

*Citation for published version:* Sylvester, BD, Standage, M, Justine Dowd, A, Martin, LJ, Sweet, SN & Beauchamp, MR 2014, 'Perceived variety, psychological needs Satisfaction, and exercise-related well-being', *Psychology and Health*, vol. 29, no. 9, pp. 1044-1061. https://doi.org/10.1080/08870446.2014.907900

DOI: 10.1080/08870446.2014.907900

Publication date: 2014

Document Version Peer reviewed version

Link to publication

This is an Accepted manuscript of an article published by Taylor and Francis in Psychology and health on 22/04/2014, available online: http://www.tandfonline.com/10.1080/08870446.2014.907900

**University of Bath** 

## **Alternative formats**

If you require this document in an alternative format, please contact: openaccess@bath.ac.uk

#### **General rights**

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

Take down policy If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

1 Running head: PERCEIVED VARIETY IN EXERCISE

2

3 Perceived Variety, Psychological Needs Satisfaction, and Exercise-Related Well-Being

4

1	Perceived Variety, Psychological Needs Satisfaction, and Exercise-Related Well-Being
2	Abstract
3	Objective: Perceived variety represents a psychosocial experience that gives rise to, and supports
4	the maintenance of, an individual's well-being. In this study, we developed an instrument to
5	measure perceived variety in exercise, and examined whether ratings of perceived variety in
6	exercise predict unique variance in indices of exercise-related well-being in addition to that
7	explained by the three basic psychological needs (for competence, relatedness, and autonomy)
8	embedded within self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2002). We also examined the extent to
9	which variance in perceived variety is empirically distinct from (or subsumed by), competence,
10	relatedness, and autonomy in the context of exercise.
11	<b>Methods:</b> A convenience sample of community adults ( $N = 507$ ) completed online surveys twice
12	over a six-week period ( $n = 367$ ).
13	Results: Perceived variety in exercise was found to prospectively predict unique variance in indices
14	of exercise-related well-being, in addition to that explained by psychological needs for competence,
15	relatedness, and autonomy. Using exploratory and confirmatory factor analytic procedures,
16	perceived variety was found to be empirically distinct from perceived competence, relatedness, and
17	autonomy.
18	Conclusion: Results from this work suggest that perceived variety holds potential for theoretical
19	and applied advancements in understanding and predicting well-being in exercise settings.
20	
21	Key words: basic psychological needs theory, variety, physical activity, well-being
22	
23	
24	

1	Perceived Variety, Psychological Needs Satisfaction, and Exercise-Related Well-Being
2	Across multiple life domains the experience of well-being has been consistently found to
3	result in a range of positive and adaptive responses among adults such as more fulfilling
4	relationships, improvements in work success (Lyubomirsky, King, & Diener, 2005), as well as
5	leading longer, healthier lives (Diener & Chan, 2011). Accordingly, it is not surprising that over
6	the past two decades researchers have increasingly sought to better understand psychological
7	factors that are necessary to develop and sustain well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Well-being is
8	characterized by the presence of positive feelings, the absence of negative feelings, and realizing
9	human potentials to be fully functioning (Ryan & Deci, 2001).
10	One psychosocial experience that has garnered recent attention in the psychological well-
11	being literature is the perception of variety (Sheldon, Boehm, & Lyubomirsky, 2012; Sheldon &
12	Lyubomirsky, 2012). Variety refers to the pursuit and experience of diverse activities, behaviors,
13	and opportunities in one's social milieu (cf. Kahn & Ratner, 2005; Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2012).
14	While researchers have built support for the prevalence and value of varying one's experiences
15	using various variety-like constructs (e.g., sensation-seeking and experiencing-seeking; Zuckerman,
16	1994), such constructs refer to personality traits in which one seeks complex, intense, and
17	unconventional experiences in addition to experiences that are varied and novel. In the current
18	study, experiencing variety was conceptualized as a psychological experience that included novel
19	and/or alternating familiar experiences, which could also be simple, mundane, and conventional.
20	Novel experiences stimulate interest (e.g., Silvia, 2006) and transiently support persistent
21	behaviour, while alternating among familiar experiences reinforces learning and development
22	(Hebb, 1949; also see McAlister and Pessemier's (1982), review on intrapersonal motives for varied
23	behavior). For the sake of conceptual clarity it is important to distinguish between the
24	psychological experience of variety (i.e., felt variety), and the provisions that allow variety to
25	happen (i.e., variety support). The former corresponds to a person's <i>perception</i> of whether he or

she has experienced (or currently experiences) variety; whereas the latter corresponds to the range 1 of opportunities that are (objectively) provided in a given social setting. It is the former — 2 experience of variety— that forms the basis of enquiry in this paper. 3 Based on evidence that varied experiences are innately stimulating and rewarding (Berlyne, 4 5 1970; Pronin & Jacobs, 2008), researchers have examined perceptions of variety and found them to be instrumental in maintaining positive emotions derived from an activity through a *direct* 6 relationship to well-being (Sheldon et al., 2012; Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2012). In their recent 7 8 paper, Sheldon and colleagues (2012) suggested that through varied experiences well-being is bolstered by virtue of *prolonging the positive emotions* derived from an activity. In support of this 9 contention, Sheldon et al. (2012, Study 2) found that participants who varied their experiences in an 10 11 activity (i.e., providing varied acts of kindness to others via an experimental manipulation), were 12 able to continue to experience well-being in that activity over time, whereas participants who did the same activity (i.e., routine/similar acts of kindness) in the same way each time, adapted to the 13 positive effect and ceased to derive a boost in well-being from the activity. Although Sheldon et 14

al.'s study specifically concerned acts of kindness, it is noteworthy that the experience of varietyappears to be implicated as an antecedent of the experience of well-being.

One context which holds particular potential for developing well-being is through exercise 17 (Biddle & Ekkekakis, 2005). Exercise refers to a subgroup of leisure behavior characterized by 18 19 repeated bodily movements in planned and structured physical activity with the goal of maintaining or improving physical fitness (Bouchard, Blair, & Haskell, 2007). There is general consensus that 20 participation in exercise is linked with higher levels of well-being (e.g., Netz, Wu, Becker, & 21 Tenenbaum, 2005; Penedo & Dahn, 2005). Experiencing variety may be particularly salient in 22 exercise contexts as the provision of variety has been found to be related to increased enjoyment of 23 exercise (Dimmock, Jackson, Podlong & Magaraggia, 2013; Glaros & Janelle, 2001; Juvancic-24 25 Heltzel, Glickman, & Barkley, 2013). For example, Dimmock et al. (2013) found that participants

who received messages that emphasized the variety of experiences they could expect in the two 1 halves of their upcoming exercise session (i.e., providing support for variety), reported higher 2 ratings of enjoyment of the exercise session and greater interest and perceived internal locus of 3 causality in repeating the exercise session compared to participants who received messages 4 5 emphasizing that they could expect to have the same experience in both halves (i.e., absence of variety). It is noteworthy, however, that people in both conditions participated in the same (i.e., 6 non-autonomous) exercise protocol, suggesting that the perception of variety may be particularly 7 8 important for well-being in exercise.

