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**To What Extent Does Maternal Body Mass Index (BMI)  
Predict Intentions, Attitudes or Practices of Early Infant  
Feeding?**

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## MATERNAL BMI: BREASTFEEDING ATTITUDES &amp; INTENTIONS

1 **Abstract**

2 *Background:* Public health guidelines recommend women establish and maintain exclusive  
3 breastfeeding to six months postpartum. Women with a **Body Mass Index** (BMI kg/m<sup>2</sup>) in the  
4 overweight or obese range are less likely to initiate and continue breastfeeding than healthy  
5 weight women. Evidence for **psychological** mechanisms of this association using validated  
6 methods of measurement is limited, but factors such as attitudes and intentions for infant  
7 feeding are implicated. This study **aimed** to investigate the associations between maternal  
8 BMI, antenatal attitudes and intentions for infant feeding, and subsequent breastfeeding  
9 practices. *Methods:* A total of  $N = 128$  women completed an online questionnaire antenatally  
10 and  $n = 48$  were followed-up in the first month postpartum. Validated measures of Intentions  
11 (IFIS) and Attitudes (IIFAS) for infant feeding were used. One-way analysis of variance  
12 (ANOVA) and multivariate regression analyses assessed study objectives. *Results:* Infant  
13 feeding attitudes ( $p = .327$ ) and intentions ( $p = .254$ ) were similar among healthy weight,  
14 overweight, and obese women and did not differ significantly. In adjusted regression models,  
15 only intentions significantly predicted early breastfeeding behaviour ( $p = .036$ ;  $AR^2 = .301$ ).  
16 Missing data analysis revealed no significant differences in the profile of completing versus  
17 non-completing women. *Discussion:* Evidence suggests postnatal factors contribute  
18 significantly to lower breastfeeding rates in cohorts of women **with** overweight or obese  
19 **BMI**s. Further investigations should consider using theory and methods from behavioural  
20 science to longitudinally investigate modifiable mechanisms of action responsible for lower  
21 breastfeeding rates among overweight and obese women to inform practices that support  
22 prolonged breastfeeding.

23 *Keywords:* Infant Feeding; Breastfeeding; Maternal Obesity; Maternal BMI; Infant  
24 Feeding Intentions; Attitudes

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25 **Title:** To What Extent Does Maternal Body Mass Index (BMI) Predict Intentions, Attitudes  
26 or Practices of Early Infant Feeding?

27

## 28 **Background**

29 The WHO (2013) currently recommends infants are exclusively breastfed for the first  
30 six months of life due to the multiple nutritional and wider health benefits for both mothers  
31 and infants (Horta, Bahl, Martines & Victora, 2007; Victora et al., 2016). Despite the  
32 recognized benefits, breastfeeding rates worldwide remain low with only 37% of infants  
33 being exclusively breastfed to six months (Victora et al., 2016). Research from the UK  
34 indicates that although initiation rates are relatively high (81%), at 6-8 weeks postpartum  
35 only 42.7% of women are still breastfeeding (Public Health England [PHE], 2018), and at six  
36 months postpartum less than 1% of women are breastfeeding exclusively (McAndrew et al.,  
37 2012).

38 Recent evidence suggests women with a pre-pregnancy Body Mass Index (BMI)  
39 ( $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ) in the overweight (25-29.9 $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ) or obese ( $\geq 30\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ) range are less likely to initiate  
40 and continue breastfeeding to the same extent as women who have a healthy BMI (18.5-24.9  
41  $\text{kg}/\text{m}^2$ ) (Amir & Donath, 2007; Mäkelä et al., 2014; Turcksin, Bel, Galjaard & Devlieger,  
42 2012; Wojcicki, 2011). Meta-analytic evidence estimates women with pre-pregnancy BMI in  
43 the overweight or obese range are up to 60% more likely (95% CI [1.47, 1.74]) to cease  
44 exclusive breastfeeding in the first six months postpartum than women with BMI in the  
45 healthy range (Flores, Mielke, Wendt, Nunes & Bertoldi, 2018). The aetiology of the  
46 association between increased maternal BMI and poorer breastfeeding outcomes is yet to be  
47 fully understood, although evidence available suggests multifactorial mechanisms.

48 Biological factors such as delayed lactogenesis (Amir & Donath, 2007; Nommsen-  
49 Rivers, Chantry, Peerson, Cohen & Dewey, 2010) and metabolic imbalances, and

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50 physiological challenges latching and positioning infants (Babendure et al., 2015; Garner,  
51 Ratcliff, Devine, Thornburg & Rasmussen, 2014) are implicated, alongside psychosocial  
52 factors. Emerging evidence indicates women with a pre-pregnancy BMI  $\geq 30\text{kg/m}^2$  have  
53 greater perceived insufficient milk supply (Jarlenski et al., 2014), less vicarious breastfeeding  
54 experience (Hauff, Leonard & Rasmussen, 2014; Mok et al., 2008), more discomfort nursing  
55 in social situations (Newby & Davies, 2016), lower body confidence in the context of  
56 breastfeeding (Garner et al., 2014) and different support-seeking behaviours (Molyneux,  
57 Poston, Ashurt-Williams & Howard, 2014). These factors may, in part, contribute to lower  
58 rates of breastfeeding initiation and reduced duration.

59 In attempts to identify malleable targets for breastfeeding promotion interventions,  
60 infant feeding research has frequently employed the theoretical framework of the Theory of  
61 Planned Behaviour (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991; 2002) to examine sociocultural and psychological  
62 factors associated with breastfeeding practices. The TPB proposes intention is the  
63 predominant determinant of behaviour, and that intentions are predicted by three constructs:  
64 attitudes (positive and/or negative appraisal of the behaviour), perceived behavioural control  
65 (perception of how much control an individual has to perform the behaviour), and subjective  
66 norms (appraisal of societal expectations about performing the behaviour) (Ajzen, 1991;  
67 2002). Theoretically, more positive attitudes, greater perceived behavioural control, and  
68 greater or more positive subjective norms predict greater behavioural intentions, and  
69 subsequently increase the likelihood of performing the behaviour.

70 Evidence from cross-sectional and prospective cohort studies using the TPB to predict  
71 breastfeeding behaviour indicate women with greater breastfeeding intentions (Bai,  
72 Middlestadt, Peng & Fly, 2010; Donnan et al., 2013; Martinez-Brockman, Shebl, Harari, &  
73 Pérez-Escamilla, 2017; McMillan, 2008), greater self-efficacy/perceived behavioural control  
74 (Ismail, Muda & Bakar, 2016; Martinez-Brockman et al., 2017), and more breastfeeding-

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75 positive beliefs and attitudes (Dodgson, Henly, Dcukettt & Tarrent, 2003; Lawton, Ashley,  
76 Dawson, Waiblinger & Connor, 2012) are more likely to start and continue breastfeeding.  
77 Evidence for the associations between subjective norm, intentions and breastfeeding  
78 behaviours is limited and conflicting (Ismail, Muda & Bakar, 2013; Kloeblen, Thompson &  
79 Miner, 1999; McMillan et al., 2009), perhaps because a validated questionnaire measure of  
80 subjective norms is not currently available. Evidence using the TPB to predict breastfeeding  
81 is limited methodologically as studies often do not measure breastfeeding behaviours  
82 performed (Bai et al., 2010; McMillan et al., 2009), and only capture perceptions during the  
83 postnatal period (Dodgson et al., 2003). As such, there is a question about the extent to which  
84 variables in the TPB measured antenatally accurately predict breastfeeding behaviours, with a  
85 paucity of evidence for this among cohorts of women who are overweight and obese.

