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Caribbean nutrition transition: what can we learn from dietary patterns in the French West Indies?

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Abbreviations

95% CI: 95% confidence interval

BMI: body mass index

BMR: basal metabolic rate

DQI-I: Diet Quality Index-International

FFQ: food frequency questionnaire

HDL: High-Density Lipoprotein

MetS: metabolic syndrome

NRF: Nutrient-Rich Foods Index

OR: Odds ratio

PCA: Principal component analysis

SE: Standard error

SEM: Standard error of mean

SES: Socioeconomic status

1 **Abstract**

2 **Purpose:** Despite the urgency regarding increasing rates of obesity and chronic diseases in
3 the Caribbean, few studies described the nutrition transition. We aimed to provide such
4 information by identifying dietary patterns in the French West Indies and their characteristics.

5 **Methods:** This cross-sectional analysis included 1,144 Guadeloupeans and Martinicans from
6 a multistage sampling survey conducted on a representative sample. Dietary patterns were
7 identified using principal component analysis followed by a clustering procedure, and
8 described using multivariable regression models.

9 **Results:** Four patterns were identified: (i) a “prudent” pattern characterized by high intakes of
10 fruits, vegetables, legumes, seafood and yogurts, low intakes of fatty and sweet products, and
11 a high Diet Quality Index-International (DQI-I); (ii) a “traditional” pattern characterized by
12 high intakes of fruits, vegetables, tubers and fish, low intakes of red and processed meat,
13 snacks, fast foods, and sweetened beverages, with a high DQI-I, mostly shaped by women and
14 older persons; (iii) a “convenient” pattern characterized by high intakes of sweetened
15 beverages, snacks, and fast foods, with the lowest DQI-I, principally shaped by young
16 participants; (iv) a “transitioning” pattern characterized by high consumptions of bread,
17 processed meat, sauces, alcoholic and sweetened beverages, but also high intakes of tubers,
18 legumes, and fish, mainly shaped by men, middle aged, of whom 35% had metabolic
19 syndrome.

20 **Conclusion:** The co-existing dietary patterns in the French West Indies, marked by a
21 generational contrast, seem to reflect different steps in dietary change as described in the
22 literature, suggesting an ongoing nutrition transition.

- 23 **Keywords:** Nutrition transition; Dietary patterns; Profiles of consumers; Clusters; French
- 24 West Indies; Food consumption

25 **Introduction**

26 The nutrition transition sees the emergence of a “Western” dietary pattern characterized by
27 high intakes of saturated fats, sugars, and refined foods, and low intakes of fiber-rich foods,
28 mainly owing to the high availability of cheap energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods [1]. This
29 dietary shift has accompanied the development of a sedentary life-style, resulting in an
30 increasing prevalence of obesity and nutrition-related chronic diseases [2]. As most of the
31 Caribbean territories [3, 4], the French West Indies (Martinique and Guadeloupe) have a high
32 prevalence of chronic diseases: 23% of adults are obese (27% of women, 18% of men), 38%
33 have hypertension (39% of women, 38% of men), and 8% are pharmacologically treated for
34 diabetes (9% of women, 7% of men) [5–7]. Despite the urgency regarding increasing rates of
35 obesity and chronic diseases in the Caribbean [8, 9], very few studies have characterized the
36 nutrition transition through dietary patterns in this area. In the Caribbean, energy availability
37 has increased since the 1960s owing to a growing availability of animal-source foods, fats and
38 oils, and simple sugars, while the availability of food sources with complex carbohydrates has
39 consistently declined [8, 10–12]. The rare studies that have explored individual dietary intakes
40 in the Caribbean report more frequent consumption of ultra-processed foods and red meat,
41 and lower intakes of fruits, vegetables, traditional tubers, and fish among young adults
42 compared with their elders [13, 14]. In the French West Indies, the two surveys assessing
43 adults’ dietary intakes conducted in Martinique and Guadeloupe [15, 16] showed similar
44 results, notably lower intake of fruits and vegetables, dairy products, and seafood in persons
45 aged below 55 years, compared with older ones [16]. This suggests an ongoing nutrition
46 transition, with young adults’ diets being less rooted in traditional dietary habits.

47 To develop appropriate public health policies, characterization of the nutrition transition step
48 is needed. In-depth description of the persistence of traditional diet and the place of
49 “globalized” diet in the Caribbean population could provide useful, accurate information to

50 identify populations at higher nutritional risk. The study reported here aims at providing such
51 information by identifying typical dietary patterns in the French West Indies and describing
52 them according to health status, food supply practices, and socioeconomic characteristics.

53 **Subjects and methods**

54 Population

55 Subjects were participants aged 16 and over from the cross-sectional “Kannari survey: Health,
56 Nutrition and Exposure to Chlordecone in French West Indies”, conducted on Guadeloupean
57 and Martinican adults and children by Santé publique France (the French public health
58 agency) in 2013–2014, and described elsewhere [15]. Briefly, the Kannari survey was based
59 on a multistage stratified random sample of the Guadeloupean and Martinican populations to
60 describe chlordecone food exposure and impregnation, health status, and food intakes in these
61 populations. Sample selection was based on a three-stage cluster design (geographic areas,
62 household, and individuals in the household), stratified by chlordecone contamination areas
63 (coastline and inland).

64 The Kannari survey was conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki guidelines,
65 and the survey protocol received approval from the ethical research committee for the South-
66 West and Overseas II (Comité de protection des personnes Sud-Ouest et Outre-Mer II, CPP
67 No. 2-13-10) and the French data protection authority (Commission nationale de
68 l’informatique et des libertés No. 913236). All the participants gave their informed consent.

69 Data collection

70 Demographic and socioeconomic characteristics, health status and food frequency data were
71 collected through face-to-face interviews at home using standardized questionnaires and
72 anthropometric data and blood pressure were measured. Trained dietitians conducted 24-h
73 dietary recalls over the phone. Blood sample was collected for adults aged 18 and over.

74 *Assessment of demographic and socioeconomic characteristics*

75 Demographic characteristics were sex, age, location (Guadeloupe or Martinique), single-
76 parent household, presence or not of at least one child in the household, and marital status.

77 Age categories, assessing the generational effect, were equally distributed before considering
78 weights in the statistical analysis, as it was broken down into tertiles: 16–45 years, 46–60
79 years, and over 60 years. To better understand the age structure of the patterns, a sensitivity
80 analysis was conducted using specific age cutpoints, broken down more finely categories: 16-
81 30, 31-45, 46-60, 61-75, and above 75. Socioeconomic characteristics were education,
82 employment status, and being whether or not a recipient of social assistance benefits. As
83 income information was not available, social assistance benefit was used to identify the most
84 deprived participants in our sample, in the form of a guaranteed minimum income. Education
85 was recoded into three categories according to the highest qualification attained: low (no or
86 primary school), middle (below high school), and high (equivalent to or higher than high
87 school). Employment status was coded into three categories: unemployed and never-
88 employed (disabled, homemakers and students), employed, and retired. Finally, occupation
89 was classified using the six categories used by the French National Institute of Statistics and
90 Economic Studies (INSEE) [17]: never-employed, manual worker, employee, intermediate
91 profession (technician, skilled employee, teacher, nurse, etc.), managerial staff and self-
92 employed (artisan, shopkeeper, company manager, farmer). If participants were retired or
93 unemployed, their last occupation was recorded.

