

1 **Associations between sociocultural home environmental factors and vegetable consumption**
2 **among Norwegian 3-5-year olds: BRA-study**

3

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6

7 **Abstract**

8 The home environment is the first environment to shape childhood dietary habits and food
9 preferences, hence greater understanding of home environmental factors associated with vegetable
10 consumption among young children is needed.

11 The objective has been to examine questionnaire items developed to measure the sociocultural home
12 environment of children focusing on vegetables and to assess the psychometric properties of the
13 resulting factors. Further, to explore associations between the environmental factors and vegetable
14 consumption among Norwegian 3-5 year olds.

15 Parents (*n* 633) were invited to participate and filled in a questionnaire assessing the child's vegetable
16 intake and factors potentially influencing this, along with a 24-hour recall of their child's fruit and
17 vegetable intake. Children's fruit and vegetable intakes at two meals in one day in the kindergarten
18 were observed by researchers.

19 Principal components analysis was used to examine items assessing the sociocultural home
20 environment. Encouragement items resulted in factors labelled "reactive encouragement", "child
21 involvement" and "reward". Modelling items resulted in the factors labelled "active role model" and
22 "practical role model". Items assessing negative parental attitudes resulted in the factor labelled
23 "negative parental attitudes" and items assessing family pressure/demand resulted in the factor
24 labelled "family demand". The psychometric properties of the factors were for most satisfactory.
25 Linear regression of the associations between vegetable intake and the factors showed, as expected,
26 generally positive associations with "child involvement", "practical role model" and "family demand",
27 and negative associations with "negative parental attitudes" and "reward". Unexpectedly, "reactive
28 encouragement" was negatively associated with vegetable consumption.

29 In conclusion, associations between sociocultural home environmental factors and children's vegetable
30 consumption showed both expected and unexpected associations some of which differed by maternal
31 education – pointing to a need for further comparable studies.

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33

34 **Keywords:** Preschool children, home environment, sociocultural home environment, kindergarten,
35 vegetables, Norway

36 **Introduction**

37 Research suggest that early nutrition are important for health later in life (Patro-Golab et al., 2016;
38 Tandon et al., 2016; Zalewski et al., 2017). For example a recent systematic review on the association
39 between diet in the preschool years and mental development show that overall, healthy dietary patterns
40 in the preschool years are associated with better cognitive outcomes three to fifteen years later
41 (Tandon et al., 2016). Inadequate consumption of fruits and vegetables is linked to an increased risk of
42 non-communicable diseases such as cardiovascular diseases, cancers, chronic respiratory diseases and
43 diabetes type 2 (Hu, Huang, Wang, Zhang, & Qu, 2014; Li, Fan, Zhang, Hou, & Tang, 2014; Wang et
44 al., 2014). Evidence also indicates tracking of dietary intake from childhood to adulthood (Bjelland et
45 al., 2013; Craigie, Lake, Kelly, Adamson, & Mathers, 2011; Lien, Lytle, & Klepp, 2001; Totland et
46 al., 2013) hence early childhood represents a critical period for establishing long-lasting dietary habits
47 (Bjelland et al., 2013). Despite health benefits of diets rich in fruits and vegetables, many countries
48 face a challenge with regard to low intake of vegetables (Micha et al., 2015). This is also the case in
49 Norway where the latest national dietary surveys among adults (Norwegian Directorate of Health,
50 2012), school children (Norwegian Institute of Public Health, 2016b) and preschool children
51 (Kristiansen, Lande, & Andersen, 2009; Norwegian Directorate of Health, 2002; Øverby, Kristiansen,
52 Andersen, & Lande, 2009) all report low consumption of vegetables.

53 In a life course perspective the home environment is acknowledged as the first environment to shape
54 childhood dietary habits and food preferences (Rosenkranz & Dziewaltowski, 2008). The home
55 environment can be characterized by three domains; the physical environment, the sociocultural
56 environment and the political/economic environment (Rosenkranz & Dziewaltowski, 2008), where
57 each environment individually could play an important role through a variety of factors influencing
58 vegetable consumption among young children. Reviews primarily including school aged-children
59 show that home availability and accessibility are strong positive physical factors associated with fruit
60 and vegetable consumption (Blanchette & Brug, 2005; Cook, O'Reilly, DeRosa, Rohrbach, & Spruijt-
61 Metz, 2015; Krolner et al., 2011; Pearson, Biddle, & Gorely, 2009; Rasmussen et al., 2006; van der
62 Horst et al., 2007). This is also supported by findings from our study among Norwegian 3-5 year olds,
63 where home availability and accessibility are positively associated with vegetable consumption
64 (Kristiansen, Bjelland, Himberg-Sundet, Lien, & Andersen, 2017). One area within the sociocultural
65 home environment of young children that has received a lot of attention lately is parental feeding
66 practices. A range of instruments to measure parental feeding practices has been developed (de
67 Lauzon-Guillain et al., 2012; O'Connor et al., 2016; Vaughn, Tabak, Bryant, & Ward, 2013).

