

**Predicting fruit and vegetable consumption in long-haul heavy goods vehicle drivers: Application of a multi-theory, dual-phase model and the contribution of past behaviour**

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1 Predicting fruit and vegetable consumption in long-haul heavy goods vehicle drivers:  
2 Application of a multi-theory, dual-phase model and the contribution of past behaviour

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## Abstract

Fruit and vegetable intake is insufficient in industrialized nations and long-haul heavy goods vehicle (HGV) drivers are considered a particularly at-risk group. The aim of the current study was to test the effectiveness of a multi-theory, dual-phase model to predict fruit and vegetable consumption in Australian long-haul HGV drivers. A secondary aim was to examine the effect of past fruit and vegetable consumption on model paths. A prospective design with two waves of data collection spaced one week apart was adopted. Long-haul HGV drivers ( $N = 212$ ) completed an initial survey containing theory-based measures of motivation (autonomous motivation, intention), social cognition (attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control), and volition (action planning, coping planning) for fruit and vegetable consumption. One week later, participants ( $n = 84$ ) completed a self-report measure of fruit and vegetable intake over the previous week. A structural equation model revealed that autonomous motivation predicted intentions, mediated through attitudes and perceived behavioural control. It further revealed that perceived behavioural control, action planning, and intentions predicted fruit and vegetable intake, whereby the intention-behaviour relationship was moderated by coping planning. Inclusion of past behaviour attenuated the effects of these variables. The model identified the relative contribution of motivation, social cognition, and volitional components in predicting fruit and vegetable intake of HGV drivers. Consistent with previous research, inclusion of past fruit and vegetable consumption led to an attenuation of model effects, particularly the intention-behaviour relationship. Further investigation is needed to determine which elements of past behaviour exert most influence on future action.

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## Introduction

50 Professional long-haul heavy goods vehicle (HGV) drivers are a population that is  
51 particularly at risk of chronic disease. Drivers spend long hours in a single, sedentary body  
52 posture, have poor sleep hygiene, and lack adequate nutrition (Apostolopolous, Sonmez,  
53 Shattell, Gonzales, & Fehrenbacher, 2013; Birdsey et al., 2015; Sieber et al., 2014). It is,  
54 therefore, not surprising that long-haul HGV drivers have been documented to have obesity  
55 rates three times higher than the average population (Birdsey et al., 2015), with other studies  
56 reporting over 80% of the sample of HGV drivers being overweight or obese (Body Mass  
57 Index  $\geq 25$ ) (Hamilton, Vayro, & Schwarzer, 2015). In an attempt to address the health risks  
58 associated with long-haul driving and to understand the poor health habits of this at-risk  
59 group, studies have investigated the social and psychological beliefs that may guide long-haul  
60 drivers' eating decisions. For example, Vayro and Hamilton (2016) identified a number of  
61 salient behavioural, normative, and control beliefs that relate to HGV drivers' dietary  
62 decisions, which is consistent with previous research in other health behaviour contexts  
63 (Chan et al., 2015; Cowie & Hamilton, 2014; Hamilton, Kirkpatrick, Rebar, White, &  
64 Hagger, 2017; Hamilton, Peden, Pearson, & Hagger, 2016; Hamilton, White, et al., 2012;  
65 Rowe et al., 2016; Tanna, Arbour-Nicitopoulos, Rhodes, Leo, & Bassett-Gunter, 2015), and  
66 eating behaviours in the general population (Sainsbury & Mullan, 2011; Spinks & Hamilton,  
67 2015).

68 The elicitation of the salient beliefs provides a starting point for examining the multiple  
69 social psychological factors that likely underpin drivers' decisions to consume fruit and  
70 vegetables. The beliefs are components of broader behavioural theories derived from social  
71 psychology that may provide a framework for identifying the salient factors that relate to fruit  
72 and vegetable consumption, and the processes by which they affect behaviour. The purpose  
73 of the current study was to apply a behavioural model comprising constructs from multiple

74 social cognitive and motivational theories to predict fruit and vegetable consumption in long-  
75 haul HGV drivers. The model incorporates multiple processes purported to underpin  
76 behaviour, including the factors that determine intentions to act, the mechanism by which the  
77 intentions are enacted, and how past participation in the behaviour may affect the  
78 determinants of subsequent behavioural enactment.

### 79 **Multi-theory, dual phase model of fruit and vegetable consumption**

80 Many theories applied to predict and understand health-promoting dietary behaviours  
81 have adopted a social cognitive perspective. According to the theories, engaging in dietary  
82 behaviours is a deliberative and intentional process (Ajzen, 1991, 2011) and intention is  
83 assumed to be the most proximal antecedent of behavioural engagement (Armitage &  
84 Conner, 2000; Conner & Norman, 2015). Prominent among intentional theories applied to  
85 dietary behaviour is the theory of planned behaviour (TPB; Ajzen, 1991; Emanuel, McCully,  
86 Gallagher, & Updegraff, 2012; Guillaumie, Godin, & Vézina-Im, 2010; Kothe, Mullan, &  
87 Butow, 2012). According to the TPB, intentions to perform a given behaviour in the future is  
88 a function of attitudes (i.e., the positive or negative evaluations of performing the behaviour),  
89 subjective norms (i.e., the perceived social expectations to perform the behaviour), and  
90 perceived behavioural control (i.e., the amount of control an individual believes he/she have  
91 over performing the behaviour). The TPB has been shown to account for up to 41% of the  
92 variance in intention and 35% of the variance in behaviour across a number of health related  
93 behaviours (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Godin & Kok, 1996; McDermott et al., 2015; Riebl et  
94 al., 2015; Shaikh, Yaroch, Nebeling, Yeh, & Resnicow, 2008) including up to 41% of the  
95 variance in intention and 45% of the variance in dietary behaviours (Collins & Mullan, 2011;  
96 Fila & Smith, 2006; Guillaumie et al., 2010; Hamilton, Daniels, White, Murray, & Walsh,  
97 2011; Mullan, Wong, & Kothe, 2013; Mullan, Wong, Kothe, & Maccann, 2013; Spinks &  
98 Hamilton, 2016; White, Terry, Troup, Rempel, & Norman, 2010). The TPB will therefore

99 form the basis of the current hypothesised model. However, research applying the TPB in  
100 health behaviour has identified substantive limitations (Sniehotta, Preece, & Araújo-Soares,  
101 2014). Sniehotta et al. (2014) has been particularly critical of the future use of the TPB as a  
102 sole behavioural change framework. Prominent limitations of the TPB include the lack of  
103 explicit detail on why certain beliefs are pursued (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2009), and the  
104 imperfect link between intentions and behaviour suggesting that while many individuals tend  
105 to make intentions to perform health behaviours, many do not act on them (Orbell & Sheeran,  
106 1998). Integrating other theoretical perspectives has been recommended as a possibility to  
107 address these limitations and provide a more effective explanation of the determinants of  
108 dietary behaviour (Sniehotta et al., 2014). A number of theoreticians and researchers have  
109 proposed and tested 'extended' or integrated models of behaviour change such as the  
110 integrated behaviour change model (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2014), the integrated model of  
111 behavioural prediction (Fishbein & Yzer, 2003), and the trans-contextual model (Hagger,  
112 Chatzisarantis, Culverhouse, & Biddle, 2003).

