

NBER WORKING PAPER SERIES

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Working Paper 22497
<http://www.nber.org/papers/w22497>

NATIONAL BUREAU OF ECONOMIC RESEARCH
1050 Massachusetts Avenue
Cambridge, MA 02138
August 2016

The authors gratefully acknowledge the support of NIA P01 AG10120. Dora Costa also has benefited from the use of facilities and resources at the California Center for Population Research, UCLA, which is supported in part by NICHD grant R24HD041022. The views expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the National Bureau of Economic Research.

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Union Army Veterans, All Grown Up
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NBER Working Paper No. 22497
August 2016
JEL No. I10,J10,N11

ABSTRACT

This paper overviews the research opportunities made possible by a NIA-funded program project, Early Indicators, Intergenerational Processes, and Aging. Data collection began almost three decades ago on 40,000 soldiers from the Union Army in the US Civil War. The sample contains extensive demographic, economic, and medical data from childhood to death. In recent years, a large sample of African-American soldiers and an oversampling of soldiers from major US cities have been added. Hundreds of historical maps containing public health data have been geocoded to place soldiers and their family members in a geospatial context. With newly granted funding, thousands of veterans will be linked to the demographic information available from the census and vital records of their children.

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I. Overview

A growing body of literature in the social sciences and in epidemiology and medicine focuses on the life cycle and intergenerational determinants of death, disease, and socioeconomic status (Costa 2015). Unfortunately, few datasets permit such studies. Social scientists can study recent cohorts through the HRS and the PSID but if we wish to understand long-run trends we need to examine historical cohorts. Historical data sets, however, tend to be geographically constrained, narrow in scope, and tied to a particular period of time. In contrast, the NIA funded Early Indicators project which traces the life histories of the first US cohort to reach age 65 in the twentieth century captures demographic, socioeconomic and health data on a broadly representative sample of tens of thousands of men and their families, linked over time, for a century. Still expanding, the data collections include high-quality individual, household, and company-level data coming from a period of immense economic (industrialization, urbanization) and demographic (mortality and fertility transitions) change.

Data in the Early Indicators collections are centered on random samples of over 70,000 soldiers—black and white, urban and rural, immigrant and native-born--serving in the Union Army (UA) during the US Civil War. The UA veterans are observed in all the surviving federal censuses from 1850-1930s, as

children residing with their parents, as soldiers, and later as beneficiaries of a federal pension system that collected detailed health, demographic and economic data until they died. Supplemental collections have augmented the original sample of almost 40,000 white recruits with over 21,000 African-American soldiers and an oversampling of 12,500 recruits from major cities in 19th century America (in addition to the urban recruits already in the main sample). Because the rate of participation in the Union Army was so high, the sample is largely representative of the men in the North who were late teens and early twenties during the Civil War. And because all data were collected from public sources, there are no confidentiality requirements for using these data, and all data can be accessed through the website *UAdata.org*.

In recent years, the UA sample has been complemented with a vast ecological dataset that contains a century's worth of public health, economic, and demographic detail from large US cities. Researchers have merged thousands of city maps, including detailed street-level changes over time, with thousands of tables of data that are linked to specific urban locations or to wards and neighborhoods. Because urban veterans in the pension system have street addresses in their pension files, veterans can be precisely located and geocoded. This allows analysis not only of urban living patterns but also of the environmental risk factors faced by urban veterans.

Over the next five years, the research team will use powerful new genealogical tools to link tens of thousands of children of UA veterans to their death records and to the surviving manuscript schedules of the federal census from 1860-1940, as well as constructing a similar non-UA intergenerational sample from published family histories. These new efforts allow a truly intergenerational and geospatial analysis of demographic processes.

This paper illustrates the wide-ranging research potential now available in the *Early Indicators* collection and highlights the exciting new developments and ongoing collections that will soon be available to researchers. Though many papers have been published using the *Early Indicators* collections, in many respects it is a collection that is only now coming of age. In the following sections, we hope to provide an impetus and guide for new research with the *Early Indicators* collections. We outline briefly the history of the project and provide a detailed review of both data that have already come online and those that are in process. We then provide numerous examples of research topics that interested scholars might pursue using the *Early Indicators* data, and we discuss several issues that researchers should be aware of when using the data. Though the project has been underway for three decades, new research opportunities with the *Early Indicators* collections are abundant.

II. Background

In the 1970s, an international group of scholars began using new data sources to understand long-term mortality trends, including the secular decline in mortality since the 1600s (Fogel et al. 1978). Research by McKeown (1976, 1978) in the preceding decades had emphasized the role of improved nutrition on mortality decline, which challenged the prior consensus (United Nations, 1973) that mortality decline was due to public health, medical knowledge, hygiene, and income. Efforts by scholars working with these new data sources came up with refined evidence on trends and more nuanced explanations of those trends. (Haines 1978; Fogel 1986; Pope 1992).

Robert Fogel was a driving force behind much of the new data collection and analysis. He and Stanley Engerman had used data on heights from probate records to study the mortality of slaves in their path-breaking work *Time on the Cross* (1974). Their work expanded the possibility of using anthropometric measures, such as height and BMI, to study the role of chronic malnutrition on health and longevity, which seemed to be important in explaining the new finding that health and mortality could go through periods of decline even during periods of strong economic growth (Margo and Steckel 1983; Fogel 1986; Komlos 1987). As part of the effort to explain that paradox and to further understand secular mortality decline, Fogel envisioned a vast new collection of data based on the military and pension records from the US Civil War found in the National Archives (Wimmer 2003).

The scope of Fogel's proposal was daunting. It involved collecting and digitizing very large archives and linking individuals across data sources. Today, these tasks remain a significant technical and logistical challenge. In the 1980s it was almost inconceivable. Nothing of this scale had ever been done before. A grant application in 1986 was rejected on the grounds that such a massive and wide-ranging data collection project was not feasible. Fogel, ever the optimist, was determined to prove the critics wrong. With assistance from the National Bureau of Economic Research, he began collecting a pilot sample of 20 Union Army companies, developing at the same time the detailed software and collection methods necessary to capture the soldiers' experiences during the war, their family background from the federal censuses, and their health histories found in the pension records housed in the National Archives. Armed with the evidence of a successful pilot, Fogel's 1991 application to the National Institute on Aging and the National Science Foundation, *Early Indicators of Later Work Levels, Disease and Death*, was successful, which initiated the large-scale collection of veteran data. From the beginning, the project involved scholars from many universities. Larry Wimmer at Brigham Young University oversaw the logistics and training of the data collectors at the National Archives, as well as inputters in Chicago and Provo, Utah. Medical oversight was provided by doctors Nevin Scrimshaw, Irv Rosenberg, and Louis Nguyen (Wimmer 2003).

The *Early Indicators* collections have re-shaped knowledge of health and aging. Based on what they were seeing in the veterans' pension records, Fogel and Costa (1997) proposed a new theory of human physiology, which they entitled "technophysio evolution." The theory was that technologically induced changes in the environment had induced a form of human evolution that was "biological but not genetic, culturally transmitted, and not necessarily stable." (p. 49) As the vast medical data in the pension files (referred to as the "surgeon's certificates") started accumulating, it became apparent that these veterans had a host of negative health conditions. At the time, the idea was still in vogue that the elderly in pre-transition societies would be in relatively good health and free from disability because, it was thought, the robust survived and the frail died (Verbrugge, 1984; Alter and Riley 1989; Riley and Alter 1989; Myers, Lamb, and Agree 2003). This idea was sharply challenged by the new data showing high rates (relative to the mid-twentieth century) of disease (Costa 2000) and disability (Costa 2002). The composition of disabling conditions had also shifted considerably given that many non-fatal conditions became less disabling over time because of both improving medical treatment and the declines in the physical requirements of work (Wilson and Nguyen 1998; Song and Nguyen, 2003; Wilson, Burton and Howel, 2005).

