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# elearning approaches to prevent weight-gain in young adults: a randomised controlled study

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**Running title:** Weight-gain prevention in young adults

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**What is already known about this subject?**

- Young adulthood is a period of rapid weight-gain, leading to obesity for many
- Effective obesity prevention, specifically for young adults, is not currently routinely available or provided

**What does your study add?**

- Two potentially transferable on-line programmes, based on different theoretical models, to prevent weight-gain overtly or covertly, were both associated with prevention of the usual weight-gain observed in young adults

1 **Abstract** (word count=200, word limit=200)

2 **Objective:** Preventing obesity among young-adults should be a preferred public health  
3 approach given the limited efficacy of treatment interventions. This study examined  
4 whether weight-gain can be prevented by on-line approaches using two different  
5 behavioural models, one overtly directed at obesity and the other covertly.

6 **Methods:** A three-group-parallel randomised controlled intervention was conducted in  
7 2012-2013 (trial registration number: UMIN000014529); 20,975 young-adults were  
8 allocated *a priori* to one control and two 'treatment' groups.

9 Two treatment groups were offered on-line courses over 19 weeks on 1) personal weight-  
10 control ('Not-The-Ice-Cream-Van', 'NTICV'), 2) political, environmental and social issues  
11 around food ('Goddess Demetra', 'GD'). Control-group received no-contact. The primary  
12 outcome was weight-change over 40-weeks.

13 **Results:** Within-group 40-week weight-changes were different between groups ( $p < 0.001$ ):  
14 Control ( $n=2,134$ ):  $+2.0\text{kg}$ (95%CI 1.5, 2.3kg); NTICV ( $n=1,810$ ):  $-1.0\text{kg}$ (95%CI -1.3, -0.5); and  
15 GD ( $n=2,057$ ):  $-1.35\text{kg}$ (95%CI -1.4, - 0.7). Relative risks for weight-gain vs control:  
16 NTICV= $0.13\text{kg}$  (95% CI= $0.10, 0.15$ )  $p < 0.0001$ ; GD= $0.07\text{kg}$ (95% CI= $0.05, 0.10$ )  $p < 0.0001$ .

17 **Conclusion:** Both interventions were associated with prevention of the weight-gain  
18 observed among control subjects. This low-cost intervention could be widely transferable as  
19 one tool against the obesity epidemic. Outside the RCT setting it could be enhanced using  
20 supporting advertising and social media.

21

## 22 Introduction

23

24 Obesity is a major public health concern but its treatment has been of limited efficacy<sup>1</sup>.  
25 Obesity prevention appears a preferable public health approach, but few reliable and  
26 effective, sustainable, solutions have been developed to date. Weight-gain, potentially  
27 leading to obesity, is most rapid in the transitional period spanning adolescence and young  
28 adulthood<sup>2,3</sup>, and especially noted in those attending higher education<sup>4,5,6</sup>. Maintaining a  
29 healthy lifestyle throughout young adulthood has been shown to be an effective way of  
30 reducing the risk for chronic disease such as cardiovascular disease<sup>7</sup>. In theory, preventing  
31 this weight-gain should be relatively easy to achieve since the average weight-gain observed  
32 requires only an extra 50-100 kcal/day above estimated energy requirements. In reality,  
33 factors affecting human behaviour and weight equilibrium can vary extensively<sup>8,9</sup> and  
34 relapse into previous behaviours has been the rule<sup>10</sup>. The use of behavioural models for the  
35 prevention of weight-gain is under-researched.

36

37 US and UK public health policy encourages lifestyle changes to improve population health  
38 and outcomes by drawing attention to personal responsibility and empowerment<sup>11,12</sup>.  
39 Young-adults are establishing lifestyle habits independently, often for the first time<sup>13</sup>. Since  
40 young-adults are going to form future workforce and be the parents of the future,  
41 empowering them to resist unwanted weight-gain by establishing healthy lifestyles will lead  
42 to multiple benefits both at personal and societal level. However, young-adults are often  
43 resistant to advice and 'hard-to-reach' for health promotion. Young adulthood is a relatively  
44 overlooked lifecycle period for intervention, but concern about body weight is often high.

45

46 Advances in the technology and increased use of internet provide a low-cost platform for  
47 delivering and disseminating health messages. A new and evolving area in the promotion of  
48 lifestyle changes is elearning ie the use of interactive electronic media to facilitate teaching  
49 and learning. Given the high percentage of internet users, internet interventions are

50 underutilized. Over 80% of young people have smart-phones now, even in deprived  
51 communities, and 89.6% and 84.2% of the citizens have access to the Internet in the UK and  
52 US, respectively<sup>14</sup>.

53

54 The present study examined the effectiveness of elearning approaches for preventing  
55 weight-gain and encouraging healthier lifestyles among young-adults in higher education  
56 based on two different behavioural models.

57

## 58 **Methods**

59 The trial was approved by the College of Medicine, Veterinary, and Life Sciences ethical  
60 committee and registered in the Clinical Trials Register of Japan, registration number:  
61 UMIN000014529). A separate study measuring and validating weights and heights in the  
62 same subject-base was approved by the NHS Glasgow and Clyde Ethics Committee.

63

## 64 **Participants and setting**

65 Eligible participants for this study were young-adults registered for undergraduate studies at  
66 a large multidisciplinary university, in a country with a very high prevalence of obesity,  
67 approaching 30% of all adults<sup>15</sup>.

68

## 69 **Design**

70 A three-group parallel randomized controlled trial design was employed for the  
71 intervention, with an observational design for outcome data collection.

72

73 University email addresses and registration numbers were provided by registry to  
74 researchers, and used for *a priori* randomisation to 'treatment' or control groups, using  
75 statistical software (SPSS 19, Chicago). A table was created based on a unique 6-digit  
76 number for each of the 20,975 eligible participants. All were randomised, with 6,991  
77 participants in group 1 (Treatment-1), 6,992 participants in group 2 (control group), and  
78 6,992 participants in group 3 (Treatment-2), respectively (Figure 1). This large number  
79 ensured power to detect or exclude a small effect size and allowed for a potentially high  
80 non-response rate. In order to avoid inter-group contamination, and to retain a 'realistic'  
81 design, so that results might be directly applicable to other real-life settings, publicity about  
82 the interventions was avoided. Intervention groups were told that as part of university-wide  
83 services some new non-matriculated courses were being trialled for some students, and  
84 that participation was voluntary but not that allocation of the courses was random. There  
85 was no academic advantage to participation, and no disadvantage from declining. The act  
86 of following the link to the courses and subscribing to them implied consent. Participants  
87 had no obligation to continue logging in the courses or participate in any activities. This  
88 'covert' approach was approved by the ethical committee as no potential harm to  
89 participants was identified. No financial or academic incentives were offered for  
90 participation, and there was no pressure to participate from 'reminder' invitations.