68 Inconsistency in labelling and definitions used for describing such practices make comparisons across
69 studies challenging (Gevers, Kremers, de Vries, & van Assema, 2014; Vaughn et al., 2013; Vaughn et
70 al., 2016). Still, reviews among children up to 18 years of age point to parental intake, parental
71 modelling and parental encouragement as important sociocultural factors positively associated with
72 fruit and vegetables consumption (Blanchette & Brug, 2005; Pearson et al., 2009; Rasmussen et al.,

73 2006; van der Horst et al., 2007). Finally, as an economic home environmental factor, high parental
74 socioeconomic position is associated with higher fruit and vegetable intake among children (Krolner et
75 al., 2011; Rasmussen et al., 2006; van der Horst et al., 2007). It is important to note that associations
76 between characteristics of the home environment and vegetable intake often are reported together with
77 fruit intake (Blanchette & Brug, 2005; Krolner et al., 2011; Rasmussen et al., 2006; van der Horst et
78 al., 2007) even though there are likely to be differences in factors associated with the two food groups
79 (Glasson, Chapman, & James, 2011), hence greater understanding of home environmental factors
80 associated with vegetable consumption among young children is needed.

81 Although there are a large number of instruments developed to assess parental feeding practices in
82 general, the advantage of more specific measurements of the sociocultural home environment focusing
83 on vegetables (e.g. parental vegetable feeding practices) is so far less explored (Vaughn et al., 2016).
84 The present study aims to address this gap by firstly examining item pools developed to measure the
85 sociocultural home environment of Norwegian preschool children focusing on vegetables, and to
86 assess the psychometric properties of the resulting factors. Moreover, the study aims to explore
87 associations between factors of the sociocultural home environment and vegetable consumption
88 among these children.

89

90 **Methods**

91 *Study design and subjects*

92 The BRA-study (an acronym for the Norwegian words “Barnehage” (kindergarten), “gRønnsaker”
93 (vegetables) and “fAmilie” (family)) is an intervention study with an overall aim to improve vegetable
94 intake among preschool children (3-5 years at baseline) through changing the food environment and
95 dietary practices in the kindergarten and the home. More specifically, the aim was to increase the daily
96 frequency of vegetable intake, was to increase the variety of vegetables eaten over a month and was to
97 increase the daily amount of vegetables consumed. The target group for the BRA-study is preschool
98 children born in 2010 and 2011, attending public or private kindergartens in the counties of Vestfold
99 and Buskerud, Norway. All 479 public and private kindergartens in these two counties were invited by
100 letter to participate in the BRA-study. Seventy-three kindergartens chose to participate (response rate
101 15.2 %). Parents of 1631 children born in 2010-2011 in the 73 kindergartens were invited by letter to
102 participate. Parental consent was obtained for 633 children (response rate 38.8%). Families were
103 allowed to participate with more than one child (*n* 45 children in total sample were siblings). Number
104 of participating children in each kindergarten varied from no children up to 23 children. For the
105 present study, only data from the baseline surveys among parents and the baseline observation (see
106 Step 1-3 below) of the children were included.

107 This study was conducted according to the guidelines laid down in the Declaration of Helsinki and all
108 procedures involving human subjects/patients were approved by the Norwegian Social Science Data

109 Services. Written informed consent for the child was obtained from all parents who agreed to
110 participate (*n* 633).

111

112 *Design and methods*

113 The design of the study is similar to that presented earlier (Kristiansen et al., 2017). In brief, data
114 about the child and the home environment were collected in three steps at baseline (Figure 1): Step 1)
115 a parental web-based questionnaire assessing frequency and variety of the child's vegetable intake, as
116 well as factors potentially influencing the child's vegetable consumption was filled in for 439 children
117 (69 % of the 633 participants).

118 Step 2) among a subsample (*n* 411) of the participating children (65 % of the 633 participants), a
119 direct observation of the children's fruit, berries and vegetable intakes at two meals in one day in the
120 kindergarten was conducted.

121 Step 3) a parental web-based 24-hour recall for assessing the child's intake of fruit, berries and
122 vegetables was filled in for 470 children (74% of the 633).

123 Number of children having data from all three steps was 246.

124

125 *Step 1: A parental web-based questionnaire*

126 In March 2015, all parents of participating children in the BRA-study (*n* 633) received a link to a web-
127 based questionnaire by e-mail. If the family participated with more than one child, parents were
128 instructed to answer separately for each child. One e-mail reminder was sent out to non-responders
129 about 3 weeks after the first e-mail.

