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1 **“Thin people.... they’re healthy.” Young children’s understanding**
2 **of body weight change**

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14 literacy

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29

30 What is already known about this subject:

- 31 • Weight, especially overweight, is increasingly relevant to the lives of very
32 young children.
- 33 • Evidence that by the age of 5-years old, children show negative stereotyping
34 of fat body shapes, and knowledge about dieting and basic concepts related
35 to nutrition.
- 36 • That health literacy in children (and their parents) is fundamental to
37 engagement with and outcomes from health initiatives.

38

39 What this study adds:

- 40 • The breadth of understanding shown by very young children regarding the
41 motivations for and consequences of weight change.
- 42 • A demonstration of the utility of qualitative research with very young children.
- 43 • Information of value to those developing weight-related health literacy in
44 Primary school-aged children.

45

46 ABSTRACT

47 Background: While research has investigated negative stereotyping of fat body
48 shapes, little has focused on very young children's understanding of the
49 mechanisms, motivations, and consequences of weight change.

50 Objectives: To investigate children's understanding of how weight change is
51 achieved, people's motivation for weight change, and the consequences of weight
52 loss or weight gain.

53 Methods: One hundred children (mean age 5.2, 38 girls) read a book in which one
54 of the main characters (male/female according to the child's sex) was either healthy
55 weight or overweight. Afterwards, this character was described as gaining or losing
56 weight, and drawings which depicted the child in the story as either healthy weight or
57 overweight were presented to the child and discussed. An audio-recorded semi-
58 structured interview followed and transcripts were analyzed using thematic analysis.

59 Results: Nearly all children described the weight/shape change and attributed this to
60 food more frequently than exercise. Weight loss was viewed positively and both
61 motivations and consequences grouped under two master themes (physical and
62 social reasons). No clear gender differences were observed in these responses.

63 Conclusions: Talking with 5-year olds showed them to be observant and
64 knowledgeable, especially about motivations for and consequences of weight
65 change. For those working to improve children's health literacy this suggests
66 receptiveness to early and fact-based education.

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INTRODUCTION

71

72 Efforts to address obesity are increasingly focused on young children, at home and
73 at school. Reviews of interventions with children at pre-school and early school age
74 are broadly positive, indicating some impact on behaviours relevant to obesity (1).
75 Concurrently, surveillance programmes have been initiated to monitor trends in
76 prevalence and assess the impact of local initiatives. The National Child
77 Measurement Programme (NCMP) in the UK, for example, measures the height and
78 weight of all state Primary School children at two points (in Reception class, 4-5 year
79 olds, and Year 6, 10-11 year olds) (2). Parents are then sent written information
80 about their child's body weight. Benefits and negatives of the process have been
81 voiced and investigated (3). While likely to be experienced most keenly by those
82 most overweight, the consequences of surveillance are relevant to all children given
83 the inclusiveness of the process. Set against a background of promoting healthy
84 eating and activity in early care and educational settings, there are important
85 questions regarding what very young children understand about obesity and weight
86 change.

87

88 Three broad areas of investigation illustrate how informed children are by the age of
89 5. First, the negative stereotyping of fat body shapes or characters is apparent (4),
90 with friendship preferences especially influenced (5,6). In these experiments some
91 very young children reflect back the weight bias that is prominent in society.
92 Second, between a third and two thirds of US 5-year olds comprehend dieting as a
93 mechanism for weight loss, especially those whose mothers are currently or recently
94 dieting (7). When pressed regarding the meaning of dieting however, relatively few
95 relate this to food intake or weight loss (8). Third, 5-year old children have a basic
96 grasp of several aspects of nutrition and the purpose of eating (9). Many can

97 distinguish between photographs of healthy and less healthy foods (10), and they
98 can describe some of the benefits to healthy eating (11).

