

NOTICE: this is the author's version of a work that was accepted for publication in *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*. Changes resulting from the publishing process, such as peer review, editing, corrections, structural formatting, and other quality control mechanisms may not be reflected in this document. Changes may have been made to this work since it was submitted for publication. A definitive version was subsequently published in *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, Vol. 14, No. 6 (2013). DOI: [10.1016/j.psychsport.2013.06.005](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.psychsport.2013.06.005)

1 Running head: THEORETICAL BASIS FOR NEED-SUPPORTIVE INTERVENTION

2 Theoretical underpinnings of a need-supportive intervention to address sustained healthy
3 lifestyle changes in overweight and obese adolescents

4

5 Ashley A Fenner ^{a,*}, Leon M Straker ^b, Melissa C Davis ^a, and Martin S Hagger ^a

6

7 Article final reference: Fenner, A. A., Straker, L. M., Davis, M. C., & Hagger, M. S. (2013).
8 Theoretical underpinnings of a need-supportive intervention to address sustained healthy
9 lifestyle changes in overweight and obese adolescents. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*,
10 14(6), 819-829.

11 *Author Note.* Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to: Ashley A
12 Fenner, School of Psychology and Speech Pathology, Curtin University, GPO Box U1987,
13 Perth, Western Australia, 6845, Australia. Tel.: +61 8 9266 9456. Email address:
14 ashley.fenner@postgrad.curtin.edu.au.

15 ^aAshley A Fenner, Melissa C Davis, and Martin S Hager, School of Psychology and Speech
16 Pathology, Curtin University, Perth, Australia.

17 ^bLeon M Straker, School of Physiotherapy, Curtin University, Perth, Australia.

18

19 *Acknowledgements:* This trial is funded by a Healthway Health Promotion Research Project
20 Grant # 19938. Ashley A. Fenner, Dr Melissa C. Davis, and Professor Martin S. Hagger are
21 supported by Curtin University. Professor Leon M. Straker is supported by a National Health
22 and Medical Research Council senior research fellowship.

1 Theoretical Underpinnings of a Need-Supportive Intervention to Address Sustained Healthy
2 Lifestyle Changes in Overweight and Obese Adolescents

3 Rates of overweight and obesity in Australian adolescents have doubled in the past 25
4 years (Olds, Tomkinson, Ferrar, & Maher, 2009), with current figures indicating one in four
5 adolescents are overweight or obese (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2012). Adolescent
6 obesity is a major public health concern because of the associated negative health outcomes
7 including type 2 diabetes (Tirosh et al., 2011), cardiovascular risk factors (Sorof, Lai, Turner,
8 Poffenbarger, & Portman, 2004), social marginalization (Strauss & Pollack, 2003),
9 depression (Luppino et al., 2010), and anxiety (Rofey, Kolko, & Iosif, 2009). Obesity during
10 adolescence is also highly predictive of adult obesity (Freedman et al., 2005) and continued
11 persistence of physical and psychosocial consequences.

12 Although increases in physical activity and healthy eating behaviors have been shown to
13 be effective in promoting positive health outcomes (Berkey, Rockett, Gillman, & Colditz,
14 2003; Bradlee, Singer, Qureshi, & Moore, 2010), only 57% of Australian adolescents meet
15 national guidelines for physical activity (Hardy, 2010), and fewer than a quarter meet
16 guidelines for fruit (23%) and vegetable intake (15%; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009).
17 These figures are of particular concern given that behaviors formed in adolescence underpin
18 lifelong behavioral patterns (Story, Neumark-Sztainer, & French, 2002). In response, health
19 related agencies worldwide have called for programs to increase adolescents' physical
20 activity and healthy eating behaviors. However, there remains a relative dearth of programs
21 demonstrating long-term maintenance of these behaviors (Currie et al., 2012).

22 Evidence suggests that if interventions are to be effective in the long-term, adolescents
23 must be targeted within the family context (Shrewsbury, Steinbeck, Torvaldsen, & Baur,
24 2011). The inclusion of modifying parent behaviors to support adolescents' behavior changes
25 is paramount given parents are a primary stakeholder regarding the provision of environments

1 that foster adolescents' uptake and maintenance of healthy lifestyle behaviors (Pearson,
2 Biddle, & Gorely, 2009). Environmental contributions include not only the provision of
3 physical resources such as purchasing healthy food items (Hanson, Neumark-Sztainer,
4 Eisenberg, Story, & Wall, 2005), but also refer to the demonstration of behaviors associated
5 with adolescents' motivation to engage in healthy lifestyle behaviors including joint
6 participation in physical activity (Bauer, Neumark-Sztainer, Fulkerson, Hannan, & Story,
7 2011), parent behavior modeling (Davison, Francis, & Birch, 2005), less controlling food
8 environments (Birch, Fisher, & Davison, 2003), and supporting adolescents' behavior choices
9 (Hagger et al., 2009). Interventions targeting families must therefore address evidence-based
10 motivational techniques aimed at fostering adolescents' behavior changes and parents'
11 behaviors to support these choices both within the context of intervention settings and home
12 environments (Oude Luttikhuis et al., 2009).

13 Two theories of motivation that have been identified as showing some promise in
14 promoting sustained behavior change include self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000)
15 and goal setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990). Despite evidence supporting interventions
16 based on these theoretical underpinnings (Shilts, Townsend, & Dishman, 2013; Van den
17 Berghe, Vansteenkiste, Cardon, Kirk, & Haerens, 2012), methodological shortcomings exist
18 in the current literature that may limit the capacity of each theory to contribute to the
19 development of behavior change interventions. Firstly, although each theory alone has been
20 shown to effectively inform interventions to change behavior, researchers have yet to
21 combine these motivational theories in a healthy lifestyle intervention. Integrating both
22 theories is likely to optimize behavioral engagement by providing a framework for
23 intervention content that not only focuses on the types of goals set according to goal-setting
24 theory but also on the content and motivational perspective of the goals based on self-
25 determination theory. Such an approach will permit the setting of goals that are closely

1 aligned with individuals' self-determined motivational orientations and, therefore, more
2 likely to be enacted as self-determined motives are strongly linked with self-regulation and
3 behavioural persistence. Secondly, of the studies reporting on the independent effects of each
4 theory, a scant number exist that contain a sufficient level of detail to allow for effective
5 evaluation and replication of behavior-change techniques (Shilts, et al., 2013). In response,
6 researchers have increasingly called for a need to improve the reporting of intervention
7 content to help streamline the implementation of evidence-based behavior techniques
8 (Abraham & Michie, 2008; Bartholomew, Parcel, Kok, Gottlieb, & Fernández, 2011). In
9 keeping with this call for greater disclosure of intervention content detail, the current article
10 will describe the theoretical underpinnings and associated evidence-based behavior-change
11 techniques of a multi-disciplinary family-based healthy lifestyle behavioral intervention,
12 Curtin University's Activity, Food and Attitudes Program (CAFAP), designed to facilitate a
13 more self-determined style of motivation required for behavior maintenance (Hagger,
14 Chatzisarantis, Culverhouse, & Biddle, 2003). This will be achieved by 1) demonstrating how
15 self-determination theory and goal setting theory were integrated to inform the selection of
16 specific behavior-change techniques, and by 2) describing program components at a level that
17 provides a rationale for the potential effectiveness of the intervention and allows for the
18 replication of behavior-change techniques in other contexts (Abraham & Michie, 2008;
19 Michie & Abraham, 2004).

20 *Objectives*

21 Objectives of the current paper will be accomplished by building on CAFAP's previously
22 described overarching rationale and framework (Straker et al., 2012) to allow for a
23 comprehensive description of theoretical rationale and delivery of behavior-change
24 techniques specific to processes of motivation that are critical for the future development of
25 effective interventions.

1 A primary objective of the current article is to describe the development of a protocol that
2 trains instructors to modify intervention environments by engaging in behaviors shown to
3 enhance self-determined motivation, and to describe methods for training instructors to teach
4 parents how to demonstrate these behaviors in their interactions with adolescents.
5 Adolescents' perception of instructors' and parents' demonstration of these behaviors is
6 hypothesized to positively predict their levels of self-determined motivation and subsequent
7 engagement in physical activity and healthy eating behaviors. Instructors' provision of these
8 behaviors during program sessions is further hypothesized to increase parents' level of self-
9 determined motivation to perform behaviors to support adolescents' engagement in healthy
10 lifestyle behaviors, which, in turn, will increase adolescents' behavior engagement.

