

# Revisiting Food Deserts in North Carolina, USA, Using a Cloud-Based Real-Time Quality Assurance/Quality Control (QA/QC) Tool

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**Keywords:** Food Environment, Geographic Information Systems, Quality Assurance, Quality Control, Spatial Data Quality.


**Abstract:** In the study of the food environment, little research has explored the spatial data quality of store locations which impacts the spatial representation of the food environment. In this paper, we created a cloud-based tool that can inspect, edit and create new supermarkets in real-time which changes the complexion of the food environment. Comparisons were made between data supplied between a CAB (Commercially Available Business) Database and those corrected after field verification. Results showed differences between the food environment using the data provided and the actual food environment after QA/QC, with a general underestimation of those who are truly food needy due to errors of temporal accuracy, misattribution and geocoding in the original data provided.


## 1 INTRODUCTION

An underlying theme of underrepresented and marginalized communities across the United States is differential access to community amenities. In particular, healthy food is one of these amenities to which these communities have poorer access. Organizations such as the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA) has utilized the term food desert to highlight regions within low-income communities located far from fresh and healthy sources of food in the form of supermarkets and supercenters. These Low Income/Low Access (LILA) regions can visualized through the USDA Food Access Atlas (<https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/food-access-research-atlas/go-to-the-atlas/>) at the census tract level. Furthermore, data which compose these maps include more than 140 attributes across 72,000 census tracts that can be downloaded, analyzed and mapped within the confines of a GIS (Geographic Information System).

The USDA helps determine access by its physical proximity to supermarkets using geographic measurements. The data on which this proximity is measured changes on a regular basis due to the

closing and opening of new stores, and is further exacerbated by the fidelity of those data on which measurements are based. An understudied tenet of food environment research is an overall assessment and evaluation of the spatial data quality, in this case the supermarkets store data used to measure this food access. This assessment has been easier with custom phone applications that can access data stored in the cloud to inspect, verify, edit and re-attribute the spatial data used to represent supermarkets and the larger food environment in general. These errors of omission and commission can have a distinct impact on these regions highlighted as Low Access by the USDA Food Access Atlas and those regions that are truly low access using the most current data. In this study, supermarkets for a 5-county region in North Carolina, United States, are brought into a custom field application that can explore various accuracies (horizontal, temporal, attribute) of existing data to answer the question of **to what extent do real-time QA/QC techniques impact the spatial and statistical representation of the food environment.** After a comprehensive QA/QC is run on the data using this phone application, newly-analyzed Low Access (LA) and then LILA regions using these

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corrected data are compared to LA and LILA data utilized using the USDA Food Access Atlas. Using statistical and geostatistical tools, the level of agreement and disagreement between USDA Food Access maps and maps using corrected data will be measured to explore if, where and how these differences exist across the study area.

## 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Spatial data quality is the result of frameworks designed to ensure newly created data are correct (Quality Assurance) while identifying existing data that are incorrect (Quality Control). Although the QA/QC of spatial data within a GIS is required as per Federal Geographic Data Committee (FGDC) standards and various organizations have processes in place to ensure the various accuracies are adhered to that best fit their needs, resources and limitations, it has not been at the forefront of GIS research when compared to other facets of Geographic Information Science. GIS data, subsequent analysis and products of this analysis such as decisions and maps are only as good as the data on which it is based. Newcomer and Szajgin (1984) and later Heuvelink (1998) showed inaccuracies in original GIS data exacerbated data quality throughout the life of a GIS project, culminating in unreliable analysis and maps.

QA/QC procedures have been applied to digital data related to the food environment. Liese et al. (2010) and Auchincloss et al. (2012) explored the quality of purchased retail location data, referred to as Commercially Available Business (CAB) data. These CAB data serve as a baseline for data QA/QCed in the field in this project. Other studies by Mendez et al. (2016), Rummo et al. (2015), Han et al. (2012) and Hosler and Dharssi (2010) were performed for Pittsburgh Durham, Chicago, Albany and respectively. All cited some degree of difference between CAB data versus field-based and automated methods. Sharkey and Horel (2009) verified the addresses of food sources provided from independent

