

1 **Ethnoracial disparities in childhood growth trajectories in Brazil: a longitudinal**  
2 **nationwide study of four million children**

3 Running title: Disparities in childhood growth trajectories

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27 **Abstract**

28 **Background:** The literature contains scarce data on inequalities in growth trajectories  
29 among children born to mothers of diverse ethnoracial background in the first five years  
30 of life. **Objective:** we aimed to investigate child growth according to maternal  
31 ethnoracial group using a nationwide Brazilian database. **Methods:** A population-based  
32 retrospective cohort study employed linked data from the CIDACS Birth Cohort and the  
33 Brazilian Food and Nutrition Surveillance System (SISVAN). Children born at term,  
34 aged five years or younger who presented two or more measurements of length/height  
35 (cm) and weight (kg) were followed up between 2008 and 2017. Prevalence of stunting,  
36 underweight, wasting, and thinness were estimated. Nonlinear mixed effect models  
37 were used to estimate childhood growth trajectories, among different maternal  
38 ethnoracial groups (White, Asian descent, Black, Pardo, and Indigenous), using the raw  
39 measures of weight (kg) and height (cm) and the length/height-for-age (L/HAZ) and  
40 weight-for-age z-scores (WAZ). The analyses were also adjusted for mother's age,  
41 educational level, and marital status. **Results:** A total of 4090271 children were  
42 included in the study. Children of Indigenous mothers exhibited higher rates of stunting  
43 (26.74%) and underweight (5.90%). Wasting and thinness were more prevalent among  
44 children of Pardo, Asian, Black, and Indigenous mothers than those of White mothers.  
45 Regarding children's weight (kg) and length/height (cm), those of Indigenous, Pardo,  
46 Black, and Asian descent mothers were on average shorter and weighted less than White  
47 ones. Regarding WAZ and L/HAZ growth trajectories, a sharp decline in average z-  
48 scores was evidenced in the first weeks of life, followed by a period of recovery. Over  
49 time, z-scores for most of the subgroups analyzed trended below zero. Children of  
50 mother in greater social vulnerability showed less favorable growth. **Conclusion:** We  
51 observed racial disparities in nutritional status and childhood growth trajectories, with

52 children of Indigenous mothers presenting less favorable outcomes compared to their  
53 White counterparts. The strengthening of policies aimed at protecting Indigenous  
54 children should be urgently undertaken to address systematic ethnoracial health  
55 inequalities.

56 **Keywords:** Ethnic-racial groups; child growth trajectories; food and nutrition  
57 surveillance system; racism; race

58

## 59 **Background**

60 Birth weight and infant growth are important markers of child health and future well-  
61 being [1], [2], [3], [4]. Some conditions, such as premature birth, low birth weight and  
62 maternal malnutrition, have been well-documented factors associated with growth  
63 trajectory [5] while others, including socioeconomic status (SES), have been a  
64 consistent object of study [6], [7], [8], [9].

65 In recent years a growing body of evidence has reported ethnoracial inequalities  
66 regarding infant growth and development [10], [7]. Race is a social construct that  
67 functions as an essential tool of racism, to separate and create social hierarchy, which  
68 has produced and reinforced segregation, differential quality and access to health care  
69 and unequal distributions of social determinants of health [11]. The ethnoracial  
70 inequities affecting mothers can also impact childhood outcomes [12]. Differences in  
71 rates of child survival among racial groups have been reported in Brazil [13], [14]. A  
72 study investigating mortality risk of children under five years of age by maternal self-  
73 declared race/ethnicity of over 19 million newborn babies in Brazil found that children  
74 born to Indigenous mothers had a 16-time higher risk of death due to malnutrition than  
75 their White counterparts [10]. Similarly, those born to Black or Pardo had over 2-times  
76 the risk of death due to malnutrition than their White counterparts [10].

77 Even though previous studies have evidenced the effects of racism and its manifestation  
78 on perinatal outcomes and child mortality, the literature on child growth outcomes by  
79 ethnoracial groups over time is scarce. Understanding the effects of ethnoracial  
80 inequities on growth trajectories requires thorough investigation to inform policy  
81 decision-making aimed at reducing inequalities and adequately achieving the 2025  
82 global nutrition targets outlined by the World Health Organization (WHO) [11] and the  
83 United Nation's 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) (eradication of hunger  
84 and all forms of malnutrition) [12]. The present study aims to investigate child growth  
85 according to maternal ethnoracial group using a nationwide Brazilian database.

86

## 87 **Methods**

88 A population-based retrospective cohort study was conducted using data linked from  
89 two different Brazilian databases: (i) the CIDACS Birth Cohort [13] , and (ii) the Food  
90 and Nutrition Surveillance System (SISVAN). The data consisted of children aged 0 to  
91 60 months of age, born between January, 2003 to November, 2015, and followed up  
92 from January, 2008 until December, 2017. Details regarding the linkage process  
93 performed are available in previous publication [14].

94 The CIDACS Birth Cohort resulted from the linkage of the Live Birth Information  
95 System (SINASC) and the 100 Million Brazilian Cohort baseline. SINASC coverage  
96 extends to over 97% of live births in Brazil, with records collected through the  
97 Declaration of a Live Birth by a health professional present during the child's delivery.  
98 This legally standardized form includes information about the parents, such as the  
99 mother's name, age, local of residence, marital status, educational level. Also,  
100 pregnancy details, such as length of gestation, number of prenatal visits, type of

101 delivery, and characteristics of the newborn, including sex, birth weight, congenital  
102 anomalies, and other factors [13].

103 The 100 Million Brazilian Cohort baseline was developed using administrative records  
104 from low-income individuals, whose families applied for the National Unified Register  
105 for Social Programs (*Cadastro Único*). This baseline variables encompasses a range of  
106 socioeconomic and demographic characteristics [15].

