

Title: Contribution of home availability, parental child-feeding practices and health beliefs on children's sweets and salty snacks consumption in Europe: Feel4Diabetes-Study.

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1 ABSTRACT

2 Adoption of healthy dietary and snacking habits could support optimum physical and mental
3 development in children as they define health in adulthood. This study assessed parameters
4 associated with children's snacking such as food home availability, parenting practices, and
5 parents' health beliefs. In this cross-sectional study 12, 039 children, 49.4% boys 5-12 years
6 old, participating in the European Feel4Diabetes-Study were included. Children's weekly
7 consumption of sweets and salty snacks, home availability of snacks, food parenting practices,
8 and health beliefs were assessed via questionnaires. Logistic regression was applied to explore
9 associations of a) home availability of snacks, b) food parenting practices (permissiveness and
10 rewarding with snacks) and c) parent's opinions on deterministic health beliefs with children's
11 consumption of sweets and salty snacks. Results showed that home availability (sweets: OR_{adj}
12 4.76, 95%CI: 4.32, 5.23; salty snacks: OR_{adj}: 6.56, 95%CI: 5.64, 7.61), allowing to consume
13 (sweets: OR_{adj}: 3.29, 95%CI: 2.95, 3.67; salty snacks: OR_{adj}: 3.41, 95%CI: 2.98, 3.90) and
14 rewarding with sweets/salty snacks (sweets: OR_{adj}: 2.69, 95%CI: 2.23, 3.24; salty snacks:
15 OR_{adj}: 4.34, 95%CI: 3.57, 5.28) 'sometimes/or less frequently' compared to 'always/or often'
16 were associated with lower weekly consumption of sweets and snacks. Parents' disagreement
17 compared to agreement with deterministic health beliefs and inattentive eating were associated
18 with lower consumption of salty snacks and sweets in children. Overall, the findings of this
19 study indicate that attempts to promote healthy snacking habits in children should aim to
20 improve parental dietary habits, food parenting practices, health beliefs, and reducing home
21 availability of unhealthy foods and snacks.

22

23

24 INTRODUCTION

25 During childhood, it is well-known that dietary habits are important for children's development
26 ⁽¹⁾. Over the last few decades, global modernization has resulted in the abandonment of
27 wholesome traditional dietary patterns to the adoption of a Westernized diet including
28 overconsumption of energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods such as sweets, salty snacks, sugar-
29 sweetened beverages and fast foods, characterized for being high in sugars, fats, processed
30 meats and salt ⁽²⁾. According to data derived from round 4 (2015-2017) of the WHO European
31 Childhood Obesity Surveillance Initiative (COSI) that involved 132, 489 children from 23
32 European countries, showed that 10% of children consumed sweet snacks or soft drinks daily
33 and less than 50% fruits and vegetables ⁽³⁾. These findings signify the urgent need to create
34 healthier food and beverage environments within the family circle. Furthermore, adherence to
35 this type of dietary pattern promotes inflammation triggering the premature onset of adult
36 chronic diseases such as cardiovascular disease, diabetes and obesity ⁽¹⁾. Contrastingly, a
37 healthy diet rich in fruits, vegetables, wholegrain cereals, nuts and fish, diminishes
38 inflammation and lowers the risk for future chronic diseases ⁽¹⁾. Therefore, to ensure optimum
39 health it is crucial that children adopt good dietary and snacking habits early in life to track
40 into adulthood.

41

42 The home is the most widely studied setting for influences on children's dietary habits ⁽⁴⁾.
43 Parents play a primary role in influencing children's dietary habits ⁽⁴⁾. Types of foods
44 purchased, made available and accessible in the home including during family meals as well
45 as their own dietary practices, health attitudes and beliefs are correlated with children's food
46 intake ^(5; 6). Parents' role as food-providers can impact children's intake of healthy foods such
47 as fruits and vegetables or intake of unhealthy foods sweets and salty snacks through the foods
48 they provide as well as the social environment they create ^(7; 8; 9; 10). Furthermore, feeding
49 practices employed by parents to influence children's food intake represent a large component
50 of parental behaviours ⁽⁴⁾. Child-feeding practice constructs including controlling and
51 restricting/or forbidding sweets, snacks and junk foods can be counterproductive and
52 inadvertently enhance children's intake of these foods, cause dysregulation of food intake and
53 increase adiposity ^(11; 12; 13; 14). Alternatively, fewer family rules concerning the type of foods
54 eaten and rewarding using poor quality foods can contribute to a higher intake of fat and sugars,
55 snacks along with fewer fruits and vegetables ^(10; 14). Given that school-aged children consume
56 two-thirds of their meals at home, environmental exposures external to the home, namely the

57 school setting, via availability of foods served in canteens, and peers, appear to play a minor
58 role. Understanding the factors that shape food preferences in childhood are critical in
59 identifying aspects that promote dietary habits beneficial to health and deter unhealthy ones.
60 Furthermore, the impact of family on children's fruit and vegetable intake have been
61 extensively studied ^(15; 16), however, less attention has been given to food parenting practices
62 that are associated with snacking in European children ⁽¹⁰⁾. Currently, there are no universal
63 definitions for snacks, snacking or quantitative recommendations for weekly intake ⁽¹⁷⁾. Most
64 nutritional guidelines define snacking as calorie-dense foods high in sugar and fat with minimal
65 nutritional content consumed in between habitual meals, providing fewer calories than in
66 typical meals ⁽¹⁷⁾ and recommend 'limiting' intake of sweet and savoury snacks ⁽¹⁷⁾. On the
67 other hand, foods such as fruit, vegetables, nuts, milk and yogurt can be considered healthy
68 snacks.