11 A secondary objective is to describe the theoretical underpinnings of a goal setting
12 structure based on the integration of self-determination theory and goal setting theory.
13 Specifically, components of goal setting theory will be applied to provide a motivational
14 framework for adolescents and parents to implement their self-determined behavior changes.
15 Adolescent goal setting will address their healthy lifestyle behavior changes and parent goal
16 setting will map support behaviors for parents to carry out that align with adolescents'
17 behavior change goals. We then aim to further enhance benefits of goal setting techniques by
18 structuring intervention environments to encourage setting goals related to self-determined
19 reasons such as enjoyment and adolescent-centered health outcomes.

20 Theoretical Rationale

21 In this section we outline the theoretical rationale behind the components of the
22 intervention. We begin our analysis with an overview of the salient aspects of self-
23 determination theory and how these have informed the development of behavior change
24 intervention in health behavior. We then describe goal setting theory and how the integration
25 of self-determination theory components alongside methods from goal setting theory will

1 generate an intervention protocol that will maximize behavior change among obese and
2 overweight adolescents in the proposed study.

3 *Self-determination theory*

4 Self-determination theory is based on the key premise that motivation to perform a
5 behavior varies according to the degree to which a behavior is self-determined (Deci & Ryan,
6 2000). These varying motivational styles or *regulations* are organized along a continuum
7 ranging from controlled (regulated by external forces) to autonomous (self-determined)
8 regulation. *External regulation* is the most controlling form of motivation and refers to
9 individuals performing a behavior to gain a reward or avoid punishment; *introjected*
10 *regulation* involves performing behaviors due to internal pressures or compulsions; *identified*
11 *regulation* entails people identifying with the value of a behavior but not necessarily enjoying
12 the activity; *integrated regulation* involves accepting behaviors as congruent with personal
13 values and interests, although the behavior is not performed solely out of interest; and
14 *intrinsic motivation* is the prototypical form of self-determined motivation and involves
15 engaging in activities out of inherent interest and enjoyment.

16 Autonomous motivation is considered important for sustained behavior change
17 because it is hypothesized to lead individuals to engage in behaviors without the need for
18 external reinforcement (Deci & Ryan, 2000). A primary objective in addressing behavior
19 change is therefore to promote the internalization of regulations such that individuals'
20 behaviors are reinforced intrinsically. Environmental factors are posited in self-determination
21 theory to facilitate or inhibit internalization by satisfying or thwarting individuals' basic
22 needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. *Autonomy* reflects the desire to be the
23 origin of one's choices and behaviors in accordance with one's values; *competence* involves
24 one's desire to master effective interactions with the environment; and *relatedness* refers to
25 the desire to feel connected to others in supportive social relationships. When all three needs

1 are met, individuals are more likely to engage in autonomously motivated behaviors (Deci &
2 Ryan, 2000). Behavior change is thus explained as a reflection of the degree to which
3 individuals' environments support their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

4 According to self-determination theory, individuals' need satisfaction can be
5 optimized when environmental contexts provide three components: autonomy support,
6 structure, and involvement (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Behaviors comprising each environmental
7 component have been identified (Deci, Spiegel, Ryan, Koestner, & Kauffman, 1982; Reeve,
8 Bolt, & Cai, 1999) and empirically tested (Chatzisarantis & Hagger, 2009), resulting in the
9 following list of behaviors that social agents should adopt in order to change behavior.

10 *Autonomy support* includes the promotion of choice and limited use of controlling demands
11 by providing choices for activities, positive feedback regarding progress, being responsive to
12 individuals' feelings and thoughts, and explaining rationale for activities. Autonomy support
13 directly supports autonomy and indirectly supports basic needs for competence and
14 relatedness (Black & Deci, 2000). *Structure* provides direct support for individuals'
15 competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and involves the provision of consistent guidelines for
16 behavior by providing optimally challenging tasks, assistance to formulate realistic goals, and
17 positive feedback regarding progress. *Involvement* directly facilitates relatedness (Deci &
18 Ryan, 1991) and refers to social agents' display of support resources (e.g., physical, time) and
19 interest in individuals' day-to-day pursuits.

20 Studies have demonstrated across a range of interactions (e.g., parents, friends, and
21 physical education teachers) that when adolescents' environments comprise these need-
22 supportive components, motivation guiding their engagement in healthy lifestyle behaviors is
23 more likely to be self-determined (Hagger, et al., 2009; Standage & Gillison, 2007; Taylor &
24 Ntoumanis, 2007), and behavior engagement increased as a result (Chatzisarantis & Hagger,
25 2009). The context surrounding adolescents' prescription of healthy behaviors generated by

1 significant others and social agents has thus become a key factor for interventions targeting
2 the maintenance of long-term behavior changes.

3 *Self-determination theory: Behavioral interventions*

4 A central focus of studies exploring the feasibility of manipulating environmental
5 contexts has been the modification of instructors' behaviors to provide need-support (Van
6 den Berghe, et al., 2012; Verloigne et al., 2011). While these studies have been instrumental
7 in demonstrating that provision of support for basic needs by instructors is a modifiable
8 behavior that predicts increases in adolescents' engagement in healthy lifestyle behaviors,
9 less attention has been afforded to modifying behaviors of additional key social agents,
10 namely parents, within the context of self-determination theory. Addressing adolescents'
11 motivation in the home environment is imperative if adolescents are to actualize motivations
12 fostered in external settings (Twiddy, Wilson, Bryant, & Rudolf, 2012) and if they are to
13 receive ongoing need-support beyond the scope of that experienced in a brief intervention.

14 Among the studies addressing parent behaviors in a healthy lifestyle context, results
15 indicate parents are receptive to learning need-supportive behaviors, and autonomous forms
16 of motivation and behavior engagement is increased in children as a result (Jago et al., 2013;
17 Koulouglioti et al., 2013). However, these investigations were limited to parents of young
18 children and assessments of parents' changes in motivation to engage in supportive behaviors
19 were not explored. Motivation is particularly salient for parents of obese adolescents who are
20 more likely to endorse a controlling orientation (Chiang & Padilla, 2012). Self-determination
21 theory-based interventions conducted in adult samples suggest that parents' engagement in
22 behaviors to support their adolescents is strongly associated with their motivation (Edmunds,
23 Ntoumanis, & Duda, 2008; Silva et al., 2011), and therefore needs to be explored in relation
24 to adolescent outcomes.

1 Limitations of prior family-based interventions grounded in self-determination theory
2 are further confounded by the inability to draw conclusions regarding long-term behavior
3 maintenance. Given the potential benefit of adolescents receiving ongoing need-support in
4 the home environment as a result of parent training in behavior modifications, it is imperative
5 to explore the associated long-term maintenance of parents' motivation to continue these
6 behaviors and adolescents' associated engagement in healthy lifestyle behaviors. The current
7 study seeks to address these limitations by assessing adolescents' physical activity and
8 healthy eating behaviors as well as adolescents' and parents' behavior motivation over a one
9 year period following intervention delivery (immediate post-program, 3, 6, and 12 month).

10 *Goal setting theory*

11 In addition to self-determination theory, theories of goal setting have been applied to
12 explain motivation for task performance. Goal setting provides a structure for developing and
13 implementing behavior-change plans, and has been shown to be an effective strategy for
14 modifying physical activity and eating behaviors in adolescent (Matthews & Moran, 2011;
15 Shilts, Horowitz, & Townsend, 2009) and adult samples (Locke & Latham, 1990; Shilts,
16 Horowitz, & Townsend, 2004). Although intrinsic motivation has been shown to engender
17 behavior engagement and persistence, providing individuals with goal-setting techniques
18 alongside need-support to implement endorsed behaviors may further assist in promoting
19 sustained behavior change.

