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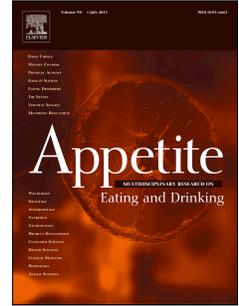
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What shapes parental feeding decisions over the first 18 months of parenting: Insights into drivers towards commercial and home-prepared foods among different socioeconomic groups in the UK

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1 **What shapes parental feeding decisions over the first 18 months of parenting:**
2 **insights into drivers towards commercial and home-prepared foods among**
3 **different socioeconomic groups in the UK**

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9 Abstract

10 Infants born into families experiencing socioeconomic disadvantage follow a high-
11 risk trajectory for obesity and poor health in later life. Differences in early childhood
12 food experiences may be contributing to these inequalities. This study aimed to
13 explore the factors that influence parental decisions on when, how and what food to
14 introduce over the first 18 months of their child's life and identify differences
15 according to families' social position. Particular attention was given to social and
16 environmental determinants within and outside the home. This research utilised a
17 longitudinal qualitative methodology, with interviews and photo-elicitation exercises
18 completed by participants when their children were 4–6; 10–12 and 16–18 months of
19 age. Participants were parents (61 mothers; 1 father), distributed across low,
20 medium and high socioeconomic position (SEP). During analysis, observable
21 differences in factors directing parents to home-prepared or commercial foods were
22 identified. Factors that undermined the provision of home-prepared meals included
23 lack of time after returning to work, insufficient support from partners, uncertainty
24 around infant and young child feeding (defined as the introduction and provision of
25 solids) and an implicit trust in the messaging on branded products. These factors
26 directed parents towards commercial foods and were most persistent among families
27 experiencing socioeconomic disadvantage due to barriers accessing formal
28 childcare, less flexible working conditions and fathers being less involved in infant
29 feeding. To facilitate an enabling environment for healthy infant and young child
30 feeding practices and address dietary inequalities, immediate steps that policy
31 makers and healthcare providers can take include: i) changing the eligibility criteria
32 for shared parental leave, ii) aligning claims on commercial infant food labels with
33 international best practices, and iii) improving access to formal childcare.

34 Keywords

35 Infant feeding, childhood obesity, longitudinal qualitative analysis, policy research

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36 1. Introduction

37 Obesity prevalence has doubled in over 70 countries since 1980, with 107.7 million
38 children classified as obese in 2015 (Forouzanfar et al., 2016; Institute for Health Metrics
39 and Evaluation (IHME), 2023; Reilly & Kelly, 2011). In 2019/2020, around a quarter
40 (23%) of 4 – 5 year olds and a third (35%) of 10 – 11 year olds were affected by
41 overweight or obesity in the UK, with children living in poorer neighbourhoods
42 experiencing a significantly greater burden than those from more affluent areas
43 (Office for Health Improvement and Disparities, 2023). Obesity in childhood is a
44 predictor of obesity in adolescence and adulthood, (Simmonds et al., 2016) with
45 evidence also suggesting an association with increased risk of cancer, type 2
46 diabetes and other physical and psychological disorders (Prospective Studies
47 Collaboration, 2009; Renehan et al., 2008; The Emerging Risk Factors
48 Collaboration, 2011).

49 Dietary exposures in early life (Shloim et al., 2015) often become established food
50 preferences that persist into adulthood (Birch & Doub, 2014; Liberali et al., 2020; Mikkilä
51 et al., 2005). Findings from the UK's Gemini cohort study, a longitudinal population-
52 based twin study of 4,680 children, found timing of breastfeeding cessation and
53 introduction of solid foods to impact infant growth rates, suggesting wider
54 environmental exposures exert a stronger influence on weight gain in infancy than
55 genetic factors (Johnson et al., 2014). The foods that infants and young children
56 consume are shaped by factors both within and outside the home environment
57 (Birch, 2016; Swinburn et al., 2004). Food advertisements and marketing, product
58 branding, proximity to food retailers and produce price and positioning on
59 supermarket aisles, alongside wider cultural, environmental, social and structural
60 factors all play a role on the foods that infants consume (Anzman et al., 2010; Appleton
61 et al., 2018; Bąbik et al., 2021; Coleman et al., 2022; Ventura & Birch, 2008). Nevertheless,

62 it is not known how these factors interact and direct parental feeding decisions, such
63 as when to introduce solid foods or whether home-prepared or commercial foods are
64 more accessible.

65 While not all home-prepared recipes are healthier than their commercial counterparts
66 (Carstairs et al., 2016), commercial fruit and vegetable pouches and purees often
67 exceed recommended sugar intake levels. Commercial foods are also often
68 promoted as savoury meals for the early stages of introducing solid foods and
69 frequently advertised as 'healthy' and 'natural' (Garcia et al., 2020; Hutchinson et al.,
70 2021; Mooney & Feeney, 2021). Similarly, some 'healthy' snacks contain high free
71 sugar content from ingredients such as fruit juices, purees and concentrates, or high
72 levels of salt (Public Health England, 2019). In addition, many commercial products
73 are ultra processed, with ultra-processed food intake linked to dietary nutrient
74 imbalances, increased energy intake and how taste preferences and dietary habits
75 are developed (Childs & Sibson, 2023).

76 Evidence indicates that commercial foods for infants can encourage the introduction
77 of solid foods before the recommended age (around six months). Commercial foods
78 also increase consumption of foods or ingredients such as free sugars in an amount
79 or frequency not recommended as part of a healthy diet for this age group (Public
80 Health England, 2019). With this in mind, an infant's diet is likely to be healthier if it
81 included only a limited amount of commercial products. Commercial products,
82 however, can offer parents convenience and reassurance during a very stressful
83 period (Isaacs et al., 2022),

84 There is strong evidence for an inverse relationship between socioeconomic position
85 (SEP) and early-life nutrition (Cameron et al., 2015), although most studies to date
86 have focused on dietary intake in later childhood and adulthood rather than infancy.

87 A 2020 systematic review of 20 studies, examining the association between SEP
88 and dietary practices among children and youth (up to 18 years), found children from
89 lower SEPs to consume less healthy diets when compared to their higher SEP
90 counterparts (Mekonnen et al., 2020). Factors that mediated SEP differences in
91 dietary practices included self-efficacy, food preference and knowledge, availability
92 and accessibility of unhealthy foods at home, household food rules and parental
93 education (Mekonnen et al., 2020). There is a gap, however, in understanding
94 exactly how these factors influence the foods young children consume according to
95 their families' socio-economic position (SEP) and what the impact of very early
96 feeding experiences might be.

