



Blacks' Diminished Salience of Age as a Determinant of Chronic Obstructive Respiratory Disease

Shervin Assari^{1,2,3*}, Babak Najand³, Ali Ayoubian⁴

¹Department of Family Medicine, Charles R. Drew University of Medicine and Science, Los Angeles, CA 90059, USA

²Department of Urban Public Health, Charles R. Drew University of Medicine and Science, Los Angeles, CA 90059, USA

³Marginalization-Relation-Diminished Returns (MDRs) Center, Los Angeles, CA 90059, USA

⁴National Center for Health Insurance Research, Tehran, Iran

*Corresponding Author: Shervin Assari, M.D., M.P.H., Associate Professor, Department of Family Medicine, Charles R. Drew University of Medicine and Science, Los Angeles, CA, USA. Tel: +1-7343632678 Email: assari@umich.edu

Received April 8, 2022; Accepted July 28, 2022; Online Published August 12, 2022

Abstract

Background: Age is a major determinant of chronic respiratory disease (CRD). This is important because CRD have a main role in shaping morbidity and mortality of individuals and populations. However, less research is done on whether age-related changes in development of CRD differ across diverse racial groups.

Objectives: Using a conceptual model that considers race as a proxy of racism rather than genetics and attributing racial differences to sociological rather than biological differences, this study was conducted to explore racial differences in the effects of age on CRD. Based on Marginalization-related Diminished Returns (MDRs) framework, we expect diminished relevance of risk and resources for marginalized people due to racism, segregation, and social stratification.

Methods: Using data from baseline population assessment of tobacco and health (PATH) Adults data, we included 23761 adults. The independent variable was age treated as a categorical variable. The primary outcome was presence of any CRD including asthma, bronchitis, emphysema, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). Sex and education were the covariates. Race, as a proxy of racism, was the moderator. To analyze the data, we used logistic regression mode with and without interaction term between age and race.

Results: Higher age was associated with higher odds of CRD, while sex, and socioeconomic status (SES) was controlled. In line with the MDRs framework, the positive association between age and CRD was weaker for Black than White adults.

Conclusion: Under racism, age loses some of its effect as a major determinant of CRD across racialized groups.

Keywords: Health, Chronic Disease, Racism, Population Groups, Asthma, Respiratory Disease

1. Background

Our previous work on Marginalization-related Diminished Returns (MDRs)¹⁻³ suggests that due to racism, social stratification, segregation, and discrimination, resources and assets tend to show weaker effects on health and development of racialized and marginalized groups. Link attributes these observed MDRs to structural racism in the US society.⁴ Recent work on the Adolescents Brain and Cognitive Development (ABCD) data has shown that MDRs at the level of human development may explain MDRs for health.⁵⁻¹¹ However, most of this literature is on MDRs of socioeconomic status (SES) rather than non-economic resources and assets such as age.^{7,12-15} More recently, research has used national US data showing MDRs (diminished salience) of age as a determinant of health and behavior of Black populations, compared to White populations.^{7,12-15}

According to MDRs, any deviation from social privilege and Whiteness (which is wrongfully considered a norm through history) is accompanied with a penalty which can be measured as diminished return of resources and

assets. Thus, any visible or invisible marginalizing social identity will be associated with reduced health effects of resources and assets. It is proposed that discrimination, blocked opportunities, differential treatment, decreased access to safety nets and support systems in society, and other forms of marginalization generate MDRs in marginalized communities and individuals. MDRs are replicated regardless of type of social marginalization as they are shown for race,^{16,17} ethnicity,¹⁸⁻²⁰ nativity,^{21,22} sexual orientation,²³⁻²⁵ and place.²⁶

Although, Hispanic,¹⁸⁻²⁰ Native American,²⁷ Asian American,²⁸ immigrant,^{21,22} lesbian gay bisexual (LGB),²³⁻²⁵ and marginalized White²⁶ populations also show weaker than expected effects of resources and assets, these are most known for Black populations. In addition, while almost all resources such as SES,^{21,22} coping,²⁹ and age¹³ show these patterns, they are most frequently described for SES resources. Black populations were brought to the US by slavery 400 years ago and since then have suffered various forms of social and economic adversities. As similar MDRs are shown for all marginalized groups (including Whites),

we have concluded that social forces rather than biological traits explain MDRs.^{1,2} However, due to unique aspects of anti-Black racism, slavery, and Jim Crow, MDRs are strongest in Black communities who have had a unique history.^{1,2}

