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Motivational Correlates of Exercise Behavior Among College Students

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47 ABSTRACT

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49 The purpose of this research was to explore the relations between basic psychological needs
50 satisfaction (autonomy, relatedness, perceived competence), intrinsic motivation, attraction
51 toward exercise, and exercise behavior among college students. In this study, 128 participants
52 (including 91 women and 36 men, mean age: 24 ± 7 years) responded to a questionnaire
53 assessing basic psychological needs satisfaction (autonomy, competence, relatedness), intrinsic
54 motivation, attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise, and exercise behavior. Frequency of
55 aerobic exercise, frequency of resistance exercise, and total aerobic exercise behavior are
56 positively associated with autonomy, competence, relatedness, intrinsic motivation, and
57 attraction toward exercise. Three exploratory mediation analyses suggest that attraction (vs.
58 antipathy) toward exercise mediates the relation between intrinsic motivation and exercise
59 behavior. Taken together, these data support and extend previous research on the importance of
60 motivationally relevant variables, including autonomy, competence, relatedness, intrinsic
61 motivation, and affective exercise experiences.

62 **Keywords:** Exercise behavior, motivation, affective exercise experiences, self-determination
63 theory

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71 INTRODUCTION

72 Exercise is vital when it comes to living a healthy life. The development of lifelong
73 exercise behavior has a multitude of health benefits such as improved mental health (Callaghan
74 et al., 2011; Liang et al., 2021; Vancini et al., 2017) and increased cardiovascular fitness (Lavie
75 et al., 2019). Regular physical activity participation is especially important now with the
76 continuous rise of chronic diseases such as coronary heart disease, type 2 diabetes, and some
77 cancers (Lee et al., 2012). Physical activity plays a key role in the development of chronic
78 disease. Yet, data indicate that only one out of every four adults in the US meets combined
79 aerobic and muscle-strengthening activity guidelines, with males achieving the guidelines at
80 higher rates than females (Bennie et al., 2019).

81 When moving from adolescence to early adulthood, students are faced with changes in
82 their physical, social, psychological, and structural domains, which play a role in their perception
83 of barriers and motivational regulation towards physical activity (Diehl et al., 2018). Since
84 physical activity is associated with better health and a decreased risk for chronic illnesses,
85 researchers have recognized the importance of motivating college students to participate and
86 maintain physical activity behavior (Gao et al., 2012). Therefore, there is a need to understand
87 motivational factors that may influence the exercise behavior of college students. To better
88 understand motivational factors, we turn to self-determination theory and affective exercise
89 experiences.

90 **Self-Determination Theory**

91 Self-Determination theory (SDT) aids in the meaningful explanation and prediction of
92 exercise behavior through the motivation continuum. SDT differentiates between three
93 categories of behavioral regulation which vary in degree of self-determined motivation: intrinsic
94 motivation, extrinsic motivation, and amotivation (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Ntoumanis, 2005).

95 Intrinsic motivation is the most self-determined and thus the highest form of autonomous
96 motivation (Wallhead et al., 2014). Intrinsic motivation is apparent when an individual
97 participates in an activity with no need for external motivators and performs for the sake of
98 enjoyment and “because of its inherent satisfactions” (Teixeira et al., 2012, p. 2). Extrinsic
99 motivation is composed of integrated regulation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, and
100 external regulation. Each of which has less self-determined motivators and more extrinsic
101 motivators. For instance, integrated regulation is the most self-determined form of extrinsic
102 motivation, but in this type of motivation individuals understand the importance of behaviors or
103 internalizes them (Lauderdale et al., 2015). The last motivational regulation is amotivation which
104 occurs when an individual lacks any motivation to perform a behavior. As a behavior becomes
105 more internalized the individual becomes more self-determined. Intrinsic motivation is positively
106 associated with exercise self-schema among (Samendinger & Hill, 2021) and exercise behavior
107 college students (Wilson et al., 2004).

108 Basic psychological needs theory is a sub-theory of the SDT in which behaviors are more
109 self-determined when innate needs such as autonomy, relatedness, and competence are satisfied.
110 According to self-determination theory, basic psychological needs include autonomy,
111 competence, and relatedness (Ryan & Deci, 2017; Quested et al., 2021). Autonomy occurs when
112 the participant feels their choice is influential, competence focuses on the ability to perform a
113 task, and relatedness is based on the feeling of social relationships (Leyton-Román et al., 2020).
114 Therefore, satisfaction of the basic psychological needs influences higher forms of self-
115 determined motivation and increases the intention to engage in physical activity (Ntoumanis,
116 2005). The importance of basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness
117 is robust across cultures (Chen et al., 2015). Needs satisfaction has also been linked to positive

118 affective experiences and with higher forms of self-determined motivation (Ntoumanis, 2005;
119 Wilson & Rogers, 2004) and adherence to physical rehabilitation (Chan et al., 2009). Perceived
120 competence appears to be a meaningful predictor of exercise adherence (Vlachopoulos &
121 Neikou, 2007). In sum, needs satisfaction is a key component in motivation and may affect
122 affective experiences, both of which may influence exercise behavior.