91

92 Weight-changes over the academic year (a 40-week period) in the population randomised to  
93 the RCT were collected through a questionnaire designed to explore lifestyle changes in  
94 young-adults. This was administered on-line to all students, separately and unconnected  
95 from the intervention, in order to reduce risk of biasing recruitment or responses for self-  
96 reported body-weight and height. An information sheet was incorporated into the  
97 questionnaire and completing the questionnaire implied consent to that study. Participants  
98 were free to withdraw from the study at any time and incomplete questionnaires were not  
99 stored. A commercial survey method was used to collect responses (SurveyMonkey,  
100 California, <https://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/aboutus/>).

101

102 Recognising the potential for bias in self-reported data, the self-reported weight and height  
103 data were validated against two different sets of measured data. One validation was  
104 conducted against data measured independently at the General Practitioner (GP) surgery  
105 located within the university campus. At the time of registration with the GP at the start of  
106 the academic year, all students are required to provide basic health information and have  
107 their weight and height measured by nursing staff using stadiometer and set of scales. The  
108 self-reported weights and heights from study participants were matched with their data  
109 collected from GP records and compared using statistical methods.

110

111 A second subsample of study participants was visited at their place of residence at the start  
112 of the academic year. Their weights and heights were measured using Portable Stadiometer  
113 and a set of electronic scales (SECA), and those data were matched with their self-reported  
114 data.

115

#### 116 **Power Calculation and Masking**

117 Sample size was estimated using data from a study<sup>16</sup> conducted in similar subjects, aged 20  
118 (SD 3.6) which showed a mean 9-month weight-gain without intervention of 1.8kg, with SD  
119 2.6. The power calculation (IBM-SPSS SamplePower) indicated that there would be 85%  
120 power to detect a difference in weight change of 1.8kg between intervention and control  
121 groups with a minimum of 290 evaluable participants in each group. Researchers were  
122 blinded to the group identity until after analysis.

123

#### 124 **Intervention**

#### 125 **Materials, Delivery and Timings**

126 Materials for the two intervention groups were developed based on the behavioural models  
127 described in the section below and tailored to the specific age group and time of the year

128 when the programmes were delivered (**Table 1**). A group of three people with expertise in  
129 nutrition and public health were involved in the content development of resources. A  
130 member of the team who also had expertise in web designing managed the learning  
131 platform (uploading the developed materials, storage and access) and further tailored the  
132 graphics for the materials. The time required to design and finalise the materials was about  
133 140 hours per person spread over 20 weeks. Materials for the intervention were delivered  
134 in weekly instalments using the learning platform 'Moodle' which records each participant's  
135 'log-in' times, dates and the on-line resources accessed and time spent on each. These data  
136 allowed an independent assessment of the use of the materials developed for the  
137 interventions. Emailing lists were created for each group, and every week an email was sent,  
138 informing participants of the topic for the week, with a password reminder for accessing the  
139 new materials that had been uploaded. Materials were posted weekly for 19 weeks with  
140 the exception of Christmas and Easter holidays, and remained accessible thereafter.  
141 Mailboxes were created for each group to allow communication between participants and  
142 feedback to the administrator if necessary.

143

144

#### 145 **Behavioural models**

146 Use of an appropriate behavioural theory to design interventions is associated with larger  
147 effect sizes, according to a recent review and meta-analysis<sup>17</sup>. For the present study two  
148 contrasting simple theoretical models were used.

149 *Treatment 1 'NOT THE ICE CREAM VAN' (NTICV)*. This treatment followed the 'rational  
150 model'<sup>18</sup>, based on the assumption that people, when provided with information, will make  
151 the best choice for themselves with a view to maximising utility. While information  
152 exchange has been rather unsuccessful among obese subjects in weight-loss strategies<sup>19</sup>,  
153 this rational model may fit better with weight-gain prevention. Thus the NTICV programme  
154 was directed towards non-obese people and addressed unwanted weight-gain and obesity  
155 overtly. The title referred to 'ice cream vans' (vendor trucks), which tour around  
156 neighbourhoods daily, as an obesogenic 'vector' which is very familiar to young-adults in UK:

157 this detail can be adapted to suit other cultural situations.

158

159 *Treatment 2 'Goddess Demetra' (GD)*. This treatment was based on the 'stealth' model<sup>20</sup>  
160 directed at behaviours that are motivating in themselves, the desired outcome being a 'side-  
161 effect' of the intervention. This programme (named after the Greek goddess responsible for  
162 earth and sustainable food) aimed to prevent obesity covertly, by raising discussion around  
163 social and political movements which are associated with more, or less, healthful diets and  
164 lifestyles.

165

## 166 **Statistical Analysis**

167 Analyses were conducted using an intention-to-treat (ITT) approach to enhance  
168 methodological study quality<sup>21</sup> as recommended by the CONSORT group for improving the  
169 quality of reporting the results from parallel group randomised trials<sup>22</sup>. It aims to protect  
170 against threats to validity from attrition or incomplete responses<sup>23</sup> by analysing all data  
171 based on each participant's assigned group. For participants who did not provide follow-up  
172 data, the mean weight-change of responders in the group was assumed. Analyses of  
173 variance (ANOVAs) were conducted at baseline and follow-up to assess for any significant  
174 differences among the three groups (two interventions, one control). Independent t-tests  
175 were also conducted to test for differences between groups. Pearson correlation was used  
176 to examine the strength of relationships between self-reported and measured  
177 anthropometric data and Bland-Altman plots were used to assess the degree of agreement  
178 for the same.

179

## 180 **Results**

181 During the study, 1,412 'active participants' (23% of randomised subjects) logged-in at least  
182 once to the NTICV programme and 625 (11% of randomised subjects) to GD. Those subjects

183 randomised to intervention groups who subscribed to the groups and accessed the Moodle  
184 sites are defined as 'active' participants. Those who received the weekly emails but did not  
185 subscribe, and were not actively seeking to be removed from the mailing lists, are defined as  
186 'non-active' participants. Twelve subjects asked to be removed from the NTICV mailing list,  
187 and three from GD.

188

### 189 **Weight-changes**

190 Baseline body-weight was provided by 5,903 participants and follow-up body-weight by  
191 4,879 (follow-up rate 83%) (**Table 2**). Participants who provided follow-up data did not differ  
192 significantly from those who did not, by age, weight, height, or BMI. All weight-change data  
193 were found to be approximately normally distributed, using the Smirnov-Kolmogorov test.

194 Mean overall weight-change over the 40-week study-period for all participants (n=5,903)  
195 was -0.35 (95% CI -0.6, 0.3) kg. Mean overall weight-change within groups was: control  
196 group (n=2,134): +2.0kg (95%CI +1.5, +2.3); NTICV group (n=1,810): -1.0kg (95%CI -1.3, -0.5);  
197 and GD group (n=2,057): -1.4kg (95%CI -1.4, - 0.7) (**Table 3, Figure 2**). Weight-changes  
198 within groups remained significant (all p<0.001) when analysed separately for men and  
199 women.

