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3 Synergistic effects of social support and self-efficacy on dietary motivation predicting fruit and vegetable  
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6 **Synergistic effects of social support and self-efficacy on dietary motivation**  
7 **predicting fruit and vegetable intake**

8 **Background:** Self-efficacy and social support are considered relevant predictors of fruit and  
9 vegetable intake. This study examines whether the effect of self-efficacy on fruit and vegetables  
10 intake is mediated by intention and whether this motivational process is moderated by received  
11 dietary social support.

12 **Methods:** A longitudinal study with two measurement points in time, four weeks apart, on fruit  
13 and vegetable intake was carried out with 473 students aged 19 years on average (52% women).

14 In a conditional process analysis, dietary intention was specified as a mediator between self-  
15 efficacy and fruit and vegetable intake, whereas received dietary support was specified as a  
16 moderator of the self-efficacy – intention association, controlling for baseline fruit and vegetable  
17 intake.

18 **Results:** Self-efficacy was positively associated with fruit and vegetable intake four weeks later,  
19 and intention mediated this process. Moreover an interaction between received dietary support  
20 and self-efficacy on intention emerged.

21 **Conclusions:** The effect of self-efficacy on fruit and vegetable intake was fully mediated by  
22 intention. Moreover, received support exhibited a moderating role within the motivational  
23 process: high dietary support appeared to accentuate the positive relationship between self-  
24 efficacy and dietary intention.

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27 **Synergistic effects of social support and self-efficacy on dietary motivation**  
28 **predicting fruit and vegetable intake**

29 Consuming at least five portions of fruit and vegetables a day is recommended to prevent  
30 chronic diseases and maintain good health (WHO, 2003). However, although this dietary  
31 behavior is widely promoted, breaking unhealthy habits is a difficult self-regulatory task (Slavin  
32 & Lloyd, 2012). The process of acquiring regular fruit and vegetable intake of about five portions  
33 involves motivational factors that go beyond mere knowledge about nutritional facts. The  
34 formation of an intention is instrumental for the initiation and maintenance of healthy dietary  
35 behaviors, as it sets a self-regulation process in motion that facilitates later goal-relevant  
36 activities (O'Donnell, Greene, & Blissmer, 2014). The present study, therefore, takes a  
37 longitudinal social-cognitive perspective (Bandura, 1997) to further the understanding of those  
38 psychological mechanisms that underlie healthy eating habits. It is proposed that social exchange  
39 processes interact with motivational factors and hereafter contribute to elicit dietary behaviors.  
40 Although, in most of the health behavior theories, social influences are not explicitly specified as  
41 determinants, they are generally considered as being facilitating factors for motivation as well as  
42 for action. Some recent studies have therefore integrated social support into health behavior  
43 change models (e.g. Burkert, Scholz, Gralla, Roigas, & Knoll, 2011; Ochsner et al., 2014).  
44 However, while the recent literature underscores the facilitating effect of support in the health  
45 behavior change process, the underlying mechanisms remain an unresolved issue. A likely  
46 mechanism is the synergistic relationship between self-efficacy and social support on motivation  
47 and action, which is in line with Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory (see Warner et al.,  
48 2011). The present study follows this line of reasoning and sets out to examine the putative  
49 synergistic effect between self-efficacy and the receipt of social support on fruit and vegetable  
50 consumption.

**51 Dietary self-efficacy**

52 Self-efficacy portrays individuals' beliefs in their capabilities to perform a specific action  
53 required to attain a desired outcome (Bandura, 1997). It reflects optimistic self-beliefs when  
54 overcoming temptations or adopting a novel course of action. Different challenges could emerge  
55 during the course of dietary behavior change, and dietary self-efficacy beliefs may be required to  
56 master these tasks successfully. Self-efficacy has been found to be associated with consumption  
57 of fruit and vegetables, and individuals with high levels of dietary self-efficacy consume more  
58 fruit and vegetables than others (e.g., King et al., 2010).

