# Is the Impact of Health Shocks Cushioned by

## Socio-Economic Status? The Case of Low Birthweight

Janet Currie UCLA and NBER

Rosemary Hyson UCLA

December, 1998

Janet Currie gratefully acknowledges funding from the Canadian Institute for Advanced Research and the National Institutes of Health under grant number R01-HD3101A2.

### Abstract

This paper examines the long-term effects of low birthweight (LBW) on educational attainments, labor market outcomes, and health status using a data from the National Child Development Study. The study has followed the cohort of children born in Great Britain during one week in 1958 through age 33. We pay particular attention to possible interactions between LBW and socioeconomic status (SES), asking to what extent the deleterious effects of LBW are mitigated by higher SES. We find that LBW has significant long-term effects on self-reported health status, educational attainments, and labor market outcomes. However, there is little evidence of variation in the effects of LBW by SES. An important exception is that high SES women of LBW are less likely to report that they are in poor or fair health than other LBW women. Relative economic status shows a strong tendency to persist from one generation to the next. However, the mechanisms underlying the inter-generational transmission of status are poorly understood. Three facts suggest that health shocks offer a possible explanation for some of the persistence. First, poor health among teenagers and adults has been shown to have a negative impact on educational attainment, employment, and earnings (c.f. Currie and Madrian, 1999 for a review of this literature). Second, the poor are more likely to suffer from most forms of ill health than the rich (c.f. Wilkinson, 1996; Hertzman and Weins, 1996). Third, negative health shocks may have worse consequences for the poor than for the rich. For example, some observers have concluded that poor children suffer from double jeopardy in that they are both more likely to suffer negative shocks, and less likely to be able to recover from them (Bradley *et al.* 1994; Parker, Greer, and Zuckerman, 1988).

This paper investigates the linkages between socio-economic status (SES) and a specific negative health shock: Low birth weight (LBW). There is much evidence that children of higher socio-economic status do better than other children on average, regardless of the outcome measure. This evidence may reflect either the effects of increased access to resources *per se* or the greater "efficiency" with which more educated (for example) mothers can use these inputs (c.f. Mayer, 1997; Rosensweig and Wolpin, 1994).

There is also a great deal of evidence linking LBW to poor health, cognitive deficits, and behavioral problems among young children (c.f. Aylward *et al.*, 1989; Brooks-Gunn, Liaw, and Klebanov, 1992; Kohen *et al.* 1997; McCormick, Gortmaker, and Sobel, 1990). Moreover, the problems tend to be most severe in the lightest infants. These observations suggest that the effects of LBW may be long lasting, but there has been little direct corroboration of this conjecture. The first goal of this study is to shed light on this issue. The second goal is to investigate the interactive effects of SES and LBW and thus to provide a test of the "double jeopardy" hypothesis. There is a presumption in the literature that negative health shocks have more harmful effects on low-SES (LSES) children, but much of the research on this issue relies on small samples and follows children for only a limited amount of time. For example, Bradley and Casey (1992) examined 87 LBW children at 18 months and found that children with both poor home environments and medical problems had the lowest scores on a test of cognitive functioning. Hunt, Cooper, and Tooley (1988) examined 108 very low birthweight children and found that children whose parents were more educated suffered fewer cognitive effects of neonatal illness. In larger scale studies, Werner *et al.* (1971) report that severe perinatal stress did not impair the functioning 20 month olds from high and middle SES families in the Kauai birth cohort study; while in a study of approximately 800 3 year olds, Brooks-Gunn *et al.* (1992) find that children whose mothers had less than a high school education derived the most benefit from an early intervention program for LBW, preterm infants.

This study will examine the effects of LBW and the interaction between LBW and SES using data from the British National Child Development Survey (NCDS). The NCDS has followed a cohort of approximately 17,000 children born in one week in 1958 up to age 33. As measures of long-term outcomes, we examine educational attainment using transcript records which were collected when the children were age 20. We also examine self-reported employment, wages, and health status at age 23 and at age 33.

This data set provides us with a unique opportunity to examine the long-term effects of LBW on education, earnings, employment, and adult health status. We find that LBW has significant long-term effects on self-reported health status, educational attainments, and labor market outcomes. However, there is little evidence of variation in the effects of LBW by SES. An

important exception is that high SES women of LBW are less likely to report that they are in poor or fair health than other LBW women.

#### I. Possible Interactions Between SES and LBW

The literature offers several hypotheses predictive of an interactive effect between SES and LBW. These hypotheses can be organized with reference to the now standard model of parental investments in children's human capital. In this model, parents who are assumed to care about their children's outcomes, maximize their own utility subject to a production function for outcomes and a budget constraint.

The first class of hypotheses regarding interactive effects pertain to the production function for child health. One such hypothesis is that the "Infants at biological risk may be more susceptible to adverse environmental influence than are normal babies" (Watson *et al.* 1995, page 420; see also Escalona, 1982). In other words, the efficiency with which inputs can be transformed into outcomes may be permanently altered by the fact of LBW. If LBW, LSES children suffer from a higher incidence of "adverse environmental influences" than LBW, high-SES (HSES) children then this theory predicts that they will have worse outcomes.

A second class of hypotheses focus on differences in tastes between HSES and LSES groups. Suppose for example, that LBW reflects unmeasured maternal behaviors that continue to affect the outcomes of the child after birth. For example, a child may be unwanted. In this case, the mother may be unwilling to take actions necessary to improve the health of the newborn (e.g. eat nutritious food during pregnancy), and may also be less likely to make costly investments after the child is born (e.g. help with homework). That is, LBW can be influenced by lack of investment in the prenatal period, and this lack of investment could continue after birth. If the propensity to

invest in children is correlated with social class (as discussions of "quality" vs. "quantity" tradeoffs would suggest), then we will observe that LBW has its most adverse effects among LSES children.

A third class of hypotheses focus on the constraints facing parents. For example, Becker and Tomes (1986) develop a model in which the poor face credit constraints which prevent them from making worthwhile investments in the human capital of their children. Even if the optimal level of investment was lower for a LBW child than for one of normal birthweight, HSES parents might be more able to undertake these investments than LSES parents.<sup>1</sup>

All three hypotheses predict that LBW will have a more negative effect on LSES children than HSES children. However, if we allow that HSES and LSES children may have different ability levels on average (independent of birthweight), then it is possible for LBW to have either a greater or lesser effect on HSES children. Suppose that on average HSES children have higher ability than LSES children. Becker and Tomes call this the endowment effect. Then we can think of a LBW shock as placing both the HSES child and the LSES child on a lower ability profile than they might otherwise have had. But whether the impact of this shock is bigger or smaller for the LSES child will depend on the exact shapes of the outcome production functions associated with different ability levels.

Previous work with these data has shown that there is a striking SES gradient in math and reading test scores at ages 7, 11, and 16, that is that average endowments do seem to increase with SES (Currie and Thomas, 1998). Since SES appears to affect endowments as well as constraints and perhaps tastes, the sign and importance of the interaction between SES and LBW must be determined empirically.

#### II. The Data

The National Child Development Study (NCDS) is a continuing longitudinal study of all of the approximately 17,000 children born in Great Britain between March 3 and March 9, 1958.<sup>2</sup> The study began with the Perinatal Mortality Survey which was aimed at uncovering the determinants of stillbirth and infant death. Subjects have been contacted 5 times since, including interviews at ages 23 and 33 (waves 4 and 5). In addition, schools were contacted in 1978 and asked for information about performance on public examinations.

The response rates for the age 23, age 33, and exam surveys were 76%, 72% and 85% respectively. Thus, overall response rates have remained high, considering the length of the panel. However, individuals disappear and reappear in this data, a fact which is not surprising given that with sufficient resources it is possible to trace members of the cohort whether or not they have appeared in earlier followups. Restricting the sample to those who appear in every wave would result in a significant reduction in sample size. Instead, we will use the available sample for each outcome measure, as well as limiting the sample to individuals who have appeared in consecutive waves in some of our analyses.<sup>3</sup>

Our measure of socioeconomic status is the father's social class. The NCDS used the 1958 maternal responses to open-ended questions about paternal occupation to assign fathers to one of seven social classes using a system devised by the British Registrar General. These classes are: Professional, supervisory, skilled non-manual, skilled manual, semi-skilled non-manual, semiskilled manual, and unskilled. In what follows, we will call those with fathers in professional, supervisory, or skilled non-manual jobs HSES, and those with fathers in semi-skilled manual and unskilled jobs LSES. Persons without a father present at the time of their birth are assigned to either the SES corresponding to their mother's occupation, or to the LSES group if the mother was not employed.

We examine the effects of LBW on performance on the O-level examinations, and on wages and employment at ages 23 and 33. O-level tests are normally written at about age 16, and the results determine whether or not one can continue with an academic education. Students would usually take 5 or 6 O-levels. We focus on whether the person passed any O-levels, the number of O-levels passed, and on whether they passed O-levels in the academic subjects of English and mathematics.<sup>4</sup>

Means of the data are shown in Table 1, by SES and gender. We examine males and females separately because both mean outcomes and the incidence of LBW differ considerably by gender--girls are more likely than boys to suffer LBW across the SES distribution. This observation suggests that the production functions for child outcomes may differ for boys and girls. The incidence of LBW also shows the expected gradient by SES, since LBW is more common in LSES than in HSES families.

Turning to measures of long-term outcomes, Table 1 shows that girls are somewhat more likely than boys to have passed any O-levels, and that they write a larger number of O-levels. In particular, girls are more likely to have passed English, though they are less likely to have passed mathematics. These relationships hold across the SES distribution. Note that only about half of all children passed any O-levels. O-levels are not compulsory and many of those who did not pass an O-level may have chosen not to write them because they had no plans to continue with their education.

Table 1 also shows the fraction who were employed full-time at age 23 and age 33. At 23 there is a large SES gradient in employment rates among women, but little evidence of any gradient

among men. By age 33, the gap between HSES and LSES women has narrowed, while a gap has started to open up for men. We tried using "any employment" rather than full-time employment as an outcome and obtained much the same results.

These lower probabilities of employment among LSES individuals may be related to their higher probability of reporting themselves to be in fair or poor health. As Currie and Madrian (1999) discuss, measures of self-reported health status are subject to a number of biases but they do seem to be good predictors of morbidity and mortality and are generally highly correlated with labor force status. The survey at age 33 includes a number of self-reports about more specific conditions. We focus here on reports of high blood pressure, both because it is a relatively common condition and because of work linking LBW to heart conditions in later life (c.f. Barker *et al.*, 1989). Table 1 shows that LSES individuals are more likely than HSES individuals to suffer from high blood pressure.

