Race or Nativity? Asian Immigration and the Boundaries of American Identity

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Abstract

This study examines how contemporary Asian immigration to the United States shapes whether race or nativity becomes the salient dimension of social identity in relations between Asians and White Americans. Linking measures of interracial marriage and a large-scale attitudinal survey to the Asian immigrant share of metropolitan areas, instrumented using a shift-share design, I test whether Asian immigrant inflows reinforce the racial boundary separating Asians from White Americans or instead increase the salience of the nativity boundary separating U.S.-born Asian Americans from Asian immigrants. I find that greater local Asian immigration increases White Americans' marriage with U.S.-born Asian Americans but not with Asian immigrants, while leaving their marriage with Black and Hispanic Americans largely unchanged. Greater Asian immigration also increases White Americans' favorability toward Asian Americans and weakens their explicit belief that Asian Americans are less American than European Americans. These findings suggest that immigration can make nativity, rather than race, the operative boundary within an existing racial category: as the Asian immigrant population grows, White Americans and U.S.-born Asian Americans converge, while the distinction between U.S.-born and foreign-born Asians becomes more salient.

Keywords: Immigration, Group identity, Boundary, Asian Americans

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1 Introduction

In an era of large-scale international migration, national populations increasingly comprise individuals with multiple and overlapping identities. The same person can identify or be categorized by others as a member of a racial or ethnic group and, at the same time, as a native or an immigrant. A large literature examines racial majority-minority relations (Lang and Spitzer, 2020; Boustan, 2010; Calderon et al., 2023), as well as immigrant-native relations (Alesina and Tabellini, 2024; Abramitzky and Boustan, 2017). Nevertheless, relatively little attention has been paid to the intersection of these identities — for example, to the native-immigrant distinction *within* an ethnic minority and how that shapes the minority's relationship with the ethnic majority.[1]

The distinction is becoming more important because contemporary migration often occurs within already racially diverse societies and involves immigrants who are racially similar to established minority populations (Waters and Jiménez, 2005; Jiménez, 2008). This contrasts with earlier waves of immigration, which often introduced groups that differed sharply from the populations already living in the country in ethnic origin, culture, and phenotypic characteristics (Fouka et al., 2022; Fouka and Tabellini, 2022; Hessami and Schirner, 2024; Jurado and Serrano-Serrat, 2026; Abascal, 2015). Recent inflows can therefore increase heterogeneity within an existing racial group, making it less clear which dimension of identity separates "us" from "them" (Kranton, 2016). In this setting, which boundary — race or nativity — becomes salient when immigrants enter an established minority category?

I study this question in the context of Asian immigration to the United States (the U.S.) and the relationships among White Americans, U.S.-born Asian Americans, and foreign-born Asian immigrants. Asians are among the fastest-growing racial groups in the country and exhibit high levels of socioeconomic integration (Postel, 2026; Lee and Kye, 2016). Yet Asian Americans occupy an ambiguous position in the U.S. racial order: they are frequently perceived as competent and successful while remaining persistently associated with foreignness

[1] See Figure 1 for an illustrative figure.

(Kim, 1999; Lee and Kye, 2016). Historical exclusion operated through racialized categories rather than simply through nativity, helping to fuse Asian racial identity with foreignness (Postel, 2026). As a result, U.S.-born Asian Americans may continue to be perceived as foreign despite their U.S. nativity and relatively high levels of socioeconomic and cultural integration (Devos and Banaji, 2005; Okura, 2026; Hilger, 2016). Their rapid demographic growth, combined with this enduring association with foreignness, provides a particularly revealing context in which to ask whether a growing Asian immigrant population reinforces the racial boundary separating Asians from White Americans or instead makes nativity more salient within the Asian population.

I focus on intermarriage as a measure widely used to study intergroup boundaries and identity preference (Alba and Nee, 2003; Fouka et al., 2022; Voigtländer and Voth, 2013; Gould and Klor, 2016; Giuliano and Tabellini, 2020). Marriage decisions are jointly determined by members of both groups, making intermarriage a natural measure of the social boundaries between them (Lamont and Molnár, 2002). This measure is particularly useful in the Asian American context, where high levels of socioeconomic integration make it less plausible that marriage choices primarily reflect differences in socioeconomic status or aspirations for upward mobility, and more plausible that they capture social and identity boundaries.

Whether the racial or nativity boundary becomes more salient may depend on how immigration affects the association between Asian identity and foreignness. If immigration reinforces the association between Asian identity and foreignness, it may strengthen the racial boundary separating Asians from White Americans. In this case, White Americans should respond similarly to U.S.-born Asian Americans and Asian immigrants, implying similar effects of Asian immigration on intermarriage with the two groups. Alternatively, a larger foreign-born Asian population may make nativity more salient by distinguishing U.S.-born members of the minority from immigrants, potentially moving the former closer to the White majority. In this case, Asian immigration is expected to increase intermarriage

between White Americans and U.S.-born Asian Americans, but not between White Americans and Asian immigrants. More broadly, the two hypotheses yield different predictions about whether immigration reinforces a common racial boundary or instead creates a sharper nativity boundary within the Asian population.

Using data from the American Community Survey, I examine how growth in the local Asian immigrant population changes the rate at which newly married White Americans, Asian Americans, and Asian immigrants marry across racial and nativity boundaries. I control for the predicted share of marriage-eligible coethnic adults of the opposite sex to account for the availability of potential partners. I complement the marriage analysis with survey data from Morehouse et al. (2025), which provide measures of implicit and explicit ethnic-national associations and preferences among Asian and White American respondents. Both datasets are linked to the same measure of Asian immigration at the metropolitan statistical area (MSA) level. I first estimate two-way fixed effects models with MSA and region-by-year fixed effects. A key concern is that time-varying local conditions may simultaneously affect immigrant settlement and residents' behavior. For example, a local demand shock could attract Asian immigrants while independently reducing racial intolerance and increasing intermarriage. Therefore, I instrument the Asian immigrant share using a shift-share design that interacts national-origin-specific inflows with initial settlement patterns (Card, 2001, 2009; Goldsmith-Pinkham et al., 2020).

The results indicate that a larger local Asian immigrant population significantly increases the rate at which White Americans marry Asian Americans for both women and men. By contrast, marriage to Asian immigrants responds only weakly among White American women and not at all among White American men, even though the supply of potential partners increases most directly for immigrants themselves. Immigration thus increases marriage with U.S.-born members of the arriving group's racial category while leaving marriage with the arrivals themselves largely unchanged, a pattern consistent with a brightening nativity boundary. Applying the same design to White American marriage with Black and Hispanic

Americans yields estimates indistinguishable from zero, indicating that the result is specific to the boundary surrounding Asians rather than reflecting a general loosening of racial boundaries in high-immigration metropolitan areas. Asian Americans and Asian immigrants, in contrast, do not significantly increase intermarriage. Couple-level measures of interracial marriage aggregated to the MSA level reproduce the same asymmetry.

The attitudinal results provide complementary evidence. White American respondents in metropolitan areas with larger Asian immigrant populations report more favorable attitudes toward Asian Americans relative to European Americans. White American respondents also express weaker beliefs that Asian Americans are less American than European Americans. Asian American respondents move in the same direction, although that estimate is only marginally significant. The effects are significantly larger in MSAs with lower residential segregation between Asians and Whites and a higher share of Asians with a college degree at baseline. Together with the marriage results, these patterns are consistent with a shift away from race as the primary boundary and toward nativity as a basis for distinguishing U.S.-born Asian Americans from Asian immigrants. I interpret these findings as evidence consistent with a change in nativity boundary salience.

This paper contributes to three strands of literature. First, it contributes to research on how intergroup relations change in contemporary racially diverse societies. A growing body of work examines how exposure and contact reshape intergroup relations (Shayo, 2020; Bagues and Roth, 2023; Bursztyn et al., 2024; Carvajal, 2026; Bleemer, 2026; Bazzi et al., 2019; Steinmayr, 2021), as well as how the arrival of a new group changes the position of an incumbent minority (Fouka and Tabellini, 2022; Fouka et al., 2022; Hessami and Schirner, 2024; Jurado and Serrano-Serrat, 2026; Abascal, 2015). For example, Fouka et al. (2022) show that the arrival of Black Americans during the Great Migration facilitated the assimilation of phenotypically and culturally similar European immigrants into the White American category. Hessami and Schirner (2024) find that the arrival of asylum seekers from countries such as Syria and Afghanistan in Germany increased support for culturally similar immi-

grant candidates from Southern and Eastern Europe. In these settings, the arriving group and incumbent minority occupy different racial or ethnic categories.

This study instead considers an already diverse setting in which the arriving group and incumbent minority share a racial category. This changes the nature of the boundary at stake. While existing studies examine how the arrival of a new group alters the position of an incumbent minority relative to a distinct racial or ethnic group, relatively little attention has been paid to boundaries *within* an existing racial category (see also Schachter, 2021). Such within-group boundaries are particularly relevant when individuals hold multiple, overlapping identities: the same person may be identified by both race and nativity, and demographic change may alter which identity becomes socially salient. In doing so, this study highlights a dimension of intergroup relations that is less visible in settings where racial and nativity boundaries largely coincide. It further combines revealed preferences in the marriage market with explicit attitudes and implicit associations, linking behavioral measures of social distance (Fouka et al., 2022; Hessami and Schirner, 2024) to survey measures of social categorization and attitudes (Fouka and Tabellini, 2022; Abascal, 2015; Jurado and Serrano-Serrat, 2026).

Second, the paper observes both sides of a boundary under a common demographic shock and connects two largely one-sided strands of literature. The first examines how immigration shapes attitudes toward immigrants, focusing primarily on majority-group perspectives (Laurence et al., 2022; Bursztyn et al., 2024; Fouka and Tabellini, 2022). How incumbent minorities respond to the same inflow has received less attention (see also Okura, 2026). The second concerns assimilation, focusing largely on whether minorities adopt the language, occupations, residential patterns, and identities of the host society (Alba and Nee, 2003; Waters and Jiménez, 2005; Bleakley and Chin, 2010; Gould and Klor, 2016; Fouka, 2020, 2022). Although assimilation is recognized as a two-sided process (Alba and Nee, 2003; Fouka, 2022), less is known about how the majority responds to minorities' incorporation. Social boundaries are not properties of either group alone; they emerge through mutual pro-

cesses of identification and classification (Lamont and Molnár, 2002; Cornell and Hartmann, 2006). By observing both groups under a common demographic shock, this paper examines not only whether the salience of a social boundary changes, but also how responses on each side contribute to that change.

Third, this study contributes to the literature on contemporary identity among Asian immigrants and their descendants. Despite being the fastest-growing major minority group, quantitative research on Asian Americans in contemporary settings remains relatively scarce (Postel, 2026). Existing work examines historical Asian exclusion (Long et al., 2024) and Asian American assimilation (Chen and Xie, 2024; Saavedra, 2021), but less is known about contemporary identity and perceptions of belonging, partly because of limitations in survey samples (Tran, 2024). This study utilizes the survey data from Morehouse et al. (2025), which provide unusually large samples of Asian Americans. Linking these measures to local demographic exposure allows the paper to examine how Asian and White Americans respond to changes in the composition of their metropolitan environments. More broadly, the findings show how demographic change can alter the boundary within an existing racial group.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides background on Asian Americans in the U.S. racial order, introduces the distinction between racial and nativity boundaries, and develops the competing predictions. Section 3 describes the data and the construction of the MSA-level measure of Asian immigration. Section 4 presents the research design. Section 5 presents the results for marriage and attitudes, along with validity checks. Section 6 concludes.

2 Boundaries, Immigration, and Asian Americans

2.1 Asian Americans and Racialized Americanness

Asians are the fastest-growing major racial group in the U.S. The Asian population more than doubled between 2000 and 2023, from 11.9 to 24.8 million, and its 109% growth over

that period outpaced the Hispanic, Black, and White populations; Asians now make up 7% of the national population (Im, 2025). Immigration accounts for much of that increase, and 54% of Asian Americans are foreign-born, so the category spans a large immigrant generation alongside a growing U.S.-born one (Tran, 2024; Postel, 2026). This growth is important for two reasons. First, a population of this size and trajectory can meaningfully affect the composition of the national ingroup. Second, it provides the variation that the empirical design exploits, as the inflow of Asian immigrants has been uneven across metropolitan areas. More importantly, because new arrivals are predominantly foreign-born while the U.S.-born Asian population continues to grow, immigration increases the internal heterogeneity of the Asian population along the very dimension of nativity whose salience is at issue (Tran, 2024).

Asian Americans nonetheless exhibit high levels of economic and cultural assimilation, as measured by conventional indicators of socioeconomic integration such as education, income, and intermarriage (Im, 2025; Hilger, 2016). Intermarriage among U.S.-born Asians has risen steadily since 1960 (Fryer Jr., 2007). In 2015, 29% of Asian newlyweds married outside their race or ethnicity, a rate that reaches 46% among the U.S.-born (Livingston and Brown, 2017). This is important for interpreting intermarriage as a measure of racial boundaries. When a minority is economically disadvantaged relative to the majority, marriage across the racial boundary may reflect an exchange between socioeconomic standing and group membership, making changes in intermarriage difficult to attribute to identity alone. The relatively high socioeconomic integration of Asian Americans makes such a status-exchange interpretation less compelling in this setting, and Furtado and Theodoropoulos (2011) find that education does not appear to drive the marriage decisions of Asians in the way it does for other groups. It therefore provides a useful context for asking whether changes in intermarriage reflect a shift in the salience of racial versus nativity boundaries, rather than primarily a response to changes in relative socioeconomic standing.

On a standard account of immigrant assimilation, a group with this profile should move toward the mainstream, with the racial boundary separating it from the mainstream gradu-

ally weakening (Alba and Nee, 2003; Abramitzky and Boustan, 2017). Yet Asian Americans occupy an ambiguous position in the U.S. racial order. They are often stereotyped as competent and successful but remain positioned outside the national ingroup (Kim, 1999). Survey and experimental evidence in social psychology suggests that this association is widespread, with Asians implicitly perceived as less American than White Americans (Devos and Banaji, 2005; Morehouse et al., 2025; Kurdi et al., 2025).

This association between Asian descent and foreignness is in part rooted in U.S. immigration and citizenship policy. Restrictions beginning in 1875 curtailed Asian immigration for nearly a century and barred many Asians from naturalization until the 1940s (Postel, 2026). Exclusion operated through racialized categories rather than simply through nativity, helping to fuse Asian racial identity with foreignness. As a result, Asian Americans may be perceived as foreign even when they are U.S.-born. The Asian American case is therefore particularly useful for studying the relationship between racial and nativity boundaries: the population contains both immigrants and U.S.-born individuals, yet the two categories have historically been perceived as overlapping.

2.2 Cross-Cutting Categories and Boundary Salience

Sociological research on group membership conceptualizes social groups as organized through boundaries, the conceptual distinctions through which actors separate "us" from "them" (Lamont and Molnár, 2002). These boundaries are neither fixed nor purely institutional but continually negotiated (Wimmer, 2008; Abascal, 2020). Membership is consequently the joint product of self-identification and external classification (Cornell and Hartmann, 2006), where a minority may claim membership in the mainstream, but recognition depends on whether others accept that claim. This motivates the analysis below, which observes White and Asian Americans under a common shock rather than either group alone.

The question in this paper is not whether the racial or nativity boundary has expanded or contracted, but which boundary becomes more salient in response to demographic change.

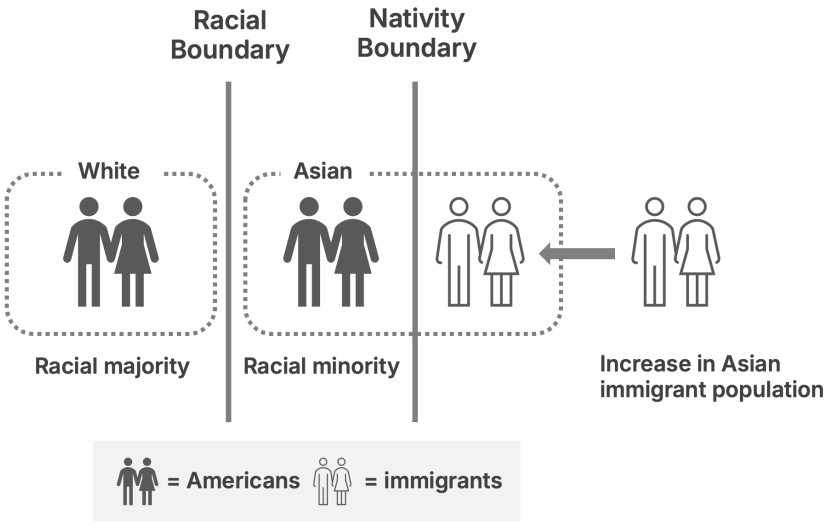
Individuals can be sorted along multiple dimensions. The same person can hold multiple identities like race, nativity, gender and class, and these partitions coexist rather than replace one another (e.g., Carvalho and Pradelski, 2022; Carvalho et al., 2025; Bonomi et al., 2021; Bisin and Verdier, 2000). Akerlof and Kranton (2000) and Kranton (2016) note that when a person belongs to several social categories at once, the situation may determine which category becomes salient. Immigration is one of the most important contextual forces that can shift salience among preexisting partitions (Wimmer, 2008). Yet the literature has paid relatively limited attention to how patterns of immigration shape identity formation and boundary processes in practice.

2.3 Which Boundary Becomes Salient?

Which boundary — race or nativity — becomes more salient in White–Asian relations as the Asian immigrant population grows? The answer depends on whether immigration reinforces or attenuates the foreignness attached to Asian Americans. If immigration reinforces the association between Asian identity and foreignness, the racial boundary should become more salient. If, instead, the arrival of a more visibly foreign population differentiates U.S.-born Asian Americans from immigrants, the nativity boundary may become more salient, allowing Asian Americans to be perceived as relatively closer to White Americans. Figure 1 summarizes the two accounts and the predictions that distinguish them.

Racial boundary. The racial boundary should become more salient if increased Asian immigration strengthens the association between Asian identity and foreignness. Continued immigration may sustain the association between Asian identity and foreignness by keeping the ethnic group socially visible and continually adding members who are more closely connected to countries of origin and who may be perceived as culturally distinct from the majority (Jiménez, 2008). If White Americans fail to perceive heterogeneity within the Asian category along the dimension of nativity, the foreignness associated with Asian immigrants

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework



may spill over onto U.S.-born Asian Americans. In other words, the growth of the immigrant population may make Asian identity itself more strongly associated with being foreign, regardless of nativity. Although Asian Americans may recognize substantial differences between U.S.-born Asian Americans and Asian immigrants, they may nevertheless continue to identify with, and be identified through, a broader panethnic Asian category.

The racial-boundary account therefore predicts that as the racial boundary becomes more salient, intermarriage between White Americans and U.S.-born Asian Americans and intermarriage between White Americans and Asian immigrants should move in the same direction. Any change in marriage across the racial boundary should apply to both groups because their shared Asian racial identity is the relevant category. If mechanisms associated with positive intergroup contact are dominant, intermarriage with both groups should increase; if mechanisms associated with group threat are dominant, intermarriage with both groups should decrease. Correspondingly, White Americans and Asian Americans should show little change in the extent to which they perceive U.S.-born Asian Americans as American.