130 The questionnaire had been tested in a pilot study with 10 mothers and then revised, for more
131 information see Kristiansen et al. (Kristiansen et al., 2017). The final questionnaire included 53
132 questions, divided in two parts. The first part of the questionnaire primarily aimed to measure the
133 usual vegetable intake, and parents were asked to think about the last couple of months. Frequency and
134 variety of 18 different types of vegetables were assessed with the question "How often does your child
135 eat the following vegetables?". Response alternatives were "never" (0 times per day), "1-3 times a
136 month" (0.07 times per day), "1 time per week" (0.14 times per day), "2 times per week" (0.29 times
137 per day), "3 times per week" (0.43 times per day), "4 times per week" (0.57 times per day), "5 times
138 per week" (0.71 times per day), "6 times per week" (0.86 times per day), "every day" (1.0 time per
139 day) and "2 or more times per day" (2.0 times per day). This question was modified from the national
140 dietary survey among Norwegian 2-year olds (Kristiansen et al., 2009) mapping total dietary intake. A
141 validation study has been undertaken for that survey, but not for the modified question used in this
142 study. Potatoes, pickled and preserved vegetables (due to salt and sugar content) were not included as
143 vegetables in the present study.

144 The second part of the questionnaire aimed to measure potential factors within the home environment
145 assumed to be related to vegetable intake. Item pools related to the physical home environment have

146 been published elsewhere (Kristiansen et al., 2017). In the present paper, only item pools related to the
147 sociocultural home environment, i.e.: parental encouragement (15 items), parental modelling (6 items),
148 negative parental attitudes (4 items) and family pressure/demand (4 items) will be presented. The
149 items were modified versions of statements and questions used in previous Norwegian and
150 international studies among children aged 2-12 years (Baranowski et al., 2013; Bjelland et al., 2011;
151 Haszard, Williams, Dawson, Skidmore, & Taylor, 2013; Musher-Eizenman & Holub, 2007; O'Connor
152 et al., 2010; Zeinstra, Koelen, Kok, van der Laan, & de Graaf, 2010). A translation and back-
153 translation of statements and questions available in English were conducted by fluent speakers of the
154 English and Norwegian languages. Responses were given on a 5-point Likert response scale ranging
155 from “totally disagree” (=1) to “totally agree” (=5), with a neutral midpoint (“neither”=3). Factor
156 values were calculated as the mean score of the items comprising the factor.
157 The questionnaire also collected data on child gender, child birth year, number of siblings in the
158 household, age of the respondent, respondent’s relation to the child, cohabitant status of the
159 respondent, nationality of the respondent and nationality of the mother/father of the child. Maternal
160 and paternal educational level was assessed in the consent form. The educational level was assessed by
161 four precoded categories, which were combined into two categories in the analysis: low education
162 (upper secondary school or less) and high education (university college/university). Maternal
163 education was used as an indicator of the socioeconomic position of the family as maternal education
164 was reported with lower missing compared to paternal education.

165

166 *Step 2: Direct observation*

167 As part of the baseline data collection, the research team members visited all the 73 kindergartens in
168 April to June 2015. Direct observation was conducted if the kindergarten had three or more
169 participating children in a department. Each researcher observed one to four children simultaneously,
170 with a maximum of eight children from each kindergarten being observed. Preferably, children of
171 mothers with a low educational level were observed and otherwise children were chosen for
172 observation at random. During observations, the researchers were standing close to tables where the
173 children sat, and recorded intake of fruit, berries and vegetables on an observational form. These foods
174 could be provided by the kindergarten, by the parents or by both the kindergarten and the parents. As
175 children in kindergartens often are offered sliced fruit and vegetables rather than whole pieces, a
176 coloured picture sheet accompanied the observational form to assist researchers in deciding the portion
177 size. The picture sheet contained pictures of nine different shapes i.e. slice of cucumber, stick of sweet
178 pepper, section of orange, piece of a banana etc. In general, most kindergartens in Norway serve a hot
179 meal for lunch once a week (Norwegian Directorate of Health, 2012). Therefore, two photograph series
180 with four different portion sizes of a vegetable soup and a vegetable stew were included, for more
181 information see Kristiansen et al.(Kristiansen et al., 2017).

182 The researchers gave all participating children ($n = 633$) a card to take home, which informed about
183 types of fruits, berries and vegetables served in the child's kindergarten department on that particular
184 day. Moreover, the card informed parents that they would receive an e-mail from the research team
185 about the 24-hour recall (see step 3).
186 All researchers were trained in observation and all procedures and measurements were conducted
187 according to a standardized protocol.
188 During data collection there were occasionally options for two researchers to observe the same
189 child/children to assess interrater reliability (IOR) between the pair of observers. IOR was assessed in
190 16 kindergartens, with the first pair of observers carrying out duplicate observations of 66 children
191 simultaneously, while the second pair of observers carrying out 12 duplicate observations. The level of
192 agreement between pairs of observers was estimated by calculating the intraclass correlation (ICC).
193 The ICC for the first pair of observers was 0.96, while for the second pair it was 0.97.

194

195 *Step 3: A parental web-based 24-hour recall*

196 In the evening (after nine pm) on the day of the direct observation (step 2), all parents received a link
197 to a web-based 24-hour recall by e-mail and they were asked to complete the questionnaire within the
198 next 24 hours. If the family participated with more than one child, parents were instructed to answer
199 separately for each child. One e-mail reminder was sent out to non-responders two days after the first
200 e-mail. In this reminder, parents were asked to recall the child's intake for the day of the observation.
201 The 24-hour recall was designed to measure the participating child's intake of fruit, berries and
202 vegetables, with an extra focus on vegetable intake. To ease the reporting, the 24- hours were divided
203 into six eating occasions: breakfast, snack meal 1 (intake after breakfast, but before lunch), lunch,
204 snack meal 2 (intake after lunch but before dinner), dinner and snack meal 3 (intake after dinner and
205 until the child went to bed).

