

**Exercise Identity and Physical Activity Behavior During Late Adolescence: A Four Wave
Cross-lagged Panel Model**

Carah D. Porter¹, Matthew Y.W. Kwan², Alan Meca,¹ & Denver M.Y. Brown¹

¹The University of Texas at San Antonio, Department of Psychology, San Antonio, TX, USA

²Brock University, Department of Child and Youth Studies, St. Catherine's, ON, Canada

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Corresponding author: Carah Porter; c-porter.3@onu.edu

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Abstract

1
2 Research has shown that physical activity behavior tends to decline across adolescence before
3 stabilizing in adulthood. Identifying salient factors underlying these behavioral changes is
4 therefore imperative for informing intervention development. This study explored the temporal
5 nature of the relationship between exercise identity and physical activity behavior during the
6 transition out of high school. An analysis of data from the Application of integrated Approaches
7 to understanding Physical activity during the Transition to emerging adulthood (ADAPT)
8 prospective cohort study was conducted, involving 1,451 Canadian adolescents ($M_{\text{age}} = 15.93 \pm$
9 0.53 years; 52.4% female). Participants completed the International Physical Activity
10 Questionnaire-Short Form to report weekly moderate-to-vigorous physical activity and an
11 abbreviated version of the Exercise Identity Scale yearly for four years beginning in Grade 11. A
12 four-wave cross-lagged panel model was used to test bi-directional associations between exercise
13 identity and physical activity behavior. Significant auto-regressive effects for exercise identity
14 and physical activity were observed across all four time points. Significant positive cross-lagged
15 paths were observed for exercise identity predicting future physical activity at all time points;
16 however, none of the cross-lagged paths with physical activity predicting future exercise identity
17 were significant. Collectively, these findings support existing theory that emphasizes the role that
18 identity plays in physical activity behavior. Interventions seeking to attenuate the physical
19 activity declines typically observed during the transition to emerging adulthood should therefore
20 consider adopting behavior change techniques that target identity, as it appears to be an
21 important psychological determinant underlying future physical activity engagement.

Introduction

22 Engaging in physical activity has been associated with many benefits for physical and
23 mental health during adolescence (Biddle et al., 2019; García-Hermoso et al., 2021), and is
24 associated with a higher likelihood of a healthy adulthood (Reiner et al., 2013). Despite the well-
25 established benefits of physical activity, most adolescents – roughly 80% of the global
26 population – do not engage in enough physical activity for optimal health benefits (Guthold et
27 al., 2020). Furthermore, evidence at the population level has shown that physical activity levels
28 tend to peak during early adolescence and decline with age, before stabilizing later in adulthood
29 (Gordon-Larsen et al., 2004; van Sluijs et al., 2021). The persistence of low activity levels
30 following the sharp declines in physical activity during adolescence is a substantial public health
31 issue, as it is likely to persist into adulthood (Reiner et al., 2013). Simply stated, engaging in
32 insufficient amounts of physical activity during adolescence could pose a significant burden on
33 the health care system later in life. Such evidence highlights the importance of understanding
34 factors that can promote the adoption and maintenance of a physically active lifestyle during
35 adolescence for the purpose of informing intervention development.

36 The field of exercise psychology has put forth many theories and models to try to explain
37 physical activity behavior (e.g., Social Cognitive Theory, Theory of Planned Behavior,
38 Transtheoretical Model) with social cognitive theories having received the most attention
39 (Rhodes et al., 2019). A key criticism of social cognitive theories is that they tend to emphasize
40 the importance of intention as the most proximal determinant of behavior, even though intentions
41 alone often fall short of being translated into action (Feil et al., 2023). This phenomenon is
42 known as the intention-behavior gap (Sheeran & Webb, 2016). The intention-behavior gap has
43 sparked the development of action control theories such as Rhodes' (2017) Multi-Process Action

Abbreviations:

1. Multi-Process Action Control (M-PAC)
2. Application of intergrateD Approaches to understanding Physical activity during the Transition to emerging adulthood (ADAPT)

44 Control (M-PAC) framework, which extends beyond reflective processes (e.g., attitudes and
45 perceived behavioral control) known to play a role in intention formation to incorporate post-
46 intentional (regulatory and reflexive) processes that help to explain why individuals often
47 struggle to translate their intentions into action. Specifically, regulatory processes are behaviors
48 or thoughts that individuals engage in to convert their intentions into physical activity, such as
49 goal setting, planning, and monitoring. Reflexive processes such as identity and automaticity
50 (i.e., habit), on the other hand, are automatic and less conscious processes that help bridge the
51 intention-behavior gap through learned associations and are triggered by particular situations
52 (Rhodes, 2017). According to the M-PAC model (Rhodes, 2017), a sustained pattern of physical
53 activity results from a combination of reflective, regulatory, and reflexive processes that
54 facilitate the transition from initial intention to successful ongoing behavior. An analysis of
55 constructs included in Rhodes' M-PAC framework found the strongest correlate of translating
56 physical activity intentions into action was identity ($d = 0.73$), whereas smaller effects were
57 observed for other M-PAC constructs ($d = 0.21$ to 0.66) (Rhodes, 2021). A key shortcoming of
58 the M-PAC framework, however, is that it does not consider the potential for physical activity to
59 reinforce psychological antecedents such as exercise identity when our current understanding of
60 different aspects of identity would support this line of theorizing.