20 The most prominent goal setting theory was developed by Locke and Latham (1990)
21 and proposes that goal setting effects performance via three motivational mechanisms: effort,
22 persistence, and concentration. These mechanisms are strengthened when set goals are
23 broken down from distal goals into proximal goals that are difficult and specific. Proximal
24 goals, or subgoals, make tasks appear more manageable while also providing frequent
25 feedback regarding progress, which has been shown to increase self-efficacy (Latham &

1 Seijts, 1999; Stock & Cervone, 1990) and goal persistence (Latham & Seijts, 1999). Difficult
2 goals are shown to be linearly related to performance, such that more effort is required as
3 goal difficulty increases, which leads to greater performance in comparison to easy goals or
4 “do your best” (Locke & Latham, 1990). Instances of failure are posited to be met with
5 dissatisfaction and result in motivation to invest subsequent effort, concentration, and
6 persistence when the goal is assumed to be attainable (Strecher et al., 1995). Recording
7 specific details of each goal, such as the amount and frequency of a behavior (e.g., walk 1km
8 a day five days a week), reduces ambiguity for evaluating performance and setting new goals
9 and results in higher levels of performance (Locke & Latham, 1990).

10 Key to the success of goal setting as a motivational framework is the provision of
11 content that allows for accurate uptake of goal setting processes (Strecher, et al., 1995).
12 Collaborative goal setting has been suggested as a means for accomplishing successful
13 learning and application of goal setting techniques (Bodenheimer & Handley, 2009) and
14 entails jointly discussing goals to ensure they are appropriately matched in level of difficulty
15 and clearly defined. Collaborative goal setting has been shown to be particularly salient for
16 adolescents (Contento, Koch, Lee, & Calabrese-Barton, 2010) who are moving from the
17 developmental stage of understanding concrete concepts to more abstract concepts (Carrãça
18 et al., 2011) required for goal setting (Standage, Gillison, Ntoumanis, & Treasure, 2012).

19 Given goal setting functions as a strategy for motivating behavior change while also
20 providing a structure for implementing these changes, including goal setting methods is likely
21 to provide optimal outcomes for sustained behavior change. Methods from goal setting theory
22 will be adopted in the current study by asking adolescents and parents to set goals for their
23 behavior changes using the previously reviewed techniques inclusive of proximal, specific,
24 and difficult goals. Parent goals will reflect behavior changes in regard to their provision of
25 resources to support adolescents’ access to goals set for healthy lifestyle behavior changes

1 (e.g., purchasing fruit to assist adolescent's goal to eat one fruit serve/day). Collaboratively
2 engaging both adolescents and parents in the goal setting process will also provide both a
3 means for instructors to ensure goals are set appropriately and a check system for parents and
4 adolescents to discuss the feasibility and implementation of goals in the home environment.

5 *Integrating goal setting theory and self-determination theory*

6 Motivational underpinnings of goal setting methods will be augmented by considering
7 goal types proposed within self-determination theory. Within goal setting theory, goal
8 success is posited to result from people's belief that goal attainment leads to value attainment,
9 with no consideration given to the variability among reasons underlying goal strivings. In line
10 with these propositions, meta-analyses have demonstrated that goal commitment, or one's
11 expectancy of goal attainment, moderates the relationship between difficult goals and
12 performance (Donovan & Radosevich, 1998; Klein, Wesson, Hollenbeck, & Alge, 1999).
13 However, the authors concluded that alternative explanations may be at play given instances
14 occur in which individuals with low expectancy are committed or those with high expectancy
15 are not committed. Sheldon and colleagues (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999; Sheldon & Kasser,
16 1998) offered an alternative means for understanding the relationship between goal
17 commitment and goal attainment by showing individuals' degree of internalization predicted
18 attainment above and beyond commitment, which suggests that variations in goal attainment
19 reflect individuals' need satisfaction (Sheldon, Turban, Brown, Barrick, & Judge, 2003).

20 Self-determination theory provides an explanation for such variations by considering
21 goals as containing either *intrinsic* or *extrinsic* content. Intrinsic goals include goals such as
22 health, self-acceptance, and affiliation, whereas extrinsic goals relate to appearance and
23 wealth outcomes (Kasser, 2002). Intrinsic goals are proposed to satisfy basic psychological
24 needs because they are inherently gratifying (Sheldon, Elliot, Kim, & Kasser, 2001), whereas
25 extrinsic goals are contingent on acquiring external indicators of self-worth, which

1 undermines intrinsic motivation (Ryan & Deci, 2004). Placing greater value on extrinsic goal
2 orientations (Kasser & Ryan, 1993, 1996; Sebire, Standage, & Vansteenkiste, 2009) and
3 attaining these goals (Niemic, Ryan, & Deci, 2009; Sheldon & Kasser, 1998) has been
4 shown to predict negative health outcomes; whereas highlighting intrinsic goal importance
5 (Kasser & Ryan, 1993) and goal attainment (Kasser & Ryan, 2001; Niemic, et al., 2009) has
6 been found to predict positive health outcomes.

7 Within the self-determination theory framework, the source of motivation or one's
8 regulations for goal striving is also considered, such that the degree to which goal strivings
9 are performed for autonomous or controlled reasons predicts behavioral outcomes. In line
10 with this perspective, pursuing goals aligned with innate values and interests have been
11 shown to promote goal attainment (Koestner, Otis, Powers, Pelletier, & Gagnon, 2008, Study
12 3; A. Smith, Ntoumanis, Duda, & Vansteenkiste, 2011) and sustained effort (Koestner, et al.,
13 2008, Study 1; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999; Sheldon, et al., 2001) in comparison to controlled
14 goal striving. This is because the goals are experienced as central to a person's genuine, non-
15 contingent sense of self, which services basic needs and autonomous regulations. Although
16 goal contents and goal regulations are both underpinned by need-satisfaction, recent evidence
17 suggests psychological outcomes are independently predicted by goal contents and goal
18 regulations (Sheldon, Ryan, Deci, & Kasser, 2004), whereas goal contents predict behavioral
19 outcomes through goal regulations (Ingledeu & Markland, 2008; Sebire, Standage, &
20 Vansteenkiste, 2011). Considering both goal contents and goal regulations is thus likely to
21 contribute to improved psychological and behavioral outcomes (Sebire, et al., 2009).

22 Goal framing has been a useful strategy in previous interventions to influence the
23 uptake of more autonomous forms of behavior pursuit. Manipulations of goals in such
24 instances have predominately focused on goal contents in regard to the uptake of novel
25 activities in PE settings (Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Sheldon, & Deci, 2004; Vansteenkiste,

1 Simons, Soenens, & Lens, 2004). In these studies, the intervention consisted of delivering a
2 set of written instructions prior to task engagement. Although brief, results of the intervention
3 demonstrated significant changes in intrinsic motivation, task persistence, and skill level in
4 the week following intervention.

5 More recently, persistence of regularly-experienced activities in PE settings, as
6 opposed to novel experiences, were investigated following a script read by the investigator
7 that promoted intrinsic or extrinsic goal content in an environment that promoted choice or
8 control. Results indicated manipulation of goal content and goal regulations in a single PE
9 setting was not sufficient to shift motivation in regard to activities commonly experienced,
10 which suggests repeated exposure to manipulations is needed to influence previously
11 established behavior patterns (Cheon & Reeve, 2013). This shows that interventions aimed at
12 modifying long-term behavior must employ continuous exposure to a goal setting framework
13 that encourages participant choice and intrinsic goal contents.

14 Further, among studies manipulating goal contents and/or regulations, none asked
15 participants to actively set their own behavior change goals. Instead, these studies have
16 focused solely on framing goals for participants without consideration for self-generated
17 goals or collaboratively set goals (Gillison, Standage, & Skevington, 2013). Given the
18 widespread use of goal setting as a strategy for behavior change it is imperative to explore
19 whether environmental contexts can influence participants to continuously set goals related to
20 health outcomes motivated by personal values and enjoyment. Combining the tenets of self-
21 determination theory with goal setting theory will therefore provide environments that
22 promote autonomous motivation for behavior change and a framework for planning and
23 implementing behavior change. This will have the effect of the selected goals being
24 consistent with psychological needs, fostering greater autonomous motivation, and increasing
25 the likelihood that individuals will self-regulate rather than be regulated by external

1 contingencies, which would be the case were their goals thwarting or incongruent with
2 psychological needs. To accomplish these outcomes, the current intervention will encourage
3 participants to set specific and difficult weekly goals in the context of goal attainment related
4 to health outcomes motivated by enjoyment.

