RESEARCH ARTICLE



Socioeconomic inequality in cardio-metabolic risk factors in a nationally representative sample of Iranian adolescents using an Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition method: the CASPIAN-III study

Gita Shafiee¹ • Mostafa Qorbani^{2,3} • Ramin Heshmat¹ • Fatemeh Mohammadi⁴ • Ali Sheidaei⁵ • Mohammad Esmaeil Motlagh⁶ • Armita Mahdavi-Gorabi³ • Gelayol Ardalan³ • Zeinab Ahadi³ • Roya Kelishadi⁷

Received: 11 March 2018 / Accepted: 9 April 2019 / Published online: 28 April 2019 © Springer Nature Switzerland AG 2019

Abstract

Objectives The present research was conducted aiming at assessing the association of socioeconomic inequality in the prevalence of risk factors associated with cardio-metabolic disorders in a sample population of nationally representative Iranian adolescents and to identify its influencing factors.

Methods This study was conducted as part of a national-based surveillance program performed on 5625 individuals aged 10–18 years in 27 provinces in Iran. To determine the socioeconomic status (SES) of participants, we defined a new variable by applying the principal component analysis. Doing so, the socioeconomic inequality in cardio-metabolic risk factors was examined over the tertiles of SES using concentration index (C). Then, Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition analysis was carried out in order to decide upon the roots of inequality in the health system.

Results The mean (standard deviation) age of participants was 14.73 (2.41) years. The prevalence of cardio-metabolic parameters had considerable difference across SES tertiles. Elevated fasting blood glucose (FBG), elevated triglycerides (TG), abdominal obesity, elevated total cholesterol (TC), and metabolic syndrome (MetS) increased linearly by increasing SES tertiles. C index for depressed high density lipoprotein- cholesterol (HDL-C) was negative, which was suggestive of inequality in favor of high SES groups and for other cardio-metabolic parameters, it was positive, which indicate inequality was in favor of the lowest SES groups. The highest gap between the first and third tertiles of socioeconomic was for frequency of abdominal obesity; 13.18% of

- Mostafa Qorbani mqorbani1379@yahoo.com
- Roya Kelishadi mqorbani1379@gmail.com

Gita Shafiee gshafiee.endocrine@gmail.com

Ramin Heshmat raminnheshmat@gmail.com

Fatemeh Mohammadi Mohammadi_f@yahoo.com

Ali Sheidaei alisheidaei@gmail.com

Mohammad Esmaeil Motlagh motlagh@gmail.com

Gelayol Ardalan ardalan_gelayol@yahoo.com

Zeinab Ahadi z.ahadi@gmail.com

- Chronic Diseases Research Center, Endocrinology and Metabolism Population Sciences Institute, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
- ² Non-communicable Diseases Research Center, Alborz University of Medical Sciences, Karaj, Iran
- ³ Endocrinology and Metabolism Research Center, Endocrinology and Metabolism Clinical Sciences Institute, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
- ⁴ Food and Nutrition Policy and Planning Research Department, National Nutrition & Food Technology Research Institute, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
- ⁵ Department of Epidemiology and Biostatistics, Shahid Beheshti University of Medical Science, Tehran, Iran
- ⁶ Department of Pediatrics, Ahvaz Jundishapur University of Medical Sciences, Ahvaz, Iran
- ⁷ Department of Pediatrics, Child Growth and Development Research Center, Research Institute for Primordial Prevention of Non-communicable Disease, Faculty of Medicine, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, Isfahan, Iran

the lowest SES groups and 20.11% of the highest SES groups had abdominal obesity which accounts 6.93% gap in favor of the highest SES groups. The living area could be named as the main variables standing for the inequality of elevated FBS, elevated LDL-c, low HDL-c and abdominal obesity frequency between the first and the last SES group. In addition, BMI could stand as the main independent variable explaining the gap in elevated TG, elevated TC, elevated BP and MetS prevalence across the lowest and the highest SES group.

Conclusions The study revealed the considerable inequality in the prevalence of cardio-metabolic risk factors between the highest and the lowest SES groups of Iranian adolescents. Living area and BMI are the two main factors which explained inequality in prevalence of cardio metabolic risk factors between SES groups. These estimations could provide health policy markers with practical information for future complementary analyses.

Keywords Cardio-metabolic risk factors · Concentration · Inequality · Iran

Introduction

There is an alarming increase in the rate of chronic diseases in developing countries [1]. There exists an ever increasing interest to childhood precursor of chronic diseases, in particular cardiovascular disease (CVD) leading factors of some disorders, including metabolic syndrome (MetS) last long from infancy to adulthood [2, 3]. Mets is a global epidemic in all over the world, characterizes by the clustering of conditions, including obesity, dyslipidemia, impaired glucose metabolism and high blood pressure (BP) that increase CVD and type 2 diabetes [4].

Also, there remain a number of cardio-metabolic risk factors, including physical inactivity, hypercholesterolemia and smoking which contributing roles in multiple health conditions and diseases [5, 6].

Population studies have shown the association between socioeconomic inequality and the incidence of chronic diseases [7]. Also, epidemiological studies have revealed that children from families of low socioeconomic characteristics and education are more prone to the risk of developing cardiometabolic parameters in comparison to children from families with higher purchasing power. Therefore, the association between socioeconomic status (SES) and health is not limited to adulthood [7, 8]. Several researches have shown that low SES could result in the increase of CVD through a mechanism of affecting behavioral risk factors and unhealthy dietary habits [9, 10]. However, other studies have shown that people were more susceptible to intake foods high in fat, which can result in higher cardio-metabolic risk factors such as TG [11, 12]. The reason such a difference could be explained by the fact that the epidemiological transition occurred beside the rapid changes in living style may have made individuals more prone to higher risk of cardio-metabolic risk factors which, finally, ends up in a higher rate of chronic diseases [12].

