



This is a repository copy of *Examination of dietary intake of UK preschool children by varying carers: evidence from the 2008-2016 UK National Diet and Nutrition Survey*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:

<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/181099/>

Version: Accepted Version

---

**Article:**

Marr, C., Breeze, P. [orcid.org/0000-0002-4189-8676](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4189-8676) and Caton, S.J. [orcid.org/0000-0002-9096-0800](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9096-0800) (2022) Examination of dietary intake of UK preschool children by varying carers: evidence from the 2008-2016 UK National Diet and Nutrition Survey. *British Journal of Nutrition*, 128 (10). ISSN 0007-1145

<https://doi.org/10.1017/s0007114521004712>

---

© 2021 The Author(s). This is an author produced version of a paper subsequently published in *British Journal of Nutrition*. Accepted manuscript available under the terms of the CC-BY license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>).

**Reuse**

This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) licence. This licence allows you to distribute, remix, tweak, and build upon the work, even commercially, as long as you credit the authors for the original work. More information and the full terms of the licence here:

<https://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

**Takedown**

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing [eprints@whiterose.ac.uk](mailto:eprints@whiterose.ac.uk) including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



[eprints@whiterose.ac.uk](mailto:eprints@whiterose.ac.uk)  
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

1  
2 **Examination of dietary intake of UK preschool children by varying carers: Evidence**  
3 **from the 2008-2016 UK National Diet and Nutrition Survey**  
4

Marr C.<sup>1\*</sup>, Breeze P.<sup>2</sup>, Caton S.J<sup>1\*</sup>.

Public Health, School of Health and Related Research (ScHARR), University of Sheffield,  
Sheffield S1 4DA, UK. <sup>2</sup>Health Economics and Decision Science, School of Health and  
Related Research (ScHARR), University of Sheffield, Sheffield S1 4DA, UK.

5  
6 \*joint corresponding authors: C Marr (c.kearney@sheffield.ac.uk ) and S.J Caton  
7 (s.caton@sheffield.ac.uk)  
8  
9

10  
11 **Abstract**  
12

13 Early years caregivers can play a key role in young children's eating and the prevention of  
14 childhood obesity. The UK National Diet and Nutrition Survey (NDNS) is a large  
15 representative survey collecting detailed food and nutrition consumption data. Using these data,  
16 the aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between dietary intake of preschool  
17 children in the UK aged two to four years old and accompanying adult/s. Nutrition consumption  
18 data from 1,218 preschool children from years one to eight of the NDNS (2008 to 2016) were  
19 accessed. Dietary data was captured using three or four day estimated food diaries. Regression  
20 analyses were performed to explore the association between dietary intake and accompanying  
21 adult. There were significant differences in consumption when children were not accompanied  
22 by their parents. Compared to when children were with parents, children consumed  
23 significantly more energy (15kcal, 95% CI 7-23kcal) sodium (-19mg, 95% CI 6-32mg) , added  
24 sugars (0.6g, 95% CI 0.1-1.1g), vegetables (3g, 95% CI 1-4g), total grams (12g, 95% CI 3-  
25 21g) and saturated fat (0.2g, 95% CI 0.1-0.4g) per eating occasion when accompanied by wider  
26 family. When children were accompanied by a formal carer they consumed significantly less  
27 added sugars (-1.6g, 95% CI -2.4- -0.8g) and more fruit (12g, 95% CI 3-21g) per eating  
28 occasion than when they were with their parents. The results demonstrate that non-parental  
29 caregivers might be an important target to promote healthy eating in young children. Further  
30 research is needed to establish which caregivers would benefit most.  
31

32 **Introduction**  
33

34 Globally, in 2019, 38 million children under the age of five were overweight or obese <sup>(1)</sup> and  
35 poor dietary choices are partly responsible for this. Although the first few years of a child's life  
36 are documented as a critical period for the development of healthy eating habits, in the UK,  
37 preschool children are consuming over double the recommended amount of free sugars per day  
38 and exceeding their recommended intake of saturated fat <sup>(2)</sup>. Many children in England are also  
39 failing to meet the recommended daily intake of fruit and vegetables<sup>(3)</sup>. Caregivers (e.g. parents,  
40 family, childminders, nursery staff) of young children are nutritional gatekeepers, selecting the  
41 types and amount of food and drinks they receive <sup>(4)</sup>. There are a wealth of publications  
42 exploring parental feeding <sup>(5-8)</sup> but few have investigated the influence of other caregivers, such  
43 as other family members, nursery staff and childminders, on young children's eating. This may  
44 be a key oversight in exploring the factors associated with early childhood obesity.  
45

46 Over the last twenty years the employment rate of mothers has grown substantially and 73%  
47 of couple families have both parents in employment in the UK <sup>(9)</sup>. Consequently, parents rely  
48 on both formal and informal caregivers for childcare. Formal childcare is government regulated  
49 and can be provided free as part of the entitlement to early years provision or paid for directly  
50 by parents. Formal childcare includes nurseries and registered childminders. Informal childcare  
51 is the converse of formal childcare, often provided by family and friends. Children aged three  
52 to four years old in the UK are entitled to 30 hours of free childcare per week with a formal  
53 childcare provider, however, for children younger than this there is limited free provision and  
54 therefore informal childcare is often used. In a recent survey of English parents of children  
55 aged 0-14 years old, 62% had used formal childcare and 35% of families had used informal  
56 childcare provided by family and friends. More specifically, 40% of preschool children up to  
57 age two years, and 88% of children aged three to four years old had received formal childcare.  
58 The data are not so clear with regards to informal childcare since it is likely to be used outside  
59 of traditional working hours and school holidays <sup>(10)</sup>. For children below school age this often  
60 involves a full day of childcare involving multiple meals and snacks and therefore the influence  
61 these caregivers are having on young children's diets requires more exploration.  
62

63 Research into the provision of food and drink in formal childcare settings focuses mainly on  
64 nurseries. In the past, there is evidence to suggest that nurseries were failing to develop healthy  
65 eating habits in young children, providing meals deficient in energy, carbohydrate, iron and  
66 zinc and exceeding the recommended sodium guidelines <sup>(11)</sup>. In another study, many nurseries  
67 were not providing a single portion of fruit or vegetables with the children's main meal <sup>(12)</sup>.  
68 However, since the voluntary food and drink guidelines for early years settings were released  
69 in 2012, nurseries started to serve food and beverages more consistent with the guidelines <sup>(13)</sup>.  
70 Although these studies go some way in demonstrating the dietary quality in nursery settings  
71 there is still a lack of up to date data on food provision in UK nurseries. Research into the food  
72 provision in childminder settings is scarce, however a qualitative study of eight childminders  
73 found that although childminders were aware of key nutritional campaigns such as the 'five a  
74 day' there was an over reliance on the provision of fresh and dried fruit as snacks and no  
75 consistency in providing vegetables with meals <sup>(14)</sup>. Most of the childminders were also  
76 unaware of the voluntary food and drink guidelines for early years settings <sup>(14)</sup>.  
77

78 There is also a distinct paucity of evidence examining food provision by informal childcare  
79 providers such as family members. Instead, research has focused on weight outcomes of  
80 children in formal versus informal childcare, with mixed findings. For instance in a UK wide  
81 cohort study of 12,354 three year olds children who were cared for in informal childcare  
82 settings were significantly more likely to be overweight than those cared for by their parents,  
83 whereas no significant relationship existed for those in formal childcare <sup>(15)</sup>. Although there is  
84 little evidence for the association between childcare type and weight status persisting beyond  
85 the early years <sup>(16,17)</sup>, it suggests that exploring the food provision by family members who are  
86 not parents may be important.  
87

88 The National Diet and Nutrition Survey (NDNS) <sup>(18)</sup> is a representative survey collecting  
89 detailed food consumption and nutrient intake data of individuals aged one and a half years and  
90 over, from the UK. For children, parents are asked to complete food diaries, regarded as the  
91 gold standard in dietary assessment methods <sup>(19)</sup>, for all food and drinks consumed over three  
92 days. Parents also document who the child is with when they consume these foods.  
93 Consequently the NDNS may be an invaluable resource that can be utilised to explore the  
94 dietary provision of formal and informal caregivers.  
95

96 A previous study has explored the relationship between children's fruit and vegetable intake  
97 and the eating context, including who the child was with, using data from the NDNS <sup>(20)</sup>.  
98 Children aged one and a half to three years old were more likely to consume vegetables when  
99 siblings were present, when they were with adult relatives and when with formal childcare  
100 providers, such as nursery/kindergarten staff and childminders, compared to when they were  
101 with their parents alone. Children were less likely to consume vegetables when alone and they  
102 were also more likely to consume fruit when they were with their formal childcare provider  
103 and when they were with friends. Although this study highlights the difference in fruit and  
104 vegetable intake when children are with different adult figures it doesn't provide insight into  
105 young children's overall diet provision when accompanied by different people. Doing so would  
106 provide a greater insight into ways to improve children's diets.