123 Meta-analytic evidence has highlighted the meaningful relation between self-
124 determination theory constructs (e.g., satisfaction of basic psychological needs, intrinsic
125 motivation) and exercise behavior (Teixeira et al., 2012). In their review, Rhodes et al. (2019)
126 note that interventions based on self-determination theory demonstrate effectiveness, mixed
127 relations between exercise and autonomy, and weak or nonexistent relations between exercise
128 and relatedness. Overall, the role of the basic psychological and the SDT in exercise behavior is
129 consistent across the literature. Still, there is a need to understand other potential factors that may
130 influence the exercise behavior of college students.

131 **Affective Exercise Experiences**

132 Maltagliati and colleagues (2022) have highlighted the limitations of focusing exclusively
133 on health benefits associated with exercise and argued for a more central role of affective
134 constructs to explain physical activity and exercise behavior. Affective responses experienced
135 during exercise predict future exercise behavior (Rhodes & Kates, 2015). Affective processes are
136 increasingly recognized as a predictor of behavior (Dukes et al., 2021), including physical
137 activity and exercise behavior. Ekkekakis (2017) reviewed evidence of affective processes as an
138 important predictor of behavior and conceptualized a dual-process framework that highlights the
139 importance of affective, evolutionarily primitive processes as an influence on behavior, in
140 addition to more rational, deliberative processes (e.g., consideration of benefits of an active

141 lifestyle, and consequences of a sedentary lifestyle. The affective-reflective theory of physical
142 inactivity, a dual-process framework, was formalized by Brand and Ekkekakis (2018). This
143 theory highlights the importance of automatic affective valuations as well as reflective
144 evaluations for predicting exercise behavior. This represents an advance upon prior theories used
145 to predict exercise behavior, which left affective processes noticeably absent (Ekkekakis &
146 Zenko, 2016).

147 Affective exercise experiences are defined as “summary valenced designation, ranging
148 from pleasant to unpleasant, that reflects the history of associations between exercise over the
149 life course of an individual and the attendant affective responses” (Ekkekakis et al., 2021).
150 Ekkekakis et al. (2021) described attraction-antipathy as a motivational tendency shaped by
151 affective exercise experiences; the researchers found correlations between attraction (vs.
152 antipathy) toward exercise and exercise behavior, where greater attraction toward exercise is
153 associated with more exercise behavior (Ekkekakis et al., 2021). In their conceptual model,
154 attraction-antipathy toward exercise was theorized to be influence by core affective exercise
155 experiences (e.g., pleasure or displeasure experienced while exercising); which were in turn
156 influenced by antecedent cognitive appraisals (e.g., feelings of empowerment, interest,
157 competence); this conceptual model was supported (Ekkekakis et al., 2021).

158 Some of the antecedent cognitive appraisals may be related to basic psychological need
159 satisfaction. For example, the subscales of the Affective Exercise Experiences Questionnaire
160 (Ekkekakis et al., 2021) related to showing off and liking group exercise may be related to
161 relatedness and competence may be related to perceived competence. Consistent with Ekkekakis
162 et al. (2021), we view attraction (vs. antipathy) as a construct that is influenced by both
163 reflective, deliberate processes and automatically activated, heuristic processes. Intrinsic

164 motivation for exercise may also be related to attraction toward exercise, core affective exercise
165 experiences, and antecedent cognitive appraisals. People with more intrinsic and self-determined
166 motivations may have more attraction toward exercise, and in turn may engage in more exercise
167 behavior. Examination of items measuring each construct suggests that attraction toward exercise
168 (e.g., “Exercise is high on my priority list...”, “Exercise is a tempting activity...”, “I would
169 choose exercise over most other activities...”) is arguably more likely to be influenced by
170 intrinsic motivation (e.g., exercising for fun, enjoying exercise sessions, getting pleasure and
171 satisfaction from exercise) than the other way around. This highlights the possibility that basic
172 psychological needs for exercise and intrinsic motivation have a strong affective component.
173 Thus, there is a need to study attraction toward exercise and intrinsic motivation together.

174 THE CURRENT STUDY

175 The purpose of this research was to add to the literature by further examining the
176 association between exercise behavior and motivational variables, including autonomy,
177 competence, relatedness, intrinsic motivation, and attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise. In
178 addition, several exploratory mediation analyses were conducted. These included analyses to
179 determine whether attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise mediated the relation between
180 intrinsic motivation and exercise behavior.