Nativity boundary. The nativity boundary, by contrast, should become more salient if increased Asian immigration attenuates the foreignness attached to U.S.-born Asian Americans. When a new group arrives that is particularly distant from the majority on a given attribute, incumbent groups that share that attribute with the majority can appear relatively proximate and become categorized as closer to the ingroup (Fouka and Tabellini, 2022; Shayo, 2009). If White Americans perceive the distinction between U.S.-born Asian Americans and Asian immigrants, the latter may become the more foreign category. U.S.-born Asian Americans, who share both racial identity with immigrants and nativity with White Americans, may consequently appear relatively closer to the White majority. Asian Americans may also have incentives to emphasize their proximity to the majority when a more socially distant group grows, particularly if doing so elevates their relative group status (Shayo, 2009). This process may lead U.S.-born Asian Americans to place greater emphasis on their Americanness relative to their ethnic origin, thereby increasing their distinction from Asian immigrants and potentially encouraging greater cultural assimilation and intermarriage with White Americans.

The nativity hypothesis therefore yields a distinct empirical prediction: intermarriage between White Americans and U.S.-born Asian Americans should increase, while intermarriage between White Americans and Asian immigrants should show little or no corresponding increase. This divergence is central to identifying which boundary becomes salient. An increase in intermarriage with U.S.-born Asian Americans without a comparable increase in intermarriage with Asian immigrants would indicate that the nativity boundary has become more salient and that U.S.-born Asian Americans have become closer to White Americans as the immigrant population grows. Correspondingly, White Americans and Asian Americans should be more likely to perceive U.S.-born Asian Americans as American.

3 Data

The analysis combines two individual-level datasets with a common MSA-year measure of Asian immigration. The first is constructed from newly married couples in the American Community Survey (ACS); the second provides measures of implicit and explicit ethnic-national associations from Project Implicit. Both datasets are merged to the same MSA-level measures of Asian immigration, so the marriage and attitudinal analyses rely on the same underlying geographic variation in immigrant exposure. Table 1 reports summary statistics for both datasets.

3.1 MSA-level Immigration Data

Stocks and shares of Asian immigrants. To measure local Asian immigrant presence, I use MSA-level counts of the foreign-born population by country of origin and total population from the 2000 U.S. Census and the ACS. The primary treatment variable is the share of Asian immigrants in the total MSA population. MSAs provide a natural geographic unit for capturing local labor markets, social networks, and demographic composition, all of which shape exposure to Asian immigrants.

I define Asian immigrants as foreign-born individuals from countries in East Asia, South-Central Asia, and Southeast Asia, excluding West Asia (the Middle East).[2] For ACS five-year estimates, I assign each observation to the midpoint year of the survey window.[3] Because country-of-origin detail is more coarsely grouped in older data, I aggregate countries in more

[2]Here, k indexes the following Asian origin categories: China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Korea, Japan, Other Eastern Asia (Macau, Mongolia), Vietnam, Cambodia, Philippines, Thailand, Laos, Malaysia, Indonesia, Other South Eastern Asia (Singapore, Brunei, Myanmar), Afghanistan, Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Iran, and Other South Central Asia (Bhutan, Kazakhstan, Nepal, Sri Lanka, Uzbekistan, Maldives, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Turkmenistan).

[3]I measure the Asian immigrant share from the five-year ACS rather than the one-year file. The Census Bureau does not publish the detailed place-of-birth table in the one-year product for most metropolitan areas: between 2007 and 2021 the one-year table reports between 26 and 44 metropolitan areas per year, against 355 to 381 in the five-year product. Availability tracks the size of the foreign-born population rather than total population, so it also selects on the instrument, and a linear probability model of one-year coverage on the instrument with year fixed effects returns a coefficient of 4.080 (s.e. 0.828). Where both products report a value they agree closely, with a log correlation of 0.999 and a median absolute deviation of 5.1 percent, so the five-year file is not a biased version of the one-year file but a more widely measured one.

recent data to the corresponding subregional categories when necessary, ensuring consistency with the 2000 Census classification.

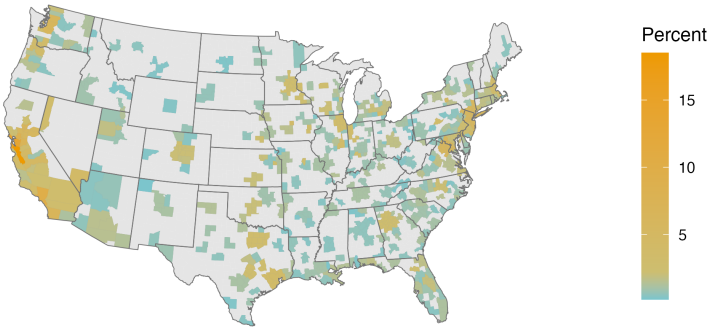
National inflows by country of origin. To measure national immigration inflows by country of origin, I use data from the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) *Yearbook of Immigration Statistics*, which reports annual inflows to the U.S. by country of origin. These national inflows are used in the shift-share construction of predicted local Asian immigrant growth described below.

Figure 2 shows descriptive patterns of Asian immigration. Panel (a) maps the Asian immigrant share of the population across metropolitan areas in 2000, capturing the settlement shares that form the basis of the instrument. The median metropolitan area is about one percent Asian immigrants, while the maximum is 18.50 percent. Asian settlement is distributed across MSAs but is concentrated primarily along the Pacific coast (see also Appendix Figure A.1). Panel (b) plots national inflows by country of origin, capturing the corresponding national shifts. Total inflows were roughly flat through 2016 and declined thereafter, but their composition changed substantially over the period.[4] Admissions from the Philippines and China declined, while admissions from India increased, making India the largest single origin by 2021. The identifying variation therefore comes from the interaction of the two. Panel (c) plots the change over time in the share of Asian immigrants. Averaged across the metropolitan areas in the analysis sample, the Asian immigrant share of the population rises from 3.5 percent in 2007 to 4.5 percent in 2021.

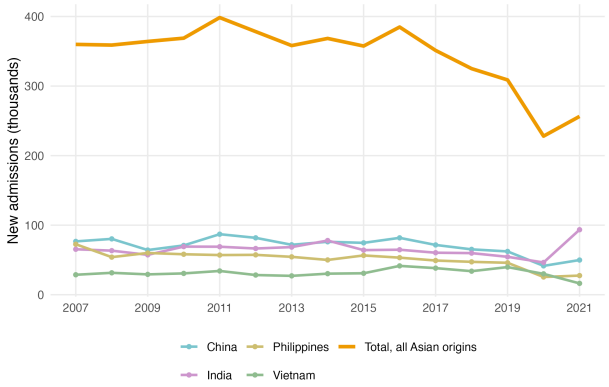
[4]The composition of national inflows changes visibly over the period, but not from one year to the next. Jaeger et al. (2018) show that when the origin mix of national inflows remains nearly constant, the instrument predicts earlier arrivals as well as current ones, making it difficult to distinguish responses at different horizons. Because the treatment in this paper is a cumulative stock rather than a flow of recent arrivals, however, the horizons that remain difficult to distinguish are not ones that the estimand requires me to separate. See Section 4 for further discussion.

Figure 2: Asian Immigrant Settlement in 2000, National Inflows, and Local Stocks by Origin

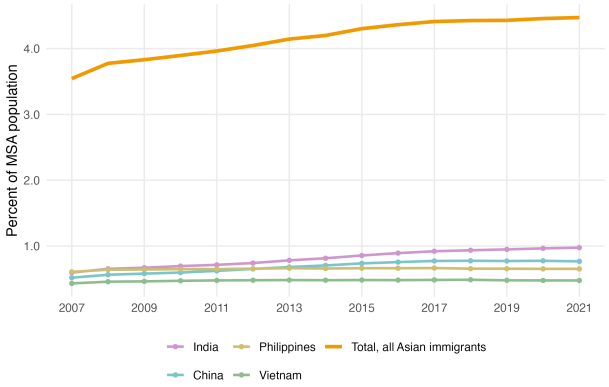
(a) Asian immigrant share, 2000



(b) National inflows by origin



(c) Immigrant share by origin



Notes: Panel (a) reports the foreign-born Asian population as a percent of total population in each metropolitan statistical area in 2000, from the 2000 U.S. Census, for the 381 metropolitan areas with a reported value. Panel (b) reports annual persons obtaining lawful permanent resident status by country of birth, from the Department of Homeland Security Yearbook of Immigration Statistics. Panel (c) reports the foreign-born population from each origin as a percent of total population, summed over the 340 metropolitan areas observed in every year of the sample period, from the five-year ACS. In panels (b) and (c), the four origins with the largest cumulative inflows over 2007–2021 are plotted separately. The orange line is the total across all Asian origins and therefore includes the four plotted beneath it.

3.2 Interracial Marriage Data

I construct measures of intermarriage from five-year ACS microdata distributed by IPUMS USA to capture behavioral indicators of identity preference and social-boundary formation. Spouses are linked within households, so each individual record contains information on both partners' race and place of birth. I define White Americans as U.S.-born, non-Hispanic individuals who identify as White alone; Asian Americans as U.S.-born individuals who identify as Asian; and Asian immigrants as foreign-born individuals from one of the Asian origin countries listed above.

The primary unit of analysis is the individual in a newly formed marriage. The outcome is a dummy variable that equals one when the individual's spouse belongs to the group of interest and zero otherwise, following convention in the literature (Fouka, 2020; Gould and Klor, 2016; Bleemer, 2026). For White Americans, I estimate separate outcomes for whether the spouse is an Asian American or an Asian immigrant. For Asian Americans and Asian immigrants, the outcome indicates whether the spouse is a White American. Each group is analyzed separately by the sex of the focal individual.[5]

I restrict the sample to individuals who report having married in the survey year or the preceding year. The stock of existing marriages in an MSA reflects decisions made potentially decades earlier and under different local conditions, whereas newly formed unions are more likely to respond to the contemporary local environment. Because year of marriage is recorded in the ACS only beginning in 2010, the resulting sample covers 2010–2021 (the data files cover 2012–2023). Each five-year ACS file is assigned to the midpoint year of its survey window, consistent with the convention used for the MSA-level immigration measures.

Whether an individual marries outside their group depends partly on the local availability of potential within-group partners. I therefore construct a measure of the predicted

[5]Same-group marriages, such as White–White couples, appear in both the female and male samples because the unit of observation is the individual. The focus is on Asian–White intermarriage; marriages involving other racial or ethnic groups (e.g., Black–White intermarriage) are coded as zero for the outcome of interest.

composition of the local marriage market.[6] The predicted marriage-market composition is constructed separately for women and men. In the regressions, I use the measure for the sex opposite that of the focal individual, since the relevant marriage market for a woman is the local pool of men and vice versa. The size of the coethnic pool affects the incentives to marry outside one's group: when fewer within-group partners are available, intermarriage becomes more likely (Voigtländer and Voth, 2013). The same ACS files also support an aggregate version of the analysis in which intermarriage rates are calculated at the MSA-year level.

3.3 Survey Data

The attitudinal data are drawn from Morehouse et al. (2025).[7] The study builds on a well-established literature in social psychology examining the association between ethnicity and national identity using the Asian-European American ethnic-national Implicit Association Test (IAT) (e.g., Devos and Banaji, 2005; Kurdi et al., 2025).[8] I examine three outcomes: an IAT score measuring *implicit associations* between ethnicity and Americanness; an *explicit belief* measure capturing respondents' reported judgments about who counts as American; and an *explicit attitude* measure capturing relative affect toward Asian and European Americans. The analysis sample consists of White American and Asian American citizens. Foreign-born Asian respondents are excluded from the main analysis and examined separately in Appendix Table A.9.

Participation in Project Implicit is ordinarily voluntary, and individuals who seek out an implicit association test on their own are not a random sample of the population. Such respondents may be more attentive to their own racial attitudes or more connected to com-

[6]For each MSA, I calculate its share of the national population of White Americans or Asian Americans aged 18 and older in 2000 and multiply that share by the corresponding national population in each subsequent year. Dividing this predicted local population by an analogously predicted total population yields a predicted share of marriage-eligible adults that varies with national demographic trends but is allocated across MSAs according to their baseline population distribution. This measure is therefore not itself determined by subsequent local conditions. See the construction of the shift-share instrument for additional details.

[7]https://implicit.harvard.edu/implicit/Study?tid=-1

[8]For economics papers that use the IAT, see Lowes et al. (2015), Corno et al. (2022), and Bursztyn et al. (2024).

munities through which the test circulates. If these characteristics are also correlated with responsiveness to local demographic change, estimates could partly reflect selection into taking the test. The survey records how respondents arrived at the test, allowing me to identify individuals who did not choose to participate independently. Following Bursztyn et al. (2024), I restrict all three attitudinal outcomes to respondents who were directed to the test through an assignment for work, school, or a discussion group. These assigned respondents account for 41.7 percent of respondents who can be located in an MSA. The resulting attitudinal sample covers 2007–2021, the full span of the Morehouse et al. (2025) data. It is wider than the 2010–2021 marriage window, which is bounded by the first year in which the ACS records year of marriage; the two analyses therefore use the same MSA-level treatment but not the same set of years.

IAT score. The IAT is a reaction-time-based categorization task designed to measure the relative strength of automatic associations between two target categories and two attribute categories. In the ethnic-national IAT used here, the target categories are European American and Asian American, while the attribute categories are American and Foreign. Respondents complete blocks pairing the target and attribute categories in stereotype-consistent combinations (European American + American; Asian American + Foreign) and stereotype-inconsistent combinations (European American + Foreign; Asian American + American). Faster responses in the stereotype-consistent blocks indicate a stronger implicit association consistent with the "American = White / Asian = Foreign" stereotype.

The IAT outcome is summarized by an IAT D score, a standardized measure based on differences in response latencies between the stereotype-consistent and stereotype-inconsistent combined blocks. The D score has a theoretical range from -2 to $+2$ (Nosek et al., 2014). I code the measure so that larger values indicate stronger associations between Asian and Foreign. Appendix A.9 and Appendix Figure A.8 provide additional details on the construction and interpretation of the IAT measure.

Explicit belief. Respondents report the extent to which Americans of European descent versus Americans of Asian descent are more "American." Responses are recorded on a seven-point scale. I recode the scale to be centered at zero, with positive values indicating a stronger explicit belief that Asian Americans are less American than European Americans. I refer to this measure as the *belief* outcome.

Explicit attitude. Respondents also report their relative preference for Americans of European descent versus Americans of Asian descent on a seven-point scale. After recoding the scale to be centered at zero, positive values indicate a stronger preference for European Americans and therefore a less favorable explicit attitude toward Asian Americans. I refer to this measure as the *attitude* outcome.

The three outcomes capture distinct dimensions of racialized Americanness. The IAT score measures an implicit association: because the task relies on speeded classification, it is less directly influenced by deliberation or impression management and is typically interpreted as capturing the strength or accessibility of associative links between categories (Nosek et al., 2007). The explicit belief measure instead captures consciously reportable judgments about national belonging. Such judgments may reflect both personal endorsement of a stereotype and awareness of broader cultural narratives about who counts as American. The two measures therefore need not move together. Differences between implicit and explicit responses can be informative about the extent to which respondents consciously reject, reinterpret, or acknowledge widely circulating associations between race and Americanness.

The attitude measure captures affect rather than categorization. Respondents report their relative preference for Asian Americans versus European Americans, with the midpoint corresponding to equal preference. After recoding, positive values indicate a stronger preference for European Americans and thus a less favorable explicit attitude toward Asian Americans. I report this outcome alongside the belief and IAT measures because a large literature documents that immigration can affect majority-group attitudes (e.g., Bursztyn

et al., 2024; Laurence et al., 2022). Separating attitudes from beliefs allows the analysis to distinguish changes in perceptions of national belonging from broader changes in how respondents feel about Asian Americans.

Over this period the stereotype weakened substantially in the population as a whole: Morehouse et al. (2025) document declines of 41 and 47 percent in the implicit and explicit measures between 2007 and 2023, in every demographic subgroup they examine. This common trend is absorbed by the region-by-year fixed effects, so the estimates below are identified by differential change across metropolitan areas within a region rather than by the national decline.

The survey also collects detailed respondent characteristics, including age, gender, race and ethnicity, educational attainment, political ideology, and religion. Importantly, Project Implicit records respondents' location as part of the questionnaire. I use respondents' reported MSA of residence to merge the survey data with the MSA-level measures of Asian immigration. Observations for which the reported location cannot be reliably mapped to a unique MSA, such as cases with missing or ambiguous geographic information, are excluded from the analysis.

Table 1: Summary Statistics

variable	White American	Asian American
ACS:		
Female — Husband White American	0.855 (0.352)	0.300 (0.458)
Female — Husband Asian American	0.006 (0.079)	0.325 (0.468)
Female — Husband Asian Immigrant	0.005 (0.074)	0.159 (0.366)
Male — Wife White American	0.836 (0.370)	0.201 (0.401)
Male — Wife Asian American	0.010 (0.102)	0.377 (0.485)
Male — Wife Asian Immigrant	0.021 (0.142)	0.258 (0.438)
Age	35.41 (12.47)	31.84 (7.78)
Survey Data:		
IAT Score	0.41 (0.44)	0.07 (0.48)
Belief	0.42 (0.83)	0.76 (1.15)
Attitude	0.26 (0.89)	-0.73 (1.26)
% Male	0.36 (0.48)	0.38 (0.49)
Age	31.33 (13.81)	24.70 (9.58)
% Bachelor's Degree	0.43 (0.49)	0.36 (0.48)
Political Affiliation	4.49 (1.71)	4.71 (1.37)
% Christian	0.55 (0.50)	0.38 (0.48)
MSA-level Characteristics:		
Share Asian Immigrants	0.04 (0.04)	0.07 (0.06)
Predicted Share Other Immigrants	0.07 (0.05)	0.10 (0.06)

Notes: Standard deviations are reported in parentheses. Political affiliation is measured on a seven-point scale, where 1 indicates strongly conservative, 4 indicates neutral, and 7 indicates strongly liberal. The education and religion variables contain multiple categories but are binarized in this table for simplicity.

4 Method

I begin with a two-way fixed effects (TWFE) model that exploits within-MSA variation over time in the share of Asian immigrants. The specification relates changes in interracial marriage and attitudinal outcomes to changes in the local Asian immigrant share, while absorbing both time-invariant MSA characteristics and time-varying shocks common to MSAs within the same census region. Specifically, I estimate the following TWFE specification by ordinally least square (OLS):

$$y_{i,m,t} = \beta_1 AsianImmShare_{m,t} + \beta_2 \, Other\,\widehat{Imm}\,Share_{m,t} + \textbf{controls} + \delta_{r(m),t} + \lambda_m + \epsilon_{i,m,t} \quad (1)$$

where $y_{i,m,t}$ denotes individual i's outcome in MSA m and year t, including indicators of interracial marriage or survey-based measures, and $AsianImmShare_{m,t}$ denotes the share of Asian-born immigrants in MSA m at time t. To address the possibility that changes in the Asian immigrant share are correlated with broader immigration trends, I also control for the predicted share of White immigrants, $Other\,\widehat{Imm}\,Share_{m,t}$. The term λ_m denotes MSA fixed effects, while $\delta_{r(m),t}$ denotes census-region-by-year fixed effects, where $r(m)$ indexes the census region of MSA m. Thus, identification comes from within-MSA changes over time, with comparisons made within census region and year. Region-by-year fixed effects absorb shocks common to MSAs within a region in a given year. This is important because Asian immigrants are heavily concentrated in the West, so national year effects alone would leave the estimates partly identified by comparisons across regions following very different trajectories.