86 Recent systematic review evidence suggests women with obesity are significantly less  
87 likely to intend to breastfeed (Lyons, Currie, Peters, Lavendar & Smith, 2018), and argues  
88 such reduced intentions contribute to lower breastfeeding rates in this cohort compared to  
89 healthy weight counterparts (Turcksin et al., 2012). Although this association is theoretically  
90 supported by the conceptual framework of the TPB (Ajzen, 1991; 2002), the methodological  
91 quality in the measurement of infant feeding intention is consistently poor (Lyons et al.,  
92 2018) with studies frequently using dichotomous or unvalidated scales, meaning associations  
93 are likely to be tenuous. For example, a national longitudinal cohort study using a categorical  
94 measurement of intention found no differences in intentions for infant feeding according to  
95 maternal pre-pregnancy BMI status (Hauff et al., 2014). Among studies comparing  
96 perceptions and practices of breastfeeding among obese and non-obese women, attitudes for  
97 breastfeeding are typically measured using scales that are not psychometrically validated  
98 (Hauff et al., 2014; Hilson, Rasmussen & Kjolhede, 2004), or theoretically informed  
99 (Jarlenski et al., 2014; O'Sullivan, Perrine & Rasmussen, 2015). Furthermore, longitudinal

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100 evidence examining the influence of psychological factors on early feeding practices among  
101 cohorts of women who are overweight or obese is lacking, making it difficult to identify  
102 causal factors.

103         Infants whose mothers are overweight or obese at pregnancy commencement are  
104 significantly more likely to be overweight or obese in childhood and are at increased risk of  
105 associated diseases (e.g. metabolic syndrome, diabetes and hypertension) (Godfrey et al.,  
106 2016; O'Reilly & Reynolds, 2012; Poston, 2012). Breastfeeding significantly reduces the risk  
107 of childhood obesity (Victora et al., 2016; Yan, Liu, Zhu, Huang & Wang, 2014) and  
108 associated health morbidities (Horta, Loret de Mola & Victora, 2015; Martin, Gunnell &  
109 Davey Smith, 2005). As the proportion of women who are obese pre-pregnancy is rising  
110 (Poston et al., 2016), it is important to investigate modifiable factors associated with  
111 breastfeeding practices among cohorts of women who are overweight and obese in order to  
112 provide targeted interventions strategies aimed at improving the lifespan health of women  
113 and their infants. [Investigating breastfeeding practices in this cohort using the theoretical  
114 guidance of the TPB and psychometrically validated measurement tools available, could  
115 provide direction for theoretically informed support strategies.](#) This study therefore aimed to  
116 use validated measurement scales informed by the Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen,  
117 1991; 2002) to explore whether psychological constructs of attitudes and intentions for infant  
118 feeding are different according to maternal BMI status, and investigate the extent to which  
119 these contribute to early infant feeding practices.

120

**121 Aims and Objectives**

122 This study aimed to identify 1) whether antenatal attitudes or intentions for infant feeding  
123 differ according to maternal BMI status; 2) explore the extent to which maternal BMI  
124 independently predicts both attitudes and intentions for infant feeding; and 3) identify to what

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125 extent maternal BMI, and antenatal attitudes and intentions for infant feeding predict early  
126 infant feeding practices.

127 **Methodology**

128 **Design**

129 An online questionnaire study recruiting women **at least 34<sup>+0</sup> weeks pregnant** with a  
130 follow-up questionnaire within the first month postpartum.

131 **Participants**

132 Women were eligible for the antenatal questionnaire if they reported they were 18  
133 years or older, at least 34<sup>+0</sup> weeks pregnant, expecting a healthy singleton **baby** and currently  
134 living in the UK. Women were recruited into the study online between 21-December-2017  
135 and 31-March-2018 on a voluntary opportunity basis. To be eligible to complete the follow-  
136 up questionnaire, women had to have delivered a healthy full term ( $\geq 37^{+0}$  weeks) baby who  
137 was well and at home, and not admitted to a neonatal care unit.

138 **Procedure**

139 Online advertisements for the study were displayed on social media and internal  
140 institutional research pages, and paper advertisements were displayed in local public notice  
141 boards. **JISC Online Surveys was used a platform for online data collection.** Women were  
142 recruited into the study by clicking or accessing the study link advertised. A study  
143 information page and consent form were displayed at the beginning of the questionnaires,  
144 ensuring women read and fully consented before choosing to continue to complete the  
145 questionnaires. Eligibility was then assessed via self-report. Women who did not meet  
146 eligibility criteria were screened out prior to questionnaire completion. The antenatal  
147 questionnaire contained three sections capturing women's sociodemographic information  
148 ('About you'), information about their pregnancy and health ('About your pregnancy'), and  
149 'About Infant Feeding' practices and previous experience(s), including attitudes and



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150 intentions for feeding their newborn. At the end of the questionnaire women selected whether  
151 to take part in the follow-up questionnaire, which was sent to them via email in the first  
152 month postpartum based on their estimated due date.

153 The follow-up questionnaire was designed to collect information about women's  
154 'Baby and Birth' and their 'Feeding Practices': initial infant feeding (first 48 hours), and  
155 current feeding (last 48 hours). As a token of appreciation for participating, women were  
156 offered the opportunity to enter a prize draw at the end of each questionnaire to win a  
157 shopping voucher for a popular mother and infant department store. Ethical approval was  
158 awarded by institutional level Research Ethics Committee (LRS-17/18-5158).

### 159 **Measures and Materials**

#### 160 *Antenatal Questionnaire.*

161 The antenatal questionnaire collected data on women's age, ethnicity, marital status,  
162 education, socioeconomic status (UK Index of Multiple Deprivation [IMD]) (ONS, 2015),  
163 BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>) (from self-reported pre-pregnancy height and weight), parity, diabetic status and  
164 estimated due date. Previous infant feeding experience was assessed on an 11 point scale of  
165 proportionate infant feeding. The scale invites women to rate what proportion (%) of their  
166 older children's feeds in the first six months of life were breastmilk and/or formula milks,  
167 ranging from 100% formula-fed to 100% breastfed (which includes feeding baby expressed  
168 breastmilk) in 10% increments.

169 The Iowa Infant Feeding Attitude Scale (IIFAS) (Mora, Russell, Dungy, Losch &  
170 Dusieker, 1999) is a self-report, validated questionnaire used to assess attitudes and  
171 perceptions of infant feeding. The scale includes 17 statements about feeding practices rated  
172 on a five point likert scale of agreement (Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree). Items are  
173 summed to create a total score between 17 (more positive attitude to formula feeding) to 85  
174 (more positive attitude towards breastfeeding). Items on the scale include, for example,

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175 “Breastfeeding increases mother-infant bonding”, “Formula milk is as healthy for an infant as  
176 breastmilk” and “Fathers feel left out if a mother breastfeeds”.

177 Intentions for infant feeding were investigated using the Infant Feeding Intentions  
178 Scale (IFIS) developed by Nommsen-Rivers and Dewey (2009); a validated scale. The IFIS  
179 includes five statements about the intended duration and exclusivity of breastfeeding such as  
180 “When my baby is 1 month old, I will be breastfeeding without using any formula or other  
181 milk”, which are rated on a five point likert scale of agreement (Strongly Agree to Strongly  
182 Disagree). Item scores are summed to provide a total score between 0 (intention to not  
183 breastfeed at all) to 16 (strong intention to exclusively breastfeed to six months postpartum).