181 Methods

182 This study was preregistered (<https://aspredicted.org/cw7mu.pdf>). Predictor and
183 exploratory variables included autonomy, relatedness, competence, intrinsic motivation, and
184 attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise. The dependent variable was student exercise behavior.
185 Exercise behavior was measured in three categories, namely aerobic exercise frequency,
186 resistance exercise frequency, and total aerobic exercise.

187 Measures and Instruments

188 There was one online survey used in this study to collect data using Qualtrics (Provo,
189 UT). The survey included items to assess demographic characteristics (i.e., age, education level,
190 gender, etc.) and four questionnaires. We assessed gender by asking “What is your gender
191 identity?”. Response options included “man”, “woman”, “I prefer not to say”, and “I would
192 rather describe”.

193 *Basic Psychological Needs Satisfaction*

194 The fulfillment of students’ basic psychological needs (i.e., autonomy, competence, and
195 relatedness) in exercise was measured using the Basic Psychological Needs in Exercise Scale
196 (BPNES; Vlachopoulos et al., 2010). This was an 11-question section of the survey that assessed
197 the satisfaction of autonomy (4 items), competence (4 items), and relatedness (3 items). All
198 factors were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from *I don’t agree at all* to *I completely agree*.
199 A few example items are: “The way I exercise is in agreement with my choices and interests”
200 (autonomy), “I feel exercise is an activity which I do very well” (competence), and “My
201 relationships with the people I exercise with are very friendly” (relatedness). See Vlachopoulos
202 et al. (2010) for evidence of validity. In this study, internal consistency for each subscale was
203 acceptable, as indicated by Cronbach’s α : autonomy ($\alpha = .866$), competence ($\alpha = .918$), and
204 relatedness ($\alpha = .895$). Thus, scores were highly reliable for the subscales of basic psychological
205 needs satisfaction.

206 *Intrinsic Motivation*

207 Self-determined, intrinsic motivation was measured using the Behavioral Regulation in
208 Exercise Questionnaire (BREQ-2; Markland & Tobin, 2004). The four items of the intrinsic
209 regulation subscale were used in this analysis. Following the stem, “Why do you engage in
210 exercise?” participants answered items related to intrinsic regulation (e.g., “I exercise because

211 it's fun"). Each item is answered on a 5-point scale varying from *not true for me* to *very true for*
212 *me*. Studies have demonstrated the questionnaire to be both valid and reliable to examine college
213 students' motivational regulations in exercise (Lauderdale et al., 2015; Markland & Tobin,
214 2004). In this study, internal consistency of the intrinsic regulation subscale was high ($\alpha = .926$).

215 *Affective Experiences*

216 To measure affective experiences the Affective Exercise Experiences (AFFEXX)

217 Questionnaire was used to assess affective exercise experiences. This scale includes several
218 statements with bipolar answers on each side that are separated by a 7-point response scale. The
219 primary subscale of interest in this study was the attraction-antipathy subscale, which includes
220 items such as "Exercise is something I look forward to" vs. "Exercise is something I dread".
221 Ekkekakis et al. (2021) reported on the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. The attraction
222 (vs. antipathy) subscale demonstrated strong internal consistency in this sample ($\alpha = .899$)

223 *Exercise Behavior*

224 The International Physical Activity Questionnaire Short Form (IPAQ-SF; Craig et al.,

225 2003) was modified to assess exercise behavior. The questionnaire has shown acceptable

226 concurrent validity (Meh et al., 2021). See Craig et al. (2003) for evidence of criterion validity.

227 The questionnaire was modified in this study to focus directly on mode (i.e., aerobic or

228 resistance), frequency, and duration of exercise. This section was composed of questions used to

229 assess aerobic and resistance frequency as well as overall, total aerobic exercise (i.e., "How

230 many minutes of planned, purposeful cardiorespiratory or aerobic exercise have you completed

231 in the last 7 days? Do not count activities such as walking to work or completing household

232 chores"). The response format included an open-ended textbox where participants could enter

233 their response.

234 Aerobic exercise frequency was assessed using the question “In the past 7 days, how
235 many days did you engage in planned, purposeful cardiorespiratory or aerobic exercise? Do not
236 count activities such as walking to work or completing household chores.” Resistance exercise
237 frequency was assessed with the question “In the past 7 days, how many days did you complete
238 muscle-strengthening activities, such as weightlifting, strength training, or resistance training?”
239 Response options included 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, or 7, corresponding to anywhere from 0 days to 7
240 days of aerobic or resistance exercise. We intended to measure frequency as well as overall
241 behavior (minutes) because motivational variables may differently impact frequency and overall
242 behavior. For example, motivational variables may influence choice of whether to exercise today
243 or not (frequency) more than the decision to continue exercising once the task has been initiated
244 (total behavior).

