2 The benefits of exercise are well documented, nevertheless, physical activity (PA) 3 decreases progressively with age, a trend exacerbated in those who have fallen. An important 4 predictor of exercise behaviour is the extent to which motivation for exercise has been 5 internalized into one's identity, however, we know little about changing health behaviours in 6 older people, with calls for longitudinal studies to aid understanding (e.g., Strachan et al., 2010). Grounded in self-determination theory (SDT: Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000), the present 7 8 study explored the role of self-talk in the process of identity change during the initial ten 9 weeks of an exercise referral falls prevention programme. Six participants identified at risk of 10 falling completed weekly measures of their PA-related cognition and identity; in-depth 11 interviews were completed at course commencement and ten weeks later. During this initial 12 phase of the behaviour change programme, participants developed stronger physical activity 13 identities, with themes reflecting a transition from a physically-impaired and negative self to 14 a more future-orientated, capable, and integrated self-identity. Concurrently, autonomy 15 supportive and competence-reinforcing self-talk significantly increased, with nonsignificant 16 increases and decreases in controlling and amotivational self-talk, respectively. The data suggest that self-talk may be usefully conceptualised as a process through which social 17 18 messages are interpreted and internalised to integrate a new behaviour into one's existing 19 self-concept.

20

21 KEYWORDS: physical activity, motivation, self-talk, identity.

22

### 24 Introduction

25 The benefits of physical activity and exercise are well-documented, for instance, 26 improved quality of life, muscle strength and joint flexibility, and decreased likelihood of 27 depression and cardiovascular disease (e.g., Aoyagi, Park, Park, & Shephard 2010; Barreto, 2009; Barbour, Edenfield, & Blumenthal, 2007). These benefits have been demonstrated in 28 29 both clinical and non-clinical populations across the lifespan. Nevertheless, physical activity 30 levels decrease progressively with age, with many older adults perceiving age and/or poor health as barriers that prevent them from being physically active (Whaley & Ebbeck, 2002; 31 32 Wurm, Tomasik, & Tesch-Römer, 2010).

33 Improving physical activity participation in older people is increasingly pertinent in 34 the context of a rapidly ageing global population, with the number of individuals over 60 35 years of age projected to surpass 1 billion within 10 years (United Nations Population Fund [UNPF], 2012). The UNPF has argued that good health must lie at the core of society's 36 37 response to population ageing, and governmental policies should promote healthy lifestyles. 38 The challenge of optimising physical activity in an increasingly elderly and sedentary 39 population is exacerbated as traditional models of service delivery may not adequately meet 40 the needs of older people (e.g., due to poor access or transport; Victor, 2014). Thus exploring 41 how older people experience and respond to physical activity programmes informs both public health promotion and service design, potentially reducing health inequalities evident in 42 43 this group.

A consequence of ageing for many is the experience of a fall, with one out of three
adults over 65 years of age falling each year (Masud & Morris, 2001). The problem of
physical inactivity is exacerbated in older people who have fallen, as falling often has a
number of psychological consequences (fear of falling, loss of confidence, and activity
avoidance) that present further barriers to being physically active (see Jørstad, Hauer, Becker,

& Lamb, 2005). However, at-risk elderly people, including falls patients, can benefit from
physical activity and exercise interventions, achieving improvements in functional status,
physiological and psychological health (e.g., perceived health status; Barreto, 2009) and
reducing decrements arising from secondary ageing (environmental and lifestyle factors;
Hunter, McCarthy & Bamman, 2004).

54 Experiencing a fall clearly has implications for the individual's social, physical, and 55 psychological well-being and places demands on healthcare resources (National Service Framework for Older People, DoH, 2001). Therefore it is important to ensure that older 56 57 individuals, including those who have fallen, initiate and adhere to physical activity 58 programmes, and maintain physical activity on programme completion. For at risk elderly people, developing a physically active identity and transforming the traditional view of the 59 60 ageing body from rest, incompetence, and increasing immobility, to malleable bodies, prone 61 to improved physiological and biomechanical functioning (Tulle, 2008), is especially 62 important.

