

1 **Changing sex differences in under-nutrition of African children:**  
2 **Findings from Demographic and Health Surveys**

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30 Running head: Sex differences in undernutrition in Africa

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50

51 **Abstract**

52 The study investigates sex differences in the prevalence of under-nutrition in sub-Saharan  
53 Africa. Under-nutrition was defined by Z-scores using the CDC-2000 growth charts. Some  
54 128 Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) were analysed, totalling 700,114 children  
55 under-five. Results reveal a higher susceptibility of boys to under-nutrition. Male to female  
56 ratios of prevalence averaged 1.18 for stunting (height-for-age Z-score  $< -2.0$ ); 1.01 for  
57 wasting (weight-for-height Z-score  $< -2.0$ ); 1.05 for under-weight (weight-for-age Z-score  $<$   
58  $-2.0$ ); and 1.29 for concurrent wasting and stunting (weight-for-height and height-for-age Z-  
59 scores  $< -2.0$ ). Sex-ratios of prevalence varied with age for stunting and concurrent wasting  
60 and stunting, with higher values for children age 0-23 months and lower values for children  
61 age 24-59 months. Sex-ratios of prevalence tended to increase with declining level of  
62 mortality for stunting, under-weight and concurrent wasting and stunting, but remained stable  
63 for wasting. Comparisons were made with other anthropometric reference sets (NCHS-1977  
64 and WHO-2006), and results were found to differ somewhat from those obtained with CDC-  
65 2000. Possible rationales for these patterns are discussed.

66

67 Keywords: Undernutrition; Sex differences; Sub-Saharan Africa.

68

## 69 **Introduction**

70           Sex differences in health status are complex and evolve with the health transition, i.e.  
71 with declining mortality. For instance, in France women tend to live longer than men, and the  
72 difference between female and male life expectancy increased from +1.5 years in 1820-1849  
73 to +8.2 years in 1980-1989, to decline in recent years to +6.0 years in 2015-2019 [INSEE  
74 2020]. Sex differences in mortality differ by age and by causes of death, and these differences  
75 evolve with the health transition [Stolnitz 1956; Preston 1976]. These observations also apply  
76 to morbidity and mortality of children under-five (age 0-59 months): sex differences in  
77 mortality vary with age, with level of mortality in the population, and with pathology or  
78 causes of death [Preston 1976; Garenne 2003; Garenne & Lafon 1998]. The excess male  
79 mortality in the neonatal and post-neonatal period is universal, in both developed and  
80 developing countries, and is usually more pronounced than excess male mortality at age 1-4  
81 years [Preston 1976; Garenne 2003; Wells 2000]. Sex differences in under-five mortality  
82 remain small compared with socio-economic differentials. In model life tables for developing  
83 countries, the sex-ratio of under-five death rates averaged 1.08 at moderate level of mortality  
84 (122 per 1000 for males, 113 per 1000 for females) [United Nations 1982]. In African  
85 Demographic and Health Surveys (DHS) surveys, the sex-ratio of under-five mortality  
86 averaged 1.11 (136 per 1000 for males, 122 per 1000 for females) [DHS 2020].

87           Sex differences are also found in undernutrition of children in Low- and Middle  
88 Income countries, which could be expected because there is a positive correlation between  
89 prevalence of undernutrition and child mortality at country level, and because undernutrition  
90 is a risk factor for child mortality at the individual level [Pelletier 1994; Garenne et al. 2000,  
91 2006, 2018]. Most studies conducted in developing countries show a higher prevalence of  
92 undernutrition among boys than among girls, especially for stunting, with the exception of the  
93 Indian subcontinent [Wamani et al. 2007; Schoenbuchner et al. 2019]. In a recent meta-  
94 analysis of studies of children under-five across the world, stunting was more prevalent  
95 among boys in 32/38 studies (84%), wasting in 17/20 studies (85%), and underweight in  
96 18/23 studies (78%) [Thurstans et al. 2020]. In published data from African DHS surveys, the  
97 prevalence of undernutrition was almost always higher for boys than for girls: 134/137  
98 surveys for stunting, 115/136 surveys for wasting, and 119/136 surveys for underweight  
99 [DHS 2020].

