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Permalink
https://escholarship.org/uc/item/0k8520bm

Journal
Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics, 115(5)

ISSN
2212-2672

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Publication Date
2015-05-01

DOI
10.1016/j.jand.2015.02.028

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Maternal Attitudes and Behaviors Regarding Feeding Practices in Elementary School–Aged Latino Children: A Pilot Qualitative Study on the Impact of the Cultural Role of Mothers in the US–Mexican Border Region of San Diego, California

Suzanna M. Martinez, PhD, MS; Kyung Rhee, MD, MSc; Estela Blanco, MPH, MA; Kerri Boutelle, PhD

ABSTRACT
This study aimed to explore the attitudes and behaviors of Latino mothers around feeding their children. Using qualitative methods, we conducted four focus groups in Spanish with 41 Latino mothers of elementary school-age children in San Diego County, CA. Latino mothers’ mean age was 41 years; 90% were foreign-born; and 74% had a high school education or less. We explored cultural viewpoints around feeding and cooking and feeding strategies used. Focus groups were analyzed based on a priori and emergent themes. The following themes around feeding emerged: feeding attitudes central to the maternal responsibility of having well-fed children and feeding behaviors that centered on cooking methods, supportive behaviors, and reinforcement strategies for “eating well.” These findings increase our understanding of the Latino maternal role to feed children and can help to inform more culturally appropriate research to effectively address nutritional issues and obesity prevention in Latino children.

J Acad Nutr Diet. 2015;115:S34-S41.

This article is reprinted from the February 2014 issue of the Journal of the Academy of Nutrition and Dietetics (2014;114(2):230-237).

LATINOS ARE THE LARGEST AND FASTEST GROWING minority group in the United States (16.3% of the population) and are expected to triple in number by 2050. They comprise one quarter of US newborns and by age 5 years, 33% are overweight/obese (hereafter referred to as overweight) compared with 25% of non-Latino white 5-year-olds. Overweight children are more likely to be overweight throughout the life course, contributing to the rapid increase in metabolic disturbances and type 2 diabetes in adolescents and adults. With the disproportionate impact of obesity and type 2 diabetes among Latinos, the National Institutes of Health’s Health Disparities Strategic Plan has urged research in childhood obesity to create effective interventions for minority groups. Because parents play a critical role in the development of child eating behaviors, understanding how Latino parents approach feeding their children is a primary step in this process. Identifying Latino mothers’ attitudes and behaviors around feeding their children is necessary to determine whether there are specific practices to address in this population.

To date, there have been limited data on Latino feeding behaviors. Most studies have focused on parental behaviors known to influence childhood obesity and have, therefore, focused on understanding methods for decreasing fat intake and increasing F/V consumption. In some reports, Latino mothers promote the consumption of hearty, high-calorie meals so that children can become “big and strong.” Consequently, Latino mothers do not often limit their children from eating foods, be it healthy or unhealthy, and might use more coercive parenting practices, such as bribes, threats, and punishment to get their children to eat. Such parent-centered directives promote control over children’s eating
through external means and are less focused on the child.23 In contrast, others have found that Latino mothers are more likely to be indulgent in their feeding practice and permissive in parenting.23-26 This type of feeding style, characterized by few rules and demands on children, has been associated with higher child weight status.23 However, another group recently found that among Mexican mothers, positive involvement in eating, which is characterized by more authoritative parenting styles and includes such behaviors as monitoring the child’s intake and limiting consumption of high-calorie foods, was associated with lower child weight status.27

Given these variances in the literature to date, research is needed to understand the underlying attitudes and behaviors Latino mothers demonstrate around feeding their children. Previous studies have included Latinos living in Boston, MA; northern California; and Houston, TX, representing a diverse Latino culture.23,25,26 The diversity of US Latinos can present different attitudes or behaviors among them, resulting in different study findings. Research focusing on Latino mothers in the US–Mexican border region could provide unique information about Mexican-American feeding behaviors and attitudes, as the border region is a unique cross-cultural context, with the existence of two cultures and combined practices from both. For example, in a qualitative study of 10 Mexican mothers living in colonias (neighborhoods) along the US–Texas border, researchers found that mothers primarily focused on their children, and that their goal was to provide the best available resources for their children and engage in food practices that would make their children happy, healthy, and well fed.20 Our goal was to better understand attitudes and feeding behaviors of Latino mothers living in San Diego, a US–Mexican border region, using focus-group methodology.