For the marriage specifications, **controls** includes individual age and the predicted share of marriage-eligible coethnic adults of the opposite sex. The latter accounts for the availability of potential partners, so that the estimates are not driven mechanically by changes in the local marriage market. For the survey specifications, **controls** is a vector of respondent characteristics, including gender, age, education, political identity, religion, race, and IAT-specific controls.[9]

This TWFE approach absorbs all time-invariant MSA-level unobservables that could affect both Asian immigrants' location choices and respondents' attitudinal outcomes (e.g., persistent differences between California MSAs historically coexisting with Asian immigrants

[9]Education is measured using 13 categories, political identity using 7 categories, religion using 6 categories, and race using 5 White American groups and 2 Asian groups. IAT-specific controls include question-order indicators and the number of prior IAT attempts; respondents with more than three prior attempts are excluded.

and MSAs elsewhere). Relative to purely cross-sectional approaches used in some recent studies, this approach exploits within-MSA changes over time (e.g., Laurence et al., 2022). However, MSA-level time-varying factors may still influence both immigrant settlement patterns and attitudinal outcomes. For example, an MSA's sudden increase in labor demand during the sample period may "pull" Asian immigrants and simultaneously reduce intolerance toward the group over time, inducing correlation between $AsianImmShare_{m,t}$ and $\epsilon_{i,m,t}$ even after MSA and year fixed effects.

To mitigate these concerns, I construct a predicted MSA-level share of Asian immigrants using a shift-share approach (Goldsmith-Pinkham et al., 2020; Borusyak et al., 2022, 2025). Although this approach does not fully rule out the presence of time-varying confounders, the plausibly exogenous variation in predicted Asian immigrant shares alleviates endogeneity concerns. The construction of the instrument follows the immigration literature that combines historical settlement patterns with national inflows, effectively "apportioning national change" across local areas (Card, 2009; Jaeger et al., 2018). Intuitively, new immigrants disproportionately settle in locations where earlier migrants from the same origin already live, so baseline settlement patterns map common origin-specific inflow shocks into differential local exposure.

Following Fouka and Tabellini (2022), I construct a stock-based immigration measure. It is more appropriate than a flow-based measure when the object of interest is group size or presence, such as salience, intergroup contact, or recategorization (Fouka and Tabellini, 2022). The predicted Asian immigrant share is defined as:

$$\widehat{Asian\ Imm\ Share}_{m,t} = \frac{\overbrace{\sum_{s=2007}^{t} \sum_{k} \frac{X_{m,k,0}}{X_{k,0}} \times G_{k,s}}^{\text{cumulative Asian inflow}} + \overbrace{\sum_{k} X_{m,k,0}}^{\text{baseline Asian stock}}}{\widehat{X_{m,0}}}$$

where X denotes relevant population counts. For example, $X_{m,k,0}$ is the number of immigrants from country k residing in U.S. MSA m in the baseline period 0, and $G_{k,t}$ is the

national inflow of immigrants from country k in year t. By construction, MSAs collectively apportion national inflows such that $\sum_m \frac{X_{m,k,0}}{X_{k,0}} = 1$ for each k. MSA m therefore receives immigrants from country k in proportion to its initial settlement share, equal to $\frac{X_{m,k,0}}{X_{k,0}} \times G_{k,t}$. In my setting, the baseline period 0 is the year 2000. The denominator, $\widehat{X_{m,t}}$ is defined as $\widehat{X_{m,t}} = \frac{X_{m,2000}}{X_{2000}} X_t$. The control variable, $Other\ Imm\ Share_{m,t}$, is constructed similarly using the set of White countries for k. This shift-share IV specification is estimated using two-stage least squares (2SLS).

It is important to emphasize that this measure captures a *stock* rather than a *flow*, and that it enters the specification in levels rather than in differences. Because the Asian immigrant share cumulates past arrivals and enters in levels alongside MSA fixed effects, the regressor captures the continuing exposure associated with earlier arrivals as well as exposure to more recent arrivals. The coefficient should therefore be interpreted as a cumulative exposure effect rather than as the effect of a discrete inflow at a particular horizon. Jaeger et al. (2018) raise a related concern for shift-share instruments based on past settlement patterns: such instruments can predict earlier immigrant arrivals nearly as well as current arrivals, causing the resulting estimate to combine the short-run response to new arrivals with the longer-run adjustment to previous arrivals. However, as Fouka and Tabellini (2022) similarly argues, this conflation of horizons is most consequential when short- and long-run responses move in opposite directions, as may occur for outcomes such as wages, where an initial negative effect can be offset by subsequent adjustment. For the outcomes considered here, the mechanisms discussed above could likewise imply that the effect of Asian immigrant presence on perceptions of Americanness or on intermarriage changes as exposure accumulates. The pooled coefficient therefore remains informative about the overall effect of immigrant presence, even though it does not isolate a particular temporal horizon.

I discuss identification assumptions for the IV estimation. First, the instrument must satisfy the relevance condition, meaning that the predicted Asian immigrant share strongly predicts the realized Asian share. Appendix Figure A.9 provides graphical evidence of in-

strument relevance. The predicted Asian share strongly predicts realized Asian immigrant shares, both in levels and in within-MSA variation after residualizing with respect to MSA and year fixed effects.

Second, the key identifying requirement is the exclusion/orthogonality condition: $E[\epsilon_{m,t} z_{m,t} \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \lambda_m, \delta_t] = 0$. In other words, conditional on respondent controls and fixed effects, the remaining unobserved determinants of outcomes must be uncorrelated with the shift-share instrument. Intuitively, MSA-level outcomes should not be affected by unobserved shocks that also systematically move the predicted Asian immigrant share; for example, aggregate changes in Asian immigration should not be driven by shocks specific to particular MSAs. Two frameworks justify shift-share instruments under different conditions. Borusyak et al. (2022) require the shocks to be as good as randomly assigned and identification to come from many independent shifts, which permits endogenous shares; Goldsmith-Pinkham et al. (2020) instead treat the baseline shares as the source of exogenous variation. In this setting, the *shift* component does not vary across MSAs, so it is often more credible in immigration applications to interpret identification as coming primarily from the *share* component ($E[\epsilon_{m,t} X_{m,k,0} \mid \mathbf{X}_i, \lambda_c, \delta_t] = 0$ for all k).

Under this "exogenous-shares" interpretation, this setting can be viewed as an exposure design, and orthogonality (or the exclusion restriction) is closely related to a parallel-trends assumption: absent immigration-driven demographic change, MSAs with higher baseline exposure to Asian immigrants would not have experienced systematically different trends in intermarriage or attitudes (Goldsmith-Pinkham et al., 2020). The primary vulnerability under the exogenous-shares interpretation is therefore that baseline enclave shares may proxy for MSAs that were already on systematically different unobserved trajectories in the outcome. In that case, the exclusion restriction would fail because baseline exposure is correlated with time-varying shocks to the outcome, ϵ_{ijt}. Data limitations prevent me from directly testing for parallel trends because neither the newlywed data nor the survey data extend sufficiently far back before the current sample period. I therefore examine the

plausibility of the exogenous-shares assumption through a series of robustness checks in the appendix.

First, because a Bartik estimator can be expressed as a weighted combination of estimators based on individual country shares, I report the Rotemberg weight decomposition proposed by Goldsmith-Pinkham et al. (2020). This decomposition allows me to assess whether the overall estimate is disproportionately driven by a small number of origin countries. Appendix Figures A.3 to A.5 show that the largest weights are distributed across China, India, and Vietnam, three of the four largest Asian-origin groups in the U.S. (Appendix Figure A.2), rather than concentrated in a single country. Moreover, excluding these high-weight countries does not materially change the results.

Second, Appendix Table A.1 examines whether baseline settlement shares proxy for MSA characteristics that could generate differential outcome trends. The table regresses the 2000 Asian immigrant share, as well as the shares of the four largest origin countries, on baseline demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. Higher Asian immigrant shares are correlated with some baseline characteristics, such as the share of college-educated residents, but the signs of the associations vary across origin countries. This variation mitigates the concern that baseline characteristics systematically predict exposure in a common direction that would generate a similar source of bias across groups. These baseline MSA-level differences are absorbed by MSA fixed effects, but MSA fixed effects do not address the possibility that baseline characteristics are associated with differential changes over time. To account for such time-varying confounders, Appendix Tables A.3 and A.2 interact 2000-vintage MSA characteristics with a full set of year indicators. The results remain robust, and the point estimates generally become larger in absolute magnitude. Appendix Tables A.7 and A.6 take a complementary approach by using entropy balancing to reweight low-exposure MSAs so that their baseline covariate means match those of high-exposure MSAs. The baseline specification already includes region-by-year fixed effects to account for geographically specific time-varying unobservable shocks. As an additional robustness check, Appendix Tables A.5

and A.4 include Census-division-by-year fixed effects; the results remain similar.

In addition, Appendix Figures A.7 and A.6 examine whether the results are driven by a small number of metropolitan areas. The leave-one-MSA-out estimates show that they are not. Finally, Appendix Table A.8 examines whether the instrument captures selective out-migration of U.S.-born residents rather than a behavioral response to immigration. Replacing the main outcomes with log counts of U.S.-born residents by race, I find no evidence that Asian immigration systematically changes the population distribution of other racial groups conditional on the fixed effects.

5 Results

5.1 Interracial Marriage

Table 2 reports TWFE and IV estimates for the marriage outcomes. Panel A takes White Americans as the focal group and asks whether their new spouse is an Asian American or an Asian immigrant. Panel B takes Asian Americans and Asian immigrants as the focal group and asks whether their new spouse is a White American.

Columns (1)-(4) of Panel A show that a larger local Asian immigrant population raises the rate at which White Americans marry Asian Americans. The IV estimate is 0.801 percentage points for White American women and 1.621 percentage points for White American men. The gap between the two estimators is consistent with attenuation in the TWFE specification if local factors that move with immigration also work against intermarriage. In magnitude, a one-percentage-point increase in the Asian immigrant share raises the probability that a White American woman's new spouse is an Asian American by 0.801 percentage points, roughly 1.3 times the sample mean of 0.62 percent; for White American men the increase is 1.621 percentage points, roughly 1.5 times a mean of 1.05 percent. These are large relative effects, but the base rates are low, and the treatment is scaled to the full unit interval.

The estimates for Asian immigrant spouses in columns (5)–(8) are more mixed. White

American women are also more likely to marry an Asian immigrant, although this is the one White American coefficient that weakens across the validity checks reported below. For White American men, the estimate is negative and statistically indistinguishable from zero, even though marriage to an Asian immigrant is the most common of the four outcomes in Panel A. The one outcome that does not respond is therefore the one in which the supply of potential partners grows most directly. This pattern is difficult to reconcile with a purely mechanical availability account and instead suggests that the response is specific to the distinction between U.S.-born and foreign-born Asians.

Panel B examines the same boundary from the Asian side. None of the four IV coefficients is statistically distinguishable from zero. The estimate for Asian immigrant women is negative under both estimators but remains imprecisely estimated. Thus, the movement that can be detected in the individual-level data is concentrated on the White American side of the boundary.

The same asymmetry appears in the aggregate MSA-level analysis reported in Appendix Table A.10. This analysis aggregates newly formed marriages to the MSA-year level and measures each intermarriage rate as the share of White American marriages involving the relevant Asian group. The IV estimates are positive and statistically significant for marriages between White Americans and Asian Americans. The specification additionally controls for the predicted share of Asian Americans, so the positive effect on White–Asian American marriage is not simply a mechanical consequence of a larger pool of Asian partners. In contrast, the estimates for marriages between White Americans and Asian immigrants are statistically indistinguishable from zero. The aggregate results therefore reinforce the individual-level evidence.

Appendix Table A.13 further separates Asian immigrants by citizenship status. The main immigrant measure combines naturalized citizens and non-citizens, so this exercise asks whether the marriage response is concentrated among immigrants who have naturalized. The results provide no indication that the effect on the White American side is confined

Table 2: Effects of an Increase in Asian Immigration on Intermarriage

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Panel A: White American Sample								
	Asian American Spouse				Asian Immigrant Spouse			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.188*	0.801***	0.842***	1.621***	0.321**	0.546**	-0.073	-0.342
	(0.108)	(0.275)	(0.256)	(0.290)	(0.131)	(0.253)	(0.322)	(0.422)
Observations	163,257	163,257	166,892	166,892	163,257	163,257	166,892	166,892
Mean dep. var.	0.006	0.006	0.010	0.010	0.005	0.005	0.021	0.021
R-squared	0.006	0.006	0.015	0.014	0.004	0.004	0.016	0.016
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	21.3	-	20.6	-	21.3	-	20.6
Panel B: Asian Sample, White American Spouse								
	Asian American Sample				Asian Immigrant Sample			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV
Share of Asian Immigrants	3.080**	1.469	0.312	2.558	-1.468*	-1.090	0.721	0.920
	(1.302)	(1.927)	(1.188)	(2.516)	(0.800)	(1.064)	(0.535)	(0.860)
Observations	5,767	5,767	4,984	4,984	15,913	15,913	12,131	12,131
Mean dep. var.	0.300	0.300	0.201	0.201	0.213	0.213	0.072	0.072
R-squared	0.118	0.118	0.155	0.155	0.100	0.100	0.087	0.087
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	12.6	-	13.0	-	11.7	-	12.6
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Opposite-sex Coethnic Control	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

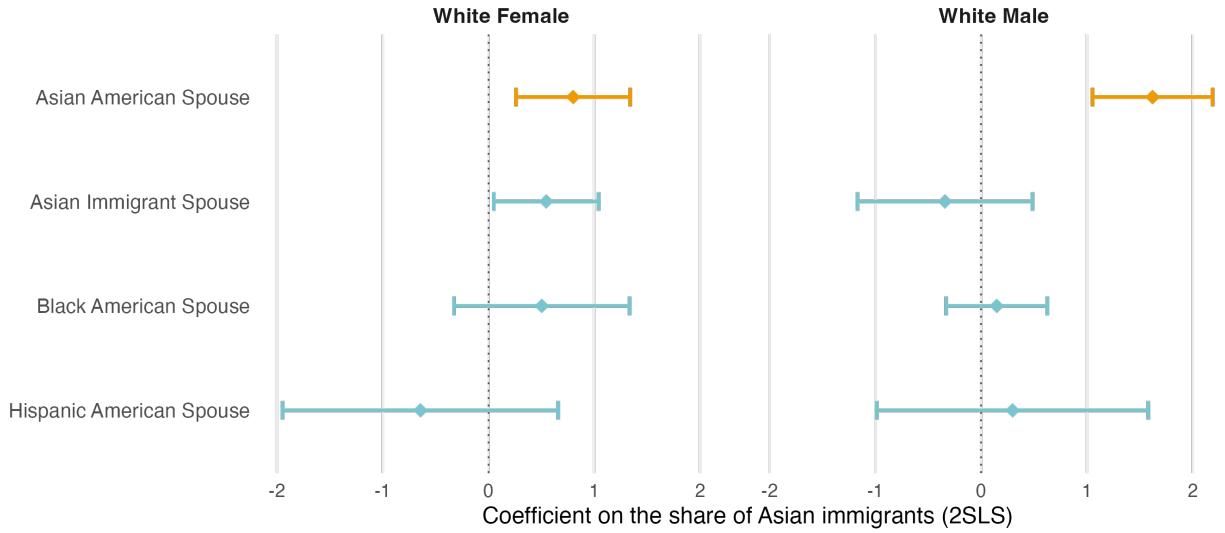
Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. Sample: individuals who married within one year of the survey year, from the ACS microdata (2010–2021). In Panel A the focal individuals are White Americans and the dependent variable equals one if the spouse belongs to the column group; in Panel B the column group names the focal individual's own group and the dependent variable equals one if the spouse is a White American.

to naturalized immigrants. This makes an explanation based entirely on immigrants' own assimilation less plausible. Instead, the distinction that appears most consistently in the marriage results is nativity: White Americans respond differently to U.S.-born Asian Americans than to Asian immigrants.

Figure 3 places the White American estimates alongside the same design applied to marriage to Black Americans and Hispanic Americans. The Black American and Hispanic American estimates are centered near zero in both panels. This pattern is consistent with a change specific to the Asian boundary rather than a general loosening of racial boundaries in metropolitan areas that receive large immigrant inflows; the underlying estimates are reported in Appendix Table A.11. Appendix Table A.12 runs the same boundary in the

other direction, taking Black and Hispanic Americans as the focal group and marriage to a White American as the outcome, and is likewise null in all four cells.

Figure 3: Marriage of White Americans by Spouse Group



Notes: Each marker is the coefficient on the share of Asian immigrants from a separate 2SLS regression, and the horizontal bars are 95% confidence intervals constructed from standard errors clustered at the MSA level. The left panel restricts the sample to White American women and the right panel to White American men. The outcome equals one if the spouse belongs to the group named on the vertical axis, where Black American is U.S.-born, Black alone, non-Hispanic, and Hispanic American is U.S.-born and Hispanic of any race.

Overall, the marriage results indicate an increase in marriage between White Americans and Asian Americans, with the clearest behavioral response occurring on the White American side. The pattern is consistent with a nativity boundary becoming more salient within the broader Asian category. The boundary separating White Americans from U.S.-born Asian Americans appears to weaken, while the distinction between U.S.-born and foreign-born Asians remains consequential. At the same time, the absence of comparable effects for marriage to Black or Hispanic Americans suggests that the result is not simply a general loosening of racial boundaries in high-immigration metropolitan areas.

5.2 Attitudinal Response

Table 3 reports TWFE and IV estimates of the effect of the MSA-level share of Asian immigrants on three attitudinal outcomes. Panel A covers White American respondents and Panel B covers Asian American respondents. Within each panel, the columns report the IAT score, the belief measure, and the attitude measure. Both samples are restricted to assigned respondents, as described above.

Among White American respondents, the IAT score is negative but not statistically significant, at -1.246 with a standard error of 0.864. The same coefficient is negative and significant at the one-percent level when the sample is widened to all non-Asian respondents, at -1.519; the point estimate is similar to that for White respondents, while the standard error falls from 0.864 to 0.434 (Appendix Table A.17).

These estimates are broadly consistent with Morehouse et al. (2025), who document a weaker Asian–Foreign association in metropolitan areas with larger Asian populations. Their analysis is cross-sectional, comparing places rather than following the same place over time, and therefore cannot distinguish the association with Asian presence from the other characteristics of metropolitan areas in which Asians have settled. This study uses the shift-share design and includes MSA fixed effects. The results preserve the relationship for the explicit measures, suggesting that the gradient they document is not simply a consequence of where Asian immigrants live. The implicit measure, however, yields a different result: once cross-sectional differences across places are removed, the IAT association becomes less precise.

The explicit belief measure, in contrast, is negative and significant at the one-percent level, at -6.695, corresponding to a decline of 0.067 points per percentage point against a sample mean of 0.422. A larger local Asian immigrant population thus weakens the explicit belief that Asian Americans are less American than European Americans. Because the item asks respondents to evaluate the Americanness of both groups, the result suggests that the ethnic component of the boundary becomes less consequential: White Americans increasingly

view Asian Americans as American. Combined with the marriage results, where marriage with U.S.-born Asian Americans rises more clearly than marriage with Asian immigrants, this pattern is consistent with nativity becoming a more salient distinction within the Asian category.

