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# Military Training Exercises, Pollution, and their Consequences for Health

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**Abstract:** Militaries around the world perform training exercises in preparation for war. We study the relationship between *in utero* exposure to military exercises (bombing) and early-life health outcomes, combining data on naval bombing exercises in Vieques, Puerto Rico, and the universe of births from 1990-2003. Using a differences-in-differences design, we find that the sudden end of bombing practices is associated with a 56-79 percent decrease in the incidence of congenital anomalies and an overall improvement in a neonatal health outcomes index of  $0.07\sigma$ . The evidence is generally consistent with the channel of environmental pollution; increases in arsenic levels in waters surrounding the live impact area.

Keywords: Infant health; military activity; environmental pollution; maternal stress.

JEL Codes I15, I14, O1

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#### I. Introduction

Militaries around the world perform training exercises in preparation for war and, in general, they take place "at home". The U.S. is no exception. As of 2001, approximately 950 formerly used defense sites (FUDS) located across the country associated with former military training ranges contained defense-related hazards such as unexploded ordnance and other explosive wastes. These sites represent health hazards to local populations exposed to contaminants and military debris (U.S. General Accounting Office 1996, 2001).<sup>1</sup>

Surprisingly, there is very limited research documenting the impacts of these military training exercises on the livelihoods of nearby populations. Given that these training exercises continue to take place around the world (Korea, Japan, Iraq to name but a few), we would benefit from a better understanding of the potential consequences of these practices on health and socioeconomic outcomes of nearby populations -- often vulnerable groups in society.

This study exploits a case study to provide evidence regarding the effects of these military exercises on the health outcomes of nearby populations. Over the span of six decades (1941-2001), the U.S. Navy utilized two-thirds of the territory of Vieques, Puerto Rico, to host a range of military exercises (including ship-to-shore gun fire, air-to-ground bombing by naval aircraft, and Marine amphibious landing) 12.5 kilometres away from residential population. Studying this setting allows us to explore whether exposure to military training in fact has consequences for the health and safety of nearby populations, including the health at birth for children exposed *in utero*.<sup>2,3</sup> We study whether the abrupt end of naval practices in July 2000 had

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> FUDS are located throughout the United States, on remote islands such as Pacific Atolls or the Aleutian Islands in Alaska, while others include urban settings such as Hunter's Point Naval Shipyard in San Francisco.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> We also focus on neonatal health outcomes for two additional reasons: due to data availability as well as the fact that newborn health can respond rapidly to environmental conditions, which is important for an empirical strategy based on the high frequency timing of the practices. Prominent examples of the research on the effects of conflict for early-life and long-term outcomes are Alderman, Hoddinott and Kinsey (2006), Bundervoet, Verwimp, and Akresh (2009), Camacho (2008), León (2012), Mansour and Rees (2012), Galdo (2013), and Quintana-Domeque and

short-term consequences for infants' health outcomes. To do so, we combine monthly data on tonnage of ordnance used in these naval exercises with the universe of births in Puerto Rico between 1990 and 2003, to study the relationship between *in utero* exposure to these military exercises and children's early-life health outcomes. Specifically, we examine infant health outcomes for cohorts conceived following the end of naval practices relative to those conceived in the preceding period within the municipality affected by bombings, and to those newborns conceived in municipalities not affected by the bombings. Our identification is therefore across treatment and control municipalities over time.

The military exercises have significant negative consequences for early life outcomes -particularly for congenital anomalies. The sudden end of bombing practices is associated with a
5.6-7.9 per thousand (56-79 percent) decrease in the incidence of congenital anomalies and an
overall improvement in a neonatal health outcomes index of 0.07 $\sigma$ . We find direct support for the
channel of environment pollution using data from U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)
Discharge Monitoring Reports by the Atlantic Fleet Weapons Training Facility (U.S. Navy) of
inorganic chemicals such as arsenic, cyanide, and lead, in waters surrounding the live impact
area. In particular, bombing activity leads to short-term increases in arsenic levels above EPA
limits in waters surrounding the live impact area: a one standard deviation increase in average
ordnance levels leads to a 14 percentage point increase in this incidence risk, an effect that is
51.2 percent above the mean incidence risk. Given that arsenic exposure has been linked to

Ródenas-Serrano (2017). A complementary literature analyzes how environmental factors that occur during the prenatal period have significant early life and long-term consequences; see Almond and Currie (2011) for a broad survey of the literature. Most epidemiological and medical research focuses on the role that nutrition plays for fetal development and early-life health outcomes (Kramer, 1987).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This emerging body of research supports the "fetal origins" hypothesis first articulated by David Barker (1990): the idea that numerous external environmental factors during the mother's pregnancy can have important, long-lasting consequences on health outcomes. According to the fetal origins hypothesis, intrauterine exposure to environmental agents may program the fetus to have particular metabolic characteristics (Barker 1990). The specific biological mechanisms that manifest in different health outcomes of fetuses depend on the level of exposure to environmental factors as well as nutritional and genetic factors.

increased frequency of spontaneous abortions and congenital malformations (Nordstrom et al. 1979; Hopenhayn-Rich et al. 1999) this evidence is suggestive of a link between water pollution resulting from the bombing activity and infant health outcomes. In contrast, we do not find evidence that possible disruptions in economic activity mediate these effects. The evidence thus supports the hypothesis that reductions in environmental pollution and other environmental factors lead to a substantial reduction in the risk of congenital anomalies among the infant population (Currie, Greenstone, and Moretti 2011; Currie, Ray, and Neidell 2011).

Our study makes several contributions to the health, conflict and human development literature. Prominent research on the effects of exposure to conflict for early-life and long-term outcomes document a link that is most plausibly explained by economic channels and changes in stress as well as mental and physical health of the adult population. 4 We demonstrate that an important plausible channel in the context of certain conflicts is one of an environmental nature, consistent with a complementary literature that analyzes how environmental factors that occur during the prenatal period have significant early life and long-term consequences (Almond and Currie 2011). The study also has important implications for both child policy and military policy. Infant health outcomes such as congenital anomalies and low birth weight are important predictors of child health (McCormick 1985; Pollack and Divon 1992; Almond, Chay, and Lee 2005) and long-term outcomes such as educational attainment, labor market outcomes, and adult health (Currie and Hyson 1999; Behrman and Rosenzweig 2004; Black, Devereux, and Salvanes 2007). Given the well-documented relationship between neonatal health and later life outcomes, there is reason to believe that our substantial short-term effects may have longer-term consequences for this population. Moreover, previous research has documented the effects of both maternal stress and environmental pollution on infant health (c.f. Currie et al 2009) and our

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> For instance, Camacho (2008), León (2012), and Quintana-Domeque and Ródenas-Serrano (2017).

evidence strongly suggests that at least one of these channels is responsible for the detrimental effects on child health that we find here. Since the shutdown of the U.S. Navy in Vieques in 2001 formalized the start of a negotiation between the Commonwealth of Puerto Rico and the U.S. for an ecological and economic restoration strategy for the island, these findings have implications to expand the discussion to address child health and child development dimensions.