## 63 Physical Activity Identity

64 It has been argued that examining the development and maintenance of an exercise 65 identity in older adults is critical to understanding their physical activity behaviour (Whaley & Ebbeck, 2002). Older adults who more strongly associate with a physical activity identity 66 (identified via a higher rating on physical activity identity scales) report higher levels of 67 68 physical activity, well-being, more physical activity-related goals, and higher levels of self-69 regulatory self-efficacy (i.e., confidence that they could remain physically active even when 70 faced with barriers such as bad weather; Strachan et al., 2010). There are, however, some 71 nuances in terms of how older populations might view exercise and physical activity. The 72 few studies that have focused on older people have identified that they may see developing an 73 exercise identity as less important than avoiding an identity as someone who is old, and, that

74 they associate themselves more with a physical activity identity than with the identity of a 75 traditional 'exerciser' (Strachan, Brawley, Spink, & Glazebrook, 2010; Whaley & Ebbeck, 76 2002). This creates sociodemographic and intrapersonal barriers when attempting to engage 77 older adults in leisure-based schemes (Victor, 2014), which is the standard practice for 78 exercise referral programmes. Whilst it is the norm for older adults not to see a physically 79 active self as central to their identity, this is not the case for all older adults. A number of 80 recent studies have presented evidence of alternative identities in older adults that place physical activity at the core of their identity. These include older adults for whom a 81 82 physically active lifestyle and participation in sport are integral to their well-being (e.g., 83 competitive Masters Bodybuilders; Phoenix, 2010; Phoenix & Smith, 2011; Phoenix & 84 Sparkes, 2009). Thus, it seems that no single physical activity identity encapsulates this 85 aspect of self in older adults; importantly for intervention planning this also suggests that physical activity-related identity is not fixed but somewhat shaped by an individual's values 86 87 and experiences. In the present study we focus on physical activity identity in its broadest 88 sense, and not restricted to structured exercise, sports or competitive activities.

89 Identifying ways to promote and support the internalisation of an active identity is 90 particularly relevant for an ageing population given that, as previously discussed, these 91 individuals are likely to have low physical activity levels and may have dissociated from physical activity. However, as O'Brien Cousins (2003) has highlighted, we know little about 92 93 the ways in which older people think about their health behaviours, and prospective studies 94 that explore change in motivation and physical activity over time will add considerably to our 95 understanding (Strachan et al., 2010). Hence, the primary aim of the present study was to 96 examine changes in older adults' physical activity-related identities during the early phases of 97 an exercise referral programme. We aimed to identify the ways in which a novel behaviour 98 promoted by an intervention (in this case, a physical activity programme for fallers or those at risk of falling) was internalised into participants' identities. A key aim of the study was to
explore the cognitions of the participants during this transitional period, and to identify
whether they might underpin any identity changes observed.

102 Cognition and Identity Change.

103 Cognition relating to goal-directed behaviour can be conceptualised as self-talk, that 104 is, the internal dialogue we have with ourselves. Self-talk has previously been shown to 105 mediate the relationship between social messages and changes in one's self-concept (Burnett, 2003), suggesting that cognitions may help drive changes in the way we see ourselves. 106 107 Indeed, work by Lawrence and Valsiner (2003) models self-talk as a way in which new ideas 108 are interpreted, assessed and debated internally, before becoming fully integrated into the 109 self. Given that the process of internalising new behaviours, such as physical activity, 110 requires people to understand and synthesise both the values of and the behaviour itself (Deci 111 & Ryan, 2000), we posit that self-talk might act as a mechanism through which identity 112 change occurs through enabling this understanding to develop. Studying cognitions related to 113 exercise during a period of behaviour change would seem useful for understanding how 114 motivation for physical activity is internalised. This is consistent with claims that studying 115 the inner dialogue of newly active individuals may help to understand why people fail or 116 succeed in their attempts to be physically active (O'Brien Cousins & Gillis, 2005). Recent work (e.g., Oliver et al., 2010) has suggested employing a framework 117 118 provided by cognitive evaluation theory (CET: Deci & Ryan, 1985) to explain how 119 intrapersonal events such as self-talk might facilitate internalisation and behaviour change. 120 Housed within self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; 2000), CET argues that if 121 events support innate basic needs for autonomy and competence, this enables individuals to 122 actively transform the values of significant others into their own (Deci & Ryan, 2000). That 123 is, if events create a sense of freedom, volition, and self-endorsed action (autonomy) and

124 provide feedback engendering effectiveness and mastery over ones surroundings

(competence), these conditions will support internalisation. In the context of new identities,
need supporting conditions will facilitate an integrated and endorsed identity, need thwarting
conditions will not.