206 For breakfast, snack meal 1 and snack meal 3, frequencies and amount of six different types of
207 vegetables were reported. For lunch, snack meal 2 and dinner frequencies and amount of 12 different
208 types of vegetables were reported. The last question in every eating occasion was open-ended.

209 However, due to the variable quality of this data and the workload required for coding this data,
210 information from such questions were not included. Decisions for the vegetable list was based on the
211 Norwegian meal pattern and the most sold vegetables. To assist parents in reporting amount of
212 vegetables eaten, photo series with four different portion sizes was used. However, photos of the
213 amount of vegetables were only displayed if that particular vegetable was reported. The focus was on
214 weekday intake of vegetables, therefore 24-hour recalls reporting on vegetable intake during a
215 weekend day were not included.

216 Parents who completed both web-based questionnaires (step 1 and step 3) were entered in a lottery
217 with rewards; two of about 535 Euros and one of about 1070 Euros.

218

219 *Classification of intake of vegetables*

220 The web-based questionnaire (step 1) provided information about frequency and variety of vegetable
221 intake. The frequency of the 18 vegetables was added up to give the daily frequency (mean 3.1, SD
222 1.8). For variety, the ten categories of vegetable frequency were combined into two groups. Those
223 who reported intake of a particular vegetable to be “1-3 times a month” or more often was regarded as
224 “users”, while those who reported intake to be “never” was regarded as “non-users” (less than 2% in
225 total). Total variety per month was calculated by adding up users of the 18 vegetables (mean 10.4, SD
226 4.3).

227 Parental ability to recall their child’s diet when the child is in child-care may be a limiting factor when
228 using dietary recall methodology among preschool children (Andersen et al., 2011; Baranowski,
229 Sprague, Baranowski, & Harrison, 1991). Therefore, amount of vegetables consumed in one day was
230 calculated based on data from the direct observation when in kindergarten (step 2) and the 24-hour
231 recall when at home (step 3). Hence, only children with data from both step 2 and step 3 were eligible
232 to be included in analyses considering amount of vegetables. In the 24-hour recall, the parental
233 reported intake of vegetables at lunch and at snack meal 2 was replaced by the observed vegetable
234 intake in the kindergarten. However, if a child had been picked up from the kindergarten before snack
235 meal 2 ($n = 15$), only the lunch meal was replaced in the 24-hour recall.

236

237 *Data analysis*

238 Participants included in data analysis varied for the different methods used. For the PCA, participants
239 included were those with data from the parental web-based questionnaire (Step 1, $n = 439$). This sample
240 was also eligible to be included in the linear regression analysis, however due to missing data for
241 covariates (primarily maternal education) the number of participants in the linear regression analyses
242 for variety and frequency was 395. For the analysis regarding amount of vegetables consumed,
243 participants also had to have data from both step 2 and step 3. There were 246 participants with such
244 data, however 27 were lost due to missing data on covariates (primarily maternal education) and 22
245 were lost due to reporting vegetable intake of a weekend day in the 24 h recall, leaving 197
246 participants to be included in the analysis concerning amount of vegetables consumed.

247 PCA was used for exploring the item pools for factors assumed to be related to vegetable intake. All
248 items asked about in an item pool were entered into PCA. The number of factors retained from the
249 PCA was chosen on the basis of the eigenvalue (explained variance), with the decision criterion of \geq
250 1.0, and the interpretability of the factors. For parental encouragement the first three factors were
251 chosen for further analysis. The remaining factors all had eigenvalue less than 1.0, and thus
252 individually explained only a small fraction of the overall variance in the data. To improve the
253 interpretation of the data, the three-factor solution was rotated by varimax rotation. For parental
254 modelling a two-factor solution was chosen for further analysis, while for the item pools assessing

255 negative parental attitudes and family pressure/demand one factor for each pool was chosen for further
256 analysis.

257 Items were considered to load on a factor if they had factor loadings >0.3 (Kline P, 1994). Items not
258 loading on a factor (factor loading <0.3) were eliminated. Items with high loading on more than one
259 factor were included in the factor where they had the highest loading.

260 To assess the psychometric properties (a measure of reliability and validity) of the new factors derived
261 from the PCA, Cronbach's alpha and corrected item-total correlation (CITC) was calculated as a
262 measure of internal reliability. A CITC >0.30 were considered good and <0.15 were considered
263 unreliable since that would indicate lack of homogeneity of the items within an item pool (Nunnally
264 JC, 1994). Cronbach's alpha values of 0.70 or above are normally acceptable values, however values
265 of 0.6-0.7 are often considered acceptable in exploratory analyses, especially if the factor includes
266 only a few items (Field, 2009; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Further, validity of the new factors derived
267 from the PCA was assessed by construct validity by means of assessing associations between the new
268 factors of the sociocultural home environment and vegetable consumption.

