45]The earnings data do not contain information about the characteristics of the workers, but we construct controls for changes in the gender mix, the age distribution (flexible bins), educational attainment (degree categories), and the local industry structure using Census data

[46]Studies finding a negative effect of migration on incumbent outcomes typically do so for narrow subgroups of workers, such as in Borjas and Doran (2012).

pretation using panel data to observe household-level *changes* in labor supply in response to return migration or a loss of remittances. Because no such panel dataset with municipio-level geography is available, we instead examine whether employment probabilities for members of households who had someone in the US during 2005-2010 are more strongly related to the US shocks compared to that same relationship among households without US migrants over that same time period.

We implement this supporting analysis using data from the 2010 Census. We define households that were directly exposed to the US labor market during the Great Recession as those with either i) a member who had lived in the US in 2005 but returned to Mexico by 2010 or ii) a former household member who moved to the US after 2005. In both cases, we can be sure the household had a member in the US during the Great Recession period. Individuals living in households meeting this definition are identified by the indicator function $\mathbb{1}(\text{exposed}_j)$ and referred to as "members of exposed households." We then use the following individual-level regression to ask whether the cross-sectional relationship between non-migrants' labor supply and US shocks is driven primarily by these individuals with direct ties to the US labor market.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{1}(\text{employed}_j) =& \beta_1 \mathbb{1}(\text{exposed}_j) \cdot \left[\sum_{d \neq s} \varphi_{sd} \sum_i \frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M} \frac{d\ Emp_{id}}{Emp_{id}}\right] \\ &+ \beta_2 \mathbb{1}(\text{exposed}_j) + \beta_3 \left[\sum_{d \neq s} \varphi_{sd} \sum_i \frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M} \frac{d\ Emp_{id}}{Emp_{id}}\right] \\ &+ \phi_{e(s)} + \Lambda \Delta X_s + \Pi \sum_{d \neq s} \varphi_{sd} \Delta X_d + \epsilon_j\end{aligned} \tag{10}$$

If network-connected US job losses (the terms in square brackets) increase employment probabilities more for members of migrant households, the estimate of β_1 will be negative.

The results in Table 7 confirm this expected pattern. Columns (1) and (2) estimate the specification in (10) (column (1) omits the controls), and column (3) estimates a more general specification subsuming all municipio-level terms into municipio fixed effects, including the non-interacted US employment shock, controls, and Mexican state fixed effects. Panel A shows the results for all individuals. The interaction term's coefficient, $\hat{\beta}_1$, is negative and significant in columns (1) and

(2) with state fixed effects, and negative but statistically insignificant in column (3) with municipio fixed effects. Figure 6 shows a binscatter plot visualizing the variation identifying β_1 in column (1). The gray circles plot the employment share of working-age population for those in unexposed households (without US migrants) and the black diamonds show employment shares for those in exposed households. For unexposed households, there is no relationship between the employment probability and the US employment shock; this is expected because unexposed households by construction were not directly affected by US employment declines. In contrast, there is a strong negative relationship for members of exposed households. Column (2) in Table 7 confirms that this pattern holds when including the full battery of controls.[47] Moreover, just as in Table 6, these employment effects among exposed households are driven almost entirely by women, for whom we find a significant negative effect even in the very demanding specification in column (3) of Panel B, with municipio fixed effects.[48] These cross-sectional results support the interpretation that when migrants' households lost income due to negative US employment shocks, other household members, particularly women, sought to compensate by entering the labor force.[49] We note, however, that in some some specifications, there are similar patterns present in data from 2000 (see Appendix Table C8), which suggests interpreting this set of supporting results with caution.

6.3 Investment Results

If households are unable to fully offset a loss of US labor market income, they may adjust on other consumption and investment margins as well. Table 8 shows the effects of US labor demand shocks on two sets of investment behaviors: ownership of household durables and human capital investment via school attendance. Each column provides the results of a separate regression, returning to the specification in (7) with alternative dependent variables. The first four columns consider the change

[47]Results are qualitatively similar to those in columns (1) and (2) of Table 7, though a bit less precise, when controlling for state × exposure status fixed effects.

[48]Note that the estimate magnitudes in Tables 6 and 7 are not directly comparable due to different data sources and research design, and because our measure of $\mathbb{1}(\text{exposed}_j)$ will not capture all households that were exposed to the US market.

[49]Because Mexican population-level tabulations do not include earnings or hours separately by gender, we are not able to examine the gender wage gap.

in the share of households owning the relevant household durable from 2005 to 2010, including personal computers, washing machines, refrigerators, and televisions. The coefficient on the US employment shock for televisions is positive and marginally significant, suggesting that households in more negatively affected municipios may have slowed down their purchases of televisions. However, this estimate is sensitive to controlling for pre-Recession outcome growth (see Appendix Table C14), so we encourage caution in interpreting this result.

The final three columns use municipio-level school attendance rates among different age groups – primary (age 6-12), early secondary (13-15), and late secondary (16-18) – as the dependent variables. The coefficients on the US employment shock are uniformly positive, meaning that declining US labor demand was associated with decreases in school attendance at all three levels. The coefficient is precisely measured only for the elementary school age outcome, however, where it implies a 0.4 percentage point smaller growth rate in school enrollment for a municipio with average exposure connected to a very negative shock compared to one with similar exposure but a mild shock.

Together, these results imply that the loss of access to a strong US labor market slowed investment in affected communities. These results are consistent with other research showing that sending communities' access to higher-paying foreign jobs improves children's schooling outcomes, especially Dinkelman and Mariotti (2016). Notably, in their context, the effects were longer-lasting, as the schooling gains continued even for cohorts who were of primary schooling age after workers lost access to the foreign labor market. The results in Table 8 comport with Caballero's (2022) findings, also in the US-Mexico context, in which school enrollment decreased in municipios with stronger migration ties to US destinations that adopted deportation policies.[50] More generally, these findings are important because education early in life strongly influences future labor market outcomes. These differences in schooling attendance across municipios could lead to persistent inequalities among children at pivotal schooling ages during the Great Recession.

[50]Caballero (2022) also provides a model clarifying the key channels through which return migration or deferred emigration are likely to affect schooling investment.

7 Conclusion

This paper documents the role of geographic migrant networks in transmitting the effects of the US Great Recession across the border to migrant-connected Mexican locations. The empirical analysis relies on variation in the magnitude of labor demand declines across US commuting zones and variation in the mix of US destination locations chosen by migrants from different Mexican municipios. We derive our empirical approach from a simple location choice model, showing how to combine these sources of variation, and we use administrative data from the *Matrícula Consular de Alta Seguridad* (MCAS) ID card program to observe migrant connections between municipios and US commuting zones. We compare changes in outcomes between municipios in the same Mexican state that faced larger vs. smaller declines in US employment and show that the results are generally robust to controlling for pre-existing differences in outcomes across municipios and other changes in the attractiveness of source and destination locations.

The results reveal that in municipios whose migrants faced larger US labor demand declines, the working-age population grew faster, return migration increased more, and emigration decreased more than in municipios facing smaller shocks. Household remittance receipt fell by more in these source locations as did the female-to-male sex ratio, since return migrants were disproportionately male. These changes in the size and composition of the local labor force, along with the reductions in household budgets due to lost remittance income, linked Mexican local labor market outcomes to US local labor demand shocks. Specifically, the employment-to-population ratio increased by more in harder hit regions, with the increase happening almost entirely among women. This change in female labor supply likely reflects households compensating for lost US earnings among migrants. We also find that school enrollment for children age 6-12 in those locations increased by less than in other locations.

These findings demonstrate the substantial influence of the US labor market on Mexican demographic and economic outcomes, likely with long-lasting consequences. While this paper studies changes in US labor demand driven by the Great Recession, one can expect to find similar effects if a large portion of Mexican migrants lost access to the US labor market due to changes in immigration

and enforcement policies. For example, a well enforced universal E-Verify program would largely cut off labor market access for unauthorized immigrants, including approximately 43 percent of Mexican-born residents of the US in 2019 (Gonzalez-Barrera and Krogstad 2019).

Along with these policy implications, our findings inform the broader literature on the effects of immigration on local labor markets. Specifically, we find that aggregate outflows from sending locations are strongly responsive to labor demand conditions in the subset of US destinations where previous migrants from that source had historically settled. This finding conflicts with a key assumption behind the instrument most commonly used to correct for the endogeneity of local immigrant inflows to local labor demand conditions.[51] The instrument treats aggregate inflows from each source as exogenous and focuses instead on resolving the potential endogeneity of migrants' location choices within the destination country, conditional on choosing to migrate. The finding that aggregate inflows from a source are endogenous to network-weighted demand suggests that US destinations with more positive values of the instrument may have systematically stronger unobserved labor demand growth. Finally, these findings reinforce the conclusion that US-Mexico migration operates through a series of tight connections between specific sources and destinations. Thus, we expect that any local shocks on one side of the border are likely to affect outcomes in migrant-connected localities on the other side.

[51]This type of instrument was first introduced by Altonji and Card (1991), based on results in Bartel (1989). Although some papers attempt to identify specific source-level shocks to predict aggregate inflows from each source (Llull 2018), most papers simply assume that the total inflow from each source is exogenous. Jaeger et al. (2019) provide a more complete overview of this literature and offer an independent critique of the instrument based on the dynamics of adjustment to previous waves of migration.

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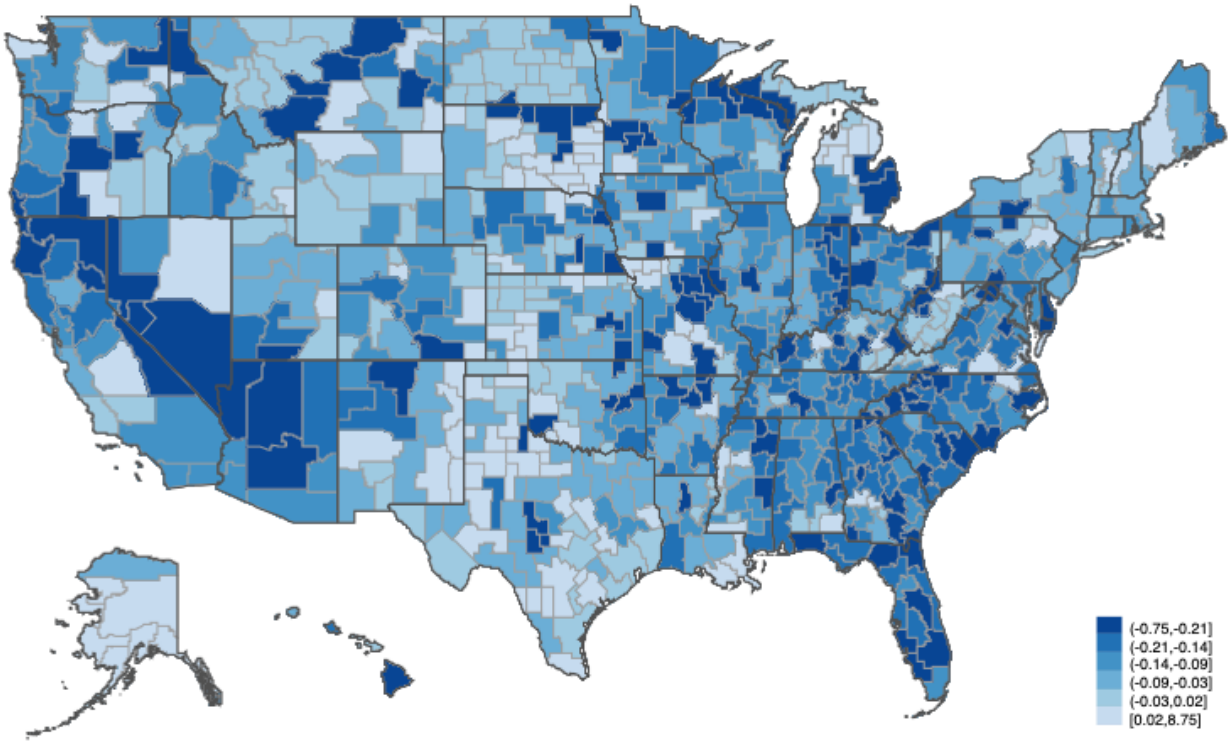
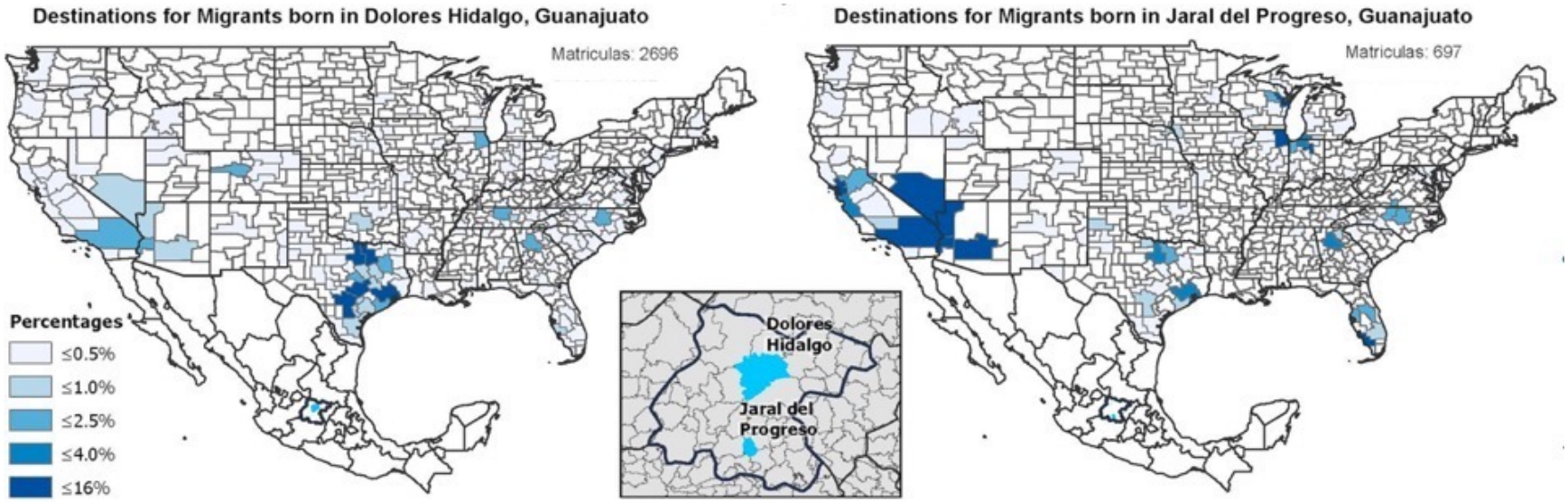
Figures and Tables

Figure 1: Change in US Employment across CZs



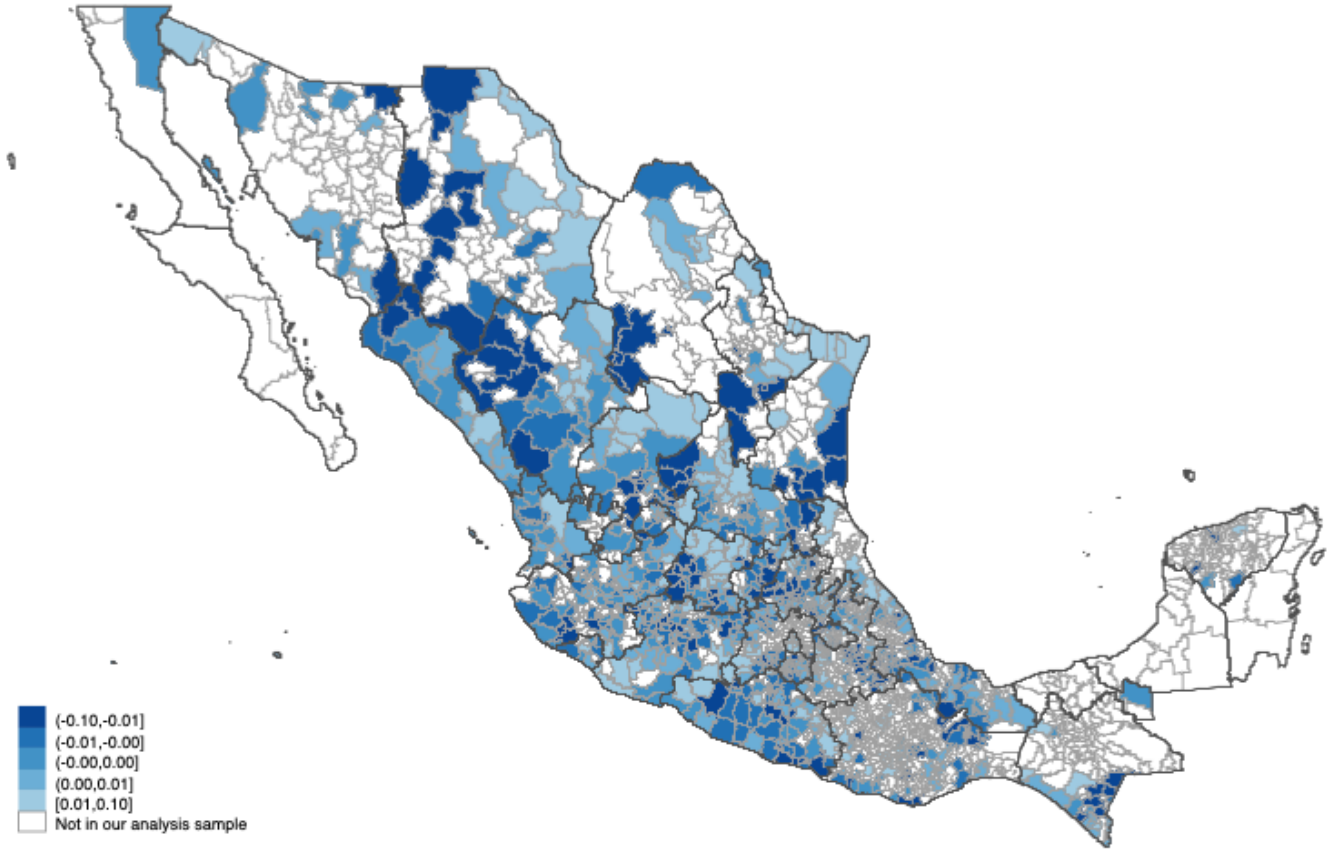
This map shows proportional changes in employment between 2006 and 2010 (bracketing the Great Recession) for each US commuting zone (CZ), with darker colors indicating larger declines in labor demand. Our measure accounts for Mexican-born workers' industry distribution of employment in each commuting zone (see main text). We use data from the County Business Patterns (CBP) supplemented with data from the American Community Survey (ACS) to fill in employment in a few industries that are not covered by the CBP. This variation in labor demand declines across US destinations leads to variation in network-connected labor demand across Mexican sources with different destination distributions (as shown in Figure 2).

