University of Nebraska - Lincoln

DigitalCommons@University of Nebraska - Lincoln

Faculty Publications, Department of Child, Youth, and Family Studies

Child, Youth, and Family Studies, Department of

9-2019

The Impact of Responsive Feeding Practice Training on Teacher Feeding Behaviors in Tribal Early Care and Education: The Fresh Study

Kaysha Sleet

Susan B. Sisson

Dipti Dev

Charlotte Love

Mary B. Williams

See next page for additional authors

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/famconfacpub

Part of the Developmental Psychology Commons, Family, Life Course, and Society Commons, Other Psychology Commons, and the Other Sociology Commons

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Child, Youth, and Family Studies, Department of at DigitalCommons@University of Nebraska - Lincoln. It has been accepted for inclusion in Faculty Publications, Department of Child, Youth, and Family Studies by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@University of Nebraska - Lincoln.

Authors Kaysha Sleet, Susan B. Sisson, Dipti Dev, Charlotte Love Blue Bird Jernigan	re, Mary B. Williams, Leah A. Hoffman, and Valarie

THE IMPACT OF RESPONSIVE FEEDING PRACTICE TRAINING ON TEACHER FEEDING BEHAVIORS IN TRIBAL EARLY CARE AND EDUCATION: THE FRESH STUDY

Kaysha Sleet^a MS, Susan B. Sisson^a PhD, RDN, CHES, FACSM, Dipti A. Dev^b PhD, Charlotte Love^c MPH, CPH, Mary B. Williams^d PhD, Leah A. Hoffman^a PhD, RD/LD, Valarie Blue Bird Jernigan^c DrPh, MPH

^aDepartment of Nutritional Sciences, University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center 1200 N Stonewall Ave, Oklahoma City, OK 73117

^b Department of Child, Youth and Family Studies, College of Education and Human Sciences, University of Nebraska Lincoln 512 N 12th Street, Lincoln, NE 68588

^cCenter for Indigenous Health Research and Policy, Oklahoma State University, 700 N. Greenwood, Tulsa, OK 74106

^dDepartment of Biostatistics and Epidemiology, College of Public Health – Schusterman Center, University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center, 4502 E 41st St., Tulsa, OK 74135

Corresponding author:

Susan B. Sisson, PhD

Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity Laboratory

Department of Nutritional Sciences

University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center

1200 N. Stonewall Ave.

AHB 3068

Oklahoma City, OK 73117-1215 Telephone: 405.271.8001 ext. 41176

Email: susan-sisson@ouhsc.edu

Short title: Responsive Feeding in Tribal Early Care Program

Date of submission: February 20, 2019

Journal of submission: Current Development in Nutrition

Abstract word count: 296 (300 max)

Article word count: 4997 Number of pages: 30 Number of tables: 3 Number of figures: 1

References: 54 (JAMA Copy citation style)

Data linking: The data used in this study are not deposited in a general repository. Opportunities to collaborate should be directed to the corresponding author.

Copyright © American Society for Nutrition 2019.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License

Abbreviations:

CBPR – Community Based Participatory Research

CFP – Controlling Feeding Practices

CST – Children Serve Themselves

EAT Family Style Intervention – Ecological Approach to Family Style Dining Intervention

ECE – Early Care and Education

FRESH - Food Resource Equity and Sustainability for Health Study

MOCC - Mealtime Observation in Child Care

NA – Native American

OFS – Overall Feeding Style

PI – Permissiveness/indulgence

PM – Peer Modeling

RAP – Rewards and Praise

RM – Role Modeling

SE – Sensory Exploration

SR – Self Regulation

TEACHER – teacher-focused responsive feeding practice training intervention arm

TEACHER+CLASS – intervention arm including TEACHER plus additional training for classroom nutrition curriculum

USDA – United States Department of Agriculture

Financial Support:

This study was funded by the National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities (R01MD011266). The funding agency did not participate in the study design, data collection, analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. All authors approve of the final version. This work has not been published or presented elsewhere. No authors have a conflict of interest.

Conflict of Interest:

Authors have no conflicts to disclose.

Supplement Sponsorship and Disclosure: This article appears as part of the supplement "Proceedings of the Third Annual Conference on Native American Nutrition," sponsored by the Shakopee Mdewakanton Sioux Community's Seeds of Native Health campaign through a gift to the University of Minnesota. The guest editors of the supplement, Treena Delormier and Mindy S Kurzer, have no conflicts of interest. The opinions expressed in this publication are those of the authors and are not attributable to the sponsors or the publisher, Editor, or Editorial Board of Current Developments in Nutrition."

Abstract

registry: NCT03251950.

Background: Establishing healthy eating habits early impacts lifelong dietary intake, which has implications for many health outcomes. With children spending time in early care and education (ECE) programs, teachers establish the daytime meal environment through their feeding practices.

Objective: To determine the effect of a teacher-focused intervention to increase responsive feeding practices in two interventions, one focused exclusively on the teacher's feeding practices and the other focused on both the teacher's feeding practices and a nutrition classroom curriculum in ECE teachers in a Native American (NA) community in Oklahoma.

Methods: Nine tribally-affiliated ECE programs were randomly assigned to an intervention: 1) a 1.5 hour teacher-focused responsive feeding practice training (TEACHER; n=4) and 2)

TEACHER plus an additional 3 hour training to implement a 15-week classroom nutrition curriculum (TEACHER+CLASS; n=5). Feeding practice observations were conducted during lunch at one table in one 2-to-5-year-old classroom at each program prior to and one month after the intervention. The Mealtime Observation in Child Care (MOCC) organizes teacher behaviors into eight subsections. Descriptive statistics and Shapiro-Wilk Test for Normality were calculated. Paired t-tests were calculated to determine change in each group. Clinical trials

Results: An average of 5.2 ± 2.0 (total n=47) children and 1.7 ± 0.5 (total n=14) teachers/center were observed at baseline, and 5.6 ± 1.7 (total n=50) children and 1.7 ± 0.7 teachers (total n=14) were observed/center post-intervention. Total MOCC scores (max possible = 10) improved for TEACHER (6.1 ± 0.9 vs 7.5 ± 0.3 , t=4.12, p=0.026) but not for TEACHER+CLASS (6.5 ± 0.8 vs 6.4 ± 1.0 , t=-0.11, t=0.915). No other changes were observed.