269 Clustering effects due to kindergartens being the unit of recruitment were checked using the Linear
270 Mixed model procedure (Heck, Thomas, & Tabata, 2010). The unexplained variance in frequency,
271 variety and amount of vegetables at the kindergarten level was 0 to 1.6%, which is considered so low
272 that clustering effect was not taken into account in the analysis.

273 Linear regression was applied to assess the relationship between variety, frequency and daily amount
274 of vegetable intake among the 3-5 year olds and the seven factors derived from the PCA ("reactive
275 encouragement", "child involvement", "reward", "active role model", "practical role model",
276 "negative parental attitudes" and "family demand"). For every child a composite score for each of the
277 seven new factors was created, and this score was further used in linear regression analysis. To be
278 included in the linear regression analysis according to "reactive encouragement", subjects had to have
279 responses on 4 out of 5 items, for "child involvement" subjects had to have response on 6 out of 7
280 items while for "reward" subjects had to have response on 2 out of 3 items. To be included in the
281 linear regression according to "active role model" subjects had to have responses on 2 out of 3 items
282 and likewise for the factor "practical role model". To be included in the linear regression according to
283 "negative parental attitudes" subjects had to have responses on 3 out of 4 items and similarly for the
284 factor "family demand".

285 All models were adjusted for child gender, child birth year and maternal educational level.

286 Interactions between maternal education and each of the seven factors were tested for the factors
287 which had significant associations in the linear regression analysis.

288 All *P* values are two-sided, and *P* values less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant. All
289 statistical analyses were performed by IBM® SPSS® Statistics, version 22.0 (IBM Corporation).

290

291 **Results**

292 Table 1 presents selected characteristics of the children and their parents analysed in PCA. Boys and
293 girls were equally represented as was child year of birth. Parental respondent age was between 24 and
294 60 years, with a mean age of 35.4 years (SD = 5.1). Most of the respondents were mother of the child,
295 and most parents were Norwegians or from other European countries and had higher education. The
296 samples used in the regression analysis ($n = 395$ and $n = 197$) had roughly the same distribution in
297 characteristics as those presented in Table 1. For example, the proportion of mothers with low
298 education in the sample of $n = 395$ was equal to that of $n = 439$ (29%), while it was 32% in the sample of $n =$
299 197. Descriptive statistics for vegetable intake are also presented in Table 1.

300 According to the reported variety and frequency of vegetable intake, less than 2% of the children
301 reported consumption to be “never”. According to the observation and the 24-hour recall data, results
302 showed that less than 6% of the children did not consume vegetables at all on the day when
303 observations and recalls were done (data not shown).

304

305 *Exploration of item pools developed to measure the sociocultural home environment*

306 For the 15 parental encouragement items, the three factors derived from PCA were labelled “reactive
307 encouragement” (5 items), “child involvement” (7 items) and “reward” (3 items) (Table 2). These
308 three factors explained approximately 47% of the total variance. For the six parental modelling items,
309 the two factors derived from PCA were labelled “active role model” (3 items) and “practical role
310 model” (3 items), explaining 62% of the total variance. For the four parental attitude items, the one
311 factor derived from PCA was labelled “negative parental attitudes” (4 items). This factor explained
312 44% of the total variance. For the four family pressure/demand items, the one factor derived from
313 PCA was labelled “family demand” (4 items), explaining approximately 57% of the variance. Most
314 items within each of the seven new factors had high factor loadings (i.e. ≥ 0.6) and all items from the
315 questionnaire were included in the final factor structures.

316 Table 3 presents the mean values and the psychometric properties of the seven factors derived from
317 the PCA. The mean score for “reactive encouragement”, “practical role model” and “active role
318 model” was high, 4.47, 4.37 and 3.90 respectively, indicating that most parents partly agreed with the
319 statements included in those factors. The mean score for “child involvement” were slightly above the
320 neutral midpoint of three. Finally, the mean score for “negative parental attitudes”, “family demand”
321 and “reward” was below three, indicating that most parents partly disagreed with the statements
322 included in those factors. Most values for the CITC were 0.30 or above, and Cronbach’s alpha values
323 ranged from 0.57 to 0.74.

324

325 *Associations between factors of the sociocultural home environment and vegetable consumption*

326 Two out of three factors measuring parental encouragement showed negative associations with
327 vegetable consumption (Table 4). Every unit increase in the factor “reactive encouragement” was
328 associated with a reduction in vegetable variety of about 0.7 types per month ($P = 0.046$) and a

329 reduction in mean amount of vegetables consumed of 26 grams a day ($P = 0.009$). The factor “reward”
330 was negatively associated with variety and frequency of vegetable intake, where every unit increase in
331 the factor was associated with a reduction in vegetable variety of about 0.6 types per month ($P =$
332 0.008) and a reduction in vegetable frequency of more than 0.3 times per day ($P < 0.001$). For the
333 factor “child involvement” there was a significant interaction with maternal education and variety in
334 vegetable intake ($P = 0.022$) and frequency of vegetable intake ($P = 0.003$). Among children of highly
335 educated mothers every unit increase in this factor was associated with an increase in vegetable variety
336 of nearly 1 type per month ($P = 0.004$) and an increase in frequency of vegetable intake of more than
337 0.5 times per day ($P < 0.001$). No significant associations were seen among children of low educated
338 mothers.

