

The science behind Smarter Lunchrooms

The Smarter Lunchrooms intervention approach aims to tackle childhood obesity by promoting healthier nutrition through the use of choice architecture or 'nudge' tactics in school lunchrooms. I reviewed research papers that were described by Cornell University as forming the evidence base for the Smarter Lunchrooms approach. Here I discuss concerns about the way that research informing the Smarter Lunchrooms approach has been conducted and disseminated. The widespread implementation of the Smarter Lunchrooms approach is discussed and the likely efficacy of this public health intervention is also considered.

The Science Behind Smarter Lunchrooms

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51 **Background**

52 The ‘Smarter Lunchrooms’ intervention approach aims to tackle childhood obesity by
53 promoting healthier nutrition through the use of choice architecture or ‘nudge’ tactics in
54 school lunchrooms. The intervention approach has been funded by the US Department of
55 Agriculture (USDA) Food and Nutrition Service and is based on the premise that small
56 cosmetic changes to school lunchrooms can lead to marked effects on dietary behaviour. For
57 example, intervention components include giving fruit and vegetable dishes more appetising
58 names and presenting healthier foods to make their choice more appealing and convenient.
59 According to the website of Smarter Lunchrooms [link](#) over 29,000 US schools are now using
60 the Smarter Lunchrooms intervention approach.

61 In early 2017 I viewed a series of popular media reports that featured some of the
62 research team behind the Smarter Lunchrooms intervention approach (in particular, Brian
63 Wansink and David Just of Cornell University) and was surprised by how effective this ‘light
64 touch’ intervention approach was described to be. I then decided to take a closer look at the
65 science behind the Smarter Lunchrooms approach. To do so, I read published research papers
66 that were described by Cornell University as forming the evidence base for the Smarter
67 Lunchrooms approach. During February and March 2017, I accessed these research papers at
68 Cornell University’s Food and Brand Lab web pages: [link](#) or from the Smarter Lunchrooms
69 website¹: [link](#).

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71 **Concerns**

72 I identified concerns about the way that the research informing the Smarter Lunchrooms
73 approach had been conducted and disseminated. In particular, I noted multiple instances of:

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75 (a) Errors and inconsistencies in research studies

76 (b) Research being described in a way (‘spun’) that resulted in Smarter Lunchrooms
77 intervention approaches appearing more effective than they objectively were

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79 Some examples of (a) and (b) are provided overleaf.

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81 **Rapid and Widespread Implementation**

82 I was also surprised by how quickly the Smarter Lunchrooms intervention approach appears
83 to have been disseminated and implemented in US schools. For example, according to data
84 collected in 2014 by researchers from Cornell University (Gabrielyan et al., 2017), thousands
85 of schools in the US were likely to be using this intervention approach in 2014. However, the
86 first randomized control trial assessing the overall effectiveness of the Smarter Lunchrooms
87 intervention approach only began in 2014 (Greene et al., 2017). The speed at which this
88 intervention approach has been implemented in schools surprised me because of the limited
89 and low quality evidence base supporting it.

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91 **Effective and Meaningful?**

92 Since my initial examination of the evidence base informing the Smarter Lunchrooms
93 approach a relatively high quality randomized control trial examining the effectiveness of the
94 Smarter Lunchrooms intervention approach on children’s fruit consumption has been
95 published. Greene, Gabrielyan, Just and Wansink (2017) report a research study comparing
96 the Smarter Lunchroom intervention vs. a waiting list control condition on child fruit

¹ As of the 8th August 2017 the content of this webpage had been updated in parts

97 consumption across nine weeks using a cluster randomized control trial design. This is the
98 largest and most methodologically appropriate examination of the Smarter Lunchrooms
99 intervention approach to date. Moreover, the intervention condition employed eight different
100 Smarter Lunchroom strategies to alter dietary behaviour (Gabrielyan, Just and Wansink
101 (2017):

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103 *1. Fruit was placed first on the line.*

104 *2. At least two varieties of fruit were offered.*

105 *3. Fruit was offered in at least two separate locations.*

106 *4. Cut fruits were displayed in small, attractive cups.*

107 *5. Whole fruits were displayed in a large, attractive fruit bowl at eye level.*

108 *6. Fruits were labelled with creative names.*

109 *7. Creative fruit names were displayed on monthly and daily menus.*

110 *8. "Fruit factoids" were displayed on dry-erase boards at eye level.*

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112 In this trial, among children receiving the Smarter Lunchrooms intervention there was an
113 average increase in daily fruit consumption of 0.10 units of fruit and this was statistically
114 significantly different to the control condition. Put in a more meaningful context, this
115 suggests that children receiving the Smarter Lunchrooms intervention approach increased
116 their daily fruit consumption by approximately one tenth of a small apple ([USDA link](#)).
117 Whether this increase is meaningful and has a real world benefit is questionable.