107  
108 There is also a need to consider socioeconomic factors when exploring children's dietary intake  
109 when with different caregivers <sup>(21)</sup>. Socioeconomic gradients in diets have been documented  
110 widely for both adults and children, with lower income groups consuming lower quality diets  
111 than higher income groups <sup>(22-25)</sup> and this is primarily due to reduced access and a higher cost  
112 of more healthful diets <sup>(23)</sup>. Less is known about how the child's parental household income, a  
113 proxy measure of socioeconomic status, might influence young children's dietary intake within  
114 a caregiving environment.

115  
116 The aim of this study is to investigate the relationship between dietary intake (energy (kcal),  
117 total added sugars (g), total sodium (mg), energy density (kcal/g), total saturated fat (g), total  
118 fruit (g), total vegetables (g) and total grams per eating occasion) of children aged two to four  
119 years old in the UK and accompanying adult/s using data from the national diet and nutrition  
120 survey. We will also explore the influence of the child's parental household income on  
121 children's dietary intake when they are accompanied by different people.

## 122 123 124 **Method**

### 125 126 **Research Design**

127  
128 This study is a secondary data analysis of quantitative data from a UK National cross-  
129 sectional survey.

### 130 131 **Data Source**

132 The data were pooled data from the National Diet and Nutrition Survey (NDNS) years 1-8 <sup>(18)</sup>.  
133 The NDNS is a nationally representative cross-sectional survey assessing the diet and health  
134 of households in Great Britain. Data was collected in three waves; wave one: 2008-2011, wave  
135 two: 2012-2014 and wave three: 2014-2016. Across the three waves 39,524 households were  
136 randomly selected to take part in the study. For each household either one adult (aged 19 years  
137 and over) and one child (aged one and a half to 18 years) or one child only were randomly  
138 selected to take part. Participants for the present study were 1,218 children aged two to four  
139 years old and their caregivers who completed the dietary assessment for the children. The full  
140 survey design and sampling methods of the NDNS survey have been published previously <sup>(18)</sup>.  
141 Anonymised data were obtained from the UK Data Archives (NatCen, Univeristy of Essex,  
142 Colchester, Essex, UK). Ethical approval for the NDNS was obtained from Oxfordshire A  
143 Research Ethics Committee.

144  
145

## 146 Dietary Data

147 Across the three waves, three or four-day estimated food diaries were used to assess dietary  
148 intake. Food diaries were completed by parents for children under the age of twelve and  
149 detailed instructions for caregivers were also provided for when children were not with their  
150 parents. To complete the food diaries, caregivers were asked to record all food and drink items  
151 consumed, both in and out of the home, the time they ate and who they were with. Parents and  
152 caregivers were requested to record only the food eaten, taking into consideration any leftovers  
153 and they were provided with picture examples and given detailed instructions on how to  
154 estimate portion sizes and were asked to record any weights from labels. Diary entries were  
155 coded by trained coders and editors in the NDNS team. For each food item consumed, macro  
156 and micronutrients were calculated in a modified version of the Diet in, Nutrients Out system;  
157 a dietary recording and analysis system. The food composition data was taken from the  
158 Department of Health's NDNS Nutrient databank.

159

160

## 161 Type of Caregiver

162

163 The NDNS coded 15 categories for who the child was with for each eating occasion and these  
164 were recoded into a new variable containing six categories for the current analysis. Three of  
165 these categories refer to types of caregivers; "parents", "formal childcare providers", and with  
166 "wider family". The other three other categories suggested no obvious caregiver ("no adult  
167 specified", "with others", and "not recorded") but were retained in the analysis for validity.  
168 Any group that included parents was recoded as 'with parents' even if the category also referred  
169 to being with a carer e.g. 'with parent/carers & siblings' as there was no way to distinguish those  
170 within it. Exploratory analysis indicated that 94% of the eating occasions with parents/carers  
171 were in the home environment, strengthening the assumption that the carer referred to here is  
172 the parent figure. The category 'with family (including relatives)' was recoded as 'with wider  
173 family'. One category referred to being with a carer without reference to parents (with carer  
174 and other children) and exploratory analysis indicated that 82% of these eating occasions  
175 accompanied by a carer were located at a nursery or kindergarten and 8% were located at a  
176 carer's home indicating that these carers were nursery/kindergarten staff or childminders.  
177 Consequently, this category was assumed to be "formal childcare providers" and will be  
178 referred to this as such from this point onwards. When the NDNS categories included no  
179 obvious accompanying adult e.g. 'with siblings', 'with friends' these were recoded as 'no adult  
180 specified'. Three NDNS categories, referring to with others, were collapsed into a single  
181 'others' category. Finally, the NDNS category 'not specified' whereby participants did not  
182 enter into the diary who the child was with when consuming the food was coded as 'not  
183 recorded'.

184

## 185 Other Variables

186

187 Alongside the food diaries, parents provided demographic information and trained field  
188 workers measured the children's body weight and height. BMI was calculated from height and  
189 weight and children were categorized as having a healthy weight, overweight or obesity using  
190 the WHO child growth standards<sup>(26)</sup> for children aged two to three, and using the UK90<sup>(27)</sup> for  
191 children aged four and above. Parents also recorded their child's age in years, their gender,  
192 their ethnicity and the household income. For the present study we extracted the child's parental  
193 Equivalised Household Income to use as an indication of socioeconomic status<sup>(28)</sup> since Indices  
194 of Deprivation scores were not available for all survey waves and nations. Equivalised  
195 Household Income is the total income of a household after tax and other deductions, divided

196 by the number of household members weighted by age. This variable will be referred to as  
197 “household income” throughout.

198

199

## 200 Data Preparation & Outcomes

201 Food level dietary data, BMI, equivalised household income, ethnicity, gender and age data  
202 extracted from each wave and combined into one data set. Energy (kcal), added sugars (g),  
203 sodium (mg), saturated fat (g), fruit (g), vegetables (g) and grams from each food or drink item  
204 consumed were aggregated based upon serial id, exact meal time and the day of the week to  
205 create a total for each eating occasion. Energy density per eating occasion was calculated (total  
206 calories/total grams).

207

208

## 209 Statistical Analysis

210

211 Means and standard deviations of energy (kcal), total added sugars (g), total sodium (mg),  
212 energy density (kcal per gram), total saturated fat (g), total fruit (g), total vegetables (g) and  
213 total grams (g) consumed per eating occasion when children were with the different  
214 accompanying adults were calculated to explore any initial associations between intake and  
215 accompanying adult. Regression analysis was then used to explore these associations further.  
216 Separate models were used to examine the main effect of each level of the “WhoWith” variable  
217 on each of the dietary outcomes (energy (kcal), total added sugars (g), total sodium (mg),  
218 energy density (kcal per gram), total saturated fat (g), total fruit (g), total vegetables (g) and  
219 total grams/eating occasion). Generalised linear models using clustered robust standard errors  
220 were used to control for multiple responses per participant. Sampling weights were applied in  
221 accordance with guidance from the NDNS. The models included gender, age, ethnicity (White,  
222 Mixed Ethnic group, Black or Black British, Asian or Asian British and any other group),  
223 equivalised household income (low  $\leq$ £17,500, middle  $>$ £17,500  $\leq$ £32,500 and high  
224  $>$ £32,500), and child BMI (normal, overweight and obese) to control for these factors which  
225 are known to influence dietary intake <sup>(22,24,25,29)</sup>.

226

227 Over 10% of the sample (n= 291) had missing data for child BMI and/or household equivalised  
228 income data, which equated to 7769 missing eating occasions. Assuming this data was missing  
229 at random, multiple imputations (n=20) were performed for these two variables using the *mi*  
230 *impute* function in stata with *regress* for the continuous household equivalised income variable  
231 and *mlogit* for the categorical BMI variable. All variables used in the planned regression model  
232 were included in the imputation model to preserve the relationship between the variables of  
233 interest <sup>(30)</sup>. The regression analyses were conducted incorporating the average values from the  
234 20 imputations for those with missing data in accordance with Rubin’s rules <sup>(31,32)</sup>.

235

## 236 Sub-group analysis

237

238 We examined the influence of household income on dietary intake <sup>(25)</sup> and the differences in  
239 child intake when accompanied by different people. Although the indices of deprivation score  
240 (IMD) would have been the optimal measure of socioeconomic status, as it takes into  
241 consideration seven different facets of deprivation, IMD score was not available for all waves  
242 and all nations. Consequently household income was used as a proxy for socioeconomic status  
243 <sup>(28)</sup>. Household income was included in the model as a factor variable in addition to an  
244 interaction term between the accompanying person/people and household income categories.  
245 This was repeated for each nutritional element (energy (kcal), total added sugars (g), total

246 sodium (mg), energy density (kcal per gram), total saturated fat (g), total fruit (g), total  
247 vegetables (g) and total grams (g)).

