



# **Les critères de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire : un examen de la portée**

**Mémoire**

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## Résumé

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Les impacts des changements survenus dans l'environnement alimentaire suite à l'industrialisation et la mondialisation poussent les chercheurs à se pencher sur comment l'environnement alimentaire (incluant l'offre alimentaire) influence les habitudes alimentaires des individus. Or, il s'avère qu'il n'existe pas de définition consensuelle et multidisciplinaire de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire ni des critères à prendre en compte pour l'évaluer ou l'améliorer. Dans le but de poursuivre sa mission d'améliorer la qualité et l'accessibilité de l'offre alimentaire, l'Observatoire de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire (ci-après nommé Observatoire), faisant partie de l'Institut sur la nutrition et les aliments fonctionnels (INAF), se doit de se pencher sur ces questions. Ce mémoire présente donc un examen de la portée visant à synthétiser la littérature scientifique et grise concernant le concept de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire et les critères qui le sous-tendent. Les résultats démontrent que certains critères ont été davantage étudiés comme la disponibilité (c.à.d. disponibilité d'aliments nutritifs, acceptables, respectueux de l'environnement et frais), l'abordabilité, la quantité, la variété et la promotion. D'autres critères davantage reliés aux aspects socioculturels et individuels de l'offre alimentaire comme l'ambiance, la commodité des aliments ou la disponibilité d'aliments attrayants et savoureux ont été moins étudiés. Peu de définitions explicites de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire ont été identifiées dans la littérature. Les résultats de cette revue permettent d'avoir une idée globale de l'ensemble de la littérature au sujet de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire, d'identifier les lacunes dans la littérature et d'orienter les futurs travaux de l'Observatoire.

## **Abstract**

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Impacts of some changes that occurred in the food environment after industrialization and globalization led researchers to look further into how food environment (or food supply) influences individuals' food habits. However, there is no consensual and multidisciplinary definition of food supply quality or of the criteria to be taken into account to assess or improve it. In order to pursue its mission to improve the quality and accessibility of the food supply, the Food Quality Observatory (FQO), which is supported by the Institute of Nutrition and Functional Foods (INAF), needs to address these issues. This manuscript presents a scoping review that aimed to synthesize the scientific and grey literature about the food supply quality concept and its underlying criteria. Results show that some criteria are more studied such as availability (i.e. availability of healthy, acceptable, eco-friendly and fresh food), affordability, quantity, variety and promotion. Other criteria more related to sociocultural or individual aspects of food supply like ambience, convenience or availability of tasty and attractive food were less studied. There are very few explicit definitions of food supply quality identified in the literature. The results of this thesis allow a global comprehension of the literature about food supply quality, which aims to identify gaps in the literature and to line up FQO's future work.

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## Avant-propos

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Ce projet de maîtrise, qui s'insère dans les travaux de l'Observatoire, m'a permis de développer des compétences diversifiées notamment en lien avec la recherche, la communication (scientifique ou vulgarisée) et le travail d'équipe. J'ai eu la chance d'évoluer dans un milieu où la science doit être communiquée directement aux acteurs importants de l'offre alimentaire (c.à.d. des représentants de la santé publique et de l'industrie de la transformation alimentaire, des détaillants, des producteurs et des consommateurs). C'est donc dans ce contexte que j'ai pu réaliser, en collaboration avec le comité de travail impliqué, un projet répondant à un besoin réel des acteurs. Du développement de la question de recherche, en passant par la sélection des études, l'extraction des données pertinentes et l'analyse, jusqu'à la présentation des résultats; j'ai été au cœur de toutes les étapes du projet. Les résultats préliminaires ont été présentés aux membres du comité scientifique à trois reprises, au comité des utilisateurs ainsi qu'à la journée de la gouvernance de l'Observatoire le 7 juin dernier. J'ai également pu partager les résultats à la communauté scientifique lors du congrès de la Société Québécoise de Lipidologie de Nutrition et de Métabolisme en février 2018 et de la Société canadienne de nutrition en mai 2018. Dans un souci de transparence, le protocole de recherche du projet, que j'ai rédigé en tant que première auteure, a également été publié sur le site internet d'*Open Science Framework* (Loignon et al., 2018). L'article scientifique présenté dans ce mémoire, pour lequel je suis également première auteure, a été récemment révisé par les coauteurs et sera soumis sous peu au journal *Public Health Nutrition* au cours de la prochaine année. Je remercie d'ailleurs l'ensemble des coauteures pour leurs commentaires tout au long du projet : Mylène Turcotte, Sophie Desroches, Simone Lemieux, Marie-Claude Paquette, Daniela Zavala-Mora et Véronique Provencher.

Ce mémoire est l'aboutissement d'un travail d'équipe extraordinaire impliquant 14 personnes dévouées ayant fait de ce projet un succès. Je tiens d'abord à remercier ma directrice de recherche, Véronique Provencher, pour son encadrement exceptionnel. Elle a toujours été en mesure de me ramener à mes objectifs et de s'assurer que je ne m'en mette

pas trop sur les épaules. Ensuite, merci à Mylène Turcotte, professionnelle de recherche, sans qui cet immense projet n'aurait pas pu avoir lieu. Son dévouement, son ouverture d'esprit et sa capacité de remise en question nous ont toujours permis d'amener nos réflexions à un autre niveau. Je tiens à remercier les étudiantes (Gabrielle Plamondon, Maude Lizotte, Maéva Lachance et Joséane Gilbert-Moreau) ainsi que la professionnelle de recherche, Sonia Pomerleau, ayant travaillé sur le projet. Leur aide a été extrêmement précieuse dans la gestion des milliers de documents à lire. Ensuite, Daniela Zavala-Mora a été d'une aide extrêmement précieuse pour l'étape d'identification des documents pertinents. Son expertise a rendu notre méthodologie des plus rigoureuses. Je remercie également le comité de travail composé des utilisatrices de connaissances (Sylvie St-Pierre et Hélène Gagnon) et des chercheurs-experts (Sophie Desroches, Simone Lemieux et Marie-Claude Paquette). Ces précieuses conseillères ont su poser les bonnes questions au bon moment. Je tiens à remercier l'ensemble des membres de l'Observatoire pour leurs commentaires, mais surtout, pour leur intérêt envers le projet.

Ce grand projet n'aurait pas pu avoir lieu sans un financement adéquat. C'est pourquoi je remercie Québec en forme, le Gouvernement du Québec et l'Institut sur la nutrition et les aliments fonctionnels (INAF) pour avoir soutenu financièrement le projet, ainsi que la Chaire en nutrition de l'Université Laval, les Fonds de Nutrition Publique et les Fonds de bourse Marc-J-Trudel pour les bourses d'étude à la maîtrise.

D'un point de vue plus personnel, je tiens à remercier ma famille et mes amis pour leur soutien constant tout au long de mon cheminement académique. Un merci tout spécial va à la belle équipe d'étudiants et d'employés de l'INAF qui ont su rendre chaque jour de la dernière année mémorable.

## **Introduction**

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Les maladies chroniques sont un problème grandissant et entraînent de multiples conséquences sur la santé physique et psychologique des individus et de leurs proches, mais aussi sur la société qui doit subir le fardeau financier des soins de santé (Belanger-Ducharme & Tremblay, 2005; Le commissaire à la santé et au bien-être, 2010). L'alimentation est reconnue comme un facteur prédictif important et déterminant des maladies chroniques (Hayashi & Takemi, 2015; World Health Organization, 2003). Pourtant, les habitudes alimentaires des populations des pays développés, et maintenant même des pays en développement, demeurent non optimales (World Health Organization, 2003).

En réponse à cette problématique de santé, les instances gouvernementales se doivent de déployer des stratégies de promotion de la santé permettant d'agir sur les différents déterminants de la santé, qu'ils soient individuels ou environnementaux (World Health Organization, 1986). Plusieurs auteurs déplorent les interventions uniquement axées sur les connaissances et compétences des individus, puisqu'elles placent la responsabilité sur les consommateurs en dépit de leur environnement (Griffith, O'Connell, & Smith, 2017; Pray et al., 2015; Traverso-Yepez & Hunter, 2016). Dans le même sens, plusieurs sont d'avis que les changements observés dans l'alimentation suite à l'industrialisation et à la mondialisation sont causés, en majorité, par les environnements obésogènes qui rendent la consommation d'aliments à faible valeur nutritive plus facile (Glanz, Sallis, Saelens, & Frank, 2005; Sallis & Glanz, 2009; Story, Kaphingst, Robinson-O'Brien, & Glanz, 2008; S. M. Wright & Aronne, 2012).

Dans le but de rendre les aliments plus favorables à la saine alimentation, des modèles permettant de comprendre les facteurs de l'environnement alimentaire sur les choix des individus ont été proposés. Le modèle des environnements alimentaires communautaires a

été largement utilisé comme base théorique dans des études visant l'évaluation des environnements alimentaires (Gamba, Schuchter, Rutt, & Seto, 2015; Glanz et al., 2005; McKinnon, Reedy, Morrissette, Lytle, & Yaroch, 2009; L. M. Minaker et al., 2016; Ni Mhurchu et al., 2013; Penney, Almiron-Roig, Shearer, McIsaac, & Kirk, 2014; Sallis & Glanz, 2009; Story et al., 2008; L. K. Williams, Thornton, Ball, & Crawford, 2012; S. M. Wright & Aronne, 2012). Celui-ci cible deux variables environnementales susceptibles d'avoir un impact important sur la santé des gens, soit : l'accessibilité géographique aux commerces d'alimentation (c.-à-d. l'environnement alimentaire communautaire) et l'offre alimentaire disponible à l'intérieur de ces commerces (c.-à-d. l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur)(Glanz et al., 2005). Or, il s'avère que l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur ait été moins étudié (Glanz, Bader, & Iyer, 2012; McKinnon et al., 2009; L. M. Minaker et al., 2016). De plus, l'étude de cet environnement comporte diverses lacunes; la principale étant la grande variabilité au niveau des critères pris en compte lors de l'évaluation (Gustafson, Hankins, & Jilcott, 2011; Lake & Townshend, 2006; Ni Mhurchu et al., 2013). Ceux-ci semblent toutefois se concentrer sur les 4P du marketing : produit, (em)placement, promotion et prix (Kelly, Flood, & Yeatman, 2011; Ni Mhurchu et al., 2013). Plusieurs mentionnent la nécessité d'élargir notre vision des critères pour inclure davantage de critères liés à une dimension socioculturelle ou de développement durable (Caspi, Sorensen, Subramanian, & Kawachi, 2012; Engler-Stringer, Le, Gerrard, & Muhajarine, 2014; Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux, 2010; Penney et al., 2014). Une autre lacune majeure est le manque de consensus quant à la définition de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire (ou qualité de l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur) (Penney et al., 2014). Ce besoin de clarification au niveau du concept lui-même et des critères qui sous-tendent celui-ci a également été mentionné par des intervenants québécois qui évaluent la qualité de l'offre alimentaire dans divers milieux (Turcotte, 2016). Certains chercheurs et praticiens recommandent donc de se pencher sur cette question (Caspi et al., 2012; Cobb et al., 2015; Penney et al., 2014).

Dans ce contexte, il s'avère donc important de se demander comment la qualité de l'offre alimentaire est définie dans la littérature scientifique et grise et quels sont les critères

utilisés pour l'évaluer ou l'améliorer dans divers milieux. Le sujet de recherche est large et multidisciplinaire et les documents à analyser se présentent sous différentes formes (rapports gouvernementaux, articles scientifiques, etc.). Ainsi, le type de synthèse de connaissances choisi est l'examen de la portée qui permet une certaine flexibilité au niveau des critères d'inclusion et qui est souvent sélectionné pour clarifier un concept et identifier les limites dans la littérature (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Johanna Briggs Institute, 2015).

Le présent mémoire contient six chapitres. Le prochain chapitre présente un portrait de la littérature scientifique et grise, ainsi que des enjeux pratiques ayant mené à la question de recherche. La pertinence du choix de l'examen de la portée comme méthodologie est également expliquée. Le troisième chapitre présente les objectifs de l'étude. Le quatrième permet d'introduire la méthodologie de l'étude puisqu'il présente le protocole de recherche en anglais publié sur le site internet d'Open Science Framework. Le cinquième chapitre présente l'article scientifique également en anglais; celui-ci sera soumis pour publication dans le journal Public Health Nutrition. Pour finir, une conclusion générale permettra de mettre en lumière les perspectives futures.

# **1 Chapitre 1 : Problématique**

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## **1.1 Portrait de l'état de santé et des habitudes de vie des Canadiens**

### **1.1.1 Les maladies chroniques : état du problème**

Au Canada, 65% des décès sont attribuables aux maladies chroniques, incluant les maladies cardiovasculaires, le cancer, les maladies respiratoires chroniques, le diabète et autres (Gouvernement du Canada, 2017). De plus, selon la plus récente enquête sur la santé dans les collectivités canadiennes de 2015, la prévalence d'obésité chez les adultes, mesurée à l'aide de l'indice de masse corporelle (poids divisé par la taille au carré), serait d'environ 26%. C'est donc au-delà d'une personne sur quatre au Canada qui présente un risque accru de développer des problèmes de santé, sans compter l'ensemble des autres facteurs pouvant influencer ce risque (Statistique Canada, 2015). Bien entendu, l'ensemble de ces problématiques de santé engendre des coûts de santé exorbitants. On estimait, en 2011, que les coûts directs de consultation médicale et de nuits d'hospitalisation (Blouin et al., 2015) liés à l'obésité s'élevaient à 1,5 milliards au Québec. D'un autre côté, les maladies chroniques entraînent une diminution de la qualité de vie tant pour les personnes atteintes que pour la famille et les proches qui doivent en prendre soin. En effet, cela peut même entraîner de la dépression et un taux d'absentéisme au travail élevé chez ces aidants (Le commissaire à la santé et au bien-être, 2010).

### **1.1.2 Les habitudes de vie et le lien avec les maladies chroniques**

On estime qu'environ 80% des Canadiens ont au moins un facteur de risque modifiable pour les maladies chroniques, ce qui inclut le tabagisme, la forte consommation d'alcool, la sédentarité ou une alimentation non optimale, mesurée à l'aide de la consommation de fruits et légumes (Gouvernement du Canada, 2017). En effet, des changements majeurs ont eu lieu depuis plusieurs années dans les pays développés et maintenant aussi dans les pays en développement. On observe une augmentation de la densité énergétique de

l'alimentation dont une bonne proportion de l'énergie provient des gras saturés et des sucres ajoutés. Il y a également une diminution de la consommation de fruits et légumes et, conséquemment, des fibres alimentaires. Ces habitudes alimentaires s'associent à la diminution de la fréquence de la pratique d'activité physique (World Health Organization, 2003). Le Canada n'y fait pas exception ; encore trop peu de Canadiens rencontrent les recommandations en matière des saines habitudes de vie associées à une diminution des risques de développer plusieurs maladies chroniques. Au niveau de l'activité physique, seulement 17,6% des adultes rencontraient les directives canadiennes (150 minutes d'activité physique aérobie d'intensité modérée à élevée par semaine) en 2015. Du côté de l'alimentation, seulement 30% des Canadiens de plus de 12 ans consommaient au moins 5 portions de fruits et légumes par jour en 2016 (Statistique Canada, 2017). Également, en 2004, environ 22% des calories ingérées par les Canadiens provenaient des aliments faisant partie du groupe « autres aliments », c'est-à-dire des aliments pour lesquels on recommande de diminuer la consommation. Ces aliments sont généralement plus riches en sucres, en gras et en sel (Garriguet, 2004).

Bref, les maladies chroniques demeurent un problème majeur au Canada puisqu'elles entraînent plusieurs conséquences autant au niveau économique et politique qu'au niveau de l'individu lui-même. Ce problème peut être dû en partie aux habitudes de vie sous-optimales de la population, notamment en termes d'alimentation.

## **1.2 Impact de l'environnement alimentaire sur la santé et l'alimentation**

### **1.2.1 Promotion de la santé et déterminants de la santé**

Face à ce portrait de santé problématique, les gouvernements cherchent à soutenir la population dans l'amélioration de leurs habitudes alimentaires par le biais de la promotion

de la santé. La Charte d’Ottawa est reconnue comme le pilier de cette approche. Il est d’ailleurs possible d’y lire la définition suivante :

« La promotion de la santé est le processus qui confère aux populations les moyens d’assurer un plus grand contrôle sur leur propre santé, et d’améliorer celle-ci. [...] la promotion de la santé ne relève pas seulement du secteur sanitaire: elle dépasse les modes de vie sains pour viser le bien-être. » (World Health Organization, 1986)

Une des principales valeurs du champ de promotion de la santé, en comparaison à la santé publique plus traditionnelle, est le fait d’agir sur l’ensemble des déterminants de la santé (Rootman & O’Neill, 2012). Ces déterminants sont définis comme « l’ensemble des facteurs personnels, sociaux, économiques et environnementaux qui déterminent l’état de santé des individus ou des populations » (Ministère de la Santé et des Services Sociaux (MSSS), 2010). Les déterminants sont classés sous quatre grands champs soit : le contexte global (c.-à-d. le contexte politique, économique, démographique, social, scientifique et environnemental), les systèmes (c.-à-d. système d’éducation, de santé, aménagement du territoire, emploi et autres), les milieux de vie (c.-à-d. milieu familial, scolaire, de travail, d’hébergement et la communauté) et finalement les caractéristiques individuelles (c.-à-d. la biologie et génétique, les compétences, les habitudes de vie et les caractéristiques socioéconomiques) (Ministère de la Santé et des Services Sociaux (MSSS), 2010). Dans un contexte de promotion de la santé, il est possible d’intervenir tant sur les déterminants environnementaux, comme le contexte global, les systèmes ou les milieux de vie grâce à des actions politiques, l’organisation communautaire ou le changement organisationnel. Autrement, l’éducation à la santé, le marketing social ainsi que la communication serviront davantage à cibler les caractéristiques individuelles (O’Neill & Stirling, 2007).

### **1.2.2 Déterminants de la saine alimentation**

De façon plus précise, des déterminants de la saine alimentation ont été proposés basés sur les déterminants de la santé (Raine, 2005). Ceux-ci peuvent également se subdiviser en déterminants individuels et déterminants collectifs (ou environnementaux). Dans la première catégorie on retrouve les influences physiologiques, comme la génétique, l’âge ou

l'état de santé, les préférences alimentaires, qui peuvent être influencées, entre autres, par le goût ou la culture, les connaissances en nutrition, qui comprennent notamment la compréhension du lien entre l'alimentation et la santé, les perceptions de la saine alimentation, qu'elles soient influencées par les recommandations ou par les pairs, et, finalement, les facteurs psychologiques comme, par exemple, la confiance en soi ou l'image corporelle. Du côté de la deuxième catégorie, on retrouve les influences interpersonnelles qui agissent sur les choix des individus, l'environnement physique, c'est-à-dire la disponibilité et l'accessibilité aux aliments sains, l'environnement économique, qui inclut non seulement le prix des aliments, mais aussi le marketing et la promotion autour de ceux-ci, et l'environnement social, qui inclut les normes socioculturelles liées, par exemple, aux choix alimentaires ou au contexte de repas. Le dernier déterminant collectif est la mise en place de politiques favorisant la saine alimentation. Celles-ci peuvent prendre la forme de recommandations nutritionnelles, de mesures visant le salaire des individus, de la taxation de certains produits et autres (Raine, 2005).

Plusieurs chercheurs proposent que la forte prévalence des maladies chroniques s'explique principalement par des changements survenus dans l'environnement alimentaire et ayant donc influencé les déterminants collectifs. Par exemple, les modes de vie sont plus sédentaires qu'avant à cause de l'avènement de certains loisirs (p. ex. jeux vidéo ou internet) et des emplois sédentaires (Sallis & Glanz, 2009). Ensuite, la société favorise l'utilisation de la voiture au détriment des transports actifs (Sallis & Glanz, 2009). Le rythme de vie accéléré fait que moins de repas sont pris en famille et ceux-ci sont plutôt consommés à l'extérieur de la maison (Story et al., 2008). Or, il s'avère que les aliments et repas vendus sont souvent plus gras, plus sucrés et en plus grosse portion qu'avant (Glanz et al., 2005). Les enfants autant que les adultes sont assaillis par la publicité alimentaire et par la restauration rapide qui est omniprésente (Glanz et al., 2005; Sallis & Glanz, 2009; Story et al., 2008; S. M. Wright & Aronne, 2012). Tenant compte de ce contexte, il est possible de se questionner sur l'efficacité des interventions visant seulement l'individu sans tenir compte de l'environnement dans lequel il gravite.