61 Identity refers to a person's sense of self, including their characteristics, beliefs, values,
62 and behaviors (Marcia, 1980), and is often considered a central aspect of an individual's self-
63 concept, the mental representation people have of themselves organized hierarchically (Stets &
64 Burke, 2003). Due to this hierarchical structure, individuals can possess multiple identities
65 concurrently, each carrying distinct values and norms that shape their actions. Deviations from
66 these standards can alter an identity's position in this hierarchical structure (Burke, 2006).

67 Importantly, identity is an ongoing, evolving process throughout a person's lifetime, meaning
68 that identities are not rigid but amenable to change. Role Identity Theory supports the notion that
69 engaging in behavior consistent with one's identity would reinforce that identity (Stryker &
70 Serpe, 1982). Role identities not only give meaning and value to previous behavior but also
71 shape future behavior such that individuals behave consistently with their identity or otherwise
72 may experience distress (Rhodes, 2017; Stets & Burke, 2003). One such identity that people
73 adopt is an exercise identity, defined as "an individual's identification with exercise is an integral
74 part of their concept of self" (Anderson & Cychosz, 1994, p. 749-750). Exercise identity reflects
75 an individual's attitudes and beliefs toward physical activity and is thought to play a crucial role
76 in regulating motivation for regular physical activity (Rhodes et al., 2016; Strachan et al., 2013).
77 Exercise identity has been shown to be associated with frequency, intensity, and duration of
78 physical activity behavior (Rhodes et al., 2016; Strachan et al., 2015). Simply stated, people with
79 a strong exercise identity are more likely to engage in regular physical activity than those who do
80 not see themselves as exercisers (de Bruijn & van den Putte, 2012; Kendzierski & Morganstein,
81 2009). In fact, meta-analytic evidence from 32 studies suggests exercise identity is one of the
82 strongest ($r = 0.44$) predictors of physical activity behavior (Rhodes et al., 2016).

83 Despite the fact that exercise identity has shown promise for its predictive utility with
84 regard to physical activity behavior (Rhodes et al., 2016), existing studies have primarily used
85 cross-sectional designs, thus limiting our understanding of the temporal relationship between
86 these constructs. For example, of the 32 studies included in Rhodes' (2016) meta-analysis, 75%
87 ($n = 24$) were cross-sectional. Furthermore, all of these studies were conducted with adult
88 samples. This is important to note because adolescence is recognized as a crucial period in which
89 one's sense of identity becomes coherent (Kroger, 2006). From this standpoint, the lack of

90 longitudinal studies and sample diversity indicates a critical knowledge gap – we are a long way
91 from understanding the complex and potentially dynamic relationship between physical activity
92 and identity, particularly as it relates to the transition from adolescence to emerging adulthood.

93 Of the longitudinal studies that exist, the findings are mixed with regards to if changes in
94 identity are associated with changes in physical activity behavior. Most of these studies have
95 been randomized controlled trials (RCTs), which offer valuable insight into whether identity
96 plays a role in driving changes in behavior (Cardinal, 1997; Cardinal & Cardinal, 1997; Jenum et
97 al., 2009; Tsorbatzoudis, 2005). However, RCTs typically have limited follow-up periods,
98 making it difficult to fully grasp how physical activity and identity evolve together over time.
99 Prospective cohort study designs offer an opportunity to gain a better understanding of the
100 interplay between physical activity and identity given these studies follow individuals over an
101 extended period, with multiple observations. Unfortunately, existing prospective studies have
102 generally focused on predicting future physical activity behavior based on exercise identity
103 measured at baseline, with evidence yielding mixed results (Paziraei, 2021; Strachan et al.,
104 2015). To the best of our knowledge, no prospective cohort studies have examined the
105 relationship between physical activity and exercise identity during adolescence, let alone
106 explored bi-directional associations between these constructs over multiple waves. Therefore,
107 further research is clearly warranted.

108 The aim of the present study was to investigate the relationship between exercise identity
109 and physical activity over time among a group of Canadian adolescents transitioning out of high
110 school. It was hypothesized that exercise identity and physical activity would positively predict
111 future exercise identity and physical activity behavior, respectively. Furthermore, building on the
112 Role Identity Theory, which suggests that identification with a specific role or behavior, such as

113 an exerciser, should predict future engagement in that behavior, and this engagement should in
114 turn bolster one's identity; we hypothesized that a mutually reinforcing relationship would be
115 observed. Thus, we anticipated that identity would positively predict future physical activity
116 behavior and physical activity behavior would positively predict future exercise identity.

