



**Queensland University of Technology**  
Brisbane Australia

This is the author's version of a work that was submitted/accepted for publication in the following source:

Gallegos, Danielle, Ramsey, Rebecca, & Ong, Kai (2014) Food insecurity : is it an issue among tertiary students. *Higher Education*, 67(5), pp. 497-510.

This file was downloaded from: <http://eprints.qut.edu.au/61769/>

© Copyright 2013 Springer Science+Business Media Dordrecht

The original publication is available at SpringerLink  
<http://www.springerlink.com>

**Notice:** *Changes introduced as a result of publishing processes such as copy-editing and formatting may not be reflected in this document. For a definitive version of this work, please refer to the published source:*

<http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9656-2>

# 1 Food Insecurity: Is it an Issue Among Tertiary Students?

## 2 **Introduction**

3 Ready access to a safe and nutritious food supply is a basic human right, identified at the 1996 and  
4 2009 World Food Summits (Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations 1996, Food  
5 and Agriculture Organisation 2009). The multi-dimensional nature of food security is captured by  
6 the definition:

7 *"Food security exists when all people, at all times, have physical, social, and economic*  
8 *access to sufficient, safe and nutritious food to meet their dietary needs and food*  
9 *preferences for an active and healthy life". (Food and Agriculture Organisation 2009)*

10 Consequently, food insecurity may occur when access to or availability of sufficient amounts of  
11 healthy, culturally-appropriate and nutritious foods are compromised, or when individuals cannot  
12 access these foods in socially-acceptable ways. Food insecurity in developing countries is a salient  
13 issue for the entire population (Food and Agricultural Organisation 2010). However, in developed  
14 countries like Australia, the majority of the population lives with an abundant national food supply  
15 and within a well-established social security safety net, yet food insecurity remains an issue for a  
16 number of population subgroups (NSW Centre for Public Health Nutrition 2003).

17 Internationally, research suggests that the major determinant of food insecurity is poverty, placing  
18 particular population sub-groups at higher risk, including those with lower incomes, single parent  
19 households, minorities, and the unemployed (Chavez, Telleen et al. 2007, Tarasuk and Vogt 2009,  
20 Ramsey, Giskes et al. 2011). From the last nutrition survey undertaken in Australia in 1995, the  
21 single question (*"In the last twelve months were there any times that you ran out of food and*  
22 *couldn't afford to buy more"*) elicited higher rates of food insecurity among young people (15%),  
23 those who are renting (20%), those on low incomes (20%), the unemployed (23%), and single  
24 parent households (23%) (Burns 2004). University students often fall into several of these groups  
25 (James, Bexley et al. 2007). As would be expected, therefore, available evidence indicates that this  
26 population is also at higher risk of food insecurity, although this evidence is presently sparse, and  
27 largely unpublished in academic literature (Booth and Smith 2001, Grant, Maccarone et al. 2004,  
28 Monash Student Association 2008, Hughes, Serebryanikova et al. 2011). A 2006 study of  
29 Australian university student finances reported that food insecurity affected approximately 14% of  
30 students (James, Bexley et al. 2007). A study of Hawaiian college students, however, reported a  
31 food insecurity prevalence of 21% with a further 24% of students being at risk of food insecurity

1 (Chaparro, Zaghloul et al. 2009). The reported Australian figure of 14% is therefore at odds with  
2 both other Australian evidence and that from elsewhere.

3 Numerous studies, most notably in the United States and Canada, have concluded that food  
4 insecurity is associated with poor health and nutrition outcomes, poor psychological and cognitive  
5 functioning, substandard academic achievement, and an increased risk of chronic disease with  
6 higher occurrences of overweight or malnutrition (Hamelin, Habicht et al. 1999, Townsend, Peerson  
7 et al. 2001, Winicki and Jemison 2003, Parker 2007, Seligman, Bindman et al. 2007, Kirkpatrick  
8 and Tarasuk 2008, Huddleston-Casas, Charnigo et al. 2009). These impacts not only result in  
9 compromised life choices for individuals and families, but also contribute to the potential cost  
10 burden to the health care system due to long term health repercussions. Only one Australian study  
11 has examined factors associated with food insecurity among university students (Hughes,  
12 Serebryanikova et al. 2011), and none internationally have investigated association between income  
13 and food insecurity among tertiary education students. The objectives of this study are, therefore, to  
14 investigate (1) the extent and severity of food insecurity among students attending a metropolitan  
15 university in Brisbane, Australia, and (2) the socio-demographic, dietary, and health factors  
16 associated with food insecurity among this sub-group. Given the potential associations between  
17 academic achievement, chronic disease, and food insecurity, the presence of food insecurity among  
18 university students is likely to have a range of serious consequences in both the short and long term.  
19 In addition, for universities, addressing food insecurity could have a potential role in improving  
20 student retention rates. This study will therefore provide important insights into the severity of food  
21 insecurity and provide evidence to underpin action by the tertiary sector to improve the education  
22 experience and contribute to long term health.