### **1.2.3 L'efficacité des interventions visant les individus ou les environnements**

Les interventions visant l'individu permettent surtout d'accroître les connaissances et compétences en lien avec les saines habitudes de vie. Bien que le but de celles-ci soit d'offrir la capacité aux gens de prendre en main leur propre santé en leur donnant des outils, plusieurs critiques ont été émises à propos des interventions uniquement axées sur les individus (Kumar & Preetha, 2012). En effet, dans un article de Traverso-Yepez et Hunter, les auteurs déplorent l'approche de santé publique du Canada qui considère la « mauvaise » alimentation comme la cause principale de la forte prévalence des maladies chroniques au lieu de voir les facteurs dans leur globalité. Les recommandations émises, notamment par le biais du guide alimentaire canadien ou de l'information nutritionnelle, placent la responsabilité d'atteindre une bonne santé sur le dos des consommateurs (Traverso-Yepez & Hunter, 2016). D'ailleurs, un exemple très concret de la nécessité de modifier non seulement les croyances des personnes, mais également leur environnement, est présenté dans l'article de Griffith et al. (2017). Les auteurs comparent deux formes d'intervention pour réduire l'apport en sel de la population du Royaume-Uni. Une comparaison des apports a été faite avant et après l'introduction de deux campagnes, une visant à sensibiliser les consommateurs aux risques associés à la consommation de sel et l'autre visant la reformulation des produits par les industries afin d'en diminuer le contenu en sel. Entre 2005 et 2011, une diminution de 5% du contenu en sel des paniers d'épicerie a été observée, et ce, presque sans substitution de la part des consommateurs (c.-à-d. sans que ceux-ci se tournent vers un choix moins salé). Ceci implique donc que la quasi-totalité de l'impact observé est dû à la reformulation des produits (Griffith et al., 2017). L'inefficacité d'une campagne visant seulement à améliorer les connaissances des consommateurs peut être due au message non adapté à la population. Il se peut également que le message n'ait touché que les gens les plus motivés ou ayant le plus de connaissances en nutrition. Or, ces individus ne sont souvent pas les principales cibles de par leurs habitudes alimentaires qui sont généralement déjà adéquates (Griffith et al., 2017). Également, l'abondance des messages liés à la nutrition peut entraîner une désensibilisation des consommateurs face à de tels messages (Pray et al., 2015). Sans oublier que, bien souvent, les consommateurs font leurs choix alimentaires en fonction des bénéfices immédiats plutôt que futurs (p. ex. le

goût plutôt que l'impact à long terme sur la santé) (Griffith et al., 2017; Pettigrew, 2016; Pray et al., 2015). À l'inverse, les interventions visant l'environnement alimentaire, telles que la reformulation, permettent de cibler l'ensemble des personnes dans le milieu, et ce, tant et aussi longtemps que la mesure est en place (Sallis & Glanz, 2009). C'est pourquoi plusieurs auteurs recommandent de tenir compte de l'environnement dans lequel l'individu évolue pour l'élaboration d'interventions efficaces (Pray et al., 2015; Sallis & Glanz, 2009; E. P. Williams, Mesidor, Winters, Dubbert, & Wyatt, 2015). En effet, comme le développement des maladies chroniques est un phénomène multifactoriel, les interventions les plus efficaces devraient donc toucher plusieurs niveaux également (Sallis & Glanz, 2009). Il est difficile de changer les comportements des individus sans influencer le contexte dans lequel ils font leurs choix (Story et al., 2008).

En résumé, les habitudes des individus sont influencées à de multiples niveaux. La promotion de la santé propose d'intervenir de deux manières soit directement auprès de l'individu ou en modifiant son environnement. La littérature démontre bien l'importance de tenir compte de l'environnement alimentaire dans la prévention des maladies chroniques. Il est donc primordial de bien comprendre le lien entre l'environnement et les habitudes de vie pour pouvoir agir efficacement.

### **1.3 Définitions et modèles théoriques de l'environnement alimentaire**

#### **1.3.1 Définitions de l'environnement alimentaire**

Swinburn et collaborateurs proposent une définition du concept d'environnement alimentaire, soit: « l'environnement physique, économique et socioculturel ainsi que l'ensemble des opportunités et des conditions influençant les choix alimentaires et l'état nutritionnel des individus » (Swinburn, Sacks, Vandevijvere, Kumanyika, Lobstein, Neal, Barquera, Friel, Hawkes, Kelly, L'Abbe, Lee, Ma, Macmullan, Mohan, Monteiro, Rayner,

Sanders, Snowdon, Walker, et al., 2013) traduction libre de , p. 2). Les mêmes auteurs définissent les environnements alimentaires favorables à la santé comme étant des « environnements dans lesquels les aliments, les boissons et les mets, qui contribuent à la santé nutritionnelle de la population, sont largement disponibles, abordables et promus » (traduction libre de (Swinburn, Sacks, Vandevijvere, Kumanyika, Lobstein, Neal, Barquera, Friel, Hawkes, Kelly, L'Abbe, Lee, Ma, Macmullan, Mohan, Monteiro, Rayner, Sanders, Snowdon, Walker, et al., 2013), p. 2). À l'inverse, l'environnement obésogène est défini comme « la somme des influences que l'environnement, les opportunités ou les conditions de vie ont sur la promotion de l'obésité chez les individus ou les populations » (traduction libre de (Swinburn & Egger, 2002), p.292).

Au-delà de ces différentes définitions, il importe de se pencher davantage sur les mécanismes d'interaction entre les individus et leur environnement et c'est pourquoi plusieurs modèles théoriques ont été proposés. Quelques-uns seront présentés dans cette section. Ceux-ci ont été sélectionnés puisqu'ils ont été grandement utilisés dans la littérature en lien avec les environnements alimentaires favorables. En effet, le modèle écologique de Story et al. et le modèle des environnements alimentaires communautaires ont été identifiés comme des modèles-clés permettant de bien comprendre les caractéristiques des environnements favorables par Penney et al. (Glanz et al., 2005; Penney et al., 2014; Story et al., 2008). Le modèle de l'influence de l'industrie alimentaire, des gouvernements et de la société sur les quatre grands types d'environnements ainsi que la méthode de priorisation ANGELO ont été proposés par l'équipe d'INFORMAS, qui est un réseau international regroupant des organisations et des chercheurs et qui vise à soutenir le secteur privé et public dans l'atteinte d'environnements alimentaires favorables à la santé (Swinburn, Sacks, Vandevijvere, Kumanyika, Lobstein, Neal, Barquera, Friel, Hawkes, Kelly, L'Abbe, Lee, Ma, Macmullan, Mohan, Monteiro, Rayner, Sanders, Snowdon, Walker, et al., 2013).

### **1.3.2 Le modèle écologique de Story et al.**

Le modèle écologique a été créé dans le but de guider la recherche et le développement d'interventions visant les habitudes alimentaires (Story et al., 2008). Il met l'accent sur le fait que les habitudes alimentaires sont influencées par divers facteurs qui relèvent tant de l'environnement proximal (niveau micro) que de l'environnement plus distal (niveau macro). À la base, les facteurs individuels comme les connaissances, les croyances, les modes de vie, les aspects biologiques ainsi que les aspects sociologiques influencent les choix des individus. Au niveau de l'environnement proximal, il y a deux niveaux d'influence, soit l'environnement social, qui regroupe les interactions avec les pairs, et l'environnement physique, qui comprend l'ensemble des lieux où les individus consomment ou acquièrent des aliments (maison, écoles, milieux de travail, magasins d'alimentation, restaurants et autres). Ce dernier détermine quels sont les aliments disponibles à la communauté. Finalement, l'environnement au niveau macro représente l'ensemble des facteurs agissant à un niveau plus populationnel tels que le marketing social, les normes sociales, l'industrie alimentaire, les politiques gouvernementales et le système de santé (Story et al., 2008).

### **1.3.3 L'influence de l'industrie alimentaire, des gouvernements et de la société sur les quatre grands types d'environnements de INFORMAS**

Le modèle présenté dans l'article de Swinburn et collaborateurs présente les différentes composantes de l'environnement alimentaire en précisant l'influence des quatre acteurs principaux : l'industrie alimentaire, le gouvernement, la société et l'individu lui-même (Swinburn, Sacks, Vandevijvere, Kumanyika, Lobstein, Neal, Barquera, Friel, Hawkes, Kelly, L'Abbe, Lee, Ma, Macmullan, Mohan, Monteiro, Rayner, Sanders, Snowdon, Walker, et al., 2013). L'industrie alimentaire produit les aliments qui seront mis sur le marché et participe à les promouvoir. La publicité créée par l'industrie influence les normes sociales. Le gouvernement crée les règles s'appliquant au secteur privé et public. Il joue également un rôle au niveau de la promotion de la santé et influence donc, lui aussi, les normes sociales. La société dicte les normes sociales qui découlent, entre autres, de la

culture. Finalement, les individus choisissent les aliments qu'ils consomment et ont ainsi un impact sur l'offre alimentaire selon le principe de l'offre et de la demande. Ainsi, les quatre environnements représentés par le coût (environnement économique), les normes sociales (environnement social), la réglementation (environnement politique) et la disponibilité et promotion des aliments de qualité (environnement physique) sont influencés de diverses manières par les acteurs principaux (Swinburn, Sacks, Vandevijvere, Kumanyika, Lobstein, Neal, Barquera, Friel, Hawkes, Kelly, L'Abbe, Lee, Ma, Macmullan, Mohan, Monteiro, Rayner, Sanders, Snowdon, Walker, et al., 2013).

#### **1.3.4 La méthode de priorisation ANGELO**

La méthode ANGELO (c.-à-d. Grille d'analyse des environnements liés à l'obésité) est davantage ancrée dans l'élaboration d'un plan de surveillance ou d'identification des composantes individuelles ou environnementales qui représentent un obstacle à la saine alimentation ou à l'activité physique (Simmons et al., 2009). Tout comme le modèle précédent, cette méthode a été développée par l'équipe de recherche de Swinburn et al. À la base, celle-ci servait à catégoriser les composantes des environnements obésogènes à deux niveaux : micro ou macro. Elle a ensuite été utilisée pour évaluer les déterminants environnementaux ou les interventions possibles (Simmons et al., 2009). Bien que la méthode touche aussi l'activité physique et les variables individuelles, dans la présente description, seulement les aspects liés aux environnements alimentaires seront présentés. Dans la grille ANGELO, on retrouve les deux grandes dimensions de l'environnement, soit le niveau micro qui est représenté par les petits milieux où les individus se rassemblent (écoles, milieux de travail, quartiers, etc.) et le niveau macro qui est un regroupement de plusieurs industries, services ou infrastructures ayant également une influence sur les habitudes alimentaires (p. ex. le gouvernement, l'industrie alimentaire ou le système de santé). Ensuite, comme les deux précédents modèles, la grille présente les quatre environnements : physique (disponibilité des aliments à différents points de vente), économique (les coûts liés à l'alimentation), politique (règlements, politiques gouvernementales ou institutionnelles portant sur les aliments ou la nutrition) et

socioculturel (attitudes, croyances et valeurs de la société en rapport aux aliments). À l'aide de cette grille, les intervenants peuvent analyser la situation pour déterminer les caractéristiques importantes pour la communauté (étape 1), surveiller les environnements pouvant être modifiés (étape 2), les hiérarchiser en ordre d'importance et de facilité à les modifier (étape 3), fusionner les listes de cibles possibles pour le plan d'action (étape 4), puis finalement, formuler un plan d'action (étape 5) (Organisation mondiale de la santé (OMS), 2012).

Il est important de noter que modèle des environnements ainsi que la méthode ANGELO, tous deux proposés par l'équipe de Swinburn et al. (2013), ont servi de base à certains documents gouvernementaux au Québec dont la « Vision commune des environnements favorables à la saine alimentation, à un mode de vie actif et à la prévention des problèmes reliés au poids ». Ce document sert à uniformiser la définition du concept des environnements favorables chez les experts de divers milieux afin de coordonner les efforts en santé (Mongeau, 2012). Cet outil prend donc une grande place dans les actions en santé publique au Québec.

### **1.3.5 Modèle des environnements alimentaires communautaires**

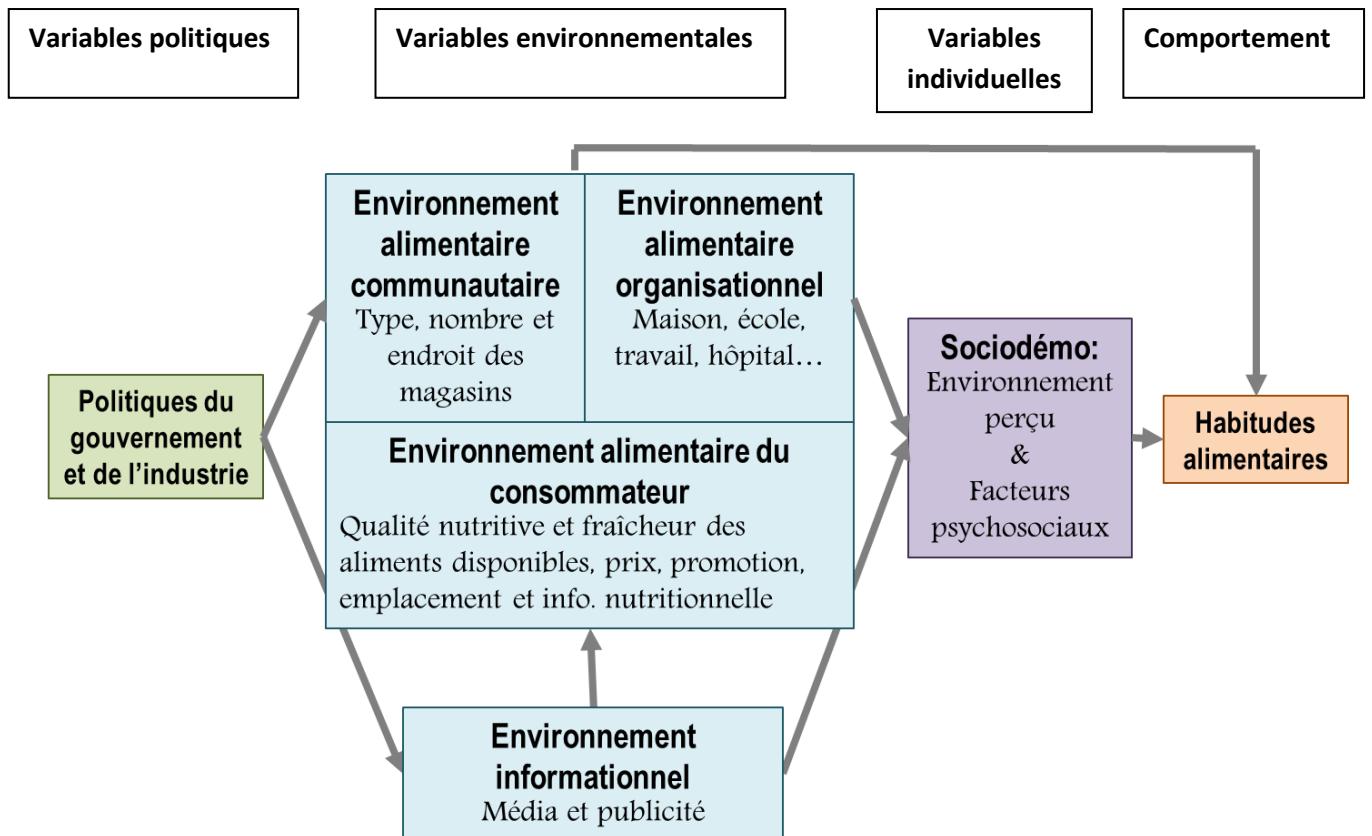
Le modèle conceptuel des environnements alimentaires communautaires a été proposé dans le but de guider le développement d'outils de mesure de l'environnement alimentaire (Glanz et al., 2005). Il est inspiré du modèle écologique ainsi que de facteurs provenant de multiples disciplines (c.-à-d. santé publique, psychologie de la santé, psychologie du consommateur ou aménagement du territoire) pouvant influencer l'alimentation des individus. Le modèle présente quatre variables environnementales : l'environnement alimentaire communautaire, l'environnement alimentaire organisationnel, l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur et l'environnement informationnel (Figure 1). Ces variables sont influencées par les politiques de l'industrie ou du gouvernement. Elles peuvent influencer soit directement les habitudes alimentaires ou être médiées par les facteurs

psychosociaux comme la perception qu'ont les individus de leur environnement. De façon plus précise, les auteurs définissent chacun des environnements ainsi :

- L'environnement alimentaire communautaire représente le type, le nombre, l'endroit et l'accessibilité (p. ex. heures d'ouverture et commande à l'auto) aux différents magasins d'alimentation. Les magasins d'alimentation englobent surtout les restaurants et les commerces.
- L'environnement alimentaire organisationnel regroupe l'ensemble de l'offre alimentaire des autres milieux de vie (p. ex. écoles, établissements de soins de santé, milieux de travail, église...). Cet environnement se distingue puisque généralement cette offre alimentaire n'est accessible qu'à un groupe précis de la population. De plus, il inclut l'offre alimentaire dans les logements privés.
- L'environnement alimentaire du consommateur est représenté par tout ce que le consommateur rencontre à l'intérieur ou autour du magasin d'alimentation. Bien que cet environnement vise plus particulièrement les restaurants et commerces, toutes les caractéristiques (qualité nutritionnelle, prix, promotion, emplacement, diversité de choix, fraîcheur et information nutritionnelle) de celui-ci s'appliquent également aux milieux de vie de l'environnement alimentaire organisationnel.
- L'environnement alimentaire de l'information est défini comme l'ensemble des informations véhiculées par la publicité et les médias pouvant influencer les habitudes alimentaires (Glanz et al., 2005).

Ce modèle a été grandement utilisé, d'une part, comme modèle théorique pour l'analyse des études sur l'environnement alimentaire et, d'autre part, dans la création d'outils (Gamba et al., 2015; McKinnon et al., 2009; L. M. Minaker, Raine, & Cash, 2009; L. M. Minaker et al., 2016; Penney et al., 2014; L. K. Williams et al., 2012). C'est pourquoi ce modèle a été choisi comme base théorique pour la présente étude. Glanz et al. ont principalement mis l'accent sur l'environnement alimentaire communautaire et du consommateur puisque ces deux environnements ont été moins étudiés et sont susceptibles d'avoir un impact important sur la santé (Glanz et al., 2005). Plus récemment, Engler-Stringer et al. ont affirmé que depuis la publication du modèle, beaucoup de projets de

recherche ont été effectués à ce sujet, mais que plusieurs lacunes dans la littérature demeurent (Engler-Stringer et al., 2014). Ainsi, les caractéristiques et les limites dans la littérature liées à ces deux environnements seront détaillées davantage dans la prochaine section.



**Figure 1: Modèle conceptuel des environnements alimentaires communautaires**

(Figure tirée et traduite de Glanz K, F. Sallis J, E. Saelens B et al. (2005) Healthy Nutrition Environments: Concepts and Measures. American Journal of Health Promotion 19, 330-333. [Autorisation obtenue par le journal])

## **1.4 Principales variables environnementales du modèle des environnements alimentaires communautaires**

### **1.4.1 Environnement alimentaire communautaire**

#### ***1.4.1.1 Description des études sur cet environnement***

L'environnement alimentaire communautaire fait partie de l'environnement bâti. Ce dernier inclut la conception de l'espace, les modes d'utilisation de l'espace et les réseaux de transport donnant accès aux espaces (Lake & Townshend, 2006). Ainsi, les chercheurs évaluant l'environnement au niveau macro peuvent évaluer autant l'accès à différents types de détaillants alimentaires que la disposition des espaces verts dans une ville. De son côté, l'étude de l'environnement alimentaire communautaire fait uniquement référence à l'accès aux différents types de détaillants alimentaires ayant un impact sur les habitudes alimentaires et la santé. Plus précisément, cet environnement est principalement évalué à l'aide de systèmes d'information géographique qui permettent d'analyser la présence de magasins favorables à la santé ou non, la densité de ceux-ci ainsi que leur proximité aux quartiers résidentiels ou autres milieux comme les écoles (Feng, Glass, Curriero, Stewart, & Schwartz, 2010). D'ailleurs, la mesure d'accès géographique est la mesure la plus utilisée pour évaluer l'environnement alimentaire (McKinnon et al., 2009).

#### ***1.4.1.2 Lien avec l'alimentation et la santé***

La littérature présente des liens contradictoires entre les mesures de l'environnement alimentaire communautaire et les variables d'alimentation ou de santé (Cobb et al., 2015; Engler-Stringer et al., 2014; Gustafson et al., 2011). En effet, une revue systématique de 2015 démontre que la plupart des études qui évaluent le lien entre la disponibilité des supermarchés, épiceries ou établissements de restauration rapide et l'obésité présentent des associations nulles (Cobb et al., 2015). De plus, il se pourrait qu'il y ait plus d'études menant à des résultats nuls que cela, car les résultats significatifs tendent à être publiés davantage que les résultats nuls (biais de publication). Une autre revue met de l'avant que

les mesures auto-rapportées semblent être liées de façon plus constante avec la consommation de fruits et légumes que les mesures plus objectives (Ni Mhurchu et al., 2013). Parmi les initiatives prometteuses qui nécessitent plus de recherche, on retrouve la disponibilité de marchés fermiers, de jardins communautaires ou de coopératives, ainsi que l'implantation d'un supermarché dans un quartier défavorisé (Story et al., 2008). Bien que cette dernière initiative tend à réduire les inégalités sociales, son efficacité n'est pas démontrée par la littérature jusqu'ici (Sallis & Glanz, 2009).

#### ***1.4.1.3 Lacunes dans la littérature***

Certains auteurs ont émis plusieurs critiques quant à l'évaluation de l'environnement alimentaire communautaire. Ces lacunes pourraient même expliquer en grande partie l'impossibilité de voir un lien clair entre cet environnement et les habitudes alimentaires ou la santé.

D'abord et avant tout, il y a un manque flagrant de constance dans les éléments mesurés; que ce soit au niveau des distances, des sources de données, du nombre ou des lieux (Rootman & O'Neill, 2012). Par exemple, les études peuvent prendre en compte des distances de 160 à 3000 m entre le lieu de résidence et le commerce alimentaire (Engler-Stringer et al., 2014). Il en est de même pour la définition des différents types de magasin. Par exemple, les études ne définissent pas toutes la restauration rapide de la même manière (Gamba et al., 2015). Ceci rend impossible la mesure d'impact et la synthèse sous forme de méta-analyse (Cobb et al., 2015; Feng et al., 2010; Gamba et al., 2015; Townshend & Lake, 2017).

Une autre critique de la recherche sur l'accès géographique est que les chercheurs considèrent souvent l'accès à un milieu par rapport à la maison. Or, les gens ne s'approvisionnent pas nécessairement près de chez eux. Il est très simpliste de voir

l'environnement de façon statique. Les gens se déplacent pour aller à l'école, au travail ou pour se divertir et ils peuvent très bien acheter des aliments en route (Feng et al., 2010; Lytle, 2009; Ni Mhurchu et al., 2013; Penney et al., 2014). Caspi et al. affirment que la mesure de l'accès est un moyen économique et rapide de mesurer l'environnement, mais elle ne décrit pas bien l'environnement dans sa globalité (Caspi et al., 2012). En effet, un même espace géographique est influencé par plusieurs environnements, comme décrits dans la section précédente : environnement physique, social, culturel et politique (Lytle, 2009). Il peut ainsi devenir difficile d'isoler l'impact de l'accès géographique qui ne représente qu'une seule composante de l'environnement alimentaire (Cobb et al., 2015). Il faudrait donc considérer l'environnement alimentaire de façon plus globale en considérant, par exemple, l'offre alimentaire à l'intérieur des commerces (Gamba et al., 2015). Dans le même sens, il est important de tenir compte des caractéristiques de la population, comme l'ethnicité, le sexe ou la position socio-économique lors de l'évaluation de l'accès (Feng et al., 2010). À titre d'exemple, Feng et al. proposent que les personnes favorisées voyagent davantage pour se procurer des aliments, alors que les personnes défavorisées seraient plus dépendantes de leur environnement proximal (Feng et al., 2010). Il y a également une réflexion à avoir sur les raisons qui poussent un individu à s'établir à un endroit par rapport à un autre (Feng et al., 2010; Lake & Townshend, 2006). C'est pourquoi les auteurs proposent de combiner l'ethnographie et les mesures géographiques afin de tenir compte des perceptions des consommateurs quant à l'accessibilité aux différents commerces (Feng et al., 2010; Townshend & Lake, 2017).