69

70 Therefore, the scope of this study was to explore parameters associated with children's
71 intake of sweets and salty snacks, such as food home availability, food parenting practices and
72 beliefs. We hypothesized that home availability of snacks and certain parental practices, such
73 as permissiveness and the use of food as reward, and beliefs are positively associated with
74 sweets and salty snacks intake in European school children. In terms of public health
75 significance, this research suggests parenting practices and beliefs which could be discouraged
76 when targeting to improve children's dietary behaviours as well as provide direction for health
77 professionals working with families.

78

79 **METHODS**

80 *Study design*

81 The current study is a cross-sectional analysis of baseline data of all families (parents-children
82 dyads) participating in the Feel4Diabetes study. This multi-national population study was a 2-
83 year school and community-based intervention designed to prevent type 2 diabetes and
84 promote healthy eating and physical activity in vulnerable families across six European
85 countries: Bulgaria, Hungary, Belgium, Finland, Greece and Spain. In short, the Feel4Diabetes
86 intervention promoted healthy eating and exercise by creating a supportive environment at
87 three levels that included the home/family, school and municipalities. Recruitment was based
88 on a standardized multi-sampling procedure and was undertaken in selected provinces of the

89 six European countries. Elementary schools were randomly selected and recruited within each
90 area. The population of interest was 5-12-year-old children attending the first three grades of
91 elementary school in the selected municipalities of each country. The participating families
92 were either randomised to active intervention or control group. Details of the screening
93 procedure and study methodology have been previously described ⁽¹⁸⁾. For the purpose of the
94 current study only baseline data involving all families have been analysed. The study protocol
95 was approved by the Institutional Ethics committees in each of the six European countries and
96 informed consent was obtained from all participating families. The work described has been
97 conducted in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki guidelines for experiments involving
98 humans.

99 *Study sample*

100 In the Feel4Diabetes study, 12, 041 families (parent-dyads) were enrolled at baseline and data
101 was assessed for 12, 039 children (age range 5-12 years old). Two children (4 and 16 years old)
102 were excluded because their ages were not within the specified limits. Given that some families
103 consisted of more than one child and to avoid duplication of parental information, one child
104 per family was randomly selected. Data on children's sweets intake was complete for 11, 356
105 children and on salty snacks for 9, 928 children.

106 In the present study, we postulated that parenting is one of the main influential components of
107 the home food and social environment that defines children's snacking patterns. Based on
108 previous literature ⁽¹⁹⁾, we defined snacking as ready-to-eat, energy-dense, nutrient-poor foods
109 consumed in between meals and less than four times per week as the recommended intake
110 given the health benefits of reduced snacking in the prevention of obesity and dental caries in
111 children ⁽¹⁷⁾. According to food composition tables, snack foods were categorized as 'sweets'
112 (such as chocolate bars, cookies or ice-cream) or 'salty snacks' (hamburgers, chips and pizza)
113 based on raw materials used in their production (high content of sugars, fat, sodium) ⁽²⁰⁾ and
114 manufacturing process (frying, drying, baking, roasting) ⁽²¹⁾.

115 *Demographic information*

116 Demographic information that included country of residence, children's sex and age along with
117 maternal educational level as an indicator of socio-economic status (SES) ⁽²²⁾ was collected via
118 a printed version of a standardized self-administered questionnaire that was distributed to
119 children during school hours and completed by one parent at home. Parents were instructed to
120 seal completed questionnaires in an envelope which was returned by children to the school and

121 collected by researchers on a weekly basis. Parents were provided with the contact details of
122 researchers in order to clarify any queries that they might have during the study period.

123 *Children's snacking habits*

124 Children's snacking was evaluated using a self-administered validated Food Frequency
125 Questionnaire developed for the Feel4Diabetes Study ⁽²³⁾. Data regarding children's snack
126 intake was collected from one parent per family. Respondents were instructed to report
127 children's usual frequency of sweets and salty snacks in terms of specified serving size.
128 Conventional household measures were used to represent one standard portion size for each
129 food item (1 cup, ½ cup) as well as commercial units (1 small hamburger, 1 small bag of chips,
130 1 slice of pizza, 1 small chocolate bar, ½ cup of ice-cream, cookies or sweets). Frequency of
131 sweets and salty snacks intake was recorded as weekly or daily consumption of food items
132 which were categorized as less than 1 time per week, 1 or 2 times per week, 3 or 4 times per
133 week, 5 or 6 times per week, 1 or 2 times per day, 3 or 4 times per day, 5 or 6 times per day
134 and more than 6 times per day. Parents' intake of snacks were evaluated using the same FFQ.