Conclusions: Teacher intervention only programs demonstrated improvements in responsive feeding practices whereas the programs receiving teacher and classroom training did not..

Greater burden likely decreased capacity to make changes in multiple domains. We demonstrated the ability to implement interventions in the NA ECE. Further research with larger communities is necessary.

Key Words: Native American; provider; healthy feeding; teacher; preschool; child care; community based participatory research

Introduction:

Cardiovascular disease and cancer are the leading causes of death in the United States resulting in 633,842 and 595,930 deaths in 2015, respectively.(1) Obesity is strongly associated with both cardiovascular disease and some cancers in adulthood.(2-5) Children who are overweight or obese in early childhood (ages 2-to-5 years) have a higher likelihood of remaining obese as adolescents and adults.(6) For this reason, the National Academy of Medicine recommends that interventions for obesity prevention to reduce lifetime disease risk begin before the age of five.(7)

Thirty-eight percent of children who attended a tribally affiliated Early Care and Education (ECE) programs in Oklahoma were overweight or obese in 2011;(8) this rate is higher than the national average of 21% that same year.(9) Cross-sectional, retrospective, and longitudinal cohort design studies provide observational data that ECE experiences influence a child's weight status.(10) Observational classroom studies demonstrate that teachers help shape a child's food intake and eating behaviors through feeding practices implemented in the classroom.(11,12) Another observational study working with Native American (NA) ECE programs in Oklahoma reported that teacher feeding practices were one of the most influential components of the nutrition environments affecting children's dietary intake.(13) While not in

the ECE setting, randomized controlled trials have demonstrated improvements in parental feeding practices and children's nutrition outcomes.(14,15)

Feeding practices are behaviors that teachers use to influence children's dietary intake and are categorized as responsive feeding practices or controlling feeding practices. (16) Responsive feeding practices have been shown to support children's acceptance of new foods and ability to self-regulate energy intake.(17-20) The Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics has identified seven key responsive feeding practices. (21) One study conducted in Oklahoma ECE programs, half of which were tribally-affiliated, found that asking children about their hunger and fullness before and during a meal increased the amount of fruit children tasted and decreased the amount of high fat/high sugar foods and fried meats tasted.(22) Teachers' enthusiastic role modeling and talking with children about healthy foods have been associated with healthier eating habits.(11,23,24) ECE teachers can help reduce lifetime disease burden by instilling positive eating behaviors related to self-regulation of food intake of preschool-aged children in their care.(25) Despite the benefits of healthful feeding practices, many teachers use controlling feeding practices which include pressuring children to eat healthy foods, praising children for finishing all of their food, and offering energy dense foods as rewards, in misguided attempts to promote healthy eating. (26,27) Controlling feeding practices are associated with undesirable outcomes such as consumption of energy dense foods, lack of self-regulation, and fussy or emotional eating behaviors.(28)

Most teachers have not been trained on nutrition and feeding practices but want children to have the best care and to be healthy.(29) They have expressed the need to learn strategies to encourage children to try new foods, such as fruits and vegetables, manage children's food refusal and have the desire to promote health in their classrooms.(26,29) Targeted education may

improve teachers' feeding practices and have a positive impact on children's nutrition. (26,30) Also, when teachers are knowledgeable that children can self-regulate their energy intakes, they are more likely to use responsive feeding practices. (31) However, while previous studies have surveyed teachers about feeding practice training opportunities and their perceived effects, (26,27) the impact of training on these perceptions and practices has not been evaluated. It is recommended that the content and level of feeding practice training required by ECE teachers to ensure healthful feeding practices are evaluated.(27) Although studies in families show impact, (14,15) teachers' feeding practices training and its effect on teachers' feeding behaviors have not been thoroughly examined, (26) particularly in rural tribally-affiliated ECE programs. Given the disproportionate prevalence of chronic disease in NA populations and the importance for early disease prevention through the development of healthy lifestyle behaviors, greater understanding of intervention effectiveness on teacher feeding practices is warranted. Therefore, the purpose of this community based participatory research (CBPR) study was to compare the effect of 1) a teacher-focused intervention to increase responsive feeding practices and 2) the combination of an intervention focused on the teacher's feeding practices and a nutrition classroom curriculum in ECE teachers in a Native American (NA) community in Oklahoma. We hypothesized that both interventions would improve responsive feeding practices and there would be no difference between the two intervention arms.

Material and methods:

Study Design

This brief randomized intervention study compared teacher feeding practices over lunch in nine tribally-affiliated ECE program classrooms in Osage Nation. All programs were assigned to one of the two interventions. Four programs participated in a 1.5 hour teacher-focused

responsive feeding practice training (TEACHER). Five programs participated in both the responsive feeding practice training (1.5 hours) and also received a 3-hour training to implement a 16-week classroom nutrition curriculum (TEACHER+CLASS). The two trainings were held within two weeks of each other. At each program, baseline and one-month post-intervention classroom observations were conducted in the same single classroom with children ages 2-to-5 years. This study was approved by the University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center Institutional Review Board and the Osage Nation government, which serves as the governing body for any research conducted within Osage Nation.

Community, Executive Committee, and Participants

A CBPR study known as Food Resource Equity and Sustainability for Health (FRESH) within the Osage Nation tribal community enrolled nine ECE programs across four communities (Skiatook, Fairfax, Hominy, and Pawhuska). An executive committee comprised of community and university partners from several divisions and disciplines guided the entire study from conception to completion. Osage Nation operates four Head Start programs, one in each of four towns, and four WahZahZhi Early Learning Academies programs that serve Native families with children ages 2-to-5 years, one in each of the same four towns. Additionally, Osage Nation operates a Language Immersion School in Pawhuska that serves children ages 2-to-5 years as well as other age groups. All nine ECE program agreed to participate and the four communities with all ECE sites were randomly assigned to either the teacher-focused responsive feeding practices training (TEACHER; n=4) or the responsive feeding practice training plus training on the 16-week classroom nutrition curriculum (TEACHER+CLASS; n=5).