5 *Study aims*

6 As the study focuses on changes in key behaviors relating to energy balance and
7 weight loss, there are two primary outcome variables of the trial: changes in adolescent
8 physical activity and food intake (see Straker, et al., 2012, p. 6). We aim to test the
9 mechanisms that underpin the action of the trial on these outcomes using two models that
10 incorporate key mediators of the trial effects on the outcomes. The first model includes
11 outcomes associated with need-supportive environments provided by parents and instructors
12 and includes the following hypotheses (see Fig. 1). Adolescents' perceived need-support
13 provided by parents will predict greater self-determined behavior (H1), which will predict
14 greater engagement in physical activity and healthy eating behaviors (H2). Adolescents' and
15 parents' perceptions of instructors' need-support will have a positive effect on adolescents'
16 autonomous motivation to engage in physical activity and healthy eating behaviors and
17 parents' autonomous motivation to perform behaviors to support these choices (H3), which
18 will positively predict adolescents' healthy lifestyle behaviors (H4). The second model refers
19 to outcomes associated with goal setting techniques promoted by instructors and are
20 hypothesized as follows (see Fig. 2). Adolescents' and parents' exposure to intervention
21 environments supporting autonomous and intrinsic goal setting will predict greater goal
22 attainment for adolescents' physical activity and healthy eating behavior goals and parents'
23 behavior goals to support their adolescents' choices (H5), which will predict an increase in
24 adolescents' involvement in healthy lifestyle behaviors (H6).

Methods

Study Design

The intervention will be delivered using a waitlist controlled, staggered cohort entry design comprised of three waves. Two cohorts will start in the first two waves and three cohorts will start in the third wave, totaling 7 cohorts. Participants will be waitlisted for one school term (three months) and then asked to complete follow-up assessments at 3, 6, and 12 months post-intervention (see trial flow chart, Straker, et al., 2012, p.7). This design was chosen as a randomized controlled trial was not possible given the difficulty in providing a plausible placebo intervention considering community knowledge of interventions for being overweight, the likely drop-out of a significant proportion of participants allocated to a non-active control group, and the investigators' belief that it was unethical to withhold a valid intervention for adolescents in clear need. The waitlist control period enables a comparison of changes without intervention, akin to a control group, and the staggered entry controls for the effect of external events and thus would not have a systematic effect on the analysis.

Participants

Our power analysis was calculated based on a path analysis based regression models with non-latent, manifest variables and proposed a medium effect size ($f^2 = .15$) of two predictor variables (independent variable and mediator) on the dependent variable consistent with the effect sizes reported in previous meta-analysis in the self-determination theory literature (Ng et al., 2012). Assuming 80% power at a 5% level of significance, a sample size of 70 is needed at one year follow-up. Based on 33% attrition in our pilot study (K. L. Smith et al., 2011) and 13% attrition reported in longitudinal interventions in obese populations (Mathieu, Philippe, & David, 2013; Silva et al., 2010), attrition at one year follow-up was assumed to be 20% for the current study. Allowing for 20% attrition, 88 participants will be required at entry.

1 Cohorts of 12-15 participants will be recruited through the health system, education
2 facilities, and mass media messages in the general community. Volunteers will be eligible to
3 participate if they are between 11 to 16 years of age, have a body mass index greater than the
4 85th percentile, passed screening conducted by a medical practitioner, are willing to attend
5 twice weekly sessions (during 8 week intensive program) and follow-up assessments (during
6 1 year post-intervention), and are not currently receiving treatment for a psychological
7 disorder, or obese due to a medical disease or genetic reasons.

8 *Protocol*

9 The intervention will be delivered in local community settings over an eight-week
10 period by a multidisciplinary allied health team including physiotherapists, dieticians, and
11 psychologists. Each session will include a 45 minute exercise class for adolescents and a one
12 hour joint education session with parents that is focused on healthy eating, physical activity,
13 and goal setting strategies. During adolescents' physical activity sessions, parent-only
14 sessions will address adolescent development, providing environments comprised of need-
15 supportive behaviours, and practical skills for supporting adolescents' healthy lifestyle
16 behaviour changes (e.g., reading food labels). The current protocol details how the
17 multidisciplinary components described elsewhere (Straker, et al., 2012, p. 6) will be
18 delivered by instructors in the context of need-support and goal setting by using a process of
19 mapping behavior-change techniques on to the associated change outcomes in order to
20 achieve study aims (see Table 1). We begin by presenting the relationship between each
21 behavior-change technique and the associated change mediators and subsequent change
22 outcomes. Components and implementation methods developed based on these processes are
23 then described at a level of detail to allow for effective evaluation and replication.

1 *Behavior Change Intervention*

2 *Instructor training.*

3 Prior to the intensive program implementation, instructors will receive two and a half
4 hours of training in a group format lead by the primary author. The initial half hour will cover
5 program rationale and structure, followed by two hours devoted to training in behavior-
6 change techniques. The first half hour of training in techniques will focus on need-supportive
7 behaviors, followed by one hour devoted to goal setting methods, with the last half hour
8 dedicated to answering questions and discussing logistics of program delivery.

9 *Autonomy support, structure, and involvement.*

10 Training instructors in behavior-change techniques will be presented as serving a
11 dual-purpose by providing instructors with the skills and stylistic elements to firstly deliver
12 the program content using need-supportive behaviors and secondly to provide parents with
13 the knowledge and skills to support and complement the instructors' need-supportive delivery
14 of content to foster a need-supportive relationship with adolescents. Concepts will be
15 described as applying to all individuals, with specific examples focused on
16 instructor/participant interactions. Instructors will combine their understanding of these
17 learning processes with the highly structured intervention program content to form their
18 training on how to assist parents in adopting and utilizing need-supportive behaviors.

19 Training will open with a rationale for using behavior-change techniques by detailing
20 the relationship between these techniques and change outcomes. Need-supportive behaviors
21 will then be introduced as a means for achieving change outcomes by increasing adolescents'
22 intrinsic motivation to perform healthy lifestyle behaviors and parents' intrinsic motivation
23 for behaviors to support adolescents' changes. Behaviors required to provide need-supportive
24 environments will be described as shown in Table 2 (Edmunds, Ntoumanis, & Duda, 2007).

1 Rationale and examples of how behavior-change techniques might appear in the
2 intervention will also be provided for each sub-behavior comprising autonomy support,
3 structure, and involvement. For instance, to make participants feel they belong and are
4 important, instructors will be encouraged to talk ‘with’ participants by redistributing
5 classroom dynamics to sit at participants’ level and/or by standing in the middle amongst
6 participants instead of lecturing in the front of the room.

7 Participant needs will then be described and parallels drawn between instructor
8 behaviors and the needs they directly support to help illustrate how behavior-change
9 techniques map on to change mediators (see Table 2). Subsequent examples will be provided
10 to clarify what each need might look like and to illustrate possible outcomes for both
11 adolescent and parent participants. For instance “feeling they can choose for themselves” will
12 be described as: “adolescents choose to play soccer because they enjoy it, not because their
13 parents tell them to play; and parents choose walk with their adolescents because they value
14 their adolescents’ health”.

15 Concepts will be further highlighted through discussions of instructor-generated
16 examples of need-satisfaction behaviors and participant needs. In addition, instructors will be
17 asked to observe a role play and discuss instances when need satisfaction and behaviors to
18 support these needs are demonstrated. Instructors will also be asked to demonstrate behaviors
19 in pairs to ensure they understand participants’ experiences of need satisfaction and the
20 instruction style required for leading intervention sessions. Feedback on instructors’
21 demonstration of need-supportive behaviors will be provided with additional suggestions
22 given as necessary. The training session will conclude with distribution of take-home
23 materials covering descriptions and examples of instructor behaviors and participant needs, as
24 well as empirical evidence addressing the relationship between need-supportive behaviors
25 and maintenance of behavior changes.

1 *Goal setting.*

2 Goal setting will be introduced as a strategy for assisting participants to implement
3 and maintain intrinsically-motivated behaviors. Types of goals participants are asked to set
4 will first be described, followed by rationale for each goal type and methods for taking
5 participants through goal setting processes. Weekly subgoals will be described as a means for
6 making the task seem more manageable; specific goals as enabling frequent assessment of
7 progress; and difficult goals as enhancing concentration and persistence. Setting goals in the
8 context of intrinsic and autonomous goal strivings will be explained as a method for
9 enhancing intrinsic motivation, which is more likely to lead to goal attainment.