In their review on variety-seeking behavior (i.e., the pursuit of varied experiences), Kahn 9 and Ratner (2005) called for researchers to make use of psychological theory to measure the impact 10 11 of variety-seeking behavior in relation to a range of outcomes (such as well-being). One theory that 12 provides insight into the development and maintenance of well-being through psychosocial experiences is self-determination theory (SDT; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2002). SDT is an organismic 13 dialectic meta-theory of human motivation and personality that considers humans to have a natural, 14 innate tendency for growth and development (Deci & Ryan, 1985). This natural propensity is 15 supported (or undermined) by the extent to which social contexts provide support for three basic 16 and universal psychological needs (cf. Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). Indeed, Deci and Ryan (1985, 17 2000) posit that psychological growth, well-being, and optimal functioning are promoted and 18 19 fostered by social contexts that satisfy needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy. Conversely, social-environmental settings that thwart these essential nutriments to well-being and 20 development, frustrate basic need satisfaction and are linked to experiences of ill-being, 21 malfunctioning, and constricted functioning (Vansteenkiste & Ryan, 2013). 22 The concept and phenomena of basic psychological needs are explicitly addressed within 23 basic psychological needs theory (BPNT), which is a mini-theory within the broader SDT 24 25 framework. Within BPNT, Deci and Ryan (2002) propose that there are (at least) three basic

psychological needs (for competence, relatedness, and autonomy) and the degree to which each 1 need is subjectively satisfied provides a basis for categorizing aspects of an experience as positive 2 or negative in relation to one's psychological well-being, integrity, and growth. Competence refers 3 to an individual's perception of their capability to effectively deal with challenges in their social 4 5 environment (Deci & Ryan, 2002; White, 1959). Relatedness refers to positive interactions with others, and feelings of connectedness by caring for and being cared for by other people (Baumeister 6 & Leary, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 2002). Finally, autonomy refers to feelings of self-governance, and 7 8 feeling as though one is the causal agent of their own decisions and actions (deCharms, 1968; Deci & Rvan, 2002). The key principles that define the psychological needs within BPNT are that they 9 are organismic necessities that apply to all people, are not derivatives of other psychological needs, 10 and have fundamental and direct relations to wellness and health (Deci & Ryan, 2002; Standage & 11 12 Ryan, 2012).

Understanding the role of basic psychological needs in exercise contexts in relation to well-13 being has been a longstanding focus of research in both exercise and health psychology (Fox & 14 Wilson, 2008). Findings from previous studies in which researchers examined psychological needs 15 16 in exercise contexts have generally been consistent with BPNT (Deci & Ryan, 2002) such that people who report feeling greater satisfaction of the need for competence, relatedness, and 17 autonomy also report higher levels of well-being (i.e., small-to-moderate positive relationships; e.g., 18 19 Edmunds, Ntoumanis, & Duda, 2007; Wilson, Mack, Gunnell, Oster, & Gregson, 2008). Despite the strong theoretical foundation of the relationships between competence, 20 relatedness, autonomy, and well-being, some scholars have highlighted the potential for other types 21 22 of positive experiences to explain additional variation in well-being (Sheldon, 2011) and based on recent findings (e.g., Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2012), variety could be one such experience. 23 Testing variety alongside the variables presented within BPNT appears warranted as the subjective 24 25 perception of experiencing variety has also been found to have a *direct* effect on indices of

1	contextual well-being (Sheldon et al., 2012; Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2012). While we would
2	expect that experiencing variety would be related to well-being at both global and situational levels
3	(cf. Vallerand, 1997), we were specifically interested in examining the experience of variety in the
4	context of exercise. In the current investigation, the contextual experience of variety was examined
5	alongside (i.e., at the same level as) satisfaction of the needs for competence, relatedness, and
6	autonomy because similar to the psychological needs, perceived variety in exercise is
7	conceptualized as (a) a felt experience, (b) a predecessor of both intrinsic motivation (e.g.,
8	Dimmock et al., 2013) and well-being, (c) an indicator that helps categorize the extent to which an
9	experience has a positive effect on well-being, and (d) having implications that extend beyond
10	immediate psychological functioning (cf. Sheldon, 2011; Sheldon et al., 2012).
11	However, the variance in indices of well-being explained by variety may already be
12	explained by satisfaction of the need for competence, relatedness, and autonomy, and perceived
13	variety may have empirical overlap with (i.e., subsumed by) any or all of these psychological
14	experiences. It seems prudent for researchers to investigate whether perceived variety explains
15	unique variance in indices of well-being, in addition to that explained by competence, relatedness,
16	and autonomy and subsequently, whether perceptions of variety are empirically distinct from
17	perceptions of competence, relatedness, and autonomy. Despite conceptualizing variety at the same
18	level as competence, relatedness, and autonomy, it was not our aim to test variety as a psychological
19	need in the current investigation as we realize there are multiple considerations and criteria such as
20	being innate, universal, and necessary for well-being (see Sheldon, 2011), that must be addressed
21	prior to a construct being considered a psychological need.
22	The primary purpose of this study was to examine whether perceived variety in exercise
23	predicts unique variance in exercise-related well-being over time, in addition to that explained by
24	the three basic psychological needs embedded within BPNT (i.e., competence, relatedness, and
25	autonomy). The secondary purpose was to examine whether perceived variety is empirically

1	distinct from perceptions of competence, relatedness, and autonomy in the context of exercise. In
2	order to address the primary and secondary purposes of this study, and in the absence of an
3	established questionnaire to assess perceived variety in exercise, we first sought to develop a
4	measure of this psychological construct.
5	Methods
6	Participants
7	Participants ( $N = 507$ ) were a community sample of adults (i.e., 18 to 83 years of age).
8	Nine cases were deleted due to missing values (i.e., respondents who failed to provide information
9	regarding perceived variety and satisfaction of the need for competence, relatedness, and autonomy
10	in the context of exercise). The resulting sample was comprised of 329 females ( $M_{age} = 34.02$
11	years; $SD_{age} = 13.22$ years) and 178 males ( $M_{age} = 33.61$ years; $SD_{age} = 13.30$ years). The majority
12	of participants lived in Canada (94.67 %), were single (51.20%), Caucasian (76.20%), had
13	completed at least a college diploma or university degree (72.10%), had full or part-time
14	employment (64.2%), had an annual household income less than \$100,000 (74.70%) and on
15	average, were classified as active at baseline ( $M_{moderate-vigorous\ exercise} = 39.19$ units; $SD = 33.21$ ;
16	Godin Leisure-Time Exercise Questionnaire; Godin, 2011).
17	Procedure
18	Following institutional ethical approval, adults over the age of 18 years and able to read and
19	converse in English were recruited online through postings (e.g., a blog) and in person at various
20	events (e.g., recreational walks/runs and hiking areas) for this study. Using a prospective
21	observational design, consenting participants completed the same online questionnaire (which
22	included a battery of instruments and took approximately 15 minutes) at two time points, six weeks
23	apart. In order to compensate participants for their time, all participants were entered into a draw to
24	win one of six \$50 gift certificates.