Due to MDRs, Black populations show poorer health, behavioral, and development, regardless of their economic and non-economic resources and assets.³⁰⁻³⁴ For example, high SES Black people remain at risk of anxiety,³⁵ depression,³⁶ and suicide.³⁷⁻³⁹ High SES Black youth show worse than expected school performance^{16,17} and higher than expected high-risk behaviors such as smoking and externalizing behaviors.^{40,41} As most of these observed diminished effects are shown for economic resources such as SES,⁴²⁻⁴⁶ there is a need to replicate these MDRs for non-economic resources such as age. This can be hypothesized because high SES Black children and adults report higher-than expected risk of chronic conditions such as asthma, hypertension, obesity, heart disease, psychiatric conditions such as anxiety and depression, and neurological conditions such as attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD).^{18,32,46,47}

Although there is an extensive body of research on weaker effects of family SES for racial minority groups, we are unaware of any previous studies that has compared racial differences in the effect of age on chronic respiratory disease (CRD). Therefore, we need to shift from studying MDRs of SES on a wide range of health, economic, and behavioral, outcomes, to studying racial variation in the effect of age on CRD.

MDRs are related to sociology of race(ism) rather than biology of race.⁴⁸⁻⁵² Due to racism, high SES Black communities remain at risk of depression, poor emotion regulation, and CRD. These can be due to environmental stressors that Black communities are exposed to across all SES spectrums. In this view, environmental hazards may confound, dilute, or change the effect of age on health. In a similar manner, we can expect racism-related diminished relevance of age as a determinant of CRD in Black communities. Again, this is because people would develop CRD regardless of their age in Black communities, which is due to racialization not race.⁴⁸⁻⁵²

2. Objectives

Built on MDRs, this study compared the salience of age as a determinant of CRD between Black and White individuals. MDRs framework conceptualizes race as a proxy of racism and marginalization rather than biology of group differences. Built on MDRs, we expected larger salience of age as a determinant of CRD for White than Black US adults. We expected positive effect of age on CRD overall, however, we expected racial variation in the magnitude of this effect. We expected weaker effect of age on CRD for Black communities, which is in line with the MDRs phenomenon.^{1,2,34} Diminished age-related changes in CRD for Black adults would mean that other social factors, rather than biology of aging, make a larger

contribution for Black than White people.

3. Methods

3.1. Design and Settings

This was a cross-sectional study. For this study, we conducted a secondary analysis of existing data. Data came from the baseline population assessment of tobacco and health (PATH) study (adults). Our analysis only used baseline (wave 1) of the PATH data. PATH is a national substance use survey of adults with a national sample. The PATH adults study has included a large and diverse national sample.

3.2. Analytical Sample

For this study, we only included non-Latino White or Black adults. Thus, any individual with Latino ethnic background or any other racial identification such as Asian, mixed, other, or unknown were excluded.

3.3. Study Variables

Dependent Variable. Our outcome variable was CRD. Participants were asked if they were told that they have our CRDs of interest namely asthma, bronchitis, emphysema, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD). Prior studies have shown that self-reported CRD are valid and reliable.⁵³⁻⁵⁹

Moderator. Race was the moderator in this study. Race was self-identified by participants. Race was coded as 1 for Blacks and 0 for Whites (reference group).

Confounders. Sex was 1 for males and 0 for females. Education was a categorical measure ranging from 1 to 6.

Independent Variable. Age was a categorical variable with 10 categories.

3.4. Data Analysis

To analyze data, we used Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). For univariate, we reported n (%) and mean [standard deviations (SDs)]. For bivariate analysis, we used Spearman correlations. We then used four logistic regression models for our multivariable analysis. In all regression models, the outcome variable was CRD, the main predictor (independent) was age. All models controlled for confounders such as sex and education. We used pooled sample for Model 1 and Model 2. No interaction term was included in *Model 1*. For *Model 2*, we included an interaction term between age and race (age X race). We fitted the next two models in stratified samples. This included Whites (Model 3) and Blacks (Model 4). We reported unstandardized regression coefficient (b), SE, and P values. We considered p -value less than or of equal to 0.05 as statistically significant.