107 Since 2008, SISVAN has been monitoring the nutritional status of the Brazilian  
108 population by routinely recording individual-level sociodemographic, anthropometric  
109 (length/height and weight measurements), and food consumption data from users of  
110 public health services in all stages of life. This database includes data collected by  
111 primary health care professionals from individuals under care of the Brazilian Unified  
112 Health System (SUS), anthropometric data recorded of people benefiting from cash  
113 transfer program (Bolsa Família Program), and data from the e-SUS Primary Care  
114 strategy [16]. They use the equipment available at the unit, which can be a digital scale,  
115 a pediatric scale, an anthropometer, or a child anthropometer. The procedures for  
116 anthropometric measurement follows the protocols established by the Brazilian Ministry  
117 of Health [17]. The SISVAN data quality showed improvement over the period of 2008  
118 to 2017 with completeness to almost 100% for height and weight along the years, and  
119 coverage ranging from 17.7 to 45.4% among SUS users [18].

120 The present study protocol was approved by the institutional review boards of the  
121 Collective Health Institute of the Federal University of Bahia (reference number  
122 41695415.0.0000.5030) and the School of Nutrition, Federal University of Bahia  
123 (reference number 67205423.6.0000.5023).

124 **Study population**

125 We followed up singleton children born at term from birth up to the age of 60 months  
126 for whom two or more measurements of length/height (cm) and weight (kg) were  
127 recorded. Children with congenital anomalies or missing information on this  
128 characteristic, no recorded gestational age, and no birth weight were excluded.  
129 Implausible birth weights ( $<500\text{g}$  or  $\geq 6500\text{g}$ ) were also excluded [19]. In an attempt to  
130 avoid bias in the analysis of low-birth-weight cases, multiple pregnancies were  
131 removed. We also excluded children with implausible z-scores for the following  
132 anthropometric variables: length/height-for-age z-scores (L/HAZ)  $<-6$  or  $>6$ , weight-  
133 for-age z-scores (WAZ)  $<-6$  or  $>5$ , weight-for-length/height z-scores (WHZ)  $<-5$  or  $>5$   
134 and body-mass-index-for-age z-scores (BAZ)  $<-5$  or  $>5$ , as these values are considered  
135 implausible under WHO recommendations [20]. Then, longitudinal outliers for height  
136 ( $<-5/>+5$ ) and weight ( $<-5/>+5$ ) were excluded [21] (**Figure 1**).

#### 137 **Exposure: Race/Ethnicity**

138 Information on maternal race or skin color was obtained from the Brazilian Unified  
139 Registry for Social Programs at the CIDACS Birth Cohort. The adopted categories for  
140 race or skin color were those defined by the Brazilian Institute of Geography and  
141 Statistics (IBGE), which classifies racial groups as White, Black, Pardo, Yellow (which  
142 will be referred as Asian descent), and Indigenous [22]. For the purposes of the present  
143 analysis, “White” was adopted as a reference category, similarly to a previous study that  
144 indicated better overall health outcomes for children born to mothers who self-identified  
145 as White [23].

#### 146 **Outcome: Nutritional Status and Growth Outcome**

147 Information on the included children’s length/height (cm) and weight (kg) were  
148 retrieved from records in the SISVAN database.

149 Age (months) was calculated considering the time elapsed between date of birth and the  
150 date of the visit recorded in the SISVAN. Child sex (male or female) was obtained from  
151 SINASC registry.

152 The growth trajectories were estimated continuously as length/height (cm) and weight  
153 (kg), and with the standardized measures length/height-for-age z-scores (L/HAZ) and  
154 weight-for-age z-scores (WAZ), calculated according to the WHO Child Growth  
155 Standards [24]. Additionally, the nutritional status of the children was classified as  
156 stunting (low height-for-age), underweight (low weight-for-age), wasting (low weight-  
157 for-height), and thinness (low body-mass-index-for-age) using the WHO reference  $< -2$   
158 SD z-score cutoff point [24].

### 159 **Maternal characterization**

160 Maternal characteristics were available at the CIDACS Birth Cohort and the following  
161 covariates pertaining to mothers were described: maternal area of residence (rural or  
162 urban), household overcrowding ( $\leq 2$  or  $> 2$  people per room, calculated dividing the  
163 total number of people who live in the same house by the number of rooms), maternal  
164 education level ( $\leq 3$  years, 4-7 years,  $\geq 8$  years of formal schooling), marital status  
165 (single, married/stable union, divorced/widowed), number of prenatal visits (none, 1-3,  
166 4-6,  $\geq 7$  visits), type of delivery (cesarean or vaginal birth), and maternal age categorized  
167 for descriptive analyzes (10-13, 14-19, 20-34, 35-50 years) and continuous for modeling  
168 approaches.

### 169 **Statistical analysis**

170 Initially, a descriptive analysis was performed considering maternal and child  
171 characteristics categorized according to ethnoracial groups [absolute value (n) and  
172 frequency (%) for categorical variables]. The prevalence of stunting, underweight,  
173 wasting, and thinness were calculated within each ethnoracial group. After removing

