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1 **Does food store access modify associations between intrapersonal factors and fruit and**
2 **vegetable consumption?**

3

4 **Running title:** Modifying effect of food store access

5

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42 **ABSTRACT**

43 **Background/Objectives:** Existing theoretical frameworks suggest healthy eating is
44 facilitated by an individual's ability, motivation, and environmental opportunities. It is
45 plausible, though largely untested, that the importance of factors related to ability and
46 motivation differ under varied environmental conditions. This study aimed to determine
47 whether the magnitude of associations between fruit and vegetable consumption and
48 intrapersonal factors (ability and motivation) were modified by differences in access to stores
49 selling these items (environmental opportunities).

50

51 **Subjects/Methods:** Cross-sectional analysis of 4,335 women from socioeconomically
52 disadvantaged neighbourhoods in the state of Victoria, Australia. Self-reported fruit and
53 vegetable consumption was assessed against a number of ability and motivation-related
54 factors. To examine whether associations were modified by store access, interactions with
55 access to supermarkets and greengrocers within 2-kilometres of participants' households
56 were tested.

57

58 **Results:** Of the two factors related to ability and seven factors related to motivation, almost
59 all were associated with fruit and vegetable consumption. In general, associations were not
60 modified by store access suggesting that these factors were not tempered by environmental
61 opportunities.

62

63 **Conclusions:** This study provides little support for the hypothesis that the importance of
64 intra-personal factors to fruit and vegetable consumption is modified by food store access.
65 Further research on this topic is required to inform behaviour change interventions.

66

67 **BACKGROUND**

68 Inequalities in health outcomes persist in many developed nations.[1-4] Socioeconomic
69 gradients in dietary quality contribute to these inequalities,[5] with individuals from
70 socioeconomically disadvantaged backgrounds more likely to have diets that do not align
71 with recommended guidelines.[6-8] Population-wide, increasing fruit and vegetable
72 consumption is viewed as one approach to reduce the global burden of disease from obesity,
73 cardiovascular disease and some cancers.[5, 9] Rates of fruit and vegetable consumption are
74 below recommended levels in many nations.[10, 11] In Australia, only 48.3% of adults meet
75 the recommended intake level of at least two serves of fruit per day whilst only 8.3% meet the
76 recommended level of at least five serves of vegetables per day.[12]

77

78 Consumption of fruit and vegetables is lower amongst those living in socioeconomically
79 disadvantaged neighbourhoods.[13, 14] Both compositional (e.g. socioeconomic
80 characteristics of individuals) and contextual factors (e.g. the local food environment) are
81 likely contributors to this.[15, 16] However, whilst a range of individual-level and
82 neighbourhood-level factors have been reported to be correlated with diet,[7, 17-19] little is
83 known about how these factors operate in tandem to predict diet.

84

85 Using existing theoretical frameworks,[20] Brug has argued that in order to eat a healthy diet,
86 an individual has to be confident about their abilities, motivated to want to do so, and exposed
87 to environments that offer opportunities to procure healthy food.[16] When the environment
88 does not offer these opportunities, it is plausible that factors related to ability and motivation
89 may be more important drivers of healthy eating (i.e. an individual requires greater ability and
90 motivation to seek healthy foods in an environment that does not offer these products).

91 Conversely, a more supportive environment may result in behaviours that are more automated

92 and thus individual-drivers become less influential.[21, 22] This hypothesis, while plausible,
93 remains untested.

94

95 This study aims to examine individual-level ability and motivation factors associated with
96 consumption of fruit and vegetables amongst women living in socioeconomically
97 disadvantaged neighbourhoods, and whether these associations differ in neighbourhoods with
98 varied levels of access to supermarkets and greengrocers (as markers of fruit and vegetable
99 retailers). It is hypothesised that individual-level factors are more important correlates of fruit
100 and vegetable consumption for those living in areas without access to these stores than for
101 those living in areas with access. Understanding whether certain individual-level factors are
102 more influential in unsupportive environments is important for informing nutrition promotion
103 policy and practice, since employing strategies to engage and motivate individuals may be
104 more important in areas which are not supportive of fruit and vegetable consumption and
105 where environmental change may be slower and more expensive to effect.