#### 184 *Postnatal Questionnaire*

185 The postnatal follow-up questionnaire collected data on infant’s date of birth, sex,  
186 birthweight and delivery. Initial and current infant feeding was assessed using the  
187 proportionate scale of infant feeding by asking women how their new baby was fed in the  
188 first 48 hours of birth, and last 48 hours respectively.

#### 189 **Statistical Analysis**

190 Descriptive and appropriate inferential statistics were used to explore sample  
191 characteristics, including missing data analysis of study completers. One-way analyses of  
192 variance were used to investigate whether attitudes and intentions for infant feeding differed  
193 according to maternal BMI status. A small proportion of women included in the sample ( $n =$   
194 3) reported a BMI  $<18.5 \text{ kg/m}^2$ , indicating they were ‘underweight’, and were collapsed into  
195 the healthy weight BMI group. Sensitivity analysis revealed this had no significant impact on  
196 the direction or magnitude of overall results observed. Multivariate regression analyses were  
197 used to assess the relative influence of maternal BMI status on attitudes and intentions, and  
198 the extent to which maternal BMI, attitudes and intentions were associated with early  
199 postnatal feeding practices. Multivariate regression models were adjusted for potential

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200 confounding correlates of the outcome. All analyses were performed using Stata (Version  
201 15.0).

202 A power analysis indicated at least  $n = 119$  women are needed to detect a medium  
203 effect of the influence of maternal intentions for infant feeding on early postnatal feeding  
204 practices, assuming  $\alpha = .05$  level of significance, controlling for up to seven  
205 sociodemographic and clinical factors

## 206 Results

### 207 Sample Characteristics

208 In total, 168 women accessed the online survey, of which 29 were ineligible and  
209 screened out prior to questionnaire completion. A total of 139 women completed the  
210 antenatal questionnaire but 11 responses were excluded from analysis: eight women were less  
211 than 34<sup>+0</sup> weeks pregnant at time of questionnaire completion and three responses were  
212 deemed unreliable. A total of  $N = 128$  responses were included in analyses.

213 Table 1 provides a summary of demographic and clinical characteristics for women  
214 included in the sample. The average age of women in the sample was 31.10 years ( $SD =$   
215 4.82). The majority of women were white (93.0%), born in the UK (87.5%), married or  
216 cohabiting with a long-term partner (93.7%), and educated to degree level (64.0%). There  
217 was variation in relative deprivation amongst the sample, although women tended to reside  
218 among less deprived areas of the UK. Over half of women had a healthy BMI, while 25.8%  
219 were classified with an overweight and 22.7% with an obese BMI. There were no statistically  
220 significant associations between sociodemographic characteristics and maternal BMI (see  
221 Table 1). Most women were multiparous: 50% ( $n = 64$ ) were having their second baby,  
222 10.9% ( $n = 14$ ) were having their third baby, and two women (1.6%) were having their fourth  
223 and fifth baby respectively. On average, women were 36.92 weeks ( $SD = 2.04$ ) pregnant

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224 when they completed the antenatal questionnaire.

225 The majority of multiparous women had previous experience breastfeeding their  
226 infants in the first six months, with 34.4% reporting exclusive breastfeeding and 10.9%  
227 exclusively formula feeding for six months with their eldest child. Among women with two  
228 or more children, most exclusively breastfed their second eldest to six months ( $n = 10$ ; 7.8%)  
229 or breastfed at least 70% of the time ( $n = 3$ ; 2.4%), while some exclusively formula fed ( $n =$   
230 4; 3.1%).

231

### 232 Attitudes According to Maternal BMI

233 Women's attitudes to feeding practices were relatively breastfeeding-positive ( $M = 66.81$ ,  $SD$   
234  $= 10.47$ ). A full summary of responses is available in Online Supplement 1 (see Table S1). A  
235 one-way analysis of variance observed attitudes to infant feeding did not differ significantly  
236 according to maternal BMI status ( $F(2, 125) = 1.129$ ,  $p = .327$ ). Post-hoc comparisons using  
237 Tukey HSD test confirmed the observed main effect (see Table 2).

238

### 239 Intentions According to Maternal BMI

240 Women had strong intentions to breastfeed exclusively throughout the postpartum  
241 period ( $M = 12.54$ ,  $SD = 3.85$ ), although the intensity of intentions decreased over time:  
242 51.6% of women strongly intended to exclusively breastfeed to one month, 49.2% to three  
243 months, and 42.2% to six months (see Online Supplement 1 Table S2 for full descriptives).  
244 Although women in the healthy BMI category had the strongest intentions to exclusive  
245 breastfeed to six months (see Table 2), there were no significant differences in intentions for  
246 breastfeeding depending on women's BMI status ( $F(2, 125) = 1.385$ ,  $p = .254$ ). The main  
247 effect observed was confirmed with post-hoc analysis.

248

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249 **Predicting Attitudes**

250 Maternal BMI status (healthy weight vs. overweight vs. obese) was not significantly  
251 associated with attitudes to infant feeding in adjusted regression model ( $F(16, 64) = 4.25, p$   
252  $<.001; AR^2 = .393$ ). Women's previous experience with breastfeeding was the only  
253 significant predictor of attitudes to infant feeding (see Table 3). Women with more previous  
254 experience of breastfeeding had significantly more breastfeeding-positive attitudes to infant  
255 feeding ( $p = .003$ ). However, having more previous formula feeding experience was not  
256 associated with more formula feeding-positive attitudes ( $p = .791$ ).

257

258 **Predicting Intentions**

259 In the adjusted regression model ( $F(13, 67) = 14.74, p <.001; AR^2 = .691$ ), maternal  
260 BMI status was not significantly associated with women's intentions for infant feeding ( $p =$   
261  $.801$ ) (see Table 4). Women with more previous experience with breastfeeding ( $\beta = .019, p =$   
262  $.010$ ), less previous experience with formula feeding ( $\beta = -.023, p = .005$ ) and more  
263 breastfeeding-positive attitudes ( $\beta = .145, p <.001$ ) had significantly higher intentions to  
264 exclusively breastfeed throughout the postpartum period.

265

266 **Missing Data Analysis**

267 A total of  $n = 113$  (88.3%) women agreed to be followed-up postnatally, but only  $n =$   
268 48 (42.48%) completed the follow-up postnatal questionnaire. Comparative analyses revealed  
269 women who did not agree to follow-up were significantly younger (Mean Difference [ $MD$ ] =  
270  $-2.76$ , Standard Error Difference [ $SED$ ] =  $1.31, p = .037$ ), had less positive attitudes to  
271 breastfeeding ( $MD = -11.57, SED = 2.69, p <.001$ ), and weaker intentions for prolonged  
272 exclusive breastfeeding ( $MD = -3.14, SED = 1.03, p = .003$ ) than women who agreed to  
273 follow-up. However, comparative analysis among women who responded to the postnatal

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274 invitation ( $n = 48$ ) and women who did not respond ( $n = 65$ ) revealed no significant  
275 demographic, attitudinal or intentional differences. Specifically, maternal BMI was not  
276 significantly associated with whether women responded to the follow-up questionnaire ( $\chi^2 =$   
277  $2.47, p = .291$ ). Drop-out rates were high across all BMI groups: 56.1%, 72.3% and 65.5%  
278 among healthy, overweight and obese women respectively. There was no significant  
279 difference in the average BMI between women who did ( $M = 25.85, SD = 5.19$ ) and did not  
280 respond ( $M = 26.89, SD = 5.88, p = .334$ )

281

282 **Predicting Infant Feeding Practices**

283 Women who completed the postnatal questionnaire ( $n = 48$ ) delivered healthy full-  
284 term infants ( $M = 40.42$  weeks,  $SD = 1.23$ ) between 28 January and 11 May 2018. Most  
285 women delivered girls ( $n = 26$ ), with infants weighing an average of  $M = 3.65$  kgs ( $SD =$   
286  $0.49$ ). In the first 48 hours after birth women reported that, on average, their infants received  
287 almost 90% breastmilk (see Table 2).