25 Measures

1	Perceived variety in exercise. We used a three-step process including item development,
2	focus groups, and expert review to develop and refine items that assess perceptions of experiencing
3	variety in exercise. First, we conducted an extensive literature review of research relating to
4	perceptions of variety with a particular focus on the context of exercise. In their seminal paper on
5	instrument development, Clark and Watson (1995) highlight that developing a precise and detailed
6	conception of the target construct is a critical first step. We defined variety as the pursuit and
7	experience of diverse activities, behaviors, and opportunities in one's social milieu (cf. Kahn &
8	Ratner, 2005; Sheldon & Lyubomirsky, 2012). Using the conceptual framework provided by Kahn
9	and Ratner (2005), Sheldon (2011), and Sheldon and Lyubomirsky (2012) and existing
10	questionnaires measuring variety (e.g., Experience Seeking subscale; Zuckerman, 2007) a
11	comprehensive list of items was generated and refined by the authors, resulting in a preliminary 8-
12	item measure.
13	Consultation with members of the target population can provide important information
14	regarding the content (Messick, 1995; Vogt, King, & King, 2004), and substantive aspects of
15	validity (Messick, 1995). Content aspects of validity are concerned with content relevance and

16 representativeness, whereas substantive aspects of validity are concerned with how respondents

17 interpret and make sense of items, and how this might be affected by the structure of the

18 questionnaire (Messick, 1995). Thus, in the second step, focus groups were conducted to further

19 refine and pre-test the initial items and response options. In total, three focus groups were

20 conducted,  $(N = 10; M_{age} = 31.3 \text{ years}; \text{SD} = 14.37 \text{ years}; 3 \text{ males}, 7 \text{ females})$ . A modified

21 'retrospective think-aloud' protocol (Oremus, Cosby, & Wolfson, 2005; Willis, 2005) was used in

22 the focus groups in order to better understand how members of the target population interpret and

respond to items. Specifically, participants in the focus groups were instructed to complete a copy

of the initial measure independently and following this, a series of questions were used in order to

25 prompt participants to discuss the preliminary measure (e.g., instructions, response format, and

wording of items). Questions included (a) "What, in your own words, does the question mean to 1 vou?" (b) "Did the answer choices include your answer?" (c) "Did you understand how to answer 2 the questions?" and (d) "Did the questionnaire leave anything out you felt was important?" (Oremus 3 et al., 2005; Willis, 2005). Conversations from the focus groups were transcribed by the first author 4 5 to conduct a content analysis. We used a constant comparison approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to identify and code sentences and phrases in which participants raised concern with one or more 6 items. The analysis focused on problematic and alternative interpretations of items. This iterative 7 8 process was repeated following each focus group and revisions were made to the questionnaire until no new suggestions emerged. As a result of the item trimming and instrument refinement process 9 (to the original 8 items), one item was added, five items were reworked, and two items were 10 11 eliminated, resulting in a 7-item instrument.

12 To ensure that the items were representative of the construct, the trimmed item-pool was subsequently reviewed in the third step by three individuals with expertise in instrument 13 14 development and exercise psychology. This process resulted in modification to two of the items and omitting two more items due to redundancy. The final set of 5 items-hereafter referred to as 15 16 the Perceived Variety in Exercise (PVE) questionnaire—had a Flesch-Kincaid (1948) readability score of 75.1, which corresponds to a reading level for those aged 10 and above (D'Alessandro, 17 Kingsley, & Johnson-West, 2001). Items on the PVE questionnaire are anchored on the same 6-18 19 point Likert-type rating scale as that used with the Psychological Need Satisfaction in Exercise (PNSE; Wilson, Rogers, Rodgers, & Wild, 2006) questionnaire, with response options of 1 (False), 20 2 (Mostly False), 3 (More False than True), 4 (More True than False), 5 (Mostly True), and 6 21 (True; see Table 3 for specific items). Information on the structural properties (e.g., factorial 22 validity) of data derived from the PVE questionnaire in the current study is presented in the results 23 section (see Table 3 and Figure 1). Ordinal composite reliability (Zumbo, Gadermann, & Zeisser, 24 25 2007) for the variety scores used in the current study was .97.

Basic psychological needs satisfaction. Satisfaction of the psychological needs for 1 competence, relatedness, and autonomy was measured using the PNSE (Wilson et al., 2006). This 2 instrument includes 6 items that assess each of the three psychological needs (18 items in total). 3 Exemplar items include "I feel that I am able to complete exercises that are personally challenging" 4 (competence), "I feel connected to the people who I interact with while we exercise together" 5 (relatedness), and "I feel free to make my own exercise program decisions" (autonomy). Reponses 6 to each item were anchored by 1 (*False*) to 6 (*True*) with higher scores reflecting greater levels of 7 8 perceived competence, relatedness, and autonomy in exercise. Wilson et al. (2006) reported evidence of structural and criterion validity for scores derived from each subscale of the PNSE. In 9 the current study, ordinal composite reliability for scores from each subscale was .96 for 10 11 competence, .96 for relatedness, and .95 for autonomy.

12 **Exercise-Related Well-Being.** Well-being was measured using two instruments, namely the Scale of Positive and Negative Experience (SPANE; Diener et al., 2010) as well as the 13 14 Subjective Vitality Scale (SVS; Ryan & Frederick, 1997). The SPANE is a 12-item instrument with six items assessing both positive and negative experiences, respectively. The word 'exercise' 15 16 was added to the original SPANE instructions to refer to well-being in the context of exercise. Participants were asked, "Please think about what exercise you have been doing and experiencing 17 during the past 4 weeks. Then report how much you experienced each of the following feelings, 18 19 using the scale below." Items in the SPANE are anchored on a scale ranging from 1 (Very Rarely or Never) to 5 (Very Often or Always). The positive and negative items are scored separately 20 because of the partial independence of the two types of feelings (Diener & Emmons, 1985). 21 22 Support for score reliability (e.g.,  $\alpha$  values of .87 for positive and .81 for negative feelings) and convergent validity (in relation to subjective happiness, satisfaction with life, and positive and 23 negative affect) of measures derived from the SPANE were reported by Diener et al. (2010). 24

Ordinal composite score reliability in the current study was .91 for positive affect and .86 for
 negative affect.

The SVS (Rvan & Frederick, 1997) was used to assess the extent to which participants 3 experience feelings of subjective vitality in exercise. Consistent with Bostic, Rubio, and Hood 4 (2000) the instrument was comprised of six items. Following the instructions "Please respond to 5 each of the following statements by indicating the degree to which the statement is true for you 6 when you engage in exercise," participants were asked to rate each item on a 7-point Likert-type 7 8 rating scale anchored by 1 (Not at All True) to 7 (Very True). A sample item used in this study was "I feel alive and vital." Researchers have found support for the internal consistency of scores 9 derived from this instrument as an index of well-being in exercise contexts (Edmunds et al., 2007). 10 11 The composite reliability estimate of scores from the SVS in this study was .93.