Finally, Table 1 reports mean wages.<sup>5</sup> Table 1 shows that low-SES people earned virtually the same wages as high-SES people at age 23, even though on average they had characteristics that one would expect to be less generously remunerated.<sup>6</sup> However, the wage gap between high and low-SES individuals widens dramatically between ages 23 and 33, suggesting that the high-SES individuals have steeper wage profiles.

There is a significant gender gap in earnings at age 23, which widens considerably by age 33. This pattern is observed for each SES group, and remains if we restrict the sample to those with wage observations at both points in time. Moreover, although they are not shown, the means are very similar to those discussed above when the sample is restricted to include only those who have wage and employment observations at both 23 and 33.

Appendix Table 1 shows means for a rich set of control variables, including indicators for twins; whether the mother and father stayed in school past the minimum school leaving age; the maternal grandfather's SES; whether the mother was a single parent at the time of the birth; family size; birth order; mother's age at the birth; and whether the mother smoked during pregnancy. Not surprisingly, these variables are highly correlated with SES. For example, compared to HSES mothers, LSES mothers are more likely to be from LSES backgrounds, to be teen mothers, to be single at the time of the birth, to smoke, and to be having a child of higher parity. These observations suggest that some of the effect of SES is mediated through these variables, a conjecture that we will return to below.

## **III. Main Results**

Tables 2, 3, and 4 show estimates from models of the determinants of O-levels, age 23 outcomes, and age 33 outcomes respectively. All of these models include indicators for LBW, HSES, and LSES as well as interactions between LBW and the two SES indicators. In addition, they include all of the controls described in Table 1.

Table 2 shows that SES has the expected effect on attainment on O-levels: For example, normal birthweight HSES children are 11 or 12% more likely to pass any O-levels, write more O-levels, and are 9% more likely to pass mathematics and 12 to 15% more likely to pass English O-levels. Low birthweight has a persistently negative effect on O-level performance, as indicated by the F-statistics at the bottom of the table. The only outcome for which the coefficients on LBW are not jointly significant is female performance on the mathematics O-level.

Interactions between LBW and SES are significant only for HSES males. These children write fewer O-levels, and are less likely to write English O-levels than other HSES males. In fact,

LBW has the effect of wiping out much of the advantage associated with being HSES. For example, among the LBW children the HSES-LSES gap in terms of O-levels passed is .47 compared to a differential of 1.32 O-levels among children of normal birthweight.

Many of the other model covariates have large and statistically significant effects on O-level performance. For example indicators for twin, LSES maternal grandfather, single parenthood, maternal smoking during pregnancy, larger family size, high parity, and teen motherhood all have negative effects which are in some cases much larger than those associated with LBW. On the other hand, higher parental education and a HSES maternal grandfather are associated with better performance on O-levels.

It is much more difficult to explain wage and employment outcomes at age 23, as the Rsquareds shown in Table 3 indicate. Here, HSES has a positive effect on employment and earnings among women, but little effect on men. Relative to people in the middle, LSES reduces the probability of employment among both men and women, reduces the earnings of men, and increases the probability that both men and women report themselves to be in fair or poor health. The main effect of LBW is to reduce employment among both men and women, to reduce female earnings, and to increase the probability that women report fair or poor health.

Interactions between LBW and SES are not generally statistically significant, with two exceptions. First, HSES reduces reports of ill health among LBW women. In fact, HSES neutralizes the negative effect of LBW on reported health status. Second, the negative effect of LBW on employment is reduced for both HSES and LSES women relative to women in the middle of the SES distribution, although only the interaction with LSES is statistically significant. It is possible that different mechanisms are at work in these two groups. If HSES LBW women are healthier than other LBW women then it is not surprising that they work more. It is possible that

LSES LBW women also work more than middle-class women due to poorer opportunities in either the marriage market or in the market for higher education.

The other covariates included in the model generally have their strongest effects on the employment and earnings of women. For example, maternal smoking, large family size, higher birth order, and having a teen mother are all associated with lower employment probabilities among women. Having a teen mother also has a negative effect on the earnings of women and on the reported health status of men.

Table 4 shows estimates of the effects of SES and LBW on outcomes at age 33. These models show that HSES individuals have higher earnings (6% for men and 5% for women), and are 5 or 6% less likely to report ill health than LSES people. LSES men also have slightly lower employment probabilities. Among middle class men, LBW is associated with an 8% lower probability of employment, a 7% higher probability of reporting fair or poor health, and a 5% higher probability of reporting high blood pressure. LBW has no significant effects on female outcomes measured at age 33.

Interactions between LBW and SES are significant in two cases. First, HSES LBW women are less likely to report ill health than other LBW women, which is consistent with what we saw in Table 3. Second, LBW LSES males may actually be *more* likely to be employed than other LBW males, though this difference is only marginally statistically significant.

To summarize, we find the expected effects of SES on educational attainment and labor market outcomes. LBW appears to have strong negative effects on educational attainments, on employment at age 23, and on male employment at age 33. In addition, we find negative effects on female earnings and reported health status at age 23, and on male health status and blood pressure at age 33.

We find little evidence of an interactive effect of LBW and SES with these exceptions: Among men, LBW negates much of the positive effect of HSES on educational attainments as measured by the number of O-levels and the probability of passing the English O-level. Among women, LBW individuals of HSES are less likely to report ill health than other LBW individuals at both age 23 and at age 33. At age 23, LSES LBW women are also more likely to be employed than middle-class LBW women, and there is some suggestion that this is also true for HSES LBW women.

Thus, it is only for the reported health status of women that we find evidence supportive of the hypothesis that HSES mitigates the negative effects of LBW. The evidence regarding educational attainments suggests that LBW has harmful effects which are either independent of SES, or more pronounced for male LBW HSES individuals. LBW reduces employment probabilities among both men and women at age 23 and among men at age 33. This employment effect of LBW is less pronounced at both the top and bottom of the SES distribution among 23 year old women, and is also less pronounced among LSES men at age 33.

In terms of earnings, we find small significant effects of LBW only among women at age 23. The conclusion that health shocks have a greater impact on employment probabilities and self-reported health than on wages is consistent with much of the literature on health and labor supply (c.f. Currie and Madrian, 1999).

## **IV. Extensions**

#### A. Differential Mortality by SES

A possible explanation for our results is that surviving LBW children of HSES suffer greater impairments than those of LSES, and that these greater impairments outweigh any advantages due to HSES. Suppose that many LSES LBW children die, while those of HSES have access to superior medical resources and live. Then the LSES LBW children will be systematically selected to be the healthiest LBW infants, while the opposite will be true among HSES LBW children. One way to get at this hypothesis of differential selection is to examine the bottom tail of the birthweight distribution, to see if it is "longer" for the HSES children, i.e. whether HSES children are surviving at lower birth weights.

This distribution is shown in Figure 1 for all surviving children. The figure indicates that there are only very small differences in the probability that a LBW child belongs to either the HSES or LSES groups conditional on birthweight. Appendix Table 2 examines percentiles of the birthweight distribution for both survivors and non-survivors. The table suggests that the very lightest babies have a higher probability of survival if they are not LSES. For example, the fifth percentile of the distribution of nonsurvivors is 794 grams among HSES children and 907 grams among LSES children. However, the tenth percentile is approximately 1000 grams for all SES categories. Hence, we have also repeated our analyses excluding infants with birthweight less than 1000 grams from the analysis (see Appendix Table 3). We have also excluded children with mental handicaps from our models without appreciably altering the results (see Appendix Table 4). Finally, we estimated models using the probability of survival as the dependent variable and including LBW, SES, and interactions on the right hand side. We found that while probability of survival declined with LBW, there was little evidence that it was related to SES.

#### B. Changes in Specification

We have restricted the sample to those who were surveyed at both 23 and 33 and to those who were employed at both age 23 and age 33. Again, these changes had little impact on our estimates, as shown in Appendix Table 5.

We have also experimented with the inclusion and exclusion of different sets of covariates. As discussed above, it may be the case that much of the effect of SES is mediated by intervening variables such as the propensity to smoke. (Alternatively, it may be argued that many of these factors reflect omitted variables that persist throughout the child's life and bias the estimated effects of SES and LBW.)

Models that include only LBW, SES, and the interaction terms are shown in Appendix Table 6. A comparison of these estimates with those presented above indicates that the inclusion of our set of controls has very little effect on the estimated effects of LBW, although it often has a great effect on the estimated effects of SES. The results reported above regarding the interactions between LBW and SES are remarkably robust. The only real change is that the positive interaction between LBW and LSES in the male age 33 employment equation is not present in Appendix Table 6. The robustness of these estimates provides further support for the finding that the negative effects of LBW are largely invariant with respect to SES.

On the other hand, some may object that our model excludes measures of important events that take place after birth and affect child outcomes. Thus, we might be attributing too much to LBW and the effects of maternal SES measured at the time of the birth. We have included three additional classes of variables.

First, we estimated models which included a measure of health care spending at the local authority level in the year of the birth.<sup>7</sup> The incidence of low birthweight could be affected by public health conditions, which in term might be affected by spending levels. Alternatively, these variables may capture characteristics of the child's birth neighborhood that are correlated both with poor birth outcomes and inferior outcomes in later life.

Second, we added variables that measure hardships suffered after the birth. These included indicators of poor housing conditions (overcrowding, lack of amenities such as indoor plumbing); income; and measures of financial hardship and parental unemployment. Bartley *et al.* (1994) show using the same data that LBW children were much more likely to suffer from this type of disamenity in subsequent years than children of normal birthweight.

We have also constructed variables describing characteristics of the respondent's employers at age 23 and 33, including the occupation, whether the job was covered by a union, and firm size. These variables may be important, if for example, the lingering effects of LBW are mediated by occupational choice.<sup>8</sup>

These two sets of additions had little effect on the estimated effects of LBW, SES, and their interactions. Estimates of these augmented models are shown in Appendix Table 7 (for employment) and in Appendix Table 8 (for wages).

Finally, we have re-estimated our models including marital status and measures of the number of children. As discussed above, the effects of ill health could limit opportunities in the marriage market and thus have the counter-intuitive effect of increasing employment among women. In fact the major change associated with adding these variables is that the coefficient on the LBW LSES interaction becomes only marginally statistically significant (at the 10 percent level) in the female age 23 employment model.