Importantly, CET makes no distinction between external social contextual events, 128 129 such as the provision of feedback or rewards by others, and intrapersonal events such as self-130 monitoring, self-reinforcement, and self-control (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Instead, CET proposes 131 a distinction between internally informational regulating episodes processed by the individual 132 and experienced as free from pressures, and internally controlling regulation in which the 133 individual pressurises themselves to act (Ryan, 1982). Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that to 134 regulate oneself informationally is quite different from regulating oneself controllingly, and 135 that controlling self-regulation is likely to have negative consequences for motivation and 136 well-being.

137 Drawing on this theoretical framework, the present study adopts the position that 138 self-talk represents an internal regulatory event that can be experienced as informational 139 (need supportive) or controlling (need thwarting), with subsequent differential consequences for behavioural and affective outcomes. Importantly, the emphasis in CET is on the 140 141 functional significance of events, that it, how one experiences or interprets specific events rather than their nature per se. In the context of self-talk, it is proposed that how one 142 interprets or experiences self-talk is considered to be independent of its content. For example, 143 the phrase "concentrate" may be experienced as pressurising and commanding, or as 144 supportive and encouraging. This is aligned with contemporary literature which emphasises 145 146 the need to consider the significance and meaning of inner speech to the individual. For example, Wiley (2006) argues that our self-speech is intra-subjective, as a result of obtaining 147

its meaning from events peculiar to us, and therefore it is necessary to examine theinterpretation and experience of such speech from the perspective of the individual.

Thus, informational self-talk (that supports basic needs) is likely to facilitate identity change and to increase as a behaviour becomes more internalised. Conversely, negative or controlling self-talk (e.g., pressurising statements that undermine autonomy) is likely to be associated with a non-internalised exercise identity and resistance to change. Some support for this can be drawn from findings in an educational context linking informational self-talk with more positive affective states, and controlling self-talk with greater anxiety (Oliver, Markland, & Hardy, 2010), when learning novel material.

157 In sum, the aim of the present study was to respond to calls for research that explores 158 how health behaviours are changed in older people (Strachan et al., 2010), potentially 159 informing the delivery of public health interventions for this sector of the population. 160 Understanding the thought processes underlying identity change may enable more targeted 161 and effective support during such interventions; the study focused on exploring the self-talk 162 and concurrent identity changes of participants referred to an exercise-focused behaviour 163 change intervention. As previously noted, current understanding of active identities in older 164 people is weak and to an extent focuses on atypically highly active individuals (e.g., masters 165 athletes), thus the study sought to obtain rich and detailed data by following a specific cohort 166 through a programme typifying standard referral scheme delivery. The research employed a 167 mixed method approach to facilitate depth of understanding of the nature of the identity 168 changes as well as enable application of an existing theoretically-grounded model classifying types of self-talk. The corroboration and convergence of the two strands of self-talk and 169 170 identity-related data (cf. Bryman, 2007) allowed for augmented interpretation and greater 171 confidence in the results; giving meaning to the numbers, but also precision to the narrative 172 data (Collins, Onwnegbuzie, & Sutton 2006; Jick, 1979; Rossman & Wilson, 1985).

