



Commentary

How calorie-focused thinking about obesity and related diseases may mislead and harm public health. An alternative

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Abstract

Prevailing thinking about obesity and related diseases holds that quantifying calories should be a principal concern and target for intervention. Part of this thinking is that consumed calories – regardless of their sources – are equivalent; i.e. ‘a calorie is a calorie’. The present commentary discusses various problems with the idea that ‘a calorie is a calorie’ and with a primarily quantitative focus on food calories. Instead, the authors argue for a greater qualitative focus on the sources of calories consumed (i.e. a greater focus on types of foods) and on the metabolic changes that result from consuming foods of different types. In particular, the authors consider how calorie-focused thinking is inherently biased against high-fat foods, many of which may be protective against obesity and related diseases, and supportive of starchy and sugary replacements, which are likely detrimental. Shifting the focus to qualitative food distinctions, a central argument of the paper is that obesity and related diseases are problems due largely to food-induced physiology (e.g. neurohormonal pathways) not addressable through arithmetic dieting (i.e. calorie counting). The paper considers potential harms of public health initiatives framed around calorie balance sheets – targeting ‘calories in’ and/or ‘calories out’ – that reinforce messages of overeating and inactivity as underlying causes, rather than intermediate effects, of obesity. Finally, the paper concludes that public health should work primarily to support the consumption of whole foods that help protect against obesity-promoting energy imbalance and metabolic dysfunction and not continue to promote calorie-directed messages that may create and blame victims and possibly exacerbate epidemics of obesity and related diseases.

Keywords
Obesity
Calories
Carbohydrates
Public health
Chronic disease

With worldwide concerns about obesity and diseases related to it (e.g. diabetes and CVD), there is substantial interest in shifting populations to healthier weights and better health. More precisely, there is interest in reducing body fat since *fat* – particularly visceral or abdominal fat – may matter more than *weight* when it comes to health^(1–3). Nevertheless, much of the evidence regarding obesity and related diseases focuses on body weight, rather than body fat. In reviewing such evidence, therefore, the present paper will therefore also often use the imprecise term ‘weight’ as opposed to ‘fat’, pointing out when such imprecision might mislead thinking.

One way such imprecision might mislead thinking is in supporting the notions that (i) ‘a calorie is a calorie’† and (ii) intervening on calories is the best way to address obesity (i.e. the quantitative problem of excess pounds or kilograms on a scale as opposed to the qualitative problem

† ‘Calorie’ – or more correctly kilocalorie (kcal), for which the word often imprecisely substitutes – is the main unit of energy used to discuss food and obesity-related issues in the USA. It is also the word used in common expressions like ‘a calorie is a calorie’. The word appears throughout this commentary as the energy unit of choice, but readers should feel free to substitute all instances with their own preferred energy unit; e.g. the joule (or the kilojoule or megajoule). No mathematical conversions are required as arguments are abstract and do not rely on specific quantities.



62 of altered body metabolism). The two calorie notions are
 63 largely about balance sheets, essentially considering cal-
 64 ories like units of body weight and units of body weight like
 65 inverse units of health; according to the logic, obese indi-
 66 viduals need only try to consume fewer calories than they
 67 burn and they will achieve healthier weights and better
 68 health.

69 Although such logic is intuitive and enticing, reality is
 70 not quite so simple and existing evidence challenges
 71 calorie-focused notions. A view focused more on food
 72 quality, rather than caloric quantity, may help better
 73 explain and better address the growing problems of
 74 excess weight – or more precisely excess fat – and related
 75 conditions. Conversely, messages and initiatives based on
 76 the idea of calorie equivalency (that a ‘calorie is a calorie’)
 77 and interventions directed at calorie balance sheets may
 78 make these problems worse. The present paper reviews
 79 various problems with calorie-focused thinking, considers
 80 several advantages of ‘more-nuanced thinking’ (that
 81 considers calories principally as subordinate concerns to
 82 qualitative differences in food) and proposes an alternative
 83 path for public health to move forward.

84 **The problem with the idea of calorie equivalency**

85 A calorie is a unit of energy. As related to food energy,
 86 calories measure the potential energy a food could
 87 release. One calorie of potential energy equals one calorie
 88 of potential energy, just as one unit of anything equals
 89 another unit of that same anything. To say ‘a calorie is a
 90 calorie’ then is tantamount to the identity property in
 91 mathematics ($A = A$). As such, it is irrefutable.