The paper is organized as follows. Section II provides background on U.S. Navy Activities in Vieques and the possible implications for health outcomes among the resident population. We follow with a description of the data and the empirical methodology in Section III. We present the central empirical results of the paper in Section IV. In Section V we explore potential mechanisms, followed in Section VI by a series of robustness tests and a discussion of potential impacts on other health outcomes. The paper concludes in Section VII with a discussion of findings and their broad implications.

#### II. Background

### II.A. U.S. Navy Activity in Vieques

Vieques is an island off the eastern end of Puerto Rico with approximately 350 square kilometers (Figure 1). In 2010, the island hosted 9,301 habitants. Close to two-thirds of the Vieques territory served as part of the U.S. Navy Atlantic Fleet Weapons Training Area from 1941 to 2001. Military training and operations were conducted in the eastern end of the island, while the western end was used to store munitions. The central part, the "civilian area" (approximately 45 square kilometers), was designated to accommodate local civilian residents.

The eastern naval area hosted a range of military exercises including ship-to-shore gun fire, air-to-ground bombing by naval aircraft, and Marine amphibious landing. Over the span of

six decades, naval operations averaged between 180 to 250 days each year (approximately 6,300 shelling days) with an annual estimate of 3-14 million pounds of live ordnance detonated and dropped within the live impact area (189-662 million pounds in total) (Porter, Barton, and Torres 2011). The live impact area encompasses an area of about 900 acres and is 12.5 kilometers away from residential population.

In addition to conventional weaponry, the composition of munitions used during bombardment exercises posed risks to the health of the population and ecology of the island. The U.S. Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR) notes that naval training involved handling of Napalm and Agent Orange at various stations within the eastern naval area (ATSDR 2001). Despite serious concerns of the radiological and toxicological effects of depleted uranium once it vaporises in the air, over 250 rounds (88 lb) of ammunition tipped with depleted uranium were fired in 1999 (Wargo 2009). According to a U.S. Congress report by the U.S. Department of Defense, biological weapons were tested in Vieques but no further details of the operation are publicly disclosed (Porter, Barton, and Torres 2011).

The U.S. Navy reduced its operations in April 1999 following a widely publicized campaign when David Sanes, a civilian employee, was killed during a bombing accident. No military training exercises took place on Vieques for approximately thirteen months. In May 2000, the Navy resumed military training exercises but only with "practice" bombs and other non-explosive ordnance for a brief period of less than fifty days (ATSDR 2003, p. 13). All military training exercises at Vieques officially ceased on May 1, 2003, when the Navy turned its lands over to the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service.

Since various areas of the island remained contaminated by solid and hazardous waste resulting from decades of military activity, in 2005 the U.S. Environment Protection Agency

(EPA) declared these lands a superfund site. This required the U.S. Navy to partner with the EPA, Fish and Wildlife Service and the Puerto Rico Environmental Quality Board to determine and implement cleanup actions. The effects of decontamination practices may pose further risks to Vieques residents and stress on pregnant women as these involve, among other things, detonating defective ordnance in the air.<sup>5</sup> Current projections indicate that work at the site will be completed in 2022 for the land areas and in 2029 for the underwater effort (EPA 2013).

#### II.B. Implications for Health Outcomes among the Resident Population

Most research efforts on the impacts of military activity on the health profile of the Vieques' resident population ("Viequenses") have focused on documenting the unusually high cancer incidence rates in the municipality. Reports produced by the Puerto Rico Department of Health have identified an upward trend since 1960 in cancer incidence rates in Vieques relative to the rest of Puerto Rico.<sup>6</sup> The U.S. ATSDR has produced public health assessment studies on drinking groundwater (released in 2001), ingesting or touching soil (2003), breathing air (2003), and eating fish and shellfish (2003), and they all conclude that the resident population has not been exposed to harmful levels of chemicals resulting from U.S. Navy training activities.<sup>7</sup> A small number of independent research studies have documented exposure of the population to higher levels of mercury, lead, copper, and nickel than those clinically recommended by the World Health Organization (Ortiz-Roque and López-Rivera 2004; Massol-Deyá et al 2005).

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> McCaffrey (2009) highlights this and several environmentally degrading practices by the U.S. Navy during the cleanup process, including burning excess materials and waste and dumping toxic chemicals and substances in sensitive wetland areas.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> See Zavala Zegarra (2000) for the period covering 1960-2004; and Figueroa, Suarez, De La Torre, Torres, and Perez (2009) for the period covering 1995-2004. The latter documents that Vieques residents were 26 per cent more likely to develop cancer in 1995-1999, and 19 per cent in 2000-2004 compared to residents in the rest of Puerto Rico.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> The impartiality of ATSDR studies have been questioned by the academic community and journalists alike. For an analysis on the narrative and language used by different U.S. departments and agencies on handling the Vieques file see Davis, Hayes-Conroy, and Jones (2007).

Although based on small samples, this literature is suggestive of an environmental link that can help explain the Vieques population's poor health profiles compared to those of residents of other municipalities in Puerto Rico.

The effects of naval aircraft and bombing exercises on the psychological and psychosocial profile of Vieques is an area that remains unexplored despite documented qualitative evidence that these activities disrupted regular life activities. According to the 1999 Special Commission on Vieques, officials from the P.R. Department of Education reported that "the vibrations caused by bombing practices shudder educational facilities, affecting the physical structure of buildings and interrupting classes". The Department concluded that it is evident that "this sort of activity and the noise generated cause anxiety and concern among students and school staff in general" (Puerto Rico 1999, p. 10). Even without definitive empirical evidence on the levels of physical and mental health among the population of Vieques during the period of interest, the limited documentation available suggests that pregnant women resident in the municipality may have been exposed to disruptive environmental factors that would have affected fetal development.

## III. Data and Methodology

#### III.A. Data Description and Sample Selection Criteria

Data on tonnage of ordnance used in these naval exercises is available from Discharge Monitoring Reports submitted by the U.S. Department of the Navy's Atlantic Fleet Weapons Training Facility (Roosevelt Roads Base, Puerto Rico) to the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA). Information on total weight of ordnance used by the U.S. Navy and other parties for all military training exercises (including air-to-ground, ship-to-ground, and land-based

activities) on a monthly basis is available for the period May 1985 - July 1999.<sup>8</sup> From 1988 to 1999, between 1,359 and 2,667 tons of ordnance were used in training exercises, of which between 124 and 469 tons were considered high explosives.