### 12 Data Analysis

First, relationships between perceived variety (along with competence, relatedness, and 13 autonomy) at Time 1 were examined in relation to exercise-related positive affect, negative affect, 14 and subjective vitality six weeks later (Time 2) through use of latent variable regression (LVR) 15 16 analysis which is a specific type of confirmatory Structural Equation Model as it only includes latent variables. LVR allows for unique weighting of each item in the construction of unobserved 17 (latent) variables (e.g., variety) from observed variables and simultaneously models the structural 18 19 paths (i.e., relationships among latent variables) and measurement paths (i.e., relationships between a latent variable and its indicators). For this study, LVR analysis is preferable to techniques such as 20 multiple regression analysis, because it is not based on the assumption that measurement of the 21 22 variables is error-free and therefore we avoid potentially producing biased estimates (Muthén, 2002). Ratings of perceived variety, competence, relatedness, and autonomy in exercise were 23 specified as separate independent latent predictors and each index of exercise-related well-being 24

(i.e., positive affect, negative affect, and subjective vitality) were examined simultaneously as latent
 dependent variables in a single LVR model.

This analysis was conducted using Mplus (Version 6.11) software to account for the ordered 3 categorical nature of the scores. We used weighted least squares mean and variance-adjusted 4 5 (WLSMV) estimation with a polychoric correlation matrix as it is considered the best option for modeling with ordered categorical data (Beauducel & Herzberg, 2006; Muthén, 1993). Missing 6 data were estimated based on all of the available data, using the WLSMV algorithm within *Mplus*. 7 8 Geomin rotation (to produce an oblique solution; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012) was selected based on findings from previous studies demonstrating small-to-moderate correlations between scores of the 9 subscales measuring perceived competence, relatedness, and autonomy (Wilson et al., 2006). The 10  $\chi^2$  test was considered for the model, however a non-significant  $\chi^2$  statistic is considered unrealistic 11 (Barrett, 2007) so supplementary fit indices were also examined. 12

To assess the model we compared the  $\chi^2$  goodness of fit indices, comparative fit indices (CFI), Tucker-Lewis indices (TLI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) for each model. Criterion for evaluating good model-data fit were designated as CFI and TLI values > .90, and RMSEA values < .08, and excellent fit for CFI and TLI values > .95, and RMSEA values < .06 (Hu & Bentler, 1998, 1999).

In addition to fit indices, we examined the reliability of the scores and the quality of the 18 19 individual items through composite reliability and average variance extracted. Composite reliability (CR) is an index of reliability in which scores from each item are individually weighted 20 in the composite load (see Bollen, 1989). Ordinal composite reliability is based on the polychoric 21 correlation matrix and was assessed to account for the Likert-type response formats used in the 22 PNSE and PVE (Zumbo et al., 2007). We measured CR using the formula  $CR = \sum$  (standardized 23 (std.) loadings)<sup>2</sup> /  $\Sigma$  (std. loadings)<sup>2</sup> +  $\Sigma$  (1- std. loadings<sup>2</sup>) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Finally, to 24 25 measure the convergence among the items we calculated the average variance extracted (AVE). To 1 measure AVE we used the formula  $AVE = \sum (\text{std. loadings}^2) / \sum (\text{std. loadings}^2) + (1 - \text{std.}$ 2 loadings<sup>2</sup>) (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). According to Hair, Black, Babin, and Anderson (2009) the 3 factor loadings should be .50 or greater, the CR values should be .70 or greater, and Fornell and 4 Larcker (1981) recommend that AVE values should exceed the squared correlation between that 5 and any other construct.

To examine the relative importance of perceived variety in exercise (compared to the 6 psychological needs) in predicting variance in indices of exercise-related well-being, a Relative 7 8 Pratt Index (RPI; Thomas, Hughes & Zumbo, 1998) was calculated for each outcome variable, which partitions the explained variance into the relative proportion attributable to each independent 9 variable. Zumbo (2007) introduced the RPI for LVR models. The RPI was computed in the 10 following manner: the  $\beta$  weight is multiplied by the simple correlation then the sum is divided by 11 the variance explained in the model (i.e.,  $R^2$ ). An index score less than 1/ (2 × number of predictor 12 variables) classifies the variable as relatively unimportant (Thomas, 1992). The cut-off value was 13 0.13 (i.e., 13%) for the LVR analyses, indicating that any RPI value below this is considered 14 unimportant (Thomas, 1992). 15

Second, to examine the extent to which perceived variety in exercise is empirically distinct 16 from perceived competence, relatedness and autonomy in exercise, we conducted an exploratory 17 factor analysis (EFA) using Time 1 data (N = 507). Models representing different factor structures 18 19 were compared to determine the best fit for the data derived from the PNSE and PVE questionnaires. We examined our a priori four-factor model, expecting perceived variety to load 20 onto one distinct factor and competence, relatedness, and autonomy to load onto their known 21 factors (Wilson et al., 2006). We also compared the four-factor model to a one and three factor 22 model to assess how variety fits alongside the known factors of competence, autonomy, and 23 relatedness (Wilson et al., 2006). Psychological needs satisfaction has at times been 24 25 operationalized as a single latent variable (e.g., Johnson & Finney, 2010) and so we compared the

four-factor model to a one factor model to examine whether empirically, these conceptualized 1 variables were in fact measuring the same latent factor. A three factor model was examined to test 2 the extent to which variety might be empirically synonymous (i.e., lacks discriminant validity) with 3 one or more of the three psychological needs conceptualized within BPNT. Should empirical 4 5 evidence suggest that perceived variety in exercise is highly correlated with, and undistinguishable from, one or more of the three psychological needs, then this would challenge the contention that 6 perceived variety is a distinct construct from competence, relatedness, and autonomy in the context 7 8 of exercise.

