

Education, Knowledge and the Evolution of Disparities in Health

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July 2010

We study how advances in scientific knowledge affect the evolution of disparities in health. Our focus is the 1964 Surgeon General Report on Smoking and Health – the first widely publicized report of the negative effects of smoking on health. Using an historical dataset that includes the smoking habits of pregnant women 1959-1966, we find that immediately after the 1964 Report, more educated mothers immediately reduced their smoking as measured by both self-reports and serum cotinine levels, while the less educated did not, and that the relative health of their newborns likewise increased. We also find strong peer effects in the response to information: after the 1964 report, educated women surrounded by other educated women were more likely to reduce smoking relative to those surrounded by less educated women. Over time, the education gradient in both smoking and newborn health continued to increase, peaking in the 1980s and then shrinking, eventually returning to initial levels. These results can explain why in an era of great advancements in medical knowledge, health disparities may actually increase, at least in the short run.

* Corresponding author: aizer@brown.edu. This work is supported in part by NSF grant # SES 0752755, NIH grant AG023397 and the Robert Wood Johnson Foundation. We thank Ken Chay, Angus Deaton, Donna Gilleskie, Adriana Lleras-Muney, Jody Sindelar and seminar participants at Cornell, UCLA and AHEC/Emory for useful comments and Tianran Dai for excellent research assistance.

I. Introduction

Health disparities by education in the US are large. Males without a HS degree have a death rate double those with a college degree (Elo and Preston, 1996). Not only are health disparities large, they are persistent, often originating in childhood or even earlier, in the newborn period (Case, Lubotsky and Paxson, 2002; Currie and Stabile, 2003). A number of theories have been put forth to explain the observed education disparities in health. We focus on one: that education is related to one's ability to obtain, process and/or act upon medical knowledge, consistent with the theory of the production of health developed by Grossman (1972). If true, one implication is that advances in medical knowledge will lead to improvements in health among the most educated first, followed by eventual improvements among the less educated as knowledge diffuses. Thus advances in medical knowledge can lead to an initial increase in health inequality that declines over time as the knowledge diffuses.

To examine this empirically, we focus on how the first major advance in medical knowledge regarding the effects of smoking on health affected both the smoking decisions of pregnant women and the health of their newborns. Our analysis is comprised of three parts. First, using an historical dataset of pregnant women 1959-1966 that, to our knowledge, is the only dataset containing prospective information on smoking habits prior to 1964, we estimate the immediate impact of the first massive dissemination of information on the health effects of smoking (the 1964 Surgeon General Report on Smoking and Health) on the decision to smoke and newborn health. Previous work analyzing aggregate administrative data on cigarette sales found no decline associated with the 1964 Report (Sloan, Smith and Taylor, 2002). We too find that aggregate cigarette consumption remained constant after the 1964 Report, but that this

masked important heterogeneity as the most educated women reduced their smoking immediately after the 1964 Report while the least educated actually increased their smoking. Moreover, the differential declines in smoking by education do not simply reflect differences in reporting, as serum cotinine levels follow the same pattern. Consistent with a negative relationship between smoking and newborn health, we find that the education gradient in newborn health, as measured by birth weight and fetal death, also increases immediately after publication of the report.¹

We also explore the possibility that peers serve as a “social multiplier” - exacerbating the impact of information on the education gradient in smoking. We hypothesize that the education level of peers affects one’s own response to the 1964 Surgeon General’s Report via two potential channels. First, more educated peers may serve as an additional, indirect source of information about the health effects of smoking (an information channel). Second, if one’s ability to quit is a function, in part, of the smoking behavior of one’s peers, as in the cue-theory of consumption, having more educated peers who are themselves less likely to smoke after publication of the report increases one’s own probability of quitting (a behavioral channel). We find that the education gradient in smoking increases three times as quickly after the 1964 Surgeon General’s report among those most segregated by education. In other words, educated women surrounded by other educated women are more likely to reduce their smoking after the report relative to educated women surrounded by less educated women.

We follow the analysis of the short term effect of the 1964 Surgeon General Report on disparities in smoking and newborn health with an exploration of how these disparities evolve over time. We find that over time information appears to “diffuse” to the less educated, as

¹ There is some debate over whether the relationship between smoking and birth weight is causal which we discuss later (see, for example, Almond, Chay and Lee, 2005).

evidenced by an eventual convergence in both knowledge of the negative effect of smoking on health (as measured in public opinion surveys) and smoking behavior. And when it does, the education gradient in newborn health likewise declines. These two trends in the education gradient in smoking and newborn health mirror each other closely: increasing until the mid 1980s when they both peak, and then declining to 1960s levels by 2006, the latest year for which data are available. These results have important implications for our understanding of how future advances in medical knowledge and technological innovation are likely to affect both health and health disparities over time. Moreover, by focusing on prenatal smoking, our results show how advances in medical knowledge can affect inequality in future generations.

Finally, to better understand the connection between the gradients in smoking and newborn health, we provide new estimates of the impact of smoking on newborn health using multiple identification strategies. In so doing, we make two contributions to the existing literature on smoking and birth weight. First, because we have siblings for a fixed effect analysis and an independent measure of smoking in the form of serum cotinine levels, we can quantify the extent of bias due to selection and measurement error, separately. Second, based on these results we can explain why existing estimates differ based on the estimation technique used. We conclude that the causal effect of smoking on birth weight is moderate in size (and non-linear) and lies between existing fixed effect and IV estimates.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: in section II, we discuss the relevant literature; in section III we present results of our analysis of the immediate impact of publication of the 1964 surgeon general's report on the education gradient in prenatal smoking and newborn health and explore the role of peers in increasing the gradient; in section IV, we trace the evolution of the education gradient in smoking and birth weight over time to the year 2006. In

section V we present the results of our analysis of the impact of prenatal smoking on newborn health, shedding light on the extent of bias in OLS estimates due to negative selection into smoking and measurement error separately. Section VI concludes.

II. Background Literature

A. The Education Gradient in Health

The first major study to document differences in mortality by education in the US was conducted by Kitagawa and Hauser (1973) based on data from 1960. Since then, a number of additional studies have documented significant educational differences in mortality and other measures of health (Elo and Preston, 1996; Christenson and Johnson, 1995; Deaton and Paxson, 1999; Cutler and Lleras-Muney, 2006). Even the health of children is highly correlated with the educational attainment of their parents (Case, Lubotsky and Paxson, 2002). Moreover, it appears that these inequalities have been increasing over time (Elo and Preston, 1996; Pappas et al, 1993).

More recent work has sought to establish whether the relationship between education and health is causal. Using compulsory schooling laws to instrument for education, Lleras-Muney (2003) finds lower mortality rates for the more educated. Currie and Moretti (2003) instrument for female education using the opening and closing of nearby colleges to estimate a significant and positive relationship between maternal education and infant health. Both studies find a larger effect of education on health in IV estimation relative to OLS, suggesting that any bias in OLS estimates is likely downward due, presumably, to measurement error. A recent study finds no effect of maternal education on infant health using variation in school entry policies and date of birth for identification (McCrary and Royer, forthcoming).

There are multiple potential mechanisms behind the relationship between education and health.² We focus on one - that education improves one's ability to learn and make decisions about his or her health (Grossman, 1972), and that this educational "advantage" increases in times of rapid scientific progress, consistent with the concept of "fundamental causes" as articulated by Link and Phelan. The "fundamental causes" hypothesis predicts that higher SES individuals because of their greater resources are better able to take advantage of new information/technology in order to avoid risks for disease and death. As a result, "SES patterns in morbidity and mortality will change when there are historical shifts in the profile of diseases, treatments, risk factors and knowledge thereof" (Link and Phelan, 1998, page 378).

There is some empirical evidence to support this. Glied and Lleras-Muney (2008) find that for diseases with more innovation in medical treatment, education gradients in mortality increase, suggesting that the more educated take advantage of new medical innovation more quickly. Rosenzweig and Schultz (1989) show that more educated women have greater success with "complex" contraception methods (eg, the rhythm method). Price and Simon (forthcoming) find that after publication of research on the riskiness of a particular procedure (VBAC), more educated women received differentially fewer of these procedures.³ These studies establish a static response to information. They do not examine how the response may evolve over time. Nor can they necessarily separate an individual's response to information from either selective

² First, education may lead to better health because it leads to greater income and access to health care. However, the documented relationship between education and health often remains, though somewhat diminished, when controls for income are included, suggesting that income does not explain the entire relationship between education and health (Elo and Preston, 1996; Cutler and Lleras-Muney, 2006). A second possible mechanism may be that the better educated tend to have less risky jobs. Again, Lleras-Muney and Cutler (2006) find that this can explain very little of observed education gradients in health. Third, education may improve health by affecting one's social rank. The Whitehall studies (Marmot, 2002) documented a strong and positive relationship between social rank and health among British civil servants. This is consistent with evidence based on experimental manipulation of social status in animals: Sapolsky (1993) finds that lower ranked animals suffer worse health. A fourth potential mechanism is that the more educated have lower discount rates, thereby increasing their value of the future and increasing their investments in health. However, Fuchs (1982) and Leigh (1990) find little empirical support for this.

³ VBAC refers to "vaginal birth after cesarian section."

sorting to providers or providers' differential treatment of patients based on their educational status.

B. The Education Gradient in Smoking

Another area where education is likely to matter is in obtaining and using information on unhealthy behaviors such as smoking. The less educated are more likely to smoke and this relationship holds regardless of racial background or nativity (Kimbrow et al, 2008). A number of papers have sought to establish a causal relationship between education and smoking. Sander (1995), using parental education as an instrument for own education in an IV regression, finds that the highly educated are more likely to quit smoking. De Walque (2004) using exposure to the draft for the Vietnam war as an instrument for college attendance provides some suggestive evidence that education reduces smoking. Finally, and most relevant to the present study, Currie and Moretti (2003) use the opening and closings of nearby colleges to instrument for maternal education and find that more educated mothers are less likely to smoke while pregnant.⁴

A second strand of this literature seeks to link the education gradient in smoking with medical knowledge about the health effects of smoking. Based on retrospective smoking histories collected in 1978-2000, de Walque (2004) finds no discontinuous break in 1964 with publication of the first SG report on smoking and health. Meara (2001) and Kenkel (1991) explore whether knowing about the health effects of smoking can explain the relationship between education and smoking. Both find that controlling for knowledge does little to change the gradient in smoking but that smoking knowledge and education have important interactive

⁴ Farrell and Fuchs (1986) find that differences in smoking behavior between the more and less educated are present at age 17, before schooling is completed. They argue that this constitutes evidence that the relationship between education and smoking is not causal. However, as de Walque (2004) also argues, these results are insufficient to draw this conclusion because they do not account for the fact that much of the education gradient in smoking is attributable to differences in quitting behavior which often occurs much after schooling is completed.

effects: the smoking of the more educated is more responsive to knowledge than the smoking behavior of the less educated. The authors conclude that the education gradient in smoking may be less attributable to the fact that the more educated have more knowledge and more to their greater responsiveness to that knowledge.