200

201 Significant weight-loss was seen in both intervention groups for 'active' participants (those  
202 who logged in to the group at least once): NTICV (n=1,317) -1.2kg (95%CI -1.6, -0.6) p=0.001,  
203 and GD (n=592) -1.5kg (95%CI -1.7, -0.9) p=<0.001. The changes were statistically significant  
204 for both men and women when analysed separately. Among 'non-active' participants (who  
205 were receiving the weekly emails but never logged into the programmes), there were no  
206 significant weight-changes over the 40-week study period: NTICV (n=413): -0.1kg (95%CI -  
207 0.3, 0.2), p=0.743, GD (n=1,165): -0.2kg (95%CI -0.5, 0.4) p=0.675.

208 Odds ratios for weight-loss, compared to the control group, were; NTICV=27 (95% CI 21.7-  
209 33.6) p<0.0001, GD=43.8 (95% CI 31.0- 62.0) p<0.0001.

210 Relative risks for weight-gain, vs control, were: NTICV=0.13kg (95% CI=0.10, 0.15)  $p<0.0001$ ;  
211 GD=0.07kg (95% CI=0.05, 0.10)  $p<0.0001$ .

212

### 213 **Validation of weights and heights**

214 Measured data were available for 1,448 participants (1,283 from GP data, 165 measured by  
215 principal researcher). Pearson correlations between these measures was very high,  $r=0.998$ ,  
216  $r=0.999$  respectively, with a mean under-report of 0.5kg for weight.

217

### 218 **Log-in activity and weight-changes**

219 The use of the Moodle platform/week of both interventions fell by approximately 50% for  
220 the NTICV and by a third for the GD, during the intervention (**Figure 3**).

221 *Rational Model-NTICV:* Over the study period, 1,412 young-adults (mean age 18.4 SD3.1,  
222 68% women) who subscribed as active participants made 10,470 log-ins to the home-page,  
223 with 5,410 viewings of weekly-materials. Of these, 305 participants logged in only once, 638  
224 participants 2-5 times, 220 participants 6-10 times and 248 participants  $\geq 11$  times, up to an  
225 individual maximum of 106 log-ins. The average number of log-ins per active participant  
226 was 7.2 (SD4.1) up to an individual maximum of 106 log-ins. Mean log-in time per  
227 participant was 14.0(7.7) minutes. There was an inverse correlation ( $-0.217$ ,  $p=0.01$ )  
228 between the number of log-ins and weight-change for the NTICV group.

229 *Stealth Model-GD:* 625 young-adults (mean age 21.4SD2.9, 48% women) subscribed to the  
230 group, making 5,863 log-ins with 1,233 viewings of weekly-materials. Of these, 169  
231 participants logged in only once, 343 participants 2-5 times, 65 participants 6-10 times and  
232 47participants  $\geq 11$ , up to an individual maximum of 50 log-ins. The average number of log-  
233 ins per active participant were 5.4 (SD 3.4), with an individual maximum of 50. Mean log-in  
234 time/participant was 17.0(SD 9.1) minutes. There was no significant correlation between  
235 log-in frequency and weight-change for the GD group.

236

237 Analysed by weight-change category, both intervention groups showed fewer log-ins among  
238 weight-gainers, and more among weight-losers ( $p=0.034$ ) (**Figure 4**). Analysed separately by  
239 gender, log-in frequency was higher among women losing weight, but not men.

240

## 241 **Discussion**

242 This study evaluated a web-based intervention to prevent weight-gain in young-adults. Two  
243 different behavioural models were examined, both of which were associated with avoidance  
244 of the increase in body weight usually seen among young-adults in the UK and US, with  
245 similar effect sizes. Without intervention, the weight-gain in the control group was similar to  
246 that observed in previous studies among young-adults in the UK<sup>16,24</sup>. A 'rational theory'  
247 intervention used a culture-specific model appropriate to young-adults in the UK, with the  
248 'ice-cream van' as a familiar and eye-catching focus as a weight-gain vector, through which  
249 to deliver an overt individually-relevant weight-control programme. A second 'stealth  
250 model' aimed to generate interest in food production and marketing and related  
251 environmental and political issues, which contribute to overconsumption and weight-gain at  
252 a population level. Both interventions were associated with prevention of weight-gain for  
253 substantial proportions of young adult who engaged with the programmes, and could be  
254 adapted to be delivered using other culture-specific 'hooks' in other countries and for  
255 different population sectors.

256

257 Three previous studies<sup>25,26,27</sup> of programmes against weight-gain have been conducted in  
258 higher-education settings, all small. Hivert<sup>25</sup> et al randomised 115 students to control, or  
259 an intervention group which received seminars on obesity, weight, physical activity, diet,  
260 fortnightly for two months and then monthly until 24 months. The control group gained  
261 0.7(SD 0.6)kg while the intervention group lost 0.7(SD 0.4)kg ( $p=0.04$ ). The other studies  
262 were all negative. Gow<sup>26</sup> et al tested an online seminar on diet, delivered weekly in a 6-week  
263 4-arm randomised trial. Those who received the seminar lost weight but only if combined

264 with self-weighing using scales provided in the gym. Dennis<sup>27</sup> et al assessed two on-line  
265 courses based on social cognitive theory, supplemented by face-to-face lessons delivered by  
266 an instructor. One of the groups received additional instructions on self-regulation. There  
267 was no control group. Thirty nine students who completed the 14-week study gained  
268 weight, with no difference between the courses. Other studies, such as that of Lytle et al  
269 have incorporated weight loss advice for overweight subjects<sup>28</sup>, which sets them apart from  
270 our aim to focus entirely on weight-gain prevention in the whole population. A major  
271 weakness of all the existing studies was that participants were informed of the study aims,  
272 which is likely to have attracted more committed individuals, willing to report weight-  
273 change. As well as being much larger, our study was therefore unusual in its more 'realistic'  
274 design, randomising all eligible young-adults, and also in collecting weights and heights in a  
275 completely separate study, independently from the intervention programmes. We used  
276 self-reported data, as the only feasible method to collect information from a large free-living  
277 population, but validated them against weights and heights collected independently, openly  
278 in one sub-sample and in another covertly from routine measurements made at a health  
279 centre.

280

281 For most individuals, preventing weight-gain requires only small shifts in average energy  
282 intake or expenditure (50-100kcal/day), a great deal less than that needed for clinically  
283 important weight-loss, around 600kcal/day<sup>29</sup>. Our results suggest that engaging on-line with  
284 young-adults can help them make such a change in energy balance, sustainably to prevent  
285 weight-gain over an academic year. There was benefit not only for those who actively  
286 participated in the intervention groups and actually lost weight, but also among 'non-active'  
287 participants who merely received the weekly emails (without further engagement) as  
288 reminders or 'nudges' towards controlling energy intake/expenditure, and avoided weight-  
289 gain. It was not possible to study our subjects beyond 40 weeks, over the subsequent  
290 summer vacation. Interestingly, there is evidence that young-adults may gain less weight  
291 over the summer, but they do not lose the weight gained over the rest of the year<sup>30</sup>.

