

Population-level trends in the distribution of body mass index in Canada, 2000-2014

Canadian body mass index trend 2000-2014

Alexandre Lebel^{1,2} – PhD, Fahad Razak^{3, 4, 5} – MD, PhD, Denis Hamel⁶ – MSc, Pierre Gagnon –
BSc¹ and SV Subramanian³ – PhD

Authors affiliations:

1- Quebec Heart and Lung Institute

2- Graduate School of Land Management and Regional Planning, Laval University

3- Department of Social and Behavioral Sciences, Harvard School of Public Health

4 – Li Ka Shing Knowledge Institute, St-Michael Hospital, University of Toronto

5 – Institute for Health Policy and Evaluation, University of Toronto

6- Quebec National Institute of Public Health

Correspondence: Alexandre Lebel, PhD, Address : École supérieure d'aménagement du territoire et de développement régional, Pavillon Félix-Antoine-Savard, bureau FAS-1644, 2325, allée des Bibliothèques, Université Laval, Québec (Québec) G1V 0A6 Phone : 418 656-2131, #2578 E-mail : alexandre.lebel@esad.ulaval.ca

Acknowledgements : This research was partly funded by the Fonds de recherche du Québec-Santé (FRQS), the Centre de recherche en aménagement et développement (CRAD) of the Laval University, and the Evaluation Platform on Obesity Prevention of the Quebec's Heart and Lung Institute.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

23 **ABSTRACT**

24 **OBJECTIVE:** Research studying population-level body mass index (BMI) trends document
25 increases in mean or prevalence of overweight/obese but less consideration has been given to
26 describing the changing distribution of BMI. The objective of this research was to perform a
27 detailed analysis of changes in the BMI distribution in Canada.

28 **DESIGN:** Using data from the CCHS (2000-2014), we analyzed distributional parameters of
29 BMI for 492,886 adults aged 25–64 y. We further stratified these analyses for women and men,
30 education level, and region of residence.

31 **RESULTS:** Mean BMI has increased for most subgroups of the Canadian population. Mean BMI
32 values were higher for men, while SD of the BMI distribution was systematically higher in
33 women. Increases in mean BMI were accompanied with increases in standard deviation (SD) of
34 BMI across cycles. Across survey cycles, the 95th percentile increased by more than 10-times the
35 5th percentile, showing a very unequal change between extreme values in the BMI distribution
36 over time. There was a relationship between SD with BMI, but these relations were generally not
37 different between educational categories and regions. This suggests that the growing inter-
38 individual inequalities (i.e. dispersion) in BMI were not solely attributable to socioeconomic and
39 demographic factors.

40 **CONCLUSIONS:** This study supports the hypothesis that the simultaneous increase in mean
41 BMI and SD of the BMI distribution are occurring and suggests the need to move beyond the
42 mean-centric paradigm when studying a complex public health phenomena such as population
43 change in BMI.

44 **Keywords:** Body mass index, trends, education, sex, Canada

45 INTRODUCTION

46 The worldwide increase in obesity and related chronic diseases is recognized to be driven in part
47 by global trade liberalization, economic growth and rapid urbanization.¹⁻³ These factors continue
48 to influence important changes in living environments, diets and lifestyles in ways that promote
49 positive energy balance.⁴ The rise in body mass index ($\text{BMI}=\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$) is often reported in the
50 research literature and in public health reporting as prevalence of specific BMI categories (e.g.
51 overweight or obese) or as mean change⁵. For example, the increase of the average BMI has been
52 $0.5 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^2$ per decade globally; this rate was shown to be faster in wealthier countries such as
53 USA and Canada where the rate of increase in BMI was over $1 \text{ kg}/\text{m}^2$ per decade.⁶

54 Research studying BMI trends in developed countries suggest that along with increase in overall
55 mean BMI, differential increases have occurred within sub-populations grouped by sex, race and
56 socioeconomic status (SES).⁷ Some studies revealed a slight negative inflection of the BMI
57 growth curve potentially due to a leveling-off of the rise in mean BMI within countries.⁸⁻¹⁰
58 However, most of these studies do not take account of the changing shape of the BMI distribution
59 with time, and assume that BMI increases at a proportional rate within all categories⁵. Few
60 studies have examined whether inequalities in weight gain are occurring within social groups or
61 specific segments of the population, which is a measure of inter-individual inequalities rather
62 than between-group inequalities.¹¹ An increasing body of work suggests that bringing a
63 distributional perspective to BMI changes may reveal important information about population
64 health^{12, 13} and may contribute to the discussion on the relative merits of the population strategy
65 compared with the high-risk strategy.¹⁴

66 Motivated by this concern, Krishna et al.¹³ showed that increase in mean BMI in the US was
67 correlated to the increase in the spread of the BMI distribution, suggesting that mean BMI cannot
68 fully describe population changes in BMI. Moreover, they showed a similar increase in
69 dispersion within socioeconomic and demographic groups, suggesting that growing inequalities
70 in BMI at the population level are not driven solely by individual factors. A recent analysis came
71 to similar conclusion in England.¹² In Canada, weight categories were observed to evolve at
72 different rate in the general adult population without taking into account individual determinants
73 of obesity.¹⁰ Other Canadian studies showed significant geographic variations in BMI above
74 individual determinants of obesity such as age, sex, education level and lifestyle indicators.¹⁵
75 Detailed sociospatial description of the BMI distributional changes in Canada over time may
76 contribute to prior reporting which often focused on point estimates (mean or prevalence),
77 geographic variation, or a specific period, and for which the dispersion is rarely the focus.^{10, 15, 16}
78 This work will also allow comparison to BMI distributional changes observed in Canada versus
79 other high income countries and among sub-groups of the population commonly associated with
80 BMI.^{12, 13}

81 The objective of this research was to perform a detailed analysis in the BMI distribution changes
82 in Canada by sex, education level and region of residence.

