



Association Between Parental Educational Attainment and Children's Negative Urgency: Sex Differences

Shervin Assari^{1,2*} 

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

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

Abstract

Background and aims: Negative urgency reflects a specific facet of impulsivity and correlates with a wide range of health-related risk behaviors, including, but not limited to, problematic substance use. Negative urgency is also shaped by family socioeconomic position (SEP), such as parental educational attainment (PEA). This study aimed to explore sex differences regarding protective effects of PEA on children's negative urgency in the US.

Methods: This cross-sectional study used the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) study data. Baseline ABCD data included 10,535 American children in the age range of 9-10 years old. The independent variable was PEA, treated as a 5-level categorical variable. The primary outcome was negative urgency measured by the Urgency, Premeditation, Perseverance, Sensation Seeking, Positive Urgency, Impulsive Behavior Scale (UPPS-SS). Mixed-effects regression models were applied for data analysis.

Results: In sex-stratified regression models, high PEA was predictive of lower levels of negative urgency in female but not male children. In the overall sample, sex showed a statistically significant interaction with PEA on children's negative urgency, indicating a stronger protective effect of high PEA for female compared to male children.

Conclusion: PEA was a more salient determinant of negative urgency in female children than male ones. Our results also showed that American boys tend to have high levels of negative urgency, which is a risk factor of drug use, at all parental education levels.

Keywords: Personality, Negative urgency, Socioeconomic status, Children, Parental educational attainment

*Corresponding Author:

Shervin Assari,
Tel: +(734)-232-0445
Fax: +734-615-873
Email: assari@umich.edu;

Received: 16 Sep. 2020
Accepted: 23 Dec. 2020
ePublished: 30 Mar. 2021



Introduction

Socioeconomic position (SEP) is among the most influential determinants of population health.¹⁻³ Parental educational attainment (PEA) is among various SEP indicators,⁴ and it is one of the most salient social determinants of children's outcomes across various domains.⁴ Families composed of highly educated parents report higher parental involvement levels, which improves children's outcomes across domains.⁵⁻⁹

PEA boosts children's positive outcomes across various domains.⁴ Children from highly educated families experience fewer stressors and related consequences.¹⁰⁻¹² In part, parental education may explain why children's behavioral outcomes are different across social groups.¹³⁻¹⁶ Closing the PEA gap is also one strategy for addressing social inequalities in childhood health and behaviors.^{17,18}

However, parental education and other SEP indicators do not have equal effects on the outcomes of various demographic groups, indicating that parental education may be a source of inequalities across groups rather than

closing them.¹⁹⁻²² For example, the Marginalization-related Diminished Returns (MDRs) literature has shown that PEA and other SEP indicators have weaker effects in marginalized social groups.²³ As shown by MDRs,^{24,25} due to social marginalization, some children remain at risk because their parental education generates less tangible behavioral outcomes for them. Differential effects of PEA are shown for race,²⁴⁻²⁸ ethnicity,^{23,29-31} sexual orientation,³² nativity,²² place,³³ and sex.³⁴⁻³⁹ In all these cases, parental education's gradient or threshold effect is found to vary across subgroups of children based on a demographic factor.^{23,29,40-42} This can be partly because social processes may interfere with some parts of society's ability to leverage the social resource (SEP) and turn them into tangible behavioral or health outcomes. As a result, that subgroup would show undesired outcomes regardless of availability of SEP resources.^{25,26,43-46}

Some research has shown that SEP indicators, such as parental education, may show sex-specific effects on brain development.⁴⁷ Javanbakht et al⁴⁸ and ⁴⁹ reported more

potent PEA effects on the brain function of females than males. In contrast, Whittle et al⁵⁰ and McDermott et al⁵¹ showed opposite results, where boys were more sensitive than girls to a variation in environmental inputs. Assari also showed sex differences in the effects of parental education on the depression of adolescents.^{52,53} Although we know that sex differences exist in SEP effects on brain development, the magnitude and direction of such sex differences are still unclear.

Negative urgency reflects a specific facet of impulsivity,⁵⁴ and is known to be a risk factor of a wide range of health-related risk behaviors, including problematic substance use.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷ Negative urgency is commonly measured by a scale called the Urgency, *Premeditation*, Perseverance, Sensation Seeking (UPPS).⁵⁸⁻⁶² Compared to children and adults with low negative urgency, subjects with high negative urgency respond undesirably to reward omission in tasks that use monetary incentives.⁶³⁻⁶⁶ Following omission of an expected reward, subjects with high levels of negative urgency show frustration and display impulsive behaviors.⁶⁶

This study compared the effects of PEA on negative urgency of male and female children in the US. While high PEA is expected to be associated with less negative urgency (Hypothesis 1), this effect may be stronger for males than females (Hypothesis 2). The stronger effects of SEP indicators for males than females have been shown in some studies.^{50,51}

Materials and Methods

Design, Setting, and Sampling

This cross-sectional study was a secondary analysis of existing data. We borrowed data from the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) study.⁶⁷⁻⁷¹ The ABCD is a national children's brain development study with broad diversity based on race, ethnicity, sex, and SEP.^{67,72}

Participants were recruited from multiple cities across various states in the US. The sample was enrolled through the US school system. The recruitment catchment area of the ABCD, composed of 21 participating sites, encompasses over 20% of the entire US population of 9-10-year-old children. The ABCD applied a carefully designed sampling and recruitment process across various sites, described elsewhere,^{67,68,70,72-87} to ensure that the results are generalizable. More details of the ABCD sample and sampling are available here.⁸⁸

Analytical Sample

This study included 10,535 children (age range: 9-10 years old) who had data on study variables, including negative urgency. Children from any race or ethnicity were included. No additional eligibility was considered.