Figure 2: Example Migrant Destination Distributions for Two Municipios



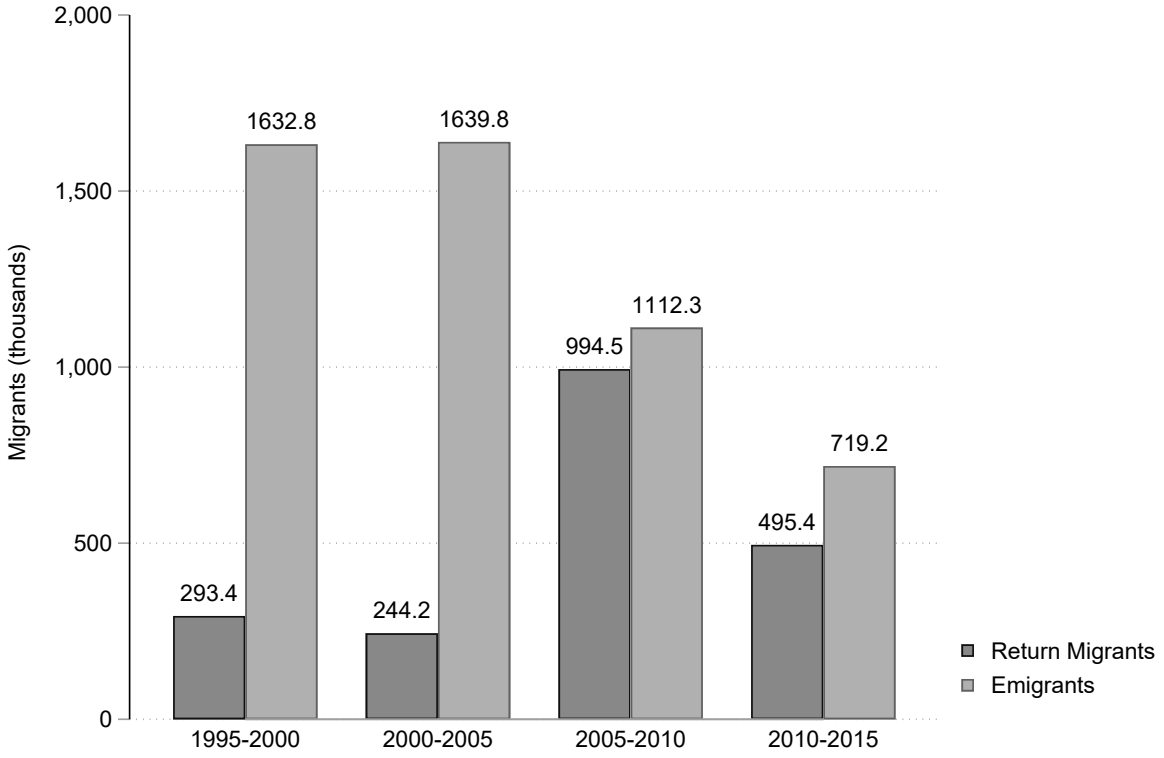
These maps show the distributions of US destinations for migrants from two different municipios located in the state of Guanajuato: Dolores Hidalgo and Jaral del Progreso. The destination distribution is calculated as the share of 2006 MCAS identity cards issued to migrants living in each US commuting zone among those born in each of the source communities, with darker colors indicating a larger share of migrants from the respective source. Despite the proximity of the two source municipios, they faced large differences in US labor demand during the Great Recession due to large differences in their destination distributions. Dolores Hidalgo tends to send migrants to US destinations that experienced relatively mild labor demand declines, while Jaral del Progreso tends to send migrants to US destinations that experienced large labor demand declines.

Figure 3: US Employment Shock Measure, Controlling for Mexican-State Fixed Effects



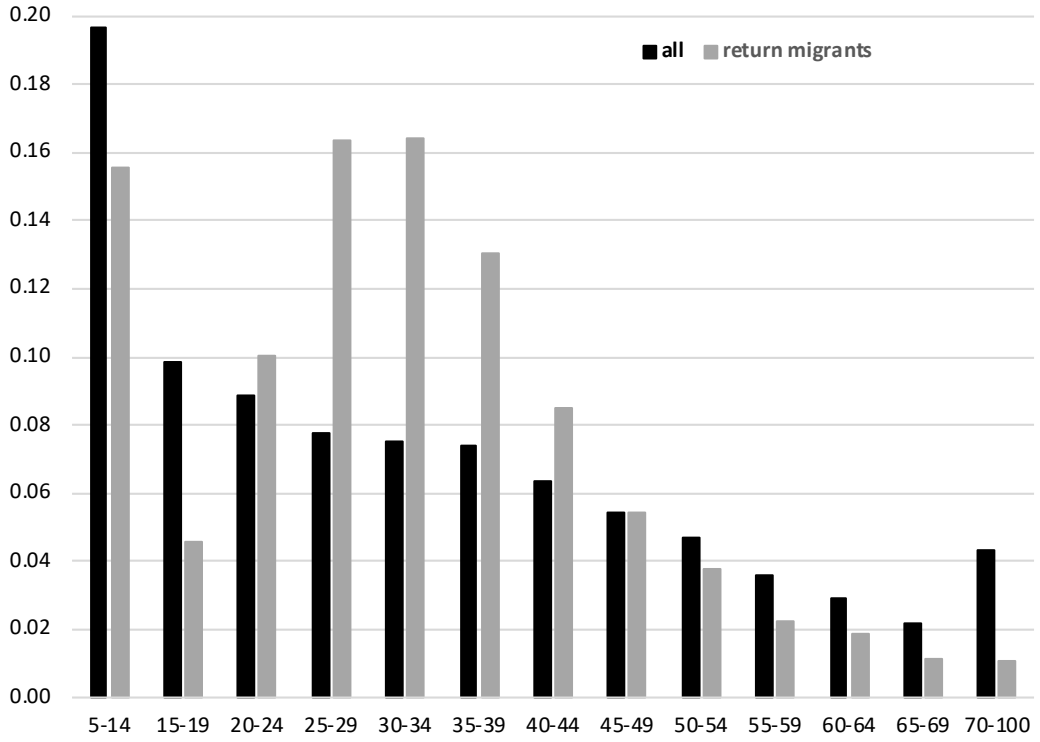
This map shows the distribution of network-connected changes in US labor demand (as defined in the main text) over the time period of the Great Recession for each Mexican municipio, controlling for Mexican-state fixed effects. Our sample omits municipios (shown in white) with less than 5,000 residents in 2005, with initial exposure less than 0.066, or with fewer than 100 *matriculas* issued in 2006. This sample restriction maintains 56% of the year-2005 working age Mexican population. Because our analyses include Mexican-state fixed effects as control variables, the variation displayed in this map is the key identifying variation in our analysis.

Figure 4: Five-Year Migration Flows Between Mexico and the US



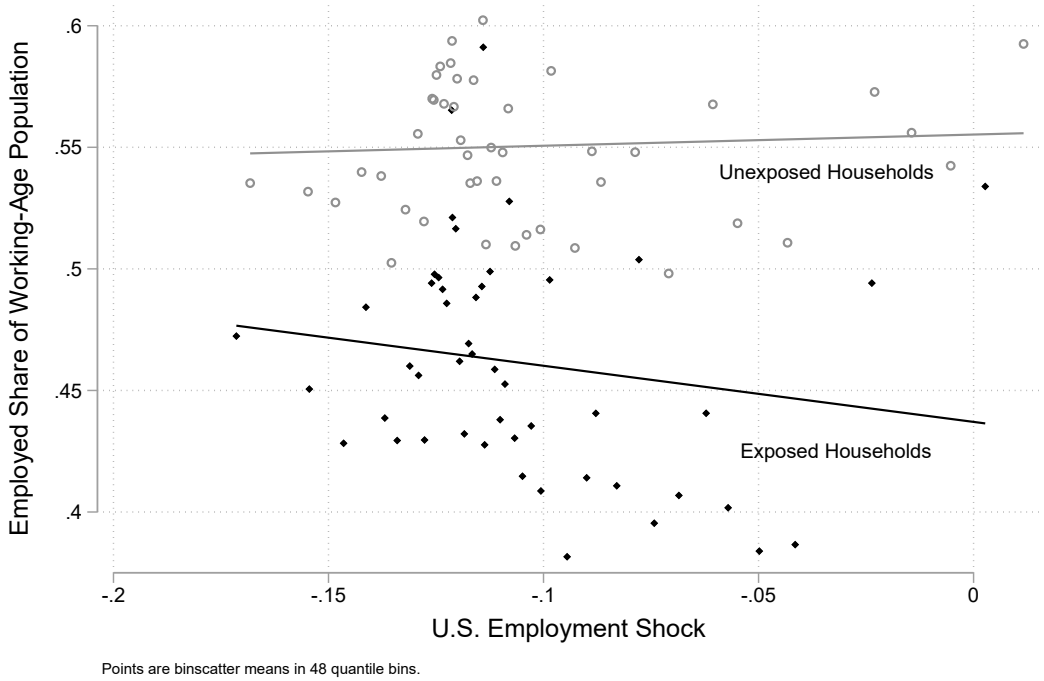
Authors' calculations using data from INEGI and CONAPO. Return migration is calculated using the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census, the 2005 Inter-Censal Count (*Conteo*), and the 2015 Inter-Censal Survey (*Encuesta Intercensal*). The return migration measure counts the number of people in Mexico reporting living abroad five years prior to the survey. Emigrants are calculated using data from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and data from CONAPO for 2005 and 2015. The measure counts the number of emigrants leaving surveyed households within the five year period preceding the survey. Note the large increase in return migration to Mexico and the decrease in emigration from Mexico in 2005-10, during the US Great Recession.

Figure 5: 2005-2010 Return Migrants' Age Distribution



Authors' calculations using data from the 2010 Mexican Census. Return migrants are defined as those living in the US in June 2005, five years prior to the Census. Note that, in comparison to the overall population, return migrants are much more likely to be in the 25-39 age range and less likely to be under 20 and over 60.

Figure 6: Employment Share of Working-Age Population vs US Employment Shock



This figure shows a binscatter plot of the variation identifying the main coefficient in column (1) of Table 7. Each gray circle shows the employment share of the working-age population living in households with no US migrants (unexposed households – see text for details) while each black diamond shows the employment share of the working-age population living in households with US migrants (exposed households). There is a strong negative relationship between the employment probability and the US employment shock for exposed households and essentially no relationship for unexposed households.

Table 1: Summary Statistics

	Obs	Mean	Std. Dev.	p10	p90
Panel A: Shock Measure and Control Variables					
Exposure	866	0.259	0.138	0.096	0.453
US Employment Shock	866	-0.108	0.034	-0.139	-0.064
New 287g Policy	866	0.133	0.128	0.032	0.254
Employment Policy	866	0.174	0.137	0.047	0.360
Trade Shock ($1000s)	866	-8.479	70.479	-13.747	4.706
Non-tradable share of Employment	866	0.722	0.175	0.467	0.902
△ Homicide Rate (per 1000)	866	0.891	1.329	0.055	2.174
Panel B: Outcome Variables					
Population growth and Migration - Mexican Population Census					
Population Growth 2005-10	866	0.138	0.079	0.065	0.218
Return Migration 2005-10/Pop2005	866	0.028	0.017	0.008	0.051
Emigration 2005-10/Pop2005	866	0.024	0.021	0.006	0.047
Other Channels - Mexican Population Census					
△ Sex Ratio (F/M) 2005-10	866	-0.046	0.040	-0.098	-0.002
△ Less than primary education 2005-10	866	-0.053	0.020	-0.079	-0.025
△ Primary education 2005-10	866	0.004	0.040	-0.049	0.051
△ Secondary education 2005-10	866	0.035	0.014	0.020	0.052
△ University education 2005-10	866	0.020	0.012	0.006	0.036
Households with Remittances 2010	866	0.040	0.036	0.008	0.093
Economic Outcomes - Mexican Economic Census					
△ Log Earnings per Hour 2004-09	864	0.230	0.477	-0.243	0.659
△ Epop 2004-09	866	0.018	0.049	-0.012	0.058
△ Epop Men 2004-09	866	0.014	0.054	-0.030	0.061
△ Epop Women 2004-09	866	0.021	0.054	-0.003	0.060
Economic Outcomes - Mexican Population Census					
△ Computer Ownership 2005-10	866	0.066	0.034	0.026	0.113
△ Washing Machine Ownership 2005-10	866	0.068	0.043	0.012	0.123
△ Refrigerator Ownership 2005-10	866	0.064	0.045	0.008	0.127
△ TV Ownership 2005-10	866	0.027	0.039	-0.003	0.077
△ Attendance Rate (ages 6-12) 2005-10	866	0.005	0.011	-0.007	0.018
△ Attendance Rate (ages 13-15) 2005-10	866	0.050	0.040	0.003	0.106
△ Attendance Rate (ages 16-18) 2005-10	866	0.055	0.037	0.008	0.102

This table shows summary statistics for all municipio-level outcomes, the main independent variable, and control variables used in the analyses. To construct dependent variables used in the regressions, we divide the listed variables by exposure. The table presents outcome values prior to dividing by exposure.

Table 2: Population Growth, Return Migration, and Emigration

	Population Growth 2005-10			Return Migration 2005-10			Emigration 2005-10		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
US Employment Shock	-2.124***	-1.340***	-1.125**	-0.219**	-0.280***	-0.197**	0.220*	0.229*	0.295**
	[0.449]	[0.476]	[0.536]	[0.100]	[0.094]	[0.096]	[0.132]	[0.121]	[0.146]
	(0.548)	(0.568)	(0.563)	(0.074)	(0.069)	(0.073)	(0.121)	(0.120)	(0.124)
Pre-shock Outcome		0.749***	0.727***		1.608***	1.585***		0.123***	0.113***
		(0.126)	(0.128)		(0.284)	(0.283)		(0.025)	(0.025)
New 287g Policy			0.261*			0.076***			0.027
			(0.135)			(0.018)			(0.026)
Employment Policy			-0.073			-0.010			0.001
			(0.095)			(0.012)			(0.017)
Trade Shock			-0.127			0.021**			0.051***
			(0.177)			(0.009)			(0.014)
Non-tradable share of Employment			-0.151**			-0.012			0.011
			(0.064)			(0.008)			(0.013)
Homicide Rate 2005-10			-22.463**			-4.969***			-7.860***
			(10.446)			(1.074)			(2.720)
Mean raw outcome among less affected	0.114	0.114	0.114	0.029	0.029	0.029	0.030	0.030	0.030
Implied shock impact	0.040	0.025	0.021	0.004	0.005	0.004	-0.004	-0.004	-0.006
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.160	0.568	0.577	0.322	0.513	0.538	0.267	0.294	0.316

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 population growth, return migration to, and emigration from each Mexican source municipio. Note that outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure, ξ_s, as in equation (7). We restrict attention to individuals age 15-64. Population growth is defined as the proportional change in population. Return migration is the number of individuals reporting living in the US 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the municipio population in the survey year, while emigration is the number of household members who left for the US during the 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the initial municipio population, measured using the roughly 10% long-form sample from the 2000 or 2010 Census (emigration information is not available in 2005). We use full-count tabulations from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Censuses and the 2005 Conteo. All specifications in columns (1) to (6) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. The "Pre-shock Outcome" controls in columns (2), (5), and (8) are 2000-2005 population growth, 2000-2005 return migration, and 1995-2000 emigration, respectively. Columns (3), (6), and (9) additionally control for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, and changes in homicide rates across municipios. All specifications control for Mexican state fixed effects. "Mean raw outcome among less affected" is the average of the dependent variable without dividing by exposure for municipios in the quartile with smallest magnitude US employment shocks. "Implied shock impact" provides the predicted difference in the outcome (without dividing by exposure) for municipios with the 90-10 percentile difference in shock size (0.075) and average exposure (0.25). Standard errors clustered at the Mexican commuting zone level are shown in parentheses. Due to the shift-share structure of the US Employment Shock, we also present Borusyak et al. (2022) standard errors for this variable in square brackets. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 based on standard errors in brackets when present.

