1	Maternal characteristics associated with the obesogenic quality of the home environment
2	in early childhood
3	
4	
5	Stephanie Schrempft PhD ^{1*} , Cornelia H.M. van Jaarsveld PhD ^{1, 2} , Abigail Fisher PhD ¹ , Alison
6	Fildes PhD ¹ , Jane Wardle PhD ¹
7	¹ Health Behaviour Research Centre, Department of Epidemiology and Public Health,
8	University College London, Gower Street, London WC1E 6BT, UK.
9	² Present address: Department for Health Evidence & Department of Primary and
10	Community Care, Radboud University Medical Center, Nijmegen, The Netherlands.
11	
12	*Corresponding author
13	E-mail: s.schrempft@ucl.ac.uk
14	
15	
16	Abbreviations
17	
18	DEBQ = Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire
19	HEI = Home Environment Interview
20	SES = socioeconomic status
21	
22	
23	
24	
25	
26	
27	
28	
29	
30	
31	
32	
33	

34 Abstract

35

36 The home environment is likely to influence children's diet and activity patterns and 37 ultimately, their weight trajectories. Identifying family characteristics associated with a 38 more 'obesogenic' home can provide insight into the determinants, and has implications for 39 targeting and tailoring strategies to promote healthier lifestyles. The present study 40 examined maternal characteristics associated with a more obesogenic home environment in 41 1113 families with preschool children. Primary caregivers (99% mothers) from the Gemini 42 cohort completed the Home Environment Interview (HEI) when their children were 4 years 43 old. Maternal demographics and BMI were assessed in the Gemini baseline questionnaire 44 when the children were on average 8 months old. Maternal eating style was assessed when 45 the children were on average 2 years old, using the Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire 46 (DEBQ). Responses to the HEI were standardized and summed to create a composite score 47 of the obesogenic quality of the home; this was categorized into tertiles. Multivariate 48 ordinal logistic regression showed that mothers who were younger (adjusted OR; 95% 49 CI=0.96; 0.94–0.98), less educated (1.97; 1.40–2.77), and had lower incomes (1.89; 1.43– 50 2.49) at baseline were more likely to live in an obesogenic home environment at 4 years, as 51 were mothers who scored higher on the DEBQ External Eating scale (1.40; 1.16–1.70) at 2 52 years, and had a higher baseline BMI (1.05; 1.02–1.08). Using a novel, composite measure 53 of the home environment, this study finds that families who are more socio-economically 54 deprived, and where the mothers are themselves heavier and have a more food responsive 55 eating style, tend to provide a home environment with the hallmarks of a higher risk of 56 weight gain. 57 58 Keywords: home environment, obesity, childhood, parents 59 60 61

- 62
- 63
- 64
- 65
- 66
- 67

- 68 Introduction
- 69

Overweight and obesity are notoriously difficult to treat^{1,2}, and therefore identifying opportunities for early prevention is vital. The home environment is thought to be a key influence on childhood weight trajectories^{3–5}. Parents create the child's home environment, and are often involved in weight management interventions^{5,6}. Knowledge of parental characteristics that are associated with a more 'obesogenic' home environment may therefore help to understand the origins of the environmental effects and to target or tailor obesity prevention strategies.

77

The concept of an 'obesogenic' home environment incorporates influences from three domains: food, physical activity, and media^{7,8}. This includes availability and accessibility of healthy and unhealthy foods, opportunities for physical activity, and availability of screenbased media, as well as social aspects such as modelling of eating and physical activity behaviours.

83

84 Several parental demographic characteristics have been associated with individual aspects 85 of the home environment. Less educated parents are more likely to have energy-dense 86 foods at home⁹, have a TV in their child's bedroom¹⁰, use inappropriate feeding practices 87 such as permisiveness¹¹, and are less likely to model physical activity behaviour¹². Family 88 income is also potentially relevant^{13,14}; although whether education and income contribute 89 independently has not been studied. Maternal age has also been identified as relevant to 90 parenting; with older mothers being able to draw on more established cognitive and 91 emotional skills to create a supportive home environment¹⁵. In the context of risk for 92 weight gain in early childhood, younger mothers tend to breastfeed for less time¹⁶ and introduce solid foods earlier¹⁷, including foods that are not recommended for young 93 94 children^{18,19}. These factors could be markers of a risky profile for a more obesogenic food 95 environment as the children get older. 96

97 Other parental characteristics have been implicated in the quality of the home environment; 98 though not in relation to obesity. Mothers living with a partner and with fewer children are 99 more likely to provide environments that are supportive of their child's cognitive, emotional, 100 and social development^{20,21}. Smaller family size has also been associated with lower levels of disorganisation within the home²². It is possible that these characteristics extend to aspects
 of the food and activity environment.