Since the 1990s, scholars have pursued a variety of other important research topics made possible by the Union Army data. These include the benefits

of social networks (Costa and Kahn 2007a, 2007b, 2008, 2010); labor force participation and retirement (Costa 1998; Lee 1998, 2001, 2007); the relationship between wealth accumulation, economic mobility and health (Lee 2005, 2008); marriage patterns (Hacker 2008); survival in urban environments (Cain and Hong, 2009); extreme aging (Costa and Lahey, 2005); and the epidemiology, social ecology, and economic consequences of important diseases, such as arteriosclerosis (Costa, Helmchen and Wilson 2005), arthritis (Canavese and Fogel 2009), malaria (Hong 2007), and chronic respiratory disease (Wilson 2003).

III. Union Army Veterans and Related Collections

Since the initial successful grant in 1991, the *Early Indicators* project has expanded its scope considerably. In addition to the original sample of over 39,000 white enlisted men from the Union Army, Project researchers have added a sample of (21,000) African-American veterans from the United States Colored Troops (USCT); an oversample of 12,500 urban recruits from the largest US cities; 1,000 POWs from the infamous Andersonville camp; and a collection of 1,700 veterans who lived to at least the age of 95. The project has also added a detailed set of urban ecological data (HUE) collected from thousands of historical maps, which will allow the ability to place veterans in a rich geographical context. Finally, our researchers are now collecting data on the children of Union Army veterans, both black and white, facilitating an unprecedented opportunity to study

the intergenerational aspects of aging. As a complement to that new intergenerational sample, funding will also be used to release publicly the sample of US family history data originally collected by economic historian Clayne Pope. The following sections provide more detail on each of these collections.

A. Completed Veteran Collections

1. Union Army Veterans (UAV)

The main thrust of that first major grant in 1991 was a sample of 39,340 recruits consisting of the complete enlistment of 331 randomly drawn companies in the Union Army. Recruits in the sample were enlisted white soldiers in infantry units from all Northern states. Wartime data are drawn first from the Compiled Military Service Records (CMSRs), which contain information on the recruit from his enlistment record (residence, occupation, age, height) and variables from a monthly muster record, which includes health, battles, wounds, hospitalization, desertion, POW status, and cause of death or muster-out. These data are supplemented by variables from the Carded Medical Records (CMRs), which contain information from military hospitals. The cluster-sample approach allows researchers to calculate company-level variables, such as the company mortality or ethnic diversity of the company.

From the starting point of the CMSR and CMR records, researchers then go both forward and backward in the soldier's life. Using the index of pensions,

they locate the pension records for those soldiers who lived long enough to enter the pension system. From the pension files and the accompanying “Surgeons' Certificates,” researchers draw a wealth of information, often covering several decades, that includes demographic and economic information and the medical records from examinations that were conducted by the Pension Bureau to determine eligibility for pension support. Pension records can be dozens and sometimes hundreds of pages in length, and they constitute the primary source of data in the Union Army collection.

The final source of records come from the federal census. When the project began, the most recent publicly-available census was 1910, so the veterans were linked forward to the 1900 and 1910 census and backward to the 1850 and 1860 census records. These linkages allow demographic data to be collected not only for the veteran, but also his childhood and adult families. Newer samples of veterans have also been linked to the 1870 and 1880 census and the 1920 and 1930 censuses that have become publicly available since the collection project began.

(Table 1: Linkage Rates by Sample and Record Type – [HERE](#))

A data base with such rich information could not be created for Confederate soldiers because they were not eligible for the Union Army pension.

Although the Confederate states later provided pensions for their veterans, this pension information does not contain detailed medical information. In addition, because the Confederate states had to pay for pensions out of state funds (Union Army pensions were funded by tariffs), the pensions covered fewer men.

2. United States Colored Troops (USCT)

The most important addition to the project has been the collection of black veterans from the USCT. These were conducted in two waves, an initial sample of approximately 6,000 black soldiers and their white officers, which has recently been supplemented by an additional 15,000 black soldiers and white officers. African-American companies did not begin to be formed until mid-way through the war, and their wartime experiences were quite different from the white soldiers. However, the basic records and collection procedures for the black and white soldiers are essentially the same. Furthermore, the USCT have been linked to all available federal census records from 1850-1940, with the exception of the fire-destroyed 1890 records.

The legacy of slavery easily can be seen in many dimensions of the USCT sample. For instance, linkage rates to the 1850 and 1860 censuses were much lower, especially for recruits who were slaves prior to the war. In later life, black veterans faced discrimination in obtaining pension support, and their linkage rates to later census years were lower than for whites, partly because their life

expectancy was lower than white veterans. The USCT collection is an invaluable source of data for studying the lives of black veterans in the decades following the war.

3. Urban Veterans Supplement

The Urban sample is a stand-alone oversampling of Civil War veterans who enlisted in the largest US cities. Drawn in proportion to city size in 1860, the sample was designed to allow researchers to examine intra-city disparities in environmental conditions and draw inferences about the impact of ward conditions on the recruits' life-cycle aging process. A random sample of companies with over 50% of the company members residing in one of five target cities: Boston, Chicago, Philadelphia, New York, and Baltimore. The Urban sample consists of over 12,500 soldiers, who were then located within these five cities at the ward level.

The varying quality of records available for each city necessitated different procedures for sample identification. Using Dyer's Compendium of the War of the Rebellion, State Adjutant Generals reports, and various online resources, researchers compiled a list of companies that had more than 50% of their recruits enlisting in each target city. Researchers then extracted names and identifying information from the Regimental Books for those companies until the sample size was reached. Military, pension, medical and census records were

collected for these urban recruits using the same procedures as the main Union Army Veterans sample, though census linkage rates have improved because of new electronic resources, such as Ancestry.com

4. Andersonville POW Supplement

The CMSRs and CMRs provide information on stressors faced by soldiers in the army. We know the battles they fought in and have a record of their wounds and injuries. We also know the location and length of service. Regimental histories can also be exploited to gain more information on the wartime events encountered by the veterans of a given company.

Soldiers taken as POWs were under conditions of extreme stress, including, in some cases, long periods of malnutrition and even starvation. A recent supplement to the data includes the records of 1,000 survivors of the Andersonville POW Confederate prison. Andersonville was the most notorious Confederate prison and the men who passed through there in our sample had a mortality rate of 40 percent. In 2007, our researchers began collecting data on survivors of Andersonville, using the index developed by the National Park Service.

The Andersonville sample is drawn from those recruits who survived to 1900. These survivors were linked to their CMSR, CMR, pension records and the eight federal census years with surviving manuscripts between 1850 and 1930. Of

the 1000 veterans in the sample, 197 are linked to their siblings who were soldiers, whose complete data is also collected and will be included in a future data release.

5. Oldest-Old Supplement

Studying extreme longevity often requires drawing individuals from populations large enough to generate a sufficient number of very old members. Given 19th century life expectancy, even the large Union Army collections have a relatively small number of members reaching very old ages. The oldest-old is an over-sampling of 1,700 individuals with an age of death confirmed to be at least 95 years old that will soon be available on-line.

To reach the target sample of 1,700 oldest-old, a list of nearly 6,000 potential nonagenarians was compiled from many sources, including gravestone databases, obituaries, newspaper accounts, veterans associations and the 1930 and 1940 censuses. Death dates were confirmed from the pension files and the veterans were linked to all the census years from 1850 to 1940.

The oldest-old supplement contains the same records present in the other Veteran's collections, but often additional records are available in later years, including physician affidavits and home visits by the Veterans Administration representatives. These records contain information on care arrangements, disabilities and cognitive limitations not generally present for younger veterans.

