SAVING BABIES? REVISITING THE EFFECT OF VERY LOW BIRTH WEIGHT CLASSIFICATION[*]

ALAN I. BARRECA
MELANIE GULDI
JASON M. LINDO
GLEN R. WADDELL

We reconsider the effect of very low birth weight classification on infant mortality. We demonstrate that the estimates are highly sensitive to the exclusion of observations in the immediate vicinity of the 1,500-g threshold, weakening the confidence in the results originally reported in Almond, Doyle, Kowalski, and Williams (2010). *JEL* Codes: I12.

Barreca, Lindo, and Waddell (2011) highlight various econometric issues related to regression discontinuity designs in which there is heaping in the running variable. Motivated by this analysis, we reconsider a recently published result with far-reaching policy implications that is not robust to the issues raised therein. In particular, Almond, Doyle, Kowalski, and Williams (2010; ADKW) use a regression discontinuity design to argue that 1-year infant mortality decreases by approximately one percentage point as birth weight crosses the 1,500-g "very-low-birth-weight (VLBW)" threshold from above. Relative to mean 1-year mortality of 5.5% just above 1,500 g, the implied treatment effect is sizable, suggesting large returns to promoting the types of medical interventions triggered by VLBW classification. Given the importance of the research question, we reconsider the point estimate derived around this VLBW threshold.

ADKW's analysis follows standard regression discontinuity practices. They show the sensitivity of the results to different bandwidth choices, to the inclusion of a large number of control variables, and test whether observable characteristics are discontinuous through the VLBW threshold. They also consider the distribution around the threshold, as excess mass on one side or the other would raise concern that individuals might manipulate their recorded weights to receive favorable treatment. Their investigation revealed extensive heaping at 1-oz and 100-g multiples, which can also be explained by technological constraints in measurement precision and natural tendencies to round to round
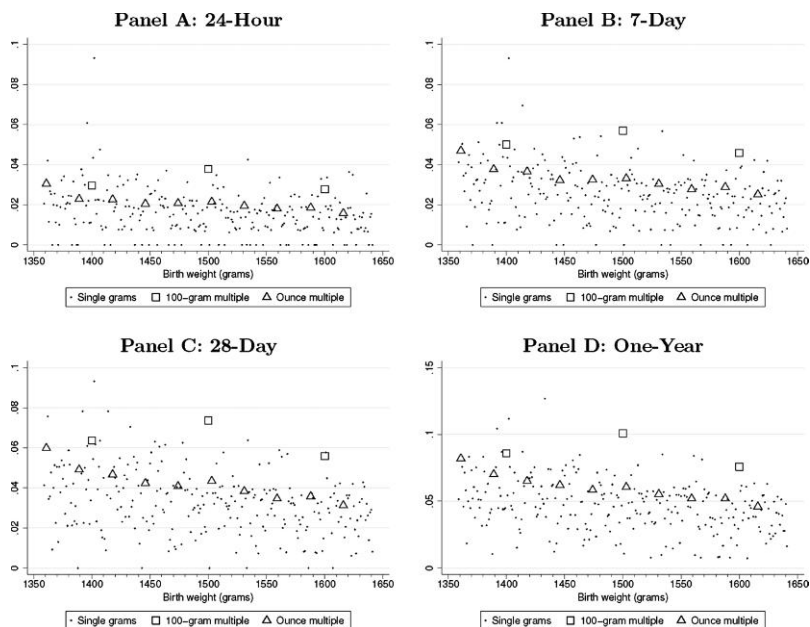
FIGURE I

Means of Mortality Rates

Estimates are based on Vital Statistics Linked Birth and Infant Death Data, United States, 1983–2002 (not including 1992–1994). The lower panels of this figure (C, D) are disaggregated versions of ADKW's Figure II.

numbers for convenience. In an effort to argue that the heaping around the 1,500-g threshold is "not irregular" and hence not of concern, they argue that similar heaps are found around 1,400 g and 1,600 g where individuals would have no incentive to act in a strategic manner. Using McCrary's (2008) estimation strategy, they also appeal to the lack of a statistically significant estimate of the discontinuity in the distribution.