106

107 **METHODS**

108 This paper utilised baseline data collected in 2007-08 for the Resilience for Eating and
109 Activity Despite Inequality (READI) study[23] with the collection of the data approved by
110 the Deakin University Human Research Ethics Committee. Forty urban and 40 rural suburbs
111 were randomly selected from the most disadvantaged tertile of suburbs within Victoria,
112 Australia, with levels of disadvantage defined by the 2001 Socio-Economic Index for Areas
113 (SEIFA) Index of Relative Disadvantage (IRSD). The IRSD is calculated from numerous
114 area-level variables including (but not limited to) proportion of low income households,
115 proportion of people who do not speak English well and proportion of people with no post-
116 school qualifications.[24]

117
118 Women within the 80 selected suburbs were identified using the Australian electoral roll
119 (registration on the electoral roll is compulsory for all Australian citizens) with 150 women
120 aged 18-45 years randomly selected to participate from each suburb (n=11,940; some
121 included areas had <150 eligible women). Respondents replied to a postal invitation to
122 complete a questionnaire and, after excluding those who failed to meet eligibility criteria (e.g.
123 respondents who had moved from the sampled neighbourhood prior to completing the survey,
124 who were not the intended participant, those who withdrew their data after completing the
125 survey, or were <18 or >46 years old), there were 4,349 eligible participants (39% of those
126 who were delivered a survey). Geocoding[25] of household addresses was possible on 4,335
127 (99.7%) of these participants. Those not geocoded (n=14) were excluded from analysis as no
128 environmental attribute data was available for these individuals.

129

130 **Dependent variables: Fruit and vegetable consumption**

131 Using separate questions for fruit and vegetables, respondents were asked to report on how
132 many serves of each they usually eat per day (excluding fruit juice (fruit) and potatoes, hot
133 chips or fried potatoes (vegetables)). Serving size example were provided (e.g. for fruit the
134 following statement appeared: “1 serve = 1 medium piece or 2 small pieces of fruit or 1 cup
135 of diced pieces”). Response options ranged from none to ≥ 6 serves per day. Fruit outcome
136 data was coded to reflect those who consumed ≥ 2 serves per day and those who did not meet
137 this recommended amount. Considering vegetable intake, only 5.8% of the sampled women
138 reported the recommended consumption levels of at least five serves of vegetables per day.
139 Therefore, vegetable intake was dichotomised for those who consumed ≥ 3 serves per day and
140 those who reported eating less than three serves per day.

141

142 **Independent variables: Ability and motivation**

143 Two indicators of ability were examined: (i) How confident are you that you could shop
144 regularly for healthy nutritious foods over the next year? and (ii) How confident are you that
145 you could prepare/cook healthy nutritious foods over the next year? Response categories
146 were on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ‘not at all confident’ to ‘extremely confident’.
147 Due to the small number of participants in some response categories, the responses were
148 collapsed for analysis to ‘not at all/slightly confident’, ‘moderately confident’ and
149 ‘very/extremely confident’.