292

293 None of the existing studies of on-line interventions have reported data on resource usage  
294 or links between resource use and weight-changes, from which to judge 'dose-effect'  
295 relationships. In our study activity fell approximately by a third in both interventions. This is  
296 in agreement with data from online studies aiming at weight loss<sup>31</sup>. Our study found that  
297 those who logged into both interventions the most times, lost less weight or had a greater  
298 tendency to gain weight. This may reflect greater concern among those with more marked  
299 weight problems, but could indicate links between screen-time and other behaviours, such  
300 as snacking or sleeping times. Further studies will be needed to define the best 'dose' for  
301 this type of intervention and for specific populations.

302

303 There were differences between the patterns of uptake of our two programmes. The  
304 'rational' model, directed overtly towards preventing weight-gain, was more popular than  
305 the 'stealth' model (response rate 23% vs 11%), and most attractive to young women (68%  
306 of participants). The 'stealth' model, interestingly, was more popular among older male  
307 students (**supplementary Table 1**). A 'stealth' model of this type has only ever previously  
308 been reported in one very small study, with 104 student participants<sup>32</sup>. This quasi-  
309 experimental, non-RCT study examined two face-to-face courses, to which students were  
310 offered a choice, one focussed on obesity and health (more popular, with 79 participants),  
311 the other on health and society (29 participants). Those who chose the course on society  
312 and health had the greatest improvement in their eating habits, assessed by food-  
313 frequency, but subjects' weights were not recorded.

314

315 There are inevitably limitations inherent in research of this kind: several have already been  
316 discussed, and our results may not all be able to be extrapolated to other settings, even after  
317 appropriate redesign of the models. The present study was conducted in only one centre,  
318 albeit large and broadly representative of similar higher education settings, and among an  
319 educated, but not elite, population sector. The intention-to-treat analysis used in this study  
320 may overestimate the effect size of the intervention and there are other more conservative  
321 methods that could have been used<sup>33</sup>. Reassuringly, though, even when our data was

322 analysed as per protocol, results remained significant. All studies of public health  
323 interventions have limitations in relation to predicted reach, impact and sustainability. This  
324 study was large in terms of the eligible participant-base, and targeted young-adults, a hard-  
325 to-reach and relatively under-researched, even neglected, group at a life-stage associated  
326 with rapid weight-gain<sup>16</sup>. Designing effective interventions specific to young-adults is  
327 challenging, with many competing elements aiming to attract their attention. Elearning has  
328 several advantages compared to traditional approaches, especially for young-adults, such  
329 as ease of tailoring to individual circumstances; translating complex information through  
330 video, graphics and audio systems; and cost savings on face-to-face interventions. It is  
331 unlikely that any single on-line programme would suit the needs and interests of all young-  
332 adults, and our two interventions appealed to different segments. Clearly there is interest  
333 both in weight-control and in the environmental issues around food among young people.  
334 Outside the confines of a randomised trial, there would be no reason to offer only one  
335 programme, and greater engagement could be encouraged with supporting local advertising  
336 and use of social media. A common theme from qualitative evaluation of the program was  
337 that students did not actively engage as did not pay attention to the email due to the  
338 volume of emails they receive. This is something to be addressed by supporting advertising  
339 if the intervention is introduced routinely outside the RCT setting.

340

341 Effective interventions to prevent weight-gain among young-adults, even with very modest  
342 effect sizes, would have massive public health value if they are sustainable and reach  
343 substantial sections of the at-risk population. The low cost and simplicity of on-line  
344 interventions makes sustainability more likely since access to the internet and social media  
345 is uniformed across all socio-economic status, in the young. Programmes should be adapted  
346 to the targeted population's needs, otherwise health inequalities will increase. University  
347 students used to represent a highly educated elite sector, but that is no longer the case in  
348 obesity prone European and North American countries: half of all young-adults now attend  
349 universities in the UK<sup>34</sup>. Inevitably, self-selection defines response rates and the  
350 characteristics of non-responders may be different. For NTICV, the response rate of 23%  
351 probably represents a substantial proportion of those who were currently fighting

352 overweight, or perceived that they were at risk of weight-gain. Similarly, it is possible that  
353 those who elected to participate actively with the GD 'stealth' intervention could also  
354 represent a section of young-adults with unusual attitudes or physical characteristics. It was  
355 important therefore to see that baseline weights and BMIs in the control group were very  
356 similar to those in the two intervention groups, and that the active and non-active  
357 participants had similar BMIs.

358

359 To conclude, two online interventions, based on 'rational' and 'stealth' behavioural models,  
360 both proved successful in preventing the expected weight-gain observed in young-adults. An  
361 online platform provides a simple and low-cost way to reach large segments of a targeted  
362 population for weight-gain prevention. The programmes developed could easily be  
363 replicated and adapted for a wider young adult population, and in other settings. Adding  
364 promotion through social media could enhance uptake and effectiveness when outside the  
365 RCT setting.

366

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### 372 **Conflicts of interest**