59 Evidence for the relevance of self-efficacy for fruit and vegetable intake has also been  
60 found in intervention studies, where behavior change techniques led to increases in self-efficacy  
61 levels, which were subsequently associated with a more balanced diet (Kreausukon, Gellert,  
62 Lippke, & Schwarzer, 2012; Lhakhang, Godinho, Knoll, & Schwarzer, 2014; Luszczynska,  
63 Tryburcy, & Schwarzer, 2007).

64 Self-efficacy is proposed to be relevant in early motivational stages of behavior change,  
65 which are directed toward the formation of an intention. In the context of dietary changes, self-  
66 efficacy was indeed found to help individuals form dietary goals (e.g., Godinho, Alvarez, Lima,  
67 & Schwarzer, 2014). When individuals are already motivated, self-efficacy gives them the  
68 confidence to implement their intentions and initiate and maintain behavioral changes in  
69 volitional stages of the change process (e.g., Gutiérrez-Doña, Lippke, Renner, Kwon, &  
70 Schwarzer, 2009). The focus of the present study is on the motivational process, examining how  
71 self-efficacy contributes to form intentions directly, whereas dietary behavior would be affected  
72 indirectly later on. Put differently, in the present research design, self-efficacy would affect  
73 dietary behaviors in two ways: directly as well as indirectly via intention (Ochsner, Scholz, &

74 Hornung, 2013). In the present case, intention is specified as the most proximal predictor of  
75 behavior.

### 76 **Received dietary social support**

77 Social support is a relevant variable in the context of health behaviors, either by directly  
78 predicting health behavior (e.g., Darbes & Lewis, 2005) or by interacting with other health  
79 related factors (e.g., Warner, Ziegelmann, Schüz, Wurm, Tesch-Romer, et al., 2011). It refers to  
80 the function and quality of social relationships and involves an interactive process between a  
81 provider and a receiver. Thus, a distinction can be made between perceived and received social  
82 support (Schwarzer & Knoll, 2010). Perceived social support is the recipient's anticipated  
83 available support from its social network if needed. As it is a rather stable cognition, which  
84 resembles a personality disposition, it is hardly amenable to interventions (Brand, Lakey, &  
85 Berman, 1995). Received social support, on the other hand, describes the recipient's report about  
86 support he or she received in the past. As received support can be prompted directly in  
87 interventions, it is a promising factor to be investigated in the nutritional change process (Yates et  
88 al., 2012).

89 Further, it is necessary to measure received social support specifically for the behavior  
90 under study. A recent review suggests that general social support is often not related to a healthy  
91 diet, whereas received dietary social support has a strong positive link to healthy eating (Tay,  
92 Tan, Diener, & Gonzalez, 2013). Behavior-specific social support may be particularly relevant in  
93 the process of goal setting. As pointed out by Scholz, Ochsner, Hornung, and Knoll (2013),  
94 received dietary instrumental support predicts dietary intentions.

### 95 **Individual and social factors for dietary behavior**

96 Besides its individual regulation, dietary behaviors are often affected by the social context  
97 and are therefore expected to be dependent on both self-efficacy and social support according to  
98 Bandura's (1997) social-cognitive theory. However, Ochsner et al. (2014) state that research on  
99 the interaction between social support and individual regulation of health behavior is still scarce.

100 The need of studies that investigate the interactions and integration of individual and social  
101 factors involved in dietary behaviors is underscored by findings about the psychological  
102 resources that best predict fruit and vegetable consumption. In a review conducted by Shaikh,  
103 Yaroch, Nebeling, Yeh, and Resnicow (2008), the evidence for the effects of self-efficacy, social  
104 support, and knowledge on fruit and vegetable recommendations on consumption were even  
105 higher than that of intention. Unfortunately, no distinction was made between perceived and  
106 received social support in this review. Previous empirical evidence further suggests a moderating  
107 role of received social support on self-efficacy in other health promoting behaviors such as  
108 physical activity (Reyes Fernández, Montenegro-Montenegro, Knoll, & Schwarzer, 2014;  
109 Warner, Ziegelmann, Schüz, Wurm, & Schwarzer, 2011).