99

100 A few studies of this age group have also included prompts regarding children's
101 understanding of causes of overweight and/or weight gain. For example, when
102 asked, "What can make people weigh too much?", half of the 5-year old girls in
103 Abramovitz and Birch's (7) study referred to eating behaviours (e.g. eating lots of
104 food). In addition, Fielden et al (12) used toy foods and pictures as prompts with a
105 small group of 4-5-year olds. These children linked eating too much to becoming fat
106 and saw hospital treatment as the solution, but showed confusion between
107 describing foods as "good" (i.e. those they like to eat) and "healthy". What is
108 currently lacking in this literature is a specific focus on children's understanding of
109 how weight change is achieved (fat to thin, and vice versa), and the reasons for and
110 benefits of weight change.

111

112 Health literacy in children (and their parents) is fundamental to engagement with,
113 and outcomes from, health initiatives (13). It is argued that health literacy skills
114 should be encouraged from a very young age given that children see and react to
115 health messages and are increasingly involved in their own healthcare management
116 (14). Children's gender may also be relevant as reviews of research with older
117 children show that girls express more body dissatisfaction and more negativity to
118 heavier female body figures than boys (15). Accordingly, the present study aimed to
119 investigate very young children's understanding of how weight change is achieved,
120 people's motivations for weight change, and the consequences of weight loss or
121 weight gain. Potential gender differences in understanding were also examined.

122

123

124

METHODS

125 Participants

126 One hundred children (38 girls, 62 boys, mean age 5.2, range 4.0 to 6.9) from 2
127 Primary Schools in the North of England took part in the study. All participants were
128 either in Reception or Year 1 of the national curriculum in England and were those
129 for whom parental consent was received and who attended school on the study day.
130 They represented 48% of the school register for these classes. No information is
131 available on the non-participants. The schools' catchment areas varied but were
132 mostly low to middle class and around two thirds of the children had a white British
133 ethnic background. Ethical approval for the study was from the joint Leeds Institute
134 of Health Sciences, Leeds Institute of Genetics, Health and Therapeutics, and Leeds
135 Institute of Molecular Medicine ethics committee.

136

137 Materials

138 *Story books.* Four versions of a single story book developed by Harrison et al (6)
139 were used. They were identical except that one of the main characters ('Alfie')
140 appeared as healthy weight in one version of the book and as overweight in a
141 second. In the other books 'Alfina' (a female character) replaced 'Alfie', again as
142 healthy weight and overweight. Boys read the books with 'Alfie' and girls the books
143 with 'Alfina'. Allocation to the healthy weight or fat 'Alfie/Alfina' story book was done
144 on an alternating basis. The story was a simple narrative describing a cat that runs
145 up into a tree chasing birds. The books were designed to be colourful, clear and
146 simple, with the aim of being enjoyable for the child taking part. The presentation
147 style was consistent with a popular reading scheme used in English schools by this
148 age group of children.

149

150 *Character pictures.* After reading the story children were shown two pictures of
151 'Alfie/Alfina' on a single A4 laminated sheet (Figure 1). The figure of the left matched
152 'Alfie/Alfina' as represented in the story, the figure on the right was the opposite body
153 shape. Children were told, "This is Alfie/Alfina from the story when he/she is X-years
154 old (adjusted to match the age of the participant) and this is still Alfie/Alfina but
155 he/she is a little bit older" (the picture on the right).

156 - Figure 1 near here -

157

158 *Perceived body shape.* Children were asked to indicate their perceived body shape
159 using the gender-specific body figure scales of Collins (16). Each child was asked,
160 "Which child do you most look like?" from the 7 drawings of a child's body size
161 ranging from very thin to obese and following the procedure described by Holub
162 (2008).