92 In practice, however, the statement that ‘a calorie is a
 93 calorie’ often implies something different from mathema-
 94 tical identity. It implies that any two different foods, which
 95 have equivalent amounts of potential energy, will produce
 96 identical biological effects with regard to body weight/
 97 body fatness when consumed. By this thinking, a calorie’s
 98 worth of salmon, olive oil, white rice or vodka would each
 99 be equivalent and each expected to have the same
 100 implications for body weight and body fatness. Indeed,
 101 stating ‘a calorie is a calorie’ suggests that potential energy
 102 is the essential concern and that qualitative differences in
 103 the substances providing that energy are irrelevant.

104 But a calorie’s worth of salmon (largely protein) and a
 105 calorie’s worth of olive oil (purely fat) have very different
 106 biological effects from a calorie’s worth of white rice (refined
 107 carbohydrate) or a calorie’s worth of vodka (mostly alcohol)
 108 – particularly with regard to body weight/body fatness.
 109 Indeed, scientists have recognized differences in the weight-
 110 related physiological effects of different calorie sources for
 111 more than half a century⁽⁴⁾. Although much early knowledge
 112 was based on animal studies, subsequent studies in human
 113 subjects have shown that calorie-providing proteins, fats,
 114 carbohydrates and alcohol each have substantially different

effects on a variety of physiological pathways and hormones 115
 relevant to satiety, food consumption, weight maintenance 116
 and body composition: for example, different effects 117
 on ghrelin (an appetite-stimulating hormone), leptin (an 118
 appetite-suppressing hormone), glucagon (a hormone that 119
 raises blood sugar) and insulin (a hormone that lowers 120
 blood sugar)^(5–7). 121

122 The aforementioned descriptions of hormone activities
 are greatly oversimplified and the list of hormones far from 123
 exhaustive, but the examples serve to suggest that a given 124
 calorie’s worth of salmon, olive oil, white rice or vodka 125
 might each behave quite differently in the body and pro- 126
 duce different ultimate effects. Indeed, whereas some 127
 ‘calories’ (i.e. some amounts of different foods, quantified 128
 by their potential energy) induce metabolic pathways and 129
 hormones that squelch appetite and promote energy 130
 utilization, others stimulate pathways that promote hunger 131
 and energy storage. Even controlling for total calorie 132
 intake and energy expenditure from physical activity, 133
 qualitative differences in calories have different implica- 134
 tions for obesity⁽⁸⁾; a calorie’s worth of one food is not the 135
 same a calorie’s worth of another^(8–14). 136

137 **Trying to intervene on calories is implausible**
 138 **and ineffective**

139 It follows from the problematic notion of calorie equivalency
 140 that any calorie consumed might be offset by a single calorie
 141 expended. Thus individuals wishing to lose weight should
 142 simply consume fewer calories than they expend. In other
 143 words, individuals should intervene on caloric quantity by
 144 consciously trying to ‘eat less’ and ‘move more’ than they
 145 otherwise would to establish ‘caloric deficit’ or ‘negative
 146 energy balance’⁽¹⁵⁾.

147 The problem with trying to ‘eat less’ and ‘move more’ to
 148 achieve – and more importantly, maintain – caloric deficit or
 149 negative energy balance is that it is practically and biologi-
 150 cally implausible. Practically, even the most motivated,
 151 informed and knowledgeable individuals are unlikely to be
 152 able to estimate their actual calorie intake (not just ingested,
 153 informed by misleading food labels^(16,17), but absor-
 154 bed^(18,19)) or their actual calorie expenditure (not just in
 155 physical activity⁽²⁰⁾ but in variably efficient, silent and
 156 constantly fluctuating digestive and metabolic pro-
 157 cesses^(12,14,18,21)) and do so with sufficient accuracy and
 158 precision to maintain any kind of useful real-time calorie
 159 balance sheets. Biologically, calorie intake and calorie
 160 expenditure are coupled^(22–26). Unless substantial uncou-
 161 pling occurs, reducing calories consumed will necessarily
 162 result in a compensatory drive to reduce calories expended
 163 and vice versa^(26–31). For this reason, people who try
 164 underconsuming calories become tired (an expenditure
 165 compensation) and hungry (an intake compensation), and
 166 one reason they often fail to lose weight (or have unim-
 167 pressive results)^(25,26,32,33) may be that resultant hunger,



particularly an increased desire for high-calorie foods^(25,26), drives compensatory overconsumption^(26,28,33).