135

136 *Home availability of salty snacks/and sweets, food parenting practices and health beliefs*

137 Home availability of snacks, parental practices and beliefs were evaluated by the following
138 questions.

139 *Q1a) On a weekly basis, how often are sweets available at your home?*

140 *Q1b) On a weekly basis, how often are salty snacks available at your home?*

141 *Q2a) On a weekly basis, how often do you allow your child to eat sweets and/or salty snacks?*

142 *Q2b) On a weekly basis, how often do you reward your child with sweets or salty snacks?*

143 *Q3a) I believe that my health and well-being are determined by my destiny.*

144 *Q3b) I believe that people have little power on preventing disease*

145 *Q3c) I choose to eat the food that I like without thinking too much about it.*

146 For Q1, response options were “always, often, sometimes, rarely and never”, for Q2 options
147 were “very often, often, sometimes, rarely and never, and for Q3 options were “strongly
148 disagree, disagree, agree or strongly agree”. Parents were instructed to tick one of the

149 responses. To maintain comparability across countries, all questionnaires were translated into
150 six languages.

151 **Anthropometry**

152 During school hours, basic anthropometric measurements were conducted on a weekly basis in
153 children by trained personnel. Bodyweight was recorded to the nearest 0.1 kg using digital
154 scales (SECA, 813) with children standing without shoes in minimal clothing. Height was
155 measured to the nearest 0.1 cm using a stadiometer (SECA 217) with children standing without
156 shoes, their shoulders relaxed, arms hanging freely and head aligned in the Frankfort horizontal
157 plane. Then, body mass index (BMI) was calculated using Quetelet's equation [weight (kg)/
158 height² (m²)] and z-scores estimated as defined by the International Obesity Task Force (IOTF)
159 sex and age-specific BMI cut-offs ⁽²⁴⁾.

160 **Sample size calculation/randomization**

161 Screen time is one of the most important energy balance related behaviours (EBRBs) in
162 children ⁽²⁵⁾ and also one of the main objectives of the Feel4Diabetes Study was to reduce
163 sedentary behaviour in school children ⁽¹⁸⁾. In this context, a power calculation was performed
164 using G*Power analysis ⁽²⁶⁾ and estimated based on reducing sedentary behaviour in school
165 children. It was estimated that a minimum sample of 600 families per treatment arm (i.e 1200
166 families in total) was required to achieve statistical power greater than 80% at a two-sided 5%
167 significance level for reducing screen time by 0.2 hours/day in children within 8 months
168 ⁽¹⁸⁾. After including an attrition rate of 20%, a total sample of 9000 families would be required
169 to be recruited in order to detect a statistically significant difference between the arms. Schools
170 and families were randomized to the intervention and control arms within each municipality
171 with a 1:1 allocation ratio after the completion of baseline assessments.

172 173 **Statistical Analysis**

174 Continuous variables were assessed for normality by applying the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
175 and the histogram plot. Demographic data are presented as means and standard deviations (SD)
176 or as frequencies (n) and percentages (%) in the case of skewness. Response options for
177 frequencies of sweets and salty snacks were dichotomized to \leq and $>$ 4 times per week ⁽¹⁹⁾.
178 Home availability responses were also recoded into two categories 'always/often' and
179 'sometimes/rarely/never'. Similarly, food parenting practices were merged to 'very
180 often/often' and 'sometimes/rarely/never', and health beliefs 'strongly agree/agree' and

181 'strongly disagree/disagree'. In the univariate analysis, group differences were examined using
182 Mann-Whitney or Pearson's Chi-Square test. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient rho (r)
183 was used to determine correlations between parents and children's intake of sweets and salty
184 snacks, where values of rho ranging from 0.10 to 0.39 indicate weak correlations and 0.40 to
185 0.69 moderate ⁽²⁷⁾. The association between home availability, parental practices/beliefs and
186 children's intake of sweets and salty snacks were explored applying multivariate logistic
187 regression. In analyses, children's sweets intake and salty snacks were defined as the dependent
188 variables and food parenting practices and health beliefs as the independent. Given that
189 children's age, sex, BMI z-score, country and maternal education are factors influencing
190 children's food choice, these were entered as covariates in the adjusted regression model. How
191 well the theoretical model fitted the data was measured using the Nagelkerke coefficient R^2 .
192 The degree of association is expressed as odds ratio (OR) and 95% confidence interval (CI).
193 Exploratory to this study, we repeated the regression analysis stratified by age group (5.0-9.0
194 years vs 10.0-12.5 years) according to the WHO definition for teenagers (10-19 years old) ⁽²⁸⁾,
195 given that this can be an influencing factor in children's eating habits ⁽²⁹⁾. All p-values reported
196 are two-tailed and statistical significance was set at $\alpha < 0.05$. SPSS version 20 (IBM,
197 Chicago, IL) was employed for all statistical analyses.

198 RESULTS

199 Demographic details of the population are presented in Table 1. From the initial sample at
200 baseline, mean age of children was 8.20 (S.D 0.99) years with 49.35% (5942/12,039) boys;
201 85.20% (10,255/12,039) of respondents were mothers and 10.17% fathers (1224/12039) with
202 66.56% (8014/12,039) of mothers completing tertiary education and 52.30% (6295/12039) of
203 fathers.