245 Procedure

246 Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained from California State University
247 Bakersfield. One modification was approved to increase recruitment rate; this modification
248 included recruitment through social media which allowed for college students of all ages to
249 participate. Data were initially collected in the Fall 2021 semester. Participants were recruited
250 from a Hispanic-serving Institution in California. A second modification was made to allow for
251 the recruitment of some additional participants in the Spring 2022 semester. Participants were
252 recruited through mass emailing and a recruitment flyer posted on social media (Instagram and
253 Twitter).

254 Participants clicked on a link to access the informed consent form and the survey. Once
255 consent was provided, students were prompted with questions on their demographic
256 characteristics as well as the questions to assess their basic psychological needs, intrinsic

257 motivation, attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise, and exercise behavior. Upon completion of
258 the survey, participants were redirected to another survey where they provided their email to be
259 compensated with \$5.00 Amazon electronic gift cards.

260 Sample Size Calculation

261 The study was launched with a focus on college students at least 18 years of age. The
262 revised analysis that is presented was not based on that initial power calculation. Based on
263 practical and resource considerations (Lakens, 2022), we aimed to recruit between 120 and 150
264 individuals to balance resource constraints.

265 Preregistration, Data Processing, and Data Availability

266 The preregistration, data, data analysis, and data processing notes are available at
267 <https://osf.io/y5guj/>. Deviations for preregistration are reported in the discussion.

268 All data were cleaned and analyzed using IBM SPSS version 28 (Armonk, NY), JASP
269 (JASP Team, 2022) and jamovi (The jamovi, 2022). Significance levels were set to $p < .05$.
270 Before beginning data analysis, the data were cleaned and processed. This included the removal
271 of ten responses from people who never completed the consent form (and never provided any
272 additional data), 22 participants who consented but never provided additional data, and 7
273 participants who did not complete the survey. Further, outliers were identified using Tukey's
274 fences and invalid responses were identified, flagged, and removed from relevant analyses and
275 the questionnaire data was appropriately scored. The full notes on the data processing procedure
276 are available at <https://osf.io/y5guj/>.

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280 Final Sample Characteristics

281 Data included 128 participants (mean age: 24 ± 7 years). This included 91 women, 36
282 men, and 1 participant who preferred not to say their gender. Over half of the sample (56.25%)
283 identified as either Hispanic, Latino, Latina, or Latinx. The sample also included 35 White
284 participants, 17 Asian participants, 11 Black or African American participants, 1 Native
285 Hawaiian or Pacific Islander participant, and 3 participants identifying as “Other”, which
286 included one “European” and one “Palestinian/Arabic” participant. Finally, most were currently
287 undergraduate students with 91.41% having earned their high school diploma (or equivalent),
288 some college, or Associate degree (2-year degree). 11 participants completed their Bachelor
289 degree or Master degree. Ten participants indicated extreme amounts of exercise behavior (more
290 than 433 minutes per week), which was determined using Tukey’s fences ($IQR * 1.5$). These
291 participants were eliminated from further analysis.

292 Statistical Analysis*293 Motivational correlates of exercise behavior*

294 A series of bivariate correlation analyses were performed to determine the relations between
295 motivational variables (autonomy, competence, relatedness, intrinsic motivation, and attraction
296 [vs. antipathy] toward exercise) and exercise behavior (frequency of aerobic exercise, total
297 aerobic exercise, and frequency of resistance exercise). The assumption of normality was
298 violated in multiple cases and thus Spearman’s rho is reported for each correlation.

299 Exploratory mediation analyses

300 A series of three exploratory mediation analyses were completed to test whether attraction (vs.
301 antipathy) toward exercise mediated the relation between intrinsic motivation and exercise
302 behavior. Mediation analyses were performed in jamovi (Gallucci, 2020; jamovi project, 2022; R
303 Core Team, 2021; Rosseel, 2019; Soetaert, 2019) with dependent variables including (a)

304 frequency of aerobic exercise, (b) total aerobic exercise, and (c) frequency of resistance exercise.
305 For each mediation analysis, 95% confidence intervals were calculated using 5000 bias-corrected
306 bootstrapped samples. If the 95% bootstrap confidence interval of an indirect effect did not
307 include 0, it was considered statistically significant.

308 RESULTS

309 Motivational Correlates of Exercise Behavior

310 Results of the correlation analyses used to determine the relations between motivational
311 variables and exercise behavior are presented in Table 1. Notably, motivational constructs were
312 also consistently correlated with each other (Table 2). Further exploratory correlation analyses
313 revealed a strong affective component of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Autonomy,
314 competence, and relatedness were each correlated with all of ten subscales of the AFFEXX ($p <$
315 $.001$), including antecedent appraisals and core affective exercise experiences (Ekkekakis et al.,
316 2021).