Nevertheless, it turns out that the 1,500-g heap *is* irregular in a critical fashion. In particular, those at this data heap have substantially higher mortality rates than surrounding observations on *either* side of the VLBW threshold. This feature of the data is demonstrated in Figure I, in which we illustrate unadjusted mean mortality rates across the distribution of birth weights around 1,500 g.[1] In each of the four panels, documenting 24-hour through

---

1. Note that our Figure I is a disaggregated version of Figure II in ADKW.

1-year mortality rates, those at the 1,500-g heap appear to be of a particularly disadvantaged sort. They are an outlier with respect to both those on the left of 1,500 g *and* those on the right of 1,500 g. This may be a signal that poor-quality hospitals have relatively high propensities to round birth weights but is also consistent with manipulation of recorded birth weights by doctors, nurses, or parents to obtain favorable treatment for their children.[2] Barreca et al. (2011) show that this nonrandom heaping leads one to conclude that it is "good" to be strictly less than *any* 100-g cutoff between 1,000 and 3,000 g.[3]

Regardless of the mechanism, it raises the concern that ADKW's estimates may be driven in large part by the outliers at the 1,500-g heap.[4] Given that the motivation for regression discontinuity designs is a comparison of means as estimates *approach* the treatment threshold from each side, estimates should not be sensitive to the observations at the threshold.[5]

Motivated by this concern, we consider a "donut RD" of sorts, whereby we systematically remove observations in the immediate vicinity of the 1,500-g heap and reestimate the discontinuity

2. The direction of the abrupt change at the 1,500-g heap is consistent with healthier types nonrandomly sorting to the left of the cutoff. It is important to note more generally that there tend to be systematic compositional changes at *all* 100-g and ounce multiples (Barreca et al. 2011). However, the concern about manipulation rather than something more benign driving the abrupt change is more worrisome for the 1,500-g heap as it is even more of an outlier than the 1,400- and 1,600-g heaps, as shown in Figure I. In their reply, ADKW seem to have misunderstood that there are reasons to be concerned with manipulated observations ending up on the left of the cutoff despite the heaping observed to the right of the cutoff. Moreover, given a potential incentive to manipulate birth weights downward, the essential question is which attributes predict manipulation. As they mention in their reply, "newborns at exactly 1,500 grams are anomalous based on *ex ante* characteristics such as race and mother's education." To be more specific, Barreca et al. (2011) demonstrate that they are substantially less likely to be white and more likely to have a mother with less than a high school education.

3. ADKW mention having done this same robustness check, reporting that the "results support the validity of [their] main findings." We disagree with this interpretation of the results. Using a bandwidth of 85 g, 37 of 41 placebo estimates indicate that mortality is lower to the left of the cutoff. With a bandwidth of 30 g, 41 of 41 placebo estimates indicate that mortality is better to the left of the cutoff.

4. Although ADKW report that "the results are qualitatively similar across a wide range of bandwidths," note that their mortality estimates more than triple across the bandwidths used in their sensitivity analysis, which is consistent with this concern.

5. This is the statistical argument, expanded on in the next paragraph, that Almond, Doyle, Kowalski, and Williams (2011) discount completely when they write "there is no general economic or statistical case for exclusion of observations at or around the threshold in a regression discontinuity (RD) design."

on the remaining sample. In doing so, we continue to compare mean estimates as they approach the VLBW threshold from each side, while allowing for the possibility that those at the heap are systematically different from surrounding observations. By expanding the size of the "donut hole" to include more than just the 1,500-g threshold itself, the approach further addresses potential concerns that there is nonrandom sorting around the VLBW threshold. That said, as we consider dropping those falling exactly at the cutoff, and then those within 1, 2, or 3 g of the cutoff, it is worth recognizing just how incremental these considerations are. For example, even under our most extreme sample restriction the implied gap in birth weights between the observations to the left and right of the cutoff is roughly equivalent in weight to seven paper clips (i.e., 7 g). Given that the baseline birth weight in consideration is 1,500 g, or roughly the weight of Simon and Blume's (1994) textbook *Mathematics for Economists*, this seems a reasonable accommodation given the concerns already described. Again, if the underlying identification strategy is valid, we anticipate that estimates will be robust to such a restriction. If the results are shown to be sensitive, however, it calls the identification into doubt.