The EFA analysis was conducted on data derived from the PNSE and PVE using Mplus 9 (Version 6.11). We used weighted least squares mean and variance-adjusted (WLSMV) estimation 10 with a polychoric correlation matrix (Beauducel & Herzberg, 2006; Muthén, 1993). Missing data 11 were estimated based on all of the available data, using the WLSMV algorithm within *Mplus*. 12 Geomin rotation (to produce an oblique solution; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012) was selected based on 13 the small-to-moderate correlations found between perceived competence, relatedness, autonomy, 14 and variety in exercise. To determine which factor structure provided the best overall fit for the 15 data,  $\gamma^2$ , CFI, TLI, and RMSEA fit indices were examined for each hypothesized model. 16 Finally, in order to verify the factor structure identified through the EFA, the four-factor 17 measurement model (including perceived variety along with the three needs for competence, 18 19 relatedness, and autonomy in exercise) was tested through a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) on the data from Time 2 (n = 367). We used WLSMV method of estimation with a polychoric 20 correlation matrix, whereby missing data were again estimated through the WLSMV algorithm. 21 Model fit was assessed using the  $\chi^2$ , CFI, TLI, and RMSEA fit indices. 22 Results 23 Relationships between Perceived Variety in Exercise (Along with Perceived Competence, 24 Relatedness, and Autonomy) and Indices of Exercise-Related Well-Being 25

1	Overall, the LVR model had good fit ( $\chi^2$ (758) = 1746.98, $p < .001$ , CFI = .974, TLI = .972,
2	RMSEA = .060, 90% CI [.056063]) and standardized factor loadings ranged from .53 to .97. CR
3	values were calculated for scores of independent and dependent variables and were found to be .97,
4	.96, .96, and .95 for perceived variety, competence, relatedness, and autonomy, and .91, .86, and .93
5	for positive affect, negative affect and subjective vitality, respectively (Zumbo, et al., 2007) <sup>1</sup> . AVE
6	values were also calculated and found to be .87, .79, .79, and .75, for perceived variety,
7	competence, relatedness, and autonomy, and .64, .52, and .69 for positive affect, negative affect,
8	and subjective vitality, respectively. Interfactor correlations between the latent variables are
9	presented in Table 1.
10	<b>Positive affect.</b> Together, perceived variety, competence, relatedness, and autonomy in

Positive affect. Together, perceived variety, competence, relatedness, and autonomy in exercise explained 37.2% of the variance in exercise-related positive affect. Specifically, perceived variety ( $\beta = .175$ , p < .01), competence ( $\beta = .265$ , p < .01), relatedness ( $\beta = .181$ , p < .01), and autonomy ( $\beta = .192$ , p < .01) were found to be significant predictors of exercise-related positive affect. The RPI was calculated to determine relative variable importance. Of the 37.2% of variance accounted for by the model, variety, competence, relatedness, and autonomy accounted for 19.76%, 39.18%, 20.92%, and 20.65% respectively.

**Negative affect.** With regards to exercise-related negative affect, perceived variety in exercise and perceived competence, relatedness, and autonomy explained 13.5% of the variance. Specifically, autonomy ( $\beta = -0.236$ , p < .001) was found to be the only statistically significant predictor of negative affect. None of the other variables predicted significant variance to the overall model for exercise-related negative affect. Of the 13.5% of variance accounted for by the model, autonomy accounted for 55.94 %.

Subjective vitality. Finally, perceived variety, competence, relatedness, and autonomy in
 exercise explained 33.1% of the variance in exercise-related subjective vitality. Specifically,

perceived variety ( $\beta$  = .208, p < .001), competence ( $\beta$  = .240, p < .01), relatedness ( $\beta$  = .174, p <

.01), and autonomy (β = .143, p < .01) were found to be significant predictors of exercise-related</li>
 subjective vitality. The RPIs were calculated and of the 33.1% of variance accounted for by the
 model, variety accounted for 27.02%, competence accounted for 37.70%, relatedness accounted for
 21.55%, and autonomy accounted for 14.69%.

5 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Using the criteria provided by Hu and Bentler (1998, 1999) to compare the models, we 6 found the four-factor model to be superior to the unidimentional and three-factor models (see Table 7 8 2 for the fit statistics). In addition to the model fit indices, the interfactor correlations were smallto-moderate which suggests these factors are empirically distinct from each other. The four-factor 9 model was interpretable because factors one through four were comprised of the items measuring 10 feelings of competence, relatedness, autonomy, and variety, respectively (Gorsuch, 1983). Using 11 12 Thurstone's principle for identifying meaningful cross-loadings of items onto factors (i.e., a pattern coefficient of [0.30] to serve as the lower bound of item meaningfulness per factor; Thurstone, 13 1947), in the four factor model we found that none of the perceived variety in exercise items loaded 14 onto the subscales of competence, relatedness, or autonomy (see Table 3 for communality 15 16 estimates, and Geomin rotated pattern coefficients of the four-factor solution). When taken together, the results of the EFA provide preliminary support for the contention that perceived 17 variety in exercise is empirically distinct from but related to the basic psychological need variables 18 19 in the context of exercise, as evidenced by small to moderate correlations between the perceived variety latent factor and the three latent factors representing the basic psychological needs. In sum, 20 empirical support was found for a four-factor measurement model. 21

## 22 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The four-factor measurement model based on Time 2 data, included factors representing perceived competence, relatedness, autonomy, and variety. The fit indices for this four-factor measurement model were as follows:  $\chi^2$  (224) = 859.72, *p* < .01, CFI = .986, TLI = .984, and

1	RMSEA = .088, 90% CI [.08, .09]. In addition, the conditions for convergent validity were met
2	(i.e., all factor loadings were significant and ranged from .74 to .98; see Figure 1), CR values for
3	perceived variety, competence, relatedness, and autonomy in the context of exercise were .98, .97,
4	.96, and .97 while AVE values were .90, .83, .83, and .82 respectively. Since the four constructs
5	were not highly correlated, (i.e., $0.17 \le r \le .46$ ; avoiding multicollinearity issues; see interfactor
6	correlations in Figure 1), these findings complement the fit indices of the model and the reliability
7	estimates to provide multiple sources of evidence that perceived variety in exercise is a distinct
8	construct from perceived competence, relatedness, and autonomy in exercise.
9	Discussion
10	In the present study we (a) developed an instrument to measure perceived variety in exercise,
11	(b) examined whether ratings of perceived variety in exercise (compared to competence,
12	relatedness, and autonomy in exercise) prospectively predicted unique variance in indices of
13	exercise-related well-being over time, (c) examined the extent to which perceived variety in
14	exercise was empirically distinct from the established basic psychological needs for competence,
15	relatedness, and autonomy in the context of exercise, and (d) tested a four-factor measurement
16	model. The current findings are consistent with Sheldon and Lyubomirsky's (2012) conclusions
17	that perceptions of variety directly predict indices of well-being. We extended their work by
18	demonstrating that in the context of exercise, perceived variety complements the three
19	psychological needs incorporated within BPNT in the prediction of exercise-related well-being.
20	Furthermore, we found that perceived variety in exercise is empirically distinct from (i.e., not
21	subsumed by) perceived competence, relatedness, and autonomy in the context of exercise.
22	Conceptualized within BPNT, Deci and Ryan (2002) contend that satisfaction of the needs for
23	competence, relatedness, and autonomy is associated with higher scores of well-being. Results