23

## 24 **Methods**

25 This study was approved by a University Human Research Ethics Committee (0900000750). Data  
26 were collected between September and October 2009, using a web-based survey. The survey was  
27 disseminated by email to a cohort of 14 439 students, corresponding to all enrolments in the  
28 Business and Health Faculties. Attempts were made to recruit students with varying ranges of  
29 health knowledge by inviting disparate faculties to participate. The Health and Business faculties  
30 responded within the required time-frames. Web-based advertising was placed on the university  
31 home page and posters were used to increase response rates. The survey remained active for a  
32 period of six-weeks with an email reminder sent at three weeks. Students were not offered any  
33 incentives to participate.

## 1 *Survey Tool*

2 The survey tool was comprised of 34 items, most of which had been previously validated in an  
3 Australian population. The use of these items is described below. Information was sought on food  
4 security status, dietary and health factors, and socio-demographic characteristics.

### 5 *Food security status*

6 Food security was assessed using the 18-item United States Department of Agriculture Food  
7 Security Survey Module (USDA FSSM). This tool takes into account the complex multi-  
8 dimensional nature of food insecurity issues within a 12-month reference period (Bickel, Nord et al.  
9 2000) and exhibited good reliability (based on Cronbach's  $\alpha$  greater than 0.70) within the current  
10 sample ( $\alpha = 0.84$ ) (Nunnally 1978). Given the limitations of the Australian single-item food security  
11 measurement tool, the higher sensitivity USDA tool serves to provide better estimates of food  
12 insecurity prevalence and severity levels (Bickel, Nord et al. 2000, Nolan, Rikard-Bell et al. 2006).  
13 Questions relate to experience of, and anxiety due to, limited household food budget, perceptions of  
14 compromised food quality, adjustments to normal food usage, and instances and consequences of  
15 reduced food intake for adults and children in the household. A total food security score at the  
16 household level was obtained by summing positive responses. Scores were then categorised  
17 according to four severity levels as outlined in Table 1 (Bickel, Nord et al. 2000). Finally, data was  
18 collapsed into dichotomous categories of *food secure* and *food insecure*, with *low food security*,  
19 *very low food security* and *very low food security among children* forming the latter category.

20 [Table 1 about here]

### 21 *Sociodemographic characteristics*

22 Data on age, gender, indigenous status, housing tenure, household type, household income,  
23 enrolment status, and course details were collected. As per the National Health Survey (NHS),  
24 participants were asked to indicate their age group (<17, 17-24, 25-29, 30-34,  $\geq 35$ ), gender, and  
25 indigenous status (Aboriginal, Torres Strait Islander, both Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander,  
26 none). Adjusted household income was calculated using the method implemented in the NHS,  
27 which weights multi-person household income such that the standard of living represented is  
28 equivalent to that of a single-person household. For this method, individuals within the household  
29 are allocated weightings (1 for the first adult, 0.5 for consecutive adults, 0.5 for the first child, 0.3  
30 for each consecutive child), with each weighting being multiplied by the total number of  
31 corresponding adults or children and then summed (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006).  
32 Household income was divided by this number to yield the equivalent income score. The

1 equivalent income variable was categorised into tertiles, with the lowest tertile representing the  
2 lowest income per household.

### 3 *Fruit and vegetable intakes*

4 Intakes of fruits and vegetables were assessed using the short-answer questions from the NHS  
5 (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006). Participants were asked to indicate how many servings of  
6 fruit and how many servings of vegetables they consumed per day (0, <1, 1, 2, 3, ≥4). These data  
7 were re-coded to (<2, ≥2) and (≤3, ≥4) for fruit and vegetables respectively.