163

164 Procedure

165 The researcher met with each child individually in a quiet part of the library area or
166 classroom, away from other children. The child's verbal assent was obtained and
167 the audio recorder switched on. Children were assured that there were no right or
168 wrong answers and that the researcher was interested in everything they had to say.
169 After reading the story book, children were presented with the two pictures of
170 'Alfie/Alfina' as described above. The following questions were asked in a semi-
171 structured interview format:

- 172 ▪ Do you think 'Alfie/Alfina' has changed?
- 173 ▪ What's changed about him/her?
- 174 ▪ What might have made him/her (child's own word for change)?

- 175 ▪ Do you think 'Alfie/Alfina' wanted to become (child's own word for change)?
- 176 ▪ Why do you think he/she wanted to become (child's own word for change)?
- 177 ▪ How do you think she feels now he/she's (child's own word for
- 178 change used)?
- 179 ▪ Are there any good things about becoming (child's own word for change)?
- 180 ▪ Are there any bad things about becoming (child's own word for change)?

181 Supplementary questions were used when prompting was necessary.

182

183 Finally, children were asked to indicate their perceived body shape using the Collins

184 scale. Audio recording was then stopped and children were given a sticker to thank

185 them for their participation.

186

187 Data analysis

188 The voice recordings were transcribed verbatim. Transcripts were analyzed using

189 thematic analysis (17). Initial themes were generated from the responses for each

190 research question. These themes were reviewed and refined until final master and

191 super-ordinate themes were decided upon. Thematic maps were created and

192 example responses were extracted for each theme.

193

194 The frequency data generated from the children's responses were organized and

195 tabulated, according to the primary and secondary questions asked during the

196 interview. Chi-squared tests examined differences in proportions of statements

197 regarding weight loss and gain, and between girls' and boys' responses. The

198 likelihood of difference was expressed as a risk ratio with 95% confidence intervals.

199

200

201 RESULTS

202 Children’s perception of how body weight is changed

203 In response to the question of whether ‘Alfie/Alfina’ had changed and what had
204 changed about them, over half (56%) of the children referred specifically to ‘fat’ and
205 ‘thin’ (e.g. “He’s got fat!”), 26% reported it in relation to size (e.g. “Alfina’s a bit
206 bigger”), and 7% to shape (e.g. “He’s got round”). Only 6% of children failed to
207 identify the change in response to this first question.

208
209 In relation to what might have made ‘Alfie/Alfina’ change, food was referred to by
210 96% (49/51) of children in relation to weight gain and 55% (27/49) in relation to
211 weight loss. Accordingly, children were 1.74 (95% CI: 1.34, 2.26) times more likely
212 to mention food in relation to weight gain than to weight loss. Exercise (mainly lack
213 of it) was referred to by 37% (19/51) of children in relation to weight gain whereas
214 65% (32/49) did so in relation to weight loss. Children were 1.75 (1.16, 2.64) times
215 more likely to mention exercise in relation to weight loss than to weight gain.

216
217 Further examination showed that 80% (39/49) of the children who mentioned food in
218 relation to weight gain did so without being prompted during the interview, whereas
219 only 11% (2/19) mentioned exercise without a prompt (a significant difference in
220 proportions, $\chi^2(1)=27.28$, $p<.001$). Similarly, children who mentioned food in relation
221 to weight loss were 2.70 (1.31, 5.60) times more likely to do so without a prompt than
222 mention exercise without a prompt (59% vs. 22%). There were no sex differences in
223 these references, unprompted or prompted.

224
225 Children who thought food was involved in ‘Alfie/Alfina’s’ weight change were asked
226 ‘What kind of food might ‘A’ have eaten?’ Children spoke more about the amount of

227 food eaten than the type of food eaten. Some 69% (34/49) of children thought that
228 'Alfie/Alfina' had increased his/her food intake to increase weight (e.g. "She's eaten
229 lots of food") and 44% (12/27) thought reducing food intake caused the decrease in
230 weight. Of those in the weight gain group, 37% (18/49) spoke about 'Alfie/Alfina'
231 eating high energy food (e.g. "*Her eated lots of sweeties....and a big fat cookie*"). In
232 addition, girls were more likely than boys to mention high calorie food (36% vs. 16%,
233 $\chi^2(1)=4.02$, $p <.02$). There were several others who mixed high and low energy
234 foods e.g. "*He eats lots of food...(like) apples, orange, chocolate and ice-cream*"
235 (Boy, Weight Gain Group); "*Eaten too much...fatty stuff...(like) broccoli, carrots,*
236 *potato, erm chicken*" (Boy, Weight Gain Group).