204 Regarding intake of sweets and salty snacks, frequency (%) of children and parents consuming
205 these foods ≤ 4 times per week is presented in Table 2. Sex differences in sweets intake were
206 observed in children, with more girls consuming sweets ≤ 4 times per week than boys (girls vs
207 boys: 56.41% vs 53.85%; $P = 0.01$). Comparison of parents' versus children's sweets and salty
208 snacks intake showed moderate correlations (sweets: $r = 0.451$, $P < 0.001$; salty snacks $r =$
209 0.531 , $P < 0.001$).

210 The relationship between home availability, food parenting practices and health beliefs, and
211 children's intake of sweets and salty snacks less/equal to or more than 4 times/week is shown
212 in Table 3. The univariate analysis revealed that for children consuming sweets and salty snacks

213 ≤ 4 times/week there were substantial differences in home availability ($P < 0.001$), food
214 parental practices ($P < 0.001$) and beliefs ($P < 0.001$). It appears that when sweets and salty
215 snacks were available in the home ‘sometimes/rarely’, children were more likely to consume
216 these foods ≤ 4 times/week as compared to these foods being available ‘always/often’. The
217 same trend was observed for food parenting practices such as ‘allowing to eat these foods’ and
218 ‘rewarding with sweets and salty snacks. With respect to health beliefs, parents who ‘strongly
219 disagree/disagree’ that ‘health was determined by destiny’, ‘I have little control on preventing
220 disease’ and ‘I choose to eat food I like without thinking’, more children consumed sweets and
221 salty snacks ≤ 4 times/week as compared to those whose parents ‘strongly agree/agree’ to these
222 questions.

223 Applying logistic regression to explore the association between home availability, food
224 parenting practices and health beliefs, and children’s intake of sweets and salty snacks yielded
225 statistical significance for all factors (Table 4). In the crude analysis, a positive association was
226 observed between home availability of sweets (OR: 5.82, 95% CI: 5.33, 6.35), allowing to eat
227 sweets (OR: 3.73, 95% CI: 3.38, 4.11) and being rewarded with sweets (OR: 3.30, 95% CI: 2.78,
228 3.92) ‘sometimes/rarely’ and children’s intake of sweets ≤ 4 times/week, as compared to
229 ‘always/often’. After adjusting for children’s age, sex, BMI, country of residence and maternal
230 education level, home availability of sweets at a frequency of ‘sometimes/rarely’ was
231 associated with children being 4.76 times more likely to consume sweets ≤ 4 times/week than
232 those when sweets were available ‘always/often’ (OR_{adj} 4.76, 95% CI: 4.32, 5.23); whereas 3.29
233 times more likely when allowing to eat sweets ‘sometimes/rarely’ (OR_{adj}: 3.29, 95% CI: 2.95,
234 3.67) and 2.69 times more likely when rewarding with sweets at the same frequency (OR_{adj}:
235 2.69, 95% CI: 2.23, 3.24). The degree of association as reflected by the Nagelkerke coefficient
236 R^2 indicated substantial influence of home availability, food parenting practices including
237 allowing to consume and rewarding with sweets (29.4%, 23.1%, and 19.1% respectively).
238 Regarding parental health beliefs, in the adjusted analysis, no significant associations were
239 observed for parents who ‘strongly disagree/disagree’ that their ‘health is determined by
240 destiny’, ‘I have little power preventing disease’ and children’s sweets intake compared to
241 parents who ‘strongly agree/agree’ to these statements. In contrast, for parents who ‘strongly
242 disagree/disagree’ with ‘I choose to eat food I like without thinking’, children were 1.61 times
243 more likely to consume sweets ≤ 4 times/week than those parents who ‘strongly agree/agree’
244 (OR_{adj}: 1.61, 95% CI: 1.45, 1.80). Comparable findings were observed in the crude and adjusted
245 regression analysis for children’s intake of salty snacks, although to a greater extent than sweets
246 intake as reflected by the size of the odds ratio. Home availability of salty snacks, allowing to

247 consume and rewarding with salty snacks ‘sometimes/rarely’ was associated with children
248 consuming these foods ≤ 4 times/week compared to ‘always/often’ [(OR_{adj}: 6.56, 95% CI: 5.64,
249 7.61); (OR_{adj}: 3.41, 95% CI: 2.98, 3.90); (OR_{adj}: 4.34, 95% CI: 3.57, 5.28) respectively]. With
250 respect to parental health beliefs, children from parents who ‘strongly disagree/disagree’ that
251 ‘my health depends on destiny’, ‘I have little power preventing disease’ and ‘I choose to eat
252 food I like without thinking’, were twice as likely to consume salty snacks ≤ 4 times/week
253 compared to children whose parents ‘strongly agree/agree’ with the above statements [(OR_{adj}:
254 2.08, 95% CI: 1.74, 2.49); (OR_{adj}: 1.86, 95% CI: 1.58, 2.20); (OR_{adj}: 2.65, 95% CI: 2.26, 3.11),
255 respectively].

