doi:10.1017/S0007114520003323

Organic food consumption and gluten-free diet, is there a link? Results in French adults without coeliac disease

Laëtitia Perrin¹, Benjamin Allès¹, Chantal Julia^{1,2}, Serge Hercberg^{1,2}, Mathilde Touvier¹, Denis Lairon³, Julia Baudry¹ and Emmanuelle Kesse-Guyot¹*

¹Université Sorbonne Paris Nord, CRESS – EREN (Nutritional Epidemiology Research Team) INSERM, INRA, CNAM, 74 rue Marcel Cachin, 93017 Bobigny, France

²Public Health Department, Avicenne Hospital, AP-HP, 93017 Bobigny, France

 3 Aix Marseille Université, INSERM (U1062), INRA (U1260), C2VN, Faculté de Médecine de la Timone, 13005 Marseille, France

(Submitted 26 February 2020 - Final revision received 2 July 2020 - Accepted 18 August 2020 - First published online 4 September 2020)

Abstract

The rising popular belief that gluten is unhealthy has led to growth in gluten avoidance in people without coeliac disease. Little information is available on their dietary profiles and their dietary behaviours. Our aim was to compare the consumption of organic foods between gluten avoiders and non-avoiders, and their places of food purchase. We described their sociodemographic and dietary profiles. The study population included participants of the NutriNet-Santé cohort who completed both a food exclusion questionnaire and an organic semi-quantitative FFQ (n 23 468). Food intake and organic food consumption ratios were compared using multivariable adjusted ANCOVA models. Associations between gluten avoidance and organic food consumption as well as places of food purchase were investigated with multivariable logistic regression. Participants avoiding gluten were more likely to be women and had a healthier dietary profile. Organic food consumption was higher among gluten avoiders (48-50 % of total diet for total avoiders, 17-38 % for non-avoiders). After adjustments for confounders, organic food consumption and purchase in organic stores were positively associated with gluten avoidance: adjusted OR (aOR) $_{Q5}$ $_{v.\ Q1}$ $_{organic\ food}$ = 4-95; 95 % CI 3-70, 6-63 and aOR $_{organic\ stores\ v.\ supermarkets}$ = 1-82; 95 % CI 1-42, 2-33 for total avoiders. Our study highlights that individuals avoiding gluten are high organic consumers and frequently purchase their foods in organic stores which propose an extended offer of gluten-free food. Further research is needed to determine the underlying common motivations and the temporality of the dietary behaviours of healthy people avoiding gluten.

Key words: Gluten avoidance: Organic food: Consumers: Places of purchase



Initially, the gluten-free diet (GFD) is a medical response for people with coeliac disease (CD), a systemic autoimmune disorder for which GFD is the only available effective treatment. This diet involves excluding foods that contain the protein gluten, including wheat barley and rye. Its prevalence is estimated at 0.8% in Western countries⁽¹⁾. However, in the last decade, the adherence to a GFD has considerably increased, outside a diagnosis of CD⁽²⁻⁵⁾. Indeed, many studies have reported that people who avoid gluten today are mostly healthy people^(2,6-16). The two main motives reported for avoiding gluten among subjects without CD are that gluten may trigger intestinal and/or extraintestinal symptoms and it is considered better for health. The first group referred to non-coeliac gluten sensitivity population also considered as population suffering from gluten-related disorders⁽¹⁷⁾. This disorder is characterised by symptoms related to gluten, but no biomarkers have been identified and the diagnosis

is mainly based on self-declaration. For these people, following a GFD is beneficial and reduces their symptoms. For the second group, media and celebrities, as well as high-level athletes, contribute to the popularity of gluten avoidance by claiming its possible health benefits, including weight loss (6,7,18). Indeed, studies investigating motives related to gluten avoidance have shown that one-quarter to one-third of avoiders put forward the belief of a health benefit (9-11). However, so far, there is no scientific consensus that gluten avoidance would be beneficial for the general population (6,19). In the meantime, the market of gluten-free food has considerably grown: +28 % between 2004 and 2011(20), +34% between 2009 and 2014 in the USA⁽²¹⁾ and +10.4%between 2014 and 2019 in Europe⁽²²⁾. In addition, gluten-free product offer is particularly important in specialised organic stores which generally offer a broader range of alternative products⁽²³⁾. One may ask whether gluten avoidance is associated

Abbreviations: CD, coeliac disease; CU, consumption unit; GFD, gluten-free diet; Org-FFQ, organic semi-quantitative FFQ.

* Corresponding author: Emmanuelle Kesse-Guyot, email e.kesse@eren.smbh.univ-paris13.fr



with other considered healthy food choices, in particular organic food consumption. It is important to identify their behaviours to be able to clearly determine their impact on health. In previous studies, including ours^(24,25), it has been shown that individuals avoiding gluten adopt an overall healthier food profile with greater consumption of fruits and vegetables, and fewer sweetened beverages. Christoph *et al.*⁽²⁵⁾ also reported that individuals considering organic products healthy were also four times more likely to consider gluten-free food healthy, like those who favour unprocessed products (six times more). However, in the present study, organic and unprocessed products were evaluated using a unique question concerning the importance for participants to eat organic (or unprocessed) food, with four modalities of answers.

In addition, the role of organic food on health is not well documented and definition greatly varied in the literature. Some authors used more or less accurate question about frequencies, while other quantitatively estimated organic food consumption. Their consumption reduces exposure to pesticides, and some studies show better nutritional intake, but often their consumption is accompanied by other healthy behaviours such as physical activity⁽²⁶⁾. However, organic foods are considered as healthy, and some places of purchase are the same⁽²⁷⁾; thus, we hypothesise that gluten avoiders may also be organic food consumers.

The aim of the present study was therefore to compare the consumption of organic products (as a whole and by food group) in individuals (partially or totally) avoiding gluten or not, and their places of food purchases of organic food.

Materials and methods

Study population

Participants are adult volunteers from the NutriNet-Santé study, a web-based observational prospective open cohort study launched in May 2009 in France. This study aims to investigate the relationship between nutrition and health, as well as the determinants of dietary patterns and nutritional status. The design and methodology of the NutriNet-Santé study have been previously described in detail elsewhere⁽²⁸⁾. At inclusion in the cohort and yearly thereafter, participants completed a set of self-administered questionnaires on dietary intake, health and anthropometric, sociodemographic and lifestyle characteristics. Participants were also regularly invited to complete optional complementary questionnaires.

Ethics

The NutriNet-Santé study is conducted according to the guidelines from the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the ethics committee of the French Institute for Health and Medical Research (IRB Inserm no. 0000388FWA00005831) and by the National Commission on Informatics and Liberty (CNIL no. 908450 and no. 909216). All subjects signed an electronic informed consent. This study is registered in ClinicalTrials.gov (NCT03335644).

Data collection

Definition of participants with gluten-free diet. Between September and December 2016, participants were asked to complete an optional questionnaire inquiring food exclusions and their underlying motives. The questionnaire included three parts relating to the exclusion of eighty-three types of foods, specific diets and their motivations, and allergies. In this questionnaire, the following question was asked: 'Do you exclude products containing wheat/barley/rye/oats (gluten) from your diet?' and the possible responses were 'yes totally/yes partially/no'. Three groups were defined: total avoiders, partial avoiders or non-avoiders.

Participants reporting a CD were excluded from the present study. Participants were considered to have a CD if they answered within the framework of the food exclusion questionnaire, 'yes' to the question 'Do you have a celiac disease?' and if they reported a medical diagnosis or other type of 'diagnosis' on questions 'Diagnosed by a general practitioner, a specialist, a dietician?' or when they reported a CD in whichever yearly health questionnaire.