110 In the present study, action self-efficacy, received dietary social support, and intention are  
111 therefore chosen as predictors for fruit and vegetable consumption. Scholz et al. (2013) proposed  
112 to include social support in the motivational phase of the behavior change process, because it was  
113 found to contribute to intention formation. Within the context of physical activity it has been  
114 found that social support interacts with motivational self-efficacy to increase action control  
115 (Reyes Fernández et al., 2014). Besides the volitional contributions of social support reported in  
116 previous literature (Ochsner et al., 2014), this suggests a contribution of social support to  
117 motivational processes which might set post-intentional processes into motion.

118 **Aims**

119 The aim of the present study is to examine the predictive value of self-efficacy, intention,  
120 and social support on fruit and vegetable intake in young adults. Moreover, the question is  
121 whether self-efficacy directly relates to fruit and vegetable intake or is mediated via intention and  
122 whether there is an interaction between self-efficacy and social support on intention.

123 We examined these hypotheses:

- 124 1. Self-efficacy (T1) predicts fruit and vegetable intake (T2) and intention (T2).
- 125 2. Intention (T2) is associated with fruit and vegetable intake (T2) and also mediates the  
126 effect of self-efficacy (T1) on fruit and vegetable intake (T2).
- 127 3. Received dietary social support (T1) not only predicts intention (T2) but is more strongly  
128 associated with intention if self-efficacy (T2) is above average as well – assuming a moderating  
129 effect. Put differently, supported individuals build intentions more easily and benefit more from  
130 being self-efficacious in terms of their fruit and vegetable intake.

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## 132 **Method**

### 133 **Participants and procedures**

134 First-year students from a Costa Rican university were invited for a study on healthy life  
135 styles in humanities courses in September 2013. In the Costa Rican University system, each  
136 student, from any field, has to take courses on philosophy, communication, history and arts, prior  
137 to more specialized courses. These courses are offered in several campuses and several buildings  
138 all around the country. The research team visited 20 of these classes and invited about 700  
139 students of these introductory lessons at the main Campus in San José. They did not receive  
140 credit or financial reimbursement for their participation, but professors encouraged students to  
141 take part in the study during the time spans between lessons. After having given informed  
142 consent, 663 students filled out a paper and pencil questionnaire at Time 1 (T1, about 95 % of

143 those invited) and directly returned it to the research team. One month later, in a second visit of  
 144 the research team to their classrooms, 473 (71%) participants filled out Time 2 (T2)  
 145 questionnaires. Of those who participated at T2, 52.3% were women. Their mean age was 18.77  
 146 years ( $SD = 2.87$ ). Most of the participants were single (98.2%), and living in the province of San  
 147 José (55.4%).

## 148 **Measures**

149 *Self-efficacy* was measured at T1 by three items, such as “I am confident that I can eat fruit  
 150 and vegetables on a regular basis” validated in Lhaxhang et al. (2014). Responses could range  
 151 from 1 (not at all true) to 4 (exactly true) and were averaged.

152 *Dietary intention* to eat fruit and vegetables were assessed with three items by Lhaxhang et  
 153 al. (2014) at T2. Responses could range from 1 (not at all true) to 4 (exactly true) and were  
 154 averaged. An example item is “I intend to eat fruit and vegetables every day”.

155 *Received dietary social support* was measured by three items at T1. The original scale is the  
 156 validated Family and Friends Support for Heart Healthy Eating Habits Scale by Sallis, Grossman,  
 157 Pinski, Patterson, and Nader (1987). In this study a three-item short version from Warner,  
 158 Ziegelmann, Schüz, Wurm, and Schwarzer (2011) was formulated to assess dietary-specific  
 159 social support from anyone in the social network and answering categories were adapted to the 4-  
 160 point Likert scale also used for intentions and self-efficacy. An example item is “There was  
 161 someone who encouraged me to eat healthily on a regular basis”.