We combine these data with the universe of birth records in Puerto Rico between 1990 and 2003, available from the Puerto Rico Statistics Institute. Specifically, we have data on approximately 855,429 births in the territory of P.R. with information on birth outcomes such as sex, month of conception, exact date of birth, gestation period, and detection of congenital anomalies, among other characteristics. In addition, we have data on the mother's municipality of residence at the time of birth, as well as a number of characteristics of the mother (i.e., age and educational attainment).

We use the sample of births of mothers resident in P.R. at the time of birth for which the date of birth and the period of gestation, as well as the municipality of residence, are known.<sup>9</sup> After combining these data with the monthly tonnage of ordnance, we lose 50,081 observations (5.8 percent) and an additional 59 observations with missing information on maternal age or educational attainment. The remaining sample is composed of 805,348 births (94.1 percent of the population), with item non-response rates for our various outcomes of interest in the 0.2-0.3 percent range. We first collapse the data to the municipality-by-month level and weight the observations by the number of live births in the month, a process that yields identical point

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> These reports were made available in August 2001 to Dr. Arturo Massol Deyá via a Freedom of Information Act (FOIA) request to the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. We thank Dr. Massol Deyá for sharing these reports with us. Additional data on ordnance used in the naval exercises is based on a study prepared for the Secretary of the U.S. Navy in 1999, which was later reproduced in an ATSDR public health assessment of pollution via air pathways (2003, pp. 96-97). The dataset contains two measures of live-fire range utilization: (1) total weight of ordnance that the U.S. Navy and other parties used for all military training exercises, including air-to-ground, ship-to-ground, and land-based activities; and (2) total weight of high explosives used at the live impact area. The measures are available for the fiscal years 1983 to 1998 (October 1<sup>st</sup> - September 30<sup>th</sup>).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Among the sample of births with known date of birth and gestation period, there is only one (1) observation for which we do not have information on the mother's municipality of residence.

estimates to the micro data. Our dataset is thus composed of 12,228 municipality-by-month cells, covering 174 months per jurisdiction.

Summary statistics on the ordnance measures are reported in Table 1. Monthly ordnance used in the exercises (in the complete 1985-1999 period) ranged from none (zero) to 658 tons; on average 120.1 tons of ordnance were used. The average tonnage of ordnance during each child's potential gestation period is similar, as it is a 9-month moving average of the monthly measure. It ranges from 0 to 277 tons of ordnance, and averages 122.0 tons per month. We use these measures of ordinance to both document the large drop in ordinance following the end of naval exercises and to inform our evidence of potential mechanisms, discussed in Section V below.

Table 2 reports summary statistics form the birth records data. Regarding child health outcomes at birth, one percent of live births are born with a congenital anomaly. Also, 14.4 percent of infants are born prematurely, most of them being moderately or late preterm, but a substantial proportion (0.6 percent) are extremely preterm. Almost eleven (10.6) percent of live births are considered low weight births, and 1.1 percent of children have a low 5 minute Apgar score (defined as less than 7 out of 10). These health indicators are similar for infants in Vieques than those in the rest of Puerto Rico: although the incidence of births with congenital anomalies on average is lower in Vieques than in the rest of Puerto Rico (0.5 percent vs. 1.0 percent), the remaining health measures are similar across these groups. These indicators are generally worse than those for the overall U.S. population during this time period. The proportion of female live births is slightly higher in Vieques than in the rest of Puerto Rico (50.0 percent vs. 48.6 percent).

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Density plots of the distributions for both measures show that the measure of monthly ordnance is skewed to the right, with most of the observations in the 0-2 tons per month range. In contrast, the measure of ordnance exposure during each child's potential gestation period is more symmetrically shaped and in the 0-3 tons per month range.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> See National Center for Health Statistics, National Vital Statistics System. http://www.childstats.gov/americaschildren/health1.asp

The average characteristics of mothers in Vieques are reasonably different from those in the rest of the sample: 37.1 percent of mothers in Vieques have only a high school degree versus 29.7 percent in the rest of Puerto Rico. Mothers are slightly younger (ages 23.7 versus 24.7, on average) and more of the mothers are giving birth as teenagers (14.4 percent versus 9.2 percent).

Finally, we include municipality-level monthly employment and unemployment data estimates from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) Local Area Unemployment Statistics (LAUS) as further local controls.

#### III.B. Empirical Methodology

Our empirical strategy consists of a difference-in-differences design. We use the end of practices in the year 2000 to compare outcomes for cohorts conceived following the end of naval practices to those conceived in the preceding period within the municipality using the health outcomes of newborns in other municipalities to control for period-specific effects. Specifically, we estimate linear models of the form:

$$y_{jmt} = \theta(\text{End}_{mt} \times \text{Vieques}_{j}) + X_{jmt}\beta + \alpha_{j} + \gamma_{mt} + \varepsilon_{jmt}, \tag{1}$$

where  $y_{jmt}$  is the proportion of children with a congenital anomaly, born to mothers residing in municipality j, conceived in the month m of year t; End<sub>mt</sub> is a pre-post dummy for the end of the exercises; Vieques $_j$  is an indicator variable for mother's residence in Vieques;  $\alpha_j$  are municipality fixed effects;  $\gamma_{mt}$  are month-by-year fixed effects; and  $\varepsilon_{jmt}$ , is the error term. Each specification includes controls for maternal characteristics at that municipality-month-year level.

Computing standard errors and making inferences is complicated in cases where there is only one treatment/intervention unit. The primary concern when using grouped data in differences in differences analysis is accounting for possible serial correlation (Bertrand, Duflo, and Mullainathan 2004). Although we use data from 77 municipalities, we cannot use either (i) a standard cluster robust variance estimator (CRVE) or (ii) inference based on the wild cluster bootstrap (Cameron, Gelbach, and Miller 2008) because the relevant degrees of freedom are the number of treatment units – which in this case is a single municipality (Imbens and Kolesar 2012; MacKinnon and Webb 2016). An additional concern is that ignoring spatial correlations that do not vanish between municipalities may lead to bias in standard errors (Barrios et al 2012).

As an alternative, we employ a number of different approaches for inference. First, we rely on the large time dimension of the data to conduct inference based on asymptotics as the time dimension becomes large. Specifically, we estimate standard errors using a nonparametric covariance matrix estimator that produces standard errors that are robust to general forms of cross-sectional (spatial) and temporal dependence when the time dimension becomes large (Driscoll and Kraay 1998) (henceforth DK). Second, we conduct inference based on an appropriate test of significance of the treatment effect in a differences-in-differences setting with few treated groups, heterogeneous groups sizes, and heteroskedasticity recently developed by Ferman and Pinto (forthcoming) and report p-values from these. Third, following the literature on randomization inference (Neyman 1990), we report the percentile rank of the coefficient from a permutation exercise where we estimate a placebo effect of the relationship for every municipality. Finally, we construct a summary index of all health outcomes to pool multiple outcomes in a single test to address the issue of multiple inference (e.g., O'Brien 1984; Kling, Liebman, and Katz 2007).