Sociodemographic and lifestyle data. At baseline and yearly thereafter, sociodemographic, anthropometric and lifestyle characteristics were collected. These characteristics included sex, age, height, weight, education level, occupational category, monthly income, smoking status and physical activity (measured by the International Physical Activity Questionnaire^(29,30)). The baseline questionnaires were pilot-tested and compared against traditional assessment methods(31,32) as well as clinical measurement for anthropometric data⁽³³⁾. The monthly income per household unit was calculated by dividing monthly income by consumption units (CU) where the first adult in the household represents 1 CU, other persons older than 14 years represent 0.5 CU and other persons younger than 14 years represent 0.3 CU, following national statistics methodology and guidelines of the French National Institute of Statistics and Economics Studies⁽³⁴⁾. BMI (in kg/m²) was calculated as the ratio of weight:squared height and then classified following the WHO guidelines.

Dietary data and organic food consumption. An optional organic semi-quantitative FFQ (Org-FFQ) was proposed to the cohort participants (June-December 2014). This questionnaire is originally based on an original validated FFQ⁽³⁵⁾ and has been described elsewhere (36). Participants were asked to report their frequency of consumption and portion sizes over the past year for 264 food and beverage items. The portion sizes for each food consumed were estimated according to standard measurements (e.g. home containers, grams displayed on the package or photographs available via the interactive interface). These photographs came from a validated picture booklet⁽³⁷⁾. The frequency of consumption referred to usual consumption over the past year on an increasing scale including yearly, monthly, weekly or daily units, as suitable. Participants had to provide only one answer and selected an average portion size using validated photographs. Then, consumptions were translated as daily quantity.





From the 264 food items, thirty-three food/beverage groups were designed on a nutritional basis.

To estimate the level of organic food consumption in the diet, participants indicated for each item how often the consumption was organic through a five-point ordinal scale ranging from 'never' to 'always'. The modalities were weighted as follows: 0, 0.25, 0.50, 0.75 and $1^{(36)}$. From the whole diet, we calculated the average daily intake (in g/d). The contribution of organic food consumption in the diet was then calculated by dividing the total organic food intake (g/d) by the total food intake (g/d), excluding water. This ratio was multiplied by 100 to obtain the contribution of organic food consumption as a percentage of weight. Nutrient intakes were estimated using a published nutrient database⁽³⁸⁾. Only participants with a plausible energy intake were included in the analyses; the over-reporters and under-reporters were excluded. They were identified by a ratio of energy intake:energy requirement, estimated with the Schofield equations according to sex, age and BMI(39). Energy requirement, accounting for physical activity level, was compared with energy intake. The ratio between energy intake and energy requirement was calculated, and participants with ratios below or above cut-offs previously identified (below 0.35 or above 1.93) were excluded. To assess the adherence to the nutrient-based French recommendations, the probability of adequate nutrient intake (PANDiet) was computed⁽⁴⁰⁾. This 100-point score represents the average of two sub-scores: the adequacy sub-score estimating the proportion of adequacy for twenty-one items for which the usual intake should be above a reference value, multiplied by 100, and the moderation subscore corresponding to the proportion of adequacy for six items for which the usual intake should not exceed a reference value, multiplied by 100.

Place of food purchase. Place of purchase for each organic food was collected from an optional questionnaire on consumer attitudes and motives (July 2014-January 2015). Places of purchase were grouped into five classes: hard discount, grocery stores, shopping centres, markets and organic stores. Participants had to select a place of purchase for each food group (across a maximum of thirty food groups). Then, for each place, the proportion of purchase has been calculated: the number of responses for each place was summed and divided by the number of total responses. Next, the purchase place with the highest proportion was considered as the main place of purchase. Since this questionnaire was optional, analyses were performed on a sub-sample (n 16 885). A total of 1002 persons had multiple places with the same proportion of purchase. For these participants, we considered shopping centres as the main place (the most frequented place in the overall sample).

Statistical analysis

Sociodemographic, lifestyle characteristics and places of purchase were described (using means, standard deviations or percentages) among total gluten avoiders, partial gluten avoiders and gluten non-avoiders. P values referred to χ^2 test or oneway ANOVA test, depending on the type of variable.

Macronutrients were assessed by computing the percentage of energy intake from carbohydrates, lipids and proteins. Micronutrient intakes were adjusted for energy intake using the residual method⁽⁴¹⁾. Consumption of thirty-three food groups, macronutrients and micronutrients intake was reported as mean values and 95% CI using an ANCOVA, adjusted for age and sex, and for food groups for daily energy intake. Micronutrient intakes were adjusted for energy intake using the residual method⁽⁴¹⁾. Contribution of organic foods to each food group (ratios with their standard deviations) is also provided and was adjusted for age, sex and total consumption of food group.

The proportion of total organic food consumption was categorised into quintiles to assess the association between the type of diet and organic food consumption. With regard to gluten-free avoiding, three categories were considered: (1) overall GFD that included all individuals avoiding gluten whether or not they followed any other diets, (2) GFD only that included only participants who avoided gluten but did not follow any other diet and (3) participants who followed both gluten-free and lactose-free diets. A multivariable polytomic logistic regression model was performed. Adjusted OR with their 95 % CI are presented. The model was adjusted for age, sex, education level (no diploma or primary studies/secondary studies/higher educational level), occupational category (nine classes), income level (<1200 € per CU/1200-2300 € per CU/>2300 € per CU), smoking status (never smoker/former smoker/occasional smoker/regular smoker), physical activity (low, moderate and high) and total daily energy intake without alcohol.

Two multivariable polytomic logistic regression models were also performed to assess the association between gluten avoidance and place of purchase of organic foods. The first model was adjusted for sociodemographic confounding factors, namely age, sex, education level, occupational category, income level, smoking status and physical activity. The second model was further adjusted for organic food consumption to more clearly determine the role of gluten avoidance in the choice of place of purchase. Sensitivity analyses were performed using multivariable logistic regression models focusing on place of purchase. In order to ensure that the choice of the main place of purchase for people who had more than one did not influence the model (shopping centres in principal analysis), we also performed the same set of analysis using markets as the main place of purchase for these individuals.

Two-sided tests and a P value < 0.0001 were used for statistical significance, given the high number of statistical tests performed and the large sample size. All statistical analyses were performed using SAS software (version 9.4, SAS Institute Inc.).

Results

Sample selection

Of the initial 121 266 participants who received the optional questionnaire on food exclusions, a total of 34 781 completed it. Within this sample, we excluded participants who reported a diagnosed CD, with missing sociodemographic data and living overseas, and those who did not completed the Org-FFQ. The final sample available for analysis included 23 468 individuals (Fig. 1) including 499 total gluten avoiders, 2023 partial avoiders



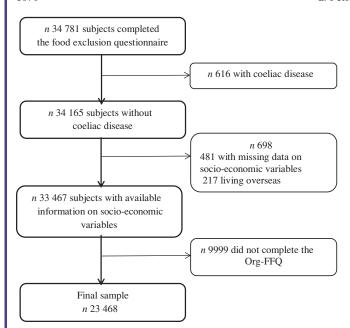


Fig. 1. Flow chart of the study. Org-FFQ, organic semi-quantitative FFQ.

and 20 946 non-avoiders. The percentage of participants avoiding gluten in this study was $10\cdot75\,\%$, $2\cdot13\,\%$ of whom totally excluded gluten.

Sociodemographic and individual characteristics

Table 1 presents sociodemographic and lifestyle characteristics of the participants according to the gluten avoidance, as well as for the whole sample. Participants avoiding gluten were more likely to be women, between 55 and 64 years old, single, non-employed, physically active, to have lower monthly income per household unit, to be low alcohol consumers and to present less obesity. No difference regarding education level and smoking status was observed across the gluten avoidance groups.

Partial and total avoiders showed some differences: partial avoiders were more frequently in the age group between 40 and 64 years. Total avoiders were less likely to be managerial staff or to belong to an intermediate profession than partial and non-avoiders. Partial avoiders did not have a lower income per household unit, but they were in the middle class.

Participants avoiding gluten were more likely to report having allergies. The percentage of individuals self-reporting allergies increased along with the avoidance of gluten in the diet. Gluten avoiders were also more likely to adhere to another specific diet, especially lactose-free diet, but also the vegetarian diets or both.