162 Reliabilities for the social-cognitive variables are reported in Table 1.

163 *Fruit and vegetable intake* was assessed at baseline and at T2. Two questions, one on the  
 164 number of fruit and another on the number of vegetables consumed per day in the past week,  
 165 were asked. An open answering format was provided as follows: “Within the last week, I have

166 eaten...portions of fruit by day” and “Within the last week, I have eaten...portions of vegetables  
167 by day”. A portion was defined at the beginning of the questionnaire as the amount of food that  
168 fits into one hand. For the analysis, portions of fruit and vegetables were summed up. The  
169 internal consistency of this measure was acceptable (Spearman-Brown’s  $\rho = .63$ ). This instrument  
170 has been found to be valid in several studies in different cultural contexts (Kreausukon et al.,  
171 2012; Lhakhang et al., 2014; Luszczynska & Haynes, 2009).

## 172 **Data analysis**

173 IBM SPSS 22 was used for the statistical analyses. Drop-out analyses were conducted by  
174 means of MANOVA in case of continuous variables, and by means of  $\chi^2$  in case of categorical  
175 variables. Missing values of all variables were below 5%, and, therefore, listwise deletion was  
176 justified.

177 To examine the first two study hypotheses, a simple mediation model was carried out by  
178 means of the SPSS Process macro by Hayes (2012). In a first step, intention as putative mediator  
179 (T2) is regressed on self-efficacy (T1), which is here an independent variable. As a second step,  
180 the dependent variable (T2 fruit and vegetable intake) is regressed on the independent variable  
181 self-efficacy (T1), on the putative mediator intention (T2) and on covariates: T1 fruit and  
182 vegetable intake. All paths were estimated by means of ordinary least squares procedures.  
183 Confidence intervals (95%) were generated by bootstrapping with 5,000 resamples. Bootstrapped  
184 confidence intervals do not require a normal distribution and are therefore recommended when  
185 indirect effects are examined (Hayes, 2013).

186 Once the simple mediation was corroborated, a conditional process analysis was conducted.  
187 Conditional process models are those which integrate mediation and moderation analyses (Hayes,  
188 2013). In this case, in accordance with the third hypothesis, a moderation between the

189 independent variable and the putative mediator was expected. Thus, intention (T2) was regressed  
190 on self-efficacy (T1) and social support (T1) as well as on the interaction term of self-efficacy  
191 (T1) with social support (T1). Thereafter, fruit and vegetable consumption (T2) was regressed on  
192 self-efficacy (T1), intention (T2) and baseline fruit and vegetable consumption as covariate.  
193 Bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (5,000 resamples) were generated. In this conditional  
194 process analyses an estimate for the indirect effect was generated, as well as estimates at different  
195 levels of the moderator.

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## Results

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### Drop-out analysis

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Insert Figure 1 about here

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### Descriptive statistics

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Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and internal consistencies for each study variable, as well as the intercorrelations among them. As can be seen, about six portions of fruit and vegetables were consumed daily at baseline and one month later. All study variables were closely associated with each other. The highest correlation was between baseline and subsequent

213 fruit and vegetable intake at T2 ( $r = .53$ ), suggesting high rank stability of this behavior across  
 214 the two measurement points. The correlation between self-efficacy (T1) and intention (T2) with  $r$   
 215 = .50 can as well be classified as large in accordance with Cohen's (1988) guidelines. The  
 216 association of social support with dietary intention ( $r = .28$ ) as well as the association between  
 217 self-efficacy and behavior ( $r = .28$ ) showed a medium effect size.