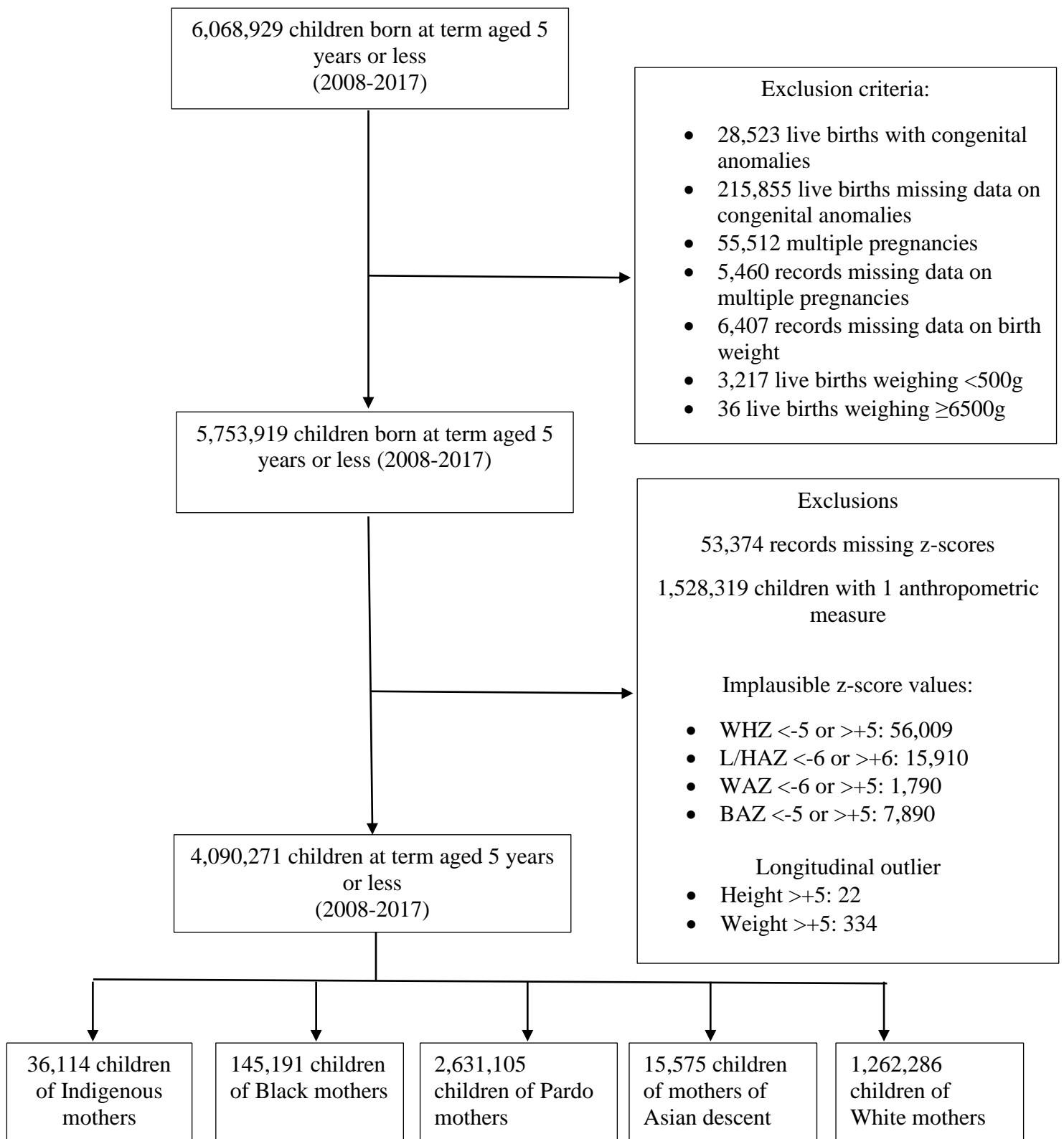
174 missing observations non-linear mixed-effect (NLME) models were used to estimate  
175 length/height and weight trajectories in children by age since birth, with sex as a  
176 covariate [25]. Additional analyses were performed to investigate the trajectories of  
177 both L/HAZ and WAZ variables involving a mixed-effect model with cubic splines and  
178 eight knots (placed at age 2, 3, 6, 12, 18, 24, 36 and 58 months). The structure of NLME  
179 models includes both fixed and random effects; the former informs characteristics  
180 related to the population under study, while the latter accounts for the subject-specific  
181 associated variability of trajectories [25]. All models were adjusted for relevant  
182 confounding variables [maternal age (continuous variable), maternal education level  
183 and maternal marital status] [26], [27]. We also explored the possibility of interactions  
184 between child age vs race to examine to what extent growth trajectories differed by  
185 race/skin color [28].

186 The goodness of fit of the models was evaluated via training – with 70% of subjects -  
187 and testing – accounting for the remaining 30% - method. Sample procedure was  
188 performed in accordance with sex and maternal race/skin color. Measurement  
189 distributions for each sex were similar between both training and testing databases. All  
190 models were adjusted for maternal age, education level, and marital status.

191 Predictions from the most complex models representing the average fixed effects  
192 stratified by various explanatory variables and their uncertainties have been plotted.

193 Analyzes were performed in R (for server version 4.1).





195 **Figure 1.** Flowchart detailing database construction and relevant exclusion criteria.

## 197 **Results**

198 We included 4090271 children in this study; 64.33% were born to Pardo mothers,  
199 30.86% to White mothers, 3.55% to Black mothers, 0.88% to Indigenous mothers, and  
200 0.38% to Asian descent mothers. The characteristics of the study population by  
201 maternal ethnoracial group are reported in Table 1. Almost all of them resided in urban  
202 areas (with the notable exception of Indigenous women, of whom 72.83% lived in rural  
203 areas) and in less favorable housing conditions (30.04%). Indigenous (27.52%) and  
204 Black mothers (13.76%) had lower levels of formal schooling. Almost half of the  
205 Indigenous mothers were single or divorced/widowed (53.42%). An inadequate number  
206 of prenatal visits (<7) were predominantly reported among Indigenous mothers  
207 (67.44%), followed by Pardo (48.55%), and Black (47.02%) mothers. While  
208 approximately 46.60% of live births to White mothers were delivered by cesarean  
209 section, this proportion was 17.48% for Indigenous women (**Table 1**).