Table 3: Pre-trend Analysis: Population Growth, Return Migration, and Emigration

	Population Growth 2000-05		Return Migration 2000-05		Emigration 1995-00	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
US Employment Shock	-0.863**	-1.001**	0.033	0.053*	-0.067	0.037
	(0.429)	(0.466)	(0.026)	(0.027)	(0.145)	(0.170)
New 287g Policy		0.058		-0.003		0.037
		(0.132)		(0.008)		(0.058)
Employment Policy		-0.142*		0.008		0.012
		(0.075)		(0.005)		(0.037)
Trade Shock		0.402***		0.004		-0.002
		(0.145)		(0.009)		(0.029)
Non-tradable share of Employment		-0.206***		-0.002		0.007
		(0.060)		(0.004)		(0.020)
Homicide Rate 2005-10		-22.283***		-0.985		-9.253***
		(6.790)		(0.858)		(2.989)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.116	0.148	0.251	0.258	0.204	0.215

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the pre-shock population growth, return migration to, and emigration from each Mexican source *municipio* to determine whether there were pre-existing trends related to later shocks. Note that the pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We restrict attention to individuals age 15-64. Population growth is defined as the proportional change in population. Return migration is the number of individuals reporting living in the US 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the municipio population in the survey year, while emigration is the number of household members who left for the US during the 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the initial municipio population, measured using the roughly 10% long-form sample from the 2000 (emigration information is not available in 2005). We use full-count tabulations from the 2000 Census and the 1995 Conteo. All specifications in columns (1) to (6) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity and control for Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican commuting zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 4: Descriptive Statistics, 2010 Census

Characteristics	All	Return Migrants 2005-2010
Female	51.3%	31.3%
Married	42.0%	57.9%
Education		
Less than primary	35.5%	25.8%
Primary	42.8%	54.5%
Secondary	14.5%	15.5%
University	7.2%	4.2%
Employment		
Employed	50.1%	62.9 %
Self-employed	27.7%	31.6%
Paid employee	69.1%	63.6%
Unpaid worker	3.2%	4.7%
Unemployed	2.4%	5.5%
Not in the labor force	47.5%	31.6%
Hourly wage (yr 2000 pesos)	19.64	18.90

Authors' calculations using data from the 2010 Mexican Census. Return migrants are defined as those living in the US in June 2005, five years prior to the Census. Hourly wages calculated as (monthly earnings / 4.33) / (weekly hours) and deflated to year 2000 pesos using the consumer price index (INPC) from INEGI. Average hourly wages omit the top and bottom 1 percent of observations. Note that, in comparison to the overall population, return migrants are disproportionately male, more likely to be married, more likely to have primary school education, and more likely to be in the labor force.

Table 5: Sex Ratio, Educational Attainment, and Households Receiving Remittances

	△ Sex Ratio (F/M) 2005-10	△ Less than Primary 2005-10	△ Primary 2005-10	△ Secondary 2005-10	△ University 2005-10	Household Remittances 2010
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
US Employment Shock	0.483*	0.001	0.076	-0.041	0.019	0.500***
	[0.253]	[0.124]	[0.227]	[0.160]	[0.060]	[0.133]
	(0.209)	(0.124)	(0.186)	(0.087)	(0.064)	(0.129)
Pre-shock Outcome	-0.214***	0.545***	0.717***	0.894***	0.735***	0.448***
	(0.032)	(0.027)	(0.089)	(0.040)	(0.042)	(0.046)
New 287g Policy	-0.040	-0.089***	0.106***	-0.028	-0.002	0.006
	(0.051)	(0.033)	(0.040)	(0.021)	(0.015)	(0.027)
Employment Policy	0.012	0.015	0.000	-0.012	0.004	0.021
	(0.037)	(0.022)	(0.030)	(0.013)	(0.012)	(0.018)
Trade Shock	-0.074**	-0.028	0.278***	-0.180***	-0.016	0.045**
	(0.029)	(0.018)	(0.042)	(0.029)	(0.022)	(0.021)
Non-tradable share of Employment	0.018	0.004	0.083***	-0.006	-0.032***	0.022*
	(0.023)	(0.014)	(0.018)	(0.011)	(0.007)	(0.013)
Homicide Rate 2005-10	10.136***	2.802	6.139***	0.515	-0.836	-4.828*
	(3.755)	(1.861)	(2.163)	(0.983)	(1.134)	(2.477)
Mean raw outcome among less affected	-0.042	-0.053	0.003	0.038	0.018	0.051
Implied shock impact	-0.009	-0.000	-0.001	0.001	-0.000	-0.009
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.283	0.753	0.573	0.748	0.687	0.343

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in the female to male sex ratio for the working age population (15-64), the 2005-10 change in the share of the working age population in each education level, and the share of households receiving remittances in 2010 for each Mexican source municipio. Note that outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure, ξ_s, as in equation (7). We measure the sex ratio and educational attainment using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Inter-Censal Count. We calculate the share of households receiving remittances as the number of households reporting receiving income from relatives living abroad divided by the municipio's total number of households in the Census year, using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census. All specifications in columns (1) to (6) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. The "Pre-shock Outcome" control in column (1) is the 2000-2005 change in the sex ratio. In columns (2)-(5) this control is the 2000-2005 change in the share of the municipio population with the listed level of schooling. In column (6), this control is the share of households receiving remittances in 2000. All specifications include controls for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, changes in homicide rates across municipios, and Mexican state fixed effects. "Mean raw outcome among less affected" is the average of the dependent variable without dividing by exposure for municipios in the quartile with smallest magnitude US employment shocks. "Implied shock impact" provides the predicted difference in the outcome (without dividing by exposure) for municipios with the 90-10 percentile difference in shock size (0.075) and average exposure (0.25). Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. Due to the shift-share structure of the US Employment Shock, we also present Borusyak et al. (2022) standard errors for this variable in square brackets. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 based on standard errors in brackets when present.

Table 6: Employment-to-population Ratio and Earnings per Hour

	△ EPOP 2004-09	△ ln(Hours) 2004-09	△ ln(Earnings) 2004-09	△ ln(EarnPerHour) 2004-09
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A. All				
US Employment Shock	-0.321*	-3.657***	-4.093	-0.803
	[0.169]	[1.395]	[2.669]	[1.987]
	(0.193)	(1.579)	(3.034)	(2.498)
△ EPOP 1999-04	-0.464***			
	(0.116)			
△ ln(Hours) 1999-04		-0.143**	0.298**	0.44***
		(0.048)	(0.119)	(0.097)
△ ln(Earnings) 1999-04		0.078***	-0.168***	-0.241***
		(0.026)	(0.059)	(0.45)
Mean raw outcome among less affected	0.013	0.126	0.345	0.219
Implied shock impact	0.006	0.069	0.077	0.015
Panel B. Women				
US Employment Shock	-0.663***			
	[0.167]			
	(0.192)			
△ EPOP Women 1999-04	-0.561***			
	(0.158)			
Mean raw outcome among less affected	0.015			
Implied shock impact	0.012			
Panel C. Men				
US Employment Shock	-0.015			
	[0.258]			
	(0.253)			
△ EPOP Men 1999-04	-0.357***			
	(0.083)			
Mean raw outcome among less affected	0.009			
Implied shock impact	0.000			
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	865	846	846	846

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the 2004-2009 change in the employment-to-population ratio, earnings, hours worked, and earnings per hours in each municipio, using employment, earnings and hours from the 1999, 2004 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. In Appendix Table C29, we implement the same analysis at the Mexican Commuting Zone level, which may better approximate local labor markets, finding similar results. Note that the outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure, ξ_s, as in equation (7). We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. All specifications in columns (1) to (4) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. All specifications include controls for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, changes in homicide rates across municipios, and Mexican state fixed effects. "Mean raw outcome among less affected" is the average of the dependent variable without dividing by exposure for municipios in the quartile with smallest magnitude US employment shocks. "Implied shock impact" provides the predicted difference in the outcome (without dividing by exposure) for municipios with the 90-10 percentile difference in shock size (0.075) and average exposure (0.25). Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. Due to the shift-share structure of the US Employment Shock, we also present Borusyak et al. (2022) standard errors for this variable in square brackets. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 based on standard errors in brackets when present.

Table 7: Cross-Sectional Employment Analysis 2010

	State FE	State FE	Municipio FE
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Panel A. All			
US Employment Shock*$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.189***	-0.139**	-0.101
	(0.069)	(0.066)	(0.068)
$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.038***	-0.031***	-0.020**
	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.008)
Observations	33,270,660	33,270,660	33,270,660
Panel B. Women			
US Employment Shock*$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.297***	-0.224***	-0.201**
	(0.086)	(0.084)	(0.087)
$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.048***	-0.038***	-0.026***
	(0.010)	(0.010)	(0.010)
Observations	17,511,744	17,511,744	17,511,744
Panel C. Men			
US Employment Shock*$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.054	-0.025	0.021
	(0.087)	(0.085)	(0.082)
$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.007	-0.003	0.005
	(0.009)	(0.009)	(0.009)
Observations	15,758,916	15,758,916	15,758,916

This table examines how labor supply behavior differs for households with and without US migrants in municipios facing different US shocks. We use cross-sectional data from the 2010 Census and define households exposed to US labor markets as those with either return migrants or with a household member living in the US. Columns (1) and (2) estimate the specification in Equation (10), including the main effect of the US Employment shock as a control, while column (3) estimates a more general specification with municipio fixed effects and thus omits the US Employment Shock main effect. Column (2) shows the results including controls for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, and changes in homicide rates across municipios (and the municipio fixed effects in column (3) subsume all these controls). Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table 8: Appliance Ownership and School Attendance

	△ Computer 2005-10	△ Washing Machine 2005-10	△ Refrigerator 2005-10	△ TV 2005-10	△ Attendance Rate (ages 6-12) 2005-10	△ Attendance Rate (ages 13-15) 2005-10	△ Attendance Rate (ages 16-18) 2005-10
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
US Employment Shock	-0.123	0.045	0.204	0.475*	0.194**	0.310	0.131
	[0.098]	[0.253]	[0.259]	[0.269]	[0.086]	[0.317]	[0.368]
	(0.105)	(0.230)	(0.228)	(0.193)	(0.071)	(0.244)	(0.262)
△ Outcome 2000-05	0.891***	0.297***	0.346***	0.424***	-0.013	0.135***	0.250***
	(0.025)	(0.021)	(0.024)	(0.029)	(0.025)	(0.028)	(0.028)
New 287g Policy	-0.025	0.056	0.052	0.021	0.022	0.093	0.072
	(0.034)	(0.058)	(0.057)	(0.053)	(0.017)	(0.058)	(0.060)
Employment Policy	-0.040*	-0.080*	-0.034	0.003	0.015	0.039	-0.009
	(0.023)	(0.041)	(0.041)	(0.035)	(0.012)	(0.041)	(0.044)
Trade Shock	-0.040	0.053	0.065	0.047	0.041***	0.110***	-0.030
	(0.039)	(0.066)	(0.049)	(0.034)	(0.014)	(0.030)	(0.044)
Non-tradable share of Employment	-0.018	-0.039	-0.010	0.016	-0.008	-0.061**	-0.094***
	(0.015)	(0.029)	(0.038)	(0.034)	(0.009)	(0.026)	(0.031)
Homicide Rate 05-10	-0.475	1.284	1.891	5.693*	-0.929	-8.242**	-2.006
	(1.496)	(2.721)	(2.749)	(3.206)	(1.190)	(3.874)	(4.422)
Mean raw outcome among less affected	0.065	0.061	0.060	0.024	0.006	0.056	0.060
Implied shock impact	0.002	-0.001	-0.004	-0.009	-0.004	-0.006	-0.002
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.860	0.594	0.564	0.533	0.094	0.307	0.366

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in ownership of household durables (personal computers, washing machines, refrigerators, and televisions) and in school attendance. We calculate the change in the share of households owning the relevant household durable and the share of the population in primary (age 6-12), secondary (age 13-15), and high-school (age 16-18) reporting having attended school using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo. Note that the outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure, ξ_s, as in equation (7). All specifications in columns (1) to (7) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. All specifications include controls for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, changes in homicide rates across municipios, and Mexican state fixed effects. "Mean raw outcome among less affected" is the average of the dependent variable without dividing by exposure for municipios in the quartile with smallest magnitude US employment shocks. "Implied shock impact" provides the predicted difference in the outcome (without dividing by exposure) for municipios with the 90-10 percentile difference in shock size (0.075) and average exposure (0.25). Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. Due to the shift-share structure of the US Employment Shock, we also present Borusyak et al. (2022) standard errors for this variable in square brackets. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 based on standard errors in brackets when present.

Online Appendices

(Not for publication)

A Model Derivations

A.1 Derivation of Equation 3

To derive equation (3), start with the total derivative of $M_{ss} = M_s P_s(s)$, holding M_s constant.

$$dM_{ss} = M_s \left[\frac{\partial P_s(s)}{\partial v_s} dv_s + \sum_{d \neq s} \frac{\partial P_s(s)}{\partial v_d} dv_d \right] \tag{11}$$

Then, evaluate the partial derivatives of the choice probabilities in (2).

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial P_s(s)}{\partial v_s} &= \frac{\alpha \exp(\alpha v_s + n_{ss})}{\sum_{d'} \exp(\alpha v_{d'} + n_{sd'})} - \alpha \left(\frac{\exp(\alpha v_s + n_{ss})}{\sum_{d'} \exp(\alpha v_{d'} + n_{sd'})} \right)^2 \\ &= \alpha P_s(s)(1 - P_s(s)) \end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial P_s(s)}{\partial v_d} &= -\alpha \frac{\exp(\alpha v_s + n_{ss}) \exp(\alpha v_d + n_{sd})}{\left(\sum_{d'} \exp(\alpha v_{d'} + n_{sd'})\right)^2} \quad \text{where } d \neq s \\ &= -\alpha P_s(s) P_s(d) \end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

Plugging these into (12) and simplifying yields (3).

A.2 Derivation of Equation 6

To derive equation (6), start with its left hand side, and impose the assumptions listed just above (6). Under assumption i), the employment probability facing Mexican workers is the Mexican employment to population ratio, so

$$Pr(emp_d) = \frac{Emp_d^M}{M_d} = \frac{\sum_i Emp_{id}^M}{M_d}, \tag{14}$$

where Emp_{id}^M is Mexican employment in industry i in destination d and M_d is the Mexican-born population of d. Take the derivative of $w_d Pr(emp_d)$, holding wages fixed under the rigid wage assumption.

$$w_d dPr(emp_d) = w_d \frac{\sum_i dEmp_{id}^M}{M_d} = \sum_i w_d \frac{Emp_d^M}{M_d} \frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M} \frac{dEmp_{id}^M}{Emp_{id}^M} = \sum_i w_d \gamma_d \frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M} \frac{dEmp_{id}^M}{Emp_{id}^M}, \tag{15}$$

where $\gamma_d \equiv Emp_d^M / M_d$ is the employment probability among Mexican-born workers in d. Note that $w_d \gamma_d$ is the expected earnings among Mexicans in d. Assumption iii) implies that job losses in a given industry and location are allocated proportionately to Mexican-born and other workers, so

$$\frac{dEmp_{id}^M}{Emp_{id}^M} = \frac{dEmp_{id}}{Emp_{id}}. \tag{16}$$

Assumption ii) implies equal baseline expected earnings across destinations, so

$$w_d \gamma_d \equiv \delta. \tag{17}$$

Plugging the preceding two expressions into (15) yields the right hand side of (6).

A.3 Alternative Interpretation of Shock Magnitude

As mentioned in Section 3.2, the US employment shock measure in (6) can be interpreted as the wage times the number of US jobs lost per migrant under the assumption that the wage is constant across US locations, i.e. $w_d = w,\ \forall d$, which in turn implies that $\gamma_d = \gamma,\ \forall d$ and $\delta = w\gamma$. Given this assumption, start with the right side of (6) and use the definition of γ from above, the migration network term $\varphi_{sd} = M_{sd}/(\sum_{d' \neq s} M_{sd'})$, and the the identity

$$\frac{d\ Emp_d^M}{Emp_d^M} \equiv \sum_i \frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M} \frac{d\ Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_{id}^M}. \tag{18}$$

Plug these in and simplify to yield

$$\begin{aligned} w\gamma \sum_{d \neq s} \varphi_{sd} \sum_i \frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M} \cdot \frac{d\ Emp_{id}}{Emp_{id}} &= w \sum_{d \neq s} \frac{Emp_d^M}{M_d} \frac{M_{sd}}{(\sum_{d' \neq s} M_{sd'})} \frac{d\ Emp_d^M}{Emp_d^M} \\ &= w \frac{1}{\sum_{d' \neq s} M_{sd'}} \sum_{d \neq s} \frac{M_{sd}}{M_d} d\ Emp_d^M. \end{aligned} \tag{19}$$

Since $\sum_{d' \neq s} M_{sd'}$ is the total number of US migrants from s, the right side of (19) is the wage times the number of jobs lost (or gained) per migrant from s. This derivation thus shows that, under the appropriate assumptions, the US employment shock facing each Mexican municipio has an intuitive reduced-form interpretation as the wage times the number of US jobs lost per migrant.

