From Better Neighborhoods to Better Futures: Tax Credits and Intergenerational Opportunity

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February 12, 2026

Abstract

Abundant research shows that higher family income improves children's short- and long-run outcomes, but evidence from some transfer-based income experiments raises questions about whether these gains hold for both earnings and transfer income. This paper revisits that question using the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC)—a large transfer that raises after-tax income for tens of millions of low-income families—and more than 30 years of linked administrative data covering over 15 million individuals. We find that higher childhood EITC exposure improves a wide range of adult outcomes: in their 20s and 30s, exposed children have higher earnings, greater employment, lower poverty, improved neighborhood quality, and reduced mortality. We then decompose these long-run effects into several channels, including childhood neighborhood quality, parental earnings, EITC transfer income, and other mechanisms, and show that a key pathway is improved neighborhood quality, as the EITC increases moves to higher-opportunity Census tracts. Effects are somewhat larger for men and are largest for children of unmarried and younger parents, but remain sizable and positive even for children of always-married parents—a group whose labor supply is unaffected by the EITC—demonstrating that transfer income itself, not just parental employment and earnings, plays a powerful causal role in shaping long-run well-being and intergenerational mobility.

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A central question in public economics is whether income transfers to low-income families generate lasting improvements in children's economic and social outcomes. While a growing body of research documents positive long-run effects of safety net programs, much of this evidence relies either on smaller survey datasets (e.g., Hoynes et al., 2016; Bastian and Michelmore, 2018) or on historical policy changes from the 1960s and earlier (e.g., Aizer et al., 2016; Bailey, Hoynes, et al., 2024), leaving open whether these findings generalize to modern transfer programs operating in today's labor markets and institutional environment. At the same time, recent experiments have reported null short-run effects of unconditional cash on child outcomes (e.g., Gennetian et al., 2025; Bartik et al., 2025). Together, these findings underscore an unresolved and policy-relevant question: Do contemporary income transfer programs meaningfully improve children's long-run outcomes? We address this question using linked administrative panel data to investigate whether income support from the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC) leads to long-run intergenerational effects on employment, earnings, health, family structure, and residential location in adulthood.

Neighborhood conditions during childhood have lasting effects on intergenerational mobility, shaping children's earnings, education, and adult outcomes (Chetty and Hendren, 2018a,b; Chetty et al., 2020). Housing mobility experiments show that low-income families move to better neighborhoods when offered a combination of financial assistance, information, and personalized support. The Moving to Opportunity, Gautreaux, and Creating Moves to Opportunity interventions increased moves to low-poverty areas and improved outcomes for children who moved at young ages (Katz et al., 2001; Chetty et al., 2016; Chyn, 2018; Rosenbaum, 1995; Bergman et al., 2024). By contrast, it is less clear whether money alone leads families to move to higher-quality neighborhoods. Some research shows that lottery winnings and increased access to credit lead to increased geographic mobility but not neighborhood quality (Golosov et al., 2024; Howard et al., 2025). However, other research shows that Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC) expansions help low-income families move out of rural and distressed areas, though this evidence is limited to studies using public survey data with coarse geographic measures and short-run outcomes (Bastian and Black, 2023). This paper uses linked administrative panel data to investigate whether income support alone—from the EITC—enables low-income families to move to better neighborhoods, and whether

such moves lead to long-run intergenerational effects on employment, earnings, health, and residential location in adulthood.

A key reason families do not move to better neighborhoods is financial constraints. Many lack the cash needed for a security deposit, first month's rent, or moving costs, and may rely on nearby family for childcare or other support. Among families earning under $40,000, only 64% are fully banked, 37% report being denied credit in the past year, and 61% have a credit card (Chen et al., 2019). These financial barriers are especially binding for low-income households eligible for the EITC. As a result, even families who would benefit from and want to move to a higher-quality neighborhood may be unable to finance the upfront costs, suggesting that large income transfers could meaningfully shape mobility decisions.

The Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC), a refundable tax credit for low-income workers, may reduce financial barriers to mobility by providing large income transfers. Annual payments for families average over $3,000 and often exceed $10,000 (for combined federal and state benefits) and can represent about half of a family's annual income. Most recipients receive the credit as a lump-sum tax refund in the spring, making it well-timed for large, infrequent expenses like moving. By reducing financial constraints, the EITC may both stabilize housing for some families and enable moves to more desirable areas for others. The program reaches nearly 30 million households and distributes about $65 billion per year, lifting more than 6 million people out of poverty and improving the short- and long-run economic well-being of families (Hoynes and Patel, 2018; Bastian and Michelmore, 2018). Related research shows that the EITC increases household savings and access to credit (Jones and Michelmore, 2019), and enables large purchases such as vehicles and durable goods (Barrow and McGranahan, 2000; Goodman-Bacon and McGranahan, 2008). By boosting household income, the EITC can enable families to relocate from distressed areas to regions with better schools, jobs, and long-run prospects.

We examine how variation in EITC policy influences migration decisions and long-run outcomes for children. Our identification strategy leverages changes to federal and state EITC policies between the 1980s and 2010s, which generated exogenous differences in after-tax income by year, state, number and age of children, and marital status. To quantify these policy changes we focus on the maximum possible EITC benefits ($MaxEITC$) available to

families based on number of children, state, and year; to focus on policy changes and not socioeconomic status this measure is unrelated to income or actually receiving the EITC. To account for unobserved heterogeneity across families, we use family fixed effects and compare siblings of different ages within the same household who were exposed to different levels of EITC support. This allows us to estimate how income shocks affect residential mobility, the quality of destination neighborhoods, and the long-run effects on children.

Our analysis uses linked administrative individual-level panel data covering over 15 million individuals from birth through their early 30s. We observe annual income, location, and family structure throughout childhood (ages 0–18) and into adulthood (ages 19–34). The data combine IRS tax records with Census data and the Opportunity Atlas, allowing us to measure both family income and neighborhood characteristics at the Census tract level. Neighborhood quality is measured using tract-level indicators from the Opportunity Atlas, including measures of income, education, school quality, employment, and poverty. We supplement this with survey data from the Decennial Census and American Community Survey (ACS), which adds information on education, disability, extended family, and other traits not available in tax data. These linked data allow us to track moves, measure the quality of receiving neighborhoods, and assess long-run outcomes—capturing geographic variation that would be obscured in coarser units.

We find that higher EITC exposure during childhood affects geographic mobility through two distinct channels: it reduces the overall likelihood of moving and increases the probability of relocating to a higher-opportunity neighborhood. These seemingly opposite outcomes of residential stability and geographic mobility illustrate the heterogeneous positive effects of the EITC on families.

Each additional \$1,000 of $MaxEITC$ exposure lowers the probability of moving to a different Census tract within one year by 0.5 percentage points, while also raising the probability of "neighborhood upgrading" and moving to a tract with higher household income, better schools, and greater economic mobility by 0.4–0.5 percentage points. These upgrading effects increase over time, with the impact reaching over 1 percentage point after 2–3 years, and are similar for males and females. Short-run effects on neighborhood upgrading are largest for youngest children, particularly those under age six, consistent with evidence that

families are most likely to move before children start school. The estimate of $MaxEITC$ for the youngest children is 0.8 percentage points, compared to 0.4 percentage points for older children.

We then examine whether the EITC's effects persist into adulthood—finding that, in addition to improving neighborhood quality during childhood, EITC exposure generates sustained gains later in life. Each additional $1,000 of exposure increases wage earnings by $2,500–$2,700, raises employment rates by 1.5–1.6 percentage points, and reduces the likelihood of living in poverty by 2.0–2.5 percentage points by ages 26–34. These effects grow with age, with modest impacts in the early 20s that rise substantially through the early 30s. When we look at which ages in childhood the EITC has the largest long-run impact we find that effects are largest for teenage children. We also find improvements in adult health and neighborhood quality during the 20s and 30s, including higher tract-level average rent, income, education, fraction married parents, and lower poverty rates. Beyond average effects, EITC exposure increases the likelihood of earning above low and moderate income thresholds, with the largest impacts concentrated in the lower half of the distribution. For example, each $1,000 of exposure raises the probability of earning more than $30,000 by 1.2 percentage points at ages 26–34. Effects are smaller at higher income levels, indicating that the EITC primarily helps children from low-income families gain and maintain labor market attachment.

This paper makes several contributions to the literature on intergenerational mobility, income support, and spatial opportunity. First, we show that financial resources alone—through the EITC—enable low-income families to move to higher-opportunity neighborhoods, in contrast to some prior evidence that income shocks alone do not lead families to move to better neighborhoods. Second, we directly link these upward moves to sustained improvements in adult earnings, employment, and neighborhood quality, identifying migration as a key mechanism for the EITC's long-run effects. Third, we provide the first causal evidence using tract-level administrative data and sibling fixed effects to show that income support changes where families live—reframing residential exposure as an endogenous policy outcome. Finally, we demonstrate that adolescence is a particularly sensitive period for both mobility and adult outcomes, deepening our understanding of the timing and pathways

through which income support shapes intergenerational mobility. In doing so, we contribute to broader economic questions about the role of liquidity constraints in shaping life-cycle migration decisions and long-run inequality.

These findings have broad policy implications. By showing that income support alone enables families to access better neighborhoods and generate long-run gains, this paper contributes new evidence to debates over people-based versus place-based interventions. Rather than investing directly in distressed neighborhoods, providing flexible financial resources empowers families to move to places that better meet their needs. These results suggest that targeting aid to individuals—especially during key developmental periods—can yield durable improvements in mobility, earnings, and neighborhood quality. More generally, the findings highlight how income transfers can influence not just current well-being, but also the long-term geography of opportunity and inequality. These findings may also inform the design of income transfer programs in other settings, especially where geographic inequality and financial constraints limit opportunity.

1. Literature Review

A large literature documents that the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC) is one of the most effective anti-poverty programs in the United States, delivering substantial refundable transfers to low-income working families—especially single mothers—while maintaining labor force incentives. The EITC significantly increases employment and after-tax income (Meyer and Rosenbaum, 2001; Eissa and Hoynes, 2006), reduces hardship, and improves child outcomes. In the short run, increased income improves children's test scores (Dahl and Lochner, 2012), infant health (Hoynes et al., 2015b), household balance sheets (Goodman-Bacon and McGranahan, 2019), and food consumption (LaGuardia et al., 2024).

Greater EITC exposure during childhood raises adult employment and earnings (Bastian and Michelmore, 2018) and improves adult health outcomes (Braga et al., 2020), establishing that childhood income support has persistent effects on adult economic well-being. However, the mechanisms underlying these lasting gains remain incompletely understood. In particular, these studies cannot disentangle whether long-run effects are driven by the transfer

income itself or by increases in maternal labor supply and earnings. Moreover, they rely on small PSID samples, limiting precision and the ability to examine heterogeneous effects or more recent cohorts. This paper extends Bastian and Michelmore (2018) by leveraging larger linked administrative data through the 2020s—adding another decade of follow-up and allowing outcomes to be observed into individuals' mid-30s—to provide more precise estimates and to examine a broader set of long-run outcomes.

One potential channel operates through place. If EITC expansions affect where children grow up, changes in neighborhood environment could help explain the program's long-run effects. Location plays a central role in shaping access to labor markets, schools, and social networks, all of which strongly influence intergenerational mobility (Chetty and Hendren, 2018a,b; Chetty et al., 2020). Where children grow up determines educational opportunities, peer groups, safety, and job prospects, making neighborhood quality a key driver of long-run outcomes. Evidence from the Moving to Opportunity (MTO) experiment shows that while adults experienced little change in earnings, children who moved before age 13 saw substantial long-run gains, including higher adult earnings, more college attendance, and lower rates of single parenthood (Kling et al., 2007; Chetty et al., 2016). Further work shows that each additional year spent in a high-opportunity area raises adult income by 3–4% for low-income children (Chetty and Hendren, 2018b; Chetty et al., 2020), and that children displaced by Chicago public housing demolitions later earned more, had higher employment, and were less likely to be arrested (Chyn, 2018). Together, these studies demonstrate that neighborhood quality in childhood is a causal determinant of adult outcomes.

Despite the large potential returns to relocation, migration to higher-opportunity places remains limited. Moving entails substantial upfront costs—housing deposits, transportation, temporary housing, and job search expenses—that are especially burdensome for low-income families. Liquidity and credit constraints reduce mobility and labor market efficiency, causing families to remain in suboptimal locations and respond sluggishly to local economic shocks even when potential gains are large (Blanchard et al., 1992; Black et al., 2005; Artuç et al., 2010; Kennan and Walker, 2011; Autor et al., 2016; Amior and Manning, 2018; Hershbein and Stuart, 2020).[1]

[1]Families also remain in place because of strong social and psychological ties (Zabek, 2024).

Recent work highlights the mixed role of financial resources in overcoming these barriers. Large, exogenous windfalls such as lottery winnings rarely induce long-distance moves, with over 80% of winners staying in-state and families with children especially unlikely to relocate to higher-opportunity areas (Golosov et al., 2023). Smaller policy-driven income changes have modest effects: pandemic stimulus payments led to measurable short-distance moves (Agarwal et al., 2023), and Medicare eligibility at age 65 spurred longer-distance migration toward warmer, lower-cost regions (Finkelstein et al., 2023). Yet these moves are often local and do not necessarily improve neighborhood opportunity. More generally, studies of wealth shocks and income transfers suggest that cash alone rarely induces moves to substantially higher-opportunity neighborhoods. In contrast, combining resources with information and support has proven more effective: in Seattle, providing housing vouchers with search assistance increased high-opportunity moves from 15% to 53% (Bergman et al., 2024).

Recent evidence suggests that the EITC itself may modestly increase residential mobility. Using American Community Survey data, (Bastian and Black, 2023) show that EITC-induced income gains help families relocate from rural or disadvantaged areas into neighborhoods with greater opportunity, though almost all moves occur within states. These findings echo earlier work on AFDC and TANF, which found limited responsiveness to interstate welfare differences (Enchautegui, 1997; Blank, 1988; McKinnish, 2005). However, existing studies rely on survey data with coarse geographic measures, short time horizons, and limited ability to link moves to children's long-run outcomes.

Taken together, the literature shows that the EITC generates substantial long-run gains in earnings and employment, and that childhood neighborhood quality is a powerful determinant of adult success. Yet little is known about whether EITC-induced income gains alter where children grow up and whether migration serves as an important channel through which income support improves long-run outcomes. This paper addresses that gap by examining how childhood EITC exposure affects adult earnings, employment, and neighborhood attainment, and by assessing the role of migration as one mechanism underlying these effects.

2. EITC Policy Details and Identification Strategy

EITC eligibility and benefit amounts depend on household earnings, the number and ages of children, marital status, and state of residence. The credit is structured with three distinct ranges: in the phase-in, benefits increase with earnings; during the plateau, benefits remain constant; and in the phase-out, benefits decline until eligibility ends. Families with income beyond the phase-out range receive no benefits. Figure 1a illustrates this schedule in 2018 by marital status and number of children. In that year, the maximum federal credit for households with three or more children reached roughly $6,500, equal to about 45% of earnings for the lowest earners, with benefits phasing in up to about $14,000, remaining flat until $24,000, and then phasing out. Families with two children could receive up to about $5,700, and those with one child up to about $3,500.

Figure 1b plots how maximum benefits by family size evolved over time. The EITC was introduced in 1975 as a 10 percent subsidy to earnings, providing up to $1,700 (2016 dollars) uniformly across states and family types.[2] Subsequent expansions steadily increased generosity and differentiated benefits by family structure. In 1986, the phase-in rate was raised to 14 percent. Beginning in 1990, families with two or more children became eligible for higher credits, and in 1993 the program was broadened to include a modest benefit for childless adults. Between 1993 and 1996, the phase-in rate rose to 34 percent for families with one child and 40 percent for those with two or more children—a difference worth as much as $2,000. In 2002, married couples received additional support through an extended plateau region, and in 2009, larger credits were introduced for families with three or more children.

In addition to the federal credit, 29 states operated their own EITCs during this period. These state credits typically supplement federal benefits by a fixed percentage, ranging from 3% to 40% (worth $220–$2,800 annually).[3] For instance, a family eligible for $3,500 in federal benefits in a state with a 20% supplement would receive an additional $700 from the state. When combined, federal and state EITCs can exceed $10,000 per year, with the

[2] See Bastian (2020) for further discussion of the original program and its effects on working mothers.

[3] We do not distinguish between refundable and non-refundable state credits.

typical recipient receiving more than $3,000. Figure 1c shows how state match rates have changed over time, while Figure 1d displays maximum combined federal and state benefits by family size. These figures highlight the substantial cross-state and temporal variation in benefit generosity.

Our identification strategy leverages this plausibly exogenous policy variation at both the federal and state levels. We construct a measure, $MaxEITC$, which reflects the combined maximum credit available in each year based on family size, child ages, and state of residence. $MaxEITC$ is expressed in 2022 CPI-U adjusted dollars, with one unit equal to $1,000. Crucially, $MaxEITC$ is independent of household income and actual receipt of benefits. This approach follows the empirical strategies used in prior EITC research (Hoynes et al., 2015a; Bastian and Lochner, 2022; Agostinelli et al., 2020).

It would be problematic for our identification strategy if changes in EITC generosity were correlated with other state-level factors or if pre-trends in migration differed systematically across families. Other work has examined these concerns. (Bastian and Black, 2023) test whether state EITC expansions are associated with contemporaneous changes in other state policies, economic conditions, or demographics, and find little evidence of endogeneity. They also study parallel trends in migration, showing that migration rates by number of children were flat leading up to policy changes and only increased afterward, particularly for larger families. This evidence supports the view that state EITC policy changes are plausibly exogenous and that parallel pre-trends hold for key outcomes.

3. Data and Summary Statistics

Our analysis uses linked administrative panel data covering over 15 million individuals from birth through their early 30s. These data track annual income, location, and family structure throughout childhood (ages 0–18) and into adulthood (ages 19–34). The core data combine IRS tax records with Census data and the Opportunity Atlas, allowing us to measure both family income and neighborhood characteristics. We supplement these administrative sources with survey data from the Decennial Census and American Community Survey (ACS), which provide additional detail on education, disability, extended family, and other

traits not available in tax data. Together, these linked data allow us to follow families across moves, measure the quality of neighborhoods they move to, and assess long-run adult outcomes.

The administrative panel spans 1995–2022 and provides annual observations, enabling us to track where individuals live each year from birth through their 20s and mid-30s. Because of the scale of the underlying files, we work with a 2% sample of families with children, which still yields over 50 million person-year observations and roughly 7 million unique individuals in our estimation sample. We restrict the sample to individuals observed at least once during ages 0–5, 6–12, and 13–18, and again after age 19, ensuring that childhood exposure and adult outcomes are measured consistently. Adult outcomes are defined over specific age ranges (19–24, 25–29, and 30–34), and we also estimate effects separately at each single year of age from 19 to 34. All analyses are conducted separately by gender.

Census tracts offer highly granular geographic resolution, enabling precise measurement of neighborhood conditions. We link tract-level data from the *Opportunity Atlas* (Chetty et al., 2018), which provide rich measures of neighborhood quality, including average household income, employment rates, college completion rates, test scores, poverty rates, the fraction of married parents, and other demographic traits. These measures are captured in specific years—generally 2000 or 2010—and are available in both levels and percentiles. We merge these data to individuals' annual residential location, allowing us to track changes in neighborhood quality over time.

The average Census tract contains about 4,000 people, with official population guidelines ranging from 1,200 to 8,000 residents depending on density and geography. The United States contains 84,414 tracts. In dense urban areas, a single tract may span just a few city blocks and include fewer than 3,000 people—as in parts of Manhattan, which alone contains more than 280 tracts (and New York City over 2,100), while Berkeley, California contains 33. In contrast, public-use Census and ACS survey data are typically reported at the PUMA level, of which there are roughly 2,400 nationwide—for example, Berkeley and Albany are represented by a single PUMA. This level of detail allows us to capture meaningful variation in local conditions, including changes arising from relatively short-distance moves, that would be obscured using broader geographic units such as ZIP codes, counties, or PUMAs.

Table 1 reports summary statistics for a panel of individuals observed both as children (ages 0–18) and again as young adults (ages 19–34). Column 1 presents childhood characteristics, while Columns 2 through 5 describe outcomes in adulthood, broken out by three age groups—19–24, 25–29, and 30–34—as well as an overall average for ages 19–34 in Column 2. Because the data follow the same individuals over time, these statistics illustrate how early-life characteristics map into later-life economic and demographic outcomes at different points in early adulthood.

During childhood, individuals are observed at an average age of 9.8, most commonly around the year 2006. The sample is roughly gender-balanced (49.4% female) and racially diverse, with 55.6% White, 20.2% Black, and 18.2% Hispanic. On average, children had 1.34 siblings, and about 53% lived with married parents. Parental wage earnings averaged \$78,600 and adjusted gross income (AGI) averaged \$88,200 (both in real dollars). Children experienced substantial exposure to the Earned Income Tax Credit (EITC), with average maximum benefits between \$4,314 and \$4,870 depending on age. The average across childhood years (ages 0–18) was \$4,773.

As these children transition into adulthood, economic and demographic indicators improve markedly with age. Among those aged 19–24, average wage earnings are just \$14,800, with 67.5% employed, 5.9% married, and 64% living below the poverty line. By ages 25–29, earnings rise to \$38,600, the poverty rate falls to 36.6%, and both employment (77%) and marriage (20.4%) increase. These trends continue through ages 30–34, where average earnings reach \$57,200, the employment rate remains high (76.8%), and nearly one-third are married. The poverty rate falls to 32.1%, and only 39.9% live below 150% of the poverty line—down from 77.1% at ages 19–24.

Mobility also declines steadily with age. At age 0–18, 25.9% of children moved Census tracts in the prior year, compared to just 16.1% of those aged 30–34. Two- and three-year move rates show similar declines. Taken together, these panel-based summary statistics offer a rich descriptive portrait of how family background and early-life economic conditions correlate with adult outcomes over the life cycle.