## C. Changes in the Measure of Health Shock

We experimented with three alternative measures of health shocks: Whether the child was very low birth weight (VLBW, defined as less than 1800 grams); whether the child had a serious illness noted at the time of the birth; and a measure equal to one if the child was both LBW and had an illness noted at birth. Our efforts in this regard were hampered by small sample sizes. For

example, although logically the effects of VLBW should be more serious than those of LBW, it was difficult to detect even the main effect of VLBW in many of our specifications. Moreover, when we restricted our attention to children with both LBW and illness, many of our outcome, SES, LBW cells were empty. It is sobering that even in a sample of this size, it is so difficult to detect the effects of rare conditions.

#### D. Additional Estimates Using Test Scores as Outcomes

As discussed above, many previous studies have found evidence of a negative effect of LBW on the cognitive test scores of young children. The fact that we find insignificant effects for some outcomes suggests that the effects of LBW may gradually fade out or be dominated by other factors. While we cannot directly examine this hypothesis by following the same outcome measure from early childhood into adulthood, it is interesting to look at the standardized math test scores of this cohort of children at ages 7, 11, and 16.<sup>9</sup>

In models similar to those of Tables 2, 3, and 4 (see Appendix Table 9), we found that between age 7 and age 16 the estimated effect of LBW declined with age for males (from -.21 to -.097 standard deviations) but not for females. This result suggests that the negative cognitive effects of LBW may fade out more rapidly for males than for females. This may in part reflect the fact that males are likely to be heavier conditional on LBW. Thus, the negative estimated effects of LBW on the employment and health status of males at 33 may reflect health consequences that begin to crop up as people age rather than any long-term cognitive deficit. It is also interesting to observe that at age 11 and 16, there was a negative interaction between LBW and HSES for males but not for females, a result that echoes what is shown for O-levels in Table 2.

#### V. Conclusions

The most striking conclusion of this study is that the effects of LBW appear to be very long term. The effects are greatest for educational attainments, followed by self-reported health status and employment. The effects are smallest for wages which is consistent with much of the literature on the relationship between health and labor markets.

Second, LBW has long term effects on both HSES and LSES children. In fact, there is evidence that HSES boys may actually suffer more from LBW than their less advantaged peers in terms of educational attainments. HSES does mitigate the effects of LBW in one important dimension: LBW women of HSES are less likely to report themselves in fair or poor health than other LBW women.

The evidence presented in this paper suggests that poor children do suffer from double jeopardy in the sense that they are more likely to suffer both from the effects of poverty and from LBW. Thus, these health shocks can be viewed as one of the mechanisms underlying the intergenerational transmission of inequality. However, we find little evidence of "double jeopardy" in the conventional sense of a negative feedback between LBW and SES.

On the whole the results suggest either that environments were not more "adverse" for LBW LSES children than for LBW HSES (at least in the relevant dimensions); that credit constraints were not binding when it came to the relevant compensating investments; or that the types of investments necessary were very specialized and not generally more available to HSES LBW children than to LSES LBW children. The results highlight the importance both of preventing LBW and of finding effective interventions for combating its effects in all sectors of the population.

An important caveat is that these estimates of the long-term effects of LBW refer to the effects of health shocks suffered 40 years ago. Much has changed in the treatment of LBW children, and children of lower and lower birthweights are being saved. To the extent that the patterns we find continue to hold in future, it is likely to be the children of lowest birthweights who will suffer the longest-lasting ill effects. Finally, we have examined only one type of health shock. It is possible that the interaction between health shocks and SES is more pronounced for other kinds of shocks.

## Table 1

	High SES	Males Middle SES	Low SES	High SES	Females Middle SES	Low SES
Health Shock						
low birthweight	.045 (.0047)	.053 (.0037)	.051 (.0055)	.058 (.0055)	.068 (.0043)	.088 (.0072)
Outcomes						
1. Examinations passed any						
O-levels number O-	.69 (.012)	.43 (.0090)	.29 (.012)	.76 (.011)	.50 (.0094)	.35 (.013)
levels passed passed math O-	3.77 (.087)	1.74 (.049)	1.01 (.058)	4.10 (.085)	1.93 (.051)	1.17 (.060)
level passed English	.56 (.014)	.34 (.011)	.24 (.016)	.49 (.014)	.27 (.010)	.21 (.016)
O-level	.61 (.013)	.33 (.010)	.25 (.015)	.70 (.012)	.44 (.010)	.35 (.016)
2. Age 23 employed full-						
time	.82 (.010)	.83 (.0073)	.78 (.012)	.68 (.012)	.56 (.0097)	.48 (.015)
hourly wage	1.86 (.016)	1.94 (.012)	1.84 (.018)	1.69 (.015)	1.58 (.011)	1.52 (.017)
fair/poor health	.068 (.0065)	.082 (.0054)	.11 (.0094)	.078 (.0070)	.11 (.0060)	.14 (.010)
3. Age 33 employed full-						
time	.92 (.0071)	.90 (.0062)	.85 (.012)	.41 (.013)	.34 (.0096)	.30 (.014)
hourly wage	6.31 (.12)	5.27 (.069)	4.80 (.11)	4.56 (.081)	3.86 (.042)	3.44 (.054)
fair/poor health high blood	.090 (.0077)	.14 (.0071)	.18 (.012)	.081 (.0075)	.15 (.0072)	.18 (.012)
pressure	.036 (.0051)	.052 (.0046)	.053 (.0074)	.060 (.0065)	.057 (.0047)	.078 (.0083)

## Sample Means, Low Birthweight and Outcome Variables in the NCDS

Note: Standard errors are in parentheses.

## Table 2

## Examination Results and Low Birthweight ( < 2500 g)

	Passed O	-levels	Number of O's passed Mathematics O-l		s O-level English O-level		O-level	
	males	females	males	females	males	females	males	females
low birthweight	037 (.038)	15 (.034)*	33 (.22)	64 (.20)*	13 (.049)*	12 (.049)*	039 (.046)	11 (.043)*
high SES	.12 (.016)*	.11 (.016)*	.96 (.092)*	1.0 (.094)*	.094 (.019)*	.093 (.019)*	.15 (.018)*	.12 (.018)*
low SES	071 (.016)*	091 (.016)*	36 (.091)*	42 (.092)*	054 (.021)*	028 (.022)	039 (.020)*	047 (.019)*
low birthweight, high SES	074 (.066)	.076 (.058)	96 (.38)*	086 (.34)	10 (.081)	.076 (.076)	18 (.074)*	.046 (.067)
low birthweight, low SES	080 (.067)	.057 (.055)	11 (.39)	.26 (.32)	.047 (.098)	.095 (.082)	046 (.091)	.018 (.070)
twin	077 (.040)**	092 (.041)*	37 (.24)	63 (.23)*	040 (.051)	12 (.053)*	10 (.047)*	12 (.047)*
mother > min schooling	.18 (.015)*	.14 (.015)*	1.2 (.088)*	1.2 (.088)*	.15 (.018)*	.16 (.018)*	.15 (.017)*	.17 (.017)*
father > min schooling	.16 (.016)*	.13 (.017)*	1.2 (.096)*	1.1 (.097)*	.14 (.019)*	.13 (.020)*	.14 (.018)*	.12 (.019)*
mother's father high SES	.026 (.018)	.026 (.018)	.49 (.10)*	.25 (.10)*	.053 (.021)*	016 (.022)	.076 (.020)*	.021 (.020)
mother's father low SES	038 (.015)*	068 (.016)*	25 (.088)*	29 (.090)*	068 (.019)*	031 (.020)	042 (.018)*	043 (.018)*
single mother at birth	070 (.033)*	.0051 (.034)	35 (.19)**	042 (.20)	049 (.046)	.038 (.046)	0093 (.042)	.0046 (.040)
mother smoked	063 (.012)*	060 (.012)*	34 (.070)*	42 (.071)*	030 (.015)*	056 (.016)*	025 (.014)**	033 (.014)*
family size	016 (.0043)*	011 (.0044)*	053 (.025)*	050 (.025)*	0075 (.0058)	0010 (.0061)	019 (.0054)*	0043 (.0054)
birth order								
first born	.078 (.015)*	.098 (.015)*	.59 (.087)*	.39 (.088)*	.056 (.018)*	.037 (.018)*	.077* (.017)	.064 (.017)*
third or fourth child	12 (.016)*	11 (.017)*	56 (.096)*	70 (.097)*	052 (.021)*	079 (.021)*	065 (.020)*	089 (.020)*
fifth or higher	27 (.025)*	28 (.026)*	-1.4 (.15)*	-1.5 (.15)*	18 (.038)*	12 (.038)*	22 (.035)*	24 (.032)*
mother's age at birth of child:								
under 20	22 (.031)*	18 (.031)*	-1.3 (.18)*	-1.1 (.18)*	17 (.041)*	12 (.040)*	16 (.038)*	16 (.036)*
20-23	11 (.019)*	13 (.020)*	68 (.11)*	85 (.11)*	082 (.024)*	12 (.024)*	071 (.022)*	078 (.022)*
24-26	036 (.019)**	055 (.019)*	17 (.11)	35 (.11)*	033 (.023)	039 (.024)**	026 (.021)	012 (.022)
30-34	0045 (.019)	.053 (.019)*	.054 (.11)	.35 (.11)*	0059 (.023)	.020 (.023)	.0035 (.022)	.084 (.021)*
35-39	.030 (.023)	.099 (.024)*	.34 (.14)*	.59 (.14)*	.052 (.029)**	.054 (.030)**	.048 (.027)**	.13 (.028)*
40 or over	.045 (.041)	.13 (.041)*	.33 (.24)	.69 (.24)*	.011 (.052)	.11 (.051)*	.12 (.051)*	.12 (.047)*
Ν	5932	5677	5932	5677	3974	3560	4338	4528
adj. $R^2$	.19	.19	.24	.26	.13	.12	.16	.15
F-tests (p-value) for joint signification	ance of the effect of:							
Low birthweight	2.93 (.032)	8.17 (.00)	6.53 (.00)	6.20 (.00)	6.73 (.00)	1.98 (.11)	4.85 (.00)	3.46 (.016)
High SES	26.78 (.00)	25.34 (.00)	54.58 (.00)	62.49 (.00)	12.81 (.00)	13.90 (.00)	36.48 (.00)	25.46 (.00)
Low SES	12.79 (.00)	16.31 (.00)	8.38 (.00)	10.24 (.00)	3.30 (.037)	1.19 (.30)	2.43 (.088)	3.07 (.047)

Notes: Standard errors are in parentheses. Other covariates include regional controls and indicators for missing mother's age, parental education, grandfather's SES, family size, and smoking. A \* denotes significant coefficients at the 5% level; \*\* indicates significance at the 10% level. The F-statistics are for a test of the null hypothesis that the main effect and interactions are jointly equal to zero.