The attitude measure moves in the same direction, with an estimate of −6.521, significant at the one-percent level, representing a change of roughly 25 percent of the sample mean of 0.261. Because higher values indicate a stronger preference for European Americans, the estimate corresponds to more favorable explicit attitudes toward Asian Americans. This pattern is consistent with the contact hypothesis and with the findings of Bursztyn et al. (2024).

For Asian American respondents in Panel B, the belief measure is the only outcome that moves at all, and it moves only marginally. The instrumented estimate is −6.372, significant at the ten-percent level, implying a decline of about 8 percent of the sample mean of 0.764. Read at face value, the estimate would indicate that Asian American respondents also come to view Asian Americans as more American as local Asian immigration rises, moving on the same explicit measure and in the same direction as White American respondents rather than in the opposite direction predicted by a defensive-distancing account. Such a pattern would be consistent with the distinction that becomes more salient being between the U.S.-born and the foreign-born rather than between Asians and White Americans. The evidence for it is weak, however. The estimate is significant only at the ten-percent level, and only in the baseline specification: it is not distinguishable from zero under year or division × year fixed effects (Appendix Table A.4). I therefore read the Asian American side as suggestive at best, and the interpretation below does not rest on it. The IAT score does not move, plausibly in part because Asian American respondents begin close to neutral, with a sample mean of 0.066 compared with 0.412 for White American respondents; Morehouse et al. (2025) likewise find the implicit stereotype to be strongest among White respondents and absent among East Asian respondents. The attitude measure is also unchanged, indicating no detectable shift

in their relative favorability toward Asian Americans and European Americans.

Four additional results are reported in the appendix. First, Appendix Table A.14 splits the sample by respondent gender and finds that the explicit effects are concentrated among men, with belief and attitude estimates of −10.192 and −10.855, compared with −4.677 and −4.181 for women, of which only the belief estimate is distinguishable from zero. This pattern is suggestive in light of the marriage results, where the behavioral response is also larger among men. Second, Appendix Tables A.15 and A.16 split metropolitan areas at the median of segregation, Asian college share, and Republican vote share, for the marriage and attitudinal outcomes respectively. The explicit effects are estimated more precisely in less segregated metropolitan areas, in those with a more highly educated Asian population, and in those with lower Republican vote shares, though in the segregation split the point estimates are in fact larger in the more segregated half and it is their precision rather than their magnitude that differs. Because the first stage is not sufficiently strong in these subsamples, however, these patterns should be interpreted cautiously. Third, Appendix Table A.9 extends the analysis to Asian non-citizens, who are excluded from the main samples. Their belief measure declines sharply, by roughly one-third of its mean, while the IAT score and attitude measure are statistically indistinguishable from zero, echoing the explicit-only pattern found among citizens. Fourth, Appendix Table A.17 re-estimates the baseline among respondents who are neither East nor South Asian, first pooling them and then examining Black and Hispanic respondents separately. All three outcomes decline in the pooled non-Asian sample, but the disaggregated results are not uniform: none of the outcomes moves for Black respondents, while only the attitude measure moves for Hispanic respondents. The explicit response is therefore not confined to White Americans, although neither is it common across all groups.

Robustness. The results in this section are robust to a range of specification and validity checks. To account for time-varying regional change, replacing the region-by-year fixed

Table 3: Effects of an Increase in Asian Immigration on National Identity

	IAT Score		Belief		Attitude	
	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: White American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.175	-1.246	-1.030	-6.695***	0.090	-6.521***
	(0.531)	(0.864)	(1.298)	(1.639)	(1.323)	(2.003)
Observations	63,592	63,592	63,592	63,592	62,443	62,443
Mean dep. var.	0.412	0.412	0.422	0.422	0.261	0.261
R-squared	0.065	0.065	0.089	0.089	0.063	0.063
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	20.4	-	20.4	-	20.4
Panel B: Asian American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.320	-0.725	-3.680*	-6.372*	1.138	-0.595
	(0.871)	(1.500)	(2.033)	(3.816)	(1.784)	(2.307)
Observations	38,056	38,056	38,056	38,056	37,641	37,641
Mean dep. var.	0.066	0.066	0.764	0.764	-0.731	-0.731
R-squared	0.065	0.065	0.053	0.053	0.049	0.049
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	11.0	-	11.0	-	11.0
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1 %, 5% and 10% levels indicated by ***, ** and * respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. The F-statistic is the Kleibergen–Paap cluster-robust first-stage F-statistic, clustered by MSA. Both samples are restricted to respondents who took the test under assignment (forced respondents).

effects with either plain year or division-by-year fixed effects leaves the baseline results intact (Appendix Tables A.5 and A.4). Interacting MSA characteristics measured in 2000 with a full set of year indicators likewise leaves the estimates close to baseline (Appendix Tables A.3 and A.2). Entropy balancing the low-exposure metropolitan areas to match the high-exposure areas (Appendix Tables A.7 and A.6) likewise leaves the main estimates close to baseline.

The results are also not driven by a single origin country or metropolitan area. The Rotemberg weights are distributed across China, India, and Vietnam rather than concentrated in one origin, and the marriage estimate for White American men remains similar as each major origin is dropped in turn (Goldsmith-Pinkham et al., 2020). Appendix Figure A.3 reports this decomposition for the White American marriage sample, Appendix Figure A.4 for the Asian sample, and Appendix Figure A.5 for the attitudinal outcomes. The marriage results likewise remain stable when any of the five highest-exposure metropolitan areas is

dropped (Appendix Figure A.7). Nor does selective migration appear to explain the marriage results: replacing the marriage outcome with log counts of U.S.-born residents shows no evidence of selective displacement of White or Black Americans once division-by-year fixed effects absorb regional trends (Appendix Table A.8).

To summarize, the results suggest that, as the local Asian immigrant population grows, White Americans become more likely to marry U.S.-born Asian Americans, report a weaker explicit belief that Asian Americans are less American than European Americans, and express more favorable explicit attitudes toward Asian Americans. Asian American respondents move in the same direction on the explicit Americanness measure, though only marginally and not robustly so. At the same time, the results do not show a comparable increase in White Americans' marriage to Asian immigrants, and marriage to Black and Hispanic Americans remains largely unchanged. The pattern is therefore not simply one of greater openness toward racial minorities or greater exposure-driven intermarriage. Instead, it is consistent with a reorganization of the Asian boundary: the racial distinction separating White Americans from Asians becomes less consequential, while nativity becomes a more salient basis for distinguishing U.S.-born Asian Americans from Asian immigrants.

6 Discussion

This study asks which of two cross-cutting boundaries becomes more salient as the local Asian immigrant population grows: the racial boundary separating Asians from White Americans or the nativity boundary distinguishing U.S.-born from immigrant Asians. The Asian American case makes this question tractable because the two partitions are conceptually distinct but historically overlapping in perception, with Asian identity in the U.S. long associated with foreignness (Kim, 1999; Devos and Banaji, 2005). I link newly married couples in the ACS and implicit and explicit measures of ethnic-national association to the same MSA-level immigration shock and estimate its effect using a shift-share design.

The findings show that as the local Asian immigrant population grows, White Americans marry Asian Americans at substantially higher rates, while their marriage with Asian immigrants does not increase, even though immigration most directly expands the pool of potential immigrant partners. The attitudinal measures point in the same direction. White American respondents in the same places express a weaker explicit belief that Asian Americans are less American than European Americans and report more favorable relative attitudes toward Asian Americans. Overall, the results point to an increased salience of the nativity boundary. The behavioral response appears among White Americans, while the estimates on the Asian side are not distinguishable from zero. Because group membership is jointly produced through self-identification and external classification (Cornell and Hartmann, 2006; Lamont and Molnár, 2002), this pattern suggests that the change occurs primarily in how U.S.-born Asian Americans are classified by others rather than in their own claims of belonging.

These findings carry implications beyond intergroup attitudes. Who counts as American is a boundary of the national community, and the cohesion organized by such boundaries is linked to lower internal conflict, greater trust and cooperation, and more accountable governance (Theiss-Morse, 2009; Rohner and Zhuravskaya, 2024). The results suggest that this boundary is not fixed, even over relatively short periods, and that demographic change can rearrange it without changing the underlying characteristics of the groups involved. This possibility matters for understanding how immigration may affect political and economic attitudes. Existing work suggests that larger immigrant populations can reduce native support for redistribution, often because they heighten the salience of the boundary between the national ingroup and outgroup (Alesina et al., 2023; Alesina and Tabellini, 2024). The present results add a different possibility: demographic change can shift the salience of the boundary itself from one social partition to another rather than simply strengthening or weakening a fixed distinction.

Several limits bound this reading. First, the implicit measure does not move at the baseline, so the evidence that the automatic association between Asians and foreignness weakens

is weaker than the evidence that what respondents will say about it changes. The estimate is negative throughout and reaches significance under some specifications, but genuine divergence between explicit report and implicit association remains possible, and this design cannot distinguish the two. Second, the analysis stops at marriage and stated perception and does not reach downstream behavior such as policy support, voting, or discrimination, so it cannot establish whether a change in perceived belonging affects behavior independently of the accompanying change in favorability. Finally, whether the pattern generalizes to settings where the arriving group is not racialized as foreign, or where the arriving and incumbent groups do not share a racial category, is an open question. Future work could examine other cross-cutting pairs of boundaries under comparable demographic shocks, and could ask whether the reclassification documented here persists as the arriving cohort itself becomes American.

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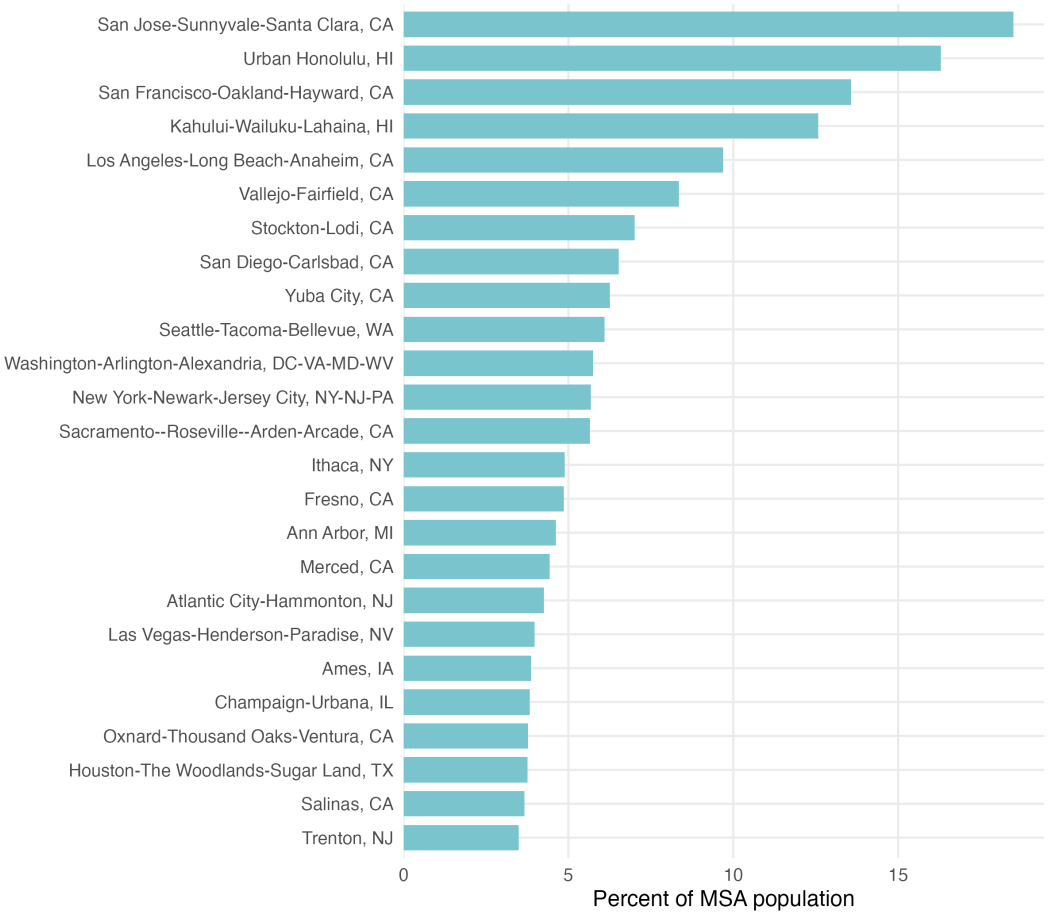
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A Appendix

A.1 Additional Descriptive Evidence on Asian Immigration

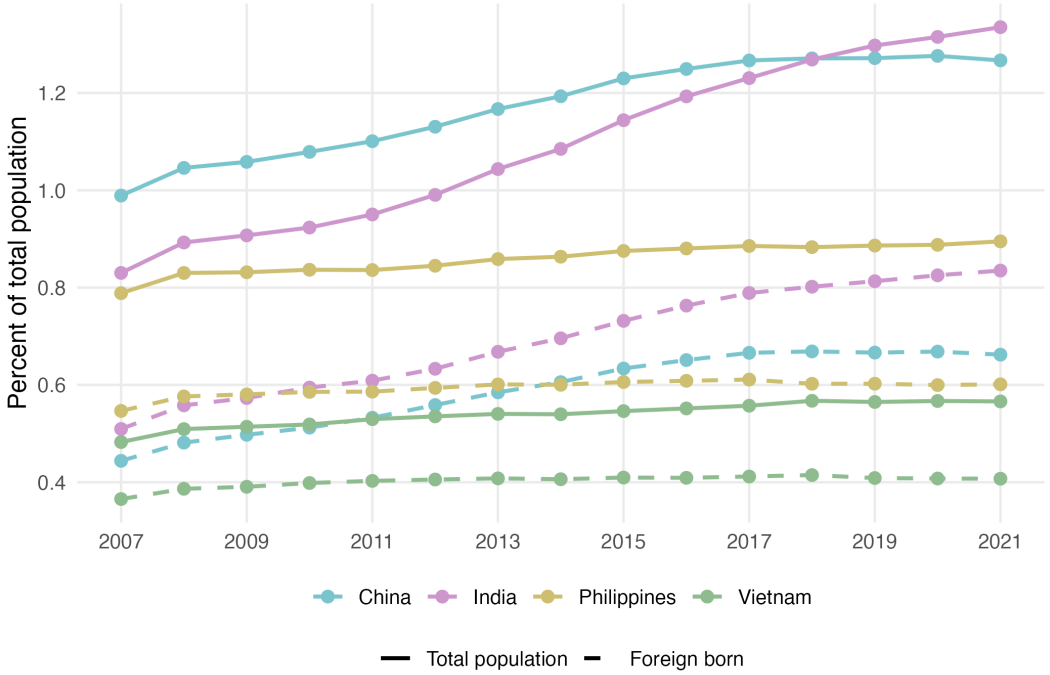
Figure A.1 lists the twenty-five metropolitan areas with the highest Asian immigrant share in 2000. The ordering is dominated by California and Hawaii. San Jose leads at 18.50 percent, followed by Urban Honolulu at 16.3 percent and San Francisco at 13.6 percent, and the shares fall below 5 percent by the bottom of the list. Because the settlement shares in this figure form the base of the instrument, metropolitan areas near the top of it receive the largest predicted exposure to any subsequent national inflow, and the leave-one-out and Rotemberg diagnostics reported below examine whether the estimates depend on them.

Figure A.1: Metropolitan Areas with the Highest Asian Immigrant Share in 2000



Notes: Foreign-born Asian population as a percent of total population in 2000, from the 2000 U.S. Census. The twenty-five metropolitan statistical areas with the highest shares are shown, out of the 381 with a reported value.

Figure A.2: Total and Foreign-Born Population of the Four Largest Asian Origin Groups



Notes: The figure reports the population of each of the four largest Asian origin groups as a percent of the total population of the United States. The denominator is the national population.

A.2 Baseline Settlement Shares and MSA Characteristics

Table A.1 examines whether the 2000 baseline Asian immigrant share (the settlement-share component of the shift-share instrument) is systematically predicted by pre-existing MSA characteristics.

I regress the 2000 MSA-level Asian immigrant population share on seven baseline characteristics — White share, employment rate, college share, median household income, female share, Republican vote share, and the Gini coefficient — controlling for the 2000 other-immigrant share. Column (1) takes the pooled Asian immigrant share as the outcome and columns (2) to (5) repeat the exercise for the four largest origin groups separately.

In column (1) the coefficient on White share is negative and significant, which is expected mechanically. Among the socioeconomic covariates, college share and the Gini coefficient are statistically significant, while employment rate, median household income, female share, and Republican vote share are not. The origin-specific columns show that these associations do not line up in a common direction: college share enters positively for the Chinese and Indian shares but negatively for the Filipino share, employment rate is negative for the Indian share and positive for the Vietnamese share, and White share is significant only for the Vietnamese and Filipino shares. Taken together, the pattern is consistent with baseline Asian settlement being driven primarily by demographic composition rather than by the socioeconomic conditions most likely to confound attitudinal or marriage outcomes, and the sign reversals across origins mitigate the concern that baseline characteristics predict exposure in a single direction common to all origins. The significant associations with college share and income inequality do indicate that settlement patterns are not orthogonal to all MSA characteristics, which motivates their inclusion as controls in the robustness checks below.

Table A.1: Correlates of 2000 Baseline Asian Immigrant Share

	All Asian	Chinese	Indian	Vietnamese	Filipino
White share (2000)	-0.0377**	-0.0013	-0.0004	-0.0033**	-0.0211*
	(0.0154)	(0.0015)	(0.0015)	(0.0015)	(0.0107)
Employment rate (2000)	0.0428	-0.0012	-0.0140***	0.0119*	0.0223
	(0.0352)	(0.0044)	(0.0046)	(0.0066)	(0.0207)
College share (2000)	0.0564***	0.0168***	0.0106***	0.0028	-0.0080**
	(0.0121)	(0.0024)	(0.0024)	(0.0025)	(0.0038)
Median HH income (2000, $10k)	0.0005	0.0001	0.0007**	0.0005	0.0001
	(0.0018)	(0.0003)	(0.0003)	(0.0005)	(0.0008)
Female share (2000)	-0.0004	0.0000	0.0004***	0.0001	-0.0007**
	(0.0008)	(0.0001)	(0.0001)	(0.0002)	(0.0003)
Republican vote share (2000)	-0.0050	-0.0028**	0.0016	0.0030	-0.0036
	(0.0082)	(0.0012)	(0.0023)	(0.0022)	(0.0028)
Gini index (2000)	-0.1051**	-0.0007	-0.0079	-0.0018	-0.0387
	(0.0509)	(0.0090)	(0.0094)	(0.0106)	(0.0313)
Observations	289	289	289	289	289
Mean dep. var.	0.0155	0.0017	0.0022	0.0020	0.0029
R-squared	0.656	0.510	0.326	0.386	0.443

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are heteroskedasticity-robust (HC1). Outcome is the MSA-level Asian immigrant population share in 2000 in column (1) and the share of the named origin group in columns (2) to (5). All columns control for the 2000 other-immigrant share, whose coefficient is suppressed. Sample is the 289 MSAs of the marriage analysis sample with non-missing 2000 characteristics.

A.3 Robustness to Flexible Trends

Tables A.3 and A.2 address the concern that MSAs with different baseline characteristics follow different trends. I include six socioeconomic characteristics in both tables, excluding White share because this demographic measure is collinear with the shares of Asian and other immigrants. The even-numbered column of each group interacts six 2000-vintage MSA characteristics with a full set of year indicators. On the White American side the estimates remain significant and move outward: the Asian American spouse coefficient rises to 1.319 for White American women and 2.600 for men, while the belief and attitude estimates become more negative, at -7.937 and -6.856. The estimates for Asian American respondents are less stable, however, given the low first-stage F statistics. Interacting baseline covariates with year indicators absorbs substantial variation in the data, leaving limited identifying variation for the Asian American sample. Taken together, differential trends in baseline observables do not account for the White American findings, but the exercise is too weakly identified on the Asian American side to speak to those estimates either way.