317 **Table 1. Motivational Correlates of Exercise Behavior**

	Frequency of Aerobic Exercise	Total Aerobic Exercise	Frequency of Resistance Exercise
Autonomy	.624***	.436***	.565***
Competence	.674***	.471***	.632***
Relatedness	.485***	.385***	.458***
Intrinsic Motivation	.507***	.379***	.515***
Attraction (vs. Antipathy)	.565***	.383***	.596***

318 *Note:* Spearman's rho reported. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$

319

320 **Table 2. Correlations Between Motivational Constructs**

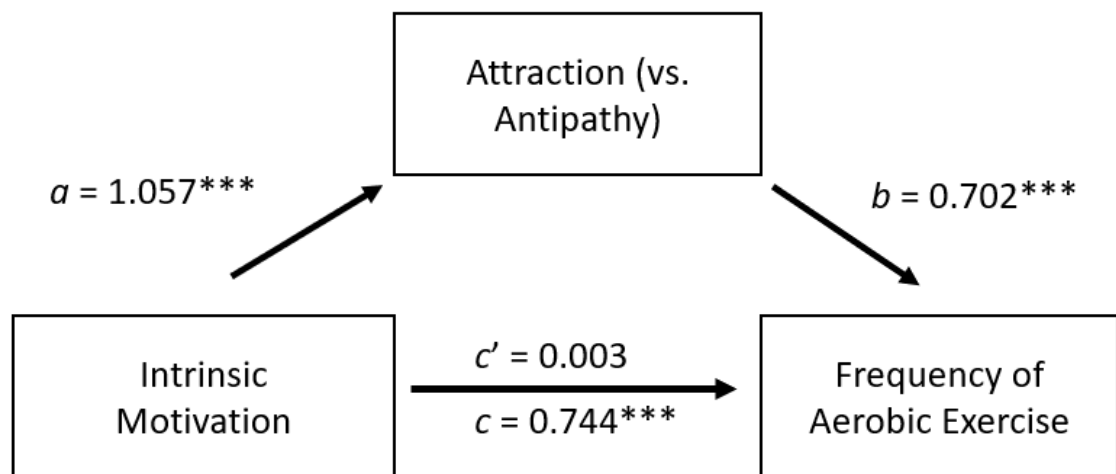
	Attraction (vs. Antipathy)	Intrinsic Motivation	Autonomy	Competence	Relatedness
Attraction (vs. Antipathy)	---	.802***	.665***	.702***	.586***
Intrinsic Motivation		---	.683***	.700***	.549***
Autonomy			---	.864***	.745***
Competence				---	.711***
Relatedness					---

321 *Note:* Spearman's rho reported. *** $p < .001$, ** $p < .01$

322

323 Attraction Toward Exercise as a Mediator

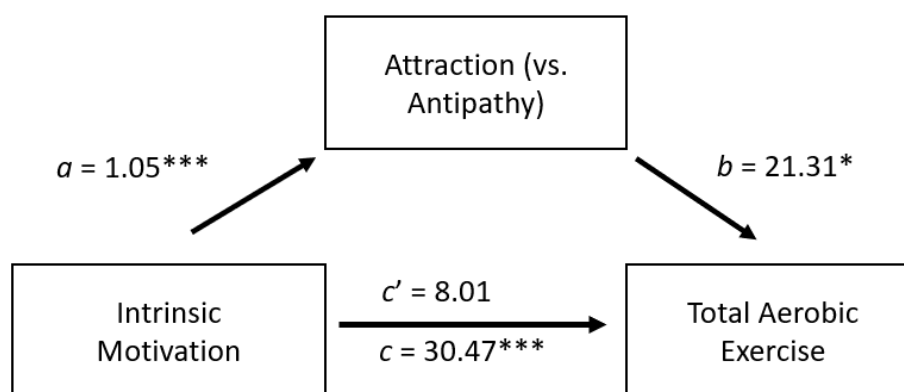
324 The first mediation model tested whether attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise
325 mediated the relation between intrinsic motivation and frequency of aerobic exercise (see Figure
326 1). The total effect of intrinsic motivation on the frequency of aerobic exercise was significant (c
327 = 0.744, $p < .001$, 95% CI: 0.477, 1.012). Participants with greater intrinsic motivation had
328 greater attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise (path $a = 1.057$, $p < .001$, 95% CI: 0.901,
329 1.213), and participants with greater attraction toward exercise engaged in aerobic exercise more
330 frequently (path $b = 0.702$, $p < .001$, 95% CI: 0.382, 1.016). A 95% bootstrap confidence interval
331 for the indirect effect ($ab = 0.742$) based on 5000 bootstrap samples did not contain 0 (0.392,
332 1.131), indicating that the indirect effect was statistically significant. Intrinsic motivations did
333 not have a direct effect on frequency of aerobic exercise when controlling for attraction vs.
334 antipathy (path $c' = 0.003$, $p = .990$, -0.449, 0.449).