Nutritional characteristics

Table 2 presents nutrient intake across gluten avoidance groups. First, total energy intake decreased as gluten is avoided. Individuals avoiding gluten also exhibited a lower overall protein intake but a higher proportion of vegetable protein relative to total intake, a higher PUFA and MUFA intake as well as a lower SFA intake. As regards, nutrient levels increased or decreased along with the avoidance of gluten. Intake of total carbohydrates

and complex carbohydrates was lower among individuals avoiding gluten, while sugars and fibre intake was higher. Partial avoiders had an intake of simple sugars lower than total avoiders, but similar to non-avoiders. Regarding micronutrients, gluten avoiders exhibited healthier nutritional profiles with, for instance, higher intake of C, D, E vitamins and folate. For minerals, people avoiding gluten also exhibited a higher intake of Mg, K, Cu and Fe. On the other hand, they showed a lower intake of Ca, Na, P, Zn and haem-Fe. As for macronutrients, a gradient was observed from total avoiders to non-avoiders or from nonavoiders to total avoiders, as appropriate, except for Mg, Fe and haem-Fe. Intake of Mg, Fe and haem-Fe was no different between total and partial avoiders. Concerning the adherence to the French nutritional references, gluten avoiders exhibited healthier dietary patterns with a higher PANDiet score (total avoiders > partial avoiders > non-avoiders, P < 0.0001).

Food intakes and level of organic food consumption

Individuals avoiding gluten (partial or total) showed a higher consumption of foods mostly consumed as unprocessed (vegetables, fruits, legumes, fish, eggs, nuts and oils) and a lower consumption of fatty and/or sweet processed foods (processed meat, cookies, sweet, fast food, dressing and butter and sweet beverages) compared with non-avoiders (Table 3). They also exhibited a lower consumption of meat and dairy products and higher consumption of their substitutes than non-avoiders. Specifically, partial avoiders had a higher consumption of whole starchy food and soups, and lower consumption of fruit juices. However, snacks products were largely consumed by individuals avoiding gluten (1.5–2 times more).

The proportion of organic food in the diet was significantly higher among people avoiding gluten. Overall, 48-50% of total avoiders and 40-04% of partial avoiders consumed more than 50% of products coming from organic production in their diet, compared with 17-38% of non-avoiders (data not tabulated).

Individuals avoiding gluten consumed a higher proportion of organic foods for most food groups compared with non-avoiders except for dairy products. Partial avoiders differed from total avoiders by a higher proportion of organic food for dairy products, bread and butter. Among gluten avoiders (total or partial), food groups for which the contribution of organic food exceeded 40 % for both groups were eggs, fruits, vegetables, legumes, nuts, potatoes, whole starchy food, cereals, oils and non-alcoholic drinks (coffee, tea, chocolate, except soda).

Table 4 shows the association between exclusion diets and consumption of organic foods. Compared with non-avoidance, gluten avoidance was positively associated with a higher consumption of organic foods (adjusted OR_{Q5} v. Q1 = 4·81 (95 % CI 4·09, 5·67) for partial gluten avoidance and adjusted OR_{Q5} v. Q1 = 4·95 (95 % CI 3·70, 6·63) for total gluten avoidance). Combining gluten avoidance and lactose-free diets was also strongly associated with the consumption of organic products (adjusted OR_{Q5} v. Q1 = 9·22 (95 % CI 6·24, 13·64)).

Place of purchase of individuals avoiding gluten

Gluten avoiders purchased more often organic foods in specialised organic stores compared with non-avoiders (48% of total





Table 1. Sociodemographic and lifestyle characteristics according to gluten avoidance (Percentages; mean values and standard deviations)

	Non-avoiders (<i>n</i> 20 946) (%)	Partial avoiders (n 2023) (%)	Total avoiders (n 499) (%)	P*	Total sample (<i>n</i> 23 468) (%)
Sex					
Men	27.85	19.43	18-64	<0.0001	26.93
Women	72·15	80.57	81.36	νο σσσ.	73.07
Age (years)	72.10	0007	0.00		7007
18–39	13.46	8.90	9.02	<0.0001	12.97
40–54	24.25	26.25	22.24	<0.0001	24.38
55–64	25.49	29.26	32.46		25.96
65+	36-90	35.59	36-27		36-69
Educational level					
No diploma or primary school	2.66	2.87	4.01	0.1076	2.71
School secondary	31.97	33.86	33-47		32.16
High education level	65-37	63-27	62-53		65-13
Employment status					
Farmer	0.27	0.30	0.60	0.0007	0.28
Craftsman, shopkeeper	1.36	1.98	1.80		1.42
Employee	11.51	11.32	11.82		11.50
Manual worker	0.70	0.89	0.40		0.71
Intermediate profession	13.72	13.25	11.82		13-64
Managerial staff	20.41	20.02	17.64		20.32
Non-employed	9.00	11.17	13.63		9.29
Student	0.74	0.30	1.20		0.72
Retired	42.28	40.78	41.08		42.13
	42.20	40.76	41.06		42.13
Income per household unit	0.00	0.05	10.00	.0.0004	0.00
<1200 €	8.03	8-85	13.63	<0.0001	8.22
1200–2300 €	34.41	36.97	37.27		34.69
>2300 €	44.91	38.9	33.07		44.14
Refuse to declare	12-65	15.27	16.03		12.95
Smoking status					
Never smoker	49-80	49-68	47.70	0.507	49.74
Former smoker	41.15	42-26	42.69		41.28
Occasional smoker	2.87	2.57	2.20		2.83
Regular smoker	6.18	5.49	7.41		6.14
Alcohol consumption					
Non-consumers	4.48	6.23	12.02	<0.0001	4.79
Low consumers	47.50	47.95	50.50		47-61
Heavy consumers	48.01	45.82	37.47		47.60
Physical activity level	1001	10 02	0		17 00
Low	22.06	19.57	21.84	0.0011	21.84
Medium	39.21	37.62	35.07	0.0011	38.99
					38·99 39·17
High	38.73	42-81	43.09		39.17
BMI (kg/m²)	04.50	00.11	70.55	.0.0001	05.14
Normal, <25	64.58	69-11	72.55	<0.0001	65.14
Overweight, 25–30	25.51	20.71	19-44		24.97
Obese, ≥ 30	9.91	10.18	8.02		9.89
Declared other diets					
Vegetarians	5.72	12.85	12.63	<0.0001	6.48
Lactose-free	4.40	17.00	23.45		5.89
Vegetarians + lactose-free	0.46	3.26	5.41		0.81
No dieting	89.43	66-88	58-52		86-82
Declared food allergy					
Yes	7.61	12.46	16.03	<0.0001	8-21
No	92:39	87.54	83.97	\0·0001	91.79
Average number of allergies if foo		07:34	00.31		31.13
0	· · · · ·	1.00	1.04	-0 000 1	4 40
Mean SD	1·40 0·83	1·86 1·27	1·94 1·33	<0.0001	1.48 0.94

^{*} P values are based on the χ^2 test or the one-way ANOVA test as appropriate.

avoiders, 42% of partial avoiders and 21% of non-avoiders) (Fig. 2). In non-avoiders, supermarkets were the main place of purchase (53%), followed by markets (23%).

Adjusted models for sociodemographic factors between gluten avoidance and organic food place of purchase showed that individuals purchasing mostly in organic stores were more likely to avoid gluten (organic stores v. supermarkets: OR = 2.64

(95% CI 2.35, 2.97) for partial gluten avoiders, and OR = 3.47 (95% CI 2.78, 4.34) for total gluten avoiders) (Table 5). A positive association was also observed between total gluten avoiders and organic food purchase in hard discount. Other food purchase place showed no association with gluten avoidance.

Further adjustment for total organic food consumption showed similar but attenuated association for organic stores.