Therefore, controversy remains regarding the impact of SES factors on the Mets and other cardio-metabolic risk factors. The importance of SES inequality and their associations with health disorders has been documented among adults; however, results are limited and conflicting in the pediatric age groups [13]. Therefore, this study aimed at investigating the association between SES inequality and cardio-metabolic risk factors among Iranian adolescents using a novel and robust methodological approach for inequality assessment (Oaxaca-Blinder Decomposition method) and also determine which factors can explain this inequality.

Methods

This study was developed in consistence with the third school-based surveillance system entitled "Childhood and Adolescence Surveillance and PreventIon of Adult Non-communicable Disease" (CASPIAN III) study (2009–2010). The study details and methodological protocols elaborate in details previously [14], and only the fundamental parts have described herein in brief.

Individuals were 5625 students, aged 10–18 years, and the sample selection was conducted based on multistage random cluster sampling method. The participants were selected from individuals living in rural and urban areas of 27 provinces in Iran. As per study protocol, the information bank of the Ministry of Health and Medical Education was used to stratify the eligible schools. Then, sample selection was carried out in each eligible school randomly. In a later step, in each of the selected schools, the sampling of students was random. A trained team of expert health care providers participated in data collection phase and engaged in the examination process using calibrated instruments. The standard protocols were used to design and complete checklists for all participants.

Clinical and laboratory measurements

Clinical and laboratory experiments were conducted through measuring height (Ht) and weight (Wt), according to standardized protocols, without shoes and lightly dressed condition. Body mass index (BMI) was calculated as weight (kg) /height (m²). Waist circumference (WC) was measured by a no elastic tape at the midway between the lower border of the rib margin and the iliac crest at the end of normal expiration. The measurement of BP was done using a standardized mercury sphygmomanometer, on the right arm after a 5 min rest in a sitting position. The first and fifth Korotkoff sounds were recorded as systolic and diastolic blood pressure, respectively.

After 12 h overnight fasting, a blood sample was drawn and delivered to the lab for each person. Fasting blood glucose (FBG), total cholesterol (TC), triglycerides (TG), high density lipoprotein-cholesterol (HDL-C), and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) were measured enzymatically using auto-analyzers. HDL-C was characterized after dextran sulfate-magnesium chloride precipitation of non-HDL-C [15].

Due to the fact that we needed highly qualified data for the purpose of our multi-center data gathering, the different levels of quality assurance and control were taken into account by a Data and Safety Monitoring Board (DSMB) who were collaborating in the study.

Study terms

Cardiometabolic risk factors: The participants were assumed as having metabolic syndrom if they had at least three of the following criteria according to Adult Treatment Panel III (ATP III) criteria modified for children and adolescents, were considered as having metabolic syndrome (MetS) [16]. The modified criteria for children and adolescents are defined as below: Abdominal obesity was defined as waist to height ratio (WHtR) more than 0.5 [17]; Elevated BP: either systolic or diastolic BP ≥90th percentile for age, sex and height; Low HDL-C: HDL-C ≤ 40 mg/dl (except in boys 15–19 years old that the cut off was <45 mg/dl); High TG: TG ≥ 100 mg/dl) was taken as the 90th percentile value for age; High FBG: FBG levels of ≥100 mg/dl [18].

TC, LDL-C, and general obesity were considered in the present study as risk factors associated with cardiometabolic disorders. High TC and LDL-C were defined according to the recent recommendation by the American Heart Association (TC \ge 200 mg/dl, LDL-C > 110 mg/dl) [19]. General obesity definition was considered as BMI >95th percentile [17].

- Socioeconomic status (SES): In order to construct socioeconomic status, we incorporated the previously approved approach of Progress in the International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) specifically designed for Iranian context [20]. Parents' education, parents' job, possessing private car, school type (public/private), type of home (private/ rented) and having a personal computer at home were summarized in one main component SES using principle component analysis (PCA) [21].
- Screen Time (ST): The ST behavior of the children was investigated through the questionnaire which contained questions asking for the average number of hours/day they

spent watching TV/VCDs, personal computer (PC), or electronic games (EG). For the analysis of correlates of ST, according to the international ST recommendations, ST was categorized into two groups: less than 2 h per day (Low) and 2 h per day or more (High) [22].

• **Physical Activity (PA):** For PA, the data regarding the PA during the past week was collected. Participants reported the weekly frequency of their leisure time PA outside the school. The duration of at least 30 min per day that caused heavy sweating or large increases in breathing or heart rate was considered as the main component of leisure time PA definition. Doing this way, we assumed PA less than two times per week as mild, two to four times a week as moderate and more than 4 h a week as vigorous [23].

Ethical concerns

The present research was in line with the declaration of Helsinki (Seoul, 2008). Ethical approval was given by the ethics committees of Isfahan and Tehran University of Medical Sciences.

Followed by providing each participant with a full explanation of the objectives and protocols, they were assured about the confidentiality of their statements.

Participation in the study was voluntary, and all of the potential participants were informed about their right to withdraw from the study at any time. The participants and their parents were also given informed consent and oral assent, respectively indicating their willingness to participate in the present research.

Statistical analyses

Statistical analysis was performed using survey data analysis methods in the Stata version 11.1 (Stata Corporation, College Station, TX, USA).

