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3

4 **A review of the potential pitfalls of health claims from a public health nutrition**
5 **perspective.**

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7

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25 their respective government agencies or organization.

26

27 **ABSTRACT**

28 The European Union is implementing a new regulatory framework for nutrition and health
29 claims (HC) that will greatly impact communication on food. In particular, approved HC will
30 be included in a positive register of generic claims. In the literature, assessment of the
31 relevance of HC has mainly been related to scientific substantiation, and the issue of
32 relevance in terms of public health has tended to be overlooked. Interestingly, however, the
33 new regulation states that claims must be well understood by the average consumer. In this
34 article we have gone beyond the issue of the scientific substantiation of claims and have
35 reviewed the possible mismatches between consumer perception and understanding of HC,
36 and the public health nutrition reality, which can result in misleading the consumer and
37 ultimately impact public health nutrition. We have identified six pitfalls, and finally propose a
38 comprehensive overview of the critical examination of any HC.

39

40 INTRODUCTION

41 The European Union (EU) is facing a period of dramatic regulatory change regarding health
42 communication on foodstuffs. After years of discussion,¹ the European Parliament and
43 Council issued a regulation in December 2006 (No. 1924/2006) on the nutrition and health
44 claims made on foods,² including most food supplements.³ The purpose of this regulation was
45 two-fold. On the one hand, the EU authority was aiming to rationalize communication on
46 foodstuffs, in line with worldwide regulatory shifts during previous decades,^{1, 4-6} by
47 prohibiting claims that are insufficiently precise or insufficiently substantiated. All nutrition
48 and health claims that have not been approved by the EU Commission after scientific review
49 by the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) will be banned. On the other hand, if the
50 effects of products, ingredients, nutrients and other components in a foodstuff are strongly
51 substantiated, that food product will be allowed to carry a health claim (Figure 1.). In this
52 article, and in line with the regulations, a health claim is defined as a claim of a relationship
53 between a food category, a food or one of its constituents and health (Table 1, Fig.1.). At the
54 same time, a companion regulation (No. 1925/2006) has opened the possibility in the EU of
55 adding nutrients and various substances to commonly used foodstuffs.⁷ A product fortified
56 with nutrients naturally has access to nutrition claims, which are mainly based on the "source
57 of" or "rich in" levels of the nutrient content in the foodstuff (as defined in R. 1924/2006), and
58 also to health claims. Lastly, if the association is relevant and strong enough from a scientific
59 viewpoint, products could even claim that they can reduce the risk of a disease (or a risk
60 factor for a disease), this having been prohibited previously in most EU countries.^{2, 8}

61 The relevance of health claims has been widely studied, primarily from a standard nutritional
62 science standpoint, and many efforts have been dedicated to analyzing the systems that should
63 be used to determine the level of evidence required to substantiate claims. Building on
64 previous projects in the EU,^{9, 10} the "PASSCLAIM" project ("Process for the Assessment of

65 Scientific Support for Claims on Foods”) aimed to reach consensus on criteria to assess
66 scientific support for claims on foods.^{11, 12} Briefly, under the EU system, claims are based on
67 scientific evidence and their assessment takes account of all available scientific data; this
68 system uses an evidence-based rating system that is similar to that applied in the US.¹³⁻¹⁵ The
69 preamble to the European Regulation states that "Scientific substantiation should be the main
70 aspect to be taken into account for the use of nutrition and health claims".² Several
71 comprehensive reviews have addressed the issue of the scientific substantiation of claims, and
72 the reader is directed to these papers.^{11, 12, 16-26} These key points necessary to substantiate
73 health claims are briefly shown as included in the final figure that we propose to draw a
74 complete picture of the analysis of health claims (Figure 2, Left part, "true" box, "classic
75 claim scientific substantiation" arrow).

76 By contrast, relevance to public health (Table 1) has been somewhat overlooked.²⁵ In this
77 regard, however, one important prerequisite for a health claim under the new European
78 regulation is that the product and its composition must meet certain specific criteria related to
79 its nutrient profile.² Under these conditions, the regulation aims to guarantee that the nutrient
80 content of the product will not render it intrinsically unhealthy and therefore that the specific
81 health claim will not be misleading when compared to the basic nutritional composition of the
82 food product.²⁷⁻²⁹ Likewise, the regulation lays down an obligation to display an extended list
83 of nutrient information on foods bearing a health claim.² A draft of the "nutrient profile" rules
84 was issued recently, and they consist of a series of thresholds for saturated fatty acids, sugar
85 and sodium contents per 100g of product, these being specific to each food category.³⁰ Lastly,
86 and importantly, the new regulation is designed to ensure that the claims will have a realistic
87 impact, by stating that they need to be “well understood by the average consumer”.²

88 Nevertheless, whether the regulation will successfully achieve its initial goals will depend on
89 the practical implementation of authorizations and restrictions on claims. Some parts of the