Table 2. Nutritional intake profiles among total, partial and non-avoiders (Mean values and 95 % confidence intervals)

	Non-av	oiders (n 20 946)	Partial a	avoiders (<i>n</i> 2023)	Total		
Energy/nutrients	Mean	95 % CI	Mean	95 % CI	Mean	95 % CI	P*
Total energy intake including alcohol (kcal/d)†	2082-08	2072.99, 2091.16	2040-51	2013-61, 2067-42	2004-36	1951-04, 2057-68	0.0003
Total energy intake excluding alcohol (kcal/d)†	2005-51	1996-57, 2014-45	1965-99	1939-52, 1992-47	1938-69	1886-22, 1991-15	0.0011
mPNNS-GS/‡	8.52	8.50-8.54	8.64	8.57, 8.71	8.55	8.41, 8.69	0.0041
PANDiet‡	66-1	66.00, 66.20	68-26	67.96, 68.57	69.78	69.17, 70.39	<0.0001
Fibre (g/d)§	23.00	22.88, 23.12	26.43	26.07, 26.78	27.93	27.22, 28.64	<0.0001
% of total energy intake excluding alcohol from:							
Total carbohydrates	39.85	39.74, 39.96	39.18	38.85, 39.50	37.89	37.24, 38.53	<0.0001
Simple sugars	19.75	19.66, 19.85	19-99	19.72, 20.27	21.14	20.59, 21.69	<0.0001
Complex carbohydrates	19.98	19.90, 20.07	19.05	18.79, 19.32	16.59	16.07, 17.11	<0.0001
Total lipids	40.79	40.68, 40.89	42.22	41.91, 42.53	44	43.38, 44.61	<0.0001
PUFA	6.51	6.48, 6.55	7.79	7.69, 7.90	8.61	8.40, 8.82	<0.0001
MUFA	15.95	15.89, 16.01	17-19	17.01, 17.36	18-66	18-31, 19-01	<0.0001
SFA	15.26	15.21, 15.32	14.1	13.94, 14.26	13.51	13.20, 13.83	<0.0001
Total proteins	18-99	18.93, 19.04	18-25	18.09, 18.41	17.73	17.41, 18.05	<0.0001
Plant proteins:total proteins ratio (%)	32.21	32.00, 32.41	38.96	38.36, 39.57	42.00	40.80, 43.20	<0.0001
Micronutrients§							
Vitamin B ₆ (mg/d)	2.08	2.077, 2.084	2.26	2.24, 2.28	2.42	2.38, 2.46	<0.0001
Vitamin B ₁₂ (μg/d)	6.94	6.86, 7.01	7.01	6.78, 7.23	7.03	6.58, 7.48	0.7908
Vitamin C (mg/d)	149-23	148.04, 150.41	163-17	159.66, 166.68	183.94	176.98, 190.90	<0.0001
Vitamin D (μg/d)	3.14	3.11, 3.17	3.32	3.24, 3.40	3.46	3.30, 3.62	<0.0001
Vitamin E (mg/d)	14.13	14.06, 14.21	16.39	16.17, 16.62	18.03	17.58, 18.47	<0.0001
β -Carotene (μ g/d)	4522.09	4478.51, 4565.66	5377-22	5248.12, 5506.33	6426-32	6170.48, 6682.16	<0.0001
Retinol (μg/d)	598.93	586.84, 611.02	604.49	568.68, 640.30	575.07	504.10, 646.04	0.7648
Folate (μg/d)	413-41	411.43, 415.39	467-1	461.25, 472.96	511.87	500.26, 523.47	<0.0001
Minerals§							
Ca (mg/d)	1140.96	1136-20, 1145-73	1056-89	1042.77, 1071.01	1006-53	978.55, 1034.51	<0.0001
K (mg/d)	3857.44	3845.18, 3869.69	4004.87	3968-57, 4041-17	4184-64	4112.70, 4256.58	<0.0001
Mg (mg/d)	490.72	488.68, 492.76	523.47	517.42, 529.52	523.96	511.97, 535.95	<0.0001
Na (mg/d)	2642-31	2634-35, 2650-27	2478.70	2455-11, 2502-29	2268-46	2221.71, 2315.20	<0.0001
Cu (mg/d)	2.09	2.08, 2.11	2.38	2.34, 2.42	2.46	2.38, 2.53	<0.0001
Fe (mg/d)	15.90	15.84, 15.95	17.00	16.84, 17.17	17.02	16.69, 17.35	<0.0001
Haem-Fe (mg/d)	1.47	1.45, 1.48	1.30	1.25, 1.34	1.28	1.19, 1.37	<0.0001
P (mg/d)	1517-84	1513-82, 1521-85	1502-18	1490-28, 1514-08	1482-76	1459.18, 1506.34	0.0009
Zn (mg/d)	13.35	13.31, 13.39	12.99	12.87, 13.10	12.68	12.45, 12.90	<0.0001

mPNNS-GS, Modified French Programme National Nutrition Santé-Guideline Score; PANDiet, probability of adequate nutrient intake.

In contrast, the relationship between total gluten avoidance and purchase in hard discount slightly increased. Sensitivity analyses, replacing markets by shopping centres as the reference on 1002 *exaequo* data, showed similar results for the two models (online Supplementary Table S1).

Discussion

The present study is one of the first to consider the association between the contribution of organic food in the diet among a large sample of individuals and the avoidance of gluten using detailed dietary data. We found a marked positive association between gluten avoidance and contribution of organic food to the diet. A gradient was also observed with total avoiders consuming more of organic food than partial avoiders. This contribution was higher for all types of products, except milk and dairy products. These results appear consistent with the motives reported by individuals avoiding gluten, including health: individuals without CD who avoid gluten are concerned by health and adopt this behaviour considered healthier^(6,7,9-11). In our

previous study, gluten avoiders reported as main motives are physical well-being (26 and 39 % for total and partial avoiders) and belief of a long-term health impact (22 and 28 %, respectively) and the total avoiders also reported allergy and/or intolerance $(20\,\%)^{(24)}$. It seems that gluten avoidance, like the consumption of organic food^(42–44), belongs to a global attitude for a healthy diet.

Sociodemographic profiles of gluten avoiders

Our study is concordant with previous works showing that gluten avoiders were more likely to be $women^{(2,9,12,13,15,16,25)}$ and to report multiple food intolerances and allergies $^{(2,8,12,13,45)}$, particularly lactose intolerance $^{(8,12,13,45)}$.

Sociodemographic characteristics and behaviours of organic food consumers have been widely described in the literature^(46–48). We briefly reported them to identify concordance and discordance with individuals avoiding gluten. Like gluten avoiders, organic food consumers have been shown to be more likely to be women^(36,46–50). We observed that gluten avoiders in comparison with non-avoiders did not show



^{*}P values are based on ANCOVA test adjusted for age and sex.

[†] To convert kcal to kJ, multiply by 4.184.

[‡] P values are based on ANCOVA test adjusted for total energy intake (without alcohol), age and sex.

[§] Adjusted for total energy intake (without alcohol) using the residual method.

*

Table 3. Comparisons of mean intakes of food groups (in g/d) and contribution of organic food according to gluten avoidance* (Mean values and 95 % confidence intervals)