Of course, some individuals do succeed at sufficiently uncoupling energy balance (i.e. do expend more calories than they consume) and do lose weight. But saying that these individuals lose weight because they expend more calories than they consume is like saying that students are late for class because they arrive after the bell rings. Both statements are true, but neither is causal. The associations do not explain the ‘why’ (i.e. in the case of expending more calories than consumed, why the uncoupling occurred).

Calorie equivalency and calorie balance sheets cannot explain the ‘why’; why some people succeed in eating less and/or moving more and lose weight while others fail and gain weight. Calorie-focused thinking does not tell us why some people achieve net burning or net storage of calories, or how it is entirely possible to lose weight (as lean mass) and still gain fat (i.e. become more obese). Calorie thinking also cannot account for the dynamic non-linear response of body weight to stable energy imbalances over time^(13,34,35). Likewise, calorie thinking does not address why obesity-related metabolic abnormalities^(36,37) and adverse events of obesity-related diseases^(38–40) may both occur before there is any gain in weight^(3,41), why metabolic improvements may occur at stable weight⁽⁴²⁾ or why obesity-related adverse events may not decline with weight loss⁽⁴³⁾. Any explanation for obesity should provide insights into these observations.

More-nuanced thinking about obesity and related diseases

To understand another kind of thinking about obesity and related diseases – and why individuals may show metabolic changes associated with being overweight before any detectable weight gain occurs – it is useful to consider body fat. Body fat – particularly visceral or abdominal fat – is a complex tissue that plays critical roles in appetite stimulation, energy expenditure and weight regulation. Normally, when a body’s fat cells are replete (i.e. full with stored fat), they release a hormone called leptin. Leptin stimulates parts of the brain to send additional hormone and nerve signals to the thyroid gland, skeletal muscles, heart, intestines and other fat cells^(25,27). These signals are to decrease energy intake (i.e. to ‘eat less’) and increase energy expenditure (e.g. to ‘move more’)^(27,29).

As individuals start to become obese, however (metabolically speaking, if not yet by weight on a scale), something goes awry with the signalling. Fat-cell repletion is no longer recognized and rather than there being signals to suppress appetite and increase activity as fat stores increase, there are signals to increase energy intake and reduce energy expenditure^(27,29,30,44). In other words, ‘eating more’ and ‘moving less’, thought to be causes of body fattening by calorie-focused thinking, may actually be a result of body fattening^(27,29,30,44).

So if eating more and moving less could be a result of body fattening, what causes bodies to fatten (i.e. to undergo metabolic dysfunction followed by fat gain, and then weight gain) in the first place; that is, what prevents leptin from doing its job of satiating appetite and promoting energy expenditure? The answer is not entirely clear, but one hypothesis implicates concentrated sources of rapidly absorbable carbohydrates in the diet and the hormone insulin.

Insulin is a pancreatic hormone that helps drive ingested nutrients into cells; its release is most brisk and pronounced following the ingestion of rapidly absorbable carbohydrates (as compared with fats, proteins, alcohol and more slowly absorbed carbohydrates^(6,45–48)). Rapidly absorbable carbohydrates – sugars and refined starches like white rice and foods consisting substantively of white flour – cause blood sugar to rise briskly and insulin levels to respond in kind^(45–48). The rapid insulin elevations produced by these foods cause correspondingly rapid drops in blood sugar. Food cravings result (to restore fallen fuel levels), particularly appetites for something sweet^(6,48). Thus, in the short term, intake of rapidly absorbable carbohydrates may promote ‘eating more’ in general and create a reinforcing loop for overconsumption of additional rapidly absorbable (sweet) carbohydrates in particular (Fig. 1)^(27,48).

Over the long term, overconsumption of rapidly absorbable carbohydrates may promote leptin resistance. Such resistance may occur through microbiota-mediated inflammatory pathways⁽⁴⁹⁾ or through other metabolic changes (e.g. chronic insulin elevations)⁽²⁷⁾. Regardless, with leptin’s actions largely disabled, the result of high sugar and starch intake is a neurohormonal drive to ‘eat more’ and ‘move less’ (Fig. 1)^(27,48,49).