90 rules have been published or drafted very recently (as regards the “nutrient profile”) and the
91 remainder, which concern the authorization of health claims and related conditions, are
92 presently under scrutiny by the EFSA at the request of the European Commission. Indeed,
93 apart from claims relative to the reduction in disease risk, those specifically directed at
94 children’s development and health (referred to as “Article 14”, Fig. 1), and product-specific
95 claims that are based on new, specific scientific data (referred to as "Article 13.5", Fig. 1), all
96 other health claims (referred to as “Article 13.1”, Fig. 1) are to be determined by the European
97 Commission and listed in a register.² This register will constitute a “positive list” of claims,
98 supplemented by specific conditions of use (including the quantity of food and the pattern of
99 consumption, together with instructions or warnings, if necessary).² This creates an original
100 provision when compared with the regulations in other countries.³¹ Likewise, all claims that
101 have been rejected will constitute a "negative list". Under the EU system, “Article 13 health
102 claims” (Fig. 1) mean all those related to a food category, a food or one of its constituents and
103 connected with health in the broadest sense, and include (i) traditional “function claims”
104 (known as “structure-function claims” in the US), as well as behavioral functions or the
105 control of body weight (e.g. "*Calcium is needed for the maintenance of normal bones and*
106 *teeth*"³²; "*Lutein is deposited naturally in the eye / helps support eye health*"; "*conjugated*
107 *linoleic acid supports lean body mass*"; "*Calcium helps promote a healthy body weight*";
108 "*Vitamin B6 contributes to the regulation of hormonal activity*"³³ – Please note that all quotes
109 in italics that do not bear a specific reference are claims extracted from the list currently under
110 examination by the EFSA; quotes with references are the proposed wording as found in recent
111 scientific opinions issued by the EFSA or final claims authorized by recently adopted EU
112 regulations), and (ii) what the US system, and others, would consider as “dietary guidance”,
113 i.e. a claim regarding a relationship between a food (independently of its components) or a
114 diet, and health (e.g. "*The food product 'X' fits in a Mediterranean diet. A Mediterranean style*

115 *diet helps maintain heart health*”), inasmuch as this claim is made in a commercial
116 communication^{2, 6, 14} By contrast, the Regulation does not apply to claims that are made in
117 non-commercial communications, such as dietary guidelines or advice issued by public health
118 authorities and bodies.² Finally, although Article-13 “health claims” group different types of
119 claims with diverse implications from a public health nutrition (Table 1) perspective, the
120 evaluation framework is the same, with considerable focus on the weight of evidence
121 substantiating the claim on basic scientific grounds, and without any specific criteria that
122 assess the potential adverse effects of those types of claims on public health nutrition.

123 The scope for the application of “health claims” is therefore huge, and the amount and nature
124 of the claims allowed will have a dramatic impact on global health communication on food in
125 the EU. By early 2009, the European call for applications for inclusion on the register had
126 resulted in about 10,000 health claims, based on 4185 main relationships, which all need to be
127 reviewed. The database can be found at http://www.efsa.europa.eu/EFSA/efsa_locale-1178620753812_article13.htm.³³ The EFSA has recently started to issue scientific opinions
129 on these health claims, and a few of them (mostly Article 14 claims) have recently been
130 authorized. The EU is now starting to implement the regulation and impact assessment in the
131 years to come will help to clarify the extent to which the initial overall objectives of the
132 regulation are being met. In this context, the present review is also designed to anticipate the
133 future and formulate some recommendations.

134 The assessment of health claims has mostly been based on scientific substantiation, in order to
135 determine whether the stated effect is "true". The Regulation has also introduced a series of
136 safeguards of public health relevance, which include (i) the nutrient profile system, (ii)
137 mandatory "expanded" nutrient labeling, (iii) a mandatory statement of importance of a varied
138 and balanced diet and a healthy lifestyle, (iv) the prohibition of claims that encourage or
139 condone the excessive consumption of any food or disparage good dietary practice and (v) a

140 requirement that the stated effect is beneficial.^{2, 33, 34} Nevertheless, one might contest that the
141 issue of public health relevance has been explored in full and it is therefore uncertain that the
142 system is intrinsically robust enough to guarantee practical implementation that will meet
143 public expectations. On a more general level, whatever the regulatory system (except for a
144 prohibition system), health claims can engender potentially adverse repercussions in terms of
145 public nutrition (Table 1), and public health.²⁵ This review was based on the rule that a claim
146 should be truthful and not misleading.³⁵ As mentioned above, the scientific substantiation of
147 claims, which determines their truthfulness, has been already largely explored.^{11, 12, 16-26} By
148 contrast, general reviews have generally overlooked possible mismatches between the
149 understanding of consumers and the public health nutrition reality, which may mislead
150 consumers and generate adverse effects on public nutrition.¹ Beyond the context of the
151 European regulatory framework, the aim of this prospective review was thus to analyze the
152 different characteristics of a claim that, in light of its relevance for public health nutrition,
153 may result in misleading the consumer, and generating adverse effects on public nutrition.
154 Having reviewed these pitfalls, we briefly considered some potential regulatory and practical
155 options that could prevent the formulation of misleading claims. Finally, we propose a
156 comprehensive, overview of the issue of health claims.

157

158 **Will most food products be advertised as being healthy?**

159 In order to limit the current widespread use of vague claims related to health, the regulation
160 states that “Reference to general, nonspecific benefits of the nutrient or food for overall good
161 health or health-related well-being may only be made if accompanied by a specific health
162 claim included in the lists provided for in Article 13 or 14”.² However, under this regulation,
163 all claims, except those of a purely nutritional nature, are “health claims”, including classical
164 nutrient-function claims (Fig. 1). It is highly likely that at least one standard function claim
165 (e.g. “*Proteins are essential for growth, development & maintenance of the body/body*
166 *tissues/body function*”) will be allowed for most nutrients (e.g. proteins, lipids and
167 carbohydrates, vitamins and minerals, and water). Therefore, virtually all food products that
168 satisfy the nutrient profile and contain (before or after fortification) a significant amount of a
169 given nutrient, will be authorized to use a “health claim” (article 13.1 claims), and hence
170 unregistered “vague claims”, such as “This product is good for your health”. The specific
171 nutrient-function claim could simply be used as an easy pass to a vague claim, and products
172 could focus communication on the vague claim, disconnected from the specific generic claim.
173 Thus unfortunately, for practical reasons, the objective of reducing the burden of vague claims
174 will potentially not be achieved.