94 *Assessment of dietary intake*

95 Dietary data were collected using two non-consecutive randomly assigned 24-h dietary
96 recalls. The distribution between weekdays and weekend days was balanced at the sample
97 level. Participants were asked to describe in detail their food intake and amount consumed
98 during the 24 hours preceding the interview. Portion sizes were estimated using standard
99 measurements (e.g., home containers, grams indicated on the package) or a validated
100 illustrated booklet [18], representing more than 250 foods specific to the French West Indies
101 (corresponding to 1000 generic foods) served in seven different portion sizes. In addition to

102 24-h dietary recalls, participants completed a qualitative 119-item food frequency
103 questionnaire (FFQ), covering the last 12 months. Values for energy, macronutrients, and
104 micronutrients such as calcium, iron, sodium, vitamins B12, C, and D were estimated using
105 published nutrient databases [19] extended for French West Indian market foods and recipes.
106 Beverage and food items were classified according to the information provided in the French
107 Nutrition and Health Program guides yielding 64 food groups, aggregated into 39 food groups
108 for this study. The Multiple Source Method (MSM) was used to estimate usual dietary intake
109 [20]. With the MSM, usual dietary intakes were estimated using the amounts of consumption
110 from 24-h dietary recalls combined with consumption frequencies declared in the FFQ, taking
111 into account inter- and intra-individual variations, according to sex and age. This method let
112 us keep in our analysis 30 subjects who completed only one 24-h dietary recall.

113 Erroneous quantities due to data entry errors were identified using day- and food-specific
114 established thresholds. According to the percentage of erroneous data in declared quantities in
115 the recall and the declaration of the subject the representativeness of the recall compared to
116 his/her usual diet, the recall was corrected. Misreporters of energy intake (over- and under-
117 reporters) were identified by the method proposed by Black [21]. Briefly, basal metabolic rate
118 (BMR) was estimated using Mifflin equations [22] since a high prevalence of overweight and
119 obesity was observed in our study sample. BMR was compared to energy intake by using a
120 physical activity level of $1.55 \times \text{BMR}$ as the cut-off to identify misreporters [21]. Subjects
121 who reported specific conditions that could objectively explain low energy intake, such as a
122 low-energy diet to lose weight or acute disease, were not recorded as under-reporters. No
123 subject was identified as over-reporter in our sample. Under-reporters were excluded from the
124 analyses.

125 *Snacking occasion and characteristics*

126 The eating occasions were categorized according to their nutritional content and self-reported
127 time, following the methodology of Si Hassen *et al.* [23]. In the present study, we focused on
128 overall snacking, defined as having at least one eating occasion apart from main meals during
129 the last 24 hours, only on weekdays, because of variable and unusual eating behavior on
130 weekends. Overall snacking was characterized by the occurrence, energy intake, energy
131 density, and nutrient density. The energy density of snacks was calculated as the ratio of
132 energy intake by the quantity of food declared, multiplied by 100, excluding the 10% lowest-
133 calorie beverages. The nutrient density of snacks was assessed by the Nutrient-Rich Foods
134 Index (NRF9.3) developed by Fulgoni *et al.* [24], calculated as the sum of the amount per 100
135 kcal divided by the daily values of nine nutrients and minerals to be encouraged (protein,
136 fiber, vitamins A, C and E, calcium, iron, magnesium, and potassium) and subtracting the
137 amount per 100 kcal divided by the daily values of three nutrients to be limited (saturated fat,
138 added sugars, and sodium). The daily values were those used by Fulgoni, defined by the Food
139 and Drug Administration [24].

140 *Diet quality*

141 The overall quality of the diet was evaluated using the Diet Quality Index-International (DQI-
142 I) developed by Kim *et al.*, as it assesses several aspects of diet quality and allows
143 international comparisons [25]. The DQI-I (range 0–100), including both nutrient- and food-
144 group items, consists of 17 components grouped into four main categories: variety (overall
145 food group variety and within-group variety for protein source), adequacy (vegetables, fruits,
146 cereals, fiber, protein, iron, calcium, vitamin C), moderation (total fat, saturated fat,
147 cholesterol, sodium, empty-energy foods) and overall balance (macronutrient ratio and fatty
148 acid ratio).

149 *Degree of food processing*

150 Every food and beverage recalled by participants were classified in one of the four groups of
151 the NOVA classification according to the extent and purpose of the industrial processing used
152 in their production [26]: group 1, unprocessed or minimally processed foods; group 2,
153 processed culinary ingredients; group 3, processed foods; group 4, ultra-processed foods.
154 Ultra-processed foods are formulations made mostly or entirely from substances derived from
155 foods and additives, with little if any intact group 1 food, such as soft drinks, sweet or savory
156 packaged snacks, and pre-prepared frozen dishes. For the present study, the percentage of
157 energy intake provided by the ultra-processed food group was estimated.

158 *Food supply practices*

159 Food supply practices were evaluated with a questionnaire for five food groups (“fruits,
160 vegetables, roots and tubers”, “fish and seafood”, “red meat”, “poultry”, and “eggs”),
161 categorized as “no purchase or no preference”, “only or mainly in supermarkets”, “only or
162 mainly elsewhere than supermarkets”. Also, overall home production (foods from their own
163 production) and donation from someone outside the household were evaluated.

164 *Health status*

165 Body mass index (BMI) was calculated and categorized according to the World Health
166 Organization (WHO) classification [27] and recorded into three categories: underweight or
167 normal weight, overweight, and obese. Prevalence of metabolic syndrome (MetS) was
168 determined according to the Joint Interim Statement [28] as meeting at least three of the
169 following five criteria: (i) elevated waist circumference (≥ 94 cm for men and ≥ 80 cm for
170 women), (ii) elevated triglycerides (≥ 150 mg/dL or drug treatment for elevated triglycerides),
171 (iii) low HDL-cholesterolemia (< 40 mg/dL for men and < 50 mg/dL for women or
172 dyslipidemia treatment), (iv) elevated blood pressure (systolic blood pressure ≥ 130 mm Hg

173 and/or diastolic ≥ 85 mm Hg or antihypertensive drug treatment), and (v) elevated fasting
174 glucose (≥ 100 mg/dL or antidiabetic medication). Waist circumference and blood pressure
175 were measured for all participants, but biological data were available only for a subsample.
176 For participants who agreed to blood sampling, fasting glucose, triglycerides, and HDL-
177 cholesterol concentrations were measured. All the subjects were asked about medication for
178 dyslipidemia, hypertension, and diabetes.

