

NBER WORKING PAPER SERIES

SAVING BABIES: THE CONTRIBUTION OF SHEPPARD-TOWNER TO THE DECLINE
IN INFANT MORTALITY IN THE 1920s

Carolyn M. Moehling
Melissa A. Thomasson

Working Paper 17996
<http://www.nber.org/papers/w17996>

NATIONAL BUREAU OF ECONOMIC RESEARCH
1050 Massachusetts Avenue
Cambridge, MA 02138
April 2012

The authors thank seminar participants at the 2011 Cliometric Society meetings, the University of Colorado, the University of Michigan, the University of Chicago, and Chapman University. The authors assume all responsibility for any errors or omissions. The views expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Bureau of Economic Research.

NBER working papers are circulated for discussion and comment purposes. They have not been peer-reviewed or been subject to the review by the NBER Board of Directors that accompanies official NBER publications.

© 2012 by Carolyn M. Moehling and Melissa A. Thomasson. All rights reserved. Short sections of text, not to exceed two paragraphs, may be quoted without explicit permission provided that full credit, including © notice, is given to the source.

Saving Babies: The Contribution of Sheppard-Towner to the Decline in Infant Mortality in the 1920s

Carolyn M. Moehling and Melissa A. Thomasson

NBER Working Paper No. 17996

April 2012

JEL No. H51,I18,N32

ABSTRACT

From 1922 to 1929, the Sheppard-Towner Act provided matching grants to states to fund maternal and infant care education initiatives. We examine the effects of this public health program on infant mortality. States engaged in different types of activities, allowing us to examine whether different interventions had differential effects on mortality. Interventions that provided one-on-one contact and opportunities for follow-up care, such as home visits by public health nurses, reduced infant deaths more than classes and conferences. Overall, we estimate that Sheppard-Towner activities can account for 9 to 21 percent of the decline in infant mortality over the period.

Carolyn M. Moehling
Department of Economics
Rutgers University
75 Hamilton Street
New Brunswick, NJ 08901-1248
and NBER
cmoehling@econ.rutgers.edu

Melissa A. Thomasson
Miami University/FSB
Department of Economics MSC 1035
800 E. High Street, Rm. #2054
Oxford, OH 45056
and NBER
thomasma@muohio.edu

Introduction

Infant mortality in the United States declined significantly over the first part of the twentieth century, as shown in Figure 1, which plots infant mortality rates in the Birth Registration Area (BRA) from 1915 to 1940.¹ Rising incomes, improved nutrition and housing conditions, and public infrastructure improvements such as water sanitation and sewer systems all contributed to the decline in infant mortality rates, particularly in urban areas (see McKeown 1976; Fogel 1994; Haines 2001; Cutler and Miller 2005; Ferrie and Troesken 2008). In addition, government expenditures on public health and education increased dramatically over this period. Miller (2008) finds that increases in state and local public health and education expenditures caused by the enactment of women's suffrage decreased mortality from infectious diseases between 1900 and 1936. Fox (2011) uses municipal data on public health expenditures over the period 1923-1932 and also concludes that public health spending lowered infant mortality, although the effect is diminished by the inclusion of city-specific time trends in his model.

Most of the expansion in public health programs occurred at the state and local levels. However, the federal government was also involved in public health initiatives. The U.S. Children's Bureau conducted studies of infant mortality in a variety of areas in the U.S. and compared its findings to data on infant mortality in other advanced economies. After declaring 1918 as the "Children's Year," the Bureau sought to reduce infant and child mortality by distributing literature and by providing education on health and hygiene at fairs. Efforts to implement a broader and more permanent program aimed at providing prenatal and infant care

¹ Infant mortality trended strongly downward despite the fact that the BRA continued to expand until 1932, and many of the states that entered later had higher mortality rates than earlier entrants. In figure 1, we also plot infant mortality for only those states that were in the BRA as of 1915 to show that the addition of later states does not obscure the strong downward trend.

education finally succeeded in 1921, when Congress passed the Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy Act, more commonly known as the “Sheppard-Towner” Act.²

Sheppard-Towner provided matching money to states to spend on public health programs targeted at reducing infant and maternal mortality. Each participating state received \$5,000 outright and then received dollar-for-dollar matching funds up to an explicit cap determined by its population. States used funds from the program in a variety of ways. Some states used Sheppard-Towner money to organize conferences where physicians and other health professionals would examine children and pregnant women, or provide demonstrations on maternal and infant care and hygiene. Many states provided classes for midwives and classes for girls about infant care. Nearly all states sent “prenatal letters” to pregnant women, while others paid public health nurses to visit new and expectant mothers. Some also used the funds to build public health clinics.

Despite its laudable goals, bitter political battles about the role of the federal government in providing maternal and infant health education ensued and the Sheppard-Towner Act was repealed in 1929.³ Even though the program was short-lived, the Children’s Bureau heralded it as a success and concluded that “the value of maternity and infancy work is reflected in the decrease in infant and maternal death rates in 1928 as compared with those in 1921” (U.S. Children’s Bureau 1931a: 6). This claim has been echoed by historians such as Molly Ladd-Taylor, who writes, “A further indication of the program’s success was the significant decrease in infant mortality during the Sheppard-Towner years” (Ladd-Taylor 1994: 187). On the other hand, infant mortality was trending

² Prior to Sheppard-Towner, the federal government had also provided money to states to assist in venereal disease control and prevention under the Chamberlain-Kahn Act of 1918.

³ For discussion about the political economy of the law and the politics of state participation, see Moehling and Thomasson 2012.)

strongly downward even before 1920. Opponents to Sheppard-Towner disputed its effect and attributed the decline in infant mortality to its pre-existing trend. A 1932 editorial in the *Journal of the American Medical Association* (JAMA) highlights this view:

During the seven and one-half years that the Sheppard-Towner Act was in effect, it cost the people about eleven million dollars in taxes. During that entire time it did not develop a single new idea in the field of maternal and infant hygiene. As shown by the official mortality statistics, it did not accelerate the rate of decline in either the maternal or the infant death rates, by even a fraction of a point per annum (JAMA 1932: 404).

The goal of this paper is to disentangle the effect of Sheppard-Towner on infant mortality from its pre-existing downward trend, thereby assessing the contribution that public health educational programs made to the reduction of infant mortality in the 1920s. This research agenda has significant modern policy relevance. Educational programs, like those funded by the Sheppard-Towner program, are still promoted today as ways to decrease infant mortality.⁴ Yet we do not know if and how such activities contributed to the dramatic reduction in infant mortality that occurred in the U.S. during the early twentieth century. The literature on infant mortality in developing countries today provides mixed findings on the effectiveness of public health expenditures. Several studies have shown that public health expenditures have a minor or statistically insignificant impact on infant and child mortality (Kim and Moody 1992; Mcguire et al., 1993; Aiyer et al. 1995; Musgrove 1996; Filmer and Pritchett 1997; Filmer et al. 1998), while others (Anand and Ravallion 1993; Hojman 1996; Gupta et al 2002;

⁴ See for instance Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation, 2009.

Anyanwu and Erhijakpor 2009) suggest that such expenditures cause substantial decreases in infant deaths.