By more-nuanced thinking, then, what counts for obesity and related diseases is not the number of calories in specific foods but rather the concentration and type of carbohydrates these foods contain^(30,49,50). Total calorie balance is important in both ways of thinking, but whereas calorie-focused thinking directs dietary recommendations towards calorie counts (being primarily quantitative), more-nuanced thinking directs dietary recommendations towards calorie sources (being primarily qualitative); the number of calories consumed and expended are only secondary/intermediate considerations.

Different dietary recommendations by calorie-focused thinking and more-nuanced thinking

A comparison of selected foods that might be encouraged or discouraged by calorie-focused thinking and a more-nuanced thinking appears in Fig. 2. Concordant cells reveal there is some common ground. For example, both ways of thinking discourage sodas, but whereas more-nuanced thinking discourages sodas based on

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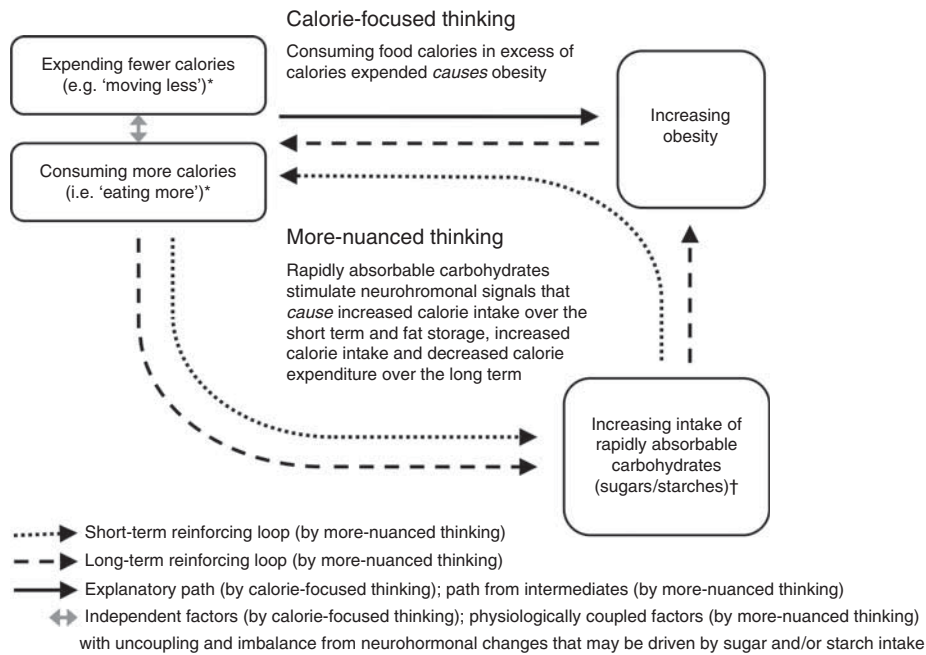


Fig. 1 Calorie-focused thinking versus more-nuanced thinking about obesity. Single-headed arrows represent direct associations in presumed causal directions. *‘Expending fewer calories’ includes all energy expenditure, but ‘moving less’ specifically refers to a relatively lower degree of physical inactivity from baseline. ‘Eating more’ refers to relative overeating from baseline. †Over the short term, the intake of rapidly absorbable carbohydrates – through spikes in blood sugar and insulin, and through sweet cravings – promotes a reinforcing loop with ‘eating more’ in general and eating more rapidly absorbable carbohydrates in particular (dotted arrows). Over the long term, neurohormonal alterations, perhaps chiefly through insulin and leptin resistance – leading to and contributed by growing abdominal fat – perpetuate an indirect reinforcing loop with ‘eating more’ (dashed arrows) and also promote ‘moving less’. Decreasing the intake of rapidly absorbed sugars and starches (as found abundantly in processed foods) and increasing the consumption of whole/minimally processed foods may disrupt these loops, overall calorie imbalance, and both the hormonal dysfunction and excess body mass characterizing obesity