97 The aim of this study was to explore how social and environmental factors determine
98 when, how and what foods young children consume over the first 18 months of life,
99 focusing on differences by families' levels of SEP. As the research was initiated after
100 the start of the Covid-19 pandemic, exploring family food practices within this context
101 was integral to the study. Whilst food shopping practices changed significantly during
102 the first lockdown (Connors et al., 2020; Wentworth, 2020), overall experiences
103 related to food during the pandemic (from April 2020 to October 2021) were
104 "variable, including time, space to spare, health, employment and financial status,
105 existing food habits, geography and trust in food businesses and systems" (*The*
106 *COVID-19 Consumer Research | Food Standards Agency, n.d.*). Following the COVID-19
107 pandemic we have seen global economic repercussions, with families across income
108 ranges worse off in real terms than before the pandemic (The Food Foundation & City
109 University of London, 2023). Reduced household income, along with increased energy
110 costs, have seen households increasingly turn to cheaper meal options which
111 typically means purchasing fewer raw ingredients (The Food Foundation & City
112 University of London, 2023). Rises in zero-hour contracts and workers in the gig

113 economy (*Zero Hours Contracts Hit Record High | GMB Union*, n.d.) also mean people
114 have less free time to purchase and prepare meals using healthier ingredients.
115 In light of this situation, this study examined factors that facilitate healthier diets,
116 such as preparing and cooking food from scratch and eating together as a family,
117 (home-prepared). These practices were compared to those that facilitate less healthy
118 diets, such as a reliance on ready meals (commercial) and disjointed mealtimes, all
119 in the context of significant change and constraints on parents' time that accompany
120 having a baby. Longitudinal qualitative research allows for analysis over a period of
121 transitions, as well as at specific points in time which is appropriate for assessing
122 age-related changes in food intake over the first 18 months of life (Tuthill et al.,
123 2020). This paper builds on our previous analysis of the role of commercial,
124 packaged foods and snacks (Isaacs et al., 2022).

125 **2. Methods**

126 **2.1 Participant recruitment**

127 Participants were defined as any parent or caregiver in England with an infant aged
128 4 – 6 months at time of recruitment. The study period was one year, by which time
129 children were 16 – 18 months. The study was commissioned before the Covid-19
130 pandemic; however, all interviews took place after the pandemic had begun. The first
131 interview was mid-July 2020, thus after the first lockdown and initial issues with food
132 shortages. Recruitment was via social media platforms (e.g., parent and baby
133 Facebook groups), with study details and a survey link provided via an online
134 advertisement. Demographic data was used to calculate SEP (Kininmonth et al.,
135 2020) and approximately 20 participants each from low, medium and high SEPs
136 were recruited. Participants received a gift card worth £40 for phase 1 and £20 each
137 for phases 2 and 3 for their choice of Amazon, Love2Shop or a supermarket.

138 2.2 Data collection (interviews and photo-diary)

139 Interviews were conducted when infants were 4 – 6 months (phase 1: July to
140 November 2020), 10 – 12 months (phase 2: January to May 2021) and 16 – 18
141 months (phase 3: July to November 2021). These interviews were conducted via
142 phone or videoconferencing owing to the COVID-19 pandemic. Interviews (40 – 70
143 mins) followed a semi-structured interview guide (see Appendix 1) that aimed to elicit
144 information on the social and environmental factors that influence feeding decisions
145 in the context of life with an infant/ young child. Interviews comprised a semi-
146 structured component and a photo-elicitation component. In the first phase, these
147 interviews took place a week apart; in the second and third phases they were
148 combined into one interview to reduce the time burden on participants. For the
149 photo-elicitation component, participants were asked to spend the week preceding
150 each interview photographing factors both inside and outside of the home
151 environment that influence feeding decisions. The meanings associated with each
152 photograph were then discussed (see Appendix 1). Photo elicitation incorporates
153 photographs into research interviews to capture aspects of people's lives that may
154 not otherwise come to mind during the question-and-answer format of an interview.
155 Thus photo elicitation can allow the participant to reflect in a different way on their
156 lived experience or illustrate their narrative with examples. (Harper, 2002; Meo,
157 2010). As the participant chooses what to photograph and how, it allows them more
158 control of the narrative (Bignante, 2010). In this study, the photo elicitation
159 component helped participants to reflect on their daily lives and grounded the
160 interviews in the here-and-now of what people were doing. The discussions elicited
161 by the photographs were analysed, rather than the photographs themselves.

162 2.3 Data analysis

163 Analysis of interview transcripts followed an adapted version of Braun and Clarke's
 164 five-stage process of reflexive thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2021). This
 165 aimed to enable two individuals to analyse the large amount of data while still
 166 retaining the constructivist and reflexive approach advocated by Braun and Clarke. A
 167 loose coding framework, allowing for inclusion of new codes, was developed by KN
 168 and AI following open-coding of three interview transcripts and three photo-elicitation
 169 transcripts (representing one low, medium and high SEP participant). All transcripts
 170 were then coded by KN and AI for interviews 1 and 2, and by KN for interview 3,
 171 adding new codes where relevant and making notes in a participant sheet to
 172 summarise key details for each participant. Codes were consolidated and grouped
 173 together to create specific themes and a coding framework. This framework is shown
 174 in Table 1.

175 **Table 1.** Categories and themes that guided the longitudinal analysis

Category	Themes	Description
Advice and information	Information and guidance on infant/ young child feeding from commercial sources	Information and guidance provided to parents, from commercial products and associated websites and branded information, and perception of that guidance
	Information and guidance on infant/ young child feeding from health professionals	Information and guidance provided to parents from health professionals, health visitors and NHS sources, and perception of that guidance
Family routines	Cost of commercial foods and competing products	The prices of products, as well as parents' perceptions of affordability relative to other products
	Family mealtime routines	The values that parents considered most important when

		deciding what and how to feed their infant/ young child during family mealtimes
	Work routines	The perception and / or availability of time depending on work patterns
Food environment	Access to childcare	When infants/ young children were not looked after by either one of their parents
	Food available out-of-home (cafes and restaurants)	Food consumed when not in the home environment, such as snacks or picnics made at home for consumption outside, or purchasing food or drink in a café or restaurant for the infant / young child to eat or drink
	Perception of branded products	A belief that infant brands were safe and appropriate
	Product packaging and labelling	The design and information on the front of a product's packaging that make it look appropriate and attractive
	Trust in supermarket baby aisles	A belief that products sold on the aisle where all infant / young child food is grouped must be highly regulated and therefore safe and healthy
Social support and norms	Influence of grandparents	The foods and food routines that grandparents had control over
	Influence of older siblings	The influence that older siblings have on shaping what the infant/ young child ate and drank
	Role of male and female partners	The role male and female partners had in buying, preparing, cooking and giving food to the infant/ young child

176

177 The longitudinal analysis was conducted by KN and PC, following the methodology
178 of Grossoehme and Lipstein (Grossoehme & Lipstein, 2016). This approach focused on
179 how the factors changed over time by organising data into matrices, with one matrix
180 per unit of analysis. Specifically, factors were grouped on the Y-axis and time

10

181 (interviews 1, 2 and 3) on the X-axis, providing one column per unit of analysis. The
182 longitudinal analysis focused on how these factors changed or did not change over
183 time, as well as exploring variation by SEP. Field diaries, participant sheets and
184 interview transcripts were reviewed again when specific examples were needed.

185 During the longitudinal analysis, observable differences in how factors directed
186 parents to either home-prepared or commercial foods were identified, in particular
187 noting variations by SEP. Subsequent analysis thus focused on factors that drove
188 the provision of commercial foods over the first 18 months of child development.

189 During the analysis factors which enable and/or inhibit the preparation of foods at
190 home were also incorporated. Home-prepared foods were defined as meals that
191 involved use of fresh and raw ingredients (including frozen fruits and vegetables),
192 while commercial foods included, but were not limited to, products such as baby
193 pouches, snacks, ready meals, frozen meals, fruit purees and smoothies. All
194 analysis was conducted using NVivo 12.

