

Examining mindfulness as a strategy to improve the exercise experience.

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1 Examining Mindfulness as a Strategy to Improve the Exercise Experience

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Abstract

Mounting evidence shows that positive affective responses to exercise can facilitate continued engagement. Numerous strategies (e.g., mindfulness, music) have been proposed to improve how people feel during exercise. Mindfulness research has primarily occurred in laboratory settings, and the present study sought to examine the effects of listening to a mindfulness recording during a self-paced walk outdoors. It was hypothesized that the mindfulness condition would elicit more positive affective responses during and after exercise, and lead to greater associative attentional focus compared to a control condition. Thirty-four participants ($M_{age} = 26.62$, $SD = 3.28$ years), divided into two groups (mindfulness recording vs. control), individually completed a self-paced 1.5 mile walk through a park. Participants in the experimental condition listened to a mindfulness recording via headphones during the walk. Feeling Scale scores during exercise indicated greater pleasure ($p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .36$), and Physical Activity Enjoyment Scale scores revealed greater enjoyment in the mindfulness group ($p < .001$, $d = 1.50$); there were no differences in attentional focus between groups ($p = .120$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$). Both conditions were considered pleasant, and results support the use of mindfulness to further enhance pleasure and enjoyment during a low-to-moderate intensity outdoor walk.

Key words: affect; attentional focus; enjoyment; walking

43 Continued high rates of physical inactivity pose challenges for policy makers,
44 researchers, practitioners, and the general public as the consequences entail negative economic,
45 physical, and mental health outcomes. Exercise offers a structured approach to achieving the
46 physical activity recommendations and is designed around four principles: frequency, intensity,
47 time, and type (FITT; see Kohl et al., 2020). Beyond variations within these four principles,
48 researchers and practitioners have offered adjuncts in efforts to help promote greater pleasure
49 and enjoyment relating to exercise. Jones and Zenko (2021) indicated that such “extrinsic
50 strategies” can be useful in promoting greater pleasure during exercise that might, in turn, have
51 positive implications for adherence. Extrinsic strategies “pertain to environmental manipulations
52 of the exercise experience that fall outside of the FITT principles” (Jones & Zenko, 2021, p.
53 243). The reason for seeking to promote positive affective responses (e.g., pleasure–displeasure)
54 is the body of evidence showing the important role that feelings play in determining future
55 exercise behaviour (see Ekkekakis, 2017).

56 Affective responses to exercise are garnering renewed attention as seen in recent
57 theoretical developments within exercise psychology (e.g., Affective Reflective Theory of
58 exercise and physical inactivity [ART; Brand & Ekkekakis, 2018]; The theory of effort
59 minimization in physical activity [TEMPA; Cheval & Boisgontier, 2021]). These theoretical
60 approaches embrace dual-process approaches and attempt to capture the role that affective
61 responses play in determining exercise behaviour. Dual-process models posit that behaviour is
62 decided upon following two different processes: automatic processes (Type 1) that are
63 spontaneous and uncontrollable, and reflective process (Type 2) that are deliberate and reasoned
64 (Rebar et al., 2021). ART (Brand & Ekkekakis, 2018) describes the importance of core affect in
65 automatic (Type 1) processes and how these, in turn, influence in-the-moment decision making

66 relating to exercise. If the initial affective valuation of an exercise stimulus is positive, then
67 engagement in the exercise behaviour is more likely. If the initial valuation of the exercise is
68 negative, then there is greater reliance on reflective cognitive processes (Type 2) and self-control
69 resources to determine whether the individual decides to engage in the exercise behaviour.
70 TEMPA (Cheval & Boisgontier, 2021) seeks to integrate automatic affective associations to
71 physical activity stimuli and an evolutionary drive towards effort minimisation. A decision to
72 engage in physical activity is made following automatic processes (including affective reactions),
73 “controlled” processes (e.g., explicit intentions), and perceived effort. The centrality of affective
74 response in these contemporary theoretical approaches is driving research towards strategies and
75 interventions that can create more positive affective responses to exercise. Beyond theoretical
76 propositions, experimental evidence supports the predictive power of acute affective responses to
77 exercise in longer term engagement (e.g., Williams et al., 2016).

78 The theoretical importance of affective responses is supported by empirical work
79 showing the influence of acute affective responses to exercise and longer term engagement (see
80 Rhodes & Kates, 2015). Specifically, affective responses during exercise appear more relevant
81 for predicting future behaviour than affective responses following an exercise bout (e.g.,
82 Williams et al., 2012). Following empirical evidence and theoretical proposals, if an individual
83 has a positive affective response to exercise, then the affirmative decision to engage in exercise
84 in future become more likely. Therefore, strategies that facilitate consistently pleasant exercise
85 experiences require further research.