With this in mind, in Panel A of Table I we report the estimates of our replication of ADKW.[6] We then begin our sensitivity analysis by estimating the effects after dropping those falling exactly at the 1,500-g heap, shown in Panel B. This very small sample restriction, which only reduces the sample size by approximately 2% and removes only one cluster, causes the estimated impact on 1-year mortality to fall by more than 50%.[7]

In Panels C through E we drop observations within 1, 2, and 3 g of the VLBW threshold, respectively. This series of estimates casts further doubt on the previously published conclusions.

---

6. These estimates are identical to those presented in ADKW although we have seven additional observations.

7. In the subsequent analysis, dropping observations within 1 g of the VLBW threshold removes an additional 0.001% of observations, dropping observations within 2 g of the threshold removes an additional 0.006% of observations, and dropping observations within 3 g of the threshold removes an additional 11% of observations. The final restriction reduces the sample size by a larger degree because 1,503 g corresponds to 53 ounces, where there is a large data heap. It is worth noting, however, that each of these restrictions only removes two additional clusters of data. For an in-depth discussion of the importance of recognizing correlation within clusters in RD designs when the running variable is discrete, see Lee and Card (2008).

TABLE I

REPLICATION OF ADKW'S MAIN RESULTS ALONG WITH DONUT-RD ESTIMATES

Mortality Outcome	One-year (1)	28-Day (2)	7-Day (3)	24-Hour (4)
Panel A: Our replication of ADKW's estimates				
Weight < 1,500 g	−0.0071	−0.0071*	−0.0046	−0.0033
	(0.0041)	(0.0032)	(0.0028)	(0.0020)
Observations	202,078	202,078	202,078	202,078
Clusters	171	171	171	171
Panel B: Donut RD dropping those at 1,500 g				
Weight < 1,500 g	−0.0033*	−0.0042**	−0.0023	−0.0018
	(0.0014)	(0.0013)	(0.0013)	(0.0010)
Observations	198,534	198,534	198,534	198,534
Clusters	170	170	170	170
Panel C: Donut RD dropping those within 1 g of 1,500-g cutoff				
Weight < 1,500 g	−0.0035*	−0.0043**	−0.0024	−0.0018
	(0.0014)	(0.0012)	(0.0013)	(0.0010)
Observations	198,334	198,334	198,334	198,334
Clusters	168	168	168	168
Panel D: Donut RD dropping those within 2 g of 1,500-g cutoff				
Weight < 1,500 g	−0.0027*	−0.0037**	−0.0019	−0.0013
	(0.0014)	(0.0012)	(0.0012)	(0.0009)
Observations	197,135	197,135	197,135	197,135
Clusters	166	166	166	166
Panel E: Donut RD dropping those within 3 g of 1,500-g cutoff				
Weight < 1,500 g	−0.0018	−0.0026	−0.0018	−0.0011
	(0.0019)	(0.0015)	(0.0015)	(0.0014)
Observations	175,108	175,108	175,108	175,108
Clusters	164	164	164	164

Notes. Results are based on Vital Statistics Linked Birth and Infant Death Data, United States, 1983–2002 (not including 1992–1994). Estimates use a bandwidth of 85 g and rectangular kernel weights, standard errors are clustered at the gram level, and all models include a linear trend in birth weights that is flexible on either side of the cutoff. All estimates include controls for prenatal care, mother's age, mother's education, father's age, child gender, gestational age, mother's race, plurality of birth, birth order, and year. * significant at 5%; ** significant at 1%.