B. Historical Urban Ecological (HUE) Data

For more than a decade, the *Early Indicators* team has been collecting data on the public health environment of the following major US cities: Baltimore, Boston, Chicago, Cincinnati, New York (Brooklyn), and Philadelphia, from 1830 through 1930. This collection of geospatial data was drawn from thousands of maps and published data tables and is now publicly available as the Historical Urban Ecological (HUE) data and as ICPSR 35617. Detailed changes in ward boundaries, street layouts and other built environment were meticulously traced over a century. No comparable street-level data for studying US urban history is available elsewhere.

Researchers selected the HUE study cities and variables in order to best analyze the effects of intra-urban health disparities and public health interventions on individual mortality and longevity as observed through the Union Army and USCT cohorts. The HUE data set includes ward boundary changes, street networks, and ward-level data on disease, mortality, crime, water, sanitation, commerce, industry, public works, property values and many other variables reported by municipal departments for each study city. Researchers scoured archives in each of the seven cities, as well as obtaining ward-level maps from the Library of Congress.

In sum, these materials constitute a framework that allows researchers to create accurate historical spatial and tabular data and perform geospatial and statistical analysis at many scales, giving researchers a deeper look into life in the rapidly changing cities of the nineteenth century. The HUE data by itself provides a fascinating and dynamic picture of urban American history. But even more exciting is the ability to link the Union Army collections to the HUE data. Veterans who resided in large cities and applied for the pension provided their street address, which allows us to precisely pinpoint the urban environment the veterans were living in. All soldiers in our target cities have been geo-located to their street addresses and can be integrated into the HUE data set. Additionally, all locations have been assigned county codes enabling researchers to track the mobility of veterans over time.

C. New and Ongoing Collections

Sadly, Robert Fogel died in June of 2013. Leadership of the *Early Indicators* project then passed to Dora Costa at UCLA. In 2014, the National Institute on Aging awarded a five year grant extension under a slightly different name, *Early Indicators, Intergenerational Processes, and Aging*. The change in the grant's name reflected the new push to create datasets appropriate for studying human development and aging within an intergenerational framework.

1. Veterans' Children's Census (VCC) Collection

The *Early Indicators* data provide a mechanism for studying intergenerational processes that is unavailable in modern data. We can study the aging and mortality not only of the veterans but also of their children and their childrens' households. The VCC collects all possible data on veterans' children and spouses from available census records from 1850-1940 and, where available, from vital records. Because of the difficulty of obtaining later-life linkages for children of soldiers who died in the war, the VCC collection is limited to those veterans who survived until 1900.

The VCC consists of three new scientific projects, each of which collects data on children and spouses of veterans. The collection consists of three parts: 1) 1,882 POWs who survived to 1900; 2) 8,500 white non-POWs; 3) 4,500 African-American soldiers from the USCT.. These collections come at considerable cost, since it takes, on average, about 5 hours of searching genealogical databases and inputting the results in order to collect the descendant data for a single Union Army veteran.

The aim of the VCC database is to facilitate the study of the causal mechanisms of intergenerational transmission of health, including the transmission of the effects of stressful events from parents to children. The data also create a valuable new object of study: the aging and longevity of women. In

historical intergenerational databases, women are often neglected because it can be hard to track them once they marry and change their surnames. However, the initial findings from the VCC are that about 70% of veterans' daughters are linked to at least one census outside of their father's household, even when we do not have a married name from the pension record. Similarly, a high rate of linkage to death records is possible for the daughters of the veterans (though linkage to death certificates is a function of location and year of death).

2. Intergenerationally-Linked Aging Sample (ILAS)

Although the Union Army sample is broadly representative of the general population because of the high rate of participation in the Army, it is still useful to utilize data that is not confined to veterans. The ILAS data were originally collected by economic historian Clayne Pope from printed family histories and genealogies from across the United States. The sample covers 39 family lineages consisting of about 15,000 households over time. The sample includes intergenerationally-linked records of 118,162 males and females born between 1577 and 1983. About 27% of the individuals in ILAS are currently linked to at least one of the federal censuses between 1850 and 1910.

The ILAS project will explore the feasibility of linking the sample individuals to the 1920-1940 censuses and recollecting the 1850-1910 census records, which were originally obtained without the assistance of modern online

search capabilities. It will also merge ecological and macroeconomic variables available from the censuses and other sources. The ILAS is a valuable companion to the UAV because it contains information from the same cohort as the UAV as well as cohorts born before and after the Union Army cohort. It also includes important demographic groups the UAV collections do not, namely women and Southerners.

IV. Research Possibilities

In addition to describing the multiple data sources and new research tools that have become available, this paper overviews a few of the exciting research questions that can be illuminated with the *Early Indicators* data collections, including social gradients in health, racial inequality, social network dynamics, mobility in time and space, the long-term economic, demographic and health effects of local environments and public health interventions, and the intergenerational transmission of health, well-being, and longevity. We detail a few of the important demographic topics that can be addressed with the *Early Indicators* data.

A. Racial Inequality

The *Early Indicators* data sources provide a unique resource for studying racial disparities in health and mortality. A special collection of over 21,000 black

soldiers from the US Colored Troops (USCT) allows direct comparison with white veterans on a number of health-related dimensions. The life expectancy of black and white soldiers provides an indicator of hardships suffered by the African Americans in the decades both before and after the Civil War. Of soldiers surviving their wartime service, only 28.1% of black soldiers survive to appear in either the pension rolls or census records in 1900, compared to 44.1% of white soldiers. As an illustration of this disparity, Table 2 below shows 10-year mortality rates, by age, for white and black veterans alive in 1900 with a known age and death date (an expanded analysis would account for those censored cases where post-1900 data is available, but no death date exists).

(Table 2: 10-year Mortality Rates by Race and Age, 1900-1910

HERE)

These basic results can be explored further with the demographic data from the 1900 and 1910 censuses and from the pension files, which also contain detailed medical examinations.

The *Early Indicators* data also contains detailed information from medical exams conducted to determine eligibility for and level of pension support at several points in time over the life course. Because the data from the USCT was

recently expanded to include 21,000 soldiers, sample sizes are now sufficient to study racial differences in both common and uncommon conditions.

The pension files also provide a view on the social and institutional consequences of racial prejudice in 19th century America. Wilson (2010), for instance, studies the impact of informal liberalization in the pension system on black and white veterans. Long before Congress officially acted to liberalize pension eligibility in 1890, veterans' groups were exerting political influence to increase dramatically the numbers of people being covered by the system. But this informal liberalization applied primarily to whites. Costa (2010) finds that the responsiveness of retirement decisions and living arrangements to pension income was much higher for black veterans than for whites, indicating the harsh alternative black veterans faced without that income.

B. Socioeconomic Gradients

The data contain several indicators of socioeconomic status and background, including household wealth, literacy, occupation and place of residence. The health impacts of a life full of hard labor, for instance, are poorly understood in today's highly-mechanized world. Occupations indicate important differences in socioeconomic background, and the occupations of Union Army soldiers can be tracked, in many cases, from their early life to death. Pension income also raised the economic welfare of many, particularly black veterans. By

1907, the pension becomes primarily aged-based, and it is possible to examine the effect of income on later-life mortality while controlling for the presence of chronic health conditions (Eli 2015) Recent work (Salisbury 2014) has extended the analysis of income to widows of veterans.