En résumé, il est clair que plus de recherche en lien avec l'environnement alimentaire communautaire est nécessaire pour valider l'impact de celui-ci sur les maladies chroniques. Les outils de mesure se doivent d'être uniformisés et plus d'aspects de l'environnement doivent être pris en compte, dont l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur (Gamba et al., 2015).

## **1.4.2 Environnement alimentaire du consommateur**

### ***1.4.2.1 Description des études sur cet environnement***

L'évaluation de l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur peut se faire de diverses façons. Les composantes de cet environnement les plus souvent évaluées sont : la disponibilité, l'information nutritionnelle, le prix, la promotion et l'emplacement de certains aliments (Eyler et al., 2015). Ces éléments peuvent se regrouper en général sous les 4P (produit, placement, promotion et prix) du marketing mix (Glanz et al., 2012; Kelly et al., 2011). Les aliments visés par les interventions ou utilisés pour l'évaluation sont souvent les fruits et légumes, les produits laitiers, les confiseries, les pâtisseries ou les collations grasses (Glanz et al., 2012; Sallis & Glanz, 2009).

### ***1.4.2.2 Lien avec l'alimentation et la santé***

Comme pour l'environnement alimentaire communautaire, le lien entre l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur et les variables de santé n'est pas clair dans la littérature (Ni Mhurchu et al., 2013). Quelques auteurs ont toutefois mentionné que les interventions sur cet environnement étaient prometteuses (Adam & Jensen, 2016; Engler-Stringer et al., 2014). Cela dépendrait, entre autres, des composantes considérées dans l'évaluation. En effet, les études en marketing démontrent clairement le lien entre les achats des consommateurs et la promotion ou l'emplacement des produits (Ni Mhurchu et al., 2013). Certains auteurs proposent que l'information nutritionnelle, qui inclut l'affichage de logos ou d'allégations en lien avec la valeur nutritive, puisse avoir des retombées positives sur les achats d'aliments sains et la santé (Hayashi & Takemi, 2015; Matson-Koffman, Brownstein, Neiner, & Greaney, 2005; Sallis & Glanz, 2009). Une revue systématique sur l'efficacité des interventions chez les détaillants alimentaires démontre que, généralement, les interventions modifiant le prix des aliments ont un effet sur l'achat de ces aliments. Il en est de même pour les interventions qui combinent plusieurs composantes soit : la disponibilité, le prix et l'information nutritionnelle (incluant l'étiquetage nutritionnel, les promotions, les affiches, les dépliants et les brochures) (Adam & Jensen, 2016).

#### **1.4.2.3 Lacunes dans la littérature**

D'abord, il est important de mentionner que l'offre alimentaire à l'intérieur des commerces alimentaires semble être moins étudiée que l'accessibilité à celle-ci (Glanz et al., 2012; McKinnon et al., 2009; L. M. Minaker et al., 2016). De plus, l'offre alimentaire de certains milieux comme les restaurants et les milieux non traditionnels (p. ex. pharmacies, magasins à un dollar) a moins été évaluée (Gustafson et al., 2011; Sallis & Glanz, 2009).

Bien entendu, la lacune majeure en termes d'évaluation de l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur relève de la trop grande diversité d'outils de mesure de cet environnement. En effet, la plupart ne prennent pas en compte les mêmes critères (p. ex. disponibilité, emplacement, promotion, prix) et ne ciblent pas les mêmes aliments (Gustafson et al., 2011; Ni Mhurchu et al., 2013). Il y a un manque de consensus quant aux définitions des aliments considérés comme « sains » ou « non sains » (Adam & Jensen, 2016). Ceci rend la synthèse très difficile, puisque les études ne sont pas comparables entre elles. Sans oublier qu'il y a sans doute d'autres composantes à considérer comme l'acceptabilité, tant culturelle que familiale, et la disponibilité d'aliments bien précis qui répondent aux besoins des consommateurs, comme les aliments biologiques par exemple (Caspi et al., 2012).

#### **1.4.3 Les lacunes en lien avec l'évaluation des environnements**

De multiples critiques quant à l'évaluation et aux interventions liées à l'environnement alimentaire communautaire et l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur ont été énoncées par divers chercheurs. Plusieurs d'entre eux ont identifié des lacunes dans la littérature s'appliquant à l'évaluation de l'environnement alimentaire en général et ils proposent des recommandations pour la recherche future dans ce domaine.

#### ***1.4.3.1 Méthodologie : validité et type d'étude***

Une des principales critiques liées aux études évaluant l'environnement alimentaire est le manque de rigueur méthodologique. Ceci se traduit d'abord par le fait que peu d'études ont testé les mesures psychométriques (la fiabilité, la validité, la variance, l'utilité pour la population et l'utilité pour la santé) des outils de mesure utilisés (Lytle, 2009; Lytle & Sokol, 2017; Penney et al., 2014; Story et al., 2008). Une récente revue des outils de mesure de l'environnement alimentaire révèle que seulement 13% des outils avaient été testés pour des propriétés psychométriques (McKinnon et al., 2009).

Ensuite, le type d'étude que l'on retrouve dans la littérature ne permet pas de bien établir le lien entre les variables de santé ou de l'alimentation et l'environnement alimentaire. En effet, il y a une nécessité de produire davantage d'études longitudinales ou d'expérimentation en contexte naturel (Cobb et al., 2015; Feng et al., 2010; Gustafson et al., 2011). Cette dernière se produit lorsqu'un événement voulant être étudié survient naturellement dans un environnement, ce qui vient contrer la problématique des coûts excessifs liés aux essais contrôlés randomisés à grande échelle (Lytle, 2009). Un exemple de ce type d'étude serait l'évaluation et l'analyse à long terme de l'impact sur la santé de l'ouverture d'un supermarché dans un quartier défavorisé.

#### ***1.4.3.2 Intersectorialité***

Plusieurs auteurs ont mentionné la nécessité de travailler en intersectorialité tant pour développer des stratégies afin de rendre les environnements plus favorables que pour créer des outils de mesure de l'environnement (Hayashi & Takemi, 2015; Sallis & Glanz, 2009). Penney et al. expliquent en partie la grande variation entre les différents outils par le fait que les professionnels qui les utilisent proviennent de domaines bien différents (p.ex. aménagement du territoire, géographie, économie, nutrition, santé publique, sciences comportementales ou psychométries) (Lytle & Sokol, 2017; Penney et al., 2014). Ces

différents professionnels ont des besoins différents. Alors que les chercheurs recherchent davantage la validité (c.-à.-d. des outils plus détaillés et nécessitant davantage d'expertise), les praticiens se basent sur la facilité d'implantation et l'aspect pratique comme par exemple l'utilisation rapide de l'outil d'évaluation (Eyler et al., 2015).

#### ***1.4.3.3 Variété des milieux à l'étude***

Un autre point à améliorer dans l'évaluation ou l'amélioration des environnements est la considération de tous les milieux de vie, plus particulièrement les lieux d'approvisionnement alternatifs comme les magasins à un dollar ou les pharmacies (Gamba et al., 2015; Gustafson et al., 2011; Sallis & Glanz, 2009). En effet, dans la littérature actuelle, ce sont surtout les supermarchés, les épiceries et les dépanneurs qui sont évalués (Glanz et al., 2016). Il faut également considérer davantage les environnements où les gens vivent, travaillent et se divertissent. En effet, il ne faut pas oublier que les individus passent beaucoup de temps à l'extérieur de leur domicile. Par exemple, aux États-Unis, 60% des enfants de 5 ans et moins passent près de 30 heures par semaine en garderie et il en est ainsi pour les enfants en milieu scolaire ou les travailleurs dans leur milieu de travail (Story et al., 2008). Cela implique qu'ils consomment jusqu'à deux repas et plusieurs collations à l'extérieur du domicile. Les interventions dans ces milieux sont donc susceptibles d'avoir un impact direct sur les habitudes alimentaires des communautés (Kelly et al., 2011).

#### ***1.4.3.4 Considération de l'environnement perçu***

Tant du côté de l'environnement alimentaire communautaire que de celui du consommateur, il est primordial de tenir compte de l'environnement perçu (Eyler et al., 2015; Penney et al., 2014). Ceci implique qu'il faut étudier les perceptions des gens et ce qui influence leurs choix (Cobb et al., 2015; Lytle, 2009). Ceci permettrait d'ailleurs de comprendre davantage les liens incertains entre les différents environnements alimentaires et les variables de santé ou d'alimentation. Si on modifie, par exemple, la disponibilité et le

prix des fruits et légumes, mais que les consommateurs ne les perçoivent pas comme plus disponibles et abordables, il se peut qu'aucun changement de comportement ne s'effectue.

#### ***1.4.3.5 Définitions et composantes***

Finalement, les deux points les plus importants au niveau de la méthodologie des études actuelles sont le manque d'uniformité au niveau des composantes à considérer tant dans l'évaluation que dans l'amélioration de l'environnement alimentaire et le manque de définition de chaque concept lié aux environnements. La principale difficulté liée aux composantes à considérer provient du fait que l'environnement alimentaire a de multiples niveaux d'influence possible (Penney et al., 2014). Lytle soulève des questions intéressantes à savoir quelles sont les composantes obésogènes les plus importantes à prendre en compte dans les environnements (Lytle, 2009). Est-ce, par exemple, le prix, le type d'aliments ou les portions? Quels aliments doit-on considérer et sur quelle base? Doit-on considérer les nutriments, et si oui, lesquels? Ce sont toutes des questions que plusieurs chercheurs se sont fort probablement posées et chacun a décidé d'évaluer différentes composantes d'intérêt (Lytle, 2009). Quoi qu'il en soit, ce qu'il faut retenir est qu'il n'y a toujours pas de consensus sur la façon de définir un environnement sain ou non (Penney et al., 2014). C'est pourquoi Caspi et al. et Cobb et al. invitent la communauté scientifique à discuter et à reconstruire la définition de l'environnement alimentaire et les concepts en lien avec celui-ci (Caspi et al., 2012; Cobb et al., 2015). Sans oublier le fait que les composantes liées au contexte socioéconomique et socioculturel sont souvent négligées (Caspi et al., 2012). Les définitions liées à l'environnement alimentaire devraient donc inclure de multiples dimensions (Penney et al., 2014), comme il sera le cas dans les présents travaux de maîtrise.

## **1.5 L'apport de la littérature grise**

Quelques auteurs ayant rédigé des revues de littérature d'outils de mesure de l'environnement alimentaire mentionnent dans les limites de leur étude qu'ils n'ont pas pris en compte la littérature grise (McKinnon et al., 2009; Ohri-Vachaspati & Leviton, 2010). Celle-ci contient effectivement les outils de mesure et d'intervention utilisés par les leaders organisationnels et/ou décideurs politiques et les praticiens, ce qui peut grandement ajouter à la compréhension du concept d'environnement alimentaire.

Deux rapports canadiens ont été publiés, où le rapport de l'Institut National de Santé Publique (INSPQ) a analysé 57 instruments de mesure de l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur dans les supermarchés, épiceries et dépanneurs, alors que le rapport de Santé Canada présente les modèles conceptuels et les mesures utilisées dans la recherche sur l'environnement alimentaire (Health Canada, 2013; Plamondon & Paquette, 2015). Les rapports présentent plusieurs faits saillants semblables à ceux présentés dans la littérature scientifique. D'une part, le rapport de l'Institut national de santé publique fait ressortir la grande variabilité dans les outils de mesure, ce qui est également appuyé par le rapport de Santé Canada (Health Canada, 2013; Plamondon & Paquette, 2015). Ce dernier en explique la grande variabilité par le fait que le sujet touche à plusieurs disciplines. Ensuite, Santé Canada soulève qu'il est important de tenir compte des perceptions des consommateurs (Health Canada, 2013). Ce qui est particulièrement intéressant, c'est le manque d'uniformité et de standardisation au niveau des définitions des concepts liés à l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur. Pour ne citer qu'un exemple, Plamondon et Paquette affirment que, par manque de typologie standardisée des composantes de l'offre alimentaire, les auteurs ont dû en proposer une pour pouvoir réaliser les analyses (Plamondon & Paquette, 2015).

Un autre document qui revêt une grande importance dans la littérature grise à l'échelle québécoise est la « Vision de la saine alimentation pour la création d'environnements

alimentaires favorables à la santé » publié par le Ministère de la santé et des services sociaux (MSSS). Comme son nom l'indique, ce document permet à tous les acteurs ayant une influence sur les environnements d'avoir la même vision de la saine alimentation afin d'instaurer des environnements qui sauront favoriser les comportements de santé. Les auteurs présentent cinq dimensions de la saine alimentation soit la dimension socioculturelle, biologique, économique, de la sécurité alimentaire ou du développement durable. La dimension socioculturelle inclut donc les concepts de respect des préférences culturelles et du goût. La dimension biologique inclut l'aspect nutritionnel et l'hygiène et la salubrité des aliments. La dimension économique implique tant le prix des aliments pour les consommateurs que le juste prix pour les producteurs. La sécurité alimentaire comprend l'accès physique et économique à des aliments de qualité, en quantité et variété suffisantes. Finalement, la dimension du développement durable inclut, entre autres, des notions d'empreinte écologique. Ainsi, selon les auteurs, la mise en place de conditions favorables en lien avec ces cinq dimensions est nécessaire pour contribuer à la saine alimentation (Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux, 2010). Ceci vient confirmer l'avis de certains chercheurs (voir section 1.4.3) qui mentionnaient que trop peu d'études avaient analysé des composantes plus socioculturelles de l'environnement. Sans oublier que la dimension du développement durable ressort très peu dans les revues de littérature scientifique présentées dans cette section du mémoire. Ainsi, la « Vision de la saine alimentation » laisse croire que plus de composantes doivent être étudiées dans le cadre de l'évaluation ou de l'amélioration de l'environnement alimentaire.

## **1.6 Miser sur l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur**

De grandes lacunes dans la littérature scientifique et grise subsistent, tant au niveau de l'environnement alimentaire communautaire que de celui du consommateur. Pourtant, ces deux environnements sont grandement différents. Caspi et al. différencient les deux mesures en mentionnant que l'environnement alimentaire communautaire est la mesure des magasins, alors que l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur est la mesure des

aliments (Caspi et al., 2012). Gustafson et al. les différencient plutôt par leur niveau d'influence soit le niveau macro et le niveau micro, respectivement (Gustafson et al., 2011). Comme il a bien été démontré dans la section précédente, ces deux environnements sont complémentaires. Malheureusement, l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur a été moins étudié que l'environnement communautaire (Glanz et al., 2012; McKinnon et al., 2009; L. M. Minaker et al., 2016). De plus, l'accès géographique à certains types de commerces alimentaires est souvent utilisé comme un raccourci pour évaluer l'accès à une offre alimentaire de qualité (Caspi et al., 2012). Or, l'offre alimentaire, que ce soit au niveau de la disponibilité ou des techniques de marketing, varie beaucoup dans un même type de commerce d'un quartier à l'autre (Cobb et al., 2015). Ensuite, l'étude de l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur permet de mieux caractériser les environnements plus larges comme l'environnement alimentaire communautaire (Penney et al., 2014). Pour cette même raison, il est également moins coûteux d'intervenir dans cet environnement plus micro, ce qui peut être une alternative prometteuse en matière d'amélioration de la santé (Sallis & Glanz, 2009). Sans oublier que les composantes de celui-ci peuvent également s'appliquer à l'environnement alimentaire organisationnel, qui comprend plusieurs milieux de vie comme les écoles, les milieux de travail et milieux récréatifs (Glanz et al., 2005). Pour finir, comme il a été démontré précédemment, lesdites composantes semblent également moins bien décrites et certaines d'entre elles sont souvent peu étudiées. C'est pour toutes ces raisons que l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur a été sélectionné comme sujet d'intérêt pour la présente étude.

D'un point de vue pratique et de manière à uniformiser la typologie employée, l'expression « offre alimentaire » sera utilisée davantage dans les sections suivantes. Cela s'explique par le fait que c'est le terme employé avec le comité de travail et avec les différents acteurs gravitant autour de l'Observatoire qui sera présenté dans la section suivante.

## **1.7 D'un point de vue pratique**

### **1.7.1 Observatoire de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire**

L'Observatoire a été créé en 2015. L'organisation est composée d'un comité directeur, d'un comité scientifique, d'un comité des utilisateurs, d'un comité aviseur en éthique et d'un comité de transfert de connaissances qui joignent leurs expertises diversifiées afin de réaliser la mission : observer et suivre l'évolution de l'offre alimentaire dans le but d'en améliorer la qualité et l'accessibilité. Ainsi, les recherches se font selon trois grands axes : 1) Caractérisation et suivi d'une offre alimentaire de qualité et accessible à tous; 2) Soutien du changement auprès des acteurs de l'industrie bioalimentaire et 3) Mobilisation intersectorielle et application éthique des connaissances. Afin d'atteindre ces objectifs, l'Observatoire doit se doter d'une définition et de critères communs de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire. C'est d'ailleurs un besoin qui avait été énoncé lors d'une consultation auprès des utilisateurs. De par son souci de rigueur scientifique et d'objectivité, l'organisation a voulu se baser sur les données probantes pour constituer cette définition. Il ne faut pas oublier que cette définition se doit d'être multidisciplinaire afin de mobiliser les acteurs-clés de chaque secteur d'activité lié à l'offre alimentaire.

### **1.7.2 Travaux précédents portant sur l'évaluation de l'offre alimentaire**

C'est dans cette optique que l'Observatoire a débuté ses travaux en 2015 avec un projet intitulé SCAN (Turcotte, 2016). Par le biais d'un scan environnemental, cette première étude visait à mieux comprendre comment l'offre alimentaire était définie et mesurée par les intervenants québécois. Les objectifs spécifiques étaient donc : 1) identifier et analyser les instruments existants dans différents milieux de vie du Québec et 2) explorer l'appréciation des instruments par les acteurs-clés, que ce soit au niveau des bases théoriques, des forces et faiblesses, des facteurs facilitants et défis reliés à l'évaluation. Le cadre conceptuel utilisé pour définir les composantes utilisées lors de l'évaluation était la « Vision de la saine alimentation », qui a été énoncée précédemment (Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux, 2010). Les résultats de cette étude démontrent une grande variabilité au niveau des dimensions de la saine alimentation (biologique, socioculturelle,

économique, sécurité alimentaire et développement durable) prises en compte lors de l'évaluation des milieux de vie. On remarque ainsi que la quasi-totalité (98%) des outils ont tenu compte de la dimension biologique (p.ex. qualité nutritionnelle), alors que moins d'outils (34%) tenaient compte de la sécurité alimentaire et du développement durable. Les intervenants interviewés ont également énoncé le besoin d'avoir une classification plus précise et standardisée de ce que l'on devrait considérer de qualité au niveau de l'offre alimentaire des milieux de vie (Turcotte, 2016). Ainsi, il y a une volonté tant du côté de la communauté scientifique, comme démontré dans les revues scientifiques présentées précédemment, que du côté des praticiens à clarifier le concept de qualité de l'offre alimentaire.

Afin d'explorer davantage ce concept, l'équipe de l'Observatoire s'est penché à savoir quelle devrait être la meilleure méthodologie à utiliser. La prochaine section présente celle choisie ainsi que les raisons de ce choix.

## 1.8 La méthodologie de l'examen de la portée

Il existe diverses méthodes de synthèse de connaissances. La revue systématique vise à synthétiser des évidences qui rencontrent des critères spécifiques élaborés dès le départ. La méthode vise principalement à minimiser les biais. La méta-analyse, quant à elle, permet de calculer un effet combiné avec l'ensemble des résultats des études incluses (Duke University Medical Center, 2009). Au contraire, l'examen de la portée (ou « scoping review » en anglais) est utilisé lorsque le sujet est très large et varié, c'est-à-dire pour lequel la littérature varie en ce qui concerne le devis, la théorie utilisée et la discipline (Levac, Colquhoun, & O'Brien, 2010). Il permet donc de faire un portrait global et systématique d'un sujet de recherche (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). Arksey et O'Malley proposent quatre raisons pour lesquelles un examen de la portée pourrait être conduit, soit, afin d'évaluer l'étendue d'un sujet de recherche, de déterminer la nécessité de faire une revue systématique, de résumer et diffuser des résultats ou d'identifier des limites dans la littérature (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). D'autres auteurs ajoutent également que l'examen de la portée permet de définir ou clarifier la définition d'un concept complexe (Levac et al.,

2010). La principale différence entre l'examen de la portée et la revue systématique réside dans la précision de la question (Johanna Briggs Institute, 2015). Dans le cas de l'examen de la portée, l'information disponible est insuffisante pour identifier une question de recherche très précise et c'est parce que les documents à analyser sont trop différents les uns des autres que la qualité des études n'est souvent pas évaluée (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005). C'est tout à fait le cas pour le sujet à l'étude, soit l'offre alimentaire (ou «environnement alimentaire du consommateur»). En effet, comme il a été discuté précédemment, les environnements alimentaires sont complexes et influencent l'individu à plusieurs niveaux (Penney et al., 2014). Ceux-ci sont donc évalués par des acteurs provenant de différentes disciplines, mais aussi ayant différents rôles (chercheurs, praticiens et leaders communautaires) (Ohri-Vachaspati & Leviton, 2010). Ces acteurs n'ont pas tous le même objectif ni la même manière de partager leurs résultats. Dans l'optique de vouloir synthétiser la littérature en lien avec la qualité de l'offre alimentaire, il importe de tenir compte de ces enjeux. C'est donc pour toutes ces raisons que l'examen de la portée s'est avéré être la méthodologie de choix pour s'intéresser au concept de qualité de l'offre alimentaire.