83 **METHODS**

84 **Data sources**

85 Data were retrieved from the Canadian Community Health Survey (CCHS), a multiple cross-
86 sectional health survey performed by Statistics Canada since the year 2000. The CCHS provides
87 self-reported information for a nationally representative sample of the non-institutionalized

88 civilian population 12 years and older in the 10 Canadian provinces, thereby excluding
89 territories.¹⁷ Data collection for the first three cycles was every two years: cycle 1.1(2000-2001),
90 cycle 2.1(2003), cycle 3.1(2005). Samples were approximately 130,000 Canadian individuals per
91 cycle. From the 4th cycle, the data collection was performed annually and included about 65,000
92 individuals per year. To standardize data collection, the annual investigations have been grouped
93 as follows: 2007-2008(cycle 4); 2009-2010(cycle 5); 2011-2012(cycle 6); 2013-2014(cycle 7).

94 **Study population and sample size**

95 We restricted the analyses on 25 to 64 years old in order to be consistent with previous work
96 using distributional change in BMI^{12, 13}. Moreover, because an artificial increase of BMI due to
97 shrinkage in stature in older adults,¹⁸ the use of BMI may not be appropriate to compare older
98 individuals with younger ones.¹⁹ We also excluded pregnant women, and individuals with
99 missing data on key variables of interest such as sex, BMI value, those living in households
100 where the highest education levels was not reported. We also excluded extreme BMI values that
101 are often considered to be as extreme outliers or reporting errors ($12 < \text{BMI} < 70 =$ less than 1%
102 observations)²⁰. The 25-64y subsample represents 59% of the CCHS sample for all cycles.
103 Exclusion criteria represent 8% of the subsample. CCHS sample weights were normalized to take
104 account of the sample plan and the exclusion criteria²¹. The final sample included 492,886
105 individuals (Table 1).

106 **Outcome**

107 The distribution of BMI was the outcome of interest. BMI is measured as a ratio of weight (kg) to
108 the square of height (m). The 5th and 95th percentiles, and the standard deviation (SD) of the BMI

109 distribution were used as outcomes to study changes in the shape of the distribution over time
110 relative to the median and the mean of BMI.

111 **Key independent variables**

112 Sex, age stratified into 5-y groups, and education level stratified into 4 categories based on
113 number of years at school and diploma attainment.²⁰ The “No diploma” category includes those
114 who had been less than 12 years at school or more than 12 years at school but had no diploma.
115 The “High school” category includes only those who successfully finished high school
116 (secondary-5 diploma or 13th year completed). The “College” category includes all those who
117 did some post-secondary, with or without a college diploma, including those who received a
118 university certificate (e.g. one year at the university). Finally the “Graduate studies” category
119 includes those with a baccalaureate diploma or higher.

120 The BMI and SD distributions trends were also disaggregated by province. Since Canadian
121 provinces greatly vary by population size, some of them were grouped into regions comparable to
122 other Canadian studies describing spatial dispersion of BMI.^{15, 16} Saskatchewan and Manitoba
123 was named the Prairie region, and Newfoundland, Prince-Edward-Island, New-Brunswick and
124 Nova-Scotia are known as the Atlantic provinces.

125 **Graphical analysis of patterns in BMI distributional changes in time**

126 We used quantile-quantile (QQ) plots to examine patterns of distributional change in BMI.^{13, 22} A
127 QQ plot was constructed by plotting percentiles of BMI from the most-recent survey (2013-2014)
128 against percentiles of BMI from the baseline survey (2000-2001). If there was no change in
129 distributions between the two survey cycles the points would lie on the line of the equality ($y =$
130 x). Points above the line represented increases in BMI at the same percentile in the most recent

131 year from baseline. QQ plots are particularly effective in presenting changes at the tails of
132 distributions.²³ We constructed QQ plots separately for women and men.

133 **Analysis of BMI distribution trends**

134 CCHS data from 2000 to 2014 were pooled to allow for the comparison of distributional changes
135 over time. We conducted analyses by sex, educational level and region of residence to
136 disaggregate distributional changes within subgroups of the population. Stratifying by sex, we
137 had two subgroups; stratifying by educational level and sex, we had eight subgroups; for the
138 stratification by region and sex, we had 12 subgroups.

139 To estimate the BMI distribution trends, ordinary least square (OLS) regressions were used for
140 modelling the mean, the SD, and the BMI value at the 5th and 95th percentiles. For analyses on the
141 entire sample, we adjusted BMI for age, sex and educational level. When stratifying by sex, by
142 sex and educational level, or by sex and region, we adjusted only for age. CCHS sample weights
143 were normalized for each subgroup analyses. Thus, each analysis was weighted according to the
144 subsample population size.

145 **Analysis of the relation of distributional parameters of BMI**

146 To fully characterize the distributions trends, we further analyzed the relationship between
147 centrality indicators of the BMI distributions (mean and median) predicting their dispersion
148 indicators (SD, and 5th and 95th percentiles). Changes in mean BMI were related to the SD of
149 BMI (spread of the distribution) and changes at the 5th and 95th percentiles of BMI (extremities or
150 tails of the distribution) were related to the median (50th percentile).

151 In this study, we utilized standard deviation (SD) and percentiles of the BMI distribution as
152 measures of inequality to assess the population level dispersion across individuals within groups.
153 The theoretical framework of our study is based on what Murray and Gakidou defined as “health
154 inequality”, which is variation in health status across individuals in a population^{24, 25}. This
155 approach aims to complete the measurement of social group inequalities by differences in mean
156 values or the prevalence of health outcomes between social groups more frequently used¹¹.

157 Fitted OLS regression lines for changes in these distributional parameters over time were plotted
158 for women and men as well as subgroups disaggregated by educational levels and the six
159 Canadian regions. For all models, units of analysis were survey cycles (two-year groups; n= 7
160 cycles). Model significance tests were conducted using *t-tests*; differences in changes between
161 categories were tested using *Wald* tests. All analyses were performed using SAS 9.4.