113         One perspective that may assist in explaining the origins of people's beliefs regarding  
114 health behaviours is self-determination theory (SDT). The theory is an organismic,  
115 macrotheory of human motivation which focuses on motivation quality rather than intensity  
116 (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2008b). SDT identifies two broad types of motivation: autonomous and  
117 controlled. Autonomous motivation refers to the engagement in an activity because it is  
118 perceived to be self-endorsed, freely chosen, and absent from any external contingency. In  
119 contrast, controlled motivation reflects acting due to externally-referenced pressure or  
120 contingency, or to attain a reward or avoid punishment (Deci & Ryan, 2008a, 2008b).  
121 According to SDT, it is autonomous motivation that is the most likely form of motivation to  
122 be related to persistence on tasks and attainment of adaptive outcomes (e.g., positive affect,  
123 enjoyment, interest, well-being) because the reasons for participating are consistent with an

124 individual's true autonomous self. In contrast, controlled motivation is related to persistence  
125 only as long as the controlling contingencies are present, and is not related to adaptive  
126 outcomes. Deci and Ryan (1985) explicitly align motivational forms from SDT with social  
127 cognitive factors that underpin behaviour. They suggest that individuals perceiving a given  
128 behaviour to be autonomously motivated are likely to strategically align their beliefs about  
129 performing the behaviour in future (e.g., attitudes, perceived behavioural control) with their  
130 motives. Research has shown that individuals classify their beliefs accordingly  
131 (Chatzisarantis, Hagger, Wang, & Thøgersen-Ntoumani, 2009; Hamilton, Cox, & White,  
132 2012; McLachlan & Hagger, 2011; Wilson & Rodgers, 2004) and formed the basis of an  
133 integrated model in which autonomous beliefs served as an antecedent of the belief-based  
134 constructs from the TPB (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2009). The integrated TPB and SDT  
135 model provides a basis for the antecedent beliefs from the TPB and demonstrates the process  
136 by which generalized motives are enacted.

137         Research applying the model that integrate the TPB and SDT in health behaviour  
138 contexts has demonstrated significant effects of autonomous motivation on the belief-based  
139 constructs from the TPB (attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control),  
140 significant effects of belief-based constructs on intentions, and a significant intention-  
141 behaviour relationship (Girelli, Hagger, Mallia, & Lucidi, 2016; Hagger, Trost, Keech, Chan,  
142 & Hamilton, 2017; Hamilton, Cox, et al., 2012; Hamilton, Kirkpatrick, Rebar, & Hagger,  
143 2017). Importantly, significant effects of autonomous motivation on behaviour were found  
144 mediated by the belief-based constructs from the TPB and intentions. An earlier meta-  
145 analysis examining the cumulative findings of research on the integrated TPB and SDT  
146 model in health-related behaviour context supported its predictions (Hagger & Chatzisarantis,  
147 2009). Specifically, attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control were able  
148 to mediate the relationship between autonomous motivation and intentions. These effects

149 have been predominantly tested using prospective studies with follow-up periods ranging  
150 from one to five weeks (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2009). One study investigated the  
151 integration of SDT variables with the TPB in a three-wave prospective design in two  
152 university samples; one for diet and one for exercise behaviours (Hagger, Chatzisarantis, &  
153 Harris, 2006). Structural equation modelling supported the sequence of indirect effects in  
154 exercise behaviours and both the direct and indirect effects of the sequence in dieting  
155 behaviours. Given the effectiveness of the model in accounting for variance in the  
156 antecedents of intentions and health behaviour, the current investigation adopted a model that  
157 integrated constructs from the TPB and SDT to explain fruit and vegetable consumption in  
158 long-haul HGV drivers. Specifically, we included autonomous motivation as a direct  
159 predictor of attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control. We did not  
160 include controlled motivation for three reasons. First, controlled motivation has a limited role  
161 relative to autonomous motivation as a determinant of adaptive behavioural outcomes  
162 (Chatzisarantis, Hagger, Biddle, Smith, & Wang, 2003). Second, meta-analytic research  
163 (Chatzisarantis et al., 2003; Howard, Gagné, & Bureau, 2017) supports the notion that  
164 autonomous and controlled motivation can be conceptualised as operating on a continuum.  
165 For example, graduated indexes of motivation based on weighted composites of autonomous  
166 and controlled forms of motivation tend to correlate well with single measures of autonomous  
167 motivation (Pelletier & Sarrazin, 2007). Finally, the single construct of autonomous  
168 motivation reduces the number of constructs in an already complex model.

169         This model alone, however, does not provide sufficient explanation for people's  
170 failure to implement their intentions. Sheeran (2002) identified an intention-behaviour 'gap'  
171 in social cognitive models, noting that a substantial proportion of individuals who stated  
172 having an intention to act often failed to do so, an effect noted in many studies of health  
173 behaviour (Orbell & Sheeran, 1998; Rhodes & Bruijn, 2013). One perspective on the shortfall



174 in the prediction of health behaviour by intentions comes from dual-phase models of  
175 behaviour, such as Heckhausen and Gollwitzer's (1987) model of action phases and  
176 Schwarzer's (1992) health action process approach (HAPA). The model of action phases  
177 differentiates between a motivational phase, in which intentions are formed, and a volitional  
178 phase, in which action is initiated (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987). Heckhausen and  
179 Gollwitzer (1987) noted that many people, after forming an intention, forget to carry the  
180 intention out or miss cues to initiate the action. They identified that after an intention is  
181 formed, individuals need to engage in planning to provide an explicit link between relevant  
182 cues in the environment or social context and action initiation.

183         Planning is a key self-regulatory strategy in the volitional phase which has been  
184 shown to 'bridge' the intention-behaviour 'gap' (Gollwitzer, 1999; Gollwitzer & Sheeran,  
185 2006; Hamilton, Bonham, Bishara, Kroon, & Schwarzer, 2017; Hamilton, Kothe, Mullan, &  
186 Spinks, 2017). Planning is conceptualised as comprising both action planning and coping  
187 planning. Action planning is a task-facilitating self-regulation strategy where individuals  
188 specify relevant cues to an intended behaviour (Guillaumie, Godin, Manderscheid, Spitz, &  
189 Muller, 2012). This is usually achieved by prompting individuals to state when, where, and  
190 how the behaviour will be carried out (Hagger & Luszczynska, 2014; Sniehotta, 2009).  
191 Coping planning is a self-regulation strategy where individuals anticipate barriers that may  
192 hinder performance and mentally link an appropriate response (Sniehotta, Schwarzer, Scholz,  
193 & Schüz, 2005). Action planning variables have been hypothesised to act as a mediator  
194 (Schwarzer, 2008) and moderator (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987; Hagger and  
195 Chatzisarantis, 2009) of the effect of intentions on behaviour. The moderating relationship is  
196 consistent with the prediction of the model of action phases (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer,  
197 1987), suggesting that introducing plans lead to stronger effects of intentions on behaviour.  
198 Empirical literature has shown support for this effect (de Bruijn, Rhodes, & van Osch, 2012;

199 Norman & Conner, 2005; Wiedemann et al., 2009). The mediation account suggests that  
200 intentions are enacted because individuals engage in planning, consistent with hypotheses  
201 from the HAPA and recently referred to as a *dual mediation model* (Carraro & Gaudreau,  
202 2013). Empirical literature has also provided support for this effect (Schwarzer et al., 2010;  
203 Schwarzer et al., 2007; Zhou et al., 2015). In the current study, we aim to augment the  
204 integrated TPB and SDT model to incorporate volitional components from dual phase models  
205 in an integrated multi-theory, dual-phase model to predict long-haul HGV drivers' fruit and  
206 vegetable consumption. Specifically, we propose that action and coping planning will  
207 mediate and moderate the intention-behaviour relationship, consistent with the model of  
208 action phases and HAPA, respectively.