Table A.2: Attitudes toward Asian Americans: Robustness to Baseline Covariate-by-Year Trends

	IAT Score		Belief		Attitude	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: White American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-1.246	-1.964	-6.695***	-7.937**	-6.521***	-6.856*
	(0.864)	(1.607)	(1.639)	(3.606)	(2.003)	(3.495)
Observations	63,592	63,592	63,592	63,592	62,443	62,443
Mean dep. var.	0.412	0.412	0.422	0.422	0.262	0.262
R-squared	0.065	0.067	0.089	0.092	0.063	0.065
Kleibergen-Paap F	20.4	10.4	20.4	10.4	20.4	10.5
Panel B: Asian American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.725	-3.883	-6.372*	-3.018	-0.595	19.093*
	(1.500)	(3.901)	(3.816)	(9.283)	(2.307)	(10.451)
Observations	38,056	38,056	38,056	38,056	37,641	37,641
Mean dep. var.	0.066	0.066	0.763	0.763	-0.731	-0.731
R-squared	0.065	0.067	0.053	0.055	0.049	0.051
Kleibergen-Paap F	11.0	6.3	11.0	6.3	11.0	6.3
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Covariate-by-Year FEs	-	x	-	x	-	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. The even-numbered column of each group interacts each of six 2000-vintage MSA characteristics (employment rate, college share, median household income, Gini coefficient, female share, and Republican vote share) with a full set of year indicators.

Table A.3: Intermarriage and Asian Immigration: Robustness to Baseline Covariate-by-Year Trends

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A: White American Sample				
	Asian American Spouse		Asian Immigrant Spouse	
Female				
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.788***	1.319*	0.572**	0.814
	(0.274)	(0.680)	(0.250)	(0.540)
Observations	157,842	157,842	157,842	157,842
Mean dep. var.	0.006	0.006	0.005	0.005
R-squared	0.006	0.006	0.004	0.004
Kleibergen-Paap F	21.1	9.1	21.1	9.1
Male				
Share of Asian Immigrants	1.615***	2.600***	-0.342	-2.074**
	(0.292)	(0.653)	(0.422)	(0.930)
Observations	161,469	161,469	161,469	161,469
Mean dep. var.	0.011	0.011	0.021	0.021
R-squared	0.015	0.014	0.016	0.016
Kleibergen-Paap F	20.4	9.2	20.4	9.2
Panel B: Asian Sample, White American Spouse				
	Asian American Sample		Asian Immigrant Sample	
Female				
Share of Asian Immigrants	1.259	8.170	-0.934	-10.899*
	(1.938)	(9.852)	(1.065)	(6.350)
Observations	5,712	5,712	15,715	15,715
Mean dep. var.	0.300	0.300	0.211	0.211
R-squared	0.117	0.125	0.100	0.102
Kleibergen-Paap F	12.5	11.3	11.7	10.2
Male				
Share of Asian Immigrants	2.520	3.194	0.936	2.658
	(2.504)	(8.862)	(0.857)	(4.901)
Observations	4,947	4,947	11,985	11,985
Mean dep. var.	0.201	0.201	0.071	0.071
R-squared	0.154	0.167	0.084	0.089
Kleibergen-Paap F	12.9	8.7	12.6	10.0
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x
Covariate-by-Year FEs	-	x	-	x
Opposite-sex Coethnic Control	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Each cell is a separate regression. Sample: individuals who married within one year of the survey year, from the ACS microdata (2010–2021). The even-numbered column of each group interacts each of six 2000-vintage MSA characteristics (employment rate, college share, median household income, Gini coefficient, female share, and Republican vote share) with a full set of year indicators. Standard errors are clustered at the MSA level.

A.4 Robustness to Different Fixed Effects

Tables A.5 and A.4 vary the geographic scale at which common time shocks are absorbed. Because Asian immigrants are concentrated in the West, the estimates could be sensitive to how finely regional trajectories are differenced out. Within each outcome the six columns cross three choices of time shock—year, census region × year, and census division × year—with the exclusion and inclusion of the individual-level covariates. Column (4), census region × year with covariates, is the baseline.

The marriage results and the White American attitudinal results are insensitive to this choice. The Asian American spouse coefficient is significant at the one- or five-percent level in all six columns for both White American women and White American men, and the White American belief and attitude estimates are significant in all six. Two results are not robust to it. The White American IAT estimate, which is null at the baseline, is negative and significant under year fixed effects (-1.598 and -1.881) and turns insignificant once regional trajectories are differenced out, so its sign is stable but its precision is not.

Table A.4: Attitudes toward Asian Americans: Robustness to Geographic Trends

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: IAT Score						
White American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-1.598**	-1.881**	-0.770	-1.246	-0.360	-0.938
	(0.688)	(0.803)	(0.781)	(0.864)	(0.894)	(1.032)
Observations	63,755	63,592	63,755	63,592	63,755	63,592
Mean dep. var.	0.412	0.412	0.412	0.412	0.412	0.412
R-squared	0.030	0.064	0.031	0.065	0.032	0.066
Kleibergen-Paap F	18.0	18.0	20.5	20.4	15.1	15.1
Asian American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.997	-0.808	-0.707	-0.725	-0.729	-0.661
	(1.490)	(1.392)	(1.534)	(1.500)	(1.655)	(1.575)
Observations	38,132	38,056	38,132	38,056	38,132	38,056
Mean dep. var.	0.066	0.066	0.066	0.066	0.066	0.066
R-squared	0.035	0.064	0.036	0.065	0.038	0.066
Kleibergen-Paap F	12.8	12.8	11.0	11.0	8.7	8.7
Panel B: Belief						
White American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-5.421**	-3.154*	-8.777***	-6.695***	-8.124***	-5.926***
	(2.230)	(1.684)	(2.043)	(1.639)	(2.513)	(2.113)
Observations	63,755	63,592	63,755	63,592	63,755	63,592
Mean dep. var.	0.422	0.422	0.422	0.422	0.422	0.422
R-squared	0.056	0.088	0.057	0.089	0.059	0.090
Kleibergen-Paap F	18.0	18.0	20.5	20.4	15.1	15.1
Asian American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-2.936	-2.804	-6.922	-6.372*	-3.560	-3.275
	(2.518)	(2.129)	(4.332)	(3.816)	(3.320)	(2.933)
Observations	38,132	38,056	38,132	38,056	38,132	38,056
Mean dep. var.	0.763	0.763	0.763	0.763	0.763	0.763
R-squared	0.040	0.052	0.041	0.053	0.043	0.055
Kleibergen-Paap F	12.8	12.8	11.0	11.0	8.7	8.7
Panel C: Attitude						
White American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-5.560**	-4.108*	-7.633***	-6.521***	-8.406***	-7.206***
	(2.268)	(2.119)	(2.154)	(2.003)	(2.846)	(2.610)
Observations	62,595	62,443	62,595	62,443	62,595	62,443
Mean dep. var.	0.262	0.262	0.262	0.262	0.262	0.262
R-squared	0.036	0.062	0.038	0.063	0.039	0.064
Kleibergen-Paap F	18.0	17.9	20.4	20.4	15.1	15.1
Asian American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	2.450	1.420	1.180	-0.595	1.537	-0.272
	(1.831)	(1.341)	(2.699)	(2.307)	(3.625)	(3.111)
Observations	37,713	37,641	37,713	37,641	37,713	37,641
Mean dep. var.	-0.731	-0.731	-0.731	-0.731	-0.731	-0.731
R-squared	0.021	0.047	0.023	0.049	0.025	0.051
Kleibergen-Paap F	12.7	12.7	11.0	11.0	8.7	8.7
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Year FEs	x	x	-	-	-	-
Region-by-Year FEs	-	-	x	x	-	-
Division-by-Year FEs	-	-	-	-	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	-	x	-	x	-	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. Columns (1) and (2) use year fixed effects, columns (3) and (4) census region × year, and columns (5) and (6) census division × year, each replacing the year fixed effects rather than being added to them. Odd-numbered columns omit the individual-level covariates and even-numbered columns include them. Region denotes the four census regions and division the nine census divisions, each assigned to an MSA by the modal region or division of its constituent counties. Column (4) is the baseline specification.

Table A.5: Intermarriage and Asian Immigration: Robustness to Geographic Trends

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Panel A: White American Sample												
	Asian American Spouse						Asian Immigrant Spouse					
Female												
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.888**	0.729**	0.954***	0.801***	0.974***	0.773***	0.243	0.295	0.450	0.546**	0.383	0.452*
	(0.372)	(0.294)	(0.342)	(0.275)	(0.356)	(0.274)	(0.328)	(0.293)	(0.291)	(0.253)	(0.311)	(0.262)
Observations	163,257	163,257	163,257	163,257	163,257	163,257	163,257	163,257	163,257	163,257	163,257	163,257
Mean dep. var.	0.006	0.006	0.006	0.006	0.006	0.006	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.005	0.005
R-squared	0.006	0.006	0.006	0.006	0.006	0.007	0.003	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004	0.004
Kleibergen-Paap F	16.4	16.7	21.2	21.3	18.8	24.6	16.4	16.7	21.2	21.3	18.8	24.6
Male												
Share of Asian Immigrants	2.117***	1.879***	1.738***	1.621***	1.716***	1.567***	-0.763	-0.365	-0.778*	-0.342	-0.420	0.122
	(0.365)	(0.293)	(0.283)	(0.290)	(0.339)	(0.312)	(0.512)	(0.410)	(0.462)	(0.422)	(0.470)	(0.506)
Observations	166,892	166,892	166,892	166,892	166,892	166,892	166,892	166,892	166,892	166,892	166,892	166,892
Mean dep. var.	0.010	0.010	0.010	0.010	0.010	0.010	0.021	0.021	0.021	0.021	0.021	0.021
R-squared	0.013	0.014	0.014	0.014	0.014	0.015	0.012	0.016	0.012	0.016	0.012	0.016
Kleibergen-Paap F	15.5	16.4	19.6	20.6	16.2	21.8	15.5	16.4	19.6	20.6	16.2	21.8
Panel B: Asian Sample, White American Spouse												
	Asian American Sample						Asian Immigrant Sample					
Female												
Share of Asian Immigrants	3.309	1.888	1.866	1.469	3.459	2.364	-4.271**	-2.063**	-2.637	-1.090	-0.479	0.652
	(2.778)	(1.705)	(2.520)	(1.927)	(3.145)	(2.266)	(1.770)	(0.872)	(1.611)	(1.064)	(1.059)	(1.031)
Observations	5,767	5,767	5,767	5,767	5,767	5,767	15,913	15,913	15,913	15,913	15,913	15,913
Mean dep. var.	0.300	0.300	0.300	0.300	0.300	0.300	0.213	0.213	0.213	0.213	0.213	0.213
R-squared	0.097	0.112	0.104	0.118	0.112	0.127	0.073	0.097	0.076	0.100	0.081	0.105
Kleibergen-Paap F	4.9	12.8	5.1	12.6	4.5	10.6	9.0	12.3	8.7	11.7	7.0	9.6
Male												
Share of Asian Immigrants	2.868	2.590	3.292	2.558	3.453	2.813	-0.882	-0.906	1.372	0.920	0.796	0.484
	(2.979)	(2.478)	(3.096)	(2.516)	(3.334)	(2.641)	(1.158)	(1.096)	(1.002)	(0.860)	(0.805)	(0.747)
Observations	4,984	4,984	4,984	4,984	4,984	4,984	12,131	12,131	12,131	12,131	12,131	12,131
Mean dep. var.	0.201	0.201	0.201	0.201	0.201	0.201	0.072	0.072	0.072	0.072	0.072	0.072
R-squared	0.139	0.150	0.144	0.155	0.156	0.167	0.083	0.083	0.087	0.087	0.093	0.093
Kleibergen-Paap F	5.2	13.3	5.2	13.0	4.6	10.8	9.5	13.4	9.1	12.6	7.6	10.6
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Year FEs	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-
Region-by-Year FEs	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-
Division-by-Year FEs	-	-	-	-	x	x	-	-	-	-	x	x
Opposite-sex Coethnic Control	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	x
Individual-level Covariates	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	x	-	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Each cell is a separate regression. Sample: individuals who married within one year of the survey year, from the ACS microdata (2010–2021). Standard errors are clustered at the MSA level. Region denotes the four census regions and division the nine census divisions, each assigned to an MSA by the modal region or division of its constituent counties. The geographic × year fixed effects replace the year fixed effects rather than being added to them. Within each outcome, the first pair of columns uses year fixed effects, the second census region × year and the third census division × year; the first column of each pair omits the individual-level covariates and the second includes them. The fourth column of each group is the individual-level baseline.

A.5 Robustness to Reweighting

Tables A.7 and A.6 address the concern that MSAs with above-median shift-share exposure differ systematically from low-exposure MSAs along pre-existing characteristics that could generate differential trends correlated with the instrument. Entropy balancing asks whether reweighting the sample to equalize observable baseline conditions changes the estimates.

I follow Fouka and Tabellini (2022) and apply entropy balancing (Hainmueller, 2012) to reweight control MSAs—those below the median instrument value—so that their means match those of treated MSAs on six 2000-vintage characteristics: employment rate, college share, median household income, Gini coefficient, female share, and Republican vote share. In both tables the odd-numbered column of each group reports the baseline estimate on the restricted sample without weights, and the even-numbered column the entropy-balanced estimate. Reweighting leaves both families of estimates close to their baseline values, which is consistent with pre-existing differences in observable covariate means between high- and low-exposure MSAs not accounting for the main findings.

Table A.6: Attitudes toward Asian Americans: Entropy-Balanced Estimates

	IAT Score		Belief		Attitude	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: White American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-1.087	-1.715*	-6.557***	-7.611***	-6.164***	-6.842***
	(0.833)	(0.956)	(1.658)	(1.830)	(1.922)	(2.339)
Observations	58,198	58,198	58,198	58,198	57,152	57,152
Mean dep. var.	0.412	0.412	0.422	0.422	0.262	0.262
R-squared	0.065	0.064	0.088	0.088	0.063	0.062
Kleibergen-Paap F	19.7	20.9	19.7	20.9	19.7	20.9
Panel B: Asian American Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.746	-0.650	-5.939	-6.026	-0.985	-1.375
	(1.508)	(1.505)	(3.717)	(3.768)	(2.380)	(2.338)
Observations	36,529	36,529	36,529	36,529	36,128	36,128
Mean dep. var.	0.066	0.066	0.763	0.763	-0.731	-0.731
R-squared	0.064	0.064	0.051	0.051	0.048	0.049
Kleibergen-Paap F	10.8	11.3	10.8	11.3	10.8	11.2
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Entropy-balanced weights	-	x	-	x	-	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. Entropy balancing (Hainmueller, 2012) reweights control MSAs (below-median IV exposure) so their covariate means match those of treated MSAs (above-median IV exposure) on six 2000-vintage characteristics: employment rate, college share, median household income, Gini coefficient, female share, and Republican vote share. Baseline uses the same restricted sample without entropy-balanced weights.

Table A.7: Intermarriage and Asian Immigration: Entropy-Balanced Estimates

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Panel A: White American Sample				
	Asian American Spouse		Asian Immigrant Spouse	
Female				
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.788***	0.831***	0.572**	0.508*
	(0.274)	(0.302)	(0.250)	(0.259)
Observations	157,842	157,842	157,842	157,842
Mean dep. var.	0.006	0.006	0.005	0.005
R-squared	0.006	0.006	0.004	0.004
Kleibergen-Paap F	21.1	21.1	21.1	21.1
Male				
Share of Asian Immigrants	1.615***	1.542***	-0.342	-0.245
	(0.292)	(0.309)	(0.422)	(0.422)
Observations	161,469	161,469	161,469	161,469
Mean dep. var.	0.010	0.010	0.021	0.021
R-squared	0.015	0.015	0.016	0.016
Kleibergen-Paap F	20.4	20.7	20.4	20.7
Panel B: Asian Sample, White American Spouse				
	Asian American Sample		Asian Immigrant Sample	
Female				
Share of Asian Immigrants	1.259	1.629	-0.934	-0.709
	(1.938)	(1.958)	(1.065)	(1.082)
Observations	5,712	5,712	15,715	15,715
Mean dep. var.	0.300	0.300	0.213	0.213
R-squared	0.117	0.142	0.100	0.108
Kleibergen-Paap F	12.5	12.9	11.7	12.1
Male				
Share of Asian Immigrants	2.520	2.141	0.936	0.898
	(2.504)	(2.325)	(0.857)	(0.975)
Observations	4,947	4,947	11,985	11,985
Mean dep. var.	0.201	0.201	0.072	0.072
R-squared	0.154	0.194	0.084	0.094
Kleibergen-Paap F	12.9	13.8	12.6	13.0
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x
Entropy-balanced weights	-	x	-	x
Opposite-sex Coethnic Control	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Each cell is a separate regression. Standard errors are clustered at the MSA level. Entropy balancing (Hainmueller, 2012) reweights control MSAs (below-median instrument exposure) so their covariate means match those of treated MSAs (above-median exposure) on six 2000-vintage characteristics: employment rate, college share, median household income, Gini coefficient, female share, and Republican vote share. Weights are assigned at the MSA level and applied to every individual in that MSA.

A.6 Rotemberg Weight Diagnostics

Figures A.3 to A.5 address the concern that the shift-share instrument's identifying variation is concentrated in a small number of origin countries whose settlement patterns may violate the exclusion restriction for reasons specific to those origins. If a single country accounts for most of the instrument's first-stage power and its country-specific estimate differs substantially from the aggregate, the aggregate result could reflect a country-specific confound rather than a common causal channel.