175 **“Health claims” with differing degrees of importance to public health**

176 Under the EU regulation, “health claims” include claims “regarding the role of a nutrient or
177 other substance in [...] the functions of the body”, i.e. “function claims”, whatever the
178 function.⁸ It should be noted that the regulation also clearly states that any claimed effect
179 should be “beneficial” to health, which is a basic and important guarantee in terms of public
180 health.^{2, 34} However, if “health” is considered in its broadest sense (i.e. complete physical,
181 mental and social well-being, as defined by the WHO),³⁶ virtually all functions can be
182 considered as relating to health, and many claims can refer to a “beneficial” effect on these

183 functions. But the importance of these functions to public health varies considerably. For
184 instance, when prioritized in terms of the prevalence of dysfunctions and public health
185 consequences, the importance of cardiovascular functions (e.g. “*n-3 LC-PUFA have a*
186 *beneficial effect on the function of the arteries*”) is superior to that of the immune system
187 (“*Copper is needed for the function of the immune system*”) and far ahead of physical and
188 mental performance (e.g. “*Morinda citrifolia is an ergogenic aid*”, “*Phenylalanine helps to*
189 *maintain mental health and stimulates mental alertness*”) and cosmetic functions (“*Beta-*
190 *carotene promotes the onset of tanning by providing a slight coloring of the skin*” ; “*Silicon*
191 *helps reduce hair brittleness*”). A multiplication of health claims of differing importance to
192 public health would naturally be expected to add noise and impair the correct prioritization of
193 claims by consumers in terms of their true significance. In addition, public communication
194 targeting important risks to the health of the population (e.g. cardiovascular risk) may be
195 understood less clearly.

196 **Should dietary guidance be addressed as food-related “health claims”?**

197 As stated above, Article 13.1 “health claims” include what the US system would appropriately
198 consider as dietary guidance, in particular because a statement relates to the effect of a whole
199 food or food category (Fig. 1). Most consumers will not distinguish such a claim from a
200 regular specific health claim,³⁷ but because such a (food or diet-related) claim is more general,
201 they are likely to understand it as forming part of dietary guidelines for the general public, and
202 its impact may extend beyond the selection of a specific food that bears this claim to overall
203 dietary choices.³⁸ It is therefore critical that such claims should be closely examined in a
204 public health nutrition perspective. These statements should therefore constitute clear and
205 useful general guidance that can be endorsed by the authorities and will comply with general
206 public dietary guidelines. From a more practical point of view, the wording should provide
207 consumers with clues as to implementation of the guidance. For instance: “*Regular*

208 *consumption of fruits and vegetables (At least 400 g/day or 5 portions/day) supports the heart*
209 *and cardiovascular health.”* can be considered as guidance that public health nutrition
210 policies would like to promote, and is already an important message in French and European
211 communication to the public. The message goes beyond just one foodstuff and targets other
212 products that may not choose to make any claim. Lastly, consumers can easily understand and
213 implement the recommendation by simply including more fruits and vegetable in their diet.
214 By contrast, “*The food product 'X' fits in a Mediterranean diet. A Mediterranean style diet*
215 *helps maintain heart health*” is also scientifically sound, given the body of evidence
216 concerning the health benefits of a Mediterranean diet, but may conflict with other general
217 dietary guidelines endorsed by public health authorities (e.g. a food pyramid), and, of course,
218 cannot be implemented practically if consumers are not taught what constitutes a
219 Mediterranean diet. Lastly, claims such as “*Meat, poultry and fish promote the absorption of*
220 *non-haem iron*” and “*Coffee contributes to maintain your fluid balance*” are likely to be read
221 as guidance concerning the consumption of meat and coffee whereas general dietary
222 guidelines are not likely to focus on meat and coffee consumption. Lastly, these types of
223 claims could be accompanied by statements that specify food quantities and consumption
224 patterns. However, these form part of the specific conditions that must be met to achieve the
225 claimed effect.^{2, 34} Therefore, although the regulation states that the quantity of food should
226 "reasonably" be achieved as part of a balanced diet,^{2, 34} such claims are not constructed to
227 match general dietary guidelines.

228 Indeed, the preamble to the European regulation states that "A varied and balanced
229 diet is a prerequisite for good health and single products have a relative importance in the
230 context of the total diet".² General dietary guidelines, based the total diet approach, are the
231 most robust^{39, 40} and are useful to the consumer for the practical application of food selection
232 and promoting positive lifestyles.^{41, 42}

233 **How will the “average consumer” understand these claims?**

234 Claims on foods must be understood by consumers and must not be misleading. The
235 benchmark for an "average consumer" used in the regulation is someone who is “reasonably
236 well-informed and reasonably observant and circumspect, taking into account social, cultural
237 and linguistic factors [...]”.² It should be noted that the European regulation, as stipulated in
238 the preamble to R.1924/2006, also intends to "prevent the exploitation of consumers whose
239 characteristics make them particularly vulnerable to misleading claims".² The EFSA also
240 notes that the final wording of a claim may need to take account aspects other than agreement
241 with the scientific evidence, e.g. understanding by consumers.³³

242 **Pitfall #1 – the lexical issue**

243 The EFSA assesses the wording of a health claim relative to its scientific truthfulness.¹³
244 However, this wording can be expected to raise several issues with respect to consumer
245 understanding.

246 Firstly, the "average" consumer may find it difficult or impossible to understand some of the
247 lexical terms employed, which should disqualify a claim (e.g. “*Copper helps build connective*
248 *tissues*”, “*X is useful for the prophylaxis of recurrent infection of the upper respiratory tract*”,
249 “*L-arginine increases nitric oxide production*”). When a consumer has heard a word many
250 times, but is still unable to comprehend its precise meaning, this issue becomes more
251 problematic. A good example concerns the word “metabolism”. To what extent does the
252 average consumer really understand “*Phosphorus contributes to energy metabolism*”,⁴³ or
253 “*Caffeine supports resting metabolic rate and thermogenesis*”? Considerable care must
254 therefore be taken to prevent claims from being misleading because they are not correctly
255 understood, or are too vague for the "average consumer".

