

Effects Of Junk Food Market On Food Deserts

Posted on September 19, 2019

Abstract

This research proposal examines how the concentration and marketing of energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods interact with limited access to affordable, nutritious food in low-income communities. The original thesis describes food deserts as a direct result of excessive junk-food availability. That claim is too narrow. Low food access is produced through multiple processes, including supermarket location, household income, transportation, housing patterns, commercial investment, food prices, time constraints, and the density of convenience stores and fast-food outlets. An area can contain many food sellers yet still provide residents with limited practical access to fresh, culturally appropriate, and affordable food. The proposed study will therefore analyze both healthy-food constraints and the commercial environment that promotes less nutritious products. It will combine geographic mapping, store audits, price comparisons, resident surveys, and neighborhood-level socioeconomic data. The purpose is to identify which features of the local food environment are associated with purchasing constraints and diet-related risk without assuming that location alone determines individual behavior.

Topic of Research

The relationship between unhealthy-food marketing, retail food environments, and low access to affordable nutritious food in economically disadvantaged urban neighborhoods.

Revised Thesis Statement

The density and promotion of fast food, convenience foods, and sugar-sweetened products can intensify diet-related inequality in neighborhoods where affordable nutritious food, transportation, time, and household resources are limited; however, food deserts are not created by junk-food availability alone and should be studied as a form of infrastructural and economic exclusion.

Introduction

The phrase “food desert” is commonly used for places where residents have limited geographic access to supermarkets or other sources of nutritious food. The United States Department of Agriculture’s Food Access Research Atlas maps census tracts using measures related to income and distance from supermarkets. These indicators are useful for national comparison, but they do not

capture every dimension of food access. A store may be geographically close yet unaffordable. A household may live near a supermarket but lack safe walking routes, time, refrigeration, disability access, or reliable transportation. A small ethnic market may provide culturally important foods that a supermarket-distance measure overlooks.

At the same time, many low-income communities have abundant access to convenience stores, fast-food restaurants, and heavily advertised processed products. The presence of these outlets does not necessarily mean residents freely prefer unhealthy diets. Choices are made within constraints involving price, work schedules, caregiving, food preparation facilities, product shelf life, and targeted marketing. Research should therefore examine the complete retail environment rather than treating communities as empty “deserts” or blaming residents for decisions shaped by unequal options.

Problem Statement

Diet-related health inequalities are often explained through individual knowledge or self-control, while the surrounding food system receives less attention. In some neighborhoods, nutritious foods cost more, vary in quality, or require longer travel. Less nutritious foods may be inexpensive, aggressively promoted, available late at night, and designed for convenience. These conditions can make a technically available healthy option less practical than a nearby prepared meal.

The original problem statement assumes a one-way causal sequence: **junk food** becomes available, residents consume it, and a food desert emerges. A more plausible model is reciprocal. Historic disinvestment and low household purchasing power may discourage full-service retailers; a high density of convenience and fast-food businesses then shapes exposure and demand; retail patterns reinforce perceptions of the market; and health inequality develops through interaction with employment, housing, stress, and health-care access. The research problem is to identify how these factors operate together in the selected neighborhoods.

Purpose and Rationale

The study has four purposes. First, it will measure the geographic and economic accessibility of different food sources. Second, it will compare the availability, price, quality, and promotion of nutritious and less nutritious products. Third, it will document residents’ experiences rather than inferring access solely from maps. Fourth, it will evaluate policy options that address structural barriers without stigmatizing communities or specific cultural foods.

This research matters because an intervention based on an incorrect diagnosis may fail. Building a supermarket may not improve diets if prices are unaffordable, jobs are inaccessible to residents, or the store closes after weak sales. Nutrition education alone may not help a household without transportation or cooking facilities. Restricting one restaurant category may not address the cost and time pressures that make prepared food necessary. Evidence should guide a combination of retail,

transportation, income, planning, and public-health policy.