256 Furthermore, the same trend was observed for children’s sweet and salty snacks intake vs home
257 availability and parenting practices in the regression analysis stratified by age group (5.0-9.0
258 years vs 10.0-12.5 years) (Supplemental Table S1). However, regarding health belief ‘parents
259 disagreeing with my health is determined by destiny’ which was borderline significant in the
260 original adjusted analysis ($P_{adj} = 0.05$), became significant for sweet intake < 4 times/week in
261 the 5.0-9.0 year olds ($P_{adj} = 0.03$) and non-significant for salty snack intake < 4 times/week in
262 10.0-12.5 year olds ($P_{adj} = 0.35$). Likewise, for ‘I have little power preventing disease’ was
263 non-significant in the original analysis for sweet intake ($P_{adj} = 0.80$) but significant in the 10-
264 12.5 years age group ($P_{adj} = 0.01$). On the other hand, results remained significant in both age
265 groups for “I choose to eat food I like without thinking” which is consistent with the original
266 analysis.

267

268 **DISCUSSION**

269 The present study aimed to determine factors of the home environment, food parenting
270 practices and health beliefs that associate with sweets and salty snack intake in children.
271 Understanding how children’s food consumption choices are developed will aid in the adoption
272 of good dietary habits in children which have potential lifetime health benefits. The findings
273 of this study highlight that home availability of sweets and salty snacks ‘sometimes or less
274 frequently’ compared to ‘always or often’, was associated with lower weekly intake of these
275 foods in children. The same trend was observed when parents ‘allowed’ children to consume
276 sweets and salty snacks ‘sometimes or rarely’ and ‘rewarded’ them with these foods at the same
277 frequency as compared to ‘very often’. Interestingly, stratification of data according to age
278 group did not alter associations between parenting practices, home availability and children’s
279 weekly intake of sweets and salty snacks. In reference to health beliefs, parents who ‘disagree’

280 that ‘my health is determined by destiny’, ‘I have little power preventing disease’ and ‘I choose
281 to eat the food I like without thinking’ were related to lower intake of sweets and salty snacks
282 in children as compared to those whose parents ‘agree’ to the above statements. Notably,
283 differences were observed in associations between health beliefs and snacking in the 10-12.5
284 year age group. This data supports our primary hypothesis and is promising because it suggests
285 that by modifying parental behaviour and rectifying false health beliefs it is possible to
286 discourage snacking in children. Therefore, our study is important and useful as a practical
287 guide for health professionals on strategies that could hinder unhealthy snacking in European
288 children and closes the gaps in the literature ^(7; 30; 31; 32).

289

290 Various factors might explain children’s reduced intake of sweets and salty snacks when
291 snacks were available in the home ‘sometimes/rarely’ as compared to always/often. Aspects of
292 the home environment can contribute to children’s dietary behaviour especially in children
293 within the 5-12 years age group. The family is the major provider of food and therefore parents
294 influence availability, accessibility, foods purchased and served during family mealtimes and
295 function as important role models ⁽⁶⁾. Furthermore, parents provide experiences with food and
296 children imitate parental dietary behaviours, food-related attitudes including preferences. In
297 addition, we found moderate correlations between parents’ and children’s intake of sweets and
298 salty snacks which reflect a significant modelling effect via direct observation of parental
299 behaviour and through increased taste exposure ⁽³³⁾. This is in line with prior studies
300 documenting resemblance between parents’ and children’s intake of sweets, salty snacks and
301 fat across Europe ^(7; 31; 32; 34). Therefore, in the home setting, early repeated exposure of children
302 to foods high in energy, sugar and fat might enhance children’s liking and prioritize preference
303 and selection for them. ^(11; 33; 35). In this context, it is plausible that by decreasing frequency of
304 exposure to poor quality foods in the home would inevitably result in decreased consumption
305 by children, as was demonstrated in our study. Overall, our observations highlight the need for
306 improving parents’ food preferences to enhance positive changes in children.

307

308 Another intriguing observation we noted was that parents ‘disagreeing’ that ‘my health is
309 related to destiny’, ‘I have little power over disease’ and ‘I choose to eat food I like without
310 thinking’, was associated with children consuming fewer sweets and salty snacks. It appears

311 that parents' health-related beliefs were transferred to offspring. Previous research has
312 demonstrated that a positive, health-conscious family environment can establish and enhance
313 adoption of beneficial health behaviours through role modelling, provision of healthy foods,
314 along with encouragement and support for practising healthy dietary behaviours by children
315 ⁽⁴⁾. Hoffman et al., in a study of 7-11-year-old schoolchildren found that apart from parental
316 feeding practices, parents' health-related attitudes, goals and motivations influenced their
317 children's food intake ⁽³⁶⁾. In children whose mothers emphasized health-related goals, children
318 consumed more healthy foods and less unhealthy ⁽³⁶⁾. Similarly, low levels of nutrition
319 knowledge and food-related health attitudes in mothers along with less knowledge regarding
320 snack recommendations were related to poor diet quality and increased snacking in pre-
321 schoolers ^(5; 32). On the other hand, intriguingly, we noted age differences in associations
322 between health beliefs and children's snacking, predominately in the 10-12.5 year age group,
323 most likely related to cognitive development, health and nutrition literacy in adolescents ⁽³⁷⁾.