## **2 Chapitre 2 : Constats et objectifs de l'étude**

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### **2.1 Constats**

En résumé, les maladies chroniques ont des conséquences tant sur la santé physique et mentale, que sur les coûts de santé (Belanger-Ducharme & Tremblay, 2005; Le commissaire à la santé et au bien-être, 2010). L'alimentation est un des déterminants modifiables des maladies chroniques les plus importants (Hayashi & Takemi, 2015; World Health Organization, 2003). Malheureusement, encore trop peu de Canadiens rencontrent les recommandations en termes de saine alimentation (Statistique Canada, 2017). Dans l'optique de promouvoir la santé, il faut non seulement modifier les comportements des individus, mais aussi les environnements dans lesquels ils évoluent (Sallis & Glanz, 2009; E. P. Williams et al., 2015). Dans le même sens, plusieurs modèles expliquant le lien entre les environnements alimentaires et les habitudes alimentaires ont fait surface dans la littérature. Le modèle conceptuel des environnements alimentaires de Glanz et al. est beaucoup utilisé comme modèle théorique dans les études (Gamba et al., 2015; Glanz et al., 2005; McKinnon et al., 2009; Leia M Minaker, 2016; Ni Mhurchu et al., 2013; Penney et al., 2014; L. K. Williams et al., 2012). C'est d'ailleurs l'environnement alimentaire communautaire et du consommateur qui sont les principaux sujets d'intérêt (Glanz et al., 2005). Les études évaluant l'environnement alimentaire communautaire, représenté par l'accès géographique aux détaillants alimentaires, comprennent plusieurs lacunes. Une des principales critiques est que la mesure de l'accès à un certain type de magasin d'alimentation est souvent utilisée comme raccourci pour mesurer l'accès à des aliments sains, malgré le fait que l'offre alimentaire dans un même type de magasin d'alimentation varie grandement d'un quartier à l'autre (Caspi et al., 2012; Cobb et al., 2015). Il faut donc tenir compte de l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur, qui est défini comme les conditions auxquelles le consommateur est exposé dans le détaillant alimentaire ainsi qu'autour de celui-ci (Glanz et al., 2012; Glanz et al., 2005; McKinnon et al., 2009; L. M. Minaker et al., 2016). Celui-ci est pertinent dans le sens où il est plus facilement modifiable, mais aussi parce que toutes les composantes de cet environnement s'appliquent

également à l'environnement alimentaire organisationnel (Glanz et al., 2005; Sallis & Glanz, 2009). Or, il s'avère que les composantes à considérer lors de l'évaluation ou de l'amélioration de cet environnement ne sont pas claires et varient grandement d'une étude à l'autre (Lytle, 2009). Il en est de même pour la définition d'un environnement alimentaire de plus ou moins bonne qualité (Penney et al., 2014). À cela, divers auteurs ajoutent qu'il est primordial de tenir compte de toutes les disciplines pouvant influencer les environnements, dont notamment des composantes plus psychosociales ou associées au développement durable, qui sont souvent oubliées (Caspi et al., 2012; Hayashi & Takemi, 2015; Sallis & Glanz, 2009). Dans le but de se doter d'une définition et de composantes communes de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire, l'examen de la portée réalisé dans le cadre du présent travail de maîtrise contribuera aux travaux de l'Observatoire. Cette méthodologie semble la plus appropriée de par le sujet très large et multidisciplinaire.

## 2.2 Hypothèse

Comme il a été décrit et décidé lors de l'élaboration du protocole de recherche, il n'y a pas d'hypothèse pour cette étude. En effet, l'hypothèse convient davantage à un contexte de recherche quantitatif au cours duquel une vérification de ces hypothèses théoriques spécifiques est réalisée, ce qui ne sera pas le cas dans le présent projet de maîtrise.

## 2.3 Objectifs de l'étude

1. Faire le portrait de la littérature scientifique et grise concernant la qualité de l'offre alimentaire;
2. Identifier les critères utilisés pour évaluer ou améliorer la qualité de l'offre alimentaire dans différents milieux;
3. Identifier les limites existantes dans la littérature sur la définition et les critères de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire.

### **3 Chapitre 3 : Protocole de recherche**

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**[Quels sont les critères utilisés lors de l'évaluation ou l'amélioration de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire? : Un protocole d'examen de la portée]**

**What are the criteria used when assessing or improving the food supply quality: A Scoping Review Protocol.\***

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#### **Acknowledgement**

Maude Lizotte; Gabrielle Plamondon; Maéva Lachance; Sonia Pomerleau; Daniela Zavala Mora; Sylvie St-Pierre; Hélène Gagnon

#### **Funding sources**

Gouvernement du Québec; Québec en forme

\*Ce protocole a été publié sur Open Science Framework en juillet 2018, accessible au lien suivant : <https://osf.io/4eqsd/>

### **3.1 RÉSUMÉ**

Afin de rendre l'offre alimentaire plus favorable à la santé, il importe de se doter d'une définition commune et de critères standardisés de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire. Cet examen de la portée vise donc à synthétiser la littérature scientifique et grise en lien avec la définition de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire et les critères importants à considérer lors de son évaluation ou amélioration. Cette revue se fera en six étapes, telles que proposées dans la littérature. Medline, CAB abstracts, PsycINFO, Web of Science, FSTA, Google et certains sites internet proposés par des utilisateurs de connaissance seront explorés pour identifier des documents pertinents. Cette synthèse contribuera à combler les lacunes de la recherche sur la définition de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire. Elle soutiendra les praticiens dans leur travail et servira de base théorique pour la recherche future.

### **3.2 ABSTRACT**

#### Background:

Considering chronic diseases prevalence and the role played by diet to prevent these diseases, there is a need to improve the quality of the food supply. To improve this food supply, a common definition and standardised evaluation criteria are necessary.

#### Objectives:

This scoping review focuses on how the quality of the food supply is defined in the literature by 1) reviewing the scientific and grey literature on this topic; 2) identifying quality criteria used for assessment or improvement of the food supply, and 3) identifying gaps in the literature about the definition of the food supply quality and its criteria. The research question is: “How is the quality of the food supply defined within different settings (food retailers, food services and restaurants)?”.

#### Methods:

We will use Arksey and O’Malley’s (2005) six steps to conduct this scoping review: 1) Identify the research question, 2) Identify relevant studies, 3) Select studies, 4) Chart the data, 5) Analyze the data, and 6) Consultation. Medline, CAB abstracts, PsycInfo, Web of Science and FSTA will be searched to identify scientific articles. Google and other websites identified by stakeholders will be used to identify the grey literature.

#### Perspectives and impacts:

To our knowledge, this is the first scoping review aiming to identify the criteria used to define the quality of the food supply. This research will contribute to filling the research gap on the definition of the food supply and the criteria to evaluate its quality, particularly within food stores or food services. It will support stakeholders’ work, and serve as a theoretical foundation for future research.

### **3.3 BACKGROUND**

Healthy eating is an important determinant of health (WHO, 2018). Even though much effort has been made to improve individuals' dietary intakes, most Canadians do not meet dietary recommendations associated with a reduced risk of chronic diseases (Garriguet, 2004). In addition to interventions targeting the individual such as education campaigns, current literature supports the need to also address food environment by making access to healthy food easier (Sallis & Glanz, 2009). More specifically, some authors mention the importance of improving access to food stores but also the quality of food supply inside those stores (Kelly et al., 2011; Penney et al., 2014). These two environmental variables are represented as the community nutrition environment and the consumer nutrition environment, respectively, in the model of community nutrition environments proposed by Glanz and al. (Glanz et al., 2005). The community nutrition environment (i.e. type and location of food outlets and their accessibility (Glanz et al., 2005)) has been well studied in the literature (Penney et al., 2014). Consumer nutrition environment is defined as what consumers encounter within a food store, restaurant or food service. The characteristics of this environment that are likely to influence eating patterns are nutritional quality of the food offered, availability of healthy options, price, promotion, placement, variety, freshness and nutritional information (Glanz et al., 2005). The measurement tools used to assess these characteristics vary widely from one study to another, but appear to mainly focus on the four P's of marketing (Product, Price, Placement and Promotion) within food stores (Kelly et al., 2011). There is therefore a need to extend the assessment to other characteristics and to also evaluate them within non-traditional food stores, such as drugstores or dollar stores (Gustafson et al., 2011). Moreover, the great variability in how the assessment of food environments is conducted could be partly explained by the diversity of backgrounds of the professionals who assess the environment (e.g. dietitians, public health workers, urban planners, economists) (Penney et al., 2014). Penney et al. (2014) also mentioned the relevance to consider psychosocial aspects such as the perception of consumers when assessing food environments. Accordingly, when examining examples of Canadian provincial government reports (HealthLinkBC, Ministry of Health, & Healthy Eating Strategy Leadership Group, 2013; Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux, 2010),

food supply quality (or supportive food environments) indeed seems to be related to more psychosocial and sustainability aspects than the characteristics proposed by Glanz and al. (Glanz et al., 2005).

In summary, it seems that there is no consensus about the definition or characteristics of the quality of the food supply within food retailers/food services/restaurants (Penney et al., 2014). Furthermore, there is a need to review the measurement tools of quality of food supply used by professionals from different disciplines and to develop common evaluation criteria (Ohri-Vachaspati & Leviton, 2010).

This project is part of the *Food Quality Observatory*'s (*Observatory*'s) mandate that aims to monitor and improve the quality of the food supply in Canada. A common and multidisciplinary definition of the quality of the food supply would help the *Observatory* to accomplish its mission and would mobilize actors from various sectors of the food chain.

### **3.4 PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES**

#### **Purpose of the study**

The purpose of this study is to synthesize the scientific and grey literature on how the quality of the food supply is defined.

#### **Objectives**

The objectives are to:

- 1) Review the scientific and grey literature about the quality of the food supply;
- 2) Identify criteria used for assessing or improving the quality of food supply within different settings;
- 3) Identify gaps in the literature on the definition of the quality of the food supply and its criteria.

### **3.5 METHODOLOGY**

The scoping review is a methodology that allows mapping of all key concepts related to a research subject. Its use is recommended when the subject is broad or emerging (Johanna Briggs Institute, 2015). Because the quality of the food supply is a multidisciplinary subject, this methodology thus appears to be the best way to achieve our objectives.

Our scoping review follows the six steps proposed by Arksey and O’Malley (2005).

#### **1. Identify the research question**

As recommended by Levac et al. (2010) and the Joanna Briggs Institute (2015), it is important to define the target population, context, and concepts associated with the subject (PCC). In this case, the population is represented by all consumers without special health conditions. The context is defined as all types of settings (food retailers, food services and restaurants) found in developed countries excluding the home (Appendix 1). There are also three concepts: 1) we consider every assessment, intervention, proposition of a tool or concept as a “definition” 2) in this review, the “quality” is defined as all characteristics considered desirable from a food supply point of view and 3) the “food supply” is defined as what consumers encounter within different settings (food retailers, food services and restaurants) [definition adapted from (Glanz et al., 2016)]. The “food supply” concept represents the distribution sector in the food supply chain. According to these definitions, we identified seven eligibility criteria and three exclusion criteria:

#### Eligibility criteria:

- 1) The objectives or the purpose of the study/document must be the assessment, the improvement or the making of recommendations related to the food supply in different settings excluding the home;
- 2) The study/document must focus on the objective aspects of the food supply and not on the perception by community actors (industry, consumers, key informants, government) or only on consumer’s behaviors (food intake, consumption, food sales) ;

- 3) The study/document must concern the quality of the whole food supply and not only the quality of a specific food or food category (food quality outside of the food supply context);
- 4) The study/document must take place in a developed country;
- 5) Type of documents: For the scientific literature, the article has to be peer-reviewed. Editorials and commentaries published in peer-reviewed journals are also eligible. For the grey literature, the document has to be written by an association or government.
- 6) Languages: The study/document has to be written in French or English.
- 7) Year of publication: The study/document must be published between 2005 and 2017.

Exclusion criteria:

- 1) Type of documents: We exclude power-point, conference proceedings, thesis, book and book chapter.
- 2) The study/document assesses geographical accessibility only.
- 3) The study/document concerns the development of a nutrient profiling model.

## **2. Identify relevant studies**

In order to identify relevant studies, an information specialist from *Université Laval* will develop the search strategies. Pre-selection of few articles will serve as a basis to ensure the relevance of the results obtained with the search strategy. The final search strategy will be validated by another information specialist. The first strategy will be developed for Medline and then adapted for PsycInfo, CAB abstracts, Web of Science and FSTA. Keywords related to our main concepts will be used: “food environment”, “healthy policy”, “assessment”, “food quality” and others.

For the grey literature search, stakeholders will identify key documents and websites. A search strategy in French and English will then be developed for Google and the first 100 results will be screened for inclusion.

### **3. Select studies**

The selection process will be conducted in two steps:

a. Screening of titles and abstracts

Titles and abstracts of all articles/documents identified with the five databases and Google will be screened independently by two reviewers from the research team (JL, MT). In order to be more inclusive, all articles selected by either reviewers will be kept for the next step. Reviewers will meet each week to discuss and clarify eligibility criteria.

b. Screening of full-text

From all selected studies, 10% will be screened independently by two reviewers to test the inter-reviewer agreement or until we reach an 80% agreement. One reviewer will then screen the remaining articles and documents, and decisions will be verified for 10% of documents/articles. All unclear criteria for each document/article will be discussed. If needed, a third reviewer will resolve potential conflicts.

### **4. Chart the data**

The research committee formed by researchers and stakeholders will meet to define the characteristics that will be extracted. This preliminary list will be proposed and adapted by the committee:

- Author name
- Year of publication
- Country
- Title
- Journal
- Types of publication (grey or scientific literature)
- Aim or objectives of the study
- Types of settings (food retailers/food services/restaurants) (Appendix 1)
- Definition of food supply quality
- Characteristics/Criteria of food supply quality

The data-charting form will be first tested and adapted by the two reviewers. They will then conduct data extraction until they reach an 80% agreement. Then data extraction will be

conducted by one reviewer and verified by a second reviewer. A third reviewer will also resolve conflicts.

## **5. Collate, summarize and report results**

### a. Analysis

Data will be analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. To achieve the first objective, author name, year of publication, country, title, journal, status of publication, objectives of the study and types of settings will be analyzed and reported for all included studies/documents.

Because we predict a large number of included studies, a randomized selection of studies/documents per type of settings (total n≈100) will be performed in order to complete the qualitative analysis of definitions and characteristics/evaluation criteria of food supply quality (objective 2). This part will be supported by the use of NVivo Software (QSR International). Objective 3 will be achieved by synthesizing the gaps found in the data related to the first two objectives.

### b. Reporting the results

Results will be reported narratively and in tables, graphs and diagram forms.

### c. Apply meaning to the results

A common definition and criteria of food supply quality will serve as a basis for stakeholders to assess and improve the food supply in different settings. Also, the identification of gaps in literature could help identify avenues for future research.

## **6. Consultation**

In order to ensure knowledge transfer to stakeholders and scientific community, preliminary results will be presented at a stakeholders' forum organised by the *Observatory*. Then, we expect to present our results in various scientific conferences. A master's thesis will be written and published on *Université Laval*'s library website. Finally, a scientific article will be written and submitted to a nutrition or public health journal.

### **3.6 APPENDIX 1:**

**Developed country according the Human development index (Programme des Nations Unies pour le développement, 2015):**

Albania, Algeria, America, Andorra, Antigua, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Barbuda, Barbados, Belarus, Belize, Belgium, Bosnia, Brazil, Brunei, Bulgaria, Darussalam, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Ecuador, Estonia, Fiji, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Grenada, Grenadines, Herzegovina, Hong Kong, Hungary, Iceland, Iran, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Korea (Republic of), Kuwait, Latvia, Lebanon, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Libya, Malaysia, Maldives, Malta, Mauritius, Mexico, Mongolia, Montenegro, Netherlands, Nevis, New Zealand, Norway, Oman, Palau, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russian Federation, Saint Kitts, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent, Samoa, Saudi Arabia, Serbia, Seychelles, Singapore, Slovak, Slovenia, Spain, Sri Lanka, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Tobago, Tonga, Trinidad, Tunisia, Turkey, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia

**Appendix 1: Table 1 : Types of settings (MAPAQ, 2014):**

Food retailers	
Food stores	Supermarkets, corner stores, convenience stores, speciality stores
Non-food stores	Discount stores, warehouse clubs/stores, drugstores, gas stations
Alternative food supply	On-site sales, Public/Farmers markets , Online stores, Mobile markets, Community Supported Agriculture (CSA)
Food services	
School (primary and high school)	School, Vending machines, Daycare services, After school programs, Childcare services in school
School (post high school)	Universities, Colleges
Childcare centre	
Healthcare system	Hospital cafeteria, Nursing homes
Worksites	All except hospital cafeteria
Hotels	Hotels, Resorts
Municipal, sports and communities	Arena, Summer camps, Municipal parks, Recreational settings, Municipal celebrations
Church	Church
Parks and camping	Federal and provincial parks
More than 3 categories	Food supply in general or more than 3 categories
Restaurants	
Restaurants	Coffee shop, Fast-food restaurants, Gourmet restaurants, Food caterers, Food chains , Independents restaurants

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## **4 Chapitre 4 : [Quels sont les critères utilisés pour l'évaluation ou l'amélioration de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire : un examen de la portée]**

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**Title:** What are the criteria used when assessing or improving the food supply quality: A Scoping Review.\*

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### **Acknowledgement**

The authors are grateful to all undergraduate students in nutrition (Gabrielle Plamondon, Maude Lizotte and Maéva Lachance) and the research assistant, Sonia Pomerleau, who participated to the selection process. They also thank the two knowledge users involved in the project (Sylvie St-Pierre and Hélène Gagnon) for their help in making the results usable for public health nutrition practice. Finally, the project team is grateful to all Food Quality Observatory members for their precious feedback.

### **Funding sources**

The following organizations provided funding support for the work conducted by the Food Quality Observatory: Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux du Québec, du Ministère de l'Agriculture, des Pêcheries et de l'Alimentation du Québec, Québec en forme, and the Institute of Nutrition and Functional Food.

\*Cet article est en cours de révision et sera soumis prochainement à la revue *Public Health Nutrition*.

## **4.1 RÉSUMÉ**

Le but de cet examen de la portée est de faire le portrait des évidences concernant la qualité de l'offre alimentaire et les critères utilisés pour évaluer ou améliorer celle-ci. Les six étapes proposées par Arksey and O'Malley's (2005) ont été utilisées : identifier la question de recherche, identifier les études pertinentes, sélectionner les études, extraire les données, rapporter les résultats et la consultation. Des 865 documents inclus dans la revue, la plupart ont été publiés après 2012 en Amérique du Nord, avaient pour objectif d'évaluer ou améliorer la qualité de l'offre alimentaire des magasins d'alimentation, écoles ou restaurants et provenaient du champ de la santé publique ou de la nutrition. Dans les 41 documents analysés qualitativement, la disponibilité, l'abordabilité, la quantité, la variété et la promotion étaient les critères les plus fréquemment utilisés. Cette revue a permis d'identifier des critères nécessitant plus de recherche et guider de futurs travaux.

## **4.2 ABSTRACT**

**Objective:** The aim of this scoping review is to map and summarize the evidence about the quality of the food supply as defined in the literature. Specific objectives are to 1) review the scientific and grey literature on this topic; 2) identify quality criteria used for assessment or improvement of the food supply, and 3) identify gaps in the literature about the definition of the food supply quality and its criteria.

**Design:** We used Arksey and O’Malley’s (2005) six steps to conduct a scoping review: 1) Identify the research question, 2) Identify relevant studies, 3) Select studies, 4) Chart the data, 5) Collate, summarize and report the data, and 6) Consult of experts.. Medline, CAB abstracts, PsycInfo, Web of Science, FSTA, Google and other websites identified by stakeholders were used to map documents published between 2005 and 2017.

**Results:** Of the 865 documents included in the review, most were published after 2012 in North America, aimed to assess, modify or improve the food supply quality of food stores, schools or restaurants, and came from the public health and the nutrition fields. Of the 41 documents qualitatively analysed, availability (e.g. healthy, acceptable, eco-friendly or fresh food), affordability, quantity, variety and promotion were the most often used criteria to assess the quality of the food supply.

**Conclusions:** This review contributes to the study on the concept of the quality of the food supply and identifies criteria that need further study. This review will support public health stakeholders seeking to to assess or improve food supply quality within different settings. It also constitutes the core work for future endeavours to develop a common definition of the quality of the food supply.

**Keywords:** food environment, food supply, definition, model, assessment, policy

### **4.3 BACKGROUND**

Non communicable chronic diseases account for approximately 65% of total deaths in Canada (Government of Canada, 2017). Healthy eating is a major modifiable determinant of chronic diseases (World Health Organization, 2003). Adverse changes in eating patterns have been observed in developed countries but also in developing countries. Foods high in energy, added sugars, saturated and *trans* fats are more readily available and more frequently consumed. Such eating habits are partly the consequence of changes that occurred in the food environment related to industrialization and globalization (World Health Organization, 2003). Easy access to fast food, the increase in portion sizes, ubiquitous food advertising and low-cost high-processed food are just a few examples of our obesogenic environment (Sallis & Glanz, 2009; Story et al., 2008). In order to promote healthy lifestyles, there is a need to take action on food environments, notably by making healthy food easier to access (Sallis & Glanz, 2009).