C. Local Urban Environments

The *Early Indicators* collections provide an unprecedented perspective on the long-term effects of local environments on health and longevity. Recently expanded oversampling of Union Army recruits from major cities allows for comparisons across cities and, more important, for analysis at the ward level. Researchers have spent many years geocoding historical maps so that recruits can be placed in a physical space that contains variables such as crime, disease, employment, government, municipal, property, and vital statistics. Many veterans return to their cities of origin, or they are part of the massive internal migration to the cities that took place in the late 19th century. Veterans, in many cases, can be mapped to the street-level and therefore linked to the geocoded public health information contained in the public health maps and the ward-level epidemiological and demographic data. Large-N studies that link individuals to their local neighborhood and public health data, such as infant mortality or infectious disease death rates, as well as tracking people over time, are not available from other historical or modern data sources. The HUE have also been

used by themselves (without the veterans) to study long-run neighborhood trends for a large number of variables (Costa and Kahn 2015; Shertzer 2015)

A useful feature of studying these urban environments is that scholars can examine how social gradients affected health in an era where access to quality health care was not a confounding factor. Simply put, no one—rich or poor—had access to effective medical treatments for most conditions. Thus, the privileged and well-to-do, in contrast to today, faced many of the same health challenges as the poor. More privileged classes were able, however, to locate themselves in cleaner less congested environments. The *Early Indicators* collections allow for studying the impact of local environments at several points in time and space.

The HUE data allow the analysis of the local environment on health outcomes. These data contain a variety of health indicators, including specific diseases and overall mortality. As an example, the figure below shows the 1890 locations of veterans living in Philadelphia and Baltimore in 1890. Colors on the map indicate the crude mortality rate of the ward, with red being the highest quintile and blue the lowest. 1890 is the year that many soldiers entered the pension system due to the liberalization of the law governing pension eligibility.

(Figure 1: Veterans' Residences in 1890, by Ward Crude Mortality Quintile
HERE)

D. Acute Stress

A potential key indicator of later health and mortality is acute stress. Almost all soldiers in the Union Army experienced a measure of stress, but recruits varied significantly in their experiences. The military data files contain records of which battles were experienced by recruits as well as their POW history during the war.

A simple indicator of stress is the mortality rate experienced at the company level. The distribution of company-level mortality is shown in Figure 2 below, which indicates the broad range of mortality risk that companies experienced. This variation can be exploited as a measure of wartime stress. Researchers can also use information in the military files to construct measures of stress. Variables that researchers might use for such an index include the battles fought, length and time of service, injuries, hospitalization and disease at the company level. Company-level mortality has been shown to have significant effects on rates of chronic disease (Pizzaro, Silver, and Prause 2006) and on later-life mortality (Costa and Kahn 2010).

(Figure 2: Company-Level Mortality during the Civil War [HERE](#))

The intense stress of serving in POW camps can be studied with the Andersonville supplement discussed above. Costa and Kahn (2007) studied the

survival of POWs in the camps finding that the presence of friends significantly increased the rate of survival. Costa (2012) has also examined the later life mortality of these same POWs. She finds that older age mortality is significantly linked to the age of imprisonment. Younger soldiers at Andersonville (age<30) face higher old-age mortality than their peers, but those imprisoned after age 30 have lower mortality in old-age.

E. Early Life Risk Factors

Above we emphasized the role that acute stress during wartime had on the later life health and economic outcomes. Part of the stress experienced by soldiers was serious wounds and injuries, the consequences of which could follow soldiers in many areas of their lives. For instance, Lee (2008) finds that wartime wounds and illnesses significantly diminished the veterans' geographic mobility after the war. On the health front, Wilson (2003) found that soldiers hospitalized for infectious disease during the war had significantly higher rates of chronic respiratory disease later in life.

Other scholars have used the *Early Indicators* data to link pre-war factors to later life outcomes. For example, Su (2009) finds that risk exposures in early life, including season of birth, country of origin, residential region, city size, and height at enlistment influence mortality risk many decades after the war. Hong (2007) looks at a specific risk factor—exposure to malaria—to study the health of

soldiers during the war. Those soldiers with high exposure to malaria were significantly shorter at enlistment due to malnutrition and were more susceptible to infections during the war.

One of the earliest uses of UA data was to examine the determinants of height, which is a proxy for the cumulative impact of infectious disease and nutrition during childhood. This line of research on US soldiers was sparked by Margo and Steckel (1983), who identified the puzzling “antebellum paradox” of declining height in a period of economic growth. (See also Costa 1993; Costa and Steckel 1997; Haines, Craig, and Weiss 2000) Wilson and Pope (2003) find significant effects of urbanization, socioeconomic status, occupation, and migration history on the adult height of soldiers in the UA collection. More recently, Zehetmayer (2011) has found that height is positively correlated with proximity to protein-rich nutrients during childhood and with geographic mobility. Height can still be fruitfully explored with new data on African-American troops and with the augmented collection of urban recruits, where it can be combined with the wide array of ecological variables present in the HUE data.

F. Social Networks

The *Early Indicators* collections have linked individuals in ways that are uncommon in modern datasets. Recruits were sampled as whole companies (usually 100-150 men), and companies were typically drawn heavily from a

common location. Costa and Kahn (2010) have explored how these social networks affected the strength and cohesiveness of military units, and new research is examining how these social networks can persist for many decades by following the residential clustering of company members in later life (Costa, et al. 2016).

Because of the extensive geocoding of the urban data, often to the street-level address, analysis of social networks can be facilitated by a geo-spatial analysis. Figure 3 shows a close-up of a Chicago neighborhood, for example, with two veterans living around the corner from one another who served in the same Illinois company many years previous.

(Figure 3: Veterans' Residential Patterns over Time, Chicago [HERE](#))

Family ties are also an important part of the veterans' network that can be exploited in the collection. Sizable pieces of the veterans' lives are obtained from linkage to the US federal censuses from 1850-1930, allowing information about both childhood family ties and living arrangements in later life. Socioeconomic information at the family level can be used to study the family-level effects on life outcomes. Census records could be used to construct neighborhood level variables such as ethnic concentration, occupation distributions, or wealth inequality.

G. Elderly Living Arrangements

Census collections allow researchers to study the lives of veterans in the context of the families and households in which they lived. By 1900, most veterans were getting pension support and they were, roughly, in the age interval 55-65—an ideal point to begin studying various aspects of the aging process related to living arrangements.

The table below gives one perspective on elderly living arrangements for Union Army veterans. The census enumerator indicated what member of each household was the “head,” and each additional household member was identified by their relationship to the household head. As can be seen from Table 3, most veterans are listed as head, a percentage that declines gradually over the next two decades.

(Table 3: Living Arrangements among Veterans, by Race and Year – HERE)

The most striking feature of this preliminary analysis, in our view, is the similarity between black and white living arrangements of elderly soldiers. In both 1900 and 1910, blacks and whites were equally likely to be household heads. The likelihood of living as a parent of the household head is, in 1910, 8.2% for whites and 3.6% for blacks. It is likely the case that black veterans were more

likely to have adult children who were less likely to live independently, possibly for economic reasons.

This analysis does not capture the rate at which white and black veterans may have lived with adult children as household members (in other words, what percentage of the veterans who were household heads had adult children or grandchildren living with them). Future work includes bringing more of this detail into the analysis, as well as information on the veterans' health, disability, and pension support. Of course bringing in national comparison data from the IPUMS data will allow comparisons between veteran households and the general population.

H. Chronic Disease Epidemiology

Research on the secular decline of chronic conditions and disabilities has been published with earlier versions of the data that has re-shaped how scholars think about the epidemiological transition (Fogel and Costa 1997; Costa 2000; Wilson, Burton, and Howell 2005). In addition, the data collection remains a rich source of information for studying specific chronic diseases. Past work includes an examination of arteriosclerosis (Costa, Helmchen, and Wilson 2007), respiratory disease (Wilson 2003), and hernias (Song and Nguyen 2003). Noymer (2009) uses the UA data to test whether tuberculosis was a risk factor for

influenza epidemic, thereby reducing the prevalence of tuberculosis in the population.