4. Identification Strategy

We examine the impact of EITC exposure in childhood on long-run adult outcomes, using equation (1):

$$Y_{i,s,t} = \beta_1 MaxEITC_{i,s,a\in[0,18]} + X'_{i,s,t}\beta_2 + \delta^1_{s,t} + \delta^2_t + \epsilon_{i,s,t}. \tag{1}$$

We use the average value of $MaxEITC$ during childhood (ages 0-18) on various adult outcomes in year t, measured between ages 19 and 34.[4] $MaxEITC_{i,s,a\in[0,18]}$ does not vary by time t. Adult outcomes include employment, earnings, poverty, married, health (proxied by the rare outcome of dying), and various measures of Census tract quality in which they live, using measures from the Opportunity Atlas.

We control for subcomponents of $MaxEITC$ with fixed effects for year, state, and maximum number of siblings (0, 1, or 2+). $X_{i,s,t+j}$ also controls for married, an age cubic, years of education FE, race indicators (Black, White, Hispanic, Asian, Native American). We also control for state-by-year FE, as well as these FE interacted with race and other demographic traits. We report heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors, clustered at the state level.

It is plausible that $MaxEITC$ (and the associated increases in income and labor supply) has different long-run effects at different ages. For example, extra resources may have an outsized effect when provided to very young children (as discussed by Heckman and Masterov (2007)) or to older teenage children who are preparing to make life-altering decisions such as whether to attend college (as found by Bastian and Michelmore (2018)). We explore this with equation (2), which is identical to equation (1) except that it separately estimates the impact of average annual $MaxEITC$ between ages 0–5, 6–12, and 13–18:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_{i,s,t} = {} & \beta_1 MaxEITC_{i,s,a\in[0,5]} + \beta_1 MaxEITC_{i,s,a\in[6,12]} \\ & + \beta_1 MaxEITC_{i,s,a\in[13,18]} + X'_{i,s,t}\beta_2 + \delta^1_{s,t} + \delta^2_t + \epsilon_{i,s,t}. \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Finally, we also explore subgroup effects for long-run outcomes by either restricting the sample to a subgroup or by interacting $MaxEITC$ with mutually exclusive groups g defined by parental marital status, parental age, or race/ethnicity, as in equation (3).

$$Y_{i,s,t} = \beta_1 MaxEITC_{i,s,a\in[0,18]} \times \mathbb{1}(Group = g) + X'_{i,s,t}\beta_2 + \delta^1_{s,t} + \delta^2_t + \epsilon_{i,s,t}. \tag{3}$$

[4] For children that have missing years in the data, we average over the childhood ages that we do observe.

In addition to estimating longer-run effects, we estimate short-run effects of EITC expansions on various outcomes during childhood using equation (4):

$$Y_{i,s,t+j} = \beta_1 MaxEITC_{i,s,t} + X'_{i,s,t+j}\beta_2 + \delta^1_{s,t+j} + \delta^2_{t+j} + \epsilon_{i,s,t+j}. \quad (4)$$

We use this equation to estimate how $MaxEITC$ in year t impacts children in year $t+j$, for $j \in [1,3]$. Outcomes focus on whether families move and various measures of Census tract quality in which they live. We use the same controls and specification as in equation (1)—except that equation (4) controls for factors in year t, whereas equation (2) controls for factors averaged across all years of childhood.

Since family migration patterns vary by ages of children—for example, families are generally more mobile when their children are younger and have not started school yet—we estimate equation (5) which estimates the EITC's effects by a child's age a, for $a \in [0,18]$.

$$Y_{i,s,t+j,a+j} = \beta_1 MaxEITC_{i,s,t} \times \mathbb{1}(Age = a) + X'_{i,s,t+j}\beta_2 + \delta^1_{s,t+j} + \delta^2_{t+j} + \epsilon_{i,s,t+j}. \quad (5)$$

We also explore short-run effects of the EITC on subgroups of children by interacting $MaxEITC$ with mutually exclusive groups g defined by parental marital status, parental age, or race/ethnicity in equation (6):

$$Y_{i,s,t+j} = \Sigma_g \beta^g_1 MaxEITC_{i,s,t} \times \mathbb{1}(Group = g) + X'_{i,s,t+j}\beta_2 + \delta^1_{s,t+j} + \delta^2_{t+j} + \epsilon_{i,s,t+j}. \quad (6)$$

Together, these specifications allow us to estimate both short-run mobility responses and long-run adult outcomes associated with childhood EITC exposure, while flexibly accounting for policy variation across states, cohorts, and family characteristics.

5. Results

5.1. Childhood EITC Exposure and Adult Labor Supply, Earnings, Poverty

We start by using equation (1), the main set of controls, and estimating the long-run effects of average annual childhood EITC exposure (ages 0–18) on various adult outcomes measured between ages 19 and 34.

Table 2 summarizes the long-run effects of average annual childhood EITC exposure on adult outcomes, separately by sex and by two adult age ranges: 19–25 and 26–34. Each column represents a different outcome: real wages, AGI, labor force participation, married, and being below 100% or 150% of the poverty line.

Across outcomes, the table reveals strong, positive effects of EITC exposure during childhood, with larger impacts for at older adult ages. Among men, a $1,000 increase in average annual childhood EITC exposure significantly increases both wages and AGI, with effects rising from $390 and $457 at ages 19–25 (Panel A) to $2,700 and $3,241 at ages 26–34 (Panel B). Employment increases by about 1.5–1.6 percentage points in both age groups, while poverty rates fall sharply—by 2–2.3 percentage points for men in their late twenties and early thirties. Effects on marriage are small and negative at younger ages, and small and positive at older ages (estimates are -0.1 and 0.1 percentage points).

For women, the patterns are similarly strong. Total EITC exposure raises earnings by $302 at ages 19–25 and by over $2,500 at ages 26–34 (Panel D). AGI and labor force participation also increase meaningfully across both age groups. Poverty effects are particularly pronounced: a $1,000 increase in annual childhood EITC exposure reduces the likelihood of falling below the poverty line by 2.5 percentage points among women in their late twenties and early thirties. Effects on marriage are small and negative at younger ages, and small and positive at older ages (estimates are -0.3 and 0.3 percentage points).

Effects by State: Panels A and B in Figure 2 display state-level estimates of the long-run effects of childhood EITC exposure on adult earnings and employment, separately by gender. Darker shades represent larger positive effects of $MaxEITC$ during childhood on each outcome in adulthood. Several regional patterns emerge. The largest impacts are concentrated in the Midwest, Plains, and parts of the South. For employment, states such as Missouri, Kentucky, West Virginia, Oklahoma, and Iowa show relatively large effects. For earnings, strong effects appear in states like Minnesota, Nebraska, and Maine. These findings are broadly consistent with prior work by Bastian (2024) and Fitzpatrick and Thompson (2010), who find that the EITC has larger impacts in lower cost-of-living regions, where additional income may stretch further and improve child development more effectively.

In contrast, the smallest estimated effects are concentrated along the coasts and in high-

cost or urbanized states. California, New York, New Jersey, and several New England states consistently show weaker effects of the EITC on both employment and earnings outcomes. Additionally, a number of southern states, such as Mississippi and South Carolina, display more modest impacts, particularly among women. While there are some gender differences in effect size, the broad geographic patterns are similar across men and women. Effects are somewhat larger for men, but not uniformly so across states. These patterns underscore the importance of place-based context in shaping the long-run returns to childhood income support policies like the EITC.

Effects by Adult Age: Panel A of Figure 3 plots the estimated effect of childhood EITC exposure on adult earnings and employment outcomes by age, separately for men and women. The effects on earnings, shown on the left axis, are strikingly similar across genders and increase steadily with age. While effects are close to zero in the early 20s, they grow rapidly in the late 20s and early 30s, reaching over $10,000 by age 33. In contrast, the effects on employment, plotted on the right axis, show more muted dynamics in early adulthood. For both men and women, the employment effects are small at age 19 and remain relatively flat through the mid-to-late 20s before increasing in the early 30s. However, the magnitude of the employment effects is consistently larger for men than for women. Overall, the results suggest that the long-run impacts of the EITC on labor market outcomes grow meaningfully with age, particularly for earnings, and that these gains begin to materialize more strongly in individuals' 30s.

Effects by Birth Cohort: Panel B of Figure 3 shows the estimated effects of childhood EITC exposure on adult earnings and employment by birth cohort, separately for men and women born between 1989 and 1997. The effects on earnings (left axis) are slightly larger for men than for women throughout, but the gender gap is modest. Employment effects (right axis) also tend to be slightly larger for men. Across both outcomes, estimated effects decline gradually across cohorts. This downward trend—especially pronounced for earnings—is consistent with earlier cohorts being observed at older ages and thus having more time for long-run effects to materialize. In contrast, the younger cohorts are still in early adulthood, when labor market returns to childhood income exposure are still emerging. These results support the interpretation that the benefits of EITC exposure accumulate over time, with

stronger impacts observable as individuals age into their late 20s and 30s.[5]

Effects on Earnings Distribution: Figure 4 plots the effect of childhood EITC exposure on the probability of earning above a range of income thresholds, by gender and by age group (19–25 vs. 26–34). The EITC increases the likelihood of earning above low thresholds (e.g., $5,000 or $10,000) for both men and women, with slightly larger impacts for women overall. Among younger adults (ages 19–25), the effects fade quickly with income, becoming negligible above $50,000. This pattern suggests that childhood EITC exposure helps young adults enter the labor force and earn modest amounts, but does not immediately translate into high earnings. In contrast, for older adults (ages 26–34), the effects remain relatively flat across thresholds below $50,000 and then decline gradually, consistent with persistent gains in earnings across the lower and middle of the distribution. These patterns support the idea that the EITC increases early employment, which in turn leads to accumulated work experience and earnings gains over time. This is consistent with findings from Kuka and Shenhav (2024), who show that the EITC boosts years of labor market experience and earnings for women. Our results suggest that these benefits may extend to the next generation, improving labor market outcomes for children in EITC-eligible households.

Overall, these results show that cumulative EITC exposure in childhood substantially improves adult earnings, employment, and economic security, with effects that grow into the mid-30s. The patterns are consistent for men and women, highlighting the broad reach of the EITC's long-run impacts.

5.2. Childhood EITC Exposure and Neighborhood Traits as Adults

Table 3 reports the effects of average annual childhood EITC exposure on a variety of adult neighborhood quality measures from the Opportunity Atlas, estimated separately by gender and adult age group (ages 19–25 vs. 26–34). The estimates reflect where individuals live as adults and the characteristics of the Census tracts they reside in, capturing both economic mobility and residential sorting. Each coefficient represents the effect of a $1,000 increase in average maximum EITC exposure during childhood, using the main set

[5] Future versions of this paper will show effects at individual ages by birth cohort to disentangle diminishing marginal treatment effects of more recent EITC expansions from growing effects by age that are reflected in earlier cohorts.

of controls.

Outcomes in Table 3 columns 1–6 are standardized into percentiles, while outcomes in columns 7–9 are measured in levels. Outcomes in columns 1–3 measure average Census tract income in 2000, 1990, and 2016; columns 4–5 measure fraction with a college degree in 2000 and 2010; column 6 measurs average math scores; columns 7–9 measure (in levels) average household income in 2000 and fraction with a college degree in 2000 and 2010.

Across outcomes, EITC exposure during childhood is associated with significantly improved neighborhood and economic outcomes in adulthood. Table 3 Panels A–D shows that each $1,000 increase in annual childhood EITC exposure increases measures of neighborhood quality by about 1.1–1.4 percentiles (columns 1–5); the impact on test scores is lower at 0.6–0.7 percentiles. In levels, average tract income is about $1,650 higher (column 7) and the fraction with a college degree is about 0.7 percentage points higher (columns 8–9).

In addition to these traits, we use all Opportunity Atlas outcomes available at the Census tract level, and show estimates on these dozens of additional outcomes in the Appendix. Appendix Tables A.1– A.5d show that EITC exposure during childhood leads these children to grow up and—as adults—live in neighborhoods with lower poverty rates, lower shares of single parents, higher employment rates, higher rent, and slightly higher annual job growth. We also find smaller effects on living in places with higher Asian and White population shares, and slightly lower Black population shares. We find largely insignificant impacts on population density, foreign born share, Hispanic share, wage growth, total jobs, and proximity to high paying jobs.

These effects are remarkably consistent across gender and age groups, indicating that childhood EITC exposure leads individuals to reside in—and stay in—higher-quality neighborhoods as adults. Such differences in neighborhood environment have important implications for social networks, local labor markets, school quality, and potentially the outcomes of the next generation. Overall, the findings suggest that the EITC shapes not only individual economic trajectories, but also the residential environments that structure long-run opportunity.

5.3. Childhood EITC Exposure and Adult Outcomes, with Family FE

Earnings, Employment, and Poverty: Using family fixed effects helps control for unobservable traits and provides a stronger causal interpretation of differences in EITC exposure while holding much (though not all) else constant. Using this approach to compare siblings with different levels of childhood EITC exposure, Table 4 shows robust and statistically significant benefits across most outcomes—particularly for men.

For males, greater EITC exposure during ages 0–18 leads to large and significant increases in both earnings and adjusted gross income (AGI) by ages 25–29 (Panels A and B), with gains of around $2,000–$2,400. Smaller and less precise gains are also observed at younger and older ages. For women, point estimates are generally positive but not statistically significant, except for earnings gains at ages 25–29. Across both genders, EITC exposure significantly increases the likelihood of being employed (Panel C), with effects of 1–3 percentage points. Marriage effects (Panel D) are small and mixed: men show small positive effects at younger ages, while women show slight negative effects in their mid-to-late 20s. The strongest and most consistent effects appear in poverty outcomes. EITC exposure reduces the probability of being in deep poverty (income below 50% of the poverty line) and poverty across all age groups and for both men and women (Panels E and F). These poverty reductions are sizable—between 1 and 3 percentage points—and statistically significant at the 1% level in most cases. Compared to previous tables, this sibling comparison design provides stronger internal validity and suggests that EITC exposure during childhood directly improves adult labor market outcomes and reduces poverty, though the use of family fixed effects also limits identifying variation and leads to larger standard errors.

Census Tract Traits: Similar to previous results without family FE, we find that greater EITC exposure during childhood is consistently associated with improved neighborhood environments in adulthood. Across both age groups and genders, higher childhood exposure leads to living in Census tracts with higher household income, greater college attainment, and better academic performance. For instance, a $1,000 increase in average EITC exposure is associated with a 1.1–1.3 percentile increase in the share of tract residents with a college degree, and a similar increase in average household income. These effects are evident

both for adults measured at ages 19–25 and for those measured at 26–34. Similarly, EITC exposure predicts higher—though smaller effects on—average math scores.

EITC exposure also predicts residence in neighborhoods with lower poverty rates. Estimates indicate that childhood exposure leads to a 3.0–3.9 percentage point reduction in tract-level poverty, a finding that holds consistently across Census decades. In addition, individuals exposed to higher EITC benefits during childhood tend to live in tracts with more White and Asian residents and fewer Black and Hispanic residents, suggesting movement into less segregated and potentially more resource-rich neighborhoods. These compositional effects are somewhat larger for men and more pronounced among the younger adult cohort.

Additional tables in the Appendix show that other neighborhood traits improve. Adults with greater EITC exposure during childhood live in tracts with lower shares of single-parent households, higher employment rates, and higher average rents—each of which may reflect stronger local economies and more stable residential environments. For example, a $1,000 increase in childhood exposure is associated with a 5–7 percentage point reduction in the share of single-parent households and a roughly 3 percentage point increase in the tract employment rate. While results for population density and job counts within five miles are smaller and less precise, the broader set of indicators consistently point toward long-term improvements in neighborhood quality.

Overall, the impact of childhood EITC exposure on where these children live when they grow up in their 20s and 30s is positive, and similar with or without family FE.

5.4. Effects on Adult Outcomes by Childhood Age of Exposure

Tables 6 and 7 examine how the effects of childhood EITC exposure impact adult outcomes differently by the age of childhood exposure. These estimates look at the average annual maximum EITC available for ages 0–5, 6–12, and 13–18.

Table 6 focuses on labor market outcomes. Across both genders, EITC exposure in early childhood (ages 0–5) consistently increases wage earnings, AGI, and employment at each stage of adulthood, with effects generally growing larger over time. For example, a $1,000 increase in EITC at ages 0–5 raises male earnings by $309 at ages 19–24, and by over $1,200 at ages 30–34; female estimates are similar in magnitude. Adolescent EITC

exposure (ages 13–18) also yields large, positive effects on later earnings—particularly at older ages. Interestingly, the effects of teenage EITC exposure leads to lower earnings for the youngest age group (ages 19–24), perhaps consistent with increased college enrollment and a lower focus on working full-time.[6] Employment effects are consistently positive across all childhood exposure windows, with comparable magnitudes for men and women.

Table 7 turns to marriage and poverty outcomes. Early-childhood exposure again yields steadily increasing effects on marriage rates, especially by ages 30–34, for both men and women. For example, exposure at ages 0–5 raises marriage rates by 0.5–0.7 percentage points for women by age 30–34. However, as before, effects on marriage are small, generally insignificant, and inconsistently signed.

EITC exposure also generates large and growing reductions in poverty over time. The effects are strongest for deep poverty: a $1,000 increase in EITC during early childhood reduces the probability of being below 50% of the poverty line by 0.7–1.1 percentage points for women and 0.7–0.8 percentage points for men. Adolescent exposure again shows a delayed but sizable impact, particularly in the oldest group, while middle-childhood effects are weaker and often statistically insignificant.

Together, these tables provide further evidence that childhood EITC exposure improves adult outcomes—with gains that not only persist but tend to grow as individuals age into their thirties. Effects are broadly similar across gender, although slightly more pronounced for women in poverty-related outcomes. The timing of exposure matters, with early childhood and adolescence emerging as especially critical periods.

Using Family Fixed Effects: Tables 8 and 9 follow the approach of Tables 6 and 7, but include family FE. Table 8 focuses on labor market outcomes. For men, EITC exposure during adolescence (ages 13–18) consistently predicts improved outcomes. Specifically, adolescent exposure is significantly associated with higher earnings, AGI, and employment across most age groups. These effects are sizable and statistically significant, suggesting that increased family resources during the teenage years may support skill development or

[6]The small positive employment effect and the negative earnings effect may reflect two margins: an increase in working among those who otherwise would not work or attend college, as well as lower earnings among those on the margin of attending college.

educational attainment that translates into better labor market performance. In contrast, exposure at younger ages (0–5 and 6–12) yields weaker or noisier effects, with estimates often imprecise or small. For women, the pattern differs. Early childhood EITC exposure (ages 0–5) predicts significantly higher employment in early adulthood and marginal increases in earnings and AGI at younger adult ages, but the estimates are smaller and less consistent than those for men. Adolescent exposure appears to positively affect women's employment in aggregate but shows no consistent relationship with earnings or AGI.

Table 9 examines impacts on marriage and poverty. For men, EITC exposure during adolescence is positively associated with marriage and significantly reduces the likelihood of living in poverty. Across all three poverty thresholds (below 50%, 100%, and 150% of the federal poverty line), adolescent exposure yields large and statistically significant declines in poverty, especially among men aged 19–29. Early childhood and middle-childhood exposure also predict some reductions in poverty, but effects are generally smaller and less robust. Marriage effects are somewhat mixed, with adolescent exposure again showing the strongest and most consistent positive associations for men. For women, adolescent exposure similarly reduces the likelihood of poverty, though the effects are somewhat smaller in magnitude. Marriage results for women are generally weaker, with no consistent pattern across exposure ages or adult age groups.

Taken together, the results suggest that EITC exposure during adolescence has the most consistent and beneficial impacts on long-run outcomes—especially for men—affecting employment, earnings, marriage, and poverty status. Early childhood exposure shows some positive effects, particularly for women's employment, but these are generally more modest. These results are consistent with the effects-by-childhood-age found by Bastian and Michelmore (2018).

5.5. Alternate Sets of Controls

Table A.8a estimates the effect of childhood EITC exposure on adult outcomes for males. Panels A through D report results for real wage earnings, real adjusted gross income, employment, and poverty status, respectively. Each panel shows coefficients by age of exposure—early childhood (0–5), middle childhood (6–12), and adolescence (13–18)—across six re-

gression specifications with progressively rich sets of controls, including demographics and state-by-year fixed effects.

Results consistently show that greater EITC exposure improves long-run economic outcomes. Exposure during both early childhood and adolescence raises adult earnings and AGI, with the largest effects in Columns 1–2. A $1,000 increase in EITC at ages 0–5 raises adult earnings by roughly $1,600–$1,700. EITC exposure also increases employment and reduces poverty. In Panel C, a $1,000 increase during early childhood raises employment by 1.5–1.7 percentage points. In Panel D, the same increase lowers poverty rates by about 2 percentage points. These effects are stable across specifications, supporting a robust link between EITC exposure and upward mobility.

Table A.8b examines additional outcomes: marriage, mortality, and deeper poverty. EITC exposure at ages 0–5 and 13–18 modestly increases marriage rates (Panel A) and significantly reduces the likelihood of dying before age 30 (Panel B), especially for those exposed during adolescence. Panels C and D show large and consistent declines in the probability of living below 50% or 150% of the poverty line. These findings reinforce earlier results and suggest that the long-run benefits of EITC exposure extend beyond income—shaping life trajectories, survival, and family formation.

Tables A.8c and A.8d present the effects of childhood EITC exposure on adult outcomes for females. Across labor market outcomes (Table A.8c), greater EITC exposure—especially during early childhood and adolescence—substantially increases adult earnings and AGI. A $1,000 increase in maximum EITC between ages 0–5 raises adult wage earnings by roughly $1,700 in the baseline specifications, with similar effects for AGI. Adolescent exposure also shows strong positive effects. Results are somewhat noisier for middle-childhood exposure. EITC exposure also increases employment: early and late childhood exposure each raise employment rates by 0.7–1.2 percentage points. Panel D shows robust declines in poverty, particularly for early childhood exposure, with a $1,000 increase reducing the probability of falling below the poverty line by 2–2.3 percentage points.