7

# 175 Method

### 176 *Participants*

Six participants (1 male, 5 females) aged between 79 and 89 years were recruited 177 178 from a cohort registered on a Postural Stability Instruction (PSI) course of 32 weeks duration. 179 All participants had been referred to the programme based on a rating of between 1 and 3 on 180 the Falls Risk Assessment Tool (FRAT), that is, they had either had no previous falls (n = 3). 181 a fall resulting in soft tissue injury (n = 1), or a fall resulting in a fracture (n = 2). Referral routes were based on a perceived need and varied from primary care to leisure services. The 182 183 course was held in a local leisure centre in a rurally located coastal town and all participants 184 were living independently in the community, either alone or with a spouse. None of the 185 participants were living with a disability but all were diagnosed with comorbidities, as might 186 be expected given the age range of the group. All programme participants were initially 187 approached individually by the programme instructors, with a follow up by the research team, 188 and provided written consent to take part in the research. Ethical approval was provided by 189 the XXX XXXX Research Ethics Committee.

190 *Quantitative Measures* 

191 Physical activity identity: Strachan et al.'s (2010) modified version of the Exercise 192 Identity questionnaire (Anderson & Cychosz, 1994) was administered. The 9-item 193 questionnaire focused on an over-arching physical activity identity (rather than exercise 194 identity per se), and was scored on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly)195 agree). Participants rated the extent to which they identified with being a physically active 196 person on items including "I consider myself a physically active person"; with higher scores 197 indicating a stronger identity. The modified scale has demonstrated internal consistency, 198 validity, and structural integrity (Strachan et al., 2010).

199 Self-talk: The informational and controlling nature of participants' self-talk was 200 assessed using the functional significance of self-talk questionnaire (FSTQ: Oliver, 201 Markland, & Hardy, 2010). Based on CET principles, the FSTQ assesses the motivational 202 interpretation of an individual's self-talk and has demonstrated reliability and structural validity in an educational sample (Oliver et al., 2010). In the present study, minor 203 204 amendments were made to the instructional set to make the FSTO applicable to an exercise 205 context. The original informational and controlling self-talk questionnaire was comprised of 11 items, loading onto two subscales (7 informational items, 4 controlling items). 206 207 Participants were asked to rate the extent to which their self-talk "told me what I should be 208 doing" [controlling], or "made me feel I was in control" [informational], using a 5-point 209 Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (very much so). Ongoing development of the 210 FSTO has resulted in the addition of a third subscale, aligned with the original triadic 211 conceptualisation of functional significances in CET (i.e., events vary in terms of their informational, controlling, and amotivational significance). Amotivational events facilitate 212 213 perceptions of incompetence and promote amotivation, that is, a state in which people lack an 214 intention to engage in behaviour. Amotivational items generated from pilot work (Oliver, 2010) were included in this study: "made me feel incompetent", "made me feel I could not do 215 the exercises", "made me feel useless" and "made me feel unable to complete the class".<sup>1</sup> 216 Participants also completed a number of physical and functional tests (e.g., 'timed up 217 and go', functional reach) as part of the PSI course itself; these data and a longitudinal 218 219 examination of changes throughout the 32 week programme are reported elsewhere (Hudson,

- 220 Oliver, & Higgs, 2011).
- 221 Qualitative Interviews and Procedure

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Questionnaire items are available on request from the corresponding author.

Following receipt of informed consent, participants completed the study measures prior to starting the programme, and then weekly following their exercise class. Participants attended an individual interview with a member of the research team at the commencement of the PSI programme and at week ten, which was conducted either face-to-face or via the telephone. In addition, at each of weeks 1-6 participants completed the self-talk measure (FSTQ) immediately after their exercise session.

228 A semi-structured interview guide was developed in line with the recommendations of Morgan and Krueger (1998), focusing on six key questions. The first three related to self-talk 229 230 and cognition more broadly, for example 'describe some of the things that go through your 231 mind (1) before; (2) during; and (3) immediately after, and (4) in the days following an 232 exercise session'. The second three key questions focused on identity, for example, 'how 233 would you currently describe yourself at the moment'? Participants were presented with a 234 summary of their comments at the end of the interview and asked whether there was anything 235 they would like to add or that they felt the researchers might have missed or misinterpreted. 236 Consent for further contact was sought after every interview. Interviews were recorded or 237 shorthand notes made where recording was not feasible.

