

Research Article

Unhealthy Diet of High Socioeconomic Children of Color: Marginalization-Related Diminished Returns

Assari S^{1,2,3*}, Najand B¹ and Bazargan M^{2,3}

¹Marginalization-Related Diminished Returns (MDRs) Research Center, Charles R Drew University of Medicine and Science, Los Angeles, California, USA

²Department of Family Medicine, Charles R Drew University of Medicine and Science, Los Angeles, California, USA

³Department of Urban Public Health, Charles R Drew University of Medicine and Science, Los Angeles, California, USA

***Corresponding author:** Shervin Assari, Marginalization-Related Diminished Returns (MDRs) Research Center, Charles R Drew University of Medicine and Science, 1731 E 120th St, Los Angeles, California, USA

Received: January 05, 2022; **Accepted:** February 08, 2022; **Published:** February 15, 2022

Abstract

Background: While socioeconomic status (SES) indicators such as parental educational attainment and household income are among the primary drivers of individual health, the effects of household SES indicators (for example, parental educational attainment and family income) on health behaviors such as a healthy diet may differ by ethnicity, as discussed by the Marginalization related Diminished Returns (MDRs) phenomenon.

Objectives: Built on the MDRs, this study had two aims: first, to test the associations between family SES indicators (parental educational attainment and household income) and diet quality, and second, to test ethnic variation in these associations.

Materials and Methods: This longitudinal study used the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) baseline and year 2 data. Participants included 5,856 individuals who were either Black, White, Latino, or non-Latino. Age, sex, family structure (parental marital status), parental education, and family income were studied. The outcomes were the amount and frequency of consuming fish, soup, vegetables, fruits, hot dogs, French fries, ketchup, soda, and sugary beverages. Linear regression was used for performing the main data analysis.

Results: Overall, high educational attainment and family income showed a positive association with fruit consumption and a negative association with the consumption of hot dogs, fries, soda, and sugary beverages in the overall population. We documented statistically significant interactions between ethnicity and educational attainment and household income on our dietary habits of interest, indicating weaker associations between family SES and diet in Black and Latino than non-Latino White individuals.

Conclusion: We observe that household SES differently improves the dietary quality of diverse ethnic groups. Due to MDRs of education and income in ethnic minorities, children from highly educated and high-income families eat less healthily than their non-Latino White counterparts. This finding is in line with the MDRs framework that ethnic health disparities sustain across class lines.

Keywords: Educational attainment; Diet; Socioeconomic status; Population groups

Introduction

While Marmot [1,2], Hayward [3-5], Link and Phelan [6], Ross and Mirowsky [7-9], and others [10] have shown that socioeconomic status (SES) indicators, such as educational attainment, promote population and individual health outcomes, recent research has documented weaker SES effects for ethnic minorities than non-Latino White populations [11,12]. Although one of the mechanisms that explains the impact of education and income on health is improved health behaviors such as diet [13-20], more recent studies have shown that the effects of parental and one's own education and income on dietary habits and food options are weaker for ethnic minorities than non-Latino Whites [21,22]. This is in part because ethnic minorities are still segregated, and their high SES does not improve access to healthy foods to the same level as high SES non-Latino Whites. This is important because a healthy diet is associated with a lower risk of obesity, diabetes, heart, and metabolic diseases [13,23,24].

The Marginalization-related Diminished Returns (MDRs) phenomenon [11,12] refers to the general observation that the effects of educational attainment and household income on generating outcomes are weaker for ethnic minorities than their non-Latino White counterparts [25-31]. Similar MDRs are shown for diet [22], obesity [32,33], heart disease [34], disability [35], chronic disease [36], hospitalization [37], and mortality [38-41]. While stress, labor market discrimination, segregation, food access, neighborhood quality, and various aspects of the social environment are all potential mechanisms, one of the proximal mediators of the MDRs might be dietary behaviors. We expect that pro-health diets are less influenced by educational attainment and income in ethnic minority families because they face many barriers in their lives given racism and social stratification [42-44]. In addition, because ethnic minorities live in marginalized communities and are more likely to be under the influence of parents who had spent their childhoods in poverty, their family SES may not have a large effect on diet and eating for ethnic

minority families. As an adaptation to poverty, food culture may also contribute to the diminished returns of SES on the dietary quality of Black and Latino people in the US.

The Marginalization-related Diminished Returns (MDRs) phenomenon [11,12] also refers to the weaker economic and health effects of SES indicators, such as educational attainment, for the members of marginalized groups (particularly ethnic minorities) than US-born heterosexual non-Latino Whites [11,12]. Assari [11,12], Ferraro [45], Thorpe [46-48], Hudson [49-51], Kaufman [52], Braveman [53], Shapiro [54,55], Williams [56,57], Ceci [58], Navarro [59-61], and others [62] have reported weaker effects of SES indicators for ethnic minorities than non-Latino Whites. Kaufman has discussed the poor overlap between SES across ethnic groups that result in residual and unmeasured confounding as well as not-comparability of SES across ethnic groups [52]. Navarro has described this as “ethnicity and SES,” rather than “ethnicity or SES” effects due to the complex interplay between ethnicity and SES [59-61]. Ceci has mentioned that the Have-Nots (ethnic minorities) may gain access to health less than the Haves (non-Latino Whites) from the same resources (SES indicators) due to their lower readiness to uptake and navigate the complex social systems [58]. However, most of the existing literature is on Black-White comparison rather than Latino-non-Latino comparison. Thus, there is a need to study a wider range of ethnic groups that include Black groups and compare Latino and non-Latino groups.

Aims

To better understand whether MDRs observed in the ABCD data for brain outcomes can be, in part, explained by MDRs in diet, we conducted a secondary analysis of the ABCD data to determine the association between two SES indicators namely, household income and parental educational attainment and dietary indicators and variation in these effects by ethnicity. We hypothesize a positive association between educational attainment and household income, and healthy dietary habits of individuals. We also expected a negative association between family SES and unhealthy dietary practices such as hot dogs, fries, and sugary beverage consumption. Built on the MDRs framework, we hypothesize that these positive and inverse associations would be weaker for Latino and Black children than non-Latino White children. As a result, we expect more healthy diets in non-Latino White families with high SES than ethnic minority families with similar SES, indicating a diminished effect of household income and educational attainment on healthy diet in ethnic minority families (due to access and their need to allocate resources to other necessities). These MDRs in diet [21,22] then would partially explain the MDRs on the effects of SES on brain development [63-69].

Materials and Methods

Design and setting

This study is a secondary analysis of the first two years (waves 1 and 2) of data (2016/2018 to 2018/2020) of the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) study [70-74]. The ABCD is a state-of-the-art and national longitudinal study of children’s development in the United States [70,75].

Sampling and participants

In the ABCD study, participating children were 9-10-years-old

at the time of recruitment, which took place between 2016 and 2018. Recruitment occurred across 21 study sites in multiple cities across 15 U.S states. The primary recruitment strategy was through the school systems [76]. The original/overall study included 10,875 children at baseline.

Eligibility and analytical sample

From the 10,875 participants, we included children at wave 1 and wave 2 who were either Latino or non-Latino White or Black. This was based on parents’ report of ethnicity (see below). This study did not include other ethnic groups such as Asian, Native American, Mixed, Other, or unknown ethnic groups. Participants were only included if they had data on SES, ethnicity, diet, and covariates (n=5856).