Our identification strategy is focused on comparing outcomes pre and post the ceasing of naval exercises in Vieques relative to other municipalities in Puerto Rico. An alternative strategy would be to use a continuous measure of ordinance during the bombing period to identify the effects of the bombing. However, our variation does not permit us to cleanly identify the effects on this intensive margin once we correct our inference for the case of a single treatment unit (results for this alternative strategy are available upon request).

#### IV. Results

We start by examining trends in the incidence of congenital anomalies for births conceived by residents of Vieques (solid blue line) and those in the rest of Puerto Rico (dotted green line), from early 1989 until early 2003 (births in 1990-2003), together with the volume of ordnance during this time period (dotted red line) (see Figure 2). Due to the small cell sizes in the case of Vieques, we smooth the series by presenting 24-month moving averages of the outcomes for both Vieques and control municipalities. We observe a clear relationship between the volume of ordnance—and its abrupt end—and incidences of congenital anomalies among birth cohorts to Viequense mothers. In contrast, we see no relationship between ordnance levels and these across cohorts in the rest of Puerto Rico. This evidence strongly suggests that the military exercises represented health hazards and had negative consequences for newborns in the local population.

Next we present regression-based evidence of these effects, reported in Table 3. The first column reports the effects of the end of bombing during the pregnancy period on the risk of birth with congenital anomalies. We find a large and significant effect: the sudden change in bombing practices is associated with a 7.7 per thousand decrease in the incidence of congenital anomalies,

a 77 percent reduction relative to the baseline mean. Inference based on the nonparametric covariance matrix estimator indicates that the relationship is significant at the 1 percent level. The Ferman-Pinto test of significance of the treatment effect indicates that we have sufficient precision to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship (p-value = 0.070). Finally, inference based on the stringent permutation test leads to rejection of the null hypothesis, with a permutation percentile rank of six out of 77 (approximate p-value = 0.078). The magnitude of this impact is consistent with existing evidence on the consequences of reductions in environmental pollution from Superfund site clean-ups on neighbouring populations in the United States (Currie, Greenstone, and Moretti 2011).

Coupled with the evidence cited above on the link between environmental factors and congenital anomalies in particular, we believe our inference is most robust to the effects of the bombings on congenital anomalies. For completeness, we also study potential impacts on other neonatal health outcomes. We examine a variety of other possible outcomes including premature births, birthweight, and APGAR scores (Table 3, columns 2-5). Overall, we do not find strong statistically significant evidence of improvements in child health in these areas following the ending of the bombing: a 2.8 percentage point *increase* in the incidence of premature births (19.5 percent), but a 0.18 percentage point (30 percent) reduction in that of extremely preterm births; and no change in the incidence of low birthweight births. Given that we test for impacts on multiple health outcomes, we construct a summary index of neonatal health outcomes and conduct a single test to address the issue of multiple inference (Kling, Liebman, and Katz 2007). Estimates using this normalized score as dependent variable indicate that the end of naval exercises led to an overall improvement in the neonatal health outcomes index of 0.07σ. The Ferman-Pinto test of significance of the treatment effect indicates that we have sufficient

precision to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship (p-value = 0.072). However, inference based on the stringent permutation test leads to no rejection of the null hypothesis, with a permutation percentile rank of 63 out of 77 (approximate p-value = 0.818).

We also explore whether the relationship between bombing ordnance and newborn health differs for different trimesters of the pregnancy. Previous literature has documented that fetal exposures during different trimesters can have differing effects on child health. For example, Almond and Mazumder (2011) find that fasting during pregnancy for Muslims observing Ramadan has negative effects on child health and that these effects are larger in the first and second trimester than the third. In our context, mothers can be exposed to bombing during the entire pregnancy or, among those pregnant around the time of the end of naval exercises, in the first or first and second trimester of pregnancy. In order to explore the relationship by trimester of exposure we include various separate measures of exposure in the regression models representing the exposure for the mother in each of the trimesters: (a) first and second trimesters; (b) first trimester only; and (c) not exposed. Results are reported in Appendix Table 1.

The relationship between end of exposure to ordnance and congenital anomalies appears to be strong and stable: exposure in both the first and second trimester or in only the first trimester reduces the incidence of congenital anomalies by 0.9 percentage points, statistically significant (at 95 and 99 percent confidence levels, respectively) with permutation percentile rank approximate p-values of 0.09 and 0.10, respectively. Given the small number of cells for these cohorts, we have insufficient precision to detect differences based on the Ferman-Pinto test. The reduction in the incidence of congenital anomalies is stable when estimating effects for cohorts of children not exposed: reductions of 0.8 percentage points with sufficient precision among cohorts of children conceived even 12 months or more following the end of naval

exercises.<sup>12</sup> This robustness check supports the finding of large and robust effects of the reduction in congenital anomalies resulting from the end of naval exercises.

#### V. Potential Mechanisms

The measured impacts are consistent with existing evidence on the consequences of comparable changes in environmental pollution on neighbouring populations in the United States (Currie, Greenstone, and Moretti 2011; Currie and Schwandt 2014) as well as with effects of terrorist attacks (Quintana-Domeque and Ródenas-Serrano 2017). There are several possible mechanisms by which these bombings could have affected mothers during pregnancy: the bombings could disrupt economic activity affecting households' access to or capacity to invest in human capital. They could cause maternal stress, fear, and anxiety, which can have negative effects on physical and mental health, and in turn have indirect negative effects on infant health outcomes at birth. The bombings could have a negative effect on the environment (air, soil, and water) thereby affecting maternal and child health. In this section, we present and discuss the available evidence regarding these potential channels.

#### **Environmental Pollution**

Increases in solid and hazardous waste, resulting in potential contamination of soil, water, and/or air may also have affected infant health. Previous literature has shown a direct link between air pollution and infant health (Chay & Greenstone, 2003; Currie, Neidell, & Schmieder, 2009). To investigate the potential role of environmental contamination, we examine water pollution levels. The Discharge Monitoring Reports contain information regarding tests of

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> We find no evidence of impacts on other neonatal health outcomes based on models that allow for heterogeneous effects to exposure. This is not surprising given the lack of precision in the estimates of average effects and the smaller number of cohorts in each group of pregnancy with distinct exposure times. Estimates are available upon request.

water quality in the training area's Inner Range, the waters surrounding the live impact area. These reports contain information on tests to measure the levels of inorganic chemicals in the water (arsenic, cyanide, lead, among others) in addition to other characteristics of the waters in the range. We use the information available on a quarterly basis during the same period (May 1985 - July 1999). For measures of dissolved oxygen, acidity, alkalinity and nitrogen, while average levels are within the range deemed safe by the Environmental Protection Agency, the maximum level reported exceeds the range (data available upon request). For many of the inorganic chemicals tested, average levels reported exceed the maximum level for safety.