sources such as Internet telephone directories, telephone directories and the Texas Department of Agriculture. They found 18.9% of food sources provided via this public data could not be verified. Furthermore, they found 35.7% of food sources within their study area were only identified through ground-truthing, representing errors of omission. In another study by Lake et al. (2012), field verification was performed on 21 different food source categories (Restaurant, Pub/Bar, etc.) across different permutations of socio-economic status (SES) and population density (urban, rural, mixed). For the rural low SES, more than one third (36%) of food sources provided could not be found in the field (i.e., error of commission). Not only is access and availability compromised in marginalized areas, but the quality of data as well. In North Carolina, Vilme et al. (2020) complemented CAB data developed by ReferenceUSA (the predecessor to DataAxle) with in situ verification through Google or the facility’s web site. They further utilized the Jackson Heath Study Retail Store classification to derive favorable, unfavorable and unknown categories from 15 different classifications. These categories will be important in this study as census tracts will be denoted as LA vs. not LA or LILA vs. not LILA based on proximity measures provided by the USDA and then recreated using QA/QCed data.

## 3 STUDY AREA

As part of a larger research project into large-scale data quality issues across North Carolina’s food environment, a 5-county study area in central North Carolina was created across the counties of Alamance, Chatham, Orange, Person and Yancey Counties. This study area was selected due to its 1) proximity to the author’s host institution so field QA/QC could be performed 2) an area that has a manageable number of supermarkets that could be handled within the scope of this project and 3) the combination of rural to suburban and urban regions in

Table 1: Summary of Study Area Using USDA Food Access Atlas Data.

	Urban	Non-Urban	Study Area
# Census Tracts	46	44	90
Total Population	204,064	207,556	411,620
% Minority (Non-White)	31.7	21.5	26.7
Median Family Income	\$79,003	\$79,905	\$79,449
Poverty Rate	19.4	11.5	15.5
% Kids (Under age 17)	21.6	22.1	21.9
% Seniors (Over age 65)	13.1	14.7	13.9
% Group Quarters	6.3	1.53	3.96

the area. This includes the cities of Burlington (2020 pop. 57,303) and Chapel Hill (61,960). Utilizing 2010 census data via the USDA Food Access Atlas, the study area’s 90 census tracts contain a 2010 population of 411,620. Tracts range in size of .26 sq. miles (.67 sq. km) in Chapel Hill to 160.82 square miles (416.51 sq. km) in rural Chatham County. Populations range from 1,450 to 8,760 per census tract. Within these data provided via the Food Access Atlas is a flag (1 = yes, 0 = no) to denote if a census tract is urban, as well as information about income, food availability, and related socio-economic factors such as age, race, incomes and ethnicity in a spreadsheet format across more than 140 attributes. Table 1 highlights the composition for the study area.

#### 4 DATA AND METHODS

Data from the USDA Food Access Atlas were downloaded, brought into a GIS and mapped for the study area. Also included in the aforementioned socio-economic-demographic variables (Table 1) are metrics related to those census tracts that are Low Access (LA) and Low Income/Low Access (LIIA). According to the USDA (<https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/food-access-research-atlas/documentation/>), LA is defined as “a tract with at least 500 people, or 33 percent of the population, living more than 1 mile (urban areas) or 10 miles (rural areas) from the nearest supermarket.” LIIA are defined to be census tracts that satisfy both Low Access (LA) and Low Income (LI), which represent tracts where the “annual family income at or below 200 percent of the Federal poverty threshold for family size.”

Table 2: Information about study area using USDA Food Access Data.

	Urban	Rural	Total
# LA Tracts	29	6	35
# LIIA Tracts	14	4	18
Population LA	130,870	26,642	157,512
Population LIIA	66,262	18,372	84,634

##### 4.1 Development of QA/QC Tool

Data related to supermarkets were utilized by point data provided by DataAxle. These data were queried using their NAICS (North American Industry Classification Standard) code which classifies business establishments by their primary economic activity. According to the database, there are 104

stores classified as supermarkets within the study area. These data were exported to the cloud that could be accessed using desktop applications such as ArcGIS Pro, online applications such as ArcGIS Online as well as online and smartphone applications such as Esri Field Maps. These field maps have advantages over applications such as Survey123 which create data from scratch in that data can be added to the existing database or edited from data brought in by the data creator. Furthermore, additional fields can be added to data where Survey123 does not allow for those on-the-fly changes after features have been created. This application has simple drop-down menus to answer questions related to temporal, attribute and positional accuracy of the data in question. It also allows images of the site to be captured and attached to data records.