Measures

Outcome

Negative urgency. Negative urgency reflected impulsivity,

and was measured by the Urgency, Premeditation (lack of), Perseverance (lack of), Sensation Seeking, Positive Urgency, Impulsive Behavior Scale (UPPS-SS).⁸⁹ Negative urgency in this study was treated as a continuous measure, with a higher score indicating a higher negative urgency (higher impulsivity). This measure is valid and reliable⁶² (Supplementary file 1).

Moderator

Sex. Sex, 1 for males and 0 for females, was a dichotomous variable. This variable was the effect modifier.

Independent Variable

Parental educational attainment. PEA was a five-level categorical variable. Responses included 1= less than high school diploma; 2=high school diploma or GED; 3=some college; 4= college degree; and 5=some graduate education. The distribution of our PEA variable is shown in Supplementary file 1.

Confounders

Race. Race was self-identified by parents, and it was treated as a categorical variable: White (reference group), Black, Asian, and Other/Mixed race.

Ethnicity. Ethnicity, self-identified by the interviewed parents, was a categorical variable: Hispanics vs. non-Hispanics (reference category).

Age. The interviewed parents reported child age.

Parental marital status. The household's marital status was a dichotomous variable: married = 1 and non-married = 0.

Data Analysis

To describe our sample, we reported mean (SD) for continuous variables and frequencies and percentages for categorical variables in the pooled sample and by sex. We also used chi-square or independent sample *t* test for bivariate analysis. Our main analysis applied mixed (random) effect models that allowed adjusting for the data's nested nature. This analysis was performed in the Data Analysis and Exploration Portal (DEAP), National Data Archive (NDA), and National Institutes of Health (NIH). Participants were nested within families who were nested within 21 sites. As such, our models corrected for non-independence of our observations. Two mixed-effects multivariable models were performed. In both of these models, negative urgency was the outcome, sex was the moderator, PEA was the predictor, and covariates (race, ethnicity, age, and parental marital status), as well as site and family ID were controlled. *Model 1 (no interaction)* was estimated in the absence of the PEA by sex interaction term. *Model 2 (the interaction model)* added interaction terms between sex and PEA. Supplementary file 2 shows the formula used for *Model 1*, *Model 2*, and *Model 3* in the DEAP system. Regression coefficient (b), SE, and p-values were reported for each model. Supplementary file 1 shows

Archive of SID

the results of testing assumptions. Graphs reflecting these results are also shown.

Ethical Approval

For this study, we used a fully de-identified data set. As such, the study was exempted from a full review Institutional Review Board (IRB). However, the main study protocol, the ABCD, was approved by the IRB at the University of California, San Diego (UCSD), and several other institutions. Participants signed consent or assent depending on their age.⁷²

Results

Table 1 depicts the summary statistics of the pooled sample and by sex. The current analysis was performed on 10,535 children (age range: 9-10 years old), from whom 52% were male (n = 5,481), and 48% were female (n = 5054).

Table 2 summarizes our mixed-method regression models in the overall (pooled) sample. *Model 1* (Main Effect Model) did not show any association between PEA and negative urgency in the pooled sample. *Model 2* (Interaction Model) showed an interaction term between sex and PEA on negative urgency, suggesting that the effect of PEA on negative urgency was weaker for males than females. *Model 3* showed an inverse association between PEA and negative urgency in females.

Figure 1 shows no effect of PEA on negative urgency in the pooled sample. Figure 2 shows the effect of PEA on negative urgency for females. As this figure shows,

there was a stepwise association between PEA and female children's negative urgency. Female children whose parents had the highest education levels showed the lowest levels of negative urgency, and those with the lowest PEA showed the highest negative urgency. Figure 3 shows interactions between PEA and child's sex on negative urgency in the pooled sample. As this figure shows, a decline in negative urgency due to high PEA was smaller for male than female children.

Discussion

Our findings showed that high parental education reduces negative urgency for female but not male children, indicating that sex alters the effect of parental education on negative urgency. We also found interactions that were suggestive of more potent effects of PEA on negative urgency for female than male American children.

The literature on sex differences may explain the results. Sex differences are due to the biology of being male or female. Environmental input (e.g., SEP) may show some sex-specific patterns of effects on brain development.⁴⁷ A study showed that SEP (i.e., income) might have a larger effect on the development of certain brain structures (e.g., amygdala) of female than male participants.⁴⁸ Another study among children aged 6-11 years old found that PEA predicted females' structural brain network efficiency but not males' structural brain network efficiency.⁴⁹

Other studies have provided opposing results. For example, a study documented a more salient SEP effect