Teacher Training on Healthy Feeding Practices

While conducting interviews as part of the CBPR process, the Osage Nation executive committee expressed their desire to create a holistic approach to exposing children to fruits and vegetables including the way teachers communicate with children during mealtimes. The Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics best practice feeding behaviors (21) were introduced to a group of stakeholders such as teachers, cooks, and program directors. These stakeholders decided which behaviors they felt were pertinent to include in the training. The research team responded to these identified needs with a teacher-focused training that lasted approximately 1.5 hours. The training utilized components of the Ecological Approach To (EAT) Family Style intervention including role modeling, peer modeling, sensory exploration, supporting selfregulation, supporting children serving themselves, and rewards and praise. (32) Topics selected from the EAT Family Style intervention were guided by the CBPR process and did not include cultural adaptations, per se, but were tailored to the needs expressed by this community. The EAT Family Style intervention was developed to demonstrate these recommended feeding practices through videos and actionable strategies within the natural childcare classroom setting and also includes strategies to overcome teachers' barriers for implementing responsive feeding.(33,34) Each discussion topic included handouts that included key messages and verbal prompts regarding responsive feeding for teachers to reference. Video examples of teachers in classrooms with 2-to-5-year-old children accompanied each topic.(34) Small and large group discussions were utilized during the role modeling and supporting self-regulation topics to allow teachers to demonstrate understanding and provide practice scenarios. An outline of the training is listed in **Table 1**.

Classroom Nutrition Curriculum

Teachers in communities assigned to the TEACHER+CLASS intervention participated in three hours of training for the classroom curriculum. The classroom nutrition component was a 15-week curriculum designed to take approximately three hours per week with the goal of increasing intake of fruit and vegetables. The curriculum provided repeated exposures to six target vegetables; tomatoes, bell peppers, spinach, butter beans, squash, and carrots. Curriculum activities were designed to be implemented across three days per week. However, teachers were given flexibility to administer the curriculum however they wanted, according to other curriculum scheduling considerations. There were three main curriculum components each week, including an introductory activity, such as a book or song; a sensory activity that allowed all children to explore the vegetable of the week with all five senses, including an opportunity to taste the vegetable; and a cooking activity in which the children assisted the teacher in preparing a simple recipe. Children were then provided with a 'Take-Home Kit' that allowed the children to prepare the recipe again in the home setting with parents and/or caregivers. Teachers were asked to complete weekly process evaluations giving feedback on the curriculum. Development of the classroom curriculum, intervention fidelity, and outcomes will be described in subsequent manuscripts in currently in preparation.

Measures

Demographic Information

Program managers completed a demographic questionnaire including education requirements of teachers and nutrition policies. Demographic characteristics of the teachers were not collected. It is noteworthy, that while these programs were operated by Osage Nation, it is likely that not all staff and teachers identify as Native American.

Mealtime Observation in Child Care (MOCC)

The MOCC is an observation tool designed to measure the teachers' responsive feeding practices during mealtime based on previously validated tools(35-37) and the best practice feeding domains identified by the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics.(21) The MOCC tool contains 71 questions divided into eight sections congruent with the identified best practices.(21)

One classroom consisting of 2-to-5-year-old children was selected by the program director was observed at each of the nine sites twice, once before the training and once approximately one month after the teacher training. Inter-rater reliability for the MOCC is greater than 0.8. However, one trained researcher, who was not involved in delivering the teacher training, conducted all observations to minimize inter-rater reliability concerns. Observer training included classroom experiences to learn about feeding practices, the tool, and the protocol. The observer was instructed to look for verbal and non-verbal teacher interactions with the children and trained on how to score teacher's statements and actions. Practice observations in a field setting were also completed. Discussion, clarification, and debriefing occurred with the research team after practice observations. Protocol and tool concerns discovered during practice observations were discussed with the MOCC co-developers until modifications were agreed upon.

The trained observer arrived at the identified classroom approximately 15 minutes prior to lunch. During this time, the observer would record the classroom environment and menu items being served. Meal start time was recorded when the first child at the identified table began eating. The end time was recorded when the last child at the identified table stopped eating. The observer recorded the interactions between all teachers and children sitting at the identified table. If teachers had to leave the table during the meal and no teachers were left sitting at the table,

interactions were recorded when teachers or cooks came near the table and interacted with the children. If teachers switched tables, the researcher would continue to record interactions happening at the originally identified table. Throughout lunch, the trained observer would watch for teacher cues, mealtime feeding practices, and responsive language used and document those on the MOCC tool.

. Sixty-five of the 71 questions provided the opportunity for the researcher to observe the teacher and respond to their use of the recommended feeding practice as "No, not observed", "Yes Sometimes(1-2 times)", "Yes Regularly≥3" and "unable to observe or not applicable" for each behavior. A behavior was coded as unable to observe when it was not applicable to be observed within the mealtime context. For example, if no vegetable or fruit was served, then the item asking if the teacher ate vegetables was coded as "unable to observe". However, if vegetables were served and the teacher was not eating vegetables then the response was "no, not observed".

Responses were converted to a numerical scale and summed for each section. Responses were assigned 0 for the less favorable option and 1 for the more favorable option. Any questions marked as "unable to observe" were deducted from the total possible points scored, and thus did not affect the score. Total points were summed for each section and divided by the total possible points for that section. The average for each section was then multiplied by 10, resulting in a maximum score of 10 for each section. Therefore, the equation for each section is the sum of the section's total points earned divided by the sum of the section's total possible points (subtracting questions scored n/a from the total possible) multiplied by 10. The total score was scored in the same way as each section, by averaging all of the sections' scores adjusting for any sections that were unable to be scored, thus and has a maximum possible score of 10.

Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations, and frequencies, were calculated for ECE program demographics and MOCC scores. A Shapiro-Wilk test was used to determine normality of the MOCC section and total scores at both time points for both groups. Paired *t*-tests were employed to examine differences between baseline and post-intervention scores for each of the eight sections and total scores for all programs within each group (TEACHER and TEACHER+CLASS). Visual observation of raw data scores was used in sections with a small sample size and limited variability to assess change. As this was a CBPR study conducted in collaboration with Osage Nation and all of the tribe's ECE programs participated, we did not calculate a power analysis. SPSS version 22 was used for data analysis.