METHODS
Design and Sample
We conducted four focus groups between April and May 2011. Mothers were recruited through flyers distributed in two low- to middle-income elementary school districts and Spanish-language parent groups in east and south San Diego County. All parents who responded to the flyers were allowed to participate. Forty-one Latino mothers with elementary school-aged children participated. Upon completing the focus group and short questionnaire, mothers received a $20 gift card. The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the University of California, San Diego.

Focus-group discussions were conducted in Spanish, consisted of 10 to 11 participants, and lasted 1 to 1.5 hours. Two took place at an elementary school on a school day during morning hours and two took place at the school district office during after-school hours. Before the start of the focus groups, each mother completed an informed consent and self-administered questionnaire that assessed maternal demographics including age, education, family income, and employment status.

Focus groups were facilitated by two Mexican-American bilingual (Spanish/English) researchers trained in qualitative methods and experienced in conducting focus groups. Each facilitator had a note taker who assisted with follow-up questions. To explore the maternal role in feeding as well as feeding behaviors and attitudes, we developed a guide of focus-group questions that was based on researcher expertise, previously conducted key informant interviews, and empirical literature. Facilitators followed the guide, which included questions about maternal attitudes toward feeding and specific feeding behaviors, including cooking practices and reinforcement methods (Figure 1). For the purpose of confidentiality and coding, women were assigned a number, which they said aloud every time they spoke. Focus-group discussions were audio- and videotaped. Audiotapes were transcribed verbatim by a certified Spanish translator. When the audio was unclear, the transcriber stated “inaudible.” Transcripts were played back to confirm the “inaudible” segments, and video recordings were then accessed to clarify these segments. A second translator reviewed the tapes and included information regarding context, such as laughter among participants and head nods in the videotapes. Videos were used to quantify hand raises when answering country of birth. Head nods were noted and provided reassurance of specific themes that were being verbalized by participants.

Analytic Strategy
We used focus-group methodology and qualitative methods.29 Focus groups were transcribed verbatim in Spanish to maintain the integrity of the participants’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When do your children eat and who feeds them?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What strategies do you use to feed your children?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you get your children to eat?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who does the cooking in your home?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Who does the grocery shopping in your home?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>What do you think about healthy eating, cooking, and shopping?</td>
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<tr>
<td>In the past few months, has anyone made changes in the way they shop or cook to make food healthier?</td>
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<tr>
<td>Do you think you could change the way you cook, shop and eat?</td>
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<tr>
<td>What do your children eat after school?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>What types of snacks do they eat?</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>How do you motivate your child to eat healthful foods?</td>
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<tr>
<td>How many of you set or try to set limits on when or what your children should eat?</td>
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<tr>
<td>What kind of limits? How do you do it (eg, do you use rules)?</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. Focus group guide for Latina mothers of school-aged children in San Diego, CA.
responses. Only quotes included in this article were translated into English and back-translated to Spanish by E.B. to check for accuracy. Authors (S.M.M. and E.B.) independently coded Spanish transcripts for major themes to develop a reliable coding scheme. First, one investigator read all transcribed focus groups and applied the principles of microanalysis30 (an in-depth analysis of the text to generate initial themes to create a preliminary coding scheme). The second investigator (E.B.) then attempted to apply the initial coding scheme to each transcription. Then the investigators together refined the coding scheme, discussed new emergent themes using the constant comparison method,30 and reached consensus on the definition and application of each code. Codes were associated with segments of dialogue based on a priori (ie, questions asked in the focus group) or emergent themes (ie, central ideas from the data). Different codes could be applied to the same segment of dialogue. Both investigators coded each focus group and reached consensus on coding discrepancies. We used the qualitative data analysis software Atlas.ti version 6.1 (2011, Scientific Software Development GmbH) to organize codes and their subcategories. To obtain descriptive statistics from the survey data, we used SPSS/PASW version 18 (2009).

RESULTS
Sample Characteristics
Participant characteristics are presented in the Table. Demographics did not differ by location of focus group. Most mothers were born in Mexico. Focus-Group Results
Emergent themes about feeding included feeding attitudes central to the maternal responsibility of having well-fed children and feeding behaviors that centered on cooking methods, supportive behaviors, and reinforcement strategies for eating well. Figure 2 includes key quotes supporting these themes.