117 **Method**

118 **Data Source and Study Design**

119 The present study utilized data from the Application of intergrateD Approaches to
120 understanding Physical activity during the Transition to emerging adulthood (ADAPT) study.
121 ADAPT was a prospective open cohort study that was developed to examine physical activity
122 determinants among a group of Grade 11 students for four years during their transition from
123 adolescence to emerging adulthood. As a school-based study, ADAPT recruited students from
124 the seven secondary schools within one school board in Southern Ontario, Canada. More
125 information regarding the study design, methods, and development is outlined by Kwan and
126 colleagues (2020). All study protocols received approval from both the Hamilton Integrated
127 Research Ethics Board and the Hamilton-Wentworth Catholic District School Board.

128 **Participants**

129 At Time 1 (Fall 2019), the survey was administered to 2,412 students across the seven
130 schools, with 1,585 responding (66% response rate). Of the 1,585 who responded, 347 were
131 excluded for completing less than 5% of the survey or due to no parental consent. The final
132 sample size at Time 1 included a total of 1,238 Canadian adolescents. A total of 213 participants
133 joined the study after Time 1. Thus, the final analytic sample included 1,451 adolescents. Out of
134 the initial 1,238, a total of 588 participants completed Time 2, 387 at Time 3, and 333 at Time 4.
135 Participants self-reported their age, grade, gender, ethnicity, and highest level of parental

136 education at Time 1. The sample mean age was 15.93 years ($SD = 0.53$) with no significant
137 difference between genders (45.5% male and 52.4% female; 2.1% missing/prefer not to answer).
138 Among the sample, 50.9% identified as White, 11.5% as Asian, and 9.3% as Black. Roughly
139 two-thirds (68.6%) of participants' parents or caregivers completed post-secondary education,
140 with 17.8% having completed high school and 12.5% having completed less than high school.
141 Missing data ranged from 0.2% for gender to 1.1% for parental education.

142 **Measures**

143 *Physical Activity*

144 Physical activity behavior was assessed using the International Physical Activity
145 Questionnaire-Short Form (IPAQ-SF; Booth, 2000; Craig et al., 2003). The IPAQ-SF captures
146 one's frequency (days) and duration (hours and/or minutes on an average day) of physical
147 activity over the previous seven days. Specifically, the IPAQ-SF asks participants if they
148 engaged in vigorous physical activity, moderate physical activity, and walking (at least 10
149 minutes at a time). If they indicate yes to any of these categories of physical activity, then they
150 answer a follow-up question where they report the duration of that activity. In accordance with
151 the public health recommendations for physical activity, which are specific to moderate and
152 vigorous physical activity, but not walking, the present study focused on only moderate-to-
153 vigorous physical activity (MVPA). MVPA was computed by multiplying the reported frequency
154 of days of vigorous and moderate physical activities by their corresponding durations. The
155 resulting products were then summed, and the total was divided by 60 to determine each
156 participant's weekly MVPA in hours. According to the scoring protocol for the IPAQ-SF,
157 participants' MVPA was capped at a maximum of 180 minutes each day.

158 *Exercise Identity*

159 Exercise identity was assessed using an abbreviated version of the Exercise Identity Scale
160 (EIS) that was modified to be specific to physical activity (Anderson & Cychoz, 1994). The
161 original EIS contains nine items that capture individuals' identification with exercise (or physical
162 activity in this case) as it relates to the concept of self. However, only five of the nine items were
163 used in the ADAPT study. Furthermore, while the EIS was originally written to be specific to
164 exercise, it has been adapted in recent years to be specific to the broader domain of physical
165 activity, as supported by recent work by Brown and Meca (2022), which shows that exercise
166 identity and physical activity identity may represent a single or at the very least a highly inter-
167 related identity domain among youth populations. The following five modified items were
168 included in the present study: "*I consider myself as someone who is physically active*", "*When I*
169 *describe myself to others, I usually include my involvement in physical activity*", "*Others see me*
170 *as someone who does physical activity regularly*", "*I would feel a real loss if I were forced to*
171 *give up physical activity*", and "*Engaging in physical activity is something I think about often*".
172 Participants responded to each item on a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly*
173 *disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Participants' responses to the five items were averaged to
174 provide a value representing their exercise identity.

175 **Covariates**

176 Self-reported gender (male/female/other), race/ethnicity (White/BIPOC), and highest
177 level of parental education (More than high school/High school or less) were included in our
178 models as covariates. Each of these variables has been found to be correlated with physical
179 activity during adolescence (Sterdt et al., 2014).

180 **Data Analysis**

181 All analyses were performed using Mplus Version 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). First,
182 descriptive statistics and frequencies were computed for each variable in the study, and
183 distributions were examined. Coefficient alphas and correlations of all key variables were also
184 computed to examine the measures' reliability across the four time points. It is important to note
185 that the ADAPT dataset was collected from students enrolled in schools and there was a
186 possibility of nesting effects. However, multilevel models with fewer than 20 clusters bias
187 standard errors (Lai & Kwok, 2015). Given there were an insufficient number of clusters ($n = 7$),
188 no nesting was required.