209         Our proposed multi-theory, dual-phase model reflects the hypotheses derived from  
210 motivational and social-cognitive theories which assume behaviour is enacted through a  
211 deliberative process (Ajzen, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 1985). Evidence, however, also indicates  
212 that implicit and automatic processes may play an important role in health behaviour decision  
213 making (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2014; Strack & Deutsch, 2004). Individuals' past actions  
214 therefore, may be important to consider. There is consistent evidence that including past  
215 behaviour as a predictor of behaviour in tests of social cognitive models increases the amount  
216 of explained variance in intentions and, particularly, future behaviour (Aarts, Verplanken, &  
217 Knippenberg, 1998; Ouellette & Wood, 1998; Verplanken & Orbell, 2003). Researchers  
218 suggest two functions for past behaviour. First, it likely models habitual processes, that is, the  
219 aspects of behaviour that are unaccounted for by the social cognitive components that reflect  
220 deliberative, reasoned decision-making in advance of acting. This is modelled by the unique  
221 effects of past behaviour on future behaviour that bypass intentions and its antecedents in  
222 social cognitive models. Second, past behaviour may reflect effects of unmeasured constructs  
223 on behaviour. It is possible that these may be deliberative but not accounted for by the

224 specified social cognitive variables, or implicit, which may reflect non-conscious beliefs  
225 related to automatic, non-conscious processes. Despite the importance of past behaviour on  
226 future behaviour, research has rarely explicitly tested the impact of past behaviour on  
227 individual or integrated health behaviour models. Importantly, for the current investigation,  
228 long-haul HGV drivers often follow a relatively fixed driving schedule and route which  
229 determines where and when they can eat. It is therefore likely that long-haul drivers' dietary  
230 decisions may be guided by routine and, thus, strongly affected by past behaviour. We aimed  
231 to test the impact of past behaviour on the multi-theory, dual-phase model's ability to predict  
232 and explain fruit and vegetable consumption for long-haul HGV drivers.

### 233 **The Current Study**

234 The aim of the current study was to test a multi-theory, dual-phase model to predict  
235 fruit and vegetable consumption in a sample of long-distance HGV drivers in Australia. The  
236 proposed model is presented in Figure 1 and hypothesized relations among model constructs  
237 are summarised in Table 1. The motivation phase comprised hypotheses derived from  
238 research integrating the TPB (Ajzen, 1991) and SDT (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Given that  
239 research has shown that autonomous motivation acts as a distal predictor to the belief-based  
240 antecedents of action from the TPB (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2009), autonomous motivation  
241 was expected to predict attitudes (H<sub>1</sub>), subjective norms (H<sub>2</sub>), and perceived behavioural  
242 control (H<sub>3</sub>). Consistent with the TPB, attitudes (H<sub>4</sub>), subjective norms (H<sub>5</sub>), and perceived  
243 behavioural control (H<sub>6</sub>) was expected to predict intention, intention was expected to predict  
244 behaviour (H<sub>7</sub>) and perceived behaviour control (H<sub>8</sub>) was also expected to directly predict  
245 behaviour to the extent that it acts as a proxy for actual control (Ajzen, 1991). The volitional  
246 phase of the hypothesised model integrates hypotheses from the model of action phases  
247 (Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987) and the HAPA (Schwarzer, 2008). It was expected that  
248 intention would predict action planning (H<sub>9</sub>) and coping planning (H<sub>10</sub>), and action planning

249 (H<sub>11</sub>) and coping planning (H<sub>12</sub>) were hypothesized to predict behaviour. It was expected that  
250 there would be no direct relationship between autonomous motivation and behaviour (H<sub>13</sub>).  
251 We also expected action planning (H<sub>14</sub>) and coping planning (H<sub>15</sub>) to moderate the intention  
252 on behaviour relationship. A number of indirect relationships were also expected. We  
253 predicted that attitudes (H<sub>17</sub>), subjective norms (H<sub>18</sub>), and perceived behavioural control (H<sub>19</sub>)  
254 would have indirect effects on behaviour mediated by intention. Autonomous motivation was  
255 hypothesised to predict intention (H<sub>20</sub>) and behaviour (H<sub>21</sub>) indirectly, mediated by the social  
256 cognitive variables in the model. The effects of intentions on behaviour were expected to be  
257 mediated by action planning (H<sub>22</sub>) and coping planning (H<sub>23</sub>), respectively, consistent with  
258 hypotheses from the HAPA. Collectively, these hypotheses replicate the explicit components  
259 of reflective and deliberative processes. We also predicted that past behaviour would  
260 significantly and directly predict all constructs in the hypothesised model (H<sub>16</sub>). However,  
261 consistent with theory and findings from the literature on past behaviour frequency and habit  
262 (Ouellette & Wood, 1998; Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001; Rothman, Sheeran, & Wood, 2009) we  
263 expected that effects in the model would be attenuated with the inclusion of past behaviour.  
264 The attenuation notwithstanding, we predicted that the pattern of effects proposed in the  
265 theory would remain statistically significant. We expected results would demonstrate the  
266 relative contribution of constructs from the two phases (motivational and volitional) on fruit  
267 and vegetable consumption as well as the effect of past behaviour on motivational and social-  
268 cognitive constructs.

269

270 *Table 1.* Summary of hypothesised direct and indirect effects in the multi-theory, dual phase  
 271 model of fruit and vegetable consumption

Hypothesis	Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Mediator	Prediction <sup>a</sup>
<b>Direct effects</b>				
H <sub>1</sub>	Autonomous motivation	Attitude	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>2</sub>	Autonomous motivation	Subjective norm	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>3</sub>	Autonomous motivation	Perceived behavioural control	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>4</sub>	Attitude	Intention	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>5</sub>	Subjective norm	Intention	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>6</sub>	Perceived behavioural control	Intention	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>7</sub>	Intention	Behaviour	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>8</sub>	Perceived behavioural control	Behaviour	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>9</sub>	Intention	Action planning	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>10</sub>	Intention	Coping planning	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>11</sub>	Action planning	Behaviour	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>12</sub>	Coping planning	Behaviour	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>13</sub>	Autonomous motivation	Behaviour	-	No effect
H <sub>14</sub>	Action planning x Intention	Behaviour	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>15</sub>	Coping planning x Intention	Behaviour	-	Effect (+)
H <sub>16</sub>	Past behaviour	Autonomous motivation	-	Effect (+)
		Attitude		
		Subjective norms		
		Perceived behavioural control		
		Intention		
		Action planning		
		Coping planning		
		Behaviour		
<b>Indirect effects</b>				
H <sub>17</sub>	Attitude	Behaviour	Intention	Effect (+)
H <sub>18</sub>	Subject norm	Behaviour	Intention	Effect (+)
H <sub>19</sub>	Perceived behavioural control	Behaviour	Intention	Effect (+)
H <sub>20</sub>	Autonomous motivation	Intention	Attitude	Effect (+)
			Subjective norm	
			Perceived behavioural control	
H <sub>21</sub>	Autonomous motivation	Behaviour	Attitude	Effect (+)
			Subjective norm	
			Perceived behavioural control	
			Intention	
H <sub>22</sub>	Intention	Behaviour	Action planning	Effect (+)
H <sub>23</sub>	Intention	Behaviour	Coping planning	Effect (+)

272 *Note.* <sup>a</sup>Denotes whether the hypothesis specifies a positive (+) effect, or no effect.

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## Method

### 277 Participants and procedure

278 Participants ( $N = 212$ ;  $M_{age} = 45.18$ ,  $SD_{age} = 11.90$ ) were male, long-haul heavy HGV  
279 drivers, who drove a  $\geq 12$ -tonne HGV, travelled at least 200km in one work period, and spent  
280 most of their work time driving (weekly driving hours,  $M = 67.20$ ,  $SD = 15.08$ ). Drivers were  
281 recruited face-to-face at HGV events/locations (e.g. HGV stops, HGV charity events) and  
282 through social media (e.g. Facebook groups) and offered the opportunity to enter into a draw  
283 to win one of three AUD100 gift vouchers as an incentive to participate. The study received  
284 approval from the Institution Human Research Ethics Committee. A prospective-correlational  
285 design was used. At Time 1 (T1), participants completed a survey either face-to-face ( $N =$   
286 132) or online ( $N = 80$ ) assessing social cognitive and motivational measures as well as  
287 demographic factors. One week later (Time 2; T2), participants completed a follow-up survey  
288 assessing their FV intake over the previous week. Participant data across the time points was  
289 anonymized and matched using a unique code identifier created by the participant.