103

104 Obese parents are more likely to have obese children²³, although part of the explanation for familial resemblance is genetic²⁴. However, parents whose eating and activity behaviours 105 106 are characteristic of the obese population may also create a home environment that 107 supports habits of overeating and being under-active. In line with this, parental energy-108 balance knowledge, and investment in weight-related issues, have been associated with having more fruit and vegetables in the home^{25,26}, using more restrictive feeding practices²⁷, 109 110 and limiting access to media equipment²⁵. No previous studies have directly examined the 111 association between parental appetitive traits, in the form of external and emotional 112 eating²⁸, and the obesogenic quality of the home environment.

113

114 To date, there have been no large-scale studies examining predictors of the home 115 environment in early childhood, which is likely to be an important period for long-term overweight and obesity prevention²⁹. Furthermore, none of the studies described above 116 117 used a comprehensive indicator of the obesogenic home environment (incorporating food, 118 activity, and media-related influences), although this should capture the overall level of risk 119 for weight gain more effectively than any one aspect of the home environment; and most 120 focused on a limited range of potential predictor variables. Recent findings from 1096 121 families participating in the Gemini birth cohort highlight the relevance of the obesogenic 122 quality of the home environment in early weight trajectories, and the importance of obesity 123 prevention strategies³⁰. Preschool children living in more 'obesogenic' home environments 124 had poorer diets (less fruit and vegetable consumption, and more energy-dense snack and 125 sweetened drink consumption), lower levels of physical activity, and watched more TV than children living in lower-risk home environments³⁰. 126

127

Little is known about potential parental characteristics that may affect/substantiate the home environment. The aim of the present study was therefore to examine whether maternal demographic characteristics and weight-related traits are associated with the obesogenic quality of the home environment in early childhood.

- 132
- 133
- 134

135 Method

136 137 Sample 138 Data were from families taking part in the Gemini UK twin birth cohort (described in detail 139 elsewhere³¹), who had completed the home environment interview when the children were 140 aged 4 years (n = 1113). Because information was provided for both twins at the time of the 141 interview (n = 2226), one twin was selected at random to avoid clustering effects. 142 143 The home environment 144 The Home Environment Interview (HEI) is a comprehensive measure of the food, activity, 145 and media environment, developed for the study (and available on request), which was 146 administered as a telephone interview with the primary caregiver (mothers in 99% of cases) 147 when the children were 4 years old. The HEI was based on the Healthy Home Survey³², 148 which was the most comprehensive measure available at the time, had been 149 psychometrically tested, and had been used with families with young children. 150 A composite score was created based on feedback from an international panel of 30 experts 151 in pediatric obesity (see **Table 1**). Constructs identified as being associated with lower risk of 152 weight gain were reverse-scored so that a higher composite score would reflect higher 153 obesogenic risk. Each variable was standardized using z-scores and they were summed. 154 Missing values were recoded to 0 (the mean value for each standardized variable). There 155 were few missing cases on home environment variables (15 for garden play equipment; 39 156 for emotional feeding, instrumental feeding, encouragement, and modelling of healthy 157 eating; 40 for monitoring and covert restriction; 42 for restriction; 73 for partner TV 158 viewing). Test-retest reliability over 7-19 days (mean = 9.6 days, SD = 3.4) of the home 159 environment composite was high (ICC = 0.92; 95% CI = 0.86 – 0.96). Previously-reported 160 associations between the home environment composite and child diet, physical activity, and 161 TV viewing at 4 years were as expected; although associations with BMI were not apparent 162 at this age 30 . 163 164 165 166 167 168 169

- **Table 1:** Constructs included in the home environment composite score

Food-related constructs

	Availability
	Number of fruit types ¹
	Number of vegetable types ¹
	Number of energy-dense snack types
	Presence of sugar-sweetened drinks
	Accessibility (visibility)
	Fruit on display ¹
	Vegetables ready-to-eat ¹
	Energy-dense snacks on display
	Sugar-sweetened drinks on display
	Accessibility (child can help him/herself)
	Fruit ¹
	Vegetables ¹
	Energy-dense snacks
	Sugar-sweetened drinks
	Parental feeding practices
	Emotional feeding
	Instrumental feeding
	Encouragement ¹
	Modelling ¹
	Monitoring ¹
	Covert restriction ¹
	Restriction ¹
	Family meal frequency
	Frequency child eats while watching TV
	Physical activity-related constructs
	Garden/outdoor space ¹
	Garden play equipment ¹
	Allowed to play indoors ¹
	Allowed to play outdoors ¹
	Parental modelling of physical activity ¹
	Parental support of physical activity ¹
	Media-related constructs
	Number of media equipment
	TV in the child's bedroom
	Household rules around media use ¹
	Maternal TV viewing
	Dorthor TV/ viouving
	Partner TV viewing
Variable was ide	ntified as being associated with decreased risk for weight gair
Variable was ide	ntified as being associated with decreased risk for weight gair
Variable was ide	ntified as being associated with decreased risk for weight gair

177 Maternal characteristics

The measured characteristics fell into two main categories: (i) maternal demographics and
living circumstances (age, education, household income, number of other children living in
the home, marital status); and (ii) maternal weight-related traits (BMI, eating style).

