

Geneticization and Medical Education: A Pilot Study

B Bates

Citation

B Bates. *Geneticization and Medical Education: A Pilot Study*. The Internet Journal of Genomics and Proteomics. 2003 Volume 1 Number 2.

Abstract

The role of the physician in providing basic genetic medicine is growing. There is fear that, within this trend, physicians will geneticize medicine by adopting deterministic and discriminatory attitudes linked to genetics. A quantitative survey of 600 physicians practicing in Ohio employing the Genetic Determinism Instrument, the Genetic Relativism Scale, and the Genetic Discrimination Scale was administered. 585 physicians were determined to be eligible for the study and, of these, 66 (11.3%) returned completed surveys. Paired t-test analyses indicated that additional training in genetics does not appear to geneticize physician attitudes. Training in genetics is not linked to differences in relativism, genetic determinism, and genetic discrimination. The author concludes that fears of geneticization through medical training may be overstated. Current modes of medical training in genetics should be analyzed to determine the elements that check geneticization so that training in environmental and behavioral factors can continue to be emphasized alongside genetics.

This study did not receive external funding. There are no proprietary interests to disclose. This study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at Ohio University.

INTRODUCTION

Medical genetics is increasingly important to medical practice. Genetics appears to influence the best treatment practices in all areas of medical practice.^{1,2,3} Providers may soon use molecular medicine in addition to anatomical, surgical, and chemical treatments.⁴ With this addition to the health care provider's "toolkit," best treatment regimens and standards of care of care likely to change.^{5,6} Although there are specialists in medical genetics, there are too few to meet growing demands for genetic medicine.^{1, 7} As the demand for medical genetics exceeds the current supply, there is a growing need for physicians to be versed in new genetic technologies.^{8,9}

Despite a clear need, relatively few physicians employ genetic medicine. Although there has been extensive research on lay public attitudes toward genetics,^{10,11,12,13,14} there has been less research on physician publics attitudes towards genetics, including genetic discrimination, genetic determinism and genetic relativism. Previous research has explored American physicians' technical knowledge of genetic medicine.^{15,16,17} Less often explored is American physicians' social understanding of genetics. Unlike studies in the United Kingdom, Europe, Australia, and China,^{4,}

^{18,19,20,21,22,23,24,25} American physicians' social understanding of genetics is rarely addressed.

The purpose of this pilot study was to explore physician understandings of genetics as they are linked to medical education. If additional education lowers deterministic and discriminatory attitudes towards genetics, then concerns that medicine is becoming geneticized can be addressed. Alternatively, if additional education promotes greater deterministic and discriminatory attitudes, then a problem in medical education can be identified and addressed. This pilot study hopes to present some initial indicators on the role that additional education plays in physicians' social understanding of genetics.

PHYSICIANS AND GENETICS

Physicians recognize that they have a role in explaining medical genetics to patients and discussing the impact that genetics has on health outcomes.^{7, 16,23, 26} Despite this awareness, many physicians are uncomfortable acting as genetic medical providers.^{7, 17,18, 28} Although physicians are willing to make referrals, when the results come back, many are unwilling to provide basic genetic counseling.^{6,9,20, 22} This unwillingness has been attributed often to knowledge gaps. Up to 75 percent of physicians lack basic knowledge of genetics, and will thus misunderstand the role of genetics in health.^{6,7, 15,17, 22,23,24,25,26} Specialized training appears to influence practitioner understanding of medical genetics;

obstetricians/ gynecologists, neurologists, oncologists, and gastroenterologists each report great comfort with genetic technologies than do general practitioners.^{15,16,20,29}

Collectively and individually, these studies indicate that, as a physician is exposed to more information, her technical knowledge increases.

A physician's greater comfort with genetic medicine does not guarantee that patient treatment will improve. There has been considerable discussion over whether genetic medicine in educational curricula benefits or harms the patient. Education in medical genetics may change the assumptions and tools that a physician brings to the clinical encounter.^{30,31} Although the tools may lead to more effective treatment, some researchers worry medical genetics education will encourage deterministic and discriminatory assumptions that will harm the patient and society.^{32,33,34,35} Other researchers suggest that these concerns are overstated, holding that physicians will consider genetics alongside environmental and behavioral variables.^{34,35,36,37} In addition to disputes over the impact of geneticization, it is unclear as to whether geneticization is a growing phenomenon or not.^{38,39} Both sides in the discussion agree that medical education must not promote geneticization or its corollaries, genetic determinism and genetic discrimination.^{40,41}

Geneticized medicine has the potential to make many of us already diseased. With more than 2000 known loci associated with Mendelian disorders and more than 4 million identified single nucleotide polymorphisms, Francis Collins's claim that "all of us carry dozens of glitches in our DNA" does not seem hyperbolic.⁴² If physicians are trained to read the genetic code in a deterministic and discriminatory manner, all patients could be viewed through a geneticized lens.