256 Conversely, although giving details of an exact function in a claim may impair its correct
257 understanding by a consumer, it is important that the claim should not refer to too general a

258 bodily function. A good example concerns Lutein and Zeaxanthin: “*Helps support eye health*
259 */ helps maintain healthy eyes / nutrition for eyes / promotes healthy eye function/helps*
260 *maintain macular and retinal health*”. There exists a body of literature that suggests (but does
261 not conclude) that consuming Lutein and Zeaxanthin may reduce the risk of Age-Related
262 Macular Degeneration, which is a specific eye disease.⁴⁴ Any broader wording may make the
263 function more comprehensible to the average consumer but would render the claim
264 misleading because many consumers might understand that the product could be of value for
265 other components of eye health, e.g. visual acuity.

266 In EFSA opinions, when the scientific relationship stated in a claim is considered to be
267 truthful, appropriate wording is proposed to describe this relationship. The EFSA considers
268 that the clarity and the specificity of wording is important,⁴⁵ and warns that consumer
269 understanding may need to be taken into account in the final wording of claims as adopted by
270 the European Commission during authorization.³³ In addition, the wording of a claim, like any
271 part of an EFSA opinion, is open to comments from the public for 30 days after its
272 publication, before a final decision is taken on authorization.² However, it is not the intention
273 of the regulator to propose a detailed and rigid list of all possible wordings for a claim, and
274 the EFSA is not asked to comment in details the possible wordings.⁴⁵ Thus the possibility that
275 a lexical term may be insufficiently clear or specific to enable consumer understanding
276 remains an important practical issue that requires impact assessment and further specific study
277 on the grounds of consumer understanding.

278 **Pitfall#2 – Beyond scientific trueness**

279 In addition to lexical understanding, other mismatches may occur between the understanding
280 (and perception) of a claim by consumers and the scientific evidence assessed by expert
281 panels. In an expert committee, nutritionists would first of all consider that the claim “*lipids*
282 *provide energy to the body*” relies on the strongest scientific evidence, because lipids are a

283 source of metabolizable energy. However, further discussion may make it clear to members
284 that many consumers could understand (or perceive) “provides energy” as meaning “is
285 energizing”. In this example, the wording may thus generate a misleading, attractive
286 perception of the product that goes beyond its truthful, unexciting, basic meaning. Is a
287 company likely to use a claim with unequivocal wording, such as: “lipids provide energy
288 (“calories”) to the body”?

289 Clearly, this type of pitfall makes it even more difficult to assess the wording of claims
290 because this requires considerable insight into how consumers may specifically understand
291 and perceive the wording. If we are to advance in our analysis of how claims are understood
292 by consumers, it is necessary to develop studies in the fields of psycho-sociology and
293 consumer science.^{1, 37, 46-53} Whether a claim is misleading depends on the complex perception
294 that naturally emerges from wording of the message. This field is largely under-developed but
295 several approaches are available and should be implemented systematically in order to
296 determine whether actual consumer perceptions are compatible with a claim being “well
297 understood by the average consumer”.^{37, 49, 54} Nutrition experts need to work far beyond their
298 strict disciplinary area and enter other fields if they are successfully to address all the points at
299 issue.⁵⁵

300 **Pitfall #3 – Matching consumer understanding and reality – The confusion between food**
301 **and diet**

302 Article 13.1 health claims, and particularly “function claims”, are generally built on a broad
303 association between the consumption of a nutrient (or substance) in the diet and a function or
304 health-related parameter. The effect may actually be related to the overall diet, but be claimed
305 for a specific foodstuff. Accordingly, the food is only expected to exert this effect if it forms a
306 significant part of the diet.²⁵ This condition is usually met by specifying that the food is a
307 source of the nutrient/substance. However, for nutrients with Dietary Recommended Values,

308 the threshold for the nutrient in the food is based on the amount required, and does not take
309 account of the actual, spontaneous level of the nutrient/substance in the diet. When the
310 spontaneous dietary intake of a nutrient far exceeds the nutritional requirement, this can lead
311 to a serious mismatch between the consumer's understanding of the claim and the true effect
312 expected from including a given food in his diet. Protein is one example. In Western
313 countries, the average protein intake in the general population is high (e.g. ~1.4g/kg in France
314 and the US),^{56, 57} and far higher than the safe level of intake (0.83g/kg) defined as the 97.5th
315 percentile of the population distribution of requirement.⁵⁸ Thus, in this regard, virtually all the
316 general population is at no risk of inadequate intake.^{56, 57} Many foods currently on the market
317 are promoted using claims such as "a source of protein; protein is needed for muscle
318 function". However, because the mean protein intake in Western countries is around 16 %, ⁵⁹
319 ⁶⁰ choosing a food that is a "source of protein" (i.e. 12% or higher) will only marginally
320 increase (or even decrease) the level of protein in the diet. Thus any associated health claim
321 (e.g. for muscle function) would be misleading. From a more general standpoint, a health
322 claim associated with a food that is "a source of/rich in" nutrient X is only meaningful if this
323 food can replace another that contains low levels of nutrient X, and only when the overall
324 dietary intake of nutrient X is low. When the latter condition is not met, function/health
325 claims become misleading.