A better understanding of the links between environments and eating patterns is needed to evaluate or change food environments (Penney et al., 2014). Several authors have suggested conceptual models to better understand the factors associated with the food environment that influence individuals' eating patterns (Glanz et al., 2005; Simmons et al., 2009; Story et al., 2008; Swinburn, Sacks, Vandevijvere, Kumanyika, Lobstein, Neal, Barquera, Friel, Hawkes, Kelly, L'Abbe, Lee, Ma, Macmullan, Mohan, Monteiro, Rayner, Sanders, Snowdon, Walker, et al., 2013). Many studies have used the model of community nutrition environments as a theoretical basis (Gamba et al., 2015; McKinnon et al., 2009; Leia M Minaker, 2016; L. M. Minaker et al., 2009; Ni Mhurchu et al., 2013; Penney et al., 2014; L. K. Williams et al., 2012). This model identifies four environmental variables that influence eating patterns: the community nutrition environment (i.e. geographical accessibility to food stores and restaurants), the organisational nutrition environment (i.e. food supply of other settings such as schools, worksites or healthcare facilities), the consumer nutrition environment (i.e. what consumers encounter within and around different settings, including healthiness and freshness of food available, price, promotion, placement and nutrition information), and the information environment (e.g. media and advertising)

(Glanz et al., 2005). Glanz *et al.* mentioned in 2005 that the community nutrition environment and the consumer nutrition environment are the two variables that should be targeted as they have been less studied and are likely to have a major impact on food choices and health (Glanz et al., 2005). In 2014, Engler-Stringer *et al.* argued that the literature on these environments increased largely since 2005, but that there are still many gaps (Engler-Stringer et al., 2014). Availability of certain types of food stores (or geographical accessibility) is often used as a proxy to evaluate access to certain types of food. However, the availability of food varies widely within store type (Cobb et al., 2015). In order to have an overview of the food environment, the quality of the food supply within stores must also be considered (Gamba et al., 2015). Still, the consumer nutrition environment has been less studied than the community nutrition environment (Glanz et al., 2012; McKinnon et al., 2009; Leia M Minaker, 2016). Criteria (e.g. availability, placement, promotion or price) used to improve or assess the quality of this environment vary widely from one study to another and are not uniformly defined (Plamondon & Paquette, 2015). In fact, there is no consensus on how to define a healthy food environment or what foods or criteria should be considered when improving food supply (Lytle, 2009; Penney et al., 2014). There is also a need to extend the assessment to additional criteria which would include socioeconomic and sociocultural aspects (Penney et al., 2014). In fact, consumer's perception of their environment is rarely taken into account in studies, even if it would help to better understand how food supply interventions influence eating patterns (Cobb et al., 2015; Eyler et al., 2015; Lytle, 2009; Penney et al., 2014). In accordance with this limitation identified in the scientific literature, some provincial governments' reports in Canada suggest that the food supply quality (or supportive food environments) are also related to sociocultural and sustainability aspects (HealthLinkBC et al., 2013; Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux, 2010). Another important limit found in the literature about food environment assessment is that it mainly relates to the food supply in food stores or restaurants. However, multiple settings such as non-traditional settings (e.g. drug store, dollar store) and settings where people live, work and play (e.g. schools, worksites and recreational centers) should also be considered because these environments are likely to have an impact on purchase of healthy or unhealthy food (Kelly et al., 2011). Similarly, to obtain a more global vision of the food environment, further multisectoral work is needed.

The wide variety of criteria used for the improvement or assessment of the food supply is partly due to the fact that experts from different disciplines study the food environment using their own perspective (Lytle & Sokol, 2017; Penney et al., 2014).

In summary, there is a great diversity of measures used to assess or modify the food supply, but most were applied in a limited range of settings (Caspi et al., 2012; Gamba et al., 2015; Gustafson et al., 2011; Kelly et al., 2011; Sallis & Glanz, 2009). Furthermore, the grey literature and criticism expressed by some authors suggest that the criteria related to the sociocultural and the sustainability aspects have been less considered in studies, which reinforces the need to elaborate common and multidisciplinary criteria (Caspi et al., 2012; Hayashi & Takemi, 2015; Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux, 2010; Penney et al., 2014; Sallis & Glanz, 2009). Those gaps in literature explain why some authors invited researchers to rethink the definition and the concepts underpinning the quality of the food supply (Caspi et al., 2012; Cobb et al., 2015). In that context, this scoping review aims to synthesize the literature on the definition and criteria of the food supply quality. The specific objectives are (1) to review the scientific and grey literature about the quality of the food supply; (2) to identify criteria used for assessing or improving the quality of food supply within different settings, and (3) to identify gaps in the literature on the definition of the food supply quality and its criteria.

#### **4.4 METHODS**

Contrary to systematic review, scoping review methodology is used when researchers do not have enough information to identify a very specific research question (Johanna Briggs Institute, 2015), as we experienced due to the very large scope of the topic and the variance in the methodologies used. Scoping review can also be used to define or clarify a concept and identify limits in the literature (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Levac et al., 2010), as is the case in this study. For those reasons, the scoping review methodology was chosen to conduct the current knowledge synthesis. We followed the six steps proposed by Arksey *et al.* (2005) and complemented them with recommendations from other authors (Colquhoun et al., 2014; Johanna Briggs Institute, 2015; Levac et al., 2010; Peters et al., 2015; Peterson,

Pearce, Ferguson, & Langford, 2017; Pham et al., 2014; A. C. Tricco et al., 2018; Andrea C Tricco et al., 2016). A preliminary description of the methodology has been recently published as a research protocol (Loignon et al., 2018). A working committee, composed of researchers with different expertise and two knowledge users in public health nutrition, was consulted at each step of the review to ensure the practical relevance of the results (Levac et al., 2010).

### **Step 1: Identify the research question**

The research question identified is “How is the quality of the food supply defined in the literature and what are the criterion used to assess or improve this quality within different settings?” The model of community nutrition environments served as a basis to define the key concepts of the research question and to identify exclusion and inclusion criteria (Glanz et al., 2005). This review focuses on the consumer nutrition environment, the organisational nutrition environment and the policies related to these environments. There are three key concepts: “quality” is defined a distinctive characteristic possessed by the food supply (adapted from (Quality, na)), “criteria” represent standard by which something may be judged in order to improve, assess or define the food supply quality (adapted from (Criterion, na)); and “food supply” is defined as what consumers encounter within different settings (food retailers, food services and restaurants) (adapted from the consumer nutrition environment definition (Glanz et al., 2005)). Contrary to the protocol (Loignon et al., 2018), the concept of “criteria” was finally chosen instead of “definition” as these concepts evolved towards a better understanding of the reviewed literature. Inclusion and exclusion criteria are presented in Table 1 (See online supplementary material for more details, Supplemental Table 1).

\*\*Table 1\*\*

## **Step 2: Identify relevant studies**

Six databases (Medline, PsychInfo, Web of science, FSTA, CAB abstracts and Google) were selected in order to represent the multidisciplinary nature of the literature on food environment and to cover both the scientific and grey literature. Key articles found by the working committee were used as a basis for the nutrition information specialist to develop the search strategy for Medline (See online supplementary material, Supplemental Table 2). The search strategy was thereafter adapted for other databases. Filters were applied to limit year of publication from 2005 to 2017 and the language to French and English (See online supplementary material, Supplemental Table 3). A second information specialist was consulted and approved the search strategies. Websites suggested in the Grey Matters practical tool for searching health-related grey literature and other websites identified by the working committee were used to identify potentially relevant documents from the grey literature (CADTH, 2015). Simplified search strategies in French and English were also developed and validated for Google and the first 100 hits of each strategy were analysed as conducted before by Pham *et al.* (Pham et al., 2014) (Supplemental Table 3). Complete strategies for each database are available upon request.

## **Step 3: Select studies**

A team of two reviewers (JL and MT) tested the selection process with some articles to ensure that they had a common understanding of inclusion and exclusion criteria. The database searching was undertaken on July 4, 2017. Two reviewers independently read titles and abstracts (reviewer 1: JL and reviewer 2: MT or MLi). They met on a weekly basis to discuss difficulties encountered and to clarify criteria as recommended by Levac *et al.* (Levac et al., 2010). To be more inclusive, all documents selected by either reviewer were kept for the next step. Complete independent assessment of eligibility by the two reviewers was not possible due to the large number of documents remaining for full-text screening, which is in line with the methodology observed in previous scoping reviews (Pham et al., 2014). To ensure that all reviewers classified documents as included or excluded according to the criteria, 18% (n=358) of the total number of documents that remained after titles and abstracts screening were read independently by one reviewer of

each of the two teams (JL, MT, GP, MLa). Teams met weekly to discuss documents for which the decision diverged. A third reviewer resolved discrepancies, as recommended in the literature (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Levac et al., 2010). Inter-reviewer agreement was then calculated for each reviewer (JL, MT, GP, MLa, SP, VP) to ensure that it was above 80% (ranged from 89 to 100%); a threshold commonly used (Bayerl & Paul, 2011). Reviewers were instructed to exclude documents only if they were sure of their decision, otherwise they had to mark them as “unclear”, as done previously by Engler-Stringer *et al* (Engler-Stringer et al., 2014). Each “unclear” rating was then verified and discussed with a second reviewer and, if necessary, with a third reviewer.

Due to time constraints, it was not possible to qualitatively analyse all included documents. Arksey and O’Malley argued that the decision to limit the number of documents to be analysed is important, but it is possible to do so if the unanalysed documents are well identified for future studies (Arksey & O’Malley, 2005). A stratified random sampling equivalent to 10% of the total number of included documents was used to keep the same proportion of settings (sampled by strata). This characteristic was chosen as the most important factor for knowledge users involved in the project.

#### **Step 4: Chart the data**

Different methods were used for quantitative and qualitative data extraction. For efficiency purposes, quantitative data were extracted during the full-text screening step. The data-charting form was tested with 10 scientific articles and 10 documents from the grey literature by a team of two reviewers, as recommended (Levac et al., 2010). After clarifying all characteristics to be extracted, all reviewers (JL, MT, GP, MLi, VP, SP) had to reach an agreement of at least 80% of extracted data (inter-reviewer agreement ranged from 81 to 100%). A first reviewer then individually extracted data and a second reviewer verified all unclear characteristics. Percentage of documents for which decisions related to full-text screening or extraction have been verified by a second reviewer ranges from 9.4 to 24.6% depending on the reviewer. This has been used previously by Pham et al. (2014), who conducted a scoping review in which data extraction was done by one reviewer and verified

by another in 12% of scoping reviews; in comparison in 18% of scoping reviews, data extraction was realised independently by two reviewers (Pham et al., 2014). Characteristics extracted for quantitative analysis were publication year, continent, publication type, major discipline, type of setting and objectives classified in six categories. The journal name was used to find the associated discipline using Journal Citation Reports (InCites, 2018). For the grey literature, the mission of the organisation that wrote the document was used to identify the discipline (See online supplementary material, Supplemental Table 4).

A thematic analysis of the qualitative data was conducted using NVivo Software 10 (Attride-Stirling, 2001; Ltd., 2012). A basic tree nodes for qualitative data extraction was built independently by two reviewers (JL and MT) based on their previous readings of the data set. It has then been pooled together and definitions for each theme have been improved by some key documents from grey and scientific literature. Definitions of each category and theme were also based on existing literature (Glanz et al., 2005; Health Canada, 2013; Plamondon & Paquette, 2015). The basic tree nodes was tested by one reviewer (MT) with three random scientific articles and two documents from the grey literature. The theme tree was then discussed with the second reviewer (JL) and the principal investigator (VP). Two reviewers coded all documents line by line independently. Only excerpts concerning the results of other documents, which are often found in the introduction or discussion of studies, were not coded. Reviewers met every time they had completed ten documents to compare coding. In order to clarify definitions of every theme, they discussed all nodes for which agreement was not excellent (kappa coefficient under 0.75 (QSR International, NA)). At the end of each round of 20 documents, data saturation was calculated to evaluate whether the codification of 20 new documents had to be done. Data saturation is define as the point at which there are no more new themes emerging which means there are no new information (G. A. Bowen, 2008).

### **Step 5: Collate, summarize and report results**

Quantitative analysis was limited to counting the numbers of documents for each characteristic (literature type, country, discipline, publication year, objective categories and type of settings) using Microsoft Excel 2010 software. These characteristics were also used in the qualitative analysis as document attributes in NVivo Software. It then allowed us to create matrix coding queries crossing food supply quality criteria with the different characteristics. Word frequency and coding queries were also performed. Main differences in the criteria used from one article to another were then identified to further investigate discourse similarities and differences (QSR International, 2010).

In line with the three objectives of the study, characteristics of included documents are first presented, followed by food supply quality criteria and the link with characteristics. Finally, limits in the literature are addressed in the discussion. As recommended, textual description and data tables was used to report the results (Levac et al., 2010).

### **Step 6: Consultation**

The working committee approved the research question, the inclusion-exclusion criteria and the characteristics to be extracted. Those experts are all members of the Food Quality Observatory (FQO), which aims to monitor food supply in Canada in order to improve its quality and accessibility (Institute of Nutrition and Functional Foods, 2013). Although the other members of the FQO were not directly involved in the process, they had the opportunity to hear about the project and provide feedback during FQO's scientific committee meetings.

## **4.5 RESULTS**

### **Screening process**

A total of 865 documents met the inclusion criteria (Figure 1) (See online supplementary material, Supplemental 5 for the list of included documents). We have to acknowledge that the second inclusion criteria, which aims to keep only documents related to the actual food supply and not the consumer's perception of food supply, was added later, after the titles

and abstracts screening stage. This decision was made by the working committee in response to the very large number of documents remaining after the screening (n=3951) and because they thought that criteria related to the perceived environment would be too different to be treated in the same review. This allowed the exclusion of approximately half of scientific articles remaining for full-text screening. The criteria that allowed the exclusion of the greatest number of documents is the one related to the main subject of this review, i.e. documents included must concern assessment, improvement or characterisation of food supply. Data saturation for qualitative analysis was considered to be reached after two rounds of 20 documents analysed, since only one new criterion emerged during the second round. Accordingly, during a workshop with the FQO's governance, all members, which are all experts from different sectors (public health, agri-food, marketing, consumers' representatives...), were asked to brainstorm on food supply quality criteria and no new criteria emerged either.

\*\*Figure 1\*\*

### **Characteristics of included documents**

Most documents included in this review were published between 2011 and 2016 (68.5%), and took place in North America (i.e., Canada and United States) (63.4%), but with 51% of these documents concerning the food supply in the United States only (Table 2). Most documents were from the scientific literature and were published in journals related to public health, nutrition or medicine. The majority (66%) of documents aimed to improve or assess the food supply. A good proportion also reviewed the literature about intervention, assessment, improvement or characterization of food supply. About 7% of documents presented recommendations or guidelines to improve food supply, which is an objective usually find in documents of grey literature, and indeed, this number is consistent with the number of documents from grey literature (9.9%). Finally, 62% of documents concerned the food supply inside food stores, elementary schools, high schools and restaurants. In contrast, non-food stores, childcare centers, municipal and recreational centers, health facilities, alternative food supply, such as farmer markets, and others were each studied in less than 5% of documents. Note that some documents covered up to three types of settings.

Globally, characteristics of all included documents compared to those of the randomized sample used for qualitative analysis were similar. The main differences were that no document in the qualitatively assessed sample were published in 2017, there were more documents from the grey literature, less documents from medical journals and more from environment and sustainability journals in the qualitative sample. There was also no literature review or commentary in the qualitative analysis because these two categories were excluded for that second part. In fact, those types of articles address several themes within the same text, which complicated the extraction work. Also, they usually reformulate original ideas of other authors, which should be identified in the original articles already included in this review. There were more “non-food stores” in the sample, because the sampling was conducted only with the first setting of each document, but it turns out that “non-food stores” are the second and third types of settings of 6 documents. Finally, there are less documents that concern the food supply within more than three settings, because we decided to limit this category, which is repetitive with others, to allow rounds of 20 documents only.

\*\*Table 2\*\*

### **Main criteria of food supply quality**

A total of 37 specific criteria organised under 8 categories of main criteria of the quality of the food supply emerged from the grey and scientific literature. There were five main criteria identified, i.e. Availability (n=41 documents), Affordability (n=26 documents), Quantity (n=26 documents), Variety (n=23 documents), and Promotion (n=20 documents) (Table 3). Related specific criteria are described in Table 4. In addition to the five most frequent main criteria, three other criteria were less prominent in the documents qualitatively analysed: proportion (n=9 documents), placement (n=7 documents) and ambience (n=4 documents) (Table 3). Specific criteria less studied like availability of appealing, tasty, fair trade, convenient or safe food are described in Supplemental Table 6.

\*\*Table 3\*\*

\*\*Table 4\*\*

Other concepts were also extracted in addition to the quality criteria : the accessibility (29.3%) and the quality (24.4%). Accessibility is a broader concept than availability. It includes economic access (e.g. household budgets or welfare), physical access (e.g. geographical access to food stores or open hours) and healthy food access (i.e. includes economic and physical access to healthy food). Documents that concerned only access were excluded because they did not represent the food supply within food settings (consumer nutrition environment). However, it has nevertheless emerged as a complement to the quality of the food supply. Secondly, the quality concept was extracted when the word “quality” was used without any definition. It points out that authors often assume that readers have implicitly the same definition of the food supply quality or the food quality. Finally, a node in the coding tree was created to gather all explicit definitions of the food supply quality found in the literature. However, no definition was found in the 41 documents analysed qualitatively while there was only 8 documents that aimed to characterize, present conceptual model or characteristics of food supply quality in all 865 documents included in the study. Those were grouped under the “explicit definition” category for further analyses. What can be reported is that one study presented the important elements to be considered in school meals in a health-promotion context (Aranceta Bartrina & Perez-Rodrigo, 2006), one discussed the notion of “fooodscape” (Mikkelsen, 2011), one reviewed the literature about food supply characteristics, theories and conceptual models (L. M. Minaker, Fisher, Raine, & Frank, 2011), two studies presented conceptual models – one being the theoretical model of our study (Glanz et al., 2005; Swinburn, Sacks, Vandevijvere, Kumanyika, Lobstein, Neal, Barquera, Friel, Hawkes, Kelly, L'Abbe, Lee, Ma, Macmullan, Mohan, Monteiro, Rayner, Sanders, Snowdon, & Walker, 2013), and three studies presented the definition and characteristics of the environment that support healthy eating (HealthLinkBC et al., 2013; Ministère de la Santé et des Services sociaux, 2010, 2012).

### **Associations between characteristics and criteria of food supply quality**

In order to achieve the third objective of this study, which is to identify gaps in the literature, associations between documents’ characteristics and criteria of food supply

quality were realised. It was difficult to see differences in discourses between characteristics of the documents and the criteria mentioned therein because some characteristics were represented by only one document. However, some differences could be observed among the well-represented characteristics. The main differences are between scientific and grey literature, which are similar to differences between documents intended to modify or assess the food supply in comparison with documents that present recommendations or guidelines related to food supply. Differences are mainly in the word used and the frequency of excerpts related to the respect of the environment and more precisely to the availability of local foods. For instance, the word “farmers”, “ferme” (“farm” in French), “markets”, “community” and “local” are part of the 25 most used words in the grey literature, but are not found in the scientific literature (Table 5). Furthermore, in the scientific literature, local food availability is directly related to the travel distance of food and its impact on environment, while the concept of relationship between the farmer and the consumer is more present in the grey literature. As an example: “*Farmers markets give people access to locally grown produce and provide farmers with locations to sell their products directly to consumers. They can provide direct and indirect economic benefits to a community, as well as foster a sense of community connectivity and shared space* (CDC, 2014).

)” A difference can also be seen for the availability of food that respects human well-being which is mentioned in three documents of grey literature and in one of scientific literature. This term is used to refer to solidarity with farmers in the grey literature and as fair trade in the peer-reviewed articles.

#### \*\*Table 5\*\*

Few differences can also be observed between the different settings and the choice of criteria under study. First, nutrition information was mentioned in all documents assessing or modifying food supply in restaurants. Furthermore, availability of water was assessed and promoted only in childcare center and primary or high school.

Finally, it is difficult to underline differences in discourses or frequency of criteria between continents because of the prominence of North America. However, it is possible to see that the price of a food basket has been used in 4 out of 7 documents from Oceania, which represent 57% of excerpts in this category.

#### **4.6 DISCUSSION**

This scoping review aimed to synthesize the scientific and grey literature on the definition and criteria of the quality of the food supply. Overall, 865 documents were included in the review and 41 of them were analysed qualitatively. A very large number of documents about the assessment or interventions related to food supply within different settings were identified, which shows interest from the scientific community and public authority in creating more supportive food environments. Furthermore, most documents were published between 2012 and 2016, discuss food supply in food stores, schools or restaurants of North America, particularly in United States. These findings are consistent with previous reviews on assessing the food environment, which mention that most studies were published in the United States after 2009 (Engler-Stringer et al., 2014; Gustafson et al., 2011). Also, reviews about retail environment and consumer nutrition environment highlighted that supermarkets, grocery stores and convenience stores are more studied than non-traditional food stores (Glanz et al., 2016; Gustafson et al., 2011). In the organisational nutrition environment, the food supply in schools is more frequently assessed (Ohri-Vachaspati & Leviton, 2010). In our review, most documents included are scientific articles (n=779) since these were identified from 5 databases, searching the grey literature was more challenging using the 200 first hits in Google and a few websites identified through Grey Matters and the working committee. Another interesting finding is that most literature came from public health, nutrition and medicine, which can be explained in two ways. First, researchers from those fields are maybe more likely to look closely at actual food environment, in comparison to consumers' perception that could be more studied in psychology or marketing fields (Supplemental Table 4.3). Secondly, our background, as dietitians or public health practitioners (knowledge users), could have influenced our

choices of conceptual model, key words or key documents. Despite the high prevalence of these disciplines, our review has good coverage of other research areas.

Availability, affordability, quantity, variety and promotion emerged in our review as the most frequently used criteria. Two other reviews also reported that availability and affordability are the main components of consumer nutrition environment (Glanz et al., 2016; Gustafson et al., 2011). Kelly *et al.* and Glanz *et al.* also agreed in the same way by classifying major components under the 4P of the marketing mix (product, price, placement and promotion) (Glanz et al., 2012; Kelly et al., 2011). Availability, quantity and variety could then be associated to the product, and affordability to the price. Placement was not prevalent in our review. However, a recent systematic review demonstrated that 16 of the 18 included studies found that placement had a positive impact on healthy food choices (Bucher et al., 2016). Finally, differences observed in our review between criteria used and word frequency according to literature type can be explained by the fact that the working committee selected documents from grey literature that they knew as informative, relevant and complementary to the scientific literature. It can also be explained by the proximity between practitioners and consumers, which leads to a better understanding of their needs and therefore new evaluation criteria to take into account.