Part of the difficulty in assessing the impact of public health expenditures on infant mortality lies in the fact that changes in public health outlays may not represent true spending increases. For example, under Sheppard-Towner, some states that participated in the program did not actually increase net expenditures, but rather shifted expenditures from existing public health programs in order to qualify for the federal match. For example, in a letter dated December 8, 1921, from W.S. Rankin, North Carolina's State Health Officer to his counterpart in Tennessee:

I shall not find it difficult, I think, to secure the apportionment for North Carolina for the reason that we are spending now practically as much as they have to apportion on infancy and maternity work. The situation, then with respect to this State will mean simply our adjusting our program to meet their approval and their matching their funds dollar for dollar for money now being expended on the same objects as provided in the Sheppard-Towner Act (Rankin, W.S. to Olin West; 8 December, 1921).

While we do examine the impact of Sheppard-Towner grants and public health expenditure measures on infant mortality, a key contribution of our work is that we look beyond such measures to examine the impact of the specific activities in which states engaged under Sheppard-Towner. These activities involved very different levels of interaction with mothers and children and therefore may have had differential impacts on infant mortality. Thus, we separately analyze the effects of nurse visits, conferences, literature, public health centers, and classes for midwives.

To account for the persistent differences in mortality environments across states and the strong downward trend in infant mortality of the period, we include state fixed effects and state specific time trends in all our models. We find that state expenditures on child health programs, and health and sanitation more generally, significantly reduced infant mortality. However, we also find that the type of public health intervention mattered. More direct and personal interventions such as nurse visits were most effective at reducing infant mortality, while conferences and classes had little impact. Moreover, we find a differential effect of Sheppard-Towner interventions on non-white and white infant mortality. Specifically, building public health centers and funding nurse visits to mothers generated much larger reductions in infant mortality for non-whites than for whites. In addition, while prenatal letters reduced white infant mortality, they did not reduce black infant mortality. We conclude that while much of the reduction in infant mortality during the 1920s must be attributed to other factors, activities funded by Sheppard-Towner could account for between 9 and 21 percent of the decline.

Infant Mortality and the U.S. Children's Bureau

Created in 1912, the Children's Bureau was charged with investigating and reporting "upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of our people" (42 U.S.C. Ch. 6. April 9, 1912). In the 1910s, the Children's Bureau focused on studying causes of infant and maternal mortality, and creating a birth registration area where all births would be accurately and consistently reported. An examination of nearly 23,000 infants in 8 cities led the Children's Bureau to conclude that the overall infant mortality rate in the U.S. was 111.2 deaths per 1,000 live births, a rate higher than those of many other industrialized countries. Moreover, many of these deaths were believed to have been preventable. For example, the study revealed that the

mortality rate for artificially fed infants in the nine months of life was 4.8 times greater than for breastfed infants (Woodbury 1925: 91). Overall, about 29 percent of the deaths were attributable to gastric and intestinal causes, many due to improper feeding and hygiene (Woodbury 1925: 14).

The Children's Bureau investigations also revealed that large numbers of rural women had limited access to medical care during childbirth. In its study area in rural Wisconsin, the Bureau found that half of confinements were attended by midwives and 8 percent were attended by neighbors or relatives without any training. Moreover, in a number of cases classified as attended by a physician, the physician had arrived after the birth. In one case, a new mother had to wait two hours for the doctor to arrive to cut the cord (Children's Bureau 1919a: 28-30). In a homesteading county in Montana, the conditions were even worse: more than half of the new mothers studied lived more than 20 miles from the nearest physician (Children's Bureau 1919b: 27)

As a result of these studies, the chief of the Children's Bureau, Julia Lathrop, proposed a plan for the "public protection of maternity and infancy" with federal funds (Fifth Annual Report of the Chief, Children's Bureau 1917: 49). The plan called for greater instruction of mothers on the care of infants and greater availability of physicians and hospital care. Instruction could be provided through public health nurses, universities, and extension teaching (Fifth Annual Report of the Chief, Children's Bureau 1917: 47-48). Lathrop suggested that the Smith-Lever Act of 1914 provided a precedent by which the federal government could fund the program using matching grants to states (Fifth Annual Report of the Chief, Children's Bureau 1917: 49).

In July 1918, Representative Jeannette Pickering Rankin (R-Montana) sponsored a bill that contained the basics of Lathrop's proposal. The bill

proposed a yearly appropriation of \$10,000 per state, with \$1 million in additional funds to be divided among states based on their share of the U.S. rural population, and contingent on the state legislature approving matching funds. The purpose of the bill was educational in nature; funds were to be used to encourage instruction in hygiene and maternity, and not to provide medical care. Rankin's bill failed to gain traction. Despite the fact that no one appeared before the House Committee on Labor to oppose the bill, it did not reach the floor of Congress (Lindenmeyer 1997: 79). During the next session, Representative Horace Mann Towner (R-Iowa) and Senator Morris Sheppard (D-Texas) introduced proposals similar to Rankin's bill. The Senate passed the bill in December 1920, following three days of debate that centered on questions of funding for the program, and whether it should be administered by the Children's Bureau or the medically-run Public Health Service (PHS). In the House, hearings were held at the end of December, but the bill failed to come to a vote before the end of the Congressional session. Supporters of the bill were buoyed by President Harding's endorsement in April 1921 and re-introduced the measures.

While no group voiced opposition to the Rankin bill in 1918, new resistance to the proposed Sheppard and Towner bills came from two primary sources: the American Medical Association and the Woman Patriots (Lindenmeyer 1997: 83). While the AMA was slow to organize against compulsory health insurance in the late 1910s, the organization took a definitive stance against such a program in 1920 (Burrow 1963: 150). The AMA strongly opposed government control over medical service, and viewed the provision of care for individuals as best achieved "...through voluntary self-taxation of voters in a political unit to pay for the necessary local facilities for the prevention of

disease and the promotion of health” (JAMA, February 5, 1921).⁵ Physicians feared that government intervention would eventually lead to non-medical provision of medical services.

Anti-suffragists joined physicians in opposing the proposed Sheppard-Towner legislation. The Woman Patriots, formerly known as the National Association Opposed to Woman Suffrage, denounced the Act as a communist and feminist plot. Samuel Winslow, an anti-suffragist and chair of the House Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce refused to even hold hearings on the bill for several months. Alice Robertson, an anti-suffragist and the only woman in Congress, voted against the bill (Lemons 1990: 157).

Despite the opposition, the bill easily passed in both the House, (279 to 39) and the Senate (63 to 7). Historians argue that Sheppard-Towner passed because members of Congress feared the new, unknown voting power of women. The effectiveness of the women’s lobby and the fear of the House and Senate was noted by Senator Kenyon (R-Iowa), who stated, “If the members could have voted on that measure secretly in their cloak rooms it would have been killed as emphatically as it was finally passed in the open under the pressure of the Joint Congressional Committee of Women” (*Ladies Home Journal* XXXIX (April 1922: 95)).⁶

⁵ While the AMA as a whole was opposed, certain groups of physicians within the AMA supported Sheppard-Towner. Pediatricians supported Sheppard-Towner; in fact, the American Academy of Pediatrics was founded as an independent group in 1922 because pediatricians disagreed with the AMA’s stance. Other medical groups also supported the bill’s passage, including the Medical Women’s National Association (Lindenmeyer 1997: 87).