162 **RESULTS**

163 Table 1 shows a distribution of the CCHS pooled sample for 2000–2014 surveys. The final
164 sample comprised 492,886 Canadian adults proportionally distributed across age groups,
165 education level categories and regions.

166

167

168

169 **Table 1.** Distribution of pooled CCHS sample of adults aged 25-64 years old, 2000-2014

Variable	Women	Men
Sample size	242201,3	250684,7
Proportion	49,1%	50,9%
Age group		
25-29	11,6%	12,2%
30-34	11,4%	12,1%
35-39	13,1%	13,1%
40-44	14,6%	14,8%
45-49	14,1%	13,7%
50-54	13,7%	13,1%
55-59	11,8%	11,7%
60-64	9,7%	9,4%
Education		
No high school	11,3%	12,7%
High school	18,0%	16,9%
College	44,7%	44,6%
Graduate studies	26,0%	25,7%
Region		
Atlantic	7,5%	7,2%
Quebec	24,0%	24,0%
Ontario	38,9%	38,4%
Prairies	6,0%	6,2%
Alberta	10,2%	10,9%
British-Columbia	13,4%	13,2%
Cycle		
1 (2001-2002)	49,1%	50,9%
2 (2003-2004)	48,9%	51,1%
3 (2005-2006)	49,0%	51,0%
4 (2007-2008)	49,5%	50,5%
5 (2009-2010)	49,3%	50,7%
6 (2011-2012)	48,9%	51,1%
7 (2013-2014)	49,3%	50,7%

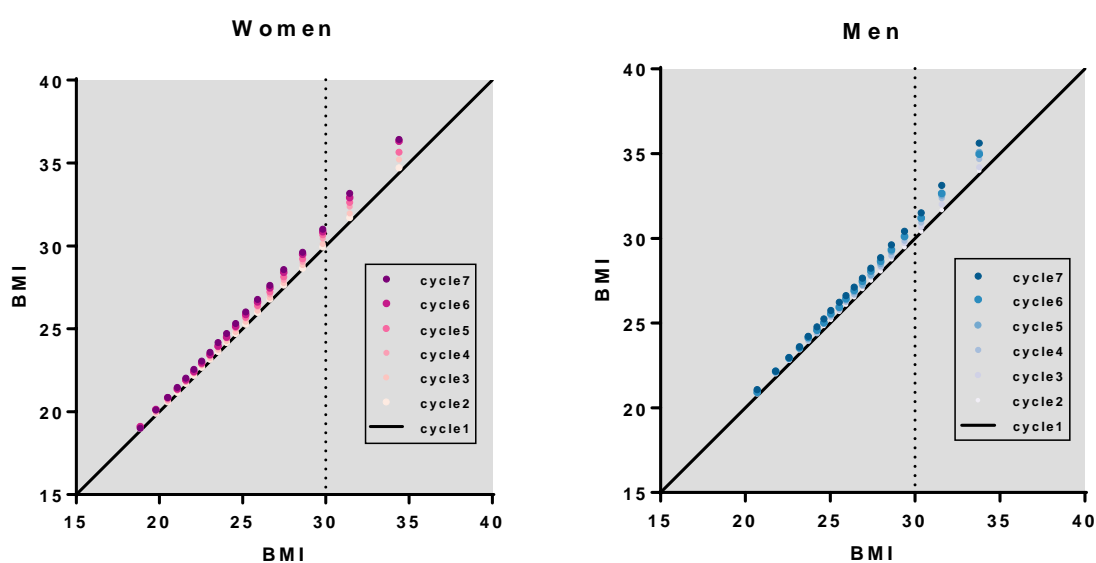
170

171

172

173 Graphical analysis of patterns of BMI distributional changes in Canada

174 Comparing the BMI mean at multiple points in the distribution revealed that lower BMI
 175 subgroups of the population had very little change in the mean BMI, while the higher BMI
 176 subgroups showed a substantial increase (Figure 1). For both, women and men, we observed a
 177 similar pattern indicating a progressive augmentation in the mean BMI for subgroups of the
 178 population having a higher mean BMI at base-line.



179

180 **Figure 1** - Evolution of the distribution of BMI for women and men in Canada, 2000-2014

181 Analysis of BMI distribution trends in Canada

182 Figure 2 shows the evolution of four distributional parameters of the BMI distribution for women
 183 and men: the mean BMI, its standard deviation (SD), the value at 5th and 95th percentile. These
 184 parameters were stratified by sex, by sex and education level, and by sex and the region of
 185 residence. Detailed results of the OLS parameter estimations are available in Supplement Table 1.

186 The mean, the SD and the value at 95th percentile significantly increased between 2000 and 2014
187 ($p < 0.05$), while the value at 5th percentile increased very slightly ($p < 0.10$). The 95th percentile
188 increased by 0.33 BMI/cycle which is more than 10 times than for the 5th percentile (0.029
189 BMI/cycle).

190 ***Stratification by sex*** – Mean BMI and SD increased significantly for women and men during the
191 15 year period. The increase in the 5th percentile was significant only for men. The 95th percentile
192 significantly increased for both, the increase was slightly higher for women (0.35 kg/m² per cycle
193 in women; 0.30 kg/m² per cycle in men), but no significant differences was observed between
194 women and men in the evolution of all four parameters.

195 ***Stratification by sex and education level***- We observed a significant increase in mean, SD and
196 95th percentile of BMI for women in all education level categories. There was a marked and
197 significant difference in the mean and the 95th percentile between educational levels, suggesting
198 the BMI distribution evolves differently for women according to their education level. The
199 increase in the 95th percentile was substantially less for women with graduate degrees versus all
200 other groups.