237

238 When asked about the type of exercise that was involved in 'Alfie/Alfina's' weight
239 change, children were 2.08 (1.02, 4.22) times more likely to give examples in the
240 weight loss group than in the weight gain group (66% (15/23) vs 32% (6/19)). In
241 addition, boys were 1.95 (1.05, 3.61) times more likely than girls to mention a type of
242 exercise (68% vs. 35%) regardless of the direction of weight change (e.g. "*Exercise*
243 *makes you more thin...(like) playing football*"; Boy, Weight Loss Group). Many of the
244 children in the weight gain group gave reasons that referred to the absence or
245 reduction of exercise (e.g. "*Exercise will make her thin so no...I think she's been*
246 *lazing around and being lazy*"). Similarly, children in the weight loss group referred
247 to how an increase in exercise would decrease 'Alfie/Alfina's' weight (e.g. "*He might*
248 *of done star jumps and a little bit more sporty...cos they make you fit...fit and*
249 *healthy*"). There was no sex difference in these responses.

250

251 Motivations for body weight change

252 Table 1 shows that 82% (40/49) of children in the weight loss group thought that
253 'Alfie/Alfina' wanted to change weight (from fat to thin), compared with 35% (18/51)
254 of children in the weight gain group. Accordingly, children in the weight loss group
255 were 2.31 (1.56, 3.43) times more likely to think that 'Alfie/Alfina' wanted to lose
256 weight (when fat) than gain weight (when healthy weight), views that did not differ
257 between girls and boys.

258

259 Over half the sample (55%) gave answers to the question, 'Why do you think
260 'Alfie/Alfina' did/did not want to change weight?' Again, there were no clear sex
261 differences (in frequency or content) and children's responses are summarized in a
262 single thematic map (Figure 2). Two master themes (physical and social reasons)
263 and four super-ordinate themes grouped children's reasons for 'Alfie/Alfina' wanting
264 to lose weight. Improving physical competence and reducing illness accounted for
265 half of these responses. The avoidance of negative comments from others was
266 another common theme for weight loss, and bridging the physical and social master
267 themes was improvement in appearance. These super-ordinate themes were
268 mirrored in the reasoning of children for whom 'Alfie/Alfina' gained weight. The
269 negative aspects of appearance were commented on, as were the negative
270 reactions of others. There were perceived physical downsides as well, especially in
271 relation to activity and games participation.

272

- Table 1 and Figure 2 near here -

273

274 The smaller number of children who said 'Alfie/Alfina' would want to gain weight also
275 gave physical competence ("*He can smash up the baddies*"; "*She wants to do things*
276 *that are more grown up*") and appearance reasons ("*She's too skinny and she*

277 *doesn't like to be*"). Two children (girls) saw the benefit in food consumption ("*She*
278 *gets to eat lots of food*").

279

280 The consequences of body weight change

281 Children's responses to, 'How do you think 'Alfie/Alfina' feels now he/she has
282 changed?' were coded by affective valence. The majority (84%, 41/49) of children in
283 the weight loss group thought that 'Alfie/Alfina' would be experiencing positive
284 feelings. They were 3.05 (1.92, 4.83) times more likely to mention positive emotions
285 in relation to weight loss than those in the weight gain group. Complementing this,
286 children were 8.65 (2.80, 26.67) times more likely to think 'Alfie/Alfina' was
287 experiencing negative emotions due to weight gain than to weight loss (53% (27/51)
288 vs 6% (3/49)). Furthermore, regardless of the direction of change, girls were more
289 likely to infer negative feelings (41% vs. 23%, $\chi^2(1)=3.70$, $p<.05$) and boys positive
290 feelings (62% vs 44%, $\chi^2(1)=3.36$, $p<.05$) in response to 'Alfie/Alfina's' body weight
291 change.