Feeding Attitudes
Maternal Responsibility for Feeding Children Well. Mothers described that their primary responsibility was to feed the family. In this vein, mothers expressed being responsible for teaching their children how to “eat well” (Figure 2) and teaching their children nutritious eating habits at an early age. Traditionally, mothers learned how to prepare, cook, and eat wholesome foods, and this cultural practice was generally passed on to their children. Nevertheless, it was

<table>
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<th>Region 1a (n = 20)</th>
<th>Region 2b (n = 21)</th>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mean±standard deviation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>44.0±7.3</td>
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<td>14 (74)</td>
<td>5 (25)</td>
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<td>50-62</td>
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<td>17 (85)</td>
<td>13 (62)</td>
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<td>Educationc</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Less than high school</td>
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<td>9 (53)</td>
<td>7 (33)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3 (18)</td>
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<td>5 (29)</td>
<td>5 (26)</td>
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<td>11 (61)</td>
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<td>8 (53)</td>
<td>6 (32)</td>
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<td>7 (47)</td>
<td>8 (42)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>5 (26)</td>
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<td>Argentina</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>9.5</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*East San Diego School District.

West San Diego School District.

*Missing data: two participants did not report age; three participants did not report education level; and seven participants did not report income.

Currency of birth was obtained by hand raising during the focus group.
Themes

Feeding attitudes

Maternal Responsibility

“Well, from when they’re little . . . 2 or 3 years when they begin to walk, I think one [mother] can start teaching them [to eat healthy] so that when they are 6 or 7 years, they know what vegetables are.”

“If they [mothers] did not give their children what is healthy then their children would never learn how to eat.”

“I think that part of our cultural experience involves learning how to eat, and to feed our children . . . it begins in the home.”

“... as a mother, one should prepare foods that don’t have a lot of fat, try not to use so much bread, try to eat more fruits, more vegetables . . .”

Feeding behaviors

Cooking Strategies

“. . . I use a lot of vegetables and beans, which is what my children have seen me eat, and what they have learned to eat.”

“. . . I throw away the yellow part, I only eat the [egg] whites”

“. . . they [children] don’t eat food with grease. I give them vegetables.”

“We eat vegetables or grill things that don’t have grease—the grease drips off.”

“I like to make aguas [frescas naturales]/natural juices with oranges.”

“. . . sometimes when we buy juice by the gallon . . . I give [them] half juice with half water.”

“I cook with water . . . and try not to fry too many things.”

“. . . eat what you want but there’s always a serving of protein in the morning.”

Behaviors to Support “Eating Well”

Persuasion: “I had to slowly get the apple slice near him, week by week, week by week, until he tolerated looking at it on his plate and then he tolerated tasting it [food].”

“Want to be like Thalia? Eat your vegetables.”

“My daughter is a real flirt, so I explain to her that food [like carrots] will benefit her . . . and [I] always tell her ‘this will help your hair grow, and this will make your eyes real pretty’.”

“You can, you know you have the ability to do it [not eat junk food] . . . [you have] willpower . . . and if you try, you can.”

Food rules: “It’s hard, my daughters say, ‘I don’t like it,’ but in my house we don’t use ‘I don’t like it’ if you haven’t tried it.”

“If it’s something healthy, they have permission, but for chips, churritos/fritters and stuff, they have to ask permission.”

Controlling the Home Food Environment: “In the refrigerator, which they have the habit of opening, there are the grapes and strawberries”

“Once a week when we go out, we buy a small 99-cent bag [chips] and I let them eat, but in the house, there is no big bag of chips . . .”

“. . . sodas are not permitted in my house, candy isn’t permitted unless I give it to them.”

“In my house they [children] even have to ask for water.”

“. . . I usually have [flavored gelatins], yogurt, and things like that, which is what they get because there are no candies and things like that . . .”

Reinforcement Strategies

“You can have a first slice of pizza, but if you want a second, you have to have a serving of vegetables.”

“I’ll tell him, ‘if you eat all of your vegetables . . . later when we go to the store, [you can] pick out something,’ and then [afterwards] I’ll tell him: ‘see, that’s for eating all of your vegetables.’”

“Don’t eat . . . when your friends come . . . you won’t get to play outside, no computer and you’ll sit in the room.”