4. Results

Table 1 presents the descriptive information in the pooled sample and by race. 23761 adults entered this analysis from whom 19277 (81.1%) were White and 4484 (18.9%) were Black.

Table 1. Descriptive data

	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age (1-7)	3.0980	1.77163
Education	3.6302	1.33188
	N	%
Gender		
Female	11824	49.8
Male	11937	50.2
Age		
1.00	6038	25.4
2.00	4532	19.1
3.00	3570	15.0
4.00	3757	15.8
5.00	3235	13.6
6.00	1806	7.6
7.00	823	3.5
Education		
1.00	2463	10.4
2.00	1607	6.8
3.00	5513	23.2
4.00	8613	36.2
5.00	3597	15.1
6.00	1882	7.9
Respiratory Condition		
No	19607	82.5
Yes	4154	17.5

As Table 2 shows, age was a predictor of CRD overall, but we also found a statistical interaction suggesting a stronger effect for White than Black participants.

As Table 3 shows, age was a predictor of CRD for White but not Black participants.

5. Discussion

Our observation that older age is a risk factor for higher CRD was fully expected and can be explained by the widely recognized age-related health decline and process of ageing. However, the role of age as a determinant of normal health decline may have diminished for Black compared with White individuals. We explain this observation as a manifestation of structural racism in the US. We also see this finding in line with MDRs.

Our findings suggest that some of the racial variation in CRD and health may be due to diminished relevance of age and age-related change in health, in Black than White individuals. We interpret this finding through a sociological rather than a biological mechanism. Similar to the weaker effects of SES and psychological assets, the weakened effect of age for Black than White people may be due to widespread stressors and adversities in Black people lives.⁶⁰⁻⁶² In this view, high stress and adversity, unpredictable environment, and living in under-resourced areas with high crime rate and chronic poverty may hinder

Table 2. The Summary of Regression Model in the Pooled Sample

	B	SE	P Value	Exp(B)	95% CI for EXP(B)	
Model 1						
Race (Black)	-0.128	0.045	.005	0.880	0.806	0.962
Age (1-7)	0.086	0.010	0.000	1.089	1.069	1.110
Gender (Male)	-0.391	0.035	0.000	0.676	0.632	0.724
Education	-0.146	0.013	0.000	0.864	0.843	0.886
Constant	-1.097	0.061	0.000	0.334		
Model 2						
Race (Black)	0.189	0.088	0.032	1.208	1.017	1.436
Age (1-7)	0.104	0.010	0.000	1.109	1.087	1.132
Gender (Male)	-0.391	0.035	0.000	0.676	0.632	0.724
Education	-0.148	0.013	0.000	0.862	0.841	0.884
Age x Race	-0.105	0.026	0.000	0.901	0.857	0.947
Constant	-1.149	0.063	0.000	0.317		

Table 3. The Summary of Regression Model by Race

	B	SE	P Value	Exp(B)	95% CI for EXP(B)	
Model 1						
Age (1-7)	0.104	0.010	0.000	1.109	1.087	1.132
Gender (Male)	-0.407	0.038	0.000	0.666	0.617	0.718
Education	-0.160	0.014	0.000	0.852	0.829	0.876
Constant	-1.100	0.066	0.000	0.333		
Model 2						
Age (1-7)	0.002	0.023	0.930	1.002	0.957	1.049
Gender (Male)	-0.312	0.082	0.000	0.732	0.624	0.859
Education	-0.091	0.031	0.003	0.913	0.859	0.969
Constant	-1.179	0.135	0.000	0.308		

the normal age-related health changes for Black people.⁶³

We see racism as the main driver of the inequalities observed here. Our work is different than previous work by Murry and others who attributed racial differences to genetic and innate differences.⁶⁴ Instead of a deterministic view, we attribute the observed differences to the variation in social environment, which hinders Blacks' daily lives. To undo the observed differences, we need to use social and economic and public policies that undo historic racism and legacy of slavery for Black communities. As income seems to generate equitable effects for Whites and Blacks, we need policies that increase minimum wage and increase income and wealth of Black families.^{9,65-67}

