

# UC Davis

## UC Davis Previously Published Works

### Title

Cross-Cultural Adaptation and Initial Validation of Mi Niño: A Tool to Measure Food-Related Parenting Practices of Spanish-Speaking Parents with Young Children

### Permalink

<https://escholarship.org/uc/item/0ds1f8kr>

### Journal

Current Developments in Nutrition, 7(2)

### ISSN

2475-2991

### Authors

Díaz Rios, L Karina  
Ontai, Lenna L  
Shilts, Mical K  
et al.

### Publication Date

2023-02-01

### DOI

10.1016/j.cdnut.2022.100002

Peer reviewed

## Original Research

## Cross-Cultural Adaptation and Initial Validation of Mi Niño: A Tool to Measure Food-Related Parenting Practices of Spanish-Speaking Parents with Young Children

L. Karina Díaz Rios<sup>1,\*</sup>, Lenna L. Ontai<sup>2</sup>, Mical K. Shilts<sup>3</sup>, Louise Lanoue<sup>4</sup>, Marilyn S. Townsend<sup>4</sup><sup>1</sup> Division of Agriculture and Natural Resources, University of California–Merced, Merced, CA, USA; <sup>2</sup> Department of Human Ecology, University of California–Davis, Davis, CA, USA; <sup>3</sup> Department of Family and Consumer Sciences, California State University–Sacramento, Sacramento, CA, USA;<sup>4</sup> Department of Nutrition, University of California–Davis, Davis, CA, USA

## A B S T R A C T

**Background:** Accurate measurement of food-related parenting practices is necessary to inform related interventions and program evaluation. Valid tools reflect cultural attributes that affect household food environments and feeding practices. Simple, unidirectional language adaptation approaches are insufficient to capture these attributes in assessment tools. My Child at Mealtime (MCMT) is a 27-item, validated, visually enhanced self-assessment tool to measure food-related parenting practices of low-income English-speaking parents of preschoolers.

**Objectives:** The aim of this study was to describe the cross-cultural adaptation of MCMT into its Spanish version *Mi Niño a la Hora de Comer* (Mi Niño) and to establish its face validity, factor structure, and internal consistency.

**Methods:** MCMT was adapted into its Spanish version after an iterative process that triangulated cognitive interviews with verification of conceptual equivalence by content experts to establish face validity and semantic equivalence. The resulting tool underwent confirmatory factor analysis to determine whether internal consistency was equivalent across the 2 versions.

**Results:** Four rounds of cognitive interviews ( $n = 5$ ,  $n = 6$ ,  $n = 2$ , and  $n = 4$ , respectively) with Spanish-speaking women caregivers of children aged 3–5 y recruited from Head Start were conducted. Ten items were modified throughout the adaptation process. Modifications included improved clarity (6 items), comprehension (7 items), appropriateness (4 items), suitability (4 items), and usefulness (2 items) of text and/or accompanying visuals. Confirmatory factor analysis with a sample of Spanish-speaking caregivers ( $n = 243$ ) resulted in 2 reliable factors representing “child-centered” ( $\alpha = 0.82$ ) and “parent-centered” ( $\alpha = 0.87$ ) food-related parenting practices.

**Conclusions:** Face validity, semantic equivalence, and internal consistency of Mi Niño were established. This tool can be used in community settings to inform program content and measure changes in food-related parenting practices of Spanish-speaking parents and assist in setting food-related parenting goals. The next steps include exploring the correspondence of Mi Niño with mealtime behaviors observed through video recording.

**Keywords:** parenting, home food environment, measurement, Spanish, validity, reliability, cross-cultural, language adaptation

### Introduction

Parents and caregivers influence children’s food choices and nutritional status through food-related parenting practices that shape the food environment and eating practices at home [1, 2]. However, structural disparities may prevent parents from affording healthy food environments [3]. For instance, Latino children are more likely than their non-Hispanic white counterparts to be

overweight and be raised in household environments marked by food insecurity [4, 5]. These nutrition inequities are more acute among Latino children from households in socioeconomic disadvantage [6, 7]. Accurate measurement of eating and food-related parenting practices of low-income Latino families in the United States is critical to sensibly addressing these inequities.

Assessments of household dietary behaviors of US Spanish-speaking Latino families must be sensitive to the cultural

**Abbreviations:** CFI, comparative fit index; CFSQ, Caregiver’s Feeding Styles Questionnaire; MCMT, My Child at Meal Time; MSA, Measure of Sampling Adequacy (Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin statistic); pBis, point-biserial; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation; SRMR, standardized root mean squared error; TLI, Tucker–Lewis index.

\* Corresponding author. E-mail address: [kdiazrios@ucmerced.edu](mailto:kdiazrios@ucmerced.edu) (L.K. Díaz Rios).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cdnut.2022.100002>

Received 8 February 2022; Received in revised form 3 September 2022; Accepted 6 October 2022; Available online 22 December 2022

2475-2991/© 2023 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. on behalf of American Society for Nutrition. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

framework of the respondents. This is especially relevant for family-based processes, such as parenting, because family practices are deeply bound by cultural beliefs and values [8, 9]. Food-related parenting practices have been found to be important determinants of dietary behaviors in early childhood [10–13]. These practices include parent-centered and child-centered behaviors. Parent-centered behaviors are organized around the needs of the parent and are characterized by the use of coercive control behaviors (e.g., restriction, pressure, and threats). Conversely, child-centered behaviors are organized around the needs of the child and are characterized by the use of autonomy-promoting behaviors (e.g., reasoning and encouragement). In addition, the expression of food-related parenting behaviors may be culturally constructed. Time constraints, affordability, availability of nutritious food, and food waste aversion are additional factors that have been identified as affecting the food choices and nutritional status of low-income Latino households [3, 7, 14, 15]. Moreover, Latino children of immigrant families that retain traditional eating patterns tend to have diets of higher quality than children from families with more acculturated eating patterns [16, 17]. This difference is paradoxically attenuated by parent education (17–19). Thus, interventions to promote diet quality in Latino children, including preserving favorable traditional behaviors, must consider the socioeconomic and cultural attributes that inform food-related parenting practices [15, 20]. One avenue to accomplish this is using valid and culturally responsive assessment tools to guide interventions.

Spanish-speaking families compose a significant percentage of the Latino population in the United States [21]. After English, Spanish is the language most commonly spoken in US households (13.4%) [22]. About 45% of those who speak Spanish at home are foreign-born, and 40% have limited ability to speak English [23]. Spanish-speaking subgroups express distinctive food-related choices, traditions, and vocabulary reflective of their country or region of origin [24]. These cultural expressions can affect the interpretation of food and dietary terminology, which can have consequences on the measurement of eating behaviors and practices.

Simple, top-down approaches—such as forward translations—are common practice when adapting assessment tools into another language. However, standards for cross-cultural adaptation emphasize corroborating content equivalence, centering the target respondent as a source of expert input [25]. The systematic engagement of the target respondent to ensure semantic accuracy of collected data is known as face validity [25, 26]. Demonstrating face validity is particularly key for self-administered tools, for which averting misinterpretation (i.e., item functioning bias) through clarification is impractical [25]. The process of establishing face validity involves exploring the extent to which a tool retains its meaning when adapted for use with a particular cultural or linguistic group. The process is made robust when target respondent input is systematically coupled with the appraisal of conceptual equivalence by content experts. Other dimensions of equivalence are further explored through quantitative methods such as a factor analysis (i.e., construct equivalence) [25, 27].