150

151 Questions related to motivation included: (i) How much attention do you usually pay to
152 eating a healthy low-fat diet? (5-point scale inclusive of ‘none’, ‘a little’, ‘some’, ‘much’,
153 ‘very much’; coded to ‘low’ (none/a little); ‘mid’ (some); ‘high’ (much/very much)); and (ii)
154 How much do you agree or disagree that you make time to eat healthy foods even when you
155 are busy looking after your family (5-point scale from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’
156 with an additional option of ‘not applicable’; coded to ‘agree’ (agree/strongly agree) and ‘do
157 not agree’ (all other response options including not applicable). Additional questions on
158 motivation to eat fruit and vegetables were based on five key influences on food consumption
159 (taste, nutrition, cost, convenience, and weight control concerns) reported by Glanz and
160 colleagues.[26] These outcome expectations are used as a marker of motivation, in line with
161 the predictions of expectancy theory.[27] The following statements were provided to
162 participants to assess why they eat fruit/vegetables (asked separately for fruits and
163 vegetables): (i) they taste good (taste); (ii) the vitamins and minerals they have (nutrition);
164 (iii) they are cheap (cost); (iv) they are easy to prepare (convenience); and (v) they are good
165 for your health (health benefits (as proxy for weight control)). Response options were on a 5-
166 point scale from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’ with an additional option: ‘I don’t eat

167 fruit/vegetables'. Options were coded to either 'agree' (agree/strongly agree) or 'do not agree'
168 (all other response options including 'I don't eat fruit/vegetables') to represent those with
169 positive views towards fruit and vegetable consumption relative to other respondents.

170

171

172

173 **Moderator: Food store access**

174 Data on the location of the stores were obtained from a variety of sources including company
175 websites and business directories and were cleaned to remove duplicates. Chain supermarkets
176 were defined as those from the following chains: Aldi; Bi-Lo; Coles; FoodWorks; IGA/IGA-
177 Supa/IGA-Richies; and Safeway/Woolworths. Greengrocers were identified as retail
178 businesses that predominantly sell fresh fruit and vegetables. Using ArcGIS 9.3,[28] the
179 number of chain supermarkets and greengrocers within a 2-kilometre (km) road network
180 distance[25] from each individual's household location was calculated. For sensitivity
181 analysis, access within 0.8km and 3km buffers were also created. These data were positively
182 skewed and therefore access was categorised to no stores, 1-2 stores, and 3 or more stores for
183 the 0.8km distance and no stores, 1-2 stores, 3-4 stores, and 5 or more stores for the 2km and
184 3km distances. The categorisation of this variable was preferred over transformation so as to
185 differentiate between those with no stores available, limited availability and higher
186 availability of stores.

187

188 **Other covariates**

189 The following covariates were considered potential confounders (selected based on a priori
190 knowledge of previously reported associations) and controlled for in analysis: age of
191 respondent, country of birth (coded as Australia; overseas), marital status (married/de facto;

192 previously married; never married), number of children under the age of 18 years living in the
193 household (none; one; two; three or more), education (low: did not complete high school;
194 medium: completed high school, trade certificate or diploma; high: completed tertiary
195 education); hours worked in paid employment in the last week (no paid work; 1-15 hours; 16-
196 24 hours; 25-34 hours; 35-40 hours; 41 hours or more); and residential locality (urban; rural).

197

198 **Statistical analysis**

199 Generalised estimating equations with an exchangeable correlation structure and robust
200 standard errors to take into account the clustering of participants within suburbs were used for
201 analysis in 2014 to estimate marginal models of the binary outcomes (fruit/vegetable
202 consumption), adjusting for confounders. Those with missing data on any of the confounders
203 were omitted across all models; however sample sizes varied slightly for each model due to
204 variations in missing data in both the dependent and independent variable (range n=4053 –
205 4085).

206

207 To determine whether or not there were differences in the patterns of association between
208 motivation or ability and fruit and/or vegetable intake by access to supermarkets and
209 greengrocers, interactions between ability and motivation variables and store access within
210 2kms were considered in additional models. It is known that varying the distance and type of
211 access measure can influence associations.[29, 30] In this instance, the 2km distance had a
212 higher variability in exposure (no stores 18%; 1-2 stores 34%; 3-4 stores 27%; ≥ 5 stores 21%)
213 than the 0.8km (~10 minute walk) (no stores 69%; 1-2 stores 23%; ≥ 3 stores 7%) and 3km
214 buffers (no stores 8%; 1-2 stores 27%; 3-4 stores 24%; ≥ 5 stores 41%) and was determined as
215 the most appropriate access measure for this analysis although the 0.8km and 3km buffers
216 were used for sensitivity analysis.