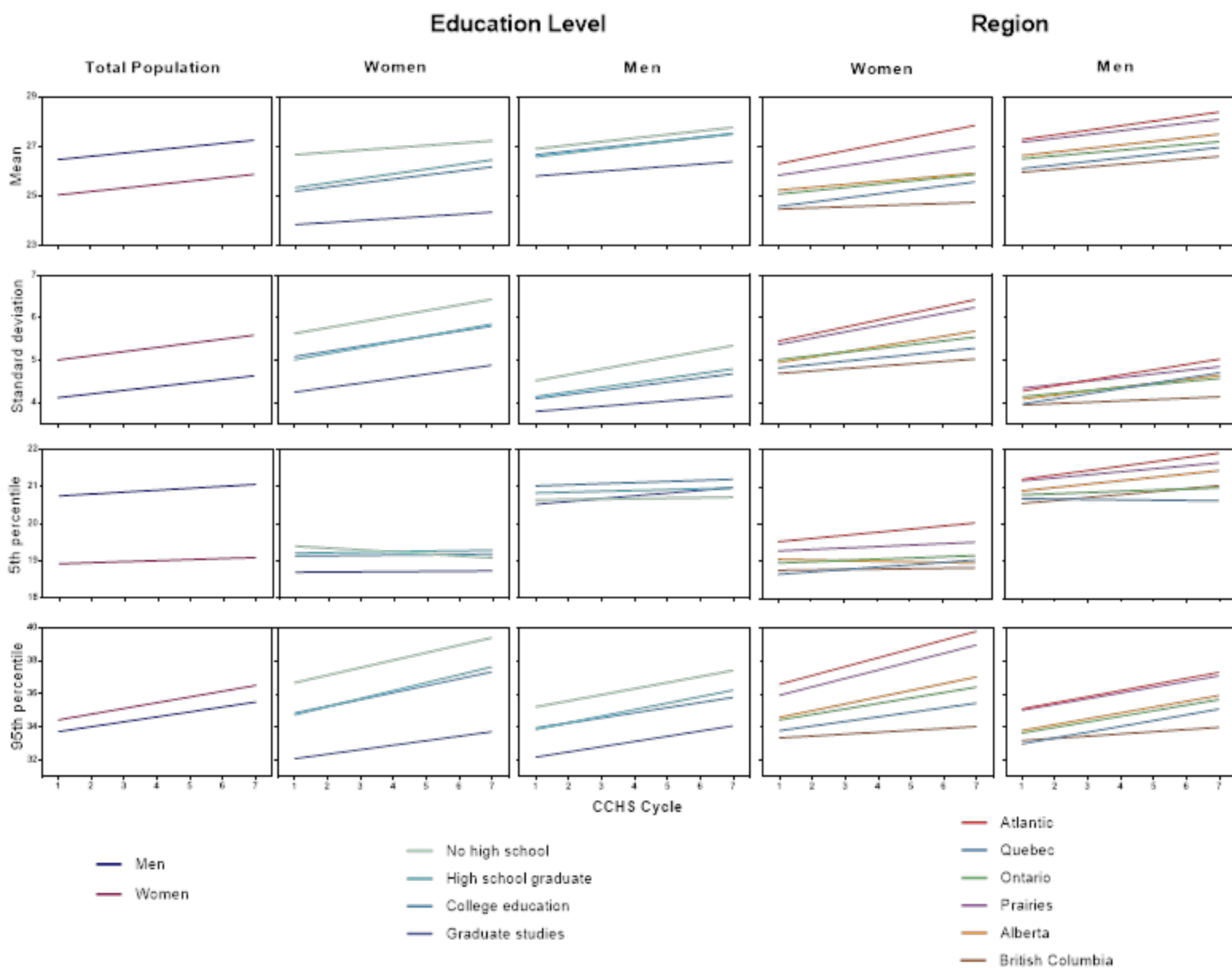
201 For men, although mean, SD and 95th percentile of the BMI distribution raised significantly for
202 all educational groups, no statistical difference was observed between them. At the 5th percentile,
203 the value of the SD tend to increase faster for men without high school degree than other
204 educational categories (p -value < 0.10) and increased at the same pace than the mean (0.14
205 BMI/cycle).

206 ***Stratification by sex and region of residence***- All four BMI distributional parameters increased
207 significantly for all Canadian regions in women, except for British-Columbia (BC) where no

208 increase was observed on any of the distributional parameters over 15 years, and in Alberta
209 where the value of the 5th percentile stayed about the same. Taken globally, the increase of the
210 mean, 5th and 95th percentile were statistically different between regions. This regional variation
211 was particularly spread for the mean and the 95th percentile suggesting that the change in the BMI
212 distribution among women varies according to the region of residence.

213 The mean, SD and 95th percentile also increased significantly for men in all Canadian regions.
214 The increase at the 5th percentile was also significant for most regions, and only Ontario and
215 Quebec showed a relative stable value during the study period. Although the between-region
216 variation was less pronounced than for women, the increase of all the four distributional
217 parameters was significantly different between the six Canadian regions.

218 Taken globally, Figure 2 shows that BMI was consistently higher for men over the 15-year
219 period, while the SD was systematically higher for women. The mean, SD and 95th percentile
220 increased for all educational levels for both sexes. Changes in these three parameters were also
221 observed in all Canadian regions, and where the increase in the 95th percentile was especially
222 pronounced for both sexes.



223 **Figure 2.** Evolution of BMI distributional parameters in CCHS from 2000 to 2014 for women
 224 and men and by education level and region of residence.

225 **Relative changes in distributional variables of BMI**

226 Figure 3 shows the relation between dispersion indicators and centrality indicators of the BMI
 227 distribution, the relation between the SD and the mean BMI, and the relation between the 5th and

228 95th percentiles and the median BMI. Detailed results of the OLS parameter estimations are
229 available in Supplement Table 2.