100 The aim of this paper was to analyse the evidence of sex differences in undernutrition  
101 of children in sub-Saharan Africa. Undernutrition was defined by anthropometric deficits in  
102 weight, height or both, as commonly done in population based surveys (other definitions of  
103 undernutrition are used in clinical studies). This continent hosts populations with higher levels  
104 of undernutrition and higher levels of child mortality, although with major improvements in  
105 the past 50 years. This study focuses on different manifestations of undernutrition (wasting,  
106 stunting, underweight), on age patterns, and on relationships with levels of mortality. An  
107 earlier analysis of a smaller data set found only small sex differences in the proportion of  
108 children underweight [Garenne 2003]. The present article builds on previous work by  
109 considering the effect of declining under-five mortality, and by addressing the possibility of  
110 concurrent stunting and wasting, a dual deficit largely ignored until recently [Khara et al.  
111 2018; Myatt et al. 2018].

## 112 **Data and Methods**

113 This study is based on all DHS surveys conducted in sub-Saharan Africa with  
114 information on child anthropometry available in early 2020, covering the period 1986-2017.  
115 The DHS surveys are based on large, representative, stratified samples of national  
116 populations. Anthropometric assessment of under-five children is done by well-trained  
117 fieldworkers and with state of the art equipment. All details of the survey methods can be  
118 found in the country reports. All calculations were done by using the sampling weights  
119 provided by the DHS program. Individual data were retrieved from the DHS web site, and  
120 pooled together. This sample included 128 surveys from 36 countries, and 700,114 children  
121 under-five, a very large sample allowing for multiple comparisons. The sample covered a  
122 wide variety of situations in terms of prevalence of undernutrition. According to DHS  
123 publications, based on the WHO/MGRS-2006 standard, the range of prevalence of  
124 undernutrition was wide in Africa: from 16.5% to 60.4% for stunting; from 1.6% to 26.9% for  
125 wasting; and from 5.4% to 44.2% for underweight [DHS 2020]. The sex-ratios of prevalence  
126 of undernutrition (ratio of male to female prevalence) were always higher than 1 or equal to 1  
127 across surveys. The sex-ratio of prevalence averaged 1.13 for stunting, 1.17 for wasting, and  
128 1.15 for underweight, showing overall a higher susceptibility of boys. In the same sample,  
129 there was also a wide range of under-five mortality levels, ranging from 50 to 318 deaths per

130 1000 in the five years preceding the survey. The sex-ratio of under-five mortality was of  
131 similar magnitude, and on average equal to 1.13 [DHS 2020].

132 The method of analysis for this study was a straightforward statistical analysis of the  
133 prevalence of undernutrition by sex among children under-five. This study utilized classic  
134 definitions of undernutrition, according to Waterlow's classification [Waterlow 1972;  
135 Waterlow et al. 1977]: 'Wasting' as weight-for-height Z-score:  $WHZ < -2.0$ ; 'Stunting' as  
136 height-for-age Z-score:  $HAZ < -2.0$ ; 'Underweight' as weight-for-age Z-score:  $WAZ < -2.0$ ;  
137 'Concurrent wasting and stunting' as  $WHZ \& HAZ < -2.0$ . The anthropometric norms utilized  
138 for this study was the CDC-2000 growth charts [CDC 2000; Kuczmarski et al. 2000, 2002;  
139 Ogden et al. 2002]. This reference set was selected because it was found to be more consistent  
140 in defining wasting and stunting than other reference sets, as will be seen in this study. Also,  
141 the difference between boys and girls anthropometry (weight and height) was more  
142 pronounced (average difference of 0.550 kg for weight and 1.41 cm for height), and was  
143 stable with age between 12 and 59 months, as it is the case in real life. The DHS surveys use  
144 other reference sets, in particular the DHS/NCHS-1976 reference set and the WHO/MGRS-  
145 2006 standard [Hamill, et al. 1979; WHO 2006]. These other reference sets were used for  
146 comparisons, as they produce different sex differences. Sex differences in the prevalence of  
147 undernutrition were computed as the ratio of prevalence of malnutrition for males to that for  
148 females (labelled 'sex-ratio of prevalence'). They were analysed as a function of the level of  
149 mortality, measured by the under-five mortality rate, labelled 'q(5)', and by 6-months age  
150 groups. The level of mortality was that published in DHS final reports and refers to the 5-  
151 years before survey, which reflects the mortality situation of cohorts aged 0-4 years at the  
152 time of the anthropometric assessment. Statistical testing of differences in sex-ratios was done  
153 using classic statistical tests for risk-ratios. The relationship of sex-differences with level of  
154 mortality was tested with a linear-logistic regression model.