Given that arsenic exposure has been linked to increased frequency of spontaneous abortions and congenital malformations (Nordstrom et al. 1979; Hopenhayn-Rich et al. 1999), we document the extent to which there is a relationship between the level of bombing activity and arsenic in the waters surrounding the live impact area. Specifically, we estimate time series models to measure the relationship between naval bombing activity and the incidence that maximum arsenic levels surrounding the live impact area are above permitted EPA limits, of the following linear form:

$$1(y_t > y^{EPA}) = \theta_B(Ordnance_t) + \varepsilon_t, \tag{2}$$

where  $y_t$  captures the maximum arsenic level measured in quarter t, and Ordinance<sub>mt</sub> is the mean level of ordnance in the quarter. We allow for leads and lags of the ordnance volume measure to evaluate the degree of correlation of arsenic pollution based on bombing activity in previous time periods. Standard errors are corrected for heteroskedasticity.

The estimates of the contemporaneous (same quarter) correlation are reported in Table 4.

The estimates are remarkably stable. For instance, the model with the simple correlation implies

that the effect of a one standard deviation change in average ordnance levels leads to a 14 percentage point increase in this incidence risk, an estimated effect that is 51.2 percent above the mean incidence risk. Estimates that allow for lags and leads of ordnance show a quantitatively similar pattern. This evidence is suggestive of a link between water pollution resulting from the bombing activity and infant health outcomes. However, a number of other chemicals were also present (although not correlated with bombing activity), and thus it is difficult to assess the role of arsenic in the etiology of these effects.

#### Maternal Stress

It is feasible that the bombings increased stress levels or sleep deprivation among pregnant women. The medical literature indicates that prenatal stress increases levels of corticotrophin releasing hormone, which regulates the duration of pregnancy and fetal maturation. Increases in prenatal stress levels have been associated with a decrease in infant birth weight, an increased likelihood of LBW, and a decrease in gestational age at birth (Wadhwa et al 1993). Studies have also suggested that stress induced during the first trimester tend to have more significant effects on birth weight and preterm birth (Zhu et al 2010). Therefore, it is certainly feasible that increased stress due to the bombings had negative effects on infant health in Vieques.

#### VI. Robustness Tests and Selection

#### Economic Downturns

Although given our research context, we can rule out the destruction of physical capital as a determinant of these adverse infant health consequences (e.g., Abadie and Gardeazabal

2003), another plausible pathway is through disruption of economic activity affecting households' access to or capacity to invest in human capital (León 2012). While our results are robust to including controls for unemployment levels, here we examine the relationship between naval bombing exercises and the municipal unemployment rate, using municipality-level monthly unemployment data estimates from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) Local Area Unemployment Statistics (LAUS). We estimate models analogous to equation (1), excluding maternal controls, to predict unemployment rates as a function of the end of naval practices in Vieques.

The estimates are reported in the first two columns of Table 5. If anything, the evidence is consistent with the end of naval activities leading to a short-term deterioration in local economic conditions. We find a positive and significant relationship between the end of naval practices and the unemployment rate – a 3.2 percentage point / 0.22 log point increase in the unemployment rate. Given that these short-term fluctuations could lead to improved neonatal health outcomes attributable both to selection (changes in the type of mothers who conceive based on local economic conditions) and to improvements in health behaviors during recessions (Dehejia and Lleras-Muney 2004), we include average unemployment rates as controls in our main specification above. As will be shown below, our estimates are robust to specifications that control for maternal characteristics and these local economic conditions. This evidence is quite suggestive that in our context the link between bombing activity and infant health is not driven by a pernicious effect in economic activity.<sup>13</sup>

Mother characteristics, and other possible selection effects

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> As a further test of the effects of the bombing on the local environment (and potentially broader than health at birth) we investigate whether there is a relationship between yearly average ordinance and yearly crime statistics by municipality. We find no significant relationship between ordinance levels and reported crime.

Since the characteristics of mothers in Vieques are reasonably different from those in the rest of the sample. it is plausible that the estimated effects could be partially driven by sample selection. For instance, mothers with children with a worse underlying health status may be more likely to reside in Vieques during periods of more military activity, causing a downward bias in our estimates of interest. Also, if bombing activity were to cause miscarriages or stillbirths, and pregnancies that terminated in these were more likely to be of children with worse underlying health conditions, this would cause our estimates to be biased downwards.

In order to evaluate these concerns, we directly estimate the relationship between our main bombing variables in both specifications and mother and cohort characteristics. Specifically, we estimate linear models of the form:

$$x_{jmt} = \theta(\text{End}_{mt} \times \text{Vieques}_{j}) + \alpha_{j} + \gamma_{mt} + \varepsilon_{jmt}, \tag{3}$$

where  $x_{jmt}$  is the average (or aggregate) characteristic for mothers residing in municipality j, who conceived a child in month m of year t; and the other variables are defined as above. We also report analogous estimates of a model using the child's sex as the dependent variable.

Columns 3 and 4 of Table 5 reports results for estimates of cohort size effects. We find a 0.079 log point decrease in the number of live births following the ending of naval practices; this is consistent with the short-term worsening of economic conditions in the municipality causing lower fertility rates. However, this relationship is not robust to estimating effects in levels. In this case, we estimate an increase of 6.9 births in the municipality (approximately 10 percent). We also examine trends in the number of live births conceived by residents of Vieques (solid blue line) and those in the rest of Puerto Rico (dotted green line), from early 1989 until early 2003 (births in 1990-2003), together with the volume of ordnance during this time period (dotted red

line) (see Appendix Figure A1). We observe no relationship between the volume of ordnance—and its abrupt end—and cohort sizes among birth cohorts to Viequense mothers or those in the rest of Puerto Rico. The evidence is thus not indicative of changes in cohort sizes due to fertility or mortality explaining our results.

Columns 5 through 13 of Table 5 report results for estimates of selection on observable child or maternal characteristics. Our results show evidence of negative gender-based selection. We find a 5.5 percentage point drop in the probability of female births following the end of naval practices, statistically significant based on the permutation and Ferman-Pinto tests (p-values = 0.013 and <0.001, respectively) (column 5). The estimate is consistent with prior evidence that suggests that male foetuses are more vulnerable to detrimental influences *in utero* and therefore more likely to terminate prior to term (Kraemer 2000; Eriksson et al. 2010; Almond and Mazumder 2011; Dinkelman 2013).

Again, given that we test for impacts on multiple observable selection outcomes we construct a summary index of cohort/child characteristics and conduct a single test to address the issue of multiple inference. Estimates using this normalized score as dependent variable indicate that the end of naval exercises led to an overall deterioration in selection of  $0.255\sigma$  (column 6). The Ferman-Pinto and permutation tests of significance of the treatment effect indicate that we have enough precision to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship (p-values = 0.012 and 0.026, respectively). These negative post-bombing selection patterns would tend to lead to a downward bias in our estimated impacts.