These examples above use only a small subset of the available data with which to study chronic disease epidemiology across the life course. Researchers on the *Early Indicators* team have worked for years to develop a system of standardizing the findings from the medical examinations that allow for detailed study of the epidemiology of dozens of chronic conditions in later life. Of course an enormous advantage of the UA collections is that risk factors for those conditions can be identified back to the early life experiences of the veterans.

There have been studies looking at the overall burden of chronic diseases and disabilities using the UA collection. Costa (2000, 2002) and Fogel and Costa (1997) document and explore the widespread decline in chronic disease rates and the associated decline in functional limitations. Costa (2000) emphasizes the role that the decline in manual labor and exposure to infectious disease as primary contributors to the decline in condition prevalence over a wide number of conditions. Wilson, Burton, and Howell (2005) emphasize the importance of the decline in non-fatal conditions that in the 19th and early 20th century were highly prevalent and disabling but today seldom lead to disability; these include hernias, varicose veins, and a large number of gastrointestinal disorders.

I. Intergenerational Forces

As noted above, family connections are an important aspect of the data collections. A recent renewal of funding by the NIA allows the collection of data on the children (and the households of those children). The *Early Indicators* team has already begun the process of linking the census and death information for the children of the UA veterans, both white and black. The new collection will also significantly increase the amount of data available on women, as the project collects that same data for both the sons and daughters of the veterans. New electronic search tools, such as those available from Ancestry.com, also yield higher find rates for women than have been possible in the past.

We will thus be able to follow individuals across three generations and study the factors in the lives of the veterans that affect life outcomes into the next generation. For instance, from the 1850 and 1860 censuses, it is frequently possible to find the occupations of the soldiers' fathers, and the new data will give the occupations of their children all the way through the 1940 census. We know of no other data source that allows for the systematic study of multi-generational social mobility and how that mobility intersects with health and longevity, not to mention other social factors such as race or immigration history.

As an illustration, Table 4 below combines data from the POW sample and a small VCC pilot done on white soldiers in the main sample. The table shows the occupations of veterans' sons as a function of age and birth order. In this table, first-born sons in their 20s are less likely to start their adult lives as

laborers and more likely to be in professions or skilled trades, though that gap narrows as the brothers age. Moreover, the younger brothers appear to move from being laborers to farmers as they age, which doesn't happen for 1st sons. Sample sizes in this analysis are much too small to draw any conclusions, but one can envision using the ultimate VCC sample, once it has been collected, to study a host of demographic and economic factors related to social mobility in an intergenerational context.

(Table 4: Occupation of Veterans' Sons, by Birth Order [HERE](#))

V. Persistent Challenges and Continuing Progress

The Union Army collections are a vast and complex set of data covering a dynamic century of economic growth, industrialization, urbanization, and technological innovation. These features make these data both immensely valuable for research and immensely challenging to understand and use appropriately. Any researcher using the collections needs to be aware of the significant challenges involved in avoiding the many biases that can arise when using the data.

A. Understanding and Accounting for Bias

A thorough discussion of potential biases in the UA collections can be found on the *uadata.org* website and, to a large extent, in the many published papers using the data. In this section we highlight, in broad terms, some of the key issues that researchers need to consider when using the UA collections.

In an ideal situation, data on all sample members is generated by the same data generating process with parameters that depend only on factors that all sample individuals are at risk to experience at each point in time. The Union Army collections deviate from this ideal in numerous ways. We highlight some of these in the following paragraphs.

1. Bias due to event-generated data

As noted above, the data collection captures information across the soldier's life course. But the existence of data at one point in time often depends on events that happen at a *future* date, which creates significant survival bias. The most ubiquitous source of such survival bias is caused by the event of applying for a Union Army pension. The pension application consists of a thick file of documents that describe life for many decades *before* the pension, including experiences during the war. Thus, some of the data in the collections during early life, during the war, and after the war, exists because the veteran lived to enter the pension system, often much later in life.

The obvious complication in conducting analysis is that the data on two identical soldiers at a point in time, say 1870, will be very different if one of those soldiers survived to apply for a pension at a later date, say 1880, but the other did not. The pension also contains demographic and economic information, such as marriage and family data and occupation for the period covered between the war and the time of pension application. If the veteran dies without applying for this pension this information is unavailable, even though he may have lived for many decades beyond the end of the war.

One particularly problematic source of bias is when information from the pension files is used to populate data fields describing the wartime experience, such as claims of injuries or illnesses. In the main UAV file, data that comes from

military files and data coming from later pension applications is not distinguished. However, special files have been created that give the information from CMSRs and CMRs without using any information from the pension application. Researchers needing an unbiased view of the wartime experience should utilize these important auxiliary files.

Surviving to participate in the pension system increases the likelihood of linking the veteran to the 1850 and 1860 censuses because information obtained from the pension files and from the 1900 and 1910 censuses is very useful in obtaining the census records from the veteran's childhood. Thus an unbiased analysis of early life effects on later life outcomes is best conducted by conditioning on survival to a point in time where most veterans would have entered the pension system. If one wanted to address, for instance, the effect of early life environment on, say, survival during the war, the researcher must account for the fact that the early life variables are much less likely to exist in the data for soldiers who died during the war and, therefore, never obtained a pension. Thus, the collection methods used to make linkages to the census impose serious limitations on how the early life census data can be used for research.

Another significant event that further complicates the nature of survival bias was the liberalization of the pension system in 1890. Prior to that point, veterans had to make an argument that their disability was "war-related." But under the 1890 law, any disability, regardless of cause, that limited the capacity to

perform manual labor was eligible for pension support. This caused an immediate and significant increase in pension enrollment, which in turn generated a host of retrospective data of the kind we have been discussing. One important complication of this change for research is that any time series of disease or disability prevalence calculated from the medical data in the pension files must account for the difference in eligibility (and hence existence of the data) that occurred in 1890.

2. Variation and evolution in census linkage rates

Much of the important demographic information on the veterans' lives comes from the census records. An unavoidable problem in using these data is that linkage to the census is not random; it is correlated with factors that may, in turn, be correlated with the life outcome of interest. For example, urban environments were known to be much less healthy than rural ones, but soldiers in urban environments are also much harder to identify in the census because census linkage is difficult in urban areas. Place of birth is another variable that may be correlated with both the linkage rate and the outcome of interest.

The past decade has seen an explosion of new internet-based search tools available through sites such as *Ancestry.com*. These tools are now the primary method used to link veterans to both census records and vital records. This has led to much higher linkage rates for the later collections, namely the USCT, Urban,

Andersonville and Oldest-Old samples. This increased linkage rate is very good news for users of those samples but a problem for researchers comparing those soldiers with the main Union Army collection, which was collected without those tools.

For all data collection after the original Union Army sample, researchers used Ancestry.com to link living veterans to all census decades available. Linkage rates are high for veterans who survived to enter the pension system because information from the Civil War pension record is used to identify soldiers on the census. This information includes, but is not limited to, alternate name spellings and aliases, birth date and place, death date and place, residences, family information (spouse, children, and sometimes parents and siblings), and occupation. A search begins with basic information, such as name, birth date, birth place, and residence location. Other pension information is used to determine if an individual found in the search results is the veteran. Each census decade contains slightly different information, so the exact information used to search and confirm a census link varies, but it is all information found in the pension record. Linkage rates are high and the matches robust because so much is known about the veteran and his family from the pension record.

Many researchers currently are exploring mechanized census linking. Our preliminary work with mechanized census linkage has yielded lower linkage rates and suggested a bias against finding men who were not upwardly mobile

relative to census linkage by highly-trained inputters. Martha Bailey (2016) has compared the links created through clerical review by staff for her Longitudinal, Intergenerational Family Electronic Microdata (LIFE-M) project to different machine matching schemes. In her preliminary results, her matching rates were similar to those of some of the machine algorithms but the machine algorithms had false positive rates of up to 60 percent. *Early Indicators* avoids almost all these false positives by employing highly-trained research assistants who use pension information for searching and confirming matches.