238 Analyses

239 The qualitative data were analysed using thematic content analysis and a deductive approach was adopted. Interview notes and transcripts were read and re-read to gain a full 240 sense of the participant's background, physical activity history, reasons for attending the PSI 241 242 programme, and experiences on the programme. Deductive analysis then involved 243 highlighting quotes that referred to two themes: (1) identity and (2) self-talk or cognitions 244 relating to physical activity. These raw data were clustered into emergent themes which shared similar meaning across participants. This process was carried out on the data obtained 245 246 at both interview points and the themes identified at these two points were then compared to

247 explore changes or similarities evident between the two. Interviews were initially analysed by 248 the co-authors independently of each other and these analyses were then discussed between 249 researchers to allow the themes and interpretations of these to be challenged for integrity and 250 meaning by each researcher acting as a critical friend. Any divergence in terms of 251 interpretation between researchers was discussed until consensus was reached. This approach 252 was implemented as it allowed a more thoughtful conceptualisation of the resulting themes 253 than agreement methods with a nomothetic base (Hill, Thompson, & Williams, 1997). The 254 qualitative data themes are presented below in narrative form, and, to represent the 255 developmental experiences of the participants most appropriately and comprehensively, data 256 from both interview time points are integrated and discussed in tandem. This qualitative data 257 analysis was supplemented by analysis of changes in quantitative data drawn from existing 258 measures of physical activity identity and self-talk. Where appropriate below, to add further 259 insight into participants' experiences, qualitative and quantitative findings are discussed 260 alongside each other.

261 SPSS® version 21 was used to conduct quantitative analyses. Repeated measures 262 analyses of variance (one per self-talk type: informational, controlling, autonomous; with 6 levels of the independent variable, weeks 1-6) were conducted to explore weekly changes in 263 participants' self-talk. Paired samples t-tests were employed as post-hoc follow ups of 264 265 significant effects. A paired samples t-test was also employed to compare physical activity 266 identity at weeks 1 and 10. However, given the lack of power the reader may wish to refer 267 primarily to the percentage changes in variables as these provide information in a clinicallyrelevant format (cf. Vickers, 2001, for a discussion of issues associated with percentage 268 269 change).

270 The reader should be aware that although both the FSTQ and the exercise identity 271 scale have demonstrated validity in their unmodified forms, their use has been limited; hence, 272 results pertaining to these variables should be interpreted with caution. Analysis of the

273 reliability of the measures using conventional methods (e.g., Cronbach's alphas) was

- unsuitable given the small sample size. Indeed, minimal sample sizes of 300 have previously
- been advocated for reliable estimation of population coefficient alphas (Kline, 1986). Hence,

276 descriptive changes of sample means and standard deviations are presented with the intention

that these are interpreted in conjunction with the qualitative data.

278

# 279 **Results and Discussion**

# 280 Physical Activity Identity

Initial self-perceptions At week one, descriptions of the self tended to be negative 281 (e.g., "I'm slow", "I don't do anything"); even positive comments were phrased within the 282 context of expected age-related decline (e.g., "I've still got all my marbles"; "I was part of 283 284 the air force...they got us quite fit for that, probably why I've lasted so long"). In contrast, quantitative assessment suggested that participants embarked on the programme with already 285 286 high self-ratings of physical activity identity that underwent little change, with only an 8.35% 287 increase for the group between weeks 1 and 10 of the programme (M = 4.43, SD .78, and, M = 4.80, SD .72; maximum = 5). Not surprisingly, this difference was nonsignificant,  $t_5 = -$ 288 289 .961, p = .381.

*Dissociation from the physical self (the "me" I've become)* Participants spoke of a separation of the physical self from 'who they were' due to a sense of unhappiness with this aspect of their identity. For example, one participant described how when seeing one's reflection, "shop windows are dreadful and you get an awful shock", with another stating that they consciously "don't look" at themselves. Linguistically one interesting comment was made, before being corrected, that "my legs couldn't control me... I couldn't control them". This again suggests the separation of the self, 'me', from the physical body, and implies a lack of control over the physical self, to the extent that it becomes the controller. This sense of unease or unhappiness with the self appeared linked to negative affective outcomes, with participants feeling "bored", "fed up with self" or more generally that "I don't feel right".