Results:

Descriptive Statistics

Among the nine sites, five reported the facility had been operating for 10 or more years, two reported operating for three years, and two reported operating for two years. Seven sites reported including written policies about nutrition training and professional development for staff, while five reported including written policies for children's nutrition lessons, and four reported including written policies for parent nutrition lessons. See **Table 2** for program descriptive characteristics. On average, each program serves 45.2 ± 22.8 children, ranging between 16-95 children. The mean numbers of children and teachers sitting at each observed table at baseline were 5.2 ± 2.0 and 1.7 ± 0.5 , respectively. At post-intervention the mean numbers of children and teachers sitting at each observed table were 5.6 ± 1.7 and 1.7 ± 0.7 , respectively. While unique identifiers were not collected for children or teachers 47 children and

15 teachers were observed at baseline and 50 children and 14 teachers were observed postintervention.

Scores for each section (minimum 0 maximum 10) ranged from low (1.7 for sensory exploration in the TEACHER group) to high (9.5 for rewards and praise in the TEACHER group). The mean baseline score for both TEACHER and TEACHER+CLASS was slightly above midline at 6.1 and 6.5, respectively. There were no changes from baseline to postintervention for the combined nine programs (data not shown). Differences between baseline and post-training observations for both groups are presented in **Table 3**. Total MOCC scores improved for TEACHER, but not for TEACHER+CLASS, groups. There were no significant changes in the role modeling or sensory exploration behaviors. Visual observation of raw data in the viable pairs of baseline/post peer modeling values indicated a significant change for the TEACHER group only, increasing from the lowest possible 0 to the highest possible 10. While approaching significance, there were no significant changes in supporting self-regulation scores, rewards and praise behaviors, and permissiveness and indulgence behaviors from baseline to post-intervention. There were not significant changes in overall feeding styles for the TEACHER group. There were no changes from baseline to post-intervention for the TEACHER+CLASS group. See **Figure 1** for section scores.

Discussion:

This study examines the impact of a brief intervention to enhance ECE teachers' responsive feeding practices in two intervention groups, one receiving only the teacher-focused responsive feeding practices training and the other receiving the responsive feeding practices training in addition to a training to implement a new classroom nutrition curriculum. The study hypothesis was that after the EAT Family Style responsive feeding practice intervention, teacher use of responsive feeding practices, specifically role modeling, use of responsive language to

cultivate peer modeling, and support of self-regulation would increase for both groups. The primary findings were that most responsive feeding practices (total feeding practice score, encouraging peer modeling, encouraging self-regulation, and use of permissiveness and indulgence) increased in the group that received only the teacher-focused responsive feeding practice training and not the group that received the teacher-focused training plus the new classroom curriculum simultaneously. The use of role modeling and encouraging children to serve themselves was unchanged in both groups after the responsive feeding practice intervention. The observation that responsive feeding practices increased for one group, but not both groups was contrary to the hypothesis and is an important finding to discuss. Additionally, this study demonstrates feasibility to collaborate with NA tribal partners to implement health interventions in their ECE programs as few interventions have been conducted in this environment.(38,39)

Interestingly, in the group that demonstrated changes, peer role modeling improved while teacher role modeling did not. The absence of change in teacher role modeling may be due in part to the high level of role modeling observed at baseline which left less room for improvement. It is unsurprising that the teacher role modeling scores were high at baseline as many of the site managers reported having written policies regarding the use of role modeling, indicating that this feeding behavior was introduced and practiced to some degree prior to the responsive feeding practices training. Studies have reported peer modeling to be more influential on consumption than is teacher role modeling, (20,40) and that children making negative comments about food can dissuade other children from trying foods. (41) During the training planning period of our study, teachers expressed concern about handling food refusal and how to utilize responsive language to encourage peer modeling. The content of the EAT-Family Style

Approximately 30 minutes of the training were used to discuss modeling, including a 10-minute group discussion on some of the common reactions of children when refusing to try foods and ideas on how to respond. The use of interactive application, such as that used during group discussions, has been shown to improve adult learning,(42,43) and likely improved teachers' understanding and confidence in using responsive language.

The use of responsive language not only helps encourage peer modeling, but also helps children regulate their intake.(11) One study showed that when teachers asked children if they were "full" before removing their plate, the children's intake of fruits and vegetables increased.(22) Theories on adult learning have indicated that a change in perspective is necessary for behavior modification to occur.(44) During the teacher training, an explanation of self-regulation was given and misconceptions about a child's inability to self-regulate intake, which has previously been reported as a barrier,(31) were addressed. In addition, a short video was shown regarding supporting children's self-regulation. Videos, which convey information through visual images and auditory signals, are a favored adult learning tool(45) that can facilitate behavior change(46) and increase knowledge of relevant concepts.(47-49) As self-regulation scores increased, replacing teachers' use of restriction or insistence, we would expect to see an increase in permissive feeding behaviors as we did in this study.

Aligned with the Academy's benchmarks, teachers have previously reported supporting children's self-regulation in energy intake, and agree that children should serve themselves and choose their own serving sizes.(26,50) However, institutional level changes are necessary for teachers to have the needed resources to change serving styles and facilitate children's self service of food during meals. For instance, appropriate-sized serving dishes would be needed. Of

the nine sites, eight reported having current policies in place to support family-style meals. The section score representing children serving themselves was slightly above midline scoring for both groups. At baseline, many of the teachers encouraged children to serve at all or part of their meals perhaps limiting room for improvement. Not surprisingly, the children serving themselves score did not change from baseline to post-intervention. Previous literature indicates that teachers have expressed barriers to family-style dining including increased messes, food wastage, and staff and resources needed. Future research that follows up with the current study of NA ECE programs and the teachers to understand their challenges and provide a follow-up training and resources to address their specific challenges may improve implementation of family style dining.