181

182 Maternal demographics were assessed in the Gemini baseline questionnaire (when the 183 children were on average 8 months old), but information on the number of other children in 184 the home and marital status was updated at the time of the HEI. Maternal BMI was 185 calculated from self-reported weight and height at baseline. Eating style was assessed when 186 the children were on average 2 years old, using the Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire (DEBQ)²⁸. The three subscales measure restraint (e.g. 'how often do you refuse food or 187 188 drink because you are concerned about your weight?'), emotional eating (e.g. 'do you have a 189 desire to eat when you are feeling lonely?'), and external eating (e.g. 'if food smells and 190 looks good, do you eat more than usual?'). There are five items per subscale, each scored 191 on a 5-point scale (1 = never; 5 = very often). A mean score was calculated for each 192 subscale, with higher scores indicating higher levels of the particular eating trait. Internal 193 consistency (using Cronbach's alpha) for each scale was high in the study sample (all alpha's

194 > 0.80).

195

196 Statistical analyses

There were some missing data among the predictors (2 for maternal age; 17 for maternal BMI; 34 for income; 143 for DEBQ restraint and DEBQ emotional eating; 144 for DEBQ external eating); these were assigned the mean score. This approach is said to provide a more accurate estimate of association than other methods of handling missing data³³. However we also did a sensitivity analysis including only families with complete data (n = 925) and the results were the same.

203

For ease of interpretation, the home environment composite was categorised into tertiles, creating lower-, medium-, and higher-'risk' environment groups. Education level was categorised as high (university-level education), intermediate (vocational or advanced highschool education), or low (no qualifications or basic high-school education). Household gross annual income was categorised as lower ($\leq \pm 30,000$) or higher (> $\pm 30,000$) as this categorisation was close to the UK average for 2008 (the baseline assessment period)³⁴. Marital status was categorised as married or cohabiting, or single. The number of other children in the home was treated as a continuous variable. Maternal ethnicity was not
included in the analyses as just 5% of mothers in the sample were from ethnic minority
backgrounds with many ethnic sub-groups, which would make it difficult to draw meaningful
conclusions.

215

216 Univariate and multivariate ordinal logistic regression analyses were used to examine 217 associations between maternal characteristics and the obesogenic home environment. For 218 the multivariate analyses, maternal demographics were entered simultaneously into a 219 model (also adjusting for maternal BMI) to see which were independently associated with 220 the home environment; as research has shown that these characteristics are interrelated. 221 Maternal eating style scales were entered into separate multivariate models for ease of 222 interpretation as they are conceptually interrelated. Each model adjusted for core 223 demographic characteristics (maternal age, education, and income) plus maternal BMI. 224

225 Multicollinearity and the proportional odds assumption³⁵ were tested by examining

226 correlations between the predictor variables and using the SPSS Test of Parallel Lines,

respectively. Statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS version 18.0. A p value of < 0.05

228 was considered statistically significant.

229

230 Results

231

232 Sample characteristics

233 Characteristics of the study sample are shown in **Table 2**. At baseline, mothers were on 234 average 34 years old, 48% had university-level education, and three-quarters (74%) were 235 living in homes with an average annual income of at least £30,000. At 4 years, half the 236 families (47%) had no children other than the twins, 38% had one other child, 10% had two 237 other children, and 4% had three or more; 93% of mothers were married or cohabiting. 238 Mean maternal BMI at baseline was 24.8 kg/m². Average scores for maternal restraint, 239 emotional eating, and external eating at 2 years were close to the mid-points of the DEBQ 240 scales; comparable to other population-based samples³⁶. 241 242 243 244