My Child at Meal Time (MCMT) is a 27-item tool to measure food-related practices of parents of 3- to 5-year-old children [28]. The tool was created based on the Caregiver's Feeding Styles Questionnaire (CFSQ) [29] and incorporated additional items to

measure mealtime structure and routines. MCMT was designed to be self-administered and to reduce cognitive burden. This was achieved by simplifying text and accompanying each item with a photograph depicting the evaluated behavior. Pairing text with evocative images has been shown to improve comprehension and lower cognitive demand [30]. MCMT was tested for face and construct validity with a sample of low-income, ethnically diverse, English-speaking parents [28, 31]. Moreover, MCMT was developed to be used along with Healthy Kids, a tool to assess child obesity risk in the home environment (32–34). The purpose of this study was to adapt MCMT into *Mi Niño a la Hora de Comer* (Mi Niño), testing its face validity, semantic equivalence, factor structure, and internal consistency to determine its accuracy and consistency in measuring food-related parenting practices of low-income, Spanish-speaking parents with young children.

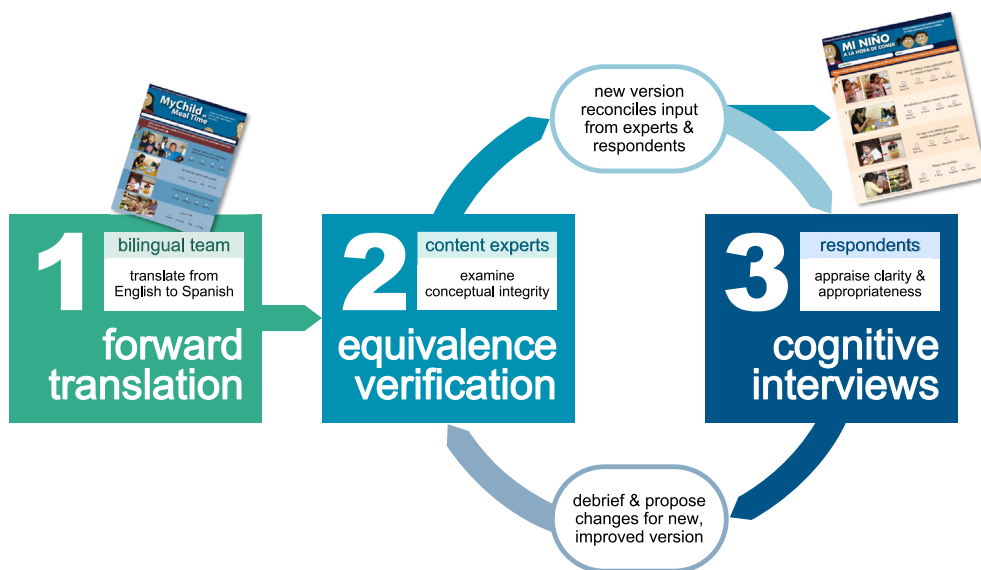
## Methods

This study was part of a larger project called *Niños Sanos*, which assessed pediatric obesity risk in the context of the home environment and dietary behaviors of low-income, Spanish-speaking families with preschool-aged children [34]. Potential participants were invited to the study during information meetings at Head Start and the Special Supplemental Nutrition Program for Women, Infants and Children (WIC) in a metropolitan area in Northern California. Parents were included if they were enrolled in Head Start or were current WIC recipients, spoke Spanish as their primary language, and had a child between the ages of 3 and 5 y. Informed consent was obtained from all participants following a standard protocol that included using plain, simple language to describe the study's purpose, activities, and length, risks and benefits, and how to report concerns or ask questions about the study. Participants received \$10 for participating in a cognitive interview and \$25 for completing *Mi Niño*, a home food environment tool, and a demographic survey. The study protocol (ID #693978-14) was approved by the Institutional Review Board, University of California, Davis, CA.

### Face validity and semantic equivalence

An iterative adaptation process comprising forward translation, expert equivalence verification, and cognitive interviews with target respondents was followed to establish face validity and semantic and conceptual equivalence of *Mi Niño* (Figure 1). Following readability principles and guidelines [35], each of the 27 items and response scales of MCMT were forward translated by 2 bilingual and bicultural researchers in collaboration with a native Spanish-speaking registered dietitian (Figure 1, component 1). To ensure the content remained stable on translation, the registered dietitian and a child development psychologist examined translated items for conceptual equivalence (Figure 1, component 2) and revised accompanying visuals for appropriateness. Then, the translated and expert-verified tool was used in cognitive interviews with target respondents (Figure 1, component 3).

Trained bilingual researchers conducted in-person cognitive interviews in Spanish applying standard techniques—think aloud, paraphrasing, and verbal probing [36,37]. As summarized in Table 1, cognitive interview questions evaluated items on 4



**FIGURE 1.** Three-Component Iterative Cross-cultural Adaptation Model used to establish the face validity of Mi Niño, the Spanish version of My Child at Meal Time. The 3 components include the following: (1) forward translation of the original tool, (2) equivalence verification by content experts, and (3) cognitive interviews with target respondents. Item modifications to text and accompanying visuals were made iteratively based on feedback from experts and target respondents.

core domains: 1) *clarity* of words and syntax; 2) *comprehension* as the ability to react to an item as intended; 3) *appropriateness* of words (i.e., conceptual semantics); and 4) semantic *equivalence* to MCMT from the perspective of bilingual respondents [38].

Two more domains explored the accompanying visuals: 5) *suitability* for reflecting respondent’s context and practices (i.e., appropriateness) and 6) their *usefulness* for understanding the concept being measured (i.e., comprehension). Immediately

**TABLE 1**  
Cognitive interview protocol with questions and respective domains

Questions	Domain
1. ¿Me podría leer la pregunta en voz alta? Could you please read the question aloud?	Clarity
2. ¿Cómo contestaría esta pregunta? ¿Por qué? How would you respond to this question? Why?	Comprehension
3. Para usted, ¿a qué se refiere esta pregunta? What is this question about?	Comprehension
4. ¿Me podría describir cómo sucede una situación como esta en su casa? Could you describe how this scenario look like in your household?	Appropriateness
5. ¿Cree que la pregunta es clara? In your opinion, is this question clear?	Clarity
6. ¿Cambiaría usted alguna de las palabras? Are there any words that you would change?	Appropriateness
7. ¿Como haría esta pregunta en sus propias palabras? How would you say this question using your own words?	Clarity
8. ¿Cuál versión de la pregunta le parece mejor? <sup>a</sup> What version of the question is better? <sup>1</sup>	Appropriateness
9. ¿Sabe si otros padres que hablan español hacen esto (lo que se pregunta)? Do other Spanish-speaking parents you know do this?	Appropriateness
10. ¿Cómo mejoraría la pregunta para que otros padres la entendieran mejor? How can this question be more understandable to other parents?	Clarity
11. ¿Se pregunta lo mismo en la versión en español que en la versión en inglés? Does the Spanish version ask the same as the English version?	Equivalence <sup>2</sup>
12. ¿Qué palabras cambiaría para preguntar lo mismo que en la versión en inglés? What words would you change to ask the same as in the English version?	Equivalence <sup>2</sup>
13. ¿Me podría describir lo que sucede en la foto? Can you please describe the situation in the photo?	Suitability <sup>3</sup>
14. ¿Cree que la imagen representa la pregunta? In your opinion, does the photo represent the question asked?	Usefulness <sup>3</sup>
15. ¿Le parece que la foto ayuda a entender la pregunta? Do you think the photo helps understand the question?	Usefulness <sup>3</sup>
16. ¿Qué otras imágenes o fotos irían mejor con la pregunta? What other images or photos would better represent the question?	Suitability <sup>3</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Question asked when 2 or more versions of an item need to be presented to the participant.