248

## 249 Sensitivity Analysis

250

251 As meal occasions (e.g. breakfast, lunch, evening meal, snack) vary in nutritional composition  
252 <sup>(33)</sup>, ideally this should be controlled for in the regression analyses. However, the NDNS dataset  
253 does not provide an indication of whether the food eaten is part of breakfast, lunch, the evening  
254 meal or a snack, instead, participants record the time that the items were consumed. Although  
255 participants' self-identification of meal occasion is frequently used in the literature to define  
256 the meal occasion <sup>(34-36)</sup>, where this data is lacking, time has been used as an approximation  
257 <sup>(37)</sup>. Consequently, a sensitivity analysis was conducted making assumptions based on the time  
258 items were consumed to control for meal type in the regression analyses. This assumed that  
259 any eating occasion consumed between 6am and 8.59am was breakfast, between 12 noon and  
260 1.59pm was lunch, between 5pm and 7.59pm was the evening meal and items consumed at all  
261 other times were assumed to be snacks.

262

263 Data files and documentation for the survey were obtained from the UK Data Archive and  
264 analysed using Stata version 16.1.

265

## 266 Results

267

### 268 Child Characteristics

269

270 Data from 1,218 children were included in the analysis, table 1 presents the child  
271 characteristics. There were similar percentages of males and females in the sample and similar  
272 percentages of children aged two or three years old however there were slightly less four-year  
273 olds (29%). Although a similar number of children were from low- and high-income families  
274 (31% and 32% respectively) there were slightly more from middle income families (38%). A  
275 greater proportion of the sample were White British and of normal BMI but the distributions  
276 of ethnicity and BMI closely reflect national statistics.

277

<b>Table 1. Child characteristics (n =1218)</b>		
	<b>n</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Child Gender</b>		
Male	634	52%
Female	584	48%
<b>Child Age</b>		
2	426	36%
3	431	35%
4	351	29%
<b>Child Ethnicity</b>		
White or White British	1049	86%
Mixed Ethnic Group	41	3%
Black or Black British	27	2%
Asian or Asian British	72	6%
Other	29	2%
<b>Household EquivInc</b>		
Lowest <£17,500	375	31%
Middle £17,500-£32,499	459	38%
High >£32,500	384	32%
<b>Child BMI</b>		
Normal	847	70%

Over-weight	195	16%
Obese	176	14%

278  
279  
280  
281  
282  
283  
284  
285  
286  
287

**Descriptive statistics** of eating occasions

Across the 1,218 children, 30,652 eating occasions were included in the analysis. The child had most of the eating occasions accompanied by parents (47%) followed by occasions when no adult was recorded as present (18%) and when accompanied by wider family members (17%). The fewest meal occasions were accompanied by a formal childcare provider (2%) or others (3%). In 13% of the eating occasions the accompanying person/people were not recorded.

**Table 2. No. of eating occasions by accompanying adult.**

		No. of eating occasions	% of eating occasions
<b>Accompanying person/people</b>	<b>Parents</b>	14540	47%
	<b>Wider family</b>	5315	17%
	<b>Formal childcare providers</b>	638	2%
	<b>No adult specified</b>	5421	18%
	<b>Other</b>	862	3%
	<b>Not recorded</b>	3876	13%

288  
289  
290  
291  
292  
293  
294  
295  
296  
297  
298  
299  
300  
301  
302  
303

Table 3 presents the mean dietary intake for each nutritional outcome categorised by who the child was with. Children aged two to four years old consumed the greatest amount of energy (kcal), sodium (mg), total grams and vegetables (g) when accompanied by wider family members. The greatest amount of fruit was consumed when children were accompanied by parents. The most energy dense meals (kcal/g) were consumed when children were with wider family members and with others. The greatest amount of saturated fat and added sugars were also consumed when children were accompanied by others. Compared to when children were with parents, they consumed more or the same amount of all dietary outcomes when they were with wider family members. The least amount of energy, saturated fat, sodium, vegetables, total grams and the lowest energy density of meals were consumed when the accompanying people were not recorded by participants. The least amount of added sugars were consumed when children were accompanied by their formal childcare provider. The least amount of fruit was consumed when children were accompanied by wider family and when the accompanying people were not recorded.



**Table 3. Mean child nutritional intake at an eating occasion when accompanied by different people.**

	Accompanying Person/People (Number of eating occasions)					
	Parents (14,540)	Wider family (5,315)	Formal childcare provider (638)	No adult specified (5,421)	Other (862)	Not recorded (3,876)
<b>Outcome Mean (Standard Deviation)</b>						
<b>Energy (Kcal)</b>	187kcal (144)	205kcal (151)	182kcal (140)	178kcal (146)	209kcal (184)	140kcal (133)
<b>Saturated Fat (g)</b>	2.9g (3.2)	3.2g (3.5)	2.8g (3.0)	2.9g (3.2)	3.5g (3.9)	2.3mg (2.9)
<b>Sodium (mg)</b>	217mg (265)	248mg (283)	228mg (263)	195mg (250)	237mg (276)	141mg (216)
<b>Added Sugars (g)</b>	6.2g (8.9)	7.0g (9.3)	4.7g (7.6)	6.0g (8.8)	7.5g (12.0)	5.3g (8.6)
<b>Total grams (g)</b>	215g (179)	228g (154)	225g (139)	211g (139)	219g (155)	174g (133)
<b>Energy density (kcal/g)</b>	1.8 kcal/g (1.7)	1.9 kcal/g (1.7)	1.7cal/g (1.6)	1.7kcal/g (1.7)	1.9kcal/g (1.8)	1.6 kcal/g (1.8)
<b>Fruit (g)</b>	30g (0.5)	29g (0.7)	43g (2.5)	33g (0.8)	36g (2.9)	29g (0.9)
<b>Vegetables (g)</b>	12g (0.3)	15g (0.4)	13g (1.1)	8g (0.3)	9g (1.4)	7g (0.4)

307 **Regression results:** nutritional intake when accompanied by different caregivers  
 308

**Table 4. Results of the regression analyses of child nutritional intake when accompanied by different caregivers.**

	Energy Density (kcal/g)		Energy (Kcal)		Sodium (mg)		Added Sugars (g)		Total Grams (g)		Saturated Fat (g)		Fruit (g)		Vegetables (g)	
	Coef. (95%CI)	P Value	Coef. (95%CI)	P value	Coef. (95%CI)	P Value	Coef. (95%CI)	P Value	Coef. (95%CI)	P Value	Coef. (95%CI)	P Value	Coef. (95%CI)	P Value	Coef. (95%CI)	P Value
<b>Parents</b>	Reference															
<b>Family including relatives</b>	0.04 (-0.06 - 0.14)	0.403	<b>15</b> (7 - 23)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>	<b>19</b> (6 - 32)	<b>0.005*</b>	<b>0.6</b> (0.1 - 1.1)	<b>0.024*</b>	<b>12</b> (3 - 21)	<b>0.007*</b>	<b>0.2</b> (0.1 - 0.4)	<b>0.006*</b>	-1 (-3 - 3)	0.757	<b>3</b> (1-4)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>
<b>Formal childcare provider</b>	-0.15 (-0.38 - 0.08)	0.204	0 (-23- 23)	0.982	26 (-25 - 78)	0.319	<b>-1.6</b> (-2.4 - -0.8)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>	19 (-0.5 - 39)	0.056	-0.1 (-0.5 - 0.3)	0.593	<b>12</b> (3 - 21)	<b>0.01*</b>	-1 (-5- 2)	0.374
<b>No adults specified</b>	<b>-0.12</b> (-0.22 - -0.02)	<b>0.016*</b>	<b>-12</b> (-20 - -4)	<b>0.003*</b>	<b>-25</b> (-39 - -11)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>	-0.4 (-0.9 - 0.1)	0.104	-3 (-12 - 6)	0.498	-0.1 (-0.3 - 0.1)	0.169	<b>4</b> (0 - 7)	<b>0.042*</b>	<b>-4</b> (-6 - 03)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>
<b>Other</b>	0.01 (-0.16 - 0.19)	0.887	<b>16</b> (0 - 32)	<b>0.049*</b>	13 (-11 - 36)	0.286	<b>1.0</b> (0.1 - 2.0)	<b>0.032*</b>	0 (-15 - 16)	0.989	<b>0.4</b> (0.1 - 0.7)	<b>0.02*</b>	7 (-1 - 14)	0.085	-3 (-7 - 1)	0.179
<b>Not Recorded</b>	<b>-0.26</b> (-0.35 - -0.17)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>	<b>-54</b> (-62 - -46)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>	<b>-82</b> (-94 - -70)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>	<b>-1.0</b> (-1.5 - -0.6)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>	<b>-41</b> (-48 - -33)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>	<b>-0.7</b> (-1.0 - -0.6)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>	1 (-2 - 4)	0.639	<b>-6</b> (-7 - -5)	<b>P&lt;0.001</b>

Controlling for Child BMI, Child Age, Child Gender, Equivalised Household Income, Child Ethnicity

\*Significant at p<0.05

310 The results from the regression analyses presented in table 4 (full regression results in appendix  
311 1) indicate that, compared to when children were with parents, children consumed significantly  
312 more energy, sodium, added sugars, total grams, saturated fat and vegetables per eating  
313 occasion when accompanied by wider family. This equates to, on average, an additional 15  
314 calories, 19mg of sodium, 0.6g of added sugars, 0.2g of saturated fat and 3g of vegetables per  
315 eating occasion. Furthermore, children consumed an additional 12 grams of food per eating  
316 occasion when accompanied by wider family members. No significant differences were found  
317 between the energy density of eating occasions and the amount of fruit consumed when  
318 children were with their parents versus when they were with wider family members.