Effective interventions include multiple levels in an ecological model(51) However, no previous studies have examined an intervention addressing how teachers interact with children during mealtime. Previous interventions have taught providers children's health curriculums aiming for classroom integration,(39,52) while others have focused on the teachers themselves and addressed their lifestyle habits to better role model for the children.(53) The goal of our study was to give teachers the power and motivation to make informed choices about the best way to role model, teach, and communicate with their children. During our study, one group of teachers was trained on teacher-focused responsive feeding practices within two weeks of being trained on the child-focused classroom nutrition curriculum. The other group of teachers was trained only on teacher-focused responsive feeding practices. In light of findings that the TEACHER group experienced the change while TEACHER+CLASS group did not, this may indicate that the two-week period did not allow teachers enough time to practice and implement the responsive feeding practices prior to learning and implementing new classroom materials.

Thus provider priority may have been diverted, resulting in no changes observed in the TEACHER+CLASS group. Alternatively, it is possible the small sample size was a limiting factor in detecting differences.

Theories on adult learning assume that adult application of learning becomes more immediate and problem-centered.(42) Therefore, the sequence of the curriculum must be timed to allow developmental tasks to be completed before moving to the next task. Examining the appropriate amount of time needed for teachers to understand and implement tasks is important to consider when designing interventions. In the present study, the EAT Family Style intervention(26,31,50,54) was adapted to deliver targeted content in 1.5 hours to meet the needs expressed by the community. Future training can be conducted based on the original design of the EAT Family Style intervention to evaluate changes in behavior based on the practices. Adults are also assumed to build their knowledge on previous experiences. (42) Teachers that have received previous training on a subject may be able to understand and apply the information more easily. However, a change in a teachers' perspective can promote learning through contemplation.(44) For example, a teacher may learn that their assumption that a child does not have the ability to self-regulate intake is inaccurate. If the teacher alters their behavior related to their new understanding and gains personal experience that the child is able to self-regulate intake, their conviction for the transformation will become stronger.

Strengths and Limitations

This is one of the first studies to examine the outcome of a responsive feeding practices intervention with ECE providers. Additionally, this study partnered with a NA tribe and their nine ECE programs to improve health of children living on the reservation, a population that is at higher risk for obesity. However, it is important to note that these findings may not be

representative of all tribally-affiliated programs across the state of Oklahoma or the U.S. One trained observer collected all observation data for the study, thus eliminating the potential for inter-rater reliability error. The observer was trained and discussed issues and situations with tool co-developers which enhanced data quality and integrity and enhanced intra-rater reliability. Furthermore, using observation data instead of provider self-report enhanced accuracy of feeding practices.

A strength of the partnership was in scheduling the intervention training at a time established for teacher in-service training to enhance provider participation and attendance. To maintain a strong relationship with the community consistent with CBPR practices and to ensure that participants did not feel they were being individually evaluated, provider demographic characteristics were not collected nor were the names of individual providers observed. This limits the investigators' ability to verify that all teachers observed were consistent from baseline to post-intervention and present at the training. During observation, while individual names could not be recorded, it was noted that some of the teachers in the room were not in attendance at the training and perhaps served other roles at the program, such as administrative or food preparation, and would not have been included in the in-service training, although they were ECE staff.

One limitation was that not all items on the tool were able to be observed, and this novel tool was not validated in NA ECE programs. This limitation made it difficult to compare scores from baseline to post-intervention as some data were only observed at one time point, and difficult to compare with other studies since the tool is novel. This was accounted for in the tool scoring and those items unable to be scored did not negatively impact the score. Still, understanding whether a behavior occurs or does not occur, rather than could not be observed,

would be ideal for understanding training effects. Due to limited resources, feeding behaviors were determined by two lunch time observations which may not have been representative of typical mealtime behaviors. Another potential limitation is that teachers may have altered their behavior in the presence of a researcher in the classroom. The researcher did not interact with the children and had little interaction with the teachers, encouraging them to maintain their usual routine. Teachers altering their behavior may decrease if teachers conduct more observations more frequently, as their presence would become more familiar. Not having control over what other trainings or programs the schools were enrolled in during the course of the semester in which the lunch time observations were conducted may have introduced confounders to this study. Finally, this study had a small sample size with a total of nine sites (five TEACHER+CLASS intervention programs in two communities and four TEACHER intervention programs in two other communities)

Future Directions and Practical Applications

Based on the findings counter to our original hypothesis and an in-depth review of adult learning theoretical approaches, we conclude that the healthful feeding practices training did have positive impact on aspects of feeding practices, such as cultivating peer modeling and supporting self-regulation, in the TEACHER group, but not in the TEACHER+CLASS group. Although the sample size was small, an important implication for practice would be to ensure that interventions that include teacher training must account for adequate time between content areas to incorporate new concepts into classroom and personal application. While this approach may take longer, it may ensure that the content is internalized by teachers, resulting in a positive impact on classroom quality and child health. Future studies should explore the relationship of intervention timing between healthy feeding practices training and classroom curriculum. Few

research tools have been developed and validated in NA populations and this too is an area for future research. Further, this project demonstrated the feasibility of collaborative partnership with NA communities to enhance the health of young NA children. This study can serve as a platform upon which future collaborative opportunities can be built.

Given the limitations stated above some suggestions for future research are salient regarding the frequency of data observation and rigor in collecting intervention attendance and individual teachers in the classrooms of observation. Including observed teachers' names will allow for more sophisticated intent-to-treat analyses to determine true intervention impact. While these data were not recorded in this project at the request of the community, it will be important for future projects working with ECE, tribal and otherwise, to advocate for the ability to record which teachers are present at trainings and observations to determine the impact of the training intervention. To address community concerns about criticism and privacy, care should be taken to communicate that the purpose is not to evaluate individual teachers but to ensure that teachers being observed were actually exposed to the training and thus evaluating the training effectiveness. Future studies should aim to work with more communities to provide greater statistical power. Including more observation time points would also provide a more accurate understanding of typical mealtime interactions and increase the likelihood of being able to produce a score for all items on the tool both pre- and post-training. This would potentially address the social desirability bias if teachers were modifying behaviors for a single day of observation.