339 For the two factors measuring parental modelling, only the factor “practical role model” was
340 significantly associated with vegetable consumption. Every unit increase in this factor was associated
341 with an increase in variety of vegetable intake of more than 1 type per month and an increase in
342 frequency of vegetable intake of about 0.6 times per day (both P -values < 0.001).

343 The factor “negative parental attitudes” was negatively associated with vegetable intake. Every unit
344 increase in this factor was associated with a reduction in variety of vegetables of approximately 0.9
345 types of vegetables per month ($P = 0.026$) and a mean reduction of about 30 grams vegetables a day (P
346 $= 0.009$).

347 For the factor “family demand” there was a significant interaction with maternal education and variety
348 in vegetable intake ($P = 0.009$). Among children of highly educated mothers every unit increase in this
349 factor was associated with an increase in vegetable variety of about 1 type per month ($P = 0.001$)
350 while no significant association was seen among children of low educated mothers.

351

352 **Discussion**

353 Presented in this paper are seven distinct factors of the sociocultural home environment of Norwegian
354 3-5 year olds with regards to vegetable consumption. The psychometric properties of the factors were
355 for most satisfactory. Factors and children’s vegetable consumption showed both expected and
356 unexpected associations some of which differed by maternal education.

357

358 *Psychometric properties of factors*

359 Most of the items used in the present study were composed of modified versions of statements and
360 questions used in previous Norwegian and international studies among preschool and school-aged
361 children (Baranowski et al., 2013; Bjelland et al., 2011; Haszard et al., 2013; Musher-Eizenman &
362 Holub, 2007; O’Connor et al., 2010; Zeinstra et al., 2010), resulting in unknown reliability and validity
363 of those in the initial item pools.

364 The psychometric properties of the factors in the present study were for most satisfactory, probably
365 indicating suitability for use among parents of children in general. Yet, more studies are needed to

366 verify this. According to reliability of the new factors, most items correlated with the factor to a good
367 degree by having values above 0.3, additionally, no items had correlations below 0.15 (Nunnally JC,
368 1994). Cronbach's alpha values ranged from 0.57 to 0.74 indicating generally acceptable internal
369 consistency of the new factors. Those factors with the lowest Cronbach's alpha included only 3 or 4
370 items, and they also included items with the lowest values of CITC. Cronbach's alpha is sensitive to
371 the number of items included in a scale, with increasing numbers of items in a scale possibly resulting
372 in an increased value (Field, 2009). None of the factors in the present study included more than seven
373 items, so this has probably not affected the results. Appropriate sample size when conducting PCA has
374 been debated, but it seems reasonable to include a minimum of 300 participants (Field, 2009). PCA
375 was conducted on a sample consisting of more than 400 participants; hence the criterion of an
376 adequate sample size was fulfilled.

377

378 *Associations between factors of the sociocultural home environment and vegetable consumption*

379 ***Encouragement***

380 Studies among school-aged children often indicate positive associations between parental
381 encouragement and children's vegetable intake (Pearson et al., 2009), and this has also been reported
382 in studies including preschool children (McGowan, Croker, Wardle, & Cooke, 2012; Vereecken,
383 Keukelier, & Maes, 2004). In the present study, two out of three factors measuring parental
384 encouragement were negatively associated with vegetable consumption. This might suggest that
385 instruments developed to assess parental feeding practices in general and instruments focusing on
386 parental vegetable feeding practices in particular, might provide different results. Further, as number
387 of items included in an instrument varies, this also might explain the differences in the results
388 obtained.

389 The factor "reactive encouragement" was negatively associated with vegetable consumption, yet items
390 included in the factor were items reflecting helpful encouragement for vegetable consumption like "I
391 encourage my child to try a few bites of the vegetables". The mean score for this factor was high
392 (4.47), indicating that most parents partly agreed with the items included in this factor. A similar
393 finding was reported in a study among 4-12 year olds from the Netherlands (Zeinstra et al., 2010),
394 where "positive information" was negatively associated with children's vegetable intake. Items
395 included in this factor were "Do you tell your child vegetables are healthy?", "Do you tell your child
396 vegetables are tasty?", "Do you tell your child vegetables are good for them?" and "When you eat
397 vegetables, do you show your child that you like them?". It might be that parents use strategies like
398 "reactive encouragement" and "positive information" because their child is unwilling to consume
399 vegetables, but it might also be that verbally promoting vegetable intake can increase vegetable intake
400 to a certain point, but that tendencies to nagging have an opposite effect.

401 The factor "reward", including one item assessing food-based bribes to eat vegetables, was also
402 negatively associated with vegetable intake among the 3-5 year olds in the present study. Food-based

403 bribes to eat have been shown to increase the liking for the bribe food, but decrease liking and intake
404 of healthy foods such as vegetables (Blissett, 2011; Vaughn et al., 2016).