319  
320 When children were accompanied by a formal childcare provider, they consumed significantly  
321 less added sugars (-1.6g) and significantly more fruit (12g) per eating occasion than when they  
322 were with their parents. No significant differences were found between parents and formal  
323 childcare providers for the other dietary outcomes.

324  
325 When no adults were specified, children ate significantly less energy (-0.12kcal), sodium (-  
326 25mg) and vegetables (-4g) and significantly more fruit (4g) per eating occasion than when  
327 there were with their parents. They also consumed significantly lower energy-dense eating  
328 occasions (-0.12kcal.g).

329  
330 When who the child was with was not recorded, children ate significantly less energy (-54  
331 kcal), sodium (-82mg), added sugars (-1.0g), saturated fat (-0.7g) and vegetables (-6g) than  
332 when accompanied by parents. They also consumed significantly less weight in grams (-41g),  
333 with significantly lower energy density (-0.26 kcal/g).

334  
335 When children were accompanied by others they ate significantly more energy (16kcal), added  
336 sugars (1.0g) and saturated fat (0.4g) per eating occasion compared to when they were  
337 accompanied by their parents. When no adult was specified, children ate significantly less  
338 energy (-12kcal) and sodium (-25mg) per eating occasions and of lower energy density (-0.12  
339 kcal/g).

340  
341 Influence of household income on child nutritional intake

342  
343 Further analysis was conducted to explore the influence of household income on child intake.  
344 Children in families in the high-income category (>£32,500 equivalised household income)  
345 consumed significantly, less sodium (-32mg, p=0.001) and lower energy dense meals (-0.2  
346 kcal/g, p=0.025) than children in the low-income category (£<17,500). Children in the middle-  
347 income category (£17,500-£32,500) consumed less sodium (-27mg, p=0.006) and lower energy  
348 dense meals (-0.1 kcal/g, p=0.025) compared with children in the low-income category  
349 (£<17,500). Very few significant interactions were found between income and accompanying  
350 people. Children from families in the high-income group (> £32,500) consumed significantly  
351 higher energy dense meals when accompanied by wider family members (0.3 kcal/g, p=0.014)  
352 compared with children in the low-income group (< £17,500) when accompanied by parents.  
353 There were no other significant interactions between wider family members and income status  
354 for other nutritional elements.

355  
356 Significant interactions were found between the household income status and when children  
357 were accompanied by formal childcare providers, when no adult was specified and when not  
358 recorded. When children from the high-income group were accompanied by formal childcare

359 providers they consumed significantly more sodium (116mg,  $p=0.033$ ) than children from  
360 families in the low-income group when accompanied by parents. Also, when children from the  
361 high-income group were with their formal childcare providers they consumed significantly  
362 more vegetables (7g,  $p=0.017$ ) than children from families in the low-income group when  
363 accompanied by parents. When no adults were specified, children from families in the high-  
364 income group consumed significantly fewer total grams per eating occasion (-28,  $p=0.014$ )  
365 than children from families in the low-income group when accompanied by parents. When who  
366 the child was with was not recorded, children from families in the high-income group  
367 consumed significantly less total grams (-19g,  $p=0.049$ ) than children from families in the low-  
368 income group when accompanied by parents. When who the child was with was not recorded,  
369 children from families in the middle-income group consumed significantly more vegetables  
370 (14g,  $p<0.001$ ) than children from families in the low-income group when accompanied by  
371 parents. Full tables of results can be found in appendix 2.

372

### 373 **Results of the Sensitivity Analysis**

374

375 The sensitivity analysis used assumptions based on the time items were consumed to control  
376 for meal type (i.e breakfast, lunch, evening meal or snack). Across the nutritional elements,  
377 whether the results were significant or not did not change for most of the categories of  
378 accompanying people. However, controlling for meal type led to some differences in the results  
379 of the regression analyses for dietary intake when accompanied by formal childcare providers  
380 and when no adult was specified. There was no longer a significant increase in children's  
381 consumption of fruit when accompanied by formal childcare providers compared to parents  
382 and unlike in the base case analysis, children consumed significantly more total grams (33g)  
383 per eating occasion with formal childcare providers compared to with parents. There was no  
384 longer a significant reduction in energy (kcal) or increase in fruit (g) intake when no adults  
385 were specified. Additionally, the significant difference observed for sodium consumption or  
386 vegetable consumption when accompanied by wider family were no longer evident. Full tables  
387 of results can be found in appendix 3.

388

389

### 390 **Discussion**

391

392 This study explored the dietary intake of children aged two to four years old when accompanied  
393 by different adults, using data from the UK National Diet and Nutrition Survey. The results  
394 demonstrate that preschool children consume larger portion sizes of meals, containing more  
395 vegetables, and higher in energy, salt, saturated fat and added sugar content when with wider  
396 family members compared to when with parents. However, parents and wider family members  
397 may provide similar amounts of fruit to preschool aged children as no differences in fruit intake  
398 was found when children were with parents versus wider family members. In contrast,  
399 preschoolers appear to be consuming more fruit when they are with their formal childcare  
400 providers, since fruit intake was higher when children were with their formal childcare  
401 providers compared to when they were with their parents. Formal childcare providers also  
402 appeared to be providing foods significantly lower in added sugars compared to parents.

403

404 While the differences in nutrient intakes are relatively small, this study focused on individual  
405 eating occasions and considering that children of this age are recommended to consume three  
406 meals and two snacks per day<sup>(38)</sup>, these differences can add up. For instance, in the current  
407 study the difference of 15 calories per eating occasion found between parents and wider family  
408 could equate to an additional 75 kcal per day or 525 kcal per week. It was already known that

409 children in the UK consume over double the recommended amount of added sugar per day <sup>(2)</sup>  
410 but our study shows that this is even more likely when accompanied by wider family members  
411 versus by parents.

412  
413 This study found that children were consuming significantly less energy, sodium and lower  
414 energy dense meals when no adult was specified. This includes meal occasions accompanied  
415 by friends and siblings. Similarly, it is also worth noting the significantly lower intakes found  
416 for all dietary outcomes when who the child was with was not recorded. It is unknown why  
417 this may be and indeed the results may reflect actual intake but they may also reveal  
418 inaccuracies in the dietary assessment method. Underreporting is the most common  
419 misreporting error in dietary assessment <sup>(39)</sup> and may explain the significantly lower intakes  
420 recorded. As participants forgot to record the 'who with' response parents may have been  
421 distracted or busy when completing the diary, or it might indicate when they forgot to complete  
422 the diary prospectively and completed it at another time point. Likewise, when no adult was  
423 specified, children were accompanied by siblings or friends and may also have meant that  
424 respondents were less focused on completing the diary. Any of these factors could impact upon  
425 the accuracy of the food diary entries and consequently the validity of these results <sup>(40)</sup>.

426  
427 The results of this study suggest that children are consuming more fruit when with formal  
428 childcare providers compared to with parents. This finding reflects the existing literature  
429 exploring childminders' food provision to preschoolers, whereby in a UK study of eight  
430 childminders, childminders relied heavily on fruit as a snack food item <sup>(14)</sup>. Children were also  
431 consuming significantly less added sugars with formal childcare providers, which is in line  
432 with previous research demonstrating that childminders can successfully identify foods high in  
433 sugar and are confident in limiting unhealthy snacks and sugary drinks <sup>(41)</sup>. Due to the paucity  
434 of research carried out on food provision and eating behaviours in UK formal childcare settings,  
435 the current findings also conflict with a previous piece of research on food provision in formal  
436 childcare. Moore et al. reported that children were not frequently provided with fruit or  
437 vegetables with the main meal in formal childcare settings <sup>(12)</sup>. One explanation for this  
438 discrepancy is that the previous study was conducted prior to the introduction of the Voluntary  
439 Food and Drink Guidelines for Early Years Settings in England <sup>(42)</sup> and that the current results  
440 reflect the changes made by nursery settings in light of this guidance.

441  
442 Our findings on fruit and vegetable intake align with a previous study exploring fruit and  
443 vegetable consumption and the eating context using data from 2008-2010 of the NDNS <sup>(20)</sup>.  
444 For instance, similar to the significantly greater intake of vegetables when accompanied by  
445 wider family observed in our study, Mak et al. <sup>(20)</sup> found that young children were more likely  
446 to consume vegetables when with adult relatives. Likewise Mak et al. found that young children  
447 were also more likely to consume fruit when they were with their formal childcare providers  
448 and when they were with friends <sup>(20)</sup>; reflecting the significantly greater intake of fruit that we  
449 found for children when with formal childcare providers and when no adult was specified, a  
450 category which included being with friends. However some of our results differ from this study;  
451 Mak et al. <sup>(20)</sup> found that young children were more likely to consume vegetables when with  
452 formal childcare providers compared to when they were with their parents alone but we found  
453 no such differences in vegetable consumption. This difference may arise from the size of the  
454 study, for instance our study combined data from three waves of the NDNS (2008-2011, 2012-  
455 2014 and 2014-2016) and used multiple imputation to account for missing data, resulting in  
456 over 30,000 eating occasions. In contrast Mak et al conducted a complete case analysis on data  
457 from only two years' of the NDNS dataset resulting in less than 5000 eating occasions for  
458 children aged 1.5 to 3 years old <sup>(20)</sup>.