	Non-avoiders (n 20 946)					Partial avoiders (n 2023)				Total avoiders (n 499)			
	To	otal intake†	Organic:total ratio‡		To	otal intake†	Orgar	nic:total ratio‡	Total intake†		Organic:total ratio‡		
Food groups	Mean	95 % CI	Mean	95 % CI	Mean	95 % CI	Mean	95 % CI	Mean	95 % CI	Mean	95 % CI	
Vegetables	254.49	251.82, 257.16	30-86	30.40, 31.33	315.84	307-96, 323-72	43.85	42.46, 45.23	381.34	365-72, 396-95	46-82	44.08, 49.57	
Soups	80.19	78.75, 81.64	31.44	30.91, 31.96	83.66	79.40, 87.92	45.30	43.73, 46.86	76-11	67.66, 84.57	47.69	44.59, 50.79	
Fruit	261.54	258.08, 264.99	29.39	28.94, 29.83	304.87	294.67, 315.07	44.34	43.02, 45.66	352.82	332-61, 373-03	48.73	46.11, 51.35	
Fruit juice	86.97	85.29, 88.64	26.50	26.01, 26.98	76.36	71.41, 81.31	39.59	38.15, 41.04	81.99	72.19, 91.80	37.68	34.82, 40.54	
Nuts	3.03	2.91, 3.14	24.01	23.51, 24.50	5.52	5.18, 5.86	40.60	39.13, 42.08	7.29	6.62, 7.97	44-21	41.29, 47.13	
Meat	65.46	64.71, 66.22	18.35	17.96, 18.74	54.89	52.66, 57.12	25.60	24.44, 26.76	56.91	52.49, 61.33	26-81	24.51, 29.11	
Poultry	21.87	21.53, 22.21	28.14	27.66, 28.62	21.78	20.78, 22.79	36.82	35.39, 38.24	21.26	19.26, 23.25	36-69	33.87, 39.51	
Seafood	46.13	45.49, 46.76	14.87	14.52, 15.22	50.04	48.17, 51.92	20.85	19.82, 21.89	52.41	48.69, 56.13	20.98	18.93, 23.04	
Processed meat	31.68	31.30, 32.07	15.52	15.16, 15.89	27.62	26.49, 28.74	23.63	22.56, 24.69	25.88	23.66, 28.11	25.53	23.42, 27.64	
Legumes	15.48	15.06, 15.90	25.48	24.97, 26.00	21.99	20.75, 23.22	42.45	40.91, 43.99	21.91	19.46, 24.36	46.38	43.34, 49.42	
Potatoes and other tubers	23.61	23.30, 23.92	27.63	27.11, 28.16	22.95	22.03, 23.88	41.25	39.71, 42.80	23.66	21.83, 25.49	44.93	41.87, 47.98	
Eggs	10.78	10.61, 10.95	48.26	47.67, 48.85	12.36	11.85, 12.87	60.92	59.18, 62.66	14.58	13.56, 15.59	61⋅8	58.35, 65.25	
Milk	61.54	59.55, 63.53	11.16	10.76, 11.56	33.49	27.62, 39.36	12.39	11.20, 13.57	31.48	19.85, 43.12	6.20	3.86, 8.55	
Cheese	43.52	42.91, 44.14	17.49	17.11, 17.88	38.37	36.56, 40.17	30.03	28.89, 31.18	35.13	31.55, 38.72	30.21	27.94, 32.48	
Dairy products	154-24	148.02, 152.46	24.56	24.05, 25.06	110.32	103.76, 116.87	36.24	34.75, 37.74	81.36	68.37, 94.35	30.10	27.14, 33.05	
Milky desserts	12.32	11.96, 12.69	10.21	9.86, 10.56	8.89	7.81, 9.97	14.86	13.84, 15.89	7.79	5.65, 9.93	10-51	8.47, 12.54	
Dairy substitutes§	18.99	17.71, 20.27	13.80	13.37, 14.24	59.51	55.73, 63.29	27.56	26.27, 28.85	75.07	67.58, 82.55	30-62	28.07, 33.16	
Bread	56.50	55.69, 57.31	13.64	13.28, 13.99	39.12	36.73, 41.51	21.36	20.31, 22.41	31.61	26.87, 36.34	18-82	16.74, 20.90	
Cereals	82.49	81.55, 83.42	25.09	24.60, 25.58	81.17	78.42, 83.93	47.30	45.85, 48.74	76.84	71.38, 82.30	53.2	50.33, 56.06	
Whole starchy food¶	56.53	55.50, 57.57	29.27	28.77, 29.77	64.99	61.93, 68.05	46.40	44.92, 47.88	50.20	44.13, 56.27	49.53	46.60, 52.46	
Cookies**	10.15	9.92, 10.37	12.61	12.25, 12.97	9.03	8.36, 9.69	22.03	20.96, 23.10	7.07	5.75, 8.38	21.15	19.03, 23.26	
Sweets††	50.89	50.37, 51.42	24.70	24.30, 25.11	48.39	46.84, 49.94	38.69	37.49, 39.89	44.69	41.62, 47.76	46.36	43.97, 48.74	
Fast foods	34.65	34.12, 35.17	15.70	15.32, 16.08	31.96	30.41, 33.50	26.08	24.96, 27.20	25.53	22.46, 28.60	26.46	24.25, 28.67	
Snacks‡‡	8.83	8.64, 9.01	16.36	15.95, 16.76	12.75	12.19, 13.30	30.69	29.49, 31.90	15.98	14.88, 17.09	35.81	33.42, 38.19	
Meat substitutes	3.51	3.32, 3.78	20.35	19.80, 20.91	9.12	8.31, 9.92	37.42	35.77, 39.07	10.79	9.19, 12.39	37.14	33.87, 40.41	
Grains§§	2.59	2.46, 2.72	25.63	25.06, 26.19	5.54	5.15, 5.94	39.71	38.05, 41.37	7.61	6.83, 8.40	41.29	37.99, 44.58	
Oils	17.85	17.64, 18.06	35.35	34.79, 35.90	21.81	21.18, 22.44	56.05	54.41, 57.69	24.28	23.03, 25.52	58-69	55.45, 61.93	
Butter	6.79	6.69, 6.89	24.45	23.92, 24.97	5.70	5.40, 6.00	39.48	37.92, 41.04	5.05	4.46, 5.63	33.47	30.37, 36.56	
Other fats	3.01	2.94, 3.07	22.32	21.82, 22.82	3.04	2.85, 3.24	39.32	37.84, 40.79	2.92	2.53, 3.30	43.57	40.65, 46.49	
Dressing	7.20	7.08, 7.31	20.00	19.54, 20.45	6.19	5.85, 6.54	34.82	33.48, 36.16	5.51	4.82, 6.20	36.70	34.05, 39.36	
Non-alcoholic drinks¶¶	771.67	764.45, 778.90	23.36	22.90, 23.83	815.06	793.73, 836.39	42.05	40.68, 43.43	811-14	768-88, 853-41	46-69	43.96, 49.41	
Soda	42.11	40.59, 43.62	8.20	7.91, 8.50	34.08	29.60, 38.55	11.71	10.83, 12.58	34.39	25.53, 43.26	11.04	9.31, 12.77	
Alcohol beverages	128-92	126 79, 131 04	14.74	14.40, 15.07	126.00	119.74, 132.25	23.49	22.50, 24.48	107.60	95.20, 119.99	25.00	23.04, 26.97	

^{*} All *P* values <0.0001.

[†] P values are based on ANCOVA test adjusted for total energy intake, age and sex.

[‡] P values are based on ANCOVA test adjusted for age, sex and consumption of food group.

[§] Including soya yogurt, plant-based cheese, vegan fresh cheese and soya milk.

[|] Including pasta, white rice, muesli, semolina and cereals.

[¶] Including whole bread, whole-grain rice and whole-grain pasta.

^{**} Including pastries, brioche and biscuits.

^{††} Including jam, honey, sugar, sweeteners, confectionery, chocolate and chocolate spread bars, cakes, brownies, pancakes and ice cream.

^{‡‡} Including chips, popcorn, salted aperitif cakes, peanuts, almonds and pistachio nuts.

^{§§} Including sprouted seeds, bran and wheat germs.

III Including mayonnaise, fresh cream and fresh plant cream.

^{¶¶} Including coffee, tea, chicory, hot chocolate and water.