B Data

B.1 Matrículas Consulares de Alta Seguridad

We use a custom extract from the MCAS administrative dataset covering all the *matrículas consulares* issued in 2006 to Mexican-born individuals by place of birth in Mexico and place of residency in the US. Because this extract did not contain numerical identifiers for municipio or county, we needed to determine which municipio each record represented. We assigned each source municipio name an identifier to match those used by Mexico's Statistical Office (INEGI) and we assigned each US count a county-level FIPS code.

Mexican place of birth: The extract contained Mexican state and municipio of birth. However, the field for municipio of birth was sometimes reported by cardholders as their town or place of birth. After merging municipio names from INEGI's list, we ended up with 87 percent of the matrículas perfectly matched. For the remaining 13 percent of the matrículas, more than half (7 percent of the total) were from individuals reporting Mexico City as their place of birth. To address this issue, we aggregated *municipios* within Mexico City (Distrito Federal) in all Mexican datasets. For the remaining 6 percent we matched the information recorded in the municipio field to INEGI's identifiers by using a record linkage method (reclink2) in Stata, performing fuzzy matches. With these two procedures we were able to identify 95 percent of *municipios* in the dataset. Finally, we manually assigned places to *municipios* for 3 percent of the unmatched matrículas in the data, leaving us with 98 percent of the matrículas matched to a *municipio*.

US county of residency: The extract contained US state and county of residency. However, in some instances cardholders reported places or cities of residency, abbreviated or misspelled city names (i.e. LA for Los Angeles), or in very few instances county of residency that did not corresponded to the reported state of residence (i.e Charleston, South Dakota instead of Charleston, South Carolina). After merging county names using the FIP codes list from the US Census Bureau, we ended up with 88 percent of the matrículas perfectly matched. For the remaining unmatched cases, including those just mentioned, we manually coded the correct counties.

We aggregate destination counties to the commuting zone level, using the crosswalk in Dorn (2009).[52] This provides us with information on the connections between each Mexican municipio and each US commuting zone.

B.2 US Employment

We measure changes in US labor demand using payroll employment from the County Business Patterns (CBP) data from 2006-2010. This dataset includes the universe of employment at business establishments in covered industries in each US county. We fill in employment estimates from uncovered industries, notably government and private household employees, using the American Community Survey (ACS) from IPUMS (Ruggles et al. 2017). Because our goal is to measure labor demand changes specific to Mexican-born workers employed in US industries, we also use data from the 2006 American Community Survey (ACS) to measure the share of the Mexican-born migrants employed in each industry prior to the Great Recession.

Because we want to measure changes in US labor demand at the local labor market level, we use commuting zones as our geographic unit of analysis in the US. We aggregate county-level em-

[52] `https://www.ddorn.net/data.htm` (file E7)

ployment information from CBP and migrant destination data from MCAS to the commuting zone level using the crosswalk in Dorn (2009).[53] We make manual adjustments to maintain consistent county boundaries over time. Because the most disaggregated sample available in the ACS is the Public Use Micro Areas (PUMA), we use another crosswalk from Dorn (2009) to match PUMAS to commuting zones.[54] After these aggregations at the commuting zone level, we were able to use these two datasets to construct a weighted average of employment changes accounting for the industrial composition of Mexican employment in each US labor market.

B.3 Demographic and Population Outcomes

Return Migration: We define return migrants from the US to each Mexican municipio between 2005-2010 as individuals ages 15-64 living in Mexico during the 2010 Census reference period but who lived in the US five years before. These flows are identified through a question that asks respondents their country of residency five years prior to the Census year. Note that the count of return migrants does not include any individuals who were living in Mexico five years previously but who moved to the US and back within the five year window. We also calculate pre-shock return migration for the working age population between 2000-2005 using information from the the 2005 *Conteo* and the 2000 Mexican Census. To calculate these measures, we use official tabulations of the full-count 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 Inter-Censal Count (*Conteo*), available at INEGI's website. We divided the 2005-2010 measure by the 2005 working age population and the 2000-2005 measure by the 2000 working age population in each municipio, using official tabulations of the full-count 2000 Mexican Census and 2005 *Conteo*, available at INEGI's website.

Emigration: We calculate emigration from each Mexican municipio to the US as the number of individuals ages 15-64 who reported leaving between 2005-2010 in the 2010 Mexican Census, using the 2010 Mexican Census supplemental sample questionnaire. This survey, available at the Mexican Statistical Office website (INEGI) contains an international migration module, conducted on a 10% sample of Mexican households in each Census year, asking respondents if anyone in the household went to live in the US during the previous five years. We also calculate pre-shock emigration for the working age population who reported leaving to the US between 1995-2000 using microdata from the 2000 Mexican Census, as the 2005 *Conteo* does not include information on emigration. We divided the 2005-2010 measure by the 2005 working age population and the 1995-2000 measure by the 2000 working age population in each municipio, using official tabulations of the full-count 2000 Mexican Census and 2005 *Conteo*, available at INEGI's website. Note that because the Mexican Census does not provide information on emigration of entire households, our emigration measure may be underestimated. Since we construct the emigration measure using a sample rather than the population, the return migration estimate is likely more reliable.

Population Changes: This measure is defined as the proportional change in the total number of Mexican individuals ages 15-64 in each Mexican municipio between 2005-2010 and between 2000-2005. We use official tabulations of the full-count 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 *Conteo*, available at INEGI's website.

Sex Ratio: This measure is defined as the ratio of the total number of Mexican women ages 15-64 in each Mexican municipio at the time of the Census or *Conteo* to the total number of men

[53] `https://www.ddorn.net/data.htm` (file E7)

[54] `https://www.ddorn.net/data.htm` (file E5).

ages 15-64 in each Mexican municipio at the same time. We calculate the female to male sex ratio using official tabulations of the full-count 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 *Conteo*, available at INEGI's website.

Educational Attainment: We measure the share of the municipio population with each education level as the total number of individuals ages 15-64 with that level of education at the time of the Census or *Conteo*, divided by the total working age population of the same municipio. The "less than primary education" category includes those with no schooling and with up to 4 years of primary education; individuals with primary education are those with primary and lower secondary completed; those with upper secondary completed are considered to have a secondary education; individuals with university education are those with at least some post-secondary schooling. We use official tabulations of the full-count 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 *Conteo*, available at INEGI's website.

Households receiving Remittances: We measure the share of households receiving remittances as the proportion of households in each municipio and Census year reporting receiving income from relatives abroad. We use 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census microdata from (Ruggles et al. 2017) to calculate this measure. Note that although the 2000 Census includes a question on the amount of remittances received by each surveyed household in Mexico, the 2010 Census reports only whether the household received any remittances. The relevant question is somewhat open-ended regarding the timeframe of remittance receipt, and enumerators encouraged respondents to report both regular and sporadic remittance receipt.

B.4 Economic Outcomes

Employment-to-population ratio: We calculate the employment-to-population ratio for each municipio as the share of the population ages 15-64 with formal employment. We measure the number of employed people in each municipio, separately for women and men, using full-count tabulations, available at INEGI's website, from the 1999, 2004, and 2009 Mexican Economic Census, which covers formal employment in Mexico excluding agriculture, livestock, forestry, mass transit, taxis, farmers' insurance funds, political organizations, and domestic employees. We divide this employment count by the working age population of the corresponding municipio using official tabulations of the full-count 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 *Conteo* available at INEGI's website.

Earnings per hour: We measure earnings per hour as the municipio's aggregate yearly earnings divided by the municipio's aggregate yearly hours worked, using full-count tabulations from the 1999, 2004, and 2009 Mexican Economic Census. This earnings measure therefore covers the same sectors as the employment measure. Note that earnings and hours worked are not available separately for men and women.

Appliance Ownership: We calculate appliance ownership as the proportion of households in each municipio reporting owning the relevant appliance at the time of the Census or *Conteo*, including a personal computer, a refrigerator, a washing machine, or a television. We use official tabulations of the full-count 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 *Conteo*, available at INEGI's website.

School Attendance Rate: We calculate the school attendance rates as the total number of children in each municipio attending primary (ages 6-12), lower secondary (ages 13-15) or upper secondary (ages 16-18) education at the time of the Census or *Conteo*, divided by the total population in that same age group and municipio. We use official tabulations of the full-count 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 *Conteo*, available at INEGI's website.

B.5 Controls

Immigration policies: We use indicators for newly introduced state-level anti-immigrant employment legislation and indicators for new 287(g) agreements allowing local officials to enforce federal immigration law, using information from the database complied by Bohn and Santillano (2017). Because these variables are measured at the state level, we use the crosswalk in (Dorn 2009) to map states to commuting zones.[55] The control variables we include in the regressions are weighted averages of changes in the policy indicators with weights based on the destination distribution of migrants from the relevant municipio.

Trade Shocks: We focus on the effects of declining US employment opportunities facing potential migrants from Mexico, but the Great Recession also reduced trade between Mexico and the US Because we focus on migration-related channels, the effects of declining trade could confound our analysis. We control for such trade effects by constructing municipio-level exposure to change in Mexican trade with the US We begin by constructing industry-level changes in trade from Mexico to the US per Mexican worker. We use trade data from the US Census Bureau, provided in Stata format by Peter Schott.[56] We aggregate these data from 10-digit HS products to 4-digit NAICS industries using the concordance from Pierce and Schott (2012) and calculate the change in trade value from the period 2001-2005 to the period 2006-2010. We measure initial Mexican employment using data from the 2004 Mexican Economic Census, which covers the vast majority of firms in sectors outside agriculture.[57] For each municipio, we then generate a weighted average of these industry-level trade changes, where the weights reflect the municipio's 2004 distribution of tradable-industry employment across 4-digit NAICS industries, also calculated using the Economic Census. The weights sum to one across tradable industries, and we include an additional control for the nontradable share of employment in 2004 to address the incomplete shares problem (Borusyak et al. 2022).

Homicide Rate: We measure the number of homicides during 2005-2010 for each municipio divided by the 2005 population for the corresponding municipio, by using administrative yearly records from the Mexican Statistical Office (INEGI) and official tabulations of the full-count 2005 *Conteo* available at INEGI's website.

[55] `https://www.ddorn.net/data.htm` (file E8)

[56] `https://sompks4.github.io/sub_data.html`

[57] `https://www.inegi.org.mx/app/saic/` Accessed March 27, 2020.

C Additional empirical results

C.1 Shock variation across CZs

In Table C1 we present summary statistics describing the sources of variation in the employment shocks across US commuting zones (CZs). Recall from section 2.1 that we measure US employment changes facing Mexican-born workers in commuting zone d as

$$\sum_i \frac{Emp_{id}^M}{Emp_d^M} \left(\frac{Emp_{id}^{2010} - Emp_{id}^{2006}}{Emp_{id}^{2006}} \right), \tag{20}$$

where Emp_{id}^{year} is employment in industry i in destination commuting zone d and Emp_{id}^M / Emp_d^M is the share of Mexican-born workers in commuting zone d working in industry i in 2006.

Because this measure weights each industry based on its share of Mexican-born employment, Emp_{id}^M / Emp_d^M, industries with a larger share of Mexican-born employment have more influence on the shock measure. The first column of Table C1 lists each industry's share of Mexican-born employment at the national level, showing that Construction, Hotel and Dining, and Manufacturing account for the largest shares of Mexican employment in the US. The second column then reports the variance in each industry's employment share across US CZs. In this case, Agriculture, Construction, and Manufacturing are the top three sectors, indicating that these industries are more concentrated in a particular set of CZs than are other industries. Finally, the third column reports the cross-CZ variation in each industry's local employment growth from 2006 through 2010 (the term in parentheses in equation (20)). By far the largest entry is for manufacturing, indicating wide variation in local manufacturing employment growth across CZs. Administration and Education exhibit the next largest variance in local employment growth figures.

The information in Table C1 shows that there was substantial variation in employment growth within industries across locations, particularly in manufacturing, and that the employment mix of Mexican-born workers also differed across CZs. These two sources of variation combine to generate cross-CZ variation in the employment shock facing Mexican-born residents of each US location.

Table C1: Summary Statistics

Industry	Employment Share Mexican-born	Variance in Employment Share Mexican-born	Variance in Industry Employment Growth
Administration	8.826	0.080	0.097
Agriculture	5.736	0.220	0.080
Arts, Recreation	1.186	0.031	0.029
Construction	21.473	0.205	0.065
Education	2.580	0.134	0.093
Finance	1.185	0.015	0.002
Government	0.846	0.058	0.014
Health Care	4.454	0.141	0.044
Hotel, Dining	13.104	0.158	0.022
Information	0.631	0.042	0.009
Management	0.038	0.010	0.002
Manufacturing	16.701	0.247	0.387
Mining	0.312	0.033	0.022
Other Services	5.999	0.056	0.013
Real Sate	1.190	0.028	0.006
Retail Trade	7.527	0.107	0.009
Technical Services	1.043	0.030	0.006
Transportation	2.981	0.037	0.013
Utilities	0.213	0.006	0.002
Wholesale Trade	3.977	0.104	0.030

This table shows the distribution of Mexican workers across industries and the variation of employment shocks across locations for each industry. Column 1 shows the national employment distribution of Mexicans workers across industries. Column 2 shows variation in the share of Mexican-born workers across commuting zones working in each specific industry in 2006, while column 3 shows the geographic variation in shocks in each industry.

C.2 Municipios' baseline characteristics by primary US destination

Table C2 examines the baseline characteristics of municipios based on their migrants' primary US destinations, as reported in the MCAS data. We first assign each municipio to one of either California, Illinois, or Texas based on which US state accounts for the largest share of the municipio's US migrants (these three states are by far the most important destinations for Mexican-born migrants in the US). Table C2 then reports average demographic, educational, and economic characteristics for each group of municipios. The observable municipio characteristics are very similar across the three groups, supporting the "exogenous shares" approach to shift-share causal inference proposed by Goldsmith-Pinkham et al. (2020).

Table C2: *Municipios'* baseline characteristics

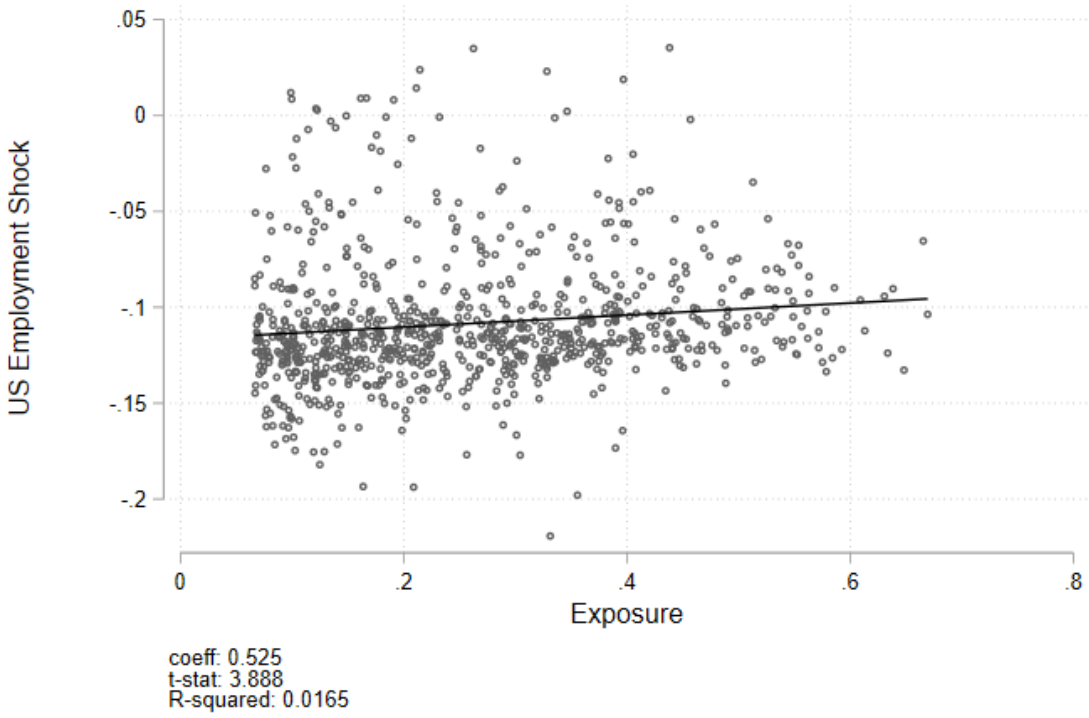
	California	Illinois	Texas
Sex	51.529	52.207	50.923
Ages 15-19	10.900	10.469	10.331
Ages 20-24	8.629	8.240	8.357
Ages 25-29	7.209	6.985	7.219
Ages 30-34	6.363	6.228	6.569
Ages 35-39	5.790	5.669	5.843
Ages 40-44	4.799	4.747	4.926
Ages 45-49	3.905	3.920	3.983
Ages 50-54	3.364	0.478	0.570
Ages 55-59	2.755	2.920	0.967
Ages 60-64	2.486	2.682	2.789
Less than primary completed	52.090	54.471	50.716
Primary completed	39.949	38.728	40.797
Secondary completed	5.716	4.835	5.996
University completed	2.246	1.966	2.492
Employed	44.924	43.242	42.269
Unemployed	0.510	0.454	0.474
Not in labor force	54.566	56.304	57.257
Self-employed	32.210	32.285	27.678
Wage/salary worker	58.530	57.310	63.800
Unpaid worker	9.260	10.405	8.521
Total	560	38	164
Observations	762	762	762

This table shows descriptive evidence on the baseline characteristics of *municipios* with primary connections to California, Illinois, and Texas, using data from the 2000 Mexican Census. *Municipios* are assigned to one of the US states in each column based on their largest connection as represented by the migrant network from the MCAS data. The similar distribution of baseline characteristics for each US state suggests that equal counterfactual trends assumption is plausible.