“Don’t eat that, because you’re going to get fatter.”

“Watch what you eat, because you [plural] could get diabetes.”

Figure 2. Themes and important quotes related to Latino mothers beliefs and practices for encouraging their children to eat in San Diego County (n=41).
expressed that in Mexico, this tradition was manageable because mothers typically did not work outside their homes or family business. Several mothers stated that eating a meal as a family was important for family time. Mothers also reported that they followed a more traditional Mexican eating schedule. This would include la comida, which was usually consumed between 3 and 4 pm when children arrived home from school and was a heavier, well-rounded meal (equivalent to a dinner-time meal among other US families), and la cena, a lighter meal consumed before bedtime. Some examples of la cena options included pancakes, waffles, and cookies. Typically, mothers would prepare these meals for their family, but in the United States, this was harder to do because women were working. Instead, many relied on fast food or ready-made foods.

Feeding Behaviors

Cooking Strategies. Mothers revealed several strategies for preparing what they considered to be healthful meals (Figure 2). Many mothers were knowledgeable about serving their children fruits and vegetables (F/V), whole grains, and low-fat foods. Some mothers reported sneaking vegetables into foods (eg, blending vegetables into fruit smoothies), trying to make them appealing by disguising/decorating vegetables as figures, and making them savory by adding lemon and/or chili. Some mothers reported that they steamed foods rather than fried them and several mothers either used little oil or only olive oil when cooking. Several mothers involved their children in meal preparation by having them chop vegetables, make salads, plan menus, or go grocery shopping. However, when discussing food preparation, mothers reported several possible misperceptions in the effort to feed their children. Some mothers considered snacks high in sugar, such as children’s yogurt and flavored gelatin, to be “healthy” and that homemade aguas frescas naturales (fresh-squeezed juices that are made with added sugar) were healthier than store-bought juices. One mother thought that all fruit was high in sugar, so she limited their consumption.

Behaviors to Support Eating Well. Most mothers thought that it was important for their children to see them eat F/V themselves, yet few mothers revealed that they role modeled this behavior. Many mothers reported using persuasion tactics for motivating their child to eat well (Figure 2). Several mothers made a connection for their children between eating certain foods (eg, F/V, soup with vegetables) and feeling energetic. Other mothers appealed to their children’s desire to be popular or pretty and linked eating vegetables to being like superheroes or famous idols (eg, Barbie or Thalia, a Mexican pop star).

Other mothers reported having food rules in the house. Mothers stated that it could be difficult to get children to try new foods, so some mothers required that children had to taste a food before they could decide not to eat it. Alternatively, several mothers reported setting limits on what and how much food their children ate. When asking for seconds, others limited the quantity of some foods, particularly tortillas and bread, but did not limit F/V. Other mothers mentioned that they did not provide alternative food options; everyone was expected to eat what they were served.

Several mothers spoke about strategies they used to control the home food environment to encourage their children to eat well (Figure 2). For example, one mother reported having prepared F/V accessible in the refrigerator in clear view so that her children would be prompted to eat these foods when they were hungry. Several mothers revealed that they did not buy cookies, chips, sodas, or junk food (comida chatarra) and did not allow or limited candy in the home (eg, five candies from party bags/Halloween candy). Other mothers focused on sodas and other sugar-sweetened beverages, which were not allowed in the home or limited to special occasions or once a week. Despite efforts to control the home food environment, many mothers expressed that television viewing was a problem and some mothers reported allowing their children to eat while watching television. Only one mother revealed turning off the television during meal time as a healthy eating habit.

Reinforcement Strategies

Mothers used various reinforcement strategies to feed their children well. Negotiating with the child to eat something healthy often entailed using an unhealthy food as a motivator. For example, when dining out, several mothers reported that they allowed their child to eat an unhealthy food (eg, pizza, french fries) if they ate something healthy, such as F/V. Several mothers would go out of their way to provide unhealthy treats as rewards in exchange for their child eating something healthy or finishing a meal. Several mothers reported using ice cream, candy, and fast food as treats. At the end of the week, several mothers would reward their children by taking them out to eat. Because eating out could be expensive, their children would opt for $1 hamburgers, which they admitted were unhealthy. Other forms of reinforcement included allotting minutes for videogames and extra computer time for every vegetable eaten, and allowing the television to be on during dinner if the child promised to eat his or her meal.