Technical concerns about genetics in medicine are more likely to be addressed if a physician has graduated more recently from medical school, has taken coursework specific to genetics, or considers herself highly qualified in genetics. Social implications of genetics may articulated alongside technical information. As a physician obtains more information about genetic medicine, she may be trained to view genetics as a deterministic factor in health and adopt more discriminatory attitudes about genetics in social policy. As such, the central hypothesis in this study was:

H1: Physicians who have received more education about genetics will express more socially problematic attitudes in regard to genetics than will physicians who have received

less education about genetics.

Two direct measures of education in genetics and three indirect measures were employed. Formal education, i.e. enrolling in a genetics course, may provide training that addresses both technical and the social concerns related to genetic medicine. Therefore, this study hypothesized:

H1a: Physicians who have taken a formal course in genetics in college will express more socially problematic attitudes in regard to genetics than will physicians who have not taken a college course in genetics.

H1b: Physicians who have taken a formal course in genetics in medical school will express more socially problematic attitudes in regard to genetics than will physicians who have not taken a medical school course in genetics.

In addition to specialized courses in genetics, genetics has been incorporated throughout medical curricula. Thus, those physicians who have graduated more recently are more likely to have technical competence in genetic medicine. Likewise, social issues related to genetics may be addressed in current curricula more often for more recent graduates. Therefore, this study hypothesized:

H1c: Younger physicians who will express more socially problematic attitudes in regard to genetics than will older physicians.

H1d: Physicians who have graduated more recently from medical school will express more socially problematic attitudes in regard to genetics than will physicians who have graduated less recently.

Finally, one's self-evaluation in medical genetics may influence their social comfort with genetic medicine and genetic technology. Thus, this study hypothesized:

H1a: Physicians who rate themselves as highly qualified in medical genetics will express more socially problematic attitudes in regard to genetics than will physicians who do not consider themselves highly qualified.

METHODS

PARTICIPANTS

Physicians were identified through lists obtained from the Ohio Medical Board representing all licensed physicians in Ohio. Six hundred physicians practicing in Ohio were identified and surveyed. Respondents were assured of the anonymity of their responses.

SURVEY

The survey consisted of two sections. The first section consisted of three reliable and validated scales designed to evaluate social attitudes about genetics.⁴³ These were the Genetic Determinism Instrument, the Genetic Relativism Scale, and the Genetic Discrimination Scale. The Genetic Determinism Instrument is a seven-item instrument that measures how strongly a participant agrees that health outcomes are controlled directly by a person's genetics. The Genetic Relativism Scale is an 11-item instrument that measures how strongly a participant agrees that a person's health outcomes are moderated by a variety of external factors. This Scale consists of three sub-measures: personal behaviors (i.e. that personal choice moderates genetic influences, 3 items), social support (i.e. that family and friendship networks moderate genetic influences, 3 items), and faith (i.e. that a Higher Power moderates genetic influence, 5 items). The Genetic Discrimination Scale is a 16-item instrument that measures how accepting a participant is of treating people differentially based on genetics. This Scale consists of five sub-measures: organizational discrimination (i.e. that a person's genetic make-up should be considered in employment decisions, 3 items), criminal discrimination (i.e. that persons convicted of crimes should have their genetic information recorded, 2 items), insurance discrimination (i.e. that a person's genetic make-up should be considered when assessing insurability, 4 items), physician discrimination (i.e. that physicians should be able to advise persons with genetic conditions against having children, 3 items), and individual/reproductive discrimination (i.e. that the participant would not want to have a spouse, partner, or child with a genetic condition, 4 items). The second section of the survey consisted of demographic items. Appropriate Institutional Review Boards approved the study.

ANALYSIS

Calculations were performed using SPSS version 11.5. Comparisons between groups were made using independent samples t-tests. As appropriate, nominal dichotomous variable were used for assignment. For continuous variables, participants were assigned to groups based on the midpoint for the question. Differences between groups were considered statistically significant at the .05 level.