Study variables

Primary outcomes: The outcomes were the amount and frequency of consuming fish, soup, vegetables, fruits, hot dogs, French fries, ketchup, soda, and sugary beverages. These food indicators were calculated based on Block Kids Food Screener (BKFS). The BKFS is a 41-item food frequency questionnaire which was developed by NutritionQuest (Berkeley, CA, USA). This instrument is ideal for the measurement of dietary intake of nutrients and food groups for children and youth aged 2-17. The questionnaire can be self-administered or asked using the parents’ report. BKFS asks the participant to report the frequency and quantity of food and beverage they consumed during the past seven days. The response items for frequency ranges from ‘none’ to ‘every day’. For each food type, three or four food items are measured. The BKFS provides estimates for the amount of intake of fruit, vegetables, dairy, whole grains, protein sources (meat, poultry, and fish in ounce equivalents), fast food, sugary beverages, soda, and other food types. This measure also details calorie intake, saturated fat, and consumed sugars. For this study, BKFS was administered at wave 2 when the child was 11 or 12 years old. This measure was collected two years after measuring all other variables such as household income, parental education, family structure, and other covariates. This measure is validated and shows reliability and accuracy in this age group.

Independent variable

Socioeconomic status: This study used two indicators of household SES. These indicators were household income and parental education, both treated as continuous measures. Parents reported their years of schooling. This variable ranged between 0 (for no formal education) and 21 (doctoral degree). Annual family income had a range between 1 and 10 that referred to the following income levels: 1 = less than \$5000; 2 = \$5000; 3 = \$12,000; 4 = \$16,000; 5 = \$25,000; 6 = \$35,000; 7 = \$50,000; 8 = \$75,000; 9 = \$100,000; 10 = \$200,000+.

Moderator

Ethnicity: Ethnicity was composed of two categorical variables which were identified by the parents. All participants were non-Hispanic or Hispanic White or Black.

Confounders

Demographic factors. Age, sex, and family structure were measured as covariates. Parents reported the children’s ages, the child’s age acting as a continuous variable, and measured in months. The sex of the child was a dichotomous variable with 1 representing

males and 0 representing females. Family structure was married or unmarried.

Data analysis

We used the SPSS 25 for data analysis. First, we ruled out multi-collinearity between our study variables and confirmed that our outcomes had near to normal distributions. Next, we applied multivariable linear regression models with parental educational attainment and household income as the independent variables, a diet indicator as an outcome, and ethnicity as moderators; all models were performed in the pooled sample. Model 1 did not include an interaction term but included all the confounders. Model 2, however, did include interaction terms between parental education and household income and ethnicity, in addition to all the confounders. We performed similar models for outcomes. We reported the values *b*, SE, 95% CI, and *p* from our regression models.

Ethical considerations

This analysis was exempt from a full IRB review by Charles R Drew University of Medicine. The study of origin (ABCD) was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at the University of California, San Diego (UCSD). Assent and consent were received from children and their parents, respectively [75].

Results

Overall, 5,856 individuals entered our analysis. Our participants were either White, Black, non-Latino, or Latino. Table 1 shows the summary of descriptive statistics overall.

Linear regression models in the pooled sample

As shown by Table 2, while educational attainment and household income increased apple, vegetable, soup, and fish consumption, and reduced hot dogs, fries, ketchup, soda, and sugary beverage consumption, these effects were weaker for Latino and Black individuals than non-Latino White children.

Discussion

High family SES indicators, namely parental educational attainment and household income, were associated with a healthier diet; however, ethnicity moderated this association. We observed weaker associations for Black and Latino than non-Latino White individuals. As a result, children in highly educated and high-income Black and Latino families reported unhealthy dietary practices than non-Latino White children in highly educated and high-income families. This unhealthy diet in high SES Black and Latino children contributes to the development of obesity in high SES ethnic minority individuals.

The association between high SES and better dietary habits is aligned with fundamental cause theory [6,77-81], social determinants of health framework [1,2,82-84], and other SES and SDoH theories. Pro-health behaviors, including more healthy diets, are among the mechanisms that social determinants of health and high SES, such as parental educational attainment and family income, impact population and individual health [5,85,86]. For example, time spent to prepare home-based meals might be one of many mechanisms that explains why families with high educational attainment and income have a lower risk of obesity and cardiovascular conditions [23,24].

Table 1: Descriptive data overall.

	All N = 8591 (100%)	
	Mean	SD
Child Age (Years)	9.514	0.50646
Parental Education (Years)	17.0415	2.37173
Household Income	7.4896	2.20671
Diet (Soup Consumption)	0.56	0.872
Diet (Apple Consumption)	2.09	0.459
Diet (Vegetable)	2.21	1.378
Diet (Fish)	1.45	0.749
Diet (Hot dogs Consumption)	1.19	0.434
Diet (Fries Consumption)	1.3	1.021
Diet (Ketchup)	2.34	1.223
Diet (Sugary Beverage Consumption)	1.48	1.366
Diet (Sugary Beverage Consumption)	0.2363	0.24563
	Mean	SD
Ethnicity		
Non-Hispanic	4975	85
Hispanic	881	15
White	4807	82.1
Black	1049	17.9
Sex		
Female	2771	47.3
Male	3085	52.7
Family Marital Status		
Spouse Not Present	1626	27.8
Spouse Present	4230	72.2

The second finding on weaker effects of family SES on dietary practices is in line with some recent observations that SES indicators, for instance, educational attainment and household income, on behaviors such as diet are larger for non-Latino White families than Black Latino families. Education of oneself and parents is associated with a larger improvement of diet in non-Latino White than ethnic minority people [21,22]. Similar patterns are shown for the SES effects on obesity [32,33], hypertension [87], heart disease [34], exercise [88] and substance use [89-101].

According to MDRs, Black and Latino people remain at risk even if non-Latino White people show benefits of their educational attainment. For example, in the ABCD data and other data sets, weaker SES effects on memory [65,102], academic performance [28,29,103-105], emotion regulation [106], mental health [107], and several other intermediate factors [32,33] are weaker for Black and Latino than non-Latino White children.

As a result of a poor diet and high-risk behaviors of high SES Black and Latino people, educational attainment and income have weaker effects on a poor diet [21], chronic disease [108], disability [109], diet [21,22], and self-rated health [110-112] for ethnic minorities than non-Latino White individuals and adults. These MDRs may explain why we observe a higher-than-expected risk of chronic diseases

Table 2: Summary of linear regression models without (M1) and with (M2) interactions.

