RESEARCH PAPER

Height of south Asian children in the Netherlands aged 0–20 years: secular trends and comparisons with current Asian Indian, Dutch and WHO references

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Abstract

Background: People from Asian populations are generally shorter than other ethnic groups. It is unknown if current universal height references are suitable for affluent South Asian children in the Netherlands.

Aims: To develop height-for-age charts for contemporary South Asian children aged 0–20 years living in the Netherlands, to evaluate secular trends, and to compare the charts with current Asian Indian, Dutch and WHO references.

Subjects and methods: A population-based study measured 3315 South Asian children aged 0–20 years between 2007–2010. Among this cohort, 6876 measurements were taken. Another 7388 measurements were taken of a historical cohort of 1078 children born between 1974–1976 (aged 0–18 years).

Results: An upward trend in height was observed for South Asian children living in the Netherlands between 1992–2010. The height-for-age charts of the South Asian historical cohort were similar to current Asian Indian charts. South Asian children in the Netherlands were shorter than their Dutch contemporaries at every age; and these differences increased further during adolescence. Compared to the WHO height-for-age references, there were considerable discrepancies in height, with curves intersecting twice.

Conclusion: The discrepancies between the South Asian and Dutch and WHO height-for-age references indicate differences in growth patterns between the source populations.

Introduction

Height and body weight are important indicators of a child’s physical and psychological wellbeing (World Health Organization, 1995). In optimal environmental and nutritional conditions it is assumed that children can attain their full genetic growth potential. Therefore, the assessment of growth has been widely used as a (screening) tool for detecting health problems and assessing nutritional status (World Health Organization, 1995).

The height of a child is usually evaluated by comparing his or her current height to a reference that represents the average height in the child’s population. Ideally, the reference is derived from data of a population sample in which there are no constraints due to socio-economic factors, diet, disease and/or access to health services (Frongillo & Hanson, 1995; Ulijaszek, 2006). Thus, in developing countries, the reference is usually determined from a more affluent portion of the population in which negative factors impacting growth are limited. However, in many countries such optimal references are not available for the local population.

As the distribution of height was shown to be fairly similar in most ethnic groups up to the age of 5 years, the World Health Organization (WHO) developed a universal child growth standard for children aged 0–5 years, based on data from six affluent populations of all continents. As it represents all major ethnic groups (WHO multicentre growth reference study group, 2006), it was designed as a universally applicable standard, describing “how children should grow”. As the WHO Child Growth Standard (subsequently referred to as WHO) is ethnic-independent, it assumes all ethnic groups have the same genetic potential.

A complementary height-for-age reference for school-aged children and adolescents aged between 5–19 years was added later, based on growth in a single population of US children in the late 1970s (de Onis et al., 2007). As this reference was based on a single population of Caucasian US children, it is unlikely to represent all ethnic groups. Large differences between school-aged children of affluent populations of other countries and this reference population have been reported.

Keywords

Adolescent, child, growth and development, reference values

History

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previously (Haas & Campirano, 2006). For example, Dutch children aged 7–18 years were shown to be taller at most ages, whereas Asian children were generally shorter. Moreover, at age 17 adolescents from Northern European countries were found to be considerably taller than 17 year olds in the south of Europe, despite equivalent levels of prosperity. Therefore, the WHO reference may not be suitable for all ethnic groups (van Buuren & van Wouwe, 2008).

The physical growth of South Asian children in the Netherlands is monitored with growth charts developed for Dutch children (Schonbeck et al., 2013). However, since Dutch children are the tallest in the world (Schonbeck et al., 2013) and Asian children are generally among the shortest ethnic groups (Ulijaszek, 2001), the Dutch references may not accurately reflect the height of South Asian children living in The Netherlands. Recently, in India, height-for-age charts have been developed that were based on measurements of affluent children (Khadilkar et al., 2009), but it is unknown if these charts will reflect the growth of South Asian children living in the Netherlands.

The objectives of this study were to: firstly, construct height-for-age charts for South Asian children in the Netherlands aged 0–20 years; secondly, evaluate the secular trend in height in this group and, thirdly, determine if the height of contemporary South Asian children in the Netherlands differs from Asian Indian (Khadilkar et al., 2009), Dutch (Schonbeck et al., 2013) and WHO (de Onis et al., 2007; WHO multicentre growth reference study group, 2006) reference populations.