A significant difference, however, between this study and that of Kenkel (1991) and Meara (2001) is that the reference period for this study is earlier, during a time when information about the health effects of smoking was not widespread, as we show later. Thus the differential declines in smoking that we observe with publication of the 1964 report may reflect faster diffusion of knowledge to the more educated or faster modification of behavior based on that knowledge, or some combination of the two.

III. Impact of the 1964 Surgeon General's Report on the Education Gradient in Smoking

A. Knowledge about Smoking and Health

Knowledge about the health effects of smoking was accumulating in the scientific literature throughout the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950's. However, it was not until the US Surgeon General issued its first Report on Smoking and Health in 1964, that the information was made widely accessible. The National Library of Medicine characterized the impact of the 1964 Report as follows:

“[Surgeon General] Terry issued the commission's report on January 11, 1964, choosing a Saturday to minimize the effect on the stock market and to maximize coverage in the Sunday papers. As Terry remembered the event, two decades later, the report "hit the

country like a bombshell. It was front page news and a lead story on every radio and television station in the United States and many abroad."⁵

The report focused on the link between smoking and diseases of the lung, heart disease and birth weight. After the first report, additional information about the effects of smoking on health followed, starting with warning labels on all cigarette packages in 1966.⁶

Historical public opinion data from Gallup Poll Surveys are consistent with the hypothesis that publication of the first SG Report on Smoking and Health in 1964 increased the education gradient in knowledge about smoking and health. We show how the education gradient in knowledge of a causal link between smoking and heart disease evolved from 1957 to 1990 (Table 1). To do so we regress an indicator equal to one if the respondent answers that he or she believes smoking is a cause of heart disease on two education dummies (less than HS, HS, more than HS the omitted category) and controls for race, age and gender.

In 1957 there is no education gradient in knowledge of the impact of smoking on heart disease but by 1969 there is a strong gradient which grows until 1981.⁷ Between 1981 and 1990, however, the gradient begins to decline. This trend in the education gradient in knowledge (initially increasing and starting to decline sometime between 1980 and 1990) is very similar to

⁵ Profiles in Science- The National Library of Medicine "The Reports of the Surgeon General: The 1964 Report on Smoking and Health" accessed on November 17, 2009 at <http://profiles.nlm.nih.gov/NN/Views/Exhibit/narrative/smoking.html>

⁶ In 1971, cigarette ads were banned from TV; in 1979 the SG report concluded nicotine was addictive; in 1986 the SG issued a report on second hand smoke and in 1998 there was a settlement reached between 46 state attorney's office and tobacco manufacturers limiting marketing to youths. See Chaloupka and Warner (2000) for a full description.

⁷ On June 12, 1957, Surgeon General Leroy E. Burney declared it the official position of the U.S. Public Health Service that the evidence pointed to a causal relationship between smoking and lung cancer. Kenkel and Liu (2008) examine the school-smoking gradient in knowledge about lung cancer and find that it appeared prior to the 1964, consistent with knowledge about smoking and lung cancer disseminating in 1957. However, knowledge about the negative effects of smoking on other health conditions and health more generally was not widely known until the 1964 report. But the 1957 statement of the SG can, potentially, explain the small gradient in smoking prior to the 1964 Report.

the trends in the education gradient in smoking and birth weight presented later. These findings suggest that the trends in the education gradient in smoking and birth weight that we observe are attributable to the slower diffusion of knowledge about the negative effects of smoking to the less educated.

B. Data

For the analysis of the immediate impact of the 1964 Surgeon General's (SG) Report on Smoking and Health we use data from the National Collaborative Perinatal Project (NCPP), a prospective survey of 59,391 pregnant women who sought care in one of 12 urban Academic Medical Centers in the years 1959-1966. To our knowledge, this is the only data that contains information on smoking habits prior 1964 that was collected prospectively. The women were randomly recruited to participate in the study through public clinics where they would receive free care (Medicaid had not yet been established) and thus the pregnant women included in the study are characterized by much lower income, greater likelihood of being single and black, and less education than the general population at the time (see column 5 for comparison with general population). This sample selection aids in our ability to compare the behavior and birth outcomes of more and less educated pregnant women because they sought and received the same medical care in terms of both quality and quantity, thereby reducing other potential differences across education groups. This, for example, implicitly allows us to rule out the possibility that the differential declines in smoking are due to either differential sorting to medical providers or

providers treating women differently based on their education as all providers in the study were instructed to follow a standard protocol.⁸

Descriptive statistics for the sample are presented in Appendix Table 1. Women under the age of 19 or over the age of 35 at delivery were dropped from the analysis sample in order to separate the effects of education from age, reducing the sample size by about nine thousand. In column 1 are sample means for the analysis sample (n=50,142); column 2 contains sample means for a subset of the data that consists of siblings (n=17,530). The average years of schooling is 11 and half of the women in the sample have not completed high school. The sample is racially mixed: 50 percent white, 43 percent black and 7 percent Hispanic (all from Puerto Rico and thus US citizens). Perhaps most remarkable are the rates of smoking among pregnant women as recorded in the third trimester: nearly half of the women smoked and those who did smoked on average half a pack of cigarettes daily.

C. Results

In the aggregate, publication of the First SG Report on Smoking and Health on January 11, 1964 resulted in no immediate decline in smoking among pregnant women (Figure 1A), consistent with the constant trend in cigarettes sales over this period documented by Sloan, Smith and Taylor (2002).⁹ However, this masks important heterogeneity in the effect of the report. Smoking among the most educated (at least a HS degree) did decline significantly in

⁸ Because the sample characteristics do change over the course of the study we present the results of weighted regressions in which the weights reflect the age, education and income distribution of the women in 1964 and applied to all other years.

⁹ Warner (1977) using data on cigarette sales predicts that in the absence of the 1964 Report, cigarette sales would have increased over this period. He interprets the fact that they remained constant as evidence of a negative effect of the 1964 Report on smoking.

1964, in contrast to smoking among the less educated which actually increased over this period (Figures 1B and 1C).

Regression Results – OLS

We estimate whether the 1964 SG Report on Smoking and Health differentially affected the smoking behavior and newborn health of women based on their education in a regression framework as follows:

$$Y = \beta_1 \text{education} + \beta_2 \text{education} * \text{post SG} + \beta_3 \text{education} * \text{year} + \beta_4 \text{education} * \text{year}^2 + \beta_5 \text{year} + \beta_6 \text{year}^2 + \beta_7 \text{post SG} + \beta_8 X + \beta_9 \text{AMC} + \beta_{10} \text{Tax} + \varepsilon$$

In the above specification, Y is either smoking (smoker, cigarettes per day) or a measure of newborn health (birth weight and fetal death). We include as regressors maternal education and its interaction with “post SG” (an indicator equal to 1 for years 1964-1966, after publication of the SG report, and 0 for years 1959-1963, before publication of the report). The coefficient on this interaction term can be interpreted as a difference-in-differences estimate. To allow for a time trend in the education gradient in smoking (or health) we include maternal education interacted with a quadratic time trend (education*year and education* year²). The main effects (year, year², post SG) and a vector of personal characteristics including maternal race, age, family income, birth order, and offspring gender are also included as is a fixed effect for the academic medical center (AMC) in which the woman delivered as well as the real tax rate on cigarettes.¹⁰

¹⁰ Births in 1959 occurred late in the year and births in 1966 occurred early in the year so we group 1959 with 1960 and 1966 with 1965 for this analysis.

The results suggest that the education gradients in smoking and newborn health increase substantially after publication of the First SG Report on Smoking and Health (Table 2). Before publication of the report, an additional year of education was associated with a 1.4 percentage point decline in the probability of smoking. After 1964, this increases significantly by 50 percent from 1.4 to 2.0 (column 1). If we look at cigarettes per day, we see that before the 1964 report, an additional year of education was associated with smoking .3 fewer cigarettes per day, after the report, it increases by one third to .4 fewer cigarettes per day (column 2). Finally in column 3, we present estimates of the impact of the SG report on the gradient in newborn health as measured by birth weight. Before publication of the report, an additional year of schooling is associated with heavier birth weight (24 gram difference). After the report, this increases by 25 percent to 30 grams, though the difference is not significant. Likewise, the gradient in LBW and fetal death increase after 1964, but not significantly. When the sample is expanded to include the full sample (which includes women younger than 19 and older than 34), estimates of the impact of the 1964 Report on the gradient in birth weight and fetal death become significant (columns 6-8). Specifically, the gradient in birth weight increases 32 percent after the 1964 Report and the probability LBW by 25 percent. For fetal death, there is no significant education gradient prior to 1964. After 1964, an additional year of schooling is associated with a .2 percentage point reduction in fetal death (baseline rate of fetal death in this sample is 3 percentage points).

Though we include multiple maternal characteristics that might explain the relationship between maternal education and smoking or birth weight in the above analysis, in Table 3 we present the results of an analysis in which we allow the impact of all maternal characteristics (not just education) to change after the report. Specifically, we present the results of separate regressions of smoking/newborn health on maternal education and other characteristics from the

period just before (1962-1963) and just after (1964-1965) publication of the Report in columns 1 and 2, respectively, of Table 3. The negative relationship between maternal education and smoking as measured by whether she smokes at all (Panel A) and cigarettes smoked per day (Panel B) increases by one third after publication of the report. Before publication of the report, a standard deviation increase in years of schooling (2.5 years) was associated with a 4 percentage point decrease in the probability of smoking, and with smoking .9 less cigarettes per day. Immediately after the report, this increased to a 5.75 percentage points and 1.2 fewer cigarettes per day. Both these differences are statistically significant. However, this trend does not extend to heavy smokers defined as those smoking at least one pack of cigarettes a day (Panel C) whose smoking habits do not change with the publication of the 1964 Report.

With respect to newborn health, the education gradient in birth weight increases by 25 percent, but the difference is not statistically significant (Panel D), while the increase in the education gradient in fetal death is both large and significant (Panel E). The lack of significance in the birth weight results could be explained by the fetal death results if the reduction in fetal death among the more educated after 1964 is somewhat offset by a reduction in birth weight, assuming fetal deaths occurred among those who would have been at the bottom of the birth weight distribution.

The Role of Income

While the evidence thus far shows that women with more education responded immediately to advances in medical knowledge in contrast to the less educated who did not, concerns about potential omitted variable bias remain. Our results could potentially reflect a more general growth in the SES gradient in smoking and health over this period. To evaluate this, we present

coefficient estimates for income in the regressions before and after the 1964 Report. Family income never significantly predicts smoking in either before or after the report, with one exception (cotinine, prior to the report). Thus we conclude that the changing education gradient in smoking and newborn health is not driven by more general changes in the SES gradient over this period.