	M1 All (No Interaction)						M2 All (M1 + Interaction)					
	B	SE(B)	Beta	95% CI		P	B	SE(B)	Beta	95% CI		P
Hot dog Consumption												
Black	0.115	0.016	0.101	0.083	0.147	0	0.286	0.106	0.252	0.078	0.493	0.007
Hispanic	-0.082	0.016	-0.068	-0.114	-0.05	0	-0.424	0.094	-0.349	-0.609	-0.239	0
Sex (MALE)	0.01	0.011	0.012	-0.011	0.031	0.365	0.011	0.011	0.012	-0.011	0.032	0.334
Age	0.089	0.011	0.102	0.067	0.111	0	0.089	0.011	0.102	0.067	0.111	0
Family Married	0.008	0.015	0.009	-0.021	0.037	0.569	0.011	0.015	0.011	-0.018	0.04	0.46
Parental Education	-0.012	0.003	-0.064	-0.017	-0.006	0	-0.015	0.004	-0.081	-0.022	-0.007	0
Household Income	-0.023	0.004	-0.116	-0.03	-0.016	0	-0.024	0.005	-0.122	-0.033	-0.015	0
Parental Education x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.011	0.008	-0.161	-0.026	0.004	0.135
Household Income x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0	0.008	0.001	-0.015	0.015	0.985
Parental Education x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.017	0.007	0.223	0.004	0.03	0.012
Household Income x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.011	0.008	0.063	-0.005	0.028	0.187
Fries Consumption												
Black	0.323	0.039	0.121	0.247	0.399	0	-0.284	0.252	-0.107	-0.779	0.21	0.259
Hispanic	-0.022	0.038	-0.008	-0.097	0.053	0.567	-0.855	0.225	-0.3	-1.295	-0.415	0
Sex (MALE)	0.028	0.026	0.014	-0.023	0.079	0.278	0.027	0.026	0.013	-0.024	0.078	0.297
Age	0.06	0.026	0.029	0.008	0.111	0.023	0.06	0.026	0.029	0.008	0.111	0.022
Family Married	-0.103	0.035	-0.045	-0.172	-0.034	0.004	-0.1	0.035	-0.044	-0.169	-0.031	0.005
Parental Education	-0.043	0.007	-0.101	-0.057	-0.03	0	-0.066	0.009	-0.153	-0.084	-0.047	0
Household Income	0.011	0.009	0.024	-0.006	0.028	0.206	0.01	0.011	0.022	-0.012	0.032	0.369
Parental Education x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.034	0.018	0.203	-0.002	0.069	0.062
Household Income x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.006	0.018	0.015	-0.029	0.042	0.734
Parental Education x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.056	0.016	0.315	0.025	0.088	0
Household Income x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.014	0.02	-0.033	-0.053	0.026	0.494
Ketchup												
Black	0.232	0.047	0.073	0.14	0.325	0	-0.34	0.306	-0.107	-0.94	0.259	0.266
Hispanic	-0.031	0.047	-0.009	-0.122	0.06	0.506	-0.764	0.272	-0.223	-1.297	-0.231	0.005
Sex (MALE)	-0.036	0.031	-0.015	-0.098	0.025	0.25	-0.037	0.031	-0.015	-0.098	0.025	0.242
Age	0.197	0.032	0.081	0.135	0.26	0	0.198	0.032	0.081	0.135	0.26	0
Family Married	0.012	0.043	0.004	-0.072	0.096	0.78	0.014	0.043	0.005	-0.07	0.098	0.742
Parental Education	-0.022	0.008	-0.043	-0.039	-0.006	0.009	-0.04	0.011	-0.078	-0.063	-0.018	0
Household Income	0.012	0.01	0.021	-0.009	0.032	0.266	0.007	0.014	0.013	-0.019	0.034	0.595
Parental Education x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.033	0.022	0.166	-0.01	0.076	0.133
Household Income x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.002	0.022	0.004	-0.041	0.045	0.924
Parental Education x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.04	0.019	0.186	0.002	0.078	0.042
Household Income x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.011	0.024	0.022	-0.037	0.059	0.648
Soda												
Black	0.183	0.052	0.051	0.082	0.285	0	-0.817	0.335	-0.229	-1.474	-0.16	0.015
Hispanic	0.024	0.051	0.006	-0.076	0.124	0.64	-1.366	0.298	-0.358	-1.95	-0.781	0
Sex (MALE)	0.08	0.035	0.03	0.013	0.148	0.02	0.079	0.034	0.029	0.011	0.146	0.022
Age	0.247	0.035	0.09	0.178	0.315	0	0.247	0.035	0.09	0.179	0.316	0
Family Married	-0.117	0.047	-0.039	-0.209	-0.026	0.012	-0.112	0.047	-0.037	-0.204	-0.02	0.017
Parental Education	-0.088	0.009	-0.153	-0.106	-0.07	0	-0.122	0.012	-0.212	-0.146	-0.098	0

Household Income	-0.004	0.011	-0.007	-0.026	0.018	0.723	-0.014	0.015	-0.022	-0.043	0.015	0.349
Parental Education x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.049	0.024	0.221	0.002	0.096	0.041
Household Income x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.026	0.024	0.045	-0.022	0.073	0.286
Parental Education x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.085	0.021	0.356	0.043	0.127	0
Household Income x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.003	0.027	-0.005	-0.055	0.049	0.912
Sugary Beverage												
Black	0.035	0.009	0.055	0.017	0.053	0	-0.13	0.06	-0.203	-0.248	-0.012	0.031
Hispanic	0.001	0.009	0.001	-0.017	0.019	0.954	-0.256	0.054	-0.373	-0.362	-0.151	0
Sex (MALE)	0.014	0.006	0.028	0.002	0.026	0.026	0.014	0.006	0.028	0.001	0.026	0.029
Age	0.045	0.006	0.091	0.033	0.057	0	0.045	0.006	0.091	0.033	0.057	0
Family Married	-0.022	0.008	-0.039	-0.038	-0.005	0.01	-0.021	0.008	-0.038	-0.037	-0.004	0.014
Parental Education	-0.015	0.002	-0.147	-0.019	-0.012	0	-0.021	0.002	-0.207	-0.026	-0.017	0
Household Income	-0.002	0.002	-0.014	-0.006	0.003	0.461	-0.003	0.003	-0.026	-0.008	0.002	0.27
Parental Education x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.008	0.004	0.205	0	0.017	0.058
Household Income x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.004	0.004	0.039	-0.005	0.012	0.362
Parental Education x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.016	0.004	0.372	0.008	0.023	0
Household Income x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.001	0.005	-0.01	-0.01	0.008	0.843
Vegetable												
Black	-0.042	0.051	-0.012	-0.143	0.059	0.413	1.224	0.333	0.341	0.57	1.878	0
Hispanic	-0.389	0.051	-0.101	-0.489	-0.289	0	1.428	0.297	0.371	0.846	2.01	0
Sex (MALE)	-0.093	0.034	-0.034	-0.161	-0.026	0.007	-0.092	0.034	-0.034	-0.159	-0.024	0.008
Age	-0.124	0.035	-0.045	-0.192	-0.055	0	-0.125	0.035	-0.045	-0.193	-0.057	0
Family Married	0.102	0.047	0.033	0.011	0.194	0.029	0.094	0.047	0.031	0.003	0.186	0.043
Parental Education	0.085	0.009	0.146	0.067	0.103	0	0.128	0.012	0.22	0.103	0.152	0
Household Income	0.043	0.011	0.068	0.02	0.065	0	0.06	0.015	0.096	0.031	0.089	0
Parental Education x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.058	0.024	-0.259	-0.105	-0.011	0.015
Household Income x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.043	0.024	-0.075	-0.09	0.004	0.075
Parental Education x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.108	0.021	-0.448	-0.149	-0.066	0
Household Income x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.004	0.027	-0.007	-0.056	0.048	0.884
Apple												
Black	0.058	0.018	0.048	0.023	0.093	0.001	0.335	0.115	0.28	0.11	0.561	0.004
Hispanic	0.008	0.018	0.006	-0.026	0.043	0.639	0.224	0.102	0.174	0.023	0.425	0.029
Sex (MALE)	-0.007	0.012	-0.008	-0.031	0.016	0.532	-0.007	0.012	-0.007	-0.03	0.017	0.571
Age	0.01	0.012	0.011	-0.014	0.033	0.406	0.01	0.012	0.011	-0.013	0.034	0.4
Family Married	-0.011	0.016	-0.011	-0.042	0.021	0.497	-0.011	0.016	-0.011	-0.043	0.02	0.493
Parental Education	-0.011	0.003	-0.057	-0.017	-0.005	0	-0.003	0.004	-0.014	-0.011	0.006	0.533
Household Income	0.001	0.004	0.006	-0.007	0.009	0.762	-0.001	0.005	-0.006	-0.011	0.009	0.792
Parental Education x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.018	0.008	-0.243	-0.034	-0.002	0.028
Household Income x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.003	0.008	0.017	-0.013	0.02	0.691
Parental Education x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.018	0.007	-0.227	-0.033	-0.004	0.013
Household Income x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.013	0.009	0.068	-0.005	0.031	0.169
Fish												
Black	0.168	0.029	0.086	0.111	0.224	0	0.78	0.188	0.399	0.412	1.148	0
Hispanic	0.063	0.029	0.03	0.007	0.119	0.027	0.621	0.167	0.296	0.294	0.948	0
Sex (MALE)	-0.01	0.019	-0.007	-0.048	0.028	0.597	-0.009	0.019	-0.006	-0.047	0.029	0.629
Age	0.023	0.02	0.016	-0.015	0.062	0.231	0.023	0.02	0.015	-0.015	0.061	0.239