3. Historical change

The pension data cover decades of time in which advances in technology, medical knowledge and public health were occurring. These changes are reflected in the medical records found from the pension files. A typical physical examination record from 1870 looks vastly different from a typical examination record fifty years later in 1920. The increase in knowledge and professionalization of the examiners is readily apparent from even a casual observation. Such a transformation does not necessarily cause bias, but researchers must be careful in constructing time series of health outcomes from the pension files.

4. Administrative racial prejudice

One of the exciting new features of the Union Army collections is the large, new collection of records on African-American soldiers in the USCT. One of the first things many researchers will want to do is make comparisons between white and black soldiers. This, indeed, is one of the primary motivating goals behind the collection of the USCT data, but such may be biased by underlying discrimination faced by black soldiers both during the war and in the pension system.

Wilson (2010) provides a detailed discussion of how prejudice in the pension system was very effective at keeping black soldiers' rate of participation low. Part of this lower participation is due to the fact that blacks were less likely to be injured in battles than white soldiers, but a large part of the differential is due to discrimination. The figure below shows estimated enrollment in the pension system by race and by wartime medical history. Controlling for evidence in the military records, by the time the 1890 Act was passed whites had significantly higher enrollment than blacks in each category. Pension enrollment rates for those with a war wound were about 60% for whites, but only 35% for blacks. For those with an illness but no wound, whites were at 43% and blacks were at 10%. And for those without any illness or wound, whites were at 22% and blacks were at 8%.

In the Post-Reconstruction period, it is easy to see from Figure 4 the informal liberalization of the pension system that was occurring between 1879

and 1889 prior to the formal liberalization in 1890. Starting with the passage of the 1879 Arrears Act, which allowed back payments of pension support, this was a period of intense political activism on behalf of veterans. But blacks did not share equally from this liberalization. Their claims of war-related disabilities were rejected at higher rates, and they had a harder time gathering documentation that allowed them to verify their identities and their service. This was due to their status as slaves prior to service and to treatment during the war.

(Figure 4: Pension Enrollment Proportions, By Race and Wartime Medical History HERE)

In the *Early Indicators* data, 18.7% of the black sample died from disease while in service, compared to only 9.6% of whites. Yet black troops were less likely to be sent to the hospital for illness than white troops. Scholars have argued that white medical officers “accused blacks of feigning sickness in much the same way that masters and overseers accused slaves of shirking work. They mistreated, abused, overworked, or neglected such soldiers, thereby contributing to further deterioration of their health” (Berlin, 1998, 636). Humphreys (2008) notes that black regiments were also understaffed compared to white regiments. The short-term impact of this discrimination was higher disease mortality during the war. The long-term impact was that blacks lacked documentation of their wartime

illnesses, leading to a greater difficulty in claiming pension support in the period of informal liberalization.

In sum, the Union Army collections allow for detailed comparisons of the health of aging veterans, both black and white. But the blatant discrimination in the pension system is a fact that researchers must grapple with in making black-white comparisons using medical data from the pension files.

B. User Services

Early Indicators researchers have put extensive work into easing the challenging task of using the Union Army collections, including cleaning and standardizing the data values, many of which are free-form text. As a general principle, the data inputters were trained to avoid making *ad hoc* corrections and standardizations. The project leadership team has tried to strike a balance between preserving all the relevant information and making individual variables as easy to use as possible. This is ongoing work in the current grant cycle. Efforts include the creation of “derived variables” that can be used easily in analysis. Data standardization is most evident in the medical data from the Surgeon Certificates, since most of that data is free-form entries from medical exams. On the UAdata.org website, users can download sets of common standardized variables. These user-friendly variables are available for several categories as “Data 101” files. There is no short-cut to carefully studying the accompanying

documentation, including sections on sample design and on the bias issues discussed above. But there are tools available on *UAdata.org* that can flatten considerably the learning curve.

(Figure 5: Union Army Data Searchable Extraction System [HERE](#))

First, although the data collections and documentation can be downloaded in bulk for users accustomed to working with the data, but the new data extraction system can be a valuable tool for the new researcher. The extraction system is organized topically, allowing a user to focus on a set of variables from all data sources related to the topic of interest. For example, Figure 5 shows a subset of the results from a search on the topic of marriage, illustrating both census and pension-based variables. The columns shown in the extraction system provide the user with quick links to the codes and formatting used for each variable. Each variable is also linked to the data collection screen from which it comes. This is an invaluable tool for learning how variables relate to each other and the user can see, in this example, the marriage information available on Screen 2.A., as well as a variety of other family information, including the variable names.

(Figure 6: Example of Data Inputting Screen [HERE](#))

The data extraction system is a helpful tool for users to quickly obtain needed variables. After selecting the variables they want, users can indicate on the export page which collection they want to draw from (Whites, Blacks, Urban, etc.), and how they want the data formatted (Excel, SAS, Stata, etc.). Each export comes with a customized set of online documentation that provides general background information as well as documentation that is unique to the exported variables.

Despite its name, the primary function of the extraction system is not extraction, but teaching. The topic-based approach to the data, which can be browsed or searched, is designed to help users understand the collections and to ease the path of entry into these complex data collections. In addition, the website provides a large set of topical user guides that provide the user with extensive detail on the variables and the sample design and collection methods used to obtain them. The extraction system is currently available for the UAV and original USCT samples, with all other data sets to be added soon. Personal assistance from the *Early Indicators* team is also readily available, and the staff will respond to queries as soon as possible.

VI. Conclusion

The collection of the UA data began nearly 30 years ago. Since that time these soldiers have been contributing to our understanding of health, mortality,

economic mobility, and a variety of scientific questions across many disciplines.

By this measure, the UA collections are old news.

But we have tried to illustrate with this essay many vital questions related to the human experience that might be illuminated by the UA collections are still to be explored and answered. Many of these questions are best served by having data on a large set of individuals over their entire lifetimes. Some of the key forces that seem to shape human health and well-being—poverty, stress, inequality, discrimination, family dissolution, and environmental risks—can be addressed with this remarkable and growing set of life histories.

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Table 1: LINKAGE RATES BY SAMPLE AND RECORD TYPE (%)

| | PENSION | CMSR | CMR | SURG CERT* | CENSUS |
|-------------------------------------|----------------|-------------|------------|-------------------|---------------|
| UNION ARMY (n=39340) | 68.3 | 99.2 | 57.3 | 72.4 | 65.0 |
| USCT (n=6141) | 50.2 | 97.2 | 48.9 | 63.3 | 45.6 |
| EXPANDED USCT (n=15071) | 55.8 | 99.6 | 51.4 | 65.5 | 51.3 |
| URBAN - BOSTON (n=1682) | 57.1 | 95.8 | 49.1 | 68.2 | 65.9 |
| URBAN - CHICAGO (n=1589) | 50.9 | 98.6 | 53.3 | 73.7 | 57.8 |
| URBAN - PHILADELPHIA (n=2922) | 53.0 | 99.4 | 52.5 | 71.6 | 64.6 |
| URBAN - NEW YORK (n=5017) | 41.8 | 98.9 | 36.6 | 65.0 | 49.3 |
| URBAN - BALTIMORE (n=1414) | 56.5 | 98.7 | 34.6 | 73.3 | 66.3 |
| OLDEST OLD (n=2034)** | 100 | 95.7 | 48.1 | 95.7 | 99.8 |
| ANDERSONVILLE (n=1049)*** | 95.4 | 98.3 | 53.5 | 97.4 | 99.0 |

*Linkage to Surg Certs is contingent on having a pension.