288 At follow-up, infants were  $M = 14.73$  days old ( $SD = 8.47$ ) and reportedly received  
289 breastmilk for 85.21% of their feeds ( $SD = 28.95$ ) in the last two days (see Online  
290 Supplement 1 Figure S1 and S2 for full infant feeding practices).

291 Adjusted multivariate regression analysis of all women completing follow-up ( $n = 48$ )  
292 revealed only intentions for infant feeding was a significant predictor of current infant  
293 feeding practices ( $F(8, 22) = 2.61, p = .036; AR^2 = .301$ ) (see Table 5). Women with greater  
294 intentions for exclusive and prolonged breastfeeding were significantly more likely to  
295 breastfeed with greater exclusivity in the first month postpartum ( $p = .038$ ). Maternal BMI  
296 did not predict early feeding practices, and a one-way analysis of variance ( $F(2, 45) = .08, p$   
297  $= .927$ ) confirmed no significant differences in early breastfeeding practices among healthy  
298 weight women ( $M = 86.21\%$  breastfed), overweight women ( $M = 85.56\%$  breastfed) or obese

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299 women ( $M = 82.0\%$  breastfed) (see Table 2). Similarly, attitudes for infant feeding did not  
300 significantly predict early infant feeding practices ( $p = .158$ ).

301

### 302 Discussion

303 Maternal antenatal attitudes and intentions for infant feeding did not differ  
304 significantly among women with a healthy, overweight or obese BMI. Women with stronger  
305 intentions for breastfeeding were significantly more likely to breastfeed with greater  
306 exclusivity, but there were no significant differences in breastfeeding practices in the first  
307 month postpartum between healthy weight, overweight or obese women.

308 Although TPB (Ajzen, 1991; 2002) is frequently used to identify psychosocial  
309 associations of breastfeeding behaviour, the predictive utility of the model is low. The  
310 variance in breastfeeding practices explained by constructs in the model (attitudes, subjective  
311 norm, perceived behavioural control and intentions) ranges from 10% (Ismail et al., 2016) to  
312 4% (Wambach, 1997), and is less accurate at predicting breastfeeding behaviour over the  
313 postpartum period (McMillan et al., 2008). Intentions for infant feeding in this cohort are  
314 consistently measured using dichotomous and categorical scales (Hauff et al., 2014; Jarlenski  
315 et al., 2014; Newby & Davies, 2016; Visram et al., 2013; Lyons et al., 2018) which dilutes  
316 the wide variability in intentions for infant feeding and subsequently overinflates the  
317 magnitude of differences observed. Using the Infant Feeding Intentions Scale (IFIS)  
318 (Nommsen-Rivers & Dewey, 2009), which is both theoretically informed and  
319 psychometrically validated, observed differences in the strength of intentions to breastfeed  
320 among healthy weight, overweight and obese women are negligible.

321 Attitudes towards infant feeding were breastfeeding-positive across women in this  
322 study. No differences in beliefs about breastfeeding have been observed in the wider  
323 literature with regards to maternal BMI (Lyons et al., 2018), and little evidence is available to

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324 explain why differences in beliefs or attitudes would be dependent on maternal BMI alone.  
325 Knowledge and beliefs about breastfeeding vary as a function of access to education and  
326 socioeconomic environment (Johnson et al., 2018; McAndrew et al., 2012). Considered  
327 together with the recognised inverse association between maternal BMI and socioeconomic  
328 status (Poston et al., 2016), attitudes to breastfeeding observed here are likely to be uniformly  
329 positive across BMI categories because women in this cohort lived in less deprived areas of  
330 the UK with high educational-attainment backgrounds. Findings of this study are supported  
331 by previous observations that intentions to breastfeed are also uniformly high among healthy  
332 weight, overweight and obese women (Cordero, Oza-Frank, Landon & Nankervis, 2015;  
333 Guelinckx, Devlieger, Bogaerts, Pauwels & Vansant, 2011; Newby & Davies, 2016) as well  
334 as the UK population (McAndrew et al., 2012).

335 When antenatal intentions were comparable between obese and non-obese women,  
336 rates of breastfeeding initiation and duration were previously observed to be significantly  
337 lower among women with a pre-pregnancy BMI  $\geq 30\text{kg/m}^2$  (Babendure et al., 2015; Lyons et  
338 al., 2018; Marshall, Lau, Purnell & Thornburg, 2018). In this study, no differences in feeding  
339 practices were recorded in the early postnatal period, suggesting variation in practices may  
340 only emerge over time. When women completed follow-up questionnaires, they were still  
341 under the care of health professionals who would have supported women through any  
342 breastfeeding challenges and encouraged them to continue breastfeeding. As healthcare  
343 availability and support diminish over the postnatal period, breastfeeding rates decline  
344 (McAndrew et al., 2012) and BMI group-differences may emerge. Followed longer term  
345 across the postnatal period, women with a BMI  $\geq 30\text{kg/m}^2$  were found to have increased risk  
346 of early breastfeeding cessation over time (Flores et al., 2018; Wojcicki, 2011). During the  
347 early postnatal period, women may also have felt pressured to conform to healthcare  
348 professional or societal expectations to breastfeed, which may in part explain the high



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349 exclusivity of breastfeeding practices reported across BMI groups. Average proportions of  
350 breastmilk feeds was higher than 80%, which suggests women who were formula-feeding  
351 their babies may not have responded.

352 In the UK, white women have the lowest incidence of breastfeeding (McAndrew et  
353 al., 2012) but are more likely to live in the less deprived areas with higher socioeconomic and  
354 educational attainment backgrounds, each of which independently increase the likelihood of  
355 breastfeeding (McAndrew et al., 2012; Oakley et al., 2014). Women in this sample were  
356 predominantly white, but also degree-educated and lived in less socioeconomically deprived  
357 areas of the UK, suggesting positive sociodemographic predictors of breastfeeding may have  
358 overshadowed any independent effect of maternal BMI on breastfeeding practices. A high  
359 proportion of multiparous women with previous breastfeeding experience is likely to have  
360 further contributed to the null findings observed. Given the relatively strong  
361 sociodemographic predictors of breastfeeding, alternative observations and conclusions from  
362 samples with greater ethnic and socioeconomic diversity are likely.

363 Understanding practices in the well-defined sample observed here is helpful for  
364 further scoping the content and necessity of targeted support. Efforts should be made to  
365 consider the influence of sociodemographic factors when developing support strategies, as  
366 breastfeeding interventions that are socially and culturally tailored have been effective  
367 (Dyson et al., 2005; Fairbank et al., 2000). The wider evidence available has identified  
368 reduced uptake and duration of breastfeeding across women with overweight and obese BMIs  
369 during pregnancy (Amir & Donath, 2007; Mäkelä et al., 2014; Turcksin et al., 2012;  
370 Wojcicki, 2011), however the extent to which maternal BMI independently predicts lower  
371 rates of breastfeeding initiation and duration may still differ among different  
372 sociodemographic and clinical sub-groups of women.