Table 4. Multinomial logistic regression analysis showing the association between consumption of organic foods and diet practices* (Adjusted odds ratios (aOR) and 95 % confidence intervals)

	Quintiles of organic consumption (part in the diet)												
	Q1	Q2			Q3			Q4			Q5		
	Ref.	aOR	95 % CI	Р	aOR	95 % CI	Р	aOR	95 % CI	Р	aOR	95 % CI	Р
Overall gluten avo	oidance	(with o	r without any	other diet	(Ref. =	no dieting)							
Partial dieting	1	1.22	1.01, 1.48	0.0432	1.52	1.26, 1.82	<0.0001	2.47	2.08, 2.93	<0.0001	4.81	4.09, 5.67	<0.0001
Total dieting	1	0.89	0.61, 1.30	0.5385	0.98	0.68, 1.41	0.9045	1.66	1.19, 2.31	0.0029	4.95	3.70, 6.63	<0.0001
Gluten avoidance	only (F	Ref. = neg	o diet)										
Partial dieting	1	1.14	0.92, 1.42	0.2164	1.27	1.03, 1.57	0.0238	2.19	1.81, 2.66	<0.0001	3.99	3.32, 4.81	<0.0001
Total dieting	1	0.69	0.45, 1.06	0.0926	0.75	0.49, 1.15	0.1881	1.23	0.83, 1.80	0.3036	3.40	2.43, 4.77	<0.0001
Gluten-free and la	ctose-	free diet	(Ref. = no d)	iet)									
Dieting	1	1.68	1.07, 2.65	0.0257	2.53	1.65, 3.89	<0.0001	4.12	2.74, 6.20	<0.0001	9.22	6.24, 13.64	<0.0001

Ref., reference.

Table 5. Multinomial logistic regression analysis showing the association between place of purchase and gluten avoidance (Odds ratios and 95 % confidence intervals)

	Non-avoiders (n 14 878)	I	Partial avoiders (n 1	608)	Total avoiders (n 399)			
	Ref.	OR 95 % CI		Р	OR	95 % CI	Р	
Model 1*								
Supermarkets	1	Ref.	Ref.		Ref.	Ref.		
Hard discount	1	0.75	0.43, 1.29	0.30	2.13	1.07, 4.25	0.03	
Grocery stores	1	1.41	0.83, 2.39	0.20	1.23	0.39, 3.93	0.72	
Markets	1	0.90	0.77, 1.05	0.16	0.88	0.64, 1.21	0.42	
Organic stores	1	2.64	2.35, 2.97	<0.0001	3.47	2.78, 4.34	<0.0001	
Model 2†								
Supermarkets	1	Ref.	Ref.		Ref.	Ref.		
Hard discount	1	0.82	0.48, 1.43	0.49	2.53	1.26, 5.07	0.01	
Grocery stores	1	1.23	0.72, 2.09	0.45	1.00	0.31, 3.20	0.99	
Markets	1	0.87	0.75, 1.02	0.08	0.85	0.62, 1.17	0.32	
Organic stores	1	1.71	1.51, 1.95	<0.0001	1.82	1.42, 2.33	<0.0001	

Ref., reference

[†] Model 2 adjusted for age, sex, education level, occupational category, income, physical activity, smoking status and consumption of organic food.

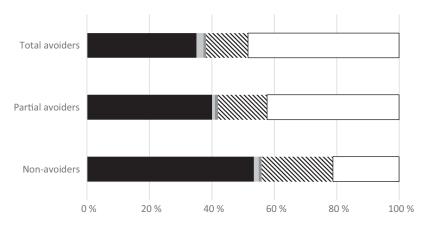


Fig. 2. Frequency of places of purchase of organic food according to gluten avoidance. , Supermarkets; , hard discount; , grocery stores; , markets; , organic stores.

any difference concerning education level and they were older than non-avoiders (between 55 and 64 years old). Studies investigating organic food consumers showed heterogeneous results regarding age and education level: younger⁽⁵¹⁾ or older^(36,50), higher education level^(36,52–54) or lower^(55,56). Unlike our results about gluten avoiders, several

studies showed that organic food consumers had higher income^(36,46) and overall higher social status^(50,57,58). Nevertheless, we observed differences between total and partial avoiders: partial gluten avoiders were more often managerial staff than total avoiders and their income was not low.



^{*} Model adjusted for age, sex, education level, occupational category, income, physical activity, smoking status, alcohol and total energy intake without alcohol.

^{*} Model 1 adjusted for age, sex, education level, occupational category, income, physical activity and smoking status.



Outside sociodemographic characteristics, individuals avoiding gluten and organic food consumers exhibit many common lifestyle and food behaviours. Many studies reported this healthy lifestyle among organic food consumers (48,50,52,59,60). In the present study, we observed that individuals avoiding gluten had similar behaviours: they were more likely to be physically active, to consume less alcohol and to be less likely to present obesity.

Dietary behaviours of individuals avoiding gluten comparison with organic food consumers

Regarding food consumption and nutrient intake, individuals avoiding gluten showed a comparable diet to organic food consumers. As individuals avoiding gluten in our study, organic food consumers had a much higher consumption of vegetables, fruits, legumes, fish and nuts and a much lower consumption of meat, processed meat, sweet and fatty products, dairy products and sweet beverages than non-avoiders (48,50,58,59,61,62). We also observed that participants who avoid gluten were characterised by a high intake of plant-based food. This feature was also observed among organic food consumers (59). Individuals avoiding gluten presented similar nutrient profiles than those observed in organic food consumers(58,61-63): they had a lower total energy intake, a higher proportion of energy from PUFA and intake of fibre, and a smaller proportion of energy from saturated fat and intake of protein. Like organic food consumers, they presented a better nutritional diet quality: the PANDiet score was highest with a gradient for more gluten avoidance. In the present study, as previously reported among organic food consumers^(52,58,59,63), we also observed a higher proportion of individuals reporting to be vegetarians among gluten avoiders compared with individuals who do not avoid it.

The contribution of organic food in the diet of gluten avoiders was higher for all products, except milk because its overall consumption was low. Organic food consumers reported the same trends in food groups (48): the most popular organic food groups were eggs in first, fruits and vegetables, whole starchy foods and oils, and the least popular were meat and dairy products.

The data of this study are in accordance with ones of a recent US study about people who value gluten-free products (25). In this study, individuals who value gluten-free products had healthy behaviours: they had a higher consumption of vegetables and fruits and a lower consumption of sugar-sweetened beverages as well as a higher intake of fibre and lower intake of saturated fat. Finally, they reported that individuals who value gluten-free products not only value organic food but also unprocessed food and local food.

Many characteristics are shared by people avoiding gluten and organic food consumers: they are physically active, consume less alcohol, have a higher consumption of fruit and vegetables and a lower consumption of meat. It seems that people without CD avoiding gluten may be a specific group of organic food consumers. They are characterised by additional behaviours of food exclusion.

Place of purchase

The analysis of place of purchase showed that nearly half of the gluten avoiders bought organic food in organic stores against about 20% for non-avoiders. This association between gluten avoidance and purchase in organic stores remained even after adjustment for total consumption of organic food. To the best of our knowledge, no study investigated the place of purchase of products among people avoiding gluten. In fact, we had no information on the main reasons for this choice: specifically, we were not able to identify whether gluten avoiders purchase their organic food in organic stores because they prefer organic food and then buy gluten-free foods due to the large offer, or if they choose to buy gluten-free foods in organic stores due to large offer and thus also consumed organic foods. Surprisingly, we also observed an association between total gluten avoidance and purchase in hard discount which may be explained by the fact that in our study, the total gluten avoiders were more likely to have a lower income.

Strengths and limitations

Several limitations of this study should be mentioned. First, the participants enrolled in our study were volunteers in a nutrition cohort and were probably more interested in nutritional issues and had healthier lifestyle issues than the general population. They exhibited particular characteristics when compared with the general French population (64,65). As the food exclusion and org-FFQ questionnaires were optional, participants excluding food and high organic food consumers were certainly more willing to fill in these questionnaires. However, the proportion of non-consumers of organic food was similar to the national figures⁽⁶⁶⁾. Second, all data in this study were self-reported, which may be prone to measurement errors and desirability bias⁽⁶⁷⁾. Third, no information was available on the consumption of gluten-free substitutes and their specific nutritional values in our sample. This lack might lower estimations of nutrient intakes in gluten avoiders. Finally, due to the cross-sectional design of our study, we were not able to determine whether gluten avoidance led to a higher consumption of organic products, or if participants who had a high consumption of organic products were more likely to avoid the gluten.