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132 *Figure 1. A small apple*

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Figure 2. One tenth of that apple (approximately 13 grams)

147 **Examples of Concerns: (a) Errors and inconsistencies in published research studies**

148 **1) Wansink et al., 2012. Attractive names sustain increased vegetable intake in schools.**
149 *Preventive Medicine, Study 1*

150

151 In the abstract of this article the sample size of Study 1 is described as being N=147. Yet, in
152 the methods section it is described as being N=113. However, the values presented in Table 1
153 of the results section indicate a sample size of N=115. There are also data errors concerning
154 the main dependent variables reported in Study 1. Table 1 of the article presents 'Number
155 taken, eaten and uneaten' of carrots. The article states that these values were calculated by
156 subtracting the weight of uneaten food from the starting weight of the food served (carrots).
157 Because of this, the 'number eaten' values and 'uneaten' values should equal to the 'number
158 taken' values in the table. However, the number eaten and uneaten values reported in the
159 table do not equal the number taken values. Moreover, the discrepancies are too large for the
160 rounding of decimal places to explain these discrepancies.

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162 **2) Wansink et al., 2012. Attractive names sustain increased vegetable intake in schools.**
163 *Preventive Medicine, Study 2*

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165 In Study 2 of this article there are data errors for the main dependent variables. Table 2
166 reports vegetable selection during month 1 and month 2 of the study followed by the '%
167 change' from month 1 to month 2 of the study. Therefore, the % change value in Table 2 is
168 calculable from the vegetable selection values reported for month 1 and month 2 of Table 2.
169 However, the majority of the '% change' data is discrepant to the month 1 and month 2
170 values. Moreover, the discrepancies are so large that rounding of decimal places cannot
171 explain these discrepancies. For example, based on the values reported in the table, the '%
172 change' for green beans in the control condition should be >100%, but it is reported as being
173 35.7% in Table 2.

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175 **3) Wansink et al., 2013. Pre-sliced fruit in school cafeterias: children's selection and intake.**
176 *American Journal of Preventive Medicine*

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178 In the abstract of this article it is reported that schools using fruit slicers (treatment schools)
179 observed a 71% increase in apple sales compared to control schools. In the results section of
180 the manuscript this 71% statistic is repeated and Table 1 is referenced. Yet, the only value
181 that corresponds to 71% in Table 1 is the '% of students consuming more than half an apple'.
182 Based on Table 1, the difference in % between the treatment schools and control schools for
183 apple sales during the intervention is 4% (according to the table column 'treatment period')
184 or 5% (according to table column 'all periods'); neither of which are 71%.

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186 **4) Wansink et al., 2012. Can branding improve school lunches? Archives of Pediatric**
187 *Adolescent Medicine*

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189 In the Methods section of the article the child participants are described as 8–11 year olds
190 from schools in New York. Yet, in the comment section of the article, the children are
191 described as 'preliterate'. This is an odd way to describe 8–11 year olds. According to the US
192 department of education, most children are able to write by the age of 6, so very few 8–11
193 years olds would be considered as 'preliterate' [link](#). In two later articles ^{1,2} published by the
194 same first author, he cites this original study and describes the child participants as being in
195 'day care'. Children in day care are typically under the age of 5, so could be considered
196 'preliterate'. However, the children who participated in the study are described in the original

197 article as being 8–11 year old school children, not children in day care. These inconsistencies
198 in the way the study is reported in the original article and then described elsewhere (by the
199 same author) make it unclear where this study was actually conducted or who the real
200 participants were.

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202 ¹ Wansink, B. (2015). Change their choice! Changing behavior using the CAN approach and
203 activism research. *Psychology & Marketing*, 32(5), 486-500.

204 ² Wansink, B. (2013). Convenient, attractive, and normative: The CAN approach to making
205 children slim by design. *Childhood Obesity*, 9(4), 277-278.