86 A wide variety of strategies have been implemented by researchers seeking to enhance
87 the exercise experience. In a recent review, Jones and Zenko (2023) included 125 studies that
88 examined strategies to influence affective responses during exercise; strategies including music,

89 music videos, immersive virtual reality, outdoor exercise, caffeine, high-to-low pattern of
90 exercise intensity, self-selected exercise intensity, and manipulation of self-efficacy
91 demonstrated evidence in support of their use. However, there were other strategies (e.g.,
92 mindfulness, imagery) that were considered weak owing to study design and/or number of
93 studies to support their use, but some initial studies offered support for their use (e.g., Cox et al.,
94 2018). Jones and Zenko (2023) recommended that research efforts to be directed towards those
95 strategies with few studies examining their use.

96 **Mindfulness**

97 Mindfulness is described as paying attention and awareness to the present moment while
98 also incorporating qualities of non-judgmental, eagerness, acceptance, and openness (Bishop et
99 al., 2004). A state of mindfulness involves being aware of the present moment's stimuli, which
100 can include mental states (such as thoughts and emotions), physical sensations, and the
101 environment at hand. Attention aimed towards a stimulus (e.g., bodily sensations) with
102 judgement or criticism would not be considered mindfulness. There have been few studies
103 exploring the utility of mindfulness during exercise as a strategy to positively enhance how
104 people feel (e.g., Cox, Ullrich-French, Cook-Cottone, et al., 2020; Cox, Ullrich-French,
105 Hargreaves, et al., 2020; Gillman & Bryan, 2020). Cox et al., (2018) examined the application of
106 mindfulness during treadmill walking at a prescribed intensity and results revealed greater
107 pleasure during the mindfulness condition compared to control, and this was accompanied by a
108 more associative focus during the experimental condition. Previous work has also sought to
109 compare mindfulness to other strategies, rather than solely compared to a control condition. Cox,
110 Ullrich-French, Hargreaves, et al. (2020) compared a mindfulness condition, music condition,
111 and a control condition but found no differences in pleasure during a self-selected low-to-

112 moderate intensity treadmill walk. Gillman and Bryan (2020) examined mindfulness, distraction
113 using podcasts, and a self-monitoring condition. The self-monitoring condition resulted in less
114 pleasure than the other two conditions and these results offer insight into the possible
115 mechanisms underpinning the utility of mindfulness during exercise. A common theme in the
116 Cox et al., (2018); Cox, Ullrich-French, Hargreaves, et al. (2020), and the Gillman and Bryan
117 (2020) study is the lab-based nature of the task. Experimental work examining aerobic exercise
118 outside of the laboratory would offer alternative insights into the utility of mindfulness in
119 practice.

120 Research examining mindfulness outside of the laboratory has employed experience
121 sampling methodology. Two studies recorded participant's mindfulness during walking but did
122 not actively promote a mindful approach during the activity. Gotink et al., (2016) and Yang and
123 Conroy (2018) showed that higher levels of momentary mindfulness during activity was
124 associated with positive affect. One study that more directly examined the effects of an outdoor
125 mindfulness strategy found it feasible, well-accepted, and reduced negative affect when
126 situational mindfulness was increased in a sample of older adults (Yang & Conroy, 2019).

127 **Attentional focus**

128 One cognitive mechanism that is often described to explain the efficacy of many extrinsic
129 strategies is dissociation (a focus on non-internal sensations [Tammen, 1996]). This explanation
130 of distracting exercisers from internal bodily sensations and towards more pleasant external
131 sensory information has been supported in several studies (e.g., Karageorghis & Jones, 2014).
132 However, it has been proposed that mindfulness does not follow the same cognitive mechanisms.
133 Gillman and Bryan (2020) described how mindfulness can comprise elements of association and
134 dissociation. The monitoring of bodily sensations is a characteristic of associative attentional

135 focus, whereas “viewing one’s bodily experience with acceptance, nonjudgement, and
136 psychological distance aligns partially with a dissociative approach” (p. 425). Cox et al. (2018)
137 results showed greater associative focus during the mindfulness condition compared to control,
138 and the mindfulness condition elicited greater pleasure. However, there was not a significant
139 correlation between attention and Feeling Scale (Hardy & Rejeski, 1989) scores.