405 Lastly, “child involvement” was positively related to frequency and variety of vegetable intake among
406 children of highly educated mothers, while among children of low educated mothers, no significant
407 associations were seen. Increased autonomy for the child towards vegetable intake (e.g. “I ask my
408 child to help select vegetables at the grocery store”) is likely to be favourable; however why this
409 association was not observed for children of low educated mothers needs further elaboration.

410 Currently there is limited research regarding child involvement in cooking, food or meal preparation
411 (DeCosta, Moller, Frost, & Olsen, 2017; Vaughn et al., 2016).

412

413 ***Modelling***

414 Of the six items used to assess parental modelling in the present study, four items were taken from the
415 “modelling” factor in the Comprehensive Feeding Practices Questionnaire (CFPQ) (Musher-Eizenman
416 & Holub, 2007). Items from the CFPQ were modified by replacing the word “healthy” with the word
417 “vegetables” (e.g. “I try to show enthusiasm about eating vegetables”). The validation study of the
418 CFPQ among American 2-8 year olds showed that parents who reported “feeling more responsible for
419 their children’s eating habits” also reported more modelling (Musher-Eizenman & Holub, 2007).

420 Three out of the four CFPQ-items loaded onto the factor “active role model”, but no significant
421 associations with vegetable intake was seen for this factor.

422 The second factor of parental modelling in the present study included items reflecting a more practical
423 form of modelling (e.g. “I let my child assist in preparing vegetables (peeling, cutting, put on plates
424 etc.)”). This factor was significantly and positively associated with variety and frequency of vegetable
425 intake. It seems likely that when including children in for example preparing vegetables they will be
426 more interested in eating vegetables. In the review by Pearson and co-workers, including children of 6-
427 11 years of age, five out of ten samples found that parental modelling was positively associated with
428 vegetable consumption, while unrelated in five samples (Pearson et al., 2009). It is yet important to
429 notice that previous research often has assessed modelling by assessing parental diet; though parental
430 diet and parental modelling are two distinct concepts (Vaughn et al., 2016).

431

432 ***Negative parental attitudes***

433 The factor “negative parental attitudes” included four items measuring negative attitudes towards
434 vegetable intake in parents. The included items were modified items taken from the factor
435 “Respondent Doesn’t Like Vegetables” in a study assessing parental vegetable feeding practices
436 among American 3-5 year-olds (Baranowski et al., 2013). The reported correlation between that factor
437 and “Child doesn’t like vegetables” was 0.39 (Baranowski et al., 2013). In the present study, the mean
438 value for the factor was low (1.31), indicating that most parents disagreed with the items included in
439 this factor. Increasing values for this factor, implying more negative attitudes towards vegetable

440 consumption, was significantly associated with less variety in vegetable intake and lower amount of
441 vegetables consumed. This finding might be a reflection of both low availability and accessibility of
442 vegetables in the home as this factor included the items “It is not important for me that my child eats
443 vegetables”, “It is not important for my partner that my child eats vegetables”, “I don’t like
444 vegetables” and “My partner doesn’t like vegetables”. Further, it might also be that this factor reflects
445 what Vaughn et al. labels “unstructured practices” due to a lack of parental involvement in vegetable
446 consumption (Vaughn et al., 2016).

447

448 ***Family demand***

449 In previous research, pressure to eat is often negatively associated with vegetable intake (Johnson,
450 2016). However, recent research has been more directed to make a distinction between practices where
451 parents insist or demands the child to eat more food in general, and those that use pressure to eat more
452 healthy food items like vegetables (Vaughn et al., 2016). In the review by Pearson et al.(Pearson et al.,
453 2009), a positive association between family rules (demand/allow) and vegetable consumption was
454 found in three out of three samples while pressure to eat was positively associated with vegetable
455 intake in one out of three samples, and unrelated in the other two samples. Zeinstra and co-workers
456 reported in their study that “pressure” was positively related to vegetable intake among the 4-12 year-
457 olds (Zeinstra et al., 2010). Items included was: “When you give your child vegetables, does he/she
458 have to eat the whole portion?”, “Are you strict with your child concerning eating of vegetables?” and
459 “Do you make your child eat vegetables when he/she doesn’t want to?”. In the present study, the factor
460 “family demand” included items comparable to those in the study by Zeinstra et al. (Zeinstra et al.,
461 2010) (e.g. “I insist that my child should sit at the table until all vegetables on his/her plate are eaten”
462 and “My child should always eat all vegetables on his/her plate”). However, this factor was only
463 positively associated with variety in vegetable intake among children of highly educated mothers,
464 while no such association was seen among children of low educated mothers. It is not clear whether
465 mothers with low education have less rules or less expectations with regard to vegetable intake
466 compared to higher educated mothers; this interaction needs to be examined further.