Table A.8d examines additional demographic and well-being outcomes. EITC exposure during early childhood and adolescence modestly increases marriage rates in adulthood (Panel A) and reduces mortality before age 30 (Panel B). The largest and most consistent

gains are in poverty reduction: both deep poverty (Panel C) and near-poverty (Panel D) rates fall significantly, with effects concentrated in early childhood and adolescence. These findings mirror patterns for males and underscore the long-term benefits of EITC exposure for women across a range of economic and life outcomes.

5.6. Heterogeneity and Subgroup Analysis

Parental Marital Status: Table 13 presents estimates of the long-run effects of an additional $1,000 in cumulative EITC exposure during childhood (ages 0–18) on adult outcomes, disaggregated by gender, adult age group, and parental marital status during childhood. Across all specifications, EITC exposure is associated with higher earnings, greater employment, and meaningful reductions in poverty for children from both married and unmarried-parent families. As in the previous results, the magnitudes generally increase with age, with larger effects observed for adults ages 26–34 relative to ages 19–25. The patterns are broadly similar for men and women.

The row labeled "All" captures the effect for children who grew up with never-married parents. For this group, EITC exposure is associated with consistent improvements in employment and earnings and sizable reductions in poverty. For example, among men ages 26–34, a $1,000 increase in childhood EITC exposure raises wages by $447 and AGI by $563, increases employment by 1.1 percentage points, and reduces poverty at all thresholds. Similar gains are observed for women, including reductions in poverty exceeding 1 percentage point across multiple thresholds. Effects are somewhat smaller in the early to mid-20s but remain economically meaningful.

The "Avg Married Parent" row captures heterogeneity by the fraction of childhood years spent with married parents (scaled from 0 to 1). Interpreting the coefficients jointly implies that the combined effect of the baseline and interaction terms reflects the impact for children who grew up with always-married parents. In some cases, estimated effects are larger for this group—particularly for older adults. For instance, among men ages 26–34, the interaction term implies substantially larger gains in earnings and AGI for those with consistently married parents. Poverty reductions are also sizable. In other cases—particularly at younger ages—the interaction effects are smaller or even offset part of the baseline, suggesting that

gains are at least as large, and sometimes larger, for children from unmarried-parent families.

Overall, the results indicate that EITC exposure generates positive long-run effects for children regardless of parental marital status. Notably, the presence of substantial gains among children who grew up with married parents suggests that the mechanism is not driven solely by increases in parental labor supply. Because married parents respond less strongly on the labor supply margin to the EITC, these findings point to the importance of transfer income itself—through increased household resources, stability, and investments—as a channel generating lasting improvements in adult employment, earnings, and poverty outcomes.

Parents' Age at Birth: Table 13 examines heterogeneity by parents' age at the time of birth. The "All" row captures the effect for children born to older parents, while the "Young Parents" row reports the differential effect for those whose mother or father was below the sample median age at birth. The total effect for children of younger parents is therefore given by the sum of the two coefficients.

For children of older parents, EITC exposure generates economically meaningful long-run gains. Among men ages 26–34, a $1,000 increase in childhood EITC exposure raises wages by $3,234 and AGI by $3,976, increases employment by 1.7 percentage points, and reduces poverty by roughly 2 percentage points or more across thresholds. Similar magnitudes are observed for women in their late 20s and early 30s, with wage gains exceeding $3,300 and substantial poverty reductions. As in earlier results, effects are smaller in the early 20s but remain positive and statistically significant.

For children of younger parents, the interaction terms often offset a portion of these gains, particularly at older ages. Summing the coefficients implies smaller—and in some cases near-zero—earnings and poverty effects for those born to younger parents by ages 26–34. In contrast, at ages 19–25, the combined effects remain positive and economically meaningful for most outcomes.

Overall, the results indicate that the long-run benefits of EITC exposure are present across parental age groups but are generally larger and more persistent for children born to older parents. As in previous tables, impacts grow with age, reinforcing the pattern that gains from childhood income support strengthen as individuals move into their late 20s and early 30s.

Race and Ethnicity: Tables 10 and 11 present estimates of the long-run effects of an additional $1,000 in cumulative EITC exposure during childhood (ages 0–18) on a range of adult outcomes, disaggregated by race/ethnicity, gender, and adult age group. Across nearly all demographic groups, EITC exposure is associated with improvements in earnings, employment, and reductions in poverty, though effect sizes and statistical significance vary meaningfully by subgroup.

Among men, the largest and most consistent gains are observed for White, Black, and Hispanic individuals. For example, Black men aged 26–34 experience statistically significant increases in earnings ($1,743) and AGI ($1,907), alongside improved employment (+2.1 percentage points) and large reductions in poverty across all thresholds (e.g., −2.2% for deep poverty). Hispanic men in the same age group show similarly strong effects, with increases in earnings ($1,556), AGI ($1,915), and employment (+1.7 percentage points), and statistically significant poverty reductions. White men benefit even more in absolute dollar terms—$3,626 in earnings and $4,415 in AGI—but the relative effects are smaller given higher baseline income levels. Notably, marriage effects are strongest for Black men, with a statistically significant 0.4 percentage point increase in marriage rates, whereas marriage effects are generally small or negative for other groups.

Results for women are qualitatively similar but show smaller earnings effects and somewhat weaker marriage responses. White and Hispanic women exhibit the largest gains. For instance, among women aged 26–34, EITC exposure is associated with an increase of $3,533 in earnings for White women and $1,496 for Hispanic women, with both groups showing increased employment and substantial poverty reductions. Black women also benefit, with positive and significant effects on earnings ($1,450), employment (+1.3 percentage points), and marriage (+0.6 percentage points), as well as sizable declines in poverty. Interestingly, poverty reductions for Black women are among the largest observed in the data—exceeding 3% for both the 100% and 150% poverty thresholds.

By contrast, Asian and Native respondents show weaker or noisier estimates, with several coefficients imprecisely estimated and often statistically insignificant. For example, Asian women exhibit no clear pattern of income or poverty effects and consistently negative marriage estimates, while Native groups show highly variable point estimates with large standard

errors, suggesting limited statistical power.

Overall, the findings point to robust and economically meaningful benefits of EITC exposure for lower-income groups, especially for Black, Hispanic, and White individuals across both genders. Effects are generally larger in magnitude for the older adult group (ages 26–34), consistent with cumulative or lagged benefits from childhood investments translating into stronger labor market attachment and reduced poverty in early adulthood. These patterns underscore the heterogeneous, yet generally positive, long-term effects of income support during childhood.

6. Channels: Childhood EITC and Adult Earnings

Why does EITC exposure improve children's long run outcomes? Previous research motivates a number of channels, including improved parental resources, improved test scores, educational attainment, better health, etc. In this section we focus on neighborhoods where children grow up, and whether the EITC during childhood impacts where families live.

6.1. Short-Run Effects of EITC Exposure on Children's Neighborhoods

We start by estimating the impact of $MaxEITC$ on the likelihood of moving Census tracts using equation (4). Panels A and B in Table 13 show that each $1,000 increase in $MaxEITC$ decreases the average likelihood of moving within 1, 2, and 3 years by about 0.5, 0.8, and 0.95 percentage points, with nearly identical results for boys and girls (see columns 1–3). The effects suggest that the impact of the EITC accumulates over time. These results are consistent with Pilkauskas and Michelmore (2018) which also found that EITC expansions are associated with residential stability and less moving. While Bastian and Black (2023) found that the EITC led to higher migration out of rural and distressed areas, that was a particular type of family, whereas these results speak to the entire population.

While these effects are averaged over a child's life, effects may differ by children's age. Figure 5a shows the impact of $MaxEITC$ by a child's age using equation (5) and shows that the effects are larger for older children. Effects are around 0.3 percentage points for the youngest children and grow as children age until it flattens out when children are teenagers

at about 0.7, 1.0, and 1.2 percentage points, for moving within 1, 2, or 3 years.

Neighborhood Quality: Even though the average effect on moving Census tracts is negative, it is possible that the EITC also allows other families to relocate to more attractive places. To test this, we estimate equation (5) and examine whether families move to higher quality neighborhoods within 1, 2, or 3 years. We measure neighborhood quality using ten Census-tract-level traits from the Opportunity Atlas, including average income, education, poverty, single parenthood, and school test scores. To show results are robust to alternate measures of quality, we use a variety of traits as well as traits measured between 1990 and 2016. Binary outcomes are defined as moving to a higher quality tract between year t (when $MaxEITC$ is measured) and year $t + 2$.

Panels A and B in Table 13 (columns 4–7) and Table 13 shows the positive effect of $MaxEITC$ on moving to higher-quality neighborhoods, across all 10 measures of neighborhood quality. These results can also be seen in panel A of Figure 6.[7]

In addition to the average effect, we also estimate the impact by children's ages. Figures 5b and 5c show that we find the largest effects on the youngest children, with effects falling by age and flattening out by about age 10. For 9 of the 10 traits, the estimate on $MaxEITC$ is about 0.8 percentage points for the youngest children, and about 0.4 percentage points for older children. Estimates for the other trait—tract quality defined by test scores—are about half the size as the other traits, though still positive and significant. For all 10 traits, the patterns for boys and girls are essentially identical.

To better understand the type of children affected by EITC expansions—and to see if heterogeneity aligns with differences in the longer-run outcomes—we explore subgroup effects using equation (6). Panels C and D in Tables 13 and 13 show that additional EITC exposure leads children from all racial and ethnic groups to move less frequently while also shifting toward higher-quality neighborhoods. The declines in mobility are consistent across groups, with White and Asian children showing some of the largest reductions in moving within 1–3 years. At the same time, the EITC strongly increases the likelihood of moving to tracts

[7]Panel B shows the impact on neighborhood traits in levels: many are significant, but some are not, likely reflecting changes in places over time—for example, areas with high average income in 1990 may not have remained high-income by 2000 or 2010.

with higher income, education, and other measures of quality. These positive effects are particularly pronounced for Black, Hispanic, and Native children. For example, the impact of $MaxEITC$ on average household income in 2000 for females is positive across all six groups: about 0.3 percentage points for White and Asian children, 0.5 percentage points for Hispanic children, and more than 0.7 percentage points for Black and Native children. Overall, the pattern of results is remarkably consistent across men and women, underscoring that the EITC facilitates moves into higher-opportunity neighborhoods.

We also examine heterogeneity by parental marital status and parental age using equation (6).[8] Panels A and B of Tables 13 and 13 show that children with married parents experience larger reductions in cross-tract moves—on the order of 1–2 percentage points within 1–3 years—while children of unmarried parents exhibit smaller declines in mobility but larger gains in neighborhood quality. For instance, EITC exposure raises the likelihood that children of unmarried parents live in higher-income tracts by roughly 0.7 percentage points, compared to near-zero effects for children of married parents. Taken together, these results suggest that the EITC promotes residential stability for married-parent households while facilitating moves to higher-opportunity neighborhoods for unmarried-parent households.

Panels C and D show that results also differ by parental age: both younger- and older-parent households move less in response to the EITC, but the improvements in neighborhood quality are somewhat larger for children of younger parents. For instance, average household income in 2000 rises by about 0.5 percentage points for children of younger parents, compared to roughly 0.4 percentage points for children of older parents. Overall, these results highlight that the EITC not only reduces mobility but also facilitates moves into higher-quality neighborhoods, with the largest neighborhood improvements concentrated among children of unmarried and younger parents.

These estimates show that the EITC—a cash transfer unrelated to moving or neighborhoods—reduces overall residential mobility while also enabling some families to remain stably housed and others to move into higher-opportunity neighborhoods.

[8] Parental age is measured at the child's birth and thus takes one fixed value per child.

6.2. Mediation Analysis: What Intermediate Outcomes Lead to EITC's Long-Run Gains?

Childhood EITC exposure raises adult earnings by roughly 2,600–2,700 at ages 26–34. A central question is *through what channels* these long-run gains emerge. The EITC may affect children through multiple pathways: by increasing parental earnings and employment, raising after-tax transfer income, improving neighborhood quality (including schools, peers, and local networks), and enhancing health, educational attainment, and non-cognitive skills. Our goal in this section is to quantify how much each channel can plausibly explain of the total adult earnings effect.

Our approach combines our estimates of how childhood $MaxEITC$ affects potential mediators with established causal estimates from prior research linking each mediator to adult earnings—conceptually similar to a Gelbach decomposition. Because many mechanisms overlap (for example, income affects neighborhoods, which in turn affect education and health), the resulting contributions should be interpreted individually rather than cumulatively.

To implement this framework, we proceed in three steps. First, we estimate how a \$1,000 increase in childhood $MaxEITC$ exposure affects mediators. We find that such exposure raises neighborhood tract quality by 1.8 percentiles, increases parental earnings by \$558 (about 2.1 percent), and increases average EITC transfer income by roughly \$350 (Bastian and Jones, 2021). Prior research shows that EITC exposure reduces low birthweight by 2–3 percent (Hoynes, Miller, and Simon, 2015), improves non-cognitive skills by 0.05–0.06 standard deviations (Hamad and Rehkopf, 2016; Averett and Wang, 2018), increases childhood test scores by 0.04–0.08 standard deviations (Dahl and Lochner, 2012), raises high school graduation by 1.2 percentage points and college graduation by 1.3 percentage points (Bastian and Michelmore, 2018), and improves adult health by 1.7 percentage points in good or excellent health while reducing obesity by 0.8 percentage points (Braga, Blavin, and Gangopadhyaya, 2020).

Second, we draw on estimates linking each mediator to adult earnings. In our data, each 1-percentile increase in neighborhood rank during childhood is associated with roughly \$285 higher adult earnings. Intergenerational income correlations of 0.3–0.4 imply substantial

pass-through from parental earnings (Solon, 1992; Chetty et al., 2014). Barr, Eggleston, and Smith (2022) estimate that $1,000 of EITC income during infancy raises adult earnings by $300–$500. A 10 percent increase in birthweight raises earnings by about 1 percent, with larger effects for low-birthweight infants (Black, Devereux, and Salvanes, 2006). A one-standard-deviation increase in non-cognitive skills raises earnings by 10–15 percent (Lindqvist and Vestman, 2011), while a one-standard-deviation increase in childhood test scores raises earnings by about 18 percent (Chetty et al., 2011). High school graduation increases earnings by 20–30 percent (roughly $6,000–$9,000), and college graduation by approximately $25,000. Good adult health is associated with 10–20 percent higher earnings (Smith, 2013). We use $30,000 as a baseline annual earnings level to convert percentage effects into dollar magnitudes.

Combining these two steps yields approximate contributions per $1,000 in childhood $MaxEITC$ exposure. Neighborhood quality alone accounts for roughly $510 in higher adult earnings. Parental earnings contribute approximately $170–$220, and direct EITC transfer income accounts for an additional $110–$180. Improvements in infant health predict gains of $180–$270. Non-cognitive skill development explains roughly $150–$270, while higher test scores account for $220–$430. Educational attainment contributes meaningfully, with high school graduation adding $80–$110 and college graduation about $325. Improved adult health contributes an additional $60–$120.

Taken together, these estimates suggest that the primary channels linking childhood EITC exposure to higher adult earnings are improvements in neighborhood quality, human capital accumulation (both cognitive and non-cognitive), and health. While these magnitudes are not additive—given the strong complementarities and overlapping mechanisms—they indicate that the EITC operates through a broad set of reinforcing pathways. Increased family income appears to improve children's environments, skills, and health in ways that compound over time, generating sustained gains in labor market attachment and earnings well into adulthood.

7. Conclusion

Policymakers have long grappled with how to support families in struggling regions. One strategy is to direct resources toward revitalizing distressed communities (Bartik, 1991; Shambaugh and Nunn, 2018); another is to equip families with the means to relocate to areas offering greater opportunity (Bergman et al., 2024; Ziliak, 2019). Our study focuses on the latter, showing that the EITC—a transfer program not explicitly designed to influence location decisions—nonetheless helps families move into higher-opportunity neighborhoods. Although our analysis centers on the EITC, the results are informative for any intervention that relaxes the financial constraints of low-income households.

Across a wide range of specifications, we find that childhood EITC exposure improves adult employment, earnings, and poverty outcomes, with effects that grow over time. A $1,000 increase in cumulative childhood exposure raises annual earnings by roughly $2,600–$2,700 by ages 26–34, increases employment, reduces deep and near poverty, and improves neighborhood quality in adulthood. These gains are evident across race, gender, and family background, though magnitudes vary. Importantly, the largest effects tend to emerge in the late 20s and early 30s, consistent with cumulative investments in skills, health, and location translating into stronger labor market attachment over time.

The results for children who grew up with married parents are especially informative. Because married parents exhibit smaller labor supply responses to the EITC, positive long-run effects for their children suggest that transfer income itself—not only induced parental earnings increases—plays a central role in generating lasting gains. The evidence indicates that additional household resources improve children's environments, health, education, and neighborhood exposure in ways that persist into adulthood. In other words, the EITC's long-run impact does not operate solely through short-run labor supply incentives but through broader income and investment channels that shape child development.

Taken together with Bergman et al. (2024), our findings suggest that pairing income supports with better information about the economic prospects of different places could further improve relocation decisions and amplify the benefits of migration.

Geographic disparities in the U.S. have deepened, and where a child grows up increas-

ingly shapes economic mobility (Chetty et al., 2014; Gaubert et al., 2021). This reality raises a pressing question for policy: should efforts concentrate on reviving distressed areas or on helping families access stronger labor markets and schools elsewhere (Ziliak, 2019)? Migration can unlock better opportunities, but moving is costly and often out of reach for low-income families. Policies that expand household resources can help overcome these barriers and narrow gaps in access to opportunity.

Our evidence highlights the role of income supports in reducing geographic inequality, enhancing upward mobility, and interrupting intergenerational cycles of poverty. By documenting how EITC-driven moves affect neighborhood quality and adult outcomes, the study underscores the promise of people-based policies relative to traditional place-based approaches (Bartik, 2020; Ziliak, 2019). Specifically, we show that the EITC reduces poverty and supports intergenerational mobility in part by enabling families to relocate to neighborhoods with better schools, jobs, and community resources. These changes generate long-term benefits for both children and parents and offer practical lessons for policy design, demonstrating how income supports can promote residential stability for some households while enabling others to access higher-opportunity environments.

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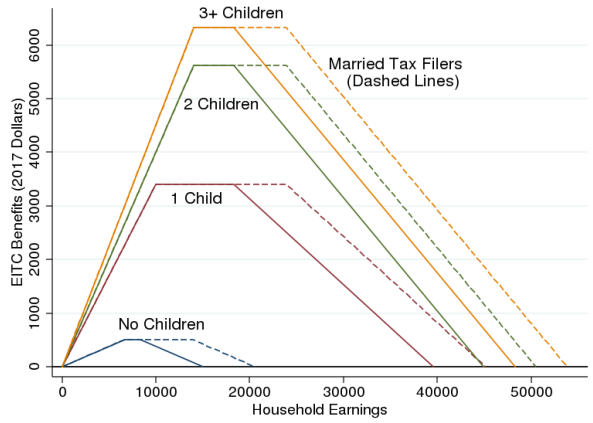
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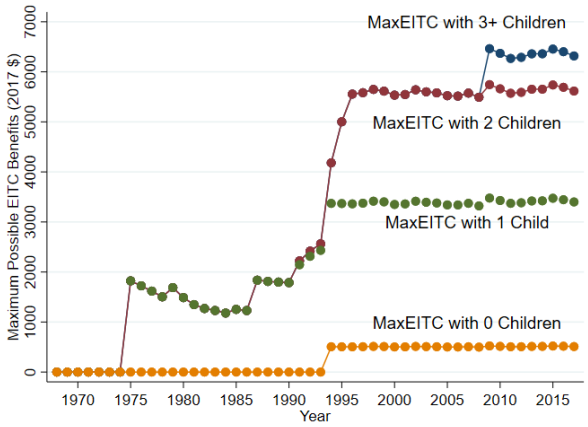
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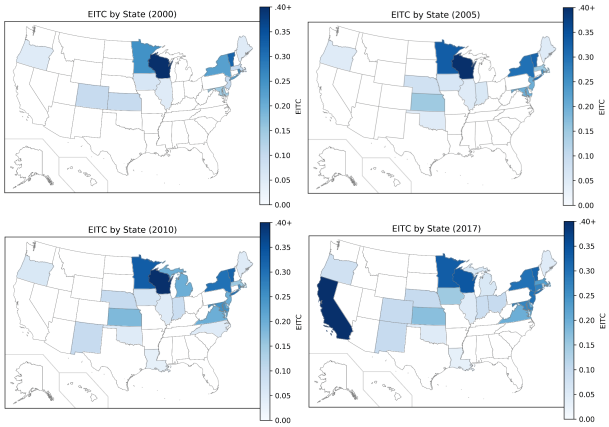
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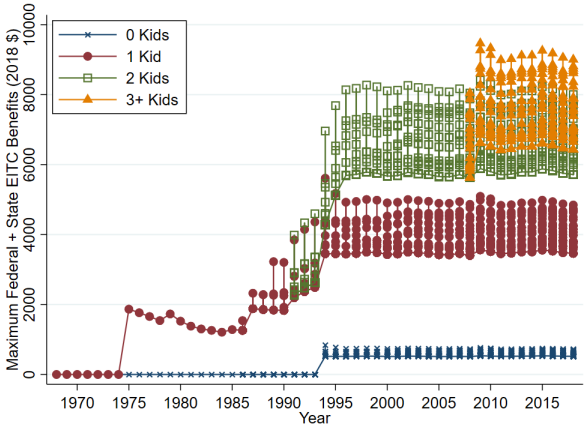
(a) Federal EITC Structure, 2017



(b) Maximum Possible Federal EITC Over Time

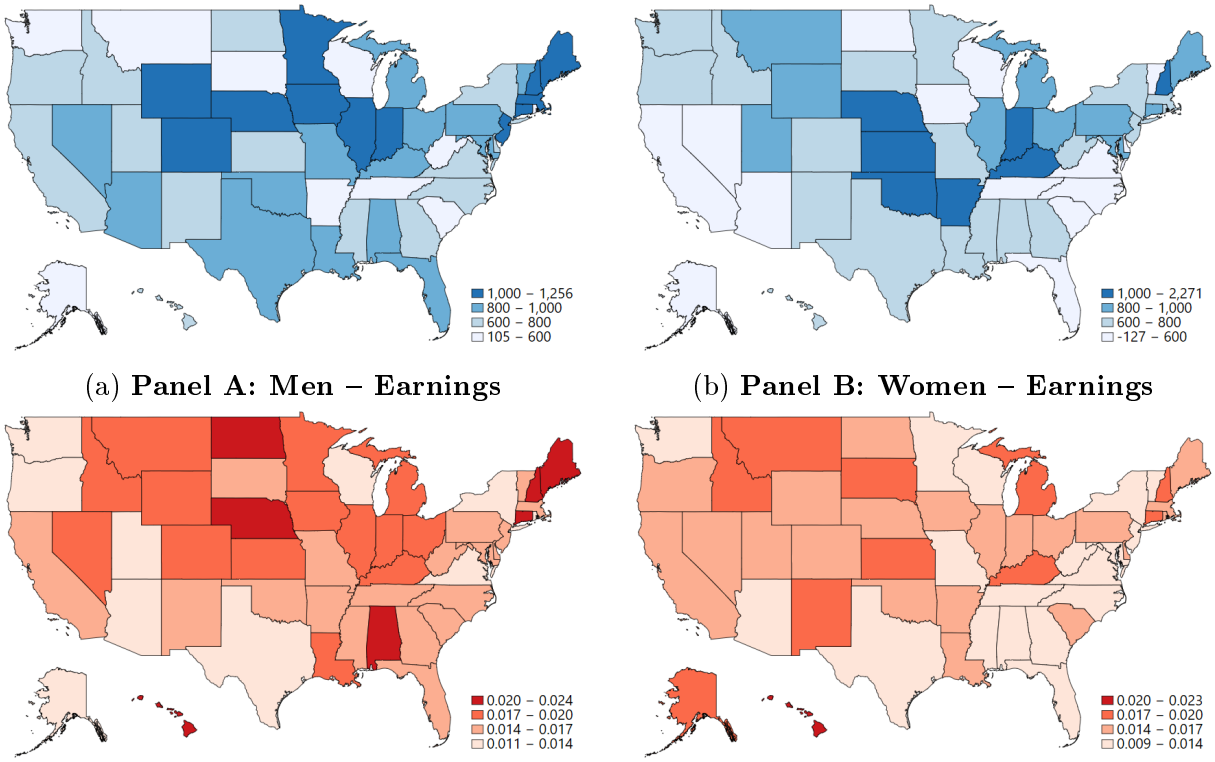


(c) State EITC Rates Over Time



(d) Maximum Possible Federal + State EITC Over Time

Figure 1. Federal and state EITC structures and benefits. Source: (Bastian and Lochner, 2022).