Almost half of mothers reported using punishment when their children did not want to eat. A few mothers reported taking away privileges (eg, play time, favorite doll/toy, videogame/television) if children did not eat. Also, several mothers discussed using fear tactics or threats, such as statements about getting fat or diabetes. However, one mother stated finding these sorts of tactics to be ineffective and now she used positive and encouraging verbal support to get her daughter to eat less junk food.

DISCUSSION

This qualitative study sought to understand attitudes and feeding behaviors of Latino mothers in a US–Mexican border region. We found that mothers felt primarily responsible for feeding their children and making sure they were well fed. This attitude may have stemmed from the traditional practice of women staying home and caring for their family and the idea that children should be “big and strong.” Similarly, Sussner and colleagues found that Latino mothers equate providing a lot of food with good parenting, which can be a source of pride and competition. In Latino culture, having a well-fed child is a sign of prosperity and the means to contribute to their child’s well being. Because of these values, it might be difficult to change feeding practices that are viewed as contrary to their traditional beliefs; changing these feeding practices might have greater implications about their parenting competence and ability to provide for their...
family. Future interventions need to address this cultural attitude so that mothers feel like they are feeding their children well, but doing so in a healthier manner.

With this feeling of responsibility, other more culturally tied behaviors and attitudes emerged. The practice of having two afternoon/evening meals a day (la comida and la cena) has not been well documented. This traditional feeding practice is standard in Mexico where the school day is shorter. Therefore, children eat a light snack at school and have their heavier meal at home after school. La comida is typically equivalent to a full dinner-time meal in more traditional Western families. Given that the American school day is traditionally longer, the required school lunch ranges from 650 to 850 calories. In 2009, 77% of Latino 4th graders (public school) were eligible for free/reduced-price lunches. As such, it is possible that children with traditional Mexican mothers are overfed, as they might be eating a calorically dense school lunch, followed by an equally, if not more, calorie-dense la comida and then la cena. In addition, mothers reported giving their children foods that were calorically dense and low in nutritional value during la cena. This late-night eating has been shown to increase children’s saturated fat intake and can add to the child’s obesity risk. Addressing this issue as a point of intervention and explaining the consequences of such eating patterns could be beneficial in modifying the traditional meal pattern to decrease obesity in Latino children.

In a study of parent feeding in Latino toddlers, Chaidez and colleagues found that mothers catered to her child’s cues of hunger or thirst as well as food preferences, rather than attempting to reintroduce her child to previously unaccepted foods or exposing the child to new foods. In our sample of Latino mothers of a US–Mexican border community, many were knowledgeable about healthy cooking strategies and feeding techniques, such as increasing the availability of F/V so children would eat them, and controlling the home environment by limiting the availability of unhealthful foods. Faith and colleagues found that both Latino and African-American mothers allot fewer food choices to their child at breakfast or lunch compared with non-Latino/non–African-American white mothers. These behaviors allowed parents to control the quality of the child’s intake more covertly, without confrontation. This type of control has been associated with decreased intake of unhealthful snacks and greater intake of healthful snacks. Despite these behaviors, there were some possible misperceptions about what mothers considered a healthful food. For example, aguas frescas naturales are considered healthful among Latinos because they are made from fresh-squeezed fruits. Although they might be free of preservatives and contain more vitamins, they can still have as much sugar as commercial juices. For example, 1 cup of agua de limón (made from the 1.5 fluid ounces of “lime juice, raw” and 2 tablespoons of granulated sugar) contains 35.38 g compared with 1 cup of “limeade, frozen concentrate, prepared with water,” which contains 34.06 g sugar. The addition of sugar to make these drinks sweeter can detract from their health benefits and make them as calorie-dense as a bottle of soda or other sugar-sweetened beverage. In addition, foods such as flavored yogurt can contain several grams of sugar. Particularly brands of yogurt that are marketed to children. Consequently, they are calorie-dense and might not be an optimal choice for snacking among overweight children. Educating parents about nutrition facts and teaching them how to read Nutrition Facts labels might be necessary to develop healthier eating practices. For example, tools such as Choose My Plate (in Spanish) can help to increase mothers’ knowledge about planning healthier meals. However, this tool might only be applicable to mothers who have Internet access, who are literate, and have some health literacy. Other more practical approaches might be necessary, such as live cooking demonstrations or practice reading Nutrition Facts labels.