Differences in Smoking or Differences in Reports of Smoking?

A second concern is that the observed relationship between maternal education and smoking merely reflects differences in reported smoking. This would be the case if more educated women perceive a stigma associated with smoking after publication of the first Surgeon General's Report that less educated women do not, thereby differentially affecting their reports of smoking. In panel F of Table 3 we present results for a small subset of the sample for which we have third trimester serum cotinine levels. Women whose blood was drawn as part of the study were not told that it would be assayed for cotinine (in fact, the serum was not assayed for cotinine until 40 years after it was drawn). Cotinine and reports of cigarettes smoked per day are highly correlated in these data ($\rho=0.72$). Regression results suggest that maternal education is strongly and negatively associated with serum cotinine levels and that this relationship increases 40 percent after 1964 (differences are statistically significant at the 10 percent level). After 1964, an additional 2.5 years of schooling is associated with a 20 percent standard deviation reduction in serum cotinine levels.

As part of this exercise, we explore whether misreporting varies with either maternal characteristics or with publication of the 1964 Report. For the former we regress self-reported smoking on cotinine and its interaction with education, race and income. If, for example, the

more educated are more likely to under (over) report, we should observe a positive (negative) coefficient on the interaction term between maternal education and cotinine. The results suggest that there is no systematic misreporting by education or income (Table 4A, columns 1-3). We do estimate significant coefficient on the interaction between cotinine and race (black). This, however, is consistent with existing evidence that blacks and white metabolize nicotine differently, which would result in a significant interaction. We return to this point in the last section of the paper.

We find no evidence that misreporting changes with publication of the 1964 report. To test this we regress self-reported smoking on cotinine and its interaction with a post 1964 dummy. The estimated coefficient is small and insignificant (Table 4A, column 4). We also interact cotinine*post 1964 with maternal education, income and race to examine whether misreporting changes heterogeneously after the 1964 report. It does not (columns 5-7).

The Role of Cognitive Ability

Does the relationship between does educational attainment and smoking decision reflect cognitive ability (ie, IQ), or does it reflect something else? For a non-random subset of the sample, (so that the results must be interpreted with caution) we have measures of maternal cognitive ability/IQ. We regress indicators for smoking (smoker and cigarettes per day) on measures of maternal education, maternal IQ, and an interaction between maternal education and IQ (Table 4B columns 1,2, 4 and 5). For these regressions, both maternal education and IQ have been standardized to have a mean of zero and standard deviation of one to ease comparison of the regression coefficients. Maternal education is negatively associated with smoking. Interestingly, IQ is positively (though weakly) associated with smoking at low levels of

education – only at high levels of education, does maternal IQ appear to negatively affect the decision to smoke (as evidenced by the negative coefficient on interaction term IQ*Education in columns 2 and 5). These relationships (between education, cognitive ability and smoking) appear to grow in strength after publication of the 1964 report as evidenced by the negative coefficients on the interaction term maternal education*post 1964 and the triple interaction term maternal education*IQ*post 1964 (columns 3 and 6).

These results suggest that the negative relationship between smoking and education does not simply reflect greater cognitive ability of the more educated. An alternative explanation is that education improves the acquisition of scientific knowledge by “imparting certain learning skills and habits” (Wade and Schram, 1969). In an examination of both the accuracy and source of people’s knowledge about science and health in 1958, Wade and Schram (1969) find that the less educated are more likely to rely on broadcast (radio and television) for information about science and health in contrast to the most educated who rely on print media and that this makes a difference in the amount and accuracy of knowledge. In interpreting their results, the authors assign no role to IQ/cognitive ability, but a strong role to learning skills developed in school.

Finally, we explore how the education gradient in smoking (defined as cigarettes per day) changes after 1964 using count models and the predictions are nearly identical to those based on linear models.

Based on these results, we conclude that immediately after publication of the first widespread report about the effects of smoking on health, the negative relationship between maternal education and smoking increased by one third and that this was not driven by differences in income. Nor does it reflect differences in reporting by education level. Rather, the evidence

seems to suggest that schooling affects the decision to smoke presumably by reducing the costs of acquiring accurate scientific knowledge, presumably by imparting certain learning skills and habits. Moreover, this increase in the gradient in smoking after publication of the report is accompanied by an increase in the gradient in newborn health as measured by birth weight and fetal death.

Regression Results – Maternal FE Specification

To control for potential differences in any unobserved characteristics of pregnant women before and after publication of the 1964 SG report, we limit the sample to mothers who had multiple children over this period and include maternal fixed effects (n=17,287), thereby limiting our comparison to the same women before and after publication of the 1964 SG report. This would, for example, control for any differences in female education that may have coincided with the 1964 Report.¹¹ For these regressions we include a linear time trend, an indicator for post 1964 and maternal fixed effects. Moreover, we stratify the sample multiple ways to assess whether the smoking decisions of some mothers were more responsive to advances in medical knowledge than others.

On average, we witness a decline in the probability of smoking of 3.5 percent after publication of the report (Table 5A, column 1, Panel A) and half a cigarette less per day (Panel B). The decline in heavy smoking is insignificant. In columns 2 and 3 we stratify the sample by maternal education (HS drop out vs. HS graduate). While the change in the probability of

¹¹ This might include passage of the 1964 Higher Education Act which increased financial aid for higher education and Title I (1965) which increased federal funding for schools serving low income children.

smoking is similar for both groups, the decline in cigarettes smoked per day is twice as great for HS graduates relative to HS drop outs.

We also explore whether other maternal characteristics such as income, maternal health and health of previous children affect the decision to smoke after 1964. Income does not appear to affect decisions to smoke after the 1964 report (columns 4 and 5). There is some suggestive evidence, however, that maternal health and the birth weight of the previous child affect how a mother responds to the 1964 SG report, though the estimates are very imprecise. Mothers defined as “not sick” (having no reported medical condition) are slightly more likely to reduce their smoking relative to those defined as “sick” (at least one medical condition), as are mothers whose previous child was born of normal weight relative to those whose previous child was born low birth weight (LBW).

Alternatively, for the sample of women with at least one birth before 1964 and at least one birth after 1964, one can characterize women who quit, women who start and women with no change after the 1964 Report (Table 5B). Women who quit are less likely to be black, more likely to be white, are more educated, and have higher income than those who start smoking over this period. They are very similar, however, to those whose smoking behavior does not change over this period. It is the women who start smoking over this period who are significantly more disadvantaged.

The Role of Peers

We explore whether peers may act as a social multiplier in either the diffusion and/or uptake of new medical knowledge. Specifically, we hypothesize that having more educated peers increases the probability of quitting (or not starting) after publication of the 1964 SG report

via two potential channels. First, more educated peers can serve as an additional indirect source of information about the health effects of smoking (an information channel). This assumes that the probability of knowing about the effects of smoking directly from 1964 SG Report increases in education but is less than 1 and that peers can also transmit this information indirectly to each other. As such, the probability that one knows about the effects of smoking on health is higher for the more educated not only because they are more likely to have direct knowledge from the SG Report, but also, if there is sorting on education, because their peers are more likely to have that knowledge and transmit it to them. We refer to this as the information channel. The second mechanism assumes that the cost of quitting, conditional on having information about the ill effects of smoking, is lower among those whose peers do not smoke.¹² As such, having more educated peers who are themselves less likely to smoke after publication of the report, increases one's own probability of quitting and/or not starting. We refer to this as the behavioral channel.¹³

If peers do serve as a social multiplier in the diffusion and/or take-up of new medical knowledge, then the education gradient in smoking should increase more after the 1964 Report among those groups characterized by a high degree of residential segregation by education.¹⁴ To examine this empirically, we calculate a dissimilarity index for each of the 11 cities included in the NCPP based on 1960 census data. The dissimilarity index measures the degree of residential segregation in the city and it is held constant over time for this analysis. It is defined as follows:

¹² This is consistent with the cue theory of consumption (Laibson, 2001).

¹³ Lleras-Muney and Jensen (2010) find that a randomized intervention in the Dominican Republic that increases schooling reduces smoking among 18 year olds and that the effectiveness was due, in part, to changes in peer networks.

¹⁴ This assumes that the educated residing in segregated cities are more likely to interact with educated peers than those in less segregated cities. Likewise, the less educated residing in segregated cities are less likely to interact with educated peers than those in less segregated cities.

$$D = \frac{1}{2} \times \sum_{i=1}^n \left| \frac{dropout_i}{DROPOUT} - \frac{grad_i}{GRAD} \right|$$

Where $dropout_i$ refers to the number of HS drop outs in the census tract (i), $DROPOUT$ refers to the number of HS drop outs in the city, $grad_i$ the number of HS graduates in the census tract and $GRAD$ the number of HS graduates in the city. To identify education segregation separate from racial segregation, we calculate a separate index for each racial/ethnic group in each city (white, black, Hispanic) for 1960. We then stratify the sample based on low vs. high dissimilarity index (cutoff at the median in the sample) and estimate separate regressions of the impact of the 1964 SG Report on the education gradient in smoking for those more vs. less segregated (as measured in 1960.)

We consider that segregation could be endogenous in this context because mothers who select to reside in more segregated cities may differ in unobserved ways from those choosing less segregated cities. We argue, however, that these regressions are identified for the following reasons. First, we include city fixed effects. Second, we fix segregation at 1960 levels. As such, we do not identify off of changes in segregation over time (which is likely endogenous). Rather, identification in this model comes from the change after 1964 in smoking behavior by education by level of segregation in 1960. Any threat to identification would have to come from an omitted variable that varies with the level of education, by the level of segregation and by the timing of the 1964 Report.

We find that the education gradient in smoking increases much more quickly after the 1964 Surgeon General's report among those in cities most segregated by education in 1960 (Table 6). For example, those with four more years of schooling reduce their probability of smoking by nearly four percentage points after the 1964 SG Report in segregated areas, while

mothers with the same level of education in less segregated areas reduce their smoking by less than one percentage point and the coefficient on the latter is not statistically significant. We take this as evidence that peers serve as a social multiplier in either the diffusion of new medical knowledge and/or the ability to act on such knowledge.¹⁵

Summary and Interpretation of the Short Run Effects of Information on the Gradient

We conclude based on the results presented thus far that 1) the education gradient in smoking increased immediately after the 1964 SG report, 2) this increase did not simply reflect changes in reports of smoking, but actual smoking as measured by serum cotinine levels, 3) the observed increase in the negative relationship between education and smoking does not reflect more general changes in the SES gradient in smoking, 4) the trend in the education gradient in smoking is consistent with observed changes in the education gradient in knowledge about the negative effects of smoking on health between 1957 and 1969, 5) peers affect the response to new knowledge about the health effects of smoking, and 6) the education gradient in newborn health, as measured by birth weight and fetal death, likewise increased after the 1964 SG report.