⁶ The idea that Congress had at least some fear of the women’s vote is supported by Lott and Kenny (1999) and Miller (2008). Lott and Kenny (1999) find that suffrage coincided with immediate increases in state government expenditures for functions women generally supported, such as education, sanitation and hospitals. Suffrage also generated more liberal voting patterns among federal representatives. Miller (2008) similarly finds that suffrage laws generated large increases in public health spending. Moehling and Thomasson (2012) also find that time since suffrage had a large impact on the level of state participation in the Sheppard-Towner program.

The political debate at the national level did not end after Sheppard-Towner's enactment. Some states (MA, CT, and IL) never participated in the program. The level of engagement among states that did participate varied widely. When the program came up for renewal in 1926, it met with increased opposition. Ultimately, a compromise was reached in which the program was extended for an additional two years, but then automatically repealed in 1929.

Under the auspices of Sheppard-Towner, states had the autonomy to engage in a variety of different activities designed to reduce infant and maternal mortality and improve the health of children and mothers. During the seven year period in which the Act was in force, physicians conducted 144,777 conferences where they examined children and pregnant women, and nurses and dentists held nearly 40,000 more conferences where they provided general instruction on maternal and child care. At these itinerant conferences, health professionals provided instruction on infant and child care using lectures, motion pictures, and exhibits. They also examined infants and preschoolers and referred those with problems to physicians (Children's Bureau 1925, 1926b, 1927).

In addition, states and counties set up 2,978 permanent child and/or prenatal health centers where mothers could bring children to be examined and receive follow-up care.⁷ Public health nurses also visited over 3 million women and their children in the last six years of the act. During these visits, field nurses would advise women on child care and examine children. Nurses could provide demonstrations in the household "... with the equipment the home affords," and make additional recommendations upon seeing the living conditions of the family (Children's Bureau 1926a: 7). The Children's Bureau noted that the informal

⁷ These permanent health centers were not necessarily newly constructed, stand-alone clinics. They often were just regularly scheduled sessions where physicians and nurses would see patients in a given location. For example, some states used rooms in municipal buildings or schools (Children's Bureau 1926b: 10).

setting of the visits also may have enabled mothers to feel freer to ask questions, and may have been particularly useful in isolated communities with a lack of access to medical care and where it was difficult to arrange conferences (Children's Bureau 1926:7).

Sheppard-Towner funds were also used to provide literature on prenatal and child care to expectant women and mothers. The Children's Bureau studies in the 1910s had found that many mothers, especially those in rural areas, looked to printed material for guidance on child care (Apple 2006:77-78). Over 22 million pieces of literature (such as instructional pamphlets and prenatal letters) were distributed nationwide when the Act was in force. Overall, in the last four years of the Act alone, the Children's Bureau estimated that more than 4 million infants and children and about 700,000 pregnant women were reached by some form of the public health work conducted under Sheppard-Towner (Children's Bureau 1931).

Data and Methods

The overall U.S. infant mortality rate in 1922 was 76.2 deaths per 1,000 live births. By the time Sheppard-Towner was repealed in 1929, the infant mortality rate had fallen to 67.6 (Linder and Grove 1947: 574-75). How much, if any, of this decline can be attributed to the activities that states engaged in under the Sheppard-Towner program? Although Sheppard-Towner was passed in 1921, it took many states a couple of years to gear up to accept federal grants and establish programs. Not until its report on the Sheppard-Towner Act for the 1924 fiscal year was the Children's Bureau able to give a systematic accounting of the activities of the states. The Children's Bureau published these data in tabular form and provided state-by-state reports on an annual basis starting in 1925 (U.S. Children's Bureau 1925, 1926b, 1927, 1928, and 1931b). As a result, we use state-level Vital Statistics data for the period 1924-1929 on the infant mortality

rate (defined as the number of deaths of children under 1 year of age per 1,000 live births) to test whether a state's participation in Sheppard-Towner had the life-saving effects the Children's Bureau claimed.⁸ Our basic model is:

$$(1) \quad \text{IMR}_{it} = \alpha + \beta \cdot \text{ST}_{it} + \delta_i + \delta_t + \delta_i \cdot t + \varepsilon_{it}$$

where IMR_{it} represents the infant mortality rate in state i in year t , ST_{it} represents the measure of Sheppard-Towner activity for state i in year t , δ_i and δ_t are the state and year fixed effects, and $\delta_i \cdot t$ represents the state specific linear time-trend. This model accounts for differences across states in both levels and trends in mortality rates, and identifies the effects of Sheppard-Towner as deviations from those trends. In the fully saturated specification, β is identified by the within-state deviations from trend in Sheppard-Towner activities.

One concern may be that the measure of Sheppard-Towner activity is endogenous; a state's decision to participate in Sheppard-Towner or to engage in a particular activity may have been influenced by its infant mortality rate. In other words, the error term for the model of a state's participation in Sheppard-Towner may be correlated with the error term in equation (1). It is important to note, however, that this will only be a problem for the estimation of β in equation (1) if the correlation is due to do something other than state and year fixed effects and the state specific linear time-trend. To examine the effect of Sheppard-Towner on infant mortality, we use several different measures of states' participation in the program. The most direct measure would be to use a simple binary measure equal to one if a state participated in the program. However, this variable has little variation since only three states (CT, IL and MA) failed to participate in the program, and it masks significant state-level variation in the extent of participation (Moehling and Thomasson 2012). Thus, we instead look at

⁸ We have also estimated the model over the period 1922-1929 and 1915-1929 (excluding the years of the influenza pandemic) and get similar results.

the grant amount accepted per capita. While this is better than the simple binary measure in that it captures more of the variation both across states and over time, it may mask the fact that some states simply shifted expenditures from existing public health categories into Sheppard-Towner to qualify for the federal match.⁹

As a result, we also estimate models in which we use data from the U.S. Census Bureau's *Financial Statistics of the States* on outlays for the “conservation of child life” and the broader category of “health and sanitation” as measures of public health spending. Programs that would fall in the category of the “conservation of child life” would include most of the Sheppard-Towner funded activities, but would also include programs aimed at school-age children. The “health and sanitation” category includes the full range of public health programs and sanitation projects in which a state engaged.

Key to our analysis, though, is the examination of how the different types of activities in which states engaged under the Sheppard-Towner program affected infant mortality. As noted above, states engaged in a wide range of activities with Sheppard-Towner funds. States utilized Sheppard-Towner money to build health clinics, conduct prenatal and child health conferences (where physicians or nurses would examine children and provide information about hygiene and nutrition), and to send public health nurses into homes to examine children and educate mothers. In addition, states used Sheppard-Towner funds to provide training for midwives and to disseminate free literature on prenatal and infant care. These different types of activities involved very different types of

⁹ The state of New Jersey was quite open about the fact that it used the federal grants to replace state appropriations. For instance, in 1922, the New Jersey legislature appropriated almost \$100,000 less for the Department of Health than it had in 1921. This move was explained in the Department's annual report in quite plain terms: the appropriations for the Bureau of Child Hygiene and the Bureau of Venereal Disease Control were being reduced because both would be receiving federal monies for their work (New Jersey Department of Health 1922, 19).

interactions with mothers and their children, and we might expect that some would have a greater impact than others on mortality rates.