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208 **Examples of Concerns:** (b) *Research studies being described in a way that resulted in*
209 *Smarter Lunchrooms intervention approaches appearing more effective than they*
210 *objectively were*

211 5) Wansink et al., 2013. *Nutrition report cards: an opportunity to improve school lunch*
212 *selection. PLoS One*

213

214 In the section ‘*Discussion and Implications for Student Health*’ the authors state that
215 ‘although the results are preliminary, they suggest that Nutrition Report Cards (NRCs) may
216 be helpful in nudging children towards healthy, less expensive options...’ Yet, in the results
217 section of the paper, all analyses reported by the authors concerning the purchasing of
218 ‘healthy’ options clearly indicate that the NRCs had no effect on purchasing of healthy
219 options. Thus, this description of the study findings is misleading.

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221 6) Hanks, Just & Wansink, 2012. *Trigger foods: the influence of irrelevant alternatives in*
222 *school lunchrooms. Agricultural and Resource Economic Review*

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224 The authors state in their discussion of this correlational study that ‘*green beans and bananas*
225 *decreased sales of the unhealthy items we studied*’. Yet, the results of the study are far more
226 complicated and inconsistent than the overall conclusions made. In the results section of the
227 article (Table 3) there are 12 results concerning whether the presence of green beans or
228 bananas were associated with sales of three unhealthy food items studied; cookies, ice cream,
229 and little Debbie snacks. Half of these (6/12) analyses on the individual unhealthy food items
230 indicate no association, one analysis indicates an unexpected increase in sales of an unhealthy
231 food item and five analyses indicate that green beans or bananas were associated with a
232 decrease in sales of an unhealthy food item. Grouping all sales of unhealthy food items
233 together, two sets of analyses attempt to address whether green beans and bananas affect
234 sales. In one of the two analyses green beans are associated with total sales of unhealthy food
235 items, but in the other analysis there is no evidence of any association. The same goes for
236 bananas; in one of the analyses there is no evidence of bananas having any association with
237 total sales of unhealthy food items, whereas in the other there is an association. In sum, there
238 are more analyses reported that do not support the authors’ conclusions than those that do
239 support the authors’ conclusions. Thus, when the authors conclude that ‘*green beans and*
240 *bananas decreased sales of the unhealthy items we studied*’ this conclusion is misleading
241 because it fails to highlight the substantial inconsistency in the results.

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246 7) Wansink et al., 2012. *Attractive names sustain increased vegetable intake in schools.*
247 *Preventive Medicine*

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249 One of the objectives of this research was to ‘*determine if the selective use of attractive*
250 *names can be a sustainable, scalable means to increase the selection of vegetables*’. Two
251 studies are reported. In Study 1 vegetable selection and consumption were measured for a
252 total of one day. In Study 2 vegetable selection (but not consumption) was measured for 20
253 consecutive days. Thus, the length of measurement in Study 1 means that it cannot provide
254 evidence on sustainability and Study 2 at best would only be able to provide evidence on
255 short-term sustainability. This point aside, no analysis strategy used in Study 2 tests for
256 sustainability or persistence over time. For example, the analyses reported do not tell us what
257 effect the ‘attractive names’ intervention was having on vegetable selection by day 20.
258 Because of this it is misleading to make any claims regarding the sustainability or persistence
259 of this intervention. However, the authors conclude in the abstract that the intervention
260 approach ‘*persistently*’ increased healthy food consumption’ and the article title is ‘*attractive*
261 *names sustain increased vegetable intake in schools*’. The notion that the reported studies
262 provide evidence for sustained consumption is also misleading because consumption was
263 only measured in Study 1 and there it was measured for a total of one day.

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265 8) Hanks, Just, Smit & Wansink, 2012. *Healthy convenience: Nudging students toward*
266 *healthier choices in the lunchroom. Journal of Public Health*

267

268 In a pre-post design with no control condition the authors examined the effect of a Smarter
269 Lunchroom intervention that was designed to make healthier food choices more convenient.
270 The authors hypothesised that the introduced intervention would be associated with children
271 choosing and consuming more healthy foods and also choosing and consuming fewer
272 unhealthy foods. This is not what was found. In partial support of their hypotheses, the
273 authors found that the number of healthy foods *chosen* increased, but the amount of healthy
274 food that was actually *consumed* did not change. In addition, going against the authors’
275 hypotheses, the amount of flavoured milk (considered less healthy than white milk) chosen
276 and consumed increased, whereas the amount of white milk (which is considered ‘healthier’
277 than flavoured milk) chosen and consumed did not change. Thus, this intervention, which
278 was designed to promote healthier food consumption by convenience, was not associated
279 with children consuming healthier foods and had both positive and negative associations with
280 the consumption of less healthy food and milk options. In addition, the lack of control
281 condition in the study design does not allow for causal inference. Yet, the authors conclude
282 that the described intervention ‘*is a very effective method for combatting the current obesity*
283 *crisis.*’