Maternal demographics and living circumstances Age in years, mean (SD) Education level Low Intermediate	33 86 (4 74)
Age in years, mean (SD) Education level Low Intermediate	33 86 (4 74)
Education level Low Intermediate	
Low Intermediate	55.66 (1.7.1)
Intermediate	15.5 (173)
	36.2 (403)
High	48.2 (537)
Household annual income	
< £30,000	26.4 (294)
≥£30,000	73.6 (819)
Marital status	
Married or cohabiting	93.2 (1037)
Single	6.8 (76)
No. of other children living in the home, mean (SD)	0.53 (0.50)
Maternal weight-related traits, mean (SD)	
BMI	24.84 (4.54)
DEBQ ¹ restraint	2.71 (0.89)
DEBQ emotional eating	2.13 (0.89)
DEBQ external eating	3.10 (0.60)
e 4 years old, and weight-related traits when twins were 2 years	old.
racteristics associated with living in a higher-risk home env	ironment
ults of the regression analyses are shown in Table 3 . At the	e univariate level, younger
ults of the regression analyses are shown in Table 3 . At the , lower education, and lower household annual income at b	baseline were associated wi
ults of the regression analyses are shown in Table 3 . At the , lower education, and lower household annual income at b ng in a higher-risk home environment at 4 years (p's < 0.001	baseline were associated wi L). The number of other
ults of the regression analyses are shown in Table 3 . At the , lower education, and lower household annual income at k ng in a higher-risk home environment at 4 years (p's < 0.001 dren living in the home at 4 years was also associated with	bunivariate level, younger baseline were associated wi L). The number of other living in a higher-risk home
ults of the regression analyses are shown in Table 3 . At the , lower education, and lower household annual income at k ig in a higher-risk home environment at 4 years (p's < 0.001 dren living in the home at 4 years was also associated with ironment (p = 0.02), but there was no association with mar	ounvariate level, younger baseline were associated wi L). The number of other living in a higher-risk home rital status. Of the materna
ults of the regression analyses are shown in Table 3 . At the lower education, and lower household annual income at k g in a higher-risk home environment at 4 years (p's < 0.001 dren living in the home at 4 years was also associated with fronment (p = 0.02), but there was no association with mar ght-related traits, higher baseline BMI, and higher emotion	a univariate level, younger baseline were associated wi L). The number of other living in a higher-risk home rital status. Of the materna hal and external eating at 2
ults of the regression analyses are shown in Table 3 . At the , lower education, and lower household annual income at k g in a higher-risk home environment at 4 years (p's < 0.001 dren living in the home at 4 years was also associated with ironment (p = 0.02), but there was no association with mar ght-related traits, higher baseline BMI, and higher emotion rs were associated with living in a higher-risk home environ	baseline were associated with L). The number of other living in a higher-risk home rital status. Of the materna hal and external eating at 2 homent at 4 years (p's \leq 0.00

- 267 Multivariate analyses confirmed that all the maternal demographic characteristics (at
- 268 baseline), except for the number of other children (at 4 years), were independently
- associated with a higher-risk home environment at 4 years (p's \leq 0.001). Maternal baseline
- 270 BMI and external eating at 2 years, but not emotional eating or restraint, were also
- 271 independently associated with living in a higher-risk home environment at 4 years (p's \leq
- 272 0.001).

	Univariate results		Multivariate results	
	OR	95% CI (p value)	OR	95% CI (p value)
Demographics & living circumstances ¹		~ <i>·</i> · · ·		u /
Age (years)	0.95	0.92 – 0.97 (<0.001)	0.96	0.94 – 0.98 (0.001)
Education level				
High	1	-	1	-
Intermediate	2.13	1.67 – 2.71 (<0.001)	1.72	1.34 – 2.21 (<0.001)
Low	2.63	1.91 – 3.63 (<0.001)	1.97	1.40 – 2.77 (<0.001)
Household annual income				
≥£30,000	1	-	1	-
< £30,000	2.73	2.12 – 3.52 (<0.001)	1.89	1.43 – 2.49 (<0.001)
Marital status				
Married or cohabiting	1	-	1	-
Single	1.48	0.96 – 2.28 (0.074)	1.06	0.67 – 1.65 (0.815)
Number of other children	1.16	1.03 – 1.32 (0.017)	1.08	0.95 – 1.23 (0.235)
Weight-related traits ²				
BMI (per unit increase)	1.07	1.04 - 1.10 (<0.001)	1.05	1.02 - 1.08 (<0.001)
DEBQ restraint	0.98	0.87 – 1.10 (0.696)	0.90	0.79 – 1.03 (0.118)
DEBQ emotional eating	1.21	1.08 – 1.37 (0.002)	1.11	0.98 – 1.27 (0.111)
DEBQ external eating	1.39	1.16 - 1.67 (<0.001)	1.40	1.16 – 1.70 (0.001)

273 **Table 3.** Maternal characteristics associated with living in a higher-risk home environment (N = 1113)

274 OR = odds ratio; 95% CI = 95% confidence interval; 1 denotes the reference group; BMI = body mass index; DEBQ = Dutch Eating Behaviour Questionnaire. ¹ Variables

275 entered simultaneously into the multivariate model (along with maternal BMI).² For each eating style, the multivariate model adjusted for core demographics (maternal

age, education level, and household income) and maternal BMI.