	Employe	d Full Time	Log Hourly	y Earnings	Fair/Poor Health Status			
	males	females	males	females	males	females		
low birthweight	045 (.035)	091 (.039)*	017 (.029)	035 (.029)	0070 (.024)	.060 (.025)*		
high SES	0061 (.015)	.054 (.018)*	024 (.012)*	.013 (.012)	00022 (.010)	0086 (.012)		
low SES	049 (.015)*	049 (.018)*	036 (.012)*	016 (.013)	.018 (.010)**	.031 (.012)*		
low birthweight, high SES	046 (.061)	.10 (.067)	024 (.051)	014 (.045)	.033 (.042)	086 (.043)*		
low birthweight, low SES	072 (.064)	.13 (.064)*	025 (.056)	047 (.045)	.0048 (.045)	038 (.041)		
twin	.016 (.039)	0098 (.046)	0057 (.031)	012 (.032)	0087 (.027)	.025 (.029)		
mother > min schooling	019 (.014)	.023 (.017)	021 (.012)**	.040 (.011)*	0098 (.0099)	021 (.011)**		
father > min schooling	018 (.016)	.013 (.019)	.00032 (.012)	.046 (.012)*	0081 (.011)	016 (.012)		
mother's father high SES	025 (.017)	.00083 (.021)	.0026 (.014)	.017 (.014)	0061 (.012)	011 (.013)		
mother's father low SES	015 (.015)	010 (.018)	0084 (.012)	014 (.012)	.015 (.010)	.0065 (.011)		
single mother at birth	021 (.033)	048 (.040)	.0020 (.027)	056 (.029)*	.0031 (.023)	0049 (.025)		
mother smoked	014 (.012)	040 (.014)*	0075 (.0094)	015 (.0095)	.010 (.0080)	.0079 (.0089)		
family size	0048 (.0042)	020 (.0051)*	.0024 (.0034)	.00010 (.0037)	.00058 (.0028)	.0046 (.0032)		
birth order								
first born	.0051 (.014)	.059 (.017)*	.0066 (.011)	.016 (.011)	015 (.0098)	016 (.011)		
third or fourth child	030 (.016)**	080 (.019)*	0096 (.013)	034 (.013)*	.032 (.011)*	.0089 (.012)		
fifth or higher	026 (.024)	19 (.029)*	069 (.020)*	074 (.021)*	.026 (.017)*	.040 (.018)*		
mother's age at birth:								
under 20	059 (.031)**	20 (.035)*	018 (.025)	054 (.026)*	.058 (.021)*	.0040 (.022)		
20-23	000020 (.018)	11 (.022)*	0094 (.015)	027 (.015)**	.016 (.012)	0055 (.014)		
24-26	012 (.018)	048 (.022)*	.0072 (.014)	.0011 (.014)	00071 (.012)	0058 (.014)		
30-34	.0086 (.018)	.018 (.022)	010 (.014)	.0062 (.014)	.012 (.012)	.0015 (.014)		
35-39	.016 (.022)	.057 (.028)*	.025 (.018)	.033 (.018)**	.0034 (.015)	0090 (.018)		
40 or over	012 (.041)	.050 (.046)	.032 (.034)	.022 (.031)	.020 (.028)	.0072 (.030)		
Ν	4815	5079	3649	3026	5181	5186		
adj. $\mathbb{R}^2$	.012	.055	.013	.073	.0094	.011		
F-tests (p-value) for joint signifi	icance of the effect of:							
Low birthweight	3.01 (.03)	2.05 (.10)	.65 (.58)	2.74 (.04)	.22 (.88)	2.26 (.08)		
High SES	.44 (.64)	6.72 (.00)	2.52 (.08)	.62 (.54)	.32 (.72)	2.73 (.06)		
Low SES	7.01 (.00)	4.36 (.01)	5.01 (.01)	1.76 (.17)	1.56 (.21)	3.60 (.03)		

Table 3Age 23 Outcomes and Low Birthweight (< 2500 g)</td>

Notes: Standard errors are in parentheses. Other covariates include regional controls and indicators for missing mother's age, parental education, grandfather's SES, family size, and smoking. A \* denotes significant coefficients at the 5% level; \*\* indicates significance at the 10% level. The F-statistics are for a test of the null hypothesis that the main effect and interactions are jointly equal to zero.

	Employed F	ull-Time	ime Hourly Earnings		Fair/Poor H	ealth Status	High Blood Pressure		
	males	females	males	females	males	females	males	females	
low birthweight	082 (.034)*	0095 (.040)	021 (.045)	.034 (.039)	.068 (.032)*	.045 (.028)	.050 (.020)*	.010 (.020)	
high SES	.014 (.014)	.017 (.019)	.068 (.018)*	.047 (.019)*	018 (.013)	034 (.013)*	0039 (.0082)	.011 (.0095)	
low SES	037 (.014)*	028 (.019)	064 (.019)*	061 (.019)*	.032 (.014)*	.027 (.013)*	0020 (.0086)	.013 (.0095)	
low birthweight, high SES	054 (.057)	.049 (.069)	083 (.075)	11 (.070)**	.065 (.055)	10 (.049)*	051 (.034)	.023 (.034)	
low birthweight, low SES	.11 (.064)**	.0065 (.068)	0032 (.086)	017 (.067)	19 (.061)*	068 (.049)	038 (.038)	.025 (.034)	
twin	030 (.035)	072 (.052)	083 (.048)**	024 (.052)	.034 (.034)	059 (.036)**	028 (.022)	.050 (.026)*	
mother > min schooling	.0061 (.013)	.046 (.018)*	.11 (.017)*	.11 (.018)*	033 (.012)*	022 (.012)**	0040 (.0080)	0016 (.0089)	
father > min schooling	.011 (.014)	.031 (.020)	.075 (.019)*	.11 (.020)*	021 (.014)	019 (.014)	014 (.0086)**	0016 (.0097)	
mother's father high SES	0016 (.016)	.031 (.022)	.022 (.021)	.049 (.022)*	028 (.015)**	.0032 (.015)	0017 (.0095)	0076 (.011)	
mother's father low SES	032 (.014)*	044 (.018)*	025 (.018)	012 (.018)	0042 (.013)	.0087 (.013)	000058 (.0083)	0016 (.0091)	
single mother at birth	046 (.032)	0039 (.041)	091 (.044)*	.0076 (.042)	.034 (.031)	012 (.029)	.017 (.020)	.019 (.021)	
mother smoked	0099 (.011)	022 (.015)	.0031 (.014)	029 (.014)*	.024 (.010)*	.014 (.010)	.010 (.0065)	.018 (.0072)*	
family size	0073 (.0038)**	.0028 (.0053)	0083 (.0051)**	0091 (.0052)**	0030 (.0037)	.0040 (.0038)	0014 (.0023)	.0055 (.0027)*	
birth order									
first born	.036 (.013)*	0052 (.018)	.023 (.017)	.051 (.018)*	022 (.012)**	052 (.012)*	.010 (.0079)	0070 (.0089)	
third or fourth child	.0056 (.015)	046 (.020)*	053 (.020)*	048 (.020)*	.043 (.014)*	.0015 (.014)	.016 (.0089)**	.0010 (.010)	
fifth or higher	057 (.023)*	087 (.030)*	15 (.031)*	11 (.031)*	.065 (.022)*	.070 (.022)*	.015 (.014)	.034 (.015)*	
mother's age at birth:									
under 20	081 (.028)*	025 (.036)	10 (.037)*	14 (.036)*	.052 (.026)*	.061 (.026)*	.0031 (.017)	.049 (.018)*	
20-23	024 (.017)	060 (.023)*	032 (.022)	082 (.023)*	.042 (.016)*	.045 (.016)*	0076 (.010)	.014 (.012)	
24-26	011 (.016)	050 (.023)*	012 (.022)	040 (.023)**	.036 (.016)*	.0095 (.016)	0089 (.010)	.013 (.011)	
30-34	0044 (.017)	.028 (.022)	023 (.022)	.027 (.022)	010 (.016)	0016 (.016)	022 (.010)*	.012 (.011)	
35-39	012 (.020)	.033 (.029)	.016 (.027)	.044 (.029)	.0017 (.019)	019 (.020)	026 (.012)*	.010 (.014)	
40 or over	061 (.036)**	.053 (.047)	.025 (.050)	034 (.046)	.052 (.035)	.045 (.033)	017 (.022)	0053 (.024)	
Ν	3890	4472	3421	3360	4641	4762	4661	4793	
adj. R <sup>2</sup>	.023	.020	.11	.10	.022	.022	.0056	.0032	
F-tests (p-value) for joint sig	nificance of the effec	t of:							
Low birthweight	4.67 (.00)	.18 (.91)	1.00 (.39)	.91 (.43)	6.15 (.00)	1.69 (.17)	2.11 (.097)	1.07 (.36)	
High SES	.79 (.45)	.84 (.43)	7.15 (.00)	3.69 (.02)	1.38 (.25)	7.01 (.00)	1.43 (.24)	1.13 (.32)	
Low SES	4.13 (.02)	1.09 (.34)	5.92 (.00)	5.77 (.00)	6.42 (.00)	2.45 (.086)	.60 (.55)	1.63 (.20)	

Table 4
Age 33 Outcomes and Low Birthweight ( < 2500 g)

Notes: Standard errors are in parentheses. Other covariates include regional controls and indicators for missing mother's age, parental education, grandfather's SES, family size, and smoking. A \* denotes significant coefficients at the 5% level; \*\* indicates significance at the 10% level. The F-statistics are for a test of the null hypothesis that the main effect and interactions are jointly equal to zero.