Despite this, there was also some humour evident in comments relating to physical identity (e.g., "getting to 80, I wouldn't recommend it" and "pure fat, I have more spare tyres than ATS [car tyre supplier]"). Nevertheless, these asides conveyed a certain dehumanisation or degradation of the physical self. For some participants, feeling disappointed in one's self was expressed explicitly, and one noted that they felt like a burden "holding everyone back". In terms of defining their identity participants tended to use past comparisons at week 1, for example "I was only a skinny thing when I was young".

307 *Rejuvenation of a previous self* By week ten clear changes in participants' identity 308 were evident, with participants reporting feeling "more confident", "exhilarated" and 309 "happier", with some referencing the change that had occurred - "instead of feeling sorry for 310 myself I'm getting a bit of 'I can do everything'". Although comparisons to past identities 311 were still made, these tended to employ a more positive reference point (e.g., "when I stand 312 up straight I look ten years younger") and for some the new self was incomparable to 313 previously held beliefs, suggesting a change in personal narratives of decline: "I'm doing 314 things which I would never have dreamt of doing". These changes are in contrast to quantitative physical activity identity ratings, suggesting that changes in self-perception did 315 316 occur during this period but these were more complex than a shift in degree of association of 317 physical activity with one's personal identity.

318 As the first examination of older adults within this context, these findings highlight 319 some considerations for intervention design, health promotion, and optimal service delivery. 320 With regard to the flux in identity participants experienced during the programme, service 321 providers may wish to consider how best to integrate wider support systems during lifestyle-322 changing interventions. Mobilising peer support networks, using virtual communities, or 323 utilising partnerships with the voluntary sector may be viable ways of doing this given cost 324 implications of accessing formal psychological support from the health or care sectors. 325 Further, although this represents an attempt to explore behaviour change as a process, examining internalisation over a longer time period (e.g., 6, 12 and 18 months), may provide 326 327 a 'fuller' picture of how identity is adapted. Given that internalising new behaviours requires people to understand and synthesise new values (Deci & Ryan, 2000), this may not be linear, 328 329 as individuals reflect on, assess, debate and evaluate the novel behaviour whilst attempting to 330 integrate it with existing value systems. The ten-week duration of the present study may only 331 illustrate initial fluctuations in identity rather than the full internalization process.

332

#### 333 Self-talk

Initial self-control and criticism Initial self-talk was reported as being negative (e.g., 334 335 "I don't think I can do this") and was "very critical" during the classes. There were also 336 examples of a defeatist approach when things were not going well ("oh sod it"), and some indication of a lack of perceived competence and control ("I just hope I can do it, I don't 337 338 think I can do it"). By week ten there was an absence of these types of phrases, with 339 participants instead reporting more positive reassurances (e.g., "it's alright"). One participant recalled that, in comparison to week 1, "I don't say 'I can't be fagged [bothered] to go', but I 340 341 don't say the opposite yet" – the use of 'yet' perhaps implying an expectation that this will 342 develop in time. It should be noted that not all participants reported a change in their self-talk, 343 with one individual reporting that his thoughts were "perfectly positive" from the outset. It was also noticed that participants' self-talk at week 1 was frequently discursive in 344 345 nature with an apparent function to exert self-control. For example, one participant described

an internal conversation in which one voice queried, "do I have to go out on a day like
today?" with a second voice arguing "yes you have [to]". Second person phrasing was also
used within the class, particularly when participants were struggling with exercises, in
phrases such as "pull yourself together" and "you could have done better here".