210 Overall, the prevalence rates of stunting and underweight was higher among children of  
211 Indigenous mothers (26.74% and 5.90%), followed by those born to Pardo (11.82% and  
212 3.77%), Asian descent (10.99% and 3.64%), Black (10.41% and 3.48%), and White  
213 mothers (8.61% and 2.48%). The prevalence distribution for wasting and thinness was  
214 higher among children of Pardo mothers (5.36% and 5.52%), Asian descent (5.28% and  
215 5.46%), Black (5.08% and 3.91%), Indigenous (4.19% and 4.20%), when compared to  
216 those of White mothers (3.70% and 3.91%) (**Table Supl.1**). The descriptive statistics  
217 for age, anthropometric information, and the number of measurements is available in  
218 **Supplementary Table 2**.

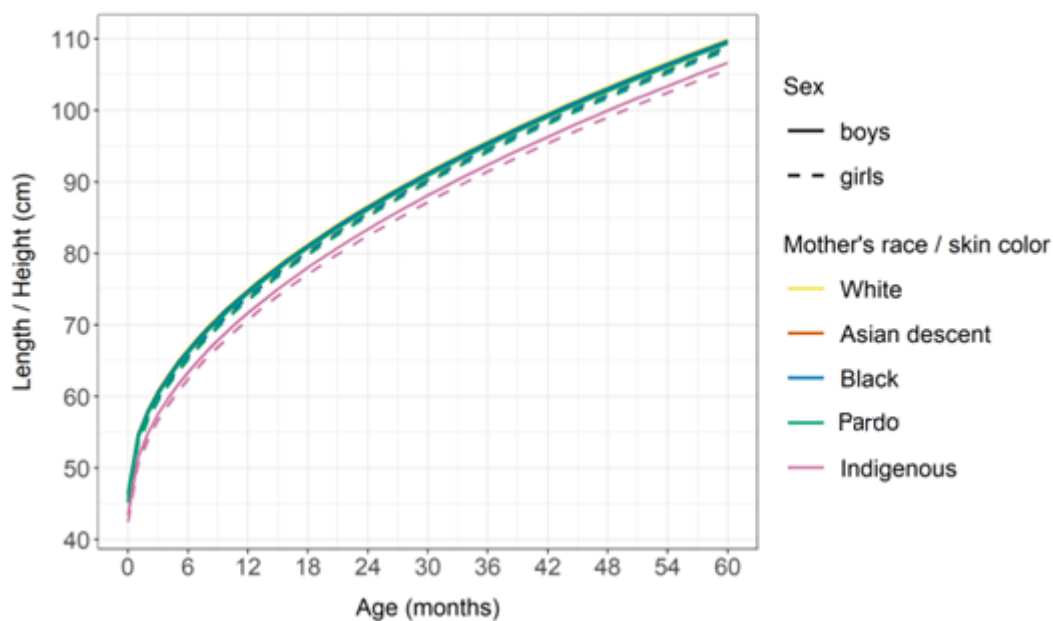
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220 **Table 1:** Distribution of maternal and child characteristics according to maternal race /  
221 skin color, 2008–2017.

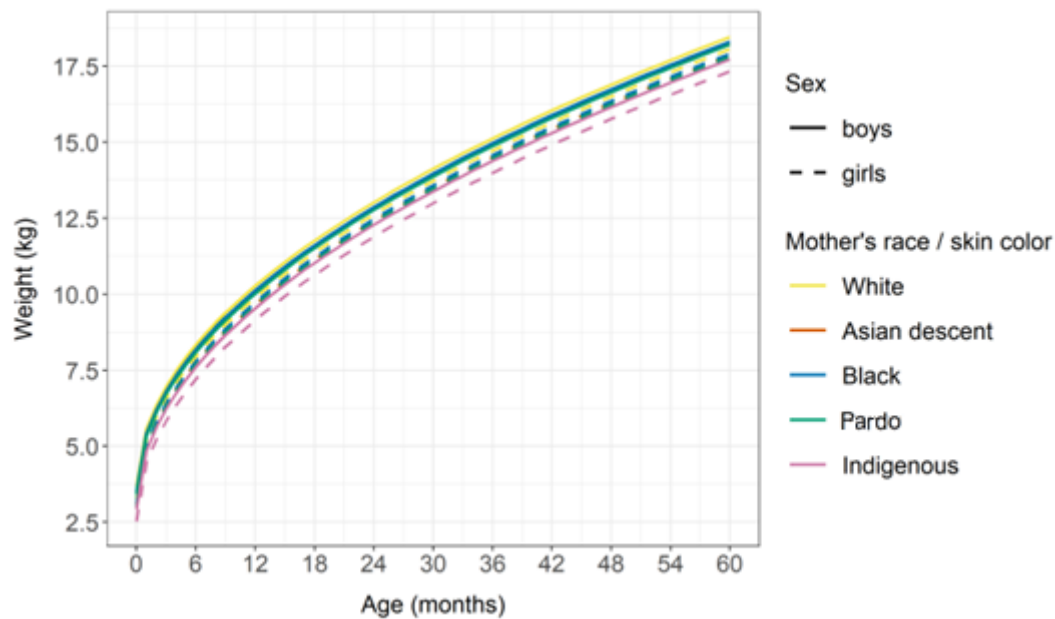
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223 Figures 2 and 3 display the estimated growth trajectories of both height/length (cm) and  
 224 weight (kg) for age by sex. Fitted models do not include interactions of the available  
 225 baseline factors with age as there were no indications of a significant result as such.  
 226 The growth curve indicates that the mean weight and length/height of children born to  
 227 mothers of each ethnoracial group studied exhibited comparatively less growth than  
 228 their White counterparts, with more pronounced reductions evidenced in children born  
 229 to Indigenous women (**Figures 2, 3**).