Many gaps in the literature were identified. First of all, some criteria were less studied like those related to consumer experience (ambience, availability of appealing and tasty food), food convenience, respecting human well-being and food safety. Another review mentioned that sociocultural components were less studied, which is in line with our review, except for acceptability of food that came out in 36.6% of included documents probably due to the inclusion of grey literature (Caspi et al., 2012). Even though those criteria have been less studied, it does not mean that they are less valuable. An example is food safety. If this criterion is not met, it could have an immediate deleterious effect on health. In fact, documents analysed took into account the freshness of food (visual appearance, presence of browning or bruising) instead of the actual microbiological thresholds. This could be explained by the fact that food safety is taken for granted in developed countries where governmental organisations have been responsible of food inspection for years.

Furthermore, some less studied criteria related to consumer psychology are likely to have an impact on food purchase. In fact, nudging or choice architecture is defined as ways to influence behaviors in a predictable way without prohibiting options or significantly altering economic components (i.e. interventions include food placement, modifying ambience or changing plate size)(Bucher et al., 2016). Increasing variety and making food more attractive and convenient are environmental interventions likely to influence food consumption or choices (Nornberg, Houlby, Skov, & Perez-Cueto, 2016; Wansink, 2015). Even though those criteria need more research to prove their effectiveness, the scientific community demonstrates a growing interest in them.

Other criteria, that are recognized as being less studied, emerged in more than 25% of our included documents. Those are availability of acceptable food, like discussed previously, and availability of environmental-friendly food. Accordingly, a systematic review of methods used to combine analysis of nutritional and environmental impact of food was published in 2018, which supports the growing interest for combining these two interrelated issues(Hallström, Davis, Woodhouse, & Sonesson, 2018).

Another important gap in the literature is the lack of a common definition for the quality of the food supply. As observed in our review, we did not find any explicit definition in the 41 documents analysed qualitatively. There were only 8 of 865 documents, which aimed to characterize, present conceptual model or characteristics of food supply quality. These findings highlight the relevance of this scoping review and the need to develop a consensual definition, as it will be done by the FQO to guide its future work. For instance, the scientific committee could adopt a common definition that includes the salient criteria, which were validated by the FQO governance members. Then, other criteria then nutritional value could be prioritize and indicator could be develop to characterize and monitor food products of a same category (e.g., environmental friendly indicator of different types of Canadian slice breads).

This review is not without limitations. It can be noted that the majority of included documents came from the public health and nutrition fields. In fact, the working committee

was not multidisciplinary, which could have influenced the choice of key documents and key words. Furthermore, the use of English terms could have biased results towards literature from USA. Findings from grey literature mainly represent the Quebec and Canadian context and are therefore not generalizable. The large number of references remaining after titles and abstracts screening meant that independent full-text reading and data extraction by two reviewers for all documents was not feasible within the planned project. However, all unclear decisions were verified, which reduces the risk of error. Finally, frequency of some criteria could have been underestimated because of our exclusion criteria. For example, if we had kept all documents that have used nutrient profiling to classify quality of foods, we could have found more criteria related to nutritional components. This criterion was intended to limit the number of studies knowing that the nutritional value would emerge from other studies. Finally, analyses of associations between documents characteristics and the criteria of quality of food supply were limited, because of the small amount of documents. However, data saturation was chosen in order to achieve the main objective which is to identify the criteria and not to compare the documents according to their characteristics. This review has also significant strengths. First, it has a broad reach, including grey and scientific literature from 12 main disciplines. The search strategy was developed and validated by information specialists. A team of two reviewers read all titles and abstracts and extracted qualitative data. Finally, knowledge users were involved at each stage of this review process and FQO members, who are cross-sectorial experts, were also consulted.

## 4.7 CONCLUSION

In summary, the most frequently used criteria to assess, improve or define the quality of the food supply are availability (i.e. availability of healthy, acceptable, environmentally-friendly and fresh food), affordability, quantity, variety and promotion. Some criteria related to food placement, consumer experience, convenience and food safety have been less studied. There is also no common explicit definition of the food supply quality. However, this review contributes to this field by identifying criteria that need to be further

studied. This synthesis of the literature will also serve as a basis for environmental assessment work by stakeholders as well as for the work of various organisations working to improve the quality of food supply, such as the FQO.

#### **4.8 ABBREVIATIONS**

FQO: Food Quality Observatory

#### **4.9 COMPETING INTERESTS**

None.

#### **4.10 AUTHOR'S CONTRIBUTIONS**

J.L., M.T., S.D., S.L., MC.P. D.Z.M and V.P. formulated the research question and participated to the study designing. J.L., M.T. and V.P. were involved in the selection process and the analysis. JL wrote the manuscript and M.T., S.D. ,S.L. ,MC.P., D.Z.M. and V.P. reviewed it.

## 4.11 TABLES

**Table 1: Inclusion and exclusion criteria**

Inclusion criterion
(1) The document's objectives include the assessment, improvement or characterisation of the food supply quality in different settings (excluding private home).
(2) The document examines actual food supply quality, which includes only objective criteria.
(3) The document concerns the quality of the food supply as a whole.
(4) The document concerns food supply in developed countries.
(5) The document is peer reviewed for the scientific literature or written by a recognized association or government for the grey literature.
(6) The document is written in French or in English.
Exclusion criterion
(1) The document is a power point presentation, web page, conference proceedings, a thesis, a book or a book chapter.
(2) The document only assesses geographical accessibility to settings.
(3) The document concerns the development of a nutrient profiling model only.

**Table 2: General characteristics of included documents**

Characteristic	All included documents		Documents included for the qualitative analysis	
	Number (n=865)	Percentage (%)	Number (n=41)	Percentage (%)
<u>Publication years</u>				
2005-2007	66	7.6	2	4.9
2008-2010	137	15.8	12	29.3
2011-2013	268	31.0	10	24.4
2014-2016	324	37.5	16	39.0
2017	59	6.8	0	0

Unspecified	11	1.3	1	2.4
<u>Continents</u>				
North America	548	63.4	28	68.3
Europe	124	14.3	5	12.2
Oceania	64	7.4	7	17.1
South America	20	2.3	1	2.4
Asia	11	1.3	0	0
Several continents	98	11.3	0	0
<u>Publication types</u>				
Scientific literature	779	90.06	35	85.4
Grey literature	86	9.94	6	14.6
<u>Major disciplines</u> *				
Public health	439	50.8	25	61.0
Nutrition	290	33.5	13	31.7
Medicine	166	19.2	4	9.8
Education	52	6.0	1	2.4
Food science & technology	51	5.9	1	2.4
Environment & sustainability	33	3.8	3	7.3
Agriculture	28	3.2	1	2.4
Psychology	27	3.1	1	2.4
Social sciences	16	1.8	1	2.4
Biotechnology, chemistry & Microbiology	13	1.5	0	0
Urban studies	11	1.3	0	0
Business, Economy & Management	8	0.9	1	2.4
Multidisciplinary sciences	16	1.8	1	2.4
Others	17	2.0	1	2.4
<u>Objective</u>				

Modify or assess	575	66.47	35	85.4
Literature review	156	18.03	0	0
Elaborate recommendations or guidelines	61	7.05	5	12.2
Develop or describe a tool	38	4.39	1	2.4
Comment	28	3.24	0	0
Define or characterise	8	0.92	0	0
<u>Types of settings</u> *				
Food stores	319	36.9	17	41.5
Schools (elementary & high school)	212	24.5	9	22.0
Restaurants	101	11.7	5	12.2
Non-food stores	48	5.5	8	19.5
Childcare centers	45	5.2	2	4.9
Municipal, recreation centers & communities	37	4.3	2	4.9
Healthcare system	33	3.8	3	7.3
Alternative food supply	31	3.6	2	4.9
Worksites	31	3.6	2	4.9
Schools (post- high school)	29	3.4	3	7.3
More than 3 types of settings	122	14.1	2	4.9
Others	13	1.5	1	2.4

\*Some documents are associated to more than one discipline or setting.

**Table 3: Main criteria and their frequency, their definition and a citation example**

Main criteria	Number of documents n=41 (%)	Definition of criteria	Example/Excerpt
Major criteria mentioned in 10 documents or more ( $\geq 25\%$ of documents)			
Availability	41 (100)	Presence or absence of food or food categories in the setting.	“The aim of the nutrition intervention component was to improve the prevailing food environment by increasing availability of healthy food (fruits, vegetables, and non-fried dishes) and beverages (particularly water), by reducing the availability of energy-dense foods and SSB, and reducing the number of eating opportunities during the school day.” (Safdie, 2013)
Affordability	26 (63.4)	Affordable price of food available in the setting.	“This study is part of a larger on-going project, which is mapping food access, availability, prices, density of food stores and physical activity opportunities throughout the Alabama Black Belt.” (Bovell-Benjamin, 2009)
Quantity	26 (63.4)	Quantification of food availability by counting items, by measuring of shelf space or by portion size evaluation.	“Data collectors documented the type and location of each access point, the type and size of each beverage, and the total number of slots for each beverage at each access point.” (Mozaffarian, 2016)
Variety	23 (56.1)	Qualification of food availability by determining the range of choices within one or several food groups.	“The new service offered pupils a wide choice of food and drink (320 items), although the range of choices available was dependent on the space and layout of each school’s dining facilities.” (Fairchild, 2011)
Promotion	20 (48.8)	Posting on, near or directly on food, promoting or highlighting foods of varying degrees of quality.	“For the communications stores (Groups 2 & 3), each phase included 4–5 visits to stores for interactive sessions that included giveaways, educational handouts or recipe cards, and taste tests or educational activities. Promotional materials were tailored to each phase’s theme. For example, in-store promotions for Phase 1: Beverages, included blind taste testing of lower calorie beverages, an educational display showing the amount of sugar in commonly

			consumed drinks, and free drink tumblers with the project logo.” (Budd, 2015)
Minor criteria mentioned in less than 10 documents (<25% of documents)			
Proportion	9 (22)	Quantification as a ratio or percentage of one food group compared to another.	“The ratio of less healthy to healthier mean checkout food exposures was calculated overall and for each store category. The proportion of less healthy and healthier check-out food exposures on promotion, and at child height, was calculated. The $\chi^2$ test was used to assess differences in proportions.” (J. K. Wright, E.;White, M.;Adams, J.;Sowden, S., 2015)
Placement	7 (17.1)	Strategic location occupied by food more broadly in the setting or specifically on the shelves.	“Grocery stores market foods in many ways, but often it is through the products themselves (such as the assortment of products available), pricing incentives (such as coupons or differential prices), placement of products (such as at eye-level or at the end of an aisle), or promotion of products (such as displays and advertising, which can also overlap with the other categories).” (CDC, 2014)
Ambience/Quality of surroundings	4 (9.8)	Cleanliness, smells, service offered, decor and social contacts between community members inside or very close to the setting.	“The surveyors were asked to assess the cleanliness of the food outlets, the services offered and the availability of health promotion messages by recording certain observations.” (Bovell-Benjamin, 2009)

**Table 4: Frequent specific criteria and their frequency, their definition and a citation**

Specific criteria	Number of documents n=41 (%)	Definition of criteria	Citations
Availability			
Nutritional quality of food	40 (97.6)	Assessment of the nutritive value of food according to food guidelines, nutritional profiling or the amount of macro and micronutrients. It includes healthy (i.e. fruits and vegetables, water and milk) or unhealthy food and nutritional components to encourage or discourage.	<i>“The present study has explored the variation in price, availability, variety and quality of a selection of F&amp;V [Fruits and vegetables] between conventional (supermarkets and independent F&amp;V retailers) and non-conventional (FM) [Farmers’ markets] retail streams and across area-level SEP [Socio-economic position]. (Millichamp, 2013)”</i>
Acceptable food	15 (36.6)	Foods that meet consumers' preferences, traditions, behaviors, beliefs and customs. It includes culturally acceptable food, most consumed food and food that meet consumer's needs.	<i>“Farmers markets may serve as an effective retail mechanism for offering healthier food options in underserved areas, including traditional and culturally appropriate foods.” (CDC, 2014)</i>
Eco-friendly food	12 (29.3)	Food that preserve environment, climate, soil, water and biodiversity. It includes organic, seasonal, local and plant-based food, as well as self-sufficiency production and waste reduction.	<i>“Finally, increasing the proportion of organic products in the school menu would reduce the EF [Ecological Footprint] significantly; however, there is currently no evidence to suggest that organic food and drink would improve the nutritional value of school meals (Dangour et al., 2009).” (Fairchild, 2011)</i>
Fresh food	10 (24.4)	Foods that are not adulterated, as determined by appearance criteria (i.e. browning and bruising) and expiry date. It also includes excerpts that mention freshness without any definition.	<i>“The food store environment survey maintained the original focus of NEMS-S [Nutrition Environment Measure in Stores] regarding the availability and pricing, in grocery and convenience stores, of healthy/unhealthy alternatives (frozen dinners, ground beef, hot dogs, bread, chips, baked goods, milk, juice, and soda), and the availability and quality of fresh produce.” (Horacek, 2013)</i>

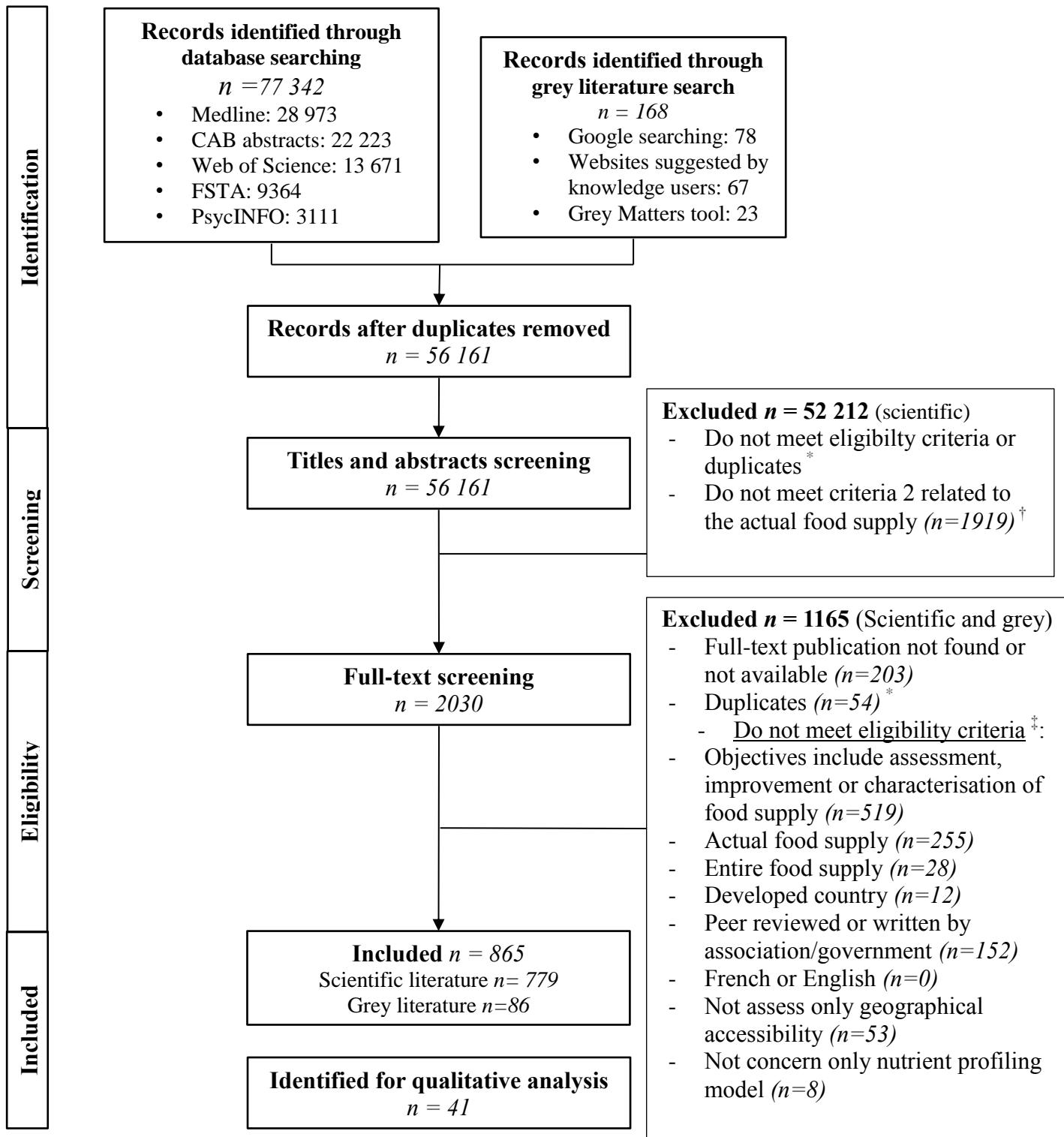
Affordability			
Price of healthy or unhealthy food	16 (39.0)	Increase, reduction or assessment of healthy or unhealthy food price.	<i>"The vending machine intervention was implemented for the entire 18-month study period. The two key components of the vending intervention were to increase the availability and to lower the prices of healthier food and beverage choices in the vending machines at the two intervention garages." (French, 2010)</i>
Reduced price food	11 (26.8)	Discount on certain types of food (without any mention of being healthier or not) and availability of programs to help disadvantaged people to purchase food	<i>"Therefore the aims of the present research were to: (i) investigate the display of foods at non-food store checkouts; and (ii) classify foods by type and nutrient content, presence of price promotions and whether food was displayed at child height." (J. K. Wright, E.;White, M.;Adams, J.;Sowden, S., 2015)</i>
Quantity			
Portion size	15 (36.6)	Increase, reduction or assessment of portion size in the setting.	<i>"Serving sizes of 100% fruit or vegetable juices were limited to 4 ounces in middle schools and 8 ounces in high schools (Box)." (Mozaffarian, 2016)</i>
Number of food items	14 (34.1)	Counting of food items in the setting.	<i>"We assessed the number and type of unique competitive beverages available at each access point and determined which met competitive beverage nutrition standards." (Mozaffarian, 2016)</i>
Variety			
Promotion			
Healthy or unhealthy food promotion	14 (34.1)	Enhancement of more or less nutritious foods through promotional techniques (i.e. meat free day, taste samples, promotional display or vending machines' design).	<i>"[...] Media items included signage, posters, brochures, videos and bulletin boards relating to the targeted health behaviors. Other health-related media included occupational health pamphlets and mental health material. Only the outside layer of postings on the bulletin boards was measured." (Shimotsu, 2007)</i>
Nutrition information	11 (26.8)	Display related to nutritional quality on menus, foods or shelves (i.e. signage, logo, symbol, kcal display or labels)	<i>"Shelf or product labeling that identified certain foods as "healthier" and that provides information on those products to customers." (CDC, 2014)</i>

**Table 5: The most frequent words in scientific literature compared to grey literature**

Grey literature		Scientific literature	
Word	Frequency	Word	Frequency
food	966	food	3310
healthier	529	health	1280
health	399	school	1108
stores	388	stores	1097
<i>Produits</i>	370	healthy	1011
farmers	355	study	748
<i>Santé</i>	337	availability	727
retail	319	foods	716
<i>Ferme</i>	312	nutrition	638
program	311	store	637
markets	277	schools	607
nutrition	259	items	588
community	253	children	561
store	252	intervention	523
public	247	fruit	517
state	237	available	489
<i>Alimentaire</i>	230	public	478
<i>l'alimentation</i>	214	data	470
<i>Qualité</i>	210	physical	454
<i>Alimentaires</i>	207	research	448
foods	203	environment	444
healthy	198	vegetables	438
small	190	obesity	421
local	189	activity	404
services	187	income	385

\* Words in italics are in French

## 4.12 FIGURES



**Figure. 1 : Screening process**

\*In order not to delete records that are not real duplicates, these were removed automatically with Endnote according to very specific characteristics (ex: same authors, titles and year), then they were removed manually. It is the reason why duplicates were found at titles/abstracts and full-text screenings. †Criteria 2 was added lately in the titles and abstracts screening. ‡Some documents were excluded for more than one reason.