350 Much of this second person self-talk seemed to be self-critical in nature. Such 351 dualistic self-talk or internal 'dissenting voices' are a characteristic of Lawrence and 352 Valsiner's (2003) model associated with the early stages of processing of social messages. 353 Importantly, Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that controlling self-regulation is likely to have 354 negative consequences for motivation and well-being, and controlling environments and 355 stimuli have negative effects on long-term persistence, engagement, and health (e.g., Pelletier 356 et al., 2001). Given clear evidence of deleterious effects of controlling health messages (e.g., 357 Miller, Lane, Deatrick, Young, & Potts, 2007; Vansteenkiste, Lens, & Deci, 2006), raising 358 practitioner and client awareness of these is important. Thus, we suggest that instructors 359 should be aware of the potential for participants to engage in controlling self-talk and help 360 them to restructure this into more informational self-talk. That is, participants should aim to 361 use self-talk to encourage and inform, rather than to self-control. Further, health promotion 362 campaigns, intervention literature and leaflets, and verbally delivered instruction should take 363 care to emphasise empowerment and autonomy, as controlling environments have been shown to engender more controlling intrapersonal self-talk (Oliver et al., 2008). 364

The importance of external encouragement to avoid the use of controlling self-talk seems particularly pertinent when quantitative reports on its use are considered. Ratings of controlling self-talk use were low and did not change significantly throughout the assessment period ( $F_{(5,15)} = .519$ , p = .758), clearly contrasting with the controlling self-talk discussed in interviews. Our interview data also indicate that some participants struggled with the identification and reporting of specific self-talk phrases. Indeed, several participants initially
indicated that they did not recall using any purposeful self-talk, with one noting "no, I
concentrate and watch X [the instructor] most of the time". This highlights a potential
problem with self-report measures of self-talk and the need for multiple methods in its
assessment, to which we return later.

375 Progression in self and self-talk: "I can do this" As might be expected, when 376 discussing their self-talk use throughout the first ten weeks of the programme, participants reported that the majority of their physical activity-related self-talk took place on the day of, 377 378 during, or immediately after the classes, while physical tests that were part of course 379 participation also acted as prompts for specific reflection for some individuals, particularly with respect to their progress (e.g., "there's a way to go yet before I can do this"). 380 381 Participants mainly reported using self-talk prior to classes as a stimulant for action, for 382 example to "egg myself up" or that "[I] geared myself up to come". This motivational aspect 383 of self-talk was also reported during classes as participants both encouraged and berated 384 themselves (e.g., "I can do this"; "[I] got cross with myself deliberately").

These qualitative data are corroborated by the quantitative reports of self-talk use. Already low levels of amotivational self-talk did not change ( $F_{(5,15)} = 1.76$ , p = .181) but informational self-talk significantly increased over the six week period,  $F_{(5,15)} = 3.56$ , p =.026; differences were significant between weeks 3 and week 6, with differences between weeks 1 and both weeks 5 and 6 approaching significance (p = .036, .083, and .061,

390 respectively).

391

#### < INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE >

With respect to self-talk the clearest change during the examined period was theprogression from amotivational, competence-undermining phrases to more informational,

394 supportive phrases. Although the decrease in amotivational self-talk was not statistically 395 significant, the percentage change is noteworthy especially when considered in conjunction 396 with the qualitative data. When commencing a novel behaviour or any new activity, it is not 397 surprising that initially self-talk may reflect a lack of perceived competence, with a focus on 398 perceived problems and task failures. By engaging in the classes participants gained tangible 399 evidence they could complete the exercises, with the resulting physical improvements 400 enabling greater participation in a range of activities outside of the classses. The observed 401 shift in self-talk to focus on successful task completion and ability gains is therefore logical. 402 This pattern mirrors improvements in efficacy observed in individuals taking part in exercise 403 intervention programmes (e.g., McAuley, 1992), and suggests the importance of a 404 progressive programme enabling participants' improvements to be noted and reinforced. In 405 addition it highlights the need for instructors to target participants' amotivation in early classes to avoid potential decreases in engagment and scheme withdrawals (e.g., Thøgersen-406 Ntoumani & Ntoumanis, 2006). 407

408 Talking it up: Self-talk and identity development Self-talk was of particular interest 409 in the present study as a process by which social messages and promoted values might be 410 internalized and a coherent, endorsed physical activity identity developed. Consistent with 411 Valsiner's (1997) laminal model, self-talk seemed to reflect the processing stage between the 412 perception of a social message, and its integration into a personal position. Reported self-talk 413 changes mirrored the progressive development described in Valsiner's model as initially 414 statements tended to be more generalised, subsequently developing into a critical dialogue 415 integrating existing knowledge and emotional reflections. Although the design of the study 416 was not intended to explicitly test mediational models, it is notable that there was some 417 consistency in changes in individuals' self-talk and the extent to which they endorsed and felt 418 comfortable with a physically active identity. For example, the quantitative data support a

419 concurrent increase in the informational nature of participants' self-talk and their physical
420 activity identity. Further, the observed shifts in self-talk phrasing (e.g., 'I was' to 'I am') and
421 progression from a rejected physical self to an accepted physical state, imply a less
422 fragmented and more confident, active, and present-focused self.