179 Statistical analysis

180 To identify different dietary patterns, we used a two-step procedure. First, a weighted
181 principal component analysis (PCA) was applied to food group intakes (in g/d) adjusted for
182 daily energy intake according to sex, using the residual method. Food groups with a factor
183 loading coefficient under 0.25 being excluded, PCA was applied to the 25 food group intakes
184 (among 39 available) detailed in Table 1. PCA generates independent linear combinations of
185 the initial food group variables, maximizing the explained variance. Factors were rotated by
186 an orthogonal transformation. According to eigenvalues above 1.5, Scree test (Cattell test)
187 and interpretability of factors [29], three dimensions were retained (Factor Loading available
188 in **Supplementary Table 1**). Using these three dimensions, a clustering procedure was then
189 performed by applying Ward's hierarchical classification of the individuals, maximizing the
190 inter-class inertia. The graphical observation of the dendrogram, illustrating stages of
191 classification, pseudo F , pseudo r^2 and the cubic clustering criterion (CCC), were used to
192 estimate the appropriate number of clusters [30]. Stabilization of the clusters was carried out
193 to distribute the individuals better by clusters. Finally, to test the robustness of the clusters,
194 kappa coefficients, markers of agreement between each simulated sample and the whole
195 sample, were calculated for 50 randomly selected samples composed of three quarters of the
196 whole sample, using an equal probability sampling method. Cluster analysis yielded groups,
197 interpreted as dietary patterns, labeled according to their main food intakes. Clusters were

198 described according to their main nutritional characteristics (food group and nutrient intakes
199 adjusted for daily energy intake without alcohol, DQI-I, percentage of energy intake provided
200 by the ultra-processed food group, occurrence of overall snacking and, energy intake, energy
201 density and nutrient density of overall snacking). Multivariable logistic regressions were
202 performed by calculating adjusted percentages and Odds Ratios (ORs), 95% confidence
203 intervals (95% CI) to determine the strength of the association between each pattern
204 membership (belonging to on this pattern or not) and demographic and socioeconomic
205 characteristics, health status and food supply practices. Models were adjusted for sex, location
206 (Guadeloupe or Martinique), age, employment status, education, social assistance benefits,
207 presence of at least one child in the household, single-parent household, marital status and
208 body mass index (BMI).

209 Sensitivity analyses were also conducted. First, we described our patterns stratified by age
210 (“under 45” and “aged 45 or above”). To assess whether identified dietary patterns were
211 different between Guadeloupe and Martinique, we also conducted stratified PCA on location.
212 Finally, we performed PCA excluding alcoholic beverages.

213 To take into account the complex survey design, weighting was calculated for each sex on
214 age, education, marital status, birthplace, presence of at least one child in the household,
215 living in an area with chlordecone contamination (coastline and inland) and urban size, using
216 the iterative proportional fitting procedure according to the French national census reports
217 [31]. In all the analyses, we used specific survey procedures to take into account weighting
218 and stratification.

219 For all analyses, a p -value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Data management
220 and statistical analyses were performed using SAS (version 9.4; SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC,
221 USA.).

222 **Results**

223 Among the 1,799 subjects who participated in the Kannari study, 458 did not complete a 24-h
224 dietary recall and 197 were energy under-reporters leaving 1,144 subjects (≥ 16 y) included in
225 the analyses (**Supplementary Figure 1**).

226 The great majority were born in either Guadeloupe or Martinique. Our sample was equitably
227 distributed between Guadeloupe and Martinique and 57% of respondents were women
228 (**Supplementary Table 2**). Approximately 44% of the participants were aged under 46 years,
229 and 27% were aged above 60. Almost 40% of the participants were living with at least one
230 child in their household, and 6% were single parents. Regarding socioeconomic
231 characteristics, 32% of the participants were unemployed or never-employed. Half of the
232 sample were employees, and only 7% were managerial staff. The low-educated formed 44%,
233 the high-educated 37%, and 19% received social assistance benefits. Regarding health status,
234 21% of the sample were obese, 40% had hypertension, 11% had diabetes, and MetS was
235 identified in 23%.

236 Cluster analysis yielded four groups. These clusters were interpreted as four dietary patterns
237 and labeled according to their main food intakes as “prudent”, “traditional”, “convenient” and
238 “transitioning” patterns, representing respectively, 25%, 24%, 31%, and 20% of the sample.
239 **Table 1** presents the daily intakes adjusted for energy intake of the 25 food groups included in
240 the PCA across dietary patterns. **Table 2** and **Figure 1** describe the main nutritional
241 characteristics of each dietary pattern, and **Tables 3, 4, and 5** describe demographic and
242 socioeconomic factors, health status and supply practices, respectively. Odds Ratios and 95%
243 CI to assess the associations between pattern membership and demographic and
244 socioeconomic factors, health status and supply practices are presented in **Supplementary**
245 **Tables 3, 4 and 5**, respectively.

246 **The “prudent” pattern**

247 The participants belonging to the cluster displaying a “prudent” pattern had the highest
248 intakes of rice, whole-grain products, seafood and yogurts, and the lowest intake of fatty and
249 sweet products. They also had high intakes of fruits, vegetables and legumes, and low intake
250 of tubers, sweetened beverages, biscuits, cakes, and pastries. Those displaying this “prudent”
251 pattern had the highest intake of calcium, the lowest intake of free sugars, and a high DQI-I.
252 Complex carbohydrates and proteins made up, respectively, 29% and 19% of their daily
253 energy intake. “Prudent pattern” subjects had the lowest percentage of energy provided by
254 ultra-processed food and their snacks had the highest nutritional density ($p=0.02$, data not
255 shown). A high percentage (45%) bought their fruits, vegetables, roots, and tubers mainly in
256 supermarkets, and 77% had food donated by someone outside the household, higher than
257 other patterns. Overall, “Prudent pattern” participants had similar sociodemographic and
258 economic characteristics to those of the overall sample, except for the higher percentages of
259 Guadeloupeans (62%) and individuals living in couples. A high percentage of high-educated
260 individuals was observed, not significantly higher than in other patterns. Regarding health
261 status, a high percentage of obesity was observed, but not significantly higher compared with
262 other patterns.

263 **The “traditional” pattern**

264 Participants belonging to this cluster displaying a “traditional” pattern had the highest
265 consumption of fruits, vegetables, tubers, fish, fatty and sweet products, and traditional
266 French West Indian dishes, and the lowest consumption of starches, red and processed meat,
267 poultry, sweetened beverages, alcoholic beverages, and snacks and fast foods. In addition,
268 they had the lowest energy intake, and total and simple carbohydrates made up respectively
269 48% and 22% of the total energy intake. Compared with other subjects, “traditional” pattern
270 subjects had the highest DQI-I, with a high score for moderation and overall balance

271 components. In this pattern, only 10% of the participants ate no breakfast, and the energy
272 provided by snacking was lower than for the other patterns ($p=0.04$, data not shown). A high
273 percentage of subjects bought their supplies mainly in supermarkets, except for fish and
274 seafood, mainly bought elsewhere. This pattern was shaped mostly by women and older
275 subjects.