<sup>2</sup> Questions on the Equivalence domain are asked showing both, the Spanish and English versions of the tool to bilingual respondents.

<sup>3</sup> Suitability and Usefulness domains are explored for accompanying visuals.

after each round of cognitive interviews, researchers debriefed about the items found problematic according to participants' feedback and proposed modifications to improve them. Content experts reviewed the proposed modifications (Figure 1, component 2) and determined which to implement in a new version of the tool following guidelines offered by Knafl et al. [39]. This included summarizing respondent interpretation of items and identifying problematic items within each domain of interest. Each modified version was tested in a subsequent round of cognitive interviews with a new set of participants (Figure 1, component 3). When 2 or more versions of an item were deemed appropriate, all versions were presented to participants to gauge their preference (Table 1, question 7). Components 2 and 3 were iterated until no further changes were needed, at which point a final version was attained. Respondent feedback, debriefing notes, expert comments, and item modifications were documented for each iteration in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet.

### Factor analysis

The resulting Mi Niño tool was administered to 243 Spanish-speaking parents recruited into the *Niños Sanos* study ( $n = 243$ ). Most of them were married (63.0%) mothers (95.5%) who identified as Hispanic (98.8%) of Mexican or Central American origin (86.4%) and have lived in the United States for >10 y (79.8%). Almost half of the respondents (48.6%) had completed high school (27.6%) or obtained at least some college education (21.0%), whereas 41.6% had less than high school education. Administration of the Mi Niño tool followed the same protocol reported for MCMT [31]. Parents were told to focus on a child at home between the ages of 3 and 5 y when completing the Mi Niño items. If there was more than 1 child in the 3–5 y age range in the home, parents were asked to select one of those children as the focal child for their answers. Parents were told they could ask questions about any of the items as needed. The reliability of Mi Niño was evaluated in 2 ways. First, the distribution of responses for all items was assessed to determine whether responses were well distributed across response options. Second, to test whether the tool aligns with the 2-factor “child-centered” and “parent-centered” structure found for MCMT, a confirmatory factor analysis was conducted using a structural equation modeling framework with Rstudio Version 1.0.153 software (Rstudio Team, 2015) using the “CFA” function with maximum likelihood estimation in the lavaan package. Then, the Cronbach coefficient  $\alpha$ 's were examined to determine whether the resulting factors had reasonable reliability to be retained as scale scores.

## Results

### Face validity and semantic equivalence

Four iterations of the adaptation process were conducted with 17 participants ( $n = 5$ ,  $n = 6$ ,  $n = 2$ , and  $n = 4$ , respectively). Most participants ( $n = 15$ ) were native Spanish-speaking women born in Mexico or Central America; 2 were born in the United States and were bilingual in English and Spanish, and all participated in at least 1 USDA assistance program. As presented in Table 2, 10 items of the 27 in the tool underwent modifications as a result of the adaptation process. Three of the 10 items (items 4, 9, and 10) were deemed acceptable by target respondents and experts after 2 iterations of the process, 6 items

(items 3, 12, 14, 15, 17, and 24) after 3 iterations, and 1 item after 4 iterations (item 7). Figure 2 shows an example of the adaptation process applied to one of the items in the tool.

Most items were modified to improve clarity and/or comprehension (Table 2). Clarity improvements involved removing distracting or unnecessary words, such as the abbreviation “ej.” (Spanish for “e.g.”) and the first-person pronoun “yo.” Text changes to improve comprehension included sentence revision and underlining key information for emphasis. Respondents' response to item 14 “I struggle with my child to get her to eat (pick her up and put her in the chair),” indicated a need to add the word “*físicamente*” to the sentence to increase comprehension of the concept being evaluated. Other gains in comprehension were achieved by improving the usefulness of accompanying visuals. Item 7, “I prepare at least one food that I know my child will eat,” required 4 rounds of cognitive interviews to be deemed understandable. After futile probing of a simplified version of the text, comprehension was ultimately achieved by replacing the image of a parent preparing a child's plate from different cooked dishes with an image of a parent and a child sitting at a table with various dishes displayed.

Four items were modified for appropriateness by incorporating respondent-preferred terminology and more useful or suitable visuals. The noun “treat,” as applied to food, has no direct morphologic equivalent in Spanish. The word with the closest meaning is “*golosina*.” However, the meaning of the word “*golosina*” is less encompassing (i.e., commonly refers to “candy”) than that of the word “treat.” Thus, experts determined it was more fitting to use the word “*golosina*” as an example—not as part of the sentence as in MCMT—in item 3 “I tell my child she will get a treat for eating” and item 15 “I warn my child he will not get a treat if he does not eat.” To elicit further comprehension, these changes to the text were coupled with changes to accompanying visuals that entailed using a modified version of an image of a cupcake used in another item in place of a photograph of a child eating a pastry. Some types of pastries (i.e., *pan dulce*) are commonly eaten as part of a meal and, thus, not consistently considered treats. Respondents agreed that the word “*golosina*” worked better as an example and that the cupcake visual helped to understand the items. In addition, item 12, “My child eats a snack at about the same time every day,” was revised for semantic appropriateness. The word “snack” has no direct morphologic equivalent in Spanish. Terms used for the concept of “snack” vary widely between and within Spanish-speaking subgroups and can depend on the type of food (e.g., *colación*, *bocadillo*, *aperitivo*, *picada*, and *botana*) and eating occasion (e.g., *merienda*, *refrigerio*, *tentempié*, *entre comida*, and *bocas*). Because there was no agreement among respondents on the most appropriate term to use, experts recommended probing whether respondents knew the meaning of the word “snack.” The word in English was retained because respondents demonstrated a reasonable understanding of its meaning. Respondents recommended adding a picture of a child eating a salty snack to expand the visual representation of snack variety. Finally, the appropriateness of item 24, “I tell my child that I will reward her for eating with TV, playtime, or videogames,” was improved by replacing the image of a television with that portraying a child using a tablet.

Improving the suitability of accompanying visuals was the only modification made on 2 items. Many parents indicated it was uncommon for them to portion and freeze food for later use.