### 218 **Mediation analysis**

219 Dietary intention was specified as a mediator between dietary self-efficacy and T2 fruit and  
 220 vegetable consumption, controlling for baseline behavior. In the first mediation step, self-efficacy  
 221 predicted intention ( $b = .60$ ,  $SE = .04$ , 95% CI [0.51, 0.69],  $p < .001$ ). In the second analysis step,  
 222 intention ( $b = .47$ ,  $SE = .22$ , 95% CI [-0.02, 0.90],  $p = .03$ ) and baseline fruit and vegetables  
 223 intake ( $b = .52$ ,  $SE = .04$ , 95% CI [0.44, .61],  $p < .001$ ) had effects on T2 fruit and vegetable  
 224 intake, but not self-efficacy ( $b = .22$ ,  $SE = .27$ , 95% CI [-0.30, 0.75],  $p = .39$ ). The indirect effect  
 225 of self-efficacy on behavior was  $b = .28$ , 95% CI [0.03, .56]. The total effect of self-efficacy on  
 226 fruit and vegetable intake was  $b = .49$ , 95% CI [0.03, 0.95],  $p = .04$ . The simple mediation model  
 227 specified accounted for  $R^2 = .29$  of the variance in fruit and vegetable intake.

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229 Figure 1

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### 231 **Conditional process analysis**

232 To further examine the putative effects of social support on dietary intention, T1 support  
 233 was specified as a moderator between T1 self-efficacy and T2 intention.

234 Figure 1 shows the main results. In the first step, intention (T2) was regressed on self-  
 235 efficacy (T1), social support (T1) and the interaction between social support and self-efficacy.

236 Intention was predicted by self-efficacy ( $b = .33$ ,  $SE = .11$ , 95% CI [0.10, 0.55],  $p < .01$ ), by the  
 237 interaction of social support with self-efficacy ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .04$ , 95% CI [0.01, 0.20],  $p = .02$ ),  
 238 but not directly by social support ( $b = -.26$ ,  $SE = .16$ , 95% CI [-0.57, 0.09],  $p = .15$ ). The total  
 239 effect of social support on intention ( $r = .28$ ,  $b = .23$ ) may have been suppressed by self-efficacy  
 240 and the interaction term of self-efficacy and social support. In a second step, fruit and vegetable  
 241 intake (T2) was regressed on self-efficacy (T1), intention (T2), and baseline fruit and vegetable  
 242 intake as a covariate. Dietary intention ( $b = .46$ ,  $SE = .22$ , 95% CI [0.02, 0.90],  $p = .04$ ) and  
 243 baseline behavior ( $b = .52$ ,  $SE = .04$ , 95% CI [0.44, 0.61],  $p < .001$ ) showed significant direct  
 244 paths toward T2 fruit and vegetable intake, but not self-efficacy ( $b = .22$ ,  $SE = .27$ , 95% CI [-  
 245 0.30, 0.75],  $p = .39$ ). The path from self-efficacy to behavior was mediated via intention with an  
 246 indirect effect of  $b = .28$ , bootstrapped  $SE = .13$ , 95% bootstrapped CI [0.02, 0.55], when  
 247 received social support is at the mean. The indirect effect of self-efficacy on behavior was higher  
 248 among those participants with 1 *SD* social support above the mean ( $b = .33$ , bootstrapped  $SE =$   
 249  $.16$ , 95% bootstrapped CI [0.03, 0.66]) than among those with 1 *SD* social support below the  
 250 mean ( $b = .23$ ,  $SE = .11$ , 95% bootstrapped CI [0.02, 0.48]). The positive relationship between  
 251 self-efficacy and intention is hence stronger among individuals with higher levels of received  
 252 social support ( $b = .10$ ,  $SE = .04$ , 95% CI [0.01, 0.20],  $p = .02$ ) as illustrated in Figure 2.