Table 1. Descriptive Data Overall and by Sex

Level	All	Female	Male	P
	N=10535	n=5054	n=5481	
Age (mon), mean (SD)	118.97 (7.46)	118.79 (7.44)	119.13 (7.48)	0.021
Negative Urgency, mean (SD)	8.49 (2.63)	8.26 (2.63)	8.69 (2.61)	<0.001
Parental education, No. (%)				
<HS Diploma	391 (3.7)	198 (3.9)	193 (3.5)	0.72
HS Diploma/GED	872 (8.3)	412 (8.2)	460 (8.4)	
Some College	2702 (25.6)	1281 (25.3)	1421 (25.9)	
Bachelor	2794 (26.5)	1333 (26.4)	1461 (26.7)	
Post graduate degree	3776 (35.8)	1830 (36.2)	1946 (35.5)	
Race, No. (%)				
White	6974 (66.2)	3292 (65.1)	3682 (67.2)	0.144
Black	1539 (14.6)	771 (15.3)	768 (14.0)	
Asian	234 (2.2)	117 (2.3)	117 (2.1)	
Other/Mixed	1788 (17.0)	874 (17.3)	914 (16.7)	
Married family, No. (%)				
No	3205 (30.4)	1580 (31.3)	1625 (29.6)	0.075
Yes	7330 (69.6)	3474 (68.7)	3856 (70.4)	
Hispanic, No. (%)				
No	8552 (81.2)	4111 (81.3)	4441 (81.0)	0.697
Yes	1983 (18.8)	943 (18.7)	1040 (19.0)	

Table 2. The Results of Our Mixed Effect Models

	All			All			Females		
	b	SE	P	b	SE	p	b	SE	P
Parental education (HS Diploma/ GED)	0.18675	0.16363	0.2537585	-0.24328	0.22919	0.288503	-0.24926	0.23248	0.2836748
Parental education (some college)	0.03376	0.14963	0.8215028	-0.4512*	0.20505	0.0277997	-0.47028*	0.21075	0.0256967
Parental education (bachelor)	-0.10142	0.15918	0.5240414	-0.42775*	0.21215	0.0437949	-0.46486*	0.22593	0.0396825
Parental education (post graduate degree)	-0.12890	0.16118	0.4239005	-0.57307**	0.21206	0.0068951	-0.60609**	0.22936	0.0082545
Sex (Male)				-0.39349	0.26425	0.1364957			
Parental education (HS diploma/ GED) x sex (male)				0.87007**	0.31827	0.0062722			
Parental education (some college) x sex (male)				0.97683***	0.28307	0.0005611			
Parental education (bachelor) x sex (male)				0.67624*	0.28254	0.016707			
Parental education (post graduate degree) x sex (male)				0.9027**	0.27782	0.0011606			

Age, marital status, race, and ethnicity (Hispanic) are controlled in both models.
 *P<0.05, **P<0.01

on the cortical surface of male than female participants.⁵¹ A study showed that positive parenting and caregiving better predict the amygdala’s volumetric growth and the cortical thinning of the right anterior cingulate for males than females.⁵⁰ Thus, sex differences in the effects of SEP on brain development exist. However, the directionality of these sex differences is still unknown.⁹⁰

The literature on gender differences may also explain the findings. Gender, different from sex, is a social construct

and refers to the difference due to the variation in the social experiences of males and females. Gender differences can be shaped by differences between males’ and females’ social networks, culture, norms, parents, and friends. The impact of parents, teachers, and peers may differ across SEP levels for boys and girls. Some SEP indicators have a larger impact on girls’ opportunities and experiences than boys. While boys of high- and low-income families develop similarly, high- and low-income girls receive vastly

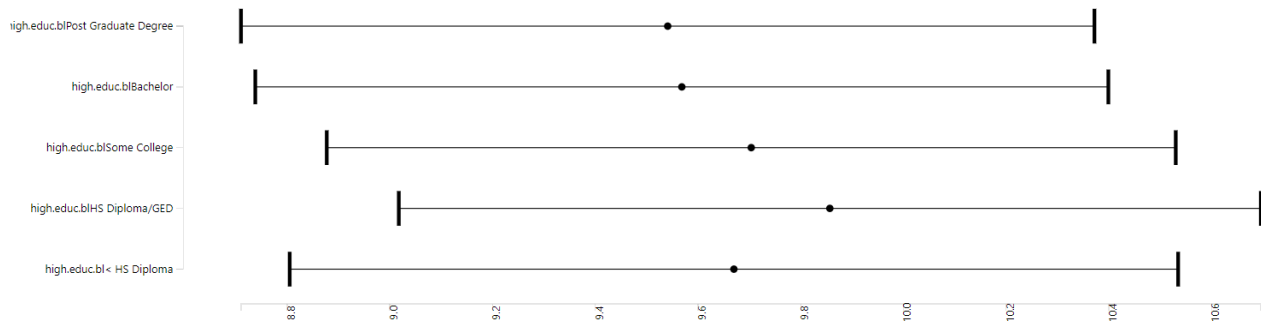


Figure 1. Association Between Parental Educational Attainment and Children Negative Urgency Overall.

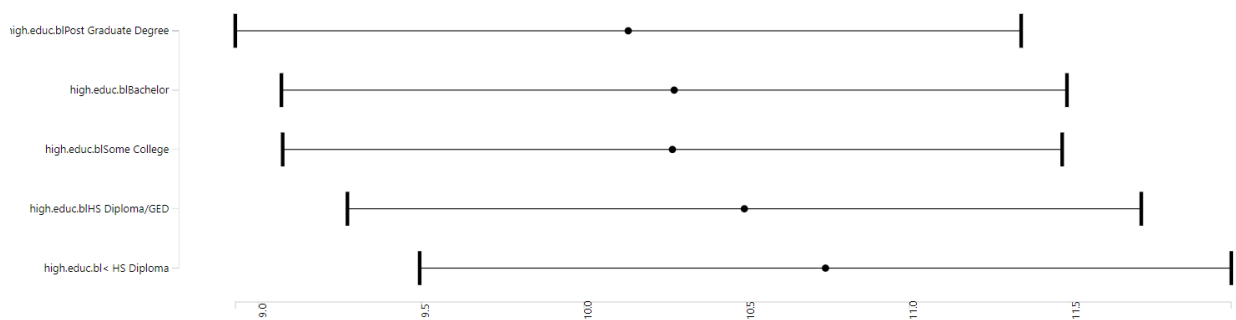


Figure 2. Association Between Parental Educational Attainment and Children Negative Urgency in Females.