## 155 **Results**

156 The sample included a total of 700,114 children under five years from 128 surveys of  
157 36 African countries. All surveys are based on representative samples of national populations  
158 at various points in time, ranging from 1986 to 2017. Selected countries had an average of 3.5  
159 surveys, ranging from 1 to 9, the highest being Senegal who is conducting "continuous DHS  
160 surveys" every year since 2013. Survey results were consistent and showed an excess male

161 susceptibility to stunting and concurrent wasting and stunting (sex-ratio of prevalence > 1),  
162 and hardly any significant difference in wasting prevalence between boys and girls (Table 1).

163 < Table 1 about here >

## 164 **1) Sex differences by type of undernutrition**

165 For the sample as a whole, boys were more susceptible to undernutrition than girls.  
166 The sex-ratio of prevalence (male / female) of stunting was 1.182 (95% CI= 1.172-1.192,  
167  $P < 10^{-6}$ ), that of wasting was 1.012 (95% CI= 1.001-1.025,  $P = 0.041$ ), that of underweight was  
168 1.050 (95% CI= 1.041-1.059,  $P < 10^{-6}$ ), and that of concurrent wasting and stunting was 1.286  
169 (95% CI= 1.258-1.316,  $P < 10^{-6}$ ). Seen in a broad perspective, differences between boys and  
170 girls were rather small, hardly significant for wasting (+1%), very small for underweight  
171 (+5%), small for stunting (+18%) and moderate for concurrent wasting and stunting (+29%).  
172 When studied by survey, results were quite homogeneous: stunting was always more  
173 prevalent among boys (128 surveys), and the sex-ratio was significantly higher than 1.0 in  
174 105 surveys; the sex-ratio of wasting was higher than 1.0 in 60 surveys, lower than 1.0 in the  
175 other 68 surveys, but significantly different from 1.0 in only two surveys which could be  
176 attributed to random fluctuations; the sex-ratio of underweight was higher than 1.0 in 94  
177 surveys, lower than 1.0 in 34 surveys, significantly higher than 1.0 in 23 surveys, and never  
178 significantly lower than 1.0; the sex-ratio of concurrent wasting and stunting was higher than  
179 1.0 in 112 surveys, lower than 1.0 in 12 surveys, significantly higher than 1.0 in 52 surveys,  
180 and never significantly lower than 1.0. When analysed by country, the sex-ratio was always  
181 higher than 1.0 for stunting, underweight and concurrent wasting and stunting; for wasting it  
182 was higher than 1.0 in 18 countries and lower than 1.0 in 18 countries, none of these  
183 differences being statistically significant (Table 2).

184 < Table 2 about here >

## 185 **2) Age pattern**

186 As found in all studies, prevalence of undernutrition varies with age, and this also  
187 applies to sex-differences. The sex-ratio of prevalence tended to decline with age in three out  
188 of four types of undernutrition. For stunting it declined from 1.320 at age 0-5 months to 1.167  
189 at age 36-59 months; for wasting there was no significant change; for underweight the sex-

190 ratio of prevalence declined from 1.190 to 1.091; and the largest decline was found for  
191 concurrent wasting and stunting, ranging from 1.669 at age 0-5 months to 1.120 at age 36-59  
192 months (Table 2). When plotted by 6-months age groups, the patterns were found to be quite  
193 regular and stable. The most striking pattern was that of concurrent wasting and stunting, the  
194 sex-ratio of which declined markedly from 0-5 months to 24-29 months, then stabilized at  
195 lower levels. The decline in the sex-ratio of stunting with age was also noticeable, and  
196 followed a similar pattern stabilizing at older ages. In comparison, differences in sex-ratios of  
197 wasting and underweight by age were small (Figure 1).

