#### Original article

# Prospective associations of leisure-time physical activity with psychological distress and wellbeing: A 12-year cohort study

Running title: Leisure-time physical activity and mental health

André O. Werneck, MSc<sup>1\*</sup>, Brendon Stubbs, PhD<sup>2,3</sup>, Aaron Kandola, MSc<sup>4,5</sup>, Adewale L. Oyeyemi, PhD<sup>6</sup>, Felipe B. Schuch, PhD<sup>7</sup>, Mark Hamer, PhD<sup>8</sup>, Davy Vancampfort, PhD<sup>9</sup>, Danilo R. Silva, PhD<sup>10</sup>

1. Center for Epidemiological Research in Nutrition and Health, Department of Nutrition, School of Public Health, University of São Paulo (USP), São Paulo; Brazil.

2. Department of Psychological Medicine, Institute of Psychiatry, Psychology and Neuroscience, King's College London, De Crespigny Park, London, Box SE5 8AF, United Kingdom.

3. South London Maudsley NHS Foundation Trust, London, UK.

4. Division of Psychiatry, University College London, London, UK

5. Institute of Mental Health, University College London, London, UK

6. Department of Physiotherapy, College of Medical Sciences, University of Maiduguri, Borno State, Nigeria.

7. Department of Sports Methods and Techniques, Federal University of Santa Maria, Santa Maria, Brazil

8. Institute Sport Exercise & Health, Division Surgery Interventional Science, University College London, London, UK.

9. Department of Rehabilitation Sciences, KU Leuven – University of Leuven, Leuven, Belgium. 10. Postgraduate Program in Physical Education, Federal University of Sergipe - UFS, São Cristóvão, Brazil.

\***Corresponding author:** André O. Werneck, MSc, Department of Nutrition, School of Public Health, University of São Paulo (USP). Av. Dr. Arnaldo, 715 - Cerqueira César, São Paulo - SP, 01246-904, São Paulo, Brazil. E-mail: <u>andrewerneck@usp.br</u>.

Acknowledgments: We thank the Centre for Longitudinal Studies (CLS), UCL Institute of

Education, for the use of these data and the UK Data Service for making them available. Neither

CLS nor the UK Data Service bear any responsibility for the analysis or interpretation of these

data.

## Conflicts of Interest and Source of Funding: Sources of Funding: This research received no

specific grant from any funding agency in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

André O. Werneck is funded by the São Paulo Research Foundation (FAPESP) with a PhD

scholarship (FAPESP process: 2019/24124-7). Brendon Stubbs is supported by a Clinical

Lectureship (ICA-CL-2017-03-001) jointly funded by Health Education England (HEE) and the National Institute for Health Research (NIHR). Brendon Stubbs is part funded by the NIHR Biomedical Research Centre at South London and Maudsley NHS Foundation Trust. Hamer is funded through a joint award from Economic Social Research Council and Medical Research Council (RES-579-47-0001). This paper presents an independent research. The views expressed are those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of the (partner organization), the FAPESP, the NHS, the NIHR, or the Department of Health and Social Care. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. The authors declare that they have no competing interests relevant to this article.

## ABSTRACT

**Objective:** To investigate the associations of leisure-time physical activity with psychological distress and wellbeing, and potential mediators.

**Methods:** We used data from the 1970 British Cohort Study (N=5,197 - 2,688 men), including waves 34y (2004), 42y (2012), and 46y (2016) waves. Participants reported leisure-time physical activity frequency and intensity (exposure) at age 34 (baseline), cognition (vocabulary test), body mass index, disability, mobility and pain perception (potential mediators) at age 42, and psychological distress (Malaise inventory) and wellbeing (Warwick-Edinburgh scale) at age 46. Baseline confounders included sex, country, education, employment status, alcohol use, tobacco smoking, and psychological distress. Main analyses included logistic regression and mediation models.

**Results:** Higher leisure-time physical activity intensity at baseline was associated with lower psychological distress at 46y [ $\beta$ : -0.038 (95%CI: -0.069 to -0.007)], but not leisure-time physical activity frequency. Baseline leisure-time physical activity frequency and intensity were associated with higher psychological well-being at 46y [frequency:  $\beta$ : 0.089 (95%CI: 0.002 to 0.176); intensity:  $\beta$ : 0.262 (95%CI: 0.123 to 0.401); and total:  $\beta$ : 0.041 (95%CI: 0.013 to 0.069)]. Only body mass index at 42y partially mediated the association between leisure-time physical activity frequency (15.7%) and total leisure-time physical activity (6.2%) at 34y, with psychological wellbeing at 46y.

