



Citation for published version:

Gonzalez, J 2018, 'Using misleading online media articles to teach critical assessment of scientific findings about weight loss: Teaching critical thinking with media articles', *Advances in Physiology Education*, vol. 42, no. 3, pp. 500-506. <https://doi.org/10.1152/advan.00065.2018>

DOI:

[10.1152/advan.00065.2018](https://doi.org/10.1152/advan.00065.2018)

Publication date:

2018

Document Version

Peer reviewed version

[Link to publication](#)

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TITLE PAGE

Title: Using misleading online media articles to teach critical assessment of scientific findings about weight loss

Author: Javier T. Gonzalez

Author affiliation: Department for Health, University of Bath, Bath, BA2 7AY, United Kingdom.

Abbreviated title: Teaching critical thinking with media articles

Corresponding authors name and address:

Javier T. Gonzalez,
Department for Health,
University of Bath,
Bath,
BA2 7AY,
United Kingdom.

E-mail: J.T.Gonzalez@bath.ac.uk

Tel: +44(0)1225 38 5518

1 **ABSTRACT**

2 In this paper, a teaching strategy that exploits misleading media articles covering peer-
3 reviewed research is described. This task attempts to encourage university students
4 to not take media articles on obesity physiology at face value. Briefly, the task is
5 divided into three main sections: 1) information on the study and media headlines is
6 provided, and students complete a blank template with hypothetical data reflective of
7 the headlines; 2) a consensus is met on hypothetical data that would accurately reflect
8 the media headlines; and 3) true data are revealed and discussion takes place as to
9 how accurate the media headlines are with respect to the published data. This task
10 has been piloted in two cohorts ($n = 149$ students), and feedback has been collated
11 from 79 of these students. Overall, it appears that this task was well received [student
12 rating (mean \pm SD): 4 ± 1 arbitrary units on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = poor and 5 =
13 excellent]. Feedback highlighted key aspects to consider when delivering this session
14 are the suitability of the room, and a re-emphasis of the aims and outcomes of the
15 session at the end. In summary, this paper describes a teaching strategy that makes
16 use of media articles reporting on published studies in an attempt to promote critical
17 thinking in undergraduate students. Whilst the example provided covers the
18 physiology of obesity, this can be readily applied to other physiological topics.

19

20 **Keywords:** critical thinking; weight loss; exercise; teaching methods

21

22 **INTRODUCTION**

23 The ability to think critically is one of the most important skills that higher education
24 can offer (22). Critical thinking is highly transferable, relevant to everyday life, and is
25 useful in rational decision making (24). Critical thinking has been defined as the ability
26 to assess, interpret and evaluate ideas, concepts or arguments, and to examine the
27 reasons for believing something (4). At a time when it appears that many people can
28 be convinced by public statements that are taken at face value (8), and with increasing
29 use of the Internet and social media with unreliable sources of information, the ability
30 to think critically whilst being open minded appears to be as important as ever.
31 Previous work has described indirect methods of teaching to develop critical thinking
32 using physiological principles (4). The aim of this article is to highlight another strategy
33 to promote critical thinking whilst also highlighting the transferable nature of this skill
34 in interpreting information gathered in everyday life. The focus is on obesity but can
35 be applied to many other areas of physiology that are highlighted in the media.

36

37 **Physiology of Obesity**

38 The physiological causes of weight gain and weight loss are often misunderstood (5).
39 Therefore, this topic may be a particularly effective context in which to entrain critical
40 thinking. Due to this common misunderstanding, an overview of the main factors that
41 dictate energy balance, body mass, and fat mass will be briefly discussed.