Columns 7 through 9 report results for the educational attainment of mothers giving birth, broken down by high school dropouts, high school graduates, and those with some or completed higher education. There is a *negative* and significant relationship between end of naval exercises

and mothers' educational attainment. The end of naval practices predicts a 6.9 percentage point increase in births by high school graduates, with a corresponding 8.6 decrease in the probability by mothers with tertiary education. Since the relationship between maternal educational attainment and their children's health status at birth is positive, this is indicative of negative selection based on educational attainment.

Columns 10 through 12 of Table 5 report results on the differential correlation of end of naval practices in Vieques with mothers' age. There is, in general, a negative relationship between the end of bombing practices and mothers' age (column 10). There is also an increase in the likelihood of teenage births and a reduction in births to women ages 40 and above (columns 11-12). Again, since the relationship between teenage pregnancies and children's health status at birth is negative, these correlations are indicative of negative selection based on maternal age.

Finally, we construct a summary index of maternal characteristics to conduct a single test. Estimates using this normalized score as dependent variable indicate that the end of naval exercises led to an overall deterioration in selection based on maternal characteristics of 0.31σ (column 13). The permutation and Ferman-Pinto tests of significance of the selection effect indicate that we have enough precision to reject the null hypothesis of no relationship (p-values = 0.039 and <0.001, respectively). Again, these negative post-bombing selection patterns tend to lead to a downward bias in our estimated impacts.

In addition to looking directly at the relationship between end of naval practices and these characteristics, we also re-estimate the linear models on child health outcomes (equation 1) excluding these maternal controls to assess the sensitivity of the estimates to these control variables as well as the inclusion of the unemployment rate as control. The estimates are reported in Table 6. We report estimates of the effects when we (i) exclude maternal age controls

(columns 2 and 7), (ii) exclude maternal schooling attainment controls (columns 3 and 8), and (iii) exclude all maternal controls (columns 4 and 9). For purposes of comparability, we report our baseline estimates with maternal controls — with and without economic activity proxy controls — in columns 1 and 6, respectively. The estimates are remarkably stable. In general, this sensitivity analysis suggests that there is a small degree of correlation between these observable characteristics and the incidence of congenital anomalies, and as a result the degree of selection on observables explains a minimal share of the relationship between the volume of ordnance and the risk of congenital anomalies.

Finally, we report as a robustness check OLS estimates from models using lagged dependent variables with heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors to account for autocorrelation (columns 5 and 10). The estimates are of similar magnitude. Estimates looking at the effect of the end of the bombing suggest a reduction of between 5.2 and 5.6 per thousand in the incidence of congenital anomalies. These various robustness checks imply that we find large and robust effects of bombing ordnance on congenital anomalies.

#### VII. Conclusion

We identify the relationship between frequent explosions and high-ordnance military exercises and child health at birth. Our results indicate that there is a negative effect of these exercises on health outcomes at birth with the most robust effects on congenital anomalies. Our analysis helps inform the literature regarding why stress and environmental factors may be important channels via which conflict affects human development and also speaks to the direct effect of military practice sessions on the local population – a practice that continues today by militaries around the world.

While it is challenging to make exact comparisons with other bombing sites (active war zones), it is perhaps interesting to compare the magnitude of ordinance with those in war zones studied in the literature. Vieques experienced between 100,000 and 300,000 tons of ordinance versus approximately 454,000 in the Korean war and over 6 million in Vietnam (Miguel and Roland, 2011). There are, to our knowledge, few comparable estimates of the effects of bombing on health outcomes at birth. However, our estimates on pre-term birth are consistent to the effects of terrorism on health at birth (i.e., 1/1000 in Quintana-Domeque and Ródenas-Serrano, 2017) and not inconsistent with estimates of conflict on child height (Bundervoet, Verwierp and Akresh, 2009). To our knowledge there are no other studies of the impacts of military preparation exercises on the health of the local population.

While previous literature looking at the longer-term effects of war on economic outcomes has found small economic impacts (c.f. Miguel and Roland, 2011), there is reason to suspect that in this case there may be longer lasting effects given the areas in which we find effects. Previous health economics research has documented a number of long term consequences related to being born in poor health including long term effects on education, welfare receipt, earnings and adult health (Black, Devereux, and Salvanes 2007; Oreopoulos, Stabile, Roos, and Walid 2008) and specifically, the effects of prenatal exposure to environmental pollution from radioactive fallout on adult outcomes (IQ, educational attainment, labor earnings) (Black et al 2017). One study has even documented long-term consequences of fetal health on adults in Puerto Rico (Sotomayor 2013). Therefore, there is reason to believe that our findings of short-term effects on infant health in this context may have longer-term effects on educational attainment, labor force attachment, and adult health. Further study is required to better understand the mechanisms through which the bombings affected infant health and to inform public policy.

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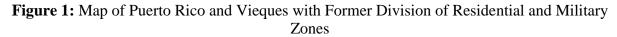
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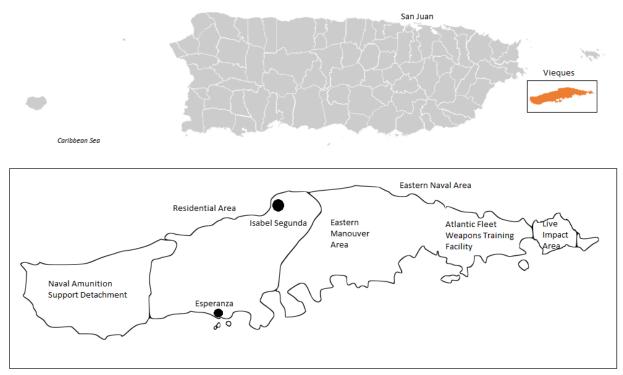
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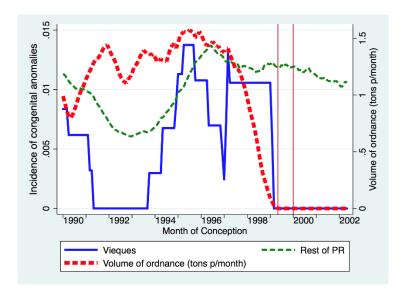
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Notes: Map is for illustrative purposes only. Map may not be drawn to scale.

**Figure 2:** Ordnance Volume During Naval Exercises and Incidence of Congenital Anomalies, 1990-2003



<u>Notes</u>: Ordnance volume during naval exercises (bold dashed line); incidence of congenital anomalies by month of conception, for live births of mothers resident in Vieques (solid) and in the rest of PR (dashed line) (24-month moving average).