Methods

Population

The population of South Asians in the Netherlands is estimated at 180 000 (Oudhof et al., 2011). The city of The Hague has the largest population of ~40 000, most of whom are descendants of Asian Indians who migrated to the former Dutch colony of Suriname in the 19th century. Around the time of Suriname’s independence in 1975, many South Asians migrated to the Netherlands. For this study, growth data were collected from South Asian children and adolescents living mostly in The Hague area.

Data collection

Youth Health Care services in the Netherlands periodically assess the health of all children at fixed ages (Wieske et al., 2012). Approximately 15 routine check-ups are generally performed between 0–4 years of age, with another three checks at ages 5–6, 9–10 and 13–15 years. The length or height is measured at each visit by trained physicians, nurses or physician’s assistants. Customarily, the length of children up to 1.5–2.0 years is measured only three times, up to 1.5–2.0 years is measured to the nearest 0.1 cm using a measuring board in a supine position with legs fully extended and heels touching a vertical backboard. From the age of 2 years, standing height is measured with a measuring tape (microtoise) or (portable) stadiometer to the nearest 0.1 cm.

To construct growth charts of contemporary South Asian children of 0–20 years, all available length/height data, measured between 2007–2010, were extracted from the digital Youth Health Care record system of the city of The Hague. As not all ages were represented in these records, additional measurements were taken between 2008 and 2010 from South Asian children and adolescents aged outside the range of the standard check-ups (6–8, 11–12 and 15–20 years).

Supplementary data, such as date of birth, sex, the highest level of education achieved by both parents, parental country of birth, the family name of the child and parents, date of menarche, medicine use and the presence of diagnosed growth disorders were either acquired from the digital record system or from a questionnaire (additionally measured children). In the digital health records date of menarche was not uniformly registered and, therefore, omitted. The educational level of parents was subdivided in three categories; low, middle and high (Verweij, 2008). This part of the current study will be further referred to as ‘the 2010 study’.

A second growth study, based on the growth data of a birth cohort born 1974–1976, was performed to investigate the secular trend of height. Measurements of this cohort, taken between 1974–1994, were extracted from paper Youth Health Care records alongside the supplementary data. In these records, date of menarche and parental educational level were not available. Contrary to current practice, where children from the age of 4 years are measured only three times, up until the early 1990s children aged between 4–18 years were measured every 2 years. In many records, length/height measurements were missing, as many children lived only a part of their childhood in the city and because, during most health assessments between birth and 2 years of age, only weight was measured and not length. We will refer to this part of the study as ‘the 1976 study’.

The 2010 study was approved by the Ethical Board of Leiden University Medical Centre as part of the 5th National Growth Study. Written consent was obtained from the parents of children under 16 years and verbal consent from the child as well from 12 years. For the 1976 study ethical approval was not needed, as under Dutch law the use of routinely collected medical data from health records is allowed without consent, provided that privacy is protected (Central Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects, 2012). All data were anonymized before analysis.

Inclusion and exclusion criteria

South Asian origin was determined by the country of birth of both parents (born in a South Asian country). Surinamese South Asian ethnicity was determined by two criteria: Suriname (first generation parents) or the Netherlands (second generation) as country of birth of both parents and the presence of a typical (Surinamese) South Asian family name in both parents. Parents of children who were measured additionally were asked for their ethnicity, alongside the country of birth of parents and grandparents. Only children of whom both parents were of (Surinamese) South Asian descent were included in the study.

Prematurely born children (<37 weeks of gestation) and children with a birth weight <2500 g were included, similarly to the 5th Dutch growth study of 2009 (Schonbeck et al., 2013). Children with a diagnosed growth disorder or using medicine known to affect growth were excluded.
Statistical methods

The LMS method (Cole & Green, 1992) was used to construct growth charts. This method, which transforms data into a normal distribution, is summarized by three age-dependent curves, for skewness (L), median (M) and coefficient of variation (S), which are smoothed against age using natural splines. The amount of smoothing depends on the degrees of freedom of each curve and was determined by assessing worm plots with 16 age groups (van Buuren & Fredriks, 2001).