## Figure 1

Lower Tail of Birthweight Distribution by Socioeconomic Status



## References

- Aylward, G. P.; Pfeiffer, S. I.; Wright, A. and Verhulst, A. J. "Outcome Studies of Low Birthweight Infants Published in the Last Decade: A Metaanalysis". <u>Journal of Pediatrics</u>. 1989, <u>115</u>, pp. 515-520.
- Barker, David; Osmond, C.; Winter, P. *et al.* "Weight in Infancy and Death from Ischaemic Heart Disease." <u>The Lancet</u>. Sept 9, 1989, <u>577</u>.
- Bradley, Robert H. and Casey, Patrick H.. "Family, Environment and Behavioral Development of Low-birthweight Children". <u>Developmental Medicine and Child Neurology</u>. 1992, <u>34</u>, pp. 822-832.
- Bradley, Robert H.; Whiteside, Leanne; Mundfrom, Daniel J.; Casey, Patrick H. *et al.* "Early Indications of Resilience and their Relation to Experiences in the Home Environments of Low Birthweight, Premature Children Living in Poverty". <u>Child Development</u>, 1994, <u>65</u> pp. 346-360.
- Bartley, M; Power, Christopher; Blane, D.; Smith, G. Davey. "Birthweight and Later Socioeconomic Disadvantages: Evidence from the 1958 British Cohort Study". <u>British</u> <u>Medical Journal</u>. December 3, 1994, <u>309</u>, pp. 1475-1478.
- Becker, Gary S. and Tomes, Nigel. "Human Capital and the Rise and Fall of Families". Journal of Political Economy. 1986, 4(3, part 2), pp. 1-39.
- Brooks-Gunn, Jeanne; Gross, Ruth and Kraemer, Helena *et al.* "Enhancing the Cognitive Outcomes of Low Birth Weight, Premature Infants: For Whom is the Intervention Most Effective?" <u>Pediatrics</u>. June 1992, <u>89</u>(6), pp. 1209-1215.
- Brooks-Gunn, Jeanne; Liaw, Fong-ruey and Klebanov, Pamela K. "Effects of Early Intervention on cognitive Function of Low Birth Weight Preterm Infants". <u>The Journal of Pediatrics</u>. March, 1992, <u>120</u>(3), pp. 350-359.
- Card, David. "Earnings, Schooling, and Ability Revisited." Solomon Polachek, ed., <u>Research in</u> <u>Labor Economics</u>. 1995, pp. 23-48.
- Connolly, Sara; Micklewright, John, and Nickell, Stephen. "The Occupational Success of Young Men who Left School at Sixteen." <u>Oxford Economic Papers</u>, 1992, <u>44</u>, pp. 460-479.
- Currie, Janet and Madrian, Brigitte. "Health, Health Insurance, and the Labor Market." in Orley Ashenfelter and David Card, eds., <u>Handbook of Labor Economics</u>. Amsterdam: North Holland, forthcoming, 1999.
- Currie, Janet and Thomas, Duncan. "Early Test Scores, Socio-Economic Status, and Future

Outcomes." xerox, Dept. of Economics, University of California at Los Angeles, 1998.

- Escalona, Sibylle K. "Babies at Double Hazard: Early Development of Infants at Biologic and Social Risk". <u>Pediatrics</u>. November, 1982, <u>70</u>(5), pp. 670-676.
- Fogelman, Ken. Britain's Sixteen-Year-Olds. London: National Children's Bureau, 1976.
- Fogelman, Ken. <u>Growing Up in Great Britain: Papers from the National Child Development Study</u>. London: MacMillan, 1983.
- Hertzman, Clyde and Wiens, M. "Child Development and Long-Term Outcomes: A Population Health Perspective and Summary of Successful Interventions". <u>Social Science and</u> <u>Medicine</u>. 1996, <u>43</u>(7), pp. 1083-1095.
- Hunt, Jane; Cooper, Bruce and Tooley, William. "Very Low Birth Weight Infants at 8 and 11 Years of Age: Role of Neonatal Illness and Family Status." <u>Pediatrics</u>. October, 1988, <u>82</u>(4), pp. 596-603.
- Kohen, Dafna E.; Brooks-Gunn, Jeanne; McCormick, Marie; Graber, Julia A. "Concordance of Maternal and Teacher Ratings of School and Behavior Problems in Children of Varying Birth Weights". <u>Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics</u>. October, 1997, <u>18</u>(5), 295-303.
- Mayer, Susan E. <u>What Money Can't Buy: Family Income and Children's Life Chances</u>. Cambridge MA: Harvard University Press, 1997.
- Meghir, Costas and Whitehouse, Edward. "The Evolution of Wages in the United Kingdom: Evidence from Micro Data." Journal of Labor Economics. January, 1996, <u>14</u>(1), pp. 1-25.
- Murnane, Richard; Willett, John B. and Levy, Frank. "The Growing Importance of Cognitive Skills in Wage Determination". <u>The Review of Economics and Statistics</u>. 1995, pp. 251-266.
- National Children's Bureau. <u>National Child Development Study Summary, Prepared: December,</u> <u>1991</u>. Essex University: Essex Survey Research Center Data Archive, 1991.
- Parker, S; Greer, S. and Zuckerman, B. "Double Jeopardy: The Impact of Poverty on Early Child Development". <u>Pediatric Clinics of North America</u>. 1988, <u>35</u> pp. 1227-1240.
- Rosenzweig, Mark R. and Wolpin, Kenneth, I. "Are There Increasing Returns to the Intergenerational Production of Human Capital?" <u>The Journal of Human Resources</u>. Spring, 1994, <u>29</u>(2) pp. 670-693.
- Watson, Janine E.; Kirby, Russell S.; Kelleher, Kelly J. and Bradley, Robert H. "Effects of Poverty on Home Environment: An Analysis of Three-Year Outcome Data for Low Birth Weight Premature Infants". Journal of Pediatric Psychology. 1996, 21(3), pp. 419-431.

- Wilkinson, Richard G. <u>Unhealthy Societies: The Afflictions of Inequality</u>. New York: Routledge, 1996.
- Werner, Emmy; Bierman, Jessie and French, Fern. <u>The Children of Kauai: A Longitudinal Study</u> from the Prenatal Period to Age Ten. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press, 1971.

	Males			Females					
	High SES	Middle SES	Low SES	High SES	Middle SES	Low SES			
Covariates									
twin	.021 (.0033)	.025 (.026)	.024 (.0038)	.026 (.0037)	.023 (.0026)	.022 (.0037)			
mother > min schooling	.50 (.011)	.18 (.0064)	.13 (.0084)	.50 (.012)	.19 (.0068)	.12 (.0085)			
father > min schooling	.51 (.012)	.15 (.0064)	.094 (.0081)	.54 (.012)	.16 (.0068)	.073 (.0073)			
mother's father high SES	.37 (.012)	.14 (.0063)	.098 (.0085)	.35 (.012)	.13 (.0064)	.12 (.0091)			
mother's father middle	· · · ·	· · · · ·	· · · · ·		~ /	· · · ·			
SES	.47 (.012)	.56 (.0091)	.48 (.014)	.52 (.013)	.56 (.0094)	.48 (.014)			
mother's father low SES	.16 (.0089)	.30 (.0084)	.42 (.014)	.13 (.0084)	.31 (.0088)	.40 (.014)			
single mother at birth	.012 (.0025)	.026 (.0026)	.070 (.0064)	.0071 (.0020)	.031 (.0030)	.076 (.0068)			
mother smoked	.32 (.011)	.41 (.0082)	.45 (.012)	.34 (.011)	.42 (.0085)	.46 (.013)			
family size	.99 (.028)	1.1 (.023)	1.4 (.044)	.98 (.028)	1.1 (.024)	1.3 (.041)			
birth order:		× ,			. ,	. ,			
first born	.40 (.011)	.37 (.0080)	.31 (.012)	.38 (.011)	.39 (.0084)	.33 (.012)			
second child	.35 (.011)	.32 (.0077)	.28 (.011)	.35 (.011)	.29 (.0078)	.28 (.012)			
third or fourth child	.21 (.0092)	.23 (.0070)	.27 (.011)	.23 (.0098)	.23 (.0072)	.26 (.011)			
fifth or higher	.044 (.0047)	.079 (.0044)	.14 (.088)	.039 (.0045)	.089 (.0049)	.13 (.0086)			
mother's age at birth of		. ,	. ,		. ,	. ,			
child:									
under 20	.026 (.0036)	.059 (.0039)	.071 (.0065)	.024 (.0035)	.064 (.0042)	.084 (.0071)			
20-23	.17 (.0084)	.25 (.0072)	.26 (.011)	.15 (.0083)	.24 (.0073)	.26 (.011)			
24-26	.21 (.0093)	.20 (.0066)	.19 (.0099)	.19 (.0093)	.20 (.0068)	.18 (.0099)			
27-29	.23 (.0096)	.18 (.0064)	.17 (.0095)	.24 (.010)	.18 (.0066)	.17 (.0096)			
30-34	.23 (.0096)	.18 (.0065)	.18 (.0098)	.26 (.010)	.20 (.0069)	.18 (.0098)			
35-39	.11 (.0072)	.11 (.0051)	.10 (.0076)	.10 (.0070)	.10 (.0052)	.099 (.0076)			
40 or over	.023 (.0034)	.023 (.0025)	.029 (.0042)	.027 (.0038)	.024 (.0026)	.025 (.0040)			
married at age 23	.24 (.011)	.36 (.0094)	.40 (.015)	.46 (.013)	.58 (.0096)	.60 (.015)			
sep/div/widow/cohab at 23	.070 (.0067)	.069 (.0050)	.085 (.0084)	.094 (.0077)	.11 (.0061)	.12 (.0098)			
married at age 33	.68 (.013)	.70 (.0096)	.66 (.016)	.72 (.012)	.74 (.0090)	.71 (.014)			
sep/div/widow/cohab at 33	.080 (.0075)	.10 (.0064)	.12 (.011)	.11 (.0086)	.13 (.0070)	.16 (.012)			
children at age 23:									
no children	.92 (.0068)	.84 (.0067)	.78 (.012)	.84 (.0091)	.68 (.0086)	.60 (.014)			
one child	.064 (.0060)	.12 (.0059)	.15 (.010)	.11 (.0078)	.19 (.0072)	.22 (.012)			
two children	.018 (.0032)	.032 (.0032)	.058 (.0066)	.038 (.0048)	.11 (.0057)	.14 (.0097)			
three children	.0012 (.00085)	.0076 (.0016)	.0087 (.0026)	.010 (.0025)	.020 (.0026)	.027 (.0046)			
four or more children	0 n/a	.00066 (.00047)	.00079 (.00079)	.0012 (.00088)	.0034 (.0011)	.0086 (.0026)			
children at age 33:									
no children	.85 (.0088)	.85 (.0065)	.85 (.010)	.82 (.0096)	.77 (.0078)	.78 (.012)			
one child	.043 (.0050)	.050 (.0040)	.046 (.0059)	.060 (.0059)	.052 (.0041)	.051 (.0061)			
two children	.081 (.0067)	.076 (.0048)	.070 (.0072)	.090 (.0072)	.12 (.0059)	.10 (.0085)			
three children	.023 (.0037)	.021 (.0026)	.029 (.0048)	.024 (.0038)	.048 (.0039)	.050 (.0061)			
four or more children	.0036 (.0015)	.0040 (.0011)	.0079 (.0025)	.0038 (.0015)	.016 (.0023)	.016 (.0035)			
Alternative health sheaks:									
Alternative health shocks.	0.016 (0.0000)	0.022 (0.0006)	0.029 (0.016)	0028 (0014)	0065 (0014)	0070 (0022)			
illness at hirth	.0016(.00090)	.0033(.00090)	.0038(.0010)	.0038 (.0014)	.0003 (.0014)	.0079(.0023)			
hirthweight (a)	.010(.0028) 3447(12)	.018 (.0022)	.021 (.0057)	.015 (.0020)	3250 (2016)	.012 (.0028)			
onthweight (g)	3447 (12)	2202 (8.9)	3370 (13)	3300 (12)	3230 (8.8)	3228 (14)			
Educational Attainment									
age 7 math	.29 (.024)	.032 (.017)	18 (.027)	.22 (.025)	084 (.018)	22 (.027)			
age 11 math	.48 (.026)	073 (.018)	38 (.026)	.44 (.025)	13 (.018)	38 (.025)			
age 16 math	.59 (.029)	00071 (.020)	33 (.028)	.38 (.027)	22 (.018)	43 (.025)			