- from the present investigation are consistent with BPNT (Deci & Ryan, 2002) and offer the
- construct of perceived variety in exercise as a potential complementary psychological experience

that explains an important amount of variance (as evidenced by the Pratt indices) in exercise-related 1 positive affect and subjective vitality. Based on the Pratt indices, perceived variety in exercise was 2 found to predict a relatively equal amount of variance to that of relatedness and autonomy in 3 predicting exercise-related positive affect, and explained a greater relative amount of variance than 4 5 relatedness and autonomy in predicting scores of exercise-related subjective vitality. However, the Pratt indices also indicated that perceived variety in exercise accounted for less relative variance in 6 exercise-related positive affect and subjective vitality than perceived competence. Although the 7 8 experience of variety in exercise was found to be related to both exercise-related positive affect and subjective vitality, it was unrelated to exercise-related negative affect (see Diener & Emmons, 9 1985). Therefore, perceived variety in exercise may be more related to the promotion of exercise-10 11 related well-being than buffering against the experience of negative affect. 12 In addition to our predictive analyses, we examined and found support for perceived variety in exercise as a unique factor separate from the three basic psychological needs conceptualized 13 14 within BPNT. From a discriminant validity perspective, the results demonstrated that perceived variety in exercise was positively related yet empirically distinct from perceived competence, 15 16 relatedness and autonomy in the context of exercise. From the perspective of SDT, this finding was not surprising as the experience of different behaviors and activities (i.e., manifested as felt variety) 17 is conceptually distinct from feeling effective (i.e., competent), connected to others (i.e., 18 19 relatedness) and volitional/self-governed (i.e., autonomous). The present findings support the notion that perceived variety in exercise is worthy of additional research attention as it appears to be 20 a psychosocial variable that provides additional explanatory power to the satisfaction of 21 competence, relatedness, and autonomy in the prediction of exercise-related well-being indices. 22 Balanced against the potential contributions of the present study, we recognize that limitations 23 should also be noted. First, although a prospective observational design was utilized to examine the 24 25 relations between perceived variety in exercise (and perceived competence, relatedness, and

autonomy) and indices of exercise-related well-being over time, the non-experimental nature of the 1 design used in this study still precludes any inferences of causality. Experimental designs will be 2 necessary in future research to examine the extent to which *changes (and frustration) in the* 3 experience of variety in exercise relates to changes in exercise-related well-being (and ill-being) 4 outcomes. A second limitation of the study corresponds to the *contextual* level through which we 5 operationalized assessments of perceived variety. Specifically, in this study we were interested in 6 how varied experiences with regard to exercise are prospectively related to subsequent experiences 7 8 of exercise-related well-being. Regardless, we are acutely aware that both basic psychological needs and the experience of well-being operate and exist at both *episodic/situational* and *global* 9 levels, as well as at the contextual level (e.g., Diener & Emmons, 1985; Vallerand, 1997). 10 11 Specifically, although we would certainly expect that experiencing variety in the context of exercise would be related to various adaptive outcomes, the results of the study do not provide insight into 12 the *acute effects* of perceived variety on the immediate/episodic experience of well-being, or any 13 14 global effects of experiencing variety within life in general. Future investigations are required that test the effects of perceived variety at these different levels. A final limitation corresponds to the 15 use of the same sample to verify the factor structure (albeit at different time points) and results 16 should be interpreted with caution. 17

In spite of these limitations, the results of this study provide conceptual foundations and preliminary evidence for the construct validity of scores derived from the PVE in a sample of adults. Based on the present findings, we suggest that researchers start examining the determinants of the perception of experienced/felt variety in exercise to understand how to foster this potentially adaptive psychological construct. Research in this area provides exciting opportunities to test the external validity of experiencing variety in relation to well-being across other contexts (e.g., variety with regard to dietary behaviors, work/employment opportunities, and interpersonal relationships)

- 1 and to further examine whether understanding feelings of variety may complement the constructs
- 2 embedded within SDT.
- 3

## Footnotes

8

<sup>1</sup> In addition to the LVR model specified, at the recommendation of an anonymous reviewer we also tested a possible curvilinear relationship between perceived variety in exercise and each index of exercise-related well-being. Using maximum likelihood parameter estimates we constructed latent variables and examined the curvilinear relationships within a SEM. Perceived variety in exercise was not found to have a statistically significant curvilinear relationship with either positive affect (p= .959), negative affect (p = .138), or subjective vitality (p = .319).

1	References
2	Barrett, P. (2007). Structural equation modelling: Adjudging model fit. Personality and Individual
3	Differences, 42(5), 815-824. DOI:10.1016/j.paid.2006.09.018
4	Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments
5	as a fundamental human motivation. Psychological Bulletin, 117, 497-529. DOI:
6	10.1037/0033-2909.117.3.497
7	Berlyne, D. E. (1970). Novelty, complexity, and hedonic value. Perception & Psychophysics, 8(5),
8	279-286.
9	Beauducel, A., & Herzberg, P.Y. (2006). On the performance of maximum likelihood versus
10	means and variance adjusted weighted least squares estimation in CFA. Structural
11	Equation Modeling, 13, 186–203. DOI: 10.1207/s15328007sem1302_2
12	Biddle, S. J. H., & Ekkekakis, P. (2005). Physically active lifestyles and well-being. In F. A.
13	Huppert, B. Keverne, & N. Baylis (Eds.), The science of well-being (pp. 140-168). Oxford,
14	United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.
15	Bollen, K. A. (1989). Structural equations with latent variables. New York: Wiley.
16	Bostic, T. J., Rubio, D. M., & Hood, M. (2000). A validation of the subjective vitality scale using
17	structural equation modeling. Social Indicators Research, 52, 313-324.
18	Bouchard, C., Blair, S. N., & Haskell, W. L. (2007). Physical activity and health. Champaign, IL:
19	Human Kinetics.
20	Clark, L. A., & Watson, D. (1995). Constructing validity: Basic issues in objective scale
21	development. Psychological Assessment, 7, 309–319.
22	D'Alessandro, D. M., Kingsley, P., & Johnson-West, J. (2001). The readability of pediatric
23	patient education materials on the World Wide Web. Archives of Pediatrics & Adolescent
24	Medicine, 155, 807-812. DOI:10.1001/archpedi.155.7.807

1	deCharms, R. (1968). Personal causation:	The internal	affective	determinants	of behavior.	New
2	York, NY: Academic Press.					

- 3 Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human*4 *behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- 5 Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and the "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and
  6 the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, *11*, 227-268.
- 7 Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2002). Handbook of Self-Determination Research. Rochester,
- 8 NY: The University of Rochester Press.
- 9 Diener, E., & Chan, M. Y. (2011). Happy people live longer: Subjective well-being contributes to
- 10 health and longevity. *Applied Psychology: Health & Well-Being, 3*, 1-43.
- 11 DOI:10.1111/j.1758-0854.2010.01045.x
- Diener, E., & Emmons, R. A. (1985). The independence of positive and negative affect. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 47(5), 1105-1117.
- 14 Diener, E., Wirtz, D., Tov, W., Kim-Prieto, C., Choi. D., Oishi, S., & Biswas-Diener, R. (2010).
- New Well-being Measures: Short scales to assess flourishing and positive and negative
   feelings. *Social Indicators Research*, *97*, *143*-156. DOI 10.1007/s11205-009-9493-y
- Dimmock, J., Jackson, B., Podlong, L., & Magaraggia, C. (2013). The effect of variety expectations
  on interest, enjoyment, and locus of causality in exercise. *Motivation & Emotion*, 1-8. DOI
- 19 10.1007/s11031-012-9294-5
- 20 Edmunds, J., Ntoumanis, N., & Duda, J. L. (2007). Adherence and well-being in overweight and
- 21 obese patients referred to an exercise on prescription scheme: A self-determination theory
- 22 perspective. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 8(5), 722-740. DOI:
- 23 10.1016/j.psychsport.2006.07.006
- 24 Flesch, R. F. (1948). A new readability yardstick. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 32,
- 25 221–233.