Conceptual Framework

Geographic Access

Geographic access concerns distance, travel time, transportation, street connectivity, and physical barriers. USDA measures often use distance to a supermarket as a tract-level indicator. The present study will retain this measure but supplement it with public-transit routes, vehicle access, walkability, disability access, and actual travel patterns. (United States Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service)

Economic Access

Economic access includes household income, food prices, benefit acceptance, package size, promotions, and the cost of transportation. A product that is present but unaffordable does not create meaningful access. Price analysis should compare a realistic basket of foods rather than isolated items.

Availability and Quality

Stores differ in the variety, freshness, cultural relevance, and consistency of their offerings. A small store may sell fruit but offer little variety or poor quality. Conversely, an ethnic grocery may provide affordable produce, legumes, grains, and spices that classification systems undercount. Store audits should record what residents can actually buy.

Marketing and Commercial Exposure

Marketing includes outdoor advertisements, checkout placement, price discounts, branded refrigerators, digital promotions, and the proportion of visible space devoted to particular products. Frequent exposure can shape norms and impulse purchases, especially among children and adolescents. The study will treat marketing as an environmental characteristic rather than proof that advertising directly causes an individual health outcome.

Literature Review

Food Access and Infrastructural Exclusion

Andrew Deener argues that food deserts should be understood through the organization of urban infrastructure and distribution rather than as a simple absence of stores. Retailers, wholesalers, land markets, transportation systems, and neighborhood inequality determine which products reach communities and at what cost. This framework supports an investigation of institutional decisions rather than a deficit narrative about residents. (Deener)

Rural and Urban Differences

Schafft, Jensen, and Hinrichs examined food deserts and overweight among schoolchildren in rural Pennsylvania. Rural distance creates different barriers from urban retail concentration. A household may travel many miles to a supermarket, while an urban household may live close in straight-line distance but face poor transit, unsafe routes, or high prices. The present study should therefore avoid generalizing findings across settings without accounting for geography. (Schafft et al.)

Food Environments and Obesity

Chen, Jaenicke, and Volpe found that food expenditure and household behavior complicate a direct relationship between supermarket distance and obesity. Health outcomes are influenced by many variables, including income, education, physical activity, stress, and health status. Cross-sectional associations do not prove that changing one store will change body weight. The proposed research will not use body mass index as the only outcome or describe obesity as a simple product of personal consumption. (Chen et al.)

Ethnic Food Stores

Bukenya's Huntsville case highlights the need to examine ethnic food retailers rather than equating "healthy food" exclusively with large supermarkets. Cultural relevance affects whether food is usable and desired. Classification should be based on product availability, quality, price, and community function rather than store format alone. (Bukenya)

Beyond the Food-Desert Label

Recent scholarship and policy discussion also use terms such as food apartheid, low food access, and food swamps. "Food swamp" emphasizes areas where unhealthy options greatly outnumber healthier ones. "Food apartheid" emphasizes political and racial processes rather than a naturally occurring desert. Each term has advantages and limitations. This study will use "low food access" for measurement and discuss residents' preferred terminology during qualitative research.

Research Questions

1. How do distance, travel time, transportation, and disability access affect where residents obtain food?
2. How do prices and product quality differ among supermarkets, small groceries, convenience stores, and prepared-food outlets?
3. What forms of marketing for energy-dense, nutrient-poor products are most visible in the selected neighborhoods?
4. How do residents describe the roles of cost, time, culture, safety, storage, and cooking facilities in food decisions?
5. Which neighborhood interventions do residents consider practical and desirable?

Methodology

Study Design

A mixed-methods comparative case study will examine several low-income neighborhoods and at least one comparison area with similar population density but stronger measured food access. Combining quantitative and qualitative evidence will reduce dependence on any single indicator.

Geographic Analysis

Food outlets will be geocoded and categorized after verification. Network travel time by walking, driving, and public transportation will be estimated rather than relying only on straight-line distance. USDA Food Access Research Atlas indicators will provide national context, while local parcel, transit, and demographic data will support finer analysis.

Store and Restaurant Audits

Researchers will record the availability and price of a standard basket containing fruits, vegetables, whole grains, dairy or alternatives, protein foods, and culturally relevant staples. Audits will document freshness, package size, benefit acceptance, checkout products, advertisements, and hours. Inter-rater training will be used so observers apply criteria consistently.