## Appendix Table 1 Supplementary Sample Statistics

Notes: Standard errors are in parentheses. The test scores are z-scores, normalized by subtracting the overall mean from the individual score and dividing by the standard deviation.

#### **Appendix Table 2**

	1 <sup>st</sup> percentile	5 <sup>th</sup> percentile	10 <sup>th</sup> percentile	Ν
Non-survivors				
high SES	482	794	1006	110
middle SES	397	765	992	272
low SES	680	907	964	125
Survivors				
high SES	2069	2494	2721	3417
middle SES	2041	2495	2722	6444
low SES	1984	2438	2665	2846

#### Percentiles of the birth weight distribution, by socioeconomic status and perinatal mortality

Note: Non-survivors refer to stillbirths or those who survived less than 29 days.

#### Regressions of survival on birthweight, low birthweight and socioeconomic status

	low birthweight	high SES	low SES	high SES, low birthweight	low SES, low birthweight	sample size
Males	0					
low birthweight, SES, and interactions	27 (.012)*	.0018 (.0055)	.0027 (.0059)	.00085 (.022)	021 (.023)	6795
low birthweight, SES, interactions, and covariates in Tables 2-4	20 (.011)*	.00070 (.0053)	.0055 (.0052)	0095 (.019)	020 (.020)	6795
Females						
low birthweight, SES, and interactions	24 (.011)	.0094 (.0054)**	0023 (.0058)	.024 (.020)	.019 (.018)	6417
low birthweight, SES, interactions, and covariates in Tables 2-4	18 (.010)*	.0025 (.0053)	.00094 (.0052)	.0032 (.017)	.015 (.016)	6417

Notes: Each row corresponds to a regression of survival beyond 29 days. The family background characteristics also included in some specifications were: parents' education, mother's father's social class, age of the mother, if mother was single, if mother smoked, if the child was a twin, and the birth order of the child. Standard errors are in parentheses. A \* indicates significance at 5% and \*\* denotes significance at 10%.

	low bir	thweight	high	SES	low	SES	high S birth	ES, low weight	low S birth	ES, low weight	sample size
Males											
1. Examinations passed any											
O-level number O's	035	(.039)	.12	(.016)*	071	(.016)*	061	(.068)	070	(.070)	5914
passed Math O-level	30	(.23)	.96	(.092)*	35	(.091)*	83	(.39)*	033	(.41)	5914
pass English O-level	13	(.050)*	.094	(.019)*	054	(.021)*	068	(.084)	058	(.10)	3964
passed	036	(.047)	.15	(.018)*	039	(.020)*	14	(.077)**	017	(.094)	4327
2. Age 23 employed FT	049	(.036)	0057	(.015)	049	(.015)*	052	(.062)	11	(.068)	4797
log wages	023	(.030)	024	(.012)*	036	(.012)*	016	(.052)	0088	(.061)	3633
fair/poor health	0026	(.025)	00021	(.010)	.018	(.010)**	.031	(.043)	.017	(.048)	5162
3. Age 33 employed FT	088	(.035)*	.013	(.014)	037	(.014)*	056	(.058)	.11	(.068)**	3873
log wages	067	(.047)	.067	(.018)*	064	(.019)*	053	(.077)	.060	(.093)	3405
fair/poor health high blood	.084	(.033)*	018	(.013)	.032	(.014)*	.041	(.056)	20	(.064)*	4624
pressure	.049	(.021)*	0040	(.0082)	0019	(.0086)	048	(.035)	028	(.041)	4643
Females											
<ol> <li>Examinations passed any</li> </ol>											
O-level number O's	15	(.035)*	.11	(.016)*	091	(.016)*	.075	(.060)	.056	(.057)	5654
passed Math O-level	67	(.20)*	1.0	(.095)*	42	(092)*	.017	(.34)	.31	(.33)	5654
pass English O-level	12	(.051)*	.093	(.019)*	028	(.022)	.094	(.078)	.11	(.086)	3548
passed	10	(.044)*	.12	(.018)*	047	(.019)*	.071	(.069)	.011	(.074)	4508
2. Age 23 employed FT	- 11	(.040)*	.053	(.018)*	048	(.018)*	.12	(.069)**	.13	(.066)*	5059
log wages	019	(.030)	.013	(.012)	016	(.013)	016	(.046)	073	(.047)	3010
fair/poor health	.072	(.025)*	0088	(.012)	.031	(.012)*	10	(.044)*	042	(.042)	5166
3. Age 33		(045)		(010)		(010)		(050)	0.1 F		44-0
employed FT	022	(.041)	.017	(.019)	027	(.019)	.057	(.070)	.017	(.070)	4458
log wages	.045	(.040)	.047	(.019)*	061	(.019)*	13	(.071)**	032	(.068)	3349
taır/poor health high blood	.054	(.029)**	034	(.013)*	.027	(.013)*	11	(.050)*	072	(.050)	4747
pressure	.0075	(.020)	.011	(.0095)	.013	(.0095)	.032	(.035)	.032	(.035)	4777

## Appendix Table 3 Effects of low birthweight when restricting sample to those over 1000g at birth

Notes: Each row corresponds with a regression of the outcome in the left hand column on the same set of covariates as used in the regressions in Tables 2-4. The results in section 1 for males and females correspond with the regressions in Table 2, section 2 with Table 3 and section 3 with Table 4. A \* denotes significant coefficients at the 5% level and \*\* indicates significance at 10%.

## **Appendix Table 4**

	low birt	hweight	high	SES	low	SES	high S birth	SES, low weight	low S birth	ES, low weight	sample size
Males											
1. Examinations											
passed any O-level number O's	034	(.039)	.12	(.016)*	070	(.016)*	071	(.068)	067	(.072)	5752
passed	33	(.23)	.97	(.094)*	35	(.093)*	93	(.40)*	094	(.42)	5752
Math O-level pass English O-level	13	(.049)*	.095	(.019)*	054	(.021)*	096	(.082)	.046	(.098)	3958
pass	037	(.047)	.15	(.018)*	038	(.020)*	17	(.075)*	049	(.091)	4320
2. Age 23											
employed FT	036	(.035)	0083	(.015)	050	(.015)*	047	(.062)	.027	(.069)	4677
log wages	016	(.029)	023	(.012)*	032	(.012)*	020	(.052)	018	(.057)	3580
fair/poor health	.0039	(.024)	.0035	(.010)	.013	(.010)	.018	(.043)	012	(.048)	5038
3. Age 33											
employed FT	076	(.033)*	.014	(.013)	033	(.014)*	035	(.057)	.11	(.066)**	3789
log wages	024	(.046)	.064	(.018)*	059	(.019)*	064	(.076)	.034	(.091)	3350
fair/poor health	.080	(.032)*	020	(.013)	.026	(.014)**	.055	(.056)	18	(.063)*	4531
pressure	.054	(.020)*	0049	(.0083)	0032	(.0087)	054	(.035)	031	(.041)	4550
Females											
1. Examinations											
passed any O-level number O's	14	(.035)*	.11	(.016)*	086	(.16)*	.070	(.059)	.045	(.056)	5598
passed	62	(.20)*	1.0	(.095)*	40	(.094)*	077	(.34)	.20	(.32)	5598
Math O-level pass English O-level	12	(.049)*	.093	(.019)*	028	(.022)	.075	(.076)	.095	(.082)	3556
pass	11	(.043)*	.12	(.018)*	048	(.019)*	.046	(.067)	.018	(.070)	4520
2. Age 23											
employed FT	088	(.039)*	.057	(.018)*	045	(.018)*	.11	(.068)**	.15	(.066)*	5013
log wages	036	(.029)	.012	(.012)	017	(.013)	018	(.045)	046	(.045)	3013
fair/poor health	.049	(.025)*	0089	(.012)	.028	(.012)*	071	(.043)**	042	(.042)	5120
3. Age 33											
employed FT	0098	(.040)	.017	(.019)	027	(.019)	.049	(.070)	.012	(.069)	4421
log wages	.033	(.039)	.046	(.019)*	063	(.019)*	11	(.070)**	0011	(.067)	3331
fair/poor health high blood	.042	(.028)	034	(.013)*	.029	(.013)*	096	(.048)*	058	(.049)	4710
pressure	.0076	(.020)	.0098	(.0094)	.0070	(.0094)	.028	(.034)	.039	(.034)	4741

## Effects of low birthweight when mentally handicapped are excluded from sample

Notes: Each row corresponds with a regression of the outcome in the left hand column on the same set of covariates as used in the regressions in Tables 2-4. The results in section 1 for males and females correspond with the regressions in Table 2, section 2 with Table 3 and section 3 with Table 4. A \* denotes significant coefficients at the 5% level and \*\* indicates significance at 10%.