324 These observations posit that educating parents the importance of diet in relation to health
325 and addressing unhealthy parental beliefs might be a cost-effective, feasible and practical
326 means of improving dietary habits of the entire family and ultimately overall health of the
327 population. Nutrition education would provide parents with the skills to make informed choices
328 about foods that their family consume and support autonomy because such information would
329 provide direction for dietary behaviours.

330

331 With regards to food parenting practices such as 'permissiveness' and rewarding with
332 snacks, we showed that rewarding or allowing children to snack sometimes or rarely resulted
333 in lower weekly intake of sweets and salty snacks which is supported by the literature ^(38; 39; 40).
334 Wang et al., demonstrated that using food as a reward was associated with higher odds of
335 children snacking more than once daily (OR, 1.43; 95%CI 1.01 to 2.04) ⁽⁴⁰⁾. Sleddens et al.,
336 reported that instrumental feeding (or rewarding) practised by parents' increased snacking
337 behaviour in 6-7-year-old children ⁽³⁹⁾. On the same note, Hennessy et al., showed that a
338 permissive feeding style (lack of control and indulging to children's requests) was associated
339 with increased intake of low nutrient dense foods including sweets and salty snacks in 9-year-
340 old children ⁽³⁸⁾. Although WHO dietary recommendations advocate reduction in intake of
341 energy-dense high fat and sugary foods ⁽⁴¹⁾, using highly palatable foods (for example sweets)
342 as a reward, this is common practice by parents which can promote children's overconsumption

343 of low-nutrient energy dense foods by diminishing the extent that children rely on their own
344 hunger and satiety cues to initiate and terminate eating ⁽¹³⁾. Collectively, the aforementioned
345 studies reinforce our observations that allowing or rewarding children by sweets and salty
346 snacks ‘sometimes’ by parents might decrease consumption of these foods. Thus, suggesting
347 that health professionals should be aware of the different parental child-feeding practices and
348 styles when evaluating children’s diet quality and perhaps focus on interventions modifying
349 parental behaviour that will encourage healthy eating habits in children and discourage
350 unhealthy.

351 *Strengths and limitations*

352 The findings of the current study should be interpreted in light of several considerations. Novel
353 to this study was the exploration of associations between health beliefs and snacking patterns
354 in children. To our knowledge, most studies have focused on children’s intake of healthy foods
355 such as fruits and vegetables and more research is needed to determine factors that reduce
356 intake of unhealthy foods and snacking ⁽⁴²⁾. Hence, the development of intervention strategies
357 to improve children’s dietary patterns is likely to be more successful if supported by an
358 understanding not only of healthy but also unhealthy food intake. Furthermore, given the lack
359 of a uniform definition for snacking as well as snack-specific dietary recommendations for
360 children available in the WHO European region ⁽¹⁷⁾, our study could be useful in setting the
361 foundations for guidelines on how parents should incorporate snacks into children’s healthy
362 diet, and parenting practices that could effectively modify intake of unhealthy snacks.
363 Additional strong points of the present work are the standard methods and procedures used by
364 all participating countries to record dietary intake, food parenting practices and home
365 availability along with the large sample size and homogeneity among children with respect to
366 age.

367 A possible limitation is the cross-sectional design which does not allow conclusions to be drawn
368 about causal relationships. The use of parental reports to capture children’s sweet and salty
369 snacks intake may evoke a source of bias due to recall error ⁽⁴³⁾. Moreover, parents may not be
370 aware of foods purchased and consumed by children outside of the home and during school
371 hours ⁽⁴³⁾. Although the use of FFQs in collecting dietary data is common practice in nutritional
372 epidemiology, they are subject to over-reporting of healthy foods and under-reporting of non-
373 healthy due to social desirability ⁽⁴⁴⁾. Nevertheless, FFQs are cost-effective and appropriate for
374 large epidemiological cohort studies to assess habitual intake of populations ⁽⁴⁴⁾ and we

375 employed a concise, simple FFQ of low-respondent burden. Another drawback, questionnaire
376 response options ‘always, often, sometimes, rarely and never’ were not defined to respondents
377 which could lead to inaccuracy in results. One more domain worth further investigation, sex
378 differences in parenting styles were not explored in the present study. Previous research has
379 identified fathers as predictors of children’s unhealthy food intake ^(31; 45).

380 **CONCLUSION**

381 The family unit is an important social context where children learn and adopt dietary
382 behaviours that persist throughout the lifespan. During childhood, parents play a prime role as
383 health promoters, role models, and educators in the lives of their children, influencing food
384 perceptions and choices including snacks. This study demonstrated that home availability of
385 sweets and salty snacks, permissiveness and rewarding with these foods ‘sometimes or less
386 frequently’ compared to ‘always/or often’ were associated with lower weekly intake of snacks
387 in children. These findings indicate that attempts to promote healthy snacking habits in school-
388 aged children should target improving parental dietary habits, food parenting practices, health
389 beliefs and reducing home availability of unhealthy foods such as sweets and salty snacks
390 which could bring about adoption of healthy eating practices in children that track into
391 adulthood.