We estimate equation (1) for all infants, and also separately for whites and non-whites. Vital Statistics data only provide infant mortality rates for states in the BRA. At the start of our study period in 1924, 33 states were in the BRA; by 1929, that number had jumped to 46.¹⁰ In order to make the most of the available data, we estimate equation (1) using the unbalanced panel of all states in the BRA for at least one year of the study period.¹¹

The non-white infant mortality rate at the beginning of the period was nearly twice that of white infants, as shown in Figure 2. Despite the fact that more states with high non-white infant mortality rates were entering the BRA during this period, the racial gap in infant mortality rates did not widen appreciably. *A priori*, we do not know whether Sheppard-Towner spending would affect blacks and whites differently. Sheppard-Towner initiatives were targeted at smaller cities and rural areas. Some interventions, such as classes to train midwives, may have benefited blacks more than whites, since the vast majority of Southern blacks used midwives (Ladd-Taylor 1988: 263). On the other hand, the structure of Sheppard-Towner may have limited the effectiveness of the interventions for blacks. For example, while more strict regulation of midwives and midwife classes may have improved the quality of some midwives, the regulations may have served to drive many underground and out of business,

¹⁰To be included in the BRA, a state had to have a systematic procedure in place for recording all births. When the BRA was established in 1915, it consisted of only 10 states. Following is a list of the states that entered the BRA during the study period with their years of entry: West Virginia (1925); Arizona (1926); Alabama, Arkansas, Louisiana, Missouri, Tennessee (1927); Colorado, Georgia, Oklahoma (1928); Nevada, New Mexico (1929). South Carolina was part of the BRA in 1924, was dropped in 1925, and then readmitted in 1928. The two states not part of the BRA by 1929 were South Dakota and Texas (Linder and Grove 1947: 97).

¹¹ We have also estimated all models using the balanced panel consisting of states in the BRA for all five years and the basic findings do not change. All estimated models presented in the paper include the three states that did not participate in Sheppard-Towner: Connecticut, Illinois, and Massachusetts. Excluding these states does not alter the basic findings.

thus limiting the ability of blacks to find birth attendants (Ladd Taylor 1988: 269-70).

Of further concern is that the decentralization of Sheppard-Towner administration may have reinforced the ability of racist public health workers to discriminate against blacks at the local level. By helping whites and not blacks, these practices may have increased the racial gap in infant mortality.¹² Perhaps surprisingly, though, state reports to the Children's Bureau documented efforts to target blacks as well as other minority groups rather than to exclude them. In 1924, for instance, Alabama paid for a black nurse to join the Tuskegee Movable School. The nurse joined a carpenter, instructor and agriculturist who traveled around the state teaching black rural families how to improve their homes and their health (U.S. Children's Bureau 1924: 21). In the same year, Florida reported making more prenatal visits to black women (4,033) than to white women (2,406) (ibid: 24).

Results

Summary statistics are provided in Table 1. The mean of the white infant mortality rate in the BRA over the period is about 70 deaths per 1,000 live births, while the non-white infant mortality rate is 128. The means hide considerable variation, so we report the minima and maxima of the variables as well. For example, for those states that did spend money sending public health nurses into homes, the mean value of nurse visits per 1,000 population is 12.60, with a minimum of 0.02 and a maximum of 138. Table 1 shows that the largest impact (in per capita terms) was for "prenatal letters" – literature that provided information on prenatal and well-child care. We include information on the

¹² Later in the twentieth century, the widening of the racial gap in infant mortality can be attributed to the fact that whites had better access to improved medical care than blacks (see Almond, Chay and Greenstone 2007).

average Sheppard-Towner grant (per capita) accepted by states, as well as the means of per capita state spending on “conservation of child life” and the broader category of expenditures on health and sanitation, which would also capture state spending on non-Sheppard-Towner health related items as well as sanitation projects.

Table 2 reports the results of the estimation of equation (1) for overall infant mortality rates from 1924-1929. The first two columns present the estimated coefficients and elasticities from regressions that include only one public health measure; the third and fourth columns represent the results from a single regression that includes all the activity measures and the two expenditure measures as explanatory variables. The elasticities are calculated at the means of the public health measures, conditioned on being positive values. All models include state fixed effects, year fixed effects, and state-specific time trends.

The first three rows of the table describe the effect of the financial variables on infant mortality. The Sheppard-Towner accepted grant amount per capita has no statistically significant impact on infant mortality rates during the period, and in fact the estimated coefficient on this variable is positive. However, as discussed above, the amount a state accepted from the federal government may be a poor measure of its efforts to improve infant and child health. Although states had to match federal funds above the initial \$5000 grant, some states may have had expenditures that exceeded the match amount.

State spending on “child life” per 1,000 population as well as overall state spending on health and sanitation (also per 1,000) both reduce infant mortality. The elasticity of health and sanitation expenditures is about twice the size of that of child life expenditures. A one standard deviation increase in child life spending (\$27) reduces infant mortality by 2.8 deaths per 1,000 live births, while a one standard deviation increase in health and sanitation expenditures (about \$188) reduces infant mortality by 6.27 deaths. These results seem at odds with

those of Fox (2011) who finds that public health expenditures by cities have no effect on mortality rates once allowing for city time trends. This contrast may reflect the fact that many of the state-level public health initiatives during this time period -- and particularly Sheppard-Towner programs-- were targeted at rural areas.

Of primary interest are the effects of the different types of Sheppard-Towner interventions on infant mortality. We report results (all per 1,000 population) for nurse visits to homes, the number of child health conferences conducted, the number of midwives enrolled in classes, the number of public health centers constructed, and the number of prenatal letters distributed. These are the most common activities states engaged in using Sheppard-Towner funds, and are consistently reported for the years 1924 to 1929. All of the estimated coefficients with the exception of midwife classes and child health conferences are statistically significant and generate meaningful reductions in the overall rate of infant mortality. Looking at the magnitudes of the estimated coefficients, Table 2 shows that a one standard deviation increase in the number of home nurse visits reduced infant mortality by about 1.8 deaths per 1,000 live births (a decrease of about 2.6 percent when calculated at the mean of the dependent variable). A one standard deviation increase in the number of health centers (per 1,000) lowers infant mortality by 2.25 deaths, and a one standard deviation increase in the number of prenatal letters distributed (an increase of 30 letters per 1,000 population) reduces infant mortality by about 0.2 deaths per 1,000 live births. These results hold even when all the measures are included in the same regression model (columns 3 and 4).

These findings suggest that it was the more direct and personal interventions that were effective in reducing infant mortality during the period. Providing child health and prenatal clinics increased access to medical care and instruction. Likewise, sending nurses to visit the homes of new mothers likely

had a greater impact on the care of infants in an area than could be achieved by holding a child health conference and inviting new mothers to attend.¹³ By all accounts, the prenatal and child health conferences were well attended. Building on the experiences during the “Children’s Year,” many states made them the centerpiece of their maternal and infant health programs. However, even at the time, some in the public health community questioned their effectiveness. The staff at the conferences had limited contact with mothers and their children and could not always assess the health challenges they faced. There was also no way to ensure that conference attendees received the follow-up care recommended. In the 1930s, the Wisconsin Bureau of Maternal and Child Health (MCH) decided to only conduct conferences in counties where there were county nurses who could follow up with families. Rural physicians, the MCH found, were often not interested in providing preventive care and some poor families could not even afford emergency care (Apple 2011: 175).