### 8 *Take-away consumption*

9 Consumption of take-away food was assessed using items modified from the 1995 National  
10 Nutrition Survey (NNS), the most recent nutrition survey undertaken in Australia. Participants were  
11 asked to indicate the number of times per week they ate packaged potato chips (UK: crisps), fries or  
12 wedges, hamburgers, Chinese food, pizza, cakes, savoury pies, fried fish, and fried chicken. These  
13 items were identified in the NNS as the ten most popular take-away items consumed by the  
14 Australian population (Australian Bureau of Statistics 1995). The popularity of these foods do not  
15 appear to have changed markedly in the past twenty years (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2013).  
16 Responses to this question were *never/rarely, less than once per week, 1-2 times per week, and 3 or*  
17 *more times per week.*

18

### 19 *Self-assessed health*

20 Self-assessed health was investigated using a question from the Short Form 12 (SF12) (Ware,  
21 Kosinski et al. 1996) which asked participants to report whether they felt their health was *excellent,*  
22 *very good, good, fair* or *poor.*

23

### 24 *Weight status*

25 Body mass index (BMI, kg/m<sup>2</sup>) was calculated from self-reported height and weight, and  
26 categorised using the World Health Organisation (WHO) international classification for adults.  
27 Classifications are *underweight/normal weight* (<25), *overweight* (25-30), and *obese* (≥ 30) (World  
28 Health Organisation 2010). Additional questions pertained to: the use of food relief strategies (such  
29 as obtaining food through charity organisations), enrolment status (*full-time, part-time*), and  
30 compromised/suspended studies due to current financial situation (*yes, no*).

## 1 *Statistical Analyses*

2 Sample characteristics and the prevalence of food insecurity were summarised with descriptive  
3 statistics. Bivariate associations between food security status and other factors were determined  
4 with Chi-square tests. For factors significantly associated with food insecurity at the bivariate level,  
5 multivariate logistic regression was used to further investigate relationships and control for potential  
6 confounds.

## 7 *Covariates*

8 Potential confounding factors identified by bivariate analysis were: household structure, housing  
9 tenure, household income, income source, suspension of studies, BMI, perceived health, and  
10 number of servings of fruits and vegetables. Covariates that were associated with both food  
11 insecurity and its associated variables at the bivariate level were adjusted for during multivariate  
12 analyses. Consequently, each analysis investigating the association between food insecurity and a  
13 specific variable is uniquely adjusted for all relevant potential confounding variables. The  
14 covariates adjusted for in each analysis are summarised in the footnotes of Table 3.

15

## 16 **Results**

17 Of the students who received the direct email invitation, 810 responded resulting in a response rate  
18 of 6.7%. Table 2 shows the demographic characteristics and food security status of the sample.  
19 Relative to the overall student body in the two faculties, the sample over-represented the youngest  
20 age-group, females, domestic (Australian) students, and full-time students. The prevalence of food  
21 insecurity at a household level was approximately one in four (25.5%). Of these, 5.6% experienced  
22 very low food security, with another 2.3% experiencing very low food security among children.

## 23 **[Table 2 about here]**

24 Table 3 summarises the bivariate and multivariate associations between food insecurity,  
25 sociodemographic characteristics, and health and dietary factors. At the bivariate level, food  
26 insecurity was associated with household structure, housing tenure, household income, income  
27 source, previously suspended study due to financial difficulties, BMI, perceived general health, and  
28 fruit and vegetable intakes.

29 After adjustments for potential confounding variables, housing tenure, household income, income  
30 source, previous suspension of studies, perceived general health, and fruit and vegetable intakes

1 remained significantly associated with food insecurity. Compared to students who were living at  
2 home, those who boarded or rented were two or three times more likely to experience food  
3 insecurity respectively. Students in the lowest tertile for income were eighty percent more likely to  
4 experience food insecurity than their higher income counterparts. In regards to the source of  
5 income, students who participated in part-time work, obtained income support and received an  
6 equity based scholarship from the university were nearly four times more likely to report being food  
7 insecure compared to those who participate in full-time work.