140 A shift towards an internal focus on bodily sensations is typically associated with a
141 decline in pleasure, and this is evident at moderate-to-high exercise intensities (e.g., Jones et al.,
142 2014). The neurological mechanism underpinning this affective response during severe intensity
143 exercise is proposed to be related to afferent signals shifting to a “low-road” direct towards the
144 amygdala, rather than taking a “high-road” through the pre-frontal cortex that occurs during
145 lower intensity exercise (see Ekkekakis, 2003). As exercise intensity increases, and interoceptive
146 sensations become more intense, the experience becomes more unpleasant. However, there does
147 not appear to be a relationship between attentional focus and pleasure–displeasure at lower
148 exercise intensities. As the physiological demand during lower exercise intensity is less, the
149 intensity of interoceptive signals is less and therefore an awareness of the body (associative
150 focus) is lower. During low-to-moderate intensity exercise, strategies promoting a dissociative
151 focus might not be required as attentional focus can be shifted more easily and without high
152 demands on cognitive processes and self-control resources. Therefore, an explicit attempt to
153 focus internally during lower intensity exercise might provide a suitable alternative to promoting
154 a dissociative focus, as the internal sensations might not be unpleasant. The non-judgemental
155 observances of mindfulness could prove a useful pleasure enhancing strategy during exercise.

156 **Exercise intensity**

157 The intensity of exercise is of central importance to determining affective responses
158 during exercise (Ekkekakis et al., 2011). The Dual-mode Theory (DMT; Ekkekakis, 2003)
159 describes the relationship between exercise intensity and affective responses with reference to
160 key biological markers as thresholds for changes in affect. DMT posits that during moderate
161 exercise intensities (below ventilatory threshold) there is typically a homogenously positive
162 response in normal weight adults. At heavy exercise intensities (proximal to ventilatory
163 threshold), there is a variable affective response that is dependent on cognitive factors (e.g., self-
164 efficacy), and during severe intensity exercise (beyond respiratory compensation point) there is a
165 homogenously negative affective response. Consequently, a challenge facing exercise
166 practitioners and researchers is how to create exercise experiences that are more consistently
167 pleasant and enjoyable particularly at exercise intensities that garner physiological adaptations.

168 **Aims and hypotheses**

169 The present study sought to examine the role of a mindfulness audio recording during a
170 self-paced walk through an urban park. Given the self-paced nature of the task and the physical
171 location of the exercise, it was expected that both conditions (i.e., with or without a mindfulness
172 recording) would be pleasant (i.e., positive scores on the Feeling Scale). However, the
173 mindfulness condition was expected to elicit greater pleasure during exercise (H_1), and
174 immediately following exercise (H_2). It was hypothesised that the mindfulness condition would
175 elicit a more associative focus (H_3). Finally, we predicted the mindfulness condition would lead
176 to greater enjoyment of the exercise (H_4).

177 **Method**

178 The study received ethical approval from the institutional ethics committee at Sheffield Hallam
179 University, UK (ER41419305). All participants provided informed consent and were over 18
180 years of age.

181 **Participants**

182 *An a priori* power calculation for a mixed model ANOVA indicated 34 participants
183 would be required based on an effect size of $\eta_p^2 = 0.22$ (Cox et al., 2018), alpha set at .05, and
184 power at .95. Participants were recruited by word of mouth and snowball sampling methodology.
185 Participants aged between 18-50 years, male or female, and recreationally active were eligible
186 for the study. Data collection stopped once the required sample was achieved. 34 participants
187 were randomly allocated into two groups and all completed testing; descriptives are presented in
188 Table 1. Eighteen of the 34 participants were male and no participants had pre-existing medical
189 conditions that would affect their capacity to complete the exercise task.

190 **Measures and equipment**

191 Manipulation checks relating to the experimental condition and exercise intensity were
192 included in the study design. Outcome measures relating to affective responses, attentional focus,
193 and state mindfulness were recorded.

194 **Manipulation Checks.**

195 *State-Mindfulness Scale for Physical Activity (SMS-PA; Cox et al., 2016)*. The SMS-
196 PA is a 12-item scale including 6-items for each of the two subscales (mindfulness of the mind,
197 and mindfulness of the body). Respondents are asked to think about the activity they have just
198 completed and respond to each item on a 5-point scale from 0 (*not at all*) to 4 (*very much*). A
199 mean score is created for each subscale, an overall state mindfulness score is created from a
200 mean of all items, and higher scores indicate higher mindfulness. Internal consistency for each

201 subscale ranged between .87–.93 upon initial validation (Cox et al., 2016). Internal consistency
202 in the present study was: Control group, $\alpha = .86$ (mind), $\alpha = .91$ (body), $\alpha = .94$ (overall);
203 Mindfulness group, $\alpha = .74$ (mind), $\alpha = .92$ (body), $\alpha = .89$ (overall). Cronbach’s alpha indicates
204 good and excellent internal consistency for subscales in both groups with the exception of the
205 mind subscale within the mindfulness group, that only achieved an acceptable level (Tavakol &
206 Dennick, 2011). Overall scores were used in analyses and this scale showed good internal
207 consistency.

208 ***Heart Rate.*** Heart rate was continually measured from the start until the end of the
209 exercise. An arm mounted device (Polar Verity) was worn by each participant and data retrieved
210 following the activity. Mean heart rate was calculated for the entire exercise bout.