		Calorie-focused thinking	
		Encouraged	Discouraged
More-nuanced thinking	Encouraged	Most vegetables, legumes, whole fresh fruits and unprocessed or sprouted grains; lean meats, poultry, and fish; water and unsweetened tea and coffee	Nuts and nut butters; avocados, olives and olive oil; whole dairy; oily fish
	Discouraged	100% fruit juices; enriched breads and pastas; fortified breakfast cereals (e.g. corn flakes, crisp rice); low-fat dairy (including sugary flavoured fat-free yoghurts)	Sodas and other sugar-sweetened beverages; candies; baked sweets; French fries and batter-fried foods, snack chips and other processed items

Fig. 2 Comparison of selected foods that might be encouraged or discouraged by calorie-focused thinking and more-nuanced thinking. This figure is not comprehensive, is not a description of any specific diet plan, and does not represent the recommendations or guidelines of any particular individual or organization. It does not explicitly address issues relevant to public health nutrition beyond calorie- and carbohydrate-related concerns (e.g. food production, climate change, One Health, etc.). Additionally, categorizations are based on somewhat relative concepts such as how ‘empty’ calories are and how ‘rapidly absorbable’ carbohydrate content is; placement of listed and unlisted items within the construct may be debatable. ‘Encouraged’=okay to eat or even desirable as a focus of one’s diet, particularly as an alternative to foods that are ‘discouraged’; ‘discouraged’=to be avoided or limited in quantity

273 carbohydrate content and character (i.e. high concentra- 326
 274 tions of rapidly absorbable sugar), calorie-focused think- 327
 275 ing discourages sodas based on the idea of ‘empty 328
 276 calories’. ‘Empty calories’ are foods that contribute energy 329
 277 but few substances thought to be beneficial like vitamins, 330
 278 minerals and fibre. By calorie-focused thinking, ‘empty 331
 279 calories’ waste precious space on the intake side of calorie 332
 280 balance sheets. 333

281 Figure 2 also demonstrates important discordance 334
 282 between calorie-focused thinking and more-nuanced 335
 283 thinking. For instance, 100 % fruit juices – full of vita- 336
 284 mins, minerals and sometimes fibre – are not ‘empty’ and 337
 285 may even be considered healthy and desirable by calorie- 338
 286 focused thinking⁽⁵¹⁾. By more-nuanced thinking, however, 339
 287 100 % fruit juices are just as undesirable as sodas given 340
 288 both are mostly sugar in concentrated liquid form⁽⁵²⁾. 341

289 Other discordances in dietary recommendations 342
 290 between calorie-focused thinking and more-nuanced 343
 291 thinking, and perhaps the most important differences, 344
 292 relate to dietary fat. Dietary fat has by far the most calories 345
 293 of any of the energy-providing compounds in food: about 346
 294 9 kcal/g as compared with roughly 7 kcal/g for alcohol, 347
 295 4 kcal/g for protein and 4 kcal/g for carbohydrate⁽⁵³⁾. 348
 296 Thus, calorie-focused thinking has an inherent bias against 349
 297 dietary fat. This bias leads to public health messages and 350
 298 interventions to decrease the intake of fatty foods or 351
 299 reduce or remove the fat from high-fat foods (often 352
 300 replacing fat with less-calorie-dense – often rapidly 353
 301 absorbable – carbohydrates). 354

302 Calorie-focused thinking generally endorses foods that 355
 303 are low in fat and calories, as long as those calories are 356
 304 not ‘empty’. In contrast, more-nuanced thinking has no 357
 305 problems with fat or calories, per se, and places the blame 358
 306 squarely on foods with the most rapidly absorbable 359
 307 carbohydrates (Fig. 2). Clearly these two ways of thinking 360
 308 are very different. A question for public health moving 361
 309 forward is: would food choices that could result from a 362
 310 continued primary focus on calories (calorie-focused 363
 311 thinking – Fig. 2) be best for population weight and health? 364

312 **Pertinent clinical and population evidence for two**
 313 **different ways of thinking**