Perhaps the most surprising result is the effect of prenatal letters, but these too were more personal interventions than activities like health conferences. These letters provided basic information about prenatal care and cost little to distribute. Similarly, they enabled pregnant mothers to gain access to this information at very low cost, which may help to explain their effectiveness.¹⁴

Table 3 reports the results of estimation of equation (1) separately by race. Panel A reports results for whites while Panel B reports results for blacks. The story that emerges is that public health interventions had different effects on non-white and white infant mortality. Spending on both child life and health/sanitation reduced infant mortality for whites, but did not have statistically

¹³ We can also not discount the possibility of selection bias; it could be that mothers who were more aware of the value of hygiene were more likely to attend child health conferences than other mothers.

¹⁴ In results not presented, we find that the impact of prenatal letters is most pronounced in states with larger rural populations, suggesting that it was women with limited to access to medical care that benefited most from this intervention.

significant effects on the non-white infant mortality rate. For whites, a one standard deviation increase in child life spending reduces infant mortality by 1.5 deaths per 1,000 births, while a one standard deviation increase in spending on health and sanitation reduces infant mortality by 3.8 deaths. Strikingly, the Sheppard-Towner grant accepted per capita has a *positive* and statistically significant effect on non-white infant mortality. This could reflect an endogeneity problem. However given the inclusion of state fixed effects and state time trends, such a problem could only arise if the year-to-year fluctuations in non-white infant mortality affected the amount a state accepted in federal grants. A more likely explanation that finds support in the lack of significance of the other spending measures is that the bulk of expenditures on public health during the period were aimed at whites rather than non-whites.

The data in Table 3 do indicate, however, that non-whites benefited from certain types of Sheppard-Towner activities. Again, classes for midwives and child health conferences appear to have no impact on either whites or non-whites. The variable measuring public health nurse visits per 1,000 population is statistically significant for whites, but is only marginally statistically significant for non-whites (p-value of 0.106). Nevertheless, the estimated coefficient is much larger in magnitude for non-whites. A one standard deviation in nurse visits per 1,000 population reduces black infant mortality by 8.7 deaths per 1,000 births (a decrease of about 6.8 percent when calculated at the mean of black infant mortality). For whites, the same increase generates a decrease in infant mortality by 1.2 deaths, or 1.7 percent. We find similar results when looking at the impact of a one standard deviation increase in the number of health centers constructed per 1,000 population. For whites, this increase reduces infant mortality by 1.9 deaths, but the same increase reduces non-white infant mortality by 8.4 deaths per 1,000 live births. The distribution of prenatal letters reduces white infant

mortality by 0.2 deaths per 1,000 live births, but has no statistically significant effect on non-white infant mortality rates.

Non-white infant mortality appears to have been more responsive to nurse home visits and the construction of public health clinics than white infant mortality. To the extent that even rural whites may have been better educated about hygiene than blacks, this makes sense. In addition, since blacks had lower literacy rates than whites, the fact that distributing pamphlets about prenatal care did not lower black infant mortality is not surprising. According to the 1920 census, the illiteracy rate for black females ages 10 and older was 22 percent compared to only 4 percent for white females (U.S. Census Bureau 1922, 1151). Overall, the results do not provide support for the idea that Sheppard-Towner resources were used to discriminate against blacks, although the results do suggest that increases in broader categories of state spending (child life and health/sanitation) did not reduce non-white infant mortality rates. We can only speculate as to the mechanism underlying these differences, but one possible explanation is that blacks were much less likely than whites to have access to quality health care initially and thus reaped greater benefits when they finally met with physicians and nurses (Smith 1999; Almond et al 2001; Thomasson and Treber 2008).

Discussion

When the Sheppard-Towner act was repealed in 1929, the U.S. Children's Bureau strongly asserted that Sheppard-Towner was responsible for the decline in infant mortality during the 1920s. Between the inception of Sheppard-Towner in 1922 and its repeal in 1929, the overall infant mortality rate fell from 76.2 to 67.6 deaths per 1,000 live births. To get a sense of the magnitude of the total effect of Sheppard-Towner activities, we use the results of multi-measure regressions from Tables 2 and 3 to calculate counterfactual infant mortality rates setting all Sheppard-Towner activity measures to zero. We calculate lower and upper bound

estimates. Our lower bound estimates set the outlays on conservation of child life programs and health and sanitation to their sample means. We view these as lower bound estimates because they assume that Sheppard-Towner grants did not affect a state's expenditures on child health or other public health programs. In contrast, Moehling and Thomasson (2012) find that per capita expenditures on child life increased approximately one for one with the per capita level of the Sheppard-Towner grant a state received (pp. 95-96). Therefore, our upper-bound estimates of the impact of the Sheppard-Towner program on infant mortality reduce outlays on child life programs and health and sanitation by the sample mean of the Sheppard-Towner grant accepted.

Our estimates indicate that the overall mortality rate would have been between 0.7 and 1.9 deaths per 1000 births higher in the absence of any Sheppard-Towner activities, suggesting that Sheppard-Towner explains between 9 and 21 percent of the decline. This aggregate effect, however, is driven primarily by the experiences of non-whites. The white infant mortality rate would have been 0.15 to 1.0 deaths higher whereas the non-white rate would have been 9.9 to 13 deaths higher. While the non-white model is estimated with less precision so the error bounds around this prediction are much wider than those for whites, the large difference by race is striking. Blacks do not seem to have been excluded from these programs and in fact, benefited more than did whites.

Our findings suggest that the Children's Bureau was a bit too optimistic about the contribution of its programs to the decline in infant mortality. Much of the decline in infant mortality in this period seems to be best explained by a continuation of the trend that began at the turn of the century and was driven by improvements in nutrition, water supplies, and sanitation. Nonetheless, our results do show that a number of the activities in which states engaged using Sheppard-Towner funds reduced infant deaths. They also point to which activities generated the most impact, knowledge that policymakers could use to guide

modern interventions targeted at reducing infant mortality. Specifically, interventions that were less personal and did not provide a means to follow up with women and children had little impact for both blacks and whites. Itinerant health conferences, where physicians and nurses gave lectures and examined children on a one-time basis and without means for follow-up care also did not reduce infant deaths. On the other hand, health centers that provided women and children with an on-going source of care, and home visits from public health nurses did reduce infant mortality, particularly among blacks. Providing educational literature that women could keep in their homes also reduced infant mortality, but not among black women who were less literate.

Further, our counterfactual calculations do not take into account any cumulative effect of the educational programs provided by Sheppard-Towner. The knowledge a woman gained from a home nurse visit after the birth of her first child likely improved the health of her subsequent children as well. Moreover, to the extent that mothers armed with new information passed this information onto their children, subsequent generations also benefited from Sheppard-Towner.

Unfortunately, we do not have good data on how much these specific interventions cost, so we cannot systematically calculate a cost-benefit ratio. We can, however, make some speculative calculations based on the pieces of data that are available. For instance, Ohio paid its 5 public health nurses \$9,000 each in 1927. Assuming that the state spent \$45,000 annually on public health nursing, the 19,146 visits by public health nurses that year would have cost \$2.35 per visit on average (Ohio Director of Finance 1927: 88). Our findings suggest that increasing nurse visits by one standard deviation (or 23 per 1,000 population) reduced infant mortality overall by 1.8 deaths per 1000 births. Given the population and fertility rate of Ohio in 1927, this would mean that an additional infant could be saved for about \$1600 (about \$20,400 in 2010 dollars). However, home nurse visits were likely the most expensive type of intervention. Looking

beyond specific interventions, we can also calculate a rough “cost per life saved” using national data. As noted above, our estimates suggest that the various activities carried out under Sheppard-Towner reduced infant mortality by between 0.7 and 1.9 deaths per 1000 births, thus averting between 1,518 and 4,119 deaths in 1929 alone. Federal appropriations for Sheppard-Towner in 1929 were \$776,576.54, suggesting that one infant death could be prevented for between \$118 and \$512 in federal expenditures (about \$2401 and \$6518 in 2010 dollars).