**Only veterans who lived to age 95+, as confirmed by pension, were accepted into the sample.

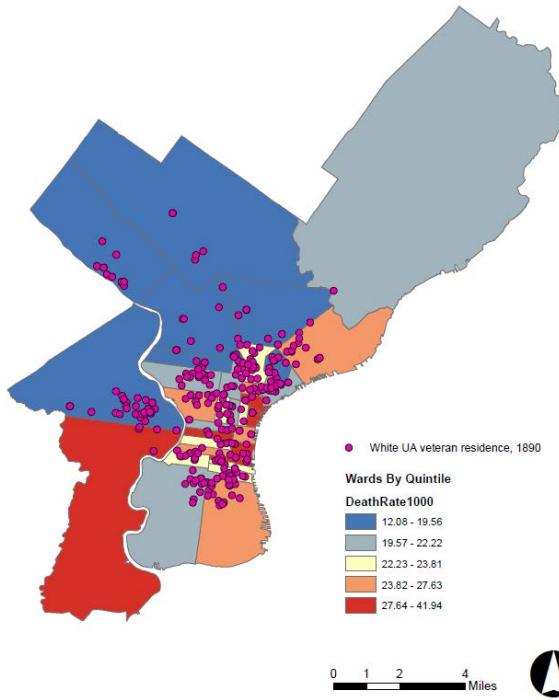
***Only veterans who were POWs at Andersonville prison and survived to 1900, as confirmed by CMSR and pension, were accepted into sample. Pension link rate is not 100% because some soldiers who survived to 1900 (as confirmed on pension index) had pensions in the custody of the VA which we were unable to access.

Table 2: 10-year Mortality Rates by Race and Age, 1900-1910

| Age in 1900 | Whites (UA) | Blacks (USCT) |
|-------------|----------------|------------------|
| 50-54 | 16.6% | 26.5% |
| 55-59 | 22.6% | 33.2% |
| 60-64 | 31.4% | 40.0% |
| 65-69 | 44.6% | 53.4% |
| 70-74 | 60.2% | 67.5% |