As shown by this study and previous work,¹ under racism, not only SES³⁰⁻³³ but also coping^{68,69} and age¹³ show weaker influences on a wide range of health outcomes for Blacks than Whites. These patterns are robust and shown for children,^{44,70} youth,⁷¹ adults,⁷² and older adults.^{73,74} Under racism, all resources such as employment,⁷⁵ marital status,⁴⁵ parental education,³⁴ own education,^{18,25,40} and coping style^{68,69} lose some of their effects for Black communities. Given the systematic nature of these patterns, we have concluded that any resource may show diminished effects

for oppressed (Black) than privileged (White) people.⁷⁶⁻⁸⁵ These are because of racism, segregation, discrimination, social stratification, and unequal treatment that are multilevel, deeply rooted, structural and societal causes of inequalities.

We cannot emphasize enough that this study conceptualized race as sociological force that reflects history of slavery, Jim Crow, equal but separate, and other unjust policies over four centuries. In our study race is a proxy of where people reside, what healthy options are available, and how much stress populations face. In our study, race is a proxy of treatment of the group by society. Our past results have suggested that, racism alters the implications of age for health, health care services, and brain development.³⁷⁻³⁹ Similarly, racism reduces the salience of SES and other psychological resources as a determinants of outcomes of individuals.⁸⁶

Under racism, the role of age as a normal, developmental, natural determinant of CRD is unequal across diverse racial groups. Due to the existing structural racism and inequalities that are present in the US, even age may not have the same health effects for Whites and Blacks, and the salience of age may be weaker for Black than White people. Therefore, policy solutions that wish to achieve racial health equality should go beyond just addressing SES inequalities and address the context in which health inequalities emerge. Economic, social, and policy solutions are needed to equalize the social environment of Black and White individuals so that age, SES, and other resources and assets generate equal health across all racial groups. The root cause of these inequalities is racism, as explained by Link.^{87,88}

6. Conclusion

In a national sample of American adults, in line with other SES and psychological resources and assets, age shows a weaker association with CRD for Black than White Americans. This is also in line with previous research showing age is a less salient determinant of brain development for Blacks than Whites.^{7,12-15} For Whites, predictability of environment increases the salience of healthy age-related development of CRD. In contrast, Blacks often experience adversities and stress, and live in less predictable environment, thus they show many other factors that may dilute the role of age as a determinant of CRD.

Author Contributions

Conceptualization: SA, AA, BN.

Formal Analysis: SA.

Writing – original draft: BN, AR.

Writing – review & editing: SA, AA, BN.

All authors approved the final draft.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures

Both authors declare no conflict of interests.

Ethical Approval

Research Highlights

What Is Already Known?

- Age is a main determinant of CRD.
- Higher age is associated with a higher odd of CRDs such as COPD, emphysema, and chronic bronchitis.

What Does This Study Add?

- The association between age and CRD differs between White and Black individuals.
- Black individuals develop CRD at all ages. Whites are more likely to develop a CRD at higher age.

This study used publicly available PATH data. All data are fully deidentified. Thus, the study was not human subject research and, therefore, was exempt from a full IRB review.

Funding/Support

Assari is funded and supported by the Tobacco-Related Disease Research Program (TRDRP) grant R00RG2347. Assari is also supported by NIH grant 5S21MD000103.