211 **Experimental measures.**

212 ***Feeling Scale (FS; Hardy & Rejeski, 1989).*** Affective valence (pleasure–displeasure)
213 was assessed using the FS. The FS is a single-item, 11-point scale ranging from +5 (Very Good)
214 to -5 (Very Bad). Responses were provided to the question: “How are you feeling right now?”
215 and participants indicated their response by circling a number. Hardy and Rejeski (1989)
216 demonstrated validity of the scale across three studies detailed in their original article.

217 ***Felt Arousal Scale (FAS; Svebak & Murgatroyd, 1985).*** Arousal was measured with the
218 FAS. The FAS is a single-item 6-point scale ranging from 1 (*low arousal*) to 6 (*high arousal*),
219 and responses are given following the instruction: “Estimate how aroused you feel”. Participants
220 indicated their arousal by circling a number. Ekkekakis et al. (2008) have previously shown the
221 FAS correlates with the arousal scale of the Affect Grid (Russell et al., 1989) offering support for
222 its use.

223 *Attentional Focus (Tammen, 1996)*. Attentional focus was assessed using a single-item
224 bipolar scale ranging from 0 (total associative focus) to 100 (total dissociative focus).
225 Participants indicated their attentional focus by placing a mark on a 10cm line. The mark on the
226 line was measured and converted to a score (e.g., a mark that was 6cm from the left edge [“0”]
227 would be a score of 60). A score below 50 indicates a predominantly associative focus (e.g.,
228 focus on bodily sensations), and a score above 50 indicates a predominantly dissociative focus
229 (e.g., daydreaming).

230 *Physical Activity Enjoyment Scale (PACES; Kendzierski & DeCarlo, 1991)*. The
231 PACES is an 18-item scale accompanied by 7-point bipolar response scales (e.g., “*I dislike it*” vs
232 “*I like it*”). Responses are made to the instruction “Rate how you feel at the moment about the
233 physical activity you have been doing”. There are no scoring thresholds to indicate an enjoyable
234 experience, but higher scores represent greater enjoyment. Internal consistency for the present
235 study was $\alpha = .93$ (mindfulness group) and $\alpha = .91$ (control group).

236 **Procedure**

237 Interested participants were sent an electronic copy of the participant information sheet
238 and those who agreed to participate were scheduled to attend a local urban park for the testing
239 session. Participants arrived at the park individually, with a pair of headphones, and completed
240 the consent form prior to any data collection. At this point, participants were allocated to either
241 the experimental (mindfulness) group or the control group and this allocation was made in an
242 alternating order (i.e., participant 1 allocated to control group, participant 2 allocated to
243 experimental, participant 3 allocated to control group, etc). Participants were provided with
244 verbal description and written instructions for the FS, FAS, and Attention item. The route
245 through the park was then described to the participants and they were also given a hard copy map

246 of the route through the park. The route followed the main loop through the park and back to the
247 start point and was 1.5 miles in length. All participants received the instruction to “maintain an
248 intensity that you can sustain for 20-25minutes” (see Parfitt et al., 2000). An arm mounted heart
249 rate monitor (Polar Verity) was attached to the participant and participants were given one sheet
250 of paper with printed copies of the FS, FAS, and attentional item on both sides. Participants were
251 instructed to complete the scales presented on the sheet of paper at two points during the walk
252 (0.5miles and 1 mile); these points were identified on the map and verbally described with
253 landmarks. Upon completion of the route, participants were asked to respond to the FS, FAS, and
254 provided with a hard copies PACES and SMS-PA to complete. Participants in the control group
255 did not wear headphones during their route, but participants in the experimental group did wear
256 headphones.

257 *Experimental Condition*

258 Participants in the mindfulness condition were given an Apple iPod shuffle containing a
259 mindfulness recording. The mindfulness recording was taken from Headspace (Headspace
260 United Kingdom) and included spoken word such as “If there is anything on your mind today,
261 just set it aside for now, you can come back to that later, for now just be present with yourself
262 and walk with intention”, “notice the feeling of your feet rising and falling to the ground”, “if
263 you ever feel yourself getting lost in thought, just come back to the body, maybe your feet
264 connecting with the ground...remind yourself of the intention to be present”, and “notice how
265 the entire body moves”. Participants self-selected a comfortable listening sound intensity.

266 **Data Analyses**

267 Data were screened for suitability for parametric testing and minor deviations from
268 normality were detected for attention scale responses at time point 1 and post-exercise FS scores.