198 < Figure 1 about here >

### 199 **3) Relationship with level of mortality**

200 As is the case for the sex-ratio of under-five mortality, the sex-ratio of undernutrition  
201 prevalence tended to increase when the mortality level was declining, revealing an increasing  
202 advantage for girls when the health situation improved. The sex-ratio for stunting increased  
203 from 1.156 to 1.208 when the mortality level went from high values ( $q(5) > 150$  per 1000) to  
204 low values ( $q(5) < 100$  per 1000). Likewise, the sex-ratio for concurrent wasting and stunting  
205 increased from 1.266 to 1.324, that of underweight from 1.040 to 1.054, and that of wasting  
206 from 0.989 to 1.051. A linear regression on the sex-ratio was run on the level of under-five  
207 mortality. In three cases (stunting, underweight, concurrent wasting and stunting) trends were  
208 statistically significant at  $P < 0.001$ , while there was no significant difference for wasting. The  
209 magnitude of changes in the sex-ratios of prevalence from high levels of mortality (300 per  
210 1000) to low levels (50 per 1000) were striking: +10.5% for concurrent wasting and stunting  
211 (from 1.193 to 1.318), +10.5% for stunting (from 1.114 to 1.231); +4.6% for underweight  
212 (from 1.012 to 1.059), but none for wasting, which averaged 1.0 (Table 3).

213 < Table 3 about here >

### 214 **4) Effect of the anthropometric reference set**

215 Comparison of sex differences in prevalence of undernutrition between the three  
216 anthropometric reference sets could be done on a sub-sample of 340,552 children available in  
217 the DHS files with both NCHS-1977 and WHO-2006, about half of the original sample.  
218 Firstly, there were large differences in prevalence of undernutrition according to the reference



219 set, a difference widely noticed earlier [Eckhardt & Adair 2002; De Onis et al. 2007]. In the  
220 sub-sample, the prevalence of stunting for both sexes ranged from 26.1% with CDC-2000,  
221 29.5% with NCHS-1977, and 34.5% with WHO-2006. The prevalence of wasting ranged  
222 from 15.3% with CDC-2000, 7.7% with NCHS-1977, and 8.6% with WHO-2006. The  
223 prevalence of underweight ranged from 27.9% with CDC-2000, 23.2% with NCHS-1977, and  
224 18.8% with WHO-2006. Lastly, the prevalence of concurrent wasting and stunting ranged  
225 from 3.8% with CDC-2000, 2.1% with NCHS-1977, and 2.7% with WHO-2006. In brief, the  
226 WHO-2006 standard expected the children to be taller and lighter than CDC-2000 (Table 4).

227 The sex-ratios of prevalence of undernutrition were also affected by the reference set.  
228 The sex-ratio of stunting prevalence was 1.208 with CDC-2000, 1.096 with NCHS-1977 and  
229 1.155 with WHO-2006. The sex-ratio of wasting prevalence was 1.000 with CDC-2000, 1.152  
230 with NCHS-1977 and 1.211 with WHO-2006. The sex-ratio of underweight prevalence was  
231 1.050 with CDC-2000, 1.061 with NCHS-1977 and 1.163 with WHO-2006. Lastly, the sex-  
232 ratio of concurrent wasting and stunting prevalence was 1.308 with CDC-2000, 1.428 with  
233 NCHS-1977 and 1.652 with WHO-2006. Therefore, the appreciation of sex differences in  
234 undernutrition was seriously affected by the choice of the reference set. In particular, using  
235 WHO-2006 indicated that boys were more susceptible to wasting than girls, while using  
236 CDC-2000 showed no difference in wasting between boys and girls. (Table 4)

237 < Table 4 about here >

## 238 **Discussion**

239 This study from Africa confirmed the higher susceptibility of boys to undernutrition.  
240 Results from this study, based on representative samples of African child populations, were  
241 consistent with those of a recent meta-analysis of smaller surveys all over the world: similar  
242 values of the sex-ratios and similar differences between stunting and wasting [Thurstans et al.  
243 2020]. In particular, in this large sample, there was no evidence of higher prevalence of  
244 undernutrition among girls. When it occurred in a particular country or in a survey, such  
245 difference could be explained by random fluctuations [Garenne 2003].

246 Altogether, sex differences in prevalence of undernutrition appeared small compared  
247 with other differentials, such as socio-economic differentials. In the sample of African DHS,  
248 the differentials in underweight prevalence between lowest and highest wealth quintile

249 averaged 2.8 fold, and occasionally exceeded 4.0 fold (9% of surveys), that is 20 to 40 times  
250 larger than sex differences [DHS 2020].