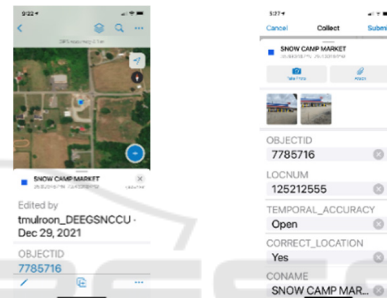


Figure 1: Esri Field Maps Application.

A Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) document was developed to maintain consistency in data collection. Data QA/QC took place over the Spring of 2022 using a combination of actual field visits complemented with virtual field visits using GoogleMaps and NOneMap data where updated imagery were available using the latest imagery available through the North Carolina Department of Transportation imagery service (<https://services.nconemap.gov/secure/rest/services>).

##### 4.2 Creation of Low Access Tracts

After QA/QC, 84 supermarkets were identified within in the study area. From these 84 supermarkets, GIS calculations were performed on the data using the same methodology as the USDA Food Access calculations. The methodology used was 1) the study area is divided into ½ kilometer square grids and then 2) the distance to the nearest supermarket is measured from the center of the grid to the center of the grid with the nearest supermarket. The distances were then grouped at the census tract level which contains estimates on population. This was done using the

Create *Fishnet* function to create 37,816 grids within the study area. The *Near* function was used to calculate the distance between grid centroids and the center of the grid within the nearest supermarket. Lastly, the *Spatial Join* function was used to group grid centroids with the calculated distance within each census tract. Urban tracts whose average distance was more than 1 mile was calculated as LA while rural tracts whose distance was more than 10 miles was denoted as LA. Those tracts that are now denoted as LA were compared to the existing LI Tracts from the USDA tract-level data to delineate new LILA tracts.

### 4.3 Comparison of USDA Map and Newly Created Low Access Map

LA census tracts according to the USDA (Figure 2) and then using the new calculations after QA/QC (Figure 3) were created. Maps of LILA tracts according to the USDA Food Access Atlas and their QA/QCed counterparts were also created.

$$J(A, B) = \frac{A \cap B}{A \cup B}$$

When compared visually, they have tremendous aesthetic value, but little computational value. In response, the Jaccard Index or Jaccard Similarity Index is a statistic for gauging the similarity and diversity of sample sets. The Jaccard Index has been traditionally used in object detection in digital images and even raster GIS data. In this research, this metric is useful since LA and LILA are Boolean values (1 or 0) instead of continuous numeric values where regression or other statistical measures could be used. It measures the intersection (values that are common between two different methods) when compared to the union (all values between different methods) for all 90 census tracts within the study area. The Jaccard Index ranges between 0 (complete dissimilarity) to 1 (complete similarity). Another test for similarity that can be computed within the confines of a GIS is McNemar’s test, which creates a  $\chi^2$  statistic and accompanying p-value for statistical significance on paired nominal data, in this case true (1) and false (0) values created for Low Access and LILA between the before and after QA/QC datasets. It expands upon the Jaccard Index by breaking down the individual complements (tracts that do not intersect) from the Jaccard Index calculation and uses a contingency table to determine where two attributes/maps for the same group of enumeration units disagree with each other with statistical significance.

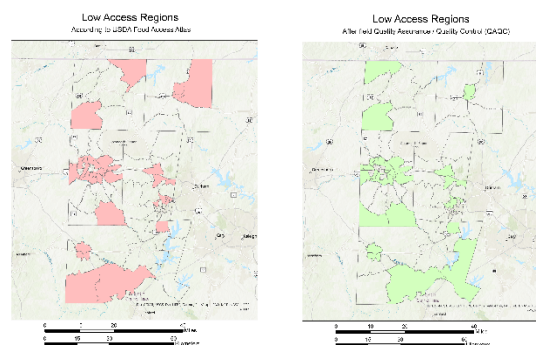


Figure 2: Low Access Tracts as per USDA Food Access Atlas. Figure 3: Low Access Tracts after QA/QC.