Rutgers University

Miami University

References

Aiyer, S., D.T. Jamison, J.L. Londoño. (1995). “Health Policy in Latin America: Progress, Problems, and Policy Options.” *Cuadernos de Economía*, 32: 11-28.

Almond, Douglas, Kenneth Y. Chay, and Michael Greenstone. (2007). “Civil Rights, the War on Poverty, and Black-White Convergence in Infant Mortality in the Rural South and Mississippi”. MIT Department of Economics Working Paper 07-04.

Anyanwu, John C. and Andrew E. O. Erhijakpor. (2009). “Health Expenditures and Health Outcomes in Africa,” *African Development Review* 21: 400-33.

Apple, Rima D. (2011). "To Avoid Expense and Suffering: Public Health Nurses and the Struggle for Health Services." in Patricia D'Antonio and Sandra B. Lewenson, eds. *Nursing Interventions through Time: History as Evidence*. New York: Springer Publishing Co, pp. 173-188.

- Apple, Rima D. (2006). *Perfect Motherhood: Science and Childrearing in America*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- Anand, S. and M. Ravallion. (1993). "Human Development in Poor Countries: On the Role of Private Incomes and Public Services." *Journal of Economic Perspectives* 7: 133-50.
- Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation (2009). "Maternal, Neonatal, and Child Health: Strategy Overview," www.gatesfoundation.org/mnch.
- Cutler, David and Grant Miller. (2005). "The Role of Public Health Improvements in Health Advances: The Twentieth Century United States." *Demography* 42 (1), 1-22.
- Ferrie, Joseph P. and Werner Troesken. (2008). "Water and Chicago's Mortality Transition, 1820-1925." *Explorations in Economic History* 45 (1), 1-16.
- Filmer, D., J.Hammer, L. Pritchett. (1998). "Health Policy in Poor Countries: Weak Links in the Chain." Policy Research Working Paper no. 1874, World Bank, Washington, D.C.
- Filmer, D., and L. Pritchett. (1997). "Child Mortality and Public Spending on Health: How Much Does Money Matter?" Policy Research Working Paper no. 1864, World Bank, Washington, D.C.
- Fogel, Robert W. (1994). "Economic Growth, Population Theory, and Physiology: The Bearing of Long-Term Processes on the Making of Economic Policy." *American Economic Review* 84 (3), 369-95.
- Fox, Jonathan. (2011). "Public Health Movements, Local Poor Relief and Child Mortality in American Cities: 1923-1932." MPIDR Working Paper WP 2011-005.

- Gupta, Sanjeev, Marijn Verhoeven, Erwin R. Tiongson. (2002). "The Effectiveness of Government Spending on Education and Health Care in Developing and Transition Economies." *European Journal of Political Economy* 118: 717-37.
- Haines, Michael. (2001). "The Urban Mortality Transition in the United States, 1800-1940." NBER Working Paper on Historical Factors in Long Run Growth #134.
- Hojman, D.E. (1996). "Economic and Other Determinants of Infant and child Mortality in Small Developing countries: The Case of Central America and the Caribbean." *Applied Economics* 28: 281-90.
- Journal of the American Medical Association*. (1932). "Federalization of Health and Hygiene Through Sheppard-Townerism." [editorial]. *Journal of the American Medical Association* 98 (5), January 30, 404-405.
- Kim, K. and P.M. Moody. (1992). "More Resources Better Health? A Cross-National Perspective." *Social Science and Medicine* 34: 837-42.
- Ladd-Taylor, Molly. (1988). "'Grannies' and 'Spinsters': Midwife Education under the Sheppard-Towner Act." *Journal of Social History* 22 (2), 255-275.
- Ladd-Taylor, Molly. (1994). *Mother-Work: Women, Child Welfare, and the State, 1890-1930*. Urbana and Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
- Lemons, J. Stanley. (1969). "The Sheppard-Towner Act: Progressivism in the 1920s." *Journal of American History* 55 (4), 776-786.
- Lemons, J. Stanley. (1990). *The Woman Citizen: Social Feminism in the 1920s*. Charlottesville and London: The University Press of Virginia.

- Lindenmeyer, Kriste. (1997). *A Right to Childhood: The U.S. Children's Bureau and Child Welfare, 1912-1946*. Urbana and Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
- Linder, Forrest E. and Robert D. Grove. (1947). *Vital Statistics Rates in the United States 1900-1940*. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947.
- Lott Jr., John R. and Lawrence W. Kenny. (1999). "Did Women's Suffrage Change the Size and Scope of Government?" *Journal of Political Economy* 107 (6), 1163-1198.
- McGuire, A., D. Parking, D. Hughes, and K. Gerard. (1993). "Econometric Analyses of National Health Expenditures: Can Positive Economics Help Answer Normative Questions?" *Health Economics* 2: 113-126.
- McKeown, Thomas. (1976). *The Modern Rise of Population*. New York: Academic Press, 1976.
- Meckel, Richard A. (1990). *Save the Babies: American Public Health Reform and the Prevention of Infant Mortality, 1850-1929*. Baltimore and London: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Miller, Grant. (2008). "Women's Suffrage, Political Responsiveness, and Child Survival in American History." *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 123 (3), 1287-1327.
- Moehling, Carolyn M. and Melissa A. Thomasson. (2012) "The Political Economy of Saving Mothers and Babies: The Politics of State Participation in the Sheppard-Towner Program." *Journal of Economic History* 72 (1), 75-103.

- Musgrove, P. (1996). "Public and Private Roles in Health: Theory and Financing Patterns." World Bank Discussion Paper No. 339, Washington, D.C.
- New Jersey Department of Health. (Various years). *Annual Report*. Trenton: State of New Jersey.
- Ohio Director of Finance (1927). *Executive Budget of Ohio, 1927-1928*. Columbus: The F.J. Heer Printing Co.
- Skocpol, Theda. (1994), *Protecting Soldiers and Mothers: The Political Origins of Social Policy in the United States*. Cambridge: Belknap Press.
- Thomasson, Melissa A. and Jaret Treber. (2008). "From Home to Hospital: The Evolution of Childbirth in the United States, 1928-1940." *Explorations in Economic History*, 45(1), 76-99.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (1922). *Fourteenth Census of the United States Taken in the Year 1920. Volume II. Population*. Washington, G.P.O.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (1925-1930). *Financial Statistics of the States*. Washington, G.P.O.
- U.S. Children's Bureau. (1919a). *Maternity and Infant Care in Two Rural Counties in Wisconsin*. Bureau Publication 46. Washington, G.P.O.
- U.S. Children's Bureau. (1919b). *Maternity Care and the Welfare of Young Children in a Homesteading County in Montana*. Bureau Publication 34. Washington, G.P.O.
- U.S. Children's Bureau. (1924). *The Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy*. Bureau Publication 137. Washington, G.P.O.