References

1. Assari S. Unequal gain of equal resources across racial groups. *Int J Health Policy Manag.* 2018;7(1):1-9. doi:10.15171/ijhpm.2017.90.
2. Assari S. Health disparities due to diminished return among Black Americans: public policy solutions. *Soc Issues Policy Rev.* 2018;12(1):112-145. doi:10.1111/sipr.12042.
3. Farmer MM, Ferraro KF. Are racial disparities in health conditional on socioeconomic status? *Soc Sci Med.* 2005;60(1):191-204. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2004.04.026.
4. Clouston SAP, Link BG. A retrospective on fundamental cause theory: state of the literature, and goals for the future. *Annu Rev Sociol.* 2021;47(1):131-156. doi:10.1146/annurev-soc-090320-094912.
5. Assari S. Parental education on youth inhibitory control in the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) Study: Blacks' diminished returns. *Brain Sci.* 2020;10(5):312. doi:10.3390/brainsci10050312.
6. Assari S. Youth social, emotional, and behavioral problems in the ABCD Study: minorities' diminished returns of family income. *J Econ Public Financ.* 2020;6(4):1-19. doi:10.22158/jepf.v6n4p1.
7. Assari S. Age-related decline in children's reward sensitivity: Blacks' diminished returns. *Res Health Sci.* 2020;5(3):112-128. doi:10.22158/rhs.v5n3p112.
8. Assari S. Dimensional change card sorting of American children: marginalization-related diminished returns of age. *Child Teenagers.* 2020;3(2):72-92. doi:10.22158/ct.v3n2p72.
9. Assari S. Parental education, household income, and cortical surface area among 9-10 years old children: minorities' diminished returns. *Brain Sci.* 2020;10(12):956. doi:10.3390/brainsci10120956.
10. Assari S. Parental education and nucleus accumbens response to reward anticipation: minorities' diminished returns. *Adv Soc Sci Cult.* 2020;2(4):132-153. doi:10.22158/assc.v2n4p132.
11. Assari S, Boyce S. Family's subjective economic status and children's matrix reasoning: Blacks' diminished returns. *Res Health Sci.* 2021;6(1):1-23. doi:10.22158/rhs.v6n1p1.
12. Assari S, Mardani A, Maleki M, Bazargan M. Black-White differences in the association between maternal age at childbirth and income. *Womens Health Bull.* 2019;6(4):36-42.