292

293 When asked about the good or bad things about changing weight, children in the
294 weight gain group were more likely to provide a detailed answer than children in the
295 weight loss group (78% vs 63%). However, there was no sex difference in the
296 number of responses. The thematic map (Figure 3) shows that physical ability was
297 frequently commented on by children. Improvements in physical ability were the
298 most frequently cited positive consequence of weight loss and limitations associated
299 with weight gain. Poor health or physical state was the main perceived negative
300 consequence of weight gain. Far fewer children commented on health improvement
301 as a consequence of weight loss. The negative reactions of others were equally

302 referred to, in terms of their removal or increase. Issues related to appearance were
303 raised only when 'Alfie/Alfina' gained weight.

304 - Figure 3 near here -

305

306 Of the few responses that were coded as negative about weight loss and positive
307 about weight gain, they fell into 3 broad groupings. One related to the change in age
308 introduced as the rationale for change in body weight; five children referred to the
309 advantages of being older (e.g. *"You get to learn things, big things"*). A further five
310 saw some benefit to physical activity (e.g. *"If you're big you can reach up to a tree
311 and you can climb up a tree"*). Poor health was a negative reason for losing weight
312 for just 2 children (*"If you get too thin you could die"*).

313

314 Finally, girls and boys indicated their perceived body shape at a modal value of 4 on
315 the Collins scale with the full range of shapes being selected. A sample of 20
316 interviews was examined, choosing children from across the range of body shape
317 choices. There was no discernable pattern that associated children's body shape
318 choices with their verbal responses.

319

320

DISCUSSION

321 An increased emphasis on food, eating and (over-) weight has been a consequence
322 of the activities that have included very young children in health promotion, weight
323 surveillance and obesity prevention. And yet we are uncertain regarding what
324 knowledge children have about weight change when they start school. Talking to
325 very young children about weight change showed them to be observant and
326 knowledgeable. Nearly all children reported on the change in the story character's
327 appearance in terms of weight or shape. They all talked about either food or activity

328 in relation to weight loss and weight gain, although food was more likely to be
329 mentioned and often without prompting. The frequent and spontaneous references
330 to food and/or activity as reasons for weight change are consistent with the simple
331 input-output rules relating eating to body weight previously observed in children aged
332 5 (9, 11). The main contribution of this study however, is in revealing these
333 children's understanding of the motivations for, and consequences of, weight
334 change. The majority of children gave reasons that encompassed health, physical
335 ability, concern for appearance, and the (often negative) behaviours of others. While
336 children's conversations were fairly brief, the perceived benefits of weight loss were
337 clear in their responses, as were the drawbacks of obvious weight gain.

338

339 Children's ability to identify the change in body weight or shape, relate this to eating
340 and activity, and appear relatively sophisticated in their reasoning, reflects normal
341 cognitive development. Earlier research on children's thinking about food and eating
342 adhered closely to Piagetian stages, noting the distinction between pre-operational
343 and operational thought at age 6-7 (19, 20). However, various cognitive and
344 linguistic achievements are now recognised prior to this age and are relevant to the
345 present study. For example, children's physical body awareness emerges from
346 around 20 months. By the age of two and a half, most children can locate and label
347 common body parts (e.g. nose, hand, foot) and show a basic awareness of their own
348 body size relative to the physical environment (21). This body knowledge increases
349 rapidly thereafter and is strongly related to the frequency with which caregivers name
350 parts of the body in social interactions and play (22). The distinctions between fat
351 and thin, or big and little, are body shape comparatives that are frequently heard,
352 acquired early and talked about by children. They mirror other comparatives (e.g.
353 good/bad, hard/soft, tall/short) that children understand and use by age 3. By the

354 age of 4, normally developing children have also acquired a knowledge of intentional
355 states i.e. what another person might be thinking or might want and that others have
356 feelings and motivations that may be different to their own (23). This acquisition of a
357 theory of mind influences social interactions and their interpretation, in everyday life
358 as well as in stories.