251 Sex differences varied by type of malnutrition, and this was found whatever the  
252 reference set used. The largest differentials were found in concurrent wasting and stunting,  
253 followed by differentials in stunting. Sex differences in concurrent wasting and stunting were  
254 more than the sum of sex differences in each component, revealing complex layers of  
255 vulnerabilities. The age pattern of stunting and concurrent wasting and stunting, with greatest  
256 sex differences found in the early ages, suggests that these conditions could originate, at least  
257 in part, in intra-uterine growth restriction. As such, they could be related with prematurity or  
258 other intra-uterine pathology, which could be risk factors for stunting later in life, and more  
259 severe for boys than for girls.

260 The pattern observed for wasting shows hardly any difference between boys and girls,  
261 except in the 6-17 months age group where prevalence of wasting is highest. Furthermore, the  
262 sex-difference in wasting prevalence did not change with declining level of mortality. This  
263 could be due to similar metabolic responses to nutrition and infection stress between boys and  
264 girls. Being underweight is due to stunting, wasting or a combination of both, so that sex  
265 differences in underweight fall in between those of the underlying conditions.

266 The overall prevalence of undernutrition declined in tandem with decreasing mortality  
267 in the population, but the sex differences of undernutrition increased with declining mortality,  
268 as has been observed for sex differences in mortality. This latter fact was also noted in  
269 Europe. For instance in Sweden, the sex differences in under-five mortality increased from  
270 7.3% in the 1750's to 32.1% in the 1960's when under-five mortality declined from 327 to 17  
271 per 1000 over the same period of time. Similar trends in sex differences in under-five  
272 mortality were observed in France from the 1810's (8.4%) to the 1980's (31.8%), as well as in  
273 England & Wales from the 1840's (11.9%) to the 1970's (28.5%) [Human Mortality Database  
274 2020]. This shows that girls tend to benefit more than boys from health improvements, at least  
275 to a certain point (trends in sex differences in under-five mortality were reversed after 1980 in  
276 England & Wales, France and Sweden).

277 Sex differences in the prevalence of undernutrition appear complex: they differ with  
278 the type of undernutrition, with age, and with level of mortality. Theories could be proposed  
279 to explain these patterns, separately for stunting and wasting. They refer to differences  
280 between boys and girls in energy requirements, body composition, susceptibility to infectious

281 diseases, hormonal systems, and intra-uterine development. Stunting is seen here as an  
282 adaptation to difficult situations, where the body tries to maintain the balance between weight  
283 and height by reserving ponderal growth whilst limiting linear growth. Wasting is seen here as  
284 a response to stress, due to infectious diseases, food deficit or both.

285         With respect to nutritional status, boys and girls differ first in weight. In the sample of  
286 African DHS surveys, the average weight difference between boys and girls was 411 g, with  
287 only minor variations with age (475 g at 6-17 months, 414 g at 18-35 month, 360 g at 36-59  
288 months). Therefore boys require more energy for maintenance and for growth, since there is  
289 no difference in energy requirements between boys and girls when controlling for weight  
290 [Butte et al. 2000]. As a result, in food scarce situations, and assuming no sex difference in  
291 food allocation, boys seem more likely to become malnourished. Secondly, boys and girls  
292 differ in body composition: boys have more muscle (bigger lean mass) and girls have more  
293 fat. Muscle has a lower energy content than fat, and has a higher cost of maintenance. In  
294 contrast, fat is easier to break down and to be converted for other metabolic purposes. This  
295 could explain why girls resist better food shortage (as shown also in famine situations), and  
296 therefore sex differences in wasting. This difference could also contribute to smaller sex  
297 differences in mortality in high mortality situations, because low muscle mass (as measured  
298 by arm circumference) is a major risk factor for child survival [Garenne et al. 2006; Briend et  
299 al. 1989].

300         With respect to infectious diseases, the argument refers to the ‘synergistic effect of  
301 malnutrition and infection’, a concept introduced by Nevin Scrimshaw and colleagues some  
302 50 years ago [Scrimshaw et al. 1968; Scrimshaw & San-Giovanni 1997; Scrimshaw 2003].  
303 At the individual level, the more infected is a child, the more malnourished the child is likely  
304 to become, and the higher the risk of death; and conversely, the more malnourished a child is,  
305 the higher the susceptibility to infection and the risk of death. Since boys and girls appear to  
306 differ in their susceptibility to infectious diseases [Garenne & Lafon 1998], one could expect  
307 differences in undernutrition, differences in age pattern, as well as changing differentials with  
308 progress in the health transition. In particular, in high mortality populations, diseases known  
309 to be more deleterious to girls (measles, whooping cough, tuberculosis, streptococcal  
310 infections, etc.) are important causes of morbidity, undernutrition and mortality [Garenne &  
311 Lafon 1998]. They tend to disappear with improving disease control, providing a comparative  
312 advantage to girls.