Age was transformed with a cube root to obtain a better fit during periods of rapid growth. This transformation stretches periods of greater height velocity, for instance during infancy, and compresses periods of slower growth such as the period between the age of 4 years and the beginning of puberty. After an optimal fit was established, the distribution was scaled back to the original age.

To enable the height distributions of the 2010 study to be compared with other references, all height data from the 2010 study were converted into z-scores using recent Asian Indian (Khadilkar et al., 2009), Dutch (Schonbeck et al., 2013) and WHO (de Onis et al., 2007; WHO multicentre growth references) references, as well as the references created in the 1976 study. Z-scores indicate the measurement’s deviation from the mean in the reference population. To determine if the mean z-scores per age differed significantly from the mean of the specific reference, indicated by a value of 0 SD, ‘‘estimated marginal means’’ and 95% confidence intervals were calculated using a linear mixed-effects model. This model takes the correlation between repeated measurements on each subject into account as well as unbalanced designs, for example in studies with unequal numbers of repeated measurements between subjects. The estimated marginal means are calculated from the fitted model and adjusted for any of the other variables defined in the model. For the current study, z-score was the dependent variable and age category and parental educational level were independent variables.

The height reference values (LMS parameters) were calculated with R statistical software v3.0.2 and the GAMLSS package v4.2-6 (Stasinopoulos & Rigby, 2007), whereas the other data analyses were performed with IBM SPSS Statistics 20.

Results

2010 Growth charts

The 2010 study included 1644 boys and 1671 girls with 4520 length/height measurements at ages 0–4 years and 2356 at ages 5–20 years. Most children (99%) were of Surinamese South Asian ethnicity. The remainder were of Indian, Pakistani or Sri Lankan descent. Of the measurements 18.9%, 51.5% and 29.6% were of children with low, middle and high educated parents, respectively.

The height data were normally distributed. Therefore, $L$, the measure of skewness, had a fixed value of 1 at every age. After an optimal fit of the curve was established, the mean ($M$) and Standard Deviation (SD) were calculated (Table 1). In boys, the final height was reached at age 20 years (Table 1); in girls at 16.5 years of age. The mean age of menarche, based on the reported date of menarche, was 11.4 years ($n = 381$; SD = 1.3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
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<td>0.0417</td>
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Secular trend in height

In the 1976 study 551 boys and 527 girls were included with 3781 measurements of length/height at ages 0–4 years and 3596 at ages 5–18 years. Similar to the 2010 study the values of height were normally distributed. Table 1 shows the determined mean and SD values for height. Secular trends by age and sex were evaluated by comparing the mean values of the 2010 study with the values determined in the 1976 study, finding that in the first month after birth boys of the 2010 study were, on average, 1.1 cm and girls 0.8 cm shorter than the 1976 cohort (Table 1). This difference gradually decreased during infancy. From the first birthday, the height of both sexes in the 2010 study trended upward compared with the 1976 study until the age of 18. A maximum positive height difference of 4.2 cm was reached at age 11.5 years in boys and at 9.0 years in girls. At 18 years of age, boys of the 2010 study were 2.3 cm taller and girls were 1.3 cm taller.

Comparison with Asian Indian, Dutch and WHO references

The height-for-age charts of South Asian children in the Netherlands and of affluent children in India were very similar (Figure 1). The Asian Indian reference and the
reference of the historical cohort even coincided at most ages. Children of the 2010 study were significantly taller at ages 2–18 years \((p < 0.001)\). The mean \(z\)-score based on the Asian Indian reference was 0.5 (SD = 0.9) both in boys and girls (Figure 2).

Compared with Dutch children, contemporary South Asian children in the Netherlands were shorter at every age between birth and 20 years of age (all \(p\)-values \(< 0.001\)). Four weeks after birth the mean \(z\)-score was \(-0.8\) in boys and \(-1.0\) SD in girls. However, these \(z\)-scores quickly rose in the first months to \(-0.5\) in boys and \(-0.6\) in girls, after which the values remained fairly stable up until the age of 12 years in boys and 10 years in girls. From that age, the difference in height between South Asian and Dutch children grew. At 20 years of age, the South Asian boys studied were 10.1 cm shorter and girls 11.1 cm shorter than their Dutch counterparts.