189 Before computing our CLPM, we first established longitudinal invariance for the EIS.
190 This was necessary because longitudinal analyses hinge upon the assumption that the same
191 underlying construct is consistently measured over time (Little, 2013). Additionally, it is
192 imperative to ascertain that any observed changes in a latent construct across time genuinely
193 reflect true changes, rather than the construct measuring something different at each time point
194 (Little, 2013). To address these concerns, we evaluated configural invariance, metric invariance,
195 and scalar invariance. We began with the least restrictive model for the EIS, the configural
196 model. Building on this model, we examined metric invariance model by constraining factor
197 loadings to equality across time, and then scalar invariance by constraining intercepts and factor
198 loadings to equality across time. To assess the goodness of fit for each of these models, we relied
199 on the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) with a criterion of $\Delta CFI < .010$ and the Root Mean Square
200 Error of Approximation (RMSEA) with a threshold of $\Delta RMSEA < .010$ (Little, 2013).

201 Next, a cross-lagged panel model (CLPM) was computed to examine the bi-directional
202 relationship between exercise identity and physical activity over four time points, with
203 adjustment for gender, race/ethnicity and parental education. The CLPM can be used to examine

204 the direction and strength of relationships between two or more variables over two or more time
205 points at the between-participant level (Kenny, 1975), which assumes there is a general pattern
206 of change over time that is similar for everyone in the cohort. This model can demonstrate
207 whether mean values in one variable (i.e., exercise identity) are associated with mean values in
208 another variable (i.e., MVPA) at a subsequent time point (hypothesis two), and vice versa. The
209 model's autoregressive paths indicate stability in the specified variables (i.e., exercise identity,
210 MVPA) over time (hypothesis one). CLPMs assume that the relationship between variables of
211 interest are linear, and in this case, previous cross-sectional research on exercise identity and
212 physical activity supports a linear relationship (Rhodes et al., 2016). The CLPM also assumes
213 measurement synchronicity in that all assessments at each time point occur at the same time
214 (Kenny & Harackiewicz, 1979), as was the case in the present study. Another assumption relates
215 to the time between measurement intervals, which was consistently one year in the ADAPT
216 study, and therefore no model adjustments were needed (Baribeau et al., 2022).

217 The Chi-square test was used to evaluate the overall goodness-of-fit of the CLPM. A
218 nonsignificant p-value indicates an acceptable fit to the data; however, significant p-values are
219 common due to sensitivity associated with larger sample sizes (Zheng & Valente, 2022). Due to
220 the sensitivity of the Chi-square test, Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR),
221 Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI), CFI and RMSEA were also evaluated to examine the model fit. CFI
222 and TLI values $>.95$ indicate excellent model fit, and $.90-.95$ is considered acceptable, whereas
223 RMSEA and SRMR values below $.05$ and $.08$, respectively, are considered to indicate acceptable
224 model fit (Kline, 2016). Modification indices were examined and adopted to improve the model
225 fit if theoretically relevant.

226

Results

227 Data inspection

228 The extent of missing data for exercise identity and MVPA differed across variables and
229 time points. Time 1 had the lowest amount of missingness, with only 15% missing for either
230 variable. However, as time progressed through the study, the amount of missing data increased,
231 with 58.6% missingness for exercise identity in Time 4. Predictors of missingness were
232 examined, and data were determined to be MAR. Therefore, missing data was handled using full
233 information maximum likelihood (FIML), which is a widely accepted missing data technique
234 that is considered a best practice for handling missing data (Enders, 2022).

235 Pearson correlations between exercise identity and MVPA are presented in Supplemental
236 Materials Table 1. The EIS demonstrated excellent internal consistency across all four time
237 points (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.90-0.92$). Closer inspection of the distributions of exercise identity and
238 MVPA revealed acceptable skewness, whereas kurtosis values were slightly outside of the
239 acceptable range for MVPA at one time point and exercise identity at all time points
240 (Supplemental Materials Table 2). Additionally, the histograms of MVPA (Supplemental
241 Materials Figure 1) demonstrated a non-normal distribution, so maximum likelihood estimation
242 with robust standard errors and a mean- and variance-adjusted chi-square test statistic (MLR)
243 was used to estimate the parameters in our CLPM. MLR is a robust estimation method that is
244 recommended when data are not normally distributed or when there are outliers present. MLR
245 adjusts the standard errors of the parameter estimates to account for non-normality and/or non-
246 independence of the data, and it uses a robust chi-square test statistic to assess model fit
247 (Rosseel, 2010).

248 Measurement invariance

249 The configural invariance model for the EIS demonstrated good fit, $\chi^2(134) = 465.283$, p
250 $< .001$; CFI = .969; RMSEA = .041 (Table 1). The assumption of metric variance was satisfied,
251 $\Delta\chi^2(15) = 20.370$, $p < .001$; Δ CFI = -.002; Δ RMSEA = .001. Lastly, the assumption of scalar
252 invariance was supported, $\Delta\chi^2(15) = 81.300$, $p < .001$; Δ CFI = -.006; Δ RMSEA = -.002.