### 290 Measures

291 Social cognitive and motivational constructs (i.e., attitudes, subjective norms,  
292 perceived behavioural control, and intention) were measured on previously-validated multi-  
293 item psychometric instruments developed using standardised guidelines (Ajzen, 1991; Ryan  
294 & Connell, 1989; Sniehotta et al., 2005) adapted to make reference to the target behaviour in  
295 the current study. These guidelines are consistently used in research on dietary behaviours  
296 (Fila & Smith, 2006; Hagger et al., 2017; Spinks & Hamilton, 2016; White et al., 2010). Brief  
297 details of the measures are provided below, and a full set of items are available in Appendix  
298 A (supplemental materials). Items from each instrument were used as indicators of latent  
299 variables representing each model construct in a structural equation model. We referred to the  
300 target behaviours in each measure as: “eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended

301 serves each day in the next week”. The definition is in accordance with health-promotion  
302 guidelines (i.e., five serves of vegetables and two serves of fruit) and time frame (i.e. per day)  
303 derived from Australian dietary guidelines for adult males (National Health and Medical  
304 Research Council, 2013). The health-promotion guidelines including examples of portion  
305 sizes for one serving of fruit and vegetable were provided to participants at the beginning of  
306 the survey.

307 Behavioural intention was measured by three items (e.g., “I intend to eat fruit and  
308 vegetables following the recommended serves every day...”) on 7-point scales with 1  
309 (*strongly disagree*) and 7 (*strongly agree*) as endpoints. Attitude was measured on four items  
310 with responses provided on 7-point semantic differential scales (e.g., “For me to eat fruit and  
311 vegetables following the recommended serves every day in the next week would be...,”)  
312 from 1 (*unfavourable*) to 7 (*favourable*). Subjective norm was measured on three items (e.g.,  
313 “Most people who are important to me would approve of me eating fruit and vegetables  
314 following the recommended serves every day...,”) with responses made on a 7-point scale  
315 with 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 7 (*strongly agree*) as end points. Perceived behavioural control  
316 was measured using two items on a 7-point scale (e.g. “I have complete control over whether  
317 I eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day...,”) with 1 (*strongly*  
318 *disagree*) and 7 (*strongly agree*) as endpoints. Autonomous motivation was measured using  
319 an adapted version of Ryan and Connell’s (1989) measure. Participants were presented with a  
320 common stem: “The reason I would eat the recommended serves of fruit and vegetables each  
321 day ...” followed by four reasons relating to autonomous motives on a 7-point scale (e.g.,  
322 “Because I personally believe it is the best thing for my health...,”) with 1 (*not at all true*)  
323 and 7 (*extremely true*) as end points. A measure of action planning and coping planning for  
324 the target behaviour was developed based on Sniehotta et al.’s (2005) recommendations.  
325 Action planning was measured starting with the stem “I have made a plan regarding...”

326 followed by four items (e.g., “when to eat fruit and vegetables”) on a 7-point scale from 1  
327 (*not at all true*) to 7 (*extremely true*) as endpoints. Coping planning was measured using four  
328 items on the same 7-point scale and stem as action planning (e.g., “What to do if something  
329 interferes with my plan). Behaviour at T2 was measured consistent with Australian Dietary  
330 Guidelines using three self-report questions (e.g., “In the previous week, to what extent did  
331 you eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day?”). Two of the  
332 items used a 7-point scale including from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*a large extent*) as end points and  
333 one item (i.e., “In the previous week, on how many days did you eat fruit and vegetables  
334 following the recommended serves every day...”) used an 8-point scale from 0 days to 7 days  
335 as endpoints.

### 336 **Data Analysis**

337 Variance-based structural equation modelling (VB-SEM) was used to test our  
338 hypothesised model. VB-SEM is similar to covariance-based SEM, but is based on ranked  
339 rather than ordinal data and is therefore distribution-free and less affected by model  
340 complexity, sample size, or departures from normality (Henseler, Ringle, & Sinkovics, 2009).  
341 Models were estimated using the Warp PLS v5.0 software (Kock, 2015). Missing data (total  
342 missing data = 4.24%) were treated using hierarchical regression imputation. All paths  
343 among constructs detailed in Figure 1 and the hypotheses listed in Table 1 were specified as  
344 free parameters in the model. In addition, we statistically controlled for the effects of age and  
345 past behaviour by setting these variables as predictors of all other variables in the model.  
346 Moderator effects were modelled using the product-indicator procedure described and  
347 validated by Chin, Marcolin, and Newsted (2003).

348 Validity of the proposed measures was assessed by observing the measurement aspects  
349 of the SEM. The loading of each indicator on its respective latent factor were expected to  
350 exceed .700. Composite reliability coefficients ( $\rho$ ) and average variance extracted (AVE)



351 statistics, which test the sufficiency of scale items as indicators of the latent variables and  
352 whether the items account for sufficient variance in the factor, respectively, were expected to  
353 exceed .700 and .500. Discriminant validity was assessed by observing that the square-root of  
354 the AVE for each latent variable exceeds its correlation coefficient with other latent variables.  
355 Overall model fit was evaluated using multiple criteria: the goodness-of-fit (GoF) index with  
356 values of .100, .250, and .360 corresponding to small, medium, and large effect sizes,  
357 respectively, the average path coefficient (APC) and the average  $R^2$  (ARS), both of which  
358 should be significantly different from zero for an adequate model, and the average variance  
359 inflation factor for model parameters (AVIF) statistic, with values less than 5.000 indicating a  
360 well-fitting model (Kock, 2015).

361

362

## Results

363

### Participants and attrition analysis

364

One hundred and thirty participants dropped out of the study after completing the initial

365

T1 survey resulting in a final sample of 84 participants<sup>1</sup>. Demographic characteristics of the

366

sample at the two-time points are presented in Table 2. Attrition analyses indicated that there

367

were no significant differences in age ( $t(172) = -.382, p = .703$ ), BMI ( $t(184) = 1.428, p =$

368

.155), number of years driving ( $t(175) = -.547, p = .585$ ), weekly kilometres driven ( $t(164) = -$

369

.607,  $p = .545$ ), highest education attainment ( $\chi^2(5) = 6.804, p = .236$ ), and ethnicity ( $\chi^2(5) =$