335

336 **Figure 1.** Attraction (vs. Antipathy) toward exercise mediates the relation between intrinsic
337 motivation and frequency of aerobic exercise. $^{***}p < .001$.

338 The second mediation model tested whether attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise
339 mediated the relation between intrinsic motivation and total aerobic exercise (see Figure 2). The
340 total effect of intrinsic motivation on total aerobic exercise was significant ($c = 30.47, p < .001,$
341 $95\% \text{ CI: } 14.37, 46.58$). Participants with greater intrinsic motivation had greater attraction (vs.
342 antipathy) toward exercise (path $a = 1.05, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI: } 0.90, 1.23$), and participants with
343 greater attraction toward exercise engaged in more total aerobic exercise (path $b = 21.31, p =$
344 $.044, 95\% \text{ CI: } 0.696, 42.44$). A 95% bootstrap confidence interval for the indirect effect ($ab =$
345 22.46) based on 5000 bootstrap samples did not contain 0 ($1.14, 46.66$), indicating that the
346 indirect effect was statistically significant. Intrinsic motivation did not have a direct effect on
347 total aerobic exercise when controlling for attraction vs. antipathy (path $c' = 8.01, p = .540, 95\%$
348 $\text{CI: } -16.78, 34.60$).

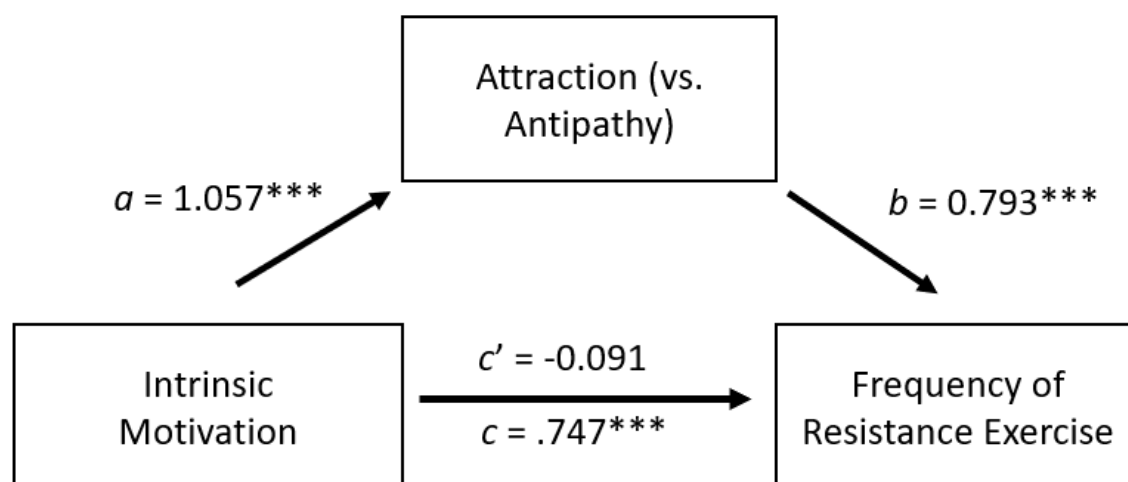


349
350 **Figure 2.** Attraction (vs. Antipathy) toward exercise mediates the relation between intrinsic
351 motivation and total aerobic exercise. $***p < .001, *p < .05$.

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354 Finally, the third mediation model tested whether attraction (vs. antipathy) toward
355 exercise mediated the relation between intrinsic motivation and the frequency of resistance
356 exercise (see Figure 3). The total effect of intrinsic motivation on resistance exercise frequency
357 was significant ($c = .747, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI: } 0.483, 1.011$). Participants with greater intrinsic
358 motivation had greater attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise (path $a = 1.057, p < .001, 95\%$
359 $\text{CI: } 0.899, 1.209$), and participants with greater attraction toward exercise engaged in more
360 frequent resistance exercise (path $b = .793, p < .001, 95\% \text{ CI: } 0.494, 1.078$). A 95% bootstrap
361 confidence interval for the indirect effect ($ab = 0.838$) based on 5000 bootstrap samples did not
362 contain 0 (0.515, 1.189), indicating that the indirect effect was statistically significant. Intrinsic
363 motivation did not have a direct effect on the frequency of resistance exercise when controlling
364 for attraction vs. antipathy (path $c' = -0.091, p = .656, 95\% \text{ CI: } -0.486, 0.308$).