Socioeconomic inequality was estimated by calculating the prevalence of cardio-metabolic risk factors in tertiles of SES, the concentration index (C). To assess the association of cardio-metabolic risk factorsacross socioeconomic tertile, we used C which was interpreted according to the target variable versus SES distribution [24, 25]. The C was estimated using the following formula:

$$C = \frac{2}{n\mu} \sum_{i=1}^{n} h_i r_i - 1 - \frac{1}{n}$$

In this formula h_i is the amount of each cardiometabolic risk factors for the *i* – *th* individual, r_i is the relative rank of the *i* – *th* individual in the distribution of the SES variable and μ is the mean value of the cardio-metabolic risk factors. The negative and positive values of C show that inequality was in favor of high and low SES groups of the society respectively [26–28].

Decomposition of the gap in cardio-metabolic risk factors between the first and third tertile of SES was investigated using the counterfactual decomposition technique, widely used to study mean outcome differences between groups [27–29]. This method divides the gap between the means of an interested outcome variable into two components. The 'explained' (endowment) component arises because of differences in groups' characteristics such as differences in age, sex or other characteristics of two groups, and an 'unexplained' (coefficient) component is extracted from the differential effects of these characteristics [20].

Pearson Chi square test was used to calculate p for trend (ptrend) of each cardio-metabolic risk factor across tertile of SES. Association of independent variables with cardiometabolic risk factors was assessed using multivariate logistic regression analysis. Results of multivariate logistic regression analysis are presented as OR (95% confidence interval (CI).Missing values in present study were imputed using Amelia package version 1.7.3 in R statistical package [30].

Results

Overall, 5223 students out of 5625 invited students completed (Participation rate: 92.8%) this survey. The mean (standard deviation) age of participants was 14.73 (2.41) years. Considering the gender, 49.9% and regarding the residential area, 67.4% of participants were females and urban area residents, respectively.

Table 1 shows the prevalence of cardio-metabolic parameters, across the tertiles of SES. Considering the socioeconomic tertiles, the prevalence of cardio-metabolic parameters had considerable difference across SES tertiles. The highest differences respectively belonged to low HDL-C (35.26%), abdominal obesity (15.87%), and elevated FBG (15.27%). Elevated FBG, elevated TG, abdominal obesity, elevated TC, and MetS increased linearly by increasing SES tertiles. The estimated values of C in the last column of Table 1 indicate the SES inequality in different tertiles. C index for depressed HDL-C was negative, which suggests inequality was in favor of high SES groups and for other cardio-metabolic parameters, it was positive, which indicate inequality was in favor of low SES groups.

In multivariate analysis, individuals in the highest SES groups (last tertile) had significantly higher odds of elevated TC (OR: 1.56, 95%CI: 1.14-2.14), and abdominal obesity (OR: 1.42, 95%CI: 1.19–1.70), compared with those counterparts in the lowest SES groups (first tertile). In addition, the odds of elevated FBG (OR: 1.62; 95%CI: 1.37-1.91), low HDL-C (OR: 1.24; 95%CI: 1.08-1.42), elevated BP (OR: 1.83; 95%CI: 1.43-2.34), abdominal obesity (OR: 1.19; 95%CI: 1.03-1.38) and MetS (OR: 2.26; 95%CI: 1.53-3.31) were significantly increased in girls than boys. Vigorous and moderate physical activity compared to mild PA had a protective association with low HDL-C, elevated LDL-C, and MetS. BMI is another factor that significantly increases the odds of elevated TG (OR: 1.18; 95%CI: 1.15-1.20), low HDL-C (OR: 1.05; 95%CI: 1.03-1.06), elevated BP (OR: 1.14; 95%CI: 1.11-1.17), elevated TC (OR: 1.07; 95%CI: 1.04-1.1) and MetS (OR: 1.31; 95%CI: 1.26-1.36). Also living in rural area decreased the odds of elevated TG and abdominal obesity and increased the odds of elevated FBS, low HDL. Family history of chronic diseases, and age were other associated factors for cardio-metabolic parameters (p < 0.05).

Tables 2 and 3 shows the decomposition of the gap in cardio-metabolic risk factors prevalence between the first and the last tertile of SES. The highest gap between the first and the last tertile of SES was in abdominal obesity prevalence; 13.18% of the lowest SES groups and 20.11% of the highest SES groups had abdominal obesity which accounts 6.93% gap in favor of the highest SES groups. Of 6.93% gap, 2.54% was attributed to the different effects of the

Outcome	T1%(95% CI)	T2%(95% CI)	T3%(95% CI)	Total %(95% CI)	P-trend	C (SD)
Elevated FBG	13.5(11.96,15.2)	15.2(13.41,17.18)	17.4(15.42,19.01)	15.27(14.33,16.26)	0.008	0.05(0.02)
Elevated TG	7.18(6.03,8.53)	7.78(6.48,9.31)	9.03(7.73,10.53)	8.00(7.26,8.81)	0.06	0.05(0.03)
Low HDL-C	36.53(34.08,39.04)	36.69(34.05,39.42)	32.87(30.54,35.29)	35.26(33.89,36.66)	0.04	-0.02(0.01)
Elevated LDL-C	5.53(4.35,7.00)	5.22(4.00,6.77)	6.52(5.24,8.10)	5.78(5.04,6.61)	0.22	0.04(0.04)
Elevated BP	5.9(4.92,7.05)	6.64(5.50,7.98)	6.09(5.05,7.33)	6.18(5.56,6.88)	0.83	0.01(0.03)
Abdominal obesity	13.18(11.8,14.70)	14.16(12.59,15.89)	20.12(18.37,21.99)	15.87(14.86,16.73)	< 0.001	0.1(0.02)
Elevated TC	4.18(3.33,5.24)	5.51(4.44,6.82)	7.49(6.34,8.84)	5.72(5.12,6.39)	< 0.001	0.13(0.03)
MetS (n)	3.18(39)	3.8(39)	5.16(64)	4.07(142)	0.003	0.11(0.04)