373

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374 **Limitations**

375           The current study did not consider the construct of breastfeeding self-efficacy  
376 (comparable to perceived behavioural control) in the associations explored. Self-efficacy is a  
377 recognised predictor of breastfeeding initiation and duration across cohorts (DeJagger,  
378 Skouteris, Broadbent, Amir, & Mellor, 2013; Lawton et al., 2012; Martinez-Brockman et al.,  
379 2017) with evidence to date indicating women with higher BMIs ( $\geq 25\text{kg/m}^2$ ) may have lower  
380 confidence in their ability to breastfeed, both antenatally and postnatally (Babendure et al.,  
381 2015; Lyons et al., 2018). Some intervention studies **targeting** breastfeeding self-efficacy  
382 have been successful at increasing rates of exclusive breastfeeding (Noel-Weiss, Rupp,  
383 Cragg, Bassett & Woodend, 2006; Wu, Hu, McCoy & Efirid, 2014), although this was not  
384 observed among cohorts of women **with** overweight or obese **BMIs** (Chapman et al., 2013).  
385 Self-efficacy may be a key mechanism responsible for observed associations between  
386 maternal BMI and reduced uptake and duration of breastfeeding, and should continue to be  
387 explored and targeted in intervention.

388           Although sufficiently powered to detect differences in associations between antenatal  
389 social-cognitions and maternal BMI, the study is limited by a small sample size ( $N = 128$ ),  
390 particularly in the proportion of women who responded to the postnatal questionnaire ( $n =$   
391 48). **Despite comparable average proportions of breastmilk feeds across the BMI groups, it is**  
392 **important to note the study was underpowered to detect significant differences in**  
393 **breastfeeding practices between BMI categories. The drop-out rate to respond to the postnatal**  
394 **questionnaire was high (62.5%), most likely due to the timing of questionnaire delivery.**  
395 **Follow-up questionnaires were sent to women between one and 28 days postpartum; a time**  
396 **when motherhood duties and postnatal recovery are priority. As such, drop-out rates across**  
397 **each BMI group were comparatively high and did not differ significantly.**

398           **Despite this,** missing data analysis revealed no significant differences in the

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399 sociodemographic profile of completing versus non-completing women. Observations from  
400 this study reinforce the need for future studies to sample purposively on a range of  
401 sociodemographic factors including socioeconomic status and ethnicity. Given the online  
402 nature of this study, purposive sampling was not undertaken which is a limitation. The  
403 sample was recruited opportunistically and was highly homogenous (majority white, low  
404 socioeconomic deprivation, highly educated), reflecting a self-selecting bias of women likely  
405 to breastfeed, interested in perceptions and practices of infant feeding, and receptive to taking  
406 part in research. This limits the generalisability of associations observed outside this well-  
407 defined cohort.

408

**409 Future Research**

410 Plausible mechanisms for differences in antenatal social-cognitions for breastfeeding  
411 between obese and non-obese women are yet to be identified, and the extent to which  
412 psychosocial factors contribute to reduced rates of breastfeeding uptake and duration  
413 previously observed in this cohort remains unclear (Babendure et al., 2015; Lyons et al.,  
414 2018). Additionally, intervention studies attempting to improve breastfeeding rates have been  
415 limited in effectiveness (Chapman et al., 2012; Rasmussen, Dietterich, Zelek, Altabet &  
416 Kjolhede, 2011). One intervention among women with a BMI  $\geq 30$ kg/m<sup>2</sup> significantly  
417 improved rates of exclusive and any breastfeeding across the postpartum period (Carlsen et  
418 al., 2013), however underlying mechanisms of action were not identified as psychosocial  
419 factors were unaccounted for throughout. A proposed Cochrane review evaluating evidence  
420 available for breastfeeding support and interventions in this cohort likewise ignores the role  
421 of social-cognitive and psychological associations (Soltani & Fair, 2016). As such, the  
422 evidence to date provides little meaningful targets for future intervention.

423 As intentions for breastfeeding among women who are overweight or obese during

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424 pregnancy remain comparable to women with a healthy BMI (Cordero *et al.*, 2015;  
425 Guelinckx *et al.*, 2011; Newby & Davies, 2016) and there were no observed differences in  
426 antenatal social-cognitions for infant feeding practices, postnatal factors are likely to be key  
427 in supporting prolonged breastfeeding among women with overweight or obese BMIs. The  
428 extent to which maternal BMI independently impacts breastfeeding uptake and duration  
429 should be examined across sociodemographic and clinical sub-groups to ensure support  
430 strategies and necessary and acceptable to women. Longitudinal investigations of  
431 associations of infant feeding among cohorts of women who are overweight or obese during  
432 pregnancy are needed to identify plausible and modifiable social-cognitive mechanisms of  
433 action for use as priority targets in future intervention studies.

434

435 **Key Messages**

- 436 • Evidence to date suggests women with a pre-pregnancy BMI in the overweight (25-  
437 29.9kg/m<sup>2</sup>) or obese ( $\geq 30$ kg/m<sup>2</sup>) range are less likely to initiate and continue breastfeeding  
438 than healthy weight women
- 439 • In a sample of women in the UK, early breastfeeding practices were comparable and did  
440 not differ significantly between healthy weight, overweight and obese women
- 441 • Validated questionnaire measures found maternal antenatal attitudes were breastfeeding-  
442 positive and intentions for exclusive breastfeeding were high, which but did not differ  
443 significantly according to maternal BMI
- 444 • Given strong antenatal intentions for breastfeeding and comparable initiation rates,  
445 postnatal factors are likely to contribute significantly to lower rates of breastfeeding  
446 practices in this cohort
- 447 • Longitudinal investigations of infant feeding among cohorts of women who are  
448 overweight or obese are needed to identify priority targets for intervention strategies

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For Peer Review

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Table 1

*Demographic and Clinical Characteristics of Women and Infants Included in the Sample*