359

360 That children volunteered health, physical function, appearance, and the avoidance
361 of social censure as under-pinning weight change, reflects the public discourse on
362 body weight. The social impact of body size or weight is apparent in evidence from
363 studies of older Junior school aged children (15). This review of research published
364 between 1997 and 2010 noted more evidence of social negativity to overweight
365 (people being judged by their weight and discriminated against) than children's
366 awareness that overweight impacted on health. In relation to the consequences of
367 weight change, children in the present study were more likely to describe health,
368 physical state or ability, than social reasons. This difference in outcome may be due
369 to a variety of features. For example, we asked directly about consequences whilst
370 most previous research has directed attention to children's awareness of body
371 weight and shape stereotypes. Within the story that preceded discussion the
372 children were playing with a ball in the park. In addition, our research was
373 conducted at school where activity and health have prominence in the curricular and
374 everyday activities of these children. Alternatively, the difference may reflect the
375 increased access to information on weight and eating that this sample of children
376 has compared with those a decade and more ago.

377

378 Interestingly, we detected no influence of children's own body size on their
379 expressed views. There are concerns regarding the reliability of body shape choices

380 made at this age given the absence of psychometrically tested instruments (24). In
381 addition, we chose to use body shape selections rather than to recruit and compare
382 measured obese and healthy weight children. Past experience is that a requirement
383 to weigh children (outside of the NCMP assessment) drastically reduces parental
384 consent. Neither were there major gender differences in children's responses. Girls
385 inferred more negative emotions and boys more positive feelings as consequences
386 of weight change, regardless of direction. However, there were no differences in the
387 number or proportions of physical or social reasons for motivations or consequences
388 of weight change.

389

390 In terms of strengths, the present study had a large sample size and used a
391 qualitative research approach. The latter is a reminder of the viability of qualitative
392 research with young children (25) and the value of listening to what they have to say.
393 Like others (e.g. 12), we used good quality visual aids (story books and pictures) in a
394 familiar environment to help generate discussion. Regarding weaknesses, the study
395 recruited fewer girls than boys, and drew from a single geographical area. Without
396 information on ethnicity or social class variation this limits generalizability of the
397 study findings. We also noted confusion in a few children regarding how 'Alfie/Afina'
398 differed i.e. a few children interpreted a difference in age rather than body
399 weight/shape.

400

401 Future research could relate children's knowledge and attitudes to their social
402 environment. These are likely to be influenced by having older siblings and by
403 parental obesity and/or dieting behaviour (7). Very young children's illness causality
404 understanding is strongly influenced by illness experiences and messages within the

405 family (26). Similar family socialization processes would be expected in families for
406 whom obesity or weight change are prominent.

407

408 In conclusion, this research is testimony to the knowledge, broad in compass but
409 limited in depth, which many 5-year olds have regarding body weight and weight
410 change. It varies widely between individuals but reflects what is common in public
411 discourse. Given space (offered in this qualitative approach), many children voiced
412 issues other than the stereotyped character values of body shape and appearance.
413 That children of this age will reflect on physical function and health indicates that
414 they may be receptive to early and fact-based education on weight and weight
415 change. If children's health literacy is a valued and agreed objective (27) then this
416 should be assurance for those who design such programmes. Improvements in
417 weight-related health literacy could also help counter stereotyping and anti-fat
418 attitudes.