195 **2.4 Ethics**

196 Ethical approval was sought and obtained from the School of Health and
197 Psychological Sciences research ethics committee at City, University of London.
198 Written informed consent was obtained from all participants at the start of the study
199 and this was re-established verbally at the start of the stage two and three
200 interviews. All identifiable data has been removed and pseudonyms allocated.

201 **3. Results**

202 **3.1 Participants**

203 In total, 62 participants took part in interview 1, 58 in interview 2 and 47 in interview
204 3. Participants were recruited across the socioeconomic spectrum (Table 1). Loss to
205 follow-up was greatest among parents experiencing low SEP (27.8%) compared to

206 medium and high SEP (22.7%). Most participants were female (98.4%) and were
 207 living in a multi-parent household (93.5%). Over half of participants had at least two
 208 children at the time of recruitment (54.8%). As there was only one male participant,
 209 the analysis has excluded data from this participant to focus on mothers'
 210 experiences. All mothers did, however, discuss perceptions and practices of both
 211 parents throughout the study, which have been reported here.

212 **Table 1:** Participant characteristics

Participant information	Interview 1 Number (%)	Interview 2 Number (%)	Interview 3 Number (%)
Number of participants	62 (100)	58 (93.5)	47 (75.8)
Socioeconomic position			
Low	18 (29.0)	16 (27.6)	13 (27.7)
Medium	22 (35.5)	20 (34.5)	17 (36.2)
High	22 (35.5)	22 (37.9)	17 (36.2)
Gender			
Male	1 (1.6)	1 (1.7)	0 (0)
Female	61 (98.4)	57 (98.3)	47 (100)
Ethnicity (self-reported)			
White British	43 (69.4)	41 (70.7)	33 (70.2)
White	5 (8.1)	4 (6.9)	3 (6.4)
British	9 (14.5)	9 (15.5)	8 (17.0)
Irish	1 (1.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Indian	1 (1.6)	1 (1.7)	0 (0)
Black Caribbean	1 (1.6)	1 (1.7)	1 (2.1)
Norwegian and Greek	1 (1.6)	1 (1.7)	1 (2.1)
South Asian	1 (1.6)	1 (1.7)	1 (2.1)
Older sibling			
Yes	34 (54.8)	32 (55.2)	25 (53.2)
No	28 (45.2)	26 (44.8)	22 (46.7)
Single parent family			
Yes	4 (6.5)	3 (5.2)	2 (4.3)
No	58 (93.5)	55 (94.8)	45 (95.7)

213

214 **3.2 4 – 6 months**

215 Figures 1 and 2 describe shifts in infant and young child feeding practices during the period
216 of the study among families of high and low SEP, and the factors that led to home-prepared
217 and commercial foods. During the first six months of the study (when infants were aged six
218 months to one year), there was a strong desire among all families to provide what was best
219 for their infant. This desire was typically defined as a combination of nutritious, safe (in
220 terms of texture and ingredients) and appropriate (in terms of texture, portion size and
221 ingredients) foods, with home-prepared fruits and vegetables given a high priority.

222 *“I didn’t want his first food to be shop-bought food, like in tins or coming in jars and stuff. I*
223 *wanted it to be proper food. Because I think that’s when you end up with fussy eaters,*
224 *maybe, if you don’t have a good start with veg and fruit when you’re little.”* Maya, low SEP

225 There was also desire across the socioeconomic spectrum for mealtimes to be communal
226 and less time-consuming, and for the infant to participate in existing family food practices,
227 which meant eating at the same time as the rest of the family, liking the same foods as
228 parents and older siblings and not being ‘fussy’ eaters.

229 *“I just wanted him to fit in with us. I don’t really want mealtimes to be [baby’s name] eats*
230 *and then we have to eat separately and having to cook two meals.”* Gillian, high SEP

231 However, this perceived preference for home-prepared foods was often undermined by
232 uncertainty around the practical elements of infant and young child feeding, which
233 increased the appeal of commercially prepared foods. Uncertainty around when to
234 introduce different foods, ideal consistencies, and how to prepare and store them was partly
235 felt to be driven by a perception that there was insufficient information on feeding
236 practicalities from sources such as the NHS Start 4 Life website
237 (www.nhs.uk/start4life/weaning/).

238 *“The Heinz one it’s such a big pouch of apple and strawberry and I don’t know when you’re*
239 *supposed to give that, is that in place of a meal? Or is that a dessert or is it as a snack? It’s*
240 *such a massive amount of fruits, when do you give it? And is it okay for them to have fruit*
241 *for a meal because they’re only babies, do they have to have something savoury?” Regina,*
242 *high SEP*

243 Parents therefore favoured branded products which provided age recommendations on the
244 front-of-pack (showing when it was suitable to give the food) and simple recipe and
245 preparation suggestions in associated marketing.

246 *“Ella’s Kitchen pouches, I’ve been trying him with because I can see all the ingredients. I*
247 *don’t have the confidence or the time, really, to make stuff myself.” Alice, low SEP*

248 The role of brands in providing information was most notable amongst parents who lacked
249 confidence in their own food preparation and cooking skills. The female participants also
250 reported that their partners (almost exclusively male) had less confidence than themselves
251 in knowing what to feed, how to prepare meals or deal with specific dietary demands.

252 *“He doesn’t really like the idea of feeding in case he chokes, he doesn’t like it at all. But he*
253 *did feed him porridge one time and it went okay.” Leanne, low SEP*

254 Particular infant/ young child brands were mentioned by almost every parent. Together with
255 associated marketing and feeding guidance, these brands were considered to be sources
256 of reliable information and guidance. This trust in brands was associated with the
257 purchasing of these and other commercial foods by both the participants and their partners.

258 *“I quite like the Ella’s Kitchen ... they do so many different flavours. I wasn’t put off by the*
259 *ingredients as such. I find the organic pouches have got lovely ingredients in them. I don’t*
260 *worry. I don’t think, oh, there’s too much sugar in this or there’s an E number or anything*

261 *like that. I was always quite careful about picking, well let's put it, the fancy pouches that I*
262 *felt had natural ingredients in."* Astrid, high SEP.

263 Parents also displayed a high degree of trust in products sold on the baby aisle, with an
264 assumption that UK regulations are sufficiently strict, and products sold on the baby aisle
265 must therefore be safe and appropriate for infants.

266 *"I must admit, I don't look at the ingredients, purely because I probably just presume that,*
267 *as it's in the baby aisle, it's less processed than what the other stuff is."* Clara, medium
268 SEP.

269 For those with less confidence, commercial foods were seen as a safe and suitable option
270 for the infant. Claims such as 'no salt' or 'no nasties' were highly valued and gave the
271 impression that products must be healthy. Parents actively sought products that included
272 phrases such as 'pure', 'simple', 'no hidden ingredients', 'organic', and 'free from sugar, salt,
273 and preservatives' on the front label. This trust in product labels was reinforced by the belief
274 that ingredients were presented clearly and 'honestly' on infant products.

275 Snacks branded as 'melt-in-the-mouth' were particularly popular, as they were perceived as
276 a method of self-feeding that did not present a choking risk and created limited mess. In
277 these instances, parents chose snacks for developmental benefits, rather than nutritional
278 reasons (Isaacs et al., 2022), and were thus less likely to scrutinise packages for nutritional
279 content. Instead, they focused on positive imagery or text on the product label. For
280 example, claims such as 'encourages self-feeding' gave the impression of helping infants to
281 develop motor skills, which was viewed positively by parents.