(a) **Panel A: Men – Earnings**

(b) **Panel B: Women – Earnings**

(c) **Panel C: Men – Employment**

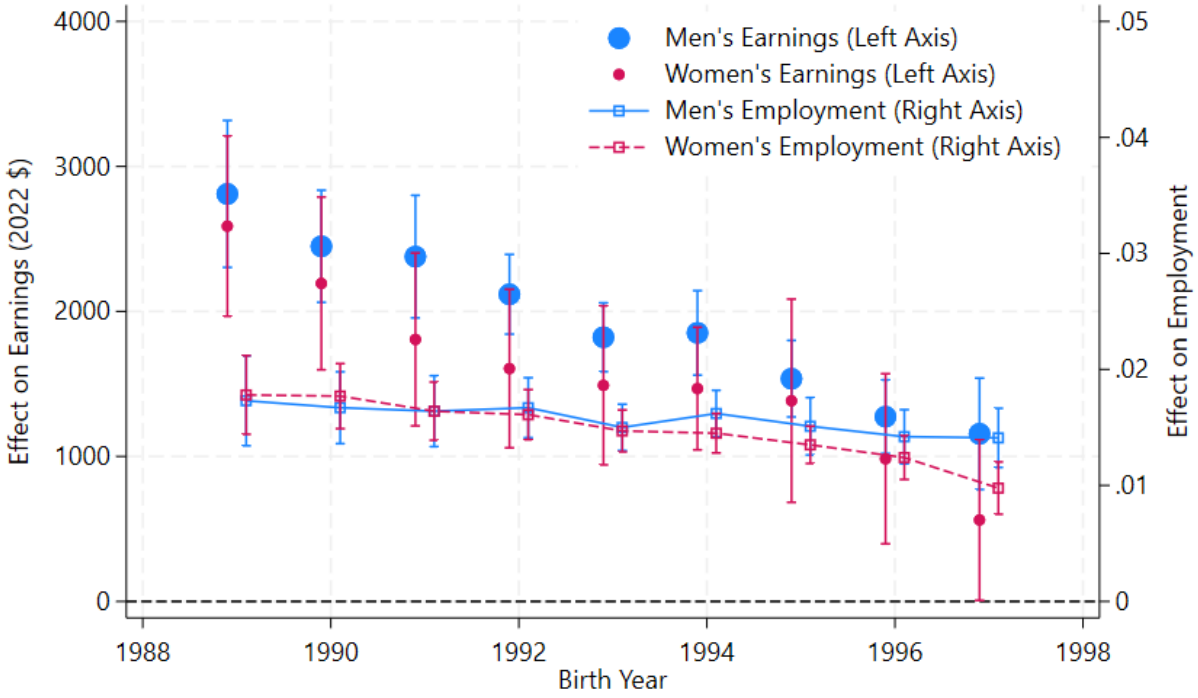
(d) **Panel D: Women – Employment**

Figure 2. **State-Level Impact of MaxEITC on Earnings and Employment, by Gender**

Source: xxx



(a) **Effect of Childhood EITC on Earnings and Employment, by Gender and Age**



(b) **Effect of Childhood EITC on Earnings and Employment, by Gender and Birth Year**

Figure 3. **Effects of Childhood EITC on Earnings and Employment by Age and Cohort**

Source: xxx

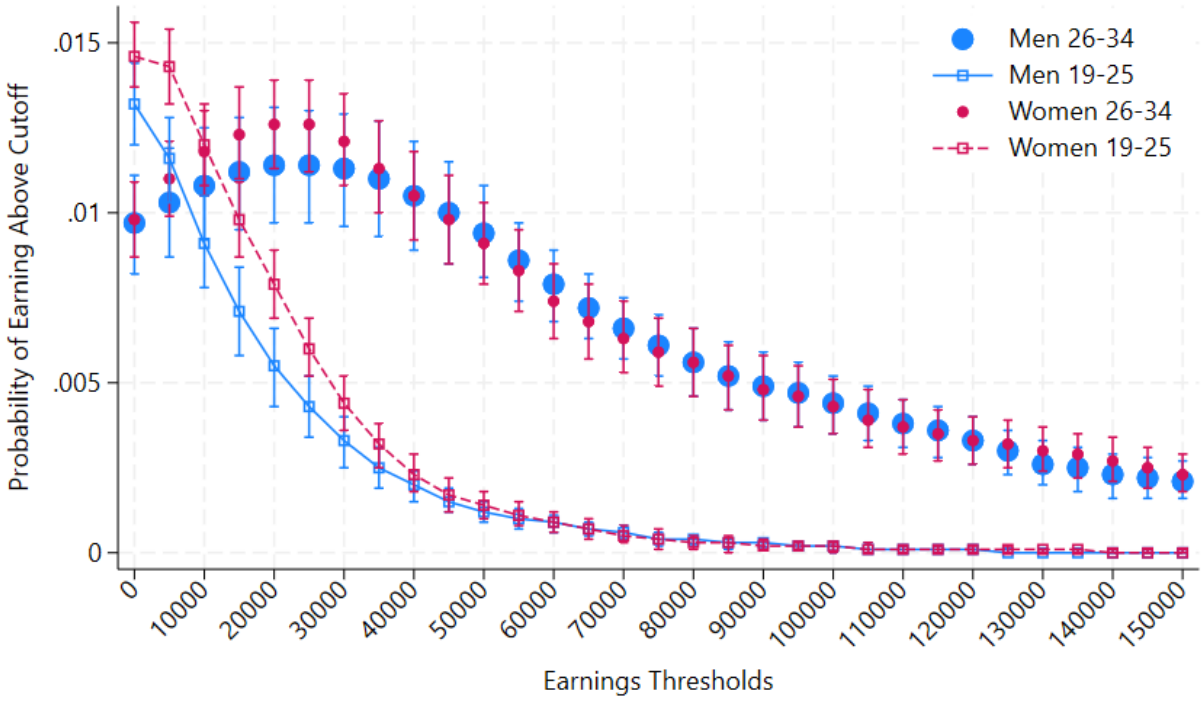
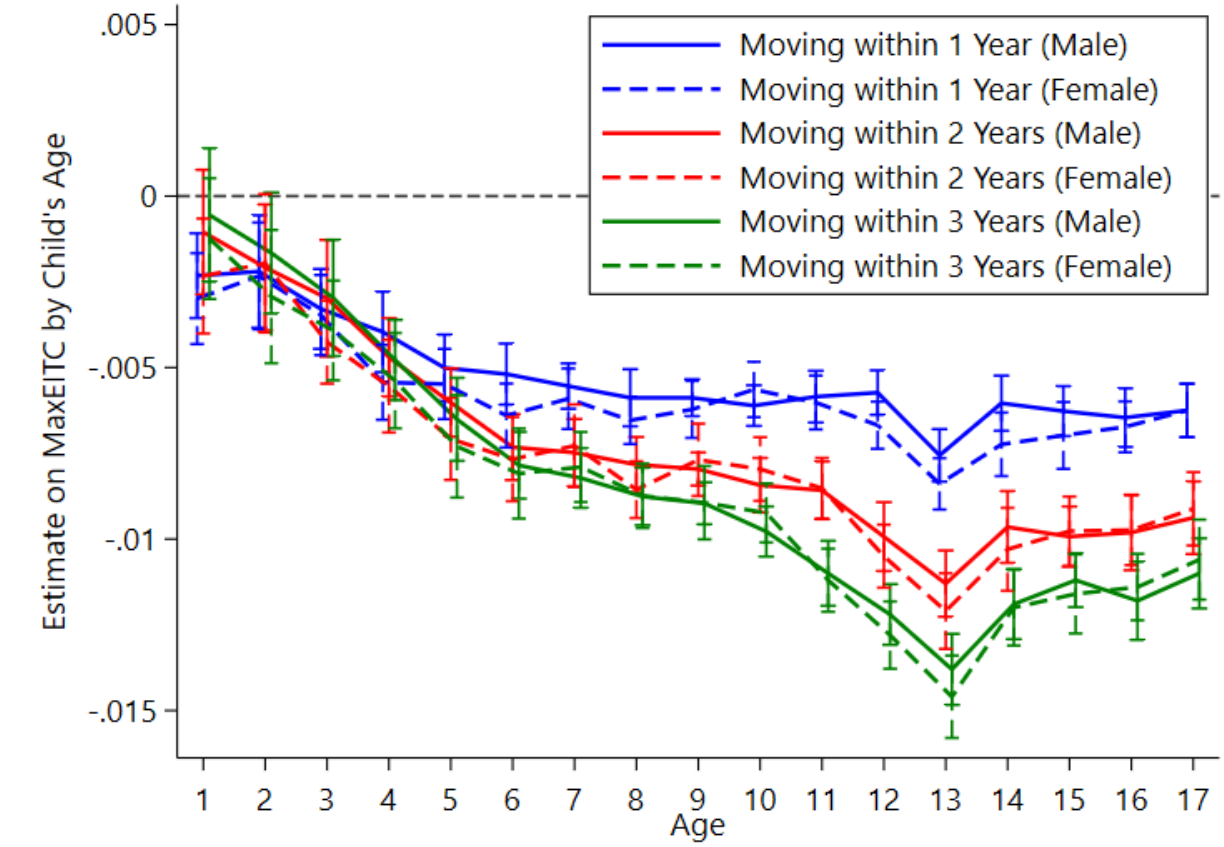
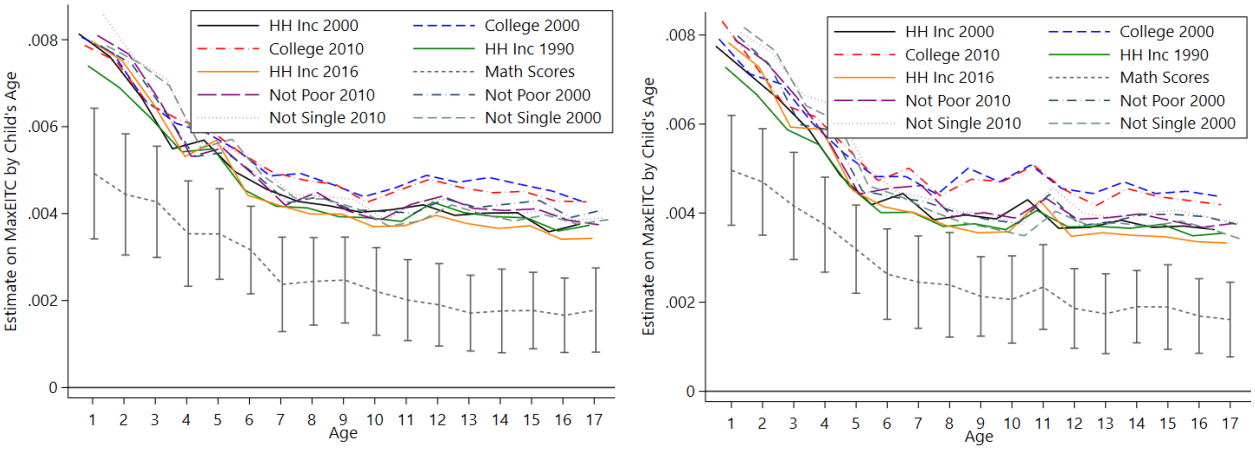


Figure 4. **Effect of Childhood EITC on Earning Distribution, by Gender and Age**

Source: xxx



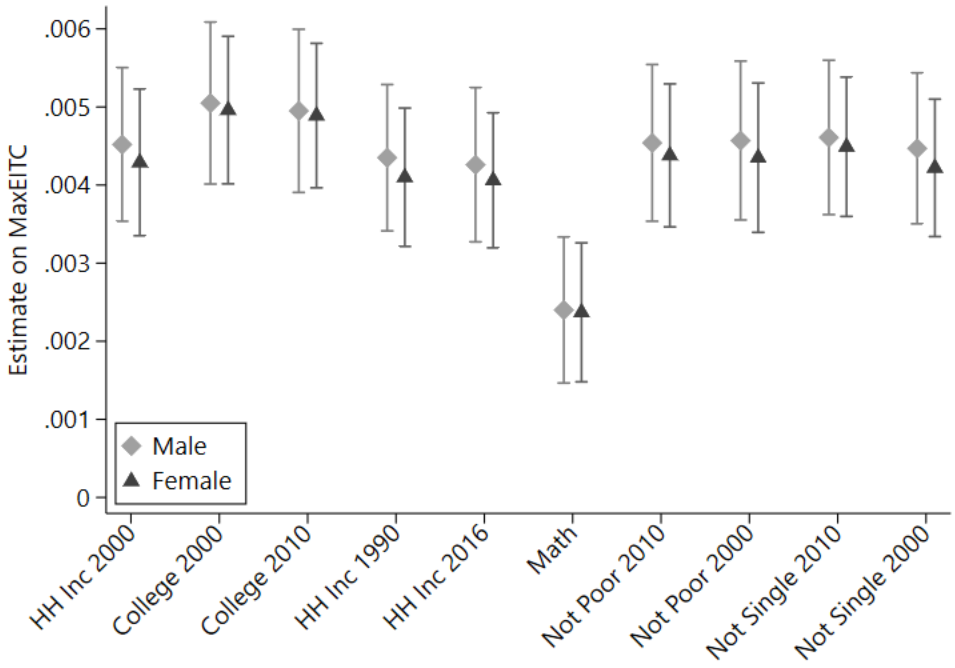
(a) Effect of EITC on Moving During Childhood, by Age



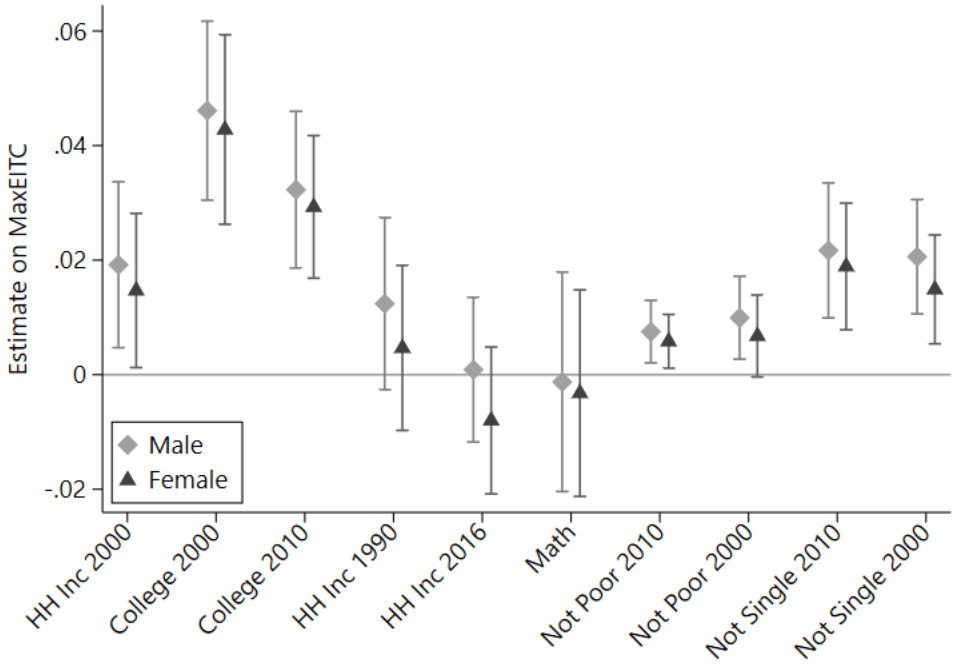
(b) Males

(c) Females

Figure 5. **Effect of EITC on Moving and Tract Traits During Childhood, by Age**
Source: xxx



(a) **Effect of EITC on Moving to a Higher-Quality Tract During Childhood**



(b) **Effect of EITC on Tract Traits During Childhood**

Figure 6. **Effects of EITC Exposure on Childhood Neighborhood Outcomes**
Source: xxx

Table 1: Summary Statistics by Age Group (Means and SDs)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Sample:	**Age 0–18**	**Age 19–24**	**Age 25–29**	**Age 30–34**	**Age 19–34**
Year	2006 (5.95)	2016 (3.66)	2019 (2.19)	2021 (0.983)	2018 (3.52)
Age	9.761 (5.24)	21.27 (1.68)	26.67 (1.38)	30.96 (0.983)	23.46 (3.52)
Birth Year	1996 (3.79)	1995 (3.62)	1992 (2.23)	1990 (1.00)	1994 (3.56)
Female	0.494 (0.5)	0.494 (0.5)	0.496 (0.5)	0.497 (0.5)	0.495 (0.5)
White	0.556 (0.497)	0.566 (0.496)	0.585 (0.493)	0.611 (0.488)	0.574 (0.494)
Black	0.202 (0.402)	0.200 (0.400)	0.196 (0.397)	0.185 (0.389)	0.198 (0.398)
Hispanic	0.182 (0.386)	0.178 (0.382)	0.168 (0.374)	0.157 (0.364)	0.173 (0.379)
Asian	0.027 (0.162)	0.026 (0.160)	0.025 (0.155)	0.024 (0.152)	0.026 (0.158)
Native American	0.001 (0.035)	— (0.034)	— (0.032)	— (0.032)	— (0.034)
Number of Siblings	1.338 (0.612)	—	—	—	—
Married Parents	0.531 (0.385)	—	—	—	—
Parental Age	39.13 (8.2)	—	—	—	—
Avg. Max EITC (Ages 0–5)	4314 (1626)	4239 (1583)	3995 (1409)	3763 (1182)	4138 (1518)
Avg. Max EITC (Ages 6–12)	4863 (1739)	4851 (1702)	4848 (1628)	4839 (1561)	4849 (1672)
Avg. Max EITC (Ages 13–18)	4870 (1976)	4838 (1922)	4758 (1796)	4740 (1690)	4808 (1872)
Avg. Max EITC (Ages 0–18)	4773 (1527)	4749 (1498)	4691 (1429)	4665 (1369)	4727 (1470)
Parental Real Wage Earnings	78600 (237000)	—	—	—	—
Parental Real AGI	88200 (449000)	—	—	—	—
Moved Tracts, 1 Year	0.259 (0.438)	0.195 (0.396)	0.183 (0.386)	0.161 (0.368)	0.190 (0.392)
Moved Tracts, 2 Years	0.400 (0.49)	0.310 (0.462)	0.292 (0.455)	0.267 (0.442)	0.304 (0.460)
Moved Tracts, 3 Years	0.492 (0.500)	0.392 (0.488)	0.371 (0.483)	0.349 (0.477)	0.387 (0.487)
Real Wage Earnings	—	14800 (69900)	38600 (118200)	57200 (99200)	24400 (89300)
Real Adjusted Gross Income	—	15500 (48600)	40900 (105800)	63300 (179400)	26000 (84600)
Employed	—	0.675 (0.468)	0.770 (0.421)	0.768 (0.422)	0.709 (0.454)
Married	—	0.059 (0.235)	0.204 (0.403)	0.327 (0.469)	0.118 (0.323)
Below 50% of Poverty Line	—	0.458 (0.498)	0.261 (0.439)	0.240 (0.427)	0.388 (0.487)
Below Poverty Line	—	0.640 (0.480)	0.366 (0.482)	0.321 (0.467)	0.541 (0.498)
Below 150% of Poverty Line	—	0.771 (0.420)	0.466 (0.499)	0.399 (0.490)	0.659 (0.474)
Observations	21320000	4430000	1920000	480000	6820000
Unique Individuals	850000	180000	72000	18000	260000

Notes: Table reports means with standard deviations in parentheses. All income values are in real dollars. "—" indicates not applicable or unavailable.