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431 Conceptualization: MP, YM, KK. Methodology: MP, YM, KK.

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- 552
- 553

554 Table 1 Demographic characteristics of population per total sample of families and by children's sex

| Characteristic | Total (N= 12, 039) % (n) | Children's sex | | P |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| | | Boys (n = 5942) % (n) | Girls (n = 6097) % (n) | |
| Country | | | | |
| Belgium | 14.84% (1787/12, 039) | 14.99% (891/5942) | 14.66% (894/6097) | 0.02^a |
| Finland | 12.49% (1504, 12,039) | 12.72% (756/5942) | 12.27% (748/6097) | |
| Greece | 18.90% (2283/12, 039) | 18.38% (1092/5942) | 19.53% (1191/6097) | |
| Hungary | 15.18% (1828/12, 039) | 14.69% (873/5942) | 15.66% (955/6097) | |
| Bulgaria | 24.68% (2972/12, 039) | 24.40% (1450/5942) | 24.96% (1522/6097) | |
| Spain | 13.84% (1667/12, 039) | 14.81% (880/5942) | 12.91% (787/6097) | |
| Children details | | | | |
| Age* | 8.20 (0.99) | 8.22 (1.00) | 8.19 (0.99) | 0.05 ^b |
| SES status | | | | |
| Maternal education level >12 years | 66.56% (8014/12,039) | 71.97% (3975/5523) | 70.95% (4039/5693) | 0.23 ^a |

555 In bold statistically significant P-values

556 *Data are presented as mean (SD)

557 ^a P-value estimated using Chi-Square test; ^b Mann-Whitney test

558 P-value significant at 5%.

559 ** Data for mothers and fathers are not shown but described in text.

560

561 Table 2 Percentage of children and parents consuming sweets and salty snacks ≤ 4 times per week

| Food group | Total % (n) | Children | | P ^a |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|----------------|
| | | Boys % (n) | Girls % (n) | |
| Children | | | | |
| Sweet intake (%) $\leq 4x/week$ | 55.16% (6264/11,356) | 53.87% (3009/5586) | 56.41% (3255/5770) | 0.01 |
| Salty snacks $\leq 4x/week$ | 87.11% (8649/9928) | 86.74% (4206/4849) | 87.48% (4443/5079) | 0.27 |
| Parents | | | | |
| Sweets $\leq 4x/week$ | 66.13% (7474/11,302) | 65.29% (3633/5564) | 66.94% (3841/5738) | 0.06 |
| Salty snacks $\leq 4x/week$ | 92.53% (10281/11,111) | 92.54% (5062/5470) | 92.52% (5219/5641) | 0.96 |

562 Data shown for frequency of sweets and salty snacks intake $\leq 4x/week$ only

563 In bold statistically significant P-values

564 Key: $\leq 4x/week$ – less than or equal to 4 times per week.565 ^a P-value derived from Chi Square test comparing differences in children's frequency of snacks and
566 sweets intake $\leq 4x/week$ and $> 4x/week$.

567

568

569 Table 3 Relationship between home availability, food parenting practices and health beliefs, and
 570 children's intake of sweets and salty snacks ≤ 4 times per week

| Question from questionnaire | Response | Children's intake | | | |
|--|----------------------------|------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|-------------------|
| | | Sweets | | Salty snacks | |
| | | $\leq 4x/week$ | P^a | $\leq 4x/week$ | P^a |
| | | % (n) | | % (n) | |
| Home Availability | | | | | |
| Sweets and salty snacks | Always/often | 43.42% (2675/6161) | < 0.001 | 27.38% (2337/8536) | < 0.001 |
| | Sometimes/rarely/never | 56.58% (3486/6161) | | 72.62% (6199/8536) | |
| Parental Practices | | | | | |
| Allow child to eat sweets and/ or salty snacks | Very often/often | 11.40% (702/6160) | < 0.001 | 18.09% (1541/8520) | < 0.001 |
| | Sometimes/rarely/never | 88.60% (5458/6160) | | 81.91% (6979/8520) | |
| Reward child with sweets or salty snacks | Very often/often | 3.11% (192/6166) | < 0.001 | 4.12% (351/8524) | < 0.001 |
| | Sometimes/rarely/never | 96.89% (5974/6166) | | 95.88% (8173/8524) | |
| Health Beliefs | | | | | |
| Health is determined by destiny | Strongly agree/agree | 9.43% (573/6079) | < 0.001 | 9.89% (834/8430) | < 0.001 |
| | Strongly disagree/disagree | 68.81% (4183/6079) | | 67.44% (5685/8430) | |
| I have little power preventing disease | Strongly agree/agree | 13.60% (830/6101) | < 0.001 | 13.96% (1178/8436) | < 0.001 |
| | Strongly disagree/disagree | 72.09% (4398/6101) | | 70.40% (5939/8436) | |
| I choose to eat foods I like without thinking | Strongly agree/agree | 16.40% (1000/ 6097) | < 0.001 | 18.59% (1568/8435) | < 0.001 |
| | Strongly disagree/disagree | 63.98% (3901/6097) | | 62.17% (5244/8435) | |

571 Data shown for frequency of sweets and snack intake $\leq 4x/week$ only

572 In bold statistically significant P-values

573 Key: $\leq 4x/week$ – less than or equal to 4 times per week

574 ^a P-value derived from Chi-Square test comparing differences in children's frequency of snacks and
 575 sweets intake $\leq 4x/week$ and $> 4x/week$.