Family Married	-0.023	0.026	-0.014	-0.074	0.029	0.388	-0.024	0.026	-0.014	-0.076	0.027	0.356
Parental Education	0.006	0.005	0.018	-0.005	0.016	0.283	0.021	0.007	0.066	0.007	0.035	0.003
Household Income	0.003	0.006	0.009	-0.009	0.016	0.624	0.01	0.008	0.028	-0.007	0.026	0.252
Parental Education x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.031	0.013	-0.257	-0.058	-0.005	0.02
Household Income x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.013	0.013	-0.043	-0.04	0.013	0.317
Parental Education x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.032	0.012	-0.246	-0.056	-0.009	0.007
Household Income x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.002	0.015	-0.008	-0.032	0.027	0.874
Soup												
Black	-0.218	0.033	-0.096	-0.283	-0.152	0	-0.186	0.217	-0.082	-0.61	0.239	0.391
Hispanic	0.135	0.033	0.055	0.07	0.199	0	1.035	0.193	0.424	0.657	1.413	0
Sex (MALE)	-0.052	0.022	-0.03	-0.096	-0.008	0.02	-0.053	0.022	-0.031	-0.097	-0.009	0.017
Age	-0.095	0.023	-0.055	-0.14	-0.051	0	-0.096	0.023	-0.055	-0.14	-0.051	0
Family Married	0.101	0.03	0.052	0.041	0.16	0.001	0.096	0.03	0.049	0.037	0.156	0.001
Parental Education	0.011	0.006	0.031	0	0.023	0.057	0.023	0.008	0.063	0.007	0.039	0.004
Household Income	-0.023	0.007	-0.058	-0.038	-0.009	0.002	-0.015	0.01	-0.038	-0.034	0.004	0.117
Parental Education x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.003	0.015	-0.023	-0.034	0.027	0.836
Household Income x Black	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.01	0.016	0.027	-0.021	0.04	0.526
Parental Education x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.031	0.014	-0.204	-0.058	-0.004	0.024
Household Income x Latino	-	-	-	-	-	-	-0.06	0.017	-0.168	-0.093	-0.026	0.001

[36,113,114], depression [115], anxiety [116], suicide [106,107,117], disability [109], hospitalization [37], and mortality [118-120] for high SES ethnic minority individuals, while the same risks remain low in non-Latino Whites with similar SES. As a result of these MDRs, we see lower than expected health effects of investments that rely on equalizing SES across ethnic groups [58].

This is an extension of the MDRs at the behavioral level. Other MDRs exist for mental [121], behavioral [90,94], and physical health [35], as well as healthcare use [122,123]. In addition, poor mental health [124,125], poor sleep [126], and high substance [90,127,128], and tobacco [38,129] use are also shown in high SES Black and Latino people.

MDRs framework can be regarded as a paradigm shift in disparities research [11,12] because, different from most of the existing literature that has exclusively focused on low SES as the mechanism for ethnic health inequalities, MDRs acknowledge that ethnic disparities can occur across the full SES spectrum; thus, researchers and quantitative modelers should allow SES effects to vary by ethnicity. Second, they invite researchers to study structural and environmental mechanisms that explain why the health effects of available SES indicators are weaker in ethnic minority groups. A solution for testing MDRs is to test moderated-mediation rather than mediation models. Studies built on MDRs do not reduce the problems of health and behavioral disparities to the problem of low SES and SES gaps. By testing non-linear and non-additive effects of ethnicity and SES, MDRs allow SES effects to vary by group. Such an assumption is more realistic than the universality of SES effects. One size never fits all, after all. The application of MDRs may also help us understand why ethnic health gaps sometimes widen rather than narrow as SES increases [11,12].

Many structural, social, and behavioral mechanisms may explain these MDRs. It is difficult to decompose the mechanisms and

processes that can interfere with the return of educational attainment for ethnic minorities, but employment conditions and residential conditions may play some role. In the presence of labor market discrimination and segregation, education generates fewer outcomes for ethnic minorities [11,12]. For example, highly-educated minority individuals work in jobs with lower pay and lower occupational prestige than non-Latino Whites. Highly educated ethnic minority individuals work in jobs with higher stress and environmental hazards [130]. Ethnic compositions of jobs and neighborhoods may increase discrimination of highly educated ethnic minorities in predominantly White areas [131]. As a result, highly educated ethnic minorities [11,12] remain at risk of economic insecurity [132], stress [133], poor residential areas [134], and low wealth [135], while Whites with similar educational attainment do not experience the same risk.

More research should test if time use is why educational attainment generates less health and behavioral benefits for ethnic minorities than non-Latino White individuals. As past work shows that diet [136], exercise [88], sleep [137], and substance use [138] for highly educated ethnic minority people, and as time allocation is key for securing these outcomes, we should test the MDRs of time allocated to each of these behaviors. Thus, time-use patterns may play a role in explaining the diminishing returns of SES for the cardiometabolic risk of minority people.

Limitations

This study had a few limitations. First, this was a short-term longitudinal study, and our results should not be inferred as causal. While household income and educational attainment precede diet, this study had many unmeasured confounders. We did not include SES indicators other than educational attainment and income. We also did not include ethnic minority groups other than Blacks, Latinos, and Whites. We need to test the same hypotheses for Native

American, Asian American, and other-ethnic families. In addition, we did not include several potential measures of food culture, norms, options, fast food availability, etc. Future research may include multilevel determinants of food choices that collectively impact diet and obesity. Given these limitations, the results should be interpreted with caution.