230 ***Stratification by sex*** – An increase in mean BMI was significantly associated with an increase
231 with the SD for both women and men. The value at the 5th percentile did not increase
232 significantly in women. However, the 95th percentile was estimated to rise by 3.27 kg/m² for an
233 increase of 1 kg/m² in the median. This is suggesting that an increase in the BMI median value is
234 driving an increase over three times more important at the 95th percentile of the distribution.
235 Since the BMI value at the 5th percentile did not change significantly, these observations
236 demonstrate that this subgroup of the population saw a flattening of its BMI distribution.

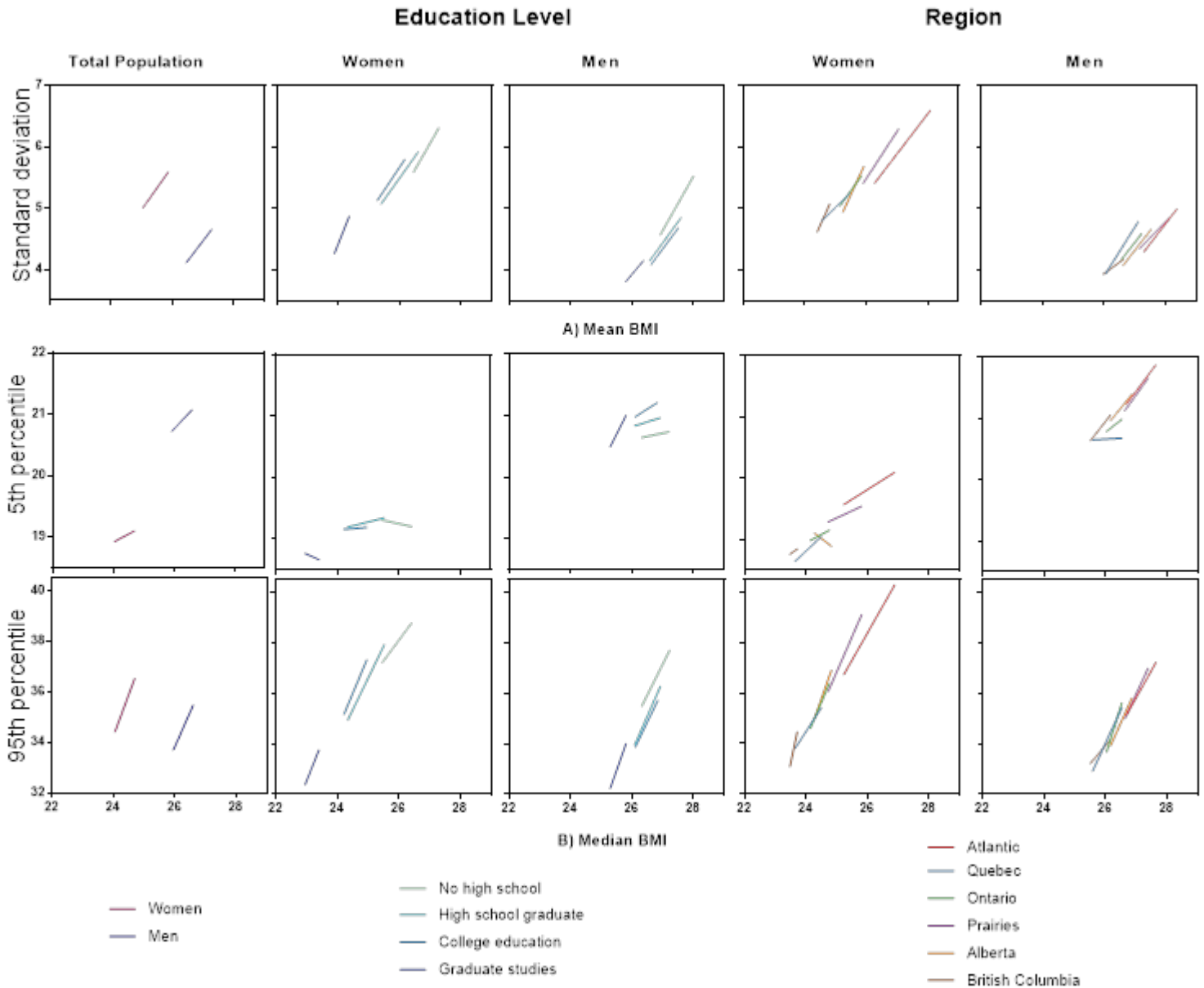
237 In men, there was a significant increase in the 5th percentile (0.52 kg/m²) as well as for the 95th
238 percentile (2.75 kg/m²), suggesting that the distribution curve is simultaneously flattening and
239 moving toward higher BMI values.

240 ***Stratification by sex and education level***- An increase in women's mean BMI was associated in
241 an increase of the SD in all educational categories, but no significant differences were observed
242 between education levels.

243 For men, we also observed that an increase of the mean BMI was associated with an increase in
244 SD in all educational categories, but without significant difference between them. No significant
245 relationship was observed between the 5th percentile and the median of the distribution except for
246 to most educated men. This subgroup showed an increase of the 5th percentile that almost match
247 the increase of the median (0.99 kg/m²), suggesting that the educated men BMI distribution is not
248 flattening and is globally moving toward higher BMI values.

249 ***Stratification by sex and regions***- The increase of the women's mean BMI significantly resulted
250 in an augmentation of the SD in all Canadian regions. The increase of the BMI dispersion was
251 particularly important among BC women (1.11 kg/m²) as compare to other regions such as
252 Quebec (0.48 kg/m²) or the Atlantic (0.65 kg/m²), resulting in a statistically significant difference
253 in the SD-BMI relationship between regions ($p=0.041$). Most regions showed a positive
254 relationship with an increase in the median BMI for the 95th percentiles, but no significant
255 difference was observed between regions.