269 The deviations were minor, and the analysis considered sufficiently robust to not warrant
270 transformation of the raw data. Independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to identify between-
271 group differences for age and mean heart rate recorded during the trials. Independent samples *t*-
272 tests were conducted for PACES, SMS-PA, and post-exercise FS and FAS responses. Mixed
273 model ANOVAs (2 [time] x 2 [group]) were applied for FS and FAS responses recorded during
274 exercise; two time points as the within-subjects measure, and the groups as the between-subjects
275 measure. A 2 (time point) x 2 (group) mixed model ANOVA was applied to the attentional focus
276 data.

277 Results

278 Manipulation checks

279 The groups did not differ significantly in age and mean heart rate (see Table 1). Mean HR
280 data indicated that participants were exercising at a light intensity (57–59% age predicted
281 maxHR) according to ACSM indices (American College of Sports Medicine, 2018). Analysis of
282 the SMS-PA indicated that participants in the mindfulness group ($M = 33.59$, $SD = 7.890$)
283 reported significantly greater state mindfulness than the control group ($M = 21.29$, $SD = 9.359$);
284 $t(32) = 4.141$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.42$.

285 During-exercise experimental measures

286 **Feeling Scale.** ANOVA revealed no interaction effects, $F(1, 32) = 3.160$, $p = .09$, $\eta_p^2 =$
287 $.09$. There was no main effect of time, $F(1, 32) = 1.778$, $p = .19$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$, but there was a main
288 effect of group, $F(1, 32) = 18.009$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .36$. Inspection of the mean data by groups
289 indicated a more pleasant experience for the Mindfulness group (see Figure 1). Observed power
290 for the between-subjects analysis was .98. Figure 1 shows higher FS scores for the mindfulness
291 group at both timepoints. FS scores for the mindfulness group saw a slight increase from time

292 point 1 to time point 2, and score were in-between the Feeling Scale verbal descriptors of *Good*
293 to *Very Good*. For the control condition, scores reduced very slightly from time point 1 to
294 timepoint 2 and were around the verbal descriptor of *Good*.

295 **Felt Arousal Scale.** ANOVA indicated no interaction effects, $F(1, 32) = 1.508, p = .23,$
296 $\eta_p^2 = .05$. There were no significant main effects for time, $F(1, 32) = .670, p = .42, \eta_p^2 = .02$, but
297 there was a main effect of group, $F(1, 32) = 18.002, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .36$. Inspection of the mean
298 data by group revealed higher arousal in the Mindfulness group (see Figure 1). Observed power
299 for the between-subjects analysis was .98. FAS scores for the mindfulness group increased
300 slightly between time point 1 to time point 2, and were between scores of 4 and 5. For the control
301 group, scores remained stable at around a score of 3 between time point 1 and 2.

302 **Attentional focus.** ANOVA revealed no interaction effects, $F(1, 32) = 1.221, p = .277,$
303 $\eta_p^2 = .04$. However, there was a significant main effect for time, $F(1, 31) = 7.322, p = .011, \eta_p^2 =$
304 $.19$ with data showing an increase in scores from time point 1 to time point 2 (see Figure 2).
305 There was no main effect of group, $F(1, 32) = 2.552, p = .120, \eta_p^2 = .07$. Mean data and standard
306 errors are presented in Figure 2. Observed power for the between-subjects analysis was .34.

307 **Post-exercise experimental measures**

308 **Feeling Scale.** Analysis of post-exercise affective valence showed higher FS scores for
309 those who completed the mindfulness condition ($M = 4.59, SD = .618$) compared to the control
310 condition ($M = 3.24, SD = 1.348$), $t(32) = 3.762, p < .001, d = 1.29$.

311 **Felt Arousal Scale.** Analysis of post-exercise arousal showed higher FAS scores for
312 participants in the mindfulness condition ($M = 4.76, SD = 1.30$) compared to the control
313 condition ($M = 3.12, SD = 1.17$), $t(32) = 3.888, p < .001, d = 1.33$.

314 **PACES.** The outcome of the independent samples *t*-test showed a significant difference

315 between the mindfulness group ($M = 110.29$, $SD = 14.15$) and the control group ($M = 88.76$, SD
316 $= 14.485$); $t(32) = 4.384$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.50$.

317

Discussion

318 The aim of this study was to examine the effects of a mindfulness recording during a self-
319 paced walk through an urban park. The primary hypothesis (H_1) concerning affective responses
320 during exercise is accepted, with effect size indicating a large effect. Participants in the
321 mindfulness group reported higher scores on the FS during exercise, indicating greater pleasure;
322 these data follow similar previous work (e.g., Cox et al., 2018). The present findings extend
323 previous work by demonstrating the utility of mindfulness as a pleasure-enhancing extrinsic
324 strategy in an ecologically valid context. Advancing on previous work capturing incidental
325 mindfulness during walking in outdoor environments (e.g., Yang & Conroy, 2018), the present
326 study has shown that directly promoting mindfulness using mindfulness recordings during
327 walking can have positive affective consequences. A pertinent implication of this finding is that
328 a mindfulness recording can promote more pleasure during exercise and this previously been
329 shown an important determinant of future exercise behaviour. Previous work by Williams et al.
330 (2012), showed that a one unit score increase on the FS during exercise would result in 27–29
331 more time active per week and was associated with an additional 15min of PA per week, six
332 months later. Therefore, the present data suggest that the mindfulness condition could promote
333 an increase in physical activity compared to an already pleasant condition (outdoor walk).