Figure 1: Veterans' Residences in 1890, by Ward Crude Mortality Quintile

PHILADELPHIA, 1890



BALTIMORE, 1890

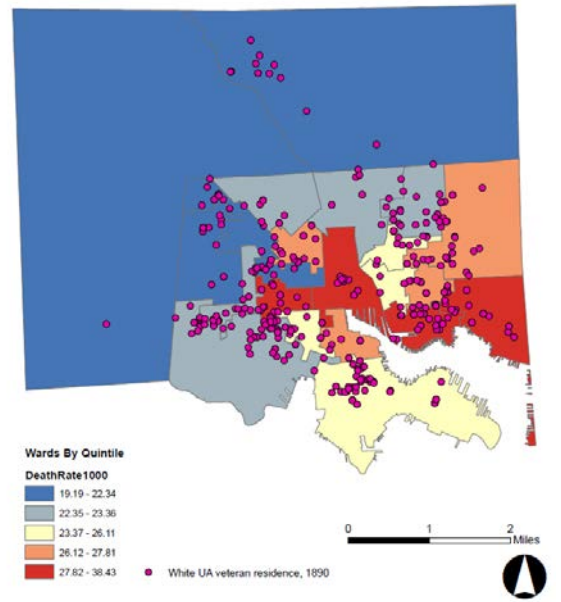


Figure 2: Company-Level Mortality during the Civil War

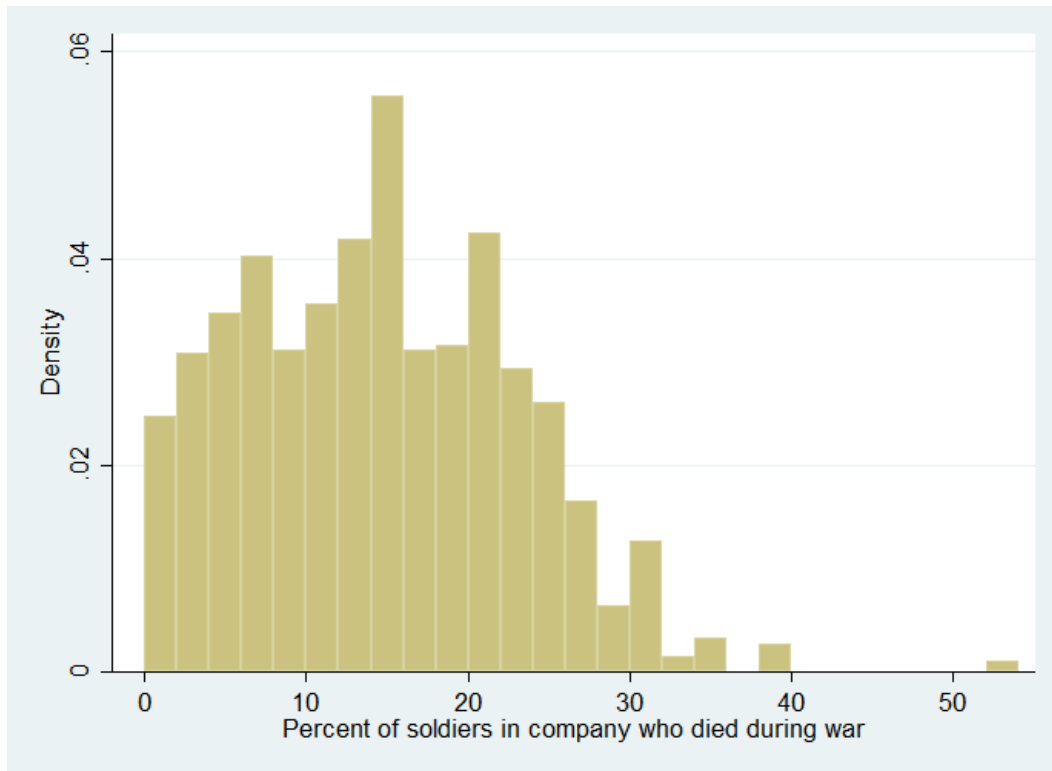


Figure 3: Veterans' Residential Patterns over Time, Chicago

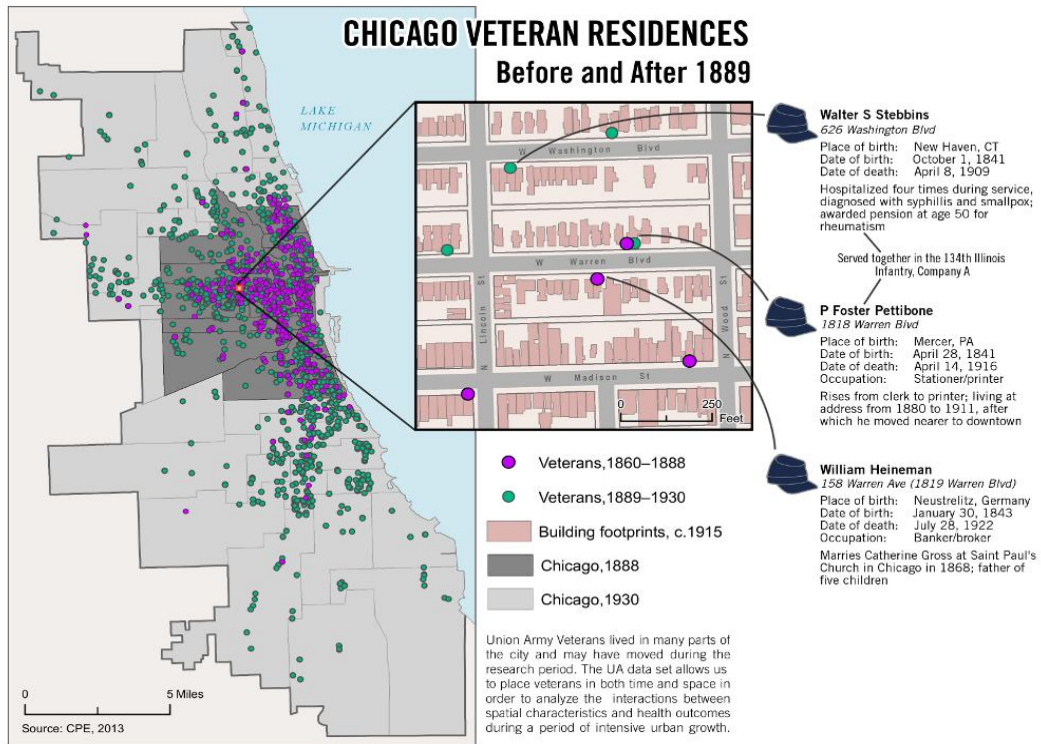


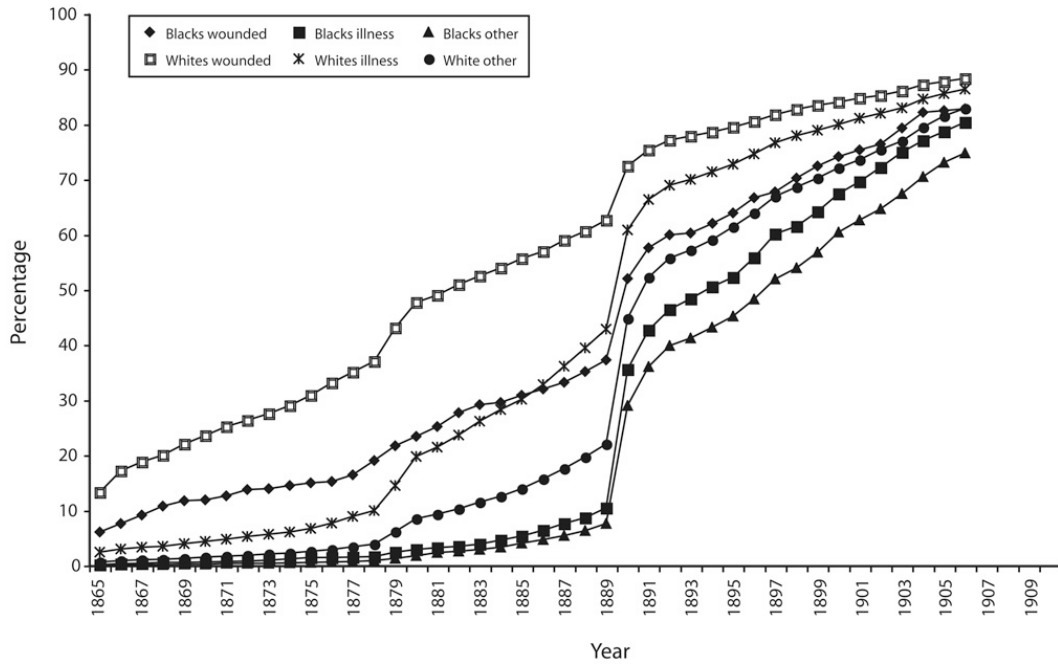
Table 3: Living Arrangements among Veterans, by Race and Year

| <u>Relationship to Head</u> | 1900 | | 1910 | |
|-----------------------------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| | <u>Whites</u> | <u>Blacks</u> | <u>Whites</u> | <u>Blacks</u> |
| Head | 88.7% | 88.8% | 82.0% | 83.3% |
| Parent | 2.5% | 1.8% | 8.2% | 3.6% |
| Spouse or Relative | 2.0% | 1.9% | 2.0% | 3.4% |
| Non-Relative | 4.5% | 6.7% | 5.7% | 7.6% |
| Alive but not linked to Census | 2.3% | 0.8% | 2.2% | 2.2% |
| N | 12,737 | 4,201 | 7,567 | 2,600 |
| Average Age (Census Age) | 60.3 | 59.8 | 69.0 | 68.9 |
| Age Range: | 50-79 | | 60-89 | |

Table 4: Occupation of Veterans' Sons, by Birth Order

| <u>Occupation in 1900</u> | Age in 1900: 20-29 | | | Age in 1900: 30-39 | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|----------------|----------------|
| | <u>1st Son</u> | <u>2nd Son</u> | <u>3rd Son</u> | <u>1st Son</u> | <u>2nd Son</u> | <u>3rd Son</u> |
| Laborer | 33% | 41% | 43% | 29% | 25% | 29% |
| Farmer (owner/operator) | 21% | 18% | 23% | 20% | 29% | 31% |
| Trade/Craft/Clerical | 40% | 36% | 32% | 40% | 40% | 36% |
| Manager/Professional | 6% | 5% | 3% | 11% | 6% | 4% |
| | <i>100%</i> | <i>100%</i> | <i>100%</i> | <i>100%</i> | <i>100%</i> | <i>100%</i> |
| N= | 349 | 253 | 160 | 159 | 164 | 107 |

Figure 4: Pension Enrollment Proportions, By Race and Wartime Medical History



Source: Wilson (2010)

Figure 5: Union Army Data Searchable Extraction System

Get started by selecting one or all data sources in the dropdown menu below:

All Sources Topical Variable Names 88 results. Browse Search

| Add to Set | Variable Label | Variable (#) | Codes | Format | Screen | Source | Records |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|--------------|-------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Marriage county | wm_cnty (3) | FF | Q | ☐ | MIL | 18982 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Marriage city | wm_city (3) | FF | Q | ☐ | MIL | 22321 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Recruits religious affiliation | religon (3) | FF | Q | ☐ | MIL | 5448 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Quality code for wm_dsdt | wm_dsqc (3) | ☐ | Q | ☐ | MIL | 968 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Divorce or separation designation | wm_dors (3) | ☐ | Q | ☐ | MIL | 2336 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Marriage date | wm_date (3) | FF | Q | ☐ | MIL | 28955 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Quality code for wm_date | wm_dtqc (3) | ☐ | Q | ☐ | MIL | 4048 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Remarks for screen 2 – personal family information | sc2rmks (1) | FF | Q | ☐ | MIL | 4014 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Household member age at last birthday 1900 | habd_0 (15) | Num | Q | ☐ | CEN | 54556 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Household member age at last birthday 1910 | habd_1 (15) | Num | Q | ☐ | CEN | 25161 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Household member age at time of census 1850 | hage_5 (15) | Num | Q | ☐ | CEN | 103289 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Household member age at time of census 1860 | hage_6 (15) | Num | Q | ☐ | CEN | 109134 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Household member age at time of census 1870 | hage_7 (20) | Num | Q | ☐ | CEN | 27783 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Household member married within the last census year 1850 | hmar_5 (15) | ☐ | Q | ☐ | CEN | 392 |

Data Set

| Remove | Variable Label | Variable (#) | Codes | Format | Screen | Source | Records |
|--------------------------|----------------|--------------|-------|--------|--------|--------|---------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | Select All | | | | | | |

Figure 6: Example of Data Inputting Screen

Variable Input Screen ✕

2. PERSONAL FAMILY INFORMATION

SPOUSE:

NAME BIRTH DATE Q

MARRIAGE DATE Q DEATH DATE Q

MARRIAGE PLACE CITY CO STATE Q

OFFICIATOR Div/Sep DATE Q

RELIGION Q SOURCE

CHILDREN:

NAME M/F Living/Dead DATE Q

BIRTH DATE Q CITY CO STATE Q

DEATH DATE Q CITY CO STATE Q

SIBLINGS:

NAME BIRTH DATE Q

REMARKS:

Q fields - Quality codes qualify the reliability of information recorded in the field directly preceding the Q field.