326 Interestingly, EFSA opinions lay considerable importance on the relevance of claims in light
327 of the nutritional status of the European population. Indeed, in the two examples above, the
328 EFSA has issued opinions (on nutrition and health in children, relative to an Article 14 claim
329 application) stating that children and adolescents in the EU very probably consume sufficient
330 protein and phosphorus, and there is no evidence for an effect above the required level.^{61, 62}
331 Regarding protein, the opinion stated that "Recommended intakes of protein to meet the
332 requirements for growth and development of children, including normal growth and

333 development of bone, have been established. [...] There is no evidence of benefit of
334 additional protein above the amount found in otherwise nutritionally complete diets. [...] No
335 evidence of inadequate intakes of protein in European children has been provided".⁶¹
336 However, unfortunately, this important point was apparently not retained subsequently during
337 the decision procedure, and although reference was made to these specific EFSA opinions, the
338 EU recently decided that the following constituted authorized claims: "Protein is needed for
339 normal growth and development of bone in children" and, likewise, "Phosphorus is needed for
340 the normal growth and development of bone in children".^{62, 63}

341

342 **Pitfall #4 – Matching consumer understanding and reality – Is more better?**

343 The relationship between the intake of a nutrient/food and a biological function is well known
344 to be almost always curvilinear/quadratic in nature.^{64, 65} Indeed, most basic relationships
345 between dose and response in nutritional science display a threshold upon which nutritional
346 requirement is usually based. Increasing intake up to the nutritional requirement will enhance
347 the associated function, and this part of the relationship can be viewed as being virtually
348 linear, whereas for intakes above the requirement, the relationship will plateau rapidly,
349 yielding no clear further benefit (but potential risk).⁶⁵ By contrast, the simplest way to
350 represent a relationship between a nutrient/substance/food and the related function referred to
351 in a claim is clearly linear, which would naturally be the perception of the “average
352 consumer”. To put it in a nutshell, consumers most often adhere to the basic wrong premise of
353 “the more, the better”. This is an extension of pitfall#3. Examples of such clearly misleading
354 claims are numerous, and indeed virtually all claims are concerned (e.g. “*The body needs*
355 *manganese to produce energy*”, “*Biotin helps release energy from fat*”, “*Polyols help keep*
356 *teeth healthy*” ; and “*Vitamin C contributes to the protection of cell constituents from*
357 *oxidative damage*”,⁶⁶ “*Copper contributes to normal function of the immune system*”,⁶⁷

358 "Iodine contributes to the normal growth of children",⁶⁸ "Sugar-free chewing gum helps
359 neutralise plaque acids"⁶⁹).

360 This is a widely acknowledged pitfall. Regulations in Japan require that all nutrient-function
361 claims be accompanied by a disclaimer stating that "Excessive intake of this product neither
362 cures any disease nor improves health – keep with the optimal intake". Similarly, a specific
363 disclaimer is added to claims on folic acid and fetal growth: "Folic acid is a nutrient that
364 contributes to normal growth of the fetus but does not improve growth of the fetus with
365 excess intake".⁷⁰ In the EU, the EFSA usually words the generic article 13.1 claims using the
366 adjective "normal" (e.g. "*Pantothenic acid contributes to normal mental performance*"⁷¹ ;
367 "*Vitamin C contributes to the normal function of the nervous system*"⁶⁶). This choice is of
368 great importance to the present pitfall. However, it remains to be determined whether this
369 subtle wording performs as well as a dedicated disclaimer in terms of helping average
370 consumers to avoid the pitfall.

371 It should also be noted that, beyond issues regarding the truthfulness and relevance of claims,
372 the disclaimers referred to above should also be helpful in limiting excessive intake, which is
373 important to public health. Indeed, the risks of a chronic over-consumption of nutrients and
374 dietary substances are clearly more difficult to assess than the benefits,^{65, 72, 73} and a correct
375 definition of the actual window of optimum intake still requires the development of
376 appropriate risk-benefit markers and methods.^{74, 75}

377 In this regard, the European regulation states that health claims shall not encourage excess
378 consumption of a food and shall be accompanied by appropriate warnings on products that are
379 likely to present a health risk if consumed to excess. The first health claim authorizations
380 (under Article 14) and the first series of EFSA opinions under Article 13 were not
381 accompanied by any specific disclaimers of that type,^{e.g.76, 77} The rationale is that most
382 nutrients and substances are not considered to be potentially hazardous to health at the

383 expected level of consumption, based on current risk assessments for these substances, or that
384 little or no data are available to characterize the danger.^{e.g.76, 77}

385 **Pitfall #5 – Matching consumer understanding and reality – Multifactoriality**

386 Another well-known error in the understanding of a claim relates to the belief that because
387 nutrient/substance X is important for function Y, the latter will be guaranteed by an
388 appropriate intake of X, which simply conceals the fact that function Y (and physiological
389 functions in general) is impacted by numerous genetic and environmental factors, including
390 dietary parameters.⁷⁸ One may argue that if multifactoriality is not spelled out in the claim, the
391 “average consumer” will lose sight of prioritizing different factors, and only believe in the
392 decontextualized relationship.⁷⁸ Interestingly, it has been shown that the less a consumer is
393 able to find alternative causes for an effect stated in a claim and disabling conditions for the
394 claimed (cause-effect) relationship, the more this increases the absolute believability of the
395 claim, thus misleading the consumer as to the multifactorial reality of the relationship
396 mentioned.⁷⁹ Nieves & Lindsay⁸⁰ recently concluded their comments on the negative results
397 of a meta-analysis concerning calcium and fracture risk by stating: “This meta-analysis
398 highlights the importance of not segmenting nutrition into heterogeneous populations and
399 isolated nutrients. Bone is not just calcium, and calcium does not function in isolation”.
400 Calcium and bone can be considered as one of the most typical, consensual, relationships in
401 nutritional science, yet it may not be strong enough to be demonstrated significantly when all
402 other factors are taken into account, i.e. when the true situation of consumers is addressed.
403 One may therefore argue that other claimed single relationships, which are not as strong or
404 typical as calcium & bone, may be largely misleading if the consumer is not provided with
405 clear information about the other factors also thought to impact (and potentially more
406 strongly) the health-related parameter.