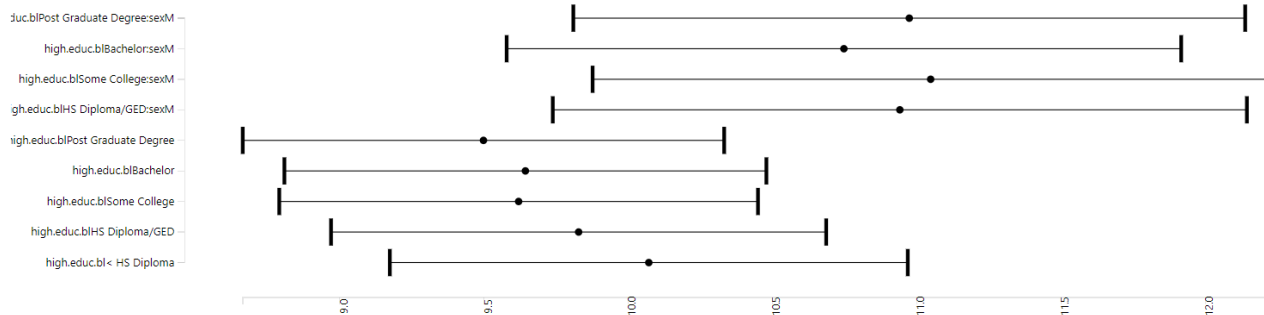


Figure 3. Association Between Parental Educational Attainment and Children Negative Urgency by Child's Sex.

different parenting, stress, peers, and social risk. High- and low-SEP parents may socialize or monitor their boys and girls differently.⁹¹⁻⁹³ The influence of peers may also differ for males and females.⁹⁴ Finally, gender shapes how people cope with stress.⁹⁵ These may all result in gender differences in SEP's effects on daily experiences and exposures that shape negative urgency and other aspects of brain function and development.

Gender and sex differences are rules rather than exceptions. Although not supported here, there are studies showing stronger SEP effects (e.g., income and parental education) for males than females among adults. This might be due to the fact that society has a stronger expectation from males than females to be bread-winners and provide for their families.⁹⁶⁻¹⁰¹ We, however, found stronger SEP effects for females than males.

Research that investigates brain development should not limit itself to controlling for sex and gender. The same is true for any studies that explore SEP effects on the brain development of children. Most of the research has traditionally "controlled" the statistical effect of sex, gender, and SEP. Researchers should be aware that sex/gender and SEP interact, meaning that sex alters the SEP effect, and SEP changes the effect of sex on behaviors and brain function and development.

Additional research is needed on the underlying mechanisms that explain why sex or gender alter the effects of SEP indicators such as PEA on children's negative urgency. We know that family SEP may differently impact children's outcomes across demographic groups.¹⁰² Also, not only sex but other factors such as race, place, and class may alter the effect of parental education on children's outcomes.¹⁰³ These complexities should be addressed in further research.

Cross-sectional studies are limited in their design. We cannot make any causal inferences between parental education and negative urgency. This study only investigated one SEP indicator, namely PEA. It is unknown if the effects of other SEP indicators such as wealth, income, parental marital status, and parental employment are similar for male and female students. Moreover, it is not clear whether higher-level SEP indicators such as

neighborhood SEP have similar or differential effects on children's negative urgency. Our research did not study other personality traits or aspects of impulsivity. It also did not study other risk factors of substance use, such as peers, norms, expectations, parenting, and knowledge about drugs' harm. We also did not study why PEA differently influences male and female children's negative urgency.

Conclusion

According to our results, high PEA impacted negative urgency in girls but not boys. This means that girls with highly educated parents would have low negative urgency. However, boys with high and low parental education do not vary much in their negative urgency, and they all have high levels of negative urgency. The result is essential given the role of negative urgency on health risk behaviors such as drug use.

Conflict of Interest Disclosures

The funders had no role in the design of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript, or in the decision to publish the results.

Funding

Shervin Assari is supported by the grants with the numbers CA201415 02, DA035811-05, U54MD007598, U54MD008149, D084526-03, and U54CA229974 by the National Institutes of Health (NIH). 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/>

Disclaimer

This manuscript reflects the views of the author 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 analysis or writing of this report.

Supplementary files

Supplementary file 1. Distribution of the predictor, outcome, residuals, and quantiles.

Supplementary file 2. Model formula for our main models.