334 The second hypothesis (H_2) regarding post-exercise measures of core affect can be
335 accepted. A statistical difference for both measures (FS and FAS), associated with a large effect
336 size, demonstrated the acute continuation of positive affective response following the conditions.
337 The phenomenon of affective rebound (Ekkekakis et al., 2011) has been shown in previous

338 exercise studies focusing on high intensity exercise whereby neutral or negative affective valence
339 quickly rebounds to positive affective valence following cessation of the exercise. However, in
340 this instance, there was no evidence of rapid changes in affective valence. This is likely because
341 the exercise intensity was considered low-to-moderate, and the FS scores reported during
342 exercise remained in the *Good to Very Good* region of the scale. The short-term continuation of
343 positive affective response has been shown with other in-task strategies proposed to promote a
344 pleasant exercise experience (e.g., Hutchinson et al., 2015; Jones & Ekkekakis, 2019) and this
345 mindfulness approach appears to share a similar outcome.

346 The third hypothesis (H_3), related to attention focus, is not supported owing to no
347 statistical difference between groups. Attention data showed a shift towards greater dissociation
348 from time point 1 (0.5miles) to time point 2 (1 mile). This shift seemed more evident in the
349 Control group (see Figure 2), although there was no significant interaction effect. The attention
350 scores for the mindfulness condition further indicate the support for the mechanism underpinning
351 the effectiveness of mindfulness proposed by Gillman and Bryan (2020). The mindfulness group
352 had a marginally predominant associative focus at time point 1, and a marginally predominant
353 dissociative focus at time point 2. Mindfulness appears to have a different cognitive mechanism
354 from other extrinsic strategies wherein it does not promote a strong predominantly dissociative
355 focus. This offers an alternative approach for practitioners wishing to positively change how
356 people feel during low-to-moderate intensity exercise, in comparison to other extrinsic strategies
357 promoting dissociation.

358 Data relating to enjoyment of the exercise supported the hypothesis (H_4). PACES scores
359 in the mindfulness group were higher than in the control group and follow previous similar work
360 (e.g., Cox et al., 2018). The combined data of core affective responses (Feeling Scale) and

361 enjoyment (PACES) indicate that mindfulness is a useful strategy for positively influencing
362 feelings during low-to-moderate intensity exercise. Given the role of affective responses to
363 exercise promoting greater adherence demonstrated in previous experimental work (e.g.,
364 Williams et al., 2016), and the theoretical proposals of the importance of affective responses
365 (e.g., Brand & Ekkekakis, 2018; Cheval & Boisgontier, 2021), this strategy could be useful in
366 promoting greater exercise adherence through enhance pleasure and enjoyment.

367 In a recent systematic review of extrinsic strategies (Jones & Zenko, 2023), mindfulness
368 was cited as requiring additional studies to support its use during exercise to enhance positive
369 feelings. These data offer support for mindfulness as a strategy to improve affective responses to
370 exercise. One main point of difference from previous work exploring mindfulness during
371 exercise is the completion of exercise outdoors; this extends previous work and demonstrates
372 ecological validity of implementing mindfulness recordings during exercise. Further, these data
373 support the practical applicability of using a mindfulness recording during exercise.

374 **Practical implications**

375 Present data continue to offer support for the utility of outdoor exercise as both
376 conditions were scored as pleasant. Pleasure could be further enhanced during low-to-moderate
377 outdoor exercise by using a mindfulness recording. Practitioners could offer this approach to
378 individuals during lower intensity exercise and the guided mindfulness audio recording offers an
379 approach that can implemented with exercisers who are not familiar or experienced with
380 mindfulness. Exercise interventions benefit from individualisation and practitioner awareness of
381 a range of strategies for promoting pleasant exercise experiences could be beneficial in allowing
382 for greater individualisation. For exercisers where low intensity exercise would be advised, for
383 example, early stages of cardiac rehabilitation (Price et al., 2016), stroke rehabilitation, and

384 recovery from injury, mindfulness recordings can offer an additive effect to the positive affective
385 responses created by a self-selected low intensity walk in a park environment.