373 The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

374

375

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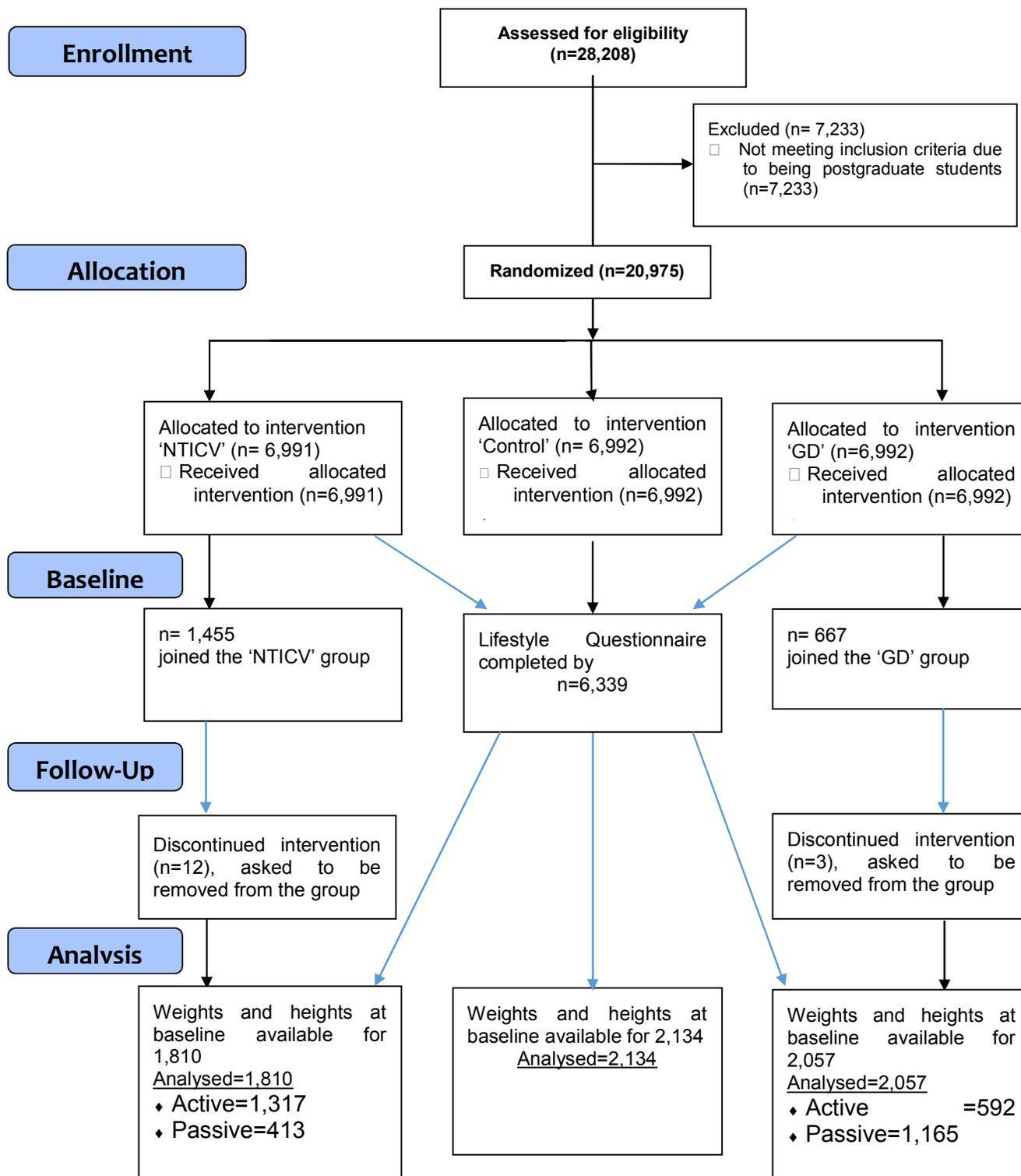
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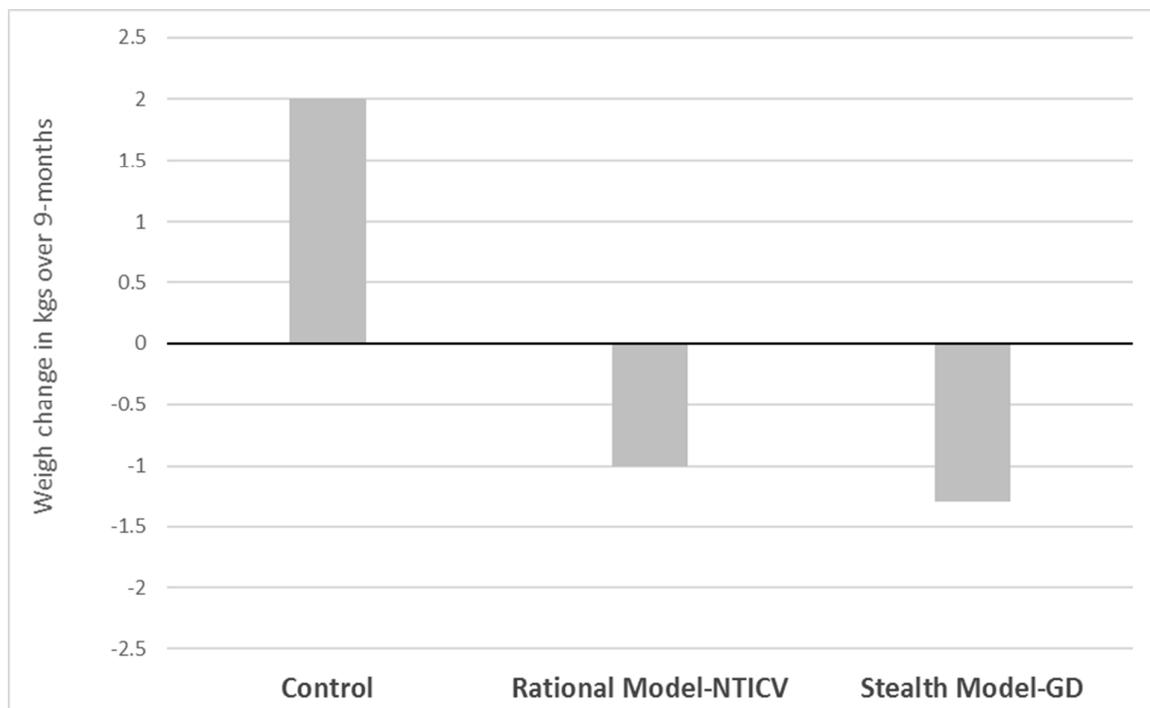
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Figure 1: Study Flowchart