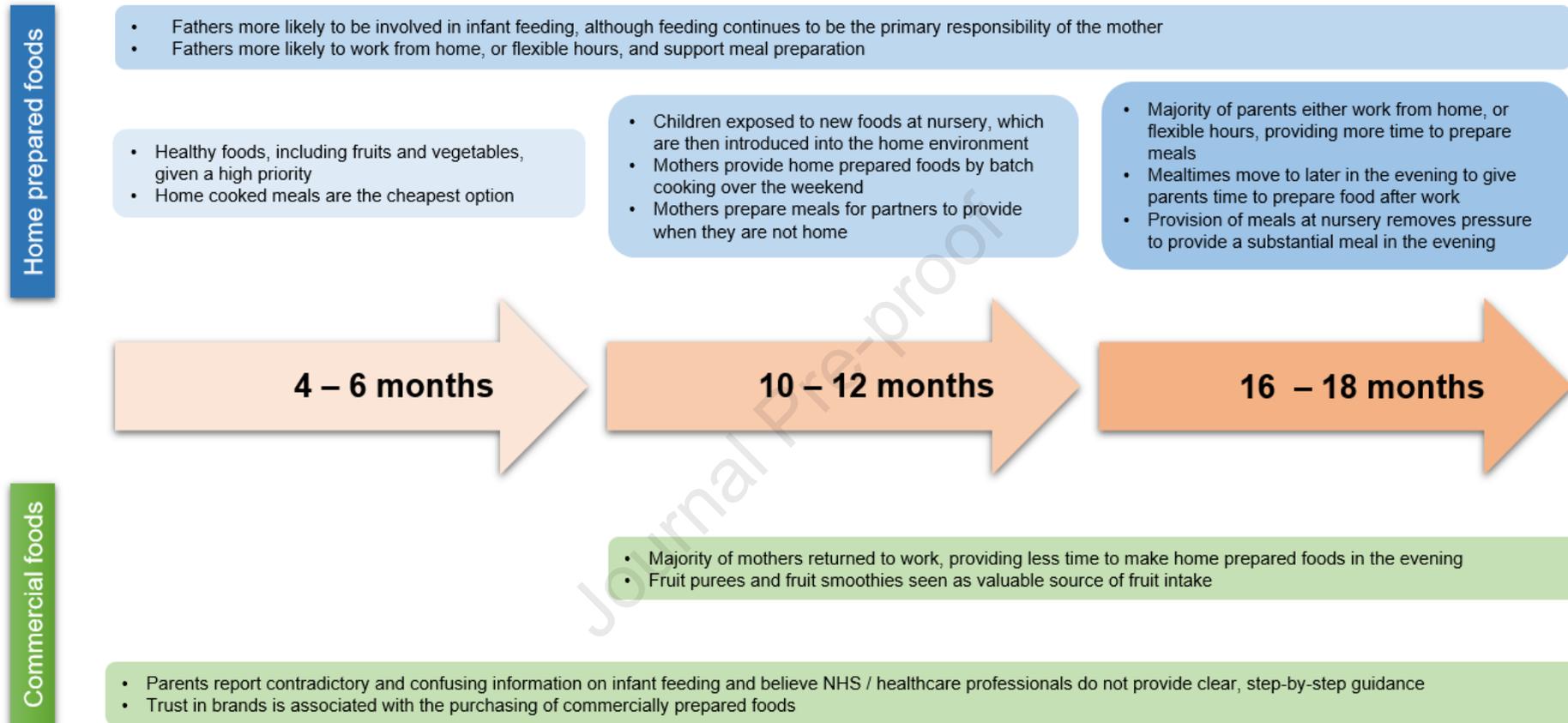
282 *"Yes, she can pick up and they go all soft and gummy, so she's able to eat them all by*
283 *herself. I don't really have to worry about choking, because they soft dissolve over time."*

284 Carol, low SEP

285 Parents also relied on commercial brands' age recommendations, although this created
286 confusion when products were stated as suitable from four months, rather than the six
287 months recommended by the UK government. When out of the home, packaged baby
288 snacks were popular options across the socioeconomic spectrum as they were portable and
289 convenient. This practice was particularly true during phases of lockdown when businesses
290 were closed, but continued to be the case when businesses were open again. If families
291 were having a treat such as an ice cream, infant snacks were offered as an infant-safe
292 alternative.

293 Parents also stated the importance of infants enjoying and trying foods. Infants' enjoyment
294 of food was the justification for occasionally providing what they knew were less nutritious
295 foods such as chocolate or ice cream, with parents reporting pleasure in seeing the infant's
296 reaction to these items.

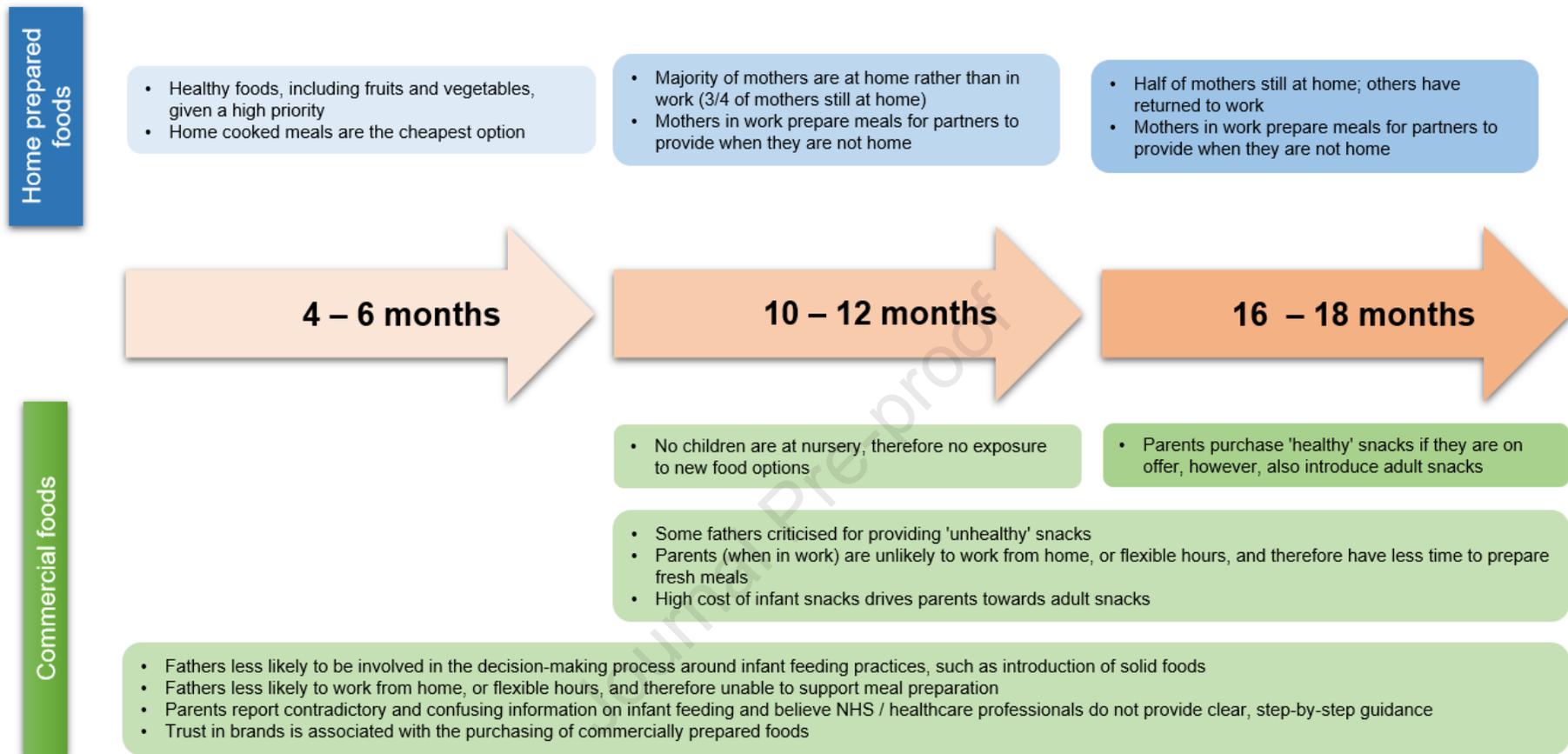
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298