42

43 Whilst many physiological and non-physiological (e.g. sociological) factors influence
44 our propensity to be more or less physically active or to eat more or less food, obesity
45 is primarily the result of a sustained positive energy balance (2, 11). Metabolizable
46 energy intake is the energy that is orally ingested from foods and drinks (as

47 carbohydrate, fat, protein, fibre and ethanol), minus the amount of energy that is not
48 absorbed, but is excreted in faeces (11, 14, 25). Since energy excretion in faeces is a
49 relatively small quantity and relatively stable across time, then the primary factor
50 dictating metabolizable energy intake is the quantity of energy ingested. A caveat to
51 this is the assumption that nutrients are absorbed across the intestine as the same
52 nutrient that was ingested, which may not be the case with fermentable carbohydrates
53 that can be converted to short chain fatty acids by the gut microbiome (13). The
54 importance of the gut microbiome in harvesting energy from ingested food and thus
55 its role energy balance in increasingly appreciated (26).

56

57 The primary components of energy expenditure are resting metabolic rate (RMR), diet
58 induced thermogenesis (DIT) and physical activity energy expenditure (PAEE). Inter-
59 individual differences in RMR are primarily driven by differences in lean body mass
60 (19), whereas differences in DIT are mainly due to differences in energy intake and
61 diet composition (27). Whilst there are some other minor components of energy
62 expenditure, such as cold-induced thermogenesis, these are not major contributors to
63 energy balance [e.g. cooling ambient temperature from 24 °C to 19 °C increases
64 energy expenditure by only ~88 kcal·day⁻¹ (6)]. For perspective, the variability in
65 physical activity energy expenditure (which encompasses both exercise and non-
66 exercise activity thermogenesis; i.e. NEAT(16)) in a non-athletic population can vary
67 by more than 1300 kcal·day⁻¹ (30).

68

69 If one considers the starting point of a neutral energy balance (**Figure 1A**), the
70 initiation of a positive energy balance can be as a result from either: 1) a decrease in
71 energy expenditure (**Figure 1B**); 2) an increase in energy intake (**Figure 1C**); and 3)

72 a combination of both reduced energy intake and increased energy expenditure.
73 Notably, a change in one component of energy balance can have important
74 implications for other energy balance components. This can erode an initial expected
75 energy surplus or energy deficit (2, 7, 31). These compensatory behaviors are largely
76 the result of powerful physiological feedback mechanisms as illustrated by the
77 increase in appetite and energy intake in response to covert manipulation of energy
78 expenditure (12). The net effect of these compensatory behaviors on energy balance
79 is therefore the primary factor dictating changes in body mass over time, and therefore
80 obesity risk.

81

82 Whilst the evidence is clear that energy balance is the main determinant of changes
83 in body mass over time, this point still does not appear to be appreciated by the general
84 public and mass media. Headlines such as “The secret to losing weight? Eat more!”
85 (9) and “Eating MORE fat while cutting carbs and quitting sugar can help you lose
86 weight and be happier, says top cardiologist” (21) appear to suggest that diet
87 composition, independent from energy balance, determines weight loss or weight
88 gain. Furthermore, some headlines suggest that people with a high-genetic risk of
89 obesity face a futile struggle to lose weight with diet (and/or) physical activity (20).
90 However, genome-wide association studies suggest that common genetic variation
91 can only explain a minor fraction (<25%) of the variation in body mass index (18).
92 Furthermore, there is clear evidence that the relationship between genetic variation
93 and body mass index is at least halved in a physically active population (17).
94 Therefore, there is clear evidence that genetics play a minor role in common obesity,
95 and physical activity and diet are stronger factors determining body mass.

96

97 When considering the role of energy balance in obesity, it is important to still recognize
98 that macronutrient composition of the diet can still have powerful effects on body
99 weight and body composition, potentially via changes in appetite, protein synthesis
100 rates, body water content and/or insulin secretion (10, 23, 29). Thus, whilst energy
101 balance is the primary factor driving body weight, other factors do make a contribution.
102 Interestingly, however, even the effect of reducing insulinemia appears to protect
103 against weight gain primarily by increasing energy expenditure rather than by direct
104 changes in fatty acid mobilization and utilization (23).