8 Students who were food insecure were thirty-five percent less likely to consume adequate (more  
9 than two) serves of fruit per day, and fifty-five percent less likely to consume adequate (four or  
10 more) serves per day of vegetables, when compared to their food secure counterparts. Furthermore,  
11 students from food insecure households were twice as likely to report fair or poor general health and  
12 three times as likely to have deferred their studies due to financial difficulties.

### 13 **[Table 3 about here]**

14 Overall 5.6% of students had sought food relief from the university-sponsored food bank or other  
15 welfare agencies. The most popular form of food relief was the university sponsored food bank. The  
16 proportions of students who sought food relief were 14%, 24% and 15% for the categories of low  
17 food security, very low food security and very low food security among children respectively.

### 18 **Discussion**

19 This study investigated the prevalence of food insecurity among a convenience sample of students  
20 at an Australian University. While the sample over-represented females, younger age groups,  
21 domestic and full-time students, the prevalence was considerable, being 25%. Associated  
22 sociodemographic, dietary and health factors were also investigated. Findings indicated that low  
23 household income, reliance on income support or equity based scholarships, and renting or boarding  
24 as opposed to living at home were substantially associated with food insecurity. Furthermore, food  
25 insecurity had a strong inverse association with both fruit and vegetable intakes, and self-perceived  
26 general health. Among the present sample, the percentage and severity of food insecurity was  
27 similar across gender, age and study disciplines.

28 There is growing recognition that university students face increasing poverty and consequent  
29 difficulties in acquiring food. In 2010, the Australian National Union of Students held *Noodle Day*  
30 in recognition of the reliance on instant noodles as a mainstay of student diets (National Union of  
31 Students 2010). The growing anecdotal evidence is supported among this sample of students, with  
32 25% experiencing food insecurity within the last 12 months. Of those who were food insecure, over

1 seven percent experienced more severe levels of food insecurity (5.5% very low food security; 2%  
2 very low food security among children).

3 The prevalence reported in this study is double the prevalence of one in eight reported by  
4 Universities Australia (James, Bexley et al. 2007). It is also higher than that reported for the general  
5 population via the National Health Survey (5%) and comparable to the rates found among  
6 disadvantaged locales in Sydney (21%) (Australian Bureau of Statistics 2006) and Brisbane (24%)  
7 (Ramsey, Giskes et al. 2011), Australia. An increasing rate of food insecurity among university  
8 students is further supported by multiple studies which suggest that students are experiencing  
9 increasing levels of relative poverty. A contributing factor identified in these studies is the financial  
10 commitments related to tertiary education (Lloyd and Turale 2001, James, Bexley et al. 2007,  
11 Lewis, Dickson-Swift et al. 2007).

12 Consistent with this existing evidence, students with lower equivalent household incomes were  
13 more likely to report being food insecure (McIntyre, Connor et al. 2000, Bartfeld and Dunifon  
14 2006, Foley, Ward et al. 2009). Lower household incomes leave fewer financial resources for the  
15 acquisition of food, and thus increase the risk of food insecurity. Food insecurity was also higher  
16 among students who were not living with their parents. In Australia, university-sponsored  
17 accommodation is not as common as in the United States and the majority of students living outside  
18 of home need to find accommodation within the open rental market. It is likely that students living  
19 away from home receive less financial support from their parents, and require part-time work and/or  
20 government financial support to meet rent and other living expenses. It is also likely that these  
21 incomes are low in relation to the wage of full-time workers. Thus students living away from home,  
22 independent of parental income, are likely to be at higher risk of food insecurity. Among the  
23 present sample, students who were working part-time, receiving government benefits, and receiving  
24 support from the university were more likely to be food insecure.

25 Student income support, sourced from the government or the university's scholarship scheme, is  
26 used to cover tuition and other university related fees rather than daily necessities (James, Bexley et  
27 al. 2007). In the event that students rely on these allowances as their principle source of income,  
28 poverty status, and vulnerability to being food insecure increases. Reliance on these allowances  
29 may increase the need for paid employment, reducing the time available to study and prepare meals,  
30 resulting in a cycle of food insecurity. It has been acknowledged previously that the first step is  
31 increasing students' awareness of the financial resources available to them (Mangan, Hughes et al.  
32 2010). However, the relationship between income streams, expenditure, and food security warrants  
33 further investigation.