References

1. Valencia MLC, Tran BT, Lim MK, Choi KS, Oh JK. Association between socioeconomic status and early initiation of smoking, alcohol drinking, and sexual behavior among Korean adolescents. *Asia Pac J Public Health*. 2019;31(5):443-53. doi: 10.1177/1010539519860732.
2. Ahmad A, Zulaily N, Shahril MR, Syed Abdullah EFH, Ahmed A. Association between socioeconomic status and obesity among 12-year-old Malaysian adolescents. *PLoS One*. 2018;13(7):e0200577. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0200577.
3. Merz EC, Tottenham N, Noble KG. Socioeconomic status, amygdala volume, and internalizing symptoms in children and adolescents. *J Clin Child Adolesc Psychol*. 2018;47(2):312-23. doi: 10.1080/15374416.2017.1326122.
4. Ross CE, Mirowsky J. The interaction of personal and parental education on health. *Soc Sci Med*. 2011;72(4):591-9. doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2010.11.028.
5. Poh BK, Lee ST, Yeo GS, Tang KC, Noor Afifah AR, Siti Hanisa A, et al. Low socioeconomic status and severe obesity are linked to poor cognitive performance in Malaysian children. *BMC Public Health*. 2019;19(Suppl 4):541. doi: 10.1186/s12889-019-6856-4.
6. Karlsson O, De Neve JW, Subramanian SV. Weakening association of parental education: analysis of child health outcomes in 43 low- and middle-income countries. *Int J Epidemiol*. 2019;48(1):83-97. doi: 10.1093/ije/dyy158.
7. Madhushanthi HJ, Wimalasekera SW, Goonewardena CSE, Amarasekara A, Lenora J. Socioeconomic status is a predictor of neurocognitive performance of early female adolescents. *Int J Adolesc Med Health*. 2018;32(6). doi: 10.1515/ijamh-2018-0024.
8. Christensen DL, Schieve LA, Devine O, Drews-Botsch C. Socioeconomic status, child enrichment factors, and cognitive performance among preschool-age children: results from the Follow-Up of Growth and Development Experiences study. *Res Dev Disabil*. 2014;35(7):1789-801. doi: 10.1016/j.ridd.2014.02.003.
9. Bouthoorn SH, Wijtzes AI, Jaddoe VW, Hofman A, Raat H, van Lenthe FJ. Development of socioeconomic inequalities in obesity among Dutch pre-school and school-aged children. *Obesity (Silver Spring)*. 2014;22(10):2230-7. doi: 10.1002/oby.20843.
10. Yelin E, Trupin L, Bunde J, Yazdany J. Poverty, neighborhoods, persistent stress, and systemic lupus erythematosus outcomes: a qualitative study of the patients' perspective. *Arthritis Care Res (Hoboken)*. 2019;71(3):398-405. doi: 10.1002/acr.23599.
11. Harnett NG, Wheelock MD, Wood KH, Goodman AM, Mrug S, Elliott MN, et al. Negative life experiences contribute to racial differences in the neural response to threat. *Neuroimage*. 2019;202:116086. doi: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2019.116086.
12. Schulz AJ, Mentz G, Lachance L, Johnson J, Gaines C, Israel BA. Associations between socioeconomic status and allostatic load: effects of neighborhood poverty and tests of mediating pathways. *Am J Public Health*. 2012;102(9):1706-14. doi: 10.2105/ajph.2011.300412.
13. 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;8(6):621-8.
14. Bell CN, Sacks TK, Thomas Tobin CS, Thorpe RJ Jr. Racial non-equivalence of socioeconomic status and self-rated health among African Americans and Whites. *SSM Popul Health*. 2020;10:100561. doi: 10.1016/j.ssmph.2020.100561.
15. Samuel LJ, Roth DL, Schwartz BS, Thorpe RJ, Glass TA. Socioeconomic status, race/ethnicity, and diurnal cortisol trajectories in middle-aged and older adults. *J Gerontol B Psychol Sci Soc Sci*. 2018;73(3):468-76. doi: 10.1093/geronb/gbw080.
16. Fuentes M, Hart-Johnson T, Green CR. The association among neighborhood socioeconomic status, race and chronic pain in Black and White older adults. *J Natl Med Assoc*. 2007;99(10):1160-9.
17. Williams DR, Costa MV, Odunlami AO, Mohammed SA. 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. doi: 10.1097/01.phh.0000338382.36695.42.
18. Williams DR. Race, socioeconomic status, and health. The added effects of racism and discrimination. *Ann N Y Acad Sci*. 1999;896:173-88. doi: 10.1111/j.1749-6632.1999.tb08114.x.
19. Assari S, Preiser B, Kelly M. Education and income predict future emotional well-being of Whites but not Blacks: a ten-year cohort. *Brain Sci*. 2018;8(7):122. doi: 10.3390/brainsci8070122.
20. Assari S. Family socioeconomic position at birth and school bonding at age 15; Blacks' diminished returns. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2019;9(3):26. doi: 10.3390/bs9030026.
21. 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.
22. Assari S. Socioeconomic status and current cigarette smoking status: immigrants' diminished returns. *Int J Travel Med Glob Health*. 2020;8(2):66-72. doi: 10.34172/ijtmgh.2020.11.
23. Assari S, Farokhnia M, Mistry R. Education attainment and alcohol binge drinking: diminished returns of Hispanics in Los Angeles. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2019;9(1):9. doi: 10.3390/bs9010009.
24. Assari S. Health disparities due to diminished return among black Americans: public policy solutions. *Soc Issues Policy Rev*. 2018;12(1):112-45. doi: 10.1111/sipr.12042.
25. 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.
26. 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.
27. 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.
28. 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.
 29. Assari S, Mistry R. Diminished return of employment on ever smoking among Hispanic Whites in Los Angeles. *Health Equity*. 2019;3(1):138-44. doi: 10.1089/heap.2018.0070.
 30. Assari S. Socioeconomic determinants of systolic blood pressure; minorities' diminished returns. *J Health Econ Dev*. 2019;1(1):1-11.