276 **The “convenient” pattern**

277 The participants belonging to the cluster displaying a “convenient” pattern had the lowest
278 intakes of fruit, vegetable, tubers, whole-grain foods, fish and seafood, yogurts and traditional
279 French West Indian dishes, and the highest intakes of potatoes, pasta, poultry, biscuits, cakes
280 and pastries, snacks and fast foods and sweetened beverages. The contribution of lipids to the
281 daily energy intake was higher than in the other patterns, especially saturated fatty acids, and
282 the protein contribution was lower. “Convenient” pattern subjects also had the lowest intakes
283 of fiber, calcium, vitamins D and B12, and the highest intake of free sugars compared with
284 the other patterns. This resulted in the lowest DQI-I found in the sample, with a low variety
285 score. The percent energy intake provided by ultra-processed foods was the highest. Almost
286 30% of the subjects in this pattern ate no breakfast, and 59% had a snack at least once in the
287 day. Snacking made up 24% of the daily energy intake, but its nutritional density was low. In
288 this pattern, subjects bought their fruits, vegetables, roots, and tubers mainly in supermarkets
289 ($p=0.01$), and had a low percentage of home-produced foods. This “convenient” pattern was
290 mainly composed of young participants (<46 years).

291 **The “transitioning” pattern**

292 The participants belonging to the cluster displaying a “transitioning” pattern had the highest
293 consumption of bread, red and processed meat, sauces and alcoholic beverages, and the
294 lowest intakes of whole grain products, but also of biscuits, cakes, and pastries. Subjects also
295 had high intake of sweetened beverages, but conversely high intakes of tubers, legumes, fish,

296 and offal. In addition, 45% of their dishes were traditional French West Indian dishes. They
297 had the highest intakes of fiber, sodium and iron, and the highest energy intake, of which 31%
298 was provided by complex carbohydrates. This resulted in an intermediate DQI-I of 61 points.
299 A low percentage of snacking was found in subjects with this pattern (50%) and their snacks
300 contributed only slightly to the daily energy intake. This “transitioning” pattern was mainly
301 shaped by men and middle-aged individuals. In this “transitioning” pattern, the prevalence of
302 overweight was high (41%), as was the prevalence of MetS (35%), significantly higher
303 compared with other patterns.

304 To understand the age structure, the contribution of each pattern to each age category was
305 assessed (**Figure 2**). The “convenient” pattern was found in almost 70% of the subjects aged
306 under 30 and in 45% of those aged between 31 and 45. The “prudent” pattern also formed a
307 high percentage of the subjects aged under 46, and was present in those aged between 46 and
308 60. The “transitioning” pattern was strong at ages above 45 and especially above 60. Finally,
309 the “traditional” pattern comprised almost the majority of subjects aged 61 to 75 and most of
310 those over 75.

311 In sensitivity analysis, the same four patterns were found in the PCA stratified for location
312 (Guadeloupe and Martinique) (data not shown). Also, the same patterns occurred when
313 alcoholic beverages were excluded from the PCA (data not shown). Finally, sensitivity
314 analysis stratified by age (**Supplementary Table 6**) led to different profiles inside patterns
315 according to age (under 45 years or aged 45 and above). In all four patterns, education level
316 profiles were different according to age group, the younger persons being more educated than
317 the older ones, i.e., above age 45 years. Also, compared with other patterns, the “convenient”
318 pattern had the highest percentage of unemployed or never-employed persons among the
319 above 45 years group. Finally, a high percentage of obesity in the “traditional” pattern was
320 found, mainly in younger individuals (under 45 years).

321 **Discussion**

322 In this study conducted in the French West Indies, we identified the following four dietary
323 patterns: “prudent”, “traditional”, “convenient” and “transitioning”. Each pattern exhibited
324 specific nutritional, demographic, and socioeconomic characteristics.

325 *Four co-existing dietary patterns*

326 Two of our identified dietary patterns, which we labeled “prudent” and “convenient”, have
327 been found worldwide and are largely described [32–34]. Consistent with the literature, our
328 “prudent” pattern had high intakes of fruits, vegetables, legumes, rice, whole grains, fish, and
329 seafood. However, we detected some differences regarding the intake of red meat. The
330 association between consumption of meat and socioeconomic position seems to change
331 during nutrition transition: higher socioeconomic status (SES) is first associated with higher
332 meat intakes, and then with lower meat intakes at an advanced step in the nutrition transition,
333 which may be partly due to changes in meat representation in society [35]. Meat is an
334 essential food in typical French West Indian meals, associated with pleasure and health by its
335 contribution to protein intake [36]. This may explain the occurrence of red meat intakes in our
336 “prudent” pattern. The “convenient” or “Western” pattern is generally characterized by high
337 intakes of red and processed meat, refined grains, sweets, and soft drinks, and low
338 micronutrient intakes, leading to low diet quality [32–34]. Although consistent, our
339 “convenient” pattern included some specific features: subjects did not have high intakes of
340 red meat, whereas their intakes of poultry were high. This may be due to the high availability
341 and low prices of imported frozen poultry [37]. To our knowledge, only one study, a case-
342 control study on 516 Jamaican men, has identified dietary patterns in the Caribbean [38]. In
343 concordance with our results, they identified four patterns including a “vegetable and legume”
344 pattern similar to our “prudent” pattern and a “meat” pattern similar to our “convenient”
345 pattern, with high loadings for processed meat and poultry (0.57 and 0.39, respectively) but