1	Fox, K. R., & Wilson, P. M. (2008). Self-perceptual systems and physical activity. In T.
2	Hom's (Ed.), Advances in sport psychology-3rd edition (pp.49-64). Champaign,
3	IL: Human Kinetics.
4	Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Structural equation models with unobservable variables and
5	measurement error: Algebra and statistics. Journal of Marketing Research, 18, 39-50.
6	Glaros, N., & Janelle, M. (2001). Varying the mode of cardiovascular exercise to increase
7	adherence. Journal of Sport Behavior, 24, 42-62.
8	Godin, G. (2011). The godin-shephard leisure-time physical activity questionnaire. The Health and
9	Fitness Journal of Canada, 4(1), 18-22.
10	Gorsuch, R. (1983). Factor analysis (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
11	Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2009). Multivariate data analysis
12	(7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.J: Prentice Hall.
13	Hebb, D. O., (1940). The organisation of behavior. New York: Wiley.
14	Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1998). Fit indices in covariance structure analysis: Sensitivity to
15	underparameterized model misspecification. Psychological Methods, 3, 424-453.
16	Hu, L., & Bentler, P. M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis:
17	Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. Structural Equation Modeling, 6, 1-55.
18	Johnson, M. M., & Finney, S. J. (2010). Measuring basic needs satisfaction: Evaluating previous
19	research and conducting new psychometric evaluations of the basic needs satisfaction in
20	general scale. Contemporary Educational Psychology, 35, 280-296.
21	DOI:10.1016/j.cedpsych.2010.04.003
22	Juvancic-Heltzel, J. A., Glickman, E. L., & Barkley, J. E. (2013). The effect of variety on physical
23	activity: A cross-sectional study. The Journal of Strength & Conditioning Research, 27(1),
24	244-251. DOI: 10.1519/JSC.0b013e3182518010

25

1	Kahn, B. E., & Ratner, R. (2005). Variety for the Sake of Variety? Diversification Motives in
2	Consumer Choice. In S. Ratneshwar & D. G. Mick (Eds.) Inside Consumption: Frontiers of
3	Research on Consumer Motives, Goals, and Desires, London: Routledge.
4	Lyubomirsky, S., King, L., & Diener, E. (2005). The benefits of frequent positive affect: Does
5	happiness lead to success? Psychological Bulletin, 131(6), 803. DOI: 10.1037/0033-
6	2909.131.6.803
7	McAlister, L., & Pessemier, E. (1982). Variety seeking behavior: An interdisciplinary review.
8	Journal of Consumer Research, 9, 311-322.
9	Messick, S. (1995). Standards of validity and the validity of standards in performance assessment.
10	Educational Measurement: Issues and Practice, 14(4), 5-8.
11	Muthén, B. O. (1993). Goodness of fit with categorical and other non-normal variables. In
12	K.A. Bollen & J.S. Long (Eds.), Testing structural equation models (pp. 205-234).
13	Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
14	Muthén, B. O. (2002). Beyond SEM: General latent variable modeling. Behaviormetrika,
15	29, 81–117.
16	Netz, Y., Wu, M. J., Becker, B. J., & Tenenbaum G. (2005). Physical activity and psychological
17	well-being in advanced age: A meta-analysis of intervention studies. Psychology of Aging,
18	20, 272-284. DOI: 10.1037/0882-7974.20.2.272
19	Oremus, M., Cosby, J. L., & Wolfson, C. (2005). A hybrid qualitative method for pretesting
20	questionnaires: The example of a questionnaire to caregivers of Alzheimer disease
21	patients. Research in Nursing & Health, 28, 419–430. DOI: 10.1002/nur.20095
22	Penedo, F. J., & Dahn, J. R. (2005). Exercise and well-being: A review of mental and physical
23	health benefits associated with physical activity. Current Opinion in Psychiatry, 18, 189-
24	193.

1	Pronin, E., & Jacobs, E. (2008). Thought speed, mood, and the experience of mental motion.
2	Perspectives on Psychological Science, 3, 461-485.
3	Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on
4	hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. Annual Review of Psychology, 52, 141-166.
5	Ryan, R. M., & Frederick, C. M. (1997). On energy, personality, and health: subjective
6	vitality as a dynamic reflection of well-being. Journal of Personality, 65,
7	529-565.
8	Sheldon, K. M. (2011). Integrating behavioral-motive and experiential-requirement
9	perspectives on psychological needs: a two process model. Psychological Review,
10	118, 552-569. DOI: 10.1037/a0024758
11	Sheldon, K. M., Boehm, J., & Lyubomirsky, S. L. (2012). Variety is the spice of happiness: The
12	hedonic adaptation prevention (HAP) model. In I. Boniwell & S. David (Eds.),
13	Oxford handbook of happiness. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
14	Sheldon, K. M., & Lyubomirsky, S. (2012). The challenge of staying happier: testing the hedonic
15	adaptation Prevention model. Personality & Social Psychological Bulletin, 38, 670-680.
16	DOI: 10.1177/0146167212436400
17	Silvia, P. J. (2006). Exploring the psychology of interest. New York: Oxford University Press.
18	Standage, M., & Ryan, R. M. (2012). Self-determination theory and exercise motivation:
19	Facilitating self-regulatory processes to support and maintain health and well-being. In G. C.
20	Roberts & D. C. Treasure (Eds.), Advances in motivation in sport and exercise 3rd ed., (pp.
21	233-270). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
22	Strauss, A. L., & Corbin, J. M. (1998). Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures
23	for developing grounded theory. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
24	Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2012). Using multivariate statistics (6th edn.). Needham
25	Heights, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

- Thomas, D. R., (1992). Interpreting discriminant functions: A data analytic approach. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, *27*, 335–362.
- Thomas, D. R., Hughes, E., & Zumbo, B. D. (1998). On variable importance in linear regression.
   *Social Indicators Research*, *45*, 253–275.
- 5 Thurstone, L. L. (1947). *Multiple-factor analysis*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- 6 Vallerand, R. J. (1997). Towards a Hierarchical Model of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation. In M.
- P. Zanna, (Ed). *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, (pp. 271-360). Academic
  Press, New York, NY.
- 9 Vansteenkiste, M., & Ryan, R. M. (in press). On psychological growth and vulnerability: Basic
- psychological need satisfaction and need frustration as a unifying principle. *Journal of Psychotherapy Integration*. DOI: 10.1037/a0032359
- 12 Vogt, D. S., King, D. W., & King, L. A. (2004). Focus groups in psychological assessment:
- Enhancing content validity by consulting members of the target population. *Psychological Assessment*, *16*, 231–243. DOI: 10.1037/1040-3590.16.3.231
- White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review*,
  66, 297-333.
- Willis, G. (2005). *Cognitive interviewing: A tool for improving questionnaire design*. Thousand
  Oaks, CA: Sage.
- 19 Wilson, P. M., Mack, D. E., Gunnell, K. E., Oster, K., & Gregson, J. P. (2008). Analyzing the
- 20 measurement of psychological need satisfaction in exercise contexts: Evidence, issues, and
- 21 future directions. In M. P. Simmons & L. A. Foster (Eds.), Sport and exercise psychology
- 22 *research advances* (pp. 361-391). Hauppauge, NY: Nova Science.
- Wilson, P. M., Rogers, W. T., Rodgers, W. M., & Wild, T. C. (2006). The psychological need
  satisfaction in exercise scale. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 28, 231–251.