299 **Figure 1.** How interacting social and environment factors influenced what foods infants are exposed to during their 19 months in
 300 families experiencing greater affluence.

301



302

303 **Figure 2.** How interacting social and environment factors influenced what foods infants are exposed to during their first 19 months

304 among families experiencing economic disadvantage.

305 **3.3 10 – 12 months**

306 By 10 – 12 months, most (76%) high SEP mothers and half (52%) of medium SEP mothers
307 had returned to work (3 – 4 days per week). In contrast, only a quarter (25%) of low SEP
308 mothers were working. Even after returning to work, meal planning, preparation and
309 cooking continued to be the primary responsibility of the mother, who was more likely to
310 have higher confidence in what to select and how to prepare food. Mothers returning to
311 work reported difficulty in maintaining a work/ life balance and providing home-prepared
312 meals.

313 *“She’s still breast fed... she’s never taken a bottle... so I’m the only person that can settle*
314 *her, so right now it’s best if I just stay at home to save the stress.”* Antonia, low SEP

315 A number reported batch cooking meals over the weekend for consumption during the
316 week, particularly among families experiencing high SEP (figure 1). Some mothers (across
317 SEP) also reported preparing home-cooked meals for partners to provide to children for
318 times when they would not be home.

319 *“On the days that he looks after her I have to have all three of her meals prepared for him*
320 *the day before so it is quite hard work. And then I do tend to make a batch of stuff, so if I’m*
321 *making a pasta or something for her I’ll make at least a few days’ worth, so she does tend*
322 *to have the same thing for a few days.”* Sophie, low SEP

323 Also observed by 10 – 12 months was an increase in the number of children attending
324 nursery, particularly among families of medium and high SEP and coinciding with mothers’
325 return to work. Infants were often exposed to a variety of new foods at nursery, which
326 parents would then introduce at home. Parents displayed a high level of trust in childcare
327 providers’ knowledge of safe and appropriate food for the child’s age. The fact that certain

328 foods (e.g., toast, cereal) were given by formal childcare provided reassurance they were
329 safe and appropriate for the child's age (figure 1).

330 *“Nursery gave me a lot of confidence she's had some toast this morning, and I'm*
331 *thinking, I never thought to give her toast, because I thought she couldn't eat it. So they*
332 *actually have given me a lot of inspiration with what to feed her.”* Alexia, medium SEP

333 The presence of infant allergies was also associated with provision of home-prepared
334 foods. Some parents avoided packaged foods because they contained allergens and
335 finding suitable options was time-consuming and yielded few affordable results. Conversely,
336 some parents did find packaged foods to be better for managing allergies or intolerances
337 because they provided reassurance of the ingredients on the product label, and thus
338 guaranteed the safety of the product.

339 *“It was knowing that all the ingredients on the back of your label. It's a lot easier just to pick*
340 *something up and go, I know that's safe, I can give her that.”* Maya, low SEP

341 While meal planning, batch cooking and influence of nurseries all supported the provision of
342 home-prepared foods, the role of commercial foods was also more evident by 10 – 12
343 months. For most parents, this increased reliance on commercial foods coincided with an
344 increasingly relaxed approach to mealtimes and increased provision of snacks and 'treats'.
345 Fruit puree and smoothie pouches were popular because they provided parents with
346 reassurance that the child was consuming fruit and nutrients, especially when many had
347 started to refuse fresh fruits and vegetables. Parents from families of medium and high SEP
348 were more likely to provide these commercial fruit purees and smoothies, often as a dessert
349 following the afternoon or evening meal.

350 *“That’s why I like the pouches as well, because he won’t eat that much fruit and vegetables*
 351 *that I put in front of him. If I can still give him a pouch every day then he’s getting some sort*
 352 *of ... fruits and vegetables.” Elizabeth, low SEP.*

353 An increase in provision of ‘adult’ snacks was also observed at 10 – 12 months, particularly
 354 among families experiencing low SEP, although reasons underpinning this practice varied.
 355 Firstly, soft crisps and plain biscuits were seen as a way for the infant to be involved in
 356 family food culture, as the infant became more aware of what others in the family were
 357 eating and wanted to try the same foods as the rest of the family.

358 *“He’ll see her eating it, and want the same. If she’s got something, he’ll very much go over*
 359 *and try and get it and eat it, and she’ll share things with him.” Hayley, medium SEP*

360 *“I think that day I think it was actually [older child] was having some Wotsits and she gave*
 361 *him one and he liked it [...]. So, we always have [Wotsits] in our cupboard for a Friday.”*
 362 *Jacqui, low SEP*

363 Secondly, parents in families experiencing low SEP reported buying adult snacks (soft
 364 crisps and biscuits) because they were cheaper than infant snacks and were viewed by
 365 parents as being similar, in terms of composition, to infant snacks.

366 *“I don’t get the baby crisps anymore, because now he can have normal food. So I’ll just get*
 367 *the little Mini Cheddars and things, just for a snack as I’m getting his tea ready. So, I’ll make*
 368 *sure I’ve got little nibbles of food that he can feed himself with, like Quavers or something*
 369 *that he just snacks on instead of the baby crisps. Because it was just costing too much, the*
 370 *baby crisps, so we just buy the normal ones that we won’t choke on, and things that he can*
 371 *handle.” Leanne, low SEP*

372 In families with an older sibling, meal and snack routines had already been formed around
 373 the first child, which meant the infant had to fit into established routines. By 10 – 12 months,

374 infants were likely to be eating at the same time as their older siblings and more likely to be
375 eating less nutritious snacks when compared to infants without siblings. This practice
376 occurred because less nutritious food options were an established part of the family food
377 environment and infants were seeing their older siblings consume these products.

378 Also, at 10 – 12 months, around half of parents across the socioeconomic spectrum
379 reported grandparents providing foods they did not want their infants to consume, such as
380 sugary yoghurts and chocolate. Where grandparents gave foods high in sugar that parents
381 were uncomfortable with, it was often a difficult subject to navigate, particularly if the
382 grandparents were on the partner's side of the family. These grandparents were also
383 reported as believing they should be allowed to give grandchildren whatever food they like
384 and providing treats high in sugar was seen as a customary part of spending time with
385 grandchildren.