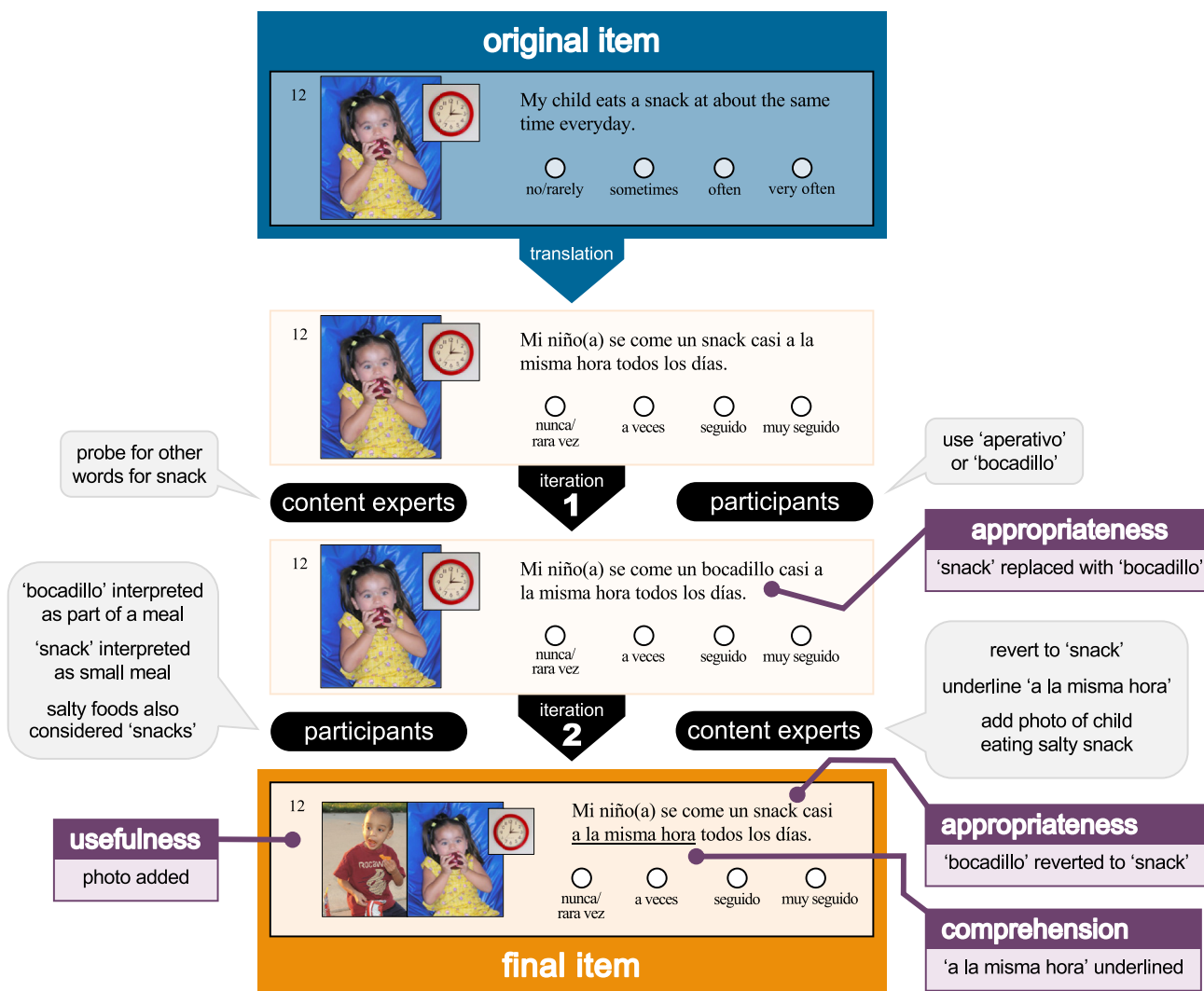


TABLE 2

Results of the application of the 3-Component Iterative Cross-Cultural Adaptation Model to face validate Mi Niño by item, modification, and corresponding domain

Item	Modification	Domain					
		Cl	Co	Ap	Eq	Su	Us
3	<i>Le digo a mi niño(a) que si come tendrá un premio</i> I tell my child she will get a treat for eating		•	•			
	<i>Le digo a mi niño(a) que si come tendrá un premio (ex. golosinas)</i> I tell my child she will get a prize for eating (e.g., treat)	•					
4	<i>Planeo las comidas</i> I plan meals					•	
7	<i>Preparo por lo menos un alimento que se que mi niño(a) se va a comer</i> I prepare at least one food that I know my child will eat	•					
	<i>Preparo por lo menos un alimento que se va a comer mi niño</i> I prepare at least one food that my child will eat		•				
	<i>Preparo por lo menos un alimento que se que mi niño(a) se va a comer</i> I prepare at least one food that I know my child will eat						•
9	<i>Yo ayudo a mi niño(a) a comer (cortando la comida, enfriando la comida)</i> I help my child with eating (cut food, cool the food)	•					
10	<i>Logro que mi niño(a) coma haciendo divertidos los alimentos</i> I get my child to eat by making food fun					•	
12	<i>Mi niño(a) se come un snack casi a la misma hora todos los días</i> My child eats a snack at about the same time everyday			•			
	<i>Mi niño(a) se come un bocadillo casi a la misma hora todos los días</i> My child eats a snack at about <u>the same time</u> everyday			•			•
14	<i>Batallo con mi niño(a) para que coma (alzarlo(a) y ponerlo(a) en su silla)</i> I struggle with my child to get her to eat (pick her up and put her in the chair)		•				
	<i>Batallo físicamente con mi niño(a) para que coma (ej. alzarlo(a) y ponerlo(a) en su silla)</i> I physically struggle with my child to get her to eat (e.g., pick her up and put her in the chair)	•					
15	<i>Le advierto a mi niño(a) que si no come no tendrá un premio</i> I warn my child he will not get a treat if he does not eat		•	•			
	<i>Regularmente le advierto a mi niño(a) que si no come no tendrá un premio (ej. golosinas)</i> I often warn my child he will not get a treat if he does not eat (e.g., junk food)	•					
17	<i>Le pido a mi niño(a) que escoja de entre platillos ya preparados</i> I ask my child to pick from foods already cooked		•				
	<i>Le pido a mi niño(a) que escoja de entre platillos que yo preparo</i> I ask my child to pick from foods I prepared					•	
24	<i>Le digo a mi niño(a) que lo(a) voy a premiar por comer con televisión, tiempo para jugar o videojuegos</i> I tell my child that I will reward her for eating with TV, playtime, or videogames		•		•		
	<i>Regularmente le digo a mi niño(a) que si come lo(a) voy a premiar (ej. mas tiempo para jugar)</i> I often tell my child that I will reward her for eating (e.g. more play time)	•					•

Cl, clarity; Co, comprehension; Ap, appropriateness; Eq, equivalence; Su, suitability; Us, usefulness.



**FIGURE 2.** Example of the 3-Component Iterative Cross-Cultural Adaptation Model applied to adapt 1 of the items in My Child a Meal Time to its Spanish version in Mi Niño.

Thus, the image of a parent portioning meat in item 4, “I plan meals,” was replaced with a photograph of a parent looking at a coupon page—a more familiar planning practice to respondents. On initial expert examination, modifications to the visual examples in item 10, “I get my child to eat by making food fun,” were made, including making less prominent the photograph of a plate of vegetables arranged like a smiley face, removing the images of parents interacting with children during food shopping and preparation, and adding a photograph of a child drinking from a straw. Most respondents reacted favorably to the set of visual examples recommended by experts and corroborated visuals represented what they would do at home. Although a few participants indicated rarely offering vegetables arranged like a smiley face to their children, experts recommended retaining the picture because it was considered suitable by most participants and to maintain consistency with MCMT and CFSQ. Bilingual respondents identified no items needing changes to improve equivalence with MCMT.

**Response distribution**

Mean levels of individual item responses from the 243 participants who completed the resulting tool ranged from 1.30 to 3.73, with a minimum possible score of 1 for all items except for item 8 [*Felicito a mi niño(a) por comer*—“I praise my child for eating”] and a maximum score of 4 (Table 3). All items were well distributed and thus kept for further analyses. Item response frequency can be found as Supplemental Figure 1.