RESULTS

PARTICIPANTS

Six hundred surveys were mailed. Fifteen surveys were

undeliverable because of death or closure of practice. Of the 585 remaining surveys, 66 were returned. Although this return rate is only 11.3%, it is consistent with other surveys of physician attitudes toward genetics that did not offer continuing medical education credit or financial reimbursement.^{6, 22, 44} Table 1 displays a full demographic breakdown.

Figure 1
Table 1: Demographics

Sex (N/%)		
Male	51	77.3
Female	15	22.7
Ethnicity (N/%)		
European American	61	93.8
Asian American	2	3.0
Hispanic White	1	1.5
"Human Race"	3	4.5
Medical Degree (N/%)		
Doctor of Osteopathic Medicine	45	68.2
Medical Doctor	21	31.8
Genetics Training (N/%)		
Took Course in College	53	80.3
Took Course in Medical School	45	68.2
Area of Practice (N/%)		
Generalists	29	43.9
Specialists	37	56.1
Annuated Variables (Mean/Range)		
Age	46.88	30-72
Years in Practice	14.89	1-48

NOTE: N=64; European American includes Hispanic White; "Human Race" is self-identified category

SURVEY

The survey materials were generally reliable. In the present sample, the Genetic Determinism Instrument had the lowest reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha of .52. Although this reliability is low, because the counterpart scale, the Genetic Relativism Scale was sufficiently reliable the results were retained. The Genetic Relativism Scale, and all components, was reliable (faith factors, a=.89; social support factors, a=.85; personal behavior, a=.82). Likewise, the Genetic Discrimination Scale was reliable, with all components emerging as reliable (organizational discrimination, a=.75; criminal discrimination a=.76; insurance discrimination, a=.82; physician discrimination, a=.78; individual/reproductive discrimination, a=.93).

PHYSICIAN ATTITUDES ABOUT GENETICS

Because information about medical genetics has the potential to geneticize medicine, this study hypothesized that physicians who have received more education about genetics would express more socially problematic attitudes than would physicians who have received less education. The hypothesis was not confirmed. Additional education about genetics is not associated with more socially problematic attitudes. Additionally, the converse proposition – that additional education about genetics would lead to fewer socially problematic attitudes – gains no support from the present study.

Two direct measures of education in genetics were employed. Information with the potential to geneticize medicine may be presented in either the college or medical school genetics course. As indicated in Table 2, physicians who took a college course in genetics did not express more socially problematic attitudes than did physicians who did not. No differences in genetic determinism, genetic relativism, or genetic discrimination were found between the two populations, with the exception that physicians who did not take a college genetics course assign a higher role to personal behaviors in health outcomes than did physicians who took a course. Table 3 shows that there were no differences in socially problematic attitudes between physicians who took a medical school genetics course and those who did not, including the role of personal behaviors. These findings suggest that courses devoted to genetics are unlikely to promote geneticized attitudes.

Figure 2

Table 2: Comparison of means between attitudes of physicians who completed a genetics course in college to attitudes of physicians who did not

	Completed College Course	Did Not Complete	t	sig.
Genetic Determinism	4.18	4.19	-.101	n.s.
Genetic Discrimination				
Organizational	1.82	1.89	-.245	n.s.
Criminal	3.27	2.82	1.037	n.s.
Insurance	4.02	4.18	-.602	n.s.
Reproductive	2.00	2.52	-1.673	n.s.
Physician	2.46	2.40	.196	n.s.
Genetic Relativism				
Social Support	1.97	2.30	-1.061	n.s.
Personal Behaviors	2.15	2.92	-2.291	.025
Faith	1.97	2.05	-.238	n.s.

Note: N=66; d.f. 64.

In addition to direct measures of education, three indirect measures were employed. Genetics is increasingly included across the medical school curriculum. If medical education is geneticized throughout this curriculum, then physicians who graduated more recently may have received a more geneticized education than those who graduated less recently. This projected difference did not materialize. As indicated in Table 4, younger physicians did not express more socially problematic attitudes than did older physicians. Additionally, as shown in Table 5, physicians who have practiced for a shorter period of time did not express more socially problematic attitudes than did physicians who have been in practice longer. Finally, physicians who self-evaluated themselves a highly qualified in medical genetics did not express more socially problematic attitudes than physicians who did not consider themselves highly qualified. Table 6 indicates that the physicians who should be most geneticized – i.e. the experts – did not display higher levels of genetic discrimination or genetic determinism than did “non-expert” physicians. Moreover, the “experts” did not display lower levels of genetic relativism.