<b>Women</b>	<b>Total*</b> <i>n</i> (%)	<b>BMI</b> ≤ 24.9kg/m <sup>2</sup> ( <i>n</i> = 66)	<b>BMI</b> ≥ 25.0 - ≤ 29.9 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ( <i>n</i> = 33)	<b>BMI</b> ≥ 30.0 kg/m <sup>2</sup> ( <i>n</i> = 29)	<b><i>p</i> value</b>
<b>Age (<i>n</i> = 128) <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)</b>	31.10 (4.82)	31.62 (5.21)	30.97 (3.93)	30.07 (4.80)	.349
Age Range	19 - 43	19 - 42	23 - 40	22 - 43	
<b>Born in UK (<i>n</i> = 128)</b>	112 (87.5)	58 (87.9)	28 (84.8)	26 (89.7)	.842
<b>Ethnicity<sup>1</sup> (<i>n</i> = 128)</b>					.774
Asian	5 (3.9)	3 (4.5)	1 (3.0)	1 (3.45)	
White	119 (93.0)	60 (90.9)	32 (97.0)	27 (93.1)	
BME background	4 (3.1)	3 (4.5)	0	1 (3.45)	
<b>Marital / Co-habiting status (<i>n</i> = 128)</b>					.144 <sup>a</sup>
Single	5 (3.9)	1 (1.51)	0 (0)	4 (13.8)	
Married / Civil Partnership	84 (65.6)	46 (69.7)	22 (66.7)	16 (55.2)	
Cohabiting with partner	36 (28.1)	18 (27.3)	10 (30.0)	8 (27.6)	
Partnered; not cohabiting	3 (2.3)	1 (1.51)	1 (3.0)	1 (3.5)	
<b>Education Level (<i>n</i> = 128)</b>					.255 <sup>a</sup>
Secondary school	6 (4.7)	2 (3.03)	1 (3.0)	3 (10.3)	
College	40 (31.3)	18 (27.3)	12 (36.4)	10 (34.5)	
University (UG)	41 (32.0)	19 (28.8)	11 (33.3)	11 (37.9)	
University (PG)	41 (32.0)	27 (40.9)	9 (27.3)	5 (17.2)	
<b>IMD-10<sup>2</sup> (<i>n</i> = 128) <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)</b>	6.16 (2.81)	6.59 (2.64)	6.09 (2.94)	5.24 (2.91)	.096
<b>Parity (<i>n</i> = 128)</b>					.812
Primiparous	46 (35.9)	22 (33.3)	13 (39.4)	11 (37.9)	
Multiparous	82 (64.06)	44 (66.6)	20 (60.6)	18 (62.1)	
<b>Diabetic Status (<i>n</i> = 127)</b>					
No Diabetes	121 (94.5)	65 (100)	31 (93.9)	25 (86.2)	.006 <sup>a*</sup>
GDM <sup>3</sup>	6 (4.7)	0	2 (6.06)	4 (13.8)	
<b>BMI (kg/m<sup>2</sup>) <i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)</b>	26.49 (5.59)	22.28 (1.84)	27.58 (1.45)	34.83 (4.01)	<.001*
<b>Previous infant feeding</b>					
Previous Breastfeeding <sup>4</sup> ( <i>n</i> = 82)	83.78 (52.51)	90.68 (53.37)	78.50 (49.34)	72.78 (54.10)	.421
Previous Formula Feeding <sup>5</sup> ( <i>n</i> = 82)	38.29 (51.49)	30.0 (45.44)	36.50 (56.59)	60.56 (55.89)	.103

\*Figures shown for categories are proportions unless otherwise noted as Mean (Standard Deviation).

<sup>1</sup>Only one participant reported to be 'Black', 'Hispanic / Latino', 'Mixed' and 'Other', respectively; collapsed together as **Black and/or Minority Ethnic** (BME). <sup>2</sup>IMD-10= Index of Multiple Deprivation measures relative deprivation across each *output area* in England, Scotland, Wales, Northern Ireland. Most populated deciles were 10 (least deprived) (*n* =19), 4 (*n* =18), 8 (*n* =16), 9 (*n* =15), and 6 (*n* =14).

<sup>3</sup>GDM= Gestational diabetes mellitus. <sup>4</sup>Average % of breastfeeding (vs. formula feeding) in the first 6-months postpartum with previous children. <sup>5</sup>Average % of formula feeding in the first 6-months postpartum with previous children. <sup>a</sup>Fisher's exact test was used due to low cell frequencies.

## MATERNAL BMI: BREASTFEEDING ATTITUDES &amp; INTENTIONS

Table 2

*Attitudes, Intentions and Infant Feeding Practices According to Maternal BMI Status*

	Total <i>M (SD)</i>	BMI $\leq 24.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ( <i>n</i> = 66)	BMI $\geq 25.0$ - $\leq 29.9 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ( <i>n</i> = 33)	BMI $\geq 30.0 \text{ kg/m}^2$ ( <i>n</i> = 29)	<i>p</i> value
<b>Attitudes (IIFAS score)</b> ( <i>n</i> = 128)	66.81 (10.47)	67.85 (9.49)	64.52 (12.23)	67.07 (10.41)	.327
Score range	36 - 85	46 - 85	36 - 83	48 - 84	
<b>Intentions (IFIS score)</b> ( <i>n</i> = 128)	12.54 (3.85)	12.93 (3.83)	11.59 (4.31)	12.72 (3.25)	.254
Score range	1 - 16	1 - 16	1 - 16	4 - 16	
<b>Infant feeding practices</b> ( <i>n</i> = 48)	48	29	9	10	
<b>Initial Infant Feeding<sup>1</sup></b> ( <i>n</i> = 48)	89.79 (25.05)	91.38 (23.41)	80.00 (35.0)	94.0 (18.97)	.421
<b>Current Infant Feeding<sup>2</sup></b> ( <i>n</i> = 48)	85.21 (28.95)	86.21 (29.57)	85.56 (22.42)	82.00 (34.58)	.927

*M*= Mean; *SD*= Standard Deviation; Tukey HSD post-hoc analysis revealed no significant differences in mean attitude (A) or intention (I) scores between healthy weight vs. overweight women (Mean Difference [MD] (A) = 3.33, *p* = .297; (I) MD = 1.34, *p* = .234); healthy weight vs. obese women ((A) MD = .780, *p* = .940; (I) MD = .208, *p* = .968); or overweight vs. obese women ((A) MD = -2.55, *p* = .604; (I) MD = -1.13, *p* = .480); Attitude scores (Levene's = (2, 125), 1.202, *p* = .304); (MD = -1.13, *p* = .480) and Intention scores (Levene's = (2, 125), .872, *p* = .420) were homogenous; <sup>1</sup>Average % of breastfeeding (vs. formula feeding) in the first 48 hours following birth; <sup>2</sup>Average % of breastfeeding (vs. formula feeding) in the last 48 hours (two days)

## MATERNAL BMI: BREASTFEEDING ATTITUDES &amp; INTENTIONS

Table 3

*Associations of Maternal Antenatal Attitudes (IIFAS) to Infant Feeding*

	$\beta$ coefficient	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI
<i>Constant</i>	65.76 <sup>1</sup>	12.78	<.001	40.23, 91.30
<b>Maternal BMI<sup>2</sup></b>				
Overweight	-3.59	2.53	.162	-8.65, 1.48
Obese	-1.48	2.89	.610	-7.25, 4.29
<b>Ethnicity<sup>3</sup></b>				
Asian	-11.28	6.61	.093	-24.48, 1.93
BME	10.62	5.62	.063	-.608, 21.86
Born outside UK <sup>4</sup>	-4.61	3.78	.227	-12.15, 2.94
<b>Marital status<sup>5</sup></b>				
Married	7.35	7.31	.319	-7.25, 21.95
Cohabiting with partner	5.40	7.72	.487	-10.02, 20.82
Partnered; not cohabiting	5.44	11.71	.644	-17.95, 28.83
<b>Education<sup>6</sup></b>				
College	-9.88	6.11	.111	-22.08, 2.32
University (UG)	-8.62	5.97	.153	-20.54, 3.30
University (PG)	-10.49	5.86	.078	-22.20, 1.22
Maternal age	.070	.272	.795	-.473, .615
IMD-10	-.343	.417	.413	-1.18, .490
Parity	-3.90	2.75	.160	-9.40, 1.59
Previous breastfeeding	.127	.041	.003*	.045, .209
Previous formula feeding	-.012	.044	.791	-.099, .076

Regression model was adjusted for confounds listed;  $\beta$  coefficient= Standardized beta coefficient; *SE*= Standard Error; 95% CI= 95% Confidence Interval; \*significant at  $\alpha=.05$  level. Underlying statistical assumptions of homoscedasticity and multicollinearity were met. <sup>1</sup>Unstandardized beta coefficient; <sup>2</sup>Healthy BMI as reference category; <sup>3</sup>White as reference category; <sup>4</sup>Born in the UK as reference category; <sup>5</sup>Single as reference category; <sup>6</sup>Secondary education as reference category