313 Boys and girls also differ in endocrinal systems. Linear growth, determining stunting,  
314 is largely determined by hormonal dynamics, which are modulated by food intake, infectious  
315 diseases, and interferences with the immune system, in particular inflammation [Briend et al.  
316 2015; DeBoer et al. 2017; Millward 2017; Morgan et al. 2011]. As a consequence linear  
317 growth may differ between boys and girls, and the balance is likely to change with the control  
318 of infectious and parasitic diseases. Although the precise mechanisms remain poorly  
319 documented, one could at least hypothesize that differences in hormonal systems could  
320 contribute to the sex differences in stunting described here.

321 Lastly, intrauterine life seems to also play a role. Many studies have shown how intra-  
322 uterine development shapes the health of young children, with a strong influence until at least  
323 age 24 months [Eriksson et al. 2010; Alur 2019]. Male and female foetuses differ in intra-  
324 uterine growth from the first weeks of the pregnancy, and they respond differently to the same  
325 intrauterine environment [Alur 2019]. Levels of growth hormones (Leptin; Insulin-like  
326 Growth Factor-1, or IGF-1; IGF binding protein-3, or IGFBP-3) are higher in females than in  
327 males [Alur 2019]. The male foetus was shown to be at greater risk for a variety of conditions  
328 originating in the intra-uterine period, and in particular for prematurity and intra-uterine  
329 growth retardation [Wells 2000; Kraemer 2000]. These differences could explain the high  
330 sex-ratios observed for stunting and concurrent wasting and stunting in early life.

331 The influence of the anthropometric reference set for assessing sex differences was an  
332 unexpected finding of this study. Although the main pattern remained, in particular the  
333 universal higher susceptibility of boys to undernutrition, different reference sets could lead to  
334 different conclusions, notably concerning wasting. The CDC-2000 growth charts are based on  
335 a sample of the American population, a heterogeneous population in terms of ethnic  
336 composition and socio-economic status. In contrast, the WHO/MGRS-2006 sample is more  
337 selective: even if it included children from various countries, it selected very healthy and  
338 exclusively breastfed children, and tended to exclude many outstanding cases. In a sense, the  
339 CDC-2000 growth charts represent more of an average heterogeneous population in a  
340 developed country with low mortality, while the WHO/MGRS-2006 standards represent more  
341 of an 'ideal type' population in favoured socio-economic conditions in various parts of the  
342 world. In addition, exclusive breastfeeding tends to promote linear growth, and to produce  
343 taller and thinner children [Martin et al. 2002]. What the best reference set is to be used for  
344 comparisons of such nature remains a matter of debate. In the Niakhar, Senegal study, both  
345 reference sets were used to screen for children at risk of death, and in this case CDC-2000

346 performed slightly better than WHO/MGRS-2006 in terms of sensitivity and specificity.  
347 Another positive feature of CDC-2000 is that the prevalence of stunting and underweight are  
348 usually consistent, while they differ widely with WHO-2006. In fact, when children have a  
349 low height-for-age, one expects them to also have a low weight-for-age, unless they are  
350 overweight. For instance, in the sub-sample used for the comparison, WHO/MGRS-2006  
351 gave a prevalence of stunting of 34.5% and a prevalence of underweight of only 18.8%,  
352 which is hard to reconcile, while CDC-2000 gave more consistent values (26.1% and 27.9%  
353 respectively).

354 In conclusion, sex differences in undernutrition are small in Africa (as elsewhere in the  
355 world), and they are not fixed: they vary with age, and with level of mortality. Boys appear to  
356 have a higher susceptibility to undernutrition which is driven by a range of complex factors  
357 evolving over time. In particular, girls seem to benefit more from the health transition than  
358 boys, as is the case for general mortality. However, recent trends in Europe show a reversal,  
359 with smaller sex differences in under-five mortality and in life expectancy. Whether or not sex  
360 differences in Africa will also follow this pattern remains to be determined.