Table 2: Effect of Childhood Exposure to EITC on Adult Outcomes

Outcome:	**Real Wages** (1)	**Real AGI** (2)	**Labor Force** (3)	**Married** (4)	**Poverty <100%** (5)	**Poverty <150%** (6)
Panel A: Sample = Men Ages 19–25						
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	389.8	457.2	1.53	-0.12	-0.70	-0.55
	(43.81)	(49.57)	(0.09)	(0.03)	(0.06)	(0.05)
Observations	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000
Panel B: Sample = Men Ages 26–34						
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	2700	3241	1.63	0.14	-2.05	-2.28
	(190.7)	(272.2)	(0.15)	(0.10)	(0.17)	(0.16)
Observations	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000
Panel C: Sample = Women Ages 19–25						
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	301.7	287.4	1.32	-0.30	-0.81	-0.65
	(43.23)	(52.88)	(0.07)	(0.04)	(0.09)	(0.07)
Observations	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000
Panel D: Sample = Women Ages 26–34						
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	2596	2453	1.54	0.30	-2.53	-2.63
	(277.6)	(382.9)	(0.10)	(0.13)	(0.14)	(0.14)
Observations	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000

Notes: Each column reports results from separate regressions. Robust standard errors in parentheses, clustered at the state level. Outcomes in columns 3–6 are multiplied by 100 and thus are in percentage points.

Table 3: Childhood EITC Exposure on Adult Census-Tract Traits (Additional Traits in Appendix)

Tract Trait Outcome:	**HH Income 2000 Std**	**HH Income 1990 Std**	**HH Income 2016 Std**	**College 2000 Pct Std**	**College 2010 Pct Std**	**Math Score Pct Std**	**HH Income 2000**	**College 2000 Pct**	**College 2010 Pct**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Panel A: Sample = Men Ages 19–25 (Observations = 2,492,000)									
MaxEITC	1.36	1.27	1.27	1.15	1.14	0.703	0.165	0.067	0.072
Ages 0–18	(0.066)	(0.078)	(0.055)	(0.077)	(0.071)	(0.071)	(0.009)	(0.004)	(0.005)
Panel B: Sample = Men Ages 26–34 (Observations = 903,000)									
MaxEITC	1.33	1.20	1.20	1.30	1.27	0.709	0.164	0.076	0.081
Ages 0–18	(0.091)	(0.094)	(0.079)	(0.115)	(0.114)	(0.073)	(0.010)	(0.006)	(0.007)
Panel C: Sample = Women Ages 19–25 (Observations = 2,434,000)									
MaxEITC	1.32	1.23	1.21	1.19	1.12	0.655	0.165	0.070	0.073
Ages 0–18	(0.080)	(0.088)	(0.062)	(0.078)	(0.079)	(0.081)	(0.011)	(0.005)	(0.005)
Panel D: Sample = Women Ages 26–34 (Observations = 888,000)									
MaxEITC	1.35	1.26	1.15	1.29	1.20	0.567	0.164	0.075	0.077
Ages 0–18	(0.102)	(0.108)	(0.095)	(0.112)	(0.121)	(0.097)	(0.012)	(0.006)	(0.007)

Notes: Each column reports a separate regression of the indicated Opportunity Atlas outcome on EITC exposure between ages 0–18. Standard errors in parentheses.

Table 4: Effect of EITC Exposure on Adult Outcomes, by Gender and Age, with Family FE

Sample:	**Age 19–24 Men**	**Age 25–29 Men**	**Age 30–34 Men**	**Age 19–34 Men**	**Age 19–24 Women**	**Age 25–29 Women**	**Age 30–34 Women**	**Age 19–34 Women**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Panel A: Outcome = Earnings								
MaxEITC	400	1932	1500	248.4	-2.039	927.2	3146	-288.5
Ages 0–18	(166.5)	(549.5)	(2811)	(236.9)	(236.7)	(406.1)	(2178)	(214.3)
Panel B: Outcome = AGI								
MaxEITC	426.4	2434	3664	471.5	-20.09	674.3	4282	-291.8
Ages 0–18	(175.4)	(843)	(3266)	(303.8)	(245.2)	(451.1)	(2763)	(225.7)
Panel C: Outcome = Working								
MaxEITC	1.83	2.18	2.87	1.62	1.58	1.10	1.20	1.25
Ages 0–18	(0.20)	(0.40)	(1.23)	(0.19)	(0.20)	(0.44)	(1.43)	(0.20)
Panel D: Outcome = Married								
MaxEITC	0.26	0.65	0.95	0.15	0.10	-0.59	1.38	-0.22
Ages 0–18	(0.09)	(0.34)	(1.03)	(0.14)	(0.11)	(0.26)	(1.19)	(0.11)
Panel E: Outcome = Poverty <50%								
MaxEITC	-1.78	-2.06	-3.15	-1.47	-1.50	-1.46	-2.28	-1.16
Ages 0–18	(0.22)	(0.37)	(1.26)	(0.21)	(0.23)	(0.40)	(1.38)	(0.20)
Panel F: Outcome = Poverty <100%								
MaxEITC	-1.39	-2.37	-3.41	-1.15	-1.01	-2.16	-2.60	-0.92
Ages 0–18	(0.21)	(0.41)	(1.29)	(0.20)	(0.20)	(0.45)	(1.24)	(0.19)

Notes: Each cell reports a separate regression of the outcome on EITC exposure during ages 0–18, controlling for family fixed effects. Standard errors in parentheses. Observations by column: (1) 1,803,000; (2) 709,000; (3) 168,000; (4) 2,680,000; (5) 1,761,000; (6) 698,000; (7) 165,000; (8) 2,624,000.

Table 5: EITC Exposure on Tract Traits with Family FE (Additional Traits in Appendix)

Sample:	**Age 19–24 Men**	**Age 25–29 Men**	**Age 30–34 Men**	**Age 19–34 Men**	**Age 19–24 Women**	**Age 25–29 Women**	**Age 30–34 Women**	**Age 19–34 Women**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Panel A: Outcome = % Tract HHs Above 2000 Poverty Line								
MaxEITC	1.158	1.134	1.271	1.154	0.738	0.768	1.021	0.758
Ages 0–18	(0.115)	(0.198)	(0.544)	(0.112)	(0.127)	(0.176)	(0.543)	(0.119)
Panel B: Outcome = % Tract Adults w/ College 2000								
MaxEITC	0.950	1.074	1.028	0.992	0.653	0.873	1.239	0.706
Ages 0–18	(0.0959)	(0.169)	(0.466)	(0.0944)	(0.127)	(0.181)	(0.628)	(0.123)
Panel C: Outcome = % Tract Adults w/ College 2010								
MaxEITC	0.933	1.127	1.239	0.996	0.612	0.818	1.619	0.688
Ages 0–18	(0.111)	(0.200)	(0.456)	(0.105)	(0.136)	(0.198)	(0.563)	(0.131)
Panel D: Outcome = % Tract HHs Above 1990 Poverty Line								
MaxEITC	1.058	1.046	1.140	1.058	0.741	0.755	0.988	0.744
Ages 0–18	(0.116)	(0.182)	(0.467)	(0.110)	(0.120)	(0.175)	(0.496)	(0.112)
Panel E: Outcome = % Tract HHs Above 2016 Poverty Line								
MaxEITC	1.130	1.106	0.962	1.115	0.628	0.440	0.952	0.625
Ages 0–18	(0.087)	(0.206)	(0.575)	(0.0967)	(0.104)	(0.147)	(0.510)	(0.0917)
Panel F: Outcome = % Tract 3rd Grade Math Proficiency								
MaxEITC	0.650	0.667	0.843	0.654	0.420	0.600	1.807	0.480
Ages 0–18	(0.0917)	(0.167)	(0.557)	(0.0892)	(0.0986)	(0.158)	(0.526)	(0.0959)

Notes: Each cell reports a separate regression of the outcome on MaxEITC Ages 0–18, controlling for family fixed effects. Standard errors in parentheses. Observations by column: (1) 2,242,000; (2) 930,000; (3) 224,000; (4) 3,395,000; (5) 2,188,000; (6) 913,000; (7) 221,000; (8) 3,322,000. Panel F observations: (1) 2,237,000; (2) 928,000; (3) 223,000; (4) 3,388,000; (5) 2,184,000; (6) 911,000; (7) 220,000; (8) 3,315,000.

Table 6: EITC Exposure by Childhood Age on Adult Outcomes, by Gender and Age

Sample:	**Male 19–24**	**Male 25–29**	**Male 30–34**	**Female 19–24**	**Female 25–29**	**Female 30–34**
	(1)	**(2)**	**(3)**	**(4)**	**(5)**	**(6)**
Panel A: Outcome = Real Wage Earnings						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	309.2	633.2	1268	288.3	620.4	890.6
	(28.99)	(92.18)	(232.7)	(23.56)	(133.9)	(286.4)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	210.5	115.9	416.3	110	-206	612.4
	(34.34)	(157.2)	(297)	(42.74)	(194)	(281.2)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-140.2	1307	3157	-78.67	1288	3560
	(17.24)	(155.8)	(337.1)	(40.81)	(110.4)	(271.2)
Panel B: Outcome = Real Adjusted Gross Income						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	339.4	647.1	1398	308.2	683.1	778.4
	(32.57)	(119.3)	(364.7)	(24.25)	(143.7)	(397.1)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	244.9	118.7	540.4	100.4	-247.8	1219
	(32.06)	(188.7)	(363.7)	(45.15)	(205)	(759.6)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-146.1	1461	4260	-102.5	1315	2537
	(24.75)	(184.8)	(539.1)	(40.3)	(146.6)	(929.3)
Panel C: Outcome = Employed (in Percentage Points)						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	0.75	0.65	0.90	0.75	0.69	1.01
	(0.06)	(0.09)	(0.18)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.17)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	0.60	0.44	0.31	0.62	0.22	0.29
	(0.08)	(0.12)	(0.20)	(0.05)	(0.09)	(0.13)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	0.34	0.72	1.04	0.08	0.74	0.88
	(0.04)	(0.09)	(0.22)	(0.05)	(0.08)	(0.13)

Notes: Each panel reports effects by gender and adult age group. Standard errors in parentheses. Observations by column: (1) 1,803,000; (2) 709,000; (3) 168,000; (4) 1,761,000; (5) 698,000; (6) 165,000.

Table 7: EITC Exposure by Childhood Age on Marriage and Poverty, by Gender and Age

Sample:	**Male 19–24**	**Male 25–29**	**Male 30–34**	**Female 19–24**	**Female 25–29**	**Female 30–34**
Panel A: Outcome = Married (in Percentage Points)						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	0.130	0.306	0.550	0.161	0.507	0.689
	(0.022)	(0.072)	(0.159)	(0.028)	(0.109)	(0.155)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.009	0.003	0.138	-0.049	-0.094	0.282
	(0.030)	(0.085)	(0.178)	(0.034)	(0.073)	(0.200)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-0.182	-0.235	0.489	-0.313	-0.226	0.537
	(0.030)	(0.061)	(0.169)	(0.030)	(0.074)	(0.137)
Panel B: Outcome = Below 50% of Poverty Line (in Percentage Points)						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.71	-0.68	-0.83	-0.71	-0.86	-1.08
	(0.05)	(0.10)	(0.17)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.18)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.68	-0.43	-0.33	-0.75	-0.14	-0.19
	(0.07)	(0.12)	(0.19)	(0.06)	(0.09)	(0.15)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	0.21	-0.88	-1.20	0.48	-0.93	-1.04
	(0.05)	(0.10)	(0.20)	(0.06)	(0.10)	(0.14)
Panel C: Outcome = Below 100% of Poverty Line (in Percentage Points)						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.59	-0.78	-1.08	-0.62	-1.02	-1.32
	(0.05)	(0.09)	(0.18)	(0.06)	(0.09)	(0.22)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.62	-0.51	-0.40	-0.61	-0.24	-0.27
	(0.06)	(0.14)	(0.23)	(0.07)	(0.12)	(0.18)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	0.46	-0.96	-1.26	0.42	-1.45	-1.60
	(0.05)	(0.10)	(0.21)	(0.06)	(0.13)	(0.15)
Panel D: Outcome = Below 150% of Poverty Line (in Percentage Points)						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.50	-0.81	-1.21	-0.48	-0.94	-1.26
	(0.05)	(0.08)	(0.18)	(0.05)	(0.13)	(0.21)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.48	-0.44	-0.39	-0.32	-0.04	-0.12
	(0.05)	(0.12)	(0.23)	(0.05)	(0.11)	(0.18)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	0.41	-1.10	-1.56	0.17	-1.65	-2.03
	(0.03)	(0.10)	(0.19)	(0.05)	(0.13)	(0.16)

Notes: Each panel reports effects by gender and adult age group. Standard errors in parentheses. All coefficients and standard errors multiplied by 100. Observations by column: (1) 1,803,000; (2) 709,000; (3) 168,000; (4) 1,761,000; (5) 698,000; (6) 165,000.

Table 8: EITC Exposure by Childhood Age on Adult Earnings and Employment by Gender and Adult Age (Family FE)

Sample:	**Age 19–24 Men**	**Age 25–29 Men**	**Age 30–34 Men**	**Age 19–24 Women**	**Age 25–29 Women**	**Age 30–34 Women**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Outcome = Earnings						
MaxEITC	19.57	397.9	2167	96.18	293.1	-1653
Ages 0–5	(161.3)	(531.1)	(1578)	(46.01)	(325.6)	(2235)
MaxEITC	33.53	596	665.2	70.1	728.9	2594
Ages 6–12	(54.02)	(278.4)	(1471)	(240.5)	(809.2)	(1932)
MaxEITC	290.2	772.7	141.1	-37.87	-24.76	1028
Ages 13–18	(52.5)	(265.2)	(2365)	(165.4)	(650.3)	(1385)
Observations	1,803,000	709,000	168,000	1,761,000	698,000	165,000
Panel B: Outcome = AGI						
MaxEITC	22.72	643	2756	119.2	285.6	-353.5
Ages 0–5	(175.4)	(572)	(1705)	(48.64)	(342.5)	(2304)
MaxEITC	55.67	887	926.5	55.6	843.7	2542
Ages 6–12	(58.28)	(507.9)	(1446)	(250.4)	(915.8)	(2324)
MaxEITC	290.9	745.7	1343	-42.86	-256.6	1315
Ages 13–18	(60.42)	(278.5)	(2671)	(167.4)	(745.6)	(1560)
Observations	1,803,000	709,000	168,000	1,761,000	698,000	165,000
Panel C: Outcome = Working						
MaxEITC	0.377	0.553	0.849	0.540	0.646	2.38
Ages 0–5	(0.122)	(0.31)	(1.07)	(0.127)	(0.286)	(0.933)
MaxEITC	0.269	0.534	0.673	0.406	-0.339	-0.145
Ages 6–12	(0.137)	(0.294)	(1.15)	(0.127)	(0.23)	(0.848)
MaxEITC	1.04	1.04	1.55	0.562	0.692	0.551
Ages 13–18	(0.109)	(0.207)	(0.853)	(0.115)	(0.25)	(0.994)

Notes: Each cell reports a separate regression of the outcome on EITC exposure during ages 0–5, 6–12, or 13–18, controlling for family fixed effects. Standard errors in parentheses.

Table 9: EITC Exposure on Marriage and Poverty, by Gender and Age (Family FE)

Sample:	**Age 19–24 Men**	**Age 25–29 Men**	**Age 30–34 Men**	**Age 19–24 Women**	**Age 25–29 Women**	**Age 30–34 Women**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Outcome = Married						
Age 0–5	0.033	0.063	0.876	0.007	0.003	0.359
	(0.037)	(0.249)	(1.17)	(0.064)	(0.262)	(1.11)
Age 6–12	-0.105	-0.147	-0.056	-0.091	-0.364	1.17
	(0.044)	(0.252)	(0.979)	(0.064)	(0.215)	(1.40)
Age 13–18	0.248	0.587	0.586	0.135	-0.217	0.208
	(0.063)	(0.208)	(1.05)	(0.063)	(0.235)	(1.04)
Observations	1,803,000	709,000	168,000	1,761,000	698,000	165,000
Panel B: Outcome = Below 50% Poverty						
Age 0–5	-0.308	-0.704	-1.29	-0.411	-0.827	-1.90
	(0.114)	(0.298)	(1.04)	(0.167)	(0.270)	(1.09)
Age 6–12	-0.207	-0.368	-0.838	-0.404	0.371	-0.083
	(0.150)	(0.285)	(1.12)	(0.145)	(0.249)	(0.974)
Age 13–18	-1.05	-1.06	-1.56	-0.562	-0.898	-1.18
	(0.122)	(0.217)	(0.866)	(0.144)	(0.245)	(1.03)
Observations	1,803,000	709,000	168,000	1,761,000	698,000	165,000
Panel C: Outcome = Below 100% Poverty						
Age 0–5	-0.195	-0.988	-2.00	-0.222	-0.712	-1.56
	(0.100)	(0.263)	(1.12)	(0.115)	(0.351)	(1.54)
Age 6–12	-0.121	-0.399	-1.19	-0.164	-0.064	-0.912
	(0.129)	(0.308)	(1.31)	(0.146)	(0.275)	(0.958)
Age 13–18	-0.864	-1.00	-1.03	-0.495	-1.14	-1.17
	(0.126)	(0.211)	(0.861)	(0.124)	(0.235)	(0.976)
Observations	1,803,000	709,000	168,000	1,761,000	698,000	165,000
Panel D: Outcome = Below 150% Poverty						
Age 0–5	-0.155	-0.758	-0.941	-0.125	-0.517	-1.06
	(0.101)	(0.231)	(1.20)	(0.081)	(0.333)	(1.64)
Age 6–12	-0.083	-0.465	-1.10	-0.030	0.002	-0.778
	(0.090)	(0.391)	(1.38)	(0.095)	(0.293)	(0.897)
Age 13–18	-0.603	-1.07	-0.889	-0.323	-0.846	-0.397
	(0.092)	(0.244)	(0.854)	(0.088)	(0.259)	(0.993)
Observations	1,803,000	709,000	168,000	1,761,000	698,000	165,000

Notes: Each cell reports a separate regression of the outcome on EITC exposure during the specified age range, controlling for family fixed effects. Standard errors in parentheses. Effects are reported in percentage points.

Table 10: Effect of EITC Exposure on Adult Male Outcomes by Race/Ethnicity and Age

Outcome:	**Earnings (Real) $**	**AGI (Real) $**	**Working**	**Married**	**Poverty <50%**	**Poverty <100%**	**Poverty <150%**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25							
White	412.6	538.4	1.39	-0.215	-0.741	-0.290	-0.340
	(48.37)	(60.02)	(0.112)	(0.051)	(0.108)	(0.078)	(0.062)
Black	424.2	430.2	1.88	0.078	-1.49	-1.24	-0.801
	(54.83)	(57.87)	(0.113)	(0.044)	(0.101)	(0.096)	(0.084)
Asian	43.5	-8.535	0.100	-0.298	0.524	0.471	0.321
	(142)	(132.9)	(0.217)	(0.115)	(0.213)	(0.284)	(0.228)
Hispanic	344.6	328	1.65	-0.246	-1.44	-1.07	-0.769
	(87.98)	(105.9)	(0.109)	(0.043)	(0.132)	(0.105)	(0.098)
Native	289.2	415.6	1.97	0.977	-1.75	-1.00	-0.211
	(524.7)	(518.8)	(1.21)	(0.593)	(1.25)	(0.997)	(0.825)
Other	303.2	495.1	1.35	0.244	-1.45	-1.28	-1.07
	(159.9)	(145.8)	(0.271)	(0.115)	(0.263)	(0.259)	(0.246)
Panel B: Men Ages 26–34							
White	3626	4415	1.50	0.25	-1.74	-2.00	-2.40
	(228.4)	(362.2)	(0.14)	(0.133)	(0.141)	(0.148)	(0.156)
Black	1743	1907	2.14	0.422	-2.24	-2.51	-2.46
	(252.1)	(259.8)	(0.183)	(0.138)	(0.192)	(0.204)	(0.189)
Asian	1506	1552	0.228	-2.20	0.256	0.28	0.263
	(776.1)	(784.4)	(0.401)	(0.392)	(0.349)	(0.432)	(0.478)
Hispanic	1556	1915	1.69	-0.544	-1.93	-2.09	-2.23
	(333)	(408.7)	(0.264)	(0.171)	(0.278)	(0.301)	(0.292)
Native	1996	2567	4.35	0.489	-4.11	-3.82	-4.27
	(1968)	(1810)	(2.6)	(1.31)	(2.54)	(2.36)	(2.21)
Other	417.8	837.7	0.445	1.05	-0.577	-0.732	-0.623
	(609.7)	(674.8)	(0.606)	(0.500)	(0.663)	(0.668)	(0.706)

Notes: Table reports effects of $1,000 EITC exposure from ages 0–18 on adult outcomes, by race/ethnicity. Panel A shows estimates for men ages 19–25. Panel B for men ages 26–34. Working, Married, and poverty outcomes are reported in percentage points. Standard errors in parentheses.