---

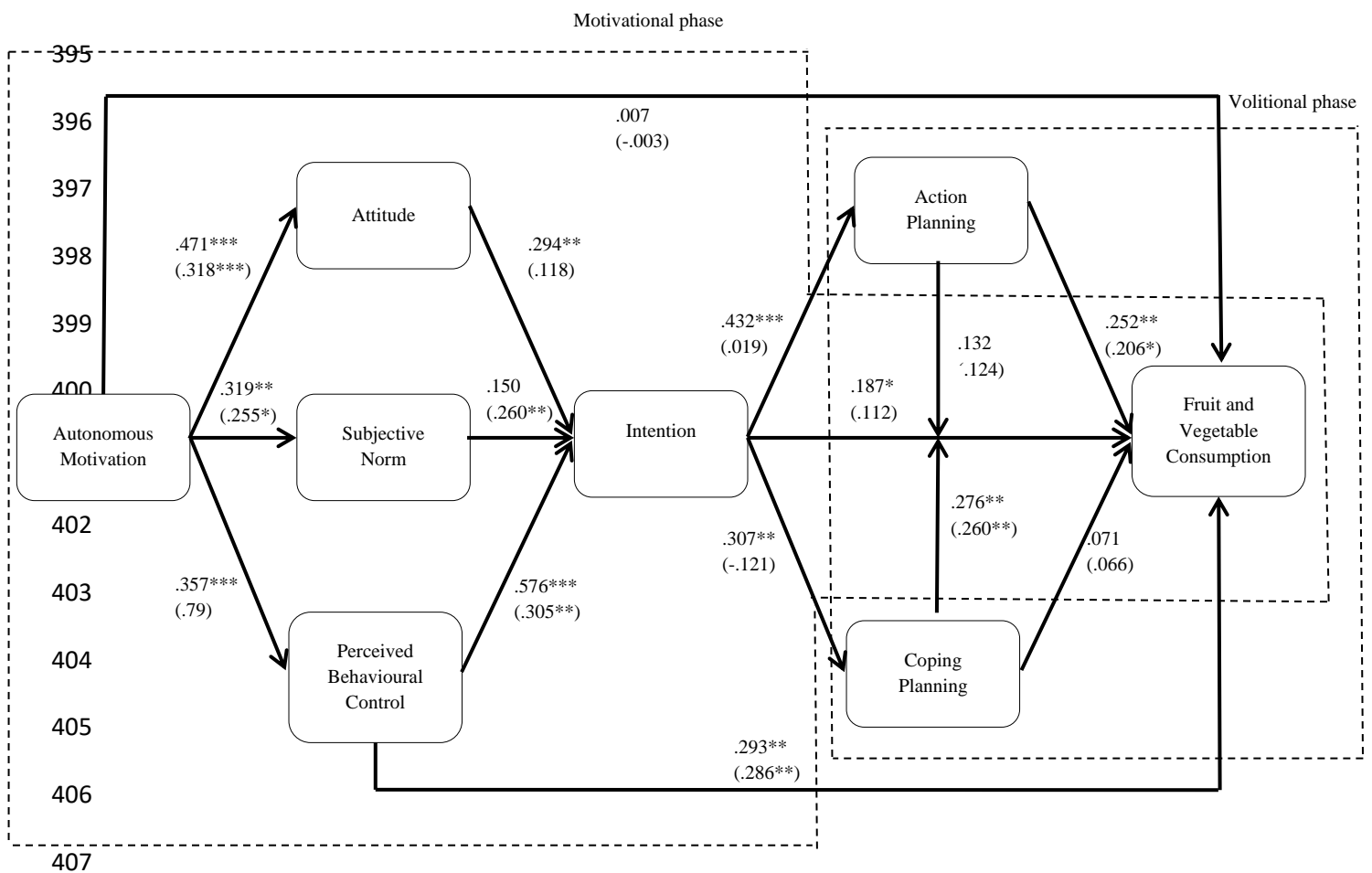
<sup>1</sup> The large attrition rate raises concerns over statistical power. To ensure we had adequate power, we computed reproduced statistical power of the key dependent variables in our model using current findings. Power analyses with multiple regression analyses (path analysis is an extension of this kind of analysis) presents some challenges in identifying the appropriate statistical power. One option is to use  $R^2$  values as the effect size for the key outcome or dependent variables of interest. In the current model, these were intentions ( $R^2 = .772$ ) and fruit and vegetable consumption ( $R^2 = .261$ ). Converting these to  $f^2$  values (1.32 for intentions and .354 for behaviour), we used G\*Power to compute reproduced power with alpha set at .05, sample size at 84, and four predictors for intentions (attitudes, subjective norms, perceived behavioural control, past behaviour) and five predictors for behaviour (action planning, coping planning, intentions, perceived behavioural control, past behaviour). The analysis produced statistical power values of 1.000 and .992 for intentions and behaviour, respectively, indicating sufficient statistical power.

370 4.720,  $p = .451$ ) between participants that dropped out of the study and those who remained.  
371 Attrition analysis indicted there were differences between participants remaining and those  
372 who dropped out on some of the psychological and behavioural variables (Wilks' Lambda =  
373 .891,  $F(7,138) = 2.417$ ,  $p = .023$ , partial eta-squared = .109). Post-hoc analysis revealed  
374 significantly higher levels of attitudes ( $F(1,144) = 12.226$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .078$ ), intentions  
375 ( $F(1,144) = 4.550$ ,  $p = .035$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .031$ ), subjective norm ( $F(1,144) = 4.471$ ,  $p = .036$ ,  $\eta_p^2 =$   
376 .030), and autonomous motivation ( $F(1,144) = 11.697$ ,  $p = .025$ ,  $\eta_p^2 = .034$ ) in the  
377 participants who completed both time point one and two compared to those who dropped out.  
378 There was no differences between fruit and vegetable consumption of participants who  
379 dropped out at T1 and the participants who remained at T2 ( $t(189) = -.568$ ,  $p = .571$ ).

### 380 **Preliminary analysis**

381 Measurement model statistics from the VB-SEM confirmed that the latent variables met  
382 criteria for construct and discriminant validity. Factor loadings for each latent factor  
383 exceeded the .700 criterion supporting the validity of the factors. Composite and Cronbach  
384 alpha ( $\alpha$ ) reliability coefficients, AVE, and intercorrelations for model variables are presented  
385 in Table 3. Reliability coefficients exceeded the .700 criterion and AVE values exceeded the  
386 recommended .500 criterion. Correlations among the latent variables also indicated no  
387 problems with discriminant validity. The correlations showed significant positive relations  
388 among the TPB variables as well as significant and positive relations among past behaviour  
389 and most of the model variables. The strong, positive correlation between past behaviour and  
390 future FV consumption shows behavioural stability for HGV drivers' dietary decisions.  
391 Goodness of fit statistics revealed acceptable overall fit of the model with the data according  
392 to the multiple indices adopted (GoF Index = .523; APC = .212,  $p = .010$ ; ARS = .331,  $p$   
393  $< .001$ ; AVIF = 1.702).

394



408 **Figure 1.** Hypothesised multi-theory, dual phase model of health behaviour. *Note:* Effects of age and  
 409 past behaviour on each of the variables has been omitted for clarity but standardised path coefficients  
 410 for each relationship can be found in Table 4. Figures in parentheses are standardised path coefficients  
 411 inclusive of the effects of past behaviour in the hypothesised model.

412

### 413 **Model Effects**

414 Standardised parameter estimates for the hypothesized relations among model factors

415 are presented in Figure 1 and Table 4. Overall, the model accounted for 77.2% of the

416 variance in HGV drivers' intentions to eat fruit and vegetables and 26.1% of the variance in

417 their fruit and vegetable consumption. With regards to the motivational phase of the model,

418 autonomous motivation had a statistically significant positive direct effect on attitudes (H<sub>1</sub>),

419 subjective norm (H<sub>2</sub>), and perceived behavioural control (H<sub>3</sub>), as predicted. Also, as

420 hypothesized, attitude (H<sub>4</sub>) and perceived behavioural control (H<sub>6</sub>) were statistically

421 significant positive predictors of intentions, but subjective norms (H<sub>5</sub>) was not, leading us to

422 reject this hypothesis. There was a statistically significant positive effect of intentions (H<sub>7</sub>)  
 423 and perceived behavioural control (H<sub>8</sub>) on fruit and vegetable consumption, as predicted.  
 424 There was no direct effect of autonomous motivation on fruit and vegetable consumption  
 425 (H<sub>13</sub>), as predicted.

426 *Table 2.* Participant ( $N = 84$ ) characteristics and descriptive statistics for study variables for those  
 427 that completed the initial survey (Time 1) and those that completed the initial and follow-up survey  
 428 (Time 2)

Variable	Time 1	Time 2
Participants, $N$	212	84
Age, $M$ years (SD)	45.18 (11.90)	45.94 (12.07)
BMI, $M$ (SD)	30.91(8.05)	29.90 (6.08)
Weekly work kilometres	4353.59 (4253.84)	5183 (6314.51)
Ethnicity:		
Caucasian	196	75
Indigenous	6	3
Maori	2	1
Indian	1	1
Other	6	4
High education level:		
Primary School	3	1
Some high school	43	18
Junior high school	53	21
Senior high school	43	10
Tafe / trade	61	29
University	9	5
Attitude	5.53 (1.72)	6.04 (1.37)
Subjective norm	5.77 (1.25)	5.92 (1.18)
Perceived behavioural control	4.74 (1.69)	4.84 (1.68)
Intention	4.75 (1.62)	4.93 (1.18)
Autonomous motivation	5.23 (1.59)	5.64 (1.39)
Action planning	3.54 (1.92)	3.81 (1.85)
Coping Planning	3.21 (1.79)	3.28 (1.72)
Past fruit and vegetable consumption	3.83 (2.19)	4.02 (2.31)
Fruit and vegetable consumption	-	3.89 (2.04)