459

460 It is unknown who the wider family members were in our study, however, a survey of childcare  
461 in England found that informal childcare of children in the early years is mostly provided by  
462 grandparents<sup>(10)</sup> and our results are consistent with the qualitative literature on grandparent's  
463 food provision to preschool aged children. For instance, parents frequently complain of  
464 grandparents providing their preschool aged grandchildren unhealthy options, high in fat and  
465 sugar<sup>(21,43-45)</sup>. Yet previously no study actually measured children's nutritional intake when in  
466 the care of grandparents so it was unknown if these parental reports are accurate. Our findings  
467 seem to support this by demonstrating that preschool aged children consume greater amounts  
468 of saturated fat, sugar and salt when accompanied by wider family members. Additionally  
469 parents often complain that grandparents provide large portions sizes to their preschool aged  
470 children<sup>(21,45-47)</sup>. The provision of large portions prompts over consumption<sup>(48)</sup> and is a key  
471 driver of weight gain in young children<sup>(49,50)</sup>. Children in this study consumed significantly  
472 more total grams at a meal when with wider family members suggesting that the portion sizes  
473 provided by family members could also be larger than those provided by parents.

474

475 One explanation for the increase in child consumption when accompanied by wider family  
476 members compared to parents is the effect of social facilitation. This is where the more people  
477 there are in a group eating, the more each individual will consume<sup>(51)</sup>. The social facilitation  
478 effect on food consumption has been demonstrated widely in both adults and children and  
479 increases with the familiarity of the group<sup>(52,53)</sup>. When with wider family members, it is  
480 unknown how many people the children were accompanied by and therefore the increase in  
481 consumption, of both energy (kcal) and portion size (g), may not be a direct result of the food  
482 provision practices of family members but influenced by the social situation. The social  
483 facilitation effect might also explain why children consumed more fruit when with formal  
484 childcare providers as it's likely that children would have been accompanied by other children  
485 in the childcare setting. Similarly it could be an effect of peer-modelling, whereby fruit and  
486 vegetable consumption can be increased in children when they observe peers consuming such  
487 items<sup>(54)</sup>. However, contrary to these theories, no increase in consumption was found when  
488 no accompanying adult was specified, which included times when children were with friends  
489 and siblings. Highlighting the need for more detailed information on "who with" and "where"  
490 eating occasions occur.

491

492 An income gradient was seen in children's consumption whereby children of higher income  
493 families consumed less sodium, and lower energy dense meals than children of lower income  
494 families. This is in line with previous studies which have demonstrated how children from  
495 families of higher socioeconomic status consume more healthful diets than children from  
496 families of lower socioeconomic status<sup>(24,25)</sup>. However, when the interaction between the  
497 child's household income and who children were accompanied by was explored the results  
498 were mixed. In line with the social gradient, children of higher income families consumed  
499 significantly more vegetables when with their formal childcare providers compared to children  
500 of low-income families when accompanied by their parents. However, contrary to this  
501 gradient, we found that higher income was associated with the consumption of higher energy  
502 dense meals when with wider family members, and more sodium when with formal childcare  
503 providers compared to children of low-income families when accompanied by parents. Our  
504 measure of income was for the child's household, we did not have the income details of the  
505 people the children were accompanied by. Considering an intergenerational transmission of  
506 socioeconomic status has been consistently demonstrated<sup>(55)</sup>, it could be assumed that the wider  
507 family members and parents would be of a similar status, but the same cannot be said for formal  
508 childcare providers such as childminders. Future research should capture socioeconomic

509 indices of the accompanying caregivers rather than just those of the child and further consider  
510 how socioeconomic status influences the relationship between caregiver type and child intake.  
511  
512

513 To the authors knowledge this is the first study to explore the association between young  
514 children's nutritional intake and caregiver type in the UK, providing evidence that further  
515 research is required in this area to effectively design targeted childhood obesity interventions.  
516 The NDNS provides high quality data on food and nutrition consumption and benefits from a  
517 large and representative sample. Consequently, the results provide a good indication of how  
518 children in the UK consume diets of a differing quality depending on who is looking after them.  
519 Nevertheless, several limitations are noteworthy. First, although the sample includes children  
520 from a range of deprivation levels and ethnicities, representative of the UK population <sup>(56,57)</sup>,  
521 being UK specific, these findings may not generalize to outside of the UK. Nevertheless,  
522 similarities can be seen with studies in the USA where preschoolers' consume more fruit and  
523 vegetables in the childcare setting than at home <sup>(58,59)</sup>.  
524

525 Second, this study considers individual eating occasions, rather than investigating dietary  
526 intake over a whole day. In the past, studies have found that young children self-regulate their  
527 food consumption to keep their daily caloric intake constant <sup>(60,61)</sup>, and therefore focusing on  
528 individual eating occasions may fail to account for any compensatory behaviour. However  
529 more recent evidence suggests there is large individual variability in self-regulation <sup>(62)</sup> and that  
530 by the time children reach the preschool years this ability has mostly diminished as eating  
531 becomes more influenced by external cues <sup>(63-65)</sup>. Importantly, looking at individual eating  
532 occasions may be the most appropriate way to explore the influence of different caregivers on  
533 young children's diets as children of this age may be fed by multiple caregivers across a 24-  
534 hour period. Additionally, caregivers might influence children's consumption indirectly  
535 through the feeding practices or behaviours they use to guide children's eating behaviour, such  
536 as modelling healthy eating, restricting food and drink items or pressuring children to eat <sup>(65)</sup>.  
537 Although some feeding practices can lead to positive dietary outcomes others can have  
538 unintended and negative effects <sup>(66-68)</sup>. Our recent work suggests that there are no differences  
539 between parents and grandparents feeding practices when caring for preschool children <sup>(69)</sup>,  
540 however differences in feeding practices between childcare staff and parents have been  
541 identified <sup>(70)</sup>. Future work should aim to further explore how feeding practices of friends, other  
542 family members and childminders might also differ to parents and potentially impact upon  
543 preschoolers' consumption.  
544

545 Nutritional composition can also vary across meals and snacks <sup>(34)</sup> however, data on the specific  
546 meal being consumed by children or whether foods were consumed as a snack was not  
547 explicitly available within the NDNS dataset. Although this was attempted in the sensitivity  
548 analysis using crude assumptions based on the times eating occasions occurred. Controlling for  
549 meal type resulted in some differences in the regression analysis for dietary intake when  
550 children were accompanied by formal childcare providers, and when no adult was specified,  
551 compared to the base case analysis. There was no longer a significant increase in fruit intake  
552 for formal childcare providers versus parents. However, it is likely that the change in fruit  
553 intake when accompanied by formal childcare providers is due to formal childcare providers  
554 offering a higher proportion of lunches and snacks compared to parents (data not shown). The  
555 sensitivity analysis shows that lunches contain significantly more fruit and it is likely that the  
556 base case analysis is capturing this and assigning it to the formal caregivers category. The  
557 sensitivity analysis also demonstrates that children consumed approximately 33g more food  
558 overall per eating occasion with formal childcare providers compared to parents. However,

559 rather than contradicting the findings of the base case analysis these findings confirm the  
560 overall trend. Furthermore, there was no longer a significant reduction in energy consumed or  
561 increase in fruit intake when no adults were specified. The changes to these findings are likely  
562 also to be driven by the types of foods in specific meals or snacks consumed when no adults  
563 are present. Differences in sodium and vegetable intake when accompanied by wider family  
564 were no longer statistically significant in the sensitivity analysis. In both cases the magnitude  
565 of the coefficient has reduced, however, the direction did not change. It is worth noting that  
566 only a crude assumption of meal time was applied to the sensitivity analysis and therefore these  
567 results should be interpreted with some caution since “time of day” categories of eating  
568 occasions can eliminate foods consumed outside of traditional meal and snack patterns.  
569 Similarly, if a “participant identified” approach to categorising meal times had been adopted  
570 the data might be subject to bias from an individual’s interpretation of what constitutes a meal  
571 or snack<sup>(72)</sup>. This highlights the need for clearly defined, objective and accurate information  
572 on meal times to be specified within the NDNS data set. This would allow researchers to  
573 accurately define the food types that are consumed as part of specific meals and snacks.  
574