Table 11: EITC Exposure on Adult Female Outcomes by Race/Ethnicity and Age

Outcome:	**Wage (Real) $**	**AGI (Real) $**	**Working**	**Married**	**Poverty <50%**	**Poverty <100%**	**Poverty <150%**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Panel A: Women Ages 19–25							
White	400.2	416.5	1.39	-0.486	-0.860	-0.452	-0.515
	(73.79)	(83.34)	(0.117)	(0.063)	(0.121)	(0.102)	(0.080)
Black	217.3	169.6	1.08	0.0915	-0.655	-1.28	-0.910
	(70.74)	(77.62)	(0.102)	(0.060)	(0.126)	(0.107)	(0.087)
Asian	-142.7	-207.5	0.521	-0.335	0.0331	0.439	0.473
	(127.6)	(140)	(0.26)	(0.13)	(0.26)	(0.277)	(0.208)
Hispanic	243.2	209.4	1.74	-0.393	-1.46	-1.22	-0.761
	(92.04)	(95.39)	(0.143)	(0.092)	(0.148)	(0.108)	(0.088)
Native	-44.77	-1171	1.09	-0.185	-0.191	0.373	0.382
	(342)	(1078)	(0.999)	(0.53)	(0.937)	(1.03)	(1.03)
Other	180	166.4	0.687	-0.135	-0.644	-1.05	-0.852
	(114.9)	(108.9)	(0.257)	(0.119)	(0.27)	(0.26)	(0.172)
Panel B: Women Ages 26–34							
White	3533	3507	1.70	0.272	-2.03	-2.44	-2.70
	(350.2)	(505.7)	(0.123)	(0.166)	(0.141)	(0.172)	(0.166)
Black	1450	1089	1.29	0.584	-1.27	-3.17	-3.14
	(309.5)	(361.1)	(0.182)	(0.142)	(0.181)	(0.229)	(0.251)
Asian	1383	708.8	0.323	-1.64	-0.166	-0.245	-0.126
	(962.7)	(1521)	(0.432)	(0.498)	(0.412)	(0.477)	(0.486)
Hispanic	1496	1368	1.76	0.153	-1.80	-2.32	-2.04
	(376.8)	(420.3)	(0.231)	(0.271)	(0.238)	(0.274)	(0.237)
Native	1097	597.6	-0.435	-0.044	3.52	0.916	0.207
	(1843)	(2272)	(2.07)	(2.26)	(2.04)	(2.68)	(2.86)
Other	1201	1035	0.335	0.558	-0.83	-1.78	-1.81
	(620.5)	(698.9)	(0.502)	(0.579)	(0.525)	(0.65)	(0.472)

Notes: Each row reports effects of $1,000 EITC exposure between ages 0–18 on adult outcomes. Working, Married, and poverty outcomes are reported in percentage points. Standard errors in parentheses.

Table 13: Effect of EITC Exposure on Adult Outcomes by Parent Marital Status and Age

Outcome:	**Wage (Real) $**	**AGI (Real) $**	**Working**	**Married**	**Poverty <50%**	**Poverty <100%**	**Poverty <150%**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25							
All	288.5	316.8	1.30	0.01	-1.31	-1.13	-0.75
	(59.71)	(66.68)	(0.12)	(0.04)	(0.12)	(0.10)	(0.08)
Avg Married Parent	244.6	339	0.55	-0.32	0.59	1.00	0.48
	(88.63)	(100.9)	(0.18)	(0.08)	(0.22)	(0.17)	(0.13)
Observations	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000
Panel B: Men Ages 26–34							
All	446.8	563.2	1.06	-0.14	-1.10	-1.24	-1.20
	(214)	(238.6)	(0.23)	(0.14)	(0.25)	(0.27)	(0.25)
Avg Married Parent	4919	5847	1.25	0.60	-1.55	-1.78	-2.36
	(433.8)	(581.6)	(0.28)	(0.26)	(0.31)	(0.37)	(0.39)
Observations	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000
Panel C: Women Ages 19–25							
All	275.9	225.6	1.18	-0.06	-1.18	-1.29	-0.79
	(67.1)	(74.9)	(0.09)	(0.04)	(0.10)	(0.09)	(0.07)
Avg Married Parent	62.42	149.6	0.32	-0.56	0.73	1.17	0.33
	(140.8)	(157.1)	(0.12)	(0.10)	(0.14)	(0.13)	(0.11)
Observations	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000
Panel D: Women Ages 26–34							
All	443.5	172.5	1.01	0.004	-1.04	-1.83	-1.51
	(208.5)	(269.1)	(0.12)	(0.14)	(0.13)	(0.15)	(0.18)
Avg Married Parent	4737	5019	1.15	0.65	-1.52	-1.55	-2.46
	(447.8)	(541.6)	(0.19)	(0.24)	(0.20)	(0.29)	(0.35)
Observations	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000

Notes: Each row reports effects of $1,000 EITC exposure between ages 0–18 on adult outcomes. Working, Married, and poverty outcomes are reported in percentage points. "Avg Married Parent" indicates above-median fraction of childhood years spent with married parents. Standard errors in parentheses.

Table 13: Effect of EITC Exposure on Adult Outcomes by Parents' Age at Birth

Outcome:	**Wage (Real) $**	**AGI (Real) $**	**Working**	**Married**	**Poverty <50%**	**Poverty <100%**	**Poverty <150%**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25							
All	266	364	1.34	-0.32	-0.63	-0.24	-0.23
	(41.23)	(51.69)	(0.10)	(0.04)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.06)
Young Parents	193.2	145.3	0.29	0.31	-0.67	-0.72	-0.50
	(26.72)	(29.16)	(0.06)	(0.03)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
Observations	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000	1,997,000
Panel B: Men Ages 26–34							
All	3234	3976	1.68	-0.14	-1.88	-2.15	-2.48
	(219.4)	(306.3)	(0.15)	(0.12)	(0.15)	(0.17)	(0.18)
Young Parents	-909.7	-1252	-0.09	0.48	0.11	0.17	0.34
	(129.7)	(146.9)	(0.05)	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)
Observations	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000	684,000
Panel C: Women Ages 19–25							
All	240.4	292.9	1.15	-0.57	-0.46	-0.43	-0.48
	(69.16)	(76.33)	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.08)	(0.09)	(0.07)
Young Parents	94.14	-8.484	0.26	0.42	-0.64	-0.57	-0.26
	(102.5)	(93.5)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.03)
Observations	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000	1,951,000
Panel D: Women Ages 26–34							
All	3367	3387	1.63	0.03	-1.88	-2.76	-2.98
	(306.8)	(408.3)	(0.09)	(0.15)	(0.12)	(0.15)	(0.15)
Young Parents	-1261	-1528	-0.16	0.44	0.25	0.38	0.58
	(110.2)	(146.2)	(0.04)	(0.10)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.08)
Observations	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000	673,000

Notes: Each row reports effects of $1,000 EITC exposure between ages 0–18 on adult outcomes. Working, Married, and poverty outcomes are reported in percentage points. "Young Parents" indicates individuals whose mother or father was below the sample median age at the time of birth. Standard errors in parentheses.

Table 13: Childhood EITC Exposure and Moving to Higher-Quality Tracts (by Race)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Move	**Move**	**Move**	**Higher Quality Tract Defined By:**			
	Tracts within 1 Year	**Tracts within 2 Years**	**Tracts within 3 Years**	**HH Income 2000**	**HH Income in 1990**	**College in 2000**	**College in 2010**
Panel A: Average Effects for Women							
MaxEITC	-0.62	-0.84	-0.96	0.43	0.41	0.50	0.49
	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
N	6,787,000	6,729,000	6,641,000	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000
Panel B: Average Effects for Men							
MaxEITC	-0.57	-0.81	-0.94	0.45	0.44	0.51	0.50
	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.03)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
N	6,979,000	6,920,000	6,830,000	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000
Panel C: Effects for Women by Race							
MaxEITC	-0.80	-1.16	-1.38	0.27	0.26	0.35	0.34
× White	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)
MaxEITC	-0.31	-0.29	-0.26	0.68	0.66	0.73	0.72
× Black	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)
MaxEITC	-0.64	-1.05	-1.28	0.30	0.29	0.40	0.43
× Asian	(0.12)	(0.19)	(0.27)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)
MaxEITC	-0.61	-0.84	-0.95	0.47	0.44	0.53	0.52
× Hispanic	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
MaxEITC	-0.60	-0.72	-0.70	0.71	0.60	0.78	0.65
× Native	(0.41)	(0.56)	(0.61)	(0.24)	(0.24)	(0.24)	(0.23)
MaxEITC	-0.62	-0.68	-0.64	0.48	0.44	0.54	0.54
× Other	(0.09)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)
N	6,787,000	6,729,000	6,641,000	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000
Panel D: Effects for Men by Race							
MaxEITC	-0.75	-1.14	-1.38	0.28	0.28	0.35	0.34
× White	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)
EITC	-0.24	-0.23	-0.20	0.72	0.69	0.75	0.74
× Black	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)
MaxEITC	-0.53	-0.91	-1.15	0.30	0.29	0.36	0.38
× Asian	(0.13)	(0.22)	(0.31)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.06)
MaxEITC	-0.58	-0.82	-0.93	0.50	0.47	0.54	0.54
× Hispanic	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.08)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
MaxEITC	-0.72	-0.62	-0.44	0.42	0.40	0.63	0.57
× Native	(0.47)	(0.57)	(0.66)	(0.22)	(0.21)	(0.21)	(0.23)
MaxEITC	-0.54	-0.72	-0.67	0.55	0.54	0.58	0.59
× Other	(0.10)	(0.13)	(0.14)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)
N	6,979,000	6,920,000	6,830,000	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000

Notes: Each row reports effects of $1,000 EITC exposure between ages 0–18 on outcomes. Outcomes include movement within 1–3 years and binary indicators for moving to higher-quality tracts based on various Census tract characteristics. Estimates reported in percentage

Table 13: Childhood EITC Exposure and Moving to Higher-Quality Tracts (by Race)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Higher Quality Tract Defined By:					
	HH Income 2016	**Test Scores**	**Not Poor 2010**	**Not Poor 2000**	**Married Parents 2010**	**Married Parents 2000**
Panel A: Average Effects for Women						
MaxEITC	0.41	0.24	1.47	4.28	2.93	0.47
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.69)	(0.84)	(0.64)	(0.74)
N	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000
Panel B: Average Effects for Men						
MaxEITC	0.43	0.24	1.92	4.61	3.23	1.24
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.74)	(0.80)	(0.70)	(0.77)
N	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000
Panel C: Effects for Women by Race						
MaxEITC × White	0.24	0.09	0.27	0.27	0.28	0.25
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)
MaxEITC × Black	0.66	0.42	0.71	0.70	0.71	0.69
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)
MaxEITC × Asian	0.33	0.11	0.34	0.33	0.38	0.33
	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)
MaxEITC × Hispanic	0.45	0.32	0.49	0.48	0.50	0.48
	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.05)
MaxEITC × Native	0.65	0.70	0.54	0.69	0.70	0.87
	(0.23)	(0.14)	(0.23)	(0.26)	(0.25)	(0.26)
MaxEITC × Other	0.46	0.37	0.51	0.46	0.52	0.47
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)
N	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000	6,815,000
Panel D: Effects for Men by Race						
MaxEITC × White	0.25	0.10	0.27	0.28	0.27	0.26
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
MaxEITC × Black	0.70	0.43	0.74	0.73	0.74	0.73
	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)	(0.07)
MaxEITC × Asian	0.28	0.08	0.31	0.31	0.32	0.30
	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.05)
MaxEITC × Hispanic	0.49	0.32	0.50	0.51	0.53	0.52
	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)
MaxEITC × Native	0.54	0.42	0.43	0.63	0.42	0.47
	(0.22)	(0.19)	(0.25)	(0.24)	(0.27)	(0.26)
MaxEITC × Other	0.56	0.35	0.59	0.58	0.57	0.56
	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.06)
N	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000	7,008,000

Notes: Each row reports effects of $1,000 EITC exposure between ages 0–18 on outcomes. Estimates reported in percentage points. Standard errors in parentheses.

Table 13: Childhood EITC Exposure and Moving to Higher-Quality Tracts (by Parental Traits)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Move Tracts within 1 Year	**Move Tracts within 2 Years**	**Move Tracts within 3 Years**	**Higher Quality Tract Defined By: HH Income 2000**	**HH Income in 1990**	**College in 2000**	**College in 2010**
Panel A: Effects for Women by Average Parental Marital Status							
EITC × Married	-1.23	-1.73	-2.02	0.05	0.04	0.15	0.12
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
EITC × Unmarried	-0.26	-0.31	-0.33	0.66	0.63	0.71	0.71
	(0.04)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
N	6787000	6729000	6641000	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000
Panel B: Effects for Men by Average Parental Marital Status							
EITC × Married	-1.20	-1.74	-2.04	0.08	0.07	0.15	0.13
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)
EITC × Unmarried	-0.19	-0.26	-0.29	0.67	0.65	0.72	0.71
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)
N	6979000	6920000	6830000	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000
Panel C: Effects for Women by Parental Age							
EITC × Young Parents	-0.60	-0.70	-0.72	0.48	0.46	0.54	0.54
	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)
EITC × Older Parents	-0.63	-1.00	-1.25	0.37	0.36	0.45	0.43
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)
N	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000
Panel D: Effects for Men by Parental Age							
EITC × Young Parents	-0.56	-0.68	-0.70	0.51	0.48	0.55	0.55
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.07)
EITC × Older Parents	-0.57	-0.97	-1.23	0.39	0.38	0.45	0.44
	(0.03)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.04)
N	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000

Notes: Each row reports effects of $1,000 EITC exposure between ages 0–18 on outcomes. Estimates reported in percentage points. Standard errors in parentheses.

Table 13: Childhood EITC Exposure and Moving to Higher-Quality Tracts (by Parental Traits)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	HH Income 2016	**Test Scores**	**Not Poor 2010**	**Not Poor 2000**	**Married Parents 2010**	**Married Parents 2000**
Panel A: Effects for Women by Average Parental Marital Status						
EITC × Married	0.00	-0.03	0.03	0.04	0.06	0.03
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
EITC × Unmarried	0.65	0.40	0.68	0.67	0.68	0.66
	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)
N	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000
Panel B: Effects for Men by Average Parental Marital Status						
EITC × Married	0.02	-0.04	0.05	0.07	0.07	0.06
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)
EITC × Unmarried	0.67	0.41	0.69	0.69	0.70	0.68
	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)
N	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000
Panel C: Effects for Women by Parental Age						
EITC × Young Parents	0.46	0.27	0.49	0.48	0.50	0.47
	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.06)
EITC × Older Parents	0.34	0.20	0.38	0.39	0.39	0.37
	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.04)
N	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000	6815000
Panel D: Effects for Men by Parental Age						
EITC × Young Parents	0.49	0.29	0.51	0.50	0.53	0.50
	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)
EITC × Older Parents	0.35	0.19	0.39	0.41	0.39	0.39
	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.04)
N	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000	7008000

Notes: Each row reports effects of $1,000 EITC exposure between ages 0–18 on outcomes. Estimates are reported in percentage points. Standard errors in parentheses.

Appendix: Additional Figures and Tables

"From Better Neighborhoods to Better Futures: Tax Credits and Intergenerational Opportunity"

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Table A.1: Effect of Childhood EITC Exposure on Adult Census-Tract-Level Traits (2 of 4)

Tract Trait Outcome:	**Foreign-born 2010**	**HH Income 1990**	**HH Income 2016**	**Population Density 2000**	**Poverty Rate 2010**	**Poverty Rate 2000**	**Poverty Rate 1990**	**White 2010 Pct**	**Black 2010 Pct**
	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)
Panel A: Sample = Men Ages 19–25									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.0001	0.065***	0.136***	-0.116	-0.037***	-0.037***	-0.037***	0.004***	-0.004***
	(0.0007)	(0.005)	(0.008)	(0.077)	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.001)	(0.0005)
Observations	2,493,000	2,492,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,492,000	2,492,000	2,493,000	2,493,000
Panel B: Sample = Men Ages 26–34									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.0004	0.063***	0.131***	-0.094	-0.031***	-0.032***	-0.033***	0.004***	-0.004***
	(0.0007)	(0.005)	(0.010)	(0.068)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.001)	(0.0007)
Observations	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000
Panel C: Sample = Women Ages 19–25									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.0006	0.065***	0.134***	-0.108	-0.035***	-0.034***	-0.035***	0.004***	-0.003***
	(0.0007)	(0.006)	(0.009)	(0.072)	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.001)	(0.0006)
Observations	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000
Panel D: Sample = Women Ages 26–34									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.0001	0.065***	0.125***	-0.096	-0.033***	-0.034***	-0.039***	0.004***	
	(0.0007)	(0.006)	(0.010)	(0.072)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.001)	(0.0006)
Observations	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000

Notes: Each column reports a separate regression of the indicated Opportunity Atlas outcome on EITC exposure between ages 0–18. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.5c: Effect of Childhood EITC Exposure on Adult Census-Tract-Level Traits (3 of 4)

Tract Trait Outcome:	**Hispanic 2010 Pct**	**Asian 2010 Pct**	**Black 2000 Pct**	**White 2000 Pct**	**Hispanic 2000 Pct**	**Asian 2000 Pct**	**Math Score**	**Rent (2BR) 2015 $**	**Single-Parent 2010**
	(19)	(20)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(24)	(25)	(26)	(27)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.001	0.001***	-0.005***	0.006***	-0.002	0.001***	0.023***	0.008***	-0.067***
	(0.0008)	(0.0002)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.0002)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.006)
Observations	2,493,000	2,474,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,487,000	1,912,000	2,491,000
Panel B: Men Ages 26–34									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.001	0.001***	-0.005***	0.005***	-0.001	0.0005**	0.023***	0.009***	-0.062***
	(0.001)	(0.0002)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.0002)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(0.006)
Observations	903,000	897,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	894,000	901,000	692,000	902,000
Panel C: Women Ages 19–25									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.002*	0.001***	-0.004***	0.005***	-0.002	0.0003*	0.021***	0.008***	-0.059***
	(0.001)	(0.0001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.0001)	(0.003)	(0.001)	(0.006)
Observations	2,434,000	2,416,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,408,000	2,428,000	1,869,000	2,432,000
Panel D: Women Ages 26–34									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.002*	0.001***	-0.004***	0.005***	-0.002	0.0004***	0.018***	0.008***	-0.058***
	(0.001)	(0.0002)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.001)	(0.0001)	(0.003)	(0.001)	(0.006)
Observations	888,000	882,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	879,000	886,000	682,000	887,000

Notes: Each column reports a separate regression of the indicated Opportunity Atlas outcome on EITC exposure between ages 0–18. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.5d: Effect of Childhood EITC Exposure on Adult Census-Tract-Level Traits (4 of 4)

Tract Trait Outcome:	**Single-Parent 1990**	**Single-Parent 2000**	**Single-Parent 2010**	**Emp. Rate 2000**	**Wage Growth HS**	**Jobs Total 5mi**	**Jobs High-Pay 5mi**	**Pop. Density 2010**	**Ann. Job Growth**
	(28)	(29)	(30)	(31)	(32)	(33)	(34)	(35)	(36)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.067***	-0.057***	-0.063***	0.031***	-0.0001	-3.477	-2.025	-0.296	0.006**
	(0.006)	(0.008)	(0.006)	(0.002)	(0.001)	(2.226)	(1.289)	(0.204)	(0.002)
Observations	2,491,000	2,492,000	2,492,000	2,492,000	1,748,000	2,489,000	2,489,000	2,493,000	2,446,000
Panel B: Men Ages 26–34									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.062***	-0.046***	-0.055***	0.030***	0.0004	-2.317	-1.358	-0.238	0.005*
	(0.006)	(0.006)	(0.005)	(0.004)	(0.001)	(1.785)	(1.007)	(0.178)	(0.002)
Observations	902,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	634,000	902,000	902,000	903,000	886,000
Panel C: Women Ages 19–25									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.059***	-0.053***	-0.061***	0.031***	-0.0005	-3.092	-1.774	-0.275	0.003
	(0.006)	(0.007)	(0.006)	(0.003)	(0.001)	(2.012)	(1.153)	(0.188)	(0.002)
Observations	2,432,000	2,433,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	1,705,000	2,430,000	2,430,000	2,434,000	2,388,000
Panel D: Women Ages 26–34									
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.058***	-0.052***	-0.058***	0.029***	0.0004	-2.658	-1.591	-0.247	0.001
	(0.006)	(0.008)	(0.007)	(0.005)	(0.001)	(1.937)	(1.129)	(0.177)	(0.002)
Observations	887,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	622,000	887,000	887,000	888,000	872,000

Notes: Each column reports a separate regression of the indicated Opportunity Atlas outcome on EITC exposure between ages 0–18. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.7b: Effect of EITC Exposure on Tract Traits by Gender and Age (2 of 6), with Family FE

Sample:	**Age 19–24 Men**	**Age 25–29 Men**	**Age 30–34 Men**	**Age 19–34 Men**	**Age 19–24 Women**	**Age 25–29 Women**	**Age 30–34 Women**	**Age 19–34 Women**
Panel A: Outcome = Average HH Income 2000								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.137***	0.130***	0.149**	0.135***	0.0957***	0.0943***	0.148*	0.0974***
	(0.0129)	(0.0204)	(0.0562)	(0.0128)	(0.0119)	(0.0185)	(0.0608)	(0.0122)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,395,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel B: Outcome = Fraction College 2000								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.0547***	0.0594***	0.0623**	0.0561***	0.0429***	0.0543***	0.0806*	0.0452***
	(0.00535)	(0.00931)	(0.0225)	(0.0052)	(0.0063)	(0.0103)	(0.0323)	(0.00657)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel C: Outcome = Fraction College 2010								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.0584***	0.0651***	0.0677**	0.0608***	0.0450***	0.0551***	0.106***	0.0487***
	(0.00612)	(0.012)	(0.0233)	(0.00586)	(0.00782)	(0.0124)	(0.0307)	(0.00806)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel D: Outcome = Fraction Foreign Born								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.000309	-0.0000988	-0.00261	0.000159	0.000386	0.00116	0.00106	0.000469
	(0.000298)	(0.000687)	(0.00154)	(0.000296)	(0.000473)	(0.000723)	(0.00263)	(0.000448)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel E: Outcome = Average HH Income 1990								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.0531***	0.0497***	0.0519*	0.0518***	0.0404***	0.0427***	0.0687**	0.0410***
	(0.00584)	(0.00869)	(0.0223)	(0.00578)	(0.00607)	(0.00873)	(0.025)	(0.00594)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,395,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel F: Outcome = Average HH Income 2016								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.117***	0.119***	0.121*	0.116***	0.0704***	0.0540***	0.108*	0.0701***
	(0.00928)	(0.019)	(0.0562)	(0.0103)	(0.00877)	(0.0135)	(0.0459)	(0.0081)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,189,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000