Implications

To eliminate the ethnic inequalities in obesity and cardiometabolic risk, policies, practices, and programs are needed that go beyond closing the ethnic gap in SES and poverty. While SES equality should be a goal, there is also a need for policies and programs that equalize the individuals' living conditions and reduce the obstacles in the lives of ethnic minority families. Health, economic, social, and public policies are needed to reduce ethnic disparities that do not emerge due to low SES but the MDRs. Such disparities may be resistant to our efforts to equalize SES. MDRs operate independently of the average of group differences in SES. Potential contributors to the MDRs are segregation and differential access to healthy options, parks, and green areas that promote health. However, segregation differentially exposes various populations to risk factors such as obesogenic environments [44,139,140]. Acknowledging the role of MDRs as a contributor to ethnic disparities is needed because solutions that address MDRs (lower returns of SES indicators for ethnic minorities) are different from solutions that emphasize the SES gap-closing. Multilevel policies and interventions should address various mechanisms that increase the health returns of SES (undo MDRs) for ethnic minority families. This includes enhancing the built environment and increasing access to healthy food options for middle-class Black and Latino communities. Suppose policies exclusively focus on closing the SES gap and ignore the fact that the very same SES may generate more outcomes for the Haves than the Have-Nots; we may have failed to fully and efficiently close the health gap. Thus, it is important to go beyond universal intervention and those which focus on access and also guarantee the uptake of the policies and resources by ethnic minority and marginalized populations. To do so, we need to reduce stigma and address structural causes of ethnic health inequalities that operate across the SES and class lines. Otherwise, universal interventions that only increase the average SES of the overall community may increase rather than decrease the existing gap in health.

Conclusion

Family SES, such as parental education and household income, do not show similar associations with healthy diet across ethnic groups. Children in highly educated and high-income Black and Latino families have a less healthy diet, a pattern different from children in highly educated and high-income non-Latino White families whose diet is far more healthy. As a result, ethnic disparities in dietary practices, obesity, and cardiovascular and metabolic conditions may remain across the full SES spectrum. As proposed by the MDRs, ethnic health disparities should not be reduced to the problem of poverty or low human capital. While low SES is also a major contributor, social stratification, structural racism, and marginalization reduce the health of middle-class Black and Latino families.

Funding

Assari is supported by the NIH grants CA201415-02,

U54CA229974, 5S21MD000103, 54MD008149, R25 MD007610, 2U54MD007598, 4P60MD006923, and U54 TR001627. Data used in the preparation of this article were obtained from the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) Study (<https://abcdstudy.org>), held in the NIMH Data Archive (NDA). The ABCD Study is supported by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) and additional federal partners under award numbers: U01DA041022, U01DA041025, U01DA041028, U01DA041048, U01DA041089, U01DA041093, U01DA041106, U01DA041117, U01DA041120, U01DA041134, U01DA041148, U01DA041156, U01DA041174, U24DA041123, and U24DA041147. A full list of federal partners is available at <https://abcdstudy.org/federal-partners.html>. A listing of participating sites and a complete listing of the study investigators can be found at <https://abcdstudy.org/principal-investigators.html>. This manuscript reflects the views of the authors and may not reflect the opinions or views of the NIH or ABCD consortium investigators. ABCD consortium investigators designed and implemented the study and/or provided data but did not necessarily participate in this report's analysis or writing. The ABCD data repository grows and changes over time. The current paper uses the Curated Annual Release 2.0, also defined in NDA Study 634 (doi:10.15154/1503209).

References

- Marmot M. Economic and social determinants of disease. *Bull World Health Organ.* 2001; 79: 988-989.
- Marmot M. Social determinants of health inequalities. *Lancet.* 2005; 365: 1099-1104.
- Montez JK, Hummer RA, Hayward MD. Educational attainment and adult mortality in the United States: a systematic analysis of functional form. *Demography.* 2012; 49: 315-336.
- Montez JK, Zajacova A, Hayward MD. Disparities in Disability by Educational Attainment Across US States. *Am J Public Health.* 2017; 107: 1101-1108.
- Montez JK, Zajacova A, Hayward MD, et al. Educational Disparities in Adult Mortality Across U.S. States: How Do They Differ, and Have They Changed Since the Mid-1980s? *Demography.* 2019.
- Clouston SAP, Link BG. A Retrospective on Fundamental Cause Theory: State of the Literature and Goals for the Future. *Annual Review of Sociology.* 2021; 47: null.
- Ross CE, Mirowsky J. Does employment affect health? *J Health Soc Behav.* 1995; 36: 230-243.
- Ross CE, Mirowsky J. Refining the association between education and health: the effects of quantity, credential, and selectivity. *Demography.* 1999; 36: 445-460.
- Mirowsky J, Ross CE. Education, Health, and the Default American Lifestyle. *J Health Soc Behav.* 2015; 56: 297-306.
- Needham BL, Smith JA, Zhao W, et al. Life course socioeconomic status and DNA methylation in genes related to stress reactivity and inflammation: The multi-ethnic study of atherosclerosis. *Epigenetics.* 2015; 10: 958-969.
- Assari S. Unequal Gain of Equal Resources across Racial Groups. *Int J Health Policy Manag.* 2017; 7: 1-9.
- Assari S. Health Disparities due to Diminished Return among Black Americans: Public Policy Solutions. *Social Issues and Policy Review.* 2018; 12: 112-145.
- Porter L, Bailey-Jones C, Priudokaite G, et al. From cookies to carrots; the effect of inhibitory control training on children's snack selections. *Appetite.* 2018; 124: 111-123.
- Prentice AM, Jebb SA. Fast foods, energy density and obesity: a possible mechanistic link. *Obes Rev.* 2003; 4: 187-194.