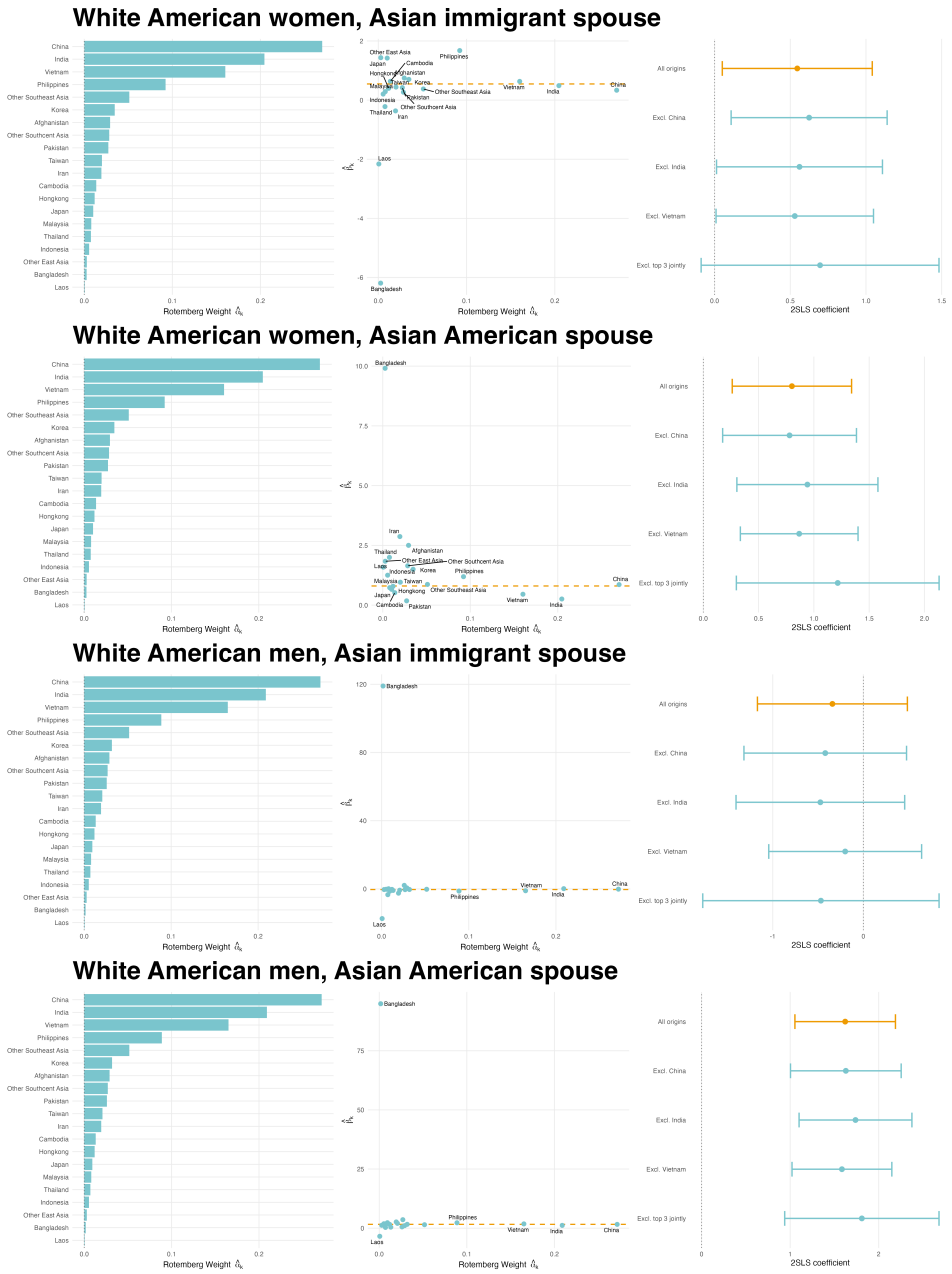
Following Goldsmith-Pinkham et al. (2020), the Rotemberg weight for origin country k is

$$\hat{\alpha}_k = \frac{\sum_{m,t} \tilde{z}_{m,k,t}\, \tilde{x}_{m,t}}{\sum_{k} \sum_{m,t} \tilde{z}_{m,k,t}\, \tilde{x}_{m,t}},$$

where $\tilde{z}_{m,k,t}$ is the residual of the per-country shift-share component $z_{m,k,t} = (X_{m,k,0}/X_{k,0}) \cdot G_{k,t}/X_{m,0}$ after partialling out the controls and fixed effects of the baseline specification, and $\tilde{x}_{m,t}$ is the corresponding residual of the Asian immigrant share. By construction, the aggregate IV estimator satisfies $\hat{\beta} = \sum_k \hat{\alpha}_k \hat{\beta}_k$, where $\hat{\beta}_k$ is the just-identified IV estimate using only country k's shift-share component as the instrument. In each figure the left panels display $\hat{\alpha}_k$ by origin, the center panels plot $\hat{\beta}_k$ against $\hat{\alpha}_k$, and the right panels report leave-one-out robustness: I re-estimate the baseline specification excluding each of the three highest-weight origins individually and all three jointly. Figures A.3 and A.4 cover the eight individual-level marriage cells, and Figure A.5 the six attitudinal outcomes.

China, India, and Vietnam carry the three largest weights in every sample, together accounting for roughly 64 to 74 percent of the total absolute Rotemberg weight in the marriage samples and 61 to 67 percent in the attitudinal samples, reflecting their large 2000 settlement stocks and sustained post-2007 inflows. In the White American marriage sample the just-identified estimates $\hat{\beta}_k$ for these three origins are close to one another and to the aggregate, and dropping any one of them individually moves the estimate little. No single origin drives the aggregate, and the attitudinal estimates move away from zero rather than toward it when the top origins are removed. Taken together, these results are consistent with the instrument's identifying variation being spread across several origin countries rather than resting on one, though the joint-exclusion arm is too weakly identified to be treated as a sharp test.

Figure A.3: Rotemberg Weights and Leave-One-Origin Robustness: White American Sample



Notes: Left panel: Rotemberg weight $\hat{\alpha}_k$ by origin country. Center panel: just-identified IV estimate $\hat{\beta}_k$ against $\hat{\alpha}_k$; the dashed line marks the aggregate IV estimate. Right panel: IV estimate and 95% confidence interval excluding each of the three highest-weight origins individually and all three jointly, with the full-instrument estimate in orange. Specification, sample and clustering as in Table 2.

Figure A.4: Rotemberg Weights and Leave-One-Origin Robustness: Asian Sample

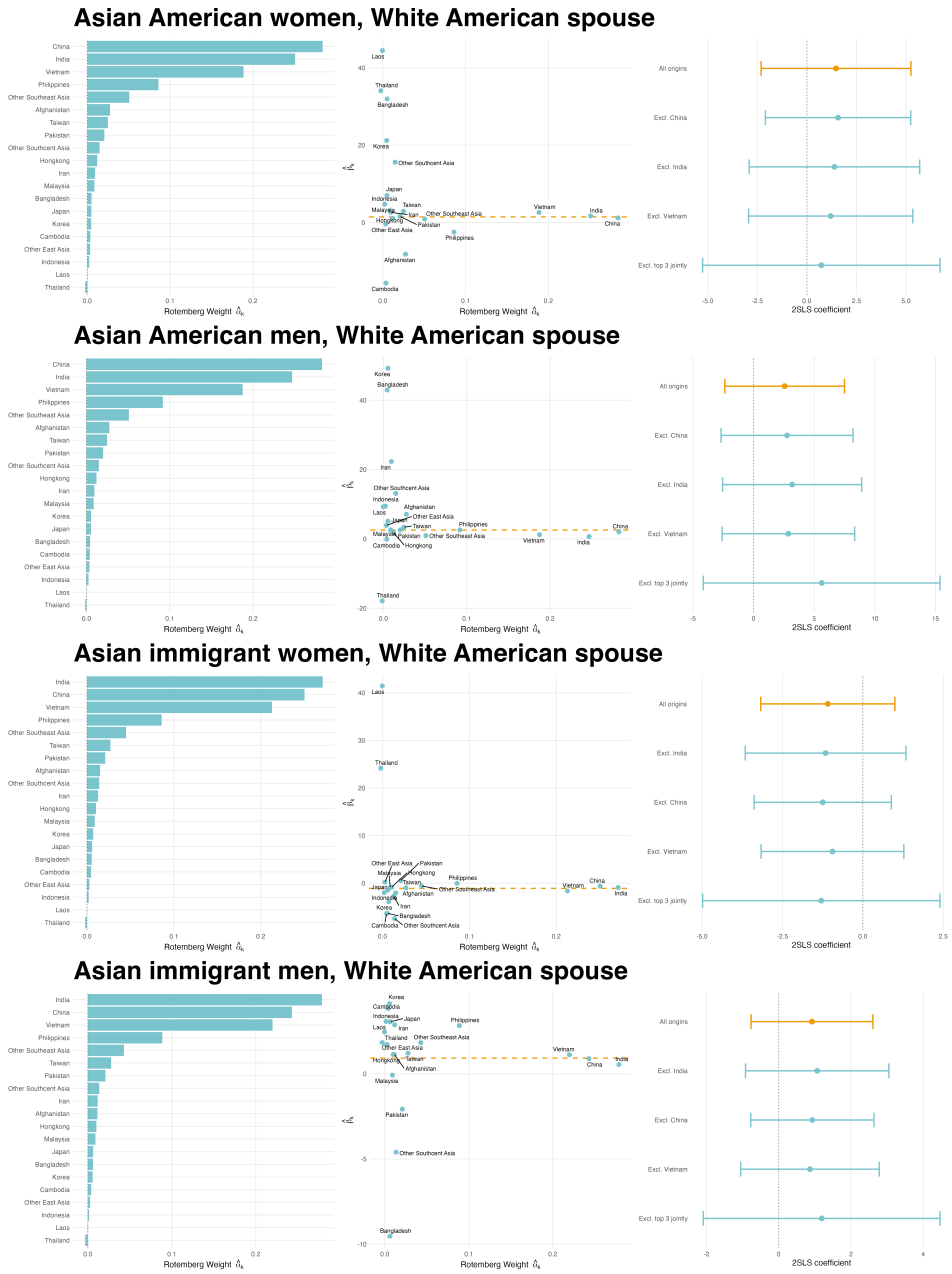
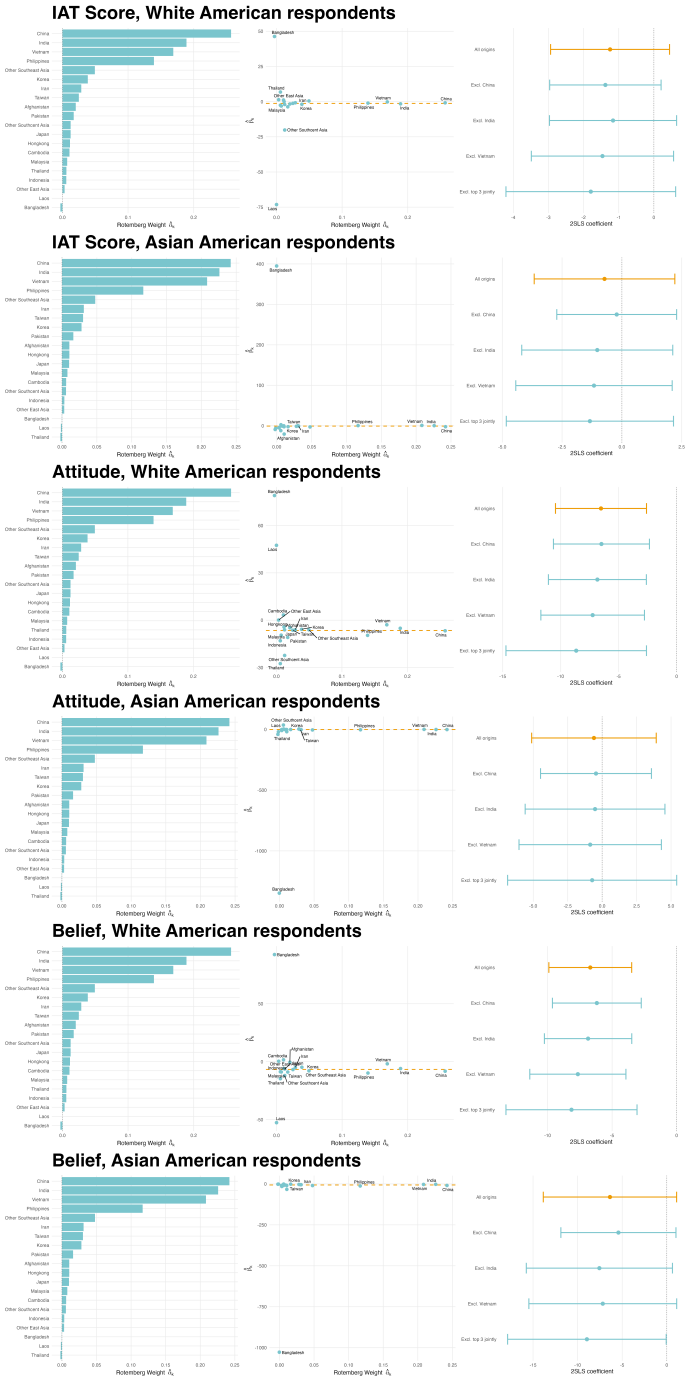


Figure A.5: Rotemberg Weights and Leave-One-Origin Robustness: Attitudinal Outcomes



A.7 Robustness to Leave-One-MSA-Out

Figures A.7 and A.6 assess whether the main estimates are driven by a small number of high-exposure metropolitan areas. Because Asian immigrants are geographically concentrated, with the largest shares in a handful of West Coast and Pacific metros, a single influential city could account for much of the identifying variation in the shift-share instrument.

I identify the five metropolitan areas with the highest average Asian immigrant share in the balanced analysis panel: San Jose–Sunnyvale–Santa Clara, San Francisco–Oakland–Hayward, Urban Honolulu, Los Angeles–Long Beach–Anaheim, and Vallejo–Fairfield. Each is excluded in turn, and the baseline IV specification is re-estimated on the remaining metropolitan areas. The orange point in each panel denotes the full-sample baseline; remaining points show estimates when each metro is omitted.

For the marriage outcomes, the estimates are stable across all five exclusions. The Asian American spouse coefficient for White American men remains positive and significant regardless of which metropolitan area is dropped, and the corresponding coefficient for White American women is significant in every exclusion but San Jose. The Asian immigrant spouse coefficient for White American men, and every cell of the Asian sample, is indistinguishable from zero throughout, consistent with the full-sample results. For the attitudinal outcomes the White American belief and attitude estimates are stable, but the IAT estimate is not: excluding San Francisco moves it away from zero, and White American respondents there record persistently lower IAT scores than elsewhere. Taken together, the marriage results do not rest on any single high-exposure metropolitan area, whereas the White American IAT null is sensitive to one.

Figure A.6: Leave-one-MSA-out: Attitudes

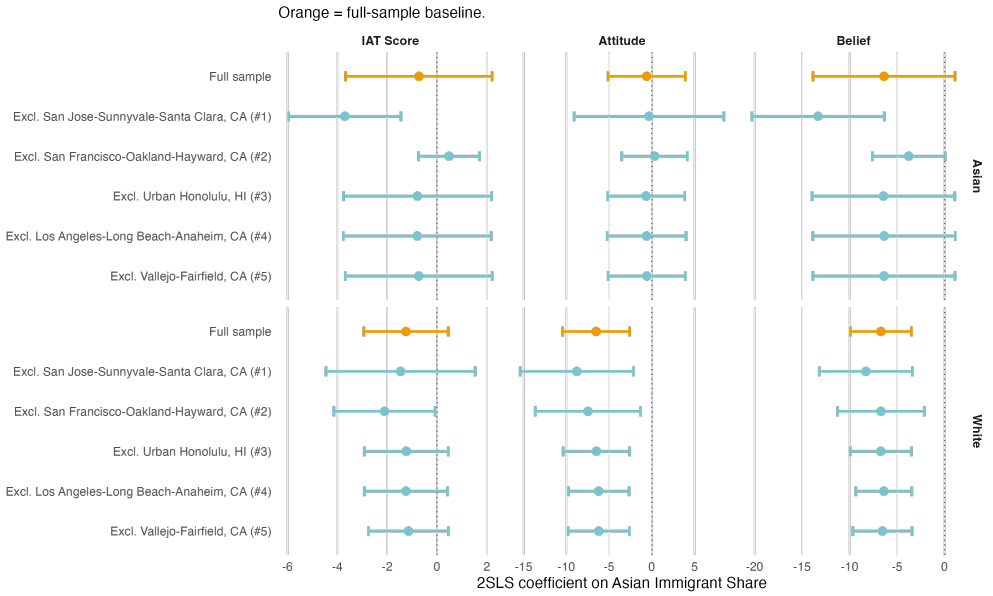
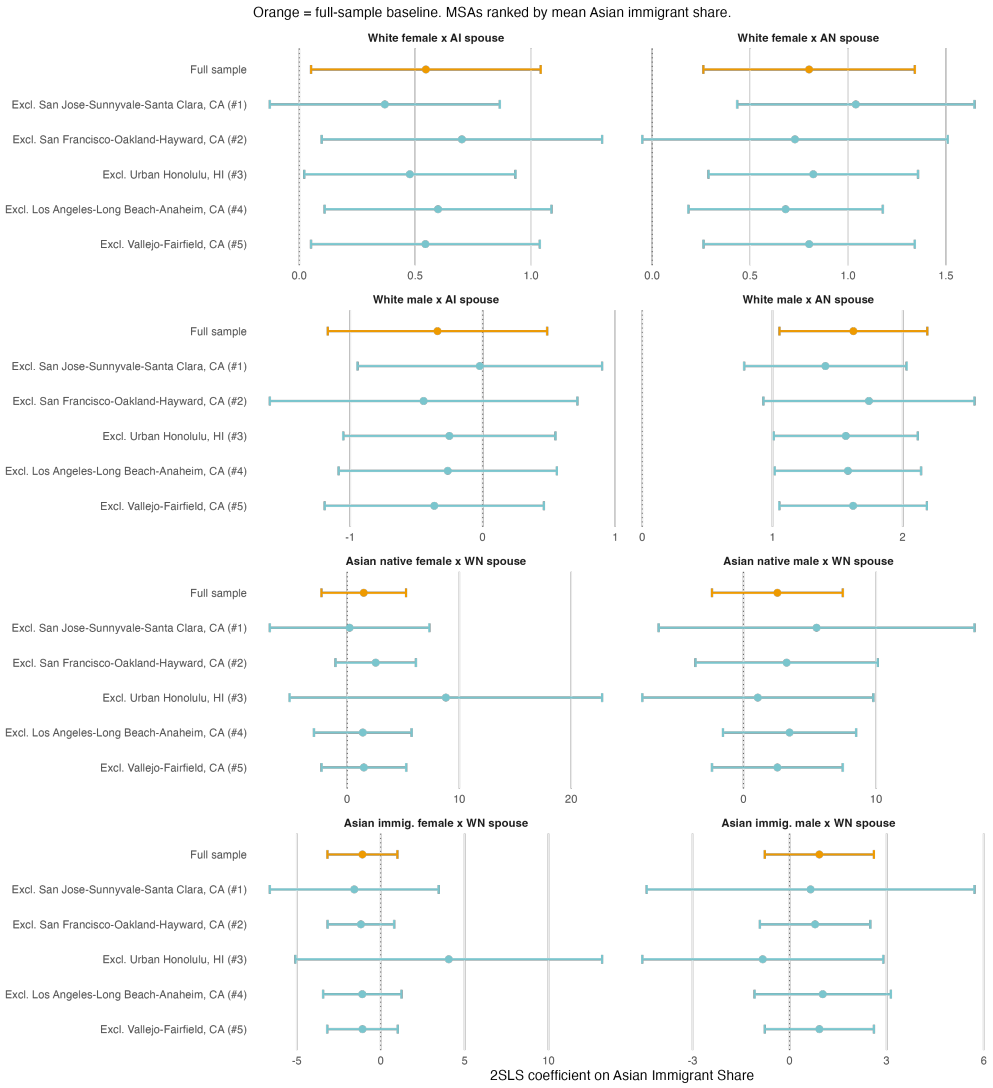


Figure A.7: Leave-one-MSA-out: Interracial Marriage



A.8 Compositional Change

Table A.8 tests whether the shift-share instrument captures selective displacement of U.S.-born residents rather than a behavioral response to immigration. If areas with higher predicted Asian immigration inflows systematically lose White or Black Americans, the intermarriage effects in the main analysis could partly reflect compositional change rather than shifts in preferences.

I replace the marriage outcome with log counts of White, Asian, and Black American residents, keeping the specification otherwise identical. Within each outcome, the first column reports TWFE, the second the IV specification, and the third replaces the year fixed effects with census division × year fixed effects.