**Confirmatory factor analysis**

All individual Mi Niño items were significantly correlated with at least 1 other item ( $r > 0.30$ ), suggesting reasonable factorability. The Bartlett test of sphericity ( $\chi^2_{(351)}: 2196.90, P < 0.001$ ) and Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin measures of sampling adequacy (overall MSA: 0.84, individual item MSA  $> 0.60$ ) indicated adequacy of the data for the factor analysis, except item 23 [*Dejo que mi niño(a) se sirva él(ella) mismo(a)*—“I let my child serve himself”], which had an individual MSA  $< 0.60$ . The

**TABLE 3**  
Descriptive for individual Mi Niño item responses across the sample ( $n = 243$ )

Item		Min	Max	Mean (SD)
1	Hago que mi niño(a) coma explicándole que la comida le hace bien I get my child to eat by explaining that the food is good for him	1	4	3.12 (0.909)
2	Mi niño(a) se sienta a comer con un adulto My child sits and eats with an adult	1	4	3.73 (0.591)
3	Le digo a mi niño(a) que si come tendrá un premio (golosinas) I tell my child she will get a treat for eating	1	4	1.65 (0.850)
4	Planeo las comidas I plan meals	1	4	3.22 (0.913)
5	Le pido a mi niño(a) que pruebe un poco de un alimento nuevo I ask my child to try a little bit of a new food	1	4	3.00 (0.843)
6	Le recuerdo a mi niño(a) que siga comiendo su comida I remind my child to keep eating her food	1	4	2.74 (0.972)
7	Preparo por lo menos un alimento que se que mi niño(a) se va a comer I prepare at least one food that I know my child will eat	1	4	3.36 (0.706)
8	Felicito a mi niño(a) por comer I praise my child for eating	2	4	3.43 (0.728)
9	Ayudo a mi niño(a) a comer (cortando la comida, enfriando la comida) I help my child with eating (cut food, cool the food)	1	4	3.01 (0.942)
10	Logro que mi niño(a) coma haciendo divertidos los alimentos I get my child to eat by making food fun	1	4	2.24 (0.923)
11	Le digo a mi niño(a) que si no come estará en problemas (no juguetes, castigos) I tell my child he will get in trouble for not eating (no toys, time out)	1	4	1.65 (0.800)
12	Mi niño(a) se come un snack casi a la misma hora todos los días My child eats a snack at about <u>the same time</u> everyday	1	4	2.44 (0.836)
13	Mi niño(a) come su cena casi a la misma hora todos los días My child eats dinner at about the same time everyday	1	4	3.08 (0.783)
14	Batallo físicamente con mi niño(a) para que coma (alzarlo(a) y ponerlo(a) en su silla) I struggle with my child to get her to eat (pick her up and put her in the chair)	1	4	1.30 (0.616)
15	Le advierto a mi niño(a) que si no come no tendrá un premio (golosina) I warn my child he will not get a treat if he does not eat	1	4	1.48 (0.678)
16	Digo cosas buenas acerca de la comida que mi niño(a) esté comiendo I say good things about the food my child is eating	1	4	3.11 (0.836)
17	Le pido a mi niño(a) que escoja de entre platillos que yo preparo I ask my child to pick from foods already cooked	1	4	2.27 (0.909)
18	Le doy de comer en la boca a mi niño(a) para hacer que coma I hand-feed my child to get her to eat	1	4	1.42 (0.674)
19	Le digo a mi niño(a), "Apúrate y come tu comida" I say to my child, "Hurry up and eat your food"	1	4	1.81 (0.756)
20	Le digo a mi niño(a) que necesita comerse algo de su plato ("Cómete tu pollo") I tell my child that she needs to eat an item on her plate ("Eat your chicken")	1	4	2.25 (0.841)
21	Le digo a mi niño(a) que no me gusta que no esté comiendo I tell my child I do not like it that he is not eating	1	4	1.87 (0.870)
22	Le hago preguntas a mi niño(a) acerca de los alimentos que esté comiendo I ask my child questions about the food she is eating	1	4	2.36 (0.822)
23	Dejo que mi niño(a) se sirva él(ella) mismo(a) I let my child serve himself	1	4	1.68 (0.692)
24	Le digo a mi niño(a) que si come lo(a) voy a premiar (mas tiempo para jugar) I tell my child that I will reward her for eating with TV, playtime, or videogames	1	4	1.85 (0.838)
25	La televisión esta prendida cuando mi niño(a) come A TV is on when my child eats	1	4	1.58 (0.698)
26	Mi niño(a) se salta comidas My child skips meals	1	4	1.43 (0.574)
27	Le ruego a mi niño(a) que se coma su comida I beg my child to eat his food	1	4	1.73 (0.896)

hypothesized 2-factor model and an alternative 1-factor model were tested through confirmatory factor analysis of the remaining 26 items. The maximum likelihood estimator and varimax rotation were both used for the final model (Table 4). The results showed stronger fit statistics for the 2-factor structure model [RMSEA (90% CI): 0.077 (0.070, 0.084); standardized root mean squared error (SRMR): 0.086; comparative fit index (CFI): 0.771; Tucker–Lewis index (TLI): 0.750] in comparison with those for the 1-factor model [RMSEA (90% CI): 0.145 (0.098, 0.111); SRMR: 0.115; CFI: 0.579; TLI: 0.542]. Overall, the factor

structure is consistent with the English version (MCMT) of this survey [28,31].

### Internal consistency reliability

Consistent with the factor structure of MCMT [31], the first factor (13 items, Cronbach  $\alpha = 0.816$ , item discrimination: 0.391; pBis: 0.678) considers child-centered strategies such as saying good things about the food being served and eating with the child. The second factor (13 items, Cronbach  $\alpha = 0.867$ , item discrimination: 0.320; pBis: 0.675) captures parent-centered



**TABLE 4**  
Confirmatory factor analysis in structural equation modeling framework for Mi Niño ( $n = 243$ )

Factor 1 ( $\alpha = 0.82$ ): child-centered strategies				Factor 2 ( $\alpha = 0.87$ ): parent-centered strategies			
Item	Standardized factor loading (SE)	Variance estimate	pBis	Item	Standardized factor loading (SE)	Variance estimate	pBis
1	0.59 (0.06)	0.54	0.48	3	0.55 (0.05)	0.46	0.51
2	0.28 (0.04)	0.16	0.30	6	0.65 (0.06)	0.63	0.58
4	0.36 (0.06)	0.33	0.36	11	0.66 (0.05)	0.53	0.60
5	0.52 (0.06)	0.44	0.46	14	0.40 (0.04)	0.25	0.39
7	0.55 (0.05)	0.39	0.53	15	0.62 (0.04)	0.42	0.61
8	0.55 (0.05)	0.40	0.48	18	0.58 (0.04)	0.39	0.55
9	0.53 (0.06)	0.50	0.46	19	0.58 (0.05)	0.44	0.54
10	0.60 (0.06)	0.56	0.53	20	0.69 (0.05)	0.58	0.63
12	0.39 (0.06)	0.32	0.39	21	0.74 (0.05)	0.64	0.67
13	0.31 (0.05)	0.25	0.36	24	0.62 (0.05)	0.51	0.56
16	0.71 (0.05)	0.59	0.62	25	0.32 (0.05)	0.22	0.33
17	0.46 (0.06)	0.42	0.41	26	0.32 (0.04)	0.19	0.32
22	0.63 (0.05)	0.52	0.53	27	0.68 (0.05)	0.60	0.64

All factor loadings were significant at  $P < 0.001$ . RMSEA (90% CI) = 0.077 (0.070, 0.084); SRMR = 0.086; CFI = 0.771; TLI = 0.750. CFI, comparative fit index; pBis, point-biserial; RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation; SRMR, standardized root mean squared error; TLI, Tucker–Lewis index.

strategies such as using punishments or bribes to get the child to eat. All factor loadings were significant at  $P < 0.01$  (Table 4).