346 not for red meat (0.25) [38]. The identification of such “prudent” and “convenient” patterns in
347 French West Indies is further evidence of a worldwide homogenization of dietary patterns due
348 to international trade agreements and the globalization of food production and distribution
349 increasing dependence on imported processed foods [2, 39]. However, a “traditional” pattern
350 remained in the French West Indies, reflecting specific cultural habits such as high intakes of
351 fruits, vegetables, tubers and fish, and low intakes of starches, processed meat, sweetened
352 beverages, snacks and fast foods, consistent with the composition of typical meals [36] and
353 the results of the work conducted by the Health Agency of Guadeloupe in 2010, which
354 identified a similar traditional profile [40]. To our knowledge, no other study in the Caribbean
355 has identified a “traditional” pattern, yet brief descriptions of the Caribbean diet are consistent
356 with our findings, mentioning tuber, white bread, rice, plantains, fish, and bean dishes as
357 traditional foods [14, 41]. In agreement with results obtained in 2010 in Guadeloupe [40], the
358 diet quality of subjects in our “traditional” pattern was high, just as high as for the “prudent”
359 one, which could be due to the good balance of typical meals [36]. Previous studies have
360 identified traditional diets with high diet quality such as Mediterranean-type diets, associated
361 with reduced health risks [42]. Further studies assessing associations between French West
362 Indies’ traditional diet and chronic diseases are needed to evaluate whether this diet,
363 affordable and culturally and socially acceptable, may be promoted to fight against chronic
364 diseases and obesity. Finally, concordant with studies that identified a “transitioning” pattern,
365 mixing traditional and “modern” foods [43, 44], the present study identified a pattern
366 characterized by high intakes of traditional French West Indies foods (tubers, legumes, fish,
367 and offal), coexisting with high intakes of “Western” foods (sweetened beverages, butter,
368 processed meat, bread, pasta, and sauces). Our finding is consistent with a recent study
369 conducted among 100 Puerto Rican women, where foods contributing to macronutrient intake
370 reflected both traditional Puerto Rican diets and “Western” diets [41]. This “transitioning”

371 pattern suggests an ongoing nutrition transition in the French West Indies, with populations
372 moving from a traditional to a convenient diet.

373 *Individuals characteristics of the dietary patterns*

374 First, a difference according to sex was found for the “traditional” pattern, mainly shaped by
375 women, and the “transitioning” pattern, by men. Our result was consistent with published
376 studies showing healthier dietary behavior in women [32, 45, 46]. Also consistent with the
377 literature [1, 32, 33] and with the only study assessing associations between
378 sociodemographic factors and frequency of consumption of some foods in a Caribbean
379 context [14], we observed a generational effect, younger subjects adopting new dietary
380 patterns, while the traditional dietary pattern persisted in older participants, and the
381 transitioning pattern in middle-aged ones. We can, therefore, hypothesize that nutrition
382 transition in French West Indies started in younger individuals (<45 years, as shown in the
383 sensitivity analysis) who changed their diet to a “modern” one, may be due to earlier
384 adoption of “Westernized” lifestyles, related to different responses to social and economic
385 changes according to the generation [1], and to different responses to advertising and
386 marketing, the youngest being the most receptive [47]. Our “prudent” pattern largely
387 comprised high-educated persons, concordant with the literature [32, 33]. Education is
388 associated with a better understanding of the importance of nutritional information messages
389 and the ability to appropriate them, leading to healthier dietary patterns in high-educated
390 individuals [48, 49]. The high percentage of snacking and their high nutritional density in our
391 “prudent” pattern is consistent with findings of a French mainland study showing positive
392 associations between education and prevalence and nutritional density of snacks [23]. Finally,
393 few associations with food supply practices were significant while we may have expected an
394 association with the ‘convenient’ pattern as literature shown changes in food supply as one of
395 the characteristics of nutrition transition, with supermarket becoming the major source of

396 supply for food instead of market [2]. A recent study conducted by our team showed that
397 retail expansion impacted the nutritional quality of food imports in the French West Indies:
398 the spread of super and hypermarkets was associated with not only larger imports of animal
399 protein, saturated fat, and sugar, but also a larger per-capita fiber supply [50]. The lack of
400 significant association in our study may be due to the food supply practice questionnaire,
401 which included only five food groups, contributing to chlordecone exposure.

402 Unlike previous works [32], no association between the “convenient” pattern and health status
403 was found in our study, which may result from the individuals’ young age in this pattern, and
404 the cross-sectional design of our study.

405 *Limitations*

406 The interpretation of our results must take into account several limitations. First, an inherent
407 limitation of a cross-sectional design is the impossibility of inferring causal relationships, and
408 potential reverse causality. The rather small size of our sample may question about the
409 generalizability of our findings, yet the Kannari survey was carefully designed to be
410 representative and analyses were weighted according to national census data, our final sample
411 fitting the general population distribution, which allows to limit the bias. Dietary recalls
412 conducted over the phone may have caused bias of reporting food consumption among low-
413 educated participants, some of whom being probably innumerate and illiterate. However, the
414 use of the illustrated booklet with more than 250 photos, corresponding to 1000 generic foods,
415 served in seven different portion sizes, and the fact that recalls were conducted by trained
416 dietitians have limited the bias. Also, 15% of the subjects were identified as energy under-
417 reporters and excluded from the analysis sample: compared with included subjects, the
418 excluded participants were younger, with a higher percentage of unemployed or never-
419 employed individuals [51]. Finally, some other drivers of the nutrition transition, such as
420 characteristics of the foodscape (neighborhood densities of fast-food outlets or supermarkets)

421 and the food availability, could not be considered in our models. However, these
422 characteristics may be associated with the dietary patterns, especially the ‘convenient’ one, as
423 retail expansion is associated with animal protein, saturated fat, and sugar imports in the
424 French West Indies [50].

425

426 **Conclusion**

427 The diversified dietary patterns identified in the French West Indies seem to reflect different
428 steps of dietary change as previously described in the literature, suggesting an ongoing nutrition
429 transition. These patterns co-exist with a generational contrast, providing useful information for
430 public health actions targeting population groups at higher nutritional risk.

431

432 **Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

433 **Author contributions:** The authors’ responsibilities were as follows: Z.C. designed the
434 study, performed statistical analysis, interpreted data, and drafted the manuscript; B.A., M.P.,
435 E.L., Y.M.P., M.J.A., and N.D. were involved in the interpretation of data, and helped to draft
436 the manuscript; C.M. was involved in the conception and design of the study, supervision of
437 statistical analysis and interpretation of data, and helped to draft the manuscript. All authors
438 read and approved the final manuscript.

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Table 1. Daily intakes adjusted for energy intake of the 25 food groups included in the principal component analysis (PCA) across clusters and in the overall sample of Guadeloupe and Martinique subjects (≥ 16 y) from the Kannari study ($n = 1,144$)¹