277 Discussion

278

279 This study confirmed that markers of lower socioeconomic status (SES) (measured at

280 baseline) were predictors of living in a more 'obesogenic' home environment in terms of

281 food, physical activity, and media-related influences at 4 years. In addition, maternal weight

282 (at baseline) and eating style (at 2 years) independently predicted a more obesogenic home

283 environment at 4 years.

284

285 Previous studies examining individual aspects of the home environment have reported 286 associations with indicators of lower SES⁹⁻¹²; the present study indicated that education and 287 income both contribute. Parents with fewer financial resources may not be able to afford a 288 wide variety of fruit and vegetables, which can cost more and have a higher wastage rate 289 than energy-dense, processed foods¹⁴. They may also have less access to activity facilities³⁷. 290 Less educated parents may lack the health-related knowledge^{38,39} to create a healthier home 291 environment. Another possible explanation is that lower SES families have additional life 292 stresses which demote health behaviours in terms of key day-to-day priorities⁴⁰.

293

294 Previous studies have found family structure (marital status, number of children) to be 295 independently associated with the quality of the home environment^{20–22}. However, these 296 studies were concerned with the learning environment in particular or the overall level of 297 organisation within the home rather than the energy-balance environment. In the context 298 of obesity, there has been some evidence that the presence of older children encourages 299 earlier introduction to non-recommended foods¹⁹. We did not find a direct effect of other 300 children in the home, but early feeding practices could be markers of a risky profile for a 301 more obesogenic environment as the children get older.

302

303 There is some evidence that parents with more energy-balance knowledge and greater 304 investment in weight-related issues are more likely to have a home environment that 305 supports a balanced diet and physical activity^{25–27}. We had expected that maternal dietary 306 restraint would be associated with a lower-risk home environment, in that more restrained 307 mothers would make more of a conscious effort to limit obesogenic exposures for the 308 children, but we did not see any evidence of this. We found that mothers who were 309 external eaters - a trait that may increase risk of weight gain, were more likely to live in 310 higher-risk home environments; and the association was independent of maternal BMI. This 311 finding suggests that young children who inherit 'high-risk' appetitive traits from their 312 parents are also more likely to grow up in a more obesogenic home environment, placing 313 them at greater risk of future overweight irrespective of their mother's actual weight status. 314 In our sample, maternal weight was also an independent predictor of the home 315 environment. Two previous studies had failed to find any such associations^{41,42}, but they 316 were smaller studies and did not use a composite home environment measure. To further 317 test the idea that obesity-prone mothers live in higher-risk home environments, it would be 318 useful to have an independent instrumental variable such as genetic risk score, as an 319 indicator of obesity risk.

320

321 The findings of this study provide some insight into potential mechanisms for the

development of overweight and obesity. As several of the characteristics in this study have been identified as risk factors for child overweight and obesity, the obesogenic quality of the home environment may be a mediating factor. For example, the consistent association between maternal and child weight status^{43,44} is largely explained by genetic inheritance, but heavier mothers may also expose their child to an obesogenic home environment. Heavier mothers may create or seek out home environments that are in line with their obesogenic

328 tendencies, also known as active gene-environment correlation (*r*GE)⁴⁵.

329

330 Limitations

This is a study of associations, as are many of the previous studies, so it is not possible to assume that predictors 'caused' the home environment. However, they are markers that can be used to identify groups for whom guidance on creating a home environment that facilitates healthy child development would be useful.

335

This study focused on maternal characteristics as mothers are generally the main caregivers within the home environment. However, the home environment may be influenced by other family members, including partners and children. Research indicates that parenting practices are responsive to child characteristics including temperament^{46,47}, behaviour⁴⁸, and weight status^{49,50}. Future research should further test the child-responsive model within the context of the obesogenic home environment; collecting data from all children living in the home.

- 343
- 344

345 It must be acknowledged that the maternal characteristics were measured at different time 346 points prior to the HEI assessment. Whilst there is some evidence that weight-related traits 347 are relatively stable^{51,52}, 100% temporal stability cannot be assumed. The test-retest 348 reliability of the home environment composite was high, but the longitudinal stability is also 349 unknown. However, the associations in this study do concur with those reported in other 350 studies where aspects of the home environment and maternal characteristics were assessed 351 at the same time. Moreover, it is likely that any instability in the predictor variables and 352 home environment would lead to an underestimation of true associations. Nevertheless, to 353 fully understand the nature of the associations in this study, and consider reverse and 354 reciprocal causation, it would be important to assess the home environment and maternal 355 characteristics at each time point.

356

It would have been useful to examine other potentially relevant characteristics such as
parental health-consciousness and self-efficacy in creating a healthier home environment,
but these variables were not available. Maternal ethnicity has been associated with aspects
of the home environment^{53,54}, but this factor could not be examined as the study sample was
almost exclusively white.