386 *“You turn your back and she'll [Grandma] have Nutella in one of the kid's mouths*
387 *guaranteed. Sweets and chocolates coming out of their ears. It doesn't matter how old they*
388 *are.”* Jeni, high SEP

389 When eating in restaurants or cafes, children's menus often contained foods, such as
390 chicken nuggets or other 'beige food', that parents were unhappy with. For this reason,
391 parents reported bringing their own foods, such as pre-packaged pouches and snacks,
392 which were considered convenient to transport and store in a bag. Alternatively, parents
393 would share their own meal with the infant, or regarded foods such as chips or chicken
394 nuggets as being acceptable as an occasional 'treat'. Packaged baby snacks were bought
395 above all because of their convenience, which justified the higher price of these products.

396 *“I bought the Ella's Kitchen Puffs, and they seem to be one of her favourite things. If she*
397 *drops it on the floor, she literally cries. Again, I've bought them based on ingredients and*

398 *age. They've all got good ingredients in. So they're very handy just to take out. The*
 399 *Kiddylicious wafers are in little individual packs so they're easy to keep in my bag if we go*
 400 *out for a coffee or whatever, they keep her entertained and away from my hot coffee.*

401 *Otherwise she wants my coffee.” Abigail, high SEP*

402 **3.4 16 – 18 months**

403 The impacts of work commitments on infant and young child feeding practices continued to
 404 be observed at 16 – 18 months, with all parents of medium SEP, 94% of high SEP parents,
 405 and half (46%) of the parents experiencing low SEP, returning to work. Mealtimes often
 406 moved to later in the evening. Parents of high SEP were more likely to be able to work from
 407 home, or to have more flexible working hours, allowing time to provide home-prepared
 408 meals in the evening (figure 1). Differences in flexibility of working conditions between
 409 parents of high and low SEP were particularly evident due to impacts of the COVID-19
 410 pandemic, with many parents of low SEP employed in sectors where home working was not
 411 an option. Most parents reported wanting the family to eat together and to provide the
 412 infant/ young child with a balanced diet with plenty of fruit and vegetables, however, this
 413 often was not possible due to a lack of time and work commitments.

414 *“She loves the ham and cheese one in the pasta. That is really easy because most*
 415 *evenings I am not here My partner, obviously, struggles to cook, so something like that*
 416 *pasta is great for him because he can just put it in the saucepan and for her, that is a meal.*

417 *She is quite happy to sit and have that as a meal.” Jade, low SEP*

418 Half of young children were in formal childcare at least one day a week; however, this was
 419 predominantly among families of medium and high SEP. Only 4% of those of a low SEP
 420 attended nursery (figure 2). Parents’ experiences when their children were 16-18 months
 421 were similar to those at 10 – 12 months: the majority were happy with the nursery’s food,

422 felt that exposure to new foods at nursery influenced the home food environment and felt
423 their children were learning motor skills from other children at the nursery.

424 *“We’ve noticed the way that she eats, she’s obviously been exposed to other children*
425 *eating. So, I think she’s learning things from nursery about not throwing things on the floor,*
426 *for example. So, it’s interesting to see that I think she’s picking up on habits from the other*
427 *children which sometimes is good, sometimes is not so great.” Zoe, high SEP*

428 In addition, the knowledge that the child was having ostensibly nutritious meals at nursery
429 took the pressure off parents providing healthy meals at home and meant children often
430 only required a small meal/ snack in the evening, such as fruit and yoghurt. In some cases,
431 the snack was a packaged infant snack due to the small size, convenience and perceived
432 healthiness of these products.

433 For many families experiencing low SEP, inflexible working conditions and an inability to
434 work from home continued to place increased stress and pressure on parents to find time to
435 make home-prepared meals (figure 2), making commercial foods an appealing and
436 convenient option. This situation resulted in many families, particularly from low SEPs,
437 increasingly relying on foods requiring minimal preparation, such as frozen foods. Even
438 amongst medium and high SEPs, toddler ready meals were bought by numerous parents
439 as a ‘back-up’ option for days where both parents were working. Commercial foods
440 (pouches and ready meals) were also considered useful for the days when the mother was
441 working and had limited time to cook.

442 *“If [infant] has a convenience meal, then it’s usually a night when either I’m out or we’ve*
443 *decided to have a takeaway later on in the evening. Or if I’m just short on time, we’ll give*
444 *him his dinner first and do his bedtime routine, and then we’ll have our dinner later on.”*

445 Gabi, high SEP

446 Fathers continued to be reported as having less confidence in what to feed their children
447 and were more likely to provide packaged foods, packaged purees and treat foods, such as
448 chocolate. The provision of treats by fathers was most common among families of low
449 SEPs.

450 *“My partner will only really give [child] something very easy. He would never look in a recipe*
451 *book or make him a recipe that would always be what I do.”* Maddy, low SEP

452 Four mothers (all of high SEP) mentioned their own poor relationship with food as a reason
453 to not restrict the child’s diet and use neutral language around food, instead of terming
454 foods as ‘good’ or ‘bad’. Conversely, another four mothers (two high SEP, one medium
455 SEP, one low SEP) cited having an unhealthy relationship with food as a reason for giving
456 only healthy foods and restricting intake of foods high in sugar to avoid the infant getting a
457 ‘sweet tooth’ or ‘becoming a chocoholic’ like them. One of the mothers of high SEP in this
458 group chose packaged baby snacks because they made her ‘feel good as a mum’ as she
459 perceived them as the healthiest option.

460 *“Because I was overweight as a child ... I’m not going to force her to eat lunch or say that*
461 *we’re not doing this till you’ve eaten ... because I just don’t want her or my son to have any*
462 *issues with food.”* Julia, high SEP

463 Finally, by 16 – 18 months, parents had become more relaxed about grandparents’
464 provision of treats. Parents did not want to raise it as a problem and initiate an argument.
465 The influence of older siblings also continued to be reported, with children continuing to be
466 provided with less nutritious snacks or drinks, such as biscuits, crisps, squash or juice, they
467 had requested after seeing them being consumed by their older sibling. These snacks had
468 usually been purchased specifically for the older sibling.

469 *“Now that he's a little bit older, I think because I'm a little bit more relaxed about the variety*
470 *of food that he eats and I don't mind him having the odd sweet or chocolate or things like*
471 *that, I feel like my mum's taken that and run with it. So now, not every time, most times she*
472 *comes to look after him, she'll bring him some treat of some kind, or something new for him*
473 *to try” – Sarah, High SEP*

474 **4. Discussion**

475 This longitudinal study, which explored infant feeding over the first 18 months of life,
476 identified critical factors that direct parents either towards provision of home-prepared or
477 commercial foods. Mechanisms such as parental leave and access to nursery support
478 parents by facilitating the provision of home-prepared foods (both at home and at nursery)
479 and through exposure to new foods in nursery. These mechanisms are more accessible to
480 higher-income families. Conversely, the high degree of trust that parents hold in the
481 nutritional value of branded infant and toddler products, alongside lacking time after
482 returning to work and lower confidence in what foods and how to offer infants make
483 commercial foods an appealing, convenient and logical option for many parents.