- doi:10.30476/whb.2019.46236.
13. Chalian H, Khoshpouri P, Assari S. Patients' age and discussion with doctors about lung cancer screening; diminished returns of Blacks. *Aging Med (Milton)*. 2019;2(1):35-41. doi:10.1002/agm2.12053.
 14. Assari S, Mincy R. Racism may interrupt age-related brain growth of African American children in the United States. *J Pediatr Child Health Care*. 2021;6(3):1047.
 15. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, Caldwell CH. A dream deferred: African American women's diminished socioeconomic returns of postponing childbearing from teenage to adulthood. *Reprod Med (Basel)*. 2020;1(2):62-76. doi:10.3390/reprodmed1020005.
 16. Assari S. Parental educational attainment and academic performance of American college students; Blacks' diminished returns. *J Health Econ Dev*. 2019;1(1):21-31.
 17. Assari S, Caldwell CH. Parental educational attainment differentially boosts school performance of American adolescents: minorities' diminished returns. *J Family Reprod Health*. 2019;13(1):7-13.
 18. Assari S. Socioeconomic status and self-rated oral health; diminished return among Hispanic Whites. *Dent J (Basel)*. 2018;6(2):11. doi:10.3390/dj6020011.
 19. Assari S. Combined Racial and Gender Differences in the Long-Term Predictive Role of Education on Depressive Symptoms and Chronic Medical Conditions. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2017;4(3):385-396. doi:10.1007/s40615-016-0239-7.
 20. Assari S. Ethnicity, educational attainment, and physical health of older adults in the United States. *Aging Med (Milton)*. 2019;2(2):104-111. doi:10.1002/agm2.12050.
 21. Assari S, Saqib M, Wisseh C, Bazargan M. Social determinants of polypharmacy in first generation Mexican immigrants in the United States. *Int J Travel Med Glob Health*. 2019;7(3):86-90. doi:10.15171/ijtmgh.2019.19.
 22. Assari S. Income and mental well-being of middle-aged and older Americans: immigrants' diminished returns. *Int J Travel Med Glob Health*. 2020;8(1):37-43. doi:10.34172/ijtmgh.2020.06.
 23. Assari S, Bazargan M. Educational attainment and subjective health and well-being; diminished returns of lesbian, gay, and bisexual individuals. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2019;9(9):90. doi:10.3390/bs9090090.
 24. Assari S, Bazargan M. Education level and cigarette smoking; diminished returns of lesbian, gay and bisexual individuals. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2019;9(10):103. doi:10.3390/bs9100103.
 25. Assari S. Education attainment and obesity: differential returns based on sexual orientation. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2019;9(2):16. doi:10.3390/bs9020016.
 26. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, Caldwell CH, Zimmerman MA. Place-based diminished returns of parental educational attainment on school performance of non-Hispanic White youth. *Front Educ (Lausanne)*. 2020;5:30. doi:10.3389/educ.2020.00030.
 27. 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. *Int J Travel Med Glob Health*. 2019;7(3):105-110. doi:10.15171/ijtmgh.2019.22.
 28. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, Caldwell CH. Mathematical performance of American youth: diminished returns of educational attainment of Asian-American parents. *Educ Sci (Basel)*. 2020;10(2):32.
 29. 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(5):1233-1240. doi:10.5114/aoms.2016.59740.
 30. Assari S, Caldwell CH, Mincy R. Family socioeconomic status at birth and youth impulsivity at age 15; Blacks' diminished return. *Children (Basel)*. 2018;5(5):58. doi:10.3390/children5050058.
 31. 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(5):93. doi:10.3390/jcm7050093.
 32. Assari S, Thomas A, Caldwell CH, Mincy RB. Blacks' diminished health return of family structure and socioeconomic status; 15 years of follow-up of a national urban sample of youth. *J Urban Health*. 2018;95(1):21-35. doi:10.1007/s11524-017-0217-3.
 33. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, Mincy R, Caldwell CH. Unequal protective effects of parental educational attainment on the body mass index of Black and White youth. *Int J Environ Res Public Health*. 2019;16(19):3641. doi:10.3390/ijerph16193641.
 34. Assari S, Caldwell CH, Bazargan M. Association between parental educational attainment and youth outcomes and role of race/ethnicity. *JAMA Netw Open*. 2019;2(11):e1916018. doi:10.1001/jamanetworkopen.2019.16018.
 35. Assari S, Caldwell CH, Zimmerman MA. Family structure and subsequent anxiety symptoms; minorities' diminished return. *Brain Sci*. 2018;8(6):97. doi:10.3390/brainsci8060097.
 36. Assari S, Caldwell CH. High risk of depression in high-income African American boys. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2018;5(4):808-819. doi:10.1007/s40615-017-0426-1.
 37. Assari S, Schatten HT, Arias SA, Miller IW, Camargo CA, Boudreaux ED. 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;6(5):1001-1010. doi:10.1007/s40615-019-00601-z.
 38. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M, Caldwell CH. African Americans' diminished returns of parental education on adolescents' depression and suicide in the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) Study. *Eur J Investig Health Psychol Educ*. 2020;10(2):656-668. doi:10.3390/ejihpe10020048.
 39. Assari S, Boyce S, Bazargan M. Feasibility of race by sex intersectionality research on suicidality in the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) Study. *Children (Basel)*. 2021;8(6):437. doi:10.3390/children8060437.
 40. 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(4):763. doi:10.3390/ijerph15040763.
 41. Assari S, Mistry R, Bazargan M. Race, educational attainment, and e-cigarette use. *J Med Res Innov*. 2020;4(1):10.32892/jmri.185. doi:10.32892/jmri.185.
 42. Assari S. Parental education attainment and educational upward mobility; role of race and gender. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2018;8(11):107. doi:10.3390/bs8110107.
 43. Assari S. Parental educational attainment and mental well-being of college students; diminished returns of Blacks. *Brain Sci*. 2018;8(11):193. doi:10.3390/brainsci8110193.
 44. 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(2):62. doi:10.3390/healthcare6020062.
 45. Assari S. Race, intergenerational social mobility and stressful life events. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2018;8(10):86. doi:10.3390/bs8100086.
 46. Assari S. Multiplicative effects of social and psychological