	All	Prudent	Traditional	Convenient	Transitioning
n (%)		253 (25.0)	365 (24.2)	291 (31.2)	235 (19.6)
Intakes of food groups, adjusted for energy intake (g/day)²	Mean \pm SEM	Mean \pm SEM	Mean \pm SEM	Mean \pm SEM	Mean \pm SEM
Fruit	122.4 \pm 4.7	154.0 \pm 9.9	182.3 \pm 10.9	58.0 \pm 4.5	110.3 \pm 7.2
Vegetable	142.5 \pm 4.0	177.2 \pm 9.0	185.6 \pm 7.7	92.0 \pm 4.7	125.2 \pm 6.6
Bread and rusk	58.8 \pm 1.6	48.3 \pm 2.6	52.2 \pm 2.0	50.1 \pm 2.6	94.0 \pm 3.6
Potato	19.0 \pm 0.5	18.0 \pm 0.9	12.9 \pm 0.6	24.1 \pm 1.1	20.0 \pm 0.7
Tuber (other than potato)	66.4 \pm 2.4	45.2 \pm 2.9	102.1 \pm 4.8	35.2 \pm 2.8	98.7 \pm 6.3
Pasta	35.9 \pm 1.8	21.8 \pm 2.2	20.9 \pm 1.9	59.9 \pm 3.9	34.4 \pm 3.9
Rice	73.2 \pm 2.7	112.3 \pm 5.8	43.5 \pm 2.4	69.7 \pm 4.5	65.8 \pm 5.4
Semolina and other cereals	17.5 \pm 1.3	14.8 \pm 2.8	14.5 \pm 1.5	11.4 \pm 1.4	34.2 \pm 4.1
Legume	34.1 \pm 1.5	46.4 \pm 3.5	21.3 \pm 1.2	25.6 \pm 1.8	47.6 \pm 4.1
Whole-grain product	8.0 \pm 0.8	16.3 \pm 2.3	10.7 \pm 1.8	3.3 \pm 1.2	1.7 \pm 0.5
Fish	43.5 \pm 1.3	41.8 \pm 2.4	56.1 \pm 2.1	27.2 \pm 1.6	56.1 \pm 3.1
Seafood	7.3 \pm 0.7	16.3 \pm 2.2	4.1 \pm 0.7	3.5 \pm 0.5	6.1 \pm 1.2
Red meat	43.1 \pm 1.0	46.6 \pm 2.5	31.8 \pm 1.1	42.5 \pm 1.5	53.4 \pm 2.2
Poultry	56.4 \pm 1.7	56.4 \pm 3.1	38.9 \pm 2.2	69.2 \pm 3.4	57.4 \pm 3.6
Processed meat	18.1 \pm 0.6	14.1 \pm 0.9	13.6 \pm 0.8	20.6 \pm 1.2	24.8 \pm 1.5
Offal	9.1 \pm 0.4	8.0 \pm 0.6	9.9 \pm 0.8	6.0 \pm 0.5	14.5 \pm 1.2
Yogurts	23.6 \pm 1.6	42.1 \pm 4.1	26.4 \pm 2.6	12.9 \pm 2.6	13.6 \pm 2.5
Salad dressing and sauce	21.9 \pm 0.5	21.3 \pm 0.9	20.6 \pm 0.7	17.9 \pm 0.8	30.9 \pm 1.0
Butter	2.6 \pm 0.1	2.1 \pm 0.2	2.0 \pm 0.2	2.4 \pm 0.3	4.2 \pm 0.4
Snacks and fast food	26.5 \pm 1.3	22.1 \pm 2.2	15.8 \pm 1.0	43.1 \pm 3.0	18.9 \pm 2.3
Biscuits, cakes and pastries	33.4 \pm 1.4	29.2 \pm 2.2	32.4 \pm 2.2	47.0 \pm 3.2	18.2 \pm 2.3

Fatty and sweet products (chocolate, ice cream, etc.)	11.9 ± 0.7	6.9 ± 0.8	16.5 ± 1.5	13.8 ± 1.5	9.6 ± 1.4
Non-alcoholic and non-sweetened beverage (water, coffee, tea)	1398.0 ± 21.8	1554.4 ± 43.6	1310.8 ± 27.7	1223.2 ± 26.4	1584.5 ± 61.4
Sweetened beverage and juice	188.3 ± 6.2	132.2 ± 7.0	123.9 ± 5.5	279.5 ± 12.7	194.7 ± 12.4
Alcoholic beverage	40.3 ± 4.1	41.0 ± 7.1	15.6 ± 2.2	26.8 ± 6.5	91.1 ± 14.3

Values are presented as mean ± standard error of mean (SEM).

¹ Sex-specific data weighted for education, marital status, birthplace, presence of at least one child in the household, living in an area of chlordecone contamination (coastline and inland), and urban size, using 2012 national census.

² 25 food groups used in the weighted principal component analysis (PCA). All *p*-trends < 0.01.

Table 2. Selected nutritional characteristics across clusters and in the overall sample of Guadeloupe and Martinique subjects (≥ 16 y) from the Kannari study ($n = 1,144$)^{1,2}

	All	Prudent	Traditional	Convenient	Transitioning
	Mean \pm SEM or % \pm SE	Mean \pm SEM or % \pm SE	Mean \pm SEM or % \pm SE	Mean \pm SEM or % \pm SE	Mean \pm SEM or % \pm SE
Energy intake (kcal/day)	1584.2 \pm 18.1	1560.5 \pm 29.0	1414.6 \pm 21.9	1603.8 \pm 35.9	1792.9 \pm 44.7
Energy intake without alcohol (kcal/day)	1554.9 \pm 17.2	1531.5 \pm 28.7	1402.4 \pm 21.1	1584.2 \pm 35.1	1726.9 \pm 41.3
Free sugars (g/day) ³	40.8 \pm 1.1	30.5 \pm 1.4	35.7 \pm 1.1	54.6 \pm 2.2	38.2 \pm 2.0
Fiber (g/day) ³	16.0 \pm 0.2	17.2 \pm 0.4	16.7 \pm 0.3	13.0 \pm 0.2	18.5 \pm 0.4
Calcium (mg/day) ³	654.6 \pm 7.6	719.4 \pm 17.0	669.7 \pm 11.1	590.6 \pm 12.2	655.3 \pm 15.7
Sodium (mg/day) ³	2228.0 \pm 20.5	2322.8 \pm 49.0	2017.7 \pm 24.7	2148.8 \pm 34.0	2493.2 \pm 36.6
Iron (mg/day) ³	10.5 \pm 0.1	11.3 \pm 0.2	9.6 \pm 0.1	9.7 \pm 0.2	11.7 \pm 0.2
Vitamin C (mg/day) ³	116.4 \pm 4.1	113.0 \pm 7.4	116.1 \pm 3.6	118.8 \pm 10.7	117.2 \pm 6.6
Alcohol (g/day) ³	4.0 \pm 0.4	4.0 \pm 0.7	1.8 \pm 0.3	2.6 \pm 0.6	8.6 \pm 1.2
Vitamin D (μ g/day) ³	3.2 \pm 0.1	3.0 \pm 0.2	3.8 \pm 0.1	2.6 \pm 0.1	3.5 \pm 0.2
Vitamin B12 (μ g/day) ³	4.4 \pm 0.1	4.6 \pm 0.1	4.3 \pm 0.1	4.0 \pm 0.1	5.1 \pm 0.2
Diet Quality Index - International (0–100 points)	60.8 \pm 0.4	64.0 \pm 0.7	65.4 \pm 0.6	54.6 \pm 0.5	60.8 \pm 0.8
Moderation (0–30 points)	17.1 \pm 0.2	17.6 \pm 0.4	18.3 \pm 0.3	16.4 \pm 0.2	16.3 \pm 0.5
Variety (0–20 points)	16.5 \pm 0.1	17.4 \pm 0.3	17.6 \pm 0.2	14.9 \pm 0.2	16.3 \pm 0.3
Adequacy (0–40 points)	26.1 \pm 0.2	28.1 \pm 0.5	28.1 \pm 0.4	22.4 \pm 0.3	27.2 \pm 0.3
Overall balance (0–10 points)	0.3 \pm 0.1	0.2 \pm 0.1	0.5 \pm 0.1	0.3 \pm 0.1	0.5 \pm 0.1
French West Indian dishes (% of all the dishes consumed)	39.2 \pm 2.0	35.1 \pm 4.0	52.3 \pm 3.7	27.8 \pm 3.9	45.2 \pm 4.3
% of energy intake provided by ultra-processed foods (% of energy/day)	24.2 \pm 0.5	20.6 \pm 0.9	21.2 \pm 0.7	31.4 \pm 1.1	21.2 \pm 1.0