## Discussion

My Child at Meal Time (MCMT), a tool to measure food-related parenting practices [28], was adapted into *Mi Niño a la Hora de Comer* (Mi Niño) to be used with low-income, Spanish-speaking parents with young children. The adaptation process led to establishing face validity and semantic equivalence with MCMT. In addition, construct equivalence was explored, confirming that the items have a comparable factor structure with those of the English version, capturing child-centered and parent-centered food-related parenting strategies.

Robust tool testing is necessary to avert threats to internal validity in empirical studies and to obtain trustworthy data in practice [25,26]. Demonstrating that concepts are meaningful to the target respondent and correctly interpreted is particularly paramount for tools adapted for specific cultural and linguistic needs. Simple, top-down approaches to tool adaptation—such as forward and back translations—are economical but prone to eliciting bias when concepts of interest are systematically misinterpreted by the respondent [25, 40–42]. Hence, approaches that involve the target respondent to ascertain semantic equivalence are commonly recommended [25, 37, 43]. If the tool is to be used to make between-group comparisons, a process to ensure conceptual equivalence with the original version is also necessary [25, 44]. In this study, conceptual equivalence established by cognitive interviews was reinforced by replicating the internal factor structure of the English tool. Reports on the validation of tools to measure feeding practices are often limited to testing measurement and functional equivalence [45–48]. When methods to test face validity and semantic equivalence are described, the information provided is often insufficient to ascertain trustworthiness and to allow for replicability. For instance, with a few notable exceptions [39], domains tested in cognitive interviews are rarely defined and operationalized in face validation reports of tools to measure parent feeding practices. In addition, reported cross-cultural adaptation methods often consist of sequential approaches where tool modification

occurs unidirectionally [49, 50]. The iterative process applied to adapt MCMT into Mi Niño allowed for the tool's semantic accuracy to be improved with each instance of respondent-driven changes coupled with expert verification. To our knowledge, this is the first study that reports on the application of a cross-cultural adaptation approach that entails an iterative, operationalized-domain triangulation of cognitive interviews with expert equivalence verification to establish the face validity of a tool to measure food-related parenting practices.

Most of the needed changes identified in this study were in the domains of clarity and comprehension. Most of the improvements on these domains were achieved by revising the visual representation of the concept being evaluated—rather than the text—and it was the only modification made to 2 items. These findings add to the evidence on the value of visually enhanced tools to improve data accuracy by eliciting item clarity and comprehension [28, 30]. Moreover, visually enhanced tools appear particularly valuable when evaluating food-related behaviors among cultural and linguistic minorities. For instance, most of the improvements needed in the appropriateness domain were achieved by replacing the visual depiction of an unfamiliar practice with one reflecting a common practice to respondents. A noteworthy example is a revision of accompanying visuals to reflect culturally relevant practices in the item “I plan meals,” where checking out coupons was deemed a more suitable visual example than portioning meat. Evidence on the use of food-on-sale advertisements or coupons as a favored planning strategy over the creation of a shopping list by Spanish-speaking parents is lacking in the literature; however, it is consistent with what others have found among low-income families [51, 52]. The visual example of vegetables arranged on a plate as a smiley face, deemed suitable by most but not all respondents, was only minimally modified in favor of retaining equivalence with the MCMT and CFSQ. The same example presented in the text form was deemed irrelevant by respondents in a study on the adaptation of the CFSQ for Brazilian parents [53]. Future studies must further explore the appropriateness of this particular example to represent positive eating encouragement in non-English-speaking populations.

Improving semantic appropriateness involved making changes to items containing the words “treat” and “snack.” Neither noun has a unique morphologic equivalent in Spanish. The wide range of foods and eating occasions involved in determining snack consumption poses limitations to its assessment [54]. The plethora of Spanish words for “snack” [55] compounds these limitations, making it a particularly challenging term to translate. This is especially true for tools such as Mi Niño, for which brevity is recommended because it is intended for respondents with a wide range of literacy levels. Given these considerations and the crucial fact that its meaning was well understood across respondents, it was decided to leave the word “snack” untranslated. The visual examples in this item helped to improve comprehension. This further supports the value of using visual aids to enhance the comprehension of items to measure concepts subject to multiple interpretations.

Results from response distributions and the factor structure lend further evidence for equivalence of interpretation of Mi Niño items to their English version. Results indicate that participants distinguished between the response options and that their responses across the items were consistent. The resulting 2-factor structure and their item compositions found for Mi Niño is consistent with that of the English version (MCMT) [28]. These resulting factors comprise items that measure child-centered strategies [e.g., “*Hago que mi niño(a) coma explicándole que la comida le hace bien*”] and parent-centered strategies [e.g., “*Le digo a mi niño(a), ‘Apúrate y come tu comida’*”]. These 2 “higher-order” constructs capture a range of critical food-related parenting practices identified as significant predictors of children’s dietary behaviors in English- and Spanish-speaking families [56, 57]. The ability to reliably and efficiently capture culturally aligned self-assessments of these constructs in Spanish speakers is critical for community-based interventions that focus programming on these associated behaviors.

The resulting assessment tool increases the evaluation capacity of researchers and practitioners by offering a convenient way to assess food-related parenting styles with ethnically diverse, low-income participants. The use of visuals in Mi Niño and MCMT allows for complex questions to be posed with significantly reduced literacy demands, improving the accuracy of the data collected by decreasing the amount of effort and time respondents must take to process their answers.

Strengths of this study include the systematic approach applied to tool adaptation that engaged both target respondents and content experts in an iterative process and the use of quantitative methods to establish internal consistency equivalence. However, there are limitations to this study. Participants in both validation phases of this study (i.e., face validity, confirmatory factor analysis, and internal consistency reliability) were women of Mexican or Central American origin with low income, which limits the generalizability of the results and the usefulness of the adapted tool to low-income Spanish-speaking parents and caregivers from other countries of origin and socioeconomic status. Because study participants were a convenience sample of volunteers, selection bias may further affect the external validity of the study. Adaptation of MCMT to other cultural and linguistic groups beyond Spanish speakers is warranted.

Face validity of Mi Niño and its semantic and internal consistency equivalence with MCMT were established. The next

steps include exploring the correspondence of the parent- and child-centered behaviors represented in Mi Niño with mealtime behaviors observed through video recordings. This tool can identify food-related parenting practices to address in community programs or interventions involving Spanish-speaking families with young children. In addition, educators, counselors, and health providers can use the tool to assist caregivers in setting behavioral goals using results generated through the website, [healthykids.ucdavis.edu](http://healthykids.ucdavis.edu).

## Data Availability

The data described in the manuscript may be made available on request pending approval from all authors and funding support source.

## Funding

Supported by the National Institute of Food and Agriculture, US Department of Agriculture (2015-68001-23280). The supporting source had no involvement in the research activities or restrictions regarding the publication of findings.