105

106 The confusing and conflicting messages provided by the media can however, be
107 harnessed to teach the ability to think critically to undergraduate students. The aim of
108 this article is to describe a teaching strategy for undergraduate students that utilised
109 the conflicting messages provided by media articles. In doing so, it is hoped that
110 students appreciate the value in questioning statements, such as those in the media,
111 and assessing the underlying evidence to form their own view on a topic.

112

113 **Overview of teaching sessions and target student population**

114 Since the example provided requires some prior knowledge of the physiology of
115 obesity and some appreciation of critical thinking, this teaching strategy is well-suited
116 to undergraduate students towards the latter stages of their degree. The general
117 principle of this strategy can be applied to many media articles that are published, but
118 herein is described one specific example, which is comprised of three main phases

119

120 *Phase One – Background information and completion of blank template*

121 Students are provided with a published newspaper article with the title “Going to the
122 gym could make you FAT: Genes blamed for weight gain may block the effects of
123 exercise” (20) and the subheadings:

124

- 125 • “So-called obesity genes could make exercise less beneficial, study found”
- 126 • “Women with high levels of the genes gained weight despite working out at the
127 gym three times a week for a year”
- 128 • “Those with low levels of the same genes lost weight over the year”
- 129 • “Muscle-gain didn’t play a part and experts say results could be because the
130 ‘obesity’ gene make people feel hungrier in the wake of a workout”(20)

131

132 This newspaper article is based on a study published in a respectable peer-reviewed
133 journal (15). Students are provided with some of the key details of the study, which
134 were that this was a block randomized trial examining the effect of resistance training
135 on bone and body composition in early post-menopausal women. One-hundred and
136 forty-eight post-menopausal women were randomized to either an exercise group
137 (intervention; $n = 84$) or a no exercise group (control; $n = 64$) stratified for use of
138 hormone replacement therapy. Those randomized to the exercise group performed
139 supervised 75-min sessions of resistance training, 3 days per week for 12 months.
140 Before and after the intervention, body mass and composition were determined by
141 dual-energy x-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) (15). Participants were subsequently
142 grouped according to “low”, “moderate” or “high” genetic risk of obesity based on 21
143 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) that have previously been associated with
144 body mass index.

145

146 Students are then provided with a task (in groups of 3-5 students), which is to complete
147 a paper-based template comprised of a three-panel figure (**Figure 2**). This figure
148 presents panels that are blank, to allow data to be drawn, but with the x- and y-axes
149 already labelled. The y-axis of **Figure 2A** represents the change in body mass; **Figure**
150 **2B**, the change in fat mass; and **Figure 2C**, the change in lean mass. The x-axis of all
151 figures is identical, from left to right labelled, “Low Genetic Risk”, “Intermediate Genetic
152 Risk”, and “High Genetic Risk”. Ideally, the data from this type of study design should
153 be assessed on the between-group post-scores using an ANCOVA, with baseline
154 values as the covariate (3). However, for simplicity, the students are asked to provide
155 the data as change scores (positive for an increase and negative for a decrease) with
156 error bars representing 95% confidence intervals (to indicate whether there is a
157 change from baseline) and demarcation of between-group effects with an asterisk. An
158 approximate time-frame of 15 minutes is provided to complete the activity, which is
159 dependent on the number of students present. During the activity, the tutor (in this
160 case the Professor) visits each group to engage with the students, check on progress,
161 and to answer any outstanding questions from the students that are required to
162 complete the activity.

163

164 *Phase two – Consensus on hypothetical data reflective of headlines*

165 Once all groups have completed the activity, the class is brought together to come to
166 a consensus. The tutor asks various groups to contribute their answers and draws on
167 the completed template on a board (or this can be performed on a computer with
168 projection). **Figure 3** represents an example of what the data could look like if they
169 represented the headlines of the newspaper. For the quote: “Women with high levels
170 of the genes gained weight despite working out at the gym three times a week for a

171 year”, the data show that the group with the “High genetic risk” display an increase in
172 body mass from baseline (indicated by the 95%CI not overlapping 0), and this group
173 display an increase in body mass compared to the “Low genetic risk” group (**Figure**
174 **3A**). These hypothetical data would be consistent with the statement that the
175 population with the high genetic risk scored gained weight in spite of the exercise
176 training intervention.