Figure 3

Table 3: Comparison of means between attitudes of physicians who completed a genetics course in medical school to attitudes of physicians who did not

	Completed Med School Course	Did Not Complete	t	sig.
Genetic Determinism	4.19	4.19	-.043	n.s.
Genetic Discrimination				
Organizational	1.67	1.97	-1.298	n.s.
Criminal	2.73	2.99	-.694	n.s.
Insurance	4.16	4.15	.052	n.s.
Reproductive	2.11	2.54	-1.578	n.s.
Physician	2.48	2.39	.346	n.s.
Genetic Relativism				
Social Support	2.35	2.19	.606	n.s.
Personal Behaviors	3.05	2.68	1.234	n.s.
Faith	1.84	2.11	-.967	n.s.

Note: N=66; d.f. 64.

Figure 4

Table 4: Comparison of means between older physician attitudes and younger physician attitudes

	Older	Younger	t	sig.
Genetic Determinism	4.18	4.19	-.112	n.s.
Genetic Discrimination				
Organizational	1.95	1.79	.742	n.s.
Criminal	2.66	3.17	-1.496	n.s.
Insurance	3.99	4.33	-1.602	n.s.
Reproductive	2.46	2.38	.347	n.s.
Physician	2.25	2.58	-1.393	n.s.
Genetic Relativism				
Social Support	2.26	2.21	.227	n.s.
Personal Behaviors	2.63	2.92	-1.011	n.s.
Faith	2.14	1.91	.910	n.s.

Note: N=66; Midpoint is 46.88 years; d.f. 64.

Figure 5

Table 5: Comparison of means between attitudes of physicians who have practiced longer to attitudes of physicians who have practiced for a shorter period

	Longer Practice	Shorter Practice	t	sig.
Genetic Determinism	4.17	4.20	-.258	n.s.
Genetic Discrimination				
Organizational	1.98	1.77	.992	n.s.
Criminal	2.71	3.11	-1.148	n.s.
Insurance	3.97	4.33	-1.705	n.s.
Reproductive	2.39	2.45	-.268	n.s.
Physician	2.24	2.59	-1.459	n.s.
Genetic Relativism				
Social Support	2.17	2.30	-.531	n.s.
Personal Behaviors	2.54	3.01	-1.746	n.s.
Faith	2.08	1.98	.384	n.s.

Note: N=66; Midpoint is 14.89 years of practice; d.f. 64.

Figure 6

Table 6: Comparison of means between attitudes of physicians who consider themselves highly qualified to attitudes of physicians who do not

	Lower Self-Evaluation	Higher Self-Evaluation	t	sig.
Genetic Determinism	4.17	4.23	-.536	n.s.
Genetic Discrimination				
Organizational	1.89	1.83	.230	n.s.
Criminal	3.04	2.56	1.264	n.s.
Insurance	4.19	4.06	.540	n.s.
Reproductive	2.43	2.40	.085	n.s.
Physician	2.47	2.28	.701	n.s.
Genetic Relativism				
Social Support	2.33	2.00	1.186	n.s.
Personal Behaviors	2.74	2.85	-.348	n.s.
Faith	2.16	1.69	1.691	n.s.

Note: N=66; d.f. 64; calculation: ((“I have a strong understanding of genetics” + “My training in genetics for medical practice is very good”) – (“Most physicians have a strong understanding of genetics” + “Most physicians’ training in genetics for medical practice is very good”)); cut point = -.10

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study indicates that concerns of geneticization through medical education may be overstated. Although there are many references to “genes for” various diseases and disorders, physicians who have more training in recognizing these genes are neither more nor less likely to view a “gene for” a disease in a deterministic or discriminatory manner. It

also seems unlikely that physicians who view themselves as better trained in genetics or who have more coursework in genetics would adopt much more aggressive and risky treatments more often than would physicians who view themselves as less well trained or who lack formal coursework. Despite debate over how deterministic and discriminatory the portrayal of genetic factors is, it appears that these messages are unlikely to lead to practicing physicians who adopt deterministic and discriminatory attitudes.