361

## 362 **Ethical Statement**

363 This research was conducted in accord with prevailing ethical principles. Data used for the  
364 study are publicly available in open access.

365

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370

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372

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490

491 Table 1: List of African countries with the sex-ratio of undernutrition prevalence

Country	Nb of surveys	Nb of children	Sex-ratio of prevalence (M/F)			
			Stunting	Wasting	Under-weight	Wasting+ Stunting
Angola	1	7692	1.199	1.142	1.037	1.657
Benin	4	33594	1.166	1.076	1.171	1.428
Burkina Faso	4	24236	1.178	0.998	1.040	1.276
Burundi	3	11957	1.194	0.985	1.016	1.318
Cameroon	4	21411	1.192	1.052	1.004	1.392
Central African Rep.	1	2346	1.160	0.977	1.090	1.046
Chad	3	21233	1.121	1.025	1.049	1.209
Comoros	2	3848	1.158	0.956	1.063	0.949
Congo, Dem. Rep.	2	12978	1.196	1.143	1.106	1.500
Congo, Rep.	2	8983	1.284	0.945	1.070	1.690
Cote d'Ivoire	3	8838	1.178	1.076	1.043	1.418
Ethiopia	4	33869	1.126	1.038	1.034	1.256
Gabon	2	7750	1.238	0.975	1.035	1.364
Gambia	1	3630	1.169	1.008	1.030	1.396
Ghana	6	15587	1.257	0.890	1.013	1.150
Guinea	3	10902	1.196	1.021	1.002	1.386
Kenya	5	41000	1.260	0.976	1.104	1.328
Lesotho	3	6083	1.294	0.888	1.035	1.073
Liberia	2	9355	1.195	1.012	1.051	1.325

Madagascar	3	11769	1.207	1.077	1.086	1.415
Malawi	5	32698	1.184	0.942	1.047	1.217
Mali	5	33967	1.131	0.997	1.038	1.210
Mozambique	3	22189	1.185	0.946	1.047	1.234
Namibia	4	14607	1.225	0.950	1.052	1.098
Niger	4	18017	1.160	0.971	1.004	1.220
Nigeria	5	61800	1.145	1.018	1.056	1.326
Rwanda	5	23029	1.180	1.024	1.019	1.162
Sao Tome & Principe	1	1790	1.019	0.975	1.072	1.610
Senegal	9	51730	1.225	1.000	1.027	1.329
Sierra Leone	2	8240	1.150	1.065	1.105	1.370
Swaziland	1	2866	1.381	1.298	1.077	0.788
Tanzania	6	39871	1.189	1.020	1.027	1.182
Togo	3	8882	1.222	0.906	0.984	1.132
Uganda	6	24669	1.240	1.009	1.047	1.439
Zambia	5	35121	1.167	1.003	1.050	1.280
Zimbabwe	6	23577	1.261	0.996	1.004	1.145

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492

493

494 Table 2:

495 Sex-ratio of undernutrition prevalence, according to selected characteristics, African DHS  
 496 surveys (Pooled sample of children aged 0-59 months; CDC-2000 reference set)

	Number of children	Sex-ratio of undernutrition			
		Stunting	Wasting	Underweight	Wasting & Stunting
Total	700,114	1.182*	1.012	1.050*	1.286*
<i>Age group</i>					
0-5	75,760	1.320*	1.002	1.190*	1.668*
6-17	161,017	1.311*	1.051*	1.094*	1.515*
18-35	211,713	1.127*	1.000	0.979*	1.178*
36-59	251,624	1.167*	0.989	1.091*	1.120*
<i>Level of mortality</i>					
High (> 150)	269,137	1.156*	0.989	1.040*	1.266*
Medium (100-149)	209,002	1.187*	1.000	1.059*	1.279*
Low (<100)	221,975	1.208*	1.051	1.054*	1.324*

497 NB: Sex-ratio= prevalence among boys / prevalence among girls; Testing sex-ratio  $\diamond$  1:

498 (\*) P<0.05.