1 Regarding nutrition, findings among this sample indicated that food insecurity was associated with  
2 lower consumptions of fruits and vegetables. This is also consistent with the findings of previous  
3 studies (Hamelin, Habicht et al. 1999, James, Bexley et al. 2007, Chaparro, Zaghoul et al. 2009,  
4 National Union of Students 2010). Nutrient-dense fruits and vegetables are perceived as less  
5 satisfying, and less value for money compared to their energy-dense counterparts. Consequently, in  
6 an attempt to maximise perceived value for money, those from food insecure households are less  
7 likely to adhere to dietary recommendations (Drewnowski 2004, Drewnowski and Specter 2004,  
8 Scheier 2005). Students from food insecure households were twice as likely to rate their general  
9 health as only fair or poor. The association between food insecurity and poor health is likely to be a  
10 consequence of poor nutrition, stress associated with the inability to procure sufficient food, or  
11 both. Alternatively, poor general health may limit opportunities for participation in the workforce,  
12 resulting in lower household incomes and increased risk of experiencing food insecurity (Vozoris  
13 and Tarasuk 2003, Siefert, Heflin et al. 2004, Heflin, Siefert et al. 2005, Laraia, Siega-Riz et al.  
14 2006).

15 Financial difficulties have been identified as a key factor in student drop-out or stop-out (Peel,  
16 Powell et al. 2004). Of note in this research, is the increased risk of food insecure students to report  
17 their studies as being compromised as a result of financial difficulties. To our knowledge, no studies  
18 have investigated the potential of food insecurity to compromise university study and attendance,  
19 thus it is unknown exactly how this phenomenon may occur. Hypothetically, the stress,  
20 physiological changes, psychological changes and/or poor health that may arise from financial  
21 difficulty and the inability to access sufficient amounts of food may result in compromised study  
22 and the decision to defer university attendance until a later date. These findings warrant further  
23 investigation in order to aid in the development of effective strategies to improve student retention  
24 as well as university experiences and academic performance.

25 What is evident from this study is that even though students may be food insecure they are not all  
26 accessing food relief programs. In Australia there is no universal food safety net for individuals or  
27 families experiencing food insecurity, instead there is a growing reliance on charitable organisations  
28 to provide emergency food relief. Within the university sector, student bodies provide this service  
29 through the provision of a food pantry with food donated by staff and students. There are high  
30 levels of stigma attached with using food relief. The use of food banks can provide short term relief  
31 for clients providing little impetus for governing bodies to seek out longer term solutions (Tarasuk  
32 and Eakin 2003). University students in Australia tend to live within the general community which  
33 may be geographically distant to the institution they attend. As such there is a potential role for  
34 Universities to actively engage with government, and welfare agencies to: advocate for the

1 inclusion of food and nutrition needs within anti-poverty strategies; develop a systematic policy  
2 response for food price monitoring and modelling in relation to minimum wages and remoteness  
3 and to improve physical access to food outlets with reasonable prices. Universities have the  
4 potential to address these at a local institutional level.

5 Fundamentally food insecurity is about poverty, and as a result the higher education sector needs to  
6 re-evaluate income support. This means: advocating at a national level for an increase in the basic  
7 living stipend for tertiary students; reviewing and providing more affordable student housing (on  
8 campus housing is not necessarily available in all Australian universities); improved access to  
9 scholarships and funding at the local level for students in need; and ongoing monitoring and  
10 surveillance.

11 Food provisioning for students is another aspect to be addressed, with a focus on strategies that  
12 maintain human dignity, maximise access and affordability of healthy foods, and provide an  
13 environment which assists students in achieving the best possible physical and academic outcomes.  
14 Food banks, pantries and the distribution of rescued food are strategies commonly employed on  
15 many Australian University campuses. These provide a vital food safety net for students and could  
16 be strengthened with ongoing community-university partnerships. However, other strategies also  
17 need to be considered in order to meet the remit of maintaining human dignity. Such strategies  
18 could include: affordable, healthy campus food options; partnerships with food retailers off campus  
19 to provide subsidised healthy foods; development of food cooperatives that link in with community  
20 supported agriculture schemes; community gardens; adequate spaces for preparation of food; and  
21 enhancing food literacy. The development of meal plans supported by “food-cards” allowing  
22 access to options that could be absorbed by the Higher Education Contribution loan payable through  
23 taxation when students are employed.