467

468 We acknowledge that there are a large number of instruments developed to assess parental feeding
469 practices in general and that the quality of the instruments is not always acceptable (Vaughn et al.,
470 2016). We therefore have attempted to relate the development of this instrument to the suggested steps
471 by Vaughn et al. (Vaughn et al., 2013): a clear conceptualization of what the instrument is intended to
472 measure (step 1), a systematic process for developing (step 2) and refining the item pool (step 3),
473 assessment of the instrument’s reliability (step 4), validity (step 5), and responsiveness (step 6)
474 (Vaughn et al., 2013). Ideally, we would have used an existing instrument to measure the sociocultural
475 home environment of Norwegian preschool children at the time when the BRA-study was developed.
476 However, as few instruments have focused solely on vegetable consumption among preschool

477 children, we did not find an instrument that suited our purpose. We decided to include and modify
478 items from statements and questions used in previous Norwegian and international studies among
479 children (Baranowski et al., 2013; Bjelland et al., 2011; Haszard et al., 2013; Musher-Eizenman &
480 Holub, 2007; O'Connor et al., 2010; Zeinstra et al., 2010). Owing to time limits, we were not able to
481 do a refinement of the item pool by doing factor analyses of the instrument, nor assessment of its
482 psychometric properties prior to using it. However, to assess face validity and clarity of items, the
483 instrument was tested in a pilot study and then revised. As described in this paper, PCA has been
484 conducted on the item pool, and internal reliability of the factors resulting from the PCA has been
485 assessed. Further, the construct validity by assessing the relationship between factors and three
486 measures of vegetable consumption have been explored. Finally, we are planning to test the
487 responsiveness of the instrument as is has been administrated to the participants at both baseline and at
488 follow-up I.

489

490 *Strengths and limitations*

491 We observed differences in strength of associations between factors and how vegetable consumption
492 was characterized; this supports the view that variety, frequency and amount of vegetables are
493 different aspects of the behavior of vegetable intake and that these aspects might be associated with
494 different factors. For that reason, this study presents a broad picture of potential relationships of
495 associations between sociocultural home environmental factors and children's vegetable consumption.
496 As most children in Norway attend kindergarten for many hours every week, parental ability to recall
497 their child's diet when in child-care may be a limiting factor (Andersen et al., 2011; Baranowski et al.,
498 1991). This was also supported by the parents in the present study, as more than 40 responders of the
499 24 h recall (step 3) gave feedback regarding difficulties in reporting intake when child was in
500 kindergarten (data not shown). Therefore, to collect a more precise picture of vegetable intake,
501 parental reports were combined with observations by the research staff (Foster & Adamson, 2014).
502 Interpretation of findings should also take some limitations into account. First, the data are cross-
503 sectional, and can thus only demonstrate associations. Further, there are many factors that we didn't
504 include in our model that may affect children's intake of vegetables. Example of such factors are
505 factors related to the child (like emotional eating, enjoyment of food, food neophobia and picky/fussy
506 eating) and factors related to the parents (like parental intake of vegetables and parental food
507 neophobia). The ideal model would have included all such factors. Additionally, the participation rate
508 among parents in the present study is lower than participation rates in national dietary surveys among
509 Norwegian preschool children (Kristiansen et al., 2009; Norwegian Directorate of Health, 2002;
510 Øverby et al., 2009); this might have led to a biased sample of those most interested in vegetables. The
511 level of parental education in our sample of participants was higher compared to the national
512 educational level in Norway and this might also have influenced the findings. In Norway, 39% of men
513 and 55% of women aged 35-39 years had a high educational level in 2015 (Statistics Norway),

514 compared to 54% and 71%, respectively, in the present study. Finally, in the present study, daily
515 intake of vegetables was approximately 120 grams, while among Norwegian 2- and 4-year-olds intake
516 has been measured to roughly 50-70 grams a day (Kristiansen et al., 2009; Norwegian Institute of
517 Public Health, 2016a). There are many reasons for such discrepancies, like methodological differences
518 between the surveys, but equally important is the detailed focus on vegetable intake in the present
519 study that in itself can result in an overestimation of intake, while the focus in the national surveys was
520 mapping the total diet.

521

522 **Conclusion**

523 Examining item pools to assess the sociocultural home environment of Norwegian preschool children
524 resulted in seven distinct factors with for most satisfactory psychometric properties. Linear regression
525 of the associations between vegetable intake and the factors showed, as expected, generally positive
526 associations with “child involvement”, “practical role model” and “family demand”, and negative
527 associations with “reward” and “negative parental attitudes”. Unexpectedly, “reactive encouragement”
528 was negatively associated with vegetable consumption. In addition, factors performed differently
529 across educational groups and according to how vegetable consumption was assessed pointing to a
530 need for further comparable studies. However, targeting the sociocultural home environment of
531 preschool children in future interventions seems essential as there are important modifiable factors that
532 both promote and hinder vegetable consumption in this environment.

533

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542 BRA-study.

543

544 **Figure legend**

545 **Figure 1** A flow chart of recruitment and data collection of invited and participating 3-5 year olds
546 children in the BRA-study at total and according to methods used in relation to the home environment
547 at baseline.

548

549

550

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