365
366 **Figure 3.** Attraction (vs. Antipathy) toward exercise mediates the relation between intrinsic
367 motivation and the frequency of resistance exercise. $^{***}p < .001$.

368

369 DEVIATIONS FROM PREREGISTRATION

370 Previous researchers have suggested that autonomous motivation consists of both
371 intrinsic regulations and identified regulations, while controlled motivation consists of external
372 regulation and introjected regulation (Hagger et al., 2014; Nurmi et al., 2016; Sebire et al., 2008).
373 We initially used the relative autonomy index. However, following reviewer comments, we
374 chose to use only the intrinsic regulation subscale of the BREQ-2 as an indicator of intrinsic
375 motivation based on arguments against the relative autonomy index (Chemolli & Gagné, 2014).
376 Thus, intrinsic motivation was used instead of autonomous or controlled motivations or the
377 relative autonomy index.

378 This study was initially conceptualized with a focus on gender differences in motivation
379 and physical activity. Following reviewer and editor comments, we removed discussion and
380 analyses focusing on gender. The analysis was simplified by removing gender to determine the
381 correlations between the basic psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness),
382 intrinsic motivation, attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise, and exercise behavior (frequency
383 of aerobic exercise, total aerobic exercise, and frequency of resistance exercise). Although, it
384 was specified that attraction (vs. antipathy) would be used in mediation analyses, details of the
385 mediation analyses were not included (e.g., predictor variables), making it difficult to label the
386 mediation analyses as confirmatory.

387 Following reviewer comments, we simplified analyses here and removed perceived
388 variety in exercise as a variable. This is partly because of incomplete data and researcher error
389 related to the perceived variety in exercise questionnaire (we did have an error in the survey)
390 (Sylvester et al., 2014a, 2014b). Finally, we did not anticipate all of the data cleaning steps noted
391 in the supplementary material. For example, we did not anticipate that people would respond

392 with a range for self-reported physical activity (e.g., 6-10 hours), which required manual
393 recoding.

394 DISCUSSION

395 Autonomy, competence, and relatedness were consistently associated with exercise
396 behavior, whether behavior was quantified as frequency of aerobic exercise, frequency of
397 resistance exercise, or total aerobic exercise behavior. This adds to existing literature, which has
398 shown mixed associations between autonomy and exercise; it also contrasts with prior literature,
399 which has shown weak or nonexistent relations between exercise and relatedness (Rhodes et al.,
400 2019). In this study, relatedness shared about 14.8% to 23.5% of the variance with exercise
401 behavior.

402 Further, intrinsic motivation and attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise were
403 consistently associated with exercise behavior. Attraction (vs. antipathy) toward exercise
404 explained about 14.7% of the variance in total aerobic exercise, 31.9% of the variance in the
405 frequency of aerobic exercise, and 35.5% of the variance in the frequency of resistance exercise
406 (see Table 2); this extends findings from Ekkekakis et al. (2021) and provides further evidence
407 that attraction-antipathy is a meaningful and motivationally relevant variable. Given that
408 attraction-antipathy is likely influenced by both automatic and reflective processes (Ekkekakis et
409 al., 2021), including appraisals of exercise (e.g., level of interest or boredom, perceptions of
410 competence or incompetence, liking or disliking group exercise) and core affective experiences
411 (e.g., repeated experiences of pleasure or displeasure felt while exercising), this seems to further
412 support the merits of dual-process theories that recognize the influence of both automatic and
413 reflective processes on exercise behavior (e.g., Brand & Ekkekakis, 2018; Conroy & Berry,

414 2017; Ekkekakis & Zenko, 2016). Thus, strategies to enhance attraction toward exercise should
415 be included with behavior change interventions.

416 Following the preregistration, mediation analyses were performed using attraction (vs.
417 antipathy) as a mediator to assess whether this construct mediates the relation between intrinsic
418 motivation and exercise behavior. Our results suggest that attraction (vs. antipathy) mediated the
419 relations between intrinsic motivation and exercise behavior, as indicated by (a) frequency of
420 aerobic exercise, (b) total aerobic exercise, and (c) frequency of resistance exercise. In these
421 mediation models, a 1-unit increase in attraction toward exercise was associated with 0.7
422 additional days of aerobic exercise, 0.8 additional days of resistance exercise, and 21 minutes of
423 aerobic exercise. Thus, increasing attraction toward exercise may meaningfully increase the
424 likelihood of achieving physical activity recommendations.