314 Consider an experiment in children⁽⁵⁴⁾. Sixth graders with 370
 315 comparable baseline satiety were allowed to eat as much 371
 316 as they wanted of two highly palatable child-friendly 372
 317 snacks: cheese wedges/rounds or potato chips. A quantity 373
 318 of cheese (mostly fat with some protein and negligible 374
 319 carbohydrate) might offer about 50 % more calories than 375
 320 an identical quantity of chips (mostly carbohydrate and fat 376
 321 with negligible protein). By calorie-focused thinking, 377
 322 comparably hungry children should eat more calories of 378
 323 cheese because cheese has more calories. By more- 379
 324 nuanced thinking, comparably hungry children should eat 380
 325 more calories of chips because chips, being rich in rapidly 381

absorbable starch, should tend to promote continued 326
 eating (short-term reinforcing loop, Fig. 1)⁽⁴⁸⁾. 327

328 What actually happened in the experiment was that 329
 329 children in the potato chip group consumed over three 330
 330 times more calories than children in the cheese group⁽⁵⁴⁾. 331
 331 While a protein difference between the snacks might cer- 332
 332 tainly have been a factor (with experimental trials suggesting 333
 333 a superior⁽⁵⁵⁾, albeit not always statistically significant⁽⁵⁶⁾, 334
 334 satiating power of protein), all foods are inevitable mixes of 335
 335 different components and the point here is that the food 336
 336 with the higher starch content prompted greater consump- 337
 337 tion. This result is consistent with a meta-analysis showing 338
 338 children have greater energy intake following consumption 339
 339 of the most rapidly absorbable carbohydrates⁽⁵⁷⁾. 340

340 Notably in the experiment described above, the effect of 341
 341 eating more calories in the high-carbohydrate (chips) 342
 342 condition was even more pronounced among overweight 343
 343 and obese children⁽⁵⁴⁾. This result is consistent with 344
 344 another trial showing greater hunger in obese children 345
 345 after a high-carbohydrate meal⁽⁷⁾ and consistent with the 346
 346 long-term reinforcing loop in Fig. 1. 347

347 Although the chips-and-cheese experiment did not 348
 348 assess children’s total caloric intake for the day outside of 349
 349 the single snack episode, it is likely that children con- 350
 350 suming cheese ate fewer calories overall for the day, 351
 351 whereas children consuming chips ate more. Such an 352
 352 outcome would be suggested by fifteen of sixteen single- 353
 353 day studies in adults that showed increased hunger, lower 354
 354 satiety or greater calorie intake after consuming rapidly 355
 355 absorbable carbohydrates *v.* not⁽⁵⁸⁾. The outcome might 356
 356 also be suggested by two other studies in children in 357
 357 which restaurant fast-food consumption was associated 358
 358 with a net increase in total energy intake for the day^(59,60) – 359
 359 although only for overweight individuals in one study⁽⁶⁰⁾, 360
 360 consistent with the long-term reinforcing loop in Fig. 1. 361
 361 Granted, for a given fast-food meal, the studies referenced 362
 362 above cannot distinguish if greater total caloric intake was 363
 363 the result of a greasy burger (per calorie-focused think- 364
 364 ing), a refined bun (per more-nuanced thinking) or 365
 365 accompanying French fries (per both ways of thinking). 366
 366 However, substantial evidence now implicates foods that 367
 367 are low in fat (and, thus, relatively low in calories), like 368
 368 potatoes⁽⁶¹⁾, white rice⁽⁶²⁾ and sugary beverages^(61,63–66), 369
 369 in the development and persistence of obesity and risk for 370
 370 related diseases. Conversely, evidence is mounting to 371
 371 exonerate higher-calorie foods that are rich in fat like 372
 372 nuts^(61,67–74), oily fish⁽⁷⁵⁾ and olive oil^(69,76,77), and even 373
 373 foods high in saturated fat^(78,79) like dairy products^(80–88). 374
 374 Indeed, higher-calorie fattier foods and higher-fat diets may 375
 375 produce and sustain as much or more weight loss than 376
 376 calorie-restricted or higher-carbohydrate diets^(9,10,89–98) – 377
 377 particularly among those already having metabolic 378
 378 abnormalities^(93,94,99). Moreover, certain fattier/lower-car- 379
 379 bohydrate diets may also be associated with favourable 380
 380 metabolic indicators^(10,89,91–94,98–109), reduced adverse 381
 381 health events^(69,102,110,111) and delayed mortality^(110–113).