362

As in previous studies in this field, the home environment and maternal characteristics were assessed using parent report, which may be prone to bias. However, test-retest reliability of the home environment composite was high and previous research has provided some evidence for criterion validity³². The reliability and validity of the DEBQ^{28,55} has also been demonstrated previously.

368

Finally, although families with twins may differ in some respects from non-twin families, the
findings of this study are generally in line with those from non-twin samples, suggesting that
differences are not sufficient to modify the overall conclusions.

- 372
- 373
- 374
- 375
- 376

377

- 379 Conclusion
- 380

381 This study found that maternal demographic characteristics and weight-related traits were

independently associated with the obesogenic quality of the home environment in early

383 childhood. Although further research is needed to fully understand the nature of

- 384 associations, the present findings offer some insight into the development of child
- 385 overweight and obesity and its prevention.
- 386

387 Acknowledgements

388

389 The Gemini Study was funded by a grant from Cancer Research UK to Professor Wardle

390 (C1418/A7974). Cancer Research UK had no role in the design and conduct of the study;

391 collection, management, analysis and interpretation of data, and preparation, review or

- 392 approval of the manuscript. We thank Amy Ronaldson and Laura Mcdonald for helping to
- 393 collect the data, and the Gemini families for taking part in the study.
- 394

395 References

- 396
- Yanovski, J. A. & Yanovski, S. Z. (2003). Treatment of pediatric and adolescent obesity.
 JAMA, 289(14), 1851–1853.
- 2. Jeffery, R. W., Epstein, L. H., Wilson, G. T., Drewnowski, A., Stunkard, A. J., & Wing, R. R.
- 400 (2000). Long-term maintenance of weight loss: current status. *Health Psychology*,
 401 *19*(Suppl. 1), 5–16.
- 402 3. Davison, K. K., & Birch, L. L. (2001). Childhood overweight: a contextual model and
 403 recommendations for future research. *Obesity Reviews*, 2(3), 159–171.
- 404 4. Ebbeling, C. B., Pawlak, D. B., & Ludwig, D. S. (2002). Childhood obesity: public-health 405 crisis, common sense cure. *Lancet*, *360*(9331), 473–482.
- 406 5. Golan, M., & Crow, S. (2004). Parents are key players in the prevention and treatment of
 407 weight-related problems. *Nutrition Reviews*, 62(1), 39–50.
- 408 6. Golan, M., Kaufman, V., & Shahar, D. R. (2006). Childhood obesity treatment: targeting
- 409 parents exclusively v. parents and children. *The British Journal of Nutrition*, *95*(5), 1008–
 410 1015.
- 411 7. Gattshall, M. L., Shoup, J. A., Marshall, J. A., Crane, L. A., & Estabrooks, P. A. (2008).
- 412 Validation of a survey instrument to assess home environments for physical activity and

- 413 healthy eating in overweight children. The International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition 414 and Physical Activity, 5, 3. 415 8. Pinard, C. A., Yaroch, A. L., Hart, M. H., Serrano, E. L., McFerren, M. M., & Estabrooks, P. 416 A. (2013). The validity and reliability of the Comprehensive Home Environment Survey 417 (CHES). Health Promotion Practice, 15(1), 109–117. 418 9. MacFarlane, A., Crawford, D., Ball, K., Savige, G., & Worsley, A. (2007). Adolescent home 419 food environments and socioeconomic position. Asia Pacific Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 420 16(4), 748-756. 421 10. Barr-Anderson, D. J., Van Den Berg, P., Neumark-Sztainer, D., & Story, M. (2008). 422 Characteristics associated with older adolescents who have a television in their 423 bedrooms. Pediatrics, 121(4), 718-724. 424 11. Vereecken, C. A., Keukelier, E., & Maes, L. (2004). Influence of mother's educational 425 level on food parenting practices and food habits of young children. Appetite, 43(1), 93-426 103. 427 12. Bauer, K., Neumark-Sztainer, D., Fulkerson, J., & Story, M. (2011). Adolescent girls' 428 weight-related family environments, Minnesota. Preventing Chronic Disease, 8(3), A68. 429 13. Sobal, J. (1991). Obesity and socioeconomic status: a framework for examining 430 relationships between physical and social variables. Medical Anthropology, 13(3), 231-431 247. 432 14. Drewnowski, A., & Darmon, N. (2005). Food choices and diet costs: an economic 433 analysis. The Journal of Nutrition, 135(4), 900–904. 434 15. Belsky, J. (1984). The Determinants of Parenting: A Process Model. Child Development, 435 55(1), 83-96. 436 16. Lande, B., Andersen, L. F., Baerug, A., Trygg, K. U., Lund-Larsen, K., Veierød, M. B., & 437 Bjørneboe, G. E. A. (2003). Infant feeding practices and associated factors in the first six 438 months of life: the Norwegian infant nutrition survey. Acta Paediatrica, 92(2), 152–161. 439 17. Scott, J. A., Binns, C. W., Graham, K. I., & Oddy, W. H. (2009). Predictors of the early 440 introduction of solid foods in infants: results of a cohort study. BMC Pediatrics, 9(60). 441 18. Koh, G. A., Scott, J. A., Oddy, W. H., Graham, K. I., & Binns, C. W. (2010). Exposure to 442 non-core foods and beverages in the first year of life: results from a cohort study. 443 *Nutrition & Dietetics*, 67(3), 137–142. 444 19. Schrempft, S., van Jaarsveld, C. H. M., Fisher, A., & Wardle, J. (2013). Family and infant 445 characteristics associated with timing of core and non-core food introduction in early
- 446 childhood. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, 67(6), 652–657.