**Table 1:** Volume of Ordnance – Summary Statistics, 1985-1999

	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min.	Max.	N
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Volume of ordnance (monthly) [Hundreds of tons per month]	1.201	1.405	0.000	6.585	184
Volume of ordnance (9-month potential gestation per.) [Hundreds of tons per month]	1.220	0.549	0.000	2.767	176

 $\underline{\text{Notes}}$ : Reported are the sample mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum of each variable; based on aggregated data at the month level for the period 1985-1999.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics, Puerto Rico Natality Files, 1990-2003

Sample	All Res	idents	Vieques R	esidents	Other Re	sidents
	Mean / (SD)	N	Mean / (SD)	N	Mean / (SD)	N
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Panel A: Neonatal Outcomes						
Congenital anomaly	0.010 (0.027)	12,228	0.005 (0.020)	159	0.010 (0.027)	12,069
Premature birth (< 37 weeks)	0.144 (0.076)	12,228	0.147 (0.111)	159	0.144 (0.076)	12,069
Extremely premature birth						
(< 28 weeks)	0.006 (0.014)	12,228	0.007 (0.026)	159	0.006 (0.013)	12,069
Low birth weight	0.106 (0.061)	12,228	0.115 (0.109)	159	0.106 (0.061)	12,069
Low APGAR score (5-min)	0.011 (0.020)	12,228	0.010 (0.029)	159	0.011 (0.020)	12,069
Panel B: Child and Mother Chara-	cteristics					
Female birth	0.486 (0.091)	12,228	0.500 (0.154)	159	0.486 (0.090)	12,069
High school graduate	0.298 (0.095)	12,228	0.371 (0.156)	159	0.297 (0.093)	12,069
Higher education						
(some/completed)	0.394 (0.120)	12,228	0.216 (0.134)	159	0.396 (0.118)	12,069
Mother's age	24.7 (1.3)	12,228	23.7 (2.1)	159	24.7 (1.2)	12,069
Teenage mother	0.093 (0.059)	12,228	0.144 (0.109)	159	0.092 (0.057)	12,069
Mother's age 40+	0.012 (0.020)	12,228	0.015 (0.044)	159	0.012 (0.019)	12,069

 $\underline{\text{Notes}}$ : Reported are the sample mean and standard deviation of each variable; based on aggregated data at the municipality-bymonth level. The dataset is composed of 12,228 municipality-by-month cells.

**Table 3:** End of Bombing Activity and Health Outcomes at Birth, 1990-2003

	Dependent variables:							
	Congenital anomaly	Premature birth	Extremely preterm birth	Low birth weight	Low APGAR score	Health Outcomes Index z-Score		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)		
End of Naval Practices × Vieques	-0.0077***	0.028	-0.0018	-0.0020	0.0062	0.072		
	(0.0024)	(0.020)	(0.0048)	(0.0183)	(0.0054)	(0.133)		
Ferman-Pinto test p-value	[0.070]	[0.070]	[0.064]	[0.073]	[0.060]	[0.072]		
Permutation test (one-sided) Percentile rank Approximate p-value	6/77	71/77	20/77	38/77	75/77	63/77		
	[0.078]	[0.922]	[0.260]	[0.493]	[0.974]	[0.818]		
Mother Characteristics Municipality & Month-Year Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		
	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		
Outcome Mean	0.010	0.144	0.006	0.106	0.011	0.000		
N	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228		

Notes: Coefficient estimates from municipality fixed effects regressions; each set of estimates (by column) is from a different regression. Robust standard errors to general forms of cross-sectional and temporal dependence (Driscoll and Kraay 1998) in parentheses; significant at (\*) 90 percent, (\*\*\*) 95 percent, (\*\*\*) 99 percent confidence levels. We also report the (a) p-value for inferences in differences-in-differences with few treated groups and heteroskedasticity (Ferman and Pinto, forthcoming), and (b) the percentile rank of the coefficients from permutation exercises and its approximate p-value. Mother characteristics' controls include (averages of) indicators for high school graduate, higher education (some/completed), teenage pregnancy, mother's age at childbirth of 40 years or greater, and a linear maternal age control.

**Table 4:** Bombing Activity and Arsenic Pollution Levels in Water – Live Impact Area Inner Range Water, 1985-1999

Dependent variables:	Maximum Arsenic Levels Above EPA Limit								
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)				
Tons per month, Quarter t	0.171** (0.072)	0.172** (0.071)	0.183** (0.072)	0.177** (0.075)	0.176** (0.078)				
$\Delta$ Outcome from One SD $\Delta$ in TPM	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.15	0.14				
Other Controls									
Tons per month, Quarter t-1		0.086 (0.072)	0.087 (0.072)	0.090 (0.076)	0.091 (0.078)				
Tons per month, Quarter t-2			0.003 (0.071)	0.004 (0.073)	0.005 (0.076)				
Tons per month, Quarter t-3				0.010 (0.085)	0.010 (0.087)				
Tons per month, Quarter $t+1$					-0.011 (0.086)				
Municipality Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes				
Month-Year Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes				
Outcome mean	0.275	0.280	0.286	0.292	0.292				
N	51	50	49	48	48				

Notes: Coefficient estimates from time series regressions; each set of estimates (by column) is from a different regression. Heteroskedasticity-robust standard errors in parentheses; significant at (\*) 90 percent, (\*\*\*) 95 percent, (\*\*\*) 99 percent confidence levels. The change in each of the variables from a one (1) standard deviation increase in the tons of ordnance per month is calculated as the product of the relevant coefficient estimate and the standard deviation of the ordnance volume measure (= coefficient estimate  $\times$  0.822).

Table 5: Correlates of Bombing Activity (Selection on Observables), 1990-2003

	Dependent variables:							
	Unempl.	ln(Unempl.	Cohort size	ln(Cohort size)	Female birth	Cohort Characteristics Index		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)		
End of Naval Practices × Vieques	3.23	0.215	6.917	-0.079	-0.055	-0.255		
Ferman-Pinto test p-value	[0.009]	[0.015]	[0.081]	[0.074]	[<0.001]	[0.012]		
Permutation tests (one-sided)								
Approximate p-values	[0.909]	[0.948]	[0.818]	[0.169]	[0.013]	[0.026]		
	[0.104]	[0.065]	[0.195]	[0.844]	[1.000]	[0.987]		
Mother Characteristics	No	No	No	No	No.	No		
Municipality Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		
Month-Year Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes		
N	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228		

Notes: Coefficient estimates from municipality fixed effects regressions; each set of estimates (by column) is from a different regression. We report the (a) p-value for inferences in differences-in-differences with few treated groups and heteroskedasticity (Ferman and Pinto, forthcoming), and (b) the percentile rank of the coefficients from permutation exercises and its approximate p-value.