256 For men, all associations with the SD with mean BMI showed a positive and significant
257 relationship, but no significant difference was observed between regions. A similar relationship
258 was observed between the 95th percentiles and the median, but again no significant difference
259 was observed between regions.



260 **Figure 3.** BMI distributional variables association with centrality indicators for men and women,
 261 by education level and region of residence.

262 **DISCUSSION**

263 This study presents a detailed analysis of trends in BMI variation in Canada by sex, education
 264 level and province of residence, and has two main findings. First, the mean BMI increased over
 265 time at different pace according to the education level or the geographic location, and was

266 generally accompanied by an increase in dispersion (SD, 5th and 95th percentiles range). Second,
267 most dispersion indicators were positively and significantly associated with centrality measures,
268 but taken globally, these relationships were not statistically different between women and men,
269 between education levels, and between Canadian regions. Finding an increase of the mean BMI
270 during the last 15 years was expected. However, the fact that this BMI increase goes along with
271 an increased dispersion which can actually predict the BMI increase, independently of sex,
272 education and the geographical context, has never been clearly demonstrated in Canada.

273 Previous population research linking individuals' BMI with socioeconomic status (SES) in high-
274 income countries showed that individuals with lower SES, those with lower educational
275 attainment or working in lower grade occupation, are more likely to have higher BMIs than
276 individuals in higher-SES groups.^{7, 26, 27} Longitudinal studies showed that both adults and
277 children of low SES are more likely to become obese than those in higher-SES groups, with
278 more-pronounced differences in women.^{28, 29} Our findings are in concordance with those
279 observations, but went slightly further by demonstrating that increase in BMI dispersion occurs in
280 most sub-groups of the population independently of SES.

281 Our results also support other studies suggesting the context where one lives could also have an
282 influence on obesity indicators.^{10, 15, 16, 30} In effect, the evolution of all four distributional
283 parameters, including the 5th percentile, vary significantly when the analyses are stratified by sex
284 and regions. These differences are partly driven by the observations in BC where no significant
285 trend was observed for women, and a much lower increase of the mean, SD and 95th percentile
286 for men. Paradoxically, the BMI of BC men in the 5th percentile increased more importantly than
287 other regions such as in Quebec or in Ontario. Underlying these specific sex-context trends
288 scenarios, we further observed there was about no significant differences between subgroups of

289 the population in the relationship between distributional parameters and the centrality measures
290 (mean and median). This is suggesting that the growing inter-individual inequalities (i.e.
291 dispersion) in BMI were not solely attributable to demographic, socioeconomic and geographic
292 factors in Canada. Said differently, the increasing BMI dispersion occurs in a similar way within
293 all sub-groups of the population and everywhere in Canada.

294 These observations confirm that the Canadian population is experiencing a similar phenomenon
295 that what was recently observed in the USA³¹ and the UK.¹² This systematic increase in
296 dispersion suggests that other causes such as unmeasured genetic, physiologic, or social
297 characteristics might be at work. The biological mechanism of fat distribution in the body differ
298 between women and men and may partly explain why the BMI distribution is more variable in
299 women.³² However, it is not clear if only the biological differences are involved in this variation
300 since social perception concerning weight status may also vary by gender (i.e. social roles), and
301 thus provide different daily opportunities and constraint regarding weight related behaviors.

302 Other theories have been proposed and discussed to explain increasing dispersion at the
303 individual level,³³⁻³⁵ and many suggest this may be the result of the interaction between the
304 individuals' genetic susceptibility and environment factors.^{36, 37} These new findings put forward
305 several unanswered questions. Why the mean BMI evolves sometimes differently between men
306 and women in the same region?³⁸ Could this be linked to provincial policies, social norms, or
307 local urban planning practices?³⁹ Which underlying mechanisms are at play in the increasing
308 dispersion we observed in all the population?⁴⁰ Are there unmeasured genetic characteristics
309 which make some individuals more vulnerable to some specific contextual characteristics?⁴¹
310 Beside presenting trends in BMI change and variation, this study contributes to an increasing
311 body of evidence that supports researchers and policy makers in moving away from a mean-

312 centric paradigm⁴⁰ when investigating important public health issues such as the obesity
313 epidemic. A better understanding of the underlying variability mechanisms in space and time
314 need to be considered in order to propose adapted interventions, rather than narrowing the
315 observations on point estimates such as mean or prevalence¹⁴.

316 The detailed analysis of trends in BMI variation in Canada had to deal with several challenges
317 and comprises some limitations. The self-reported BMI increased the uncertainty of
318 measurements, which may also differ between women and men. The correlation between
319 measured and self-reported BMI in Canada was estimated at 0.89⁴², we assumed this bias was
320 constant through the CCHS cycles, and we stratified analyses by sex to control for the gender
321 effect. Merging many survey cycles may bring some systematic biases due to a modification in
322 the sampling strategy or in the questionnaire. The large and consistent sample by cycle of the
323 CCHS is a strength of this research and reduces potential biases that could be induced by
324 methodological changes in time. We verified the BMI related questions were the same for all
325 cycles and we make sure the educational level was comparable in time and between regions by
326 creating the categories on the reported number of years at school and diploma attainment. The
327 number of subgroups that were analysed and compared may have induced some ambiguity in the
328 results. Nevertheless, we are confident the overall results strongly support our interpretation.

329

330 **CONCLUSION**

331 This study shows that the increase in mean BMI was associated with increased group and inter-
332 individual inequalities in weight gain in different social and demographic groups in. It
333 contributed to the understanding of this complex causal web behind rising BMI, by highlighting

334 the evolution of the BMI distribution and variation between sex, education level and the region of
335 residence. In turn, this leads to new relevant research questions that may help to address
336 underlying social forces that drive the obesity epidemic in high-income countries.