How do we interpret these findings? Should we interpret them as causal? While we do not instrument for education, we could argue that IV estimates would likely be similar to OLS estimates for the following reasons. First, we are able to control for the two largest potential sources of omitted variable bias: income and cognitive ability. Second, existing IV estimates of the impact of education on smoking using various instruments are very similar, though slightly larger, than OLS estimates (eg, Currie and Moretti, 2003).

¹⁵ Hispanics are very highly segregated in these cities. We repeat the regression excluding Hispanics and the results remain.

Alternatively, we could argue that a causal interpretation of the relationship between education and the response to information is not crucial. Rather, the objective of this research is to explore how new medical knowledge affects disparities in health – over the short and long term. We focus on education because the more educated are better able to process new information. This may be because education improves this ability or because the more able pursue more education. From the perspective of this research, the distinction is not crucial.

IV. The Evolution of the Education Gradient in Smoking and Health

Having shown that publication of the First SG Report on Smoking and Health in 1964 resulted in an immediate increase in the education gradient in smoking and newborn health, we examine how the gradients in both smoking and health have evolved over time.

A. Data

For this analysis we use multiple sources of data. Vital statistics does not include information on smoking during pregnancy until 1989, so for years prior to 1989 we use data from the National Natality Surveys (NNS) of 1969 and 1980. The NNS were conducted by the National Center for Health Statistics which randomly sampled certificates of live birth and mailed questionnaires to 3,611 and 9,941 new mothers with births in 1969 and 1980, respectively. Data on demographic characteristics and birth weight came from birth certificates and the maternal surveys solicited information on income smoking habits while pregnant. The resulting sample, when weighted, is representative of the population of married mothers with US

citizenship. However, we conclude that the omission of single mothers and non-citizens from the NNS data is unlikely to affect our results.¹⁶

B. Results

Based on regressions of smoking on maternal education and additional controls (age, race, marital status, birth order, child gender and state cigarette tax rates) for the period 1969 - 2006, we find that the education gradient increases until about 1990 when it begins to decline and continues to do so until 2006, the most recent year for which we have data. Specifically, an additional year of education is associated with smoking 0.21 fewer cigarettes per day in 1969, 0.48 fewer cigarettes per day in 1980, 0.45 fewer cigarettes in 1990, 0.22 fewer cigarettes by 2000 and returning to levels below initial 1969 levels by 2006 (.14 fewer cigarettes per day), the most recent year for which we have data (columns 2,4,6,8,10 of Table 7). The education gradient in any smoking is similar (columns 1,3,5,7,9 of Table 7). In the second panel we examine the impact by HS degree and in the third we present the same results redefining education as an indicator variable for being in the top 25 percent of the education distribution in that year to account for the fact that the composition of women within education categories has changed over time. Regardless of how we define education, we see the same pattern and conclude that the education gradient in smoking which was relatively small prior to publication of the 1964 SG report, widens over time until sometime between 1980 and 1990 when it begins

¹⁶ In 1970 and 1980, approximately 88 and 73 percent of all births were to married US citizens, respectively, suggesting small potential bias in estimates from 1969 but potentially more bias in 1980 as more women were excluded. To address any potential bias caused by the omission of these two groups, we compare estimates of the education gradient in birth weight from the NSS with estimates based on vital statistics data which is representative of the entire population of births for 1970 and 1980. We find that they are very similar.

to fall, declining to levels below 1969 levels by 2006. This trend mimics trends in the education gradient in knowledge about the negative effects of smoking on health presented earlier.¹⁷

Finally, we explore the implication of these results for the evolution of health disparities. The results of regressions of birth weight on maternal education and other demographic characteristics over time (Table 8) suggest that the education gradient in birth weight tracks the education gradient in smoking quite closely. Visually, we can see this in Figure 2 where we have plotted regression coefficients on maternal education from the birth weight and smoking regressions from Tables 7 and 8. As the education gradient in smoking increases between 1969 and 1980, so too does the education gradient in birth weight. Likewise, as the gradient in smoking declines between 1990 and 2006, so too does the gradient in birth weight.¹⁸

Yet many other things that likely affect the education gradient in birth weight (such as expansions in Medicaid eligibility for pregnancy) are also changing over this period. As such, any claim that the evolution of the education gradient in smoking can explain the evolution of the education gradient in birth weight requires a negative causal impact of smoking on birth weight. Though previous research has consistently produced estimates that are negative, the estimated size of the effects has varied substantially with the estimation method used. Because of the richness of our data, we can 1) quantify the bias in OLS estimates due to selection and measurement error, separately, 2) attempt to explain and reconcile the variation in existing

¹⁷ To isolate the relationship between education and smoking separate from income, we can re-estimate the above education gradient regressions conditioning on income for 1969 and 1980 (because the NNS data include income that the vital statistics data do not). When we do, the education gradient in smoking increases slightly from -.21 to -.28 in 1969 and from -.48 to -.54 in 1980, suggesting that the relationship between education and smoking while pregnant is not operating through income, at least for this period.

¹⁸ This is consistent with Racine and Joyce (2004) who document a similar decline in the income gradient in birth outcomes (LBW and mortality) in New York City over the period 1988 -2000.

estimates, and 3) provide a new estimate of the impact of smoking on birth weight that corrects for bias from both selection and measurement error.

V. Prenatal Smoking and Newborn Health

For this analysis we focus on birth weight as a measure of newborn health, not fetal death which is too infrequent (0.03) to generate stable estimates, particularly with the reduced sample for the fixed effect estimates. However, we acknowledge debate over the appropriateness of birth weight as a measure of newborn health and the presence of evidence both for and against it.¹⁹

Previous attempts to estimate a causal relationship between smoking and birth weight have used multiple techniques to overcome potential bias from omitted variables and measurement error in reports of smoking. These techniques have included maternal fixed effects, propensity score matching, randomized controlled trials and IV, with the results varying with the estimation method used.²⁰ Studies using fixed effects (Rosenzweig and Wolpin, 1991; Abrevaya, 2006) produce estimates that are smaller than OLS estimates. Those using propensity score techniques produce estimates similar to OLS estimates (Almond, Chay and Lee, 2005) as do those correcting for selection using the Heckman selection technique (Grossman and Joyce, 1990). Sexton and Hebel (1984) conduct a randomized controlled trial of a smoking cessation program for pregnant women and find that women randomly assigned to the smoking cessation

¹⁹ For example, Almond, Chay and Lee (2005), using variation within twins for identification, find very small negative effects of birth weight on short term health outcomes, with the exception of very low birth weights. Black, Devereaux, and Salvanes (2007) and Oreopolis et al (2008) using the same identification strategy do find moderate long term effects on IQ, income, education and welfare receipt.

²⁰ Another method used by Fertig (2009) is to compare OLS estimates of the impact of smoking on birth weight over time to assess the degree of selection into smoking. This method assumes that negative selection into smoking has grown over time and her finding that OLS estimates based on 1958 data from the UK are considerably smaller than those based on 2000 data suggests that selection can explain a substantial portion of current OLS estimates.

program smoked less and delivered babies that weighed significantly (92 grams) more. The final method, IV, produces estimates that are considerably larger than OLS estimates, with the highest estimate nearly double that of OLS.²¹

Our contribution to the existing literature is to assess the bias in OLS estimates due to selection and measurement error, separately. To do so, we exploit 1) the large number of siblings in the data that allows us to include maternal fixed effects to address selection bias and 2) a subset of data with serum cotinine levels which allows us to address the issue of measurement error in reports of smoking in an IV framework. We argue that a careful comparison of the OLS, FE and IV estimates allows us to 1) determine the amount of bias due to selection and measurement error, respectively, 2) produce an estimate that adequately accounts for both and 3) explain the variation in existing estimates.

A. OLS Estimates

OLS estimates suggest that smoking is associated with a decline in birth weight of 187 grams, or 28 percent of a standard deviation (Table 9). Defining smoking as cigarettes smoked per day, we find that each cigarette smoked per day is associated with a reduction in birth weight of 20 grams, and the relationship is decreasing in the number of cigarettes smoked (Column 1, Panel B). In panel C, we explore this non-linearity and categorize women as non-smokers (omitted), light smokers (1-10 cigarettes per day), moderate smokers (11-20 cigarettes per day) and heavy smokers (more than 20 cigarettes per day). Light smokers deliver babies that are on

²¹ Evans and Ringel (1999) use state cigarette taxes as instruments for smoking while pregnant, yielding IV estimates of 350-600 grams. Lien and Evans (2005) using the same technique but a limited sample yields a smaller IV estimate of 189 grams. Finally, Permutt and Hebel (1989) using data from the 1984 randomized control trial for smoking cessation during pregnancy and instrumenting for smoking status using the randomization, estimate that smoking reduces birth weight by 430 grams.

average, 128 grams lighter, while moderate and heavy smokers deliver babies that are nearly 300 grams lighter (43 percent of a standard deviation).

B. Fixed Effect Estimates

To assess the extent of selection bias in OLS estimates, we include maternal FE, thereby reducing identifying variation in smoking to that between births to the same mother. The sibling subsample (n=16,483) used for the FE analysis is very similar to the full sample along nearly every dimension including income, education, race, smoking habits and birth outcomes (Appendix Table 1). For purposes of comparison and to assess generalizability of the fixed effect estimates that are based on a subset of the full sample, OLS estimates of the impact of smoking on birth weight based on the sibling subsample are presented in column 2 of Table 9. They are very similar to the OLS estimates based on the full sample, suggesting that the FE estimates are likely generalizable to the full sample. It should be noted, however, that the variation in smoking declines considerably when we limit our analysis to that within mothers. For example, the standard deviation in the number of cigarettes smoked per day is 9.5, overall (the mean number of cigarettes smoked per day is 6.5). Within mothers, there is still some variation, but considerably less with the standard deviation falling to 3.0.

When we include maternal fixed effects, the coefficient on smoking declines by two thirds from -175 to -58 (Table 9 column 3), suggesting that once we control for omitted variables, smoking reduces birth weight by less than 60 grams or 9 percent of a standard deviation. Smoking an additional cigarette per day reduces birth weight by 12 grams, relative to the OLS estimate of 20 grams, with the effect decreasing in the number of cigarettes smoked (Table 9 column 3, panel B). Women who smoke more than 10 cigarettes per day on average

can expect newborns weighing 125 grams fewer (19 percent of a standard deviation), which is half the OLS estimate, but still represents a moderate effect.

C. Measurement Error in Smoking Reports

To assess potential measurement error in these data we instrument for maternal smoking with a measure of serum cotinine from the third trimester of pregnancy. This measure is highly correlated with reports of maternal smoking. Moreover, the evidence we presented previously suggests that cotinine's ability to predict self-reporting smoking does not vary systematically over time or with important maternal characteristics, with one exception – race, which has been attributed to psychological differences. For this reason, we run all regressions twice, with and without Blacks, and there is little difference in the result most likely because Blacks comprise less than 10 percent of the cotinine sample. However, cotinine is also correlated with any unobservables that may be correlated with both smoking and newborn health. As such, this instrument only addresses bias due to measurement error in reports of smoking, it does not address bias due to selection into smoking.