386 **Limitations and Future Research**

387 The exercise intensity in the present study is defined as “light”. This is a similar issue to
388 previous work and limits our understanding of mindfulness as a strategy to enhance affective
389 responses across a range of exercise intensities. Future research could explore the utility of
390 mindfulness at higher exercise intensities, particularly those that would garner greater
391 physiological adaptations and benefits. In line with previous theory (see Ekkekakis, 2003), the
392 light intensity exercise engaged in here did not appear to present a challenge to maintaining a
393 positive affective response. At present, evidence only appears to support the use of mindfulness
394 during low-to-moderate intensity exercise. It is important for exercise practitioners to be aware
395 of the evidence supporting the application of each extrinsic strategy so they can select their
396 strategies judiciously. If participants can engage fully in mindfulness, it could follow that
397 discomfort felt during high-intensity exercise is observed without judgement. A consequence of
398 this could be that subsequent exercise activities are not negatively appraised, as the discomfort
399 experienced during a previous high intensity exercise bout was not judged as negative. However,
400 this would require further research involving mindfulness and higher intensity exercise.

401 This study examined the acute effects of a mindfulness intervention, but further
402 examination of how this approach could be implemented over a longer period and the effects on
403 continued exercise behaviour appear warranted. When contextualising this study within the FITT
404 principles, the effects of mindfulness on frequency of exercise was not in scope of the present
405 study but a longitudinal study would offer insight to this. Further, this study did not assess if the
406 efficacy of a mindfulness recording would have continued results if used frequently. Mindfulness
407 as a strategy to promote positive exercise experiences is not alone in this limitation, and many

408 extrinsic strategies require longitudinal testing to understand their effectiveness at shaping
409 exercise behaviour over time (see Jones & Zenko, 2023)

410 To our knowledge, there have been no studies examining the role of mindfulness in
411 resistance exercise. Resistance exercise is an often-overlooked component of the physical
412 activity guidelines (Strain et al., 2016); greater understanding of whether mindfulness could
413 positively influence affective responses during resistance exercise could help offer a useful
414 strategy in promoting that type of exercise. The present study focused on only one type of
415 exercise, but future experimental work examining mindfulness across the spectrum of
416 possibilities spanning the FITT principles could open a number of other opportunities for
417 exercise and mindfulness research.

418 Our study sought to increase the ecological validity of exercise and mindfulness research.
419 Consequently, this came at a cost of reduced internal consistency. There were numerous factors
420 that could have affected the data (e.g., weather, other people in the park) and this should be
421 acknowledged when interpreting the data. Further, there was lower internal consistency for the
422 mindfulness of mind subscale in the experimental group compared to the control group, and in
423 comparison to the original sample when developing the scale (see Cox et al., 2016). The audio
424 mindfulness recording had a greater number of prompts focusing on bodily sensations (e.g.,
425 rising and falling of feet); this was not a deliberate decision, but a consequence of using
426 previously developed, professional materials. However, it could explain the slightly lower
427 internal consistency of the mind subscale for the mindfulness group as items measured in that
428 subscale related to emotions and thoughts (e.g., “I noticed emotions come and go”; see Cox et
429 al., 2016), but these were emphasised less in the mindfulness recording. Individuals with higher
430 trait or dispositional mindfulness in the experimental group could have been engaging with mind

431 based mindfulness more than individuals in the experimental group with lower trait mindfulness.
432 Trait mindfulness has been shown a relevant individual difference factor for physical activity and
433 could be a consideration for future intervention work at a situational mindfulness level (see Yang
434 and Conroy, 2020).

435 **Summary**

436 This study examined the role of listening to a mindfulness recording during a self-paced
437 walk through an urban park. Participants who listened to the mindfulness recording reported
438 greater feelings of pleasure and enjoyment compared to a control group. The results indicate that
439 a mindfulness recording can be used as an adjunct to self-paced walking to positively influence
440 feelings. Participants predominantly exercised at a light intensity, and this is an important factor
441 to consider when seeking to implement this strategy during exercise to enhance positive feelings.

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448 **Disclosure statement.** The authors report there are no competing interests to declare.

449 **Data availability.** The data that support the findings of this study are available from the

450 corresponding author, [LJ], upon reasonable request.