15. Burdette HL, Whitaker RC. Neighborhood playgrounds, fast food restaurants, and crime: relationships to overweight in low-income preschool children. *Prev Med.* 2004; 38: 57-63.
16. Kwate NOA. Fried chicken and fresh apples: racial segregation as a fundamental cause of fast food density in black neighborhoods. *Health & place.* 2008; 14: 32-44.
17. Smoyer-Tomic KE, Spence JC, Raine KD, et al. The association between neighborhood socioeconomic status and exposure to supermarkets and fast food outlets. *Health Place.* 2008; 14: 740-754.
18. Kwate NO, Yau CY, Loh JM, et al. Inequality in obesigenic environments: fast food density in New York City. *Health Place.* 2009; 15: 364-373.
19. Kar S, Khandelwal B. Fast foods and physical inactivity are risk factors for obesity and hypertension among adolescent school children in east district of Sikkim, India. *J Nat Sci Biol Med.* 2015; 6: 356-359.
20. Lim HS, Kim TH, Lee HH, et al. Fast food consumption alongside socioeconomic status, stress, exercise, and sleep duration are associated with menstrual irregularities in Korean adolescents: Korea National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2009-2013. *Asia Pac J Clin Nutr.* 2018; 27: 1146-1154.
21. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, et al. Maternal Education at Birth and Youth Breakfast Consumption at Age 15: Blacks' Diminished Returns. *J-Multidisciplinary Scientific Journal.* 2020; 3: 313-323.
22. Assari S, Lankarani M. Educational Attainment Promotes Fruit and Vegetable Intake for Whites but Not Blacks. *J.* 2018; 1: 5.
23. Engler-Stringer R. Food, cooking skills, and health: a literature review. *Canadian journal of Dietetic practice and research.* 2010; 71: 141-145.
24. Alpaugh M, Pope L, Trubek A, et al. Cooking as a Health Behavior: Examining the Role of Cooking Classes in a Weight Loss Intervention. *Nutrients.* 2020; 12: 3669.
25. Assari S. Does School Racial Composition Explain Why High Income Black Youth Perceive More Discrimination? A Gender Analysis. *Brain Sci.* 2018; 8.
26. Assari S, Caldwell CH. Teacher Discrimination Reduces School Performance of African American Youth: Role of Gender. *Brain Sci.* 2018; 8.
27. Assari S, Caldwell CH. Parental Educational Attainment Differentially Boosts School Performance of American Adolescents: Minorities' Diminished Returns. *J Family Reprod Health.* 2019; 13: 7-13.
28. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, et al. Diminished Returns of Parental Education in Terms of Youth School Performance: Ruling out Regression toward the Mean. *Children.* 2020; 7: 74.
29. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, et al. Place-Based Diminished Returns of Parental Educational Attainment on School Performance of Non-Hispanic White Youth. *Frontiers in Education.* 2020; 5.
30. Assari S BM, Caldwell CH, Zimmerman MA. Diminished Returns of Parental Educational Attainment on School Achievement of Non-Hispanic Black High School Students. Under review. 2020.
31. Assari S, Mardani A, Maleki M, et al. Black-White Achievement Gap: Role of Race, School Urbanity, and Parental Education. *Pediatric Health Med Ther.* 2021; 12: 1-11.
32. Assari S. American Indian, Alaska Native, Native Hawaiian, and Pacific Islander Children's Body Mass Index: Diminished Returns of Parental Education and Family Income. *Res Health Sci.* 2020; 5: 64-84.
33. Assari S, Malek-Ahmadi MR, Caldwell CH. Parental Education or Household Income? Which Socioeconomic Status Indicator Can Better Reduce Body Mass Index Disparities among Latino Children? *J Econ Public Financ.* 2021; 7: 19-37.
34. Assari S, Cobb S, Saqib M, et al. Diminished Returns of Educational Attainment on Heart Disease among Black Americans. *Open Cardiovasc Med J.* 2020; 14: 5-12.
35. Assari S, Bazargan M. Educational Attainment Better Reduces Disability for Non-Hispanic than Hispanic Americans. *Eur J Investig Health Psychol Educ.* 2020; 10: 10-17.
36. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M. Poverty Status and Childhood Asthma in White and Black Families: National Survey of Children's Health. *Healthcare (Basel).* 2018; 6.
37. Assari S, Bazargan M. Minorities' Diminished Returns of Educational Attainment on Hospitalization Risk: National Health Interview Survey (NHIS). *Hospital Practices and Research.* 2019.
38. Assari S, Lankarani MM. Race and Urbanity Alter the Protective Effect of Education but not Income on Mortality. *Front Public Health.* 2016; 4: 100.
39. Assari S, Lankarani MM, Burgard S. Black-white difference in long-term predictive power of self-rated health on all-cause mortality in United States. *Ann Epidemiol.* 2016; 26: 106-114.
40. Assari S. Race, sense of control over life, and short-term risk of mortality among older adults in the United States. *Arch Med Sci.* 2017; 13: 1233-1240.
41. Assari S. Self-rated Health and Mortality due to Kidney Diseases: Racial Differences in the United States. *Adv Biomed Res.* 2018; 7: 4.
42. Tomaskovic-Devey D. *Gender & racial inequality at work: The sources and consequences of job segregation.* Cornell University Press. 1993.
43. Morello-Frosch R, Jesdale BM. Separate and unequal: residential segregation and estimated cancer risks associated with ambient air toxics in U.S. metropolitan areas. *Environ Health Perspect.* 2006; 114: 386-393.
44. Kershaw KN, Albrecht SS, Carnethon MR. Racial and ethnic residential segregation, the neighborhood socioeconomic environment, and obesity among Blacks and Mexican Americans. *Am J Epidemiol.* 2013; 177: 299-309.
45. Farmer MM, Ferraro KF. Are racial disparities in health conditional on socioeconomic status? *Soc Sci Med.* 2005; 60: 191-204.
46. Wilson KB, Thorpe RJ, Jr., LaVeist TA. Dollar for Dollar: Racial and ethnic inequalities in health and health-related outcomes among persons with very high income. *Prev Med.* 2017; 96: 149-153.
47. Laveist TA, Thorpe RJ, Jr., Mance GA, et al. Overcoming confounding of race with socioeconomic status and segregation to explore race disparities in smoking. *Addiction.* 2007; 102: 65-70.
48. Bell CN, Sacks TK, Thomas Tobin CS, et al. Racial Non-equivalence of Socioeconomic Status and Self-rated Health among African Americans and Whites. *SSM Popul Health.* 2020; 10: 100561.
49. Hudson D, Sacks T, Irani K, et al. The Price of the Ticket: Health Costs of Upward Mobility among African Americans. *Int J Environ Res Public Health.* 2020; 17.
50. Hudson DL, Puterman E, Bibbins-Domingo K, et al. Race, life course socioeconomic position, racial discrimination, depressive symptoms and self-rated health. *Soc Sci Med.* 2013; 97: 7-14.
51. Hudson DL, Bullard KM, Neighbors HW, et al. Are benefits conferred with greater socioeconomic position undermined by racial discrimination among African American men? *J Mens Health.* 2012; 9: 127-136.
52. Kaufman JS, Cooper RS, McGee DL. Socioeconomic status and health in blacks and whites: the problem of residual confounding and the resiliency of race. *Epidemiology.* 1997: 621-628.
53. Braveman PA, Cubbin C, Egerter S, et al. Socioeconomic status in health research: one size does not fit all. *Jama.* 2005; 294: 2879-2888.
54. Oliver M, Shapiro T. *Black wealth/white wealth: A new perspective on racial inequality.* Routledge. 2013.
55. Oliver ML, Shapiro TM. *Black wealth/white wealth.* New York: Routledge, 1999.
56. Williams DR, Costa MV, Odunlami AO, et al. Moving upstream: how interventions that address the social determinants of health can improve health and reduce disparities. *J Public Health Manag Pract.* 2008; 14 Suppl: S8-17.
57. Williams DR. Race, socioeconomic status, and health the added effects of