253 Main analysis

254 The CLPM model that was adjusted for covariates demonstrated excellent fit to the data,
255 as indicated by the chi-square test of model fit $\chi^2(8) = 18.12$, $p = .02$, the SRMR = .019,
256 RMSEA = .030, TLI = .958 and the CFI = .993. For hypothesis one, the CLPM indicated that
257 exercise identity ($\beta = .14$ to $.69$, $SE = .03$ to $.06$, all p 's $< .01$) and MVPA ($\beta = .21$ to $.30$, $SE =$
258 $.05$, all p 's $< .001$) had significant autoregressive effects across all time points, indicating that
259 those who had higher exercise identities or high levels of MVPA at one time point were likely to
260 maintain their exercise identity or MVPA at subsequent time points. For hypothesis two, exercise
261 identity was found to positively predicted MVPA at each subsequent time point (β s = $.12$ to $.18$,
262 $SE = .04$, p 's $< .01$). However, contrary to expectations, none of the cross-lagged paths with
263 MVPA predicting future exercise identity were not found to be significant: Time 1 to Time 2 (β
264 = $-.02$, $SE = .04$, $p = .698$), Time 2 to Time 3 ($\beta = .04$, $SE = .04$, $p = .409$), and Time 3 to Time 4
265 ($\beta = .01$, $SE = .03$, $p = .701$). The CLPM is presented visually in Figure 1.

266 Discussion

267 The purpose of the current study was to investigate the temporal relationship between
268 exercise identity and physical activity over four time points among a sample of Canadian
269 adolescents during their transition out of high school. Significant autoregressive correlations
270 were observed at all time points; however, a mutually reinforcing relationship was not evident in
271 the cross-lagged paths. Instead, evidence only demonstrated a significant positive association

272 between exercise identity and future physical activity behavior, whereas physical activity was
273 not found to be associated with future exercise identity. These findings address the dearth of
274 knowledge surrounding our understanding of the interplay between exercise identity and
275 physical activity over time. Overall, these results have implications for current theorizing in
276 exercise psychology as physical activity engagement does not appear to predict stronger exercise
277 identity one year later, which lends support for directional pathways outlined within the M-PAC
278 framework in that reflexive processes such as identity may not be bolstered further by simply
279 engaging in physical activity behavior (Rhodes, 2017).

280 The present study addressed a critical knowledge gap regarding the temporal nature of
281 the relationship between exercise identity and physical activity. Contrary to expectations of a
282 mutually reinforcing relationship, exercise identity was found to positively predict future
283 physical activity across all three cross-lagged paths, whereas null effects were observed for each
284 of the paths from physical activity to future exercise identity. These results contradict the
285 principles of Role Identity Theory (Stryker & Serpe, 1982), which would support a reciprocal
286 relationship between identity and behavior. The theory posits that one's self-perception and
287 identification with a specific role or behavior, such as being an exerciser, should predict future
288 engagement in that behavior, and engagement in that behavior would reinforce one's identity.
289 Findings from these data suggest this does not appear to be the case for physical activity
290 behavior though. A possible explanation for the lack of observation of this effect could be
291 attributed to the substantial gap between assessments, with annual assessments being insufficient
292 to capture this relationship. In other health behavior and identity research that has supported
293 mutually reinforcing effects such as alcohol consumption and identity, the interval between
294 assessments has been around three months (Lindgren et al., 2018; Shono et al., 2022). Specific to

295 physical activity, Paziraei (2021) revealed that exercise identity among non-exercisers changed
296 between six and nine weeks, which would suggest that adopting a shorter temporal frame
297 between assessments might be more suitable for investigating a reinforcing relationship. Another
298 potential factor contributing to the absence of observed effects could be that a large portion of
299 the sample may have already endorsed a relatively robust exercise identity. Previous work
300 supports this notion in that qualitative data has suggested identity development over time in
301 response to a physical activity intervention despite quantitative data failing to capture deviations,
302 which may ultimately be attributable to a ceiling effect for baseline identity scores (Oliver et al.,
303 2016). Therefore, with many adolescents reporting a strong sense of exercise identity, it is
304 possible that the reinforcing relationship with physical activity behavior was masked by ceiling
305 effects.