FBG, Fasting Blood Glucose; TG, triglycerides; HDL-C, High-Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol; LDL-C, Low-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol; BP, Blood Pressure; TC, Total Cholesterol; MetS, Metabolic Syndrome; CI, Confidence Interval; T, Tertile; C, Concentration index; SD, Standard Deviation

Table 2 Assoc	ciation of independent	variables with cardio-me	stabolic disorders in mu	Itivariate logistic regres:	sion			
Variables	Elevated FBG OR(95% CI)	Elevated TG OR(95% CI)	Low HDL-C OR(95% CI)	Elevated LDL-C OR(95% CI)	Elevated BP OR(95% CI)	Elevated TC OR(95% CI)	Abdominal obesity OR(95% CI)	MetS OR(95% CI)
SES (T1)								
Т2	1.09 (0.89,1.35)	1.03 (0.78,1.37)	1.03 (0.87,1.21)	0.93 (0.63,1.35)	1.05 (0.79,1.39)	1.28 (0.92,1.79)	1.03 (0.85,1.24)	1.01 (0.62,1.64)
T3	1.14	1.10	0.90	1.05	0.88	1.56	1.42	0.99
Physical activity	(04-1, 66-0) . (Mild)	(+++.1,00,0)	(0.11,1.00)	(1.0.1+,1.0)	(0.00,1.17)	(+1.4,4,1,1)		(0.02,1.20)
Moderate	1.05 (0.87,1.28)	0.86 (0.66,1.12)	0.74 (0.63,0.87)*	0.58 (0.4,0.85)*	1.20 (0.2,1.56)	1.05 (0.78,1.42)	1.06 (0.9,1.26)	0.59 (0.38,0.91)*
Vigorous	1.26 (1.00,1.58)*	0.99 (0.71,1.37)	0.60 (0.49,0.74)*	0.54 (0.33,0.87)*	0.90 (0.62,1.31)	1.47 (1.05,2.05)*	0.85 (0.68,1.06)	0.39 (0.20,0.77)*
Sex(Boy)								
Girl	1.62	1.06	1.24	0.96	1.83	0.77	1.19	2.26
	$(1.37, 1.91)^{*}$	(0.85, 1.33)	(1.08, 1.42)*	(0.71, 1.29)	$(1.43, 2.34)^{*}$	(0.60, 1.00)*	$(1.03, 1.38)^{*}$	$(1.53, 3.31)^{*}$
Age								
	0.99	0.94	1.03	0.90	1.15	0.91	1.01	0.96
	(0.96, 1.03)	(0.9, 0.99)*	(0.10, 1.06)	(0.84, 0.96)*	$(1.09, 1.22)^{*}$	(0.86, 0.97)*	(0.98, 1.04)	(0.88, 1.04)
Area (Urban)								
Rural	0.68	1.33	1.43	0.73	0.84	0.81	0.60	0.64
	$(0.56, 0.83)^{*}$	(1.04, 1.70)*	(1.23, 1.65)*	(0.52, 1.05)	(0.64, 1.10)	(0.60, 1.08)	$(0.50, 0.72)^{*}$	(0.40, 1.04)
Family history c	hronic disease (No)							
Yes	1.12(0.92,1.38)	1.47(1.08, 1.99)*	0.91(0.78, 1.07)	1.41(0.94, 2.13)	0.79(0.60, 1.04)	1.08(0.79, 1.48)	1.41(1.17,1.70)*	0.84(0.53, 1.33)
Smoking								
	0.86 (0.69,1.07)	0.82 (0.61,1.10)	1.04 (0.86,1.26)	0.83 (0.55,1.24)	1.40 (0.99,1.99)	0.77 (0.56,1.07)	0.92 (0.76,1.12)	0.78 (0.49,1.25)
Screen time(<=2	(h)							
>2 h	1.1	1.12	0.95	1.21	0.96	1.30	1.05	1.00
BMI	(0.89,1.36	(0.84,1.50)	(0.81,1.12)	(0.82,1.78)	(0.71, 1.30)	(0.93,1.84)	(0.87,1.27)	(0.60,1.66)
	1.01	1.18	1.05	1.03	1.14	1.07	I	1.31
	(0.99, 1.03)	(1.15, 1.20)*	(1.03, 1.06)*	(1.00, 1.07)	(1.11, 1.17)*	$(1.04, 1.1)^*$		(1.26, 1.36)*

FBG, Fasting Blood Glucose; TG, triglycerides; HDL-C, High-Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol; LDL-C, Low-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol; BP, Blood Pressure; TC, Total Cholesterol; MetS, Metabolic Syndrome.; BMI, Body Mass Index; Adjusted OR, Odds Ratio; CI, Confidence Interval; T, Tertile *Statistically significant