429  
 430 Contrary to expectations there were no indirect effects of attitudes (H<sub>17</sub>), subjective norms  
 431 (H<sub>18</sub>), and perceived behavioural (H<sub>19</sub>) on fruit and vegetable consumption mediated by  
 432 intentions. However, we found a total indirect effect of autonomous motivation on intentions  
 433 mediated by attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (H<sub>20</sub>). There was  
 434 no significant indirect effect of autonomous motivation on behaviour (H<sub>21</sub>) mediated by  
 435 attitudes, subjective norms, or perceived behavioural control, and intentions

436 Focusing on the volitional phase of the model, intentions significantly predicted  
437 action planning (H<sub>9</sub>) and coping planning (H<sub>10</sub>), and action planning (H<sub>11</sub>) significantly  
438 predicted fruit and vegetable consumption as hypothesised. There was no effect of coping  
439 planning on fruit and vegetable consumption (H<sub>12</sub>), so we rejected our hypothesis for this  
440 effect. As predicted, coping planning moderated the relationship between intention and fruit  
441 and vegetable consumption (H<sub>15</sub>). Specifically, the intention-behaviour relation was stronger  
442 in the presence of coping planning. Action planning did not moderate the intention-behaviour  
443 relationship, so we rejected our hypothesis (H<sub>14</sub>). There was no indirect effect of intention on  
444 fruit and vegetable consumption mediated by action planning (H<sub>22</sub>) or coping planning (H<sub>23</sub>),  
445 leading us to reject these hypotheses.

446 Finally, past behaviour was shown to be a significant predictor of all but two of the  
447 variables in the model, although the effects did approach conventional levels for statistical  
448 significance for subjective norms ( $p = .084$ ) and behaviour ( $p = .088$ ) (H<sub>16</sub>). The inclusion of  
449 past behaviour resulted in a number of effects in the model being reduced to trivial values and  
450 failed to reach statistical significance including the direct effect of autonomous motivation on  
451 perceived behavioural control; the direct effect of attitudes on intentions; the direct effects of  
452 intentions on action planning, coping planning, and behaviour; the indirect effects of  
453 autonomous motivation on intentions via attitudes and perceived behavioural control; and the  
454 total indirect effect of autonomous motivation on intentions and fruit and vegetable  
455 consumption via attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control.

456

457 *Table 3.* Factor intercorrelations, composite reliabilities, and average variance extracted for latent variables in the multi-theory, dual  
 458 phase model for FV consumption (*N* = 84)

459

460 Note.  $\rho$  = Composite reliability coefficient;  $\alpha$  = Cronbach's alpha; AVE=Average variance extracted; Values on principal diagonal are square-

	$\rho$	$\alpha$	AVE	R <sup>2</sup>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Autonomous motivation	.941	.930	.801	.271	.895									
2. Attitude	.918	.920	.736	.294	.421***	.858								
3. Subjective norm	.894	.849	.739	.182	.268*	.334**	.860							
4. PBC	.851	.744	.740	.357	.338**	.242*	.496***	.860						
5. Intention	.950	.919	.864	.772	.486***	.503***	.549***	.734***	.929					
6. FV Behaviour	.965	.937	.901	.261	.311**	.285**	.317**	.496***	.527***	.949				
7. Action planning	.958	.961	.850	.409	.551***	.199	.072	.405***	.442***	.389**	.922			
8. Coping planning	.944	.950	.809	.102	.479***	.191	-.013	.250*	.239*	.266*	.670***	.900		
9. Age	-	-	-	-	-.117	.099	-.128	-.053	-.086	.069	-.043	.011	1.000	
10. Past behaviour	-	-	-	-	.487***	.431***	.211	.570***	.689***	.510***	.605***	.382***	.032	1.000

461 root of average variance extracted (AVE); PBC = Perceived behavioural control; FV = Fruit and vegetable consumption.

462 \*\*\*  $p < .001$  \*\*  $p < .01$  \*  $p < .05$ .

463

465 Standardised parameter estimates for the direct, indirect effects, and total effects of the multi-theory,  
 466 dual-phase model of fruit and vegetable consumption ( $N = 84$ )

Effect	Without Past Behaviour				With Past Behaviour			
	$\beta$	$p$	95%CI		$\beta$	$p$	95%CI	
			LL	UL			LL	UL
<b>Direct Effects</b>								
Autonomous motivation → Attitude	.471	<.001	0.284	0.657	.318	<.001	0.124	0.512
Autonomous motivation → Subjective norm	.319	.001	0.124	0.513	.255	.007	0.057	0.453
Autonomous motivation → PBC	.357	<.001	0.164	0.549	.079	.230	-0.131	0.289
Attitude → Intention	.294	.002	0.098	0.490	.118	.133	-0.088	0.324
Subjective norm → Intention	.150	.077	-0.053	0.353	.268	.005	0.070	0.466
PBC → Intention	.576	<.001	0.395	0.756	.305	.001	0.109	0.501
Autonomous motivation → FV Behaviour	.007	.476	-0.206	0.220	-.003	.489	-0.217	0.211
PBC → FV Behaviour	.293	.002	0.097	0.489	.286	.003	0.090	0.482
Intention → FV Behaviour	.187	.037	-0.014	0.388	.112	.145	-0.096	0.320
Intention → Action planning	.432	<.001	0.243	0.620	.019	.429	-0.193	0.231
Intention → Coping planning	.307	.001	0.111	0.503	-.121	.127	-0.327	0.085
Action planning → FV Behaviour	.252	.007	0.054	0.449	.206	.024	0.004	0.408
Coping planning → FV Behaviour	.071	.253	-0.138	0.280	.066	.270	-0.144	0.276
Action planning X Intention → FV Behaviour	.132	.107	-0.073	0.337	.124	.121	-0.082	0.330
Coping planning X Intention → FV Behaviour	.276	.004	0.078	0.473	.260	.006	0.062	0.458
Age → Autonomous motivation	-.121	.126	-0.326	0.084	-.141	.091	-0.347	0.065
Age → Attitude	.143	.088	-0.062	0.348	.123	.123	-0.083	0.329
Age → Subjective norm	-.224	.016	-0.423	-0.024	-.237	.011	-0.437	-0.037
Age → PBC	-.053	.312	-0.262	0.156	-.128	.113	-0.334	0.078
Age → Intention	-.067	.265	-0.276	0.142	-.081	.224	-0.291	0.129
Age → Action planning	-.145	.085	-0.350	0.060	-.130	.109	-0.336	0.076
Age → Coping planning	.043	.347	-0.168	0.254	-.007	.473	-0.221	0.207
Age → Behaviour	.162	.061	-0.041	0.365	.140	.093	-0.066	0.346
Past behaviour → Autonomous motivation	-	-	-	-	.506	<.001	0.322	0.690
Past behaviour → Attitude	-	-	-	-	.292	.002	0.096	0.488
Past behaviour → Subjective norm	-	-	-	-	.143	.088	-0.063	0.349
Past behaviour → PBC	-	-	-	-	.552	<.001	0.370	0.734
Past behaviour → Intention	-	-	-	-	.452	<.001	0.266	0.638
Past behaviour → Action planning	-	-	-	-	.603	<.001	0.425	0.781
Past behaviour → Coping planning	-	-	-	-	.342	<.001	0.148	0.536
Past behaviour → Behaviour	-	-	-	-	.146	.084	-0.058	0.350
<b>Indirect Effects</b>								
Attitude → Intent → FV Behaviour	.055	.235	-.094	.204	.013	.432	-.138	.164
Subjective norm → Intention → FV Behaviour	.028	.357	-.123	.179	.030	.347	-.120	.179
PBC → Intention → FV Behaviour	.108	.076	-.041	.257	.034	.327	-.115	.183
Autonomous motivation → Attitude → Intention	.139	.032	-.006	.284	.038	.312	-.111	.187
Autonomous motivation → Subjective norm → Intention	.048	.265	.057	.355	.068	.184	-.081	.217
Autonomous motivation → PBC → Intention	.206	.003	.063	.349	.024	.377	-.127	.175
<sup>a</sup> Autonomous motivation → TPB constructs → Intention	.392	<.001	.205	.585	.130	.109	-.076	.336
Autonomous motivation → Attitude → Intention → FV Behaviour	.026	.340	-.097	.149	.004	.473	-.119	.127