 31. 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.
 32. Assari S. Education attainment and obesity: differential returns based on sexual orientation. *Behav Sci (Basel)*. 2019;9(2):16. doi: 10.3390/bs9020016.
 33. 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.
 34. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M. Stressful life events and risk of depression 25 years later: race and gender differences. *Front Public Health*. 2016;4:49. doi: 10.3389/fpubh.2016.00049.
 35. Assari S, Caldwell CH, Zimmerman MA. Sex differences in the association between testosterone and violent behaviors. *Trauma Mon*. 2014;19(3):e18040. doi: 10.5812/traumamon.18040.
 36. Assari S, Caldwell CH. Gender and ethnic differences in the association between obesity and depression among Black adolescents. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2015;2(4):481-93. doi: 10.1007/s40615-015-0096-9.
 37. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M, Malekahmadi MR, Caldwell CH, Zimmerman M. Baseline religion involvement predicts subsequent salivary cortisol levels among male but not female Black youth. *Int J Endocrinol Metab*. 2015;13(4):e31790. doi: 10.5812/ijem.31790.
 38. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M. Association between stressful life events and depression; intersection of race and gender. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2016;3(2):349-56. doi: 10.1007/s40615-015-0160-5.
 39. Assari S, Moghani Lankarani M, Caldwell CH, Zimmerman M. Anxiety symptoms during adolescence predicts salivary cortisol in early adulthood among Blacks; sex differences. *Int J Endocrinol Metab*. 2015;13(4):e18041. doi: 10.5812/ijem.18041.
 40. 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.
 41. 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.
 42. Assari S, Mistry R, Caldwell CH, Bazargan M. Protective effects of parental education against youth cigarette smoking: diminished returns of Blacks and Hispanics. *Adolesc Health Med Ther*. 2020;11:63-71. doi: 10.2147/ahmt.s238441.
 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. Blacks' diminished return of education attainment on subjective health; mediating effect of income. *Brain Sci*. 2018;8(9):176. doi: 10.3390/brainsci8090176.
 45. 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.
 46. Assari S, Hani N. Household income and children's unmet dental care need; Blacks' diminished return. *Dent J (Basel)*. 2018;6(2):17. doi: 10.3390/dj6020017.
 47. Wierenga LM, Sexton JA, Laake P, Giedd JN, Tamnes CK. A key characteristic of sex differences in the developing brain: greater variability in brain structure of boys than girls. *Cereb Cortex*. 2018;28(8):2741-51. doi: 10.1093/cercor/bhx154.
 48. 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.
 49. Kim DJ, Davis EP, Sandman CA, Glynn L, Sporns O, O'Donnell BF, et al. Childhood poverty and the organization of structural brain connectome. *NeuroImage*. 2019;184:409-16. doi: 10.1016/j.neuroimage.2018.09.041.
 50. Whittle S, Lichter R, Dennison M, Vijayakumar N, Schwartz O, Byrne ML, et al. Structural brain development and depression onset during adolescence: a prospective longitudinal study. *Am J Psychiatry*. 2014;171(5):564-71. doi: 10.1176/appi.ajp.2013.13070920.
 51. McDermott CL, Seidlitz J, Nadig A, Liu S, Clasen LS, Blumenthal JD, et al. Longitudinally mapping childhood socioeconomic status associations with cortical and subcortical morphology. *J Neurosci*. 2019;39(8):1365-73. doi: 10.1523/jneurosci.1808-18.2018.
 52. Assari S, Caldwell CH. High risk of depression in high-income African American boys. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2018;5(4):808-19. doi: 10.1007/s40615-017-0426-1.
 53. 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.
 54. Littlefield AK, Stevens AK, Ellingson JM, King KM, Jackson KM. Changes in negative urgency, positive urgency, and sensation seeking across adolescence. *Pers Individ Dif*. 2016;90:332-7. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2015.11.024.
 55. Cyders MA, Zapolski TC, Combs JL, Settles RF, Fillmore MT, Smith GT. Experimental effect of positive urgency on negative outcomes from risk taking and on increased alcohol consumption. *Psychol Addict Behav*. 2010;24(3):367-75. doi: 10.1037/a0019494.
 56. Racine SE, Keel PK, Burt SA, Sisk CL, Neale M, Boker S, et al. Exploring the relationship between negative urgency and dysregulated eating: etiologic associations and the role of negative affect. *J Abnorm Psychol*. 2013;122(2):433-44. doi: 10.1037/a0031250.
 57. Halcomb M, Argyriou E, Cyders MA. Integrating preclinical and clinical models of negative urgency. *Front Psychiatry*. 2019;10:324. doi: 10.3389/fpsy.2019.00324.
 58. Wang H, Wen B, Cheng J, Li H. Brain structural differences between normal and obese adults and their links with lack of perseverance, negative urgency, and sensation seeking. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7:40595. doi: 10.1038/srep40595.
 59. Wang FL, Chassin L. Negative urgency mediates the relation between genetically-influenced serotonin functioning and alcohol problems. *Clin Psychol Sci*. 2018;6(1):106-22. doi: 10.1177/2167702617733817.
 60. Albein-Urios N, Martinez-Gonzalez JM, Lozano Ó, Moreno-López L, Soriano-Mas C, Verdejo-García A. Negative urgency, disinhibition and reduced temporal pole gray matter characterize the comorbidity of cocaine dependence and personality disorders. *Drug Alcohol Depend*. 2013;132(1-2):231-7. doi: 10.1016/j.drugalcdep.2013.02.008.
 61. Aloï M, Rania M, Carbone EA, Calabrò G, Caroleo M,