Table 3 Decomposition	of the gap in cardio-m	etabolic disorders prev	alence between the first	and third tertiles of :	socioeconomic status			
	Elevated FBG	Elevated TG	Low HDL-C	Elevated LDL-C	Elevated BP	Elevated TC	Abdominal obesity	MetS
Prevalence in first tertile	13.50(11.83,15.17)*	7.18(5.93,8.43)*	36.53(33.99,39.06)*	5.53(4.21,6.84)*	5.90(4.83,6.96)*	4.18(3.23,5.13)*	13.18(11.72,14.64)*	3.18(2.20,4.17)*
Prevalence in third tertile	17.13(15.27,18.99)*	9.03(7.63,10.43)*	32.85(30.42,35.27)*	6.52(5.09,7.94)*	6.09(4.95,7.23)*	7.49(6.22,8.76)*	20.11(18.29,21.93)*	$5.16(3.93, 6.39)^{*}$
Differences (Total gap)	-3.63(-6.13, -1.13)*	-1.85(-3.72,0.03)	3.68(0.17, 7.19)*	-0.99(-2.93, 0.95)	-0.19(-1.75, 1.37)	-3.31(-4.90, -1.72)*	-6.93(-9.26,-4.59)*	-1.98(-3.55, -0.40)*
Due to endowments (explai	ined)							
Age	0.0003(-0.05, 0.05)	0.06(-0.08, 0.19)	-0.03(-0.14,0.08)	0.07(-0.07, 0.20)	-0.01(-0.11,0.08)	0.04(-0.06, 0.13)	-0.0004(-0.02, 0.02)	0.06(-0.05, 0.17)
Sex	-0.06(-0.29, 0.16)	-0.01(-0.06,0.03)	-0.08(-0.27,0.11)	0.02(-0.04, 0.07)	-0.00(-0.09,0.09)	0.03(-0.05, 0.10)	-0.02(-0.09,0.05)	-0.00(-0.12,0.11)
Living area	-1.46(-2.27, -0.65)*	0.57(-0.03, 1.18)	2.25(1.11, 3.39)*	-0.72(1.28, -0.16)*	-0.00(-0.46,0.45)	-0.44(-0.90,0.02)	-1.93(-2.57, -1.29)*	-0.20(-0.61, 0.21)
FH of chronic diseases	-0.10(-0.26, 0.06)	-0.12(-0.24, -0.0006)*	0.07(-0.17, 0.30)	-0.06(-0.17, 0.05)	0.05(-0.07,0.16)	-0.07(-0.17,0.01)	-0.28(-0.49, -0.09)*	-0.03(-0.13,0.07)
Smoking	-0.1(-0.32, 0.12)	-0.06(-0.21, 0.1)	0.04(-0.26, 0.35)	0.03(-0.13, 0.18)	0.13(-0.00, 0.27)	-0.06(-0.20,0.08)	-0.12(-0.32,0.08)	-0.07(-0.23,0.08)
Screen time	-0.06(-0.43, 0.32)	-0.03(-0.29, 0.24)	0.29(-0.25, 0.83)	-0.05(-0.33, 0.23)	0.09(-0.14, 0.31)	-0.15(-0.36,0.07)	-0.13(-0.48, 0.22)	0.09(-0.11, 0.29)
Physical activity	-0.00(-0.13, 0.12)	0.03(-0.05, 0.12)	0.22(-0.11, 0.55)	0.06(-0.08, 0.19)	-0.02(-0.08,0.04)	-0.01(-0.09,0.06)	-0.06(-0.17, 0.06)	0.07(-0.03, 0.16)
BMI	-0.12(-0.49, 0.26)	-1.68(-2.24, -1.11)*	-1.21(-1.82, -0.59)*	-0.29(-0.64, 0.06)	-1.00(-1.38, -0.62)*	-0.46(-0.77, -0.15)*	I	-1.73(-2.36, -1.10)*
Subtotal gap	-1.91(-2.86, -0.96)*	-1.23(-2.05, -0.42)*	1.56(0.13, 2.98)*	-0.95(-1.65, -0.24)*	-0.77(-1.42,-0.13)*	-1.13(-1.73, -0.53)*	-2.54(-3.33, -1.75)*	-1.82(-2.56, -1.08)*
Due to coefficients (unexpli	ained)							
Age	17.87(1.48,34.26)*	4.73(-7.86, 17.32)	18.51(-5.34,42.37)	-4.00(-17.90, 9.90)	-1.35(-11.33, 8.63)	-1.43(-13.22,10.36)	9.38(-4.96,23.73)	-2.75(-13.29, 7.79)
Sex	0.94(-6.65, 8.53)	-3.66(-9.30, 1.98)	-2.72(-13.29, 7.84)	3.24(-2.72,9.21)	-2.50(-7.17, 2.17)	4.01(-0.88, 8.90)	-13.15(-20.18, -6.13)*	-2.86(-7.66, 1.93)
Living area	-0.41(-7.61, 6.78)	4.56(-0.82, 9.95)	3.09(-7.62, 13.79)	-3.04(-8.65, 2.56)	1.42(-2.98, 5.83)	4.12(-0.07, 8.30)	11.19(5.19,17.19)*	-0.41(-4.50, 3.69)
FH of chronic diseases	6.82(2.03, 11.61)*	0.35(-2.79, 3.49)	-4.82(-11.43, 1.79)	-0.77(-4.23, 2.68)	-0.28(-3.25,2.69)	-0.51(-3.32, 2.29)	-2.75(-5.86, 1.35)	-0.11([-2.85, 2.62)
Smoking	-17.05(-31.66, -2.45)*	-3.84(-14.30, 6.62)	-21.86(-41.01, -2.71)*	-3.38(-13.85, 7.10)	-3.30(-10.95, 4.35)	1.88(-6.95,10.72)	5.30(-7.25,17.86)	-7.02(-16.75, 2.72)
Screen time	-2.59(-7.82, 2.63)	1.57(-2.33, 5.47)	0.65(-6.83, 8.14)	-1.24(-5.33, 2.86)	-1.91(-4.93, 1.11)	-2.51(-5.66,0.64)	-0.29(-5.24, 4.65)	-0.21(-3.25, 2.82)
Physical activity	0.10(-2.08, 2.28)	0.16(-1.37, 1.69)	0.73(-2.17, 3.63)	-0.17(-1.82, 1.48)	-0.74(-2.04,0.56)	0.10(-1.23, 1.44)	-0.22(-2.18,1.74)	-0.74(-1.99, 0.51)
BMI	-1.01(-13.91, 11.89)	-3.55(-16.61, 9.50)	-13.66(-32.03, 4.71)	4.87(-6.14,15.89)	-3.98(-14.33, 6.35)	0.21(-9.87, 10.30)	I	-7.72(-20.94, 5.51)
Constant	-6.39(-32.61, 19.84)	-0.94(-20.28, 18.39)	22.20(-13.56,57.96)	4.44(-15.37,24.25)	13.22(-2.49,28.94)	-8.05(-24.89, 8.79)	-13.84(-36.04, 8, 36)	21.67(4.02,39.31)*
Subtotal gap	-1.72(-4.40,0.95)	-0.62(-2.49, 1.26)	2.12(-1.57,5.82)	-0.04(-2.17, 2.09)	0.58(-0.98, 2.15)	-2.18(-3.79, -0.56)*	-4.39(-6.79,-1.99)*	-0.16(-1.71, 1.39)