Comparison of results from OLS, FE and IV regressions enables us to assess the extent of bias in the OLS estimate due to omitted variables and measurement error, respectively and to adjust (upwards) our FE estimate to account for measurement error in smoking. OLS results in Table 10 columns 1 and 2 based on the full and sibling subsample suggest that each additional cigarette smoked per day reduces birth weight by 11.7 grams.²² The fixed effect estimate in column 3 is much smaller, -3.7. Columns 4 and 5 contain the first and second stages, respectively, of an IV regression. Cotinine is a very strong predictor of reported smoking (t

²² We exclude the quadratic term because we have only one instrument.

statistic = 31). However, we do not interpret the cotinine measure as the “true” measure as it is also subject to measurement error. Specifically, it is a single spot measure that reflects only relatively recent smoking which may or may not be the average level. Moreover, it can also reflect second hand smoke.

When we do instrument for reports of smoking with cotinine, the resulting IV estimate is much larger than the OLS estimate: -18.6 vs -11.7, yielding a reliability ratio of 0.63 in the measure of smoking and suggesting that measurement error in smoking leads to a considerable downward bias in the OLS estimate. As previously noted, attenuation bias due to classical measurement error is exacerbated in a fixed effect setting (Grilliches, 1979) with this “exacerbation” increasing in the degree of correlation in the smoking reports of siblings which in this case is high ($\rho=0.77$).²³ It should be noted that the greater impact of smoking instrumented with cotinine does not reflect the fact that conditional on smoking, those with a higher cotinine levels suffer worse birth outcomes. The estimated direct impact of cotinine on birth weight is in fact slightly smaller than the estimated impact of reported smoking (Appendix Table 2A).²⁴

Based on this, we conclude that OLS estimates are biased upward by 59 percent due to negative selection into smoking and biased downward by 37 percent due to measurement error. On net, the results suggest that OLS estimates are biased upward by 22 percent. Moreover, we can calculate a causal estimate that accounts for both selection and measurement error by adjusting the fixed effect estimates for measurement error in smoking. When we do, we find that

²³ Measurement error in an indicator variable cannot, by definition, be classical. However, the proportional bias is still given by $1 - \beta$ – the regression coefficient from a regression of the true measure on the noisy measure (Angrist and Krueger, 1999).

²⁴ We also regress birth weight on $\ln(\text{cotinine})$ separately by maternal education, income and the Duncan SES index as a means of exploring selection into smoking. If there’s no selection, the effect of cotinine should not vary by type of mother. We find that the estimated effects do vary across these types, consistent with non-random selection into smoking. We thank Ted Joyce for this suggestion.

smoking results in 9.6 fewer grams at birth per cigarette smoked per day and -152 grams for smoking, representing a moderate effect.

As a final identification strategy, we instrument for maternal smoking using the publication of the 1964 report interacted with maternal education as an instrument.²⁵ This instrument is designed to mitigate bias from both measurement error and selection. The results of the first and second stages are presented in the last two columns of Table 10, respectively. The first stage is strong (t statistics of 5 and 6). As expected, the point estimate for smoking in the second stage (-15.6 for cigarettes smoked per day and -311 for smoking) falls between the fixed effect and IV estimates based on cotinine, reflecting the fact that this second IV estimate corrects for both measurement error and selection. However, the coefficient is imprecisely estimated and the 95 percent confidence interval includes a wide range.

We draw four main conclusions based on these analyses. First, OLS estimates of the impact of smoking on birth weight are biased upward due to negative selection into smoking and biased downward due to measurement error in smoking reports; second, fixed effect estimates which correct for selection bias are significantly attenuated by measurement error; third, a comparison of OLS and IV estimates based on cotinine suggest a reliability ratio of .63 in reports of prenatal smoking (cigarettes/day); fourth, the true causal estimate of smoking on birth weight corrected for selection and measurement error represents a moderate effect: -152 grams for smoking and -9.6 grams per cigarette/day.

This analysis can help to explain the substantial variation in existing estimates that are based on different estimation methods. With respect to the existing fixed effect estimates, we conclude that they are too small because of exacerbated measurement error. This also explains

²⁵ The two main effects, publication of the report and maternal education, are included in the first and second stages of the IV regression (eg, they are not excluded as instruments but rather are allowed to affect birth weight directly).

why estimates based on propensity score and selection correction, which are subject to less measurement error (though still some), are larger than the FE estimates and why IV estimates which correct for selection and measurement error are larger still.

VI. Conclusions

The goals of this paper were threefold. First, using the only dataset that, to our knowledge, has information on smoking habits before and after the first wide-spread publication of the effects of smoking on health in 1964, we explored the immediate impact of the 1964 Report on the education gradients in smoking and health. We found that more educated women immediately reduced their smoking in response to the report while the least educated did not. These differences are consistent with an increase in the education gradient in knowledge about the effects of smoking on health also observed over this period and cannot be explained by differences in income or cognitive ability, nor differences in reported smoking, as differential declines in serum cotinine levels were also observed. Moreover, we provide evidence of strong peer effects in the response to information. The immediate increase in the gradient in smoking after 1964 was accompanied by an immediate increase in the gradient in newborn health as measured by increases in birth weight and reductions in fetal death.

Second, we examined the long-run effects of an advance in information on the gradient in smoking and health. We showed that the education gradient in smoking which increased immediately after 1964, continued to increase until the mid 1980s when it began to decline as the smoking behavior of the less educated began to converge to that of the more educated. This trend in the education gradient in smoking witnessed over the past half century was mirrored by

trends in the education gradient in birth weight which initially increased after the 1964 report, and likewise, beginning in the mid 1980s, began to decline.

Finally, we provided new evidence on the impact of smoking on newborn health using FE and IV techniques that allowed us to assess the degree of measurement error and selection in smoking reports separately and provide a causal estimate that is moderate in size and adjusts for both sources of bias.

We conclude based on these findings that increasing health disparities is a likely byproduct of advances in medical knowledge, which the more educated are quicker to adopt, consistent with the concept of “fundamental causes.” Moreover, the increase in inequality can persist to the next generation. However, over time, the disparities decline as the behavior and health of the less educated eventually converge to that of the more educated. Obviously, this does not imply that scientific progress should be eliminated even though it will, at least initially, increase health disparities. It can, however, explain why despite efforts to reduce inequalities in health, they continue to persist in an era characterized by continuous advancements in scientific knowledge.

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Table 1: The Education Gradient in Knowledge of Smoking and Heart Disease 1957-1990

	1957	1969	1977	1981	1990
HS drop-out	-0.000809 [0.0346]	-0.0933 [0.0331]	-0.155 [0.0307]	-0.195 [0.0291]	-0.141 [0.0282]
HS graduate	0.000186 [0.0376]	-0.122 [0.0333]	-0.118 [0.0287]	-0.0843 [0.0262]	-0.056 [0.0221]
White	0.000291 [0.0452]	0.0787 [0.0405]	0.0615 [0.0352]	0.0679 [0.0322]	0.151 [0.0290]
Female	-0.0123 [0.0257]	-0.0256 [0.0254]	0.034 [0.0238]	-0.00906 [0.0221]	0.0169 [0.0198]
Age	0.00315 [0.000874]	-0.00084 [0.000799]	-0.000705 [0.000688]	0.00016 [0.000657]	-0.00205 [0.000569]
Observations	1445	1486	1504	1529	1223
R-squared	0.01	0.015	0.027	0.035	0.06

Regressions weighted by sample weights for 1969-1990. Omitted/Reference is more than HS.

Dependent variable is whether the respondent answers "yes" to the Gallup Poll Survey question:

"Do you believe smoking is a cause of heart disease?"

Table 2: Changes in the Education Gradient in Smoking and Birthweight Associated with the 1964 SG Report

	Sample Restricted to 19-34 Year Olds					Full Sample		
	Smoker	Cigarettes per day	Birthweight	LBW	Fetal Death	Birthweight	LBW	Fetal Death
Maternal education*post 1964	-0.006 [0.003]	-0.094 [0.056]	6.008 [4.006]	-0.002 [0.002]	-0.001 [0.001]	8.019 [3.524]	-0.003 [0.002]	-0.002 [0.001]
Maternal education	-0.014 [0.006]	-0.313 [0.085]	24.048 [5.816]	-0.009 [0.003]	0.001 [0.001]	25.269 [5.038]	-0.012 [0.003]	0.001 [0.001]
Maternal education*year	0 [0.002]	-0.013 [0.035]	-4.724 [2.484]	0.001 [0.001]	-0.001 [0.001]	-4.396 [2.148]	0.002 [0.001]	-0.001 [0.000]
Maternal education*year ²	0 [0.000]	0 [0.004]	0.318 [0.283]	0 [0.000]	0 [0.000]	0.163 [0.247]	0 [0.000]	0 [0.000]
Black	0.101 [0.038]	0.268 [0.589]	-125.597 [49.481]	0.076 [0.021]	0.032 [0.004]	-123.709 [45.335]	0.07 [0.020]	0.025 [0.005]
White	0.243 [0.037]	5.074 [0.563]	81.774 [47.843]	0.024 [0.019]	0.018 [0.002]	83.985 [44.122]	0.015 [0.019]	0.015 [0.004]
Hispanic	-0.081 [0.042]	-1.789 [0.644]	-30.97 [55.209]	0.05 [0.026]	0.035 [0.006]	-29.701 [50.063]	0.035 [0.024]	0.031 [0.006]
Birth Order	0.015 [0.002]	0.392 [0.035]	15.897 [2.529]	0 [0.001]	-0.001 [0.001]	16.704 [2.186]	-0.002 [0.001]	-0.001 [0.001]
Married	-0.131 [0.009]	-2.608 [0.174]	32.27 [11.330]	-0.015 [0.006]	-0.004 [0.002]	27.725 [9.271]	-0.01 [0.005]	-0.003 [0.002]
Ln(family income in \$1000)	0.02 [0.007]	0.268 [0.126]	25.308 [8.398]	-0.004 [0.005]	0 [0.002]	20.905 [6.807]	-0.004 [0.004]	-0.001 [0.002]
Male	0.005 [0.006]	0.099 [0.107]	110.987 [7.460]	-0.024 [0.004]	0.002 [0.002]	110.373 [6.470]	-0.026 [0.004]	0.003 [0.001]
Maternal age	-0.007 [0.001]	-0.038 [0.018]	0.978 [1.182]	0.001 [0.001]	0.002 [0.000]	1.604 [0.805]	0.001 [0.000]	0.002 [0.000]
Year	7.581 [7.986]	96.351 [121.996]	-13,868.92 [8,533.548]	3.584 [5.104]	0.19 [2.165]	-17,918.12 [7,245.653]	4.07 [3.089]	1.681 [1.708]
Year squared	-0.002 [0.002]	-0.024 [0.031]	3.54 [2.174]	-0.001 [0.001]	0 [0.001]	4.575 [1.847]	-0.001 [0.001]	0 [0.000]
Post 1964	0.052 [0.035]	0.722 [0.617]	-105.978 [43.570]	0.037 [0.025]	0.01 [0.013]	-125.72 [37.020]	0.044 [0.020]	0.016 [0.010]
Cigarette tax in cents (real)	0.001 [0.001]	0.008 [0.009]	-0.932 [0.633]	0 [0.000]	0 [0.000]	-0.739 [0.555]	0 [0.000]	0 [0.000]
Observations	40668	40668	40601	40863	40863	53120	53459	53459
R-squared	0.06	0.1	0.05	0.01	0	0.06	0.02	0

Robust standard errors in brackets

Also included are indicators for AMC.