- Carcione A, et al. The role of self-monitoring metacognition sub-function and negative urgency related to binge severity. *Eur Eat Disord Rev.* 2020;28(5):580-6. doi: 10.1002/erv.2742.
62. Verdejo-García A, Lozano O, Moya M, Alcázar MA, Pérez-García M. Psychometric properties of a Spanish version of the UPPS-P impulsive behavior scale: reliability, validity and association with trait and cognitive impulsivity. *J Pers Assess.* 2010;92(1):70-7. doi: 10.1080/00223890903382369.
 63. Mason TB, Dunton GF, Gearhardt AN, Leventhal AM. Emotional disorder symptoms, anhedonia, and negative urgency as predictors of hedonic hunger in adolescents. *Eat Behav.* 2020;36:101343. doi: 10.1016/j.eatbeh.2019.101343.
 64. Racine SE, Burt SA, Keel PK, Sisk CL, Neale MC, Boker S, et al. Examining associations between negative urgency and key components of objective binge episodes. *Int J Eat Disord.* 2015;48(5):527-31. doi: 10.1002/eat.22412.
 65. Puhalla AA, Ammerman BA, Uyeji LL, Berman ME, McCloskey MS. Negative urgency and reward/punishment sensitivity in intermittent explosive disorder. *J Affect Disord.* 2016;201:8-14. doi: 10.1016/j.jad.2016.04.045.
 66. Bardo MT, Weiss VG, Rebec GV. Using preclinical models to understand the neural basis of negative urgency. In: Sangha S, Foti D, ed. *Neurobiology of Abnormal Emotion and Motivated Behaviors.* Academic Press; 2018. p. 2-20. doi: 10.1016/b978-0-12-813693-5.00001-0.
 67. NIH's Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) Study. *Alcohol Res.* 2018;39(1):97.
 68. Casey BJ, Cannonier T, Conley MI, Cohen AO, Barch DM, Heitzeg MM, et al. The adolescent brain cognitive development (ABCD) study: imaging acquisition across 21 sites. *Dev Cogn Neurosci.* 2018;32:43-54. doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2018.03.001.
 69. Karcher NR, O'Brien KJ, Kandala S, Barch DM. Resting-state functional connectivity and psychotic-like experiences in childhood: results from the adolescent brain cognitive development study. *Biol Psychiatry.* 2019;86(1):7-15. doi: 10.1016/j.biopsych.2019.01.013.
 70. Lisdahl KM, Sher KJ, Conway KP, Gonzalez R, Feldstein Ewing SW, Nixon SJ, et al. Adolescent brain cognitive development (ABCD) study: overview of substance use assessment methods. *Dev Cogn Neurosci.* 2018;32:80-96. doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2018.02.007.
 71. Luciana M, Bjork JM, Nagel BJ, Barch DM, Gonzalez R, Nixon SJ, 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. doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2018.02.006.
 72. Auchter AM, Hernandez Mejia M, Heyser CJ, Shilling PD, Jernigan TL, Brown SA, et al. A description of the ABCD organizational structure and communication framework. *Dev Cogn Neurosci.* 2018;32:8-15. doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2018.04.003.
 73. Asaad SK, Bjarkam CR. The Aalborg Bolt-Connected Drain (ABCD) study: a prospective comparison of tunnelled and bolt-connected external ventricular drains. *Acta Neurochir (Wien).* 2019;161(1):33-9. doi: 10.1007/s00701-018-3737-z.
 74. ABCD. ABCD Protocol Brochure - Baseline.
 75. Feldstein Ewing SW, Chang L, Cottler LB, Tapert SF, Dowling GJ, Brown SA. Approaching retention within the ABCD study. *Dev Cogn Neurosci.* 2018;32:130-7. doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2017.11.004.
 76. Werneck AO, Agostinete RR, Cayres SU, Urban JB, Wigna A, Chagas LGM, et al. Association between cluster of lifestyle behaviors and HOMA-IR among adolescents: ABCD growth study. *Medicina (Kaunas).* 2018;54(6):96. doi: 10.3390/medicina54060096.
 77. Fine JD, Moreau AL, Karcher NR, Agrawal A, Rogers CE, Barch DM, et al. Association of prenatal cannabis exposure with psychosis proneness among children in the adolescent brain cognitive development (ABCD) study. *JAMA Psychiatry.* 2019;76(7):762-4. doi: 10.1001/jamapsychiatry.2019.0076.
 78. Dick AS, Garcia NL, Pruden SM, Thompson WK, Hawes SW, Sutherland MT, et al. Author Correction: No evidence for a bilingual executive function advantage in the ABCD study. *Nat Hum Behav.* 2019;3(10):1124. doi: 10.1038/s41562-019-0756-6.
 79. Dick AS, Garcia NL, Pruden SM, Thompson WK, Hawes SW, Sutherland MT, et al. Author Correction: No evidence for a bilingual executive function advantage in the nationally representative ABCD study. *Nat Hum Behav.* 2019;3(9):999. doi: 10.1038/s41562-019-0709-0.
 80. Michelini G, Barch DM, Tian Y, Watson D, Klein DN, Kotov R. Delineating and validating higher-order dimensions of psychopathology in the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) study. *Transl Psychiatry.* 2019;9(1):261. doi: 10.1038/s41398-019-0593-4.
 81. Gray JC, Schvey NA, Tanofsky-Kraff M. Demographic, psychological, behavioral, and cognitive correlates of BMI in youth: findings from the Adolescent Brain Cognitive Development (ABCD) study. *Psychol Med.* 2020;50(9):1539-47. doi: 10.1017/s0033291719001545.
 82. Beauchaine TP. Family history of depression and child striatal volumes in the ABCD study: promise and perils of neuroimaging research with large samples. *J Am Acad Child Adolesc Psychiatry.* 2020;59(10):1133-4. doi: 10.1016/j.jaac.2020.01.002.
 83. Buscemi S, Corleo D, Vasto S, Buscemi C, Massenti MF, Nuzzo D, et al. Factors associated with circulating concentrations of irisin in the general population cohort of the ABCD study. *Int J Obes (Lond).* 2018;42(3):398-404. doi: 10.1038/ijo.2017.255.
 84. Exupério IN, Agostinete RR, Werneck AO, Maillane-Vanegas S, Luiz-de-Marco R, Mesquita EDL, et al. Impact of artistic gymnastics on bone formation marker, density and geometry in female adolescents: ABCD-growth study. *J Bone Metab.* 2019;26(2):75-82. doi: 10.11005/jbm.2019.26.2.75.
 85. Lynch KR, Anokye NK, Vlachopoulos D, Barbieri FA, Turi-Lynch BC, Codogno JS, et al. Impact of sports participation on incidence of bone traumatic fractures and health-care costs among adolescents: ABCD-growth study. *Phys Sportsmed.* 2020;48(3):298-303. doi: 10.1080/00913847.2019.1685859.
 86. Dick AS, Garcia NL, Pruden SM, Thompson WK, Hawes SW, Sutherland MT, et al. No evidence for a bilingual executive function advantage in the nationally representative ABCD study. *Nat Hum Behav.* 2019;3(7):692-701. doi: 10.1038/s41562-019-0609-3.
 87. Hoffman EA, Howlett KD, Breslin F, Dowling GJ. Outreach and innovation: communication strategies for the ABCD study. *Dev Cogn Neurosci.* 2018;32:138-42. doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2018.04.001.
 88. Garavan H, Bartsch H, Conway K, Decastro A, Goldstein RZ, Heeringa S, et al. Recruiting the ABCD sample: design considerations and procedures. *Dev Cogn Neurosci.* 2018;32:16-22. doi: 10.1016/j.dcn.2018.04.004.
 89. Lynam DR, Smith GT, Whiteside SP, Cyders MA. The UPPS-P: Assessing Five Personality Pathways to Impulsive Behavior. West Lafayette, IN: Purdue University; 2006.
 90. Gur RE, Gur RC. Sex differences in brain and behavior in adolescence: findings from the Philadelphia Neurodevelopmental Cohort. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev.* 2016;70:159-70. doi: 10.1016/j.neubiorev.2016.07.035.