When applying the WHO reference to South Asian children of the 2010 study, a different growth pattern was found (Figure 2). Similar to the Dutch reference, in the first month after birth the mean \(z\)-scores were low, \(-1.1\) in boys and \(-1.0\) in girls, values that rapidly decreased up to the age of 6 months. However, the mean \(z\)-scores became significantly greater than 0 between the age of 5–14 years in South Asian boys, with a maximum positive difference of 0.6 SD \((p < 0.001)\) at 9 years of age and in South Asian girls between 5–12 years, with the largest difference of 0.4 \((p = 0.004)\) at 7 years of age. This indicates that South Asian children in the Netherlands were taller at these ages than the WHO population (US children). Mean height \(z\)-scores became again significantly smaller than 0 from the age of 16 years in boys \((p < 0.001)\) and from the age of 14 in girls \((p < 0.001)\).

**Discussion**

With the two separate South Asian specific height-for-age references created in this study, an upward trend in height over the studied period was shown at most ages, except during infancy. In 2010, the final height at 18 years of age was 2.3 cm taller in boys and 1.3 cm in girls than in the 1976 cohort.

While the height-for-age reference charts of the 1976 study coincided to a large extent with current Asian Indian height-for-age charts, the average height of contemporary South Asian children in the Netherlands of the 2010 study was significantly greater at every age than in the population of affluent Asian Indian children upon which the Asian Indian reference was based. Furthermore, we found that South Asian children were shorter at every age than Dutch children, with the largest differences observed during infancy and adolescence. Compared with the WHO reference populations, even larger discrepancies in growth patterns over the whole age range were observed.

**Strengths and limitations**

A major strength of this study is that it is the first study in which South Asian-specific height-for-age charts were developed based on heights of affluent South Asian children living in a developed country. Other strengths are the relatively large sample sizes, the presence of historical data.
and the availability of important selection criteria, such as demographic data and information on medicine use and diseases/disorders that could have affected growth.

Although the numbers of children were not evenly distributed (larger numbers under the age of 4 years and between 9–16 years), so as to establish a good fit of the curves at the age periods of increased growth, the samples were generally large enough to determine statistically significant differences over the whole age range for most references used. However, statistical power was likely not large enough in certain age bands to determine if \(z\)-scores differed significantly from a value of 0, especially at the ages with \(z\)-scores near the 0 SD-line (WHO reference). Therefore, the exact ages at which the mean height of South Asian children deflects from the WHO reference (population) could not be precisely pinpointed. Nevertheless, the discrepancies in growth pattern between the South Asian and WHO population remain clear.

Another limitation of this study may be the generalizability of the results. It is currently unknown if South Asian children in the Netherlands differ genetically from South Asian populations in other countries, as mixed marriages with other ethnic groups may have occurred in Suriname or the Netherlands. Nonetheless, as most South Asians originating from Suriname have been shown to predominantly marry within their own ethnic group (Mungra, 1990; Oudhof & Harmsen, 2011), differences are likely to be minimal. In addition, as the growth charts of South Asian children in the Netherlands were almost identical to growth charts of contemporary Asian Indian children, a large concordance in growth is expected. However, further research is needed to verify that the growth charts created in this study are suitable for monitoring height in other populations originating from the Indian sub-continent.

**Differences in height between populations: Environment or genes?**

Similar to the South Asian population in the Netherlands, also in the largest minority populations, the height of Turkish and Moroccan children is still increasing (Schonbeck & van Buuren, 2010). This secular increase in height of Turkish and Moroccan children is likely the result of improvements in socio-economic factors, as Turkish and Moroccan adults in the Netherlands move from a generally low level of education toward a higher education (Dagevos & Gijsberts, 2007). Compared with Turkish and Moroccan children, the adult height of South Asian children is on average 3 cm shorter. However, this difference is unlikely to be explained by differences in socioeconomic factors as the educational level of South Asian adults, used as proxy for socio-economic status, was already similar in the 1970s to that of Dutch adults (Ganjeboom & Sno, 2012). Also in the present study the level of parental education was highly comparable (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2012).