C.3 Shock variation conditional on exposure

Figure C1 shows a scatter plot relating the US employment shock to exposure, ξ_s, for the municipios in our sample. Although the two are positively related, with modestly higher average US employment shocks in municipios with higher exposure to the US labor market, the extensive variability in US employment shock within narrow ranges of exposure is clearly visible in the scatter plot. The R-squared for a linear regression relating the two quantities is only 0.019.

Figure C1: Exposure vs. US Employment Shock Measure



This figure shows the relationship between exposure to the US labor market and the UUS Employment Shock measure across Mexican *municipios*.

C.4 Pre-shock placebo tests

As discussed in Section 5.1.4 in the main text, an analysis of the relationship between the pre-shock values of the outcomes we study and the future shock that municipios eventually experience aids in the interpretation of our analysis. In the same way that Table 3 provides pre-trend analysis for Table 2, Tables C3 – C7 provide pre-trend analysis for the outcomes from Tables 4 – 8.

Table C3 shows the placebo tests corresponding to the pre-shock outcome controls in Table 5. It is also helpful to compare the placebo test results to Table C11, which presents the main analysis with and without the pre-Recession controls to see how their inclusion affects the results. We find meaningful pre-Recession relationships for the change in sex ratio, and the primary, secondary, and university educational attainment shares. Introducing these pre-Recession controls in to Table C11 has a nontrivial effect on the educational attainment coefficients. While the pre-Recession control for the sex ratio does reduce the magnitude of the contemporaneous coefficient somewhat, it does not qualitatively change the conclusion. Importantly, there is no evidence of a pre-Recession relationship for household remittances.

Table C4 shows the placebo tests corresponding to the pre-shock outcome controls in Panel A of Table 6. It is also helpful to compare the placebo test results to Table C12, which presents the main analysis with and without the pre-Recession controls to see how their inclusion affects the results. We find minimal sign of pre-Recession outcome relationships in Table C4 for employment, hours, and earnings outcomes, which is consistent with the stable coefficients across columns in Table C12.

Table C5 shows the placebo tests corresponding to the pre-shock outcome controls in Panel B of Table 6, separately by gender. It is also helpful to compare the placebo test results to Table C13, which presents the main analysis with and without the pre-Recession controls to see how their inclusion affects the results. While there is little sign of a pre-Recession relationship for the employment-to-population ratio for men, there is an apparent relationship for women. Nonetheless, the inclusion of the pre-Recession control in Table C13 does not qualitatively change the relationship between the change in women's employment-to-population ratio and the US employment shock faced by their municipio, although it does increase the precision of the estimates.

Table C6 shows the placebo tests corresponding to the pre-shock outcome controls in columns (1)-(4) of Table 8, examining appliance ownership. It is also helpful to compare the placebo test results to Table C14, which presents the main analysis with and without the pre-Recession controls to see how their inclusion affects the results. Table C6 finds nontrivial pre-Recession relationships between the change in ownership and subsequent US employment shocks for all appliances. This pattern corresponds to the nontrivial changes in the coefficient estimates in Table C14 when introducing the pre-Recession controls. We therefore interpret the results on Television ownership in Table 8 with caution.

Table C7 shows the placebo tests corresponding to the pre-shock outcome controls in columns (5)-(7) of Table 8, examining schooling attendance rates. It is also helpful to compare the placebo test results to Table C15, which presents the main analysis with and without the pre-Recession controls to see how their inclusion affects the results. Table C7 finds meaningful pre-Recession relationships for the change in attendance rate among all age groups, but these have the opposite sign of our main results. Also, Table C15 shows that, particularly for the statistically significant effect among children age 6-12, the inclusion of the pre-Recession outcome growth has minimal effect on the estimates.

Finally, Table C8 provides analysis similar to the cross-sectional specifications in Table 7 in the

main text but using data from 2000 rather than from 2010. It shows that, in some specifications, the negative coefficient on the interaction of the US Employment shock (during the Great Recession) and the household exposure indicator existed even prior to the onset of the Recession. These results reinforce the interpretation that the results in Table 7 of the main paper are primarily suggestive evidence of labor supply responses among affected households and should not be treated as definitive.

Table C3: Placebo test: Sex Ratio, Attainment, and Households Receiving Remittances

	△ Sex Ratio (F/M) 2000-05		△ Less than Primary 2000-05		△ Primary 2000-05		△ Secondary 2000-05		△ University 2000-05		Household Remittances 2000	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
US Employment Shock	-0.555**	-0.642**	0.299**	0.360**	0.199	0.298	-0.233***	-0.271***	-0.271***	-0.346***	0.163	0.151
	(0.245)	(0.268)	(0.148)	(0.181)	(0.154)	(0.186)	(0.069)	(0.083)	(0.069)	(0.073)	(0.100)	(0.115)
New 287g Policy		0.117*		-0.068		0.102***		0.032		-0.028		-0.063*
		(0.062)		(0.050)		(0.039)		(0.023)		(0.021)		(0.035)
Employment Policy		-0.094**		0.080**		-0.023		-0.040***		-0.021		0.020
		(0.040)		(0.032)		(0.027)		(0.014)		(0.013)		(0.023)
Trade Shock		-0.084**		-0.108***		-0.060		0.073***		0.049		0.021
		(0.038)		(0.037)		(0.059)		(0.026)		(0.031)		(0.027)
Non-tradable share of Employment		-0.042		0.097***		-0.061***		-0.054***		-0.006		0.029**
		(0.028)		(0.019)		(0.021)		(0.011)		(0.009)		(0.013)
Homicide Rate 2005-10		-0.857		5.410*		-7.420**		-1.705*		-1.195		-3.736***
		(4.214)		(3.250)		(3.092)		(1.000)		(1.029)		(1.425)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.255	0.263	0.210	0.246	0.200	0.225	0.213	0.264	0.153	0.163	0.300	0.310

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the pre-shock change in the female to male sex ratio for the working age population (15-64), the change in the share of the working age population in each education level for each Mexican source municipio, and the share of households receiving remittances as a placebo test. Note that the pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We measure the sex ratio and educational attainment using the 2000 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. We calculate the share of households receiving remittances as the number of households reporting receiving income from relatives living abroad divided by the municipio's total number of households in the Census year, using the 2000 Mexican Census. All specifications in columns (1) to (12) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity and include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C4: Placebo test: Employment-to-population Ratio and Earnings per Hour (All Workers)

	△ EPOP 1999-04		△ ln(Hours) 1999-04		△ ln(Earnings) 1999-04		△ ln(EarnPerHour) 1999-04	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
US Employment Shock	-0.330	-0.364*	-1.147	-1.767	-2.468	-2.836	-1.599	-0.938
	(0.229)	(0.219)	(1.835)	(2.053)	(3.515)	(3.994)	(2.831)	(3.070)
New 287g Policy		0.011		0.303		1.285		1.001
		(0.069)		(0.419)		(0.950)		(0.896)
Employment Policy		-0.023		-0.351		-1.009		-0.537
		(0.038)		(0.278)		(0.720)		(0.613)
Trade Shock		0.163		0.635		1.384*		0.844
		(0.107)		(0.474)		(0.711)		(0.566)
Non-tradable share of Employment		-0.073		0.655**		-1.475**		-2.205***
		(0.054)		(0.309)		(0.619)		(0.488)
Homicide Rate 2005-10		1.327		-57.096***		-120.791**		-73.707
		(3.549)		(20.851)		(57.967)		(47.218)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	865	865	848	848	846	846	846	846
R-squared	0.068	0.074	0.126	0.143	0.106	0.125	0.082	0.117

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the pre-shock change in the employment-to-population ratio, earnings, hours worked, and earnings per hour in each municipio as a placebo test. We use employment, earnings, and hours from the 1999 and 2004 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and the 2005 Conteo. Note that the pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. All specifications in columns (1) to (8) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity and include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C5: Placebo test: Employment-to-population Ratio by Gender

	△ EPOP Women 1999-04		△ EPOP Men 1999-04	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
US Employment Shock	-0.503**	-0.450**	-0.088	-0.211
	(0.220)	(0.201)	(0.258)	(0.275)
New 287g Policy		0.020		0.009
		(0.065)		(0.079)
Employment Policy		0.008		-0.055
		(0.034)		(0.050)
Trade Shock		0.106		0.168
		(0.132)		(0.108)
Non-tradable share of Employment		-0.114**		-0.033
		(0.052)		(0.063)
Homicide Rate 05-10		1.636		1.642
		(3.344)		(4.749)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	865	865	865	865
R-squared	0.084	0.097	0.053	0.056

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the pre-shock change in the employment-to-population ratio for women and men in each municipio as a placebo test. We use employment from the 1999 and 2004 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and the 2005 Conteo. Note that the pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. All specifications in columns (1) to (4) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity and include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C6: Placebo test: Appliance Ownership

	△ Computer 2000-05		△ Washing Machine 2000-05		△ Refrigerator 2000-05		△ TV 2000-05	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
US Employment Shock	-0.475***	-0.548***	-0.497*	-0.707**	-1.245***	-1.195***	-0.956***	-1.242***
	(0.160)	(0.168)	(0.268)	(0.330)	(0.302)	(0.389)	(0.245)	(0.314)
New 287g Policy		-0.044		0.234***		0.330***		0.154**
		(0.054)		(0.087)		(0.099)		(0.071)
Employment Policy		-0.015		-0.224***		-0.228***		-0.221***
		(0.030)		(0.067)		(0.080)		(0.050)
Trade Shock		0.059		0.090		0.150**		0.114**
		(0.098)		(0.086)		(0.068)		(0.049)
Non-tradable share of Employment		-0.027		-0.181***		-0.236***		-0.145***
		(0.021)		(0.041)		(0.044)		(0.041)
Homicide Rate 2005-10		0.005		-8.279*		-24.641***		-7.526*
		(2.224)		(4.509)		(8.408)		(4.128)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.271	0.274	0.216	0.265	0.298	0.359	0.388	0.419

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the pre-shock change in ownership of household durables (personal computers, washing machines, refrigerators, and televisions) as a placebo test. We calculate the change in the share households owning the relevant household durable using the 2000 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. All specifications in columns (1) to (8) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity and include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C7: Placebo test: School Attendance

	△ Attendance Rate (ages 6-12) 2000-05		△ Attendance Rate (ages 13-15) 2000-05		△ Attendance Rate (ages 16-18) 2000-05	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
US Employment Shock	-0.447***	-0.516***	-0.957***	-0.978***	-1.001***	-0.981***
	(0.102)	(0.117)	(0.258)	(0.271)	(0.267)	(0.303)
New 287g Policy		0.022		-0.091		-0.036
		(0.029)		(0.071)		(0.081)
Employment Policy		-0.042**		-0.011		-0.032
		(0.019)		(0.047)		(0.055)
Trade Shock		0.059***		0.166***		0.233***
		(0.017)		(0.052)		(0.078)
Non-tradable share of Employment		-0.034**		-0.149***		-0.204***
		(0.015)		(0.036)		(0.040)
Homicide Rate 2005-10		-0.163		-5.386		-8.709
		(2.218)		(7.281)		(5.309)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.253	0.263	0.220	0.245	0.301	0.333

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the pre-shock change in school attendance as a placebo test. We calculate the change in the share of the population in primary (age 6-12), secondary (13-15), and high-school (16-18) reporting having attended school using the 2000 and the 2005 Conteo. All specifications in columns (1) to (6) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity and include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C8: Cross-Sectional Employment Analysis 2000

	State FE	State FE	Municipio FE
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Panel A. All			
US Employment Shock*$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.103	-0.000	-0.121*
	(0.163)	(0.096)	(0.063)
$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.036**	-0.020**	-0.010**
	(0.016)	(0.009)	(0.005)
Observations	27,969,374	27,969,374	27,969,374
Panel B. Women			
US Employment Shock*$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.201	-0.088	-0.293***
	(0.214)	(0.123)	(0.059)
$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.044*	-0.024*	-0.011**
	(0.024)	(0.014)	(0.005)
Observations	14,715,945	14,715,945	14,715,945
Panel C. Men			
US Employment Shock*$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	0.003	0.098	0.087
	(0.168)	(0.125)	(0.072)
$\mathbb{1}$(exposed$_h$)	-0.028**	-0.014*	-0.006
	(0.014)	(0.008)	(0.007)
Observations	13,253,429	13,253,429	13,253,429

This table examines whether labor supply behavior differs among households with and without unaffected US migrants in municipios facing different US shocks. We use cross-sectional data from the 2000 Census and define households exposed to US labor markets as those with either return migrants or with a household member living in the US. Columns (1) and (2) estimate the specification in Equation (10), including the main effect of the US Employment shock as a control, while column (3) estimates a more general specification with municipio fixed effects and thus omits the US Employment Shock main effect. Column (2) show the results including controls for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, and changes in homicide rates across municipios (and the municipio fixed effects in column (3) subsume all these controls). The negative coefficients for the interaction term in all columns of Panel A imply that the employment probability is higher in exposed households in municipios connected to larger US employment declines. Panels B and C show that the relationship is driven almost entirely by women. Results are qualitatively similar to those in columns (1) and (2), though a bit less precise, when controlling for state × exposure status fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

C.5 Population Growth Decomposition

Table C9 provides a complete decomposition of the components of population growth, as examined in Table 2. In addition to return migration and emigration, this table considers net migration internal to Mexico, aging in and out of the working age population, and a residual component left over after removing all of these measured components. Columns (1), (4), and (7) exactly replicate the results in the respective columns in Table 2, and columns (10), (13), and (16) provide similar analysis for the additional components without any additional controls. The second column in each set of results controls for lagged changes in all of the dependent variables. Note that these specifications differ slightly from the second specifications shown in Table 2 because they control for multiple lagged changes rather than only the change in the dependent variable of a given regression. The final column in each set adds the further set of controls included in columns (3), (6), and (9) of Table 2.

The results reveal no statistically significant relationship between the US Employment shock and either net internal migration or population aging, which suggests that these components are not coincidentally related to the employment shock. Somewhat puzzlingly, the US Employment Shock is related to the residual portion of population growth. One possible explanation for this unexplained component is mismeasurement in migration. If, for example, some return migrants are coded as not having been in the US, perhaps due to concerns about having emigrated without legal authorization, it could lead to this pattern of results. Alternatively, whole-household emigrants are not captured by our emigration measure, so these emigrants may appear in the residual. Because we cannot say definitively what the source of the residual population growth is, we consider a range of values from 1 to 2 percentage points for the magnitude of the population growth implied by this analysis. The low end of the range reflects the implied change in population due to measured differences in net international migration, while the high end reflects the entire estimated change in population, including the residual component.