423 Study reflections Whilst the interviews quite literally gave participants a voice to 424 share their experiences, the qualitative exploration of self-talk use was limited by a reliance 425 on retrospective recall, a particular challenge in an ageing population as many struggled to remember if and when they had used self-talk. Self-talk is difficult to recall and report as it 426 427 has been estimated that inner speech takes place approximately ten times faster than outer 428 speech (Korba, 1990), with internal utterances condensed and abbreviated for efficiency 429 (Wiley, 2006). In the present study the use of weekly questionnaires that focused on the 430 overall interpretation of self-talk, rather than specific phrases, was designed to obtain 431 theoretically meaningful information, supplemented by in-depth interview recall. We 432 recognise the inherent limitations and difficulties when exploring self-talk, and endorse the 433 perspective that multiple methods of investigation are best combined to obtain a full picture 434 of self-talk and its effects (Hardy, Oliver, & Tod, 2009). Future work audibly monitoring on-435 task self-talk (e.g., via worn recorders) and activation of language centres in the brain (for 436 static tasks) is particularly promising in this regard.

437 Despite the emergence of useful findings pertaining to the changes older adults 438 experience when adopting a novel behaviour, the sample size and its homogeneity raise 439 problems if seeking to form generalised opinions regarding the experiences of older adults on 440 behaviour change programmes. Far from claiming to provide a conclusive representation of 441 these, the present study merely provides insight into the degree of identity changes 442 experienced by such participants, and provides some data to suggest that changes in 443 cognitions related to physical activity are linked to identity formation. Given this, application 444 of the study's findings should not overreach. Whilst traditional tests of significance are 445 reported for the quantitative data, we reiterate that data trends (i.e., the direction and degree 446 of change) are best interpreted in terms of clinical rather than statistical significance. 447 Our sample was drawn from a rural community where changes in population 448 demographics are exacerbated, with a growing imbalance in the age profile (Hartwell, 449 Kitchen, Milbourne, & Morgan, 2007). This is typically attributed to out-migration of 450 younger groups for employment or housing reasons (Stockdale, 2004), and in-migration of 451 older individuals (e.g., those retiring). As such, understanding how best we can deliver and 452 support lifestyle change for older individuals in such communities is important for policy-453 makers and practitioners alike. In the context of reducing health inequalities, it has been 454 estimated that up to 70 per cent of those classed as living in poverty in developing countries 455 are living in rural areas (International Fund for Agricultural Development, 2011); although beyond the scope of the present study optimising health service provision for hard-to reach 456 457 groups including both the elderly and those living in rural areas is an important issue for 458 future research to consider.

459

#### 460 **Concluding comments**

461 The present study explored changes in older adults' physical activity-related cognition and subsequent identity changes during the early stages of uptake of physical activity. 462 463 Collectively, participants' use of informational self-talk significantly increased over the 464 initial six weeks of the programme, with a trend for participants to develop a stronger, more active and empowered physical identity. Qualitatively-derived identity themes reflected the 465 466 transition from the traditional view of the ageing body; a physically impaired, fragmented, and negative self, to a more future-orientated, capable, and integrated self (Tulle, 2008). In 467 468 sum, the emergent findings of the present study add to a sparse literature about how novel

469	health behaviour interventions are experienced at an advanced age. Researchers and
470	practitioners applying health behaviour models with this population should be aware of the
471	cognitive processes underlying complex identity change that is required for long-term
472	behavioural engagement, and should be aware that identity remains dynamic throughout later
473	life.
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