Practically applied, the visualization of these changes can be articulated through a drive-time map created using data from before QA/QC and after QA/QC. While it is difficult to determine which points were used in the determination of the USDA’s Food Access database, the before and after supermarket stores taken from DataAxle data were utilized using the *Network Analyst* tool’s function of *Service Area* to create a polygon representing a 10-minute drive-time from supermarkets and then compared based on census block group and block level data taken from the census. Not only can these drive-time maps be visualized, but the impacted populations calculated while summarizing the types of errors taken.

## 5 RESULTS

Table 3 highlights a summary of both the number of census tracts and population considered to be LA and LILA from before QA/QC (Using USDA Food Access Atlas) and after QA/QC using data checked in the field. While the number of census tracts impacted remain almost the same, the reconfiguration of these census tracts highlights a 2.71% decrease in LA populations between USDA Food Access values and those calculated after QA/QC. Furthermore, the population denoted as LILA according to the USDA Food Access Atlas is 11.84% more than LILA counterparts after QA/QC. Overall, given the decreased number of supermarkets found in the field after QA/QC (84) versus the original number of supermarkets (104), there is a general overestimation of food needy (both Low Access and LILA) regions (except for LILA urban) using the USDA Food Access when compared to data after QA/QC at this scale.

Table 3: Summary of Results from Before and After QA/QC.

	Before QA/QC			After QA/QC		
	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Total
# Low Access Tracts	29	6	35	29	6	35
# LILA Tracts	14	4	18	15	1	16
Population of Low Access Tracts	107,336	37,360	144,696	132,136	24,920	157,056
Population of LILA Tracts	67,331	18,581	85,912	70,484	5,547	76,031

## 5.1 Jaccard Index

As applied to the USDA LA tracts against the newly-created LA tracts using the methods described above results in a Jaccard Index of .867. In the 12 cases of disagreement between the two sets, six were the result of previous LA regions that were no longer Low Access after QA/QC. The other six were denoted as Low Access after QA/QC after not being identified as Low Access in the original USDA data. Calculating the Jaccard Index for LILA results in a value of .933. In cases of disagreement, two census tracts not identified as LILA in USDA data were denoted as LILA after QA/QC while four census tracts lost their status of LILA after QA/QC.

## 5.2 McNemar's Test

McNemar's test highlighted 12 disagreements from before QA/QC. Two separate McNemar' tests were run on the Low Access and LILA variables. Tests of statistical significance calculate a  $\chi^2$  statistics as the probability of the each outcome occurring independent of each other through its discordants. With a  $\chi^2$  statistic value of .083 and p-value of .772, there is not enough evidence to support a difference in marginal probabilities for LA between the original data and QA/QCed data. For LILA, the  $\chi^2$  statistic value is .167 resulting in a p-value of .683. As a result, there is not enough evidence to show significant differences in the number and probability of LA and LILA regions within the study area before and after QA/QC.

## 5.3 Drive Time Map

Drive-time maps visualize the practical challenges of accessing healthy food and providing an overall complexion of the food environment understandable to all level of users. Using Esri's *Network Analyst* tool, a 10-minute drive time was calculated around the 104 stores (Figure 4) that existed in the original database and then the 84 stores resulting after QA/QC as shown in Figure 5.

To increase granularity, block group level data

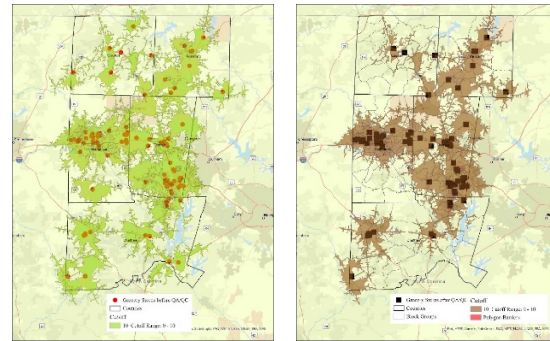


Figure 4: 10-minute drive time to supermarkets of data before QA/QC. Figure 5: 10-minute drive time to supermarkets of data after QA/QC.

were agglomerated from the 267 block groups and 11,138 blocks composing the 90 census tracts within the study area. Using the *Select by Location* and *Statistics* tools, information is highlighted about the populations within 1 mile, 5 miles and the 10-minute drivetime from supermarkets before and after QA/QC. As highlighted in the results in Table 4, the population calculated to be within a 5-mile distance of supermarkets using non-QA/QCed data is approximately 7.0% more than its QA/QCed counterparts. The difference for a 10-minute drive time map (Figure 5) represents a 7.22%

Table 4: Summary of various buffers and drive-times before and after QA/QC of supermarkets.