499

500 Table 3:

501 Relationship between sex-ratio of undernutrition prevalence and level of under-five mortality,  
 502 African DHS surveys, pooled sample (fitted by Log-linear regression)

	Sex-ratio of undernutrition				Sex-ratio of under-five mortality
	Stunting	Wasting	Underweight	Wasting & Stunting	
<i>Regression parameters</i>					
Log-slope	-0.00040	+0.00002	-0.00018	-0.00040	-0.0052
P-value	< 10-6 (*)	0.857 (ns)	< 10-6 (*)	< 10-6 (*)	< 10-6 (*)
<i>Estimates of sex-ratios by level of q(5)</i>					
300	1.114	1.001	1.012	1.193	1.036
250	1.137	1.001	1.021	1.217	1.063
200	1.160	1.001	1.031	1.241	1.091
150	1.183	1.001	1.040	1.266	1.119
100	1.207	1.001	1.049	1.292	1.148
50	1.231	1.001	1.059	1.318	1.178

503 NB: Testing slope  $\neq 0$  (\*)  $P < 0.05$ ; (ns) not significant; q(5) = under-five mortality per 1000

504

505 Table 4:

506 Prevalence and sex-ratio of undernutrition, according to anthropometric reference set, African  
507 DHS surveys (Pooled sample, N= 340,0552 children aged 0-59 months)

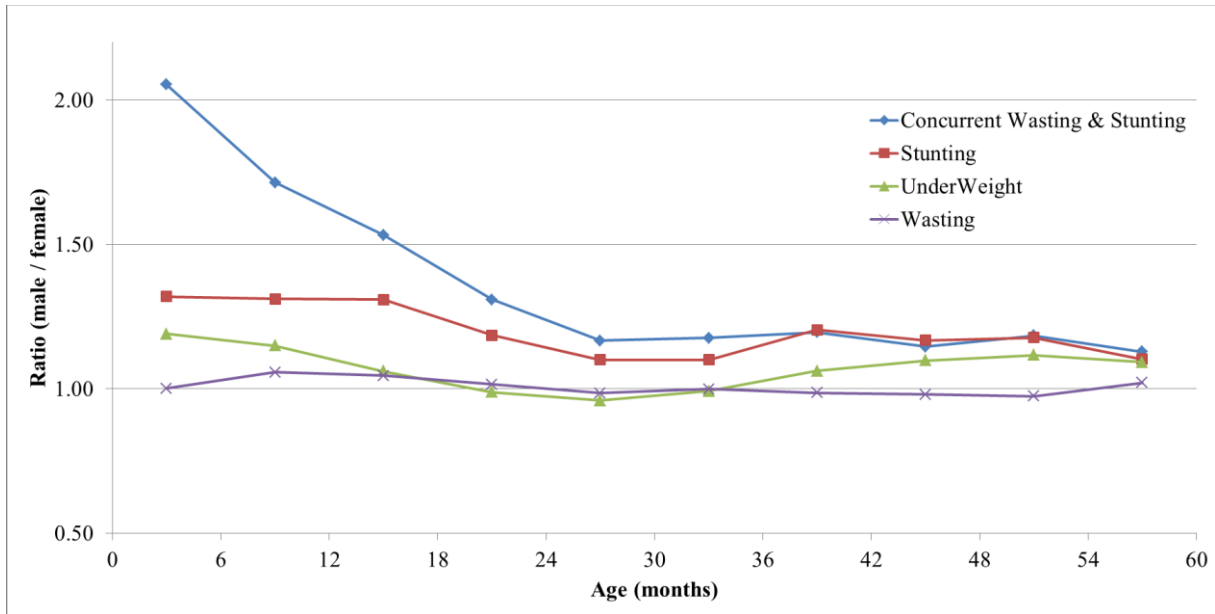
Anthropometric reference set	Stunting HAZ<-2.0	Wasting WHZ<-2.0	Underweight WAZ<-2.0	Wasting & Stunting HAZ,WHZ<-2.0
<i>Prevalence</i>				
CDC-2000	26.1%	15.3%	27.9%	3.8%
DHS/NCHS-1977	29.5%	7.7%	23.2%	2.1%
WHO/MGRS-2006	34.5%	8.6%	18.8%	2.7%
<i>Sex-ratio</i>				
CDC-2000	1.208	1.000	1.050	1.308
DHS/NCHS-1977	1.096	1.152	1.061	1.428
WHO/MGRS-2006	1.155	1.211	1.163	1.652

508

509

510 Figure 1

511 Sex differences in undernutrition, by age, children under-five, African DHS surveys, (CDC-  
512 2000 reference set)



513

514