- U.S. Children's Bureau. (1925). *The Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy*. Bureau Publication 146. Washington, G.P.O.
- U.S. Children's Bureau. (1926a). *The Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy*. Bureau Publication 156. Washington, G.P.O.
- U.S. Children's Bureau. (1926b). *The Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy*. Bureau Publication 178. Washington, G.P.O.
- U.S. Children's Bureau. (1927). *The Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy*. Bureau Publication 186. Washington, G.P.O.
- U.S. Children's Bureau. (1928). *The Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy*. Bureau Publication 194. Washington, G.P.O.
- U.S. Children's Bureau. (1931a). *The Seven Years of the Maternity and Infancy Act*. Washington, G.P.O.
- U.S. Children's Bureau. (1931b). *The Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy*. Bureau Publication 203. Washington, G.P.O.
- White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. (1932). *Section II: Public Health Service and Administration* New York: The Century Co.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of State-level Variables Used in Regression Models, 1924-1929

Variable	Obs.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
<u>Infant mortality rate (per 1000 births)</u>					
Overall	231	69.99	14.00	46.60	145.50
White	231	65.65	12.38	45.20	142.00
Non-white ^a	219	128.25	45.96	47.60	318.20
<u>Sheppard-Towner activities (per 1000 in pop.)</u>					
Home nurse visits	231	6.65	17.62	0.0000	138.85
Conditional on > 0	122	12.60	22.68	0.0190	138.85
Midwives enrolled in classes	231	0.15	0.59	0.0000	6.90
Conditional on > 0	57	0.60	1.08	0.0044	6.90
Health centers established	231	0.0050	0.0136	0.0000	0.1045
Conditional on > 0	127	0.0090	0.0174	0.0002	0.1045
Child health & prenatal conferences	231	0.37	0.81	0.0000	6.22
Conditional on > 0	200	0.42	0.85	0.0012	6.22
Prenatal letters distributed	231	1.94	21.74	0.0000	330.26
Conditional on > 0	123	3.65	29.74	0.0001	330.26
<u>Expenditure data (\$ per 1000 in population)</u>					
Sheppard-Towner grant accepted	231	12.14	11.49	0.00	92.95
Conditional on > 0	206	13.62	11.31	0.76	92.95
Outlays on the conservation of child life	231	30.44	27.11	2.17	180.14
Outlays on health and sanitation	231	304.70	188.52	81.83	1092.49

^aData for non-whites excludes observations from New Hampshire and Vermont. The non-white populations in those states during the sample period were very small and for some years the non-white infant mortality rates are reported as zero.

Notes: Annual population estimates used to calculate per capita figures were constructed by linearly interpolating between the census years of 1920 and 1930.

Sources: Infant mortality rates are from Linder, Forrest E. and Robert D. Grove. (1947). *Vital Statistics Rates in the United States 1900-1940*. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1947. Sheppard-Towner activities and accepted grant amounts: U.S. Children's Bureau (1924-1928 and 1931); outlay data: U.S. Bureau of the Census (1925-1930).

Table 2: State-level Regression Models for Overall Infant Mortality Rates, 1924-1929

	Separate regressions by public health measure		Combined regression	
	Coefficients (1)	Elasticities (2)	Coefficients (3)	Elasticities (4)
Sheppard-Towner grant accepted	0.2377 (0.2042)	0.0460 (0.0393)		
Outlays on the cons. of child life	-0.0922 (0.0483)	-0.0401 (0.0210)	-0.0721 (0.0295)	-0.0317 (0.0130)
Outlays on health and sanitation	-0.0206 (0.0084)	-0.0896 (0.0364)	-0.0212 (0.0121)	-0.0934 (0.0531)
Home nurse visits	-0.0793 (0.0111)	-0.0144 (0.0020)	-0.0813 (0.0192)	-0.0148 (0.0035)
Midwives enrolled in classes	0.3983 (0.7974)	0.0034 (0.0068)	0.3764 (0.9695)	0.0033 (0.0084)
Health centers established	-129.5825 (41.5531)	-0.0168 (0.0054)	-113.0441 (45.0551)	-0.0147 (0.0059)
Child health & prenatal conferences	-0.8724 (2.1105)	-0.0052 (0.0127)	0.8729 (0.8626)	0.0053 (0.0052)
Prenatal letters distributed	-0.0059 (0.0031)	-0.0003 (0.0002)	-0.0058 (0.0032)	-0.0003 (0.0002)
Number of states	46		46	
Number of state-year observations	231		231	

Notes: Standard errors in parentheses. Dependent variable for all models is the overall infant mortality rate. Independent variables are all scaled to be per 1000 persons in the population. All models include state fixed effects, state-specific linear time trends, and year fixed effects. Elasticities are calculated at the means of the independent variables conditioned on being non-zero values. Standard errors calculated to allow for clustering by state.

Table 3: State-level Regression Models for Infant Mortality Rates by Race, 1924-1929

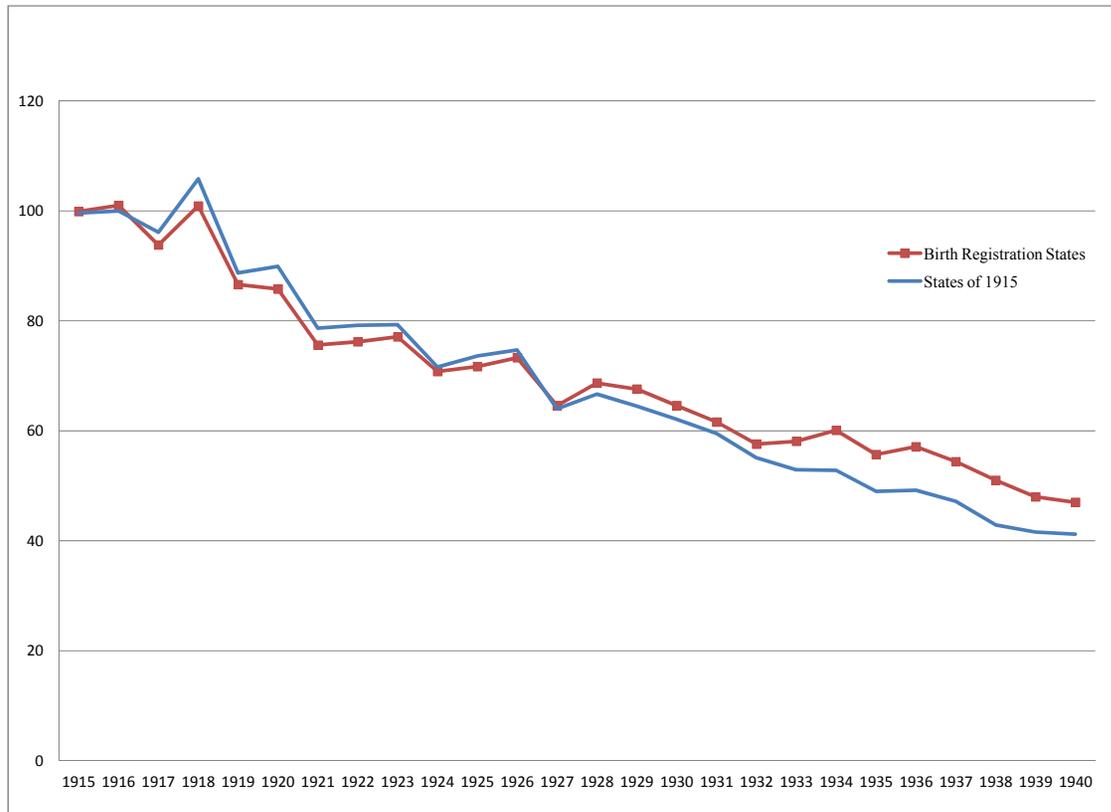
	Separate regressions by public health measure		Combined regression	
	Coefficients (1)	Elasticities (2)	Coefficients (3)	Elasticities (4)
<u>Panel A: Whites</u>				
Sheppard-Towner grant accepted	0.1487 (0.1848)	0.0307 (0.0381)		
Outlays on the cons. of child life	-0.0539 (0.0317)	-0.0250 (0.0147)	-0.0472 (0.0190)	-0.0221 (0.0089)
Outlays on health and sanitation	-0.0202 (0.0077)	-0.0936 (0.0357)	-0.0203 (0.0108)	-0.0953 (0.0507)
Home nurse visits	-0.0535 (0.0117)	-0.0103 (0.0023)	-0.0758 (0.0189)	-0.0147 (0.0037)
Midwives enrolled in classes	0.2915 (0.9917)	0.0027 (0.0090)	0.2080 (1.1177)	0.0019 (0.0103)
Health centers established	-106.3994 (54.6157)	-0.0147 (0.0076)	-91.2936 (60.1847)	-0.0126 (0.0084)
Child health & prenatal conferences	0.6372 (1.5350)	0.0041 (0.0098)	2.1352 (0.8013)	0.0138 (0.0052)
Prenatal letters distributed	-0.0072 (0.0028)	-0.0004 (0.0002)	-0.0064 (0.0031)	-0.0004 (0.0002)
Number of states	46		46	
Number of state-year observations	231		231	