The IV estimates show negative and significant effects on the White and Black American populations, raising a concern about displacement. Replacing the year fixed effects with division × year fixed effects eliminates them: the third column of each outcome is smaller and indistinguishable from zero. The negative effects in the year-fixed-effect columns thus reflect differential trends across regions rather than immigration-driven displacement. Taken together, there is no evidence that the main estimates are contaminated by change in the composition of the U.S.-born population.

Table A.8: Asian Immigration and the Composition of the U.S.-Born Population

	White Americans			Asian Americans			Black Americans		
	TWFE (1)	IV (2)	IV (3)	TWFE (4)	IV (5)	IV (6)	TWFE (7)	IV (8)	IV (9)
Share of Asian Immigrants	1.871	-2.797*	-0.436	9.793***	3.015	3.669	1.794	-10.109**	-7.585
	(1.465)	(1.579)	(1.877)	(2.665)	(4.280)	(3.953)	(2.015)	(4.966)	(5.216)
Observations	3,232	3,232	3,232	3,232	3,232	3,232	3,232	3,232	3,232
Mean dep. var.	12.630	12.630	12.630	8.001	8.001	8.001	10.127	10.127	10.127
R-squared	0.997	0.997	0.997	0.993	0.993	0.993	0.998	0.998	0.998
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	9.9	10.0	-	9.9	10.0	-	9.9	10.0
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	-	x	x	-	x	x	-
Division-by-Year FEs	-	-	x	-	-	x	-	-	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. Outcome is the log count of U.S.-born White, Asian, and Black residents in each MSA.

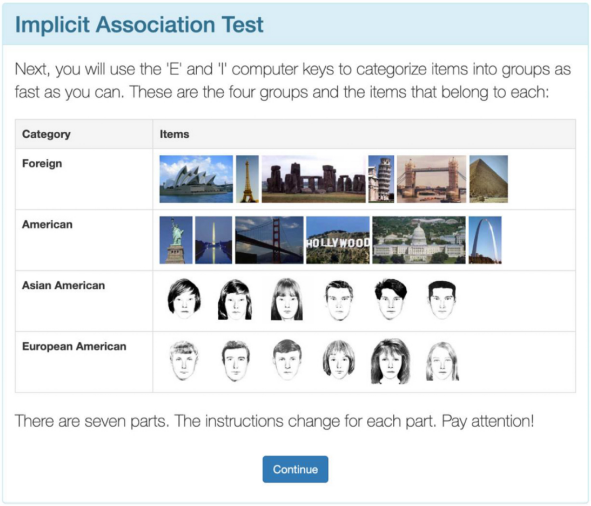
A.9 Implicit Association Test

IAT design. In the ethnic-national IAT used here, the target categories are European American and Asian American, and the attribute categories are American and Foreign. Target stimuli consist of line drawings of European and East Asian faces, while attribute stimuli consist of iconic U.S. landmarks (e.g., the White House, the Hollywood sign) and iconic non-U.S. landmarks (e.g., the Eiffel Tower, the Pyramids of Giza).

Task structure and interpretation. In a standard seven-block IAT, respondents sort stimuli using two response keys. In the critical blocks, respondents perform a combined categorization in which one key corresponds to a pairing of a target category with an attribute category (e.g., "European American or American") and the other key corresponds to the opposite pairing (e.g., "Asian American or Foreign"). The key comparison is how quickly and accurately respondents respond when the pairings are stereotype-consistent (European American + American; Asian American + Foreign) versus stereotype-inconsistent (European American + Foreign; Asian American + American). Faster responses in stereotype-consistent blocks indicate a stronger implicit association consistent with the "American = White / Asian = Foreign" stereotype.

Scoring (IAT score). The IAT outcome is summarized using an IAT D score, which is a standardized measure based on differences in response latencies between the stereotype-consistent and stereotype-inconsistent combined blocks. Positive D scores indicate stronger implicit associations of European Americans (relative to Asian Americans) with "American" (relative to "Foreign"), while negative D scores indicate the reverse.

Figure A.8: IAT Screen

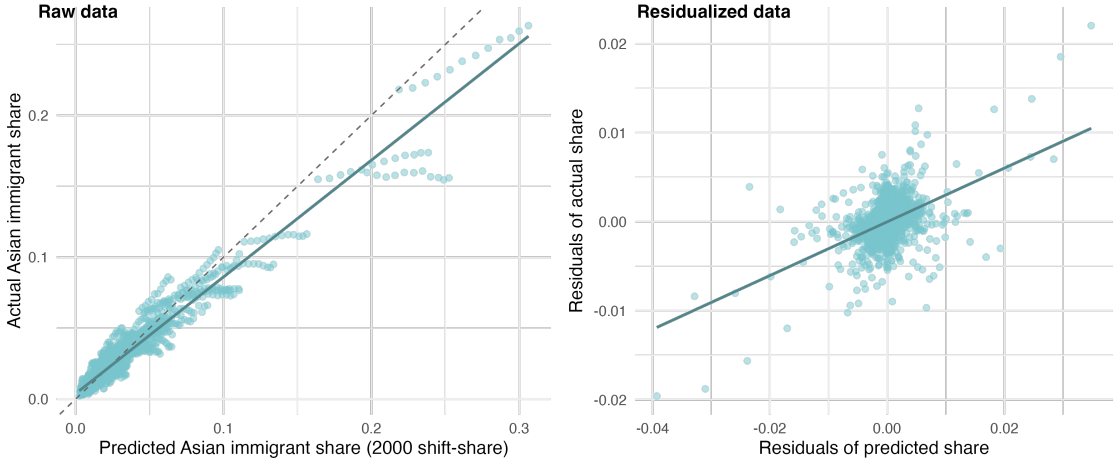


A.10 First Stage

Figure A.9 provides graphical evidence on the relevance of the shift-share instrument. It plots the realized Asian immigrant share in an MSA-year against the share predicted from national-origin-specific inflows interacted with historical settlement patterns.

The raw data reveal a strong positive relationship: MSAs with larger predicted inflows experience higher realized Asian population shares. The right panel presents the same relationship after residualizing both variables with respect to MSA and year fixed effects. This removes time-invariant differences across MSAs as well as aggregate shocks common to all MSAs. The positive relationship remains clearly visible in the residualized data, indicating that within-MSA changes in predicted Asian immigrant shares are strongly associated with changes in realized Asian immigrant shares over time. This within-MSA variation is the source of identification in the IV specification.

Figure A.9: First Stage



Notes: This figure plots the first-stage relationship between the MSA-year share of Asian immigrants and its predicted values. Each point represents an MSA-year observation. The left panel shows the raw data, along with the fitted regression line (solid) and the 45-degree line (dashed). The right panel shows the same relationship after residualizing both variables with respect to MSA fixed effects and year fixed effects.

A.11 Results for Asian Non-citizens

Table A.9 extends the attitudinal analysis to Asian non-citizens, the group excluded from the main samples. The non-citizen data cover 2010 to 2016. The only estimate distinguishable from zero is on the belief measure: a one-percentage-point increase in the Asian immigrant share lowers it by about 0.34 points (column 4), roughly a third of the sample mean of 1.013. The IAT score and the attitude measure do not move, echoing the explicit-only pattern found among citizens.

Table A.9: Attitudes among Asian Non-citizens

	IAT Score		Belief		Attitude	
	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Share of Asian Immigrants	4.618	-2.324	-11.577	-33.889**	2.460	-19.884
	(3.767)	(4.897)	(7.919)	(15.277)	(15.033)	(31.372)
Observations	5,703	5,703	5,484	5,484	5,586	5,586
Mean dep. var.	0.070	0.070	1.013	1.013	-0.563	-0.563
R-squared	0.096	0.095	0.114	0.113	0.082	0.081
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	14.9	-	14.5	-	14.7
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x

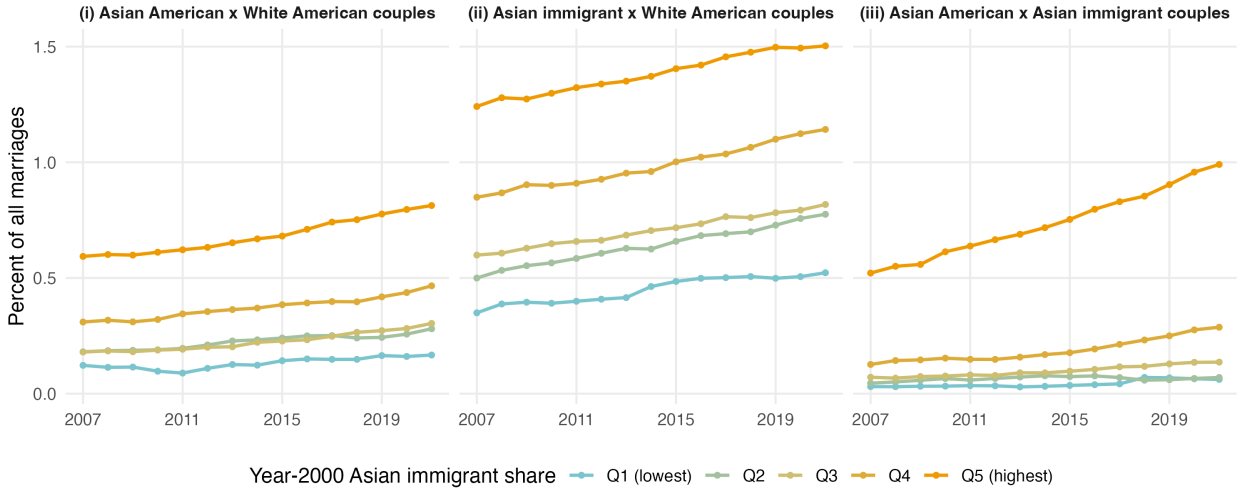
Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. Sample: Asian non-citizen respondents, 2010–2016.

A.12 Descriptive Evidence on Asian–White Marriage

This section describes where Asian–White couples are and how their prevalence has moved, before any of the estimation. The unit here is the couple rather than the focal person. The figures use all married couples rather than only newly married ones, and the denominator is every married couple in the metropolitan area regardless of race.

Figure A.10 groups metropolitan areas into quintiles of their 2000 Asian immigrant share and holds that assignment fixed across years, so a line cannot move because its membership changed. All three couple types rise in every quintile, and in each the increase is largest in the top quintile. Figure A.11 maps the same three quantities. The three panels share one color scale, so they can be compared against each other and not only against their own legends. The geography is similar in all three and follows the settlement pattern in Figure 2, with the highest values on the Pacific coast. The levels differ: the median metropolitan area is 0.75 percent Asian immigrant–White American couples, 0.24 percent Asian American–White American, and 0.10 percent Asian American–Asian immigrant.

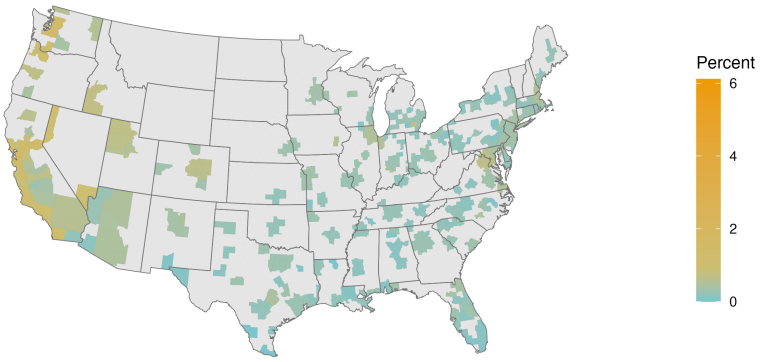
Figure A.10: Asian–White and Asian–Asian Couples as a Share of All Marriages



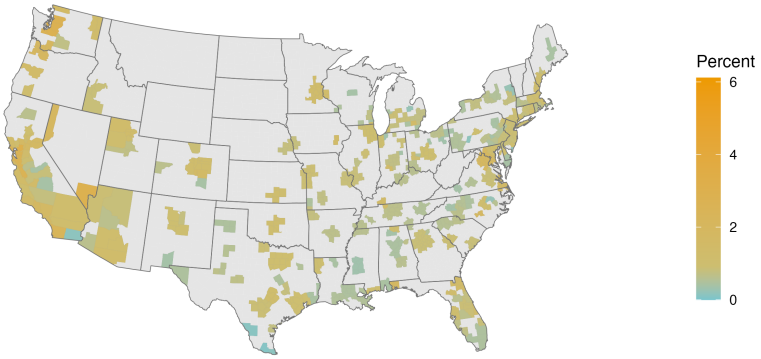
Notes: Each series is the number of couples of the stated type divided by every married couple in the bin, regardless of race, weighted by the IPUMS household weight. All married couples are included rather than only newly married ones. Metropolitan areas are assigned to quintiles of their 2000 Asian immigrant share once and the assignment is held fixed across years. The sample is the 220 metropolitan areas observed in every year from 2007 to 2021. No cell-size restriction is applied: the smallest bin-year rests on 104,331 sample couples. The three panels share one vertical axis.

Figure A.11: Asian–White and Asian–Asian Couples as a Share of All Marriages, by Metropolitan Area

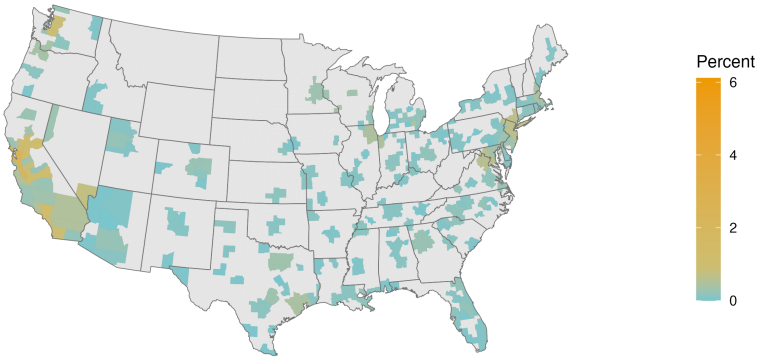
(a) Asian American and White American couples



(b) Asian immigrant and White American couples



(c) Asian American and Asian immigrant couples



Notes: Each panel reports couples of the stated type as a percent of every married couple in the metropolitan area, regardless of race, pooled over 2007–2021 and weighted by the IPUMS household weight. All married couples are included rather than only newly married ones. All 220 metropolitan areas observed in every year are drawn; no cell-size restriction is applied, the smallest resting on 12,193 sample couples. Counties that belong to no metropolitan area, and metropolitan areas outside this sample, are shaded light gray. The three panels share one color scale, anchored at the 85th percentile of the pooled distribution.

A.13 Aggregate-level Marriage Analysis

Data. I use five-year ACS data sourced from IPUMS, covering the years 2010–2021. Couples are aggregated to the MSA-year level using IPUMS household weights, so that each cell reflects the population-representative intermarriage rate. As in the individual-level analysis, I restrict attention to marriages formed within one year of the survey.

For an Asian group a, I define the intermarriage rate with White Americans as follows, where new marriages are those formed within one year of the survey:

$$intermarriage^{a}_{m,t} = \frac{(\text{\# of new marriages between group } a \text{ and White Americans})_{m,t}}{(\text{\# of new marriages involving White Americans})_{m,t}}$$

I focus on marriages with White Americans because the majority of Asian intermarriage involves White partners. The two outcomes of interest are (i) a = Asian American: the rate at which Asian Americans marry White Americans, and (ii) a = Asian immigrant: the rate at which Asian immigrants marry White Americans, each expressed as a share of all White American marriages. Consistent with the earlier analysis, nativity status is defined by place of birth: U.S.-born Asians are classified as Asian Americans and foreign-born Asians as Asian immigrants, including naturalized citizens.

The sample starts from a balanced panel of 228 MSAs observed in all twelve survey years from 2010 to 2021.[10] Three MSAs[11] with a zero denominator in any year are further excluded, as zero counts in this narrow window reflect the absence of marriages. The estimation sample therefore contains 225 MSAs.

Research Design. I estimate the following specification using the shift-share instrument at the MSA-year level:

$$\begin{aligned} intermarriage^{a}_{m,t} = {} & \beta_1 Asian\ Imm\ Share_{m,t} + \beta_2 Other\ \widehat{Imm}\ Share_{m,t} \\ & + \beta_3\, White\ \widehat{Am}\ Share_{m,t} + \beta_4\, Asian\ \widehat{Am}\ Share_{m,t} + \delta_{r(m),t} + \lambda_m + \varepsilon_{m,t} \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

The coefficient of interest is β_1. As in equation (1), $Asian\ Imm\ Share_{m,t}$ is instrumented by the shift-share predicted Asian immigrant share, the predicted other-immigrant share is included as a control, and census-region-by-year fixed effects $\delta_{r(m),t}$ absorb shocks common to MSAs within a region in a given year. Unlike equation (1), the specification contains no individual-level controls because the unit of observation is the MSA-year.

To account for marriage-market composition, I further control for the predicted population shares of White Americans and Asian Americans. Each is constructed by multiplying the MSA's 2000 share of the national population of the group by the national population of the group in year t and dividing by the analogously predicted total population. The size of a coethnic group shapes incentives for intermarriage: a smaller coethnic pool makes it harder to find suitable within-group partners, increasing the probability of out-group mar-

[10] This window reflects the availability of year of marriage in the five-year ACS files from IPUMS.

[11] Brownsville–Harlingen, TX, El Centro, CA, and Laredo, TX are excluded due to zero White American marriage counts in some years. These MSAs have exceptionally high Hispanic presence.

riage (Voigtländer and Voth, 2013). Controlling for both groups accounts for the local supply of potential partners on each side of the White–Asian American boundary. I report each outcome under two weighting schemes. The population-weighted specification weights each MSA-year by the denominator count, the household-weighted number of marriages involving a White American, so that larger marriage markets receive proportionally more weight. The unweighted specification gives every MSA-year equal weight. Standard errors are clustered at the MSA level.

Results. Table A.10 presents the IV estimates of the effect of the Asian immigrant share on Asian–White intermarriage. Columns (1) and (2) report the Asian American × White American rate and columns (3) and (4) the Asian immigrant × White American rate. Within each pair, the first column is population-weighted and the second is unweighted.

A higher Asian immigrant share raises the rate at which White Americans marry Asian Americans, and the estimate is significant at the five-percent level under both weighting schemes. In terms of magnitude, a one-percentage-point increase in the local Asian immigrant share raises the Asian American × White American marriage rate by roughly one and a half to three times its mean of 0.010, with the population-weighted estimate at the top of that range. The specification already controls for the predicted shares of White Americans and Asian Americans, which account for the mechanical availability of partners in the local marriage market, so the estimate is not simply a partner-supply effect. One caveat is that weighting by market size costs first-stage power: the Kleibergen–Paap statistic falls from 17.0 in the unweighted columns to 5.7 in the weighted ones, below the conventional threshold, and the weighted estimates should be read with that in mind.

By contrast, the estimates for Asian immigrant × White American marriages in columns (3) and (4) are statistically indistinguishable from zero and change sign across the two weighting schemes. The aggregate results therefore match the prediction of the nativity-boundary account in Section 2.3: marriage between White Americans and U.S.-born Asian Americans increases, while marriage between White Americans and Asian immigrants shows no corresponding increase.