Mothers reported using reinforcement strategies that generally were not as positive as their feeding and cooking strategies. As mentioned, many mothers spoke about using unhealthful foods (eg, candy) as a reward for eating healthful foods, which supports findings by others showing that Latino mothers use rewards to promote control over children’s eating. Although rewards can be immediately effective in getting children to eat, several studies have demonstrated that using food rewards can lead to unhealthy consequences, such as decreasing one’s sensitivity and responsiveness to the energy density of food and increasing preference for the reward food while decreasing preference for healthful food items in young children. This behavior can, therefore, have the unintended consequence of excessive caloric intake and preference for unhealthful foods, and thereby increase the risk of obesity. Mothers also used threats and punishments to shape child eating behaviors, which might be ineffective for creating long-term behavior changes and could have unintended consequences. Without the threat of punishment, children are unlikely to engage in the desired behaviors and these behaviors do not become part of the child’s natural habits. In addition, the use of external motivators to change behavior could disengage children from their own internal cues of satiety. Whether or not the use of parent-centered feeding stemmed from cultural beliefs or traditions is uncertain. One study examined racial and ethnic differences in parent feeding strategies and found that Latino parents used more parent-centered and more child-centered feeding strategies than did African-American mothers. Likewise, other studies have found that Latino parents often use rewards and punishments to enforce behavior change. Addressing these parenting strategies in the course of an intervention to prevent or treat obesity can be beneficial toward helping parents develop positive and supportive strategies to encourage healthful eating behaviors among children.

The current study had some limitations that can impact the generalizability of our findings. First, our sample size was small and only mothers were included; the views of other family members are not represented. Also, each focus group had 10 to 11 participants, which can result in unequal participation. However, focus-group leaders encouraged equal participation during the discussions in an effort to bypass this problem. Focus groups might have discouraged mothers from sharing due to social pressures, or could have resulted in social acceptability bias. We also did not assess body mass index of mothers or their children, nor did we ask parents to report the number of children in their household. This information could have coughed our findings within a more-specified demographic group. In addition, Latino mothers were from San Diego, which might not reflect findings from other Latino groups around the country and might therefore limit generalizability of our findings. Finally, as in any study concerning
one's children, there is the issue of social desirability. These findings encourage additional exploration of Latino parents’ feeding style and practices, perceptions about healthful foods, and how children develop eating behaviors.

CONCLUSIONS

Our study contributes to the understanding of the traditional role of Latino mothers’ and their feeding attitudes and behaviors. Mothers in this study appeared to be conflicted, as they felt responsible for having well-fed children, but realized they did not always provide them with optimal choices. Some mothers used coercive/negative reinforcement strategies that were less than ideal for developing long-term healthful eating habits. Understanding the cultural context behind these feeding attitudes and behaviors can help us better tailor our messages and provide Latino mothers with more suitable behavioral strategies. Parents should be educated about the following: it is better to have children who are “healthy and strong” as opposed to children who are “big and strong”; how much their children eat at school and at home so they can tailor their cultural feeding pattern accordingly, to avoid overconsumption among children; what makes a food healthful/unhealthful; and how to promote strategies that control what foods are in the house as a more effective tool rather than teaching parents to limit portion sizes. These types of strategies might be more amenable for Latino mothers because it allows them to fulfill their sense of responsibility to feed their child and, at the same time, ensure that they are providing healthful foods. Lastly, teaching mothers strategies (reasoning, praise, compliments) that do not involve food can help them feel like they are more effective parents and, thereby, create a more interconnected and cohesive family, which is culturally important. These findings can help to inform culturally appropriate research in Mexican-American mothers to improve child nutrition and eating behaviors.

References


AUTHOR INFORMATION
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STATEMENT OF POTENTIAL CONFLICT OF INTEREST
No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

FUNDING/SUPPORT
This pilot study was funded by University of California, San Diego, Child Development and Community Health (UCSD CDCH) 2011 1952 02 and supported in part by the following grants from the National Institutes of Health: HL088530 and K23HD057299. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
The authors thank Hanaah Fannin, Stephanie Knatz, PhD, and Fatima Munoz, MD, for their assistance in this project; and the superintendent, principal, and staff at Golden Avenue Elementary and Chula Vista School District for their support.