Table 3: Changes in The Gradient in Smoking and Newborn Health - Stratified Specifications

Panel A: Smoker	1962-1963	1964-1965
Maternal education	-0.016 [0.002]	-0.023 [0.002]
Ln(family income)	0.009 [0.011]	-0.003 [0.009]
Observations	12885	14924
R-squared	0.07	0.06
Panel B: Cigarettes per Day		
	1962-1963	1964-1965
Maternal education	-0.356 [0.044]	-0.486 [0.040]
Ln(family income)	0.243 [0.209]	0.023 [0.175]
Observations	12885	14924
R-squared	0.11	0.11
Panel C: Heavy Smoker		
	1962-1963	1964-1965
Maternal education	-0.005 [0.001]	-0.005 [0.001]
Ln(family income)	0.003 [0.005]	-0.001 [0.004]
Observations	12885	14924
R-squared	0.04	0.05
Panel D: Birth weight (grams)		
	1962-1963	1964-1965
Maternal education	11.22 [3.181]	13.977 [2.705]
Ln(family income)	13.083 [14.001]	19.985 [11.219]
Observations	12830	14879
R-squared	0.05	0.05
Panel E: Fetal Death		
	1962-1963	1964-1965
Maternal education	0 [0.001]	-0.002 [0.001]
Ln(family income)	0.003 [0.003]	0.002 [0.003]
Observations	12930	14963
R-squared	0.01	0.01
Panel F: Cotinine		
	1962-1963	1964-1965
Maternal education	-5.839 [1.676]	-10.866 [2.764]
Ln(family income)	22.165 [9.365]	2.52 [10.447]
Observations	346	293
R-squared	0.07	0.08

All differences in maternal education are statistically significant except for birth weight.

No differences in income are statistically significant.

Table 4A: Does the Relationship Between Serum Cotinine and Self-Reports of Smoking vary with Maternal Characteristics or with Publication of the 64 SG Report?

Outcome = Self-Reports of Cigarettes Smoked per Day

	Variation by Maternal Characteristic			Variation Over Time and by Maternal Characteristic			
	0 [0.003]			0 [0.003]			
Maternal education*cotinine							
Black*cotinine		-0.028 [0.012]				-0.026 [0.014]	
Income*cotinine			0.011 [0.012]				0.003 [0.015]
cotinine(ng/ml)	0.086 [0.029]	0.093 [0.008]	0.051 [0.042]	0.086 [0.008]	0.086 [0.033]	0.091 [0.010]	0.075 [0.049]
Cotinine*post 1964				0.007 [0.012]	-0.01 [0.047]	0.007 [0.013]	-0.08 [0.075]
Maternal education*cotinine*post 1964					0.002 [0.004]		
Black*cotinine*post 1964						-0.003 [0.023]	
Income*cotinine*post 1964							0.026 [0.022]
Maternal education	-0.333 [0.139]	-0.339 [0.132]	-0.335 [0.137]	-0.319 [0.136]	-0.345 [0.139]	-0.337 [0.132]	-0.308 [0.137]
Ln(family income in \$1000)	-0.228 [0.648]	-0.261 [0.647]	-0.79 [0.750]	-0.238 [0.653]	-0.203 [0.656]	-0.268 [0.653]	-0.845 [0.741]
Black	0.018 [1.241]	1.555 [1.059]	0.098 [1.204]	0.141 [1.287]	0.2 [1.246]	1.671 [1.059]	0.047 [1.211]
Observations	846	846	846	846	846	846	846
R-squared	0.51	0.52	0.52	0.52	0.52	0.52	0.52

Robust standard errors in brackets

Regressions also include controls for maternal age, marital status, birth order child gender, AMC FE and a quadratic in year.

Table 4B: Education, Cognitive Ability and the Response to the 1964 Surgeon General's Report

	Smoker			Cigarettes per day		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Maternal education standardized	-0.056 [0.009]	-0.061 [0.010]	-0.052 [0.013]	-1.406 [0.094]	-1.543 [0.095]	-1.36 [0.118]
Maternal IQ standardized	0.017 [0.005]	0.024 [0.005]	0.023 [0.007]	0.486 [0.095]	0.688 [0.098]	0.612 [0.121]
Maternal education (std)*IQ (std)		-0.032 [0.005]	-0.028 [0.006]		-0.884 [0.068]	-0.799 [0.087]
Maternal education (std)*IQ (std)*post 1964			-0.011 [0.008]			-0.22 [0.127]
Maternal education (std)*post 1964			-0.024 [0.013]			-0.503 [0.165]
Maternal IQ (std)*post 1964			0.003 [0.009]			0.197 [0.170]
Observations	20883	20883	20883	20883	20883	20883
R-squared	0.05	0.06	0.06	0.11	0.12	0.12

Robust standard errors in brackets

Maternal education and IQ have been standardized with mean zero and standard deviation 1.

Regressions also include controls for maternal race, age, marital status, income, birth order child gender, AMC FE, and a quadratic in year.

Table 5A: Changes in Smoking Behavior Across Births Stratified by Maternal Characteristic - FE Specification

Panel A: Smoker	All	<HS	>=HS	Poor	Non Poor	Sick	Non Sick	LBW	Not LBW	White	Black
post 1964	-0.035	-0.031	-0.038	-0.04	-0.03	-0.034	-0.052	0.015	-0.041	-0.023	-0.044
	[0.013]	[0.017]	[0.021]	[0.021]	[0.017]	[0.016]	[0.057]	[0.037]	[0.014]	[0.018]	[0.021]
year	0.007	0.011	0.001	0.015	0	0.006	0.016	-0.007	0.008	-0.002	0.016
	[0.004]	[0.006]	[0.007]	[0.007]	[0.006]	[0.005]	[0.016]	[0.014]	[0.005]	[0.006]	[0.007]
Observations	17287	9429	7858	6596	10691	14086	3201	2399	14502	9041	7564
R-squared	0.89	0.89	0.89	0.9	0.89	0.9	0.95	0.94	0.89	0.9	0.89
Panel B: Cigarettes per Day	All	<HS	>=HS	Poor	Not Poor	Sick	Non Sick	LBW	Not LBW	White	Black
post 1964	-0.507	-0.344	-0.709	-0.425	-0.547	-0.426	-0.634	-0.401	-0.512	-0.545	-0.421
	[0.231]	[0.341]	[0.303]	[0.416]	[0.265]	[0.285]	[0.887]	[0.665]	[0.249]	[0.334]	[0.332]
year	0.458	0.53	0.365	0.51	0.408	0.449	0.491	0.389	0.462	0.465	0.445
	[0.074]	[0.110]	[0.093]	[0.128]	[0.085]	[0.093]	[0.243]	[0.223]	[0.079]	[0.105]	[0.108]
Observations	17287	9429	7858	6596	10691	14086	3201	2399	14502	9041	7564
R-squared	0.9	0.9	0.92	0.89	0.92	0.91	0.96	0.93	0.9	0.91	0.87
Panel C: >20 Cigarettes per Day	All	<HS	>=HS	Poor	Non Poor	Sick	Non Sick	LBW	Not LBW	White	Black
post 1964	-0.009	-0.009	-0.009	0.005	-0.018	-0.01	-0.01	-0.025	-0.007	-0.013	-0.005
	[0.008]	[0.012]	[0.011]	[0.014]	[0.010]	[0.010]	[0.035]	[0.027]	[0.009]	[0.013]	[0.010]
year	0.01	0.012	0.007	0.007	0.011	0.011	0.005	0.011	0.01	0.013	0.006
	[0.003]	[0.004]	[0.003]	[0.004]	[0.003]	[0.003]	[0.011]	[0.008]	[0.003]	[0.004]	[0.003]
Observations	17287	9429	7858	6596	10691	14086	3201	2399	14502	9041	7564
R-squared	0.77	0.77	0.76	0.73	0.79	0.79	0.84	0.8	0.76	0.78	0.7

Robust standard errors clustered on mother in brackets

Table 5B: Characteristics of Quitters and Starters

Maternal Characteristic	Quitter	Starter	No Change in Smoking
White	0.46	0.6	0.46
Black	0.51	0.35	0.5
Maternal Education	10.7	10.2	10.6
Married	0.82	0.68	0.8
Family income (in \$1000)	30.7	23.99	27.6
HS Drop-Out	0.56	0.68	0.58
Obs	653	653	8369

Sample consists of 9675 births to 4035 mothers with at least one birth before and one birth after 1964

Table 6: Changes in the Education Gradient in Smoking and Residential Segregation

	Segregation in 1960		Segregation in 1960	
	Low	High	Low	High
Maternal Education*post 1964	-0.001 [0.003]	-0.009 [0.004]	-0.001 [0.003]	-0.009 [0.005]
Maternal education	-0.024 [0.002]	-0.007 [0.004]	-0.024 [0.002]	-0.012 [0.005]
Observations	24522	21296	24522	18626
R Squared	0.06	0.04	0.06	0.04
Sample	Full		Drop Hispanic	

Robust standard errors in brackets

Also included as covariates: maternal indicators for race, marital status, maternal age, family income, birth order, child gender, city FE and a linear time trend