## 4.13 REFERENCES

### 4.1 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

**Supplemental Table 1: Detailed inclusion and exclusion criteria**

INCLUSION	
The objectives and the purpose of the document must concern assessment, improvement, modification, development, recommendations or characterisation of the food supply quality in different settings excluding private home;	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Must concern food supply in the setting and not the flyer or the website, except for menus online which are representative of the real restaurant menu.</li><li>- Must be related to the distribution step in the food supply cycle, not the processing, transportation, storage, consumption or purchase.</li><li>- Must concern food supply available for a group of consumers in good health, without any particular needs. For example, children under 1 year old, breastfeeding mothers, diabetic clientele, dysphagic seniors or any special diets.</li><li>- Food supply from food banks is excluded.</li></ul>
The study/document must concern the actual food supply and not only the perception of food supply by community actors (industry, consumers, key informants, government) and not only the consumers' behaviors (food intake, food consumption or food sales);	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Documents are accepted if they concern not only purchase or perception. For example, if a study assesses the impact of an environmental intervention on purchase, document would be included.</li><li>- Perception is often assessed using interviews, focus groups or surveys.</li><li>- Checklists or surveys considered objective (e.g. availability of fruits and vegetables: yes or no) filled by food supply actor are accepted.</li></ul>

The study/document must concern the quality of the food supply as a whole and not only the quality of a specific food or food category;	- This criteria was created in order to exclude studies that assess food quality only, without any food supply context. Even if food supply quality is assessed through one food item availability, it would be included.
The study/document must take place in a developed country;	List of included developed countries based on human development index (Programme des Nations Unies pour le développement, 2015): Albania, Algeria, America, Andorra, Antigua, Argentina, Armenia, Australia, Austria, Azerbaijan, Bahamas, Bahrain, Barbuda, Barbados, Belarus, Belize, Belgium, Bosnia, Brazil, Brunei, Bulgaria, Darussalam, Dominica, Dominican Republic, Canada, Chile, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Croatia, Cuba, Cyprus, Czech Republic, Denmark, Ecuador, Estonia, Fiji, Finland, France, Georgia, Germany, Greece, Grenada, Grenadines, Herzegovina, Hong Kong, Hungary, Iceland, Iran, Ireland, Israel, Italy, Jamaica, Japan, Jordan, Kazakhstan, Korea (Republic of), Kuwait, Latvia, Lebanon, Liechtenstein, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Lybia, Malaysia, Maldives, Malta, Mauritius, Mexico, Mongolia, Montenegro, Netherlands, Nevis, New Zealand, Norway, Oman, Palau, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Qatar, Romania, Russian Federation, Saint Kitts, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent, Samoa, Saudi Arabia, Serbia, Seychelles, Singapore, Slovak, Slovenia, Spain, Sri Lanka, Suriname, Sweden, Switzerland, Thailand, Tobago, Tonga, Trinidad, Tunisia, Turkey, Ukraine, United Arab Emirates, United Kingdom, United States, Uruguay, Venezuela, Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia
Type of documents: For the scientific literature, the article must be peer reviewed. For the grey literature, the document	- Commentary and editorials are accepted if published in a peer-reviewed journal,

must be written by an association or government;	
Languages: The study/document must be written in french or english.	- Texts written in all other languages are excluded.
<b>EXCLUSION</b>	
Types of documents	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Conference proceedings, abstracts collections, books, chapters are excluded for scientific literature.</li> <li>- Books, chapters, thesis, power point, web pages and texts collection are excluded from grey literature.</li> </ul>
Does not assess only geographical accessibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Must concern the food supply within settings (food services/restaurants/food retailers) and not only the geographical accessibility to these infrastructures (number, density, hours of operation...).</li> </ul>
Does not concern the development of a nutrient profiling model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- If nutrient profiling models are used to assess the nutritional quality of the food offered in a setting, it would be included.</li> </ul>

**Supplemental Table 2: List of key documents**

Key documents used to develop scientific search strategy:

1. Caspi CE, Sorensen G, Subramanian SV et al. (2012) The local food environment and diet: a systematic review. *Health & place* 18, 1172-1187.
2. Eyler AA, Blanck HM, Gittelsohn J et al. (2015) Physical activity and food environment assessments: implications for practice. *American journal of preventive medicine* 48, 639-645.
3. Glanz K, Johnson L, Yaroch AL et al. (2016) Measures of Retail Food Store Environments and Sales: Review and Implications for Healthy Eating Initiatives. *Journal of nutrition education and behavior* 48, 280-288.e281.
4. Glanz K, Sallis JF, Saelens BE et al. (2005) Healthy nutrition environments: concepts and measures. *American journal of health promotion : AJHP* 19, 330-333, ii.
5. Gustafson A, Hankins S, Jilcott S (2012) Measures of the consumer food store environment: a systematic review of the evidence 2000-2011. *Journal of community health* 37, 897-911.
6. Kelly B, Flood VM, Yeatman H (2011) Measuring local food environments: an overview of available methods and measures. *Health & place* 17, 1284-1293.
7. Lytle LA (2009) Measuring the food environment: state of the science. *American journal of preventive medicine* 36, S134-144.
8. McKinnon RA, Reedy J, Morissette MA et al. (2009) Measures of the food environment: a compilation of the literature, 1990-2007. *American journal of preventive medicine* 36, S124-133.

9. Ni Mhurchu C, Vandevijvere S, Waterlander W et al. (2013) Monitoring the availability of healthy and unhealthy foods and non-alcoholic beverages in community and consumer retail food environments globally. *Obesity reviews : an official journal of the International Association for the Study of Obesity* 14 Suppl 1, 108-119.
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11. Penney TL, Almiron-Roig E, Shearer C et al. (2014) Modifying the food environment for childhood obesity prevention: challenges and opportunities. *The Proceedings of the Nutrition Society* 73, 226-236.
12. Sallis JF, Glanz K (2009) Physical activity and food environments: solutions to the obesity epidemic. *The Milbank quarterly* 87, 123-154.
13. Story M, Kaphingst KM, Robinson-O'Brien R et al. (2008) Creating healthy food and eating environments: policy and environmental approaches. *Annual review of public health* 29, 253-272.

Websites identified through Grey Matters tool and stakeholders consultation:

1. Australian Government Department of Health:  
<http://www.health.gov.au/internet/main/publishing.nsf/Content/health-pubhlth-strateg-food-resources.htm>
2. British Columbia Ministry of Health:  
<https://www.healthlinkbc.ca/healthy-eating>
3. Canadian Agri-food Policy Institute: <http://www.capi-icpa.ca/pubs.html>
4. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention:  
<https://www.cdc.gov/obesity/index.html>

5. Chaire de recherche en droit sur la diversité et sécurité alimentaires de l'Université Laval: <https://chaire-diversite-alimentaire.ulaval.ca/recherche/publications/>
6. Équiterre: <http://equiterre.org/publications>
7. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO): <http://www.fao.org/publications/en/>
8. Health Canada: <http://www.hc-sc.gc.ca/fn-an/index-eng.php>
9. Health Council of the Netherlands:  
[https://www.gezondheidsraad.nl/en/publications?f\[0\]=taxonomy\\_vocabulary\\_1%3A3](https://www.gezondheidsraad.nl/en/publications?f[0]=taxonomy_vocabulary_1%3A3)
10. INSPQ: <https://www.inspq.qc.ca/publications>
11. Ministère de l'Éducation et de l'Enseignement Supérieur (MEES) of Quebec:  
[http://www.education.gouv.qc.ca/references/publications/resultats-de-la-recherche/?no\\_cache=1](http://www.education.gouv.qc.ca/references/publications/resultats-de-la-recherche/?no_cache=1)
12. Ministère de la famille (MFA) of Quebec:  
[https://www.mfa.gouv.qc.ca/fr/Famille/developpement\\_des\\_enfants/cadre-de-reference/Pages/index.aspx](https://www.mfa.gouv.qc.ca/fr/Famille/developpement_des_enfants/cadre-de-reference/Pages/index.aspx)
13. Ministère de la Santé et des Services Sociaux (MSSS) of Quebec:  
<http://publications.msss.gouv.qc.ca/msss/sujets/alimentation>
14. Public Health Agency of Canada: <http://www.phac-aspc.gc.ca/hp-ps/index-eng.php#obesity>
15. The National Academy of Sciences Engineering Medicine:  
<https://www.nap.edu/topic/287/food-and-nutrition?n=10&start=0>
16. UK Department of Health:  
[https://www.gov.uk/government/publications?keywords=&publication\\_filter\\_option=all&topics%5B%5D=all&departments%5B%5D=all&official\\_document\\_status=all&world\\_locations%5B%5D=all&from\\_date=&to\\_date](https://www.gov.uk/government/publications?keywords=&publication_filter_option=all&topics%5B%5D=all&departments%5B%5D=all&official_document_status=all&world_locations%5B%5D=all&from_date=&to_date)
17. World Health organization: <http://apps.who.int/trialsearch/>

**Supplemental Table 3: Search strategy for Medline and Google**

Medline:

1. food quality/
2. ((Healthy or healthful or quality or qualities) adj3 (foods or food or meal or meals)).ti,ab.
3. (nutrition environment* or food environment* or food store environment* or foodscape or food offer or food supply or food security).ti,ab.
4. Food Supply/
5. 3 or 4
6. (Healthy or healthful or quality or qualities).ti,ab.
7. 5 and 6
8. beverages/ or carbonated beverages/ or coffee/ or drinking water/ or energy drinks/ or "fruit and vegetable juices"/ or milk/ or milk substitutes/ or tea/ or teas, herbal/ or teas, medicinal/ or exp food/
9. (Healthy or healthful or quality or qualities).ti,ab.
10. 8 and 9
11. 1 or 2 or 7 or 10
12. nutrition assessment/
13. Food Preferences/
14. Choice Behavior/
15. health policy/ or nutrition policy/
16. (indicator* or assessment* or measure* or monitoring or evalua* or perception or perceptions or policy or policies or theory or theories or definition or model or concept or concepts or preferences or choice or behavio?r or barriers).ti,ab.
17. 12 or 13 or 14 or 15 or 16

18. 11 and 17

19. 18 and 2005:2017.(sa\_year).

20. (English or french).lg.

21. 19 and 20

22. 21 not (Animals/ not Humans/)

Google:

"food quality" OR "healthy environment" OR "food environment" OR quality of "food supply"  
AND assessment OR measure OR policy 2005...2017

**Supplemental Table 4: Detailed description of characteristics extracted**

**Table 4.1: Description of objectives' categories**

<b>Objectives'categories</b>	<b>Description</b>
Modify or assess	The aim or objectives concern assessment, modification or improvement of food supply. It also includes the development, establishment or impact assessment of a food policy.
Elaborate recommendations or guidelines	The aim or objectives are to propose recommendations, policies or guidelines in order to improve the food supply quality.
Review literature	The aim or objectives are to review and synthesize assessment tools, interventions or policies related to food supply quality.
Define or characterise	The aim or objectives are to define, characterize, present conceptual model or characteristics of food supply quality.
Comment	The aim or objectives are to comment on issues related to food supply quality, including assessment, intervention, definition and recommendations.
Develop or describe a tool	The aim or objectives are to develop or describe a tool used to assess or improve food supply.

**Table 4.2: Types of settings description**

<b>Types</b>	<b>Included settings</b>
Food stores	Supermarkets, Grocery stores, Corner stores, Convenience stores, Speciality stores
Non-food stores	Discount stores, warehouse clubs/stores, drug stores, gas station
Alternative food	On-site sales, public/farmers markets, mobile markets, Community Supported

supply	Agriculture (CSA), wet market
School (primary and high school)	Primary/elementary school or high school, including daycare service
School (post high school)	College, university
Childcare centre	Centre for children under 5 years old
Healthcare system	Hospital or long-term care home cafeteria
Worksites	Private and public worksites, excluding healthcare system
Restaurants	Coffee shop, fast food, gourmet restaurants, food caterers, food chains, independents restaurants
Municipal, sports and communities	Arena cafeterias, summer camps, municipal
More than 3 categories	Food supply in general or more than 3 categories
Others	Army, Laboratory settings, conference, vending machines in train station, church food services, hotels food services, resorts, national parks and campgrounds

**Table 4.3: Disciplines and their definitions based on Journal Citation Report**

<b>Major disciplines</b>	<b>Definitions</b>
Agriculture	Interdisciplinary approach to the agricultural sciences ( production, distribution, and consumption of agricultural commodities). It includes policies and economy related to agriculture.
Social sciences	Resources relating to the scientific study of human beings: anthropology, history, philosophy, archaeology and geography. It also includes social issues for the individual, family, or society.
Psychology	Psychology is concerned with resources on the study of human behavior and

	mental processes. It also includes clinical treatment and psychiatry that study mental health and behavioral disorders.
Biotechnology, Chemistry & Microbiology	Biotechnology: Resources that cover a broad range of topics on the manipulation of living organisms to make products or solve problems to meet human needs. Chemistry: It includes resources that report on the application of basic chemical sciences to other sciences, engineering, and industry. Microbiology: It includes resources dealing with all aspects of fundamental and applied studies of microorganisms, including bacteria, viruses, and fungi. Toxicology covers resources that focus on the identification, biochemistry, and effects of harmful substances, including the side effects of drugs, in animals, humans, and the environment.
Business, Economy & Management	Resources concerned with all aspects of business and the business world. These may include marketing and advertising, forecasting, planning, administration, organizational studies, compensation, strategy, retailing, consumer research, management, political economy, macroeconomics, microeconomics, econometrics, trade, planning mathematical modeling, stochastic modeling, decision theory and systems, optimization theory, logistics, control theory, human resources and organizational change, management policies/procedures, employer and employee education and the business case for workplace.
Medicine	Resources dealing with the diagnosis and treatment (general medicine, internal medicine, clinical physiology, pain management, military and hospital medicine, pharmacology & pharmacy) of different conditions and diseases and also concerns resources studying different human systems (cardiac, respiratory, endocrinology...). Medicine also includes medical ethics and nursing. Medical ethics: It covers resources on all aspects of ethics in health care and medicine. Nursing: Nursing covers resources on all aspects of nursing science and practice such as administration, economics, management, education, technological applications and all clinical care specialties.
Education	Resources on the full spectrum of education, from theoretical to applied. It includes resources on pedagogy and methodology as well as on the history of

	education and covers all education resources in the scientific disciplines.
Environment & Sustainability	Resources concerning many aspects of the study of the environment, among others, resources that discuss the effects of human beings on the environment and the development of controls to minimize environmental degradation, resources that discuss environmental policy, regional science, planning and law, management of natural resources, energy policy. It also includes research on green and sustainable science and technology, including green chemistry; green nanotechnology; green building; renewable and green materials; sustainable processing and engineering; sustainable policy, management and development; environmental and agricultural sustainability; renewable and sustainable energy; and innovative technologies that reduce or eliminate damage to health and the environment. Sustainability also includes fair trade.
Food science & Technology	Food Science & Technology covers resources concerning various aspects of food research and production, including food additives and contaminants, food chemistry and biochemistry, meat science, food microbiology and technology, dairy science, food engineering and processing, cereal science, brewing, and food quality and safety.
Public Health	Healthcare: Resources on health services, hospital administration, health care management, health care financing, health policy and planning, health economics, health education and history of medicine. Also, resources dealing with epidemiology, hygiene, and health.
Multidisciplinary Sciences	Multidisciplinary Sciences include resources of a very broad or general character in the sciences (social, environmental, mathematics, health, etc.)
Nutrition	Resources concerning many aspects of nutrition, including general nutrition (individual and food environment; including food security), nutrition and metabolism, nutrition science, clinical nutrition, vitamin research, nutritional biochemistry and application of the nutrition principles.
Urban Studies	Urban Studies covers resources concerned with the social aspects of city planning and urban design. Topics covered include the effects of the urban environment on the individual, the effects of urbanization on the natural

	environment, urban economics, urban technology, housing planning, urban education, and urban law.
Others	<p>Development: Resources on the economics and social development of both underdeveloped and industrialized areas.</p> <p>Family studies: includes resources on such issues and areas as family therapy, family law, marriage, divorce, family planning, and family history. Cross-disciplinary in nature, many resources in this category also appear in Family Studies other categories.</p> <p>Recreation: It covers resources that focus on all aspects of recreation and leisure studies, sport, hospitality, travel and tourism.</p>

## **Supplemental material 5:** Reference list of all included documents

- Aarestrup, A. K. K., R.; Jorgensen, T. S.; Evans, A.; Due, P.; Tjornhoj-Thomsen, T. (2014). Implementing a free school-based fruit and vegetable programme: barriers and facilitators experienced by pupils, teachers and produce suppliers in the Boost study. *BMC Public Health*, 14, 146. doi:<https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1471-2458-14-146>
- Abbey, K. L. W., O. R.;Capra, S. (2015). Menu Planning in Residential Aged Care-The Level of Choice and Quality of Planning of Meals Available to Residents. *Nutrients*, 7(9), 7580-7592. doi:<https://dx.doi.org/10.3390/nu7095354>
- Adam, A. J., J. D. (2016). What is the effectiveness of obesity related interventions at retail grocery stores and supermarkets? -a systematic review. *BMC Public Health*, 16(1), 1247. doi:<https://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12889-016-3985-x>
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**Supplemental Table 5: All specific criteria and their frequency, their definition and a citation**

Specific criteria	Number of documents n=41 (%)	Definition of criteria	Citations
<b>Availability</b>			
Nutritional quality of food	40 (97.6)	Assessment of the nutritive value of food according to food guidelines, nutritional profiling or the amount of macro and micronutrients. It includes healthy (i.e. fruits and vegetables, water and milk) or unhealthy food and nutritional components to encourage or discourage.	<i>“The present study has explored the variation in price, availability, variety and quality of a selection of F&amp;V [Fruits and vegetables] between conventional (supermarkets and independent F&amp;V retailers) and non-conventional (FM) [Farmers’ markets] retail streams and across area-level SEP [Socio-economic position]. (Millichamp, 2013)”</i>
Acceptable food	15 (36.6)	Foods that meet consumers' preferences, traditions, behaviors, beliefs and customs. It includes culturally acceptable food, most consumed food and food that meet consumer's needs.	<i>“Farmers markets may serve as an effective retail mechanism for offering healthier food options in underserved areas, including traditional and culturally appropriate foods.” (CDC, 2014)</i>
Eco-friendly food	12 (29.3)	Food that preserve environment, climate, soil, water and biodiversity. It includes organic, seasonal, local and plant-based food, as well as self-sufficiency production and waste reduction.	<i>“Finally, increasing the proportion of organic products in the school menu would reduce the EF [Ecological Foodprint] significantly; however, there is currently no evidence to suggest that organic food and drink would improve the nutritional value of school meals (Dangour et al., 2009).” (Fairchild, 2011)</i>
Fresh food	10 (24.4)	Foods that are not adulterated, as determined by appearance criteria (i.e. browning and bruising). It also includes excerpts that mention freshness without any definition.	<i>“The food store environment survey maintained the original focus of NEMS-S [Nutrition Environment Measure Study in Stores] regarding the availability and pricing, in grocery and convenience stores, of healthy/unhealthy alternatives (frozen dinners, ground beef, hot dogs, bread, chips, baked goods, milk, juice, and soda), and the availability and quality of fresh produce.” (Horacek, 2013)</i>

Convenience food	9 (22.0)	Foods characteristics (shapes, preservation methods, packaging, cutting, etc.) which make them more convenient in order to save time, human resources (preparation), or household-washing (not dirty). It includes pre-prepared food and preservation methods.	<i>"There is also a competing need for convenience, given Americans' busy lifestyles." (Horacek, 2013)</i>
Safe food	8 (19.5)	Foods that respect microbiological and contaminant thresholds and therefore have no adverse effects on body.	<i>"In addition to availability, the type or size of produce sold may vary with area affluence. This presents problems for the assumptions commonly made in area-comparison studies and also could lead to differences in the nutritional quality or contaminant/pesticide exposure." (Latham, 2007)</i>
Processing level of food	6 (14.6)	Availability or not of processed foods. It can be related a food preservation, ready-to-eat food or nutritional composition context to preservation or ready-to-eat food.	<i>"Small stores tend to stock items that have long shelf lives and are in high demand, such as pre-packaged processed foods, sodas, snacks, and alcohol, and they are generally more costly because of higher wholesale prices or lower volume of sales." (CDC, 2014)</i>
Appealing food	5 (12.2)	Foods visually appealing for consumers in terms of shapes, colors or presentation.	<i>"Although the analysis presented here is based on a proportion of what pupils purchased in schools, the findings suggest that more innovative strategies still need to be developed not only to improve the nutritional quality of the average school meal, but also in terms of reducing environmental impact while remaining attractive to pupils." (Fairchild, 2011)</i>
Tasty food	5 (12.2)	Sensorial component related to taste, flavours, texture and temperature.	<i>"The present study showed the limitation of only analyzing the adequacy of menus related to nutritional aspects, offer and consumption by Brazilian army soldiers. However, it is important to enlarge this study considering other quality aspects of menus and meals such as sensorial, hygienic, cultural, and symbolic, and sustainability." (Botelho, 2014)</i>
Food that respect human well-being	4 (9.8)	Foods that ensure a fair price to producers, whether there is a fair trade certification or not.	<i>"Furthermore, Cardiff's Food and Health Strategy aims to address sustainability issues by encouraging children to grow foods which can be incorporated into</i>

			<i>school meals, and also by increasing the availability of Fairtrade food and drinks within school canteens (Cardiff Health Alliance, 2006).” (Fairchild, 2011)</i>
<b>Affordability</b>			
Price of healthy or unhealthy food	16 (39.0)	Increase, reduction or assessment of healthy or unhealthy food price.	<i>“The vending machine intervention was implemented for the entire 18-month study period. The two key components of the vending intervention were to increase the availability and to lower the prices of healthier food and beverage choices in the vending machines at the two intervention garages.” (French, 2010)</i>
Reduced food price	11 (26.8)	Discount on certain types of food (without any mention of being healthier or not) and availability of programs to help disadvantaged people to purchase food	<i>“Therefore the aims of the present research were to: (i) investigate the display of foods at non-food store checkouts; and (ii) classify foods by type and nutrient content, presence of price promotions and whether food was displayed at child height.” (J. K. Wright, E.;White, M.;Adams, J.;Sowden, S., 2015)</i>
Price of a food basket	8 (19.5)	Selected foods that give a great idea of food supply price.	<i>“This study examined the cost disparity of HFB [Healthy food basket] in the three regions that make up Yarra.” (Renzaho, 2008)</i>
Price for one food group	8 (19.5)	Increase, reduction or assessment of one food group price (i.e. fruits and vegetables, organic food)	<i>“The cleanliness of the food outlets, the service offered, availability of health promotion messages and the prices of selected fruits and vegetables were also examined.” (Bovell-Benjamin, 2009)</i>
Price per serving	4 (9.8)	Price per serving assessment or comparison between large portion size price and small portion size price.	<i>“Overall, small portions were not priced higher than large portions, but 2 coffee shops charged more for the more healthful than for the regular option (Table 1).” (Tseng, 2016)</i>
Free food	3 (7.3)	Availability or introduction of free foods in a setting.	<i>“Only hospital B reported subsidizing the price of healthier options. None of the hospitals had free healthy food options in break rooms, or had a catering or meeting policy that supported healthy options. In addition, no hospitals hosted a farmers market or a vegetable co-op.” (Sharma, 2016)</i>
Competitive price	2 (4.9)	Competitive price in comparison of food sold around the setting.	<i>“Store owners may not be able to offer competitive prices for healthier food items compared to larger stores, particularly</i>