230 The results obtained from our adjusted growth curve models indicate that children born  
 231 to Indigenous mothers were on average 3.3 cm (95% CI: -3.36, -3.27) shorter than their  
 232 White counterparts. Similarly, children born to Pardo (-0.60; 95% CI: -0.61, -0.59),  
 233 Black (-0.21; 95% CI: -0.24, -0.19) and Asian descent (-0.39; 95% CI: -0.46, -0.32)  
 234 mothers were shorter on average than those in the White group. In addition, compared  
 235 to children of White women, those of Indigenous (-0.74; 95% CI: -0.76, -0.72),  
 236 Pardo (-0.25; 95% CI: -0.26, -0.25), Black (-0.15; 95% CI: -0.16, -0.14) and Asian  
 237 descent (-0.22; 95% CI: -0.24, -0.19) weighed less grams on average (**Table Supl. 3**)



238  
 239 **Figure 2:** Estimated mean height according to sex and mother's race / skin color. Brazil,  
 240 2008-2017.



241  
 242 **Figure 3:** Estimated mean weight according to sex and mother's race / skin color.  
 243 Brazil, 2008-2017.

244  
 245 Regarding WAZ and L/HAZ growth trajectories, a sharp decline in average z-scores  
 246 was evidenced in the first weeks of life, followed by a period of recovery. The z-scores  
 247 for most of the subgroups analyzed trended below zero across all ages. Growth patterns  
 248 were similar in the groups, with children born to White women presenting the highest z-  
 249 scores for WAZ and L/HAZ compared to children of Indigenous (WAZ -0.49; 95%CI: -  
 250 0.51, -0.49; L/HAZ -0.87; 95%CI: -0.88, -0.85), Pardo (WAZ -0.17; 95%CI: -0.17, -  
 251 0.17; L/HAZ -0.16; 95%CI: -0.16, -0.16) and Black (WAZ -0.11; 95%CI: -0.11, -0.10;  
 252 L/HAZ -0.06; 95%CI: -0.07, -0.06) mothers, as well as those of Asian descent (WAZ -  
 253 0.15; 95%CI: -0.16, -0.13; L/HAZ -0.11; 95%CI: -0.12, -0.09) (**Tables 2, 3**).

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259 **Table 2:** Point and interval estimates for the parameters of the weight-for-age (WAZ)  
 260 model. Brazil, 2008-2017.

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	CI 95%
Intercept	-0.1588	0.0091	[-0.1767, -0.1409]
Splines 1	-0.3273	0.0161	[-0.3590, -0.2957]
Splines 2	-0.2180	0.0086	[-0.2348, -0.2011]
Splines 3	0.0457	0.0097	[0.0267, 0.0647]
Splines 4	0.4605	0.0089	[0.4431, 0.4778]
Splines 5	0.4989	0.0090	[0.4813, 0.5165]
Splines 6	0.4744	0.0088	[0.4572, 0.4917]
Splines 7	0.3676	0.0088	[0.3503, 0.3848]
Splines 8	0.3038	0.0088	[0.2865, 0.3211]
Splines 9	0.2696	0.0089	[0.2522, 0.2869]
Splines 10	0.2464	0.0088	[0.2291, 0.2637]
Splines 11	0.2939	0.0121	[0.2701, 0.3177]
Sex (girls)	-0.0329	0.0010	[-0.0349, -0.0308]
Race / skin color (Asian descent)	-0.1474	0.0084	[-0.1638, -0.1309]
Race / skin color (Black)	-0.1085	0.0029	[-0.1142, -0.1028]
Race / skin color (Pardo)	-0.1727	0.0011	[-0.1749, -0.1705]
Race / skin color (Indigenous)	-0.4986	0.0056	[-0.5096, -0.4876]
Educational level (3 years or less)	-0.3217	0.0017	[-0.3250, -0.3184]
Educational level (4 to 7 years)	-0.1603	0.0011	[-0.1625, -0.1581]
Civil status (single)	-0.0253	0.0011	[-0.0274, -0.0233]
Civil status (divorced / widow)	0.0838	0.0054	[0.0732, 0.0945]
Mother's age at birth	0.0060	0.0001	[0.0058, 0.0062]
$\sigma_{\text{Intercept}}$	0.9576		
$\sigma_{\varepsilon}$	0.6675		

261 Reference category: Sex: Boys; Race/skin color: White; Educational level: 8 years or  
 262 more; Marital status: Married or in a stable union.

263 Notes: The dimension of the splines accounts for the number of knots (K=8) and the  
 264 polynomial degree (p = 3).

265

266 **Table 3:** Point and interval estimates for the parameters of the length/height-for-age  
 267 (L/HAZ) model. Brazil, 2008-2017.

Parameter	Estimate	Standard Error	CI 95%
Intercept	-0.6357	0.0144	[-0.6639, -0.6075]
Splines 1	-0.5133	0.0260	[-0.5643, -0.4624]
Splines 2	-0.1505	0.0138	[-0.1776, -0.1234]
Splines 3	0.1967	0.0156	[0.1662, 0.2273]
Splines 4	0.3102	0.0143	[0.2822, 0.3382]
Splines 5	0.2356	0.0144	[0.2073, 0.2639]
Splines 6	0.0192	0.0141	[-0.0085, 0.0469]
Splines 7	0.3875	0.0142	[0.3598, 0.4153]
Splines 8	0.3635	0.0142	[0.3356, 0.3913]
Splines 9	0.4845	0.0142	[0.4566, 0.5125]
Splines 10	0.3844	0.0142	[0.3566, 0.4122]
Splines 11	0.4803	0.0194	[0.4422, 0.5184]
Sex (girls)	0.0399	0.0012	[0.0376, 0.0422]
Race / skin color (Asian descent)	-0.1063	0.0095	[-0.1250, -0.0876]
Race / skin color (Black)	-0.0651	0.0033	[-0.0716, -0.0587]
Race / skin color (Pardo)	-0.1589	0.0013	[-0.1614, -0.1564]
Race / skin color (Indigenous)	-0.8671	0.0064	[-0.8796, -0.8546]
Educational level (3 years or less)	-0.3590	0.0019	[-0.3628, -0.3553]
Educational level (4 to 7 years)	-0.1832	0.0013	[-0.1857, -0.1807]
Civil status (single)	-0.0423	0.0012	[-0.0447, -0.0400]
Civil status (divorced / widow)	0.0690	0.0062	[0.0569, 0.0810]
Mother's age	0.0066	0.0001	[0.0064, 0.0068]
$\sigma_{\text{Intercept}}$	0.9578		
$\sigma_{\varepsilon}$	0.6675		