Table 7: The Education Gradient in Smoking Over Time

	1969		1980		1990		2000		2006	
	Smoker	Cigs/Day	Smoker	Cigs/Day	Smoker	Cigs/Day	Smoker	Cigs/Day	Smoker	Cigs/Day
Panel A: Education in years										
Maternal education in years	-0.012 [0.00452]	-0.21 [0.0861]	-0.0201 [0.00249]	-0.478 [0.0535]	-0.0295 [223.89]	-0.4508 [204.56]	-0.0192 [205.63]	-0.219 [170.48]	-0.0125 [127.00]	-0.1377 [114.49]
White	0.157 [0.0520]	3.795 [0.754]	-0.14 [0.0147]	-3.336 [0.262]	0.0706 [46.75]	1.3521 [61.83]	0.0262 [30.46]	0.4767 [48.31]	0.0566 [82.26]	0.6375 [85.33]
Black	0.109 [0.0570]	0.479 [0.801]	-0.0886 [0.0650]	-2.077 [1.442]	-0.0126 [7.37]	-0.653 [26.61]	-0.0817 [82.31]	-0.975 [84.62]	-0.0413 [44.37]	-0.5465 [56.42]
Maternal age	0.000857 [0.00327]	0.0686 [0.0684]	-0.00903 [0.00171]	-0.104 [0.0352]	-0.0022 [20.98]	-0.0155 [9.10]	-0.0018 [23.46]	-0.0126 [12.59]	-0.097 [113.23]	-0.9874 [107.76]
Male	-0.00711 [0.0204]	0.513 [0.408]	0.00328 [0.0110]	0.238 [0.230]	-0.0002 [0.39]	0.0012 [0.13]	0.0004 [1.01]	-0.0023 [0.42]	-0.001 [1.98]	-0.0514 [8.58]
birth order	0.00204 [0.00740]	0.0972 [0.155]	-0.00287 [0.00421]	-0.0832 [0.0847]	0.0216 [92.63]	0.376 [92.14]	0.0209 [117.58]	0.2454 [98.81]	-0.0008 [1.65]	-0.0065 [1.20]
Married					-0.2072 [180.67]	-2.883 [142.34]	-0.1454 [181.96]	-1.5136 [135.06]	-0.004 [49.73]	-0.0315 [33.02]
Hispanic					-0.0997 [65.35]	-1.4941 [69.23]	-0.1088 [132.24]	-1.2218 [128.97]	-0.1164 [142.49]	-1.1098 [112.66]
Native born					0.0867 [88.88]	1.0705 [76.15]	0.067 [117.92]	0.4852 [73.21]	0.0195 [96.85]	0.2069 [83.01]
Cigarette tax in cents (real)	0.232 [0.113]	5.397 [2.224]	0.0372 [0.102]	-0.765 [2.154]	-0.0797 [17.44]	-2.3445 [31.41]	-0.0274 [23.09]	-1.0169 [72.67]		
Observations	2417	2417	6734	6734	1517622	1502984	1741927	1722596	1107945	1107945
R-squared	0.008	0.019	0.029	0.03	0.11	0.1	0.12	0.09	0.1	0.08
Panel B: HS Graduate										
Mother HS graduate	-0.132 [0.0259]	-2.388 [0.533]	-0.0894 [0.0181]	-2.019 [0.401]	-0.1748 [136.41]	-2.9586 [122.33]	-0.1119 [109.41]	-1.4483 [93.11]	-0.0786 [70.00]	-0.9125 [63.08]
Observations	2417	2417	6734	6734	1517622	1502984	1741927	1722596	1105797	1105797
R-squared	0.016	0.026	0.024	0.023	0.1	0.09	0.1	0.08	0.09	0.07
Panel C: Top 25% Education Distribution										
Mother in top 25% education distribution	-0.0666 [0.0228]	-1.42 [0.441]	-0.119 [0.0119]	-2.539 [0.243]	-0.136 [228.90]	-2.0058 [214.10]	-0.0941 [225.08]	-1.0061 [191.07]	-0.0731 [156.78]	-0.7448 [138.88]
Observations	2417	2417	6734	6734	1517622	1502984	1741927	1722596	1107945	1107945
R-squared	0.009	0.021	0.034	0.032	0.11	0.09	0.11	0.08	0.1	0.08

Robust standard errors in brackets

Notes: Regressions for 1969 and 1980 based on National Natality Surveys with population weights. No state FE included.

Regressions for 2006 do not include state level cigarette taxes because geographic identifiers are not available in the data.

Table 8: The Education Gradient in Birth Weight Over Time

	1969	1980	1990	2000	2006
Panel A: Education in years	(1)	(3)	(5)	(7)	(9)
Maternal education in years	7.92	12.27	10.8532	8.0111	6.7238
	[5.080]	[3.132]	[64.89]	[47.17]	[29.62]
White	112.3	-269.5	170.0505	187.7722	146.678
	[71.97]	[20.78]	[83.80]	[106.77]	[77.30]
Black	-92.39	-39.21	-77.7836	-32.2724	-55.6605
	[78.51]	[64.64]	[32.79]	[14.99]	[22.67]
Maternal age	6.835	4.396	-0.3716	1.5685	31.1836
	[3.817]	[2.125]	[2.61]	[11.37]	[27.16]
Male	106	132.2	126.5078	114.7956	114.6417
	[23.65]	[13.02]	[161.20]	[147.40]	[110.41]
birth order	13	7.318	15.7339	13.4443	2.8838
	[8.937]	[5.321]	[50.95]	[44.40]	[15.98]
Hispanic			138.56	156.8904	7.5195
			[67.21]	[88.96]	[19.04]
Native born			-26.8764	-16.044	132.4854
			[18.82]	[12.71]	[56.25]
Married			135.6773	91.248	79.6678
			[104.73]	[77.25]	[54.96]
Cigarette tax in cents (real)	-0.256	5.143	155.8128	103.4779	
	[130.9]	[116.9]	[26.79]	[46.54]	
Observations	2417	6734	2024664	2032666	1107945
R-squared	0.025	0.04	0.05	0.04	0.04
Panel B: HS Graduate	1969	1980	1990	2000	2006
Mother HS graduate	71.44	110.6	85.5699	54.1084	40.5553
	[30.78]	[20.66]	[61.13]	[37.87]	[21.24]
Observations	2417	6734	2024664	2032666	1105797
R-squared	0.026	0.041	0.05	0.04	0.04
Panel C: Top 25% Education Distribution	1969	1980	1990	2000	2006
Mother in top 25% education distribution	21.78	38.43	60.7556	40.1383	42.2488
	[26.85]	[14.68]	[71.41]	[45.97]	[35.19]
Observations	2417	6734	2024664	2032666	1107945
R-squared	0.024	0.039	0.05	0.04	0.04

Robust standard errors in brackets

Notes: Regressions for 1969 and 1980 based on National Natality Surveys with population weights. No state FE included.

Regressions for 1990, 2000 and 2006 based on vital statistics data. State FE included but results very similar if excluded.

Results for 2006 exclude controls for cigarette taxes because state identifiers excluded from the data.

However, results are nearly identical when cigarette tax is excluded for years 1969-2000.

Table 9: Impact of Smoking on Birth Weight

	Birth Weight (grams)		
Panel A: Smoker	OLS	OLS	FE
Smoker	-187.105 [7.052]	-174.905 [13.944]	-58.171 [32.936]
Maternal education	9.293 [1.584]	10.082 [3.287]	
Ln(family income in \$1000)	26.994 [7.137]	34.696 [15.046]	15.897 [20.178]
Married	8.592 [9.665]	28.08 [21.399]	-23.474 [37.516]
White	9.706 [69.293]	52.445 [173.420]	
Black	-204.32 [69.876]	-168.69 [173.929]	
Hispanic	-137.997 [73.472]	-158.692 [194.657]	
Asian	-279.99 [87.758]	-267.392 [200.010]	
Maternal age	1.19 [0.797]	-2.472 [1.802]	-51.507 [15.989]
Male	116.485 [6.458]	120.436 [11.847]	137.983 [15.004]
Birth Order	18.721 [2.081]	22.717 [4.502]	41.068 [15.264]
Observations	46907	16483	16493
R-squared	0.08	0.08	0.81
<hr/>			
Panel B: Cigarettes per Day	OLS	OLS	FE
Cigarettes per day	-20.615 [0.870]	-20.371 [1.660]	-12.398 [3.996]
Cigarettes per day squared	0.324 [0.027]	0.331 [0.049]	0.213 [0.095]
Observations	46907	16483	16493
R-squared	0.09	0.09	0.81
<hr/>			
Panel C: Heavy Smoking	OLS	OLS	FE
1-10 Cigarettes per Day	-127.738 [8.135]	-104.842 [15.905]	-43.618 [32.570]
11-20 Cigarettes per Day	-268.549 [9.978]	-269.061 [19.513]	-126.574 [46.332]
>20 Cigarettes per Day	-272.429 [17.551]	-257.716 [31.006]	-121.178 [70.163]
Observations	46907	16483	16493
R-squared	0.09	0.09	0.81

Robust standard errors in brackets

Table 10: Impact of Smoking on Birth Weight: Comparison of OLS, FE and IV Estimates

Panel A: Cigarettes per Day	OLS	OLS	FE	First Stage	IV	First Stage	IV
Cigarettes per day	-11.64	-11.74	-3.661		-18.563		-15.634
	[0.340]	[0.593]	[1.338]		[2.345]		[11.522]
Maternal education	7.399	6.732		-0.302	6.847	-0.295	5.917
	[1.420]	[2.667]		[0.120]	[8.403]	[0.024]	[4.505]
Ln(family income)	24.143	29.692	4.295	-0.551	-38.424	0.26	25.148
	[6.298]	[12.152]	[15.315]	[0.618]	[42.238]	[0.090]	[6.942]
Maternal age	-0.273	-3.661	-72.927	0.054	1.036	-0.033	-0.412
	[0.863]	[1.588]	[12.160]	[0.069]	[4.747]	[0.012]	[0.952]
Birth Order	21.177	26.573	46.648	0.026	14.783	0.39	22.74
	[1.837]	[3.457]	[9.683]	[0.161]	[11.001]	[0.026]	[4.869]
Male	110.77	101.047	118.141	-0.592	138.511	0.042	110.937
	[5.970]	[10.690]	[11.316]	[0.494]	[33.856]	[0.085]	[5.999]
Married	5.248	13.395		-2.089	-18.625	-2.462	-4.593
	[8.384]	[16.696]		[1.073]	[73.971]	[0.119]	[29.598]
White	132.277	103.258		0.333	6.098	4.513	150.463
	[30.906]	[62.132]		[3.227]	[220.824]	[0.442]	[60.904]
Black	-122.461	-166.249		-3.63	-287.494	-0.315	-123.592
	[31.850]	[63.557]		[3.291]	[225.217]	[0.456]	[32.068]
Hispanic	-15.952	-20.682				-1.773	-23.156
	[35.036]	[74.448]				[0.501]	[40.782]
Post 1964	-30.818	-20.965	8.9	-0.033	-147.534	1.961	-32.367
	[12.450]	[21.929]	[21.869]	[0.982]	[67.181]	[0.424]	[13.248]
Birth year	-35.019	-26.287	50.705	1.694	-44.01	0.351	-33.514
	[7.944]	[14.656]	[19.626]	[0.775]	[53.087]	[0.114]	[9.064]
Birth year squared	4.252	3.188	0.588	-0.167	6.403	-0.025	4.142
	[0.986]	[1.828]	[1.875]	[0.091]	[6.197]	[0.014]	[1.037]
Cotinine(ng/ml)				0.093			
				[0.003]			
Education*post 1964						-0.216	
						[0.036]	
Observations	42238	15126	15160	859	859	42397	42238
R-squared	0.07	0.07	0.76	0.54	0.11	0.1	0.07
<hr/>							
Panel B: Smoker	OLS	OLS	FE	First Stage	IV	First Stage	IV
Smoker	-187.105	-174.905	-58.171		-462.589		-311.829
	[7.052]	[13.944]	[32.936]		[60.473]		[231.128]
cotinine(ng/ml)				0.004			
				[0.000]			
Education*post 1964						-0.011	
						[0.002]	
Observations	46907	16483	16493	859	859	42397	42238
R-squared	0.08	0.08	0.81	0.38	0.04	0.06	0.06
<hr/>							
Standard errors in brackets							
Sample	Full	Sibling	Sibling	Cotinine	Cotinine	Full	Full