Autonomous motivation → Subjective norm → Intention → FV Behaviour	.009	.443	-.114	.132	.008	.451	-.115	.131
Autonomous motivation → PBC → Intention → FV Behaviour	.038	.269	-.084	.160	.003	.483	-.120	.126
<sup>a</sup> Autonomous motivation→TPB constructs→Intention→FV Behaviour	.073	.247	-.140	.283	.015	.447	-.199	.229
Intention → Action planning → FV Behaviour	.109	.075	-.038	.256	.004	.479	-.147	.155
Intention → Coping planning → FV Behaviour	.022	.388	-.129	.173	-.008	.459	-.159	.143
Total effects								
Autonomous motivation → Intention	.392	<.001	0.202	0.582	.130	.109	-0.080	0.336
Attitude → FV Behaviour	.094	.142	-0.080	0.265	.013	.443	-0.160	0.187
Subjective norm → FV Behaviour	.048	.294	-0.120	0.220	.029	.372	-0.140	0.201
PBC → FV Behaviour	.476	<.001	0.290	0.662	.319	<.001	0.125	0.513
Autonomous motivation → FV Behaviour	.236	.011	0.036	0.436	.034	.378	-0.180	0.246
Intention → FV Behaviour	.318	<.001	0.124	0.512	.108	.154	-0.100	0.316

467 *Note.*  $\beta$  = Standardized parameter estimate; 95% CI = 95% confidence intervals of  
468 standardized parameter estimates; LL = Lower limit of 95% confidence intervals; UL =  
469 Upper limit of 95% confidence intervals; PBC = Perceived behavioural control; FV = Fruit  
470 and vegetable consumption. <sup>a</sup>Effect represents total indirect effect through TPB constructs  
471 (attitude, subjective norm, PBC) as multiple mediators.  
472

## 473 Discussion

474 The aim of the current study was to apply an integrated multi-theory, dual-phase model  
475 to predict fruit and vegetable consumption in a sample of long-distance HGV drivers in  
476 Australia. The model integrates constructs and hypotheses from self-determination theory, the  
477 theory of planned behaviour, the model of action phases, and the health action process  
478 approach. Findings supported a number of effects found in similar integrated theories applied  
479 to health behaviour (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2014; Hamilton, Cox, et al., 2012; Hamilton,  
480 Kirkpatrick, Rebar, & Hagger, 2017; Mullan, Wong, Kothe, et al., 2013; Perugini & Bagozzi,  
481 2001; Schwarzer et al., 2010), including effects of autonomous motivation, and belief-based  
482 social cognitive variables on intentions to consume fruit and vegetables. However, the  
483 inclusion of past-behaviour resulted in the attenuation of model effects. Critically, the effect  
484 of intentions on behaviour was non-significant and trivial on the inclusion of past behaviour.  
485 This finding is consistent with multiple studies in the field which have observed similar  
486 attenuating effects of past behaviour, particularly the intention-behaviour relationship



487 (Danner, Aarts, & Vries, 2008; Norman & Conner, 2006). Overall, current findings indicate  
488 that very little of the variance in fruit and vegetable consumption is accounted for by  
489 variables in the model beyond past behaviour.

490 Focusing first on the prediction of intentions, results of our test of the integrated model  
491 are consistent with previous research (Chatzisarantis et al., 2009; Hamilton, Cox, et al., 2012;  
492 Hamilton, Kirkpatrick, Rebar, & Hagger, 2017) that has identified autonomous motivation as  
493 an indirect predictor of intention mediated via the TPB variables. For long haul HGV drivers,  
494 attitudes and perceived behavioural control, but not subjective norms mediated autonomous  
495 motivation on intentions. These findings suggest that long-haul HGV drivers' intentions to  
496 eat fruit and vegetables are based on internalised, personally-relevant motives, tastes and  
497 beliefs regarding their ability to eat the recommended serves each day, and are less  
498 influenced by their beliefs about significant others expectations. This result is consistent with  
499 the solitary lifestyle of a long-haul HGV driver who is likely to eat by themselves for days or  
500 weeks at a time (Apostolopolous et al., 2013) and therefore has less exposure to normative  
501 influences. However, it is important to note that when past behaviour was included in the  
502 model the indirect relationship between autonomous motivation and intention through the  
503 TPB variables did not hold. This attenuation effect probably models the fact that the drivers  
504 had made these kinds of decisions in the past, and that any decisions are largely dominated  
505 unmeasured, possibly implicit, processes. Importantly, inclusion of past behaviour in the  
506 model did not lead to the extinction of the significant direct effect of PBC on FV  
507 consumption. This effect suggests that HGV drivers' perception of control within their work  
508 context is an important factor to consider. It is unsurprising that given HGV drivers' low  
509 control over food choices, particularly healthy food choices at truck stops, plays a significant  
510 role in their overall FV consumption (Hamilton & Hagger, 2017). This low perceived control  
511 within the HGV drivers' work context is consistent with research which identified poor

512 availability of healthy food as a significant barrier for drivers (Passey et al., 2014). Drivers  
513 have also indicated they would eat healthier food choices if they are available (i.e., within  
514 their control to purchase) (Jacobson, Prawitz, & Lukaszuk, 2007).

515         However, effects of past behaviour in the current research were more wide-reaching  
516 than effects of social cognitive and motivational variables on intentions alone. Past behaviour  
517 was found to significantly and positively correlate with most of the psychological variables in  
518 the model and such attenuated many of the relationships within the model. This was expected  
519 given previous research that has found similar attenuation effects in other health behavioural  
520 contexts (Danner et al., 2008; Gardner, de Bruijn, & Lally, 2011; Norman & Conner, 2006).  
521 Most important, the effect of intention on behaviour was reduced to a trivial value and was  
522 not statistically significant, meaning that if the current study were to be replicated on multiple  
523 occasions, zero would be a probable value for the intention-behaviour relationship 95% of the  
524 time. Given that past behaviour does not capture a specific variable or construct, interpreting  
525 the attenuation effects is difficult. To speculate, past behaviour may model habitual effects,  
526 possibly mediated by unmeasured implicit cognition. Alternatively, it may model unmeasured  
527 variables that predict behaviour and account for (mediate) the effects of past behaviour on  
528 future behaviour.

529         Research has shown that past behaviour may serve as a proxy for habitual behaviour  
530 (Gardner, 2014; Gardner et al., 2011). In this case, past behaviour may model the fact that  
531 HGV drivers have undergone the deliberative decision-making processes multiple times in  
532 the past. The significant positive correlation of FV consumption at T1 and T2, that is, the  
533 effects of past behaviour on subsequent behaviour, demonstrates the stability of the FV  
534 consumption. The measure of past behaviour may also represent other unmeasured implicit  
535 representations of the action and context, initiated by relevant contextual cues (e.g., pulling  
536 into the service station or observing snack foods placed on a plinth near a service station

537 checkout). This would be consistent with research on dual-process models which show that  
538 constructs and measures representing the non-conscious, automatic processes play an  
539 important role in predicting health behaviour (Hagger et al., 2017; Strack & Deutsch, 2004).  
540 The attenuating effect of past behaviour in the current model test may provide an analog for  
541 the effects of these implicit constructs on action in the current integrated model. A possible  
542 avenue for future research would be to examine effects of past behaviour alongside other  
543 constructs representing non-conscious and automatic processes to arrive at a more  
544 comprehensive understanding of health behaviour (Gardner, 2014; Gardner et al., 2011;  
545 Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2014; Sniehotta et al., 2014; Strack & Deutsch, 2004).