Table 5: Correlates of Bombing Activity (Selection on Observables), 1990-2003 (continued)

			Depende	nt variables:			
	High school dropout	High school graduate	Higher education	Mother's age	Teenage mother	Mother's age 40+	Maternal Characteristics Index
	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)
End of Naval Practices × Vieques	0.018	0.069	-0.086	-0.951	0.061	-0.005	-0.313
Ferman-Pinto test p-value	[0.268]	[<0.001]	[<0.001]	[<0.001]	[<0.001]	[0.033]	[<0.001]
Permutation tests (one-sided)							
Approximate p-values	[0.740]	[0.987]	[0.013]	[0.039]	[1.000]	[0.130]	[0.039]
	[0.273]	[0.026]	[1.000]	[0.974]	[0.013]	[0.883]	[0.974]
Mother Characteristics	No	No	No	No	No	No	No
Municipality Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Month-Year Fixed Effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
N	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228

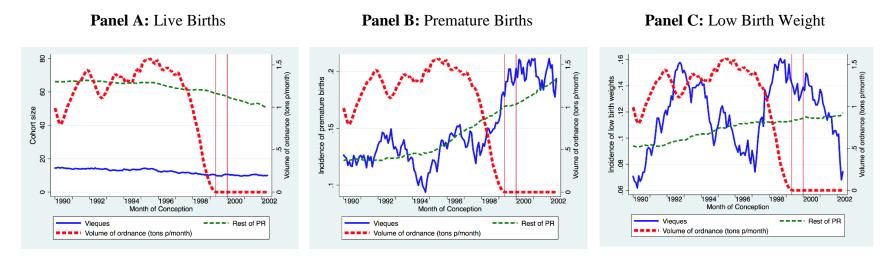
Notes: Coefficient estimates from municipality fixed effects regressions; each set of estimates (by column) is from a different regression. We report the (a) p-value for inferences in differences-in-differences with few treated groups and heteroskedasticity (Ferman and Pinto, forthcoming), and (b) the percentile rank of the coefficients from permutation exercises and its approximate p-value.

**Table 6:** Robustness Tests

	Dependent variable: Congenital anomaly (1/0)										
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	
End of Naval Practices × Vieques	0077*** (0.0024)	0074*** (0.0024)	0078*** (0.0025)	0079ª -	.0056** (0.0022)	0072*** (0.0025)	0069*** (0.0025)	0072*** (0.0025)	0073*** (0.0025)	0052** (0.0023)	
Ferman-Pinto test p-value	[0.071]	[0.068]	[0.065]	[0.061]	[0.084]	[0.077]	[0.096]	[0.076]	[0.083]	[0.067]	
Permutation test Approximate p-value	[0.078]	[0.091]	[0.078]	[0.078]	-	[0.078]	[0.091]	[0.078]	[0.078]	-	
Mother Characteristics Education Controls	Yes	Yes			Yes	Yes	Yes			Yes	
Age Controls	Yes		Yes		Yes	Yes		Yes		Yes	
Municipality FE's	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
Month-Year FE's  Lag of Dep. Variable  Local Economic Activity	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes Yes	
Controls						Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	
N	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,137	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,228	12,137	

Notes: Coefficient estimates from municipality fixed effects regressions; each set of estimates (by column) is from a different regression. Robust standard errors to general forms of cross-sectional and temporal dependence (Driscoll and Kraay 1998) in parentheses (columns 103, 6-9) or heteroskedasticity robust standard errors (columns 5, 10); significant at (\*) 90 percent, (\*\*\*) 95 percent, (\*\*\*) 99 percent confidence levels. We also report the (i) p-value for inferences in differences-in-differences with few treated groups and heteroskedasticity (Ferman and Pinto, forthcoming), and (ii) the percentile rank of the coefficients from permutation exercises and its approximate p-value. Mother characteristics' controls include (averages of) indicators for high school graduate, higher education (some/completed), teenage pregnancy, mother's age at childbirth of 40 years or greater, and a linear maternal age control.

# Appendix Figure A.1: Ordnance Volume During Naval Exercises and Other Neonatal Health Outcomes, 1990-2003



Notes: Ordnance volume during naval exercises (bold dashed line); number of live births (Panel A), incidence of premature births (Panel B), and incidence of low birthweight births (Panel C) by month of conception, for live births of mothers resident in Vieques (solid) and in the rest of PR (dashed line) (24-month moving average).

**Appendix Table A1:** End of Bombing Activity and Congenital Anomalies by Period of Exposure, 1990-2003

Dependent variable: Congenital anomaly (1/0) Exposure period (conception within or following *s* months of end of naval practices) s = 3s = 6s = 9s = 12(1) (2) (4) (3) -0.0091\*\* -0.0091\*\* -0.0091\*\* -0.0091\*\* End of Naval Practices in 2nd Trimester × Vieques (0.0037)(0.0037)(0.0037)(0.0037)F-P p-value [0.276][0.252] [0.268] [0.252]Permutation test - percentile rank 7/77 7/77 7/77 7/77 Approximate p-value [0.0909][0.0909][0.0909][0.0909]End of Naval Practices in 1st Trimester -0.0096\*\*\* -0.0096\*\*\* -0.0096\*\*\* -0.0096\*\*\* × Vieques (0.002)(0.0024)(0.0024)(0.0024)F-P p-value [0.216][0.266][0.238][0.232]8/77 Permutation test - percentile rank 8/77 8/77 8/77 Approximate p-value [0.104][0.104][0.104][0.104]Conception within s Months of End of -0.0085\*\*\* -0.0083\*\*\* -0.0085\*\*\* -0.0086\*\*\* Naval Practices × Vieques (0.0026)(0.003)(0.0027)(0.0026)F-P p-value [0.309] [0.300] [0.321][0.297]Permutation test - percentile rank 14/77 12/77 10/77 11/77 Approximate p-value [0.130][0.143][0.182][0.156]Conception following s Months of End of -0.0081\*\*\* -0.0081\*\*\* -0.0080\*\*\* -0.0079\*\*\* Naval Practices × Vieques 0.00254 0.00253 0.00252 0.00254 F-P p-value [0.297][0.314][0.318][0.330]6/77 6/77 6/77 6/77 Permutation test - percentile rank Approximate p-value [0.078][0.078][0.078][0.078]Yes Yes Yes Mother Characteristics Yes Yes Yes Municipality & Month-Year FEs Yes Yes 0.010 0.010 0.010 Outcome Mean 0.010

Notes: Coefficient estimates from municipality fixed effects regressions; each set of estimates (by column) is from a different regression. Robust standard errors to general forms of cross-sectional and temporal dependence (Driscoll and Kraay 1998) in parentheses; significant at (\*) 90 percent, (\*\*\*) 95 percent, (\*\*\*) 99 percent confidence levels. We also report the (a) p-value for inferences in differences-in-differences with few treated groups and heteroskedasticity (Ferman and Pinto, forthcoming), and (b) the percentile rank of the coefficients from permutation exercises and its approximate p-value. Mother characteristics' controls include (averages of) indicators for high school graduate, higher education (some/completed), teenage pregnancy, mother's age at childbirth of 40 years or greater, and a linear maternal age control.

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