Glucose; TG, triglycerides; HDL-C, High-Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol; LDL-C, Low-Density Lipoprotein Cholesterol; BP, Blood Pressure; TC, Total Cholesterol; MetS, Metabolic Syndrome; FH, family history; BMI, Body Mass Index

independent variables studied (explained component) and 4.39% was attributed to the differences of coefficients of regression models (unexplained component) in the two groups. It means that the difference of abdominal obesity frequency between the lowest and the highest SES would decrease from 6.93% to 4.39% if the lowest SES group was similar to the highest SES groups in term of all studied independent variables.

Living area is the main independent variable which explained the inequality in elevated FBS, elevated LDL-C, low HDL-C and abdominal obesity frequency between the first and the last tertile of SES. Moreover, BMI is the main independent variable which explained the gap in elevated TG, elevated TC, elevated BP and MetS prevalence between the lowest and the highest SES group.

Discussion

To the best of our knowledge, the present study is the first study in Iran, even in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA) region, which assessed socio-economic inequality in the cardio-metabolic risk factors and its determinants in adolescents using the Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition method. The present study shows that the most of cardio-metabolic risk factors such as elevated FBG, TG, TC, abdominal obesity, and MetS increased linearly by increasing SES tertiles. ST, living area, family history of chronic diseases and PA were seen to make a significant contribution to the gap of cardio-metabolic risk factors prevalence between the two socioeconomic groups.

In the present study the association of socioeconomic status with elevated BP was not statistically significant. This result was in contrary to previous studies [31, 32]. Results of Berg et al.'s cohort study showed that children with middle or low educated mothers were more likely to have pre-hypertension compared with children with high-educated mothers. They also found that children from lower SES families have a higher risk of HTN [31]. With Fateh nationwide study, SES was linearly associated with HTN in Iranian adults [32]. However, in our study, lowest change (6.18%) in elevated BP of adolescents caused by SES and only BMI had significant contribution to this gap. Childhood BMI was shown previously to be strongly related to SES [33–36], and our results showed that socioeconomic differences in blood pressure and pre-hypertension can be explained by an increasing BMI.

A systematic review of social health inequalities in Swedish children and adolescents found a higher social risk for overweight (RR: 1.8, 95%CI: 1.3–3.7), obesity (RR: 1.8, 95%CI: 1.3–2.0), diet (RR: 1.6, 95%CI: 1.1–1.8) and low physical activity (RR: 1.6, 95%CI: 1.2–2.1) [37]. Another

study in Serbia showed that richer-class households had significantly higher risky behaviors than poorest households [38].

In previous decades, obesity was more common in high SES groups. Today, children and adolescents from lower SES tend to be more obese and overweight in high-income countries [39]. The Health Behavior in School-aged Children (HBSC) study has found that family SES is one the most important predictor of adolescents' health. In another word, SES may prone families' to adopt healthy behaviors such as eating fruit and vegetables [40–42] and participating in leisure time PA [43, 44]. Living in low SES family may restrict family to have adequate access to health resources [45] and exposed them to psychosocial distress, which support health inequalities in general health and well-being [46].

A systematic review on socioeconomic inequality in obesity in Iran showed that socio-demographic factors were clearly associated with obesity [47]. In a cross national study [48], wealth and education inequalities were more highlighted in the low-income country group than the middle-income country group and income and education were associated with prevalence of some non-communicable diseases and risk factors.

A previous study in West of Iran revealed that hypertension, insufficient consumption of fruits and vegetables, consumption unhealthy diet and insufficient consumption of sea foods are more prevalent among lower socioeconomic groups and there was no significant association between SES with excess weight and hypercholesterolemia [49].

In present study abdominal obesity was prevalent in the high SES group which was in line with previous studies in Iran [50, 51]. It seems that the association of weight disorders and SES varied across countries according to their SES and development. A Cross-national study found that obesity in China and Russia were more prevalent in the high SES subject and in the US, low SES groups were at a higher risk of obesity [51].

A better understanding of association of cardio-metabolic risk factors and SES underscore the necessity of implementing evidence-based health promotion programs and preventive strategies according to SES.

The current study was conducted in a large cross sectional study. This analysis has several limitations. First, the cross sectional design makes it difficult to determine the direction of causality. This limitation can be overcome with the use of cohort studies. A second methodological issue is with regard to the accuracy of the data collected through self-administered questionnaire. The study used self-reported data for estimating of parental occupation and education, PA, ST and smoking. However, we think it is unlikely that this bias should affect the children's report.

Conclusion

The study revealed the considerable inequality in the prevalence of cardio-metabolic risk factors between the highest and the lowest SES groups of Iranian adolescents. Living area and BMI are the two main factors which explained inequality in the prevalence of cardio-metabolic risk factors between SES groups. These estimations provide practical information for health policies and programs and future complementary analyses.