Conclusions

Teachers' feeding behaviors shape children's food intake and eating behaviors.(11) This study was one of the first to explore the effect of teacher training on responsive feeding behaviors. Surprisingly, results indicate improvement in the teacher-focused group, but not in the

administering an intensive, 15-week classroom nutrition curriculum. Although the sample size in this study was not large, it is clearly important to consider this when designing, planning and implementing trainings for future interventions. One assumption of the adult learning theory is that adults prefer problem-centered information that can be applied to more immediate needs.(42) While the TEACHER group had time to apply and adopt the information from the training without other training demands, the TEACHER+CLASS group may have been overwhelmed with the many tasks related to implementation of the broader class nutrition curriculum and deprioritized the responsive feeding practice training. These findings may indicate that more time is needed to implement one task before another is added. Recognizing how to effectively help teachers understand and implement healthy feeding practices will facilitate children's ability to develop healthy eating patterns and make healthy choices, which could be protective against developing chronic diseases such as cancer and diabetes later in the life course.

Acknowledgments

This study was funded by the National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities (R01MD011266). The funding agency did not participate in the study design, data collection, analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. All authors approve of the final version. This work has not been published or presented elsewhere. No authors have a conflict of interest. We thank the members of the Osage Nation.

Contributor Statement

V. Blue Bird Jernigan conceptualized and supervised the study and assisted with writing. K. Sleet collected all data, executed data analyses, and lead writing. This project was completed in

partial fulfillment of her Master of Science degree. S. Sisson supervised and guided development of the menu review process and supervised data treatment, processing, and analyses, and led manuscript writing. Drs. Blue Bird Jernigan and Sisson have responsibility for final content. M. Williams guided data treatment and analyses and contributed to writing and data presentation. L. Hoffman assisted with study design, interpretation, and contributed to writing. D. Dev assisted with study design, led the EAT Family Style responsive feeding practice intervention, developed the measurement tools, and assisted with interpretation and writing. C. Love supervised and assisted with data collection, assisted with analytical planning, and assisted with writing. All authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

Human Participant Protection - The study was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Oklahoma Health Sciences Center.

References:

- 1. Services UDoHaH. National center for health statistics. Health, United State, 2016: With chartbook on long-term trends in health. Hyattsville, MD2017.
- 2. Fairfield KM, Willett WC, Rosner BA, Manson JE, Speizer FE, Hankinson SE. Obesity, weight gain, and ovarian cancer. Obstet Gynecol. 2002;100(2):288-296.
- 3. Petrelli JM, Calle EE, Thun MJ. Body mass index, height, and postmenopausal breast cancer mortlity in a prospective cohort of US women. Cancer Causes Control. 2002;13:325-332.
- 4. Rodriguez C, Freedland S, Deka A, et al. Body mass index, weight change, and risk of prostate cancer in the cancer prevention study II nurition cohort. Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev. 2006;16(1):63-69.
- 5. Akil L, Ahmad HA. Relationships between obesity and cardiovascular diseases in four southern states and Colorado. J Health Care Poor Underserved. 2011;22(4):61-72.

- 6. Cunningham SA, Kramer MR, Narayan KM. Incidence of childhood obesity in the United States. N Engl J Med. 2014;370(17):1660-1661.
- 7. Early childhood obesity prevention policies, 2011. Washington, D.C.: Institute of Medicine; 2011.
- 8. Sisson SB, Li J, Stoner JA, et al. Obesogenic environments in tribally-affliliated childcare centers and corresponding obesity rates in preschool children. Prev Med Rep. 2016; 3:151-158.
- 9. Ogden CL, Caroroll MD, Kit BK, Flegal KM. Prevalence of childhood and adult obesity in the United States, 2011-2012. JAMA. 2014;311(8):806-814.
- 10. Swyden K, Sisson SB, Lora K, Castle S, Copeland KA. Association of childcare arrangement with overweight and obesity in preschool-aged children: a narrative review of literature. Int J Obes (Lond). 2017;41(1):1-12.
- 11. Tovar A, Vaughn AE, Fallon M, et al. Providers' response to child eating behaviors: A direct observation study. Appetite. 2016;105:534-541.
- 12. Gubbels JS, Gerards SM, Kremers SP. Use of food practices by childcare staff and the association with dietary intake of children at childcare. Nutrients. 2015;7(4):2161-2175.
- 13. Sisson SB, Stoner J, Stephens L, et al. Tribally affliliated child-care ceter environment and obesogenic behaviors in young children. JAND. 2017;117(3):433-440.
- 14. Gerards SM, Dagnelie PC, Gubbels JS, et al. The effectiveness of lifestyle triple P in the Netherlands: a randomized controlled trial. PLoS One. 2015;10(4):e0122240.
- 15. Hendrie G, Sohonpal G, Lange K, Golley R. Change in the family food environment is associated with positive dietary change in children. Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act. 2013;10:4.

- 16. Ventura AK, Birch LL. Does parenting affect children's eating and weight status? Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act. 2008;5:15.
- 17. Johnson SL. Improving preschoolers' self-regulation of energy intake. Pediatrics. 2000;106(6):1429.
- 18. Blissett J, Fogel A. Intrinsic and extrinsic influences on children's acceptance of new foods. Physiol Behav. 2013;121:89-95.
- 19. Bellows I, Anderson J. The food friends: Encouraging preschoolers to try new foods. Young Children. 2006;61(3):3.
- 20. Hendy HM, Raudenbush B. Effectiveness of teacher modeling to encourage food acceptance in preschool children. Appetite. 2000;34(1):61-76.
- 21. Benjamin-Neelon SE, Briley ME. Position of the American Dietetic Assocition: Benchmarks for nutrition in child care. J Am Diet Assoc. 2011;111(4):607-615.
- 22. Anundson K, Sisson SB, Anderson M, Horm D, Soto J, Hoffman L. Staff food-related behaviors and children's tastes of food groups during lunch at child care in Oklahoma. JAND. 2018;118(8):1399-1407.
- 23. Tovar A, Vaughn AE, Grummon A, et al. Family child care home providers as role models for children: Cause for concern? Prev Med Rep. 2017;5:308-313.
- 24. Kharofa RY, Kalkwarf HJ, Khoury JC, Copeland KA. Are mealtime best practice guidelines for child care centers associated with energy, vegetable, and fruit intake? Childhood Obesity. 2016;12(1):52-58.
- 25. Dev DA, McBride BA, Team SKR. Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics benchmarks for nutrition in child care 2011: Are child-care providers across contexts meeting recommendations? JAND. 2013;113(10):1346-1353.