## Appendix Table 5a Effects of low birthweight on any employment at ages 23 and 33

	low birthweight	high SES	low SES	high SES, low birthweight	low SES, low birthweight	sample size
Males						
employed at 23 employed at 33	047 (.034) 072 (.032)*	0054 (.015) .012 (.013)	052 (.015)* 038 (.014)*	036 (.060) 074 (.054)	058 (.063) .11 (.061)**	4815 3890
Females						
employed at 23 employed at 33	093 (.038)* .00057 (.040)	.051 (.018)* .0085 (.019)	047 (.018)* 023 (.019)	.072 (.066) .0059 (.070)	.16 (.062)* 00014 (.069)	5079 4472

Notes: Regressions are for any employment, including part-time work. Only the effects of low birthweight, SES and interactions are reported here, the other covariates are the same as in the results for full time employment in Tables 3 and 4. A \* denotes significant coefficients at the 5% level and \*\* indicates significance at 10%.

## Appendix Table 5b Effects of low birthweight for persons in sample at both age 23 and 33

							high S	SES, low	low S	ES, low	sample
	low bir	thweight	high	n SES	low	SES	birth	weight	birth	weight	size
Males											
1. Examinations											
passed any O-level	0036	(.054)	.12	(.023)*	058	(.024)*	095	(.091)	087	(.11)	2752
number O's passed	52	(.33)	.97	(.14)*	38	(.14)*	88	(.55)	082	(.66)	2752
Math O-level pass English O-level	17	(.068)*	.087	(.026)*	083	(.031)*	089	(.11)	.13	(.16)	2009
pass	022	(.065)	.14	(.025)*	048	(.029)**	16	(.10)	11	(.15)	2172
2. Age 23											
employed FT	046	(.040)	016	(.017)	046	(.018)*	.025	(.070)	.0020	(.080)	3188
log wages	015	(.034)	018	(.014)	042	(.015)*	074	(.059)	050	(.067)	2519
3. Age 33											
employed FT	081	(.033)*	.015	(.014)	028	(.015)**	024	(.058)	.14	(.066)*	3188
log wages	040	(.046)	.063	(.019)*	065	(.021)*	080	(.080)	0071	(.093)	2830
Females											
1. Examinations											
passed any O-level	13	(.044)*	.095	(.021)*	071	(.021)*	.039	(.077)	.0069	(.076)	3332
number O's passed	64	(.26)*	1.1	(.12)*	38	(.12)*	43	(.45)	0067	(.45)	3332
Math O-level pass English O-level	13	(.058)*	.081	(.024)*	029	(.028)	.043	(.098)	.042	(.11)	2230
pass	12	(.054)*	.12	(.023)*	036	(.025)	.0046	(.088)	011	(.096)	2766
2. Age 23											
employed FT	074	(.044)**	.046	(.021)*	027	(.021)	.14	(.077)**	.11	(.076)	3834
log wages	014	(.031)	.012	(.013)	023	(.014)	034	(.049)	052	(.051)	2364
3. Age 33											
employed FT	046	(.041)	0026	(.020)	035	(.020)**	.047	(.072)	.038	(.070)	3834
log wages	.031	(.042)	.047	(.020)*	061	(.020)*	16	(.075)*	012	(.072)	2889

Notes: Sample required non-missing observations on full time employment at both age 23 and age 33. Each row corresponds with a regression of the outcome in the left hand column on the same set of covariates as used in the regressions in Tables 2-4. The results in section 1 for males and females correspond with the regressions in Table 2, section 2 with Table 3 and section 3 with Table 4. A \* denotes significant coefficients at the 5% level and \*\* indicates significance at 10%.

	low birthweight	high SES	low SES	high SES, low birthweight	low SES, low birthweight	sample size
Males						
1. Examinations						
Passed any O-level	069 (.039)**	.27 (.015)*	13 (.016)*	047 (.070)	083 (.071)	5932
Number O's passed Passed Math	51 (.23)*	2.1 (.089)*	73 (.096)*	81 (.41)*	15 (.42)	5932
O-level	14 (.049)*	.23 (.017)*	10 (.021)*	097 (.083)	.030 (.10)	3974
Passed English				. ,	× ,	
O-level	067 (.047)	.29 (.016)*	082 (.020)*	15 (.078)*	037 (.095)	4338
2. Age 23						
Employed FT	042 (.034)	012 (.014)	060 (.015)*	049 (.061)	079 (.064)	4815
Log wages	017 (.028)	022 (.011)*	043 (.012)*	032 (.051)	028 (.056)	3649
Fair/poor health	0072 (.024)	014 (.0092)	.027 (.010)*	.032 (.042)	.0072 (.045)	5181
3. Age 33						
Employed FT	088 (.033)*	.035 (.012)*	055 (.014)*	047 (.057)	.097 (.064)	3890
Log wages	043 (.045)	.16 (.017)*	098 (.019)*	074 (.078)	00068 (.089)	3421
Fair/poor	· · · · ·					
health	.080 (.031)*	051 (.012)*	.045 (.013)*	.060 (.055)	19 (.061)*	4641
High blood	· · · · ·	· · · ·				
pressure	.047 (.020)*	013 (.0074)**	.0024 (.0085)	050 (.034)	031 (.038)	4661
Females						
1. Examinations						
Passed any O-level	19 (.035)*	.26 (.015)*	15 (.017)*	.089 (.061)	.088 (.058)	5678
Number O's passed	98 (.21)*	2.2 (.091)*	78 (.098)*	049 (.36)	.47 (.34)	5678
Passed Math	· · · ·					
O-level	17 (.050)*	.21 (.018)*	060 (.022)*	.11 (.078)	.12 (.085)	3560
Passed English						
O-level	16 (.043)*	.26 (.017)*	092 (.020)*	.044 (.069)	.052 (.073)	4529
2. Age 23						
Employed FT	11 (.038)*	.11 (.017)*	085 (.018)*	.11 (.068)	.14 (.065)*	5079
Log wages	041 (.028)	.062 (.011)*	032 (.013)*	014 (.045)	055 (.046)	3026
Fair/poor						
health	.068 (.024)*	025 (.010)*	.038 (.012)*	088 (.042)*	043 (.041)	5187
3. Age 33						
Employed FT	027 (.038)	.068 (.017)*	045 (.019)*	.047 (.069)	.023 (.068)	4472
Log wages Fair/poor	.015 (.038)	.16 (.018)*	10 (.020)*	12 (.071)**	0068 (.068)	3360
health High blood	.038 (.027)	059 (.012)*	.040 (.013)*	097 (.049)*	071 (.048)	4763
pressure	.025 (.019)	.0024 (.0085)	.019 (.0093)*	.021 (.034)	.014 (.034)	4794

## Appendix Table 6 Gross Differences in Outcomes by Low Birthweight and Socioeconomic Status

Notes: Each row corresponds to a regression of the outcome in the first column on low birthweight, socioeconomic status and interactions between high and low socioeconomic status and low birthweight. This table represents the unconditional differences in mean outcomes by low birthweight and socioeconomic status. Section 1 corresponds to Table 2, section 2 corresponds to the outcomes in Table 3 and section 3 corresponds to Table 4. Standard errors are in parentheses. A \* indicates significance at 5% and \*\* denotes significance at 10%.

## Appendix Table 7a

				high SES, low	low SES, low	sample
	low birthweight	high SES	low SES	birthweight	birthweight	size
only lbw, SES and						
interactions	088 (.033)*	.035 (.012)*	055 (.014)*	047 (.057)	097 (.064)	3890
add twin	082 (.034)*	.035 (.012)*	055 (.014)*	047 (.057)	.093 (.064)	3890
add mother's age at						
child's birth	083 (.034)*	.031 (.012)*	054 (.014)*	045 (.057)	.092 (.064)	3890
add parents' education	078 (.034)*	.023 (.014)**	051 (.014)*	052 (.058)	.093 (.064)	3890
add mother's father's						
social class	077 (.034)*	.019 (.014)	048 (.014)*	050 (.057)	.099 (.064)	3890
add region	079 (.034)*	.018 (.014)	046 (.014)*	048 (.057)	.10 (.064)**	3890
add single mother						
indicator	079 (.034)*	.018 (.014)	045 (.014)*	048 (.057)	.10 (.064)**	3890
add if mom smoked	078 (.034)*	.017 (.014)	044 (.014)*	048 (.057)	.10 (.064)**	3890
add family size, birth						
order	082 (.034)*	.014 (.014)	037 (.014)*	054 (.057)	.11 (.064)**	3890
marital status and						
children at age 23	- 074 (033)*	014 (013)	- 030 (014)*	- 060 ( 056)	12 (062)**	3890
ennuren at age 25	074 (.055)	.014 (.015)	050 (.014)	000 (.050)	.12 (.002)	5070
local authority health						
expenditures	091 (.039)*	.054 (.018)*	049 (.018)*	.10 (.067)	.13 (.064)*	3890
other family background						
characteristics:						
lived in crowded						
household	089 (.039)*	.053 (.018)*	046 (.018)*	.10 (.067)	.13 (.064)*	3890
family lacked own						
bathroom and hot water	087 (.039)*	.052 (.018)*	047 (.018)*	.090 (.067)	.13 (.064)*	3890
family faced financial						
hardship	087 (.039)*	.051 (.018)*	045 (.018)*	.10 (.067)	.12 (.064)**	3890

# Effects of low birthweight additional controls are added to regressions of full time employment at age 33 for NCDS males

Notes: Each row corresponds to a single regression. Although only the effects of low birthweight, SES and the interactions are reported, the covariates in the main specifications presented in Tables 2-4 are successively added in the first nine rows. The final five rows give the effects of low birthweight, SES and interactions when the variables listed in the left hand column are added to the specification in row 9. A \* denotes significant coefficients at the 5% level and \*\* indicates significance at 10%.