10 Instructors will be asked to convey similar rationale to participants, along with taking
11 participants through goal setting sheets that provide a step by step format for setting goals
12 based on methods from goal setting theory and self-determination theory (described further in
13 adolescent and parent goal setting sections). Instructions on how to guide participants through
14 the sheets will be provided followed by a role play demonstrating behaviors and the
15 opportunity to practice behaviors. Take-home materials will include scripted program content
16 to deliver goal setting sessions and empirical evidence supporting goal setting strategies.
17 Instructions included during training and within the program content will emphasize the
18 importance of phrasing all intervention components to encourage goal strivings related to
19 health outcomes and participant enjoyment.

20 *Booster sessions.*

21 Following rater-assessed sessions (e.g., twice per wave), instructors will be provided
22 with feedback on their delivery of need-supportive behaviors and communication
23 encouraging the setting of intrinsic and autonomous goals. Feedback will be specific to each
24 instructor's unique provision of need-supportive behaviors, highlighting specific strengths
25 and areas for improvement (Tessier, Sarrazin, & Ntoumanis, 2008).

1 *Program components*

2 *Parent training – autonomy support, structure, involvement.*

3 Training will be delivered to parents in a single program session, totaling 50 minutes.

4 Two 15-minute segments will be dedicated to content addressing adolescent needs and parent
5 behaviors to support these needs. The session will conclude with 20 minutes allocated for
6 parents' reflection on their understanding of need-supportive concepts. Parent need-
7 supportive behaviors will be introduced as a means to foster adolescents' motivation to
8 engage in behaviors to improve their health and physical fitness. Adolescent needs will then
9 be mapped on to each behavior to explain the relationship between parent behavior-change
10 techniques and adolescent outcomes. Adolescent needs and parent need-supportive behaviors
11 will be described in line with content delivered in the instructor training, with slight
12 modifications made to reflect instances unique to adolescent/parent relationships (e.g.,
13 providing structure by 'modeling positive behavior to your adolescent by setting and
14 following through with your goals').

15 Examples of needs and need-supportive behaviors will be provided, for instance: give
16 adolescent options for being active with parent (autonomy support); ensure fruit is available
17 (structure); and spend time each day talking about adolescent's day (involvement). An
18 instructor will then illustrate concepts in a scripted role play with a parent volunteer, while
19 remaining parents work as a group to generate examples of instances in the role play when
20 support behaviors are demonstrated and how needs map on to these behaviors. Responses
21 will be discussed and instructor feedback provided highlighting appropriate responses and
22 offering corrections when needed. Parent reflection concluding the session will allow parents
23 to discuss concepts learned to ensure they feel comfortable applying behaviors in the home
24 environment. Material outlining concepts and examples of needs and behaviors comprising
25 autonomy support, structure, and involvement will be provided.

1 Methods for delivering behaviors in the home environment will also be reinforced
2 through program content each week. For instance, autonomy support will be described in the
3 session for overcoming barriers (e.g., exploring behavior options); structure will be explained
4 as the basis for the topic of meal planning and setting house rules; and parenting styles will
5 be described along a continuum ranging in the degree of structure and involvement provided.
6 In each instance particular attention will be afforded to address parents' management of the
7 commonly used method of rewards. Behavior options, for example, will include reviewing
8 pros and cons of rewards and need-supportive alternatives, and descriptions of behaviors
9 associated with parenting styles will explore the role of rewards. In particular, we will
10 encourage parents to arrive at means to use rewards as incidental to behavior change rather
11 than its focus, consistent with self-determination theory that suggests that rewards can have
12 an informational rather than a controlling function (Hagger et al., 2013). Each week, parents
13 will also have the opportunity to discuss experiences related to implementing the behaviors.

14 *Adolescent goal setting.*

15 Adolescents will set goals to achieve by the end of the program based on a matrix of
16 their reported current physical activity and healthy eating behaviors. Adolescents will be
17 given guidance on how to use goal-setting techniques to break their overall goals into weekly
18 subgoals to enhance their goal attainment. The rationale described in the instructor training
19 will be provided for goal types and an example of how to set goals will be included in
20 relation to strivings for physical activity, healthy eating, and sedentary behavior. Examples
21 will take participants through the following goal-setting strategies and prompt them to record
22 the characteristics of the goals (see Table 3): challenge ratings (0-10 score to ensure goal
23 difficulty), goal contents (e.g., "What do you want to happen by achieving your goal?"), goal
24 regulations (e.g., "Why is it important you achieve this goal?"), and specific details outlining
25 what they will do each day to achieve their weekly goal (e.g., Monday: Walk 1km at 5.30

1 p.m.). Adolescents will then complete their own weekly goals using these strategies alongside
2 instructor collaboration. Instructors will also remind adolescents each week to consider
3 setting goals related to health outcomes motivated by enjoyment based on the premise that
4 such goals are more likely to increase goal attainment and sustained behavior change. Each
5 week, once goals are set with instructors, adolescents and parents will be guided through a
6 sharing process to enable parents to work collaboratively with adolescents to set goals for
7 their own behaviors to support adolescents' goal choices.

8 *Parent goal setting.*

9 Goal-setting content delivered to adolescents will be modified to reflect setting goals
10 for behaviors where parental involvement is paramount for adolescents' to achieve their
11 goals. Parents will learn how to set support goals using the same goal setting strategies
12 introduced to adolescents (see Table 3). Examples and group discussions regarding methods
13 for parent goal setting will then be used to clarify how the mapping process might look in
14 goal setting discussions with their adolescent. Parents will be provided a sheet of tips to help
15 incorporate autonomy support, structure, and involvement behaviors when discussing and
16 setting goals to support their adolescent. Encouragement will also be provided for parents to
17 remind adolescents to maintain self-determined reasons for goal setting in the context of
18 setting difficult and specific goals. Each week, parents will review their goal progress with
19 instructors and then partake in discussions with adolescents to set support goals.

20 *Outcome measures*

21 Primary and secondary outcomes will be assessed using a seven day accelerometer
22 measure, a 3-day food record, and self-report measures of motivation, perceived support, and
23 goal attainment (see Straker, et al., 2012, p.6; p.8). Participants will be monitored for changes
24 in psychological well-being across assessments (see Straker, et al., 2012, p.8).

1 *Process evaluation*

2 Manipulation checks of instructors' delivery of behaviors (e.g., autonomy-support,
3 structure, and involvement; goal setting theory techniques; and promotion of intrinsic and
4 autonomous goal setting) will be assessed using rater observations, instructor self-report, and
5 perceptions of instructor support reported by adolescents and parents. Following each
6 program wave, focus groups will be conducted with facilitators to gain an understanding of
7 barriers and facilitators regarding implementation of integrated goal setting techniques and
8 parent training in need-supportive behaviors. Program attendance will be recorded at each
9 session, and participants excluded from analysis related to primary outcomes in instances
10 when parents are absent from content introducing need-supportive behaviors.

11 *Analyses*

12 Data will be analyzed using a partial least squares path analysis and the SmartPLS 2.0
13 statistical software (Ringle, Wende, & Will, 2006). Partial least squares (PLS) path analysis
14 is a distribution-free analytic method and enables researchers to test a network of
15 relationships from a theoretical model simultaneously when the variables involved are likely
16 to have departures from normality or small sample sizes as is the likely case in the current
17 trial. This analytic technique has been successfully used by members of the current research
18 team to test integrated theoretical models in the health domain (Chan & Hagger, 2012a,
19 2012b). The proposed models for parent and adolescent participants will be tested using
20 simultaneous process and the fit of the proposed model to the data evaluated. Models will be
21 tested using residualized change scores computed using baseline and follow-up measures of
22 the psychological and behavioral variables. This approach has also been applied in previous
23 research testing integrated theoretical models using path analysis and a pre-post intervention
24 design (Jacobs, Hagger, Streukens, De Bourdeaudhuij, & Claes, 2011).