337 Although great effort were deployed to enhance healthy lifestyle and lower obesity rate in
338 Canada, limited success was achieved during the last decade.¹⁶ Beside presenting trends in BMI
339 change and variation, this study contributes to an increasing body of evidence that supports
340 researchers and policy makers in moving away from a mean-centric paradigm when investigating
341 important public health issues such as the obesity epidemic, and to also consider the variability of
342 the phenomena in order to propose adapted intervention.

343 REFERENCES

- 344 1. Hawkes, C., *Uneven dietary development: linking the policies and processes of globalization with*
 345 *the nutrition transition, obesity and diet-related chronic diseases*. *Globalization and health*, 2006.
 346 **2**(1): p. 4.
- 347 2. Kelly, B.B. and V. Fuster, *Promoting Cardiovascular Health in the Developing World:: A Critical*
 348 *Challenge to Achieve Global Health*. 2010: National Academies Press.
- 349 3. Popkin, B.M., L.S. Adair, and S.W. Ng, *Global nutrition transition and the pandemic of obesity in*
 350 *developing countries*. Vol. 70. 2012. 3-21.
- 351 4. Malik, V.S., W.C. Willett, and F.B. Hu, *Global obesity: trends, risk factors and policy implications*.
 352 *Nat Rev Endocrinol*, 2013. **9**(1): p. 13-27.
- 353 5. NCD-RisC, *Worldwide trends in body-mass index, underweight, overweight, and obesity from*
 354 *1975 to 2016: a pooled analysis of 2416 population-based measurement studies in 128.9 million*
 355 *children, adolescents, and adults*. *The Lancet*, 2017.
- 356 6. Finucane, M.M., G.A. Stevens, M.J. Cowan, G. Danaei, J.K. Lin, C.J. Paciorek, et al., *National,*
 357 *regional, and global trends in body-mass index since 1980: systematic analysis of health*
 358 *examination surveys and epidemiological studies with 960 country-years and 9.1 million*
 359 *participants*. *The Lancet*, 2011. **377**(9765): p. 557-567.
- 360 7. McLaren, L., *Socioeconomic Status and Obesity*. *Epidemiologic Reviews*, 2007. **29**(1): p. 29-48.
- 361 8. Flegal, K.M., M.D. Carroll, B.K. Kit, and C.L. Ogden, *Prevalence of Obesity and Trends in the*
 362 *Distribution of Body Mass Index Among US Adults, 1999-2010*. *JAMA: The Journal of the*
 363 *American Medical Association*, 2012. **307**(5): p. 491-497.
- 364 9. Krueger, P.M., K. Coleman-Minahan, and R.N. Rooks, *Race/ethnicity, nativity and trends in BMI*
 365 *among US adults*. *Obesity*, 2014. **22**(7): p. 1739-1746.
- 366 10. Twells, L.K., D.M. Gregory, J. Reddigan, and W.K. Midodzi, *Current and predicted prevalence of*
 367 *obesity in Canada: a trend analysis*. *Canadian Medical Association Open Access Journal*, 2014.
 368 **2**(1): p. E18-E26.
- 369 11. Vaezghasemi, M., F. Razak, N. Ng, and S. Subramanian, *Inter-individual inequality in BMI: An*
 370 *analysis of Indonesian Family Life Surveys (1993–2007)*. *SSM-Population Health*, 2016. **2**: p. 876-
 371 888.
- 372 12. Green, M., S. Subramanian, and F. Razak, *Population-level trends in the distribution of body mass*
 373 *index in England, 1992–2013*. *Journal of epidemiology and community health*, 2016: p. jech-
 374 2015-206468.
- 375 13. Krishna, A., F. Razak, A. Lebel, G.D. Smith, and S. Subramanian, *Trends in group inequalities and*
 376 *interindividual inequalities in BMI in the United States, 1993–2012*. *The American journal of*
 377 *clinical nutrition*, 2015. **101**(3): p. 598-605.
- 378 14. Razak, F., G.D. Smith, and S. Subramanian, *The idea of uniform change: is it time to revisit a*
 379 *central tenet of Rose's "Strategy of Preventive Medicine"?* *The American journal of clinical*
 380 *nutrition*, 2016. **104**(6): p. 1497-1507.
- 381 15. Dutton, D.J. and L. McLaren, *How important are determinants of obesity measured at the*
 382 *individual level for explaining geographic variation in body mass index distributions?*
 383 *Observational evidence from Canada using Quantile Regression and Blinder-Oaxaca*
 384 *Decomposition*. *Journal of epidemiology and community health*, 2016. **70**(4): p. 367-373.
- 385 16. Gotay, C.C., P.T. Katzmarzyk, I. Janssen, M.Y. Dawson, K. Aminoltejari, and N.L. Bartley, *Updating*
 386 *the Canadian obesity maps: an epidemic in progress*. *Can J Public Health*, 2013. **104**(1): p. e64-
 387 e68.