Although the estimates are not much changed when we further expand the donut hole to exclude those within 1 g of the cutoff, the estimates fall by an additional 20% when those within 2 g of the cutoff are omitted. Finally, we omit those within 3 g of the cutoff, which reduces the sample by 11% because 1,503 g corresponds to a large data heap at 53 ounces—an additional

source of potential bias.[8] With this restriction, the point estimate falls further such that it is now 25% of the published estimate and statistically indistinguishable from 0. Overall, this collection of estimates substantially weakens the confidence in the results originally reported by ADKW, and highlights the importance of considering the fuller implications of heaping in running variables, as explored more generally in Barreca et al. (2011).

In this issue, Almond, Doyle, Kowalski, and Williams conduct a donut-RD analysis like that described here. Their main results now focus on children born in "low-level neonatal intensive care hospitals" in California. This sample consists of only 22% of the sample of California births (omitting those born in "high-level neonatal intensive care hospitals") where data are linked to hospital quality.[9] It consists of only 13% of all children they can link to hospital costs (omitting children born in Arizona, Maryland, New York, and New Jersey despite the fact that their original work shows a larger first-stage effect of VLBW classification on medical care for the "five-state sample" than for California). It includes less than 2% of the children whose birth weights are linked to mortality outcomes. After making all of these data restrictions, it appears as if they have found a setting that provides some evidence to support their hypothesis. However, even after choosing this extremely narrow subsample, their first stage is fragile, which casts further doubt on these results as being informative about the marginal returns to hospital care. The final set of donut RD estimates they present does not indicate a significant effect of VLBW classification on hospital costs.[10] Further, we note that their first stage does not lose significance because the donut RD sample restrictions increase the standard error estimate but because the coefficient estimate falls by 58%. As such, we disagree with their assertion that their results are robust.

8. In this issue, Almond et al. (2011) support the use of the donut RD as "a useful robustness check that [they] should have included in [their] original paper" yet are resistant to increasing the size of the hole, stating that they "see no clear case for excluding the larger set of newborns from 1,497 to 1,503 g." The statistical argument supporting a donut RD with a hole of any size is the same, whether extremely small (1 g or 0.07% of the cutoff weight) or less extremely small (7 g or 0.47% of the cutoff weight).

9. We also note that the Almond et al. (2011) analysis of hospital costs in California use 16,528 observations, whereas they used only 14,560 observations in their original work (Table A6).

10. They do not provide a partial F-statistic but the p-value on the estimated discontinuity in hospital costs is .37.

TULANE UNIVERSITY
UNIVERSITY OF CENTRAL FLORIDA
UNIVERSITY OF OREGON, IZA, AND NBER
UNIVERSITY OF OREGON AND IZA

REFERENCES

Almond, Douglas, Joseph J. Doyle Jr., Amanda E. Kowalski, and Heidi Williams. "Estimating Marginal Returns to Medical Care: Evidence from At-risk Newborns," *Quarterly Journal of Economics,* 125 (2010), 591–634.

———. "The Role of Hospital Heterogeneity in Measuring Marginal Returns to Medical Care: A Reply to Barreca, Guldi, Lindo, and Waddell," *Quarterly Journal of Economics,* 126:4 (2011), this issue.

Barreca, Alan I., Jason M. Lindo, and Glen R. Waddell. "Heaping-Induced Bias in Regression-Discontinuity Designs." NBER Working Paper No. 17408, 2011.

Lee, David S., and David Card. "Regression Discontinuity Inference with Specification Error," *Journal of Econometrics,* 127 (2008), 655–674.

McCrary, Justin. "Manipulation of the Running Variable in the Regression Discontinuity Design: A Density Test," *Journal of Econometrics,* 142 (2008), 698–714.

Simon, Carl P., and Lawrence Blume. *Mathematics for Economists* (New York: Norton, 1994).