Figure 1A: Trends in Maternal Smoking

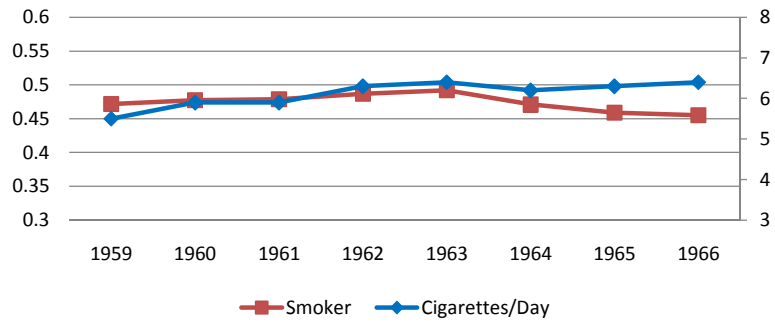


Figure 1B: Trends in Smoking by Maternal Education

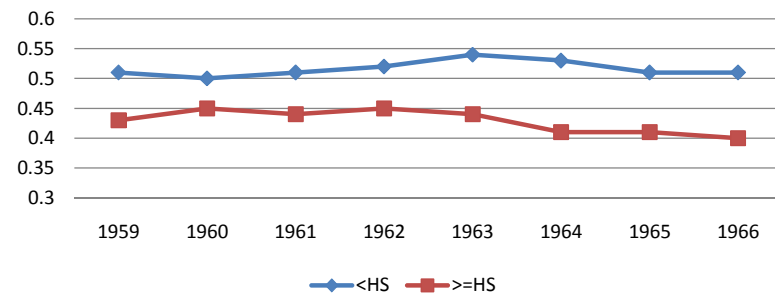
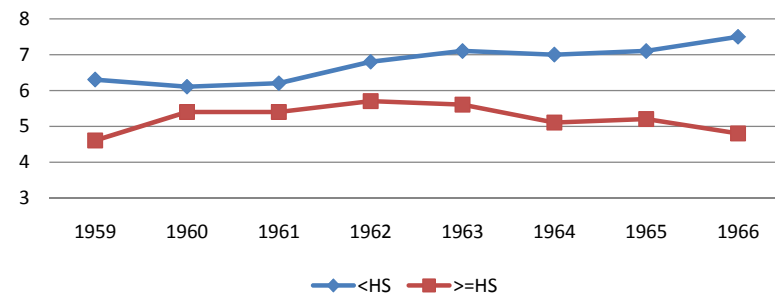


Figure 1C: Trends in Cigarettes per Day by Maternal Education



Sample: women ages 19-34

Fig 2A: Education Gradient in Smoking Over Time

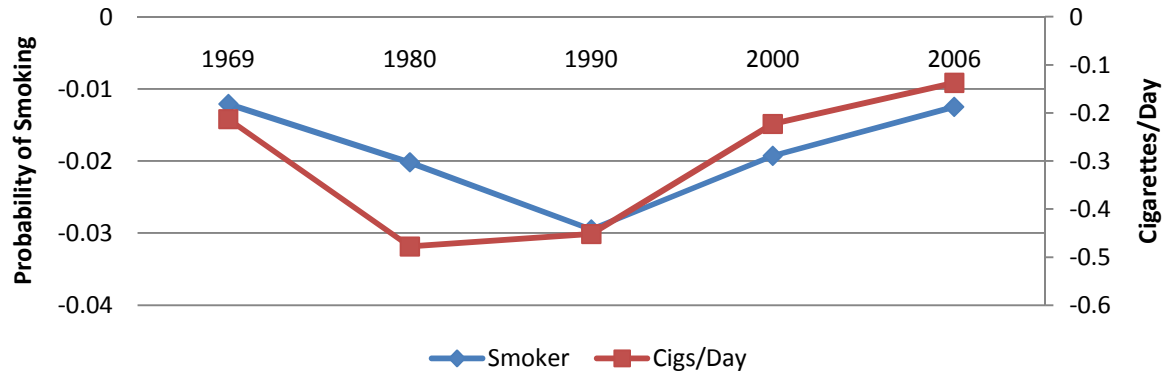
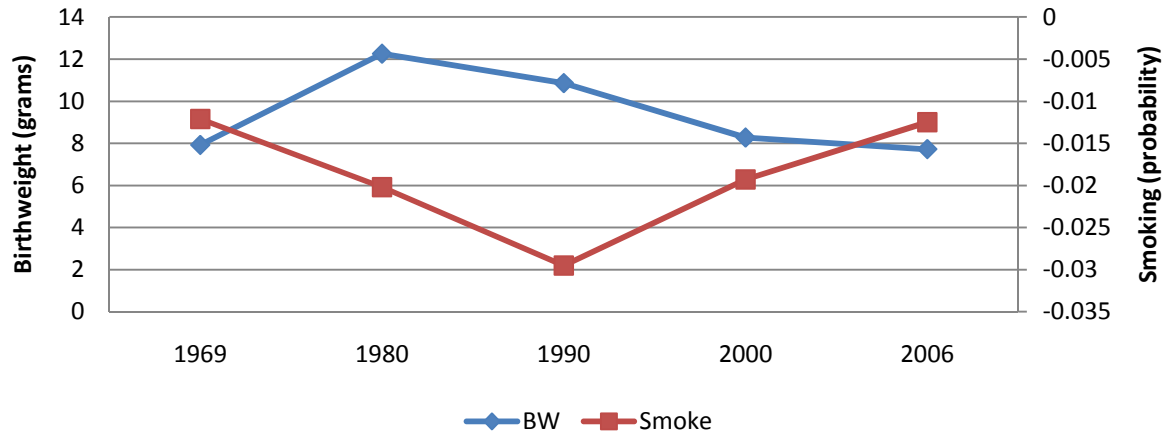


Fig 2B: Education Gradient in Smoking and Birthweight Over Time



Note: Each point represents a coefficient estimate on education in a regression in which the outcome is either an indicator for smoking, the number of cigarettes smoked per day or birth weight. Other covariates listed in Table 7 also included.

Appendix Table 1: Descriptive Statistics: National Collaborative Perinatal Project 1959-1966

	Full Sample		Sibling Sample		1960 Census
	mean	Std dev	mean	Std dev	mean
Maternal Characteristics					
Maternal education (years)	10.86	2.55	10.82	2.39	11.01
HS Drop out	0.52		0.53		
HS graduate	0.33		0.35		
Some college	0.09		0.07		
College +	0.06		0.05		
SRA Rank Quotient (IQ)	89.77	19.86	90.28	19.62	
Family income (in 2007 \$)	\$ 27,200	\$ 15,050	\$ 27,570	\$ 14,270	\$ 40,368
Married	0.80		0.84		0.93
White	0.49		0.52		0.82
Black	0.43		0.44		0.15
Hispanic	0.07		0.03		0.04
Asian	0.00		0.00		
Maternal age	24.20	4.56	24.23	4.47	29.52
male	0.51		0.51	0.50	
Birth order	2.72	2.21	3.16	2.12	
Smoking Variables					
Smoker	0.48		0.49		
Cigarettes per Day	6.07	9.31	6.44	9.46	
Cigarettes per Day conditional on Smoking	12.70	9.80	13.10	9.70	
Birth Outcomes					
Birth weight	3108	660	3080	706	
Gestation (weeks)	38.68	4.83	38.38	5.18	
Low Birth Weight	0.12		0.14		
Observations	50142		17530		

note: Sample excludes all women less than 19 or over 35 at time of birth

1960 Census averages are a weighted average of all women 19-35 with a child under the age of 5 in 1960 from the central cities where the AMCs are located with the weights proportional to the share of the NCPP sample associated with the AMC. 2 cities (Providence and Baltimore) are not included in the Census average because they are not identifiable in the IPUMs.

Appendix Table 2A: OLS Regressions of Birth Weight on Smoking and Cotinine

	Birth Weight				Cigarettes per day
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Positive cotinine	-178.006 [53.507]				
Smoker		-211.383 [40.992]			
Ln(cotinine)			-97.373 [18.207]		
Ln(cigarettes per day)				-115.568 [28.115]	
cotinine(ng/ml)					0.093 [0.007]
Cotinine*LBW					-0.006 [0.016]
LBW					1.562 [1.643]
Observations	970	968	526	524	968
R-squared	0.08	0.1	0.13	0.11	0.53
Sample	Full	Full	Smokers	Smokers	Full

Appendix Table 2B: Impact of Cotinine on Birthweight Stratified by Maternal Characteristics

	<HS	>=HS	Poor	Non-Poor	Low SES	High SES
Ln(cotinine)	-96.524 [17.472]	-82.1 [13.859]	-108.251 [23.238]	-77.461 [12.967]	-90.473 [19.249]	-83.6 [12.972]
Observations	342	506	268	580	380	468
R-squared	0.22	0.15	0.22	0.15	0.19	0.17

Robust standard errors in brackets

Also included were controls for maternal education, race, age, marital status, offspring birth order, gender, AMC attending and linear term in year of birth.

Appendix Table 3: OLS Regressions of Birth Weight on Smoking and Cotinine, Stratified by Income

	Low Income				High Income			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Positive cotinine	-182.47				-204.035			
	[154.462]				[61.782]			
cotinine(ng/ml)		-2.902				-3.226		
		[1.016]				[0.542]		
Smoker			-146.608				-227.081	
			[97.758]				[45.515]	
Cigarettes per day				-6.933				-13.771
				[3.796]				[2.343]
Observations	232	232	232	232	616	616	614	614
R-squared	0.12	0.17	0.13	0.13	0.09	0.16	0.13	0.15

Robust standard errors in brackets

Also included are controls for education (in years), age, race, income, city of birth, year of birth, birth order, offspring gender .

Low income defined as below median income for the full sample of 19-34 year olds and high income above the median.