576

577

578 Table 4 Association between home availability, food parenting practices, beliefs and children's intake
 579 of sweets and salty snacks ≤ 4 times per week from the crude and adjusted logistic regression model

| Children's sweets intake ≤ 4 times per week | | | | | | |
|--|----------------|------------------|---------|----------------|------------------|------------------|
| Question/Response | Crude | | | Adjusted | | |
| | R ² | OR (95%CI) | P | R ² | OR (95%CI) | P _{adj} |
| Home availability of sweets | | | | | | |
| Always/often | Ref* | | | | | |
| Sometimes/rarely/never | 19.7% | 5.82(5.33, 6.35) | < 0.001 | 29.4% | 4.76(4.32, 5.23) | < 0.001 |
| Allow to eat sweets | | | | | | |
| Very often/often | Ref | | | | | |
| Sometimes/rarely/never | 8.6% | 3.73(3.38, 4.11) | < 0.001 | 23.1% | 3.29(2.95, 3.67) | < 0.001 |
| Reward with sweets | | | | | | |
| Very often/often | Ref | | | | | |
| Sometimes/rarely/never | 2.5% | 3.30(2.78, 3.92) | < 0.001 | 19.1% | 2.69(2.23, 3.24) | < 0.001 |
| Health is determined by destiny | | | | | | |
| Strongly agree/agree | Ref | | | | | |
| Strongly disagree /disagree | 0.9% | 1.55(1.37, 1.75) | < 0.001 | 18.2% | 1.14(0.99, 1.30) | 0.054 |
| Little power preventing disease | | | | | | |
| Strongly agree/agree | Ref | | | | | |
| Strongly disagree /disagree | 0.4% | 1.25(1.12, 1.39) | < 0.001 | 18.1% | 1.01(0.90,1.14) | 0.804 |
| Choose to eat food I like without thinking | | | | | | |
| Strongly agree/agree | Ref | | | | | |
| Strongly disagree /disagree | 1.2% | 1.64(1.49, 1.81) | < 0.001 | 18.9% | 1.61(1.45, 1.80) | < 0.001 |
| Children's salty snacks intake ≤ 4 times per week | | | | | | |
| Question/Response | Crude | | | Adjusted | | |
| | R ² | OR (95%CI) | P | R ² | OR (95%CI) | P _{adj} |
| Home availability of salty snacks | | | | | | |
| Always/often | Ref | | | | | |
| Sometimes/rarely/never | 13.9% | 5.58(4.91, 6.35) | < 0.001 | 29.5% | 6.56(5.64, 7.61) | < 0.001 |
| Allow to eat salty snacks | | | | | | |
| Very often/often | Ref | | | | | |
| Sometimes/rarely/never | 12.7% | 5.34(4.71, 6.05) | < 0.001 | 23.7% | 3.41(2.98, 3.90) | < 0.001 |
| Reward with salty snacks | | | | | | |
| Very often/often | RRef | | | | | |
| Sometimes/rarely/never | 7.7% | 6.58(5.54, 7.81) | < 0.001 | 21.8% | 4.34(3.57, 5.28) | < 0.001 |
| Health is determined by destiny | | | | | | |
| Strongly agree/agree | Ref | | | | | |
| Strongly disagree/disagree | 4.0% | 3.07(2.61, 3.61) | < 0.001 | 19.3% | 2.08(1.74, 2.49) | < 0.001 |
| Little power preventing disease | | | | | | |

| | | | | | | |
|---|------|------------------|----------------|-------|------------------|----------------|
| Strongly agree/agree | Ref | | | | | |
| Strongly disagree/disagree | 3.9% | 2.66(2.29, 3.09) | < 0.001 | 19.3% | 1.86(1.58, 2.20) | < 0.001 |
| Choose to eat food I like without thinking | | | | | | |
| Strongly agree/agree | Ref | | | | | |
| Strongly disagree/disagree | 4.4% | 2.83(2.45, 3.26) | < 0.001 | 20.8% | 2.65(2.26, 3.11) | < 0.001 |

580 OR- Odds Ratio; 95%CI- 95% Confidence Interval; R² - Nagelkerke coefficient R²

581 In bold statistically significant P-values

582 Dependent variables children's frequency of intake of sweets and salty snacks as the dichotomous
583 variables (0 = > 4 times/week, 1 = ≤ 4 times/week).

584 P- P-value derived from the crude logistic regression analysis

585 P_{adj}- P-value from the regression model adjusted for children's age, sex, BMI (z-score), country and
586 maternal education.

587 *Reference category

588