Table 3: Continued

	Separate regressions by public health measure		Combined regression	
	Coefficients (1)	Elasticities (2)	Coefficients (3)	Elasticities (4)
<u>Panel B: Non-whites</u>				
Sheppard-Towner grant accepted	2.8709 (0.9547)	0.2922 (0.0932)		
Outlays on the cons. of child life	-0.5083 (0.4025)	-0.1210 (0.0962)	-0.2805 (0.4352)	-0.0710 (0.1083)
Outlays on health and sanitation	0.0225 (0.0907)	0.0533 (0.2143)	0.0263 (0.0868)	0.0667 (0.2205)
Home nurse visits	-0.3820 (0.2317)	-0.0382 (0.0236)	-0.2250 (0.2719)	-0.0236 (0.0293)
Midwives enrolled in classes	0.9505 (2.3294)	0.0044 (0.0108)	1.2003 (2.0374)	0.0060 (0.0102)
Health centers established	-481.6074 (239.2452)	-0.0343 (0.0173)	-469.7871 (270.7904)	-0.0351 (0.0209)
Child health & prenatal conferences	-13.0057 (8.8946)	-0.0428 (0.0294)	-8.3340 (6.1003)	-0.0291 (0.0219)
Prenatal letters distributed	-1.1603 (1.8155)	-0.0340 (0.0547)	-1.6300 (1.6956)	-0.0494 (0.0539)
Number of states	44		44	
Number of state-year observations	219		219	

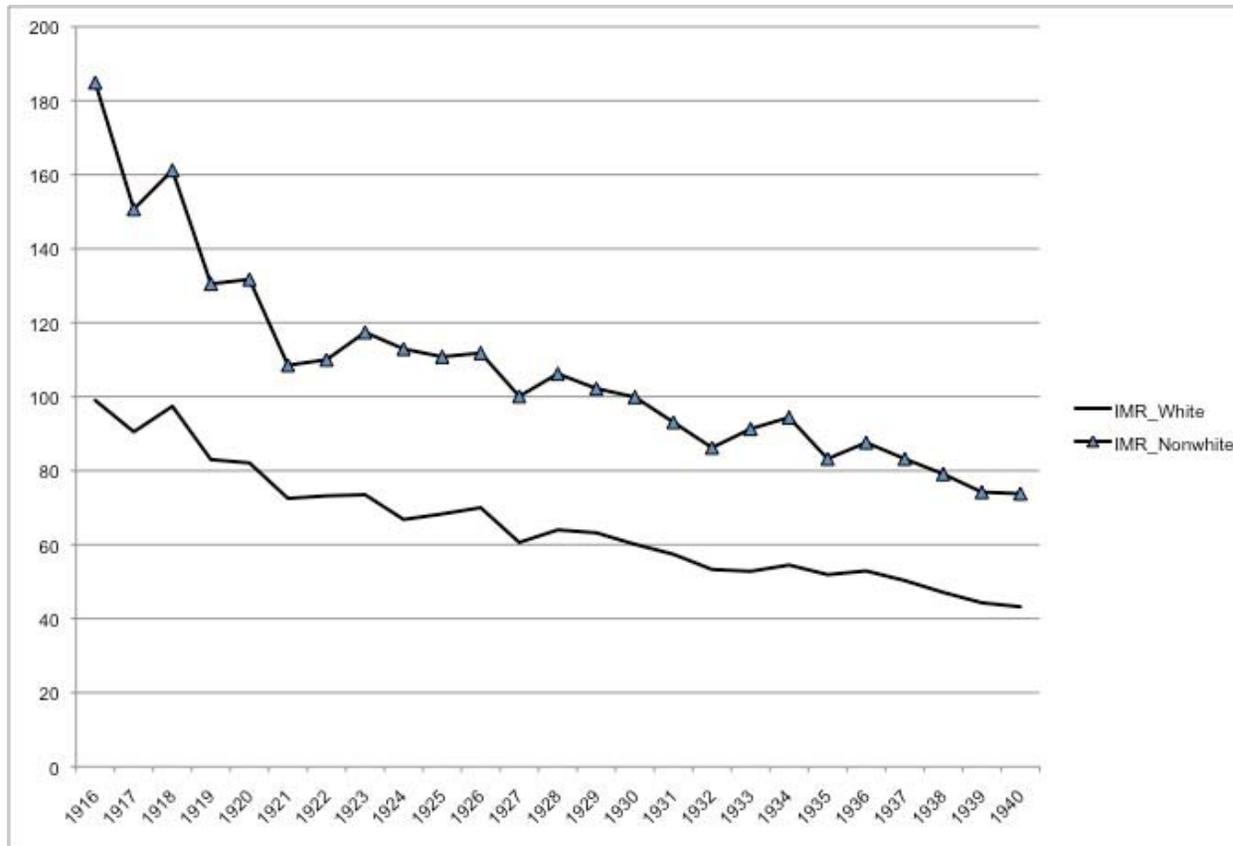
Notes: Standard errors in parentheses. Independent variables are all scaled to be per 1000 persons in the population. All models include state fixed effects, state-specific linear time trends, and year fixed effects. Elasticities are calculated at the means of the independent variables conditioned on being non-zero values. Standard errors calculated to allow for clustering by state.

Figure 1: Infant Mortality in the Birth Registration States and for the Registration States of 1915, 1915-1940



Notes: Data are from Linder and Grove (1947). The chart shows the overall infant mortality rate (deaths of children one year of age per 1,000 live births).

Figure 2: White and Nonwhite Infant Mortality: 1916-1940



Notes: Data are from Linder and Grove (1947). The chart shows the overall infant mortality rate calculated as deaths of children under 1 year of age per 1,000 live births.