Although the current findings indicate that geneticization is not a necessary result of genetic medical education, there are several limitations to the study that should be addressed. First, the study relies on a small sample with a relatively low response rate. Because of financial constraints, this study was unable to offer a sufficient incentive for high rates of participation. Offering substantial incentives may encourage greater participation. In addition, it should be noted that this study was a pilot study. Larger populations of physicians should be consulted, and those populations should be more diverse than the one outlined here. The physicians who responded were largely European American and male. The results may not be representative of other physicians. Despite these limitations, the study does offer an important direction for future consideration.

In this study, additional training in genetics did not appear to lead to deterministic and discriminatory attitudes. It may be that, even as genetic medicine is incorporated into the medical school curriculum, medical education is not excluding environmental and behavioral variables. With additional advances in genetic medicine, the temptation to exclude variables other than genetic ones may grow. Because it appears that the current treatment of genetic variables in medical education is appropriately balanced, current modes of medical training in genetics should be analyzed to determine how environmental and behavioral factors are emphasized alongside genetics. By examining the current balance, it may be possible to continue this balanced treatment in the future. In performing this examination, we can work to ensure that geneticized medicine is prevented and that genetic medicine does not become the only kind of medicine that we can practice.

References

1. Greendale K, Pyeritz RE. Empowering primary care health professionals in medical genetics: how soon? how fast? how far? *Am J Med Genet* 2001; 106: 223-32.
2. Pinsky L, Pagon R, Burke W. Genetics through a primary care lens. *West J Med* 2001; 175: 47-50.
3. Whittaker L. Clinical applications of genetic testing: implications for the family physician. *Am Fam Phys* 1996; 53: 2077-84.
4. Lindpainter K. 2003. Pharmacogenetics and the future of medical practice. *J Mol Med* 2003; 81: 141-153.
5. Meisel C, Gerloff T, Kirchheiner J, et al. 2003. Implications of pharmacogenetics for individualizing drug treatment and for study design. *J Mol Med* 2003; 81: 154-678.
6. Menasha JD, Schechter C, Willner J. Genetic testing: A physician's perspective. *Mt Sinai J Med* 2000; 67: 144-151.
7. Watson E, Austoker J, Lucassen A. A study of GP referrals to a family cancer clinic for breast/ovarian cancer. *Fam Pract* 2001; 18: 131-4.
8. Karanjawala ZE, Collins FS. Genetics in the context of medical practice. *JAMA* 1998; 280: 1533-4.
9. Taylor MRG. Genetic testing for inherited breast and ovarian cancer syndromes: important concepts for the primary care physician. *Postgrad Med J* 2001; 77: 11-15.
10. Barns I, Schibeci R, Davison A, et al. 2000. "What do you think about genetic medicine?": facilitating sociable public discourse on developments in the new genetics. *Sci Tech Hum Val* 2000; 25: 283-308.
11. Condit CM, Bates BR, Galloway RW, et al. Recipes or blueprints for our genes? how contexts selectively activate the multiple meanings of metaphors. *Quarterly Journal of Speech* 2002; 88: 303-25.
12. Condit CM, Templeton A, Bates BR, et al. An exploration of attitudinal barriers to delivery of race-targeted pharmacogenomics among informed lay persons. *Genet Med* 2003; 5: 385-92.
13. Davison A, Barns I, Schibeci R. Problematic publics: a critical review of surveys of public attitudes to biotechnology. *Sci Tech Hum Val* 1997; 22: 317-48.
14. Kerr A, Cunningham-Bailey S, Amos A. Drawing the line: an analysis of lay people's discussions about the new genetics. *Public Understand Sci* 1998; 7: 113-33.
15. Chase GA, Geller G, Havstad SL, et al. Physicians' propensity to offer genetic testing for Alzheimer's disease: results from a survey. *Genet Med* 2002; 4: 297-303.
16. Escher M, Sappino AP. 2000. Primary care physicians' knowledge and attitudes towards genetic testing for breast-ovarian cancer predisposition. *Ann Oncol* 2000; 11: 1131-5.
17. Fry A, Campbell H, Gudmundsdottir H, et al. GPs' views on their role in cancer genetics services and current practice. *Fam Pract* 1999; 16: 468-74.
18. Emery J, Watson E, Rose P, et al. A systematic review of the literature exploring the role of primary care in genetic services. *Fam Pract* 1999; 16: 426-45.
19. Hayflick SJ, Eiff MP, Carpenter L, et al. Primary care physicians' utilization and perceptions of genetics services. *Genet Med* 1998; 1: 13-21.
20. Hunter A, Wright P, Cappelli M, et al. Physician knowledge and attitudes towards molecular genetic DNA testing of their patients. *Clin Genet* 1998; 53: 447-55.
21. Metcalfe S, Hurworth R, Newstead J, Robins R. Needs assessment study of genetics education for general practitioners in Australia. *Genet Med* 2002; 4: 43-4.
22. Qureshi N, Hapgood R, Armstrong S. Continuous medical education approaches for clinical genetics: a postal survey of general practitioners. *J Med Genet* 2002; 39: e69
23. Suchard MA, Tudkin P, Sinsheimer JS, et al. 1999. General practitioners' views on genetic screening for common diseases. *Br J Gen Pract* 1999; 49: 45-6.
24. Wilkins-Haug L, Hill L, Schmidt L, et al. Genetics in obstetricians' offices: a survey study. *Obstet Gynecol* 1999; 93: 642-7.
25. Yong MC, Zhou XJ, Lee SC. The importance of paternal