253 Intention was a stronger predictor for T2 fruit and vegetable intake than self-efficacy.  
 254 Overall, the variables of the conditional process model accounted for  $R^2 = .29$  of the variance in  
 255 fruit and vegetable intake.

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256 Insert Figure 2 about here

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**Discussion**

259 This longitudinal study explored the synergistic effect of dietary self-efficacy and received  
260 dietary social support on the intention to consume fruit and vegetables in young adults. A recent  
261 review suggests that self-efficacy, social support, and knowledge are the best predictors of fruit  
262 and vegetable consumption, whereas weaker evidence has been found for intention (Shaikh et al.,  
263 2008). In many health behavior change theories, the interplay between social and individual  
264 factors is often not clearly specified. Bandura's social-cognitive theory (1997) comprises social  
265 support as a socio-structural facilitator, which potentially moderates the effects of self-efficacy  
266 (Warner, Ziegelmann, Schüz, Wurm, & Schwarzer, 2011). Given recent evidence on the role of  
267 received social support to prompt self-regulatory strategies within the motivation process for  
268 physical activity (Reyes Fernández et al., 2014), this study aimed to examine the moderating role  
269 of received dietary social support in the dietary motivation process and its subsequent effect on  
270 fruit and vegetable intake.

271 Our results confirm most of the hypotheses proposed: On the level of zero-order  
272 correlations, self-efficacy at T1 was positively associated with fruit and vegetable intake four  
273 weeks later as well as with T2 dietary intention. In other words, self-efficacy contributed to the  
274 definition of a dietary goal as well as to the performance of the corresponding behavior at T2, as  
275 formulated in Hypothesis 1.

276 Intention at T2 was also found to be associated with fruit and vegetable intake and  
277 mediated the effect of T1 self-efficacy on T2 behavior, supporting Hypothesis 2. Including  
278 intention into the model reduced the formerly significant bivariate association between self-  
279 efficacy T1 and T2 fruit and vegetable consumption to zero.

280 In bivariate zero-order correlations, received dietary social support had a moderate but  
281 positive association with intention. However, when self-efficacy was simultaneously included as  
282 a predictor of dietary intention, the effect of social support was suppressed. Nevertheless, an  
283 interaction between self-efficacy and received support on intention was found. Among  
284 individuals who received more support for a healthy diet, the association between self-efficacy  
285 and intention was stronger, and setting a dietary goal was easier. These results suggest that there  
286 may not be a direct effect of received dietary social support on intention, but that the contribution  
287 of receiving social support for ones diet in the goal setting process is a moderating one. Thus, the  
288 third hypothesis was partially confirmed.

### 289 **Implications**

290 When conducting motivational interventions on dietary behavior, techniques to increase  
291 self-efficacy, such as providing behavioral role models, giving the opportunity for mastery  
292 experience in healthy cooking and eating, or raising the affective value of healthy foods, should  
293 be taken into account. In order to make motivational interventions more effective, strategies to  
294 increase received dietary social support, such as encouragement or conjoint healthy cooking,  
295 might be successful. When social support is the focus of a dietary intervention, it should,  
296 however, be kept in mind that support can also be perceived as controlling or overprotecting and  
297 needs to be provided in a sensitive way (e.g., Silverman, Hecht, & McMillin, 2002). Because  
298 previous research has found that the interaction between self-efficacy and social support is  
299 associated with other health behaviors and self-regulatory strategies (Reyes Fernández et al.,  
300 2014; Warner, Ziegelmann, Schüz, Wurm, & Schwarzer, 2011), future research should be  
301 conducted in order to further examine their synergistic effects on post-motivational self-  
302 regulatory processes.

303 **Limitations and strengths**

304 Causal inferences should not be made, because the results of this study are not based upon  
305 an experimental design. However, the longitudinal placement of variables and accordance of  
306 findings with our theoretical backdrop may support directional conclusions.