- 388 17. Statistics Canada. *Canadian Community health Survey*. 2012 2016-12-08]; Available from:
389 [http://www.statcan.gc.ca/cgi-](http://www.statcan.gc.ca/cgi-bin/imdb/p2SV.pl?Function=getSurvey&SDDS=3226&lang=en&db=imdb&adm=8&dis=2)
390 [bin/imdb/p2SV.pl?Function=getSurvey&SDDS=3226&lang=en&db=imdb&adm=8&dis=2](http://www.statcan.gc.ca/cgi-bin/imdb/p2SV.pl?Function=getSurvey&SDDS=3226&lang=en&db=imdb&adm=8&dis=2).
- 391 18. Sorkin, J.D., D.C. Muller, and R. Andres, *Longitudinal change in height of men and women:*
392 *implications for interpretation of the body mass index: the Baltimore Longitudinal Study of Aging.*
393 *American journal of epidemiology*, 1999. **150**(9): p. 969-977.
- 394 19. Ogden, C.L., S.Z. Yanovski, M.D. Carroll, and K.M. Flegal, *The epidemiology of obesity.*
395 *Gastroenterology*, 2007. **132**(6): p. 2087-2102.
- 396 20. Lebel, A., Y. Kestens, C. Clary, S. Bisset, and S. Subramanian, *Geographic Variability in the*
397 *Association between Socioeconomic Status and BMI in the USA and Canada.* *PLoS one*, 2014. **9**(6):
398 p. e99158.
- 399 21. Canada, S., *Canadian Community Health Survey (CCHS) Annual component: User guide 2010 and*
400 *2009-2010 Microdata files*. 2011, Statistics Canada: Ottawa. p. 100.
- 401 22. Wilk, M.B. and R. Gnanadesikan, *Probability plotting methods for the analysis of data.*
402 *Biometrika*, 1968. **55**(1): p. 1-17.
- 403 23. Wilk, M.B. and R. Gnanadesikan, *Probability plotting methods for the analysis for the analysis of*
404 *data.* *Biometrika*, 1968. **55**(1): p. 1-17.
- 405 24. Gakidou, E.E., C.J. Murray, and J. Frenk, *Defining and measuring health inequality: an approach*
406 *based on the distribution of health expectancy.* *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 2000.
407 **78**(1): p. 42-54.
- 408 25. Murray, C.J., E.E. Gakidou, and J. Frenk, *Health inequalities and social group differences: what*
409 *should we measure?* *Bulletin of the World Health Organization*, 1999. **77**(7): p. 537.
- 410 26. Silventoinen, K., T. Tatsuse, P. Martikainen, O. Rahkonen, E. Lahelma, M. Sekine, et al.,
411 *Occupational class differences in body mass index and weight gain in Japan and Finland.* *J*
412 *Epidemiol*, 2013. **23**(6): p. 443-50.
- 413 27. Neuman, M., I. Kawachi, S. Gortmaker, and S.V. Subramanian, *Urban-rural differences in BMI in*
414 *low- and middle-income countries: the role of socioeconomic status.* *Am J Clin Nutr*, 2013. **97**(2):
415 p. 428-36.
- 416 28. Baum, C.L., 2nd and C.J. Ruhm, *Age, socioeconomic status and obesity growth.* *J Health Econ*,
417 2009. **28**(3): p. 635-48.
- 418 29. Howe, L.D., K. Tilling, B. Galobardes, G.D. Smith, A.R. Ness, and D.A. Lawlor, *Socioeconomic*
419 *disparities in trajectories of adiposity across childhood.* *Int J Pediatr Obes*, 2011. **6**(2-2): p. e144-
420 53.
- 421 30. Lebel, A., Y. Kestens, C. Clary, S. Bisset, and S.V. Subramanian, *Geographic Variability in the*
422 *Association between Socioeconomic Status and BMI in the USA and Canada.* *PLoS ONE*, 2014.
423 **9**(6): p. e99158.
- 424 31. Krishna, A., F. Razak, A. Lebel, G.D. Smith, and S. Subramanian, *Trends in group inequalities and*
425 *interindividual inequalities in BMI in the United States, 1993–2012.* *The American Journal of*
426 *Clinical Nutrition*, 2015: p. ajcn. 100073.
- 427 32. Tchernof, A. and J.-P. Després, *Pathophysiology of human visceral obesity: an update.*
428 *Physiological reviews*, 2013. **93**(1): p. 359-404.
- 429 33. Jenkins, A.B. and L.V. Campbell, *Variation in genetic susceptibility drives increasing dispersion of*
430 *population BMI.* *The American journal of clinical nutrition*, 2015. **101**(6): p. 1308-1308.
- 431 34. Frohlich, K.L. and L. Potvin, *Transcending the Known in Public Health Practice.* *American Journal*
432 *of Public Health*, 2008. **98**(2).
- 433 35. Kivimäki, M., S. Stenholm, and I. Kawachi, *The widening BMI distribution in the United States.* *The*
434 *American journal of clinical nutrition*, 2015. **101**(6): p. 1307-1308.

- 435 36. Jenkins, A. and L.V. Campbell, *Future management of human obesity: understanding the*
436 *meaning of genetic susceptibility*. 2014.
- 437 37. Razak, F., G.D. Smith, A. Krishna, A. Lebel, and S. Subramanian, *Reply to M Kivimäki et al. and AB*
438 *Jenkins and LV Campbell*. The American journal of clinical nutrition, 2015. **101**(6): p. 1308-1309.
- 439 38. Glymour, M.M. and D. Spiegelman, *Evaluating public health interventions: 5. Causal inference in*
440 *public health research—do sex, race, and biological factors cause health outcomes?* American
441 journal of public health, 2017. **107**(1): p. 81-85.
- 442 39. Organization, W.H., *Obesity and inequities: Guidance for addressing inequities in overweight and*
443 *obesity*. Regional office for Europe. Copenhagen: World Health Organization. ISBN, 2014.
444 **978**(92): p. 890.
- 445 40. Merlo, J., *Contextual Influences on the Individual Life Course: Building a Research Framework for*
446 *Social Epidemiology*. Psychosocial Intervention, 2011. **20**(1): p. 109-118.
- 447 41. Ludwig, J., L. Sanbonmatsu, L. Gennetian, E. Adam, G.J. Duncan, L.F. Katz, et al., *Neighborhoods,*
448 *obesity, and diabetes—a randomized social experiment*. New England Journal of Medicine, 2011.
449 **365**(16): p. 1509-1519.
- 450 42. Shields, M., S.C. Gorber, I. Janssen, and M.S. Tremblay, *Bias in self-reported estimates of obesity*
451 *in Canadian health surveys: An update on correction equations for adults*. Health Reports, 2011.
452 **22**(3): p. 35-45.

453

454

455

456