Table C9: Population Growth Decomposition

	Population Growth 2005-10			Return Migration 2005-10			Emigration 2005-10			Net Internal Migration 2005-10			Population aging in and out 2005-10			Residual 2005-10		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
US Employment Shock	-2.124*** (0.548)	-1.138** (0.486)	-0.926* (0.482)	-0.219*** (0.074)	-0.232*** (0.061)	-0.161** (0.067)	0.220* (0.121)	0.250** (0.111)	0.312*** (0.115)	-0.521 (0.337)	0.128 (0.259)	0.282 (0.303)	-0.602* (0.318)	-0.011 (0.090)	-0.013 (0.103)	-0.618 (0.580)	-0.783* (0.407)	-0.794* (0.451)
Population Growth 2000-05		0.501** (0.195)	0.499** (0.196)		-0.008* (0.004)	-0.007* (0.004)		-0.025*** (0.005)	-0.024*** (0.005)		0.260** (0.130)	0.265** (0.131)		0.006 (0.009)	0.006 (0.009)		0.280*** (0.079)	0.276*** (0.078)
Return Migration Rate 2000-05		-3.924*** (1.015)	-4.074*** (1.004)		1.165*** (0.283)	1.157*** (0.282)		1.178*** (0.405)	1.148*** (0.392)		-1.124* (0.652)	-1.290** (0.639)		0.496 (0.455)	0.491 (0.450)		-2.752*** (0.788)	-2.735*** (0.795)
Emigration Rate 1995-00		0.633*** (0.142)	0.567*** (0.141)		0.168*** (0.037)	0.161*** (0.036)		0.065* (0.034)	0.056* (0.033)		0.404*** (0.098)	0.327*** (0.099)		-0.071** (0.036)	-0.074** (0.037)		0.288** (0.136)	0.285** (0.139)
Net Migration Rate 2000-05		0.054* (0.031)	0.059* (0.032)		0.011* (0.006)	0.012** (0.006)		0.003 (0.003)	0.004 (0.003)		0.945*** (0.091)	0.952*** (0.088)		0.005 (0.004)	0.005 (0.004)		-0.872*** (0.130)	-0.874*** (0.129)
Population aging in and out 2000-05		0.458*** (0.121)	0.439*** (0.124)		0.018*** (0.005)	0.015*** (0.005)		0.051*** (0.008)	0.050*** (0.009)		-0.077 (0.085)	-0.095 (0.086)		0.915*** (0.013)	0.914*** (0.013)		-0.405*** (0.066)	-0.402*** (0.068)
New 287g Policy			0.105 (0.121)			0.065*** (0.017)			0.005 (0.025)			0.194** (0.077)			-0.002 (0.021)			-0.169 (0.116)
Employment Policy			0.014 (0.077)			-0.005 (0.011)			0.012 (0.018)			0.000 (0.046)			-0.002 (0.016)			0.045 (0.082)
Trade Shock			-0.080 (0.158)			0.024** (0.010)			0.040** (0.016)			0.207* (0.108)			-0.024* (0.013)			-0.289*** (0.105)
Non-tradable share of Employment			-0.067 (0.055)			-0.011 (0.007)			0.020* (0.011)			0.009 (0.040)			-0.001 (0.012)			-0.067 (0.057)
Homicide Rate 2005-10			-18.673** (9.402)			-3.821*** (0.930)			-6.756*** (1.699)			-12.695*** (4.396)			-1.273 (1.207)			-5.028 (8.951)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.160	0.622	0.627	0.322	0.603	0.619	0.267	0.387	0.404	0.062	0.747	0.753	0.232	0.980	0.980	0.098	0.638	0.642

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 population growth and its components, including: return migration to, and emigration from each Mexican source municipio, internal net migration, and population aging in and out of the working age population. Note that outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We restrict attention to individuals age 15-64. Population growth is defined as the proportional change in population. Return migration is the number of individuals reporting living in the US 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the municipio population in the survey year, while emigration is the number of household members who left for the US during the 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the initial municipio population, measured using the roughly 10% long-form sample from the 2000 or 2010 Census (emigration information is not available in 2005). Internal net migration at the municipio level is calculated as the difference between each municipio's immigrants and emigrants during the 5 years prior to the to the relevant survey, divided by the initial municipio population, measured using the roughly 10% long-form sample from the 2000 or 2010 Census (internal migration information is not available in 2005). We use full-count tabulations from the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo to calculate population growth, return migration, and population aging in and out. All specifications use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. The "Pre-shock Outcome" controls in columns (2), (5), (8), (11), (14) are 2000-2005 population growth, 2000-2005 return migration, 1995-2000 emigration, 1995-2000 net migration, and 2000-2005 population aging in and out, respectively. All specifications control for Mexican state fixed effects, and standard errors clustered at the Mexican commuting zone level are shown in parentheses. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

C.6 Subsets of controls

Table C10 shows results paralleling those in Table 6 but including controls for changes in the share of the population with different demographic and educational characteristics. Because the outcomes in Table 6 are measured using full-count tabulations at the municipio level rather than individual-level micro data, the appropriate way to control for potential changes in labor force composition is to include controls for changes in the shares of the local population with each characteristic. As shown in C10, the results in Table 6 are robust to including these compositional controls.

Tables C11 – C15 show results paralleling those in Tables 2 – 8, with different subsets of controls, as in Table 2. We discuss these results in detail in Appendix C.4 in the context of how the inclusion of pre-Recession controls influence the main findings.

Table C10: Employment-to-population Ratio and Earnings per Hour

	△ EPOP 2004-09	△ ln(Hours) 2004-09	△ ln(Earnings) 2004-09	△ ln(EarnPerHour) 2004-09
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A. All				
US Employment Shock	-0.171*	-3.479**	-3.559	0.032
	[0.088]	[1.462]	[2.716]	[1.949]
	(0.122)	(1.478)	(2.797)	(2.501)
△ EPOP 1999-04	-0.066			
	(0.044)			
△ ln(Hours) 1999-04		-0.102**	0.298**	0.44***
		(0.041)	(0.119)	(0.096)
△ ln(Earnings) 1999-04		0.064***	-0.168***	-0.255***
		(0.023)	(0.059)	(0.44)
Mean raw outcome among less affected	0.013	0.126	0.284	0.213
Implied shock impact	0.003	0.065	0.067	-0.001
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	865	846	846	846

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the 2004-2009 change in the employment-to-population ratio, earnings, hours worked, and earnings per hours in each municipio, using employment, earnings and hours from the 1999, 2004 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. Columns (3) and (4) additionally include controls for changes in the share of the working age population who is female, by education level, age category, and employed in each industry from the 2005 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 20014 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census. All specifications in columns (1) to (4) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. All specifications include controls for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, changes in homicide rates across municipios, and Mexican state fixed effects. "Mean raw outcome among less affected" is the average of the dependent variable without dividing by exposure for municipios in the quartile with smallest magnitude US employment shocks. "Implied shock impact" provides the predicted difference in the outcome (without dividing by exposure) for municipios with the 90-10 percentile difference in shock size (0.075) and average exposure (0.25). Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. Due to the shift-share structure of the US Employment Shock, we also present Borusyak et al. (2022) standard errors for this variable in square brackets. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 based on standard errors in brackets when present.

Table C11: Sex Ratio, Attainment, and Households Receiving Remittances

	△ Sex Ratio (F/M) 2005-10			△ Less than Primary 2005-10			△ Primary 2005-10			△ Secondary 2005-10			△ University 2005-10			Household Remittances 2010		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
US Employment Shock	0.692*** (0.215)	0.555*** (0.196)	0.483** (0.209)	0.203* (0.116)	0.070 (0.107)	0.001 (0.124)	0.289* (0.163)	0.051 (0.167)	0.076 (0.186)	-0.161** (0.082)	0.015 (0.079)	-0.041 (0.087)	-0.184*** (0.054)	-0.007 (0.055)	0.019 (0.064)	0.483*** (0.134)	0.426*** (0.117)	0.500*** (0.129)
Pre-shock Outcome		-0.216*** (0.032)	-0.214*** (0.032)		0.554*** (0.025)	0.545*** (0.027)		0.690*** (0.093)	0.717*** (0.089)		0.894*** (0.040)	0.894*** (0.040)		0.738*** (0.041)	0.735*** (0.042)		0.457*** (0.046)	0448*** (0.046)
New 287g Policy			-0.040 (0.051)			-0.089*** (0.033)			0.106*** (0.040)			-0.028 (0.021)			-0.002 (0.015)			0.006 (0.027)
Employment Policy			0.012 (0.037)			0.015 (0.022)			0.000 (0.030)			-0.012 (0.013)			0.004 (0.012)			0.021 (0.018)
Trade Shock			-0.074** (0.029)			-0.028 (0.018)			0.278*** (0.042)			-0.180*** (0.029)			-0.016 (0.022)			0.045** (0.021)
Non-tradable share of Employment			0.018 (0.023)			0.004 (0.014)			0.083*** (0.018)			-0.006 (0.011)			-0.032*** (0.007)			0.022* (0.013)
Homicide Rate 2005-10			10.136*** (3.755)			2.802 (1.861)			6.139*** (2.163)			0.515 (0.983)			-0.836 (1.134)			-4.828* (2.477)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.197	0.270	0.283	0.217	0.753	0.753	0.303	0.545	0.573	0.353	0.745	0.748	0.256	0.680	0.687	0.186	0.333	0.343

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in the female-to-male sex ratio for the working age population (15-64), the 2005-10 change in the share of the working age population in each education level for each Mexican source municipio, and the share of households receiving remittances in 2010. Note that outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We measure the sex ratio and educational attainment using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Inter-Censal Count. We calculate the share of households receiving remittances as the number of households reporting receiving income from relatives living abroad divided by the municipio's total number of households in the Census year, using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census. All specifications in columns (1) to (18) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. The positive coefficient estimate in column (3) for the US employment shock implies that municipios facing larger US employment declines had larger declines in the sex ratio, consistent with return migrants being disproportionately male. The coefficient of 0.483 in column (3), implies that the sex ratio in a municipio facing the 90th percentile shock fell by 0.009 more than in a municipio at the 10th percentile. The results in columns (4)-(15) show no statistically significant relationship between the shock and the share of population with any particular level of education. Column (18) shows a positive relationship between the share of households receiving remittances and the US employment shock, meaning that remittances fall significantly in Mexican source regions facing larger declines in US labor demand. The point estimate of 0.5 in column (18) implies that, a strongly affected municipio experienced nearly a 1 percentage point larger decline in the share of households receiving remittances compared to a less affected municipio. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C12: Employment-to-population Ratio and Earnings per Hour (All Workers)

	△ EPOP 2004-09			△ ln(Hours) 2004-09			△ ln(Earnings) 2004-09			△ ln(EarnPerHour) 2004-09		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
US Employment Shock	-0.265	-0.301*	-0.321*	-3.210**	-3.570***	-3.657**	-3.906	-3.553	-4.093	-0.743	-0.365	-0.803
	(0.214)	(0.168)	(0.193)	(1.352)	(1.367)	(1.579)	(2.667)	(2.595)	(3.034)	(2.184)	(2.038)	(2.498)
△ EPOP 1999-04		-0.474***	-0.464***									
		(0.117)	(0.116)									
△ ln(Hours) 1999-04					-0.118***	-0.143***		0.336***	0.298**		0.457***	0.444***
					(0.045)	(0.048)		(0.119)	(0.119)		(0.098)	(0.097)
△ ln(Earnings) 1999-04					0.068***	0.078***		-0.177***	-0.168***		-0.242***	-0.241***
					(0.025)	(0.026)		(0.059)	(0.059)		(0.046)	(0.045)
New 287g Policy			0.009			0.624			2.028**			1.595**
			(0.060)			(0.483)			(0.847)			(0.709)
Employment Policy			-0.003			-0.231			-1.098**			-0.947**
			(0.036)			(0.257)			(0.492)			(0.399)
Trade Shock			-0.332***			-0.551			0.246			0.805
			(0.085)			(0.403)			(0.856)			(0.528)
Non-tradable share of Employment			0.082**			0.569**			0.885*			0.335
			(0.035)			(0.247)			(0.536)			(0.370)
Homicide Rate 05-10			1.322			-23.693			-79.875**			-49.931
			(2.577)			(20.518)			(39.337)			(30.430)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	865	865	865	848	846	846	848	846	846	848	846	846
R-squared	0.090	0.265	0.282	0.132	0.148	0.160	0.128	0.149	0.166	0.087	0.161	0.175

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the 2004-2009 change in the employment-to-population ratio, earnings, hours worked, and earnings per hour in each municipio, using employment, earnings, and hours from the 1999, 2004 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. Note that the outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. All specifications in columns (1) to (12) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. The negative and significant coefficient estimate for the US employment shock in column (3) implies that regions facing larger US employment declines exhibited larger increases in the employment to population ratio. Columns (6) and (9) show that both total hours worked and total earnings increased in the most affected municipios. However, column (12) shows no effect on earnings per hour, implying that local labor markets adjusted to the increase in supply of hours worked without reducing wages. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C13: Employment-to-population Ratio by Gender

	△ EPOP Women 2004-09			△ EPOP Men 2004-09		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
US Employment Shock	-0.348	-0.511***	-0.663***	-0.181	-0.162	-0.015
	(0.269)	(0.172)	(0.192)	(0.237)	(0.205)	(0.253)
△ EPOP 1999-04		-0.569***	-0.561***		-0.366***	-0.357***
		(0.159)	(0.158)		(0.085)	(0.083)
New 287g Policy			-0.070			0.089
			(0.051)			(0.088)
Employment Policy			-0.043			0.048
			(0.036)			(0.045)
Trade Shock			0.030			-0.691***
			(0.103)			(0.126)
Non-tradable share of Employment			0.055			0.121***
			(0.034)			(0.046)
Homicide Rate 05-10			-1.870			4.251
			(2.744)			(3.459)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	865	865	866	865	865
R-squared	0.114	0.306	0.311	0.065	0.208	0.255

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the 2004-2009 change in the employment-to-population ratio for women and men in each municipio, using employment from the 1999, 2004 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. Note that the outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. All specifications in columns (1) to (6) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. The coefficient of -0.663 in column (3) implies that a strongly affected municipio with average exposure to the US experienced a 1.2 percentage point larger increase in employment to population ratio among women compared to a similar municipio that was less affected. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C14: Appliance Ownership

	△ Computer 2005-10			△ Washing Machine 2005-10			△ Refrigerator 2005-10			△ TV 2005-10		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
US Employment Shock	-0.372**	-0.009	-0.123	0.052	0.183	0.045	-0.190	0.247	0.204	0.091	0.468***	0.475**
	(0.144)	(0.086)	(0.105)	(0.215)	(0.201)	(0.230)	(0.232)	(0.202)	(0.228)	(0.186)	(0.171)	(0.193)
△ in Outcome 2000-05		0.893***	0.891***		0.310***	0.297***		0.349***	0.346***		0.419***	0.424***
		(0.025)	(0.025)		(0.021)	(0.021)		(0.022)	(0.024)		(0.028)	(0.029)
New 287g Policy			-0.025			0.056			0.052			0.021
			(0.034)			(0.058)			(0.057)			(0.053)
Employment Policy			-0.040*			-0.080*			-0.034			0.003
			(0.023)			(0.041)			(0.041)			(0.035)
Trade Shock			-0.040			0.053			0.065			0.047
			(0.039)			(0.066)			(0.049)			(0.034)
Non-tradable share of Employment			-0.018			-0.039			-0.010			0.016
			(0.015)			(0.029)			(0.038)			(0.034)
Homicide Rate 05-10			-0.475			1.284			1.891			5.693*
			(1.496)			(2.721)			(2.749)			(3.203)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.327	0.859	0.860	0.440	0.591	0.594	0.342	0.563	0.564	0.230	0.529	0.533

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in ownership of household durables (personal computers, washing machines, refrigerators, and televisions). We calculate the change in the share households owning the relevant household durable using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo. All specifications in columns (1) to (12) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. The coefficient in column (12) is positive and statistically significant, implying that households in more negatively affected municipios slowed down their purchases of televisions. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C15: School Attendance

	△ Attendance Rate (ages 6-12) 2005-10			△ Attendance Rate (ages 13-15) 2005-10			△ Attendance Rate (ages 16-18) 2005-10		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
US Employment Shock	0.136**	0.129*	0.194***	-0.116	0.073	0.310	-0.279	0.057	0.131
	(0.067)	(0.068)	(0.071)	(0.207)	(0.203)	(0.244)	(0.235)	(0.224)	(0.262)
△ in Outcome 2000-05		-0.011	-0.013		0.148***	0.135***		0.250***	0.236***
		(0.024)	(0.025)		(0.028)	(0.028)		(0.028)	(0.028)
New 287g Policy			0.022			0.093			0.072
			(0.017)			(0.058)			(0.060)
Employment Policy			0.015			0.039			-0.009
			(0.012)			(0.041)			(0.041)
Trade Shock			0.041***			0.110***			-0.030
			(0.014)			(0.030)			(0.044)
Non-tradable share of Employment			-0.008			-0.061**			-0.094***
			(0.009)			(0.026)			(0.031)
Homicide Rate 05-10			-0.929			-8.242**			-2.006
			(1.190)			(3.874)			(4.422)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.084	0.085	0.094	0.257	0.292	0.307	0.268	0.358	0.366

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in school attendance. We calculate the change in the share of the population in primary (age 6-12), secondary (13-15), and high-school (16-18) reporting having attended school using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo. All specifications in columns (1) to (9) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. The coefficient of 0.25 in column (3) implies that a municipio facing a 6.5 percentage point decline in US labor demand experienced 0.4 percentage point larger declines in school attendance for primary school children. This means that in municipios experiencing larger US employment declines, school attendance for primary school children fell more relative to municipios facing smaller employment shocks. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

C.7 Sample restriction

Tables C16 – C21 show results paralleling those in the main text but only limiting the sample to municipios whose citizens received at least 100 MCAS cards in 2006. For most outcomes, the point estimates are similar in magnitude and statistical significance to those in the main text, which further restrict the sample to municipios that had at least 5,000 residents in the year 2005 and had exposure $\xi_s > 0.066$ (the 25th percentile). Notable exceptions are television ownership and primary school enrollment.