307 The use of self-reports for assessing behavior can be criticized as well, because people may  
308 commit unintentional recall mistakes when estimating their past fruit and vegetable consumption  
309 or cover up poor eating habits. Future studies should validate such reports against objective data.  
310 Further, it would have been desirable to have additional measurement points in time to follow up  
311 on the development of social-cognitive variables as well as behavioral changes for an extended  
312 period of time.

313 Despite these limitations, the findings reveal an interplay of motivational factors with the  
314 receipt of social support when it comes to the understanding of fruit and vegetable intake among  
315 younger Latin American adults. Dietary behaviors may have a strong social dimension, because  
316 eating is usually done in a social context. The findings are also consistent with previous literature  
317 that has identified associations between self-efficacy, self-reported fruit and vegetable intake, and  
318 body mass index, underscoring the importance of self-efficacy for health outcomes (Luszczynska  
319 & Haynes, 2009). Our conclusions constitute a contribution to an understanding of the interplay  
320 between social resources and self-regulation in healthy nutrition that can guide future  
321 intervention studies.

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406 **Table 1.** Descriptive statistics, reliability, and intercorrelations for dietary self-efficacy, received  
 407 dietary social support, dietary intention, fruit and vegetable intake.

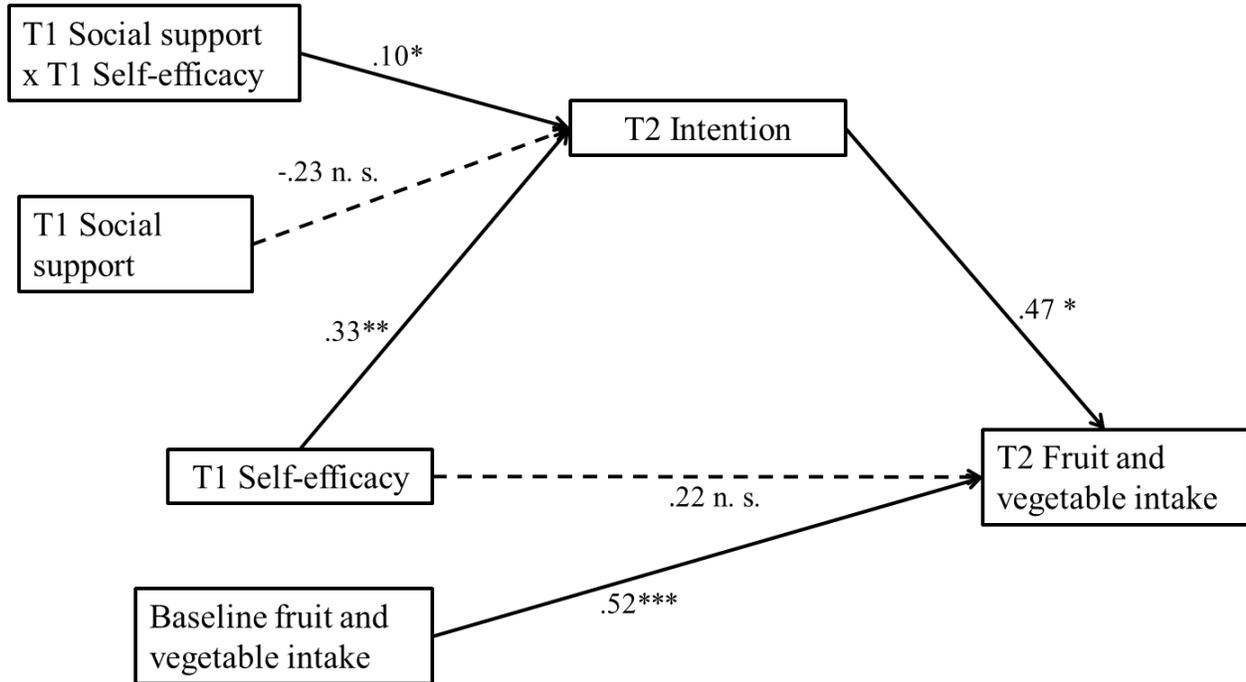
Variables	1	2	3	4	5
Cronbach's $\alpha$	.89	.88	.96	-	-
Mean	3.40	2.56	3.17	5.87	6.16
Standard deviation	0.77	1.04	0.89	4.05	4.31
1 Dietary self-efficacy at T1	1				
2 Received dietary social support at T1	.28***	1			
3 Dietary intention at T2	.50***	.28***	1		
4 Fruit and vegetable intake at T1	.29***	.14**	.24***	1	
5 Fruit and vegetable intake at T2	.23***	.10*	.23***	.53***	1