Authors' contributions RK, MEM, RH, GA and MQ: designing the study, GS, FM and MQ Drafting of the manuscript, MQ, AS and RH: Analysis and interpretation of data AMG and ZA: Acquisition of data and RK and MQ: Critical revision of the manuscript for important intellectual content. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding Ministry of Health and Education.

Data availability Please contact author for data requests.

Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors also have no conflicts of interest and have no involvement that might raise the question of bias in the results reported here.

Ethical approval The present study was approved by ethical committee of Tehran University of Medical Sciences and Isfahan University of Medical Sciences.

Competing interests The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

References

- 1. Wagner KH, Brath H. A global view on the development of non communicable diseases. Prev Med. 2012;54(Suppl):S38–41.
- Kavey RE, Daniels SR, Lauer RM, Atkins DL, Hayman LL, Taubert K. American heart association guidelines for primary prevention of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease beginning in childhood. Circulation. 2003;107(11):1562–6.
- 3. Personen E, Liuba P. Footprints of atherosclerotic coronary heart disease in children. Rev Port Cardiol. 2004;23(1):127–31.
- Wilson PW, D'Agostino RB, Parise H, Sullivan L, Meigs JB. Metabolic syndrome as a precursor of cardiovascular disease and type 2 diabetes mellitus. Circulation. 2005;112(20):3066–72.
- Organization WH. Global status report on noncommunicable diseases 2010. Geneva: WHO. 2011;2012.
- Lopez AD, Mathers CD, Ezzati M, Jamison DT, Murray CJ. Global and regional burden of disease and risk factors, 2001: systematic analysis of population health data. Lancet. 2006;367(9524):1747–57.
- McLaren L. Socioeconomic status and obesity. Epidemiol Rev. 2007;29:29–48.
- Tamayo T, Christian H, Rathmann W. Impact of early psychosocial factors (childhood socioeconomic factors and adversities) on future risk of type 2 diabetes, metabolic disturbances and obesity: a systematic review. BMC Public Health. 2010;10:525.

- Zhu S, St-Onge MP, Heshka S, Heymsfield SB. Lifestyle behaviors associated with lower risk of having the metabolic syndrome. Metab Clin Exp. 2004;53(11):1503–11.
- Park YW, Zhu S, Palaniappan L, Heshka S, Carnethon MR, Heymsfield SB. The metabolic syndrome: prevalence and associated risk factor findings in the US population from the third National Health and nutrition examination survey, 1988-1994. Arch Intern Med. 2003;163(4):427–36.
- 11. Wang Z, Zhai F, Du S, Popkin B. Dynamic shifts in Chinese eating behaviors. Asia Pac J Clin Nutr. 2008;17(1):123–30.
- 12. Zhan Y, Yu J, Chen R, Gao J, Ding R, Fu Y, et al. Socioeconomic status and metabolic syndrome in the general population of China: a cross-sectional study. BMC Public Health. 2012;12:921.
- Hosseinpoor AR, Bergen N, Kunst A, Harper S, Guthold R, Rekve D, et al. Socioeconomic inequalities in risk factors for non communicable diseases in low-income and middle-income countries: results from the world health survey. BMC Public Health. 2012;12:912.
- Kelishadi R, Heshmat R, Motlagh ME, Majdzadeh R, Keramatian K, Qorbani M, et al. Methodology and early findings of the third survey of CASPIAN study: a National School-based Surveillance of Students' high risk behaviors. Int J Prev Med. 2012;3(6): 394–401.
- 15. McNamara JR, Schaefer EJ. Automated enzymatic standardized lipid analyses for plasma and lipoprotein fractions. Clin Chim Acta. 1987;166(1):1–8.
- Third Report of the National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP) Expert Panel on Detection, Evaluation, and Treatment of High Blood Cholesterol in Adults (Adult Treatment Panel III) final report. Circulation. 2002;106(25):3143–421.
- Zimmet P, Alberti G, Kaufman F, Tajima N, Silink M, Arslanian S, et al. The metabolic syndrome in children and adolescents. Lancet. 2007;369(9579):2059–61.
- Genuth S, Alberti KG, Bennett P, Buse J, Defronzo R, Kahn R, et al. Follow-up report on the diagnosis of diabetes mellitus. Diabetes Care. 2003;26(11):3160–7.
- Balagopal PB, de Ferranti SD, Cook S, Daniels SR, Gidding SS, Hayman LL, et al. Nontraditional risk factors and biomarkers for cardiovascular disease: mechanistic, research, and clinical considerations for youth: a scientific statement from the American Heart Association. Circulation. 2011;123(23):2749–69.
- Rao S, Simmer K. World Health Organization growth charts for monitoring the growth of Australian children: time to begin the debate. J Paediatr Child Health. 2012;48(2):E84–90.
- Abdi H, Williams LJ. Principal component analysis. Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Computational Statistics. 2010;2(4): 433–59.
- American Academy of Pediatrics. Children, adolescents, and television. Pediatrics. 2001;107(2):423–6.
- Zahedi H, Kelishadi R, Heshmat R, Motlagh ME, Ranjbar SH, Ardalan G, et al. Association between junk food consumption and mental health in a national sample of Iranian children and adolescents: the CASPIAN-IV study. Nutrition. 2014;30(11–12):1391–7.
- Koolman X, Van Doorslaer E. On the interpretation of a concentration index of inequality. Health Econ. 2004;13(7):649–56.
- 25. Shaw M, Galobardes B, Lawlor D, Lynch J, Wheeler B, Davey-Smith G. The handbook of inequality and socioeconomic position: conceptes and measures: the policy press; 2007.
- 26. Pamuk ER. Social class inequality in mortality from 1921 to 1972 in England and Wales. Popul Stud. 1985;39(1):17–31.
- Emamian MH, Zeraati H, Majdzadeh R, Shariati M, Hashemi H, Jafarzadehpur E, et al. Economic inequality in presenting near vision acuity in a middle-aged population: a blinder–Oaxaca decomposition. Br J Ophthalmol. 2013;97(9):1100–3.
- 28. Emamian MH, Zeraati H, Majdzadeh R, Shariati M, Hashemi H, Fotouhi A. The gap of visual impairment between economic groups

in Shahroud, Iran: a Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition. Am J Epidemiol. 2011:kwr050.