**Conclusions:** These findings highlight the role of leisure-time physical activity in psychological distress and wellbeing, with greater effect sizes associated with higher frequency and intensity of leisure-time physical activity. Future interventions should consider examining potential mediators of the association of leisure-time physical activity with psychological wellbeing, such as body mass index.

Keywords: exercise; mood; mental health, wellbeing, physical activity, sport

## List of abbreviations

y = years.

LTPA = leisure-time physical activity.

BMI = body mass index.

BCS70 = 1970 British Cohort Study.

CI = confidence interval.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Mental illness is a major contributor to the overall global burden of disease and one of the leading causes of disability worldwide (1). There is growing evidence that physical activity reduces the risk of mental illness such as depression and anxiety (2,3). Physical activity may also improve psychological wellbeing and reduce psychological distress (4–7).

Psychological wellbeing refers to a positive state where individuals realize their potential while maintaining interpersonal relationships, working productively, contributing to their community, and coping with psychological distress (8). Psychological distress is the presence of negative emotions that disrupt normal daily functioning (8,9). Higher psychological distress and lower wellbeing are independently associated with an increased risk for cardiovascular diseases and premature mortality (10–13). Furthermore, lower psychological wellbeing and increased psychological distress are associated with an elevated risk of mental disorders (14).

There is emerging evidence that physical activity is prospectively associated with reduced psychological distress (5–7) and increased psychological wellbeing (4). Much of these associations refer to leisure-time physical activity (LTPA), which includes discretionary activities that are not essential for daily living, such as recreational sports or exercises (15). However, there is insufficient research on the dose-response relationship of leisure-time physical activity with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing, including the optimal frequency, intensity, and duration. Several cross-sectional studies have found that just one session of LTPA per week is associated with lower psychological distress and increased psychological wellbeing (16,17). However, some cross-sectional studies have found that increased durations and intensities of physical activity are associated with greater reductions in psychological distress (16–18).

There is a lack of longitudinal studies exploring dose-response associations of LTPA with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing. Higher psychological distress and lower wellbeing may be associated with lower leisure-time physical activity (19), which cross-sectional studies cannot examine. Understanding prospective, dose-response associations of LTPA with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing is relevant to inform the development of effective public mental health interventions.

There is also a lack of research on potential mediators of the associations between LTPA with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing. There are indications that the body mass index (BMI) (20), physical disability, pain (21,22), and cognition (23) are potential mediators of the association between LTPA with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing. For example, lower LTPA levels are associated with increased BMI, disability, and poor cognition, which could negatively impact psychological distress and wellbeing (24–26). However, the existing evidence is mostly from cross-sectional studies that are unable to disentangle the temporal relationships between the exposures, mediators, and outcomes.

Therefore, we conducted a prospective study to investigate the association between LTPA and future psychological distress and wellbeing. A secondary aim was to examine whether cognition, BMI, disability, or pain mediate the associations between LTPA and psychological distress and wellbeing. We used data from the 1970 British Cohort Study to examine these associations across three time points. We hypothesized that i) LTPA is prospectively associated with psychological distress and wellbeing and ii) cognition, BMI, disability, mobility, and pain could mediate the association between LTPA with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing.

## **METHODS**

#### Sample

We used data from the 1970 British Birth Cohort Study (BCS70), full details of which are available elsewhere (27). Briefly, BCS70 is a multidisciplinary, longitudinal study that included people from England, Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland born in a specific week of 1970 (27). The sample was followed-up in 1975 (5y), 1980 (10y), 1986 (16y), 1996 (26y), 2000 (30y), 2004 (34y), 2008 (38y), 2012 (42y) and 2016 (46y). We analyzed data from 2004 (34y), 2012 (42y), and 2016 (46y) waves in 2020. We used the 34y wave as our baseline and 46y as a 23-year follow-up. We also included data from 42y to assess potential mediators in associations between LTPA at 34y and psychological distress and psychological wellbeing at 46. All questionnaires data were collected through face-to-face interviews, including self-reported questions. All procedures utilized for this study complied with the ethical standards of the relevant national and institutional committees on human experimentation and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975. Participants provided informed consent.