	Before QA/QC	After QA/QC
# of supermarkets	104	84
Population within 1 mile of supermarket*	219,944	195,380
Population within 5 miles of supermarket*	372,051	347,713
Population outside 5 miles of supermarket*	39,697	64,035
Population within 10-minute drive of supermarket*	384,373	358,481
Population outside 10-minute drive of supermarket*	27,375	53,267

\* Based on block level data

overestimation of non-QA/QCed data versus its QA/QCed counterparts. As a result, more than 26,000 people within the study area are estimated to be living within a 10-minute drive of a supermarket using one set of data who do not live within this threshold using field-checked data. CAB data grossly overestimates food-secure populations and underestimates the number of people living in food-needy regions by almost half (27,375 vs. 53,267) based on supermarket data that exists in the field.

## 6 DISCUSSION

While this study is meant to estimate the food environment and simulate those methods from the USDA Food Access Atlas to create comparative statistics through the lens of supermarkets, supermarkets do not represent the entire food environment. While food can be found in such disparate places such as restaurants, laundromats and home improvement stores, stores such as Dollar General, not represented in supermarket data, are gaining a foothold in areas overlooked by major supermarkets and grocery stores. Many of these Dollar General stores provide staples such as vegetables, fruits, milks and eggs that are indicative of supermarkets and grocery stores and a healthy food environment.

Between 2009 and 2021, just the number of Dollar General stores have more than doubled (17 to 37) in the study area and 12 out of the 35 census tracts denoted as LILA within study area contain a Dollar General. Future food environment studies should include stores such as Dollar General which provide alternatives to supermarkets and smaller grocery stores that are also affordable.

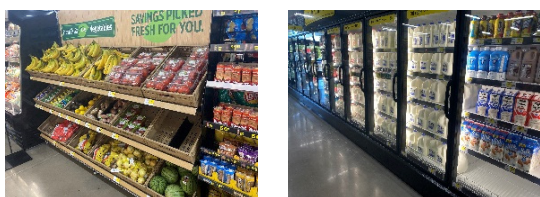


Figure 6: Healthy and fresh food offerings in Dollar General store within study area.

Besides the McNemar's Test, this research highlighted differences in the represented and real food environments using maps and descriptive statistics. More robust statistics with statistical significance such as those using a two-tail t-test exploring differences in socio-economics across LILA regions using CAB data versus ground-truthed

data (for example, exploring median household income in LA regions from the USDA Food Access Atlas via Figure 2 versus the median household income in Low Incomes from data extracted from this research via Figure 3) may better reinforce the need for ground-truthed data. Other research (Real and Vargas 1996) has explored the conversion of the Jaccard Index to p-values. However, these topics are a subject for future research.

Data were analyzed at the census tract level because data provided by the USDA Food Access Atlas is provided at that scale. While these tract-level LI and LILA designators can be applied to the census block groups that lie within them, LI and LILA be calculated using the USDA methodology from QA/QCed data, accumulating statistics or making comparisons using socio-economic information at the block group level can be problematic because of the reliability of data. Socio-economic data are collected through the American Community Survey (ACS). Within ACS data, three classes of reliability exist: High, Medium and Low. In general, reliability of data collected at the census tract level is much better than counterparts at the block group level.

Included in these data is a flag (1 = yes, 0 = no) to denote if a census tract is urban. This flag can be problematic because census tracts that are not urban should not be automatically considered rural although they are applied this way in this research. There is a continuum of urban to rural and many agree that there is no single definition of rural that best encapsulates the concept of rural across various applications, needs and scales (Nelson et al., 2021; Coburn et al., 2007). There are up to nine different definitions of the term rural used by the U.S. federal agencies. With the variety of quantitative definitions, the important questions arise on the consistency of the major operational definitions of rural and the practical implications of the differences in identifying rural populations based on alternative, commonly used quantitative criteria for rurality highlighted in this research. One recent study by the research team (Mulrooney et al. 2023) showed the application of the term rural utilizing the USDA RUCA (Rural-Urban Commuting Area) best aligns with other definitions of rural, and future applications of these data should somehow incorporate this application with existing Food Desert Atlas data.