## Author disclosures

The authors report no conflicts of interest.

## Acknowledgments

The authors’ responsibilities were as follows—LKDR, LLO, MKS, MST: conceptualized the research; LKDR LLO: collected and analyzed the data; LL: supervised data collection and organized and curated the quantitative database; LKDR, LLO: wrote the paper; MKS, MST: contributed in writing the paper; LKDR: primary responsibility for the final content; and all authors: read and approved the final manuscript. We thank Larissa Leavens and Christine Davidson for their exceptional project coordination and Maria Espinoza and Gloria Zavala for their stellar work recruiting and enrolling participants and their assistance with data collection and organization.

## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cdnut.2022.100002>.

## References

- [1] L.L. Birch, A.E. Doub, Learning to eat: birth to age 2 y, *Am J Clin Nutr* 99 (3) (2014) 723S–728S.
- [2] M. Santiago-Torres, A.K. Adams, A.L. Carrel, T.L. LaRowe, D.A. Schoeller, Home food availability, parental dietary intake, and familial eating habits influence the diet quality of urban Hispanic children, *Child Obes* 10 (5) (2014) 408–415.
- [3] K.R. Arlinghaus, M.N. Laska, Parent feeding practices in the context of food insecurity, *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 18 (2) (2021) E366.
- [4] C.M. Hales, C.D. Fryar, M.D. Carroll, D.S. Freedman, C.L. Ogden, Trends in obesity and severe obesity prevalence in US youth and adults by sex and age, 2007–2008 to 2015–2016, *JAMA* 319 (16) (2018) 1723–1725.

- [5] Coleman-Jensen A, Rabbitt MP, Gregory CA, Singh A. Household food security in the United States in 2018. [Internet]. US Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service; [cited July 14, 2020]. Available from: <http://www.ers.usda.gov/publications/pub-details/?pubid=94848>.
- [6] M.A. Martin, J.L. Van Hook, S. Quiros, Is socioeconomic incorporation associated with a healthier diet? Dietary patterns among Mexican-origin children in the United States, *Soc Sci Med* 147 (2015) 20–29.
- [7] A. Ochoa, J.M. Berge, Home environmental influences on childhood obesity in the Latino population: a decade review of literature, *J Immigr Minor Health* 19 (2) (2017) 430–447.
- [8] M.H. Bornstein, Cultural approaches to parenting, *Parent Sci Pract* 12 (2–3) (2012) 212–221.
- [9] S. Harkness, C.M. Super, Culture and parenting, in: M.H. Bornstein (Ed.), *Handbook of parenting: biology and ecology of parenting*, 2nd ed., Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, NJ, 2002, pp. 253–280.
- [10] J. Blissett, Relationships between parenting style, feeding style and feeding practices and fruit and vegetable consumption in early childhood, *Appetite* 57 (3) (2011) 826–831.
- [11] J.K. Larsen, R.C.J. Hermans, E.F.C. Sleddens, R.C.M.E. Engels, J.O. Fisher, S.P.J. Kremers, How parental dietary behavior and food parenting practices affect children's dietary behavior. Interacting sources of influence? *Appetite* 89 (2015) 246–257.
- [12] A.L. Miller, S.E. Miller, K.M. Clark, Child, caregiver, family, and social-contextual factors to consider when implementing parent-focused child feeding interventions, *Curr Nutr Rep* 7 (4) (2018) 303–309.
- [13] C. Vereecken, A. Rovner, L. Maes, Associations of parenting styles, parental feeding practices and child characteristics with young children's fruit and vegetable consumption, *Appetite* 55 (3) (2010) 589–596.
- [14] C. Daniel, Economic constraints on taste formation and the true cost of healthy eating, *Soc Sci Med* 148 (2016) 34–41.
- [15] A. Evans, S. Chow, R. Jennings, J. Dave, K. Scoblick, K.R. Sterba, et al., Traditional foods and practices of Spanish-speaking Latina mothers influence the home food environment: implications for future interventions, *J Am Diet Assoc* 111 (7) (2011) 1031–1038.
- [16] M. Dondero, J. Van Hook, Generational status, neighborhood context, and mother-child resemblance in dietary quality in Mexican-origin families, *Soc Sci Med* 150 (2016) 212–220.
- [17] G. Arandia, D. Sotres-Alvarez, A.M. Siega-Riz, E.M. Arredondo, M.R. Carnethon, A.M. Delamater, et al., Associations between acculturation, ethnic identity, and diet quality among U.S. Hispanic/Latino Youth: findings from the HCHS/SOL Youth Study, *Appetite* 129 (2018) 25–36.
- [18] J. Van Hook, S. Quiros, M.L. Frisco, E. Fikru, It is hard to swim upstream: dietary acculturation among Mexican-Origin children, *Popul Res Policy Rev* 35 (2) (2016) 177–196.
- [19] P. Ayine, V. Selvaraju, C.M.K. Venkatapoorna, T. Geetha, Parental feeding practices in relation to maternal education and childhood obesity, *Nutrients* 12 (4) (2020) 1033.
- [20] A.S. Ramírez, T. Golash-Boza, J.B. Unger, L. Baezconde-Garbanati, Questioning the dietary acculturation paradox: a mixed-methods study of the relationship between food and ethnic identity in a group of Mexican-American women, *J Acad Nutr Diet* 118 (3) (2018) 431–439.
- [21] US Department of Health and Human Services TO of MH, Profiles: Hispanic/Latino Americans [Internet] [cited September 14, 2021]. Available from: <https://minorityhealth.hhs.gov/omh/browse.aspx?lvl=3&lvlid=64>, 2021.
- [22] US Census Bureau, US Department of Commerce, Language spoken at home 2019, American Community survey 5-year estimates subject tables, S1601 [Internet] [cited July 17, 2020]. Available from: <https://data.census.gov/cedsci/table?q=S1601&t=ACSST5Y2019.S1601&vintage=2018,2019>.
- [23] US Census Bureau, US Department of Commerce, Characteristics of people by language spoken at home 2019, American community survey 5-year estimates subject tables, S1603 [Internet] [cited July 17, 2020]. Available from: <https://data.census.gov/cedsci/table?q=Language%20Spoken%20at%20Home&t=ACSST5Y2019.S1603,2019>.
- [24] A.M. Siega-Riz, D. Sotres-Alvarez, G.X. Ayala, M. Ginsberg, J.H. Himes, K. Liu, et al., Food-group and nutrient-density intakes by Hispanic and Latino backgrounds in the Hispanic Community Health Study/Study of Latinos, *Am J Clin Nutr* 99 (6) (2014) 1487–1498.
- [25] F.J.R. van de Vijver, K. Leung, *Methods and data analysis for cross-cultural research*, xiii, Sage Publications, Inc, Thousand Oaks, CA, US, 1997, p. 186.
- [26] P.M. Gleason, J. Harris, P.M. Sheehan, C.J. Boushey, B. Bruemmer, Publishing nutrition research: validity, reliability, and diagnostic test assessment in nutrition-related research, *J Am Diet Assoc* 110 (3) (2010) 409–419.
- [27] T.W. Harachi, Y. Choi, R.D. Abbott, R.F. Catalano, S.L. Bliesner, Examining equivalence of concepts and measures in diverse samples, *Prev Sci* 7 (4) (2006) 359–368.
- [28] L.L. Ontai, S.L. Sitnick, M.K. Shilts, M.S. Townsend, My child at mealtime: a visually enhanced self-assessment of feeding styles for low-income parents of preschoolers, *Appetite* 99 (2016) 76–81.
- [29] S.O. Hughes, T.G. Power, J. Orlet Fisher, S. Mueller, T.A. Nicklas, Revisiting a neglected construct: parenting styles in a child-feeding context, *Appetite* 44 (1) (2005) 83–92.
- [30] M.S. Townsend, K. Sylva, A. Martin, D. Metz, P. Wooten-Swanson, Improving readability of an evaluation tool for low-income clients using visual information processing theories, *J Nutr Educ Behav* 40 (3) (2008) 181–186.
- [31] L.L. Ontai, C. Sutter, S. Sitnick, M.K. Shilts, M.S. Townsend, My child at mealtime parent self-assessment of food related behaviors: validation with mealtime behaviors, *Appetite* 136 (2019) 62–69.
- [32] M.S. Townsend, M.K. Shilts, K. Sylva, C. Davidson, L.L. Leavens, Healthy Kids a 45-item pictorial assessment of child obesity prevention behaviors: eating, physical activity, screen, sleep and parenting [Internet], University of California Cooperative Extension, 2011. cited September 30, 2020]. Available from: <https://townsendlab.ucdavis.edu/evaluation-research-tools/validation-research/>.
- [33] M.S. Townsend, M.K. Shilts, D.M. Styne, C. Drake, L. Lanoue, L. Ontai, An obesity risk assessment tool for young children: validity with BMI and nutrient values, *J Nutr Educ Behav* 50 (7) (2018) 705–717.
- [34] M.S. Townsend, M.K. Shilts, L. Lanoue, C. Drake, L.K. Díaz Rios, D.M. Styne, et al., Obesity risk assessment tool for low-income Spanish speaking immigrant parents with young children: validity with BMI and biomarkers of obesity, *Nutrients* 12 (11) (2020) E3582.
- [35] W.H. DuBay, *The principles of readability*, ERIC Clearinghouse, Arlington, VA, 2004, p. 76.
- [36] D. Collins, Pretesting survey instruments: an overview of cognitive methods, *Qual Life Res* 12 (3) (2003) 229–238.
- [37] G.B. Willis, K. Miller, Cross-cultural cognitive interviewing: seeking comparability and enhancing understanding, *Field Methods* 23 (4) (2011) 331–341.
- [38] T.V. Tran, *Developing cross cultural measurement* [Internet], Oxford University Press, Oxford, United Kingdom, 2009 [cited May 13, 2016]. Available from: <http://www.oxfordscholarship.com/view/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195325089.001.0001/acprof-9780195325089>.
- [39] K. Knaf, J. Deatrick, A. Gallo, G. Holcombe, M. Bakitas, J. Dixon, et al., The analysis and interpretation of cognitive interviews for instrument development, *Res Nurs Health* 30 (2) (2007) 224–234.
- [40] S. Colina, N. Marrone, M. Ingram, D. Sánchez, Translation quality assessment in health research: a functionalist alternative to back-translation, *Eval Health Prof* 40 (3) (2017) 267–293.
- [41] D. Behr, Assessing the use of back translation: the shortcomings of back translation as a quality testing method, *Int J Social Res Methodol* 20 (6) (2017) 573–584.
- [42] L. Gjersing, J.R.M. Caplehorn, T. Clausen, Cross-cultural adaptation of research instruments: language, setting, time and statistical considerations, *BMC Med Res Methodol* 10 (2010) 13.
- [43] J. Epstein, R.M. Santo, F. Guillemin, A review of guidelines for cross-cultural adaptation of questionnaires could not bring out a consensus, *J Clin Epidemiol* 68 (4) (2015) 435–441.
- [44] M.E. Reichenheim, C.L. Moraes, [Operationalizing the cross-cultural adaptation of epidemiological measurement instruments], *Rev Saude Publica* 41 (4) (2007) 665–673.
- [45] C.B. Anderson, S.O. Hughes, J.O. Fisher, T.A. Nicklas, Cross-cultural equivalence of feeding beliefs and practices: the psychometric properties of the child feeding questionnaire among Blacks and Hispanics, *Prev Med* 41 (2) (2005) 521–531.
- [46] E.H. Ip, S.A. Marshall, T.A. Arcury, C.K. Suerken, G. Trejo, J.A. Skelton, et al., Child feeding style and dietary outcomes in a cohort of Latino farmworker families, *J Acad Nutr Diet* 118 (7) (2018) 1208–1219.
- [47] B de Lauzon-Guillain, A. Oliveira, M.A. Charles, E. Grammatikaki, L. Jones, N. Rigal, et al., A review of methods to assess parental feeding practices and preschool children's eating behavior: the need for further development of tools, *J Acad Nutr Diet* 112 (10) (2012) 1578–1602, e8.
- [48] A.E. Vaughn, R.G. Tabak, M.J. Bryant, D.S. Ward, Measuring parent food practices: a systematic review of existing measures and examination of instruments, *Int J Behav Nutr Phys Act* 10 (2013) 61.