546         Focusing on the volitional processes in the current integrated model, current findings  
547 are in line with the hypotheses drawn from the model of action phases (Heckhausen &  
548 Gollwitzer, 1987). Specifically, we found support for a moderating role of coping planning  
549 on the intention–behaviour relationship. The predictions regarding action planning and  
550 coping planning drawn from the HAPA (i.e., a mediating role: Schwarzer, 1992) were not  
551 found, although the mediating effects of action planning did approach conventional levels for  
552 statistical significance ( $p = .075$ ). Interestingly, the inclusion of past behaviour had little  
553 attenuating effect on the moderating role of coping planning on the intention-behaviour  
554 relationship, demonstrating this effect is independent of behavioural repetition. Given that  
555 some HGV drivers may have multiple delivery destinations, it follows that their plans to  
556 overcome general barriers to consume fruit and vegetables (i.e., coping plans) are able to  
557 consolidate intentions given coping plans are less reliant on specific dates, times, or  
558 destinations. Action plans, however, have been shown to play an important role in behaviours  
559 that can be performed in a consistent context (e.g., physical exercise; de Bruijn et al., 2012;  
560 Luszczynska et al., 2016), or in general population samples (e.g., eating fruit and vegetables  
561 in adults; van Osch et al., 2009). The continually changing context of HGV drivers may

562 disfavour the rigidity of action plans to further strengthen intentions. More generally, this  
563 result is consistent with propositions that planning variables are able to strengthen intentions,  
564 a moderating effect, rather than explain the intention-behaviour relationship, a mediating  
565 effect (Hagger & Chatzisarantis, 2014; Heckhausen & Gollwitzer, 1987; Wiedemann et al.,  
566 2009). The results seem to point to the key role of planning as a volitional strategy that  
567 augments intentions and leads to more efficient, effective implementation (Heckhausen &  
568 Gollwitzer, 1987). In contrast, the mediating effect in which planning explains the effect did  
569 not occur, despite action planning significantly predicting fruit and vegetable consumption.  
570 Overall, current findings imply that planning alters rather than explains the effects of  
571 intentions on fruit and vegetable consumption.

572         The current study had a number of strengths including identifying a hard-to-reach and  
573 under-researched group of male long-haul HGV drivers with a high risk of health problems  
574 due to their lifestyle, the adoption of an appropriate integrated theoretical approach for the  
575 prediction of fruit and vegetable consumption, and explicitly testing how effects in the  
576 integrated model are affected by past behaviour. The research, however, is not without  
577 limitations. To reduce the time-burden on drivers we did not collect overall fruit and  
578 vegetable consumption but targeted whether drivers were eating the recommended serves.  
579 This data would have allowed us to compare adherence rates to other epidemiological studies.  
580 Also, the sample size of the current investigation is small with high attrition. HGV drivers is  
581 a hard-to-reach population many of whom have never engaged in research before and are  
582 naturally wary of answering questions outside their community. This is may be a reason for  
583 the high attrition rates. Future research may overcome this issue by working closely with  
584 relevant HGV organisations to reduce any perceived distrust with researchers. Future  
585 research may also benefit from a smaller questionnaire to reduce the burden of completing  
586 them in such a time-poor population. While we had sufficient statistical power, results must

587 still be treated with caution given the high attrition rate and possibility of that we recruited a  
588 sample of individuals who were favourable to healthy eating. The research also relied on self-  
589 report data which may have facilitated socially desirable responses. However, anecdotally,  
590 the authors found through face-to-face data collection that many of the long-haul drivers were  
591 equally at ease verbally reporting their unfavourable as well as favourable attitudes towards  
592 fruit and vegetable consumption. A further limitation is the current study adopted a  
593 correlational design, so the direction of proposed effects can only be inferred from theory and  
594 not the data. Future research could use intervention or cross-lagged designs to confirm  
595 causality and the direction of the relationships. Similarly, future research would benefit from  
596 utilising a daily or situational assessment measure (i.e., ecological momentary assessment) to  
597 gain a deeper understanding of the timeline of dietary decisions.

598 Overall, current findings suggest that the integrated model is adequate in accounting  
599 for intentions to eat fruit and vegetables in HGV drivers, but fails to account for substantive  
600 variance in actual behaviour once accounting for past behaviour. Taken together, these  
601 findings seem to indicate that drivers' decisions to eat fruit and vegetables is not controlled  
602 by intentional processes, and may be controlled by habitual or implicit processes that affect  
603 behaviour beyond the drivers' awareness. We cannot be sure of the nature of the factors that  
604 result in these decisions as we did not measure habits, automaticity, or implicit cognition  
605 which may have served to mediate the past behaviour effects and provide an explanation for  
606 this pathway. We can speculate that because of constraints on availability and the routine  
607 nature of their profession, drivers do not engage in much conscious deliberation over their  
608 fruit and vegetable intake. Rather, since their decisions have been repeated consistently, it is  
609 likely that habits and non-conscious processes predominate for this behaviour, as it is likely  
610 for all their dietary behaviours. This presents considerable challenges for interventions aimed  
611 at promoting fruit and vegetable consumption in this vulnerable group. Strategies that might

612 assist would be those that help raise awareness of contextual eating cues (e.g., when and  
613 where food is eaten, what alternative choices are available), assist in self-monitoring of  
614 consumption, identifying alternative courses of action, and planning suitable alternatives  
615 when a self-directed cue is presented.

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Variable	Item	Scale
Intention	Do you agree that in the next week...?	1 = "strongly disagree", 7 = "strongly agree".
	...I intend to eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day	
	...I plan to eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day	
	...I expect that I will eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day	
Attitude	For me to eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day in the next week would be:	1 = "bad", 7 = "good"
		1 = "unfavourable", 7 = "favourable"
		1 = "undesirable", 7 = "desirable"
		1 = "harmful", 7 = "beneficial"
Subjective norm	Do you agree that in the next week...?	1 = "strongly disagree", 7 = "strongly agree".
	...Most people who are important to me would approve of me eating fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day	1 = "strongly disagree", 7 = "strongly agree".
	...Those people who are important to me think that I should eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day	1 = "strongly disagree", 7 = "strongly agree".
	...The people in my life whose opinion I value would think my eating fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day is desirable	
Perceived behavioural control	Do you agree that in the next week...?	1 = "strongly disagree", 7 = "strongly agree".
	...I have complete control over whether I eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day	1 = "strongly disagree", 7 = "strongly agree".
Autonomous motivation	...I am confident that I could eat fruit and vegetables every day following the recommended serves everyday	
	The reason I would eat the recommended serves of fruit and vegetables each day ...	
	... Because I personally believe it is the best thing for my health	1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"
	... Because I have carefully thought about it and believe it is very important for many aspects of my life	1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"
Action planning	... Because it is an important choice I really want to make	1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"
	... Because it is very important for being as healthy as possible	1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"
	I have made a plan regarding ...	
	... When to eat fruit and vegetables	1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"
Coping planning	... Where to eat fruit and vegetables	1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"
	... How to eat fruit and vegetables	1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"
	... How often to eat fruit and vegetables	1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"
	I have made a plan regarding ...	
Coping planning	... What to do if something interferes with my plans	1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"
	... How to cope with possible setbacks	1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"

... What to do in difficult situations in order to stick to my intentions

1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"

... When I have to pay extra attention to prevent lapses

1 = "not at all true", 7 = "exactly true"

Past fruit and vegetable consumption

On how many days in the course of the past week, did you eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves?

0 = "0 days", 7 = "7 days"

Fruit and vegetable consumption (T2)

In the previous week, to what extent did you eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day?

1 = "not at all", 7 = "a large extent"

In the previous week, on how many days did you eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day?

0 = "0 days", 7 = "7 days"

In the previous week, how often did you eat fruit and vegetables following the recommended serves every day?

1 = "never", 7 = "very often"

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