Notes: Each cell reports a separate regression of the outcome on MaxEITC Ages 0–18, controlling for family fixed effects. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.7c: Effect of EITC Exposure on Tract Traits by Gender and Age (3 of 6), with Family FE

Sample:	**Age 19–24 Men**	**Age 25–29 Men**	**Age 30–34 Men**	**Age 19–34 Men**	**Age 19–24 Women**	**Age 25–29 Women**	**Age 30–34 Women**	**Age 19–34 Women**
Panel A: Outcome = Population Density								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.106*	-0.0955	-0.105	-0.0990*	-0.0998*	-0.116*	-0.0601	-0.0950*
	(0.0451)	(0.0514)	(0.0741)	(0.045)	(0.0428)	(0.0486)	(0.0838)	(0.0405)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,189,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel B: Outcome = Fraction Poor 2010								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.0290***	-0.0264***	-0.0287	-0.0284***	-0.0128**	-0.0123	-0.0115	-0.0132***
	(0.00377)	(0.00695)	(0.0202)	(0.00367)	(0.00431)	(0.00738)	(0.0224)	(0.00393)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel C: Outcome = Fraction Poor 2000								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.0284***	-0.0263***	-0.0257	-0.0277***	-0.0162***	-0.014	-0.0189	-0.0159***
	(0.00436)	(0.00737)	(0.0178)	(0.00426)	(0.00477)	(0.00732)	(0.0222)	(0.00435)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,395,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel D: Outcome = Fraction Poor 1990								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.0307***	-0.0323***	-0.0424*	-0.0307***	-0.0210***	-0.0221**	-0.0158	-0.0212***
	(0.00416)	(0.00634)	(0.0196)	(0.004)	(0.00452)	(0.00761)	(0.0209)	(0.00411)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel E: Outcome = Fraction White 2010								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.00382***	0.00437*	0.0148***	0.00412***	0.00182*	0.00117	0.00453	0.00180*
	(0.000937)	(0.00188)	(0.00444)	(0.000951)	(0.000876)	(0.00144)	(0.0046)	(0.000844)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,189,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel F: Outcome = Fraction Black 2010								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.00349***	-0.00404**	-0.0113**	-0.00367***	-0.00197**	-0.0024	-0.00441	-0.00203**
	(0.000608)	(0.00143)	(0.00383)	(0.000629)	(0.000612)	(0.00126)	(0.00497)	(0.000647)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,189,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000

Notes: Each cell reports a separate regression of the outcome on MaxEITC Ages 0–18, controlling for family fixed effects. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.7d: Effect of EITC Exposure on Tract Traits by Gender and Age (4 of 6), with Family FE

Sample:	**Age 19–24 Men**	**Age 25–29 Men**	**Age 30–34 Men**	**Age 19–34 Men**	**Age 19–24 Women**	**Age 25–29 Women**	**Age 30–34 Women**	**Age 19–34 Women**
Panel A: Outcome = Fraction Hispanic 2010								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.00129*	-0.00131	-0.00228	-0.00147**	-0.000136	0.000684	-0.000988	-0.000117
	(0.000574)	(0.000959)	(0.00241)	(0.000537)	(0.000608)	(0.00112)	(0.00389)	(0.000586)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,189,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel B: Outcome = Fraction Asian 2010								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.000945***	0.000803*	-0.00119	0.000927***	0.000215	0.000295	0.00127	0.000257
	(0.000213)	(0.000389)	(0.000895)	(0.000226)	(0.000282)	(0.00044)	(0.000894)	(0.000248)
Observations	2,226,000	923,000	222,000	3,371,000	2,172,000	906,000	219,000	3,297,000
Panel C: Outcome = Fraction Black 2000								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.00402***	-0.00482**	-0.0112**	-0.00415***	-0.00274***	-0.00374**	-0.00451	-0.00284***
	(0.000703)	(0.00149)	(0.00383)	(0.000704)	(0.000652)	(0.00121)	(0.00509)	(0.000653)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,189,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel D: Outcome = Fraction White 2000								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.00479***	0.00528**	0.0134**	0.00493***	0.00295**	0.00257	0.00335	0.00291***
	(0.00103)	(0.00182)	(0.00453)	(0.001)	(0.000931)	(0.00147)	(0.00522)	(0.000866)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,189,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel E: Outcome = Fraction Hispanic 2000								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.00126*	-0.00114	-0.001	-0.00133**	-0.000256	0.000825	0.000269	-0.000176
	(0.000515)	(0.000844)	(0.00217)	(0.000483)	(0.000629)	(0.00104)	(0.00333)	(0.000599)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,189,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel F: Outcome = Fraction Asian 2000								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.000522**	0.000576	-0.000716	0.000530*	0.0000885	0.000163	0.00112	0.000101
	(0.000199)	(0.000415)	(0.000776)	(0.000219)	(0.000247)	(0.000414)	(0.000694)	(0.000216)
Observations	2,218,000	920,000	221,000	3,360,000	2,165,000	904,000	219,000	3,287,000

Notes: Each cell reports a separate regression of the outcome on MaxEITC Ages 0–18, controlling for family fixed effects. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.7e: Effect of EITC Exposure on Tract Traits by Gender and Age (5 of 6), with Family FE

Sample:	**Age 19–24 Men**	**Age 25–29 Men**	**Age 30–34 Men**	**Age 19–34 Men**	**Age 19–24 Women**	**Age 25–29 Women**	**Age 30–34 Women**	**Age 19–34 Women**
Panel A: Outcome = Test Scores								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.0199***	0.0203***	0.0189	0.0198***	0.0127***	0.0179***	0.0493**	0.0145***
	(0.00291)	(0.00471)	(0.0163)	(0.00277)	(0.00288)	(0.00476)	(0.0165)	(0.00279)
Observations	2,237,000	928,000	223,000	3,388,000	2,184,000	911,000	220,000	3,315,000
Panel B: Outcome = Avg Rent for 2 Bedroom								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.00513***	0.00650*	0.00973	0.00577***	0.00427***	0.00473*	0.00504	0.00453***
	(0.00115)	(0.00267)	(0.00731)	(0.00119)	(0.000883)	(0.00209)	(0.00736)	(0.000853)
Observations	1,720,000	713,000	171,000	2,604,000	1,680,000	701,000	169,000	2,550,000
Panel C: Outcome = Fraction Single Parents 2010								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.0600***	-0.0502***	-0.0914*	-0.0569***	-0.0342***	-0.0368*	-0.0532	-0.0357***
	(0.00812)	(0.0132)	(0.0388)	(0.00737)	(0.00687)	(0.0149)	(0.0422)	(0.00681)
Observations	2,241,000	929,000	223,000	3,394,000	2,187,000	912,000	220,000	3,320,000
Panel D: Outcome = Fraction Single Parents 1990								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.0430***	-0.0406***	-0.0590*	-0.0414***	-0.0369***	-0.0396***	-0.0606*	-0.0369***
	(0.00634)	(0.00839)	(0.0252)	(0.00568)	(0.00581)	(0.00878)	(0.0300)	(0.00513)
Observations	2,242,000	929,000	223,000	3,394,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,321,000
Panel E: Outcome = Fraction Single Parents 2000								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.0556***	-0.0525***	-0.0597*	-0.0538***	-0.0324***	-0.0376***	-0.0689*	-0.0332***
	(0.00580)	(0.00840)	(0.0286)	(0.00534)	(0.00610)	(0.00934)	(0.0321)	(0.00551)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,395,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel F: Outcome = Employment Rate 2000								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.0257***	0.0255**	0.0291	0.0235***	0.0129***	0.0150*	0.0129	0.0112**
	(0.00426)	(0.00801)	(0.0215)	(0.00473)	(0.00363)	(0.00663)	(0.0177)	(0.00372)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,188,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000

Notes: Each cell reports a separate regression of the outcome on MaxEITC Ages 0–18, controlling for family fixed effects. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.7f: Effect of EITC Exposure on Tract Traits by Gender and Age (6 of 6), with Family FE

Sample:	**Age 19–24 Men**	**Age 25–29 Men**	**Age 30–34 Men**	**Age 19–34 Men**	**Age 19–24 Women**	**Age 25–29 Women**	**Age 30–34 Women**	**Age 19–34 Women**
Panel A: Outcome = Avg Wage Growth for HS Grad Worker								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.00104	0.00051	-0.01100	-0.00021	-0.00131	-0.00484*	-0.0154	-0.00151
	(0.00119)	(0.00298)	(0.00953)	(0.00116)	(0.00131)	(0.00231)	(0.00915)	(0.00126)
Observations	1,572,000	653,000	157,000	2,382,000	1,533,000	640,000	154,000	2,328,000
Panel B: Outcome = Total Jobs Within 5 Miles								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-3.323**	-3.463	-5.983	-3.218**	-2.812	-3.055	-1.339	-2.651
	(1.221)	(1.912)	(4.592)	(1.222)	(1.924)	(2.322)	(3.139)	(1.778)
Observations	2,239,000	929,000	223,000	3,391,000	2,185,000	911,000	220,000	3,317,000
Panel C: Outcome = High Paying Jobs Within 5 Miles								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-1.936**	-1.946	-3.772	-1.869*	-1.706	-1.915	-0.761	-1.632
	(0.749)	(1.164)	(2.843)	(0.752)	(1.160)	(1.392)	(1.962)	(1.074)
Observations	2,239,000	929,000	223,000	3,391,000	2,185,000	911,000	220,000	3,317,000
Panel D: Outcome = Population Density 2010								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.264*	-0.246	-0.263	-0.248*	-0.250*	-0.273*	-0.128	-0.233*
	(0.114)	(0.136)	(0.191)	(0.114)	(0.114)	(0.122)	(0.217)	(0.105)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,189,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000
Panel E: Outcome = Annual Job Growth								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	0.00553*	0.00468	-0.0203	0.00553*	0.000716	0.00107	0.00466	0.00223
	(0.00266)	(0.00541)	(0.0131)	(0.00272)	(0.0024)	(0.0053)	(0.0149)	(0.0024)
Observations	2,200,000	912,000	219,000	3,332,000	2,147,000	896,000	217,000	3,260,000
Panel F: Outcome = Job Density 2013								
MaxEITC Ages 0–18	-0.0687***	-0.0965*	-0.165	-0.0770***	-0.104	-0.051	-0.0693	-0.0973
	(0.0158)	(0.0479)	(0.155)	(0.0179)	(0.0584)	(0.0315)	(0.074)	(0.0498)
Observations	2,242,000	930,000	224,000	3,396,000	2,189,000	913,000	221,000	3,322,000

Notes: Each cell reports a separate regression of the outcome on MaxEITC Ages 0–18, controlling for family fixed effects. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.8a: Effect of EITC Exposure by Child Age on Adult Outcomes of Males

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Outcome = Real Wage Earnings						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	1619***	1719***	1182***	614.6***	620.5***	550.5
	(84.4)	(76.42)	(66.65)	(61.6)	(61.73)	(505.8)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	941.1***	1241***	236.1*	144.6	140.4	324.3
	(118.9)	(114.9)	(109.0)	(105.2)	(106.4)	(210.3)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	1409***	1626***	826.6***	888.6***	888.2***	789.9***
	(116.4)	(109.4)	(89.58)	(102.8)	(102.6)	(213.4)
Panel B: Outcome = Real Adjusted Gross Income (AGI)						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	1742***	1849***	1277***	620***	626.4***	709.5
	(94.38)	(84.7)	(72.53)	(65.37)	(65.45)	(554)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	1020***	1342***	270*	185	180.1	677
	(120.3)	(124.4)	(125.9)	(122.8)	(124.9)	(447.1)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	1484***	1717***	863.7***	991.9***	992.1***	673**
	(130.8)	(115.4)	(96.53)	(106.8)	(106.6)	(229.6)
Panel C: Outcome = Employed						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	0.0151***	0.0169***	0.0117***	0.0068***	0.0069***	0.0036
	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0009)	(0.0009)	(0.0025)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	0.0116***	0.0146***	0.0050***	0.0040***	0.0041***	0.0066*
	(0.0012)	(0.0013)	(0.0010)	(0.0010)	(0.0010)	(0.0026)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	0.0122***	0.0155***	0.0078***	0.0073***	0.0073***	0.0126***
	(0.0007)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0017)
Panel D: Outcome = Below 100% of Poverty Line						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.0194***	-0.0214***	-0.0148***	-0.0081***	-0.0081***	-0.0075***
	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0007)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0023)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.0152***	-0.0189***	-0.0066***	-0.0054***	-0.0055***	-0.0047
	(0.0013)	(0.0015)	(0.0012)	(0.0012)	(0.0012)	(0.0027)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-0.0147***	-0.0184***	-0.0086***	-0.0083***	-0.0083***	-0.0133***
	(0.0008)	(0.0009)	(0.0008)	(0.0009)	(0.0009)	(0.0019)
Controls	1	2	3	4	5	6

Notes: Each column represents a different regression specification. Sample includes adult outcomes measured in adulthood. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.8b: Effect of EITC Exposure on Later-Life Outcomes of Males

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Outcome = Married						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	0.00460***	0.00358***	0.00114*	0.00311***	0.00313***	0.00124
	(0.00068)	(0.00070)	(0.00056)	(0.00059)	(0.00059)	(0.00197)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	0.00429***	0.00428***	-0.00028	0.00003	-0.00003	-0.00160
	(0.00090)	(0.00097)	(0.00074)	(0.00074)	(0.00075)	(0.00189)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	0.00502***	0.00368***	0.00005	-0.00320***	-0.00324***	0.00529***
	(0.00054)	(0.00058)	(0.00050)	(0.00053)	(0.00053)	(0.00152)
Panel B: Outcome = Died by Age 30						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.00069***	-0.00114***	-0.00101***	-0.00092***	-0.00093***	-0.00127*
	(0.00018)	(0.00018)	(0.00018)	(0.00018)	(0.00018)	(0.00053)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.00008	-0.00064***	-0.00040*	-0.00039*	-0.00039*	-0.00089
	(0.00017)	(0.00016)	(0.00017)	(0.00017)	(0.00018)	(0.00060)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-0.00051***	-0.00126***	-0.00107***	-0.00111***	-0.00111***	-0.00194***
	(0.00013)	(0.00015)	(0.00015)	(0.00014)	(0.00015)	(0.00042)
Panel C: Outcome = Below 50% of Poverty Line						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.0166***	-0.0184***	-0.0128***	-0.0074***	-0.0074***	-0.0059*
	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0007)	(0.0008)	(0.0009)	(0.0024)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.0125***	-0.0156***	-0.0052***	-0.0042***	-0.0043***	-0.0050
	(0.0012)	(0.0014)	(0.0011)	(0.0011)	(0.0011)	(0.0027)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-0.0137***	-0.0170***	-0.0087***	-0.0082***	-0.0082***	-0.0135***
	(0.0008)	(0.0009)	(0.0008)	(0.0010)	(0.0010)	(0.0018)
Panel D: Outcome = Below 150% of Poverty Line						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.0207***	-0.0227***	-0.0156***	-0.0079***	-0.0080***	-0.0066***
	(0.0010)	(0.0010)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0019)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.0152***	-0.0193***	-0.0060***	-0.0048***	-0.0048***	-0.0043
	(0.0013)	(0.0014)	(0.0011)	(0.0011)	(0.0011)	(0.0033)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-0.0159***	-0.0197***	-0.0092***	-0.0093***	-0.0093***	-0.0138***
	(0.0008)	(0.0010)	(0.0007)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0019)
Controls	1	2	3	4	5	6

Notes: Each panel reports effects on a different outcome. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.8c: Effect of EITC Exposure on Labor Market Outcomes (Females)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Outcome = Real Wage Earnings						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	1721***	1734***	1174***	579.3***	586.1***	323.6
	(141.6)	(119.6)	(106.4)	(87.05)	(90.31)	(264.3)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	858.2***	1014***	-27.04	-134.7	-145.7	1237
	(116.1)	(150.5)	(181)	(173.3)	(176)	(1197)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	1450***	1512***	686.5***	807.9***	813.1***	-712.7
	(126.3)	(126)	(119)	(114.7)	(115.7)	(1013)
Panel B: Outcome = Real Adjusted Gross Income						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	1864***	1856***	1273***	630.6***	635.3***	318.5
	(143.4)	(119.5)	(109.9)	(92.88)	(96.77)	(276.4)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	887.7***	1040***	-44.46	-144.7	-160.5	1292
	(116.1)	(155.4)	(184.6)	(176.6)	(179.8)	(1258)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	1479***	1514***	654.3***	813.4***	819***	-819.4
	(132.2)	(133)	(130.9)	(126.3)	(128.1)	(1071)
Panel C: Outcome = Employed						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	0.0107***	0.0120***	0.0094***	0.0073***	0.0074***	0.0076***
	(0.0007)	(0.0008)	(0.0007)	(0.0007)	(0.0007)	(0.0022)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	0.0065***	0.0080***	0.0032***	0.0024***	0.0024***	-0.0032
	(0.0007)	(0.0007)	(0.0007)	(0.0006)	(0.0006)	(0.0023)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	0.0090***	0.0111***	0.0073***	0.0070***	0.0071***	0.0060**
	(0.0005)	(0.0007)	(0.0006)	(0.0007)	(0.0007)	(0.0020)
Panel D: Outcome = Below 100% of Poverty Line						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.0209***	-0.0230***	-0.0170***	-0.0100***	-0.0100***	-0.0072**
	(0.0014)	(0.0015)	(0.0011)	(0.0010)	(0.0010)	(0.0026)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.0128***	-0.0159***	-0.0046***	-0.0032**	-0.0032**	-0.0005
	(0.0009)	(0.0010)	(0.0012)	(0.0010)	(0.0011)	(0.0030)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-0.0132***	-0.0168***	-0.0031**	-0.0016	-0.0016	-0.0001
	(0.0010)	(0.0010)	(0.0012)	(0.0010)	(0.0010)	(0.0027)
Controls	1	2	3	4	5	6

Notes: Sample includes female individuals. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.8d: Effect of EITC Exposure on Demographic and Poverty Outcomes (Females)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Outcome = Married						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	0.0066***	0.0053***	0.0018*	0.0043***	0.0044***	0.0010
	(0.0011)	(0.0011)	(0.0008)	(0.0009)	(0.0009)	(0.0022)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	0.0054***	0.0051***	-0.0015	-0.0013	-0.0014*	-0.0043*
	(0.0008)	(0.0009)	(0.0008)	(0.0007)	(0.0007)	(0.0018)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	0.0073***	0.0056***	0.0004	-0.0037***	-0.0037***	-0.0020
	(0.0009)	(0.0009)	(0.0006)	(0.0006)	(0.0006)	(0.0023)
Panel B: Outcome = Died by Age 30						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.0003**	-0.0005***	-0.0004***	-0.0004**	-0.0004***	-0.0008
	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0005)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.0002	-0.0004**	-0.0004**	-0.0003*	-0.0003*	-0.0012*
	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0005)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-0.0003**	-0.0005***	-0.0005***	-0.0005***	-0.0005***	-0.0001
	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0005)
Panel C: Outcome = Below 50% of Poverty Line						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.0132***	-0.0145***	-0.0115***	-0.0085***	-0.0086***	-0.0093***
	(0.0009)	(0.0010)	(0.0009)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0024)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.0071***	-0.0090***	-0.0033***	-0.0022**	-0.0023**	0.0032
	(0.0007)	(0.0007)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0024)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-0.0110***	-0.0133***	-0.0087***	-0.0086***	-0.0087***	-0.0084***
	(0.0007)	(0.0008)	(0.0007)	(0.0009)	(0.0009)	(0.0022)
Panel D: Outcome = Below 150% of Poverty Line						
MaxEITC Ages 0–5	-0.0232***	-0.0255***	-0.0181***	-0.00897***	-0.00906***	-0.00605*
	(0.00165)	(0.00175)	(0.0014)	(0.00125)	(0.00127)	(0.00243)
MaxEITC Ages 6–12	-0.0132***	-0.0168***	-0.00311**	-0.00155	-0.00157	-0.000117
	(0.00101)	(0.00102)	(0.00117)	(0.00103)	(0.00104)	(0.00273)
MaxEITC Ages 13–18	-0.0188***	-0.0227***	-0.0118***	-0.0140***	-0.0141***	-0.00671**
	(0.001)	(0.00108)	(0.000838)	(0.00108)	(0.00107)	(0.00229)
Controls	1	2	3	4	5	6

Notes: Each panel reports effects on different outcomes for females. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.12: EITC Exposure During Childhood and Moving to Higher Quality Census Tracts