484 It is important to note that no infants or young children in this study were exposed to only
485 home-prepared or commercial foods. Rather infants and young children ate a combination
486 of both based on various contextual factors. The decision to offer a certain food type over
487 the other is multifaceted and driven by social, cultural, and economic factors that change
488 over time. For example, parents may prioritise commercially available foods due to their
489 convenience and accessibility, whilst incorporating home-prepared foods to ensure a
490 diverse and balanced diet. Conversely, parents can prioritise home-prepared foods while
491 incorporating commercially available foods as treats, a way to provide fruit and vegetables
492 more conveniently, or on occasions when time is limited. Understanding the multiple factors

493 that shape what infants eat is critical to develop effective interventions that will improve
494 infants' and children's diets.

495 **4.1 Gender roles**

496 As recognised in previous work (Swanson et al., 2017), mothers across the socioeconomic
497 spectrum undertook most of the food-related work and caring for children in their family.

498 The participants of higher SEP families reported that the fathers had greater flexibility and
499 security in their jobs than those living in more disadvantaged families which enabled them
500 to be more involved in food activities with their children. However, these fathers would
501 typically offer 'simple' meals, or meals that had previously been prepared by the mother.

502 Over time, fathers were increasingly viewed as lacking in confidence on what foods to offer,
503 how to prepare foods and how to deal with dietary demands. This gender imbalance is
504 underpinned by complex historical and social factors, including the perception of fathers as
505 breadwinners and mothers as caregivers. Sociologist Arlie Hochschild argues in "The
506 Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling" (Hochschild, 2003) that Western
507 society views domestic labour and caregiving work as less important than paid work outside
508 the home. This devaluation of domestic labour is in turn associated with societal
509 perceptions of femininity and masculinity. In the context of labour around food, this
510 devaluation reinforces the perception that women should take on the majority of food-
511 related tasks, such as food shopping, meal planning, and cooking, while men are expected
512 to prioritise paid employment and other activities outside the home. The concept of "second
513 shift" describes the additional work that women perform when they return home from their
514 paid jobs, including food preparation and cleaning, and taking care of emotional wellbeing
515 of the family (Hochschild, 2018). This gendered imbalance around food is further
516 exacerbated by structural barriers to taking shared parental leave, with only 2% of eligible

517 couples taking shared leave (Department for Business, 2013), a figure likely driven by
518 societal views on caring for young children. Many fathers experiencing low SEP are not
519 even eligible because of being self-employed, on zero-hours contracts or agency workers.
520 For parents qualifying for shared parental leave there are significant financial disincentives,
521 with a basic parental leave payment of £156.66 per week (after the initial six weeks)
522 compared to a national average salary of £470.00 per week (after tax) (*Maternity Pay and*
523 *Leave: Pay - GOV.UK*, n.d.).

524 Previous research has shown that shared parental leave results in fathers being more
525 involved in childcare and other household activities. This family context in turn is associated
526 with healthier child weight, improved cognitive development and educational attainment of
527 the child, increased rates of breastfeeding, stronger father-child relationships, reduced
528 likelihood of parental divorce and improved mental health of fathers (Boll et al., 2014;
529 Canaan et al., 2022; Huerta et al., 2014; Nepomnyaschy & Waldfogel, 2007; Olafsson &
530 Steingrimsdottir, 2020; Petts et al., 2020; Rahadian et al., 2020). Policy options to increase
531 the father's role in cooking and preparing meals include greater equity in provision of
532 parental leave, allowing both parents to take equal leave without facing financial
533 disincentives, as observed in Sweden (Regeringskansliet, 2016). To increase fathers'
534 involvement in their infant's care and mealtime activities, fathers from across the
535 socioeconomic spectrum could also be offered tailored meal preparation guidance and
536 training. Evidence to suggests that even relatively brief group intervention programmes can
537 enhance father-child interactions around mealtimes (Doherty et al., 2006). Policy makers
538 could learn from countries such as Sweden, which has one of the most generous and
539 flexible parental leave systems globally, with each parent being eligible for 240 days paid
540 leave up until the child turns 12 years old (no more than 96 days to be used after the child's
541 fourth birthday), at about 80% of their salary (Regeringskansliet, 2016).

542 4.2 Advice and information

543 Across the socioeconomic spectrum mothers reported inconsistent and contradictory
544 information on when to introduce solid foods, how to prepare foods and how to store food.
545 This finding was also observed in a previous systematic review (Harrison et al., 2017) and
546 exploration of feeding practices across five European countries (Germany, Italy, Scotland,
547 Spain and Sweden) (Synnott et al., 2007). The NHS Start 4 Life website
548 (www.nhs.uk/start4life/) and healthcare visitors, in particular, were both perceived as
549 providing inadequate information on infant feeding; while commercial products, websites
550 and weaning guides were valued sources of information for all parents (to note, the Start 4
551 Life website has undergone changes to branding, structure and content since the research
552 was conducted). It should be noted that criticism towards healthcare visitors in this study
553 may in part be due to impacts of the COVID-19 pandemic, when data collection overlapped
554 with in-person visits being replaced with self-assessment questionnaires. Trust in brands
555 was reported alongside increased purchasing of commercial products, including baby
556 pouches, snacks, ready meals, fruit purees and smoothies. Perceived inconsistent
557 messaging regarding what foods and when to offer foods to infants and young children left
558 mothers choosing the advice that made most sense to them, which was often that provided
559 by friends and family, or in some cases, on commercial products.

560 Provision of clear and reliable information, from a trusted source, which supports parents in
561 all aspects of infant and young child feeding is required. Policy makers could follow global
562 examples, such as MomConnect, a South African maternal health platform developed by
563 government, healthcare, university and private sector organisations (*MomConnect –*
564 *National Department of Health, n.d.*). It provides a range of services including automatic
565 registration with a health professional, weekly age-appropriate messaging over the first year
566 of infant development and a virtual help desk (Seebregts et al., 2016). Development of

567 similar platforms in other countries should follow WHO guidance on maternal and infant
568 health checks over the first year of life and involve parents to ensure the language, framing
569 and content is appropriate (World Health Organization, 2017).

570 **4.3 Branding, Packaging and Labelling**

571 Parents displayed a high level of trust in branded products on the supermarket infant foods
572 aisle. Many parents assume that if a product was marketed towards infants, it must be
573 sufficiently healthy, nutritious and age appropriate. Front of pack claims, such as 'pure',
574 'encourages self-feeding' or 'no nasties' were particularly trusted. Parents rarely reviewed
575 the back-of-pack label, relying almost entirely on what was presented on the front label.
576 This practice often resulted in confusion, with front-of-pack information seemingly endorsing
577 the introduction of solid foods at four months of age which contradicts current healthcare
578 advice to introduce at six months of age. Observations from this study indicate that products
579 on supermarket baby aisles may not meet Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO)
580 standards outlined in the Codex Alimentarius, a collection of internationally recognised
581 standards, codes of practice and guidelines aimed at protecting consumer health (Food and
582 Agriculture Organization of the United Nations & World Health Organization, 2023).
583 Specifically, products on UK baby aisles may fall short of the requirement that "nutrition and
584 health claims shall not be permitted for foods for infants and young children except where
585 specifically provided for in relevant Codex standards or national legislation". While the
586 FAO's Codex Alimentarius is a voluntary code, countries globally could work towards
587 incorporating these recommendations into national legislation. This action would ensure
588 that front of pack product claims accurately reflect the health benefits and age-
589 appropriateness of the products.