306 Despite the lack of alignment with predictions rooted in Role Identity Theory, the present
307 findings demonstrating identity plays a crucial role in future physical activity – but not vice versa
308 – are supported by the M-PAC framework. Specifically, the M-PAC framework suggests that
309 physical activity is sustained foremost by reflexive processes, such as identity and habit, and
310 does not currently outline a reinforcing effect of physical activity on identity or habit (Rhodes,
311 2017). Simply stated, physical activity behavior sits at the pinnacle of the M-PAC framework,
312 and evidence to date has yet to support mutually reinforcing relationships between physical
313 activity behavior and the constructs that facilitate behavioral adoption and maintenance.
314 Nevertheless, Rhodes and colleagues (2021) have acknowledged the possibility that repeated
315 behavior may lead to the development of physical activity habits and identity (i.e., reflexive
316 processes). Reflexive processes are ultimately posited to be essential for sustaining physical
317 activity behavior, with identity impacting action control by enhancing motivation for a particular

318 behavior. This motivation stems from the dissonance that arises when there is an increasing
319 mismatch between one's recognized sense of self and their actual behavior (Burke & Stets,
320 2009). Moving forward, further longitudinal investigation of the M-PAC framework is needed,
321 particularly as it relates to whether physical activity behavior may have a reinforcing effect on
322 psychological antecedents.

323 Findings from the present study also demonstrated significant autoregressive effects for
324 both physical activity behavior and identity across all time points, which provides insight into the
325 degree of stability among these constructs during adolescent development. From a theoretical
326 standpoint, these findings align with Identity Theory in that if a behavior is thought of as an
327 expression of the self, then individuals are more likely to maintain that behavior over time
328 (Burke & Stets, 2009). One important finding which should be noted pertains to the fact that the
329 autoregression correlations for identity were much stronger than those for physical activity. This
330 disparity in construct stability may not be surprising for several reasons. First, identity is
331 understood to be a rather stable construct (Burke & Stets, 2009), and the items on the EIS tap
332 into the salience of identifying with physical activity as an integral portion of their self-concept.
333 Physical activity, on the other hand, was measured using an instrument that asks individuals to
334 report their behavior over the past seven days, which could render measurement susceptible to
335 deviations from typical behavioral patterns due to extraneous events such as poor weather or
336 prior commitments. It is, however, worthwhile to recognize the impact of the COVID-19
337 pandemic – which occurred between the first and second wave of the ADAPT study (Kovacevic
338 et al., 2022) – and has been associated with significant reductions in physical activity behavior
339 (Neville et al., 2022; Wunsch et al., 2022). Additionally, the reduction in construct stability from
340 Time 2 to Time 3 may also reflect the transition out of high school, in which changes in life

341 circumstances (e.g., moving away to attend university, beginning full-time employment) among
342 many participants may have changed not only their physical activity behavior, but also their self-
343 views related to being an active individual. Taken together, it was in many ways expected that
344 physical activity behaviors would vary more than physical activity cognitions across the study
345 period.

346 Collectively, the present findings have implications for public health, specifically as it
347 relates to health promotion strategies that aim to facilitate the adoption and maintenance of
348 physical activity behavior. Interventionists focused on changing physical activity behavior
349 should strongly consider targeting identity related to physical activity as the present results
350 suggest it may be a key intermediary mechanism for facilitating physical activity engagement.
351 Behavior change techniques that have been mapped to exercise identity, such as self-re-
352 evaluation, self-affirmation, and anticipated regrets deserve attention in the intervention
353 development process (Kok et al., 2016). Including these techniques could be highly valuable in
354 the development and maintenance of exercise identity. Considering evidence in the present study
355 indicates exercise identity is relatively stable over time and positively predicts future physical
356 activity behavior, developing a strong exercise identity represents an excellent opportunity to
357 establish long-held behavioral maintenance after the adoption phase. Attempting to prevent
358 exercise identity from dissolving during adolescence may be one way in which we can attenuate
359 the declines in physical activity typically observed during this life stage, including during the
360 transition out of high school, which is known to be a turbulent time associated with many life
361 changes that could uproot positive health habits such as physical activity engagement.

362 While this study has many strengths, there are also several limitations that should be
363 considered when interpreting these findings. First, it should be noted that self-reported physical

364 activity is prone to bias and recall errors (Sallis & Saelens, 2000). However, the IPAQ-SF has
365 demonstrated good psychometric properties when used with adolescents (Guedes et al., 2005;
366 Hidding et al., 2018) and has been shown to correlate with device-measured behavior (Rääsk et
367 al., 2017; Welk et al., 2023). Nevertheless, moving forward researchers are encouraged to use
368 device-based measures of physical activity, such as accelerometers or commercial wearables, to
369 overcome the limitations of self-reported physical activity. Second, the utilization of only five
370 out of the nine EIS items in this study is worth acknowledging, as it may have implications for
371 the scale's psychometric properties. Cronbach alphas for the EIS at each time point did, however,
372 demonstrate excellent internal consistency for this instrument. Third, the COVID-19 pandemic
373 occurred after the first wave of data collection and may partially explain the high levels of
374 attrition across the four waves of this study. Best practices for handling missing data (i.e., FIML)
375 were implemented to address this limitation. Fourth, it should be acknowledged that the ADAPT
376 study sample was not nationally representative, thus limiting the generalizability of the findings.
377 Finally, it is important to note that CLPMs provide inferences at the between-person level as
378 opposed to the within-person level. Despite this limitation, we chose to use a CLPM as it was the
379 best analysis to explore exercise identity and physical activity behavior at a population level.