24 By effectively addressing the food issue, these approaches may facilitate student retention, enhance  
25 academic achievement and contribute to short and long term social, physical and mental health.

26

## 27 **Limitations**

28 The low response rate is a limitation of this study. Low response rates for web-based surveys are an  
29 acknowledged limitation in the literature (van Gelder, Bretveld et al. 2010). Firstly, the low  
30 response rates resulted in a study sample that over-represented the youngest age-group, females,  
31 domestic (Australian) students, and full-time students relative to the overall student body in the  
32 Business and Health Faculties. It is well documented that females are more likely to respond to

1 health surveys (Korkeila, Suominen et al. 2001, Volken 2013). In over-representing the proportion  
2 of domestic students and females, it is possible that the prevalence of food insecurity in the sample  
3 was underestimated. An alternative view is that non-responders to a web-survey may be more likely  
4 to practice unhealthy behaviours potentially resulting in an underestimation of food insecurity  
5 among this sample (Kypri, Samaranayaka et al. 2011). It is also possible that the over-  
6 representation of younger age groups and full-time students may have resulted in an overestimation  
7 of the prevalence of food insecurity. Furthermore, the study sample was limited to two discipline  
8 groups although no association was found between study area and food security. Further studies  
9 among a more representative sample of university students, through a larger number of faculties are  
10 required to confirm these findings.

11 Secondly, this study relied on a cross-sectional design and was therefore unable to assess the  
12 temporal relationship of associations. All data collected were self-reported and there are known  
13 limitations with using this approach to data collection, specifically the potential for response bias.  
14 Income data were collected but expenditure data were not hence the proportion of income expended  
15 on food could not be ascertained. While there are limitations to the scope of this study the data from  
16 over eight hundred students provides lines of enquiry worthy of further investigation.

17

## 18 **Conclusion**

19 Food insecurity, which has potentially long term consequences on health and educational outcomes,  
20 is a significant issue among university students. Improving access, availability and affordability of  
21 food on campus needs to be given priority, with the development of innovative strategies that  
22 maintain human dignity. By identifying strategies that work to alleviate food insecurity, universities  
23 could be in a win-win situation; simultaneously improving retention rates, while at the same time  
24 empowering students to complete their degrees in a timely manner.

## 1 **References**

- 2 Australian Bureau of Statistics (1995). "National Nutrition Survey Users' Guide."
- 3 Australian Bureau of Statistics (2006). National Health Survey Users' Guide: 2004 - 2005.
- 4 Australian Bureau of Statistics (2006). National Health Survey: Summary of Results, Australia.  
5 Canberra, Australian Bureau of Statistics.
- 6 Australian Bureau of Statistics (2013). CensusAtSchool Australia.
- 7 Bartfeld, J. and R. Dunifon (2006). "State-level predictors of food insecurity among households  
8 with children." Journal of Policy Analysis and Management **25**(4): 921-942.
- 9 Bickel, G. W., M. Nord, C. Price, W. Hamilton and J. Cook (2000). Measuring food security in the  
10 United States: guide to measuring household food security. Washington D. C., United States  
11 Department of Agriculture.
- 12 Bickel, G. W., M. Nord, C. Price, W. L. Hamilton and J. Cook (2000). Guide to measuring  
13 household food security, United States Department of Agriculture.
- 14 Booth, S. and A. Smith (2001). "Food security and poverty in Australia: challenges for dietitians."  
15 Australian Journal of Nutrition & Dietetics **58**: 150-156.
- 16 Burns, C. (2004). A review of the literature describing the link between poverty, food insecurity and  
17 obesity with specific reference to Australia. Melbourne, VicHealth.
- 18 Chaparro, M. P., S. Zaghoul, S., P. Holck and J. Dobbs (2009). "Food insecurity prevalence among  
19 college students at the University of Hawai'i at Manoa." Public Health Nutrition **12**: 2097-2103.
- 20 Chavez, N., S. Telleen and e. al (2007). "Food insufficiency in urban Latino families." Journal of  
21 Immigrant Minority Health **9**: 197-204.
- 22 Drewnowski, A. (2004). "Obesity and the food environment: Dietary energy density and diet costs."  
23 American Journal of Preventative Medicine **27**: 154 - 162.
- 24 Drewnowski, A. and S. Specter (2004). "Poverty and obesity: the role of energy density and energy  
25 costs. ." The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition **49**: 6 - 16.
- 26 Foley, W., P. Ward, P. Carter, J. Coveney, G. Tsourtos and A. Taylor (2009). "An ecological  
27 analysis of factors associated with food insecurity in South Australia 2002 - 7." Public Health  
28 Nutrition **13**(2): 215 - 221.
- 29 Food and Agricultural Organisation (2010). The State of Food Insecurity in the World. Rome, Italy,  
30 FAO.
- 31 Food and Agriculture Organisation (2009). Declaration of the World Food Summit on Food  
32 Security. Rome, Italy, FAO.
- 33 Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (1996). Rome Declaration on World Food  
34 Security and World Food Summit Plan of Action. Rome, FAO.