590 It is clear from the findings presented here that commercial products, including snacks and
591 treats, have an integral role both within and outside the home environment. Parents
592 reported selecting commercial infant snacks due to their perceived developmental benefits,
593 front-of-pack claims (e.g., choking risk-free'), portability and convenience. Given the
594 ubiquitous appeal of commercial baby foods, policy makers should consider action to
595 support reformulation of these products, therefore lowering sugar and fat content and
596 increasing vegetable content (Klerks et al., 2022), and revise exclusion of toddler foods
597 from current UK HFSS restrictions (Muir et al., 2023).

598 **4.4 Time**

599 While mothers with medium and high SEP are most likely to report flexible working hours
600 and options to work from home, findings from the UK and USA suggest flexible working
601 may result in less free time, due to work-family boundaries becoming blurred and increased
602 multi-tasking (Chung & van der Horst, 2020; Schieman et al., 2009). This situation may in
603 part explain why mothers of medium and high SEP who benefit from flexible working hours
604 reported mealtimes moving to later in the evenings and increased reliance on frozen and
605 infant ready meals as their child got older. While rates of home working more than doubled
606 during the COVID-19 pandemic, this trend was not equally distributed across society.

607 Around 50% of workers in managerial and professional jobs reporting working from home
608 all of the time in 2020 (coinciding with interview 1 in this study) compared to 10% of workers
609 in lower paid jobs such as social care, retail and hospitality (Office for National Statistics,
610 2022).

611 Over half of the families experiencing medium and high SEP reported reduced pressure in
612 having to provide a substantial evening meal for their infant due to provision of a meal at
613 nursery. In contrast, only 4% of families experiencing low SEP had infants in formal

614 childcare, possibly due to the complex and time-consuming application process for the UK's
615 tax-free childcare programme (IFF Research, 2019). An assessment of nursery food
616 provision was out of scope of this research, so whilst many parents perceived the food
617 given as healthy, this was not possible to objectively measure. The benefits of reduced
618 pressure to have to prepare and cook a main meal for the infants in the evening, however,
619 increased the variety of foods eaten and improved fine-motor skills were only accessible to
620 those who could afford childcare. Options to increase uptake of childcare among families
621 experiencing low SEP include simplifying the application process and increasing eligibility to
622 the UK governments' tax-free childcare programme, therefore ensuring all parents have
623 equitable access to formal childcare. Recent increases in the offer of free childcare hours
624 for working parents and the amount parents will be able to claim from Universal Credit to
625 cover childcare costs are welcome initiatives (*Free Childcare: How We Are Tackling the*
626 *Cost of Childcare - The Education Hub*, n.d.).

627 **4.5 Limitations**

628 There were several limitations to this study. Although we sought to recruit a
629 socioeconomically diverse sample and were largely successful in doing this, we recruited
630 very few participants who were experiencing significant financial difficulties. Second, the
631 recruitment survey allowed participants to self-identify their ethnicity, which meant we were
632 unable to determine whether those who identified as 'white' or 'British' were 'white British' or
633 included other ethnicities/ backgrounds. The participant sample in this study was, however,
634 relatively ethnically homogenous and so the voices of those from migrant and minority
635 backgrounds are limited. In addition, the sample was relatively homogenous in terms of
636 family makeup and does therefore not necessarily represent the diversity of families living in
637 the UK. Fathers were very difficult to recruit, so this discussion is limited to the mothers
638 reporting on fathers' behaviour.

639 The research coincided with the onset of the COVID-19 pandemic and introduction of
640 associated public health restrictions, including lockdowns, closure of eating establishments
641 and reduced access to in-person healthcare. This situation likely influenced parents' infant
642 and young child feeding experiences and the likelihood of working from home (particularly
643 among high SEP participants); however, the study took place after the first lockdown, once
644 food shopping practices were much less disrupted. Assessments of home-prepared versus
645 commercial food purchasing and consumption were based on participants' accounts and
646 not dietary intake records, thus it was not always possible to define specific ingredients of
647 meals. The data collected in this study covered time and effort spent on preparation and
648 cooking, as well as in-depth insights into family food and shopping practices. While the
649 participants were recruited from geographically diverse locations across England, there may
650 be limited generalisability in applying findings to other countries within the UK and
651 internationally.

652 **4.6 Conclusion**

653 Despite a desire to provide infants and young children with healthy home-prepared meals,
654 parents regularly offered commercial foods such as ready meals, snacks, pouches and
655 treats. The factors underpinning infant diets are multi-faceted, complex and influenced by
656 historical social norms, including a persisting gender imbalance in parenting. Nevertheless,
657 findings from this study suggest that there are mechanisms, predominantly available to
658 families of high SEP, which facilitate provision of home-prepared meals, including greater
659 access to shared parental leave and to formal childcare. These environmental enablers are
660 less accessible for families experiencing low SEP. All families, however, are directed
661 towards offering their young children commercial foods because they are palatable,
662 convenient and trustworthy against a backdrop of inconsistent information about what foods
663 and when are best to offer young children. There are immediate actions that can be taken

664 by governments globally to improve infant and young child diets, including changing the
665 eligibility criteria for accessing shared parental leave and incorporation of FAO guidance on
666 health claims on infant and children food products into national legislation.

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684 Ethical statement

685 The study protocol was approved by the Centre for Food Policy Proportionate Review
686 Ethics committee at City, University of London (ETH1920-1555). Informed consent was
687 obtained from all subjects involved in the study.

688 Declaration of interests

689 Christina Vogel has a non-financial research collaboration with a national UK supermarket
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692 **Data availability**

693 Qualitative data is available through the UK data service.

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Table 1. Categories and themes that guided the longitudinal analysis

Category	Themes	Description
Advice and information	Information and guidance on infant/ young child feeding from commercial sources	Information and guidance provided to parents, from commercial products and associated websites and branded information, and perception of that guidance
	Information and guidance on infant/ young child feeding from health professionals	Information and guidance provided to parents from health professionals, health visitors and NHS sources, and perception of that guidance
Family routines	Cost of commercial foods and competing products	The prices of products, as well as parents' perceptions of affordability relative to other products
	Family mealtime routines	The values that parents considered most important when deciding what and how to feed their infant/ young child during family mealtimes
	Work routines	The perception and / or availability of time depending on work patterns
Food environment	Access to childcare	When infants/ young children were not looked after by either one of their parents
	Food available out-of-home (cafes and restaurants)	Food consumed when not in the home environment, such as snacks or picnics made at home for consumption outside, or purchasing food or drink in a café or restaurant for the infant / young child to eat or drink
	Perception of branded products	A belief that infant brands were safe and appropriate
	Product packaging and labelling	The design and information on the front of a product's packaging that make it look appropriate and attractive

	Trust in supermarket baby aisles	A belief that products sold on the aisle where all infant / young child food is grouped must be highly regulated and therefore safe and healthy
Social support and norms	Influence of grandparents	The foods and food routines that grandparents had control over
	Influence of older siblings	The influence that older siblings have on shaping what the infant/ young child ate and drank
	Role of male and female partners	The role male and female partners had in buying, preparing, cooking and giving food to the infant/ young child

Ethical statement

The study protocol was approved by the Centre for Food Policy Proportionate Review Ethics committee at City, University of London (ETH1920-1555). Informed consent was obtained from all subjects involved in the study.

Journal Pre-proof

Declaration of interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

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