**Table 1** Notions derived from calorie-focused thinking and challenges to those notions

Notion	Challenge
1. 'A calorie is a calorie'	1. Calories from protein, fat, carbohydrate and alcohol each stimulate different physiological pathways and have different metabolic effects
2. 'Eating less' and 'moving more' to achieve calorie deficit will produce weight loss	2. Trying to underconsume calories (without paying attention to qualitative differences in calorie sources) will result in compensatory hunger and fatigue, generally with little weight/fat loss in the short term and rebound weight gain in the long term
3. Consuming more calories than expended causes obesity	3. Energy consumption and expenditure are dependently linked; consuming more calories than needed results in compensatory energy expenditure (e.g. reduced metabolic efficiency) and/or reduced appetite and subsequent intake. If calories are consumed in excess of calories expended in some kind of sustained way, then such imbalance is the result – not the cause – of developing obesity (and of the neurohormonal changes that underlie it)
4. High-calorie foods/diets (i.e. high-fat foods/diets) are undesirable	4. Many foods that are higher in fat may protect against obesity, lead to favourable metabolic indicators and help protect against chronic diseases and early mortality
5. Low-calorie foods/diets (i.e. low-fat foods/diets) are desirable	5. Low-fat foods and diets are often high in the most rapidly absorbable sugars and starches), which may be distinctly detrimental for obesity and related diseases
6. Low-fat foods without 'empty calories' are best	6. Even for foods that have vitamins, minerals, fibre, and various other constituents believed to be healthy, if they are concentrated sources of rapidly absorbable sugars and starches, they are likely to cause metabolic dysfunction and harm

The situation for public health moving forward

Fuelled not exclusively but in no small part by calorie-focused thinking, fats in foods and fattier diets became the enemies of public health campaigns of the 1980s and 1990s. Lower-calorie sugars replaced higher-calorie oils in many foods and people shifted their consumption from fats to carbohydrates (most often, the rapidly absorbable kinds). As in the chips-and-cheese experiment described above, greater refined carbohydrate intake was associated with greater total calorie intake, but now on a population level^(114,115). In other words, people did not eat less when lower-calorie foods and diets were advised, they ate more. Obesity rates increased right along with greater consumption^(114,115). Diabetes rates increased too^(116,117) and although these findings do not prove causation, they certainly do not support continuing forward under the current logic of calorie-focused thinking, with the food choices it could encourage (Fig. 2) or the tenuous notions that follow from it (Table 1).

Calorie-focused public health initiatives might continue to produce unintended, even ironic, consequences. Initiatives like calorie labelling for example – first for food packages and more recently for restaurant menus and menu boards – are meant to steer both consumer choices and food-industry offerings towards lower-calorie options⁽¹¹⁸⁾. Despite national enthusiasm for the idea^(119,120), whether calorie labelling will have the desired effect seems doubtful^(121–124). Also in doubt is whether labelling will actually improve population health. There is already suggestion that some labelling may produce effects opposite to those intended⁽¹²⁵⁾. And there is the distinct possibility that calorie labelling could further move food production and consumption away from healthful high-fat foods (like nuts) and towards sugary and starchy items (like low-fat baked potato chips), promoting further increases in diseases characterized by abdominal fat and metabolic dysfunction.

There are, admittedly, other existing public health initiatives that, at least on the surface, seem more consistent with the logic of 'more-nuanced thinking'; for instance, proposals to tax and limit sugary beverages^(52,126,127). Nevertheless, these initiatives are usually framed around the idea of 'empty calories', which totally misses the point. Even the Food and Drug Administration's proposed changes to packaged-food labels – which would newly report the amount of 'added sugars' in a product – place even more emphasis on calories than current labels by visually subordinating all other label information and highlighting calories in an enormous bold typeface⁽¹²⁸⁾.

What existing and planned initiatives seem not to acknowledge is that calories from added sugars and starches are worse than just 'empty' (detriment through omission); evidence suggests they are actively harmful (detriment through commission)^(61,62,129,130). While responses of individual consumers may vary (e.g. due to their personal genetic susceptibility^(48,63) or that of their resident gut microbes⁽¹³¹⁾), there is good reason to believe that rapidly absorbable carbohydrates tend to promote obesity, and diseases commonly associated with it, in general^(45,48,63,132–137).