- racism and discrimination. 1999.
58. Ceci SJ, Papierno PB. The rhetoric and reality of gap closing: when the "have-nots" gain but the "haves" gain even more. *American Psychologist*. 2005; 60: 149.
 59. Navarro V. Race or class or race and class: growing mortality differentials in the United States. *Int J Health Serv*. 1991; 21: 229-235.
 60. Navarro V. Race or class versus race and class: mortality differentials in the United States. *Lancet*. 1990; 336: 1238-1240.
 61. Navarro V. Race or class, or race and class. *Int J Health Serv*. 1989; 19: 311-314.
 62. Spera C, Wentzel KR, Matto HC. Parental aspirations for their children's educational attainment: Relations to ethnicity, parental education, children's academic performance, and parental perceptions of school climate. *Journal of youth and adolescence*. 2009; 38: 1140-1152.
 63. Assari S. Parental Education and Nucleus Accumbens Response to Reward Anticipation: Minorities' Diminished Returns. *Advances in social science and culture*. 2020; 2: 132-53.
 64. Assari S, Boyce S, Akhlaghipour G, et al. Reward Responsiveness in the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) Study: African Americans' Diminished Returns of Parental Education. *Brain Sciences*. 2020; 10: 391.
 65. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, et al. Family Income Mediates the Effect of Parental Education on Adolescents' Hippocampus Activation During an N-Back Memory Task. *Brain Sci*. 2020; 10.
 66. Assari S, Boyce S. Family's Subjective Economic Status and Children's Matrix Reasoning: Blacks' Diminished Returns. *Res Health Sci*. 2021; 6: 1-23.
 67. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, et al. Parental Educational Attainment, the Superior Temporal Cortical Surface Area, and Reading Ability among American Children: A Test of Marginalization-Related Diminished Returns. *Children (Basel)*. 2021; 8.
 68. Assari S, Boyce S, Jovanovic T. Association between Hippocampal Volume and Working Memory in 10,000+ 9-10-Year-Old Children: Sex Differences. *Children (Basel)*. 2021; 8.
 69. Assari S, Curry TJ. Parental Education Ain't Enough: A Study of Race (Racism), Parental Education, and Children's Thalamus Volume. *J Educ Cult Stud*. 2021; 5: 1-21.
 70. Alcohol Research: Current Reviews Editorial S. NIH's Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) Study. *Alcohol Res*. 2018; 39: 97.
 71. Casey BJ, Cannonier T, Conley MI, et al. The Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) study: Imaging acquisition across 21 sites. *Dev Cogn Neurosci*. 2018; 32: 43-54.
 72. Karcher NR, O'Brien KJ, Kandala S, et al. Resting-State Functional Connectivity and Psychotic-like Experiences in Childhood: Results From the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development Study. *Biol Psychiatry*. 2019; 86: 7-15.
 73. Lisdahl KM, Sher KJ, Conway KP, et al. Adolescent brain cognitive development (ABCD) study: Overview of substance use assessment methods. *Dev Cogn Neurosci*. 2018; 32: 80-96.
 74. Luciana M, Bjork JM, Nagel BJ, et al. Adolescent neurocognitive development and impacts of substance use: Overview of the adolescent brain cognitive development (ABCD) baseline neurocognition battery. *Dev Cogn Neurosci*. 2018; 32: 67-79.
 75. Aucter AM, Hernandez Mejia M, Heyser CJ, et al. A description of the ABCD organizational structure and communication framework. *Dev Cogn Neurosci*. 2018; 32: 8-15.
 76. Garavan H, Bartsch H, Conway K, et al. Recruiting the ABCD sample: Design considerations and procedures. *Dev Cogn Neurosci*. 2018; 32: 16-22.
 77. Link BG, Phelan J. Social conditions as fundamental causes of disease. *J Health Soc Behav*. 1995; Spec No: 80-94.
 78. Phelan JC, Link BG, Diez-Roux A, et al. "Fundamental causes" of social inequalities in mortality: a test of the theory. *J Health Soc Behav*. 2004; 45: 265-285.
 79. Kwate NO. Fried chicken and fresh apples: racial segregation as a fundamental cause of fast food density in black neighborhoods. *Health Place*. 2008; 14: 32-44.
 80. Phelan JC, Link BG. *Fundamental cause theory*. Medical sociology on the move: Springer. 2013.
 81. Phelan JC, Link BG. Is Racism a Fundamental Cause of Inequalities in Health? *Annual Review of Sociology*. 2015; 41: 311-330.
 82. Marmot M. *The Status Syndrome: How Social Standing Affects Our Health and Longevity*. London: Bloomsbury Press. 2004.
 83. Marmot M, Wilkinson R. *Social determinants of health*. Oup Oxford. 2005.
 84. Singh-Manoux A, Richards M, Marmot M. Socioeconomic position across the lifecourse: how does it relate to cognitive function in mid-life? *Ann Epidemiol*. 2005; 15: 572-578.
 85. Hemphill FC, Vanneman A. Achievement Gaps: How Hispanic and White Students in Public Schools Perform in Mathematics and Reading on the National Assessment of Educational Progress. *Statistical Analysis Report*. NCES 2011-459. National Center for Education Statistics. 2011.
 86. Wells L, Östberg V. How do educational disparities in smoking develop during early life? A Swedish longitudinal study. *SSM-Population Health*. 2021; 15: 100859.
 87. Assari S. Socioeconomic Determinants of Systolic Blood Pressure; Minorities' Diminished Returns. *J Health Econ Dev*. 2019; 1: 1-11.
 88. Assari S. Educational Attainment and Exercise Frequency in American Women; Blacks' Diminished Returns. *Women's Health Bulletin*. 2019; 6: e87413.
 89. Bandiera FC, Assari S, Livaudais-Toman J, et al. Latino and Black smokers in the Health and Retirement Study are more likely to quit: the role of light smoking. *Tob Induc Dis*. 2016; 14: 23.
 90. Assari S, Mistry R. Educational Attainment and Smoking Status in a National Sample of American Adults; Evidence for the Blacks' Diminished Return. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2018; 15.
 91. Assari S. Diminished Returns of Income Against Cigarette Smoking Among Chinese Americans. *J Health Econ Dev*. 2019; 1: 1-8.
 92. Assari S, Bazargan M. Education Level and Cigarette Smoking: Diminished Returns of Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual Individuals. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2019; 9.
 93. Assari S, Bazargan M. Protective Effects of Educational Attainment Against Cigarette Smoking; Diminished Returns of American Indians and Alaska Natives in the National Health Interview Survey. *International Journal of Travel Medicine and Global Health*. 2019.
 94. Assari S, Mistry R. Diminished Return of Employment on Ever Smoking Among Hispanic Whites in Los Angeles. *Health Equity*. 2019; 3: 138-144.
 95. Assari S, Smith JL, Zimmerman MA, et al. Cigarette Smoking among Economically Disadvantaged African-American Older Adults in South Los Angeles: Gender Differences. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2019; 16.
 96. Assari S CH, Bazargan M. Educational Attainment Unequally Delays Smoking Initiation for Non-Hispanic Black and Non-Hispanic White Americans. *International Journal of Biomedical Engineering and Clinical Science*. 2019.
 97. Assari S. Socioeconomic Status and Current Cigarette Smoking Status: Immigrants' Diminished Returns. *Int J Travel Med Glob Health*. 2020; 8: 66-72.
 98. Assari S, Boyce S, Caldwell CH, et al. Parent Education and Future Transition to Cigarette Smoking: Latinos' Diminished Returns. *Front Pediatr*. 2020; 8: 457.
 99. Assari S, Chalian H, Bazargan M. Social Determinants of Hookah Smoking in the United States. *J Ment Health Clin Psychol*. 2020; 4: 21-27.