	HH Income 2000	**College in 2000**	**College in 2010**	**HH Income 2016**	**HH Income**	**Test Scores**	**Fraction Not Poor 2010**	**Not Poor 2000**	**Married Parents 2010**	**Married Parents 2000**
Panel A: Women										
EITC	0.0228*	0.0752***	0.0548***	0.0142	-0.0061	0.0097	-0.0004	-0.0002	0.0016	0.0011
× White	(0.0109)	(0.0128)	(0.0103)	(0.0115)	(0.0104)	(0.0158)	(0.0005)	(0.0007)	(0.0013)	(0.0012)
EITC	0.0147	0.0086	0.0045	0.0043	0.0018	-0.0143	0.0020**	0.0020**	0.0042***	0.0039***
× Black	(0.0115)	(0.0115)	(0.0097)	(0.0112)	(0.0119)	(0.0154)	(0.0007)	(0.0006)	(0.0011)	(0.0011)
EITC	-0.0013	0.0669*	0.0667*	-0.0159	-0.0251	-0.0035	-0.0009	-0.0003	0.0021	0.0009
× Asian	(0.0397)	(0.0303)	(0.0290)	(0.0333)	(0.0384)	(0.0339)	(0.0013)	(0.0014)	(0.0020)	(0.0016)
EITC	-0.0019	0.0157	0.0010	-0.0118	-0.0258	-0.0162	0.0007	0.0008	-0.0012	-0.0015
× Hispanic	(0.0183)	(0.0161)	(0.0163)	(0.0188)	(0.0192)	(0.0145)	(0.0011)	(0.0008)	(0.0014)	(0.0008)
EITC	0.0305	-0.0361	-0.0438	-0.0356	-0.0319	-0.0004	0.0007	0.0009	0.0041	0.0020
× Native	(0.0837)	(0.0724)	(0.0764)	(0.0749)	(0.0713)	(0.0769)	(0.0040)	(0.0030)	(0.0059)	(0.0042)
EITC	0.0095	0.0121	0.0129	-0.0088	0.0021	-0.0165	0.0031***	0.0021**	0.0044***	0.0044***
× Other	(0.0097)	(0.0140)	(0.0086)	(0.0123)	(0.0123)	(0.0153)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0013)	(0.0009)
N	6,810,000									
Panel B: Men										
EITC	0.0295*	0.0818***	0.0620***	0.0223	0.0035	0.0150	-0.0002	0.00004	0.0018	0.0016
× White	(0.0128)	(0.0124)	(0.0112)	(0.0127)	(0.0114)	(0.0155)	(0.0006)	(0.0008)	(0.0013)	(0.0011)
EITC	0.0167	0.0095	0.0065	0.0106	0.0102	-0.0150	0.0024**	0.0025**	0.0046***	0.0047***
× Black	(0.0127)	(0.0115)	(0.0111)	(0.0128)	(0.0137)	(0.0167)	(0.0008)	(0.0008)	(0.0013)	(0.0013)
EITC	-0.0175	0.0571*	0.0421	-0.0143	-0.0468	-0.0118	-0.0015	-0.0002	0.0016	0.0006
× Asian	(0.0232)	(0.0256)	(0.0256)	(0.0189)	(0.0290)	(0.0348)	(0.0013)	(0.0009)	(0.0014)	(0.0011)
EITC	0.0047	0.0161	0.0017	-0.0032	-0.0126	-0.0194	0.0006	0.0010	-0.0008	-0.0010
× Hispanic	(0.0184)	(0.0165)	(0.0137)	(0.0182)	(0.0185)	(0.0144)	(0.0010)	(0.0009)	(0.0014)	(0.0009)
EITC	0.0338	-0.0234	0.0170	0.0154	-0.0204	0.0081	-0.0003	-0.0015	-0.0009	-0.0046
× Native	(0.0696)	(0.0797)	(0.0788)	(0.0794)	(0.0664)	(0.0611)	(0.0040)	(0.0030)	(0.0065)	(0.0051)
EITC	0.0091	0.0106	-0.0010	0.0024	0.0047	-0.0068	0.0030***	0.0029**	0.0049**	0.0055***
× Other	(0.0138)	(0.0186)	(0.0152)	(0.0162)	(0.0128)	(0.0150)	(0.0009)	(0.0009)	(0.0015)	(0.0012)

Notes: Each cell reports the effect of an additional $1,000 in EITC exposure during childhood (ages 0–18) on the likelihood of moving to a higher-quality Census tract. Outcomes are defined by decile ranks of neighborhood characteristics. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p<0.01$, ** $p<0.05$, * $p<0.1$.

Table A.15a: Effect of EITC Exposure by Age Band on Tract Outcomes (1 of 6)

Outcome:	**HH Income 2000 Std**	**College 2000 Std**	**College 2010 Std**	**HH Income 1990 Std**	**HH Income 2016 Std**	**Math Score Std**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25						
Avg EITC at	-0.252***	-0.293***	-0.324***	-0.225***	-0.242***	-0.150***
Ages 0–5	(0.0451)	(0.0549)	(0.0507)	(0.0515)	(0.0423)	(0.0289)
Avg EITC at	0.0529	0.00674	0.00107	0.0574	0.0201	0.0451
Ages 6–12	(0.0542)	(0.0483)	(0.0457)	(0.0585)	(0.0504)	(0.0464)
Avg EITC at	1.354***	1.226***	1.240***	1.251***	1.308***	0.700***
Ages 13–18	(0.0608)	(0.0674)	(0.069)	(0.0618)	(0.0622)	(0.0648)
Panel B: Men Ages 26–34						
Avg EITC at	-0.250***	-0.349***	-0.386***	-0.218**	-0.230***	-0.141**
Ages 0–5	(0.0724)	(0.0795)	(0.0776)	(0.0753)	(0.059)	(0.0449)
Avg EITC at	-0.101	-0.0362	-0.0269	-0.126	-0.145*	-0.0319
Ages 6–12	(0.0725)	(0.0883)	(0.087)	(0.0701)	(0.0702)	(0.0668)
Avg EITC at	1.405***	1.340***	1.330***	1.294***	1.339***	0.732***
Ages 13–18	(0.0637)	(0.0769)	(0.0769)	(0.0683)	(0.0598)	(0.0776)
Panel C: Women Ages 19–25						
Avg EITC at	-0.199***	-0.237***	-0.248***	-0.197***	-0.181***	-0.118***
Ages 0–5	(0.0523)	(0.0444)	(0.0438)	(0.0502)	(0.046)	(0.0337)
Avg EITC at	0.0026	-0.0343	-0.0967**	0.0279	-0.057	-0.0125
Ages 6–12	(0.0396)	(0.0423)	(0.0372)	(0.0422)	(0.0446)	(0.0384)
Avg EITC at	1.325***	1.252***	1.267***	1.214***	1.285***	0.687***
Ages 13–18	(0.0679)	(0.0615)	(0.063)	(0.0726)	(0.0661)	(0.0627)
Panel D: Women Ages 26–34						
Avg EITC at	-0.243**	-0.318***	-0.290***	-0.225**	-0.202*	-0.0749
Ages 0–5	(0.0887)	(0.0669)	(0.0709)	(0.0855)	(0.0824)	(0.051)
Avg EITC at	-0.152*	-0.171*	-0.223**	-0.128	-0.262***	-0.155*
Ages 6–12	(0.0664)	(0.0684)	(0.0699)	(0.0738)	(0.0666)	(0.0713)
Avg EITC at	1.450***	1.432***	1.403***	1.340***	1.372***	0.687***
Ages 13–18	(0.0761)	(0.078)	(0.0861)	(0.0842)	(0.0733)	(0.084)

Notes: Each column reports a regression of the outcome on EITC exposure by age group. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.15b: Effect of EITC Exposure by Age Band on Tract Outcomes (2 of 6)

Outcome:	**HH Income 2000**	**College 2000**	**College 2010**	**Foreign Share 2010**	**HH Income 1990**	**HH Income 2016**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25						
Age 0–5	-0.038***	-0.019***	-0.023***	-0.001***	-0.013***	-0.033***
	(0.006)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.0003)	(0.003)	(0.005)
Age 6–12	0.004	0.0002	-0.0004	0.00003	0.003	0.002
	(0.006)	(0.003)	(0.003)	(0.0003)	(0.003)	(0.005)
Age 13–18	0.168***	0.072***	0.080***	0.001*	0.065***	0.142***
	(0.008)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.0004)	(0.004)	(0.008)
Observations	2492000	2492000	2493000	2493000	2492000	2493000
Panel B: Women Ages 19–25						
Age 0–5	-0.030***	-0.015***	-0.018***	-0.001***	-0.011***	-0.026***
	(0.007)	(0.002)	(0.003)	(0.0003)	(0.003)	(0.006)
Age 6–12	-0.0002	-0.002	-0.005***	-0.0003	0.001	-0.004
	(0.004)	(0.002)	(0.002)	(0.0003)	(0.002)	(0.004)
Age 13–18	0.168***	0.074***	0.082***	0.0005	0.064***	0.142***
	(0.008)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.0004)	(0.004)	(0.007)
Observations	2434000	2434000	2434000	2434000	2434000	2434000
Panel C: Men Ages 26–34						
Age 0–5	-0.039***	-0.020***	-0.025***	-0.001***	-0.013***	-0.032***
	(0.008)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.0003)	(0.003)	(0.005)
Age 6–12	-0.009	-0.003	-0.003	-0.0003	-0.004	-0.012
	(0.007)	(0.004)	(0.005)	(0.0003)	(0.003)	(0.006)
Age 13–18	0.171***	0.079***	0.085***	0.001***	0.066***	0.142***
	(0.008)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.0004)	(0.004)	(0.008)
Observations	903000	903000	903000	903000	903000	903000
Panel D: Women Ages 26–34						
Age 0–5	-0.034***	-0.019***	-0.020***	-0.001**	-0.012***	-0.027***
	(0.009)	(0.003)	(0.004)	(0.0005)	(0.004)	(0.007)
Age 6–12	-0.019*	-0.009*	-0.014***	-0.0006*	-0.006	-0.026***
	(0.008)	(0.004)	(0.004)	(0.0003)	(0.004)	(0.006)
Age 13–18	0.176***	0.082***	0.089***	0.0009*	0.069***	0.146***
	(0.01)	(0.005)	(0.005)	(0.0004)	(0.005)	(0.009)
Observations	888000	888000	888000	888000	888000	888000

Notes: Each coefficient comes from a separate regression of the tract outcome on EITC exposure during specified age bands. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.15c: Effect of EITC Exposure by Age Band on Tract Outcomes (3 of 6)

Outcome:	**Population Density 2000**	**Poverty 2010**	**Poverty 2000**	**Poverty 1990**	**White Share 2010**	**Black Share 2010**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25						
Age 0–5	-0.0413	0.0045**	0.0016	0.0023	0.0013*	-0.0004
	(0.0258)	(0.0015)	(0.0015)	(0.0019)	(0.0005)	(0.0003)
Age 6–12	-0.0355	-0.0008	-0.0031	-0.0035	0.0002	-0.0002
	(0.0285)	(0.0022)	(0.0025)	(0.0025)	(0.0006)	(0.0004)
Age 13–18	-0.0446	-0.0372***	-0.0330***	-0.0327***	0.0032***	-0.0031***
	(0.0241)	(0.0023)	(0.0016)	(0.0021)	(0.0005)	(0.0005)
Observations	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000
Panel B: Women Ages 19–25						
Age 0–5	-0.0326	0.0055**	0.0030	0.0040*	0.0014*	-0.0003
	(0.0192)	(0.0019)	(0.0017)	(0.0021)	(0.0006)	(0.0004)
Age 6–12	-0.0311	0.0006	-0.0015	-0.0023	-0.0007	0.0008
	(0.0286)	(0.0020)	(0.0020)	(0.0022)	(0.0006)	(0.0004)
Age 13–18	-0.0459*	-0.0365***	-0.0318***	-0.0324***	0.0040***	-0.0036***
	(0.0233)	(0.0024)	(0.0018)	(0.0025)	(0.0005)	(0.0005)
Observations	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000
Panel C: Men Ages 26–34						
Age 0–5	-0.0367	0.0048	0.0009	0.0019	0.0019**	-0.0014**
	(0.0257)	(0.0029)	(0.0026)	(0.0031)	(0.0006)	(0.0005)
Age 6–12	-0.0319	0.0045	0.0043	0.0035	-0.0007	0.0010
	(0.0271)	(0.0029)	(0.0025)	(0.0027)	(0.0006)	(0.0006)
Age 13–18	-0.0365	-0.0356***	-0.0342***	-0.0352***	0.0036***	-0.0044***
	(0.0217)	(0.0027)	(0.0024)	(0.0026)	(0.0005)	(0.0007)
Observations	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000
Panel D: Women Ages 26–34						
Age 0–5	-0.0334	0.0064	0.0037	0.0034	0.0014	-0.0007
	(0.0220)	(0.0040)	(0.0032)	(0.0037)	(0.0009)	(0.0005)
Age 6–12	-0.0244	0.0095*	0.0050	0.0040	-0.0011	0.0016*
	(0.0199)	(0.0038)	(0.0029)	(0.0035)	(0.0008)	(0.0007)
Age 13–18	-0.0468	-0.0429***	-0.0382***	-0.0405***	0.0047***	-0.0046***
	(0.0300)	(0.0031)	(0.0025)	(0.0031)	(0.0006)	(0.0005)
Observations	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000

Notes: Each coefficient comes from a separate regression of the tract outcome on EITC exposure during specified age bands. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.15d: Effect of EITC Exposure by Age Band on Tract Outcomes (4 of 6)

Outcome:	**Hispanic Share 2010**	**Asian Share 2010**	**Black Share 2000**	**White Share 2000**	**Hispanic Share 2000**	**Asian Share 2000**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25						
Age 0–5	-0.0004	-0.0005***	-0.0005	0.0011*	-0.0004	-0.0003***
	(0.0004)	(0.0001)	(0.0003)	(0.0006)	(0.0004)	(0.0001)
Age 6–12	-0.0009	-0.0003**	-0.0003	0.0005	-0.0000	-0.0001
	(0.0004)	(0.0001)	(0.0005)	(0.0006)	(0.0004)	(0.0001)
Age 13–18	-0.0014*	0.0012***	-0.0036***	0.0042***	-0.0014*	0.0007***
	(0.0006)	(0.0002)	(0.0006)	(0.0006)	(0.0006)	(0.0001)
Panel B: Women Ages 19–25						
Age 0–5	-0.0009	-0.0003**	-0.0003	0.0011	-0.0007	-0.0002***
	(0.0005)	(0.0001)	(0.0005)	(0.0006)	(0.0005)	(0.0001)
Age 6–12	0.0001	-0.0003*	0.0006	-0.0005	0.0000	-0.0002
	(0.0004)	(0.0001)	(0.0004)	(0.0006)	(0.0004)	(0.0001)
Age 13–18	-0.0015*	0.0010***	-0.0041***	0.0048***	-0.0012*	0.0006***
	(0.0006)	(0.0001)	(0.0005)	(0.0005)	(0.0006)	(0.0001)
Panel C: Men Ages 26–34						
Age 0–5	-0.0001	-0.0004***	-0.0013*	0.0016*	-0.0001	-0.0002***
	(0.0005)	(0.0001)	(0.0005)	(0.0007)	(0.0005)	(0.0001)
Age 6–12	-0.0000	-0.0002	0.0007	-0.0004	-0.0001	-0.0002
	(0.0005)	(0.0002)	(0.0006)	(0.0007)	(0.0005)	(0.0001)
Age 13–18	-0.0006	0.0012***	-0.0047***	0.0046***	-0.0007	0.0007***
	(0.0005)	(0.0002)	(0.0007)	(0.0006)	(0.0005)	(0.0002)
Panel D: Women Ages 26–34						
Age 0–5	-0.0004	-0.0003***	-0.0006	0.0011	-0.0002	-0.0003***
	(0.0008)	(0.0001)	(0.0005)	(0.0009)	(0.0008)	(0.0001)
Age 6–12	0.0000	-0.0006**	0.0015*	-0.0009	-0.0003	-0.0004
	(0.0005)	(0.0002)	(0.0007)	(0.0008)	(0.0004)	(0.0002)
Age 13–18	-0.0014*	0.0012***	-0.0052***	0.0056***	-0.0011*	0.0008***
	(0.0006)	(0.0002)	(0.0004)	(0.0006)	(0.0005)	(0.0002)

Notes: Each coefficient comes from a separate regression of the tract outcome on EITC exposure during specified age bands. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.15e: Effect of EITC Exposure by Age Band on Tract Outcomes (5 of 6)

Outcome:	**Math Score**	**Rent (2BR, 2015)**	**Single Parent 2010**	**Single Parent 1990**	**Single Parent 2000**	**Employment Rate 2000**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25						
Age 0–5	-0.0048***	-0.0031***	0.0087*	-0.0017	0.0034	-0.0038**
	(0.0009)	(0.0006)	(0.0038)	(0.0031)	(0.0031)	(0.0015)
Age 6–12	0.0007	0.0003	-0.0006	-0.0039	0.0001	0.0033
	(0.0015)	(0.0006)	(0.0043)	(0.0043)	(0.0037)	(0.0022)
Age 13–18	0.0231***	0.0086***	-0.0673***	-0.0490***	-0.0612***	0.0280***
	(0.0022)	(0.0007)	(0.0050)	(0.0041)	(0.0046)	(0.0016)
Observations	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000
Panel B: Women Ages 19–25						
Age 0–5	-0.0036***	-0.0024***	0.0030	-0.0018	0.0016	-0.0049**
	(0.0010)	(0.0004)	(0.0047)	(0.0036)	(0.0041)	(0.0015)
Age 6–12	-0.0006	-0.0003	0.0086*	-0.0008	0.0027	0.0029
	(0.0013)	(0.0006)	(0.0036)	(0.0032)	(0.0029)	(0.0019)
Age 13–18	0.0223***	0.0088***	-0.0658***	-0.0472***	-0.0602***	0.0282***
	(0.0021)	(0.0008)	(0.0052)	(0.0046)	(0.0050)	(0.0016)
Observations	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000
Panel C: Men Ages 26–34						
Age 0–5	-0.0043***	-0.0031***	0.0048	-0.0064	-0.0015	-0.0035
	(0.0013)	(0.0008)	(0.0055)	(0.0047)	(0.0046)	(0.0026)
Age 6–12	-0.0024	-0.0011	0.0068	0.0076*	0.0109**	-0.0018
	(0.0021)	(0.0009)	(0.0041)	(0.0036)	(0.0034)	(0.0032)
Age 13–18	0.0244***	0.0104***	-0.0658***	-0.0488***	-0.0615***	0.0303***
	(0.0026)	(0.0009)	(0.0049)	(0.0042)	(0.0042)	(0.0029)
Observations	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000
Panel D: Women Ages 26–34						
Age 0–5	-0.0022	-0.0028***	0.0041	-0.0044	0.0009	-0.0059*
	(0.0016)	(0.0006)	(0.0067)	(0.0052)	(0.0056)	(0.0028)
Age 6–12	-0.0057**	-0.0020	0.0196**	0.0084	0.0133**	-0.0063*
	(0.0022)	(0.0011)	(0.0060)	(0.0046)	(0.0043)	(0.0031)
Age 13–18	0.0224***	0.0102***	-0.0735***	-0.0538***	-0.0660***	0.0338***
	(0.0028)	(0.0010)	(0.0056)	(0.0050)	(0.0048)	(0.0027)
Observations	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000

Notes: Each coefficient comes from a separate regression of the tract outcome on EITC exposure during specified age bands. Standard errors in parentheses. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.1$.

Table A.15f: Effect of EITC Exposure by Age Band on Tract Outcomes (6 of 6)

Outcome:	**Wage Growth (HS)**	**Jobs (Total, 5mi)**	**Jobs (High-Pay, 5mi)**	**Pop. Density 2010**	**Annual Job Growth**	**Job Density 2013**
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Men Ages 19–25						
Age 0–5	-0.0001	-1.6630*	-0.9680*	-0.1110	-0.0010	-0.0199
	(0.0005)	(0.6460)	(0.3830)	(0.0672)	(0.0012)	(0.0160)
Age 6–12	0.0002	-1.2210	-0.7000	-0.0970	-0.0006*	-0.0037
	(0.0005)	(0.8450)	(0.4770)	(0.0782)	(0.0012)	(0.0121)
Age 13–18	-0.0006	-0.8560	-0.5020	-0.1040	0.0071***	-0.0312***
	(0.0006)	(0.6350)	(0.3730)	(0.0619)	(0.0019)	(0.0079)
Observations	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,493,000	2,446,000	2,493,000
Panel B: Men Ages 26–35						
Age 0–5	0.0001	-1.0000***	-0.5170***	-0.0850	-0.0016	-0.0071
	(0.0005)	(0.2460)	(0.1350)	(0.0480)	(0.0010)	(0.0061)
Age 6–12	0.0003	-0.7280	-0.4150	-0.0863	-0.0018*	-0.0149
	(0.0007)	(0.6300)	(0.3580)	(0.0769)	(0.0013)	(0.0117)
Age 13–18	-0.0007	-1.3790	-0.8230	-0.1070	0.0059***	-0.0356**
	(0.0005)	(0.9880)	(0.5900)	(0.0598)	(0.0016)	(0.0113)
Observations	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,434,000	2,388,000	2,434,000
Panel C: Women Ages 19–25						
Age 0–5	-0.0024*	-1.2770**	-0.7060**	-0.1020	0.0033*	-0.0166
	(0.0009)	(0.4700)	(0.2690)	(0.0676)	(0.0016)	(0.0197)
Age 6–12	0.0031***	-0.8490	-0.4930	-0.0829*	-0.0036*	0.0234
	(0.0009)	(0.6620)	(0.3760)	(0.0685)	(0.0016)	(0.0125)
Age 13–18	-0.0017	-0.5640	-0.3470	-0.0858	0.0062**	-0.0082
	(0.0010)	(0.5800)	(0.3280)	(0.0594)	(0.0019)	(0.0089)
Observations	903,000	903,000	903,000	903,000	886,000	903,000
Panel D: Women Ages 26–35						
Age 0–5	0.0004	-1.0710***	-0.5030**	-0.0867	-0.0009	0.0026
	(0.0007)	(0.3120)	(0.1580)	(0.0522)	(0.0015)	(0.0064)
Age 6–12	0.0003	-0.7470	-0.4860	-0.0702	-0.0025	-0.0175
	(0.0009)	(0.6030)	(0.3820)	(0.0527)	(0.0015)	(0.0119)
Age 13–18	-0.0003	-1.2050	-0.7470	-0.1130	0.0041	-0.0211
	(0.0008)	(1.0410)	(0.6080)	(0.0794)	(0.0022)	(0.0197)
Observations	888,000	888,000	888,000	888,000	872,000	888,000

Notes: Each cell reports a coefficient from a separate regression of the listed outcome on EITC exposure during a given childhood age window. Standard errors are in parentheses. All regressions include full controls. *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$.