25 *Ethics*

References

- Abraham, C., & Michie, S. (2008). A taxonomy of behavior change techniques used in interventions. *Health Psychology, 27*(3), 379-387. doi: 10.1037/0278-6133.27.3.379
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (2009). *National health survey: Summary of results, 2007-2008 (no. 4364.0)*. Canberra.
- Australian Bureau of Statistics. (October 2012). *Australian health survey: First results, 2011-2012 (no. 4364.0.55.001)*. Canberra.
- Bartholomew, L. K., Parcel, G. S., Kok, G., Gottlieb, N. H., & Fernández, M. E. (2011). *Planning health promotion programs: An intervention mapping approach* (3rd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bauer, K. W., Neumark-Sztainer, D., Fulkerson, J. A., Hannan, P. J., & Story, M. (2011). Familial correlates of adolescent girls' physical activity, television use, dietary intake, weight, and body composition. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity, 8*(25).
- Berkey, C. S., Rockett, H. R. H., Gillman, M. W., & Colditz, G. A. (2003). One-year changes in activity and in inactivity among 10- to 15-year-old boys and girls: relationship to change in body mass index. *Pediatrics, 111*(4), 836-843.
- Birch, L. L., Fisher, J. O., & Davison, K. K. (2003). Learning to overeat: maternal use of restrictive feeding practices promotes girls' eating in the absence of hunger. *The American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 78*(2), 215-220.
- Black, A. E., & Deci, E. L. (2000). The effects of instructors' autonomy support and students' autonomous motivation on learning organic chemistry: A self-determination theory perspective. *Science Education, 84*(6), 740-756. doi: 10.1002/1098-237x(200011)84:6<740::aid-sce4>3.0.co;2-3
- Bodenheimer, T., & Handley, M. A. (2009). Goal-setting for behavior change in primary care: An exploration and status report. *Patient education and counseling, 76*(2), 174-180. doi: 10.1016/j.pec.2009.06.001
- Bradlee, M. L., Singer, M. R., Qureshi, M. M., & Moore, L. L. (2010). Food group intake and central obesity among children and adolescents in the Third National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES III). *Public Health Nutrition, 13*(06), 797-805. doi: 10.1017/S1368980009991546
- Carraça, E., Markland, D., Silva, M., Coutinho, S., Vieira, P., Minderico, C., . . . Teixeira, P. (2011). Dysfunctional body investment versus body dissatisfaction: Relations with well-being and controlled motivations for obesity treatment. *Motivation and Emotion, 35*(4), 423-434. doi: 10.1007/s11031-011-9230-0
- Chan, D. K. C., & Hagger, M. S. (2012a). Autonomous forms of motivation underpinning injury prevention and rehabilitation among police officers: An application of the trans-contextual model. *Motivation and Emotion, 36*(3), 349-364. doi: 10.1007/s11031-011-9247-4
- Chan, D. K. C., & Hagger, M. S. (2012b). Self-determined forms of motivation predict sport injury prevention and rehabilitation intentions. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport, 15*, 398-406. doi: 10.1016/j.jsams.2012.03.016
- Chatzisarantis, N. L. D., & Hagger, M. S. (2009). Effects of an intervention based on self-determination theory on self-reported leisure-time physical activity participation. *Psychology & Health, 24*(1), 29-48. doi: 10.1080/08870440701809533
- Cheon, S. H., & Reeve, J. (2013). Do the benefits from autonomy-supportive PE teacher training programs endure?: A one-year follow-up investigation. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*(0). doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2013.02.002

- Chiang, E. S., & Padilla, M. A. (2012). Assessment of parent orientation towards autonomy vs. control in promoting children's healthy eating and exercise. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, 4(2), 202-217. doi: 10.1111/j.1758-0854.2012.01069.x
- Contento, I. R., Koch, P. A., Lee, H., & Calabrese-Barton, A. (2010). Adolescents demonstrate improvement in obesity risk behaviors after completion of Choice, Control & Change, a curriculum addressing personal agency and autonomous motivation. *Journal of American Dietetic Association*, 110, 1830-1893. doi: 10.1016/j.jada.2010.09.015
- Currie, C., Zanotie, C., Morgan, A., Currie, D., de Looze, M., Roberts, C., . . . Barnekow, O. (2012). Social determinants of health and well-being among young people. Health behaviour in School-Aged Children (HBSC) study: international report from the 2009/2010 survey. Copenhagen, WHO Regional Office for Europe (Health Policy for Children and Adolescents, No. 6).
- Davison, K. K., Francis, L. A., & Birch, L. L. (2005). Reexamining obesogenic families: Parents' obesity-related behaviors predict girls' change in BMI. *Obesity Research*, 13(11), 1980-1990.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1991). A motivational approach to self: integration in personality. In R. Dienstbier (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation: Vol. 38. Perspectives on motivation* (pp. 237-288). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry: An International Journal for the Advancement of Psychological Theory*, 11(4), 227-268. doi: 10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01
- Deci, E. L., Spiegel, N. H., Ryan, R. M., Koestner, R., & Kauffman, M. (1982). Effects of performance standards on teaching styles: Behavior of controlling teachers. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74(6), 852.
- Donovan, J. J., & Radosevich, D. J. (1998). The moderating role of goal commitment on the goal difficulty - performance relationship: A meta-analytic review and critical reanalysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 308-315.
- Edmunds, J. K., Ntoumanis, N., & Duda, J. L. (2007). Perceived autonomy support and psychological need satisfaction in exercise. In M. S. Hagger & N. L. D. Chatzisarantis (Eds.), *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in exercise and sport* (pp. 35-52). Champaign, Illinois: Human Kinetics.
- Edmunds, J. K., Ntoumanis, N., & Duda, J. L. (2008). Testing a self-determination theory-based teaching style intervention in the exercise domain. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 38(2), 375-388. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.463
- Freedman, D. S., Khan, L. K., Serdula, M. K., Dietz, W. H., Srinivasan, S. R., & Berenson, G. S. (2005). The relation of childhood BMI to adult adiposity: The Bogalusa Heart Study. *Pediatrics*, 115, 22-27. doi: 10.1542/peds.2004-0220
- Gillison, F. B., Standage, M., & Skevington, S. M. (2013). The effects of manipulating goal content and autonomy support climate on outcomes of a PE fitness class. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 14(3), 342-352. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2012.11.011
- Hagger, M. S., Chatzisarantis, N. L. D., Culverhouse, T., & Biddle, S. J. H. (2003). The processes by which perceived autonomy support in physical education promotes leisure-time physical activity intentions and behavior: A trans-contextual model. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(4), 784. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.95.4.784
- Hagger, M. S., Chatzisarantis, N. L. D., Hein, V., Soos, I., Karsai, I., Lintunen, T., & Leemans, S. (2009). Teacher, peer and parent autonomy support in physical education and leisure-time physical activity: A trans-contextual model of motivation in four nations. *Psychology & Health*, 24(6), 689-711. doi: 10.1080/08870440801956192

- Hagger, M. S., Keatley, D. A., Chan, D. K. C., Chatzisarantis, N. L. D., Dimmock, J. A., Jackson, B. J., & Ntoumanis, N. (2013). The goose is (half) cooked: A consideration of the mechanisms and interpersonal context is needed to elucidate the effects of personal financial incentives on health behaviour. *International Journal of Behavioral Medicine*. doi: 10.1007/s12529-013-9317-y
- Hanson, N. I., Neumark-Sztainer, D., Eisenberg, M. E., Story, M., & Wall, M. (2005). Associations between parental report of the home food environment and adolescent intakes of fruits, vegetables and dairy foods. *Public Health Nutrition*, 8(1), 77-85.
- Hardy, L. (2010). *SPANS 2010 - NSW schools physical activity and nutrition survey* Sydney: New South Wales Health Department.
- Ingledeu, D. K., & Markland, D. (2008). The role of motives in exercise participation. *Psychology & Health*, 23(7), 807-828. doi: 10.1080/08870440701405704
- Jacobs, N., Hagger, M. S., Streukens, S., De Bourdeaudhuij, I., & Claes, N. (2011). Testing an integrated model of the theory of planned behaviour and self-determination theory for different energy balance-related behaviours and intervention intensities. *British Journal of Health Psychology*, 16(1), 113-134. doi: 10.1348/135910710X519305
- Jago, R., Sebire, S. J., Turner, K. M., Bentley, G. F., Goodred, J. K., Fox, K. R., . . . Lucas, P. J. (2013). Feasibility trial evaluation of a physical activity and screen-viewing course for parents of 6 to 8 year-old children: Teamplay. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, 10(31). doi: 10.1186/1479-5868-10-31
- Kasser, T. (2002). Sketches for a self-determination theory of values. In E. L. Deci & R. M. Ryan (Eds.), *Handbook of self-determination research* (pp. 123-140). Rochester, NY: University of Rochester Press.
- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (1993). A dark side of the American dream: Correlates of financial success as a central life aspiration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65(2), 410-422. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.65.2.410
- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (1996). Further examining the american dream: Differential correlates of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22, 80-87.
- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (2001). Be careful what you wish for: Optimal functioning and the relative attainment of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. In P. Schmuck & K. Sheldon (Eds.), *Life goals and well-being: Towards a positive psychology of human striving* (pp. 116-131). Goettingen, Germany: Hogrefe & Huber.
- Klein, H. J., Wesson, M. J., Hollenbeck, J. R., & Alge, B. J. (1999). Goal commitment and the goal-setting process: conceptual clarification and empirical synthesis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84, 885-896.
- Koestner, R., Otis, N., Powers, T. A., Pelletier, L., & Gagnon, H. (2008). Autonomous motivation, controlled motivation, and goal progress. *Journal of Personality*, 76(5), 1201-1230. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-6494.2008.00519.x
- Koulouglioti, C., Cole, R., McQuillan, B., Moskow, M., Kueppers, J., & Pigeon, W. (2013). Feasibility of an individualized, home-based obesity prevention program for preschool-age children. *Children's Health Care*, 42(2), 134-152. doi: 10.1080/02739615.2013.766099
- Latham, G. P., & Seijts, G. H. (1999). The effects of proximal and distal goals on performance on a moderately complex task. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(4), 421.
- Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Luppino, F., de Wit, L. M., Bouvy, P. F., Stijnen, T., Cuijpers, P., Penninx, B., & Zitman, G. G. (2010). Overweight, obesity, and depression: A systematic review and meta-