Resident Survey

A survey will ask where households shop, how they travel, how long trips take, what foods they cannot obtain, and which constraints matter most. Questions will include household composition,

work schedule, cooking facilities, food insecurity, and online grocery access. Sensitive demographic data will be optional and protected.

Interviews and Community Participation

Semi-structured interviews will explore experiences maps cannot show. Community members should help refine survey language, identify unlisted food sources, interpret findings, and design recommendations. Participants will be compensated for their time. This approach avoids treating residents merely as data sources.

Variables and Analysis

Independent environmental variables will include travel time, outlet density, product price, healthy-product variety, marketing density, transit access, and neighborhood socioeconomic characteristics. Outcomes will include reported difficulty obtaining food, household food insecurity, shopping patterns, perceived affordability, and selected dietary-frequency measures. The design will control for relevant household characteristics where possible.

Multivariable analysis can identify associations, while interview coding can explain mechanisms and contradictions. The study will avoid claiming causation from cross-sectional data. A longitudinal component or natural experiment would be needed to evaluate changes following a new store, transit route, benefit policy, or zoning intervention.

Ethical Considerations

Research on low-income communities can reinforce stigma if it depicts residents as uninformed or neighborhoods as deficient. Reports should describe structural conditions and community assets, including gardens, informal food exchange, ethnic markets, mutual aid, and local businesses. Individual addresses will not be published. Researchers should disclose funding and conflicts of interest, particularly if food companies, retailers, or development organizations are involved.

Expected Findings and Limitations

The study is expected to find that low food access is multidimensional. Some households may live beyond standard supermarket thresholds, while others may be close but constrained by price, mobility, or time. Convenience and fast-food outlets may be more visible and accessible, but their role will vary across residents. The research may also show that small stores provide overlooked healthy foods or that online delivery improves access only for households with digital payment and affordable fees.

Limitations include self-reported diet, changing store inventories, seasonal prices, classification uncertainty, and inability to infer causation. Neighborhood boundaries may not match residents' actual activity spaces. The study should present these limitations rather than translating every association into a policy conclusion.

Policy Implications

Potential interventions include transit improvements, incentives for stores that meet affordability and quality standards, support for existing small retailers, mobile markets, produce prescriptions, school meals, benefit expansion, community-owned grocery models, restrictions on predatory marketing to children, and investments in household income. The appropriate mix should follow local evidence. Attracting a large supermarket is only one possible strategy and should be evaluated for long-term viability and community impact.

Conclusion

The junk-food market can intensify inequality where nutritious food is difficult to obtain, but it is not the sole cause of food deserts. Food access emerges from infrastructure, prices, transportation, commercial investment, marketing, household resources, and historical patterns of segregation and disinvestment. A useful study must therefore measure what food is available, whether it is affordable and culturally usable, and how residents navigate their environment.

The proposed mixed-methods design improves the original research plan by replacing a predetermined causal conclusion with testable questions. Its ultimate goal is not merely to map deficits but to identify interventions that expand practical, dignified, and community-defined access to nutritious food.

Works Cited

Bukenya, James O. "The Importance of Ethnic Food Stores in Identifying Food Deserts: A Case Study of Huntsville, Alabama." *Journal of Food Distribution Research*, vol. 49, no. 1, 2018.

Chen, Danhong, Edward C. Jaenicke, and Richard J. Volpe. "Food Environments and Obesity: Household Diet Expenditure versus Food Deserts." *American Journal of Public Health*, vol. 106, no. 5, 2016, pp. 881-888.

Deener, Andrew. "The Origins of the Food Desert: Urban Inequality as Infrastructural Exclusion." *Social Forces*, vol. 95, no. 3, 2017, pp. 1285-1309.

Schafft, Kai A., Eric B. Jensen, and C. Clare Hinrichs. "Food Deserts and Overweight Schoolchildren: Evidence from Pennsylvania." *Rural Sociology*, vol. 74, no. 2, 2009, pp. 153-177.

United States Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service. *Food Access Research Atlas*. USDA, 2026.