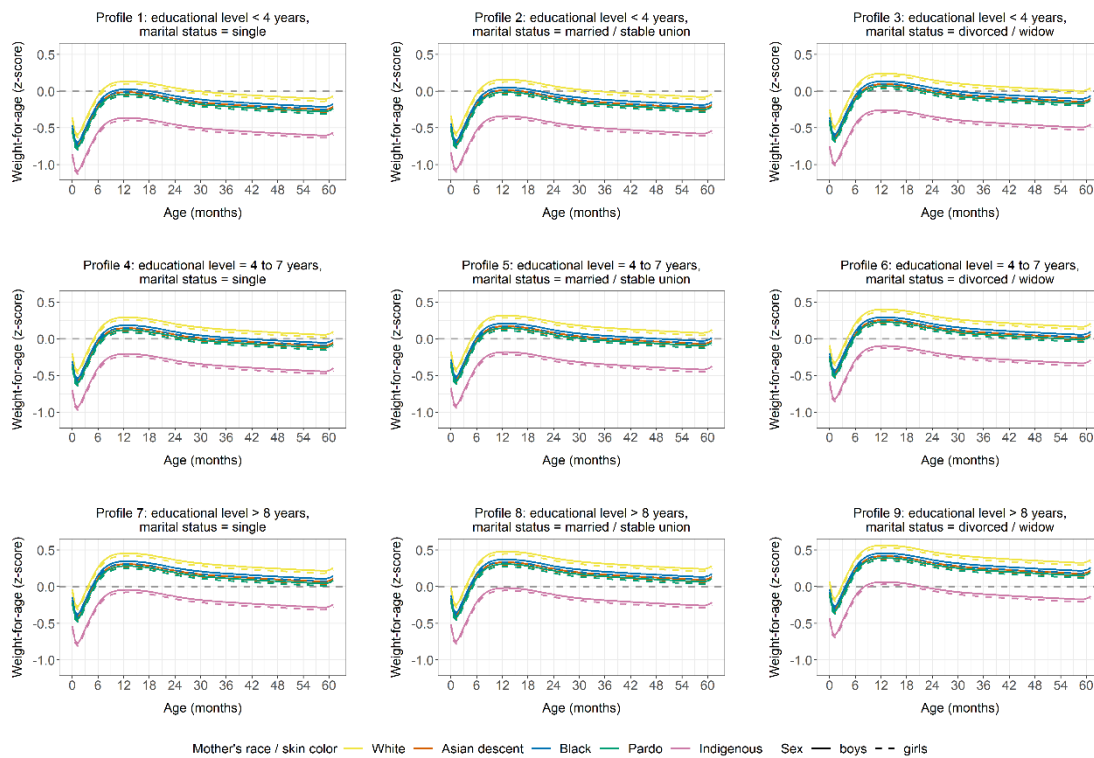
268 Reference category: Sex: Boys; Race/skin color: White; Educational level: 8 years or  
 269 more; Marital status: Married or in a stable union.

270 Notes: The dimension of the splines accounts for the number of knots (K=8) and the  
 271 polynomial degree (p = 3).

272

273 Our analysis indicated that, in general, growth trajectory outcomes were within the  
 274 limits of normality per the WHO reference standard ( $\pm 2SD$ ). However, when  
 275 evaluating child growth trajectories in accordance with the sociodemographic  
 276 characteristics of their mothers, children born to mothers facing greater social  
 277 vulnerability (i.e., single mothers, with lower levels of education) presented less  
 278 favorable results (**Figures 4 and 5**).