Note. \*\*\*  $p < .001$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$

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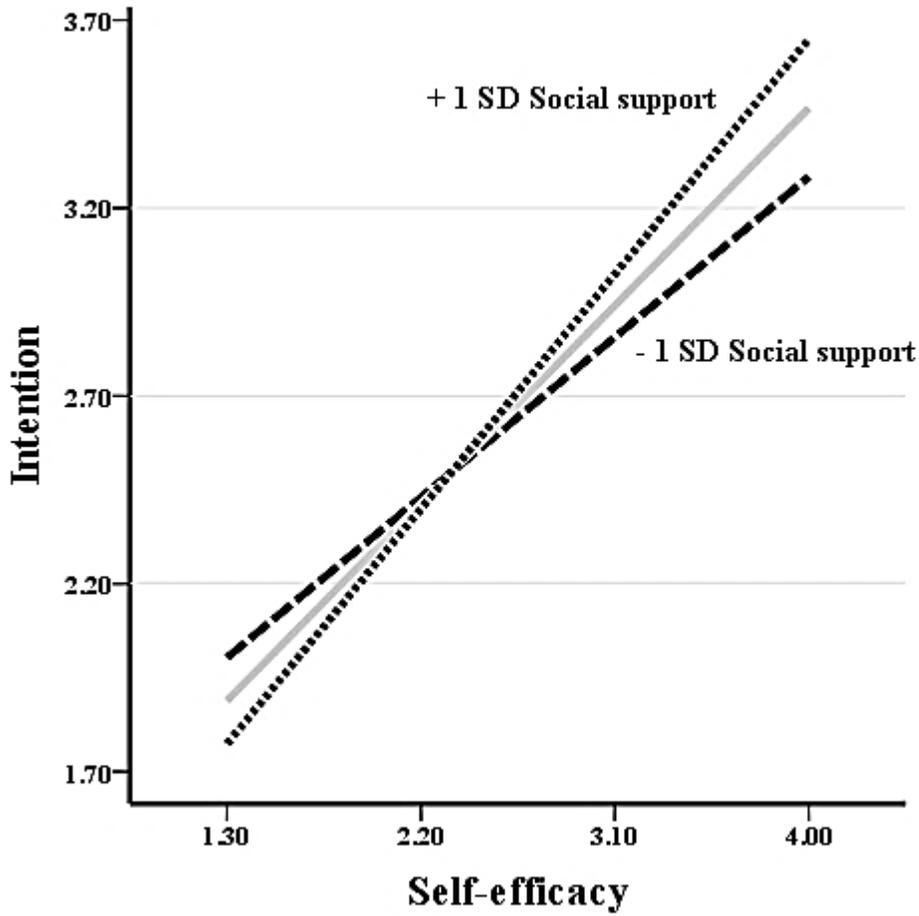


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**Figure 1.** Conditional process model to predict changes in fruit and vegetable intake by intention, self-efficacy, and received dietary social support, controlling for baseline behavior.

Note. \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; \*\* $p < .01$ ; \*  $p < .05$ .; †  $p = .06$ . Parameters are unstandardized ( $N = 450$ ).

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**Figure 2.** Interaction of dietary self-efficacy and received dietary social support on dietary intention. Note: SD = standard deviation