419

420 CONFLICT OF INTEREST

421 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

422

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429

430

431

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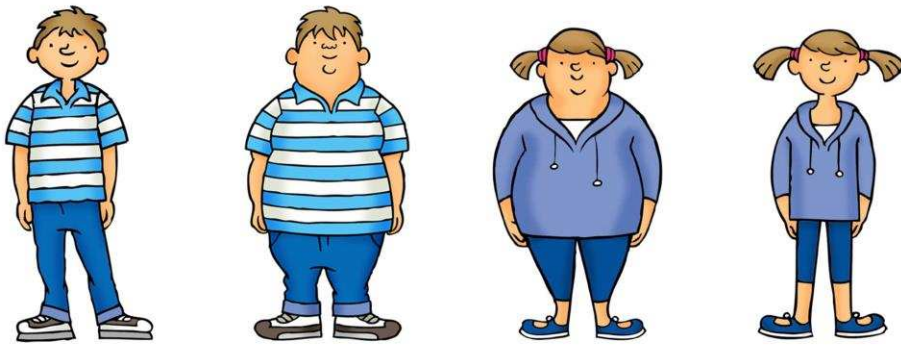
497 Table 1: Children’s agreement regarding whether ‘Alfie/Alfina’ wanted
 498 to lose or gain weight (% , N).
 499
 500

	Weight loss		Weight gain	
	Alfie (N=32)	Alfina (N=17)	Alfie (N=29)	Alfina (N=22)
‘Alfie/Alfina’ wanted to change weight	84 (27)	76 (13)	31 (9)	41 (9)
Proportion providing a detailed answer	63 (20)	29 (5)	52 (15)	68 (15)

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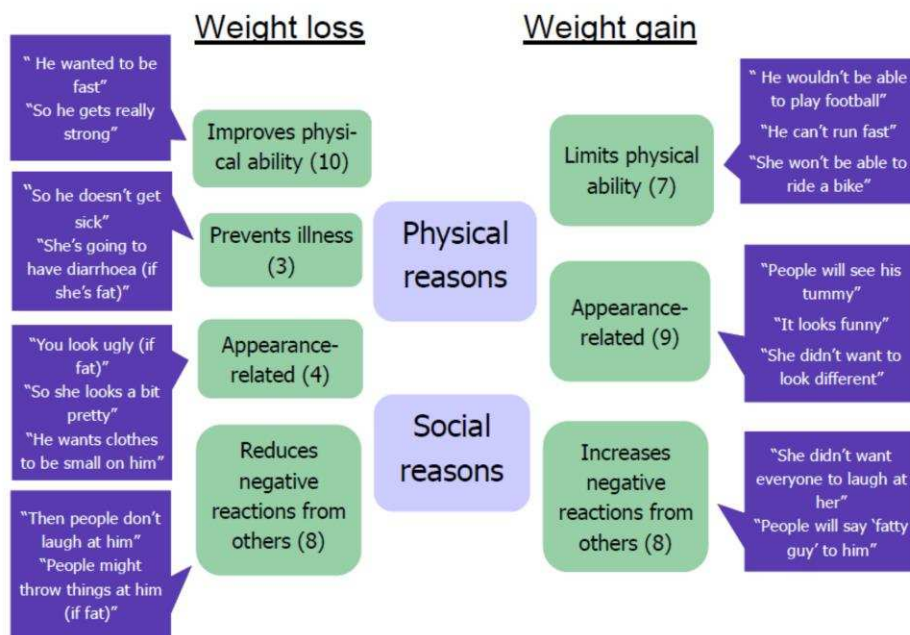
503 Figure 1: The drawings of 'Alfie' and 'Alfina' (normal weight and fat) used to indicate
504 body weight change.
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508 **Figure 2:** Thematic map of children’s perceived motivations for body weight change
 509 (open boxes are master themes, shaded boxes are super-ordinate themes).
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512

513 **Figure 3:** Thematic map of children's perceived consequences of body weight
 514 change (shaded boxes are super-ordinate themes).
 515