Table C16: Population Growth, Return Migration, and Emigration

	Population Growth 2005-10			Return Migration 2005-10			Emigration 2005-10		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
US Employment Shock	-1.283***	-0.602	-0.285	-0.153**	-0.248***	-0.159**	0.228**	0.215**	0.248***
	(0.407)	(0.401)	(0.406)	(0.073)	(0.067)	(0.076)	(0.095)	(0.093)	(0.095)
Pre-shock Outcome		0.531***	0.524***		1.377***	1.366***		0.161***	0.153***
		(0.065)	(0.063)		(0.374)	(0.374)		(0.042)	(0.042)
New 287g Policy			0.223**			0.089***			0.018
			(0.108)			(0.016)			(0.021)
Employment Policy			0.006			-0.013			-0.009
			(0.066)			(0.011)			(0.015)
Trade Shock			-0.121			0.031**			0.039***
			(0.101)			(0.013)			(0.008)
Non-tradable share of Employment			-0.098*			-0.019**			0.002
			(0.052)			(0.008)			(0.011)
Homicide Rate 2005-10			-17.707			-4.289***			-8.133***
			(10.803)			(0.953)			(2.449)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,192	1,192	1,192
R-squared	0.143	0.445	0.454	0.281	0.566	0.582	0.264	0.323	0.341

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 population growth, return migration to, and emigration from each Mexican source municipio with more than 100 MCAS card issued. Note that outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We restrict attention to individuals age 15-64. Population growth is defined as the proportional change in population. Return migration is the number of individuals reporting living in the US 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the municipio population in the survey year, while emigration is the number of household members who left for the US during the 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the initial municipio population, measured using the roughly 10% long-form sample from the 2000 or 2010 Census (emigration information is not available in 2005). We use full-count tabulations from the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo to calculate population growth and return migration. All specifications in columns (1) to (9) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. The "Pre-shock Outcome" controls in columns (2), (5), and (8) are 2000-2005 population growth, 2000-2005 return migration, and 1995-2000 emigration, respectively. Columns (3), (6), and (9) additionally control for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, and changes in homicide rates across municipios. All specifications control for Mexican state fixed effects, and standard errors clustered at the Mexican commuting zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C17: Sex Ratio, Attainment, and Households Receiving Remittances

	△ Sex Ratio (F/M) 2005-10			△ Less than Primary 2005-10			△ Primary 2005-10			△ Secondary 2005-10			△ University 2005-10			Household Remittances 2010		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
US Employment Shock	0.607***	0.516**	0.456**	0.121	-0.033	-0.091	0.087	0.118	0.112	-0.105**	-0.043	-0.046	-0.011	0.104**	0.129**	0.559***	0.461***	0.490***
	(0.224)	(0.205)	(0.226)	(0.097)	(0.095)	(0.106)	(0.117)	(0.128)	(0.138)	(0.053)	(0.064)	(0.068)	(0.044)	(0.044)	(0.050)	(0.110)	(0.098)	(0.109)
Pre-shock Outcome		-0.279***	-0.252***		0.506***	0.500***		0.640***	0.658***		0.781***	0.761***		0.837***	0.889***		0.550***	0.545***
		(0.038)	(0.039)		(0.029)	(0.029)		(0.141)	(0.139)		(0.127)	(0.127)		(0.097)	(0.099)		(0.044)	(0.045)
New 287g Policy			-0.054			-0.071***			0.082***			-0.001			-0.005			0.008
			(0.045)			(0.023)			(0.031)			(0.015)			(0.013)			(0.027)
Employment Policy			0.009			0.013			-0.010			-0.006			0.004			0.001
			(0.033)			(0.017)			(0.022)			(0.011)			(0.009)			(0.017)
Trade Shock			-0.094***			-0.040**			0.337***			-0.228***			-0.028			0.037
			(0.026)			(0.017)			(0.034)			(0.029)			(0.025)			(0.023)
Non-tradable share of Employment			-0.007			0.013			0.057***			-0.021**			-0.025***			0.019
			(0.020)			(0.012)			(0.018)			(0.010)			(0.006)			(0.012)
Homicide Rate 2005-10			9.397**			3.084*			3.165			1.072			-0.963			-6.416**
			(3.876)			(1.611)			(1.939)			(1.065)			(1.004)			(2.972)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194
R-squared	0.147	0.263	0.250	0.201	0.744	0.744	0.227	0.439	0.473	0.247	0.532	0.541	0.165	0.665	0.718	0.133	0.417	0.422

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in the female to male sex ratio for the working age population (15-64), the 2005-10 change in the share of the working age population in each education level for each Mexican source municipio, and the share of households receiving remittances in 2010. Note that outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We measure the sex ratio and educational attainment using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Inter-Censal Count. We calculate the share of households receiving remittances as the number of households reporting receiving income from relatives living abroad divided by the municipio's total number of households in the Census year, using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census. All specifications in columns (1) to (18) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C18: Employment-to-population Ratio and Earnings per Hour (All Workers)

	△ EPOP 2004-09			△ ln(Hours) 2004-09			△ ln(Earnings) 2004-09			△ ln(EarnPerHour) 2004-09		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
US Employment Shock	0.014	-0.054	-0.045	-0.524	-0.598	-0.672	-1.065	-1.170	-2.140	-0.459	-0.687	-1.695
	(0.141)	(0.168)	(0.134)	(1.112)	(1.133)	(1.293)	(2.503)	(2.558)	(2.889)	(2.088)	(2.080)	(2.390)
△ EPOP 1999-04		-0.400***	-0.399***									
		(0.151)	(0.153)									
△ ln(Hours) 1999-04					0.027	0.010		0.613***	0.584***		0.566***	0.560***
					(0.090)	(0.091)		(0.151)	(0.153)		(0.064)	(0.065)
△ ln(Earnings) 1999-04					0.059***	0.064***		-0.128***	-0.121***		-0.175***	-0.174***
					(0.021)	(0.021)		(0.044)	(0.044)		(0.029)	(0.029)
New 287g Policy			-0.015			0.106			1.069			0.912
			(0.046)			(0.423)			(0.819)			(0.596)
Employment Policy			0.020			0.030			-0.920*			-0.953**
			(0.189)			(0.505)			(0.395)			
Trade Shock			-0.460***			-0.880**			-0.381			0.302
			(0.083)			(0.380)			(0.832)			(0.685)
Non-tradable share of Employment			0.025			0.588***			1.008**			0.391
			(0.031)			(0.207)			(0.460)			(0.342)
Homicide Rate 05-10			-1.174			-13.889			-19.882			-1.974
			(2.730)			(20.963)			(44.053)			(31.520)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,163	1,160	1,160	1,163	1,160	1,160	1,163	1,160	1,160
R-squared	0.047	0.167	0.186	0.119	0.151	0.160	0.109	0.213	0.216	0.093	0.258	0.262

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the 2004-2009 change in the employment-to-population ratio, earnings, hours worked, and earnings per hour in each municipio, using employment, earnings, and hours from the 1999, 2004 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. Note that the outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. All specifications in columns (1) to (12) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C19: Employment-to-population Ratio by Gender

	△ EPOP Women 2004-09			△ EPOP Men 2004-09		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
US Employment Shock	-0.070	-0.156	-0.280**	0.087	0.039	0.163
	(0.116)	(0.133)	(0.143)	(0.204)	(0.181)	(0.205)
△ EPOP		-0.400***	-0.399***		-0.317***	-0.313***
1999-04		(0.151)	(0.153)		(0.113)	(0.112)
New 287g Policy			-0.100***			0.064
			(0.038)			(0.071)
Employment Policy			-0.020			0.057
			(0.025)			(0.038)
Trade Shock			-0.175			-0.790***
			(0.117)			(0.090)
Non-tradable share			0.025			0.051
of Employment			(0.037)			(0.040)
Homicide Rate 05-10			1.066			-2.737
			(2.258)			(3.968)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	1,194	1,193	1,193	1,194	1,193	1,193
R-squared	0.105	0.237	0.245	0.046	0.134	0.175

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the 2004-2009 change in the employment-to-population ratio for women and men in each municipio, using employment from the 1999, 2004 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. Note that the outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. All specifications in columns (1) to (6) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C20: Appliance Ownership

	△ Computer 2005-10			△ Washing Machine 2005-10			△ Refrigerator 2005-10			△ TV 2005-10		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
US Employment Shock	0.012	0.082	0.046	0.295	0.382**	0.273	-0.035	0.121	0.023	0.000	0.157	0.077
	(0.105)	(0.076)	(0.081)	(0.196)	(0.187)	(0.206)	(0.196)	(0.180)	(0.192)	(0.190)	(0.222)	(0.247)
△ in Outcome 2005-00		0.813***	0.811***		0.256***	0.249***		0.276***	0.269***		0.319***	0.319***
		(0.039)	(0.038)		(0.027)	(0.026)		(0.038)	(0.039)		(0.030)	(0.031)
New 287g Policy			-0.043*			0.058			0.059			-0.010
			(0.026)			(0.047)			(0.045)			(0.041)
Employment Policy			-0.006			-0.086**			-0.077**			-0.025
			(0.016)			(0.034)			(0.031)			(0.029)
Trade Shock			-0.093**			0.048			0.097*			0.074
			(0.038)			(0.064)			(0.056)			(0.048)
Non-tradable share of Employment			-0.025**			-0.007			-0.024			0.005
			(0.012)			(0.023)			(0.028)			(0.024)
Homicide Rate 05-10 of Employment			0.867			-0.648			1.247			6.105**
			(1.289)			(2.608)			(2.768)			(2.978)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194
R-squared	0.240	0.876	0.876	0.385	0.524	0.524	0.340	0.505	0.509	0.203	0.394	0.397

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in ownership of household durables (personal computers, washing machines, refrigerators, and televisions). We calculate the change in the share households owning the relevant household durable using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo. All specifications in columns (1) to (12) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C21: School Attendance

	△ Attendance Rate (ages 6-12) 2005-10			△ Attendance Rate (ages 13-15) 2005-10			△ Attendance Rate (ages 16-18) 2005-10		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
US Employment Shock	-0.004	-0.006	-0.007	-0.282*	-0.236	-0.122	-0.367*	-0.184	-0.161
	(0.059)	(0.059)	(0.065)	(0.162)	(0.168)	(0.185)	(0.201)	(0.212)	(0.234)
△ in Outcome		-0.010	-0.010		0.145***	0.139***		0.254***	0.245***
2005-00		(0.024)	(0.024)		(0.034)	(0.035)		(0.057)	(0.059)
New 287g Policy			-0.002			0.062			0.056
			(0.016)			(0.049)			(0.055)
Employment Policy			-0.003			0.005			-0.037
			(0.012)			(0.035)			(0.037)
Trade Shock			0.036***			0.088***			-0.046
			(0.013)			(0.026)			(0.057)
Non-tradable share			0.001			-0.023			-0.067**
of Employment			(0.009)			(0.023)			(0.031)
Homicide Rate 05-10			-1.635*			-9.133**			-2.930
			(0.993)			(3.778)			(4.389)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194	1,194
R-squared	0.054	0.054	0.058	0.179	0.214	0.222	0.182	0.268	0.273

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in school attendance. We calculate the change in the share of the population in primary (age 6-12), secondary (13-15), and high-school (16-18) reporting having attended school using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo. All specifications in columns (1) to (9) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

C.8 Unweighted Analysis

Tables C22 – C28 show results paralleling those in the main text without the GLS weighting procedure used to address potential heteroskedasticity resulting from dividing the dependent variable by the municipio's estimated exposure to the US labor market. In nearly all cases, we reject the null hypothesis of homoskedastic errors at standard levels using a Breusch-Pagan test, the weighted and unweighted point estimates are very similar, and the weighted standard errors are smaller than the unweighted ones.

Table C22: Population Growth, Return Migration, and Emigration (unweighted)

	Population Growth 2005-10			Return Migration 2005-10			Emigration 2005-10		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
US Employment Shock	-3.331***	-0.568	-0.473	-0.236***	-0.296***	-0.213***	0.189	0.196	0.261*
	(0.869)	(0.812)	(0.858)	(0.086)	(0.074)	(0.079)	(0.127)	(0.125)	(0.134)
Pre-shock Outcome		0.848***	0.834***		1.693***	1.673***		0.116***	0.108***
		(0.177)	(0.175)		(0.274)	(0.273)		(0.027)	(0.027)
New 287g Policy			0.105			0.077***			0.035
			(0.193)			(0.020)			(0.028)
Employment Policy			-0.071			-0.012			-0.003
			(0.114)			(0.013)			(0.019)
Trade Shock			-0.203			0.020**			0.053***
			(0.270)			(0.009)			(0.016)
Non-tradable share of Employment			-0.284**			-0.012			0.007
			(0.121)			(0.008)			(0.015)
Homicide Rate 05-10			-25.525*			-4.995***			-7.303***
			(13.760)			(1.177)			(2.686)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.143	0.634	0.639	0.302	0.518	0.540	0.246	0.272	0.287
B-P het. p-val	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 population growth, return migration to, and emigration from each Mexican source municipio. Note that outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We restrict attention to individuals age 15-64. Population growth is defined as the proportional change in population. Return migration is the number of individuals reporting living in the US 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the municipio population in the survey year, while emigration is the number of household members who left for the US during the 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the initial municipio population, measured using the roughly 10% long-form sample from the 2000 or 2010 Census (emigration information is not available in 2005). We use full-count tabulations from the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo to calculate population growth and return migration. The "Pre-shock Outcome" controls in columns (2), (5), and (8) are 2000-2005 population growth, 2000-2005 return migration, and 1995-2000 emigration, respectively. Columns (3), (6), and (9) additionally control for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, and changes in homicide rates across municipios. All specifications control for Mexican state fixed effects, and standard errors clustered at the Mexican commuting zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C23: Population Growth Decomposition (unweighted)

	Population Growth 2005-10			Return Migration 2005-10			Emigration 2005-10			Net Migration 2005-10			Population aging in and out 2005-10			Residual 2005-10			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	
US Employment Shock	-3.331***	-0.039	0.169	-0.236***	-0.250***	-0.174**	0.189	0.211*	0.280**	-0.126	0.511	0.933	-2.694***	-0.178	-0.216	-0.086	0.089	-0.093	
	(0.869)	(0.736)	(0.747)	(0.086)	(0.065)	(0.072)	(0.127)	(0.118)	(0.125)	(0.453)	(0.554)	(0.604)	(0.756)	(0.142)	(0.164)	(0.601)	(0.625)	(0.723)	
Population Growth		0.737***	0.728***		-0.007*	-0.007*		-0.023***	-0.023***		0.385**	0.386**		0.012	0.012		0.324***	0.315***	
2000-05		(0.259)	(0.257)		(0.004)	(0.004)		(0.005)	(0.005)		(0.191)	(0.192)		(0.010)	(0.010)		(0.082)	(0.079)	
Return Migration		-3.687*	-3.670*		1.231***	1.220***		1.073***	1.051***		-2.041	-2.117		0.122	0.131		-1.926	-1.853	
Rate 2000-05		(1.933)	(1.891)		(0.284)	(0.282)		(0.337)	(0.326)		(1.532)	(1.517)		(0.389)	(0.395)		(1.645)	(1.658)	
Emigration Rate		0.724***	0.710***		0.167***	0.161***		0.064*	0.058*		0.478***	0.445**		-0.058	-0.055		0.201	0.217	
1995-00		(0.252)	(0.246)		(0.038)	(0.037)		(0.033)	(0.032)		(0.178)	(0.177)		(0.044)	(0.044)		(0.174)	(0.177)	
Net Migration Rate		0.115**	0.111**		0.011**	0.013**		0.005	0.006		0.791***	0.796***		0.012	0.012		-0.695***	-0.703***	
2000-05		(0.050)	(0.046)		(0.006)	(0.006)		(0.004)	(0.004)		(0.176)	(0.176)		(0.009)	(0.008)		(0.202)	(0.198)	
Population aging		0.273*	0.268*		0.018***	0.015***		0.048***	0.047***		-0.151	-0.160		0.893***	0.894***		-0.439***	-0.433***	
in and out 2000-05		(0.151)	(0.156)		(0.005)	(0.005)		(0.009)	(0.010)		(0.116)	(0.119)		(0.016)	(0.016)		(0.071)	(0.072)	
New 287g Policy			-0.047			0.067***			0.012			0.234			-0.028			-0.308*	
			(0.197)			(0.018)			(0.027)			(0.165)			(0.034)			(0.167)	
Employment Policy			0.073			-0.005			0.013			0.030			0.001			0.060	
			(0.127)			(0.012)			(0.020)			(0.109)			(0.027)			(0.109)	
Trade Shock			-0.202			0.023**			0.043**			0.145			-0.021			-0.306***	
			(0.264)			(0.009)			(0.019)			(0.185)			(0.014)			(0.111)	
Nontradable			-0.240*			-0.011			0.016			-0.026			-0.009			-0.178	
			(0.127)			(0.008)			(0.013)			(0.088)			(0.017)			(0.110)	
Homicide Rate			-20.664			-4.009***			-6.493***			-26.535***			2.664			0.724	
2005-10			(13.727)			(1.047)			(1.847)			(9.103)			(2.468)			(15.790)	
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.143	0.660	0.663	0.302	0.605	0.620	0.246	0.358	0.370	0.051	0.605	0.609	0.334	0.979	0.979	0.115	0.492	0.498	