- risk factors on college students' suicidal behaviors. *Brain Sci.* 2018;8(5):91. doi:10.3390/brainsci8050091.
47. Assari S, Caldwell CH. Family income at birth and risk of attention deficit hyperactivity disorder at age 15: racial differences. *Children (Basel)*. 2019;6(1):10. doi:10.3390/children6010010.
 48. D'Angiulli A, Lipina SJ, Olesinska A. Explicit and implicit issues in the developmental cognitive neuroscience of social inequality. *Front Hum Neurosci*. 2012;6:254. doi:10.3389/fnhum.2012.00254.
 49. Javanbakht A, Kim P, Swain JE, Evans GW, Phan KL, Liberzon I. Sex-specific effects of childhood poverty on neurocircuitry of processing of emotional cues: a neuroimaging study. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2016;6(4):28. doi:10.3390/bs6040028.
 50. Javanbakht A, King AP, Evans GW, et al. Childhood poverty predicts adult amygdala and frontal activity and connectivity in response to emotional faces. *Front Behav Neurosci*. 2015;9:154. doi:10.3389/fnbeh.2015.00154.
 51. Kim P, Evans GW, Angstadt M, et al. Effects of childhood poverty and chronic stress on emotion regulatory brain function in adulthood. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2013;110(46):18442-18447. doi:10.1073/pnas.1308240110.
 52. Silverman ME, Muennig P, Liu X, Rosen Z, Goldstein MA. The impact of socioeconomic status on the neural substrates associated with pleasure. *Open Neuroimaging J*. 2009;3:58-63. doi:10.2174/1874440000903010058.
 53. Assari S. Chronic medical conditions and major depressive disorder: differential role of positive religious coping among African Americans, Caribbean Blacks and non-Hispanic Whites. *Int J Prev Med*. 2014;5(4):405-413.
 54. Watkins DC, Assari S, Johnson-Lawrence V. Race and ethnic group differences in comorbid major depressive disorder, generalized anxiety disorder, and chronic medical conditions. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2015;2(3):385-394. doi:10.1007/s40615-015-0085-z.
 55. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M. Chronic medical conditions and negative affect; racial variation in reciprocal associations over time. *Front Psychiatry*. 2016;7:140. doi:10.3389/fpsy.2016.00140.
 56. Assari S. Number of chronic medical conditions fully mediates the effects of race on mortality; 25-year follow-up of a nationally representative sample of Americans. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2017;4(4):623-631. doi:10.1007/s40615-016-0266-4.
 57. Leggett A, Assari S, Burgard S, Zivin K. The effect of sleep disturbance on the association between chronic medical conditions and depressive symptoms over time. *Longit Life Course Stud*. 2017;8(2):138-151. doi:10.14301/lcs.v8i2.433.
 58. Assari S, Bazargan M, Caldwell C. Parental educational attainment and chronic medical conditions among American youth; minorities' diminished returns. *Children (Basel)*. 2019;6(9):96. doi:10.3390/children6090096.
 59. Assari S, Dejmian M. Gender, depressive symptoms, chronic medical conditions, and time to first psychiatric diagnosis among American older adults. *Int J Prev Med*. 2019;10:182. doi:10.4103/ijpvm.IJPVM_333_15.
 60. Assari S, Boyce S, Caldwell CH, Bazargan M, Mincy R. Family income and gang presence in the neighborhood: diminished returns of Black families. *Urban Sci*. 2020;4(2):29. doi:10.3390/urbansci4020029.
 61. Assari S. Family Socioeconomic status and exposure to childhood trauma: racial differences. *Children (Basel)*. 2020;7(6):57. doi:10.3390/children7060057.
 62. Assari S. Parental education and spanking of American children: Blacks' diminished returns. *World J Educ Res*. 2020;7(3):19-44. doi:10.22158/wjer.v7n3p19.
 63. Hanson JL, Hair N, Shen DG, et al. Correction: family poverty affects the rate of human infant brain growth. *PLoS One*. 2015;10(12):e0146434. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0146434.
 64. Herrnstein RJ, Murray C. *The Bell Curve: Intelligence and Class Structure in American Life*. Simon and Schuster; 2010.
 65. 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(5):412. doi:10.3390/children8050412.
 66. Akhlaghipour G, Assari S. Parental education, household income, race, and children's working memory: complexity of the effects. *Brain Sci*. 2020;10(12):950. doi:10.3390/brainsci10120950.
 67. Assari S, Akhlaghipour G. Not race or age but their interaction predicts pre-adolescents' inhibitory control. *Child Teenagers*. 2020;3(2):50-71. doi:10.22158/ct.v3n2p50.
 68. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M. Reciprocal associations between depressive symptoms and mastery among older adults; Black-White differences. *Front Aging Neurosci*. 2016;8:279. doi:10.3389/fnagi.2016.00279.
 69. Assari S. General self-efficacy and mortality in the USA; racial differences. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2017;4(4):746-757. doi:10.1007/s40615-016-0278-0.
 70. Assari S. Family income reduces risk of obesity for White but not Black children. *Children (Basel)*. 2018;5(6):73. doi:10.3390/children5060073.
 71. Assari S, Gibbons FX, Simons R. Depression among Black youth; interaction of class and place. *Brain Sci*. 2018;8(6):108. doi:10.3390/brainsci8060108.
 72. Assari S. Blacks' diminished return of education attainment on subjective health; mediating effect of income. *Brain Sci*. 2018;8(9):176. doi:10.3390/brainsci8090176.
 73. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M. Education and alcohol consumption among older Americans; Black-White differences. *Front Public Health*. 2016;4:67. doi:10.3389/fpubh.2016.00067.
 74. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M, Caldwell CH, Zimmerman MA. Fear of neighborhood violence during adolescence predicts development of obesity a decade later: gender differences among African Americans. *Arch Trauma Res*. 2016;5(2):e31475. doi:10.5812/atr.31475.
 75. Assari S, Caldwell CH. Social determinants of perceived discrimination among Black youth: intersection of ethnicity and gender. *Children (Basel)*. 2018;5(2):24. doi:10.3390/children5020024.
 76. Krieger N, Williams D, Zierler S. "Whiting out" White privilege will not advance the study of how racism harms health. *Am J Public Health*. 1999;89(5):782-783; author reply 784-785. doi:10.2105/ajph.89.5.782.
 77. Krieger N. Epidemiology, racism, and health: the case of low birth weight. *Epidemiology*. 2000;11(3):237-239. doi:10.1097/00001648-200005000-00001.
 78. Rich-Edwards J, Krieger N, Majzoub J, Zierler S, Lieberman E, Gillman M. Maternal experiences of racism and violence as predictors of preterm birth: rationale and study design. *Paediatr Perinat Epidemiol*. 2001;15 Suppl 2:124-135. doi:10.1046/j.1365-3016.2001.00013.x.
 79. Krieger N. Does racism harm health? Did child abuse exist before 1962? On explicit questions, critical science, and current controversies: an ecosocial perspective. *Am J Public Health*. 2003;93(2):194-199. doi:10.2105/ajph.93.2.194.