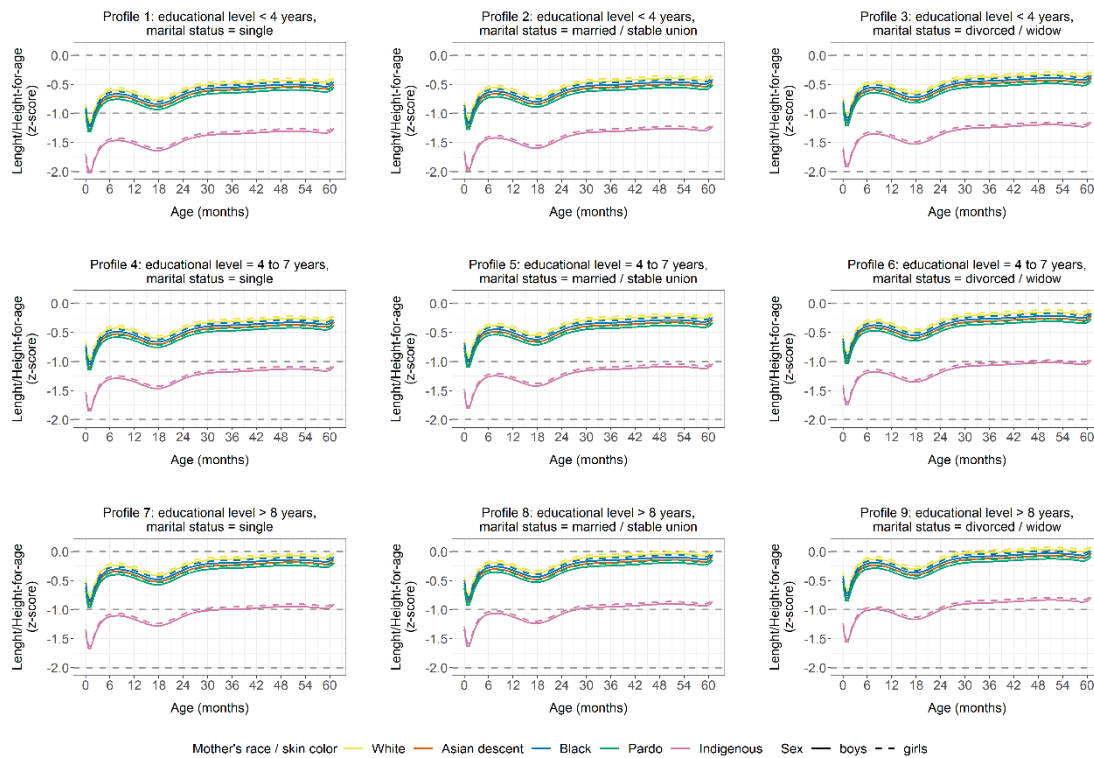
279 Regarding the goodness of fit of the models, we verified based on the train and test  
 280 analysis the models are well adjusted (**Table Supl.4,5,6,7; Figure Supl. 1,2,3,4**).



281

282 **Figure 4:** Estimated mean curves for weight-for-age z-scores model, according to  
 283 mother's age, educational level, and marital status. Brazil, 2008-2017.

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285

286 **Figure 5:** Estimated mean curves for length/height-for-age z-scores, according to  
 287 mother's age, educational level, and marital status. Brazil, 2008-2017.

## 288 **Discussion**

289 In this study involving 4090271 individuals, we observed that those born to Indigenous  
290 mothers, as well as those born to Pardo, Black, and Asian descent women (to a lesser  
291 extent), exhibited less favorable growth outcomes compared to their White counterparts.  
292 High prevalence of stunting, underweight, thinness, and wasting were found across all  
293 ethnoracial groups, with the lower rates in children of White mothers. Disparities in  
294 mean weight and length/height for age persist between children of Indigenous women  
295 compared to White, although the z-score standardized growth trajectory remained  
296 within the limits of normality of the WHO reference standard for a general case ( $\pm$   
297 2SD). Our analysis indicated that social vulnerability further exacerbated the  
298 unfavorable growth trends observed in children born to mothers of ethnoracial  
299 background other than White.

300 The present study was conducted among the poorest population of a middle-income  
301 country with a history of major social and health inequalities, which may limit the  
302 generalizability of these findings. In this way, the ethnoracial distribution of our cohort  
303 may not be comparable to the Brazilian 2022 Census population [22], we found an  
304 underrepresentation of individuals who self-identified as White (30.86% vs 43.46%),  
305 Black (3.50% vs 10.17%), and Asian descent (0.38% vs 0.42%). Additionally, there was  
306 an overrepresentation of Pardo (64.33% vs 45.35%) and Indigenous (0.88% vs 0.60%)  
307 people [22].

308 In Brazil it has been observed a general decline in the prevalence of wasting and  
309 stunting among children under 5 years of age [7], [29], [30]. However, in our studied  
310 population, there is still a high burden of underweight, stunting, wasting, and thinness in  
311 children of Indigenous women, which aligns with the results of the First National  
312 Survey of Indigenous People's Health and Nutrition in Brazil [31]. When stratified by



313 ethnoracial groups a similar pattern was also observed in other Latin America countries,  
314 where Indigenous, Black, and Pardo children under five years old showed higher risk of  
315 stunting and wasting compared to White children [32]. Although nutritional studies on  
316 the population of Asian descent in Brazil are scarce, it is noteworthy the high  
317 prevalence of stunting, underweight, wasting, and thinness in this group in our study.  
318 While previous studies conducted in Brazil have demonstrated persistent disparities in  
319 physical growth indicators by ethnoracial group, childhood growth assessments were  
320 limited by the lack of longitudinal anthropometric data [33], [34], [35]. When repeated  
321 measurements over time are available, we can provide more consistent estimates  
322 regarding specific periods of child growth, enabling the detection of variations and a  
323 better understanding of the growth trajectory [27]. Longitudinal growth in children is  
324 considered to be a reliable indicator of the quality of the environment in which they live  
325 and has been employed as a global indicator of quality of life [36].  
326 Our growth models reinforce that even among the most socially disadvantaged  
327 population, racial disparities persist. And, similar to other low- and middle-income  
328 countries, Brazil has insufficiencies in providing appropriate nutrition and living  
329 conditions for the growth of children, with markedly racial inequalities, with  
330 unfavorable results concentrated among children born from Indigenous, followed by  
331 Black and Pardo mothers [37], [31].  
332 Racism and its manifestations can explain the disadvantageous effects of ethnoracial  
333 inequalities on the physical growth of children through different pathways [38], [23].  
334 Racism is a structural social determinant of health that modulates the living context and  
335 the health-disease process, establishing a continuum that, since colonial times in Brazil,  
336 has disproportionately impacted Black, Pardo and Indigenous populations [39].