177

178 For the quote “Going to the gym could make you FAT: Genes blamed for weight gain
179 may block the effects of exercise” a similar pattern of hypothetical data is shown, but
180 this time for the change in fat mass. The groups with “low” or “moderate” genetic risk
181 display a reduction in fat mass in response to the training intervention, whereas the
182 group with high genetic risk score display an increase in fat mass in response to the
183 training intervention, with a statistically significant difference in fat mass response
184 between the “high” versus the “low” genetic risk groups (**Figure 3B**).

185

186 **Figure 3C** displays the hypothetical data that would support the quote “Muscle-gain
187 didn’t play a part”, assuming of course, that the journalist is referring to the change in
188 body mass when referring to “a part”. There could be multiple options to display
189 hypothetical data supporting that statement. The chosen option displayed to students
190 shows that none of the groups gained or lost lean body mass during the intervention,
191 and therefore changes in body mass must be due to factors other than lean mass.

192

193 Phase three – Revelation and discussion of true data

194 The final phase of the teaching exercise is to reveal the data presented in the
195 published paper (15). The figures were redrawn from the original paper and the 95%

196 confidence intervals were calculated from the standard error as previously described
197 (1). Students are presented with **Figure 4** and are asked to state a conclusion based
198 on the data. As can be seen from **Figure 4A**, none of the groups lost or gained body
199 mass following the intervention (as indicated by the 95%CI overlapping 0 for all
200 groups). Furthermore, there was no difference between groups in the change in body
201 mass.

202

203 **Figure 4B** illustrates that the “low genetic risk” group demonstrated a reduction in fat
204 mass in response to the intervention, however, the “intermediate” and “high” risk
205 groups did not show a reduction in fat mass. This provides a further discussion point
206 for the students, as the change from baseline in the “low risk group” that was not seen
207 in the other two groups, is often interpreted as consistent with the statement “Genes
208 blamed for weight gain may block the effects of exercise”. However, without a
209 statistical comparison *between* groups, this interpretation may be premature (3).

210

211 **Figure 4C** demonstrates the true data for lean mass. Both the “low” and “high” generic
212 risk groups displayed an increase in lean mass in response to training. These data are
213 therefore in direct conflict with the statement “Genes blamed for weight gain may block
214 the effects of exercise”. Moreover, they are also in direct contrast with the statement
215 “Muscle-gain didn’t play a part”. Since lean body mass has changed during the
216 intervention, changes in body mass must be due (in part) to changes in lean mass.

217

218 After the revelation and initial discussion of the data, the teaching exercise can be
219 expanded further. Students are asked whether they agree with the conclusions drawn
220 by the authors of the paper. Students can also discuss the reasons for why data can

221 be misrepresented by authors' conclusions, and further still by mass media report.
222 Areas to discuss here can include the pressure to publish and publication bias, the
223 pressure to achieve impact outside of academia, and the misinterpretation by
224 university press offices and journalists.

225

226 **Student perceptions and feedback**

227 This teaching strategy has been trialled over two years on an undergraduate Sport
228 and Exercise Science course. Since the data reported were collected as part of normal
229 education practices at the institution, a full review by the institutional review board was
230 not required for this study due to exemption 45 CFR 46.101(b)(1), as per US
231 Department of Health and Human Services guidelines (28). In year one this session
232 was delivered to 65 students. In year two, this session was delivered to 84 students.
233 Students have anonymously provided quantitative and qualitative feedback that is, on
234 the whole positive. The responses to the question posed "Please rate the quality of
235 teaching [by this tutor] from [Poor (1) to Excellent (5)]" resulted in a mean rating of $4 \pm$
236 1 arbitrary units (mean \pm SD) across both years, with a response rate of 52% and 54%
237 in year 1 and year 2, respectively. Whilst this question is not specific to the activity,
238 the tutor only delivered one session on this unit, and because the major focus of this
239 session was the task described, it is assumed that these scores are largely reflective
240 of the perceptions of this activity (including the delivery of the activity by the tutor).