This study also showed important strengths. The first was its large sample size, which provides an access to a wide diversity of dietary behaviours. It also allowed for control of potential effects of confounding factors. A further strength was the use of a Org-FFQ: it was based on a validated FFQ which had shown relative validity and reproducibility⁽³⁵⁾, and it included a very large range of foods (264 items) enabling to estimate usual diet over the previous year. The use of the Org-FFQ enabled to provide detailed data and allowed to assess the proportion of organic foods per type of food and in the whole diet. This strength is major because the only study which related gluten avoidance and organic food was only based on the perception of foods rather than actual consumption⁽²⁵⁾.

In conclusion, the present study provides new insights into the characterisation of individuals without reported CD avoiding gluten. These findings underline a strong positive correlation between gluten avoidance and organic food consumption. It appears that gluten avoidance for non-coeliac individuals is a subset of organic food consumers who are often related to other specific dietary practices (vegetarians) and to adoption of



healthy behaviours. It would be important to take this thought into account in future studies. Future research is needed to better understand the relationship between gluten avoidance and organic food consumption.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Cédric Agaesse (dietitian); Thi Hong Van Duong and Younes Esseddik (IT manager), Régis Gatibelza, Djamal Lamri, Jagatjit Mohinder and Aladi Timera (computer scientists); Julien Allegre, Nathalie Arnault, Laurent Bourhis and Fabien Szabo de Edelenyi, PhD (supervisor) (data-manager/statisticians) for their technical contribution to the NutriNet-Santé study and Nathalie Druesne-Pecollo, PhD (operational coordination). The authors thank all the volunteers of the NutriNet-Santé cohort.

This study is part of the GlutN project that was supported by the French National Research Agency (Agence Nationale de la Recherche) in 2017 (AAPG ANR 2017). The NutriNet-Santé cohort study is funded by the following public institutions: Ministère de la Santé, Santé Publique France, Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale, Institut National de la Recherche Agronomique (INRA), Conservatoire National des Arts et Métiers (CNAM) and Paris 13 University. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish or preparation of the manuscript. Study sponsors had no part in study design, collection, analysis and interpretation of data and the writing of the article and the decision to submit it for publication.

The authors' contributions were as follows: L. P. and E. K. G. designed the research; B. A., C. B., S. H., M. T., C. J., D. L., J. B. and E. K. G. conducted the research; L. P. performed statistical analysis and drafted the manuscript; E. K. G. supervised statistical analysis and the writing; L. P., B. A., C. B., S. H., M. T., C. J., D. L., J. B. and E. K. G. contributed to the data interpretation and revised each draft for important intellectual content. All authors read and approved the final manuscript. E. K. G. had primary responsibility for the final content, she is the guarantor.

The authors declared no support from any institution for the submitted work.

Supplementary material

For supplementary material referred to in this article, please visit https://doi.org/10.1017/S0007114520003323

References

- 1. Singh P, Arora A, Strand TA, et al. (2018) Global prevalence of celiac disease: systematic review and meta-analysis. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol 16, 823-836.e2.
- 2. Aziz I, Lewis NR, Hadjivassiliou M, et al. (2014) A UK study assessing the population prevalence of self-reported gluten sensitivity and referral characteristics to secondary care. Eur J Gastroenterol Hepatol 26, 33-39.
- Rubio-Tapia A, Ludvigsson JF, Brantner TL, et al. (2012) The prevalence of celiac disease in the United States. Am J Gastroenterol 107, 1538-1544; quiz 1537, 1545.
- 4. Kim H, Patel KG, Orosz E, et al. (2016) Time trends in the prevalence of celiac disease and gluten-free diet in the US

- population: results from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Surveys 2009–2014. JAMA Intern Med 176, 1716-1717.
- 5. Choung RS, Unalp-Arida A, Ruhl CE, et al. (2017) Less hidden celiac disease but increased gluten avoidance without a diagnosis in the United States: findings from the National Health and Nutrition Examination Surveys from 2009 to 2014. Mayo Clin Proc 92, 30-38.
- Gaesser GA & Angadi SS (2012) Gluten-free diet: imprudent dietary advice for the general population? J Acad Nutr Diet **112** 1330–1333
- Gaesser GA & Angadi SS (2015) Navigating the gluten-free boom. JAAPA 28, 1-7.
- Golley S, Corsini N, Topping D, et al. (2015) Motivations for avoiding wheat consumption in Australia: results from a population survey. Public Health Nutr 18, 490-499.
- 9. Reilly NR (2016) The gluten-free diet: recognizing fact, fiction, and fad. J Pediatr 175, 206-210.
- Dunn C, House L & Shelnutt KP (2014) Consumer perceptions of gluten-free products and the healthfulness of gluten-free diets. J Nutr Educ Behav 46, S184-S185.
- 11. Lu Z, Zhang H, Luoto S, et al. (2018) Gluten-free living in China: the characteristics, food choices and difficulties in following a gluten-free diet – an online survey. Appetite 127, 242-248.
- 12. Cabrera-Chávez F, Granda-Restrepo DM, Arámburo-Gálvez JG, et al. (2016) Self-reported prevalence of gluten-related disorders and adherence to gluten-free diet in Colombian adult population. Gastroenterol Res Pract 2016, 4704309
- 13. Cabrera-Chávez F, Dezar GV, Islas-Zamorano AP, et al. (2017) Prevalence of self-reported gluten sensitivity and adherence to a gluten-free diet in Argentinian adult population. Nutrients **9**, 81.
- 14. Ontiveros N, Hardy MY & Cabrera-Chavez F (2015) Assessing of celiac disease and nonceliac gluten sensitivity. Gastroenterol Res Pract 2015, 723954.
- 15. Ontiveros N, Rodríguez-Bellegarrigue CI, Galicia-Rodríguez G, et al. (2018) Prevalence of self-reported gluten-related disorders and adherence to a gluten-free diet in Salvadoran adult population. Int J Environ Res Public Health 15, 786.
- 16. DiGiacomo DV, Tennyson CA, Green PH, et al. (2013) Prevalence of gluten-free diet adherence among individuals without celiac disease in the USA: results from the Continuous National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey 2009-2010. Scand J Gastroenterol 48, 921-925.
- 17. Catassi C, Bai JC, Bonaz B, et al. (2013) Non-celiac gluten sensitivity: the new frontier of gluten related disorders. Nutrients 5, 3839-3853.
- 18. Lis DM, Stellingwerff T, Shing CM, et al. (2015) Exploring the popularity, experiences, and beliefs surrounding gluten-free diets in nonceliac athletes. Int J Sport Nutr Exerc Metab 25,
- 19. Marcason W (2011) Is there evidence to support the claim that a gluten-free diet should be used for weight loss? J Am Diet Assoc **111**, 1786.
- Sapone A, Bai JC, Ciacci C, et al. (2012) Spectrum of glutenrelated disorders: consensus on new nomenclature and classification. BMC Med 10, 13.
- 21. Igbinedion SO, Ansari J, Vasikaran A, et al. (2017) Non-celiac gluten sensitivity: all wheat attack is not celiac. World J Gastroenterol 23, 7201-7210.
- 22. Elli L, Branchi F, Tomba C, et al. (2015) Diagnosis of gluten related disorders: celiac disease, wheat allergy and non-celiac gluten sensitivity. World J Gastroenterol 21, 7110.
- 23. Lee AR, Ng DL, Zivin J, et al. (2007) Economic burden of a gluten-free diet. J Hum Nutr Diet Off J Br Diet Assoc 20, 423-430.