100. Assari S, Mistry R, Caldwell CH, et al. Protective Effects of Parental Education Against Youth Cigarette Smoking: Diminished Returns of Blacks and Hispanics. *Adolesc Health Med Ther*. 2020; 11: 63-71.
101. Assari S BM, Chalian M. Social Determinants of Hookah Smoking in the United States. *Journal of Mental Health & Clinical Psychology*. 2020.
102. Akhlaghipour G, Assari S. Parental Education, Household Income, Race, and Children's Working Memory: Complexity of the Effects. *Brain Sciences*. 2020; 10: 950.
103. Assari S. Parental Educational Attainment and Academic Performance of American College Students; Blacks' Diminished Returns. *Journal of Health Economics and Development*. 2019; 1: 21-31.
104. Assari S CC. Parental Educational Attainment Differentially Boosts School Performance of American Adolescents: Minorities' Diminished Returns. *J Fam Reprod Health* 2019; 13: 7-13.
105. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, et al. Mathematical Performance of American Youth: Diminished Returns of Educational Attainment of Asian-American Parents. *Educ Sci (Basel)*. 2020; 10.
106. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, et al. African Americans' diminished returns of parental education on adolescents' depression and suicide in the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) study. *European journal of investigation in health, psychology and education*. 2020; 10: 656-668.
107. Assari S. Subjective financial status and suicidal ideation among American college students: Racial differences. *Arch Gen Intern Med*. 2019; 3: 16-21.
108. Assari S. The Benefits of Higher Income in Protecting against Chronic Medical Conditions Are Smaller for African Americans than Whites. *Healthcare (Basel)*. 2018; 6.
109. Assari S, Bazargan M. Educational Attainment Better Reduces Disability for Non-Hispanic than Hispanic Americans. *European Journal of Investigation in Health, Psychology and Education*. 2019; 10: 10-17.
110. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M. Demographic and socioeconomic determinants of physical and mental self-rated health across 10 ethnic groups in the United States. *International Journal of Epidemiologic Research*. 2017; 4: 185-93.
111. Assari S, Caldwell CH, Mincy RB. Maternal Educational Attainment at Birth Promotes Future Self-Rated Health of White but Not Black Youth: A 15-Year Cohort of a National Sample. *J Clin Med*. 2018; 7.
112. Assari S, Perez MU, Johnson N, et al. Education Level and Self-rated Health in the United States: Immigrants' Diminished Returns. *Int J Travel Med Glob Health*. 2020; 8: 116-123.
113. Assari S, Caldwell CH. Family Income at Birth and Risk of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder at Age 15: Racial Differences. *Children (Basel)*. 2019; 6.
114. Assari S. Socioeconomic Determinants of Systolic Blood Pressure; Minorities' Diminished Returns. *Journal of Health Economics and Development*. 2019; 1: 1-11.
115. Assari S, Caldwell CH. High Risk of Depression in High-Income African American Boys. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2018; 5: 808-819.
116. Assari S, Caldwell CH, Zimmerman MA. Family Structure and Subsequent Anxiety Symptoms; Minorities' Diminished Return. *Brain Sci*. 2018; 8.
117. Assari S, Schatten HT, Arias SA, et al. Higher Educational Attainment is Associated with Lower Risk of a Future Suicide Attempt Among Non-Hispanic Whites but not Non-Hispanic Blacks. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2019.
118. Assari S. Whites but Not Blacks Gain Life Expectancy from Social Contacts. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2017; 7.
119. Assari S. Life Expectancy Gain Due to Employment Status Depends on Race, Gender, Education, and Their Intersections. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2018; 5: 375-86.
120. Assari S, Bazargan M. Being Married Increases Life Expectancy of White but Not Black Americans. *Journal of Family and Reproductive Health*. 2019: 132-40.
121. Assari S, Lapeyrouse LM, Neighbors HW. Income and Self-Rated Mental Health: Diminished Returns for High Income Black Americans. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2018; 8.
122. Assari S, Bazargan M. Educational Attainment Better Increases the Chance of Breast Physical Exam for Non-Hispanic Than Hispanic American Women: National Health Interview Survey. *Hospital Practices and Research*. 2019; 4: 122-27.
123. Assari S, Hani N. Household Income and Children's Unmet Dental Care Need; Blacks' Diminished Return. *Dent J (Basel)*. 2018; 6.
124. Assari S. High Income Protects Whites but Not African Americans against Risk of Depression. *Healthcare (Basel)*. 2018; 6.
125. Assari S. Educational Attainment Better Protects African American Women than African American Men Against Depressive Symptoms and Psychological Distress. *Brain Sci*. 2018; 8.
126. Assari S. Parental Education and Children's Sleep Problems: Minorities' Diminished Returns. *International Journal of Epidemiologic Research*. 2021; 8: 31-39.
127. Assari S, Farokhnia M, Mistry R. Education Attainment and Alcohol Binge Drinking: Diminished Returns of Hispanics in Los Angeles. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2019; 9.
128. Shervin A, Ritesh M. Diminished Return of Employment on Ever Smoking Among Hispanic Whites in Los Angeles. *Health Equity*. 2019; 3: 138-144.
129. Assari S. Blacks' Diminished Return of Education Attainment on Subjective Health; Mediating Effect of Income. *Brain Sci*. 2018; 8.
130. Assari S, Bazargan M. Unequal Effects of Educational Attainment on Workplace Exposure to Second-Hand Smoke by Race and Ethnicity; Minorities' Diminished Returns in the National Health Interview Survey (NHIS). *J Med Res Innov*. 2019; 3.
131. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M. Workplace Racial Composition Explains High Perceived Discrimination of High Socioeconomic Status African American Men. *Brain Sci*. 2018; 8.
132. Assari S. Parental Education Better Helps White than Black Families Escape Poverty: National Survey of Children's Health. *Economics*. 2018; 6: 30.
133. Assari S, Bazargan M. Unequal Associations between Educational Attainment and Occupational Stress across Racial and Ethnic Groups. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*. 2019; 16: 3539.
134. Assari S, Boyce S, Caldwell CH, et al. Family Income and Gang Presence in the Neighborhood: Diminished Returns of Black Families. *Urban Science*. 2020; 4: 29.
135. Assari S. College Graduation and Wealth Accumulation: Blacks' Diminished Returns. *World J Educ Res*. 2020; 7: 1-18.
136. Assari S, Lankarani MM. Educational Attainment Promotes Fruit and Vegetable Intake for Whites but Not Blacks. *J (Basel)*. 2018; 1: 29-41.
137. Assari S. Parental Education and Children's Sleep Disturbance: Minorities' Diminished Returns. *Int J Epidemiol Res*. 2021; 8: 31-39.
138. Assari S, Mistry R, Bazargan M. Race, Educational Attainment, and E-Cigarette Use. *Journal of Medical Research and Innovation*. 2020; 4: e000185-e85.
139. Robert SA, Ruel E. Racial segregation and health disparities between black and white older adults. *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*. 2006; 61: S203-S211.
140. Yang TC, Shoff C, Noah AJ, et al. Racial segregation and maternal smoking during pregnancy: a multilevel analysis using the racial segregation interaction index. *Soc Sci Med*. 2014; 107: 26-36.