- 26. Dev DA, McBride BA, Speirs KE, Blitch KA, Williams NA. "Great job cleaning your plate today!" Determinants of child-care providers' use of controlling feeding practices:

 An exploratory examination. JAND. 2016;116(11):1803-1809.
- 27. Dev DA, McBride BA, Speirs KE, Donovan SM, Cho HK. Predictors of Head Start and child-care providers' healthful and controlling feeding practices with children aged 2 to 5 years. JAND 2014;114(9):1396-1403.
- 28. Loth KA. Associations between food restriction and pressure-to-eat parenting practices and dietary intake in children: A selective review of the recent literature. Current Nutrition Reports. 2016:1-7.
- 29. Sisson SB, Smith CL, Cheney M. Big impact on small children: Child-care providers' perceptions of their role in early childhood healthy lifestyle behaviors. Child Care in Practice. 2017;23(2):162-180.
- 30. Lanigan JD. The relationship between practices and child care providers' beliefs related to child feeding and obesity prevention. JNEB. 2012;44(6):521-529.
- 31. Dev DA, Speirs KE, Williams NA, Ramsay S, McBride BA, Hatton-Bowers H. Providers perspectives on self-regulation impact their use of responsive feeding practices in child care. Appetite. 2017;118:66-74.
- 32. Dev DA, Burton A, McBride BA, Edwards CP, Garcia AS. An Innovative, Cross-Disciplinary Approach to Promoting Child Health: The Reggio Emilia Approach and the Ecological Approach to Family Style Dining Program. Childhood Education. 2019;95(1):57-63.

- 33. Dev DA. Ecological Approach to Family Style Dining: A Responsive Feeding Program for Child Care Providers for Improving Children's Dietary Intake. Journal of Nutrition Education and Behavior. 2018;50(7S):S85.
- 34. Dev DA, Blith KA, Hatton-Bowers H, Ramsay SA, Garcia AS. How to Create Videos for Extension Education: A Innovative Five-Step Procedure. Journal of Extension. 2018;56.
- 35. Tovar A, Vaughn AE, Fisher JO, et al. Modifying the Environment and Policy Assessment and Observation (EPAO) to better capture feeding practices of family childcare home providers. Public Health Nutr. 2019;22(2):223-234.
- 36. Swindle T, Rutledge JM, Dix B, Whiteside-Mansell L. Table Talk: development of an observational tool to assess verbal feeding communications in early care and education settings. Public Health Nutr. 2017;20(16):2869-2877.
- 37. Hughes SO, Patrick H, Power TG, Fisher JO, Anderson CB, Nicklas TA. The impact of child care providers' feeding on children's food consumption. J Dev Behav Pediatr. 2007;28(2):100-107.
- 38. Mattingly JA, Andresen PA. NAP SACC: Implementation of an Obesity Prevention Intervention in an American Indian Head Start Program. J Community Health Nurs. 2016;33(3):145-153.
- 39. Davis SM, Myers OB, Cruz TH, et al. CHILE: Outcomes of a group randomized controlled trial of an intervention to prevent obesity in preschool Hispanic and American Indian children. Prev Med. 2016;89:162-168.
- 40. Frazier BN, Gelman SA, Kaciroti N, Russell JW, Lumeng JC. I'll have what she's having: The impact of model characteristics on children's food choices. Developmental Science. 2012;15(1):87-98.

- 41. Mita SC, Li E, Goodell LS. A qualitative investigation of teachers' information, motivation, and behavioral skills for increasing fruit and vegetable consumption in preschoolers. JNEB. 2013;45(6):793-799.
- 42. Knowles M. *The adult learner: a neglected species*. Vol 3. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing; 1984.
- 43. Norris JA. *From telling to teaching; A dialogue approach to adult learning.* North Myrtle Beach, SC: Learning By Dialogue; 2003.
- 44. Mezirow J. *Transformative dimensions of adult learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass; 1991.
- 45. Contento IR. *Nutrition education: Linking research, theory, and practice.* Sadbury, MA: Jones and Bartlett; 2010.
- 46. Ramsay SA, Holyoke L, Branen LJ, Fletcher J. Six characteristics of nutrition education videos that support learning and motivation to learn. JNEB. 2012;44(6):614-617.
- 47. Langworthy S. Do you YouTube? The power of brief educational videos for Extension. Journal of Extension. 2017;55(2):Article 2IAW1.
- 48. Mathiasen L, Morley K, Chapman B, Powell D. Using a training video to improve agricultural workers' knowledge of on-farm food safety. Journal of Extension. 2012;50(1):Article 1FEA6.
- 49. Polson J. Using video of a master farmer to teach others. Journal of Extension. 1999;37(2):Article 2RIB1.
- 50. Dev DA, Speirs KE, McBride BA, Donovan SM, Chapman-Novakofski K. Head Start and child care providers' motivators, barriers and facilitators to practicing family-style meal service. Early Childhood Research Quarterly. 2014;29:649-659.

- 51. Sisson SB, Krampe M, Anundson K, Castle S. Obesity prevention and obseogenic behavior interventions in child care: A systematic review. Prev Med. 2016;87:57-69.
- 52. Cotwright CJ, Bales DW, Lee JS, Parrott K, Celestin N, Olubajo B. Like peas and carrots: Combining wellness policy implementation with classroom education for obesity prevention in the childcare setting. Public Health Rep. 2017;132(Supplement 2):74S-80S.
- 53. Natale RA, Messiah SE, Asfour LS, Uhlhorn SB, Englebert NE, Arheart KL. Obesity prevention program in childcare centers: Two-year follow-up. Am J Health Promot. 2017;31(6):502-510.
- 54. Dev DA, Carraway-Stage V, Schober DJ, McBride BA, Kok CM, Ramsay S.
 Implementing the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics Benchmarks for Nutrition
 Education for Children: Child-Care Providers' Perspectives. J Acad Nutr Diet.
 2017;117(12):1963-1971 e1962.