## MATERNAL BMI: BREASTFEEDING ATTITUDES &amp; INTENTIONS

Table 4

*Associations of Maternal Antenatal Intentions (IFIS) for Infant Feeding*

	$\beta$ coefficient	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI
Constant	4.46	3.85	.252	-3.23, 12.15
Maternal BMI <sup>1</sup>				
Overweight	-.164	.646	.801	-1.45, 1.13
Obese	.101	.741	.892	-1.38, 1.58
Education <sup>2</sup>				
College	-2.51	1.59	.119	-5.68, .663
University (UG)	-.684	1.51	.653	-3.70, 2.34
University (PG)	-.332	1.51	.827	-3.35, 2.69
Marital status <sup>3</sup>				
Married	3.58	1.85	.057	-.115, 7.27
Cohabiting with partner	3.03	1.98	.131	-.920, 6.97
Partnered; not cohabiting	2.24	2.99	.456	-3.72, 8.20
Maternal age	-.094	.068	.174	-.230, .042
IMD-10	-.211	.107	.053	-.426, .003
Previous Breastfeeding	.019	.007	.010*	.005, .033
Previous Formula Feeding	-.023	.008	.005*	-.039, -.007
Attitudes (IIFAS)	.145	.030	<.001*	.084, .205

Regression model was adjusted for confounds correlating with IFIS scores: maternal age; marital status; IMD-10; education; previous breastfeeding experience; previous formula feeding experience. <sup>1</sup>Healthy weight as reference category; <sup>2</sup>Secondary education as reference category; <sup>3</sup>Single as reference category;  $\beta$  coefficient= Unstandardized beta coefficient; *SE*= Standard Error; 95% CI= 95% Confidence Interval; \*significant at  $\alpha=.05$  level.

## MATERNAL BMI: BREASTFEEDING ATTITUDES &amp; INTENTIONS

Table 5

*Associations of Early Infant Feeding Practices (Breastfeeding in the Last 48 hours)*

	$\beta$ coefficient	SE	p	95% CI
Constant	58.66	38.72	.144	-21.64, 138.97
Marital status <sup>1</sup>				
Cohabiting with partner	-7.74	8.93	.395	-26.27, 10.78
Previous Experience Breastfeeding	.017	.094	.857	-.178, .212
Previous Experience Formula Feeding	-.080	.092	.395	-.272, .111
Baby birthweight	7.88	6.48	.237	-5.55, 21.31
Maternal BMI				
Overweight	8.55	8.28	.313	-8.63, 25.72
Obese	.195	7.99	.981	-16.37, 16.76
Attitudes (IIFAS)	-.755	.517	.158	-1.83, .317
Intentions (IFIS)	4.18	1.89	.038*	.264, 8.09

Regression model was adjusted for confounds correlating with infant feeding practices in the most recent 48 hours: Marital status, previous experience with breastfeeding, previous experience with formula feeding and baby birthweight. <sup>1</sup>Married as reference category;  $\beta$  coefficient= Unstandardized beta coefficient; SE= Standard Error; 95% CI= 95% Confidence Interval; \*significant at  $\alpha=.05$  level.

ONLINE SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL 1: MATERNAL BMI: BREASTFEEDING  
ATTITUDES & INTENTIONS

Table S1  
*Responses to the Iowa Infant Feeding Attitudes Scale (IIFAS) (Mora et al., 1999)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The nutritional benefits of breastmilk [...]	57 (44.5)	45 (35.2)	14 (10.9)	9 (7.0)	3 (2.3)
2. Formula feeding is [...]	44 (34.3)	50 (39.1)	13 (10.2)	18 (14.1)	3 (2.3)
3. [...] mother-infant bonding	3 (2.3)	9 (7.0)	7 (5.5)	39 (30.5)	70 (54.7)
4. [...] lacking in iron	35 (27.3)	57 (44.5)	32 (25.0)	4 (3.1)	0
5. [...] be overfed [...]	5 (3.9)	20 (15.6)	31 (24.2)	50 (39.1)	22 (17.2)
6. [...] work outside the house	33 (25.8)	39 (30.5)	32 (25.0)	17 (13.3)	7 (5.5)
7. [...] joys of motherhood	20 (15.6)	25 (19.5)	40 (31.3)	28 (21.9)	15 (11.7)
8. [...] breastfeed in public places [...]	114 (89.1)	7 (5.5)	5 (3.9)	0	2 (1.6)
9. [...] are healthier [...]	11 (8.6)	19 (14.8)	28 (21.9)	37 (28.9)	33 (25.8)
10. Breastfed babies are [...]	65 (50.8)	43 (33.6)	14 (10.9)	3 (2.3)	3 (2.3)
11. Fathers feel [...]	31 (24.2)	36 (28.1)	29 (22.7)	29 (22.7)	3 (2.3)
12. [...] ideal food [...]	5 (3.9)	0	19 (14.8)	28 (21.9)	76 (59.4)
13. [...] digested [...]	5 (3.9)	3 (2.3)	18 (14.1)	36 (28.1)	66 (51.6)
14. [...] healthy for an infant [...]	25 (19.5)	39 (30.5)	35 (27.3)	22 (17.2)	7 (5.5)
15. [...] convenient [...]	6 (4.7)	13 (10.2)	20 (15.6)	42 (32.8)	47 (36.7)
16. [...] expensive [...]	5 (3.9)	1 (0.8)	1 (0.8)	20 (15.6)	101 (78.9)
17. [...] drinks alcohol [...]	53 (41.4)	39 (30.5)	22 (17.2)	11 (8.6)	3 (2.3)

*Note.* Numbers displayed a n (%) responses to the items. NB: The IIFAS (Mora et al., 1999) is a copyrighted instrument.