217

218 RESULTS**219 Description of sample**

220 Sample characteristics of the women in the READI study are presented in Table 1. The mean
221 age of these women was 34 years. The majority of women were born in Australia (89%),
222 were married or in a de facto relationship (65%), and lived in a household with at least one
223 child under the age of eighteen (59%). Half of the women completed high school and/or some
224 additional training whilst a further 26% were tertiary educated. A quarter of the sample
225 reported not undertaking any hours of paid work in the prior week whilst 36% worked at least
226 35 hours. Just over half of the respondents were from rural areas (54%) with the remainder
227 from urban localities.

228

229 Self-reported fruit and vegetable consumption frequency is reported in Supplementary Table
230 S1. Around half of the sample (48%) reported that they consumed two or more serves of fruit
231 per day and 40% reported consuming three or more serves of vegetables per day.

232

233 Bivariate associations

234 In Supplementary Table S1, the distribution of independent variables related to motivation
235 and ability is shown by fruit/vegetable consumption. Around two thirds of the higher fruit and
236 vegetable consumers reported high confidence in their ability to shop for and cook healthy
237 food whilst less than half of those who consumed lower amount of these products reported
238 high confidence in healthy shopping and cooking ability. More than half of the higher fruit
239 and vegetable consumers reported that they paid a high amount of attention to a healthy diet
240 compared to around ~30% of those who consumed lower fruits and vegetables. Most
241 respondents agreed fruit/vegetables taste good, have vitamins/minerals, are easy to prepare

242 and are good for health (with higher percentages noted amongst higher fruit/vegetable
243 consumers) however less than a third agreed that they are cheap.

244

245 **Adjusted associations of ability and motivation with fruit and vegetable intake**

246 With respect to factors related to ability, positive associations between shopping and cooking
247 confidence with fruit and vegetable consumption were observed. Individuals with high
248 confidence in their ability to shop for and/or cook healthy food (compared to low confidence)
249 had at least three times greater odds of consuming recommended levels of fruit and at least
250 three portions of vegetables per day (Table 2).

251

252 There was strong evidence of an association between all of the motivation factors and fruit
253 and vegetable intake, with the exception that agreement that vegetables are cheap was not
254 associated with vegetable intake (Table 3).

255

256 **Effect modification by environmental access**

257 In subsequent analysis, interaction terms between each of the independent variables presented
258 in Table 2 and Table 3 and supermarket/greengrocer access within 2km were considered
259 (results for interaction effects not shown). In general, results indicated that associations
260 between fruit and vegetable consumption and factors related to ability and motivation were
261 not modified by access to supermarkets and greengrocers in the residential environment.

262 There was some, albeit weak, evidence that store access within 2kms may be a moderator of
263 the association between vegetable consumption and cooking confidence ($p=0.062$), making
264 time to eat healthily ($p=0.080$), and agreeing they like vegetables because they are nutritious
265 (have vitamins/minerals) ($p=0.029$). Additional stratified analysis was conducted when the
266 interaction effect was found to have $p<0.10$ (results not shown). However, whilst some

267 differences between store access categories were observed, there was no significant trend in
268 the direction of the effect indicating that store access did not modify associations as
269 hypothesised. Sensitivity analyses were conducted using the different buffer distances and
270 overall findings were generally not altered (results not shown).

271

272 **DISCUSSION**

273 In this sample, almost all individual-level ability and motivation factors explored were
274 associated with the consumption of fruit and vegetables. However, contrary to the hypothesis,
275 the majority of relationships were not modified by store access, even when different distances
276 for store access were tested.