Table 1. Description of Teacher-Focused Responsive Feeding Practice Teacher Training Received by All Programs (n=9) Including Activities and Materials Provided

Section	Section Content	Activities	Material
	Description		Provided
Introduction/ Background/ Philosophy (15 min)	 Introduction of speaker Philosophy on provider feeding behaviors Introduction activity "What will you say to John" 	 Small group activity (4 min) – response to child's mealtime behavior (refusing to try, eating all food on plate, etc.) Large group activity (4 min) – discuss providers reactions to child's mealtime behavior 	Activity worksheet
Presentation of Research Findings (6 min)	Explain that science has found controlling feeding practices (pressure, restriction, rewards, and preselected portions) to be counterproductive in improving a child's mealtime behavior		
Role Modeling (23 min)	 Explain role modeling and use of responsive language Provide examples of responsive language Tips for role modeling 	 Video (4 min) – role modeling Video (2 min) – disliking foods Small group activity (4 min) – discuss what providers understood, changes they could make, and questions they had Large group activity (8 min) – discuss providers specific questions and concerns about children's mealtime behaviors 	 Handout – Strategies to Model Healthy Eating at Mealtime Handout – Be a Healthy Role Model for Children
Peer Modeling (10 min)	 Explain how to encourage peer modeling Provide examples of responsive language to utilize peer models 	Video (5 min) – strategies for managing food refusal	 Handout – Peer Modeling Planning Steps for Mealtime Handout –

Sensory Exploration (2 min)	Introduce what sensory exploration is		Healthful Tips for Picky Eaters Handout – Food-based Sensory Exploration
Support Self- Regulation (12 min)	 Explanation of self-regulation Dispel misunderstandings about children's ability to self-regulate 	 Video (3 min) – supporting children's self-regulation Large group activity (1 min) - discuss what providers understood, changes they could make, and questions they had 	Handout – Strategies for Supporting Children's Self- Regulation in Eating
Children Serve Themselves (6 min)	 Identify different skills needed for children to serve themselves Identify strategies to develop those skills 		 Handout – Teaching Children Self-Serving Skills During Play
Praise and Rewards (7 min)	 Discuss appropriate use of rewards and praise Provide examples of responsive language 		Handout – Using Praise Effectively
Closing Thoughts (8 min)	 Repeat introduction activity "What will you say to John" Discuss changes in providers responses Closing Thoughts 	 Small group activity (2 min) – response to child's mealtime behavior (refusing to try, eating all food on plate, etc.) Large group activity (3 min) – discuss providers reactions to child's mealtime behavior 	Activity worksheet

Table 2. Descriptive Characteristics of ECE Programs in Osage Nation (n=9)

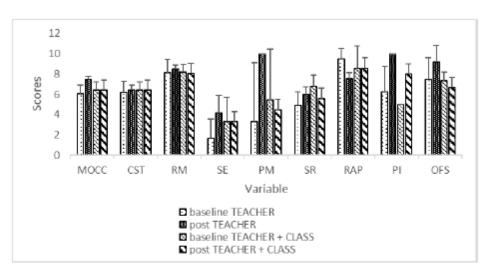
Variable	Frequency	%	
Years in operation			
2 years	2	22.2	
3 years	2	22.2	
10+ years	5	55.6	
Minimum Provider Education R	equirements		
High school	7	77.8	
4-year college graduate	2	22.2	
Continued Education Requireme	ent		
Yes	9	100	
Written Nutrition Education Poli	icies		
Staff training	7	77.8	
Education for children	5	55.6	
Education for parents	4	44.4	

Table 3. Baseline and Post-Intervention Total MOCC Scores and Section Scores

Variable	TEACHER = Teacher-focused responsive feeding practice training (<i>n</i> =4)		TEACER+CLASS = Teacher-focused responsive feeding practice training plus classroom nutrition curriculum (<i>n</i> =5)			
	baseline mean ± SD	post mean ± SD	<i>p</i> -value	baseline mean ± SD	post mean ± SD	<i>p</i> -value
Total Mealtime Observation Coding Checklist Score	6.1 ± 0.9	7.5 ± 0.3	0.026	6.5 ± 0.8	6.4 ± 1.0	0.915
Children Serve Themselves Section Score	6.2 ± 1.1	6.4 ± 0.5	0.787	6.4 ± 0.8	6.4 ± 1.2	0.964
Role Modeling Section Score	8.1 ± 1.3	8.5 ± 0.3	0.640	8.2 ± 0.7	8.1 ± 0.5	0.674
Sensory Exploration Section Score	1.7 ± 1.9	4.2 ± 1.7	0.216	3.3 ± 2.4	3.3 ± 24	1.000
Peer Modeling Section Score	3.3 ± 5.7‡	10.0 ± 0.0‡	¥	5.4 ± 5.1‡	4.5 ± 2.1	0.801
Self Regulation Section Score	4.9 ± 1.3	6.0 ± 0.7	0.056	6.8 ± 1.1	5.6 ± 1.2	0.107
Rewards And Praise Section Score	9.5 ± 1.0	7.6 ± 0.6	0.069	8.6 ± 2.2	8.6 ± 1.3	1.000
Permissiveness and Indulgence Section Score	6.3 ± 2.5	10.0 ± 0.0	0.058	5.0 ± 0.0	8.0 ± 2.7	0.070
Overall Feeding Style Section Score	7.5 ± 2.1	9.2 ± 1.7	0.418	7.3 ± 0.9	6.7 ± 2.4	0.578

Figure titles

Figure 1. Baseline and Post-Intervention MOCC Total and Section Scores



MOCC = Mealtime Observation in Child Care, CST= Children Serve Themselves, RM = Role Modeling, SE = Sensory Exploration, PM = Peer Modeling, SR = Self-Regulation, RAP = Rewards and Praise, PI = Permissiveness/Indulgence, OFS = Overall Feeding Style, TEACHER – teacher-focused responsive feeding practice training intervention arm, TEACHER+CLASS – intervention arm including TEACHER plus additional training for classroom nutrition curriculum

Figure 1. Baseline and Post-Intervention MOCC Total and Section Scores

Legend: MOCC = Mealtime Observation in Child Care, CST= Children Serve Themselves, RM = Role Modeling, SE = Sensory Exploration, PM = Peer Modeling, SR = Self-Regulation, RAP = Rewards and Praise, PI = Permissiveness/Indulgence, OFS = Overall Feeding Style, *Bars without standard deviation whiskers had no variation

^{*}Bars without standard deviation whiskers had no variation