ONLINE SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL 1: MATERNAL BMI: BREASTFEEDING  
ATTITUDES & INTENTIONS

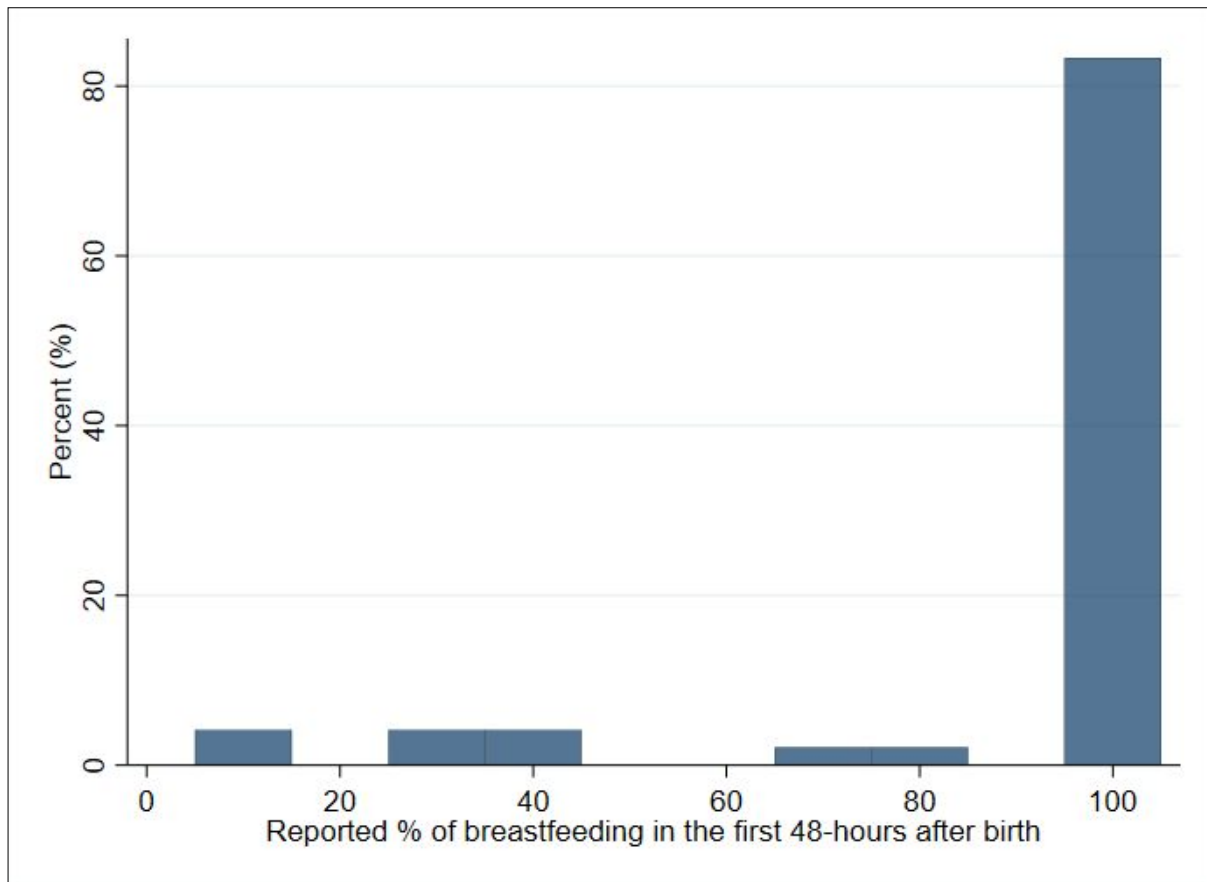
Table S2

*Responses to the Infant Feeding Intention Scale (IFIS) (Nommsen-Rivers & Dewey, 2009)*

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I am planning to only formula feed my baby (I will not breastfeed at all)	101 (78.9)	17 (13.3)	3 (2.3)	3 (2.3)	4 (3.1)
2. I am planning to at least give breastfeeding a try	5 (2.9)	2 (2.3)	3 (2.3)	15 (11.7)	102 (79.7)
3. When my baby is 1-month old, I will be breastfeeding without using any formula or other milk	7 (5.5)	5 (3.9)	25 (19.5)	25 (19.5)	66 (51.6)
4. When my baby is 3-months old, I will be breastfeeding without using any formula or other milk	5 (3.9)	8 (6.3)	25 (19.5)	27 (21.1)	63 (49.2)
5. When my baby is 6-months old, I will be breastfeeding without using any formula or other milk.	9 (7.0)	9 (7.0)	38 (29.7)	18 (14.1)	54 (42.2)

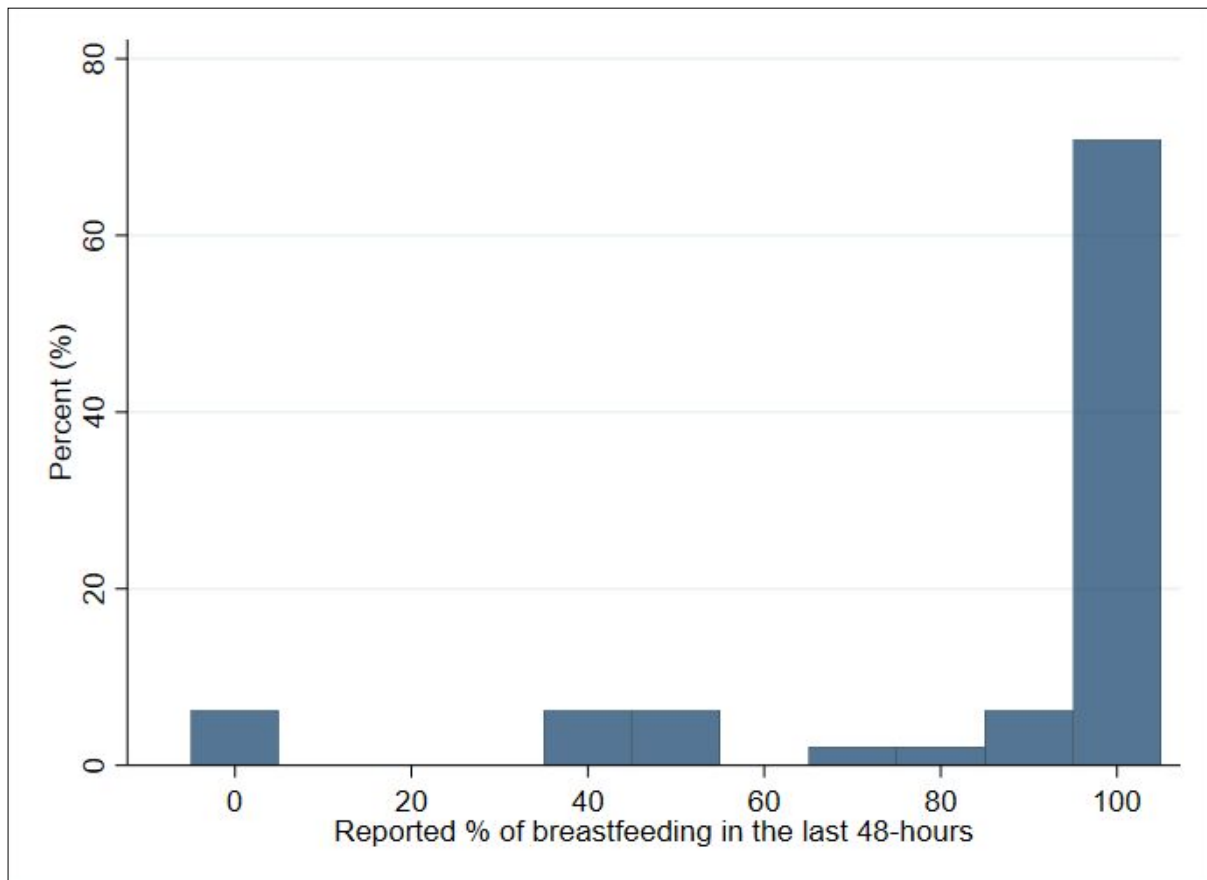
*Note.* Numbers displayed a n (%) responses to the items. Total score is calculated using the following formula: ((item 1 + item 2 / 2) + (item 3 + item 4 + item 5)). Total scores range from 0 – 16.

## ONLINE SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL 1: MATERNAL BMI: BREASTFEEDING ATTITUDES &amp; INTENTIONS



*Figure S1.* Initial feeding practices in the first 48 hours of infants' life ( $n = 48$ ). On average, 89.79% of infants' feeds were breastmilk ( $SD = 25.05$ ) in comparison to formula milk.  $n = 40$  women reported exclusively breastfeeding their infants.

## ONLINE SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL 1: MATERNAL BMI: BREASTFEEDING ATTITUDES &amp; INTENTIONS



*Figure S2.* Current feeding practices (previous 48 hours) among  $n = 48$  women at an average of (M) 14.73 days ( $SD = 8.47$ ) postpartum. On average, 85.21% of infants' feeds were breastmilk ( $SD = 28.95$ ) in comparison to formula milk.  $n = 34$  women reported exclusively breastfeeding their infants.