- family history in hereditary breast cancer is underappreciated by health care professionals. *Oncol* 2003; 64: 220-6.
26. Fethers MD, Doukas DJ, Phan LD. 1999 Family physicians' perspective on genetics and the human genome project. *Clin Genet* 1999; 56: 28-34.
27. Reynolds PP, Benkendorf JL. 1999. Genes and generalists: why we need professionals with added competencies. *West J Med* 1999; 171: 375-9.
28. Welkenhuysen M, Evers-Kiebooms G. General practitioners and predictive genetic testing for late-onset disease in Flanders: what are their opinions and do they want to be involved? *Community Genet* 2002; 5: 128-37.
29. Schroy PC, Barrison AF, Ling BS, et al. 2002. Family history and colorectal cancer screening: A survey of physician knowledge and practice patterns. *Am J Gastroent* 2002; 97: 1031-6.
30. Knoppers BM. Genetic information and the family: are we our brother's keeper? *Trends Biotech* 2002; 20: 85-86.
31. Biesecker BB, Vockley CW, Conover E. Implications of human genome research: impact on graduate education in genetic counseling. *J Genet Couns* 1993; 2: 213-29.
32. Rodriguez E. Social attitudes and the Human Genome Project: ethical implications. *Linacre Q* 2000; 67: 28-40.
33. Rose SP. Neurogenetic determinism and the new euphenics. *BMJ* 1998; 317: 1707-8.
34. Hedgecoe A. Geneticization, medicalisation and polemics. *Med Health Care Philos* 1998; 1: 235-43.
35. ten Have HA. Genetics and culture: the geneticization thesis. *Med Health Care Philos* 2001; 4: 295-304.
36. Smith GP, Burns TJ. Genetic determinism or genetic discrimination? *J Contemp Health Law Policy* 1994; 11: 23-61.
37. Neumann-Held EM. Can it be a "sin" to understand disease? on "genes" and "eugenics" and an "unconnected connection". *Med Health Care Philos* 2001; 4: 5-17.
38. Nelkin D, Lindee MS. Cloning in the popular imagination. *Camb Q Healthc Ethics* 1998; 7: 145-9.
39. Condit CM, Ofulue N, Sheedy KM. Determinism and mass-media portrayals of genetics. *Am J Hum Genet* 1998; 62: 979-84.
40. Eckenwiler LA. Genetics research and third parties: implications for education in the health professions. *J Contin Educ Health Prof* 2001; 21: 278-84.
41. Hoedemaekers R, ten Have H. Geneticization: the Cyprus paradigm. *J Med Philos* 1998; 23: 274-87.
42. Testimony of Francis S. Collins, Director, National Human Genome Research Institute, National Institutes of Health before the Senate Health Education Labor and Pensions Committee, July 20, 2000.
43. Parrott RL, Silk KJ, Weiner J, et al. Deriving lay models of uncertainty about genes' role in illness causation to guide communication about human genetics. *Journal of Communication* 2004; in press.
44. Friedman LC, Plon SE, Cooper HP, et al. Cancer genetics - survey of primary care physicians' attitudes and practices. *J Cancer Educ* 1997; 12: 199-203.

Author Information

Benjamin R. Bates, Ph.D.

School of Communication Studies, Lasher Hall, Ohio University