407 At the request of the European Commission, the EFSA issued an initial series of opinions on
408 nutrients in relation to bone health in adults, and children and adolescents.^{32, 43, 81-83} Regarding
409 all relationships where the EFSA stated that "a cause and effect relationship has been
410 established",⁸² the EU then issued regulations authorizing related claims, namely "*Calcium is*
411 *needed for normal growth and development of bone in children*", "*Protein is needed for*
412 *normal growth and development of bone in children*".⁶³ Other recent EFSA opinions have also
413 proposed claim wordings for other nutrients in relation to bone health, e.g. "*Vitamin K*
414 *contributes to maintenance of normal bone*".⁸⁴ Is a consumer supposed to determine the
415 relative importance of these different links to bone health? Are calcium, protein and vitamin
416 K supposed to exert similar benefits on bone health? Furthermore, how can a given claim be
417 understood when it is decontextualized from other nutritional, physiological or environmental
418 (and genetic) factors. Finally, it remains unclear how the average consumer can integratively
419 understand a series of claims for the same benefit when the information is fragmented
420 between different food products, and how this can be expected to facilitate relevant food
421 choices.

422 It should nonetheless be noted that, according to the European regulation, if a health claim is
423 made for a product the labeling must also include a statement indicating the importance of a
424 varied and balanced diet and a healthy lifestyle.² This information, which could be read as a
425 disclaimer, is important in that it can prevent the complete decontextualization of a health
426 claim. However, it remains unclear how far this very general information is able to
427 appropriately balance the specific relationship highlighted by the health claim. This issue is
428 considered in greater depth below.

429 **Pitfall #6 – Matching consumer understanding and reality – For which consumers?**

430 One crucial final point with respect to public health is that the population cannot be
431 considered as homogenous. Because nutritional status varies considerably, tailoring

432 dietary/nutritional strategies to specific (sub)populations has become a major prerequisite for
433 effective health policies.⁸⁵ When nutritional status and the importance of the health-related
434 outcome vary, the health message must target the specific, relevant population. In the future,
435 the expanding area of nutrigenomics is expected to lead to a more detailed identification of
436 the precise populations to which a health claim is relevant.⁸⁶ However, this goal is still far
437 off⁷⁵ and our current knowledge of nutritional science is already sufficient to enable the
438 partial refinement of some health claims. For instance, because iron status tends to be low in
439 women of childbearing age but is usually correct or high in men,⁸⁷⁻⁹⁰ health claims regarding
440 iron may not be really applicable to adult men, and unless otherwise stated, such a claim
441 would be misleading in most of this population. Taking the example of protein again, and as
442 explained previously, it is currently thought that protein-muscle claims are irrelevant in the
443 majority of the population, but they may be important for the frail elderly.⁹¹ Specifying a
444 target population may be the only way to prevent a claim from being misleading for the
445 majority.

446 EU regulations do not lay down special requirements regarding the definition of target
447 populations (except for claims related to children),^{2, 8} but the EFSA requires the definition of a
448 target population for an intended health claim¹³. However, if the applicant proposes that the
449 claim should be assessed in the context of the general population, it remains unclear whether
450 full consideration will be given to the present pitfall. As for the example of iron, the recent
451 EFSA opinion states that a general cause and effect relationship has been established between
452 the dietary intake of iron and a series of iron-related functions, but does not comment on the
453 fact that the claim may not apply similarly to men and women.⁹²

454

455 **Implementation of health claims and the public health nutrition perspective.**

456 Given the new opportunities available to fortify foods, it is expected that the numbers of foods
457 bearing generic “health claims” (under Article 13.1), will increase rapidly and markedly. This
458 increase would be a challenge for the present system. Although the EU nutrient profile
459 procedure/concept remains provisional, it could be hypothesized that the system ultimately
460 chosen may be highly permissive, inasmuch as in practice it could be insufficiently
461 discriminatory.

462 Whereas a limited number of appropriate nutrition and health claims for a limited number of
463 food products may be useful to consumers when they make healthy dietary choices, and could
464 also be considered as an opportunity for public health,^{19, 22, 26} an uncontrolled proliferation of
465 health claims has long been acknowledged as confusing or even a danger to the public^{25, 93}
466 because it usually generates false perceptions and inappropriate behavior.⁹⁴ This includes (i)
467 the “halo” and “integrative” effects, which discourage consumers from looking for other
468 (more) critical information regarding the value of different foodstuffs to their overall diet,
469 such as lists of ingredients or nutrition facts,^{54, 95, 96} and (ii) other erroneous perceptions of a
470 product's properties (e.g. the “magic bullet” effect), which may induce the overselection of
471 foods (e.g. when feelings of guilt are lost with respect to foods that should only be consumed
472 in limited quantities in the diet).^{52, 54, 97} As a result, the more a consumer selects foodstuffs
473 according to the attractiveness of claims, the less they will be sensitive to official guidelines
474 when choosing foods to achieve a balanced diet.^{16, 52} Public health communication on diet and
475 health may be blurred in the noise and confusion generated by possibly overwhelming
476 advertising/marketing campaigns by the food industry^{16, 41, 93, 98} and based on a proliferation of
477 Article 13.1 (or US “structure-function”) claims. In this respect, these claims constitute the
478 greatest risk, because Article 14 claims relative to reducing disease risk (or US “health
479 claims”) are more specific and far more relevant to public health, and are required to mention

480 the multi-factorial nature of a disease (or health-related condition); more importantly, as for
481 Article 13.5 claims, large numbers of such Article 14 claims are not anticipated.

482 Given the huge impact of health claims on food choice,^{42, 98} the growing number of health
483 claims in the EU may soon result in important changes to the selection of foodstuffs. As has
484 been shown in the US, the prioritization of health messages by consumers changes over time,
485 and food labels have an increasingly important impact.^{38, 98} The risk is that such practices may
486 hasten the current, dramatic dietary transition from the cultural/historical diets that continue to
487 be followed (particularly in European Mediterranean countries) and have proven importance
488 in public health nutrition (e.g. the Mediterranean diet)⁹⁹ to a poorly reasoned diet, i.e. mostly
489 composed of foods that benefit from the strongest health marketing campaigns.

490 In the last part of this article, we will consider the potential practical ways (and difficulties),
491 to prevent claims from being misleading because of the series of pitfalls we have presented.