No breakfast (%)	18.9 ± 1.9	18.9 ± 4.1	9.6 ± 2.5	29.8 ± 4.1	13.1 ± 3.3
% have a snack at least once in the day	56.2 ± 2.3	61.8 ± 4.7	52.3 ± 4.0	58.6 ± 4.5	50.3 ± 5.1
% of energy provided by snacking occasion (% of energy/day)	20.5 ± 1.3	21.0 ± 2.2	17.6 ± 1.2	23.7 ± 3.0	17.7 ± 2.6
Energy density of snacking occasion, without low-calorie beverages (10% lowest caloric beverages) (kcal/100 g)	291.6 ± 12.0	301.5 ± 27.6	294.5 ± 21.1	281.3 ± 23.5	291.47 ± 35.8
Nutritional density of snacking occasion (Nutrient-Rich Foods Index NRF9.3)	37.1 ± 4.1	52.7 ± 11.1	37.7 ± 6.0	29.6 ± 6.9	25.7 ± 6.2

Values are presented as mean ± standard error of mean (SEM) or percentage (%) ± standard error (SE), as appropriated.

¹ Sex-specific data weighted for education, marital status, birthplace, presence of at least one child in the household, living in an area of chlordecone contamination (coastline and inland), and urban size, using 2012 national census.

² All *p*-trends < 0.01, except for vitamin C, overall balance, having a snack, energy provided by snacking occasion, energy density of snacking occasion, and nutritional density of snacking occasion (*p*-trend > 0.05).

³ Adjusted for daily energy intake without alcohol

Table 3. Adjusted demographic and socioeconomic characteristics across clusters and in the overall sample of Guadeloupe and Martinique subjects (≥ 16 y) from the Kannari study ($n = 1,144$)¹

	All		Prudent		Traditional		Convenient		Transitioning	
	% (SE) ²	% (SE) ²	<i>p</i> -value ³	% (SE) ²	<i>p</i> -value ³	% (SE) ²	<i>p</i> -value ³	% (SE) ²	<i>p</i> -value ³	
Women	57.4 (2.0)	57.9 (4.5)	0.67	90.0 (2.5)	< 0.01	53.3 (4.4)	0.98	17.1 (3.3)	< 0.01	
Location			< 0.01		0.49		0.06		0.20	
<i>Guadeloupe</i>	48.5 (2.1)	61.5 (4.4)		49.2 (4.5)		41.2 (4.9)		40.6 (5.5)		
<i>Martinique</i>	51.5 (2.1)	38.5 (4.4)		50.8 (4.5)		58.8 (4.9)		59.4 (5.5)		
Age class			0.08		< 0.01		< 0.01		< 0.01	
16–45 years	37.1 (1.5)	34.3 (3.3)		26.3 (3.3)		59.4 (3.4)		24.8 (4.4)		
46–60 years	29.8 (1.6)	35.0 (3.5)		35.9 (3.5)		12.1 (3.1)		39.4 (4.5)		
>60 years	33.1 (0.8)	30.7 (1.1)		37.8 (2.6)		28.5 (1.2)		35.8 (2.6)		
Education			0.37		0.72		0.55		0.72	
<i>Low</i>	49.3 (2.0)	46.9 (3.8)		47.8 (4.5)		51.6 (4.4)		51.4 (4.9)		
<i>Middle</i>	17.2 (1.4)	14.9 (3.1)		21.3 (3.8)		18.5 (3.6)		12.4 (4.1)		
<i>High</i>	33.5 (1.9)	38.2 (3.8)		30.9 (4.1)		29.9 (4.2)		36.2 (5.1)		
Employment status			0.26		0.77		0.06		0.21	
<i>Unemployed, disabled, homemakers or students</i>	27.6 (1.6)	26.8 (3.5)		22.5 (3.5)		34.6 (4.2)		27.2 (4.1)		
<i>Active</i>	41.4 (1.7)	40.4 (3.6)		44.6 (3.8)		35.7 (4.3)		45.3 (4.6)		
<i>Retired</i>	31.0 (0.9)	32.8 (1.1)		32.9 (2.3)		29.7 (1.1)		27.5 (2.6)		
Occupational categories			0.63		0.41		0.62		0.30	
<i>Self-employed</i>	14.3 (1.4)	14.1 (3.2)		11.8 (3.2)		11.3 (3.2)		22.8 (4.2)		
<i>Managerial staff</i>	7.0 (1.0)	6.0 (2.2)		7.4 (2.1)		7.4 (2.3)		6.6 (2.7)		

<i>Intermediate profession</i>	8.6 (1.1)	11.7 (2.5)		5.9 (2.2)		10.6 (2.5)		6.2 (2.6)	
<i>Employee</i>	53.1 (2.0)	48.6 (4.4)		60.7 (4.1)		54.7 (4.9)		44.9 (5.5)	
<i>Manual worker</i>	9.0 (1.0)	11.1 (2.7)		7.1 (1.7)		6.4 (2.2)		12.5 (3.4)	
<i>Never-employed</i>	8.0 (1.0)	8.5 (2.5)		7.1 (2.3)		9.6 (2.8)		7.0 (2.5)	
Receive social assistance benefits	16.5 (1.4)	16.6 (3.2)	0.94	18.1 (3.4)	0.42	12.6 (3.6)	0.29	19.0 (4.4)	0.58
At least one child in the household	33.8 (1.8)	34.6 (3.6)	0.93	27.8 (3.7)	0.11	37.4 (4.4)	0.43	37.0 (4.8)	0.64
Single-parent household	4.9 (0.7)	5.6 (1.7)	0.63	2.4 (1.6)	0.59	6.6 (2.2)	0.69	5.8 (1.6)	0.58
Marital status			< 0.01		0.19		0.02		0.96
<i>Single</i>	51.2 (2.0)	38.7 (4.1)		58.6 (4.4)		58.9 (4.5)		46.2 (4.7)	
<i>Living in couple</i>	48.8 (2.0)	61.3 (4.1)		41.4 (4.4)		41.1 (4.5)		53.8 (4.7)	

Values are presented as percentage (standard error, SE)

¹ Sex-specific data weighted for education, marital status, birthplace, presence of at least one child in the household, living in an area of chlordecone contamination (coastline and inland), and urban size, using 2012 national census.