- Borooah V, Iyer S. The decomposition of inter-group differences in a logit model: extending the Oaxaca-blinder approach with an application to school enrolment in India. 2005.
- Honaker J, King G, Blackwell M. Amelia II: A program for missing data. J Stat Softw. 2011;45(7):1–47.
- Berg G, Eijsden M, Galindo-Garre F, Vrijkotte TGM, Gemke RJBJ. Explaining socioeconomic inequalities in childhood blood pressure and prehypertension: the ABCD study. Hypertension. 2013;61:35–41.
- Fateh M, Emamian MH, Asgari F, Alami A, Fotouhi A. Socioeconomic inequality in hypertension in Iran. J Hypertens. 2014;32(9):1782–8.
- Shrewsbury V, Wardle J. Socioeconomic status and adiposity in childhood: a systematic review of cross-sectional studies 1990-2005. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2008;16:275–84.
- Powell LM, Wada R, Krauss RC, Wang Y. Ethnic disparities in adolescent body mass index in the United States: the role of parental socioeconomic status and economic contextual factors. Soc Sci Med. 2012:1–8.
- Fredericka CB, Snellmana K, Putnama RD. Increasing socioeconomic disparities in adolescent obesity. PNAS. 2014;111(4): 1338–42.
- Wang Y, Zhang Q. Are American children and adolescents of low socioeconomic status at increased risk of obesity? Changes in the association between overweight and family income between 1971 and 2002. Am J Clin Nutr. 2006;84:707–16.
- Wamala S. Etal. Swedish children and adolescents a systematic review. Sweden: Swedish National Institue of Public Health; 2011.
- Boričić K, Simić S, Erić JM. Demographic and socio-economic factors associated with multiple health risk behaviours among adolescents in Serbia: a cross sectional study. BMC Public Health. 2015;15:157–66.
- Howe LD. Childhood overweight: socio-economic inequalities and consequences for later cardiovascular health longitudinal and life course. Studies. 2013;4(1):4–16.
- Thang N, Popkin B. Patterns of food consumption in Vietnam: effects on socioeconomic groups during an era of economic growth. Eur J Clin Nutr. 2004;58:145–53.
- Vereecken C. The relative influence of individual and contextual socio-economic status on consumption of fruit and soft drinks among adolescents in Europe. Europ J Pub Health. 2005;15(3): 224–32.
- 42. Vereecken C, et al. Breakfast consumption and its sociodemographic and lifestyle correlates in schoolchildren in 41

countries participating in the HBSC study. Int J Pub Health. 2009;54(Suppl. 2):180–90.

- Borraccino A, et al. Socio-economic effects on meeting PA guidelines: comparisons among 32 countries. Med Sci Sports Exerc. 2009;41(4):749–56.
- Zambon A, et al. Do welfare regimes mediate the effect of socioeconomic position on health in adolescence? A cross-national comparison in Europe, North America, and Israel. Int J Health Serv. 2006;36(2):309–29.
- 45. Gabhainn SN, et al. How well protected are sexually active 15-yearolds? Cross-national patterns in condom and contraceptive pill use 2002–2006. Int J Public Health. 2009;54:S209–S15.
- Kuusela S, et al. Frequent use of sugar products by schoolchildren in 20 European countries, Israel and Canada in 1993/1994. Int Dent J. 1999;49(2):105–14.
- Djalalinia S, Peykari N, Qorbani M, Larijani B, Farzadfar F. Inequality of obesity and socioeconomic factors in Iran: a systematic review and meta- analyses. Med J Islam Repub Iran (25 July) Vol :. 2015;29:241–56.
- 48. Hosseinpoor AR, Bergen N, Mendis S, Harper S, Verdes E, Kunst A, et al. Socioeconomic inequality in the prevalence of noncommunicable diseases in low- and middle-income countries: Results from the World Health Survey. BMC Public Health. 2012;12:474–787.
- Moradi G, Mohammad K, Majdzadeh R, Ardakani HM, Naieni KH. Socioeconomic inequality of non-communicable risk factors among people living in Kurdistan province, Islamic Republic of Iran. Int J Prev Med. 2013;4:671–83.
- Bahreynian M, Kelishadi R, Qorbani M, Motlagh ME, Kasaeian A, Ardalan G, et al. Weight disorders and anthropometric indices according to socioeconomic status of living place in Iranian children and adolescents: the CASPIAN-IV study. J Res Med Sci. 2015;20(5):440–53.
- Wang Y. Cross-national comparison of childhood obesity: the epidemic and relationship between obesity and socioeconomic status. Int Epidemiol Assoc. 2001;30:1129–36.
- 52. Bahreynian M, Motlagh ME, Qorbani M, Heshmat R, Ardalan G, Kelishadi R. Prevalence of growth disorders in a nationally representative sample of Iranian adolescents according to socioeconomic status: the CASPIAN-III study. Pediatr Neonatol. 2015;56(4):242–7.
- 53. The state of the world's children. Adolescence: an age of opportunity. New York: UNICEF; 2011. p. 2011.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.