The problem for public health is that continuing to focus on quantifying calories may misdirect thinking on obesity and related diseases and promote destructive messages. For instance, in a 2013 editorial, the president of the Institute of Medicine listed gluttony and sloth as 'obvious' 'deadly sins' for public health to address⁽¹³⁸⁾. His argument (which had been made before⁽¹³⁹⁾) suggested obesity and related diseases are matters only of personal resolve and self-control; if people just had more motivation and will-power, they could consciously control their calorie balance sheets, eat less, move more and lose weight. It stands to reason that those subscribing to the Institute of Medicine logic might blame an overconsuming, inactive adolescent for growing fat. But would they blame the same overconsuming, inactive adolescent for growing tall?

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Just as children do not enter puberty and grow tall because they overeat and sleep more, neither do individuals start to fatten and become obese because they eat too much and move too little. In both cases overconsumption and inactivity are intermediate effects; neurohormonal changes are the cause. The case of pubertal growth represents normal development, but the case of fattening represents decided pathology; pathology that may be modifiable through dietary change. Perhaps if we shifted food production and people's consumption away from added sugars and refined starches, we could avoid the resultant metabolic dysfunction and corpulence that have come to plague our populations. Instead of futilely promoting messages to 'eat less' and 'move more'^(13,139), perhaps we should do more to promote the consumption of whole/minimally processed foods⁽¹⁴⁰⁾ – like more of those in the upper row of Fig. 2 – foods that might make 'eating less' and moving more' more possible.

Concluding thoughts

Calorie-focused thinking may have already exacerbated the epidemics of obesity and related diseases. And while there has been much progress in redirecting dietary focus towards actual foods⁽¹⁴¹⁾, there is still too much focus on eating 'too much'⁽¹⁵⁾. Focusing quantitatively, particularly on the calories available from specific foods, fails to recognize the broader metabolic effects of foods themselves. Foods that are highly processed and comprised mostly of rapidly absorbable sugars and starches may be of greatest concern. Such carbohydrates may induce neurohormonal changes that might, in turn, help produce the overeating and inactivity often interpreted as causative for obesity. In other words, unhealthy foods may make double victims of their consumers, who might not only become obese by eating them but also receive harsh criticism for their substantial appetites and apparent laziness that result.

As the saying often attributed to the Albert Einstein goes, 'not everything that can be counted counts', and advice to count calories, or to try to change calorie balance sheets by intervening on quantities of undifferentiated foods, seems misdirected. Imagine comparably misdirected advice: for instance, to count fluid ounces, drink less and urinate more – advice that might likewise result in temporary weight loss (but no fat loss) and be uncomfortable, unsustainable, unreasonable and unhelpful; and likewise oppose coupled neurohormonally driven physiology in futility. Yes, calories count, and calorie balance sheets matter, but net intake or expenditure probably results more from qualitative distinctions in the foods we eat than conscious attempts at quantitative control⁽³⁰⁾. New public health initiatives and messages focused on encouraging consumption of whole/minimally processed foods would be ideal⁽¹⁴⁰⁾, especially to counteract

industry's near-exclusive marketing of foods that are highly processed/refined and concentrated sources of the most rapidly absorbable starches and sugars.

Promoting the consumption of whole foods will require careful attention to food systems, cultural traditions, peer influences, food environments, assistance programmes and a host of other issues beyond the scope of the present commentary. But as a guiding principle, the public health community should not be trying to cut calories from available foods⁽¹⁴²⁾, we should be improving the quality of the foods available that provide our calories. We should be promoting foods that do not prompt, or indeed programme, us to overeat.

Although focusing on refined starch and sugar content might seem like a logical path forward, such narrow focus could lead to unintended consequences, as when public health campaigns demonized fat. For this reason, the recent WHO draft guideline to more strictly limit the intake of all sugars⁽¹⁴³⁾, the recent proposition in England for a sugar tax⁽¹⁴⁴⁾, and the recent proposal in California to place health warning labels on sugary drinks⁽¹⁴⁵⁾, while all appropriately focused, should be evaluated carefully before wider implementation. Coordination with the food industry will be challenging, but while working towards improving the quality of foods that are produced and working to support the consumption of whole/minimally processed products, at the very least, public health should not continue to promote messages that create and blame victims or that, in all likelihood, continue to exacerbate epidemics of obesity and related diseases.

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