241

242 Some of the positive comments from students included: "Really enjoyed the interactive
243 sessions", "Enjoyed the interactive tasks", and "Good approach to critical thinking".
244 The room which this task was delivered in was a tiered lecture theatre as part of a
245 long-term booking. Some students highlighted that the teaching space could have

246 been better suited to the task: “A better teaching room so that the interactive tasks are
247 easier to do!” and “Group discussion doesn’t work very well in a lecture setting”.
248 Therefore, it is recommended that this is performed in a flat room with a seating
249 arrangement that is suited to group work. Others were less positive about the task: “I
250 found the interactive elements of the unit hard to learn from, as the class is giving so
251 many different ideas and opinions on the questions, it is hard to know what is the ‘right’
252 answer, or way of answering”. It is therefore clear that the task was, on the whole, well
253 received, but some students may require more clarity at the end summary of the aims
254 of the task and the take away messages.

255

256 **Summary and conclusion**

257 To summarise, media articles were used in a task when teaching obesity physiology
258 with a three-step approach:

259

260 1) Background information and completion of blank template – Information on
261 the study design and media headlines is provided, and students complete a blank
262 template with hypothetical data that are reflective of the headlines

263

264 2) Consensus on hypothetical data reflective of headlines – Students share
265 their answers with the wider group. A consensus is met on hypothetical data that would
266 accurately reflect the media headlines

267

268 3) Revelation and discussion of true data – The true data are revealed, and
269 discussion takes place as to how accurate the media headlines and the authors’
270 conclusions are with respect to the published data.

271

272 In conclusion, the task described appears to have worked well for undergraduate
273 students in groups up to ~80 students. Key aspects to consider when delivering this
274 activity are that the room should be suitable for promoting group discussion, and the
275 summary at the end of the task should re-emphasise the purpose and outcomes of
276 the session.

277

278 **DISCLOSURES**

279 No conflicts of interest in relation to this paper, financial or otherwise are declared by
280 the author. J.T.G has received funding from The Physiological Society, The Rank Prize
281 Funds, The European Society for Clinical Nutrition and Metabolism, Lucozade Ribena
282 Suntory, Arla Foods Ingredients and Kenniscentrum Suiker & Voeding, and has
283 consulted for PepsiCo and The Dairy Council. These funding sources were not used
284 in the preparation of the present manuscript.

285

286 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

287 J.T.G. conceived and designed the research; prepared figures; drafted manuscript;
288 edited and revised manuscript; approved the final version of the manuscript

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388

389 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

390 **Figure 1.** Primary components of energy balance during hypothetical scenarios of
391 neutral energy balance (**A**), and a positive energy balance of 1000 kcal per day
392 achieved by either a decrease in energy expenditure (**B**) or an increase in energy
393 intake (**C**). CHO, carbohydrate; FAT, fat; PRO, protein; RMR, resting metabolic rate;
394 DIT, diet-induced thermogenesis; PAEE, physical activity energy expenditure (n.b.
395 PAEE also captures non-exercise activity thermogenesis).

396
397 **Figure 2.** Blank template provided to students. Students are required to complete the
398 figure with hypothetical data for body mass (**A**), fat mass (**B**) and lean mass (**C**) that
399 reflect the quotes provided. Quotes are from reference 20.

400
401 **Figure 3.** Example of a completed template with hypothetical data that reflect the
402 quotes in relation to body mass (**A**), fat mass (**B**) and lean mass (**C**). Quotes are from
403 reference 20. Data are means \pm 95%CI.

404
405 **Figure 4.** True data in relation to body mass (**A**), fat mass (**B**) and lean mass (**C**)
406 redrawn from reference 15. Quotes are from reference 20. Data are means \pm 95%CI.

407
408