492 **Where do we go from here? – Restricting claims, controlling their wording, adding**
493 **disclaimers?**

494 Witnesses in court must swear to tell “the truth, the whole truth and nothing but the truth”; in
495 the same way, health claims must not avoid “the whole truth”. It can be argued that public
496 health nutrition policy should aim to increase general knowledge on nutrition and health (the
497 “internal characteristics” of consumers) so that these consumers can make informed choices
498 based on limited information (the truth, but not the whole truth). However, only a minority of
499 the population have sufficient knowledge of nutrition and health to enable them to understand
500 “the whole truth” when information is not supplied on a product.^{25, 37, 100} Thus the direct
501 provision of all the information they require to consumers (using disclaimers), in a well-
502 balanced manner, constitutes a powerful option for the public health authorities.

503 However, “What is simple is wrong and what is complex cannot be understood”, and nutrition
504 and health is clearly a highly complex issue.¹⁰¹ Consumer science has developed information

505 processing theories in order to understand and analyze how a message is understood and dealt
506 with.^{49, 102} When applied to nutrition and health claims, the general picture is that a consumer
507 will make inferences beyond what is actually stipulated in words, and that this process is
508 important to the final integration and choice model.^{49, 103} More specifically, a correct
509 understanding of a health claim means that the average consumer will make inferences that
510 are correct, but various types of erroneous inferences also exist.^{49, 95, 104} One obvious option is
511 to secure against erroneous inferences by using a complete statement. If X is a
512 nutrient/substance and Y is a body function, the sentence “The product is rich in X; X is good
513 for Y” may be true but very misleading, as explained in the sections above on pitfalls. In order
514 to guarantee that a text is not misleading, this sentence should in fact read: “The product is
515 rich in X; if you use this product instead another one that supplies less X in your diet, it
516 should help you to achieve a sufficient intake of X (provided that your present intake is not
517 already sufficient), and therefore, given the importance of X as regards Y, this may help Y,
518 but may not be useful for other functions. However, other factors influence Y, so that an
519 adequate consumption of X does not guarantee the satisfactory functioning of Y. It is likely
520 that you already consume enough X [unless you belong to the specific population P] and in
521 this case, there is no evidence that consuming this food product will benefit you, and indeed
522 you should be aware that there is always a risk that if you consume more X than required, this
523 may harm your health. Do not forget to follow government guidelines on diet and health, as
524 these are more important and more likely to be true than the specific benefit claimed by this
525 product”.

526 Clearly, it is not practicable to explain the issue in such detail, simply because consumers
527 would not be able to understand the whole truth,^{37, 48} or, to use the terminology adopted by
528 perception scientists, the average consumer will not, or cannot, process this information in
529 order to come to a decision.⁴⁹

530 In the preamble to the European regulation, mention is made of the difficulty in conveying a
531 message that is both short, comprehensive, truthful and meaningful, but the extent of this
532 problem is restricted to functions that are the most likely to be complexly influenced by many
533 factors: "There are many factors, other than dietary ones, that can influence psychological and
534 behavioural functions. Communication on these functions is thus very complex and it is
535 difficult to convey a comprehensive, truthful and meaningful message in a short claim to be
536 used in the labelling and advertising of foods".²

537 One interesting option is to resort to a limited number of appropriate disclaimers, inasmuch as
538 they may effectively counterbalance a claim and prevent it from being misleading. Some
539 countries (e.g. the USA and Japan) have adopted such a disclaimer policy. The EU regulation
540 does not actually require any disclaimer, but only a statement "indicating the importance of a
541 varied and balanced diet and a healthy lifestyle".² However, it is not stipulated how this
542 statement should be included in the labeling of a health claim, and it is essential that the
543 disclaimer (as in the USA) should form an integral part of the claim, otherwise consumers
544 will skip the full, non-product-specific information and concentrate on short product-specific
545 claims, which have now become the most attractive and best understood information.^{37, 105}
546 Alternatively, when the health claim combines many of the aforementioned pitfalls, another –
547 and arguably the best – option is to refuse authorization of the claim.

548 **Suggestions for a general policy that addresses health claims on a case-by-case basis**

549 Finally, the ideal arrangements from a public health perspective probably consist in
550 identifying and implementing an optimum mix of different options, tailored to reduce as far as
551 possible any risk of misleading consumers, generating inappropriate food choices and
552 impairing practical compliance with official guidelines,⁵² while retaining a message that can
553 be understood and is relevant to public health nutrition. These options may be: (i) to ban or
554 limit the type of claims, (ii) to restrict the wording of claims, and (iii) to include general

555 disclaimer statements. For instance, it could be argued that, firstly, only structure-function
556 claims (or generic Article 13.1 claims) relevant to public health nutrition should be allowed.
557 This would imply banning claims regarding nutrients that are already consumed in sufficient
558 quantities, and always describing in detail the specific target populations at risk of deficiency.
559 Secondly, any “health claim” (ranging from structure-function claims to disease-reduction
560 claims) should always be accompanied by a disclaimer that states that (a) the function or
561 health-related condition is also influenced by many other factors, (b) more is not necessarily
562 better, and (c) consumers should first of all select foodstuffs that comply with general dietary
563 guidelines.