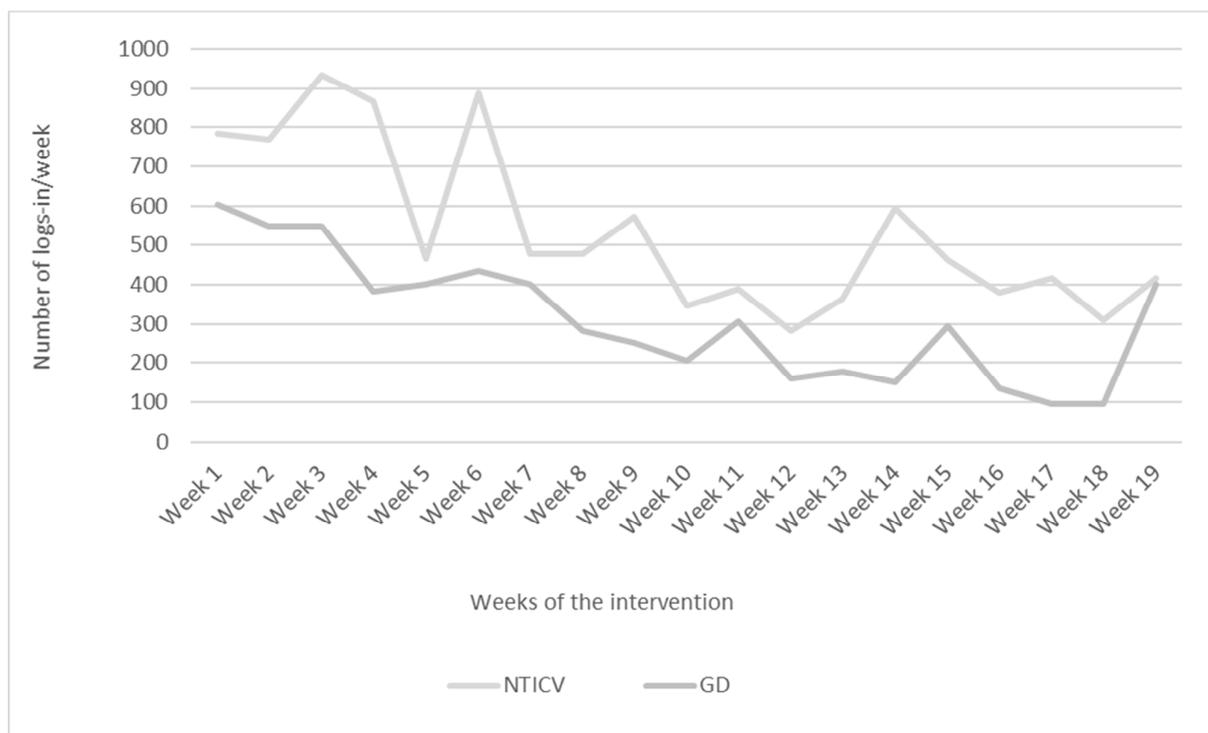


\*NTICV=Not The Ice Cream Van, GD=Goddess Demeter

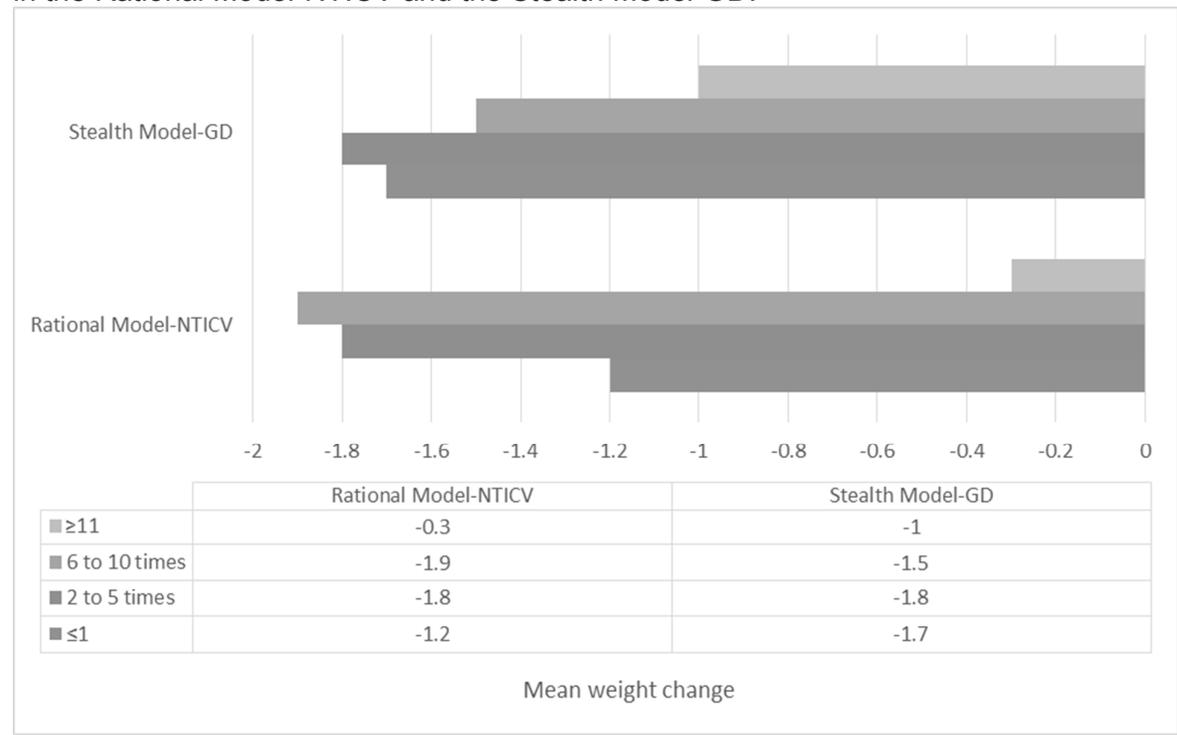
**Figure 2:** Weight-changes reported in a 9-month study period among participants in the; control group, Rationale Model-NTICV (overtly targeting weight control), and Stealth Model-GD (covertly targeting diet and lifestyles).



**Figure 3:** Weekly activity in logs for the duration of the study for the two interventions



**Figure 4:** Logs in quartiles and mean weight change per quartile for the participants in the Rational Model-NTICV and the Stealth Model-GD.



**Table 1:** Weekly topics of the two interventions, NTICV (the group based on the rational model) and GD (the group based on the 'stealth' model)

<b>Week</b>	<b>NTICV</b>	<b>GD</b>
<b>1</b>	Weight, BMI, & waist circumference	Carbon footprint
<b>2</b>	Calories/energy & food myths	Cultivation
<b>3</b>	Calories/energy & alcohol	Sustainable Meat
<b>4</b>	Cupboard & cooking essentials	Sustainable Fish
<b>5</b>	Sugary & energy drinks	Food miles
<b>6</b>	Eating during exams	Fresh vs Frozen
<b>7</b>	Eating during Christmas	Christmas Marketing
<b>8</b>	New Year's Resolution	New Year's Resolutions
<b>9</b>	Snacking	Vending machines & snacks
<b>10</b>	Salt	Salt
<b>11</b>	Fat	Fat-Free products
<b>12</b>	Popular Diets	Marketing of diets
<b>13</b>	Ready Meals	Ready meals
<b>14</b>	Marketing	Supermarkets
<b>15</b>	Physical Activity	Food and Drink companies
<b>16</b>	Fast Food	Fast vs Slow food
<b>17</b>	Food Labels	Genetically modified products
<b>18</b>	Negative Calories	The power of marketing
<b>19</b>	Summary	Summary

**Table 2:** Participants characteristics, at baseline, by treatment group

Characteristic	All	Control	Treatment 1	Treatment 2
			NTICV (Rational Model)	GD (Stealth Model)
<b>n</b>	5,903	2,134	1,810	2,057
<b>Gender (% Female)</b>	60	62	63	55
<b>Age (years)</b>	19.8 (3.1)	19.6 (3.2)	18.8 (3.1)	21.1 (3.0)
<b>Weight (kg)</b>	66.0 (13.4)	64.9 (12.6)	65.4 (13.1)	67.9 (14.6)
<b>Height (m)</b>	1.71 (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	1.7(0.1)	1.72 (0.1)
<b>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	22.3 (4.6)	22.2 (4.4)	22.3 (4.6)	22.6 (4.9)