575 A further limitation lies within the categories used to classify who the children were with when  
576 consuming food and drink items. Although the authors have tried to categorize the  
577 accompanying adults as best as possible, detailed information for the wider family category or  
578 the formal childcare category were not available. For instance, although there were separate  
579 categories for when children were with their parents it was not possible to distinguish between  
580 different family members within the wider family category or different childcare types within  
581 the formal childcare category. Consequently, the results cannot provide more detailed accounts  
582 of who the children were with when consuming foods for instance an auntie versus a  
583 grandparent. Additionally, it is unknown how many people the children were accompanied by  
584 when eating and the data set only contained information on who the children were with, not  
585 who specifically provided food to the children. There could have been occasions when parents  
586 provided food for their child to take to formal childcare settings.  
587

588 For a lack of more robust evidence, this study indicates significant differences in young  
589 children’s dietary intake depending on which caregivers they are with. It demonstrates the need  
590 for a more focused exploration of the diets of young children when cared for by people other  
591 than parents. This includes different family members such as grandparents, aunts or uncles  
592 as well as care providers such as childminders and nurseries. Further research is needed to  
593 explore these differences in more detail and ensure that studies are designed to encompass more  
594 than just a single food group to understand the overall influence these caregivers are having on  
595 preschoolers’ diets. Adopting a measure of diet quality would also improve future studies since  
596 these data would also allow for researchers to more easily identify those children at increased  
597 risk of not consuming optimal diets. These data are also useful for comparing dietary intake of  
598 specific groups, with different caregivers, to current dietary intake guidelines and  
599 recommendations, and for evaluating the effectiveness of interventions. This study also does  
600 not reveal anything about the frequency of food consumption when children are with different  
601 caregivers. Although caregivers are encouraged to provide some snacks to children of this age,  
602 the frequency in which young children consume snacks can have a significant effect on daily  
603 energy intake<sup>(73)</sup>. Consequently, future work should also explore any differences in the  
604 frequency of food provision between different caregivers.  
605

606 Several implications for policy and practice have been highlighted in this study. The results  
607 suggest that other caregivers may be an important target to promote healthy eating in young  
608 children. To do so it will be necessary to understand what type of strategy is most appropriate



609 for reaching and engaging these caregivers. Although UK public health strategies, such as front  
610 of pack labelling, exist to reduce young children's fat, sugar and salt intake, many young  
611 children are consuming diets low in fruit and vegetables, high in energy, sodium and sugar <sup>(2)</sup>,  
612 and large portion sizes of high energy-dense snack food items<sup>(74,75)</sup> . Current methods may not  
613 be reaching these care providers or they might not realise they need support in their provision.  
614 Non-parental caregivers may assume different feeding roles to that of parents and an awareness  
615 of this is needed to design effective strategies.

616  
617 In conclusion, this study takes a novel approach to explore the influence of different caregivers  
618 on young children's diets. Using a large representative UK sample, we have demonstrated that  
619 preschool children consume meals/snacks higher in energy, saturated fat, sugar and salt, but  
620 containing greater amounts of vegetables, with wider family members compared to when they  
621 are with their parents. Differences were also observed when preschool children were with  
622 formal childcare providers; more fruit and less added sugars were consumed by preschool  
623 children when with formal childcare providers compared to when they were with their parents.  
624 Even though parents may be the primary caregiver to young children, other caregivers can play  
625 a pivotal role in the dietary habits of young children. Nevertheless, further research should seek  
626 to explore these differences in more detail.

### 627 628 **Funding Acknowledgements**

629 This research was funded by the Wellcome Trust [108903/B/15/Z] and the University of  
630 Sheffield. For the purpose of Open Access, the author has applied a CC BY public  
631 copyright licence to any Author Accepted Manuscript version arising from this  
632 submission.

### 633 634 **Conflict of Interests Statement**

635  
636 None

### 637 638 **Author Contributions**

639  
640 Conceptualization: C.M., P.B. and S.J.C; Methodology: C.M., P.B. and S.J.C; Formal  
641 Analysis: C.M.; Writing-Original Draft Preparation; C.M.; Writing-Review and Editing:  
642 C.M., P.B and S.J.C.

643  
644  
645  
646  
647

649 **References**

650

651 1. World Health Organization. Obesity and overweight. Key facts [Internet]. [cited 2020 Sep  
652 16]; Available from: [https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/obesity-and-](https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/obesity-and-overweight)  
653 [overweight](https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/obesity-and-overweight)

654 2. Public Health England. National Diet and Nutrition Survey [Internet]. [cited 2019 Mar  
655 28]; Available from: [https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/national-diet-and-nutrition-](https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/national-diet-and-nutrition-survey)  
656 [survey](https://www.gov.uk/government/collections/national-diet-and-nutrition-survey)

657 3. NHS Digital. Health Survey for England, Fruit and vegetable Consumption [Internet]. 2018  
658 [cited 2021 Nov 5]; Available from: [http://healthsurvey.hscic.gov.uk/data-visualisation/data-](http://healthsurvey.hscic.gov.uk/data-visualisation/data-visualisation/explore-the-trends/fruit-vegetables.aspx)  
659 [visualisation/explore-the-trends/fruit-vegetables.aspx](http://healthsurvey.hscic.gov.uk/data-visualisation/data-visualisation/explore-the-trends/fruit-vegetables.aspx)

660 4. Golan M. Parents as agents of change in childhood obesity – from research to practice. *Int J*  
661 *Pediatr Obes* [Internet] 2006 [cited 2018 Nov 30];1(2):66–76. Available from:  
662 <http://informahealthcare.com/doi/abs/10.1080/17477160600644272>

663 5. Peters J, Sinn N, Campbell K, Lynch J. Parental influences on the diets of 2–5-year-old  
664 children: systematic review of interventions. *Early Child Dev Care* [Internet] 2012 [cited 2020  
665 Sep 16];182(7):837–57. Available from:  
666 <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/03004430.2011.586698>

667 6. Hooley M, Skouteris H, Boganin C, Satur J, Kilpatrick N. Parental influence and the  
668 development of dental caries in children aged 0-6 years: A systematic review of the literature.  
669 *J. Dent.*2012;40(11):873–85.

670 7. Skouteris H, McCabe M, Swinburn B, Newgreen V, Sacher P, Chadwick P. Parental influence  
671 and obesity prevention in pre-schoolers: a systematic review of interventions. *Obes Rev*  
672 [Internet] 2011;12(5):315–28. Available from:  
673 [http://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&PAGE=reference&D=med8&NEWS=N&AN=204925](http://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&PAGE=reference&D=med8&NEWS=N&AN=20492538)  
674 [38](http://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&PAGE=reference&D=med8&NEWS=N&AN=20492538)

675 8. Blaine RE, Kachurak A, Davison KK, Klabunde R, Fisher JO. Food parenting and child snacking:  
676 A systematic review. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* [Internet] 2017 [cited 2020 Sep 16];14(1):1–23.  
677 Available from: <https://link.springer.com/articles/10.1186/s12966-017-0593-9>

678 9. Office for National Statistics. Families and the labour market, UK 2019 [Internet]. [cited 2020  
679 Jan 8]; Available from:  
680 <https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/employmentandempl>  
681 [oyeetypes/articles/familiesandthelabourmarketengland/2019#employment-rates-for-](https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/employmentandempl)  
682 [parents-in-the-uk](https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/employmentandempl)

683 10. Department for Education. Childcare and Early Years Survey of Parents in England, 2018  
684 [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2020 Feb 11]. Available from:  
685 [https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_d](https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/766498/Childcare_and_Early_Years_Survey_of_Parents_in_England_2018.pdf)  
686 [ata/file/766498/Childcare\\_and\\_Early\\_Years\\_Survey\\_of\\_Parents\\_in\\_England\\_2018.pdf](https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/766498/Childcare_and_Early_Years_Survey_of_Parents_in_England_2018.pdf)

687 11. Parker M, Lloyd-Williams F, Weston G, MacKlin J, McFadden K. Nursery nutrition in Liverpool:  
688 An exploration of practice and nutritional analysis of food provided. *Public Health*  
689 *Nutr.*2011;14(10):1867–75.

690 12. Moore H, Nelson P, Marshall J, Cooper M, Zambas H, Brewster K, et al. Laying foundations for  
691 health: Food provision for under 5s in day care. *Appetite* 2005;44(2):207–13.