			<i>when they are not able to purchase wholesale.” (CDC, 2014)</i>
<b>Quantity</b>			
Portion size	15 (36.6)	Increase, reduction or assessment of portion size in the setting.	<i>“Serving sizes of 100% fruit or vegetable juices were limited to 4 ounces in middle schools and 8 ounces in high schools (Box).” (Mozaffarian, 2016)</i>
Number of food items	14 (34.1)	Counting of food items in the setting.	<i>“We assessed the number and type of unique competitive beverages available at each access point and determined which met competitive beverage nutrition standards.” (Mozaffarian, 2016)</i>
Measurement or counting of shelves	5 (12.2)	Measurement of shelf length, surface area or number of shelves occupied by the selected foods.	<i>“Data collectors documented the type and location of each access point, the type and size of each beverage, and the total number of slots for each beverage at each access point.” (Mozaffarian, 2016)</i>
<b>Variety</b>			
One food group	9 (22)	Counting of available choices in one food group (i.e. fruits and vegetables, processed foods...)	<i>“With respect to measurement, the finding that the availability of several varieties of culturally specific fruits and vegetables (37.5% of African-American and 50.0% of Latino culturally specific fruits and vegetables) differed by neighborhood ethnic composition suggests the importance of incorporating fruits and vegetables that reflect the cultural food practices of these groups into food store survey instruments.” (Grigsby-Toussaint, 2010)</i>
Healthy food only	8 (19.5)	Counting of available choices in healthy food group only.	<i>“Therefore, the purpose of the current study was to examine cost disparity and nutritional choice variety within Yarra. This was achieved by physically locating and exploring variation in cost of a healthy food basket (HFB) in different stores in three suburbs with high rise-estates, namely Richmond, Fitzroy, and Collingwood. (Renzaho, 2008)”</i>
Flavours	4 (9.8)	Counting of different flavours for one selected item.	<i>“We defined an access point as any vending machine, a la carte cafeteria sale, school store, or cafe where competitive beverages were sold. We recorded the type, brand, flavor, portion size, percentage milk fat, and percentage juice for each unique beverage at each access point.” (Mozaffarian, 2016)</i>

Promotion			
Healthy or unhealthy food promotion	14 (34.1)	Enhancement of more or less nutritious foods through promotional techniques (i.e. meat free day, taste samples, promotional display or vending machines' design).	<i>“Twelve items assessed the presence or absence of nutrition, physical activity, weight-management, and other health-related printed media within and around the worksite (1 = present, 0 = absent). Media items included signage, posters, brochures, videos and bulletin boards relating to the targeted health behaviors. Other health-related media included occupational health pamphlets and mental health material. Only the outside layer of postings on the bulletin boards was measured.” (Shimotsu, 2007)</i>
Nutrition information	11 (26.8)	Display related to nutritional quality on menus, foods or shelves (i.e. signage, logo, symbol, kcal display or labels)	<i>“Shelf or product labeling that identified certain foods as “healthier” and that provides information on those products to customers.” (CDC, 2014)</i>
Sustainable image	4 (9.8)	Display, information or marketing related to environmental respect (i.e. logo, certification or advertisement).	<i>“In response to waste management issues, the DSU [Direct Service Unit] also took steps to introduce more sustainable forms of food packaging. Examples included the use of biodegradable packaging for sandwich boxes and biodegradable wooden cutlery made from renewable forest material. Promoting a more ‘sustainable’ and ‘green’ image played an important part in the DSU’s marketing of its new style catering service.” (Fairchild, 2011)</i>
Children marketing	3 (7.3)	Display or marketing technique about food intended for children (i.e. toys, characters on packaging or child menus).	<i>“In addition to the full array of offerings at each restaurant, subsets of items marketed on ‘dollar’ or ‘value’, ‘kids’, and ‘healthy’ or ‘nutritious’ menus were examined. It was hypothesized that although fast-food offerings would rate poorly overall, items marketed to kids and as healthy or nutritious would fare better.” (Kirkpatrick, 2014)</i>
Marketing of economical menus	1 (2.4)	Display, information or marketing of an economical menu.	<i>“Items promoted on dollar or value, kids’, and healthy or nutritious menus (if any) on the restaurants’ websites in March 2010 were also identified.” (Kirkpatrick, 2014)</i>
Food freshness labels	1 (2.4)	Display on food related to freshness or safety (e.g. “best before” label)	<i>“The issue of consumption dates is also important since it raises issues in terms of food safety but also in terms of behaviour that can result in waste.” (Originally in</i>

			French; (CESE, 2014))
Food traceability labels	1 (2.4)	Display on food related to food origin, quality certification or food traceability in order to improve consumers' confidence in products and diminish food frauds.	<i>"In France, many products are the subject of national or community official initiatives. These are six signs of origin and quality identification (SIQO), subject to regular controls: AOC-approved designation of origin, AOP-protected designation of origin, IGP-protected geographical indication, organic agriculture (AB), red label, traditional speciality guaranteed (TSG)." (originally in French; (CESE, 2014))</i>
Animal husbandry conditions labels	1 (2.4)	Display on food related to animal husbandry conditions or animal well-being.	<i>"Finally, there are other types of useful information, which are currently difficult to interpret and therefore of little use to consumers. For example, this is the case for eggs and their packaging on which there are numerical codes (from 0 to 3). However, few know that this number placed before the indication of the country of origin refers to the conditions of rearing laying hens (for hens reared in the open air: 0 if they are fed with organic feed, or 1 if not; 2 for hens reared on the floor indoors; 3 for hens reared in cages or batteries)." (originally in French; (CESE, 2014))</i>
Proportion			
Healthy food VS unhealthy food	6 (14.6)	Ratio of healthy versus unhealthy food.	<i>"The ratio of less healthy to healthier mean checkout food exposures was calculated overall and for each story category. The proportion of less healthy and healthier checkout food exposures on promotion, and at child height, was calculated. The <math>\chi^2</math> test was used to assess differences in proportions." (J. K. Wright, E.;White, M.;Adams, J.;Sowden, S., 2015)</i>
Organic or local VS regular food	2 (4.9)	Ratio of organic or local versus regular food.	<i>"Finally, increasing the proportion of organic products in the school menu would reduce the EF [Ecological Footprint] significantly; however, there is currently no evidence to suggest that organic food and drink would improve the nutritional value of school meals (Dangour et al., 2009)" (Fairchild, 2011)</i>

Food groups in meals	1 (2.4)	Ratio of food groups in a meal.	<i>"In addition, a display on the ideal nutritional composition of a meal (proportion of meat/fish, fruit/vegetables (cooked/cooked), starches, dairy products) and colour codes according to the types of food proposed, which many structures already use, also participate usefully in this approach." (originally in French, (CESE, 2014))</i>
<b>Placement</b>			
Healthy or unhealthy food at eye level	4 (9.8)	Presence of healthy or unhealthy food at eye-level (children or adults).	<i>"Grocery stores market foods in many ways, but often it is through the products themselves (such as the assortment of products available), pricing incentives (such as coupons or differential prices), placement of products (such as at eye-level or at the end of an aisle), or promotion of products (such as displays and advertising, which can also overlap with the other categories)." (CDC, 2014)</i>
Healthy or unhealthy food at checkout aisles	2 (4.9)	Presence of healthy or unhealthy food at checkout aisles or at the end of aisles.	<i>"Therefore the aims of the present research were to: (i) investigate the display of foods at non-food store checkouts; and (ii) classify foods by type and nutrient content, presence of price promotions and whether food was displayed at child height." (J. K. Wright, E.;White, M.;Adams, J.;Sowden, S., 2015)</i>

## Conclusion générale

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Le but de ce projet était de synthétiser la littérature scientifique et grise à propos du concept de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire. La principale force de cette revue est que l'offre alimentaire à l'intérieur des milieux a été considérée dans sa globalité de par les critères d'inclusion qui étaient très larges. Effectivement, des documents de la littérature scientifique et grise, ayant des objectifs complètement différents, provenant de journaux de 12 disciplines différentes et concernant plus de 10 types de milieux de vie ont été synthétisés. Ceci a permis d'identifier certains critères qui ne semblaient pas avoir été répertoriés préalablement dans les revues de littérature présentées dans la problématique. Comme il a été démontré dans les résultats, les principales différences observées au niveau des caractéristiques des études se retrouvent surtout entre la littérature grise et scientifique. Cette distinction pourrait expliquer en bonne partie pourquoi les revues systématiques précédentes, n'ayant pas considéré la littérature grise, n'ont pas identifié de critères liés à l'acceptabilité des aliments ou au respect de l'environnement (Caspi et al., 2012; Engler-Stringer et al., 2014; Penney et al., 2014). En effet, selon nos observations, de par leur nature, les documents gouvernementaux comportent plusieurs pages et abordent nécessairement plus de sujets et d'aspects que les articles scientifiques qui ont bien souvent des objectifs précis et un nombre de mots limités par les journaux scientifiques. Ensuite, les documents gouvernementaux ou d'associations visent à élaborer des recommandations ou à revendiquer des idées, ce qui fait que les auteurs sont souvent plus engagés dans leurs propos et peuvent se permettre de prendre position sur des enjeux particuliers. Ces enjeux sont, bien entendu, souvent nutritionnels, mais aussi environnementaux ou sociaux. Les acteurs qui les rédigent répondent aux demandes des partenaires politiques et de la population. L'article de Semra Halima vient appuyer ces propos en énonçant que la littérature grise se distingue de par son originalité, car c'est une source d'information technique ou scientifique toujours renouvelée, sa rareté, puisqu'elle est souvent destinée à un groupe de lecteur précis, et son actualité, parce que celle-ci donne accès à de l'information rapidement, sans le lourd processus de publication scientifique (Halima, 2007). Ce dernier point est toutefois particulièrement vrai pour les documents créés par de

petites organisations. Ces points justifient la pertinence de prendre en compte les documents de la littérature grise dans les revues de littérature.

Ensuite, le fait que la littérature grise ait permis d'identifier davantage de critères innovants, de par son lien privilégié avec les besoins exprimés par les acteurs de terrain, peut laisser croire que d'autres critères liés à l'environnement (c.à.d. aliments biologiques ou locaux, protéines végétales et réduction des déchets) ou aux aspects sociaux et éthiques (c.à.d. bien-être animal ou humain, ambiance) auraient pu émerger davantage dans les 1919 documents exclus tardivement de la revue (Voir figure p.54). En effet, ceux-ci concernaient la perception des différents acteurs de l'offre, dont les consommateurs eux-mêmes. Il est également possible de se demander si certaines disciplines auraient été identifiées plus fréquemment avec l'inclusion de ces articles. On pense plus particulièrement au champ de la psychologie, de l'éducation, des sciences sociales ou des affaires, économie et gestion qui étudient peut-être davantage le comportement du consommateur et la perception de celui-ci que le champ de santé publique (InCites, 2018). À ce sujet, Williams et al. ont étudié la différence entre les mesures objectives de l'environnement réel et la perception de ces aspects par les consommateurs (mesures dites plus subjectives) (L. K. Williams et al., 2012). Tant l'environnement alimentaire communautaire, c'est-à-dire la perception de la distance de marche à différents types de magasins ou la distance réelle, que l'environnement du consommateur, représenté par la perception du prix et la variété des fruits et légumes ou le prix et la variété réels, étaient étudiés. Les auteurs en concluent que la perception de l'environnement et les mesures réelles de celui-ci concordent très peu; surtout en ce qui a trait à l'environnement alimentaire du consommateur. Ils terminent en disant que les interventions visant à modifier le prix, la variété ou la disponibilité des fruits et légumes dans les milieux pourraient s'avérer inefficaces sans une composante de l'intervention visant à modifier la perception des consommateurs (L. K. Williams et al., 2012). Ces résultats concordent avec d'autres études mentionnant que la perception des consommateurs doit être prise en compte puisque celle-ci pourrait être plus efficace pour prédire le comportement des consommateurs que les mesures objectives (D. J. Bowen, Barrington, & Beresford, 2015; Caspi et al., 2012; Engler-Stringer et al., 2014; Lake &

Townshend, 2006; Lytle, 2009; Ohri-Vachaspati & Leviton, 2010; Penney et al., 2014). C'est pourquoi certains chercheurs valorisent un retour aux besoins des consommateurs afin de déterminer comment se bâtit une intervention efficace (Adam & Jensen, 2016; Penney et al., 2014; Sallis & Glanz, 2009; L. K. Williams et al., 2012). En effet, les choix ou achats des individus sont souvent principalement influencés par le prix des aliments, le goût (ou le plaisir associé à ceux-ci) et la commodité de ceux-ci (Pettigrew, 2016). Les deux derniers aspects ont pourtant peu ressorti dans les critères objectifs de notre revue de littérature. Ainsi une analyse détaillée de documents davantage en lien avec les mesures subjectives de l'environnement permettrait possiblement d'identifier plus d'outils d'évaluation ou d'interventions misant sur ces aspects.

Un autre point important à soulever est que les critères identifiés dans notre revue ne sont pas tous associés aux mêmes enjeux ou buts. En effet, nous avons considéré comme un critère de qualité toutes caractéristiques de l'offre alimentaire considérées « désirables » (Voir section 4.4). Ce terme est très large et les différentes caractéristiques peuvent avoir comme objectif tant la protection de l'environnement, le souci d'offrir un juste prix aux producteurs, la santé nutritionnelle ou la pérennité économique. Tout chercheur ou organisation qui désirerait prioriser les critères que nous avons identifiés dans cette revue devraient d'abord se demander sur quelle base le faire et dans quel but à court, moyen et long terme. D'ailleurs, miser sur l'alimentation durable permet de combiner l'ensemble des critères que nous avons identifiés. En effet, ce concept inclut divers aspects favorisant la stabilité économique, environnementale et sociale en misant sur des aliments de moindre impact, accessibles, abordables, nutritifs et acceptables d'un point de vue culturel (Johnston, Fanzo, & Cogill, 2014). On peut lui attribuer six déterminants importants : (1) le bien-être et la santé, (2) la biodiversité, l'environnement ou le climat, (3) l'équité, (4) les aliments respectueux de l'environnement, locaux ou de saison, (5) l'héritage culturel ou les compétences et (6) les besoins nutritionnels, la sécurité alimentaire et l'accessibilité (Johnston et al., 2014). Si l'alimentation durable au sein de la population est le but visé, tous les critères identifiés deviennent alors prioritaires afin de toucher à toutes les sphères. Le changement de mentalité permettant de voir l'alimentation comme étant non seulement

liée à la valeur nutritive des aliments, mais également à des enjeux environnementaux, économiques et sociaux est assez récent en recherche (Hallström et al., 2018; Johnston et al., 2014; Townshend & Lake, 2017). Dans un commentaire de Townshend et Lake (2017), on peut d'ailleurs y lire:

« However, importantly, rather than setting « health » up as yet another « goal » of planning to compete against issues of sustainability, economic regeneration, and so on, more importantly, health and wellbeing should be embedded as the « golden thread » that runs through all built environment policy » (p.42) (Townshend & Lake, 2017)

Bien que leurs propos s'appliquent davantage à la notion d'aménagement du territoire et d'environnement bâti, il est clair que les auteurs revendentiquent une approche plus globale des environnements.

Cet examen de la portée ne contribue qu'aux premiers travaux de l'Observatoire. Il a permis de faire un portrait de l'ensemble de la littérature et de soulever d'autres questions sur les suites du projet. Plusieurs avenues s'offrent à l'Observatoire pour poursuivre la réflexion sur le concept de qualité de l'offre alimentaire. La première étape qui a suivi la fin de la revue a été de colliger l'ensemble des critères qui ont été mentionnés lors du remue-ménage avec les acteurs et experts de l'offre alimentaire lors de la journée de la gouvernance de l'Observatoire du 7 juin 2018. Cela a permis de valider les résultats de notre examen de la portée et de voir quels critères faisaient consensus entre la littérature et les acteurs. La saillance de chaque critère est semblable entre les deux sources. Le rassemblement de l'ensemble de ces critères en une définition commune est la prochaine étape. Cette étape pourrait être suivie par la validation et l'acceptation de cette définition consensuelle par les membres de l'Observatoire. Alors que l'idée première de l'Observatoire était de prioriser les critères à inclure dans la définition consensuelle, cet examen de la portée a permis d'identifier les critères et non de les prioriser par importance (e.g. importance en fonction de l'efficacité de l'intervention ou de l'impact sur la santé). Bien qu'une priorisation pourrait se faire de manière subjective par les membres de l'Observatoire, il a été considéré comme plus crédible de garder l'ensemble des critères identifiés dans la même définition. De plus, il semblerait favorable à l'Observatoire d'avoir une définition très inclusive, selon laquelle seulement quelques critères pourraient être

observés et suivis, mais qui, somme toute, permettrait une vision globale et une flexibilité au niveau des futurs travaux. Cette définition large et multidisciplinaire permettrait d'ouvrir à différents partenariats avec des experts de plusieurs domaines. Ces experts pourraient d'ailleurs être ciblés en fonction des 12 disciplines identifiées dans cet examen de la portée. Pour atteindre sa mission d'amélioration de l'accessibilité et de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire, l'Observatoire devra sans aucun doute investiguer davantage le concept d'accessibilité. En effet, l'accessibilité géographique, comme démontré dans la problématique, comporte également son lot de limites au niveau de l'évaluation (Voir section 1.4.1.3). Ces limites pourraient être contrées en bonne partie par une évaluation plus globale des environnements alimentaires en incluant tant l'accès aux différents milieux, l'offre à l'intérieur de ces milieux et la perception de l'accès et de l'offre par les consommateurs (Engler-Stringer et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2010; Gamba et al., 2015; Townshend & Lake, 2017).

Du côté des praticiens, plus précisément les professionnels évaluant ou travaillant à améliorer l'offre alimentaire dans les milieux, cette revue de littérature a également soulevé des points intéressants à considérer. D'abord, celle-ci a permis de voir de façon plus globale et pratique l'ensemble des critères à prendre en compte et la complexité du concept d'offre alimentaire. Il importe de sortir de l'évaluation et des interventions axées uniquement sur la valeur nutritive pour ouvrir à d'autres enjeux et à d'autres facteurs influençant les choix alimentaires. Que ce soit l'accessibilité au niveau plus macro ou les critères de la qualité de l'offre alimentaire dans les milieux au niveau plus proximal, une compréhension générale est nécessaire. Un partenariat entre les chercheurs et les praticiens permet de rendre des concepts plus flous davantage ancrés dans la pratique. À ce sujet, la revue de Ohri-Vachaspati et Leviton permet de mettre en lumière qu'aucun outil d'évaluation de l'environnement alimentaire n'est approprié pour l'ensemble des utilisateurs et pour tous les buts (Ohri-Vachaspati & Leviton, 2010). Comme mentionné précédemment, il importe de sélectionner les critères d'évaluation en fonction du but visé et il en est de même pour l'expertise disponible. Alors que les praticiens recherchent davantage la simplicité et la commodité, les chercheurs veulent davantage de validité et de rigueur. Les auteurs recommandent donc des partenariats afin de créer des outils répondant aux besoins des

deux, valider des outils simples existant ou simplifier des outils validés (Ohri-Vachaspati & Leviton, 2010). Dans ce sens, les critères identifiés dans cette revue pourraient faciliter les échanges menant au développement ou à l'amélioration des outils, puisque les critères proviennent tant des organisateurs et professionnels de terrain que des chercheurs.

Cette revue a également permis de cibler plusieurs limites dans la littérature actuelle. Il y a, bien entendu, certains critères nécessitant davantage de recherche comme discuté précédemment, mais il y a également un besoin persistant de constance tant dans l'évaluation que dans la définition du concept de qualité de l'offre alimentaire. Plusieurs auteurs ont d'ailleurs mentionné la nécessité de développer un outil de mesure commun afin de pouvoir permettre la comparaison entre les études (Eyler et al., 2015; Lytle, 2009; L. M. Minaker et al., 2016; Penney et al., 2014; Sallis & Glanz, 2009). D'autres se questionnent sur le réalisme d'une telle démarche (Ohri-Vachaspati & Leviton, 2010; Penney et al., 2014). Est-il vraiment possible de créer un outil permettant d'évaluer tant la qualité que l'accessibilité à l'offre alimentaire dans une diversité de milieux, tout en prenant en compte la perception des consommateurs fréquentant ces milieux? Cet outil intégrateur pourrait malheureusement simplifier excessivement les environnements alimentaires qui sont influencés par de multiples facteurs et qui influencent à leur tour de multiples manières (Penney et al., 2014). Ce sont des interrogations sur lesquelles les chercheurs devront se pencher davantage. En effet, cette revue n'a pas permis de donner une importance relative à chacun des critères en termes d'impact sur la santé, sur l'environnement, les choix alimentaires et autres. Elle fait plutôt état de tout ce qui a été fait sur le sujet. Ainsi, davantage de recherche est nécessaire afin de synthétiser l'impact des interventions visant les différents critères, de prioriser les plus efficaces en fonction de l'objectif désiré et d'établir des recommandations claires pour la prise de décision politique (Cobb et al., 2015; Lytle, 2009).

Cette revue de littérature a des limites qui ont été mentionnées dans la section 4.6. Plusieurs consultations et retours en arrière ont été nécessaires en cours de processus dû au grand volume de documents à analyser et aux ressources disponibles. L'équipe avait toutefois un

souci que la revue demeure des plus rigoureuses du point de vue scientifique. Il n'aurait pas été possible de faire autrement de par la complexité engendrée par le sujet très diversifié de l'étude. En effet, le processus itératif fait partie des recommandations énoncées par Arksey et O'Malley et d'autres auteurs (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Johanna Briggs Institute, 2015). À toutes les étapes, les chercheurs devraient prendre le temps de réfléchir, de bien comprendre le corpus de données, quitte à refaire certaines étapes pour s'assurer que la revue corresponde bien aux objectifs (Arksey & O'Malley, 2005; Johanna Briggs Institute, 2015). Le seul point, qui, à mon avis, aurait pu simplifier la tâche, aurait été l'implication d'experts de domaines autres que celui de la santé publique et de la nutrition. Cela aurait peut-être permis de préciser nos critères d'inclusion et d'exclusion, tout en restant suffisamment inclusifs pour permettre d'identifier les articles de ces domaines. En fait, comme la littérature le suggère, pour tout ce qui a trait au sujet de l'environnement alimentaire, il est primordial de travailler en intersectorialité (Hayashi & Takemi, 2015; Sallis & Glanz, 2009).

En somme, cet examen de la portée qui se voulait très large, notamment par l'inclusion de la littérature grise, a permis de cibler une panoplie de critères de qualité de l'offre alimentaire pouvant servir de base à des futurs travaux. En effet, l'Observatoire poursuivra la réflexion sur ce concept par la création d'une définition commune et l'identification de potentiels partenariats qui pourront venir compléter la vision globale désirée (c.à.d. en incluant tant le concept d'accessibilité que le concept d'environnement perçu). De plus, que ce soit dans la priorisation ou le développement d'outils de mesure ou d'interventions, cette revue permet de faire état de la variété de critères utilisés tant du côté des praticiens que des chercheurs. Un partenariat entre ces deux groupes permettrait d'ailleurs de créer des interventions et outils faisables, pertinents et ayant un impact démontré sur divers enjeux (c.-à.-d. santé, environnement, société, économie).

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