447	20.	Baharudin, R., & Luster, T. (1998). Factors related to the quality of the home
448		environment and children's achievement. Journal of Family Issues, 19(4), 375–403.
449	21.	Luster, T., & Dubow, E. (1990). Predictors of the quality of the home environment that
450		adolescent mothers provide for their school-aged children. Journal of Youth and
451		Adolescence, 19(5), 475–494.
452	22.	Dumas, J. E., Nissley, J., Nordstrom, A., Smith, E. P., Prinz, R. J., & Levine, D. W. (2005).
453		Home chaos: sociodemographic, parenting, interactional, and child correlates. Journal of
454		Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology, 34(1), 93–104.
455	23.	Whitaker, K. L., Jarvis, M. J., Beeken, R. J., Boniface, D., & Wardle, J. (2010). Comparing
456		maternal and paternal intergenerational transmission of obesity risk in a large
457		population-based sample. The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 91(6), 1560–1567.
458	24.	Wardle, J., Carnell, S., Haworth, C. M. A., & Plomin, R. (2008). Evidence for a strong
459		genetic influence on childhood adiposity despite the force of the obesogenic
460		environment. The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 87(2), 398–404.
461	25.	Slater, M. E., Sirard, J. R., Laska, M. N., Pereira, M. A., & Lytle, L. A. (2011). Relationships
462		between energy balance knowledge and the home environment. Journal of the
463		American Dietetic Association, 111(4), 556–560.
464	26.	Boutelle, K., Birkeland, R., Hannan, P. J., Story, M., & Neumark-Sztainer, D. (2007).
465		Associations between maternal concern for healthful eating and maternal eating
466		behaviors, home food availability, and adolescent eating behaviors. Journal of Nutrition
467		Education and Behavior, 39(5), 248–256.
468	27.	Francis, L. A., Hofer, S. M., & Birch, L. L. (2001). Predictors of maternal child-feeding
469		style: maternal and child characteristics. <i>Appetite</i> , 37(3), 231–243.
470	28.	Van Strien, T., Frijters, J. E. R., Bergers, G. P. A., & Defares, P. B. (1986). The Dutch Eating
471		Behavior Questionnaire (DEBQ) for assessment of restrained, emotional, and external
472		eating behavior. International Journal of Eating Disorders, 5(2), 295–315.
473	29.	Lawlor, D. A., & Chaturvedi, N. (2006). Treatment and prevention of obesity - are there
474		critical periods for intervention? International Journal of Epidemiology, 35(1), 3–9.
475	30.	Schrempft, S., van Jaarsveld, C. H. M., Fisher, A., & Wardle, J. (2015). The obesogenic
476		quality of the home environment: associations with diet, physical activity, TV viewing,
477		and BMI in preschool children. <i>PloS One, 10</i> (8), e0134490.
478	31.	Van Jaarsveld, C. H. M., Johnson, L., Llewellyn, C. H., & Wardle, J. (2010). Gemini: a UK
479		twin birth cohort with a focus on early childhood weight trajectories, appetite and the
480		family environment. Twin Research and Human Genetics, 13(1), 72–78.