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 population growth and its components, including: return migration to, and emigration from each Mexican source municipio, internal net migration, and population aging in and out of the working age population. Note that outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We restrict attention to individuals age 15-64. Population growth is defined as the proportional change in population. Return migration is the number of individuals reporting living in the US 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the municipio population in the survey year, while emigration is the number of household members who left for the US during the 5 years prior to the relevant survey, divided by the initial municipio population, measured using the roughly 10% long-form sample from the 2000 or 2010 Census (emigration information is not available in 2005). Internal net migration at the municipio level is calculated as the difference between each municipio's immigrants and emigrants during the 5 years prior to the to the relevant survey, divided by the initial municipio population, measured using the roughly 10% long-form sample from the 2000 or 2010 Census (internal migration information is not available in 2005). We use full-count tabulations from the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo to calculate population growth, return migration, and population aging in and out. The "Pre-shock Outcome" controls in columns (2), (5), (8), (11), (14) are 2000-2005 population growth, 2000-2005 return migration, 1995-2000 emigration, 1995-2000 net migration, and 2000-2005 population aging in and out, respectively. All specifications control for Mexican state fixed effects, and standard errors clustered at the Mexican commuting zone level are shown in parentheses. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C24: Sex Ratio, Attainment, and Households Receiving Remittances (unweighted)

	△ Sex Ratio (F/M) 2005-10			△ Less than Primary 2005-10			△ Primary 2005-10			△ Secondary 2005-10			△ University 2005-10			Household Remittances 2010		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
US Employment Shock	0.763***	0.644***	0.589**	0.942***	0.174	0.131	-0.215	0.003	0.159	-0.450**	0.117	0.010	-0.336**	-0.048	-0.018	0.504***	0.428***	0.510***
	(0.235)	(0.219)	(0.253)	(0.293)	(0.155)	(0.177)	(0.361)	(0.269)	(0.283)	(0.200)	(0.124)	(0.139)	(0.159)	(0.093)	(0.110)	(0.137)	(0.120)	(0.133)
Pre-shock Outcome		-0.177***	-0.175***		0.586***	0.583***		0.856***	0.865***		0.899***	0.907***		0.780***	0.778***		0.459***	0.450***
		(0.035)	(0.035)		(0.025)	(0.026)		(0.060)	(0.061)		(0.046)	(0.047)		(0.066)	(0.067)		(0.046)	(0.046)
New 287g Policy			-0.083			-0.080**			0.160***			-0.093**			-0.019			0.008
			(0.072)			(0.040)			(0.061)			(0.039)			(0.030)			(0.028)
Employment Policy			0.043			0.019			0.022			-0.000			0.016			0.024
			(0.044)			(0.028)			(0.040)			(0.022)			(0.019)			(0.018)
Trade Shock			-0.075**			-0.033			0.311***			-0.186***			-0.020			0.048**
			(0.030)			(0.031)			(0.069)			(0.033)			(0.029)			(0.023)
Non-tradable share			0.035			-0.002			0.109***			-0.003			-0.046***			0.020
			(0.027)			(0.017)			(0.030)			(0.019)			(0.013)			(0.014)
Homicide Rate 05-10 of Employment			10.418**			1.033			12.770***			-0.139			-1.196			-5.118**
			(4.589)			(3.103)			(4.824)			(1.904)			(1.663)			(2.505)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.197	0.251	0.262	0.315	0.792	0.793	0.298	0.655	0.672	0.356	0.732	0.740	0.241	0.735	0.739	0.187	0.334	0.343
B-P het. p-val	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.00

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in the female to male sex ratio for the working age population (15-64), the 2005-10 change in the share of the working age population in each education level for each Mexican source municipio, and the share of households receiving remittances in 2010. Note that outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We measure the sex ratio and educational attainment using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Inter-Censal Count. We calculate the share of households receiving remittances as the number of households reporting receiving income from relatives living abroad divided by the municipio's total number of households in the Census year, using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census. The positive coefficient estimate in column (3) for the US employment shock implies that municipios facing larger US employment declines had larger declines in the sex ratio, consistent with return migrants being disproportionately male. The results in columns (6)-(15) show no statistically significant relationship between the shock and the share of population with any particular level of education. Column (18) shows a positive relationship between the share of households receiving remittances and the US employment shock, meaning that remittances fall significantly in Mexican source regions facing larger declines in US labor demand. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C25: Employment-to-population Ratio and Earnings per Hour (All Workers, unweighted)

	△ EPOP 2004-09			△ ln(Hours) 2004-09			△ ln(Earnings) 2004-09			△ ln(EarnPerHour) 2004-09		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
US Employment Shock	-0.116	-0.307	-0.759	-7.969**	-8.472**	-9.226**	-9.566**	-8.264*	-9.875**	-1.596	0.208	-0.649
	(0.686)	(0.537)	(0.505)	(3.829)	(3.755)	(3.805)	(4.726)	(4.524)	(4.973)	(4.209)	(3.853)	(4.279)
△ EPOP 99-04		-0.376**	-0.360**									
		(0.145)	(0.145)									
△ ln(Hours) 99-04					-0.124**	-0.146**		0.331**	0.290**		0.454***	0.436***
					(0.061)	(0.062)		(0.148)	(0.146)		(0.122)	(0.122)
△ ln(Earnings) 99-04					0.067**	0.078**		-0.177**	-0.159**		-0.244***	-0.237***
					(0.034)	(0.035)		(0.069)	(0.069)		(0.054)	(0.053)
New 287g Policy			-0.236*			0.410			2.962**			2.552***
			(0.135)			(0.755)			(1.390)			(0.967)
Employment Policy			-0.052			-0.453			-2.285***			-1.833***
			(0.077)			(0.425)			(0.865)			(0.650)
Trade Shock			-0.374***			-0.743			-0.005			0.739
			(0.101)			(0.536)			(1.046)			(0.623)
Non-tradable share of employment			0.315***			1.227***			2.229***			1.002*
			(0.086)			(0.404)			(0.794)			(0.558)
Homicide Rate 05-10			-8.203			-46.380			-129.179*			-82.799
			(8.258)			(46.328)			(70.689)			(58.155)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	865	865	865	848	846	846	848	846	846	848	846	846
R-squared	0.102	0.205	0.244	0.119	0.132	0.149	0.114	0.138	0.161	0.086	0.160	0.175
B-P het. p-val	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.003	0.003

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the 2004-2009 change in the employment-to-population ratio, earnings, hours worked, and earnings per hour in each municipio, using employment, earnings, and hours from the 1999, 2004 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. Note that the outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. The negative and significant coefficient estimate for the US employment shock in column (3) implies that regions facing larger US employment declines exhibited larger increases in the employment to population ratio. Columns (6) and (9) show that both total hours worked and total earnings increased in the most affected municipios. However, column (12) shows no effect on earnings per hour, implying that local labor markets adjusted to the increase in supply of hours worked without reducing wages. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C26: Employment-to-population Ratio by Gender (unweighted)

	△ EPOP Women 2004-09			△ EPOP Men 2004-09		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
US Employment Shock	-0.327	-0.663	-1.126**	0.015	-0.072	-0.409
	(0.715)	(0.483)	(0.484)	(0.688)	(0.613)	(0.591)
△ EPOP 99-04		-0.545***	-0.525***		-0.286**	-0.273**
		(0.167)	(0.157)		(0.114)	(0.108)
New 287g Policy			-0.269**			-0.139
			(0.136)			(0.145)
Employment Policy			-0.086			-0.021
			(0.074)			(0.084)
Trade Shock			0.028			-0.733***
			(0.107)			(0.147)
Non-tradable share of Employment			0.237***			0.366***
			(0.071)			(0.100)
Homicide Rate 05-10			-12.321			-4.389
			(9.571)			(8.620)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	865	865	866	865	865
R-squared	0.128	0.302	0.325	0.082	0.158	0.204
B-P het. p-val	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the 2004-2009 change in the employment-to-population ratio for women and men in each municipio, using employment from the 1999, 2004 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. Note that the outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. The negative coefficient in colum (3) implies that a strongly affected municipio experienced larger increase in employment to population ratio among women compared to a similar municipio that was less affected. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C27: Appliance Ownership (unweighted)

	△ Computer 2005-10			△ Washing Machine 2005-10			△ Refrigerator 2005-10			△ TV 2005-10		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
US Employment Shock	-0.689*	-0.062	-0.012	-0.657	-0.083	-0.088	-1.070**	-0.087	-0.163	-0.636	0.523*	0.378
	(0.380)	(0.166)	(0.204)	(0.435)	(0.372)	(0.434)	(0.487)	(0.378)	(0.443)	(0.398)	(0.292)	(0.342)
△ in Outcome 2000-05		0.893***	0.893***		0.320***	0.314***		0.355***	0.354***		0.473***	0.479***
		(0.034)	(0.033)		(0.026)	(0.027)		(0.035)	(0.035)		(0.036)	(0.036)
New 287g Policy			0.043			0.208**			0.282**			0.102
			(0.057)			(0.097)			(0.122)			(0.086)
Employment Policy			-0.001			-0.101			-0.153*			-0.074
			(0.038)			(0.067)			(0.082)			(0.056)
Trade Shock			-0.049			0.125			0.120			0.016
			(0.067)			(0.104)			(0.097)			(0.035)
Non-tradable share of Employment			-0.051**			-0.032			0.099*			0.098**
			(0.024)			(0.045)			(0.054)			(0.050)
Homicide Rate 05-10			0.612			3.245			3.897			18.014**
			(2.657)			(4.922)			(5.242)			(8.736)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.338	0.883	0.883	0.574	0.678	0.680	0.422	0.599	0.605	0.246	0.559	0.568
B-P het. p-val	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in ownership of household durables (personal computers, washing machines, refrigerators, and televisions). We calculate the change in the share households owning the relevant household durable using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo. The coefficient in column (12) is positive and statistically significant, implying that households in more negatively affected municipios slowed down their purchases of televisions. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Table C28: School Attendance (unweighted)

	△ Attendance Rate (ages 6-12) 2005-10			△ Attendance Rate (ages 13-15) 2005-10			△ Attendance Rate (ages 16-18) 2005-10		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
US Employment Shock	0.046	0.050	0.127	-0.166	0.135	0.350	-0.060	0.431	0.533
	(0.117)	(0.115)	(0.122)	(0.327)	(0.330)	(0.383)	(0.431)	(0.419)	(0.463)
△ in Outcome 2000-05		0.005	0.004		0.162***	0.152***		0.286***	0.272***
		(0.029)	(0.030)		(0.034)	(0.033)		(0.034)	(0.034)
New 287g Policy			0.004			0.113			0.144
			(0.025)			(0.094)			(0.095)
Employment Policy			0.030			0.020			-0.038
			(0.021)			(0.059)			(0.068)
Trade Shock			0.049**			0.104***			-0.038
			(0.023)			(0.039)			(0.057)
Non-tradable share of Emplyment			-0.008			-0.090***			-0.130***
			(0.013)			(0.035)			(0.048)
Homicide Rate 05-10			-0.688			-8.664*			-5.735
			(1.888)			(4.834)			(6.990)
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866	866
R-squared	0.092	0.092	0.099	0.221	0.269	0.279	0.241	0.358	0.367
B-P het. p-val	0.111	0.045	0.021	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

This table examines the effect of changes in US labor demand on the 2005-10 change in school attendance. We calculate the change in the share of the population in primary (age 6-12), secondary (13-15), and high-school (16-18) reporting having attended school using the 2000 or 2010 Mexican Census or 2005 Conteo. The positive coefficient in column (3) implies that in municipios experiencing larger US employment declines, school attendance for primary school children fell more relative to municipios facing smaller employment shocks. All specifications include Mexican state fixed effects. Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

C.9 Mexican Commuting Zone Analysis for Labor Market Outcomes

For consistency with the rest of the analysis, the labor market outcome results in Table 6 use Mexican municipio as the unit of analysis. Here, we provide a parallel analysis using Mexican commuting zones as the unit of analysis, in order to address the possibility that municipios in the same commuting zone may be part of an integrated labor market in equilibrium. We define Mexican commuting zones following Atkin (2016), and impose the same sample restrictions to commuting zones that we did to municipios in the main text: at least 5,000 residents in 2005, exposure $\xi_s > 0.066$ (the 25th percentile), and at least 100 MCAS cards in 2006. This yields a sample of 741 Mexican commuting zones (and 723 with information in the Economic Census). The results in Table C29 are extremely similar to those in Table 6, showing that the choice of Mexican market aggregation does not substantially affect our findings.

Table C29: Employment-to-population Ratio and Earnings per Hour

	△ EPOP 2004-09	△ ln(Hours) 2004-09	△ ln(Earnings) 2004-09	△ ln(EarnPerHour) 2004-09
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A. All				
US Employment Shock	-0.452**	-3.228**	-4.366**	-1.513
	(0.191)	(1.325)	(1.887)	(1.287)
△ EPOP	-0.483***			
1999-04	(0.107)			
△ ln(Hours)		-0.204***	0.016	0.217***
1999-04		(0.051)	(0.085)	(0.065)
△ ln(Earnings)		0.135***	-0.120**	-0.024
1999-04		(0.029)	(0.045)	(0.032)
Panel B. Women				
US Employment Shock	-0.802***			
	(0.263)			
△ EPOP	-0.614***			
Women 1999-04	(0.155)			
Panel C. Men				
US Employment Shock	-0.236			
	(0.220)			
△ EPOP	-0.360***			
Men 1999-04	(0.087)			
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	741	723	723	723

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the 2004-2009 change in the employment-to-population ratio, earnings, hours worked, and earnings per hours in each Mexican commuting zone level, using employment, earnings and hours from the 1999, 2004 and 2009 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000 and 2010 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo. Note that the outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure as in equation (7). We trim the bottom and top 1 percent of the earnings distribution. All specifications in columns (1) to (4) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. All specifications include controls for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, changes in homicide rates across municipios, and Mexican state fixed effects. Robust standard errors (equivalent to clustering at the Mexican commuting zone level) are shown in parentheses. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

C.10 Long-term changes in employment to population ratio

Table C30 provides additional analysis extending the follow-up window of the results in Table 6 into later periods following the onset of the Great Recession. The first column replicates the results shown in column (1) of Table 6. The second and third columns use the same regression specification but with differences in the dependent variable calculated through 2014 and 2019, respectively. The results in Panel B suggest that the increase in female labor supply due the loss of network-connected jobs lasted at least through 2019. For men (Panel C), there is no indication of a short-run or long-run change in employment rate.

Table C30: Employment-to-population Ratio: Extended Time Periods

	△ EPOP 2004-09	△ EPOP 2004-14	△ EPOP 2004-19
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Panel A. All			
US Employment Shock	-0.321*	-0.196	-0.712**
	[0.169]	[0.244]	[0.263]
	(0.193)	(0.269)	(0.362)
△ EPOP 1999-04	-0.464***	-0.490***	-0.294**
	(0.116)	(0.138)	(0.140)
Mean raw outcome among less affected	0.113	0.021	0.040
Implied shock impact	0.006	0.004	0.013
Panel B. Women			
US Employment Shock	-0.663***	-0.519**	-1.131***
	[0.167]	[0.216]	[0.239]
	(0.192)	(0.233)	(0.291)
△ EPOP Women 1999-04	-0.561***	-0.577***	-0.429**
	(0.158)	(0.156)	(0.168)
Mean raw outcome among less affected	0.015	0.025	0.042
Implied shock impact	0.012	0.010	0.021
Panel C. Men			
US Employment Shock	-0.015	0.239	-0.275
	[0.258]	[0.391]	[0.354]
	(0.253)	(0.377)	(0.475)
△ EPOP Men 1999-04	-0.357***	-0.377***	-0.167
	(0.083)	(0.111)	(0.136)
Mean raw outcome among less affected	0.009	0.015	0.036
Implied shock impact	0.000	-0.004	0.005
State FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	865	865	865

This table examines the effects of declines in US labor demand on the change in the employment-to-population ratio in each municipio, using employment from the 1999, 2004, 2014, and 2019 Mexican Economic Census and population from the 2000, 2010, and 2020 Mexican Census and the 2005 Conteo to examine changes across different time horizons. Note that the outcome and pre-shock outcome variables are divided by exposure, ξ_s, as in equation (7). All specifications in columns (1) to (3) use a GLS re-weighting procedure to address potential heteroskedasticity. All specifications include controls for anti-immigrant employment legislation and new 287(g) agreements across US CZs, trade shocks across municipios (divided by 1,000,000), the share of employment in Mexico's non-tradable sector, changes in homicide rates across municipios, and Mexican state fixed effects. "Mean raw outcome among less affected" is the average of the dependent variable without dividing by exposure for municipios in the quartile with the smallest magnitude US employment shocks. "Implied shock impact" provides the predicted difference in the outcome (without dividing by exposure) for municipios with the 90-10 percentile difference in shock size (0.075) and average exposure (0.25). Standard errors clustered at the Mexican Commuting Zone level are shown in parentheses. Due to the shift-share structure of the US Employment Shock, we also present Borusyak et al. (2022) standard errors for this variable in square brackets. *** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1 based on standard errors in brackets when present.