380 Overall, findings from the present study demonstrate that exercise identity and physical
381 activity behavior are relatively stable constructs among adolescents during the transition out of
382 high school, however, mutually reinforcing relationships were not observed over time. Exercise
383 identity appears to be a promising predictor of future physical activity behavior, but physical
384 activity does not appear to predict future exercise identity. Such evidence supports targeting
385 exercise identity as a mechanism of action in interventions aiming to promote the adoption and
386 maintenance of physical activity behavior. Future research using different measurement intervals

387 and device-measured physical activity behavior is warranted for determining whether the present
388 pattern of results replicates.

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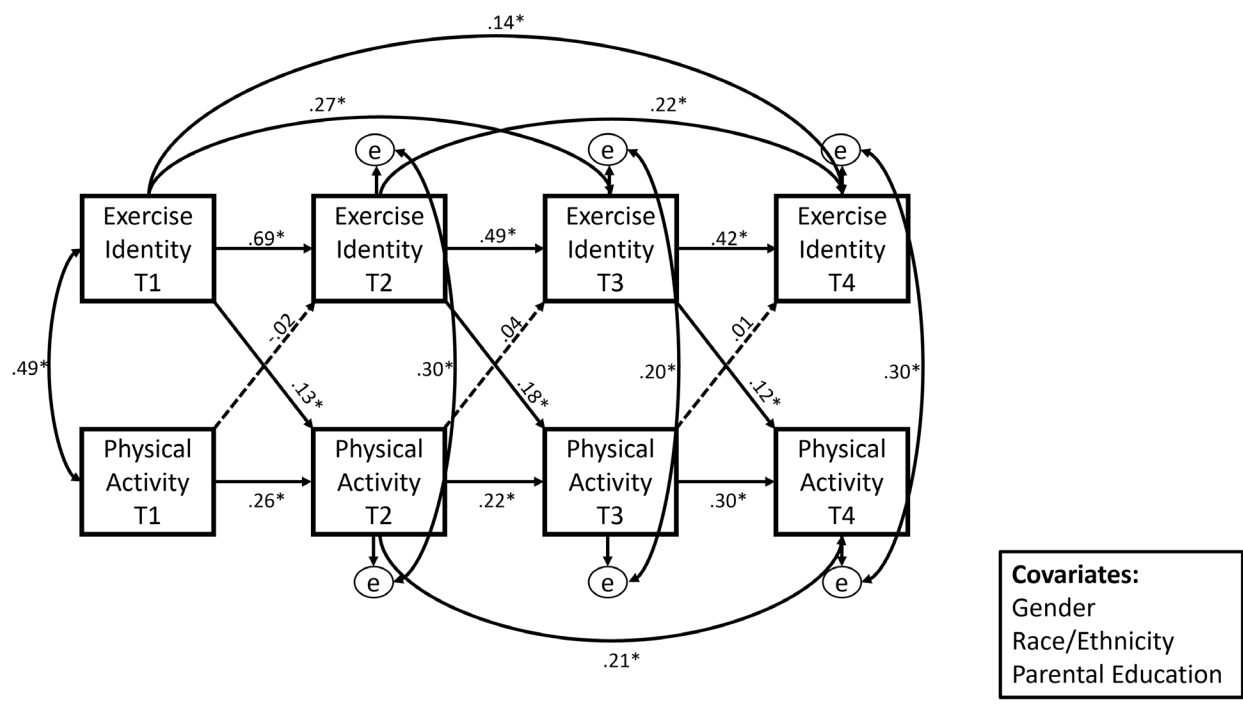
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555 **Table 1**556 *Model Fit and Comparison for Longitudinal Invariance of Exercise Identity Scale*

Model	$\chi^2(df)$	$\Delta\chi^2(df)$	CFI	Δ CFI	RMSEA	Δ RMSEA
Configural	465.283 (134)		.969		.041	
Metric	496.047 (149)	20.370 (15)	.967	-.002	0.040	.001
Scalar	573.962 (164)	81.300 (15)	.961	-.006	.042	-.002