80. Parrott RL, Silk KJ, Dillow MR, Krieger JL, Harris TM, Condit CM. Development and validation of tools to assess genetic discrimination and genetically based racism. *J Natl Med Assoc.* 2005;97(7):980-990.
81. Krieger N, Smith K, Naishadham D, Hartman C, Barbeau EM. Experiences of discrimination: validity and reliability of a self-report measure for population health research on racism and health. *Soc Sci Med.* 2005;61(7):1576-1596. doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2005.03.006.
82. Krieger N. Does racism harm health? Did child abuse exist before 1962? On explicit questions, critical science, and current controversies: an ecosocial perspective. *Am J Public Health.* 2008;98(9 Suppl):S20-25. doi:10.2105/ajph.98.supplement_1.s20.
83. Krieger N. Living and dying at the crossroads: racism, embodiment, and why theory is essential for a public health of consequence. *Am J Public Health.* 2016;106(5):832-833. doi:10.2105/ajph.2016.303100.
84. Bassett MT, Krieger N, Bailey Z. Charlottesville: blatant racism, not grievances, on display. *Lancet.* 2017;390(10109):2243. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(17)32855-6.
85. Bailey ZD, Krieger N, Agénor M, Graves J, Linos N, Bassett MT. Structural racism and health inequities in the USA: evidence and interventions. *Lancet.* 2017;389(10077):1453-1463. doi:10.1016/s0140-6736(17)30569-x.
86. Noble KG, Houston SM, Brito NH, et al. Family income, parental education and brain structure in children and adolescents. *Nat Neurosci.* 2015;18(5):773-778. doi:10.1038/nn.3983.
87. Phelan JC, Link BG. Is racism a fundamental cause of inequalities in health? *Annu Rev Sociol.* 2015;41(1):311-330. doi:10.1146/annurev-soc-073014-112305.
88. Hudson D, Banks A, Holland D, Sewell W. Fundamental links between racism, socioeconomic position, and social mobility. In: *Men's Health Equity: A Handbook.* Routledge; 2019. p. 408.