- 24. Perrin L, Allès B, Buscail C, et al. (2019) Gluten-free diet in French adults without coeliac disease: sociodemographic characteristics, motives and dietary profile. Br J Nutr 122, 231-239.
- Christoph MJ, Larson N, Hootman KC, et al. (2018) Who values gluten-free? Dietary intake, behaviors, and sociodemographic characteristics of young adults who value gluten-free food. J Acad Nutr Diet 118, 1389–1398.
- Brantsæter AL, Ydersbond TA, Hoppin JA, et al. (2017) Organic food in the diet: exposure and health implications. Annu Rev Public Health 38, 295-313.
- 27. Hercberg S, Castetbon K, Czernichow S, et al. (2010) The NutriNet-Santé Study: a web-based prospective study on the relationship between nutrition and health and determinants of dietary patterns and nutritional status. BMC Public Health 10, 242.
- 28. Hagströmer M, Oja P & Sjöström M (2006) The International Physical Activity Questionnaire (IPAQ): a study of concurrent and construct validity. Public Health Nutr 9, 755-762.
- Craig CL, Marshall AL, Sjöström M, et al. (2003) International physical activity questionnaire: 12-country reliability and validity. Med Sci Sports Exer **35**, 1381–1395.
- Touvier M, Méjean C, Kesse-Guyot E, et al. (2010) Comparison between web-based and paper versions of a self-administered anthropometric questionnaire. Eur J Epidemiol 25, 287-296.
- Vergnaud A-C, Touvier M, Méjean C, et al. (2011) Agreement between web-based and paper versions of a socio-demographic questionnaire in the NutriNet-Santé study. Int J Public Health 56, 407 - 417.
- 32. Lassale C, Péneau S, Touvier M, et al. (2013) Validity of web-based self-reported weight and height: results of the NutriNet-Santé study. J Med Internet Res 15, e152.
- INSEE (2019) Définition Unité de consommation (Definition -Unit of consumption). https://www.insee.fr/fr/metadonnees/ definition/c1802 (accessed June 2020).
- WHO (2000) Obesity: preventing and managing the global epidemic. Report of a WHO consultation. World Health Organ Tech Rep Ser 894, i-xii, 1-253.
- 35. Kesse-Guyot E, Castetbon K, Touvier M, et al. (2010) Relative validity and reproducibility of a food frequency questionnaire designed for French adults. Ann Nutr Metab 57, 153-162.
- Baudry J, Méjean C, Allès B, et al. (2015) Contribution of organic food to the diet in a large sample of French adults (the NutriNet-Santé Cohort Study). Nutrients 7, 8615-8632
- Le Moullec N, Deheeger M, Preziosi P, et al. (1996) Validation du manuel-photos utilisé pour l'enquête alimentaire de l'étude SU.VI.MAX. Cab Nutr Diététique 31, 158–164.
- Arnault N, Caillot L, Castetbon K, et al. (2013) Table de composition des aliments NutriNet-Santé (NutriNet-Santé Food Composition Table). Paris: Ed Économica.
- Schofield WN (1985) Predicting basal metabolic rate, new standards and review of previous work. Hum Nutr Clin Nutr 39, Suppl. 1, 5-41.
- Verger EO, Mariotti F, Holmes BA, et al. (2012) Evaluation of a diet quality index based on the probability of adequate nutrient intake (PANDiet) using national French and US dietary surveys. PLOS ONE 7, e42155.
- Willett W & Stampfer MJ (1986) Total energy intake: implications for epidemiologic analyses. Am J Epidemiol 124, 17-27.
- Ellison B, Duff BRL, Wang Z, et al. (2016) Putting the organic label in context: examining the interactions between the organic label, product type, and retail outlet. Food Qual Prefer **49**, 140–150.
- 43. Baudry J, Péneau S, Allès B, et al. (2017) Food choice motives when purchasing in organic and conventional consumer

- clusters: focus on sustainable concerns (The NutriNet-Santé Cohort Study). Nutrients 9, 88.
- 44. Magnusson MK, Arvola A, Hursti UKK, et al. (2003) Choice of organic foods is related to perceived consequences for human health and to environmentally friendly behaviour. Appetite 40, 109-117
- 45. Volta U, Bardella MT, Calabrò A, et al. (2014) Study group for non-celiac gluten sensitivity. An Italian prospective multicenter survey on patients suspected of having non-celiac gluten sensitivity. BMC Med 12, 85.
- 46. Davies A, Titterington AJ & Cochrane C (1995) Who buys organic food? A profile of the purchasers of organic food in Northern Ireland. Br Food J 97, 17-23.
- Aertsens J, Verbeke W, Mondelaers K, et al. (2009) Personal determinants of organic food consumption: a review. van Huylenbroek G, editor. Br Food J 111, 1140-1167.
- 48. Oates L, Cohen M & Braun L (2012) Characteristics and consumption patterns of Australian organic consumers. J Sci Food Agric 92, 2782–2787
- 49. Lockie S, Lyons K, Lawrence G, et al. (2004) Choosing organics: a path analysis of factors underlying the selection of organic food among Australian consumers. Appetite 43, 135-146.
- 50. Eisinger-Watzl M, Wittig F, Heuer T, et al. (2015) Customers purchasing organic food - do they live healthier? Results of the German National Nutrition Survey II. Eur J Nutr Food Saf
- 51. Moon W, Balasubramanian S & Rimal AP (2005) Agrobiotechnology and organic food purchase in the United Kingdom. Br Food J 107, 84-97.
- Schifferstein HNJ & Oude Ophuis PAM (1998) Health-related determinants of organic food consumption in The Netherlands. Food Qual Prefer 9, 119-133.
- Pearson D, Henryks J & Jones H (2011) Organic food: what we know (and do not know) about consumers. Renew Agric Food Syst 26, 171–177
- Dettmann RL & Dimitri C (2010) Who's buying organic vegetables? Demographic characteristics of U.S. consumers. J Food Prod Mark 16, 79-91.
- 55. Thompson GD & Kidwell J (1998) Explaining the choice of organic produce: cosmetic defects, prices, and consumer preferences. Am J Agric Econ 80, 277-287.
- Worsley T & Lea E (2005) Australians' organic food beliefs, demographics and values. Br Food J 107, 855-869.
- O'Donovan P & McCarthy M (2002) Irish consumer preference for organic meat. Br Food J 104, 353-370.
- Petersen SB, Rasmussen MA, Strøm M, et al. (2013) Sociodemographic characteristics and food habits of organic consumers - a study from the Danish National Birth Cohort. Public Health Nutr 16, 1810–1819.
- Baudry J, Allès B, Péneau S, et al. (2017) Dietary intakes and diet quality according to levels of organic food consumption by French adults: cross-sectional findings from the NutriNet-Santé Cohort Study. Public Health Nutr 20, 638–648.
- Lockie S, Lyons K, Lawrence G, et al. (2002) Eating 'Green': motivations behind organic food consumption in Australia. Sociol Rural 42, 23-40.
- 61. Torjusen H, Lieblein G, Næs T, et al. (2012) Food patterns and dietary quality associated with organic food consumption during pregnancy; data from a large cohort of pregnant women in Norway. BMC Public Health 12, 612.
- 62. Pelletier JE, Laska MN, Neumark-Sztainer D, et al. (2013) Positive attitudes toward organic, local, and sustainable foods are associated with higher dietary quality among young adults. J Acad Nutr Diet 113, 127-132.





63. Baudry J, Touvier M, Allès B, *et al.* (2016) Typology of eaters based on conventional and organic food consumption: results from the NutriNet-Santé cohort study. *Br J Nutr* **116**, 700–709.

- 64. Andreeva VA, Salanave B, Castetbon K, et al. (2015) Comparison of the sociodemographic characteristics of the large NutriNet-Santé e-cohort with French Census data: the issue of volunteer bias revisited. J Epidemiol Community Health 69, 893–898.
- Andreeva VA, Deschamps V, Salanave B, et al. (2016)
 Comparison of dietary intakes between a large online cohort study (Etude NutriNet-Santé) and a nationally representative
- cross-sectional study (Etude Nationale Nutrition Santé) in France: addressing the issue of generalizability in E-epidemiology. *Am J Epidemiol* **184**, 660–669.
- 66. Agence Bio (2018) Baromètre de consommation et de perception des produits biologiques (Organic product consumption and perception barometer). http://www.agencebio.org/sites/default/files/upload/rapport_barometre_agencebiocsa_2018. pdf (accessed June 2020).
- 67. Kesse-Guyot E, Assmann K, Andreeva V, *et al.* (2016) Lessons learned from methodological validation research in E-epidemiology. *JMIR Public Health Surveill* **2**, e160.