91. Fagot BI. Parenting boys and girls. In: Bornstein MH, ed. *Handbook of Parenting*. Vol 1. Children and Parenting. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc; 1995. p. 163-83.
92. Carlo G, Raffaelli M, Laible DJ, Meyer KA. Why are girls less physically aggressive than boys? personality and parenting mediators of physical aggression. *Sex Roles*. 1999;40(9):711-29. doi: 10.1023/A:1018856601513.
93. Khooshabi K, Ameneh-Forouzan S, Ghassabian A, Assari S. Is there a gender difference in associates of adolescents' lifetime illicit drug use in Tehran, Iran? *Arch Med Sci*. 2010;6(3):399-406. doi: 10.5114/aoms.2010.14263.
94. Frost L. Doing bodies differently? gender, youth, appearance and damage. *J Youth Stud*. 2003;6(1):53-70. doi: 10.1080/1367626032000068163.
95. Matud MP. Gender differences in stress and coping styles. *Pers Individ Dif*. 2004;37(7):1401-15. doi: 10.1016/j.paid.2004.01.010.
96. Gagné T, Veenstra G. Inequalities in hypertension and diabetes in Canada: intersections between racial identity, gender, and income. *Ethn Dis*. 2017;27(4):371-8. doi: 10.18865/ed.27.4.371.
97. McDonough P, Williams DR, House JS, Duncan GJ. Gender and the socioeconomic gradient in mortality. *J Health Soc Behav*. 1999;40(1):17-31.
98. Hammarström A. Health consequences of youth unemployment--review from a gender perspective. *Soc Sci Med*. 1994;38(5):699-709. doi: 10.1016/0277-9536(94)90460-x.
99. Waldron I. Effects of labor force participation on sex differences in mortality and morbidity. In: Frankenhaeuser M, Lundberg U, Chesney M, eds. *Women, Work, and Health*. Boston, MA: Springer; 1991. p. 17-38. doi: 10.1007/978-1-4615-3712-0_2.
100. Garcy AM, Vågerö D. The length of unemployment predicts mortality, differently in men and women, and by cause of death: a six year mortality follow-up of the Swedish 1992-1996 recession. *Soc Sci Med*. 2012;74(12):1911-20. doi: 10.1016/j.socscimed.2012.01.034.
101. Assari S. Life expectancy gain due to employment status depends on race, gender, education, and their intersections. *J Racial Ethn Health Disparities*. 2018;5(2):375-86. doi: 10.1007/s40615-017-0381-x.
102. Bowden M, Bartkowski J, Xu X, Lewis R Jr. Parental occupation and the gender math gap: examining the social reproduction of academic advantage among elementary and middle school students. *Soc Sci*. 2017;7(1):6. doi: 10.3390/socsci7010006.
103. Chetty R, Hendren N, Kline P, Saez E. Where is the land of opportunity? the geography of intergenerational mobility in the United States. *Q J Econ*. 2014;129(4):1553-623. doi: 10.1093/qje/qju022.