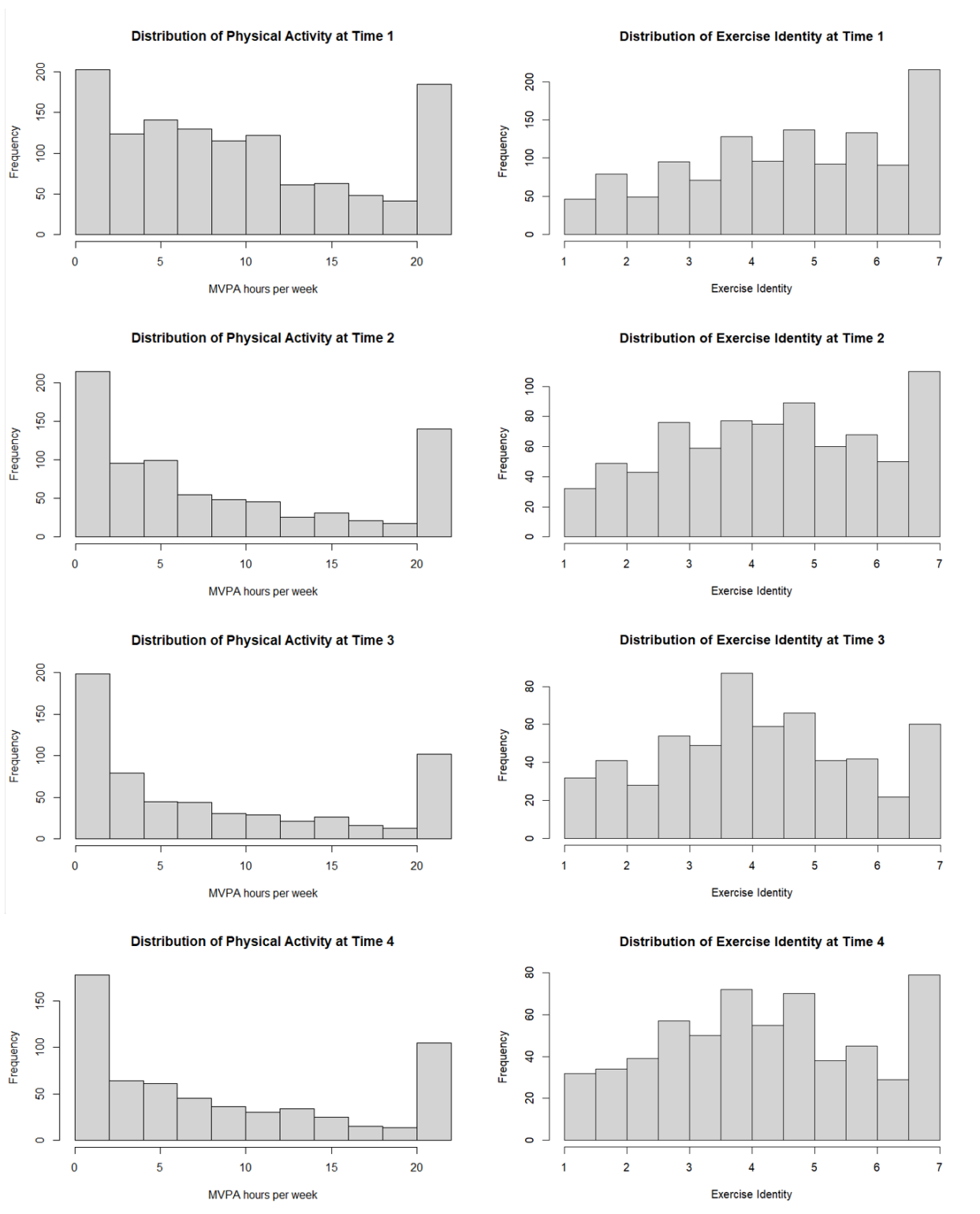
557 *Note.* CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation

558



559

560 **Figure 1** Cross-lagged Panel Model examining the relationships between exercise identity and
561 physical activity behavior yearly over four years. Note. * indicates $p < .05$; dashed lines denote
562 non-significant paths; T = Time. Beta-coefficients represent standardized values.



563

564 **Supplementary Materials Figure 1.** *Distributions of Physical Activity and Exercise Identity*

565

566 **Supplementary Materials Table 1**567 *Correlations*

Variable	Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. EI 1	4.62 (1.68)							
2. EI 2	4.39 (1.68)	.69*						
3. EI 3	4.13 (1.61)	.64*	.72*					
4. EI 4	4.25 (1.67)	.62*	.65*	.69*				
5. PA 1	9.65 (6.90)	.49*	.33*	.31*	.34*			
6. PA 2	8.52 (7.56)	.29*	.40*	.36*	.33*	.34*		
7. PA 3	8.07 (7.75)	.25*	.26*	.36*	.28*	.25*	.29*	
8. PA 4	8.63 (1.79)	.27*	.31*	.30*	.43*	.31*	.37*	.43*

568 *Note.* Physical activity (weekly moderate-vigorous physical activity hours); EI: Exercise identity569 * indicates $p < .05$.

570 **Supplementary Materials Table 2**571 *Descriptive statistics for exercise identity and physical activity behavior.*

	PA 1	PA 2	PA 3	PA 4	EI 1	EI 2	EI 3	EI 4
Mean	9.65	8.52	8.07	8.63	4.62	4.39	4.13	4.25
Standard Deviation	6.90	7.56	7.75	7.61	1.68	1.68	1.61	1.67
Kurtosis	1.912	2.077	1.852	1.798	2.034	2.017	2.241	2.078
Skewness	0.358	0.623	0.602	0.507	-0.296	-0.114	0.026	-0.014
Minimum	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	1
Maximum	21	21	21	21	7	7	7	7
Sample Size	1,233	794	604	604	1,233	788	581	600

572 *Note.* PA: Physical activity (weekly moderate-vigorous physical activity hours); EI: Exercise

573 identity

574