481	32.	Bryant, M., Ward, D., Hales, D., Vaughn, A., Tabak, R., & Stevens, J. (2008). Reliability
482		and validity of the Healthy Home Survey: a tool to measure factors within homes
483		hypothesized to relate to overweight in children. International Journal of Behavioral
484		Nutrition and Physical Activity, 5(1), 23.
485	33.	Little, R. J. A. & Rubin, D. B. (2002). Statistical analysis with missing data. Hoboken, NJ:
486		Wiley.
487	34.	Office for National Statistics. (2010). The effects of taxes and benefits on household
488		income, 2008/09 (Data file). Retrieved from
489		http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/publications/re-reference-tables.html?edition=tcm%3A77-
490		169927
491	35.	Field, A. (2009). Discovering statistics using SPSS (3rd ed.). London: Sage.
492	36.	Van Strien, T., Herman, C. P. & Verheijden, M. W. (2012). Eating style, overeating and
493		weight gain. A prospective 2-year follow-up study in a representative Dutch sample.
494		Appetite, 59(3), 782–789.
495	37.	Estabrooks, P. A., Lee, R. E., & Gyurcsik, N. C. (2003). Resources for physical activity
496		participation: does availability and accessibility differ by neighborhood socioeconomic
497		status? Annals of Behavioral Medicine, 25(2), 100–104.
498	38.	Parmenter, K., Waller, J. & Wardle, J. (2000). Demographic variation in nutrition
499		knowledge in England. Health Education Research, 15(2), 163–174.
500	39.	Wardle, J., & Steptoe, A. (2003). Socioeconomic differences in attitudes and beliefs
501		about healthy lifestyles. Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health, 57(6), 440-
502		443.
503	40.	Pepper, G. V. & Nettle, D. (2014). Perceived extrinsic mortality risk and reported effort in
504		looking after health. <i>Human Nature, 25</i> (3), 378–392.
505	41.	Sallis, J. F., Broyles, S. L., Frank-Spohrer, G., Berry, C. C., Davis, T. B., & Nader, P. R.
506		(1995). Child's home environment in relation to the mother's adiposity. International
507		Journal of Obesity and Related Metabolic Disorders, 19(3), 190–197.
508	42.	Wardle, J., Sanderson, S., Guthrie, C. A., Rapoport, L., & Plomin, R. (2002). Parental
509		feeding style and the inter-generational transmission of obesity risk. Obesity Research,
510		10(6), 453–462.
511	43.	Agras, W. S., Hammer, L. D., McNicholas, F., & Kraemer, H. C. (2004). Risk factors for
512		childhood overweight: a prospective study from birth to 9.5 years. The Journal of
513		Pediatrics, 145(1), 20–25.

- 44. Reilly, J. J. (2005). Early life risk factors for obesity in childhood: cohort study. British
 Medical Journal, 330(7504), 1357–1359.
- 516 45. Rutter, M. (2007). Gene-environment interdependence. *Developmental Science*, *10*(1),
 517 12–18.
- 46. Kiff, C. J., Lengua, L. J., & Zalewski, M. (2011). Nature and nurturing: parenting in the
 context of child temperament. *Clinical Child and Family Psychology Review*, 14(3), 251–
 301.
- 47. Wasser, H., Bentley, M., Borja, J., Goldman, B. D., Thompson, A., Slining, M., & Adair, L.
 (2011). Infants perceived as 'fussy' are more likely to receive complementary foods
 before 4 months. *Pediatrics*, *127*(2), 229–237.
- 48. Webber, L., Cooke, L., Hill, C., & Wardle, J. (2010a). Associations between children's
 appetitive traits and maternal feeding practices. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 110*(11), 1718–1722.
- 49. Webber, L., Hill, C., Cooke, L., Carnell, S., & Wardle, J. (2010). Associations between child
 weight and maternal feeding styles are mediated by maternal perceptions and concerns. *European Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 64*(3), 259–265.
- 530 50. Webber, L., Cooke, L., Hill, C., & Wardle, J. (2010b). Child adiposity and maternal feeding
 531 practices: a longitudinal analysis. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition*, *92*(6), 1423–
 532 1428.
- 533 51. Ashcroft, J., Semmler, C., Carnell, S., van Jaarsveld, C. H. M., & Wardle, J. (2007).
- 534 Continuity and stability of eating behaviour traits in children. *European Journal of* 535 *Clinical Nutrition, 62*(8), 985–990.
- 536 52. Heo, M., Faith, M. S., & Pietrobelli, A. Resistance to change of adulthood body mass
 537 index. (2002). *International Journal of Obesity, 26*(10), 1404–1405.
- 538 53. Chuang, R.-J., Sharma, S., Skala, K., & Evans, A. (2013). Ethnic differences in the home
 539 environment and physical activity behaviors among low-income, minority preschoolers
 540 in Texas. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, *27*(4), 270–278.
- 54. Skala, K., Chuang, R.-J., Evans, A., Hedberg, A.-M., Dave, J., & Sharma, S. (2012). Ethnic
 differences in the home food environment and parental food practices among families
 of low-income Hispanic and African-American preschoolers. *Journal of Immigrant and Minority Health*, 14(6), 1014–1022.
- 545 55. Wardle, J. (1987). Eating style: a validation study of the Dutch Eating Behaviour
 546 Questionnaire in normal subjects and women with eating disorders. *Journal of*547 *Psychosomatic Research*, *31*(2), 161–169.
- 548