Nevertheless, although socioeconomic circumstances in the Netherlands generally improved between 1974–2006 (Boelhouwer, 2010), the secular trend of increasing height
in children of Dutch origin was recently shown to have halted (Schonbeck et al., 2013). Additionally, in South Asian children of the current study the increase in final height since 1974 was relatively small, especially when compared with the secular trend found in Turkish and Moroccan children whose final heights increased by 2–3 cm in a time frame of only 13 years (Schonbeck & van Buuren, 2010). Also in India the upward trend in height of affluent children was relatively small in 2007 compared with height in a similar group measured in 1989 (Khadilkar et al., 2009).

Considering that the socioeconomic status of Dutch and South Asian populations in the Netherlands has been similar at least since the 1970s, environmental factors known to influence growth, such as disease, nutrition, physical environment and access to (child) healthcare (Frongillo & Hanson, 1995), are less likely to have played a role in the observed height differences. On the other hand, cultural differences between the Dutch and South Asians may affect nutrition, (health) behaviour and the social and physical environment, but the influence of such factors on growth are probably smaller than socioeconomic factors.

The similarity in growth trajectories of South Asian children in the Netherlands and children in India suggests that genetic factors may be more important than environmental factors in explaining differences in height between ethnic groups in the Netherlands. In general, the heritability of height has been estimated to be very high at 0.8–0.9, indicating that 80–90% of the variation in height between people may be explained by genetic differences (Perola et al., 2007; Silventoinen et al., 2003; Visscher et al., 2006). Also, the onset of pubertal development was shown to be controlled by genes to a large extent (Choi & Yoo, 2013). In the present study no clinical assessment of sexual maturation (Tanner staging) was performed to allow pubertal development to be taken into account. However, menarcheal age indicating completion of female puberty was available, which showed a 1.7 years earlier menarche (at 11.4 years) of South Asian girls compared with Dutch girls (Talma et al., 2013). As earlier menarche is associated with shorter adult stature (McIntyre & Kacerosky, 2011) this may explain the large difference in final height between South Asian and Dutch children. A similar mean menarcheal age was found in urban Asian Indian girls (11.4 years) (Ray et al., 2010) and in adopted Asian Indian girls in Sweden (11.6 years) (Proos, 2009).

Are universal height-for-age references suitable for South Asian children?

Because most Asian sub-populations generally have an earlier onset of pubertal development than most other ethnic groups and, consequently, a pubertal growth spurt at a younger age, doubts were raised about the suitability of a single universal reference for the assessment of pubertal growth in Asian adolescents (Ulijaszek, 2001). As the WHO reference 5–19 years was based on the heights of US children (de Onis et al., 2007), the difference in growth pattern between the South Asian and this US population likely reflects maturational differences between South Asian children and children of European descent. On the other hand, the WHO growth standard for ages 0–5 years, based on growth in six populations of all continents, did not adequately correspond to the growth of South Asian children of 0–5 years as well. To some extent, the large difference in length at 4 weeks after birth may be the result of a difference in the inclusion criteria of the studies. Contrary to our study, WHO only included full-term and exclusively breast-fed babies. However, this is unlikely to entirely explain the discrepancy. A US study found that also term babies (>37 weeks of gestation) of Asian Indian descent were 0.8–1.1 cm shorter at birth than babies of European descent (Madan et al., 2002), which corresponds to a difference of 0.4–0.6 SD with the WHO reference. Nonetheless, the slightly shorter length of infants of the 2010 study compared with the 1976 study may be due to a 2-times higher prevalence of preterm birth, which was shown in a previous study (De Wilde et al., 2013).

Conclusion

In conclusion, an upward trend in height of South Asian children in the Netherlands was found at most ages. Also, South Asian children in the Netherlands are currently taller than contemporary affluent Asian Indian children. Compared with other minority groups in the Netherlands, South Asian children are shorter, despite a higher socio-economic status. WHO height-for-age references, both for ages 0–5 and 5–19 years, do not properly reflect the growth (pattern) of South Asian children and adolescents, which makes it more difficult to assess growth with these references. As the observed growth patterns of South Asian children living in the Netherlands and children living in India were similar, the South Asian-specific height-for-age charts from our study may be more appropriate for monitoring growth of children originating from the Indian sub-continent than the WHO references, although further research is needed to confirm its suitability.

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Declaration of interest

The authors report no conflicts of interest. The authors alone are responsible for the content and writing of the paper.

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