Table A.10: Asian Immigration and MSA-level Asian–White Intermarriage

	Asian American Spouse		Asian Immigrant Spouse	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Share of Asian Immigrants	2.959**	1.473**	-0.415	0.927
	(1.375)	(0.574)	(1.281)	(0.736)
Observations	2,701	2,701	2,701	2,701
Mean dep. var.	0.010	0.010	0.015	0.015
R-squared	0.483	0.261	0.402	0.225
Kleibergen-Paap F	5.7	17.0	5.7	17.0
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x
Population-weighted	x	-	x	-

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. The unit of observation is an MSA-year. The dependent variable is the number of marriages formed within one year of the survey between a White American and, respectively, an Asian American or an Asian immigrant, divided by all marriages formed within one year of the survey involving a White American; all counts are weighted by ACS household weights. All columns control for the predicted other-immigrant share and the predicted population shares of White Americans and Asian Americans. Population-weighted columns weight each MSA-year by the household-weighted number of marriages involving a White American.

A.14 Marriage Across Other Racial Boundaries

Tables A.11 and A.12 address the concern that the marriage results capture a general loosening of racial boundaries in high-immigration metropolitan areas rather than a change specific to the Asian boundary. Applying the same design to Black and Hispanic intermarriage provides a placebo.I re-estimate the individual-level marriage specification on two sets of couples. In Table A.11 the focal person is a White American who married within one year of the survey and the outcome equals one if the spouse is a U.S.-born Black American or a U.S.-born Hispanic American. In Table A.12 the focal person is a Black or Hispanic American and the outcome equals one if the spouse is a White American. Both tables split by the focal person's sex, and both instrument the Asian immigrant share with the same shift-share instrument.

None of the eight instrumented estimates across the two tables is statistically distinguishable from zero, and the signs are not consistent across the two directions of the same boundary. Taken together, this is consistent with the Asian–White marriage results being specific to the Asian boundary rather than a byproduct of whatever else distinguishes high-immigration metropolitan areas, with the usual caveat that a set of imprecise nulls cannot establish the absence of an effect.

Table A.11: Marriage of White Americans to Black and Hispanic Americans

	White Female				White Male			
	Black Spouse		Hispanic Spouse		Black Spouse		Hispanic Spouse	
	TWFE (1)	IV (2)	TWFE (3)	IV (4)	TWFE (5)	IV (6)	TWFE (7)	IV (8)
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.163	0.504	0.087	-0.643	-0.078	0.148	-0.276	0.298
	(0.184)	(0.423)	(0.309)	(0.665)	(0.123)	(0.244)	(0.301)	(0.655)
Observations	163,257	163,257	163,257	163,257	166,892	166,892	166,892	166,892
Mean dep. var.	0.016	0.016	0.045	0.045	0.007	0.007	0.048	0.048
R-squared	0.005	0.005	0.032	0.032	0.004	0.004	0.038	0.038
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	21.3	-	21.3	-	20.6	-	20.6
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Opposite-sex Coethnic Control	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. Sample: married couples in which the focal person (a White American) married within one year of the survey year. Outcome equals 1 if the spouse belongs to the stated group, where Black American is U.S.-born, Black alone, non-Hispanic, and Hispanic American is U.S.-born and Hispanic of any race.

Table A.12: Marriage of Black and Hispanic Americans to White Americans

	Black Americans				Hispanic Americans			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
	TWFE (1)	IV (2)	TWFE (3)	IV (4)	TWFE (5)	IV (6)	TWFE (7)	IV (8)
Share of Asian Immigrants	-2.027	-1.428	0.503	2.048	-1.496	-0.245	0.444	-0.764
	(1.614)	(4.099)	(1.677)	(3.399)	(1.707)	(2.207)	(1.422)	(2.882)
Observations	15,700	15,700	18,278	18,278	28,519	28,519	25,655	25,655
Mean dep. var.	0.075	0.075	0.146	0.146	0.280	0.280	0.284	0.284
R-squared	0.082	0.082	0.094	0.094	0.105	0.105	0.129	0.129
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	13.0	-	14.7	-	11.4	-	10.8
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Opposite-sex Coethnic Control	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. Sample: married couples in which the focal person (Black American or Hispanic American) married within one year of the survey year, where Black American is U.S.-born, Black alone, non-Hispanic, and Hispanic American is U.S.-born and Hispanic of any race. Outcome equals 1 if the spouse is a White American.

A.15 Intermarriage by Naturalization Status

Table A.13 splits the Asian immigrant category by citizenship. Asian immigrants are not a homogeneous group: naturalized citizens have longer U.S. tenure, higher rates of English proficiency, and denser ties outside their coethnic community than non-citizens do. If the marriage results operate through immigrants' own assimilation, they should concentrate among naturalized immigrants. If they operate through the exposure of White Americans to a growing Asian presence, citizenship should matter less. I split the Asian immigrant category into naturalized citizens and non-citizens and re-estimate the baseline individual-level marriage specification on each.

The White American estimates are not confined to either half, and the Asian-side estimates remain imprecise under both. Taken together, the results give no indication that the effect runs only through immigrants who have naturalized, which is difficult to reconcile with an account operating entirely through immigrants' own assimilation.

Table A.13: Intermarriage and Asian Immigration, by Naturalization Status

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Panel A: White American Sample								
	Naturalized Asian Immigrant Spouse				Non-citizen Asian Immigrant Spouse			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.210**	0.264	0.177*	0.126	0.203**	0.393***	-0.221	-0.425
	(0.090)	(0.167)	(0.104)	(0.225)	(0.098)	(0.110)	(0.260)	(0.302)
Observations	163,204	163,204	166,779	166,779	163,204	163,204	166,779	166,779
Mean dep. var.	0.0028	0.0028	0.0085	0.0085	0.0023	0.0023	0.0114	0.0114
R-squared	0.003	0.003	0.009	0.009	0.003	0.003	0.009	0.009
Kleibergen-Paap F	—	21.337	—	20.556	—	21.337	—	20.556
Panel B: Asian Immigrant Sample, White American Spouse								
	Naturalized Sample				Non-citizen Sample			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.937	-2.202	2.441***	0.923	-1.517	-0.366	0.579	1.282
	(1.423)	(2.132)	(0.930)	(1.720)	(0.944)	(1.236)	(0.676)	(0.865)
Observations	5,582	5,582	5,064	5,064	10,011	10,011	6,800	6,800
Mean dep. var.	0.2513	0.2513	0.0911	0.0911	0.1886	0.1886	0.0543	0.0543
R-squared	0.122	0.122	0.166	0.166	0.131	0.131	0.106	0.106
Kleibergen-Paap F	—	12.079	—	11.904	—	11.908	—	12.982
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Opposite-sex Coethnic Control	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. Sample: married couples in which the focal person married within one year of the survey year. Asian immigrants are split by citizenship: naturalized citizens and non-citizens.

A.16 Heterogeneity by MSA Characteristics and Respondent Gender

Tables A.15 and A.16 examine where the marriage and attitudinal effects concentrate. Three features of the local context plausibly condition how a growing Asian population is encountered: how residentially separated Asians and White Americans already are, how educated the local Asian population is, and how conservative the metropolitan area is politically. The moderators are the 2000 Census tract dissimilarity index between Asians and White Americans, the 2000 Asian college share, and the 2000 Republican vote share. Each panel splits metropolitan areas at the median of one moderator and re-estimates the baseline specification separately, with the medians computed once over the distinct metropolitan areas of the pooled analysis sample and reused in every panel.

Table A.14 adds a fourth split, applied to the attitudinal outcomes only, since men and women differ both in baseline attitudes and in exposure to the marriage market. The gender control is dropped because it is constant within each half. The belief and attitude effects are concentrated among men, at −10.192 and −10.855 and both significant at the one-percent level, against −4.677 and −4.181 for women, of which only the belief estimate is distinguishable from zero.

The metropolitan-area splits should be read with considerable caution, because the instrument does not survive most of them. Only the segregation split and the gender split keep the first stage near or above the conventional threshold on both sides; the low-college and high-Republican halves fall to Kleibergen–Paap statistics between 2.6 and 7.1, and the attitudinal estimates in the high-Republican half are correspondingly implausible in magnitude. Where identification does hold up, the marriage effect for White American men marrying an Asian American appears in both segregation halves and is of similar size in each.

Table A.14: Attitudes toward Asian Americans, by Respondent Gender

	IAT Score		Belief		Attitude	
	TWFE (1)	IV (2)	TWFE (3)	IV (4)	TWFE (5)	IV (6)
Female						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.349	-1.523	0.307	-4.677**	2.466	-4.181
	(0.608)	(1.003)	(1.642)	(1.984)	(1.515)	(2.863)
Observations	39,930	39,930	39,930	39,930	39,325	39,325
Mean dep. var.	0.413	0.413	0.431	0.431	0.304	0.304
R-squared	0.080	0.080	0.086	0.086	0.064	0.064
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	21.3	-	21.3	-	21.3
Male						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.007	-1.731*	-3.247*	-10.192***	-4.131**	-10.855***
	(0.827)	(0.967)	(1.750)	(2.681)	(1.976)	(2.050)
Observations	22,944	22,944	22,944	22,944	22,407	22,407
Mean dep. var.	0.416	0.416	0.414	0.414	0.197	0.197
R-squared	0.057	0.057	0.115	0.114	0.077	0.076
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	19.2	-	19.2	-	19.1
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors are clustered at the MSA level.

Table A.15: Intermarriage and Asian Immigration, by MSA Characteristics

	Asian American Spouse				Asian Immigrant Spouse			
	Female		Male		Female		Male	
	TWFE (1)	IV (2)	TWFE (3)	IV (4)	TWFE (5)	IV (6)	TWFE (7)	IV (8)
Panel A: Residential segregation, Asians and White Americans								
Low segregation								
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.384***	0.215	1.048***	1.646***	0.375**	0.823***	0.081	-0.310
	(0.113)	(0.175)	(0.406)	(0.440)	(0.180)	(0.212)	(0.520)	(0.577)
Observations	63,900	63,900	65,717	65,717	63,900	63,900	65,717	65,717
Mean dep. var.	0.006	0.006	0.011	0.011	0.005	0.005	0.022	0.022
R-squared	0.006	0.006	0.016	0.016	0.005	0.004	0.017	0.017
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	9.3	-	10.7	-	9.3	-	10.7
High segregation								
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.055	0.931*	0.562***	1.334***	0.285**	0.196	-0.310	0.235
	(0.143)	(0.514)	(0.197)	(0.429)	(0.143)	(0.259)	(0.240)	(0.502)
Observations	99,357	99,357	101,175	101,175	99,357	99,357	101,175	101,175
Mean dep. var.	0.006	0.006	0.010	0.010	0.006	0.006	0.020	0.020
R-squared	0.008	0.007	0.014	0.014	0.004	0.004	0.015	0.015
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	26.5	-	31.8	-	26.5	-	31.8
Panel B: Asian college share								
Low college share								
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.432***	0.093	0.334*	1.343	0.107	1.073	0.342	-0.869
	(0.119)	(0.482)	(0.195)	(0.824)	(0.216)	(0.665)	(0.276)	(1.276)
Observations	58,147	58,147	59,440	59,440	58,147	58,147	59,440	59,440
Mean dep. var.	0.005	0.005	0.010	0.010	0.005	0.005	0.020	0.020
R-squared	0.006	0.006	0.012	0.011	0.005	0.004	0.016	0.016
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	2.8	-	2.6	-	2.8	-	2.6
High college share								
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.065	0.950**	1.193***	1.697***	0.571***	0.690***	-0.528*	-0.234
	(0.125)	(0.380)	(0.309)	(0.326)	(0.185)	(0.251)	(0.311)	(0.607)
Observations	105,110	105,110	107,452	107,452	105,110	105,110	107,452	107,452
Mean dep. var.	0.007	0.007	0.011	0.011	0.006	0.006	0.021	0.021
R-squared	0.007	0.007	0.017	0.016	0.004	0.004	0.016	0.016
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	15.5	-	13.8	-	15.5	-	13.8
Panel C: Republican vote share								
Low Republican share								
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.164	0.728***	0.864**	1.401***	0.408***	0.397	0.013	-0.134
	(0.118)	(0.254)	(0.361)	(0.347)	(0.155)	(0.278)	(0.432)	(0.501)
Observations	103,472	103,472	106,530	106,530	103,472	103,472	106,530	106,530
Mean dep. var.	0.007	0.007	0.013	0.013	0.006	0.006	0.024	0.024
R-squared	0.007	0.007	0.016	0.015	0.004	0.004	0.017	0.017
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	19.9	-	18.5	-	19.9	-	18.5
High Republican share								
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.051	-1.201	0.344*	0.795	-0.104	1.788	-0.016	0.512
	(0.188)	(1.335)	(0.205)	(0.857)	(0.176)	(1.376)	(0.492)	(2.009)
Observations	54,370	54,370	54,939	54,939	54,370	54,370	54,939	54,939
Mean dep. var.	0.004	0.004	0.006	0.006	0.004	0.004	0.015	0.015
R-squared	0.005	0.004	0.007	0.006	0.004	0.002	0.009	0.009
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	3.1	-	3.3	-	3.1	-	3.3
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Opposite-sex Coethnic Control	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors are clustered at the MSA level.

Table A.16: Attitudes toward Asian Americans, by MSA Characteristics

	IAT Score		Belief		Attitude	
	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Residential segregation, Asians and White Americans						
Low segregation						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.411	-1.705**	-2.136	-2.725	-0.749	-3.504***
	(0.572)	(0.780)	(1.441)	(1.979)	(1.602)	(1.262)
Observations	25,400	25,400	25,400	25,400	24,934	24,934
Mean dep. var.	0.411	0.411	0.406	0.406	0.237	0.237
R-squared	0.072	0.072	0.090	0.090	0.062	0.062
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	49.9	-	49.9	-	50.1
High segregation						
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.398	-1.912	2.266	-13.210*	3.100	-8.522
	(1.128)	(2.375)	(2.367)	(7.194)	(2.144)	(7.311)
Observations	38,192	38,192	38,192	38,192	37,509	37,509
Mean dep. var.	0.412	0.412	0.433	0.433	0.278	0.278
R-squared	0.063	0.063	0.091	0.090	0.067	0.067
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	24.6	-	24.6	-	24.9
Panel B: Asian college share						
Low college share						
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.683	-1.907	2.623	-2.907	2.214	-5.714
	(0.855)	(1.777)	(2.152)	(3.263)	(1.516)	(5.550)
Observations	22,501	22,501	22,501	22,501	22,099	22,099
Mean dep. var.	0.414	0.414	0.391	0.391	0.227	0.227
R-squared	0.071	0.071	0.085	0.084	0.065	0.065
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	7.1	-	7.1	-	6.9
High college share						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.240	-0.960	-2.376	-6.363***	-1.502	-7.542***
	(0.790)	(1.124)	(1.553)	(2.077)	(1.827)	(2.313)
Observations	41,091	41,091	41,091	41,091	40,344	40,344
Mean dep. var.	0.410	0.410	0.439	0.439	0.281	0.281
R-squared	0.064	0.064	0.093	0.093	0.064	0.064
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	18.2	-	18.2	-	18.2
Panel C: Republican vote share						
Low Republican share						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.814	-1.142	-2.707**	-7.606***	-0.650	-6.348***
	(0.563)	(0.960)	(1.325)	(2.046)	(1.542)	(2.232)
Observations	44,314	44,314	44,314	44,314	43,527	43,527
Mean dep. var.	0.404	0.404	0.415	0.415	0.270	0.270
R-squared	0.064	0.064	0.090	0.089	0.063	0.063
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	14.8	-	14.8	-	14.8
High Republican share						
Share of Asian Immigrants	2.755	-24.964	5.501	-47.483	3.936	-50.107
	(1.779)	(18.727)	(3.800)	(40.791)	(3.633)	(47.645)
Observations	17,253	17,253	17,253	17,253	16,930	16,930
Mean dep. var.	0.431	0.431	0.447	0.447	0.244	0.244
R-squared	0.072	0.060	0.096	0.084	0.072	0.061
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	3.4	-	3.4	-	3.5
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors are clustered at the MSA level.

A.17 Attitudes among Other Respondent Groups

Table A.17 examines whether the attitudinal results are specific to White American respondents. The baseline attitudinal sample is restricted to White Americans because the boundary of interest runs between White Americans and Asians, but that restriction is a modeling choice rather than something the design requires. If a growing Asian immigrant population changes how Asians are placed relative to the category of the American, the change need not be confined to White American respondents, and the same specification can be estimated for everyone else.

Panel A pools every respondent who is neither East Asian nor South Asian and adds respondent race fixed effects, so that the estimate is identified within racial groups rather than across them. Panels B and C restrict the sample to Black and to Hispanic respondents, dropping the race control because it is constant within each.

In the pooled sample all three outcomes decline, with IV estimates of -1.519 for the IAT score, -3.507 for the belief measure, and -4.751 for the attitude measure. The two explicit measures reproduce the White American pattern of Table 3 at smaller magnitude, which is what pooling a group that is roughly two-thirds White American with groups whose own estimates sit closer to zero would produce. The disaggregated panels are less uniform. None of the three estimates for Black respondents is distinguishable from zero, and each carries a standard error large enough to accommodate an effect of the size found in Panel A. For Hispanic respondents the attitude measure falls by 17.616 and is significant at the five-percent level, while the IAT score and the belief measure are not distinguishable from zero. Taken together, the explicit attitudinal response is not confined to White American respondents, but neither is it common to every group. The pooled estimates are consistent with the baseline, while the null for Black respondents and the large and imprecise attitude estimate for Hispanic respondents suggest that the pooled coefficient should not be read as a single effect shared across racial groups.

Table A.17: Attitudes toward Asian Americans, by Respondent Race

	IAT Score		Belief		Attitude	
	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV	TWFE	IV
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Non-Asian Respondents (Pooled)						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.714	-1.519***	-1.210	-3.507***	-1.097	-4.751**
	(0.452)	(0.434)	(0.873)	(1.317)	(0.984)	(2.084)
Observations	100,117	100,117	100,117	100,117	98,301	98,301
Mean dep. var.	0.352	0.352	0.433	0.433	0.084	0.084
R-squared	0.095	0.095	0.068	0.068	0.111	0.111
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	20.0	-	20.0	-	19.9
Panel B: Black Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	-0.110	0.425	4.830	5.912	2.278	0.352
	(1.997)	(2.978)	(4.979)	(7.539)	(5.025)	(8.035)
Observations	7,185	7,185	7,185	7,185	6,995	6,995
Mean dep. var.	0.393	0.393	0.476	0.476	-0.154	-0.154
R-squared	0.122	0.122	0.090	0.090	0.090	0.090
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	15.8	-	15.8	-	15.5
Panel C: Hispanic Respondents						
Share of Asian Immigrants	0.362	-3.627	0.923	1.146	-9.074**	-17.616**
	(1.618)	(2.671)	(3.450)	(4.466)	(3.777)	(7.617)
Observations	12,610	12,610	12,610	12,610	12,396	12,396
Mean dep. var.	0.265	0.265	0.423	0.423	-0.074	-0.074
R-squared	0.084	0.083	0.090	0.090	0.084	0.083
Kleibergen-Paap F	-	20.6	-	20.6	-	20.4
MSA FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Region-by-Year FEs	x	x	x	x	x	x
Individual-level Covariates	x	x	x	x	x	x

Notes: Significance at the 1%, 5%, and 10% levels is indicated by ***, **, and *, respectively. Standard errors in parentheses are clustered at the MSA level. The sample is respondents who took the IAT under assignment (forced respondents). Panel A pools every respondent who is neither East Asian nor South Asian and therefore contains the respondents of Panels B and C.