284

285 9) Hanks, Just & Wansink, 2012. *Smarter Lunchrooms can address new school lunchroom*
286 *guidelines and childhood obesity. Journal of Pediatrics*

287

288 The title of this article suggests the research described ‘*can address childhood obesity*’.
289 However, this article describes a short-term observational study that examined consumption
290 of a limited number of food items in school canteens, not ‘childhood obesity’. Moreover, the
291 results that the authors report indicate that the introduction of the intervention was associated
292 with a small increase in fruit and vegetable consumption, but this did not occur at the expense
293 of any other food items. Thus, these findings indicate that the intervention is associated with
294 a small *increase* in calories consumed by children during lunch. To address childhood obesity
295 through nutrition, it is well recognised that calorie consumption needs to be reduced.

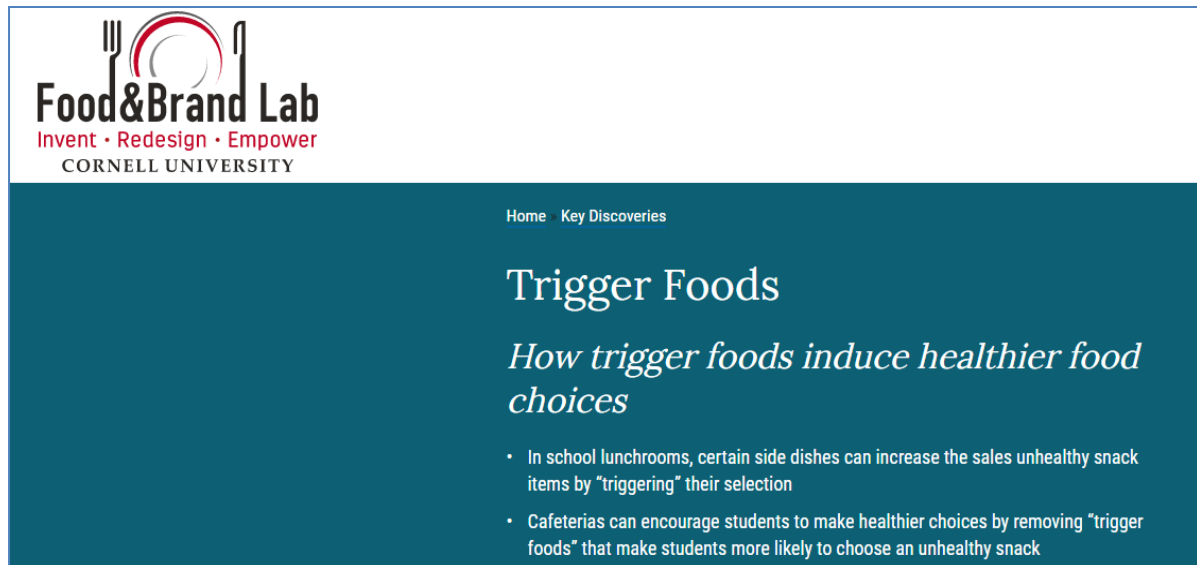
296 **10) Hanks, Just & Wansink, 2012. Trigger foods: the influence of irrelevant alternatives in**
 297 *school lunchrooms. Agricultural and Resource Economic Review*

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299 In this study the authors examine correlational data on food choices in school canteens. There
 300 is no way to infer causality from this type of research because of the study design adopted.

301 However, the title of the article uses causal language and in the abstract the authors state that
 302 'seemingly irrelevant alternatives **influence** choice in a school lunch setting'. Moreover, this
 303 inaccurate description is included in a dissemination webpage for the study (also reproduced
 304 below) [link](#).

305



Home Key Discoveries

Trigger Foods

How trigger foods induce healthier food choices

- In school lunchrooms, certain side dishes can increase the sales unhealthy snack items by "triggering" their selection
- Cafeterias can encourage students to make healthier choices by removing "trigger foods" that make students more likely to choose an unhealthy snack

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307 Notes

308 Some (and other) errors and inconsistencies in studies relating to the Smarter Lunch approach
 309 outlined here, as well as other output from the Cornell Food and Brand Lab, have been noted
 310 by others. In particular, see [link](#)

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