337 Undoubtedly, a population's health and nutrition conditions are inextricably linked to its  
338 respective social, economic, and environmental context [40], notably affected by racism  
339 [41], [7]. In line with this fact, our study revealed that maternal social vulnerability  
340 restrains child growth, as showed by the WAZ and L/HAZ open ward and downward  
341 shift in the growth trajectory curves when adjusted for mother's age, educational level,  
342 and marital status. This draws even more attention to the children of Indigenous  
343 mothers, as, in general, this group remained below -1 SD z-score for L/HAZ in  
344 vulnerability profiles.

345 In this regard, Indigenous populations confront significant disadvantages in maintaining  
346 sustainable food sources as the introduction and propagation of predatory natural  
347 resource management practices (e.g., lumber harvesting, deforestation, mining, etc.)  
348 strike at the very heart of their food systems. Exacerbating this situation, rampant  
349 malaria, mercury contamination [42], and infectious and parasitic diseases further limit  
350 the biological uptake of nutrients, placing Indigenous people at risk of developing a  
351 range of malnutrition manifestations, in particular, nutrient and micronutrient  
352 deficiencies, with a mortality hazard ratio for malnutrition reaching 16.39 (95%CI  
353 12.88-20.85) when compared to children of White mothers [43], [44], [45], [39], [23].

354 It is known that the conditions one lives in determine the way of birth, growing up,  
355 illness, and dying. In this sense, children born to Indigenous, Black, and Pardo mothers  
356 will accumulate inequalities and vulnerabilities prior to birth, as well as the negative  
357 experiences caused by racism suffered during pregnancy [46], [47].

358 This scenario places Brazil on a difficult path to achieve the Sustainable Development  
359 Goals laid out by the United Nations before the 2030 target date.

360 **Study strengths and limitations**

361 Our results provide valuable insight into early childhood growth trajectories among  
362 traditionally understudied racial/ethnic groups in Brazil; nonetheless, the present study  
363 has some limitations. Our study included records detailing complete length/height and  
364 weight information with biologically plausible values to improve accuracy. Notably,  
365 most of the individuals registered in the SISVAN database ( $\approx 68\%$ ) are beneficiaries of  
366 government assistance programs, which indicates an over-representation of poorer  
367 populations from smaller or rural municipalities and an under-representation of middle-  
368 and upper-class individuals residing in urban areas. Accordingly, the interpretation or  
369 generalization of the results presented herein warrants caution. Furthermore, the  
370 measurement of racism using the variable self-reported race/skin color constitutes a  
371 complex task, and data may vary according to whether an individual can self-classify or  
372 be effectively classified [48].

373 Nonetheless, our results present substantial evidence of the effects of ethnoracial  
374 disparities on children's growth. To the best of our knowledge, this study represents the  
375 first use of a population-based database consisting of administrative data to study  
376 growth outcomes, incorporating an extensive range of anthropometric data collected  
377 over a five-year postnatal period.

378

### 379 **Conclusion**

380 Our results reinforce that children born to vulnerable mothers, particularly Indigenous  
381 ones, experience systematically unfavorable physical growth compared to White  
382 children. Although prevalences for stunting, underweight, wasting, and thinness were  
383 high across all groups, a notable disparity exists in their distribution. These nutritional  
384 states reflect the unfavorable living conditions faced by these children. Recognizing  
385 racism as a central determinant of inadequate growth among some ethnoracial groups is

386 an urgent priority to provide enhanced opportunities to thrive for minorities and  
387 historically neglected populations in Brazil. It is, therefore, of utmost importance to  
388 strengthen policies to protect Indigenous children to reduce the unacceptable large  
389 ethnoracial health inequalities observed. Future studies could investigate the inclusion  
390 of other social factors and geographical characteristics, which allow a better  
391 understanding of patterns of ethnoracial inequalities in child growth.

392 **Abbreviations:** BAZ (BMI-for-age z score), Brazilian Unified Health System (SUS),  
393 L/HAZ (length/height for age z-score), SISVAN (Brazilian Food and Nutrition  
394 Surveillance System), WAZ (weight-for-age z-score), WHZ (weight-for-length/height  
395 z-score)

396

#### 397 **Declarations**

398 **Ethics approval and consent to participate:** The present study was approved by the  
399 Research Ethics Committee of the Collective Health Institute of the Federal University  
400 of Bahia (reference number 41695415.0.0000.5030) and the School of Nutrition,  
401 Federal University of Bahia (reference number 67205423.6.0000.5023). The need for  
402 informed consent was waived by the ethics committee/Institutional Review Board of the  
403 Collective Health Institute of the Federal University of Bahia (reference number  
404 41695415.0.0000.5030) and the School of Nutrition, Federal University of Bahia  
405 (reference number 67205423.6.0000.5023), due to the exclusive use of secondary data  
406 from official information systems in accordance with the National Research Ethics  
407 Commission of the National Health Council standards, resolution 466 of December  
408 2012.

409 **Consent for publication:** Not applicable.

410 **Availability of data and materials:** All data supporting this study were obtained from  
411 the Center for Data and Knowledge Integration for Health (CIDACS). These were  
412 licensed for exclusive use in the present study and, due to the privacy rules of the  
413 Brazilian Ethics Committee, are not openly available. Upon request with adequate  
414 justification and approval of an ethics committee, controlled access to data is evaluated;  
415 if possible, allowed access. Information on how to apply to access the data can be found  
416 at <<https://cidacs.bahia.fiocruz.br/en/>>. Requests to access the data should be directed to  
417 Helena B. M. da Silva at [cidacs.curadoria@fiocruz.br](mailto:cidacs.curadoria@fiocruz.br).

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432 **Author's contributions to manuscript:** HBMS and RCRS designed research and  
433 wrote the paper. JFMS performed statistical analysis and critically revised the paper.  
434 ICS analyzed data and critically revised the manuscript. PR, EFG, MYC, AF, JMP, RF,

435 ESP, MLB revised the manuscript critically for important intellectual content. HBMS  
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