## **Appendix Table 7b**

	low birthweight	high SES	low SES	high SES, low birthweight	low SES, low birthweight	sample size
only lbw, SES and						
interactions	11 (.038)*	.11 (.017)*	085 (.018)*	.11 (.068)	.14 (.065)*	5079
add twin add mother's age at	11 (.039)*	.11 (.017)*	085 (.018)*	.11 (.068)*	.14 (.065)*	5079
child's birth	10 (.039)*	.098 (.017)*	080 (.018)*	.11 (.068)	.13 (.065)*	5079
add parents' education add mother's father's	098 (.039)*	.074 (.018)*	074 (.018)*	.11 (.068)**	.13 (.065)*	5079
social class	097 (.039)*	.070 (.018)*	073 (.018)*	.11 (.068)	.12 (.065)*	5079
add region	091 (.039)*	.067 (.018)*	073 (.018)*	.11 (.068)	.12 (.065)**	5079
add single mother	000 (020)*	0.66 (010)*	072 (010)*	11 (060)	10 (0(5))**	5070
indicator	090 (.039)*	.066 (.018)*	072 (.018)*	.11 (.068)	.12 (.065)**	5079
add if mom smoked add family size, birth	084 (.039)*	.063 (.018)*	070 (.018)*	.10 (.068)	.12 (.065)**	5079
order	091 (.039)*	.054 (.018)*	049 (.018)*	.10 (.067)	.13 (.064)*	5079
marital status and						
children at age 23	053 (.028)**	014 (.013)	0094 (.013)	.089 (.048)**	.078 (.046)**	5079
local authority health expenditures	082 (.034)*	.014 (.014)	038 (.014)*	053 (.057)	.11 (.064)**	5079
other family background characteristics:						
household	079 (.034)*	.012 (.014)	036 (.014)*	056 (.056)	.11 (.063)**	5079
bathroom and hot water	079 (.034)*	.013 (.014)	037 (.014)*	053 (.057)	.11 (.064)**	5079
hardship	077 (.034)*	.012 (.014)	034 (.014)*	052 (.056)	.11 (.063)**	5079

# Effects of low birthweight additional controls are added to regressions of full time employment at age 23 for NCDS females

Notes: Each row corresponds to a single regression. Although only the effects of low birthweight, SES and the interactions are reported, the covariates in the main specifications presented in Tables 2-4 are successively added in the first nine rows. The final five rows give the effects of low birthweight, SES and interactions when the variables listed in the left hand column are added to the specification in row 9. A \* denotes significant coefficients at the 5% level and \*\* indicates significance at 10%.

	low birthweight	high SES	low SES	high SES, low birthweight	low SES, low birthweight	sample size
Males						
1. Age 23 log wages additional covariates:						
works part time	016 (.028)	024 (.012)*	036 (.012)*	029 (.049)	032 (.056)	3649
in union	0067 (.028)	012 (.012)	032 (.012)*	045 (.048)	047 (.054)	3649
private employer	0048 (.028)	013 (.012)	031 (.012)*	030 (.048)	048 (.054)	3649
firm size	0049 (.027)	011 (.011)	027 (.012)*	038 (.047)	042 (.053)	3649
2. Age 33 log wages additional covariates:						
works part time	020 (.045)	.068 (.018)*	064 (.019)*	085 (.075)	0050 (.086)	3421
in union	017 (.045)	.072 (.018)*	062 (.019)*	090 (.075)	020 (.086)	3421
private employer	017 (.045)	.072 (.018)*	062 (.019)*	090 (.075)	020 (.086)	3421
firm size	026 (.044)	.076 (.017)*	050 (.018)*	088 (.073)	057 (.084)	3421
Females						
1. Age 23 log wages additional covariates:						
works part time	038 (.028)	.015 (.012)	015 (.013)	0080 (.044)	049 (.045)	3026
in union	025 (.027)	.022 (.011)*	014 (.012)	026 (.042)	068 (.043)	3026
private employer	024 (.027)	.019 (.011)**	015 (.012)	029 (.042)	063 (.042)	3026
firm size	034 (.027)	.020 (.011)**	014 (.012)	014 (.042)	057 (.042)	3026
2. Age 33 log wages additional covariates:						
works part time	.034 (.039)	.047 (.019)*	062 (.019)*	11 (.070)**	017 (.067)	3360
in union	.039 (.036)	.040 (.018)*	057 (.018)*	096 (.066)	020 (.063)	3360
private employer	.041 (.036)	.036 (.018)*	057 (.018)*	096 (.065)	028 (.063)	3360
firm size	.027 (.036)	.041 (.017)*	048 (.018)*	091 (.064)	022 (.062)	3360

## Appendix Table 8 Effects of low birthweight on log earnings at ages 23 and 33 when job characteristics are included

Notes: Each row corresponds to a regression of log earnings at either age 23 or 33. The job characteristics were added successively in each row; that is, the regression of firm size also includes controls for part time work, union, and private employer. Although only the effects of low birthweight, SES and the interactions are reported, the regressions also contained the same covariates as the specifications in Tables 3 and 4, in addition to indicator variables for missing job characteristics. The results for males and females in section 1 can be compared to Table 3 and in section 2, to Table 4. Standard errors are in parentheses. A \* indicates significance at 5% and \*\* denotes significance at 10%.

	Age 7 math		Age 11 math		Age 16 math	
	males	females	males	females	males	females
low birthweight	21 (.081)*	21 (.075)*	17 (.080)*	32 (.069)*	097 (.084)	27 (.071)*
low birthweight, high SES	00010 (.14)	12 (.13)	30 (.14)*	.0038 (.12)	36 (.15)*	.083 (.12)
low birthweight, low SES	.050 (.15)	11 (.12)	025 (.15)	.046 (.11)	060 (.16)	.0097 (.12)
high SES	.078 (.033)*	.14 (.034)*	.24 (.032)*	.28 (.032)*	.25 (.035)*	.28 (.034)*
low SES	16 (.033)*	078 (.034)*	20 (.032)*	14 (.032)*	20 (.036)*	10 (.034)*
twin	30 (.085)*	24 (.086)*	19 (.084)*	19 (.083)*	21 (.088)*	075 (.088)
mother > min schooling	.28 (.032)*	.19 (.032)*	.34 (.031)*	.32 (.030)*	.36 (.034)*	.36 (.031)*
father > min schooling	.18 (.034)*	.17 (.035)*	.38 (.033)*	.29 (.033)*	.40 (.036)*	.28 (.034)*
mother's father high SES	.043 (.038)	.065 (.039)**	.064 (.037)**	.0014 (.036)	.099 (.040)*	.0071 (.038)
mother's father low SES	052 (.032)**	056 (.033)**	12 (.031)*	10 (.031)*	13 (.040)*	059 (.032)**
single mother at birth	18 (.078)*	.074 (.079)	20 (.074)*	033 (.071)	081 (.084)	090 (.077)
mother smoked	046 (.026)**	029 (.026)	17 (.025)*	13 (.025)*	16 (.027)*	15 (.026)*
family size	0047 (.0090)	015 (.0096)	.0013 (.0088)	025 (.0089)*	00061 (.0096)	0073 (.0094)
birth order						
first born	.018 (.031)	034 (.032)	.17 (.031)*	.092 (.030)*	.19 (.033)*	.14 (.031)*
third or fourth child	054 (.035)	14 (.036)*	19 (.034)*	25 (.034)*	22 (.037)*	22 (.035)*
fifth or higher	18 (.053)**	16 (.055)*	55 (.052)*	48 (.051)*	55 (.058)*	49 (.054)*
mother's age at birth of child:						
under 20	18 (.065)*	091 (.065)	31 (.063)*	41 (.062)*	33 (.070)*	38 (.065)*
20-23	072 (.040)**	11 (.042)*	18 (.039)*	26 (.039)*	20 (.043)*	25 (.040)*
24-26	.0044 (.039)	022 (.041)	059 (.039)	082 (.038)*	085 (.042)*	075 (.040)**
30-34	.057 (.040)	.056 (.040)	.071 (.039)**	.062 (.038)	.065 (.043)	.12 (.039)*
35-39	024 (.049)	.016 (.052)	.10 (.048)*	.16 (.048)*	.065 (.053)	.22 (.051)*
40 or over	040 (.085)	.12 (.087)	.17 (.086)*	.18 (.080)*	.18 (.096)**	.28 (.085)*
Ν	6245	5927	5841	5552	4829	4598
adj. $\mathbb{R}^2$	.066	.061	.20	.19	.22	.22

Appendix Table 9 Test Scores and Low Birthweight ( < 2500 g)

Notes: Standard errors are in parentheses. Other covariates include regional controls and indicators for missing mother's age, parental education, grandfather's SES, family size, and smoking. A \* denotes significant coefficients at the 5% level; \*\* indicates significance at the 10% level.

1. Card (1995) highlights an interesting implication of this model, which is that under some circumstances the marginal return to investments in LSES children will be higher than the return on investments in HSES children. This will be true if 1) the outcome production function is concave; 2) the high and LSES children have similar native ability levels; and 3) the LSES children receive fewer investments due to credit constraints.

2. Further information about this study is available in National Children's Bureau (1991).

3. Attriters are more likely than non-attriters to be from disadvantaged backgrounds, although observable differences between the two groups are quite small (Fogelman, 1976, 1983; Robertson and Symons, 1996; Connolly, Micklewright and Nickell, 1992). Connolly *et al.* (1992) find that controlling for sample selection in various ways makes little difference to their results. In what follows we deal with the attrition issue by controlling for observable background characteristics, and by comparing results obtained using the full available sample with those from more limited subsamples.

4. The NCDS reports the number of O-levels written at the student's usual school as well as the number written "any time, any where". We use the latter variable. Also, students could write either CSE's (regular O-levels) or SCE's (a less demanding test). Students who achieved a high enough score on the SCE were given the O-level certification. We treat these people as having O-levels. We also have information about A-level examinations. We focus on O-levels rather than A-levels because all of our sample children were eligible to take O-levels, whereas only a selected (and rather small) group went on to take A-levels.

5. Respondents are asked their usual weekly hours, their net pay, their gross pay, and their pay interval (e.g. weekly, biweekly, monthly, etc.). We first calculate the number of hours in the pay interval by examining the usual weekly hours, and then calculate hourly pay rates by taking the pay reported and dividing by the number of hours in the pay interval. We focus on net pay in what follows as similar results were obtained using gross pay. We deleted hours and wage information for those with weekly hours greater than 96, and did not use wage information for those reporting fewer than 10 hours per week. If the reported hourly pay seemed very high or low, we assumed that the pay amount did not match the pay interval and changed the pay interval. We set the most extreme outliers to missing. In wave 4, this included people with hourly net wages less than 1 and greater than 60. In both waves 4 and 5 we excluded less than 2% of the sample observations.

6. One reason may be that this cohort turned 23 in 1981, in the midst of a severe recession which compressed the distribution of earnings among these young workers (Meghir and Whitehouse, 1996).

7. These figures are from the Institute of Municipal Treasurers and Accountants (1960) and include both the local authority's own expenditures and their grant from the National Health Service. Some NCDS local authority codes in London and the South East could not be matched to the spending data. In these cases we assigned the national average for health expenditures and included a flag for missing data in our model.

8. See Currie and Madrian, 1999 for a discussion of the literature on health and occupational choice.

9. See Currie and Thomas (1998) for more discussion of these scores.