451

452 **Table 1**453 *Descriptive data for participants*

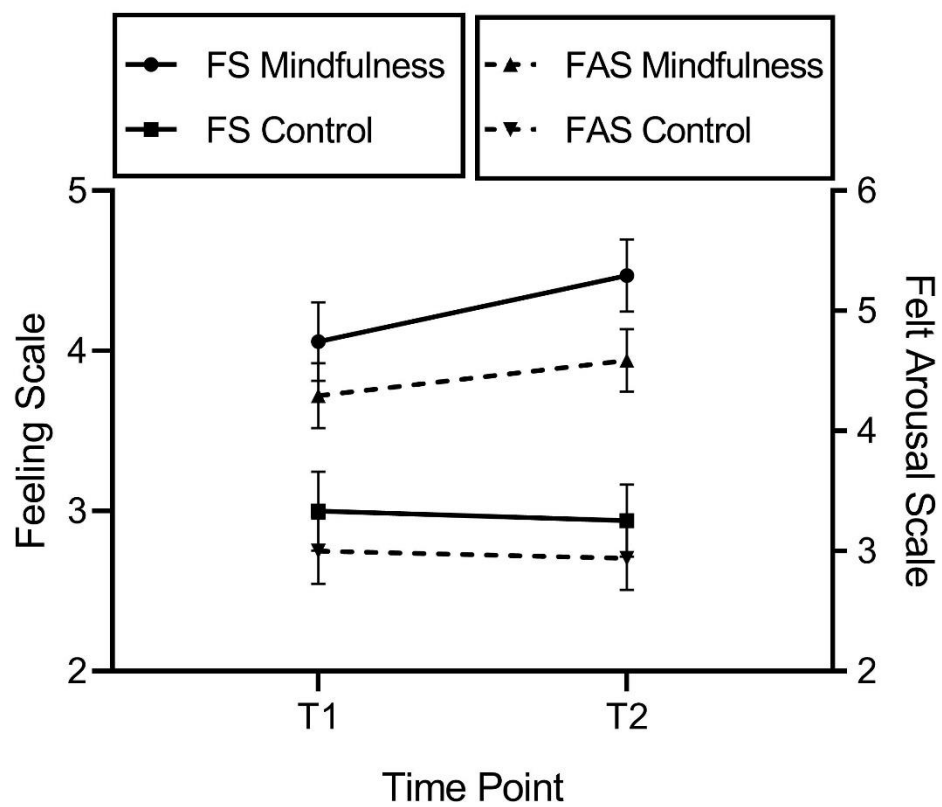
	Mindfulness Condition <i>M (SD)</i>	Control Condition <i>M (SD)</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Age (years)	26.35 (3.27)	26.88 (3.352)	.012	32	.645
Heart rate	105.38 (12.42)	113.21 (14.63)	.296	28	.124

454 *Note.* Heart rate is a mean value calculated from the entire bout of exercise.

455

456 **Figure 1**

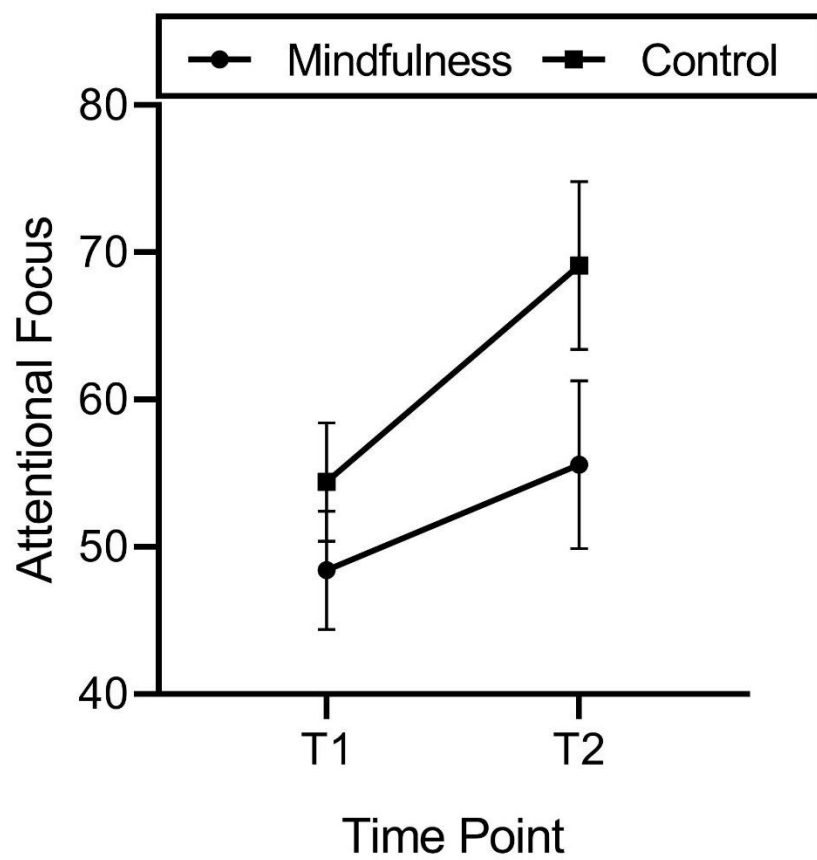
457 *Feeling Scale and Felt Arousal Scale responses recorded during exercise for both group groups*



458

459 **Figure 2**

460 *Attentional scale item responses recorded during exercise for both groups*



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