- Zuckerman, M. (1994). *Behavioral expressions and biosocial bases of sensation seeking*.
   Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Zuckerman, M. (2007). The sensation seeking scale V (SSS-V): Still reliable and valid. *Personality & Individual Differences, 43,* 1303-1305. DOI:10.1016/j.paid.2007.03.021
- 5 Zumbo, B. D. (2007). Validity: Foundational issues and statistical methodology. In C.R. Rao
- and S. Sinharay (Eds.) *Handbook of statistics, Vol. 26: Psychometrics*, (pp. 45–79). The
  Netherlands: Elsevier Science B.V.
- 8 Zumbo, B. D., Gadermann, A. M., & Zeisser, C. (2007). Ordinal versions of coefficients alpha and
- 9 theta for likert rating scales. *Journal of Modern Applied Statistical Methods*, 6(1), 21-29.

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Variety-T1							
2. Competence-T1	.55*						
3. Relatedness-T1	.34*	.53*					
4. Autonomy- T1	.17*	.47*	.26*				
5. Positive Affect-T2	.42*	.55*	.43*	.40*			
6. Negative Affect-T2	19*	29*	23*	32*	53*		
7. Subjective Vitality-T2	.43*	.52*	.41*	.34*	.82*	49*	

# Table 1. Interfactor correlations

Note. T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2; \* = p < .01.

	Exploratory Factor Solution					
Fit indices	1 Factor	3 Factor	4 Factor			
$\chi^2$ (df)	7638.97 (230)	2612.65 (187)	1155.73 (167)			
P value	< .01	< .01	< .01			
Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	0.841	0.936	0.971			
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	0.855	0.953	0.981			
Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) [90% CI]	0.252 [.25, .26]	0.160 [.16, .17]	0.108 [.10, .11]			

Table 2. Results of EFA model testing

Note: n = 507. CI = confidence interval.

Scale and Item	$h^2$	Ι	II	III	IV
PVE- Variety					
1. I feel like I engage in a variety of exercises.	.88	0.81	0.25	-0.07	0.02
2. I feel like I try a range of exercises.		0.84	0.25	-0.11	0.01
3. I feel like I change the types of exercise that I do.		0.82	0.06	0.02	0.04
4. I feel like my exercise program is varied.		0.98	-0.07	0.13	-0.03
5. I feel like I experience variety in my exercise.		0.95	-0.01	0.12	-0.05
PNSE- Competence					
1. I feel that I am able to complete exercises that are personally challenging	.69	0.09	0.67	0.17	0.06
5. I feel good about the way I am able to complete challenging exercises	.65	0.07	0.58	0.20	0.15
10. I feel confident I can do even the most challenging exercises	.87	-0.04	1.01	0.00	-0.16
12. I feel capable of completing exercises that are challenging to me	.86	0.02	0.85	0.07	0.07
14. I feel confident in my ability to perform exercises that personally challenge me	.80	0.05	0.77	0.08	0.12
17. I feel like I am capable of doing even the most challenging exercises	.92	-0.03	1.05	-0.04	-0.16
PNSE- Relatedness					
2. I feel attached to my exercise companions because they accept me for who I am	.72	-0.03	-0.01	0.87	-0.07
4. I feel close to my exercise companions who appreciate how difficult exercise can be	.73	0.00	-0.05	0.87	-0.00
8. I feel a sense of camaraderie with my exercise companions because we exercise for the same reasons	.81	0.03	-0.03	0.89	0.05
9. I feel like I get along well with other people who I interact with while we exercise together		0.08	0.08	0.83	0.01
15. I feel like I share a common bond with people who are important to me when we exercise together	.83	-0.05	0.10	0.88	0.01
18. I feel connected to the people who I interact with while we exercise together	.92	-0.01	0.12	0.91	-0.01
PNSE- Autonomy					
3. I feel like I am the one who decides what exercises I do	.63	-0.15	0.01	-0.07	0.81
6. I feel free to exercise in my own way	.74	0.04	0.14	-0.05	0.80
7. I feel free to make my own exercise program decisions	.87	-0.05	0.03	-0.04	0.93
11. I feel free to choose which exercises I participate in	.76	0.01	0.08	0.03	0.83
13. I feel like I am in charge of my exercise program decisions	.84	0.04	-0.04	0.05	0.91
16. I feel like I have a say in choosing the exercises that I do	.82	-0.01	-0.06	0.09	0.91

Table 3. EFA communalities and geomin rotated pattern coefficients of the four-factor solution

Note: n = 507. PNSE = Psychological Need Satisfaction in Exercise Scale; PVE = Perceived Variety in Exercise.  $h^2$  = communality estimates for each item. Pattern coefficients in bold represent primary factor loadings of each item retained in the final solution.

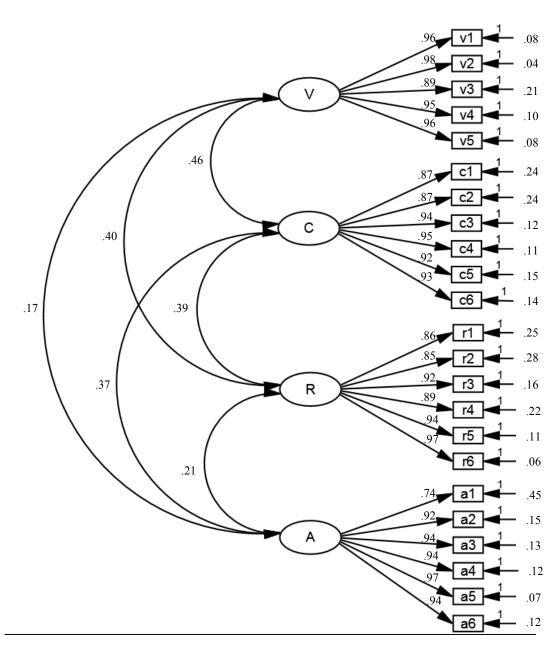


Figure 1. CFA model, interfactor correlations, standardized factor loadings and residuals

Note: n = 367. All correlations have p < .01. V = Variety, C = Competence, R = Relatedness, A = Autonomy.