- 692 13. Neelon SEB, Burgoine T, Hesketh KR, Monsivais P. Nutrition practices of nurseries in England.  
693 Comparison with national guidelines. *Appetite* 2015;85:22–9.
- 694 14. Goldsborough N, Homer C, Atchinson R, Barker ME. Healthy eating in the early years: A  
695 qualitative exploration of food provision in the childminder setting. *Br Food J*  
696 2016;118(4):992–1002.
- 697 15. Pearce A, Li L, Abbas J, Ferguson B, Graham H, Law C, et al. Is childcare associated with the  
698 risk of overweight and obesity in the early years? Findings from the UK Millennium Cohort  
699 Study. *Int J Obes [Internet]* 2010 [cited 2018 Mar 26];34(7):1160–8. Available from:  
700 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20142828>
- 701 16. Costa S, Bann D, Benjamin-Neelon SE, Adams J, Johnson W. Associations of childcare type,  
702 age at start, and intensity with body mass index trajectories from 10 to 42 years of age in the  
703 1970 British Cohort Study. *Pediatr Obes [Internet]* 2020 [cited 2021 May 23];15(9):e12644.  
704 Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1111/ijpo.12644>
- 705 17. Costa S, Adams J, Gonzalez-Nahm S, Benjamin Neelon SE. Childcare in Infancy and Later  
706 Obesity: a Narrative Review of Longitudinal Studies. *Curr Pediatr Rep [Internet]* 2017 [cited  
707 2018 Nov 28];5(3):118–31. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/28845369>
- 708 18. MRC Elsie Widdowson Laboratory. NatCen Social Research. National Diet and Nutrition  
709 Survey Years 1-8, 2008/09-2015/16. [data collection]. 12th Edition. 2018.
- 710 19. Burrows TL, Martin RJ, Collins CE. A Systematic Review of the Validity of Dietary Assessment  
711 Methods in Children when Compared with the Method of Doubly Labeled Water. *J Am Diet*  
712 *Assoc [Internet]* 2010 [cited 2018 May 14];110(10):1501–10. Available from:  
713 <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0002822310011879>
- 714 20. Mak TN, Prynne CJ, Cole D, Fitt E, Roberts C, Bates B, et al. Assessing eating context and fruit  
715 and vegetable consumption in children: new methods using food diaries in the UK National  
716 Diet and Nutrition Survey Rolling Programme. *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 2012;9:126.
- 717 21. Marr C, Reale S, Breeze P, Caton SJ. Grandparental dietary provision, feeding practices and  
718 feeding styles when caring for preschool-aged grandchildren: A systematic mixed methods  
719 review. *Obes Rev [Internet]* 2020 [cited 2020 Dec 4];obr.13157. Available from:  
720 <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/obr.13157>
- 721 22. Northstone K, Emmett PM. Dietary patterns of men in ALSPAC: Associations with socio-  
722 demographic and lifestyle characteristics, nutrient intake and comparison with women’s  
723 dietary patterns. *Eur J Clin Nutr [Internet]* 2010 [cited 2020 Dec 8];64(9):978–86. Available  
724 from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/20571501/>
- 725 23. Darmon N, Drewnowski A. Contribution of food prices and diet cost to socioeconomic  
726 disparities in diet quality and health: A systematic review and analysis. *Nutr Rev [Internet]*  
727 2015 [cited 2020 Dec 8];73(10):643–60. Available from:  
728 </pmc/articles/PMC4586446/?report=abstract>
- 729 24. Nelson M. Childhood nutrition and poverty. *Proc Nutr Soc [Internet]* 2020 [cited 2020 Dec  
730 8];59:307–15. Available from: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0029665100000343>
- 731 25. Craig LCA, McNeill G, MacDiarmid JI, Masson LF, Holmes BA. Dietary patterns of school-age  
732 children in Scotland: Association with socio-economic indicators, physical activity and obesity.  
733 *Br J Nutr [Internet]* 2010 [cited 2020 Oct 27];103(3):319–34. Available from:  
734 <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/19835641/>
- 735 26. World Health Organization. The WHO Child Growth Standards [Internet]. WHO2016 [cited

- 736 2020 Sep 16]; Available from: <http://www.who.int/childgrowth/en/>
- 737 27. Wright CM, Booth IW, Buckler JMH, Cameron N, Cole TJ, Healy MJR, et al. Growth reference  
738 charts for use in the United Kingdom. *Arch Dis Child* [Internet] 2002 [cited 2020 Sep  
739 16];86(1):11–4. Available from: [www.rcpch.ac.uk](http://www.rcpch.ac.uk)
- 740 28. Galobardes B, Shaw M, Lawlor DA, Lynch JW, Smith GD. Indicators of socioeconomic position  
741 (part 1) [Internet]. *J. Epidemiol. Community Health* 2006 [cited 2020 Nov 3];60(1):7–12.  
742 Available from: [/pmc/articles/PMC2465546/?report=abstract](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/16222222/)
- 743 29. Orrell-Valente JK, Hill LG, Brechwald WA, Dodge KA, Pettit GS, Bates JE. “Just three more  
744 bites”: An observational analysis of parents’ socialization of children’s eating at mealtime.  
745 *Appetite* 2007;48(1):37–45.
- 746 30. Nguyen CD, Carlin JB, Lee KJ. Model checking in multiple imputation: an overview and case  
747 study. *Emerg Themes Epidemiol* [Internet] 2017 [cited 2020 Jan 28];14(1):8. Available from:  
748 <http://ete-online.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12982-017-0062-6>
- 749 31. White IR, Royston P, Wood AM. Multiple imputation using chained equations: Issues and  
750 guidance for practice. *Stat Med* [Internet] 2011 [cited 2020 Jan 28];30(4):377–99. Available  
751 from: <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1002/sim.4067>
- 752 32. Rubin DB. *Multiple Imputation for Nonresponse in Surveys* [Internet]. Hoboken, NJ, USA: John  
753 Wiley & Sons, Inc.; 1987 [cited 2020 Jan 28]. Available from:  
754 <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1002/9780470316696>
- 755 33. Summerbell C, Moody RC, Shanks K, Stock MJ, Geissler C. Sources of energy from meals  
756 versus snacks in 220 people in four age groups The ToyBox-study View project NIHR  
757 systematic reviews examining the effectiveness of interventions to reduce socioeconomic  
758 inequalities in child and adult obesity . *Eur J Clin Nutr* [Internet] 1995 [cited 2020 Sep  
759 23];49:33–41. Available from: <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/15486234>
- 760 34. Bellisle F, Dalix AM, Mennen L, Galan P, Hercberg S, De Castro JM, et al. Contribution of  
761 snacks and meals in the diet of French adults: A diet-diary study. *Physiol Behav* [Internet]  
762 2003 [cited 2020 Sep 23];79(2):183–9. Available from:  
763 <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12834789/>
- 764 35. Kant AK, Graubard BI. 40-Year Trends in Meal and Snack Eating Behaviors of American Adults.  
765 *J Acad Nutr Diet* [Internet] 2015 [cited 2020 Sep 23];115(1):50–63. Available from:  
766 <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25088521/>
- 767 36. O’Connor L, Brage S, Griffin SJ, Wareham NJ, Forouhi NG. The cross-sectional association  
768 between snacking behaviour and measures of adiposity: The Fenland Study, UK. *Br J Nutr*  
769 [Internet] 2015 [cited 2020 Sep 23];114(8):1286–93. Available from:  
770 <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/26343512/>
- 771 37. Gaal S, Kerr MA, Ward M, McNulty H, Livingstone MBE. Breakfast consumption in the UK:  
772 Patterns, nutrient intake and diet quality. a study from the international breakfast research  
773 initiative group. *Nutrients* [Internet] 2018 [cited 2020 Sep 23];10(8). Available from:  
774 [/pmc/articles/PMC6115898/?report=abstract](https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30111111/)
- 775 38. Public Health England. Change4Life Nutrition Campaign [Internet]. Campaign Resour.2019  
776 [cited 2020 Feb 22]; Available from:  
777 [https://campaignresources.phe.gov.uk/resources/campaigns/84-2019-change4life-nutrition-](https://campaignresources.phe.gov.uk/resources/campaigns/84-2019-change4life-nutrition-campaign)  
778 [campaign](https://campaignresources.phe.gov.uk/resources/campaigns/84-2019-change4life-nutrition-campaign)
- 779 39. Forrestal SG. Energy intake misreporting among children and adolescents: A literature review.