- analysis of longitudinal studies. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 67(3), 220-229. doi: 10.1001/archgenpsychiatry.2010.2
- Mathieu, G., Philippe, S., & David, T. (2013). Motivational interviewing as a way to promote physical activity in obese adolescents: A randomized-controlled trial using self-determination theory as an explanatory framework. *Psychology & Health*, null-null. doi: 10.1080/08870446.2013.800518
- Matthews, J., & Moran, A. (2011). Physical activity and self-regulation strategy use in adolescents. *American Journal of Health Behavior*, 35, 807-814.
- Michie, S., & Abraham, C. (2004). Interventions to change health behaviours: evidence-based or evidence-inspired? *Psychology & Health*, 19(1), 29-49. doi: 10.1080/0887044031000141199
- Ng, J. Y. Y., Ntoumanis, N., Thøgersen-Ntoumani, C., Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M., Duda, J. L., & Williams, G. C. (2012). Self-determination theory applied to health contexts: A meta-analysis. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 7(4), 325-340. doi: 10.1177/1745691612447309
- Niemiec, C. P., Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2009). The path taken: Consequences of attaining intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations in post-college life. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 43(3), 291-306. doi: 10.1016/j.jrp.2008.09.001
- Olds, T. S., Tomkinson, G. R., Ferrar, K. E., & Maher, C. A. (2009). Trends in the prevalence of childhood overweight and obesity in Australia between 1985 and 2008. *International Journal of Obesity*, 34(1), 57-66. doi: 10.1038/ijo.2009.211
- Oude Luttikhuis, H., Baur, L. A., Jansen, H., Shrewsbury, V. A., O'Malley, C. O., Stolk, R. P., & Summerbell, C. D. (2009). Interventions for treating obesity in children (Review): The Cochrane Collaboration.
- Pearson, N., Biddle, S. J. H., & Gorely, T. (2009). Family correlates of fruit and vegetable consumption in children and adolescents: a systematic review. *Public Health Nutrition*, 12(02), 267-283. doi: doi:10.1017/S1368980008002589
- Reeve, J., Bolt, E., & Cai, Y. (1999). Autonomy-supportive teachers: How they teach and motivate students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 91(3), 537.
- Ringle, C. M., Wende, S., & Will, A. (2006). *SmartPLS (Version 2.0 (beta))*. Hamburg Germany: University of Hamburg.
- Rofey, D. L., Kolko, R. P., & Iosif, A. (2009). A longitudinal study of childhood depression and anxiety in relation to weight gain. *Child Psychiatry and Human Development*, 40(4), 517-526. doi: 10.1007/s10578-009-0141-1
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2004). Avoiding death or engaging life as accounts of meaning and culture: Comment on Pyszczynski et al. *Psychological Bulletin*, 130(3), 473-477. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.130.3.473
- Sebire, S. J., Standage, M., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2009). Examining intrinsic versus extrinsic exercise goals: cognitive, affective, and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 31(2), 189-210.
- Sebire, S. J., Standage, M., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2011). Predicting objectively assessed physical activity from the content and regulation of exercise goals: evidence for a mediational model. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 33, 175-197.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Goal striving, need satisfaction, and longitudinal well-being: The self-concordance model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76(3), 482-497. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.76.3.482
- Sheldon, K. M., Elliot, A. J., Kim, Y., & Kasser, T. (2001). What is satisfying about satisfying events? Testing 10 candidate psychological needs. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 80(2), 325.

- Sheldon, K. M., & Kasser, T. (1998). Pursuing personal goals: skills enable progress, but not all progress is beneficial. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *24*(12), 1319-1331. doi: 10.1177/01461672982412006
- Sheldon, K. M., Ryan, R. M., Deci, E. L., & Kasser, T. (2004). The independent effects of goal contents and motives on well-being: It's both what you pursue and why you pursue it. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *30*(4), 475-486. doi: 10.1177/0146167203261883
- Sheldon, K. M., Turban, D. B., Brown, K. G., Barrick, M. R., & Judge, T. A. (2003). Applying self-determination theory to organizational research. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, *22*(357-393).
- Shilts, M. K., Horowitz, M., & Townsend, M. S. (2004). Goal setting as a strategy for dietary and physical activity behavior change: A review of the literature. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, *19*(2), 81-93. doi: 10.4278/0890-1171-19.2.81
- Shilts, M. K., Horowitz, M., & Townsend, M. S. (2009). Guided goal setting: Effectiveness in a dietary and physical activity intervention with low-income adolescents. *International Journal of Adolescent Medicine and Health*, *21*(1), 111-122. doi: 10.1515/ijamh.2009.21.1.111
- Shilts, M. K., Townsend, M. S., & Dishman, R. K. (2013). Using goal setting to promote health behaviour change: diet and physical activity. In E. A. Locke & G. P. Latham (Eds.), *New developments in goal setting and task performance* (pp. 415-438). New York: Routledge.
- Shrewsbury, V. A., Steinbeck, K. S., Torvaldsen, S., & Baur, L. A. (2011). The role of parents in pre-adolescent and adolescent overweight and obesity treatment: a systematic review of clinical recommendations. *Obesity Reviews*, *12*(10), 759-769. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-789X.2011.00882.x
- Silva, M. N., Markland, D., Carraça, E., Vieira, P. N., Coutinho, S. R., Minderico, C. S., . . . Teixeira, P. J. (2011). Exercise autonomous motivation predicts 3-yr weight loss in women. *Medicine and Science in Sports and Exercise*, *43*(4), 728-737. doi: 10.1249/MSS.0b013e3181f3818f
- Silva, M. N., Vieira, P., Coutinho, S., Minderico, C., Matos, M., Sardinha, L., & Teixeira, P. (2010). Using self-determination theory to promote physical activity and weight control: a randomized controlled trial in women. *Journal of Behavioral Medicine*, *33*(2), 110-122. doi: 10.1007/s10865-009-9239-y
- Smith, A., Ntoumanis, N., Duda, J. L., & Vansteenkiste, M. (2011). Goal striving, coping, and well-being: A prospective investigation of the self-concordance model in sport. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, *33*, 124-145.
- Smith, K. L., Straker, L. M., Kerr, D. A., Davis, M. C., Fielding, A. M., Ward, E., & McManus, A. (2011). *The beginnings of CAFAP - a family-centred, multi-disciplinary program for overweight and obese adolescents and their families*. Paper presented at the Australian and New Zealand Obesity Society's Annual Scientific Meeting, Adelaide.
- Sorof, J. M., Lai, D., Turner, J., Poffenbarger, T., & Portman, R. J. (2004). Overweight, ethnicity, and the prevalence of hypertension in school-aged children. *Pediatrics*, *113*(3), 475-482.
- Standage, M., & Gillison, F. (2007). Students' motivational responses toward school physical education and their relationship to general self-esteem and health-related quality of life. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, *8*(5), 704-721. doi: 10.1016/j.psychsport.2006.12.004
- Standage, M., Gillison, F. B., Ntoumanis, N., & Treasure, D. C. (2012). Predicting students' physical activity and health-related well-being: A prospective cross-domain