1 Grant, S., G. Maccarone, T. Sagorski and K. Siiankoski (2004). Report on Student poverty: the  
2 lived experiences of undergraduate students attending the University of Queensland. Brisbane,  
3 Australia, University of Queensland.

4 Hamelin, A.-M., J.-P. Habicht and M. Beaudry (1999). "Food insecurity: consequences for the  
5 household and broader social implications." The Journal of Nutrition **129**: 525S-528S.

6 Heflin, C. M., K. Siefert and D. R. Williams (2005). "Food insufficiency and women's mental  
7 health: Findings from a 3-year panel of welfare recipients." Social Science & Medicine **61**(9): 1971-  
8 1982.

9 Huddleston-Casas, C., R. Charnigo and L. A. Simmons (2009). "Food insecurity and maternal  
10 depression in rural, low-income families: a longitudinal investigation." Public Health Nutrition  
11 **12**(8): 1133-1140.

12 Hughes, R., I. Serebryanikova, K. Donaldson and M. Leveritt (2011). "Student food insecurity: The  
13 skeleton in the university closet." Nutrition & Dietetics **68**(1): 27-32.

14 James, R., E. Bexley, M. Devlin and S. Marginson (2007). Australian University Student Finances  
15 2006: Final Report of a National Survey of Students in Public Universities. Canberra, Centre for the  
16 Study of Higher Education, Melbourne University.

17 Kirkpatrick, S. I. and V. Tarasuk (2008). "Food insecurity is associated with nutrient inadequacies  
18 among Canadian adults and adolescents." Journal of Nutrition **138**: 604-612.

19 Korkeila, K., S. Suominen, J. Ahvenainen, A. Ojanlatva, P. Rautava, H. Helenius and M.  
20 Koskenvuo (2001). "Non-response and related factors in a nation-wide health survey." European  
21 Journal of Epidemiology **17**(11): 991-999.

22 Kypri, K., A. Samaranayaka, J. Connor, J. D. Langley and B. Maclennan (2011). "Non-response  
23 bias in a web-based health behaviour survey of New Zealand tertiary students." Preventive  
24 Medicine **53**(4-5): 274-277.

25 Laraia, B. A., A. M. Siega-Riz, C. Gunderson and N. Dole (2006). "Psychosocial factors and  
26 socioeconomic indicators are associated with household food insecurity among pregnant women."  
27 The Journal Of Nutrition **136**(1): 177 - 182.

28 Lewis, C., V. Dickson-Swift, L. Talbot and P. Snow (2007). "Regional tertiary students and living  
29 away from home: A priceless experience that costs too much?" Social Issues **42**: 531-547.

30 Lloyd, D. and S. Turale (2001). "New conceptions of student neediness and directions for better  
31 responses." Australian Journal of Social Issues **35**: 251-265.

32 Mangan, J., A. Hughes and K. Slack (2010). "Student finance, information and decision making."  
33 Higher Education **60**(5): 459-472.

1 McIntyre, L., S. K. Connor and J. Warren (2000). "Child hunger in Canada: results of the 1994  
2 National Longitudinal Survey of Children and Youth." Canadian Medical Association Journal  
3 **163**(8): 961 - 965.