## 7 CONCLUSIONS

Deterministic data models can model the food environment given well-understood rules, parameters and data. In this study, low access (LA), low income

(LI), low income and low access (LILA) can be extracted from existing data via the USDA Food Access Atlas based on access to supermarkets as part of a larger study on food deserts. However, little work has been studied to understand the accuracy of supermarket data on which this low access is based and how this accuracy is manifested in changed or compromised food environments based on input data assumed to be correct and data which have been field checked. The assessment of these data has been easier with custom phone applications that can access data stored in the cloud to inspect, verify, edit and re-attribute the spatial data used to represent supermarkets and the larger food environment in general. In this study, we utilized real-time QA/QC procedures merging hand-held phone applications and cloud data to 1) explore errors of omission and commission for Commercially Available Business (CAB) Databases and their counterparts QA/QCed in the real world 2) measure the differences in the CAB database and data after QA/QC and 3) explore the spatial differences in the food environment as a result of the differences in these two sets of data.

In this study, supermarket data extracted from DataAxle were checked in the field to explore errors of omission and commission. Based on the QA/QCed data, new Low Access (Figure 6) and LILA maps were created based on the methodology to create these data at the census tract level and compared to the original USDA Food Access Atlas (Table 3). At the census tract scale, results highlight a general overestimation of food needy populations when compared to data calculated using supermarkets currently in the field, but even greater overestimations of rural food needy populations (18,581 estimated using USDA Food Access Atlas vs. 5,547 using QA/QCed data). Jaccard Indices for both Low Income (.867) and LILA (.933) also indicate general agreement between the two sets of data, as well as the McNemar's Test which highlight there is not enough evidence to show significant differences in the number and probability of Low Access and LILA regions within the study area before and after QA/QC.

Probably most accentuated were drive-time maps and accompanying tables comparing the CAB data versus QA/QCed counterparts through the mapped food environment. Most obvious in these maps are differences in southern Alamance and Caswell Counties, as well as southeastern Chatham County, which indicated compromised food environments after QA/QC. DataAxle data had indicated these rural regions did in fact contain supermarkets and grocery stores while QA/QC unearthed the contrary.

In summary, this research has highlighted the following:

- Phone applications such as Esri Field Maps or Survey123 are relatively easy to create and allow for real-time attribution/reattribution and creation of cloud-based data that can be analyzed in the field and can easily be integrated into applications such as utility mapping and inspections.
- QA/QC procedures found 20 less supermarkets in the study area after QA/QC (84) compared to the data provided in the CAB (104). Reasons for these differences included 1) the business was not a supermarket 2) the point in the CAB was actually a residential address 3) the food source in the CAB was permanently closed and 4) the point did not exist in the CAB database, highlighting an error or omission.
- The one error of omission occurred in Chatham County in the town of Pittsboro. However, it was located close to other grocery stores and did not impact the overall food environment.
- While the food environments before and QA/QC generally agreed with each other statistically, there appeared to be an overestimation of food accessible populations (i.e., an underestimation of food needy populations) using CAB data compared to its QA/QCed counterparts.
- Major differences in the food environment were found in rural areas in southern Alamance and Caswell Counties, as well as southeastern Chatham County due to supermarkets that were found not to exist after QA/QC.

With the interoperability and relative ease of powerful desktop applications and cloud-based data that can be updated in real-time, on-the-fly food environment maps can be created using the latest and most updated data from the field. These maps can guide policy and facilitate decisions regarding those who are represented as food needy through applications such as the USDA Food Access Atlas versus those who truly food needy based on real-time data extracted through the applications and analysis as part of this research.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The project was supported by the Agricultural and Food Research Initiative Competitive Program of the USDA National Institute of Food and Agriculture (NIFA), grant number 2021-67021-34152. This material is also supported by the National Science Foundation under Grants No. 1824949 and No.

2226312. Any opinions, findings, and conclusions or recommendations expressed in this material are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect the views of the NSF and USDA.

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