425 Ekkekakis et al. (2021) theorized that attraction-antipathy toward exercise reflects both
426 reflective and automatically activated processes. We suggest that the satisfaction of basic needs
427 (i.e., autonomy, competence, and relatedness) may enhance intrinsic motivation, which in turn
428 may enhance attraction toward exercise and ultimately exercise behavior. The data presented
429 here highlight the possibility that attraction-antipathy might be partially influenced by intrinsic
430 motivation regulations, theorized here to be a reflective process (i.e., dependent upon cognitive
431 appraisals). As indicated in our results, intrinsic motivation predicts greater attraction toward
432 exercise, which in turn predicts more frequent aerobic exercise, more total aerobic exercise, and
433 more frequent resistance exercise. This suggests the possibility that satisfying basic
434 psychological needs and enhancing autonomous and self-determined forms of motivation may
435 also increase attraction toward exercise. It should be noted that in this study, intrinsic motivation
436 and attraction toward exercise were highly correlated (Spearman's $\rho = .802$, $p < .001$), which

437 reinforces attraction toward exercise as a highly motivationally relevant variable and may
438 suggest that intrinsic motivation is driven primarily by affective exercise experiences. Further
439 researchers should investigate this possibility.

440 Limitations

441 This study is not without limitations. We mentioned deviations from the preregistration,
442 above. In addition, this study was based on cross-sectional data. Using cross-sectional data in
443 mediation analysis has been criticized (Fairchild & McDaniel, 2017). Indeed, the cross-sectional
444 data presented here are correlational in nature and “cannot offer insight into directionality of a
445 relation between variables (Fairchild & McDaniel, p. 1265). That said, cross-sectional mediation
446 analyses can still provide meaningful insights (e.g., Bugge et al., 2018), banning cross-sectional
447 mediation analyses may hinder “progression of scientific theory” (Disabato, 2016; also see
448 Hayes and Rockwood, 2020), and simply reversing the order of variables in the mediation model
449 is not recommended (Thoemmes, 2015), and thus we are not presenting the mediation models
450 testing whether intrinsic motivation mediates the relation between attraction toward exercise and
451 exercise behavior. We theorize that attraction toward exercise is a direct determinant of exercise
452 behavior, and suggest that intrinsic motivation (i.e., exercising for fun, enjoyment, because
453 exercise is pleasurable, and because of pleasure and satisfaction) increases attraction toward
454 exercise. Further, we suggest that satisfying basic psychological needs (i.e., increasing
455 autonomy, competence, and relatedness) may increase intrinsic motivation, and in turn attraction
456 toward exercise. This is supported by further exploratory regression analyses, which indicate that
457 autonomy, competence, and relatedness explain 46.5% of the variance in intrinsic motivation.
458 However, more robust data with more complex research designs (e.g., longitudinal studies,
459 randomized controlled trials) are warranted to test these hypotheses.

460 We also recommend that future researchers more specifically assess self-determined
461 motivations (e.g., autonomy, competence, relatedness, intrinsic motivation) as it relates to
462 aerobic exercise and resistance exercise separately, and we appreciate the reviewer for this
463 suggestion. Finally, we recommend that future researchers explore these questions using device-
464 based measures to complement self-reported physical activity.

465 Conclusions

466 Using preregistered measures and methods, further evidence is provided to support the
467 importance of basic psychological needs satisfaction, intrinsic motivation, and attraction (vs.
468 antipathy) toward exercise to understand exercise behavior. We recommend further replication
469 attempts on these results using fully preregistered methods. At present, we recommend that
470 researchers and practitioners continue investigating how to (a) promote psychological needs
471 satisfaction to maximize autonomy, competence, and relatedness, (b) enhance intrinsic
472 motivation, and (c) ensure that affective exercise experiences are positive across the lifespan of
473 exercise so that people have positive associations with exercise, and experience attraction toward
474 exercise behavior.

475

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654

655 **ADDITIONAL INFORMATION**656 **Contributions Statement**

- 657 • Contributed to conception and design: JN, ZZ
- 658 • Contributed to acquisition of data: JN, ZZ
- 659 • Contributed to analysis and interpretation of data: ZZ, JN
- 660 • Drafted and/or revised the manuscript: JN, ZZ
- 661 • Approved the submitted version for publication: JN, ZZ

662 **Data Accessibility**

663 The preregistration, data, data analysis, and data processing notes are available at

664 <https://osf.io/y5guj/>

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672 **Preregistration**

673 This study was preregistered. The preregistration can be found at

674 <https://aspredicted.org/cw7mu.pdf>

675 **Conflicts of Interest**

676 ZZ currently serves as the Publications Chair for the Society for Transparency, Openness, and
677 Replication in Kinesiology (STORK). He previously served as a managing editor and section
678 editor for Communications in Kinesiology. He had no input or involvement with the peer-review
679 or editorial process for this manuscript.