4 Monash Student Association (2008). Submission: Review of Australian Higher Education 2008 for  
5 Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations Review: Higher Education  
6 Bradley Review. Melbourne, Australia, Monash University

7 National Union of Students. (2010). "Noodle Day." Retrieved May 10th, 2010, from  
8 [http://www.unistudent.com.au/site/index.php?option=com\\_content&view=article&id=285:noodle-](http://www.unistudent.com.au/site/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=285:noodle-day-24th-of-march&catid=43:campaigns&Itemid=11)  
9 [day-24th-of-march&catid=43:campaigns&Itemid=11](http://www.unistudent.com.au/site/index.php?option=com_content&view=article&id=285:noodle-day-24th-of-march&catid=43:campaigns&Itemid=11).

10 Nolan, M., G. Rikard-Bell, M. Mohsin and M. Williams (2006). "Food insecurity in three socially  
11 disadvantaged localities in Sydney, Australia." Health Promotion Journal of Australia **17**: 247-254.

12 NSW Centre for Public Health Nutrition (2003). Food Security Options Paper: a planning  
13 framework and menu of options for policy and practice interventions. Sydney, University of  
14 Sydney.

15 Nunnally, J. C. (1978). Psychometric Theory. New York, McGraw-Hill.

16 Parker, L. (2007). "Food insecurity and obesity: a dual challenge for low-income families." Zero to  
17 Three **28**(1): 24.

18 Peel, M., S. Powell and M. Treacey (2004). "Student perspectives on temporary and permanent exit  
19 from university: a case study from Monash University." Journal of Higher Education Policy and  
20 Management **26**(2): 239-249.

21 Ramsey, R., K. Giskes, G. Turrell and D. Gallegos (2011). "Food insecurity among adults residing  
22 in disadvantaged urban areas: potential health and dietary consequences." Public Health Nutrition  
23 **15**(2): 227 - 237.

24 Scheier, L. M. (2005). "What is the hunger-obesity paradox?" Journal of the American Dietetic  
25 Association **105**(6): 883 - 886.

26 Seligman, H. K., A. B. Bindman and et al. (2007). "Food insecurity is associated with diabetes  
27 mellitus: Results from the national health examination and nutrition examination survey  
28 (NHANES) 1999-2002." Journal of General Internal Medicine **22**: 1018-1023.

29 Siefert, K., C. M. Heflin, M. E. Corcoran and D. R. Williams (2004). "Food Insufficiency and  
30 Physical and Mental Health in a Longitudinal Survey of Welfare Recipients." Journal of Health and  
31 Social Behaviour **45**(2): 171 - 186.

32 Tarasuk, V. and J. M. Eakin (2003). "Charitable food assistance as symbolic gesture: an  
33 ethnographic study of food banks in Ontario." Social Science and Medicine **56**: 1505-1515.

34 Tarasuk, V. and J. Vogt (2009). "Household food insecurity in Ontario." Canadian Journal of Public  
35 Health **100**(3): 184-188.

1 Townsend, M. S., J. Peerson, B. Love, C. Achterberg and S. P. Murphy (2001). "Food insecurity is  
2 positively related to overweight in women." The Journal of Nutrition **131**: 1738-1744.

3 van Gelder, M. M. H. J., R. W. Bretveld and N. Roeleveld (2010). "Web-based Questionnaires: The  
4 Future in Epidemiology?" American Journal of Epidemiology **172**(11): 1292-1298.

5 Volken, T. (2013). "Second-stage non-response in the Swiss health survey: determinants and bias in  
6 outcomes." BMC Public Health **13**(1): 167.

7 Vozoris, N. T. and V. S. Tarasuk (2003). "Household food insufficiency is associated with poorer  
8 health." The Journal Of Nutrition **133**(1): 120 - 126.

9 Ware, J., M. Kosinski and S. Keller (1996). " A 12-item short-form health survey: construction of  
10 scales and preliminary tests of reliability and validity." Medical Care **34**: 220 - 233.

11 Winicki, J. and K. Jemison (2003). "Food insecurity and hunger in the kindergarten classroom: its  
12 effect on learning and growth." Contemporary Economic Policy **21**: 145-157.

13 World Health Organisation. (2010). "Global Database on Body Mass Index - BMI classification."  
14 from [http://apps.who.int/bmi/index.jsp?introPage=intro\\_3.html](http://apps.who.int/bmi/index.jsp?introPage=intro_3.html).

15

16

17