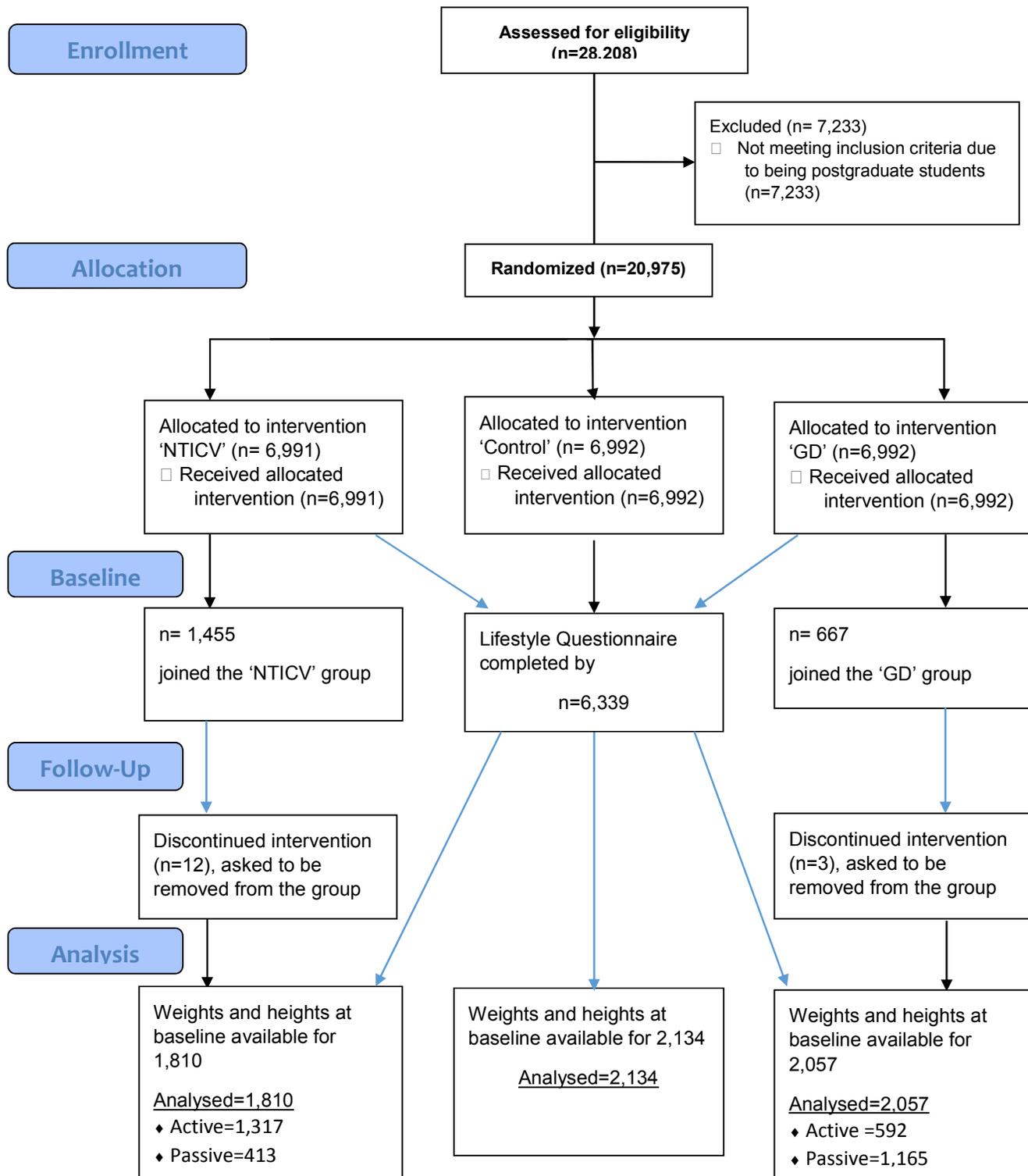
All data mean and standard deviation (SD)

**Table 3:** Participant characteristics at baseline and follow up, and weight-changes in the 9-month study period, by treatment group (Intention to treat analysis)

	Weight changes			
	Baseline	Follow-up	Change	P value
<b><u>Weight</u></b>				
<b>Control</b>	64.9 (12.6)	66.9 (13.2)	+2.0(1.1)	<0.001
<b>Rational Model (NTICV)</b>	65.4 (13.1)	64.4 (11.5)	-1.0(0.7)	0.001
<b>Stealth Model (GD)</b>	67.9 (14.6)	66.5 (14.2)	-1.3( 0.4)	<0.001
<b><u>BMI</u></b>				
<b>Control</b>	22.2 (4.4)	22.5 (4.7)	+0.3(0.2)	<0.001
<b>Rational Model (NTICV)</b>	22.4 (4.6)	22.3 (4.1)	-0.1(0.1)	<0.001
<b>Stealth Model (GD)</b>	22.6 (4.9)	22.5 (4.8)	-0.1 (0.1)	0.02

\*All data mean (SD)