² Adjusted for sex, location (Guadeloupe or Martinique), age, employment status, education, social assistance benefits, presence of at least one child in the household, single-parent household, marital status, and body mass index (BMI) (except for the studied characteristic)

³ Multivariable logistic regression assessing the association between the characteristic and each pattern membership (belonging to this pattern or not)

Table 4. Adjusted health status across clusters and in the overall sample of Guadeloupe and Martinique subjects (≥ 16 y) from the Kannari study ($n = 1,144$)¹

	All		Prudent		Traditional		Convenient		Transitioning	
	% (SE) ²	% (SE) ²	p-value ³	% (SE) ²	p-value ³	% (SE) ²	p-value ³	% (SE) ²	p-value ³	
Body mass index class			0.50		0.79		0.37		0.51	
<i>Underweight or normal weight</i>	42.7 (2.0)	40.2 (4.5)		42.0 (4.2)		48.1 (4.8)		40.1 (5.2)		
<i>Overweight</i>	34.9 (2.0)	34.4 (4.6)		32.4 (4.0)		33.4 (4.4)		41.3 (5.2)		
<i>Obese</i>	22.4 (1.6)	25.4 (3.3)		25.6 (4.1)		18.5 (3.8)		18.6 (3.7)		
Hypertension (140/90 mm Hg)	43.6 (1.9)	45.6 (4.0)	0.60	44.3 (4.1)	0.84	39.8 (4.3)	0.33	44.7 (5.4)	0.80	
Diabetes	12.7 (1.3)	11.8 (2.5)	0.61	13.9 (3.1)	0.92	12.5 (2.5)	0.98	12.7 (2.6)	0.59	
Metabolic syndrome	26.0 (1.7)	25.7 (3.7)	0.79	23.1 (3.2)	0.35	23.4 (3.2)	0.25	34.9 (4.5)	0.02	

Values are presented as percentage (standard error, SE)

¹ Sex-specific data weighted for education, marital status, birthplace, presence of at least one child in the household, living in an area of chlordecone contamination (coastline and inland) and urban size, using 2012 national census.

² Adjusted for sex, location (Guadeloupe or Martinique), age, employment status, education, social assistance benefits, presence of at least one child in the household, single-parent household, marital status, and body mass index (BMI) (except for the studied characteristic)

³ Multivariable logistic regression assessing the association between the characteristic and each pattern membership (belonging to this pattern or not)

Table 5. Adjusted food supply practices across clusters and in the overall sample of Guadeloupe and Martinique subjects (≥ 16 y) from the Kannari study ($n = 1,144$)¹

	All		Prudent		Traditional		Convenient		Transitioning	
	% (SE) ²	% (SE) ²	<i>p</i> -value ³	% (SE) ²	<i>p</i> -value ³	% (SE) ²	<i>p</i> -value ³	% (SE) ²	<i>p</i> -value ³	
Home-produced foods	49.1 (2.0)	50.4 (4.4)	0.69	52.1 (4.1)	0.51	44.6 (4.7)	0.34	48.4 (5.1)	0.94	
Donation from someone outside the household	69.0 (1.9)	77.1 (3.6)	0.02	67.3 (4.1)	0.43	72.4 (4.1)	0.84	56.7 (5.3)	0.01	
Purchase										
Fruits, vegetables, roots, and tubers			0.88		0.13		0.04		0.36	
No purchase or no preference	30.5 (1.9)	29.7 (4.2)		36.2 (3.9)		21.2 (4.0)		34.9 (4.8)		
Only or mainly in supermarkets	42.4 (2.0)	44.7 (4.4)		37.3 (4.3)		50.6 (4.3)		36.7 (4.8)		
Only or mainly elsewhere than supermarkets	27.1 (1.9)	25.6 (3.9)		26.5 (3.9)		28.2 (4.2)		28.4 (5.0)		
Fish and seafood			0.63		0.10		0.31		0.56	
No purchase or no preference	25.0 (1.8)	22.6 (3.9)		26.1 (3.9)		23.2 (4.2)		29.2 (4.5)		
Only or mainly in supermarkets	40.7 (2.0)	44.3 (4.4)		32.8 (4.0)		47.9 (4.8)		38.5 (5.3)		
Only or mainly elsewhere than supermarkets	34.3 (1.9)	33.1 (4.1)		41.1 (4.2)		29.0 (4.1)		32.3 (5.2)		
Red meat			0.66		0.06		0.53		0.81	
No purchase or no preference	24.7 (1.8)	21.7 (3.9)		31.3 (4.1)		19.8 (4.4)		24.9 (4.8)		
Only or mainly in supermarkets	46.8 (2.0)	51.1 (4.5)		40.2 (4.2)		48.6 (4.8)		49.3 (5.4)		
Only or mainly elsewhere than supermarkets	28.5 (1.8)	27.2 (3.8)		28.5 (4.0)		31.6 (4.1)		25.8 (5.0)		
Poultry			0.54		0.43		0.88		0.89	
No purchase or no preference	21.2 (1.7)	17.4 (3.5)		24.1 (4.0)		22.3 (4.0)		20.4 (4.5)		
Only or mainly in supermarkets	68.4 (1.9)	71.4 (4.0)		67.0 (4.3)		66.8 (4.4)		68.9 (5.6)		
Only or mainly elsewhere than supermarkets	10.3 (1.3)	11.2 (2.8)		8.9 (2.3)		10.9 (2.6)		10.7 (4.4)		

Eggs			0.59	0.66	0.60	0.14
No purchase or no preference	26.1 (1.9)	23.2 (3.9)		22.7 (3.2)	25.7 (4.4)	35.7 (5.2)
Only or mainly in supermarkets	59.8 (2.0)	60.6 (4.5)		63.6 (4.1)	62.3 (4.7)	49.5 (5.5)
Only or mainly elsewhere than supermarkets	14.1 (1.5)	16.2 (3.5)		13.7 (3.4)	12.0 (3.1)	14.8 (3.9)

Values are presented as percentage (standard error, SE)

¹ Sex-specific data weighted for education, marital status, birthplace, presence of at least one child in the household, living in an area of chlordecone contamination (coastline and inland), and urban size, using 2012 national census.

² Adjusted for sex, location (Guadeloupe or Martinique), age, employment status, education, social assistance benefits, presence of at least one child in the household, single-parent household, marital status, and body mass index (BMI).

³ Multivariable logistic regression assessing the association between the characteristic and each pattern membership (belonging to this pattern or not)