- [49] D.E. Beaton, C. Bombardier, F. Guillemin, M.B. Ferraz, Guidelines for the process of cross-cultural adaptation of self-report measures, *Spine (Phila Pa 1976)* 25 (24) (2000) 3186–3191.
- [50] J.M. Ramada-Rodilla, C. Serra-Pujadas, G.L. Delclós-Clanchet, [Cross-cultural adaptation and health questionnaires validation: revision and methodological recommendations], *Salud Publica Mex* 55 (1) (2013) 57–66.
- [51] R.G. Duffett, C. Foster, Shopping list development and use of advertisements' pre-store food-buying practices within different socio-economic status areas in South Africa, *Br Food J* 119 (12) (2017) 2880–2902.
- [52] L. Kaiser, V. Chaidez, S. Algert, M. Horowitz, A. Martin, C. Mendoza, et al., Food resource management education with SNAP participation improves food security, *J Nutr Educ Behav* 47 (4) (2015) 374–378, e1.
- [53] M. de Figueiredo Ferreira, R. de Souza Mezzavilla, G. Vasconcellos de Barros Vianna, L. Quaresma Paolino, H. Serrão Lanzillotti, A.C. Lindsay, et al., Cross-cultural adaptation of the Brazilian Portuguese version of the caregiver's feeding styles questionnaire, *Int J Environ Res Public Health* 17 (16) (2020) 5814.
- [54] K.A. Loth, A. Tate, A. Trofholz, J. Orlet Fisher, D. Neumark-Sztainer, J.M. Berge, The contribution of snacking to overall diet intake among an ethnically and racially diverse population of boys and girls, *J Acad Nutr Diet* 120 (2) (2020) 270–279.
- [55] R. Kumar, E. Chambers, Understanding the terminology for snack foods and their texture by consumers in four languages: a qualitative study, *Foods* 8 (10) (2019) E484.
- [56] T.G. Power, Parenting dimensions and styles: a brief history and recommendations for future research, *Child Obes* 9 (s1) (2013) S14–S21.
- [57] A.E. Vaughn, D.S. Ward, J.O. Fisher, M.S. Faith, S.O. Hughes, S.P.J. Kremers, et al., Fundamental constructs in food parenting practices: a content map to guide future research, *Nutr Rev* 74 (2) (2016) 98–117.