- 780 Matern. Child Nutr.2011;7(2):112–27.
- 781 40. Ortega RM, Pérez-Rodrigo C, López-Sobaler AM. Dietary assessment methods: dietary  
782 records. *Nutr Hosp* [Internet] 2015 [cited 2019 Mar 21];31:38–45. Available from:  
783 <http://www.aulamedica.es/nh/pdf/8749.pdf>
- 784 41. Wallace R, Mills B. A study of the food environment at Australian family day care A study of  
785 the food environment at Australian family day care A Study of the Food Environment at  
786 Australian Family Day Care. [cited 2020 Feb 20];Available from:  
787 [www.mdpi.com/journal/nutrients](http://www.mdpi.com/journal/nutrients)
- 788 42. Children’s Food Trust. Voluntary Food and Drink Guidelines for Early Years Settings in  
789 England-A Practical Guide.
- 790 43. Eli K, Howell K, Fisher PA, Nowicka P. A question of balance: Explaining differences between  
791 parental and grandparental perspectives on preschoolers’ feeding and physical activity. *Soc  
792 Sci Med* [Internet] 2016 [cited 2018 Mar 26];154:28–35. Available from:  
793 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26943011>
- 794 44. Mena NZ, Gorman K, Dickin K, Greene G, Tovar A. Contextual and Cultural Influences on  
795 Parental Feeding Practices and Involvement in Child Care Centers among Hispanic Parents.  
796 *Child Obes* 2015;11(4):347–54.
- 797 45. Dwyer J, Needham L, Simpson JR, Heeney ES. Parents report intrapersonal, interpersonal, and  
798 environmental barriers to supporting healthy eating and physical activity among their  
799 preschoolers. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab* [Internet] 2008 [cited 2018 Oct 18];33(2):338–46.  
800 Available from: <http://www.nrcresearchpress.com/doi/10.1139/H07-195>
- 801 46. Lindsay AC, Sussner KM, Greaney ML, Peterson KE. Influence of Social Context on Eating,  
802 Physical Activity, and Sedentary Behaviors of Latina Mothers and Their Preschool-Age  
803 Children. *Heal Educ Behav* [Internet] 2009 [cited 2019 Mar 13];36(1):81–96. Available from:  
804 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18689491>
- 805 47. Jiang J, Rosenqvist U, Wang H, Greiner T, Lian G, Sarkadi A. Influence of grandparents on  
806 eating behaviors of young children in Chinese three-generation families. *Appetite*  
807 2007;48(3):377–83.
- 808 48. Hetherington MM, Blundell-Birtill P. The portion size effect and overconsumption – Towards  
809 downsizing solutions for children and adolescents. *Nutr Bull* [Internet] 2018 [cited 2020 Feb  
810 20];43(1):61–8. Available from: <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/nbu.12307>
- 811 49. Syrad H, Llewellyn CH, Johnson L, Boniface D, Jebb SA, Van Jaarsveld CHM, et al. Meal size is a  
812 critical driver of weight gain in early childhood. *Sci Rep* 2016;6.
- 813 50. McConahy KL, Smiciklas-Wright H, Birch LL, Mitchell DC, Picciano MF. Food portions are  
814 positively related to energy intake and body weight in early childhood. *J Pediatr*  
815 2002;140(3):340–7.
- 816 51. De Castro JM. Socio-cultural determinants of meal size and frequency. *Br J Nutr*  
817 1997;77(S1):S39–55.
- 818 52. Herman CP. The social facilitation of eating. A review. *Appetite* 2015;86:61–73.
- 819 53. Ruddock HK, Brunstrom JM, Vartanian LR, Higgs S. A systematic review and meta-analysis of  
820 the social facilitation of eating. *Am J Clin Nutr* [Internet] 2019 [cited 2020 Sep 18];110(4):842–  
821 61. Available from: <https://academic.oup.com/ajcn/article/110/4/842/5552759>
- 822 54. Lowe CF, Horne PJ, Tapper K, Bowdery M, Egerton C. Effects of a peer modelling and rewards-

- 823 based intervention to increase fruit and vegetable consumption in children. *Eur J Clin Nutr*  
824 [Internet] 2004;58(3):510–22. Available from:  
825 <http://ovidsp.ovid.com/ovidweb.cgi?T=JS&PAGE=reference&D=med5&NEWS=N&AN=149856>  
826 91
- 827 55. Carvalho L. Childhood Circumstances and the Intergenerational Transmission of  
828 Socioeconomic Status. *Demography* [Internet] 2012 [cited 2020 Nov 19];49(3):913–38.  
829 Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/22753083/>
- 830 56. Department for Work and Pensions. Households Below Average Income: An analysis of UK  
831 income distributions: 1994/95-2018/19 [Internet]. 2020 [cited 2020 Dec 8]; Available from:  
832 [https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment\\_data/file/875261/households-below-average-income-1994-1995-2018-2019.pdf](https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/875261/households-below-average-income-1994-1995-2018-2019.pdf)  
833
- 834 57. Office for National Statistics. UK population by ethnicity [Internet]. 2018 [cited 2020 Dec  
835 8]; Available from: <https://www.ethnicity-facts-figures.service.gov.uk/uk-population-by-ethnicity/national-and-regional-populations/population-of-england-and-wales/latest#by-ethnicity>  
836  
837
- 838 58. SM R, JC K, HJ K, K C. Dietary intake of children attending full-time child care: What are they  
839 eating away from the child-care center? *J Acad Nutr Diet* [Internet] 2015 [cited 2021 Nov  
840 5];115(9):1472–8. Available from: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25908440/>
- 841 59. Sisson SB, Kiger AC, Anundson KC, Rasbold AH, Krampe M, Campbell J, et al. Differences in  
842 preschool-age children’s dietary intake between meals consumed at childcare and at home.  
843 *Prev Med Reports* [Internet] 2017 [cited 2021 Nov 5];6:33. Available from:  
844 </pmc/articles/PMC5318345/>
- 845 60. Birch LL, Johnson SL, Andresen G, Peters JC, Schulte MC. The Variability of Young Children’s  
846 Energy Intake. *N Engl J Med* [Internet] 1991 [cited 2020 Feb 25];324(4):232–5. Available from:  
847 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1985244>
- 848 61. Birch LL, Deysher M. Caloric compensation and sensory specific satiety: evidence for self  
849 regulation of food intake by young children. *Appetite* [Internet] 1986 [cited 2020 Feb  
850 25];7(4):323–31. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3789709>
- 851 62. Johnson SL. Improving preschoolers’ self-regulation of energy intake. *Pediatrics*  
852 2000;106(6):1429–35.
- 853 63. Fox MK, Devaney B, Ziegler P. Relationship between Portion Size and Energy Intake among  
854 Infants and Toddlers: Evidence of Self-Regulation. 2006;
- 855 64. Birch LL, Davison KK. Family environmental factors influencing the developing behavioral  
856 controls of food intake and childhood overweight. *Pediatr Clin North Am* [Internet] 2001  
857 [cited 2019 Mar 27];48(4):893–907. Available from:  
858 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11494642>
- 859 65. Rolls BJ, Engell D, Birch LL. Serving portion size influences 5-year-old but not 3-year-old  
860 children’s food intakes. *J Am Diet Assoc* 2000;100(2):232–4.
- 861 66. Shloim N, Edelson LR, Martin N, Hetherington MM. Parenting Styles, Feeding Styles, Feeding  
862 Practices, and Weight Status in 4-12 Year-Old Children: A Systematic Review of the Literature.  
863 *Front Psychol* [Internet] 2015 [cited 2018 Nov 26];6:1849. Available from:  
864 <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26696920>
- 865 67. Ventura AK, Birch LL. Does parenting affect children’s eating and weight status? [Internet].  
866 *Int. J. Behav. Nutr. Phys. Act.* 2008 [cited 2020 Jul 28];5(1):15. Available from:

- 867 <http://ijbnpa.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1479-5868-5-15>
- 868 68. Galloway AT, Fiorito L, Lee Y, Birch LL. Parental pressure, dietary patterns, and weight status  
869 among girls who are “picky eaters.” *J Am Diet Assoc* [Internet] 2005 [cited 2019 Mar  
870 28];105(4):541–8. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15800554>
- 871 69. Blissett J. Relationships between parenting style, feeding style and feeding practices and fruit  
872 and vegetable consumption in early childhood. *Appetite* [Internet] 2011 [cited 2018 Nov  
873 27];57(3):826–31. Available from:  
874 <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0195666311004752>
- 875 70. Marr C, Breeze P, Caton SJ. (In Press) A comparison between parent and grandparent dietary  
876 provision, feeding styles and feeding practices when caring for preschool-aged children.  
877 *Appetite* 2021;
- 878 71. Gubbels JS, Stessen K, Kolk I van de, Vries NK de, Thijs C, Kremers SPJ. Energy balance-related  
879 parenting and child-care practices: The importance of meso-system consistency. *PLoS One*  
880 [Internet] 2018 [cited 2021 Nov 5];13(9). Available from: </pmc/articles/PMC6128647/>
- 881 72. Leech RM, Worsley A, Timperio A, McNaughton SA. Understanding meal patterns:  
882 Definitions, methodology and impact on nutrient intake and diet quality. *Nutr Res Rev*  
883 [Internet] 2015 [cited 2021 Jun 10];28(1):1–21. Available from:  
884 <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25790334/>
- 885 73. Xue H, Maguire RL, Liu J, Kollins SH, Murphy SK, Hoyo C, et al. Snacking frequency and dietary  
886 intake in toddlers and preschool children. *Appetite* [Internet] 2019 [cited 2020 Feb  
887 25];142:104369. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/31302102>
- 888 74. Infant & Toddler Forum. Healthy Eating For Toddlers - Portion Size Survey [Internet]. [cited  
889 2021 Jun 7]; Available from: [https://infantandtoddlerforum.org/toddlers-to-  
890 preschool/portion-sizes-for-toddlers/portion-sizes-survey/](https://infantandtoddlerforum.org/toddlers-to-preschool/portion-sizes-for-toddlers/portion-sizes-survey/)
- 891 75. Deming DM, Reidy KC, Fox MK, Briefel RR, Jacquier E, Eldridge AL. Cross-sectional analysis of  
892 eating patterns and snacking in the US Feeding Infants and Toddlers Study 2008. *Public*  
893 *Health Nutr* [Internet] 2017 [cited 2021 Jun 7];20(9):1584–92. Available from:  
894 <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/28318482/>
- 895