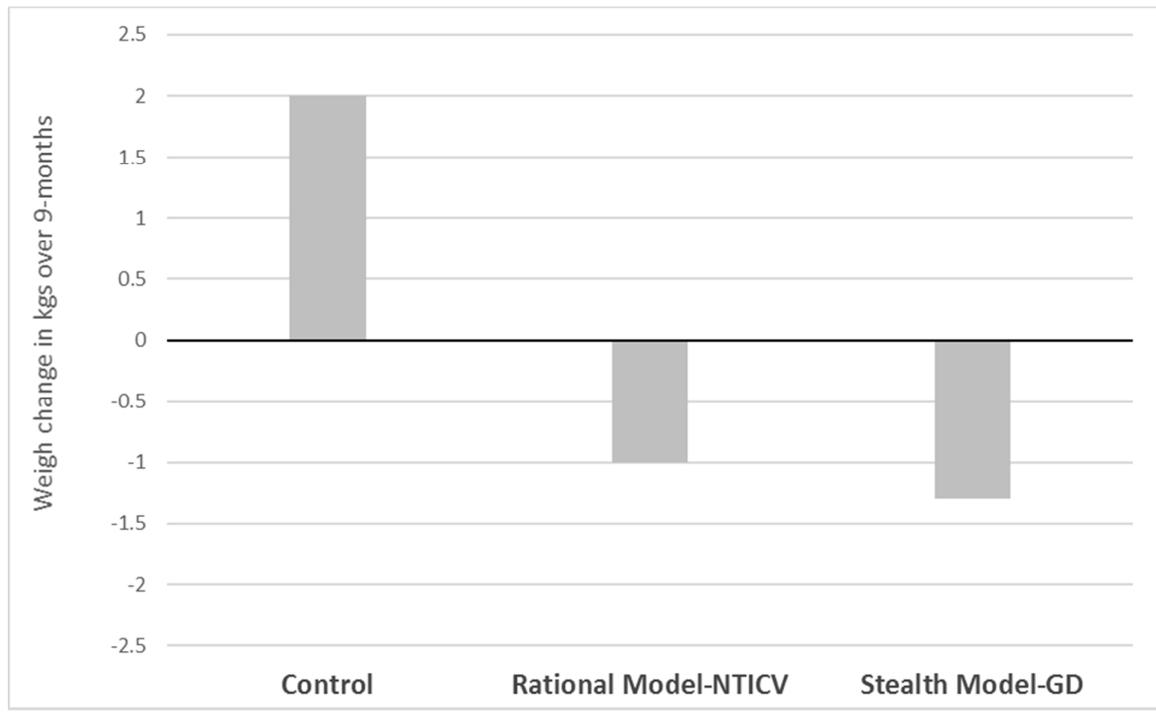
Figure 1: Study Flowchart



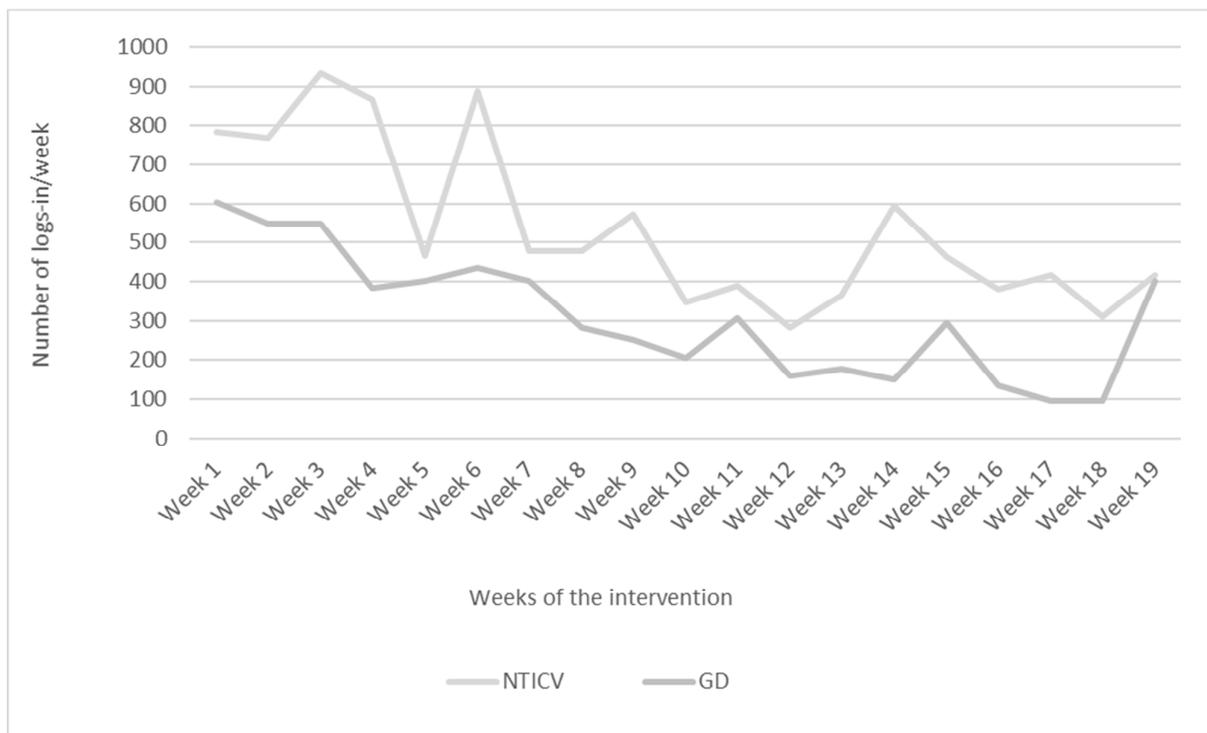
\*NTICV=Not The Ice Cream Van, GD=Goddess Demeter



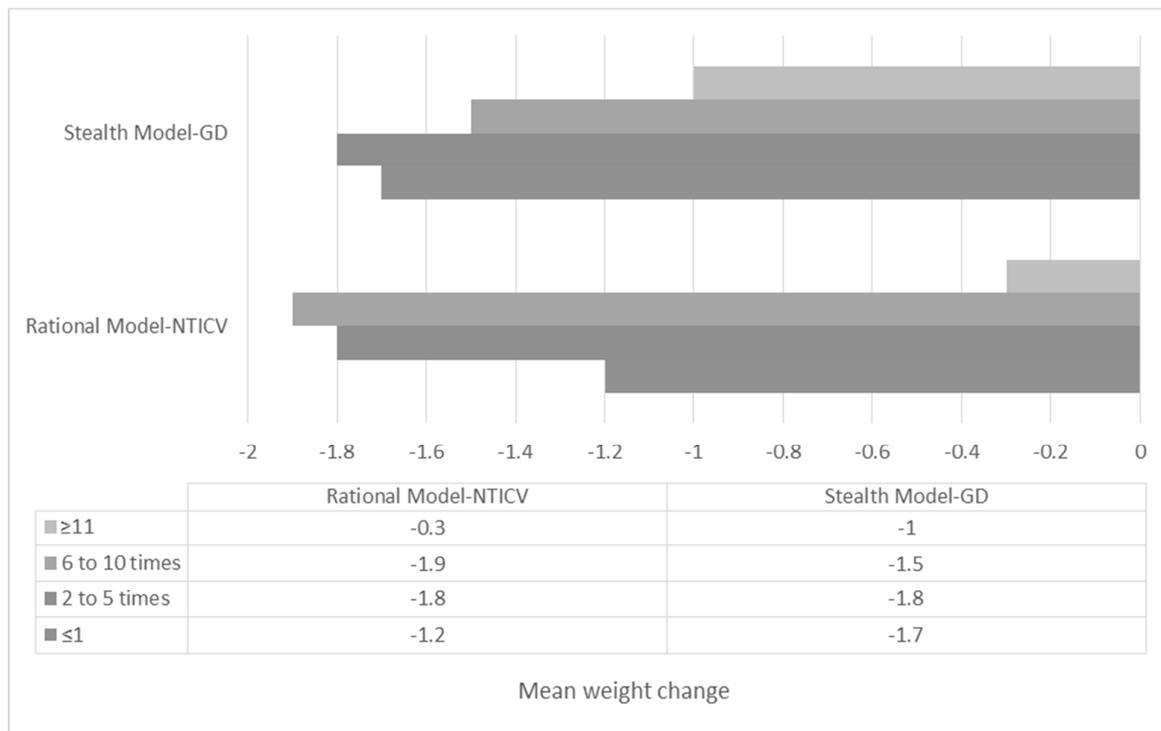
**Figure 2:** Weight-changes reported in a 9-month study period among participants in the; control group, Rationale Model-NTICV (overtly targeting weight control), and Stealth Model-GD (covertly targeting diet and lifestyles).



**Figure 3:** Weekly activity in logs for the duration of the study for the two interventions



**Figure 4:** Logs in quartiles and mean weight change per quartile for the participants in the Rational Model-NTICV and the Stealth Model-GD.



**Supplementary Table:** 'Active' and 'Non-active' participants' characteristics, at baseline

Characteristic	Treatment 1	Treatment 2	Treatment 1	Treatment 2
	NTICV	GD	NTICV	GD
	Active Group	Active Group	Non-Active Group	Non-Active Group
	(Rational Model)	(Stealth Model)	(Rational Model)	(Stealth Model)
<b>n</b>	1,317	592	413	1,165
<b>Gender</b> (% Female)	68***	52***	58	58
<b>Age (years)</b>	18.7*** (3.0)	22.3*** (2.5)	18.8 (3.2)	19.9 (3.5)
<b>Weight (kg)</b>	65.1*** (12.9)	69.2*** (13.8)	65.7 (13.3)	66.6 (15.4)
<b>Height (m)</b>	1.69** (0.1)	1.73** (0.1)	1.7 (0.1)	1.71 (0.1)
<b>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>)</b>	22.2** (4.2)	22.9** (5.2)	22.4 (4.6)	22.3 (4.6)

All data mean and standard deviation (SD)

$\chi^2$ -tests were used for categorical variables and t-test for nominal variables

\*p<0.05

\*\*p<0.01

\*\*\*p<0.001