564 Indeed, this general strategy should be adapted on a claim-by-claim basis that precisely
565 determines the public health relevance of each claim, the importance and political/scientific
566 relevance of the different options available, and any specific provisions that need to be
567 included. For example, the FDA applies precise weighting to the importance of disclaimers
568 with respect to claims for a reduction in disease risk.^{e.g., 106} The final objective is to finely tune
569 the length of the claim and the number of disclaimers, thus preventing, on the one hand,
570 claims that are short, readable and comprehensible but misleading, and, on the other hand,
571 claims that are precise and correct, but too long and intricate and therefore difficult to
572 understand.³⁷ Lastly, because the perceptions and intentions generated by a given message are
573 generally affected by the individual/sub-group characteristics of consumers, attention must
574 also be paid to the specific population covered by the scope of a claim and to practical aspects
575 regarding implementation.^{107, 108} Finally, whereas examination of the scientific substantiation
576 of a claim will merely result in a "yes" or "no", full examination of the characteristics of a
577 claim, ensuring that it is not misleading and remains relevant to public health, will probably
578 result in a variety of provisions, including rewording and the addition of disclaimers (Fig. 2,

579 Right part, "not misleading" box). This process can be expected to be iterative, as the wording
580 and disclaimer policy will feed back from an impact assessment of the wording of the claim.

581 **CONCLUSION**

582 This review presents a schematic framework for a comprehensive analysis of health claims
583 that would integrate important points from a public health perspective (Fig. 2). The regulation
584 is now being implemented in the EU, and impact assessment is foreseen in the coming years.
585 In this regard, the present work may be helpful if efforts are to be made to reduce the adverse
586 and confusing effects that may arise from an insufficiently controlled and intense proliferation
587 of misleading/irrelevant health claims. The points raised by the present review, however, go
588 beyond the European context, as they concern all stakeholders in health claims under different
589 regulatory frameworks. In Europe, and in all other countries, considerable efforts are still
590 necessary to analyze the perception and understanding of "health claims" relative to their
591 relevance to nutritional science and public health nutrition. More generally, and given the
592 ongoing rapid transition in diet and health problems, any food product and its related claims
593 should be contextualized in diets and analyzed from a bio-psychosocial standpoint.

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876 yielding metabolism (ID 251, ID 1589), function of the immune system (ID 252, ID
877 259), cognitive function (ID 253) and cell division (ID 368) pursuant to Article 13(1)
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924

925 **Figure legends**

926 **Figure 1. The nutrition and health claims system under the new EU regulation**
927 **N°1925/2006.²**

928 **Figure 2. A comprehensive schematic overview of what is necessary to analyze health**
929 **claims while integrating important public health aspects.** This Figure presents the different
930 points that need to be examined when assessing any “health claim”. The items are placed on
931 the figure as a function of their classic acceptance (horizontal axis) and their importance to
932 public health (vertical axis). Examination of the trueness of the basic relationship stated in a
933 claim is a standard scientific procedure, based on an established system that weighs the
934 evidence. The points at issue are figured in the “true” box and indeed constitute a classic
935 substantiation process, which has been comprehensively studied and reviewed. Criteria may
936 vary with the type of claim (e.g. nutritional epidemiology for generic nutrient-function claims
937 vs. randomized-controlled trials for specific claims), but the level of confidence should be the
938 same whatever the claim. Relevance based on supportive epidemiological data may make a
939 more definite contribution to public health. More advanced regulatory systems include the
940 question “is the food otherwise healthy?” this more global examination is of value to public
941 health and is a first point to be considered in order to ensure that the claim is not misleading.
942 However, a full assessment of a health claim should go far beyond this standard examination
943 to encompass all issues connected with public health. If a claim reads like dietary guidance
944 and could be confused with official guidelines, this is another item to be included in the “Not
945 misleading” box, in that it could impact the public health significance of a claim. Lastly,
946 possible mismatches between consumer perception/understanding and the reality of public
947 nutrition and health (i.e. the misleading character of a claim) are numerous. Such sources of
948 misunderstanding could have a dramatic impact on food consumption and overall diet in the
949 population, and hence important implications for public health nutrition. Six pitfalls have

950 been identified by the present review. They are usually overlooked, presumably because they
951 are difficult to apprehend, standing at the crossroads between nutritional science, public
952 health nutrition and psychosocial consumer science, i.e. related to the complex field of Public
953 Nutrition. When taken into account, these points call for a case-by-case analysis of claims,
954 and action by public authorities would consist in the complex fine tuning of the wording of a
955 given claim in order to ensure that it does not mislead consumers (“reject / reword / add
956 disclaimers” box).

957

958 Table 1. Definitions of terms used in the present review.
959

Health Claim	Any claim that states, suggests or implies that a relationship exists between a food category, a food or one of its constituents and health (European regulatory definition). ²
Public health	The science and practice of protecting and improving the health of a community
Public Health Nutrition	Application of Nutrition (and physical activity) to the promotion of good health of a community. ¹⁰⁹
Public Nutrition	Field encompassing the range of factors known to influence nutrition in populations, including diet and health, social, cultural, and behavioral factors; and the economic and political context. ¹¹⁰

960

CLAIMS

" Message or representation stating, suggesting or implying that a food has particular characteristics "



HEALTH CLAIMS

" A relationship exists between a food category, a food or one of its constituents and health "

« Article 14 »
claims

« Article 13 »
claims

NUTRITION CLAIMS

" A food has particular beneficial nutritional properties concerning energy, nutrients, substances "

Article 8; permitted if they are listed in the Annex of the regulation

REDUCTION OF DISEASE RISK CLAIMS

" The consumption of a food category, a food or one of its constituents significantly reduces a risk factor in the development of a human disease "

CHILDREN'S DEVELOPMENT AND HEALTH CLAIMS

Application for **authorization** based on a scientific dossier; the procedure is effective since 1st July 2007
Concerns health claims based on new scientific evidence and/or on data which should be regarded as proprietary

OTHER HEALTH CLAIMS

" Referring to
a) the role of nutrient/substance in growth, development and function of the body,
b) physiological and behavioural functions,
c) slimming, weight control, reduction of hunger, increase of satiety or reduction of diet energy "

• **Article 13.1**: Based on generally accepted scientific evidence; **Positive list of accepted claims which can be used without authorization**

• **Article 13.5**: Based on new scientific data and/or data which should be regarded as proprietary; Application of the **authorization procedure**

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Fig. 2