277

278 Recent natural experiments examining the introduction of a new food retailer into a
279 community have shown few positive benefits to dietary behaviours amongst local
280 residents.[31, 32] Thus, changing the environment alone may not be enough to improve
281 dietary behaviours. A recently introduced framework for behaviour change interventions[33]
282 recognises that behavioural systems are inclusive of (cap)ability, motivation, and
283 opportunities. Therefore, with regards to dietary behaviours it is important that future
284 research assess the interactions between these factors to better inform complementary
285 strategies that focus on both the individual and environment.

286

287 To better understand how environments, and specifically local residential environments,
288 influence health behaviours, research must seek an enhanced comprehension of how different
289 individuals interact and engage with features of their environment.[34-36] A growing body of
290 work is recognising that many individuals in deprived areas or in areas with environments
291 that do not have health supporting services, manage to remain healthy or engaged in health

292 promoting behaviours and are thus ‘resilient’ to the potential health damaging environment
293 they are exposed to.[37, 38] However, key factors that promote this resilience remain poorly
294 understood and further work is required to test factors associated with health behaviours
295 amongst individuals and how different environmental exposures may further support or
296 diminish these intrapersonal associations.

297

298 Few prior studies have explored the interactive effects of environmental and individual-level
299 factors on eating habits. In prior research conducted by the present study’s authors, it was
300 found that consumption of fast food was more likely amongst women who both lived in areas
301 with more fast food outlets and had a lower confidence in their ability to shop for healthy
302 food.[39] In this instance the environment may have supported increased consumption
303 through making these products more convenient (particularly if the fast food outlet had drive-
304 through service). This differs to fruit and vegetable purchasing where in-store interaction is
305 required. In other studies of this nature it is worth noting that the focus was on testing
306 whether the main effect of the environment was modified by differences at the individual-
307 level. Specifically, in a US study, an association between fast food consumption and fast food
308 restaurant access differed by individual income, with the relationship existing amongst low-
309 income individuals only.[40] This suggests that when individuals have higher income (which
310 may act as a proxy for ability to purchase more expensive products or for access to transport),
311 they may be less reliant on nearby fast food restaurants. Kremers *et al.* have previously
312 presented a framework to conceptualise relationships between environmental conditions and
313 behavioural outcomes, including a potential moderating role of individual characteristics;[21]
314 however, with regards to eating behaviours, these complex relationships remain largely
315 untested.

316

317 This analysis provided a rare attempt to test whether associations between eating behaviours
318 and intrapersonal factors vary when environmental conditions differ. It also included
319 validated survey measures,[38] comprehensive measures of supermarket/greengrocer access,
320 consideration of different sized environmental buffers in sensitivity analyses, and adjustment
321 for a number of important confounders. However, potential limitations may have contributed
322 to null findings. For example, the measures related to ability were about eating in general and
323 were not specific to fruit and vegetable consumption. This was also the case for some of the
324 motivation variables assessed. Some environmental factors that may have impacted on the
325 findings were the restriction of the study area to only disadvantaged neighbourhoods
326 (although variance in food store exposure was still observed), the absence of markets and
327 alternative food sources from our store access measures, the absence of in-store measures
328 related to fruit and vegetable variety, quality and price, and constricting the store access
329 exposure measure to a boundary around the household address, which potentially ignores
330 other key locations where individuals are exposed to and purchase fruits and vegetables (e.g.
331 around the workplace[41]). The few significant interaction effects that were detected may
332 have been spurious associations resulting from multiple testing.

333

334 **CONCLUSION**

335 The present study was able to provide insights into which intrapersonal factors were
336 important determinants of fruit and vegetable consumption but found no evidence that the
337 associations were stronger in an unsupportive environment. An alternative view may be that
338 associations may be stronger when the environment is supportive. Again, we found no
339 evidence to support this view. Whilst this may suggest that individual-level policy
340 recommendations related to ability and motivation may be equally important across all

341 environments, future studies need to be designed to more thoroughly test whether these
342 relationships vary under different environmental conditions.

343

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353

354

355

356 Supplementary information is available at EJCEN's website.

357

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