- investigation of motivation across school physical education and exercise settings. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 34, 37-60.
- Stock, J., & Cervone, D. (1990). Proximal goal-setting and self-regulatory processes. *Cognitive Therapy and Research*, 14(5), 483-498. doi: 10.1007/bf01172969
- Story, M., Neumark-Sztainer, D., & French, S. (2002). Individual and environmental influences on adolescent eating behaviors. *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 102(3 Suppl), S40-51. doi: 10.1016/S0002-8223(02)90421-9
- Straker, L. M., Smith, K. L., Fenner, A. A., Kerr, D., McManus, A., Davis, M., . . . Hagger, M. S. (2012). Rationale, design and methods for a staggered-entry, waitlist controlled clinical trial of the impact of a community-based, family-centred, multidisciplinary program focussed on activity, food and attitude habits (Curtin University's Activity, Food and Attitudes Program-CAFAP) among overweight adolescents. *BMC Public Health*, 12, 471. doi: 10.1186/1471-2458-12-471
- Strauss, R. S., & Pollack, H. A. (2003). Social marginalization of overweight children. *Arch Pediatr Adolesc Med.*, 157, 746-752.
- Strecher, V. J., Seijts, G. H., Kok, G. J., Latham, G. P., Glasgow, R., & DeVellis, B. (1995). Goal setting as a strategy for health behavior change. *Health Education & Behavior*, 22(2), 190-200. doi: 10.1177/109019819502200207
- Taylor, I. M., & Ntoumanis, N. (2007). Teacher motivational strategies and student self-determination in physical education. *Journal of educational psychology*, 99(4), 747-760. doi: 10.1037/0022-0663.99.4.747
- Tessier, D., Sarrazin, P. G., & Ntoumanis, N. (2008). The effects of an experimental programme to support students' autonomy on the overt behaviours of physical education teachers. *European Journal of Psychology of Education*, 23(3), 239-253.
- Tirosh, A., Shai, I., Afek, A., Dubnov-Raz, G., Ayalon, N., Gordon, B., . . . Rudich, A. (2011). Adolescent BMI trajectory and risk of diabetes versus coronary disease. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 364(14), 1315-1325. doi: doi:10.1056/NEJMoa1006992
- Twiddy, M., Wilson, I., Bryant, M., & Rudolf, M. (2012). Lessons learned from a family-focused weight management intervention for obese and overweight children. *Public Health Nutrition*, 15(7), 1310-1317. doi: 10.1017/S1368980011003211
- Van den Berghe, L., Vansteenkiste, M., Cardon, G., Kirk, D., & Haerens, L. (2012). Research on self-determination in physical education: key findings and proposals for future research. *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy*, 1-25. doi: 10.1080/17408989.2012.732563
- Vansteenkiste, M., Simons, J., Lens, W., Sheldon, K., & Deci, E. L. (2004). Motivating learning, performance, and persistence: the synergistic effects of intrinsic goal contents and autonomy-supportive contexts. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 87(2), 246-260. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.87.2.246
- Vansteenkiste, M., Simons, J., Soenens, B., & Lens, W. (2004). How to become a persevering exerciser? Providing a clear, future intrinsic goal in an autonomy-supportive way. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology*, 26(2), 232-249.
- Verloigne, M., De Bourdeaudhuij, I., Tanghe, A., D'Hondy, E., Theuwis, L., Vansteenkiste, M., & Deforche, B. (2011). Self-determined motivation towards physical activity in adolescents treated for obesity: an observational study. *International Journal of Behavioral Nutrition and Physical Activity*, 8(97). doi: 10.1186/1479-5868-8-97
- Williams, N. A., Coday, M., Somes, G., Tylavsky, F. A., Richey, P. A., & Hare, M. (2010). Risk factors for poor attendance in a family-based pediatric obesity intervention program for young children. *J Dev Behav Pediatr*, 31(9), 705-712. doi: 10.1097/DBP.0b013e3181f17b1c

Table 1

Relationship among behaviour-change techniques, change mediators, and change outcomes.

Behaviour change technique (<i>need-supportive environment</i>)	Change mediator	Change outcome
Significant other ^a provides:	Self-determined behaviour:	
• Autonomy support	Feeling a sense of choice (<i>autonomy</i>)	<i>Adolescents:</i> Adherence to physical activity and healthy eating behaviours
• Structure	Feeling competent in abilities (<i>competence</i>)	
• Involvement	Feeling a sense of belonging (<i>relatedness</i>)	
Significant other ^a encourages:	Self-determined goal attainment:	<i>Parents:</i> Adherence to behaviours that support adolescents' physical activity and healthy eating behaviours
• Intrinsic goal content	Achieving goals related to health reasons	
• Autonomous goal striving	Achieving goals related to interest/enjoyment	

^a Includes instructors (change objective: adolescents and parents) and parents (change objective: adolescents)

Table 2

Description of behaviors, delivery mode, and the needs supported by behaviors.

Behavior type description	Methods for behavior delivery	Need-support description	Experience of need support
Supporting choices. (<i>autonomy support</i>)	Offer several options for behavior change using neutral language like “may” and “could” (instead of “should” or “must”). Offer verbal praise for attempts at behavior change. Respond positively to participants’ issues. Provide meaningful rationale for behaviors.	Feeling they can choose for themselves. (<i>autonomy</i>)	Feel they made their own choices to live by instead of someone else choosing for them or only doing behaviors to please others.
Providing structure. (<i>structure</i>)	Demonstrate leadership by modeling positive behavior through demonstrations of goal setting and behavior-change techniques. Give direct feedback to questions. Provide tasks that are challenging but “do-able”.	Feeling competent in their abilities. (<i>competence</i>)	Feel like they can actually do the things they want to do, or tasks required by others
Being involved. (<i>involvement</i>)	Try to understand participants’ motivations for behaviors. Talk with participants instead of at them. Show an interest in participants’ well-being and progress in their behavior changes.	Having a sense of belonging. (<i>relatedness</i>)	Feel like they have support without any external reinforcement like rewards from others.

Table 3

Description of goal setting techniques, underlying theory, and practical strategies.

Teen goal steps	Teen example	Parent goal steps	Parent example
Set program goals for physical activity and healthy eating based on current behaviors <i>(distal)</i>	Overall program goal: To be moderately active 30 minutes 4-5 times a week.	Discuss with teen and record a copy of their physical activity and healthy eating goals <i>(distal)</i>	Overall program goal: Support my teen's goal to be moderately active 30 mins 4-5 times a week.
Set weekly goals for physical activity and healthy eating, including perceived challenge <i>(proximal and difficult)</i>	My goal this week is to: Be moderately active for 15 minutes 4 times/ week. (Challenge: 7)	Discuss with teen, and set weekly goals for supporting their physical activity and healthy eating goals, including perceived challenge <i>(proximal and difficult)</i>	My goal this week is to support my teen's goal to: Be moderately active for 15 minutes 4 times/ week. (Challenge: 7)
Record reasons: "what you want to happen" and "why it is important" <i>(intrinsic and autonomous)</i>	What: To be more physically active. Why: I enjoy being active with friends.	Record reasons: "what you want to happen" and "why it is important" <i>(intrinsic and autonomous)</i>	What: My teen to be more physically active. Why: I enjoy being active with my teen and seeing him/her be active with friends.
Record daily behaviors to achieve <i>(specific)</i>	Mon/Th: CAFAP physical activity session Tue: Walk to/from school Wed: Zumba with mom 6.30 p.m. to 7.00 p.m. Sat: Walk one mile at park and bike ride 30 mins with friend	Record daily behaviors to achieve <i>(specific)</i>	Mon/Th: Bring to CAFAP Tue: Allow teen to walk to/from school (e.g., try not to provide car ride) Wed: Zumba together 6.30 p.m. to 7.00 p.m. Sat: Family walk one mile at park and allow teen to ride bike 30 mins with friend

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Model describing predicted relationships among instructor and parent behaviour change techniques, adolescent and parent motivation, and adolescent behaviour outcomes.

Figure 2. Model describing predicted relationship among instructor behaviour change techniques, adolescent and parent goal attainment, and adolescent behaviour outcomes.