The initial study sample included 17,284 people (at 1970). However, 6,608 provided complete data in the 2004, 2012 and 2016 waves. Additionally, 1,411 participants presented missing data in at least one variable from the present study and were excluded from the sample. Therefore, the final sample was composed of 5,197 participants (2,688 women). We conducted an attrition analysis by comparing the characteristics of the sample with valid data at baseline to the samples with valid data at the 42y and the 46y waves.

*Psychological distress and wellbeing (34y and 46y)* 

The co-primary outcomes were psychological distress and wellbeing. Psychological distress was evaluated at 34y (covariate) and 46y (outcome) using the Malaise Inventory, which asks questions regarding depressive moods, lack of energy, anxiety and stress. The 9-question version was applied (with scores ranging 0 to 9) (28). The Malaise inventory of 24 Items presented good reliability (Cronbach alpha = 0.80) in a previous study among the UK population (29) and the 9item version has a high correlation with the 24-item questionnaire (30). For wellbeing, the Warwick-Edinburgh mental wellbeing scale was used at 46y. The Warwick-Edinburgh scale includes questions on positive affect, satisfying interpersonal relationships, and positive functioning, with total scores ranging between 14 and 70 (31). A validation study found evidence of good reliability for the Warwick-Edinburgh scale in the UK population, with a Cronbach alpha of 0.92 (31).

#### *Leisure time physical activity (34y)*

LTPA was assessed at 34y (2004). Participants were shown a list of LTPA that asked whether they: take part in competitive sport of any kind, go to "keep fit" or aerobics classes, go running or jogging, go swimming, go cycling, go for walks, take part in water sports, take part in outdoor sports, go dancing, take part in any other sport or LTPA which involves physical exercise. Participants were also asked whether they took part in these activities regularly (yes or no). The definition of regularly was at least once a month, for most of the year. Participants who answered "yes" were also asked how often they engaged in this type of activity, with responses on a 6-point scale (everyday, 4 to 5 days a week, 2 to 3 days a week, once a week, 2 to 3 times a month, or less often). Participants were also asked whether the activity made them sweaty or out of breath, with responses on a 4-point scale (most times, sometimes, rarely, or never).

We used the question about the frequency to create the indicator of LTPA frequency and the question about got out of breath or sweaty (indicating higher intensity) to create the indicator of LTPA intensity. We only considered as habitual physical activity practice those reporting a frequency of at least once a week. People reporting less than once per week were scored 0. Otherwise the mean frequency (7 for "everyday", 4.5 for "4 to 5 days a week", 2.5 for "2 to 3 days a week" and 1 for "once a week") was multiplied with the intensity ("most times" = 4, "sometimes" = 3, "rarely" = 2 and "never" = 1) to create a score of approximate energy expenditure (32).

## Potential mediators (42y)

All potential mediators were assessed at 42y. Cognition (recall) was estimated using the vocabulary test (33). The test included 20 words where cohort members were asked to select which of the five words next to it had a similar meaning to the original word. We used total score on this test as a measure of cognition and our potential mediator. A second mediator was BMI, which was measured using self-reported weight and height (weight / height<sup>2</sup>).

Mobility was a third potential mediator and assessed via the self report question: "During the past 4 weeks, how much difficulty did you have doing your usual work or other daily activities because of your physical health?". Participants responded on a 5-point scale (none at all, little bit, some, quite a lot, or could not do). Those who reported at least some difficulty were considered as having a physical limitation. For pain perception, participants were asked: "During the past 4 weeks, how much bodily pain have you had?". Participants responded on a 6-point scale (none, very mild, mild, moderate, severe, or very severe). We considered those who reported moderate to very severe as positive for pain perception. Disability was defined according to the European Union of Statistics on Income and Living Conditions (34) definition of a longstanding illness or condition that reduces the ability to carry out day to day activities.

## *Covariates (34y)*

Sex, country of origin, education, employment status, alcohol use, tobacco smoking and values of the Malaise Inventory during baseline (34y) were included as covariates. Educational status (highest qualification achieved) was categorized into three groups: none (no formal education or incomplete secondary education), at least high school and more than high school. Employment status was assessed during adulthood (having a full-time job or not having a full-time job). Tobacco smoking was assessed through a question regarding the smoking frequency where those who reported smoking at least occasionally were considered as smokers. Alcohol use was assessed through a question asking about alcohol consumption frequency where participants who reported four or more days of alcohol consumption per week were considered as frequent consumers.

#### Statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics are presented using means and standard deviations or frequencies. For comparisons between included and non-included sample, we used the chi-squares and t-tests. Linear regression models were created to investigate the association between total, frequency, intensity LTPA at 34y with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing at 46y, adjusting for sex, country, education, employment, alcohol use, tobacco smoking and baseline values of Malaise Inventory and including each mediator in separate models. Linear regression models

were also created to analyze the association between LTPA (frequency, intensity and total) and mediators (cognition, BMI, disability, mobility and pain).

We conducted mediation models analysing the role of potential mediators (42y) in the association of LTPA (34y) with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing (46y). Considering the assumptions of mediation analysis, we included potential mediators that were predicted by LTPA in preliminary analyses, using the method proposed by Valeri and Vanderweele (35). For this, the total effect was decomposed into total effect (i.e. the effect of LTPA on psychological distress and psychological wellbeing), controlled direct effects (i.e. the direct effect of LTPA on psychological distress and psychological wellbeing that was not explained by the mediators), reference interaction (i.e. the effect of LTPA due to the interaction with the mediators), and pure indirect effects (i.e. mediation effect). We used command "med4way" on Stata 15.1 to conduct these analyses (36).

## RESULTS

The characteristics of the sample are presented in **Table 1**. A comparisons of baseline characteristics between included and non-included sample demonstrated a higher total LTPA, LTPA intensity, and education levels in the included sample (**Table 2**).

**Table 3** shows the prospective associations of LTPA at 34y with psychological distress and wellbeing at 46y. Frequency and total LTPA were not associated with psychological distress. Higher LTPA intensity at 34y was associated with lower psychological distress [ $\beta$ : -0.038 (95%CI: -0.069 to -0.007)]. Higher LTPA frequency [ $\beta$ : 0.089 (95%CI: 0.002 to 0.176)], intensity [ $\beta$ : 0.262 (95%CI: 0.123 to 0.401)] and total LTPA [ $\beta$ : 0.041 (95%CI: 0.013 to 0.069)] were positively associated with psychological well-being.

The associations between exposures (at 34y) and mediators (at 42y) are presented in **Table 4**. Intensity and total LTPA were positively associated with cognition, while frequency and LTPA were inversely associated with BMI. LTPA was not associated with disability, mobility and pain.

After preliminary analyses, cognition and BMI were included as mediators in the association between LTPA intensity and psychological distress and the associations of frequency, intensity and total LTPA with psychological wellbeing (**Table 5**). There was a direct effect of LTPA in the association between LTPA intensity at 34y and psychological distress at 46y. Only BMI at 42y partially mediated the association between frequency of LTPA (15.7%) and total LTPA (6.2%) at 34 with later psychological wellbeing, such that lower levels of LTPA were associated with higher BMI, which was associated with lower psychological wellbeing. In the other models, LTPA had a direct effect on psychological wellbeing.

#### DISCUSSION

To the best of our knowledge the current study is the first to investigate the prospective associations of different LTPA domains with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing, and to explore their potential mediators. Our main finding was that LTPA at 34y was associated with lower levels of psychological distress and higher levels of psychological wellbeing at 46y. LTPA frequency and total LTPA were positive associated with wellbeing but not psychological distress. BMI partially mediated the associations of higher LTPA frequency and total LTPA with wellbeing.

Our results align with previous studies that also found that self-reported physical activity is associated with lower psychological distress and higher psychological wellbeing (4–6). While previous studies focused on total physical activity volume, we examined different physical activity components, including frequency and intensity. Our findings suggested that higher total LTPA and LTPA frequency and intensity were associated with higher psychological wellbeing. However, only LTPA at higher intensity levels was associated with lower psychological distress. Our longitudinal findings build on the results of previous cross-sectional studies to suggest that any dose of physical activity could reduce psychological distress and improve wellbeing, but higher frequencies and intensities could have a larger effect (16–18). These findings align with previous work suggesting that moderate-to-vigorous intensity is protective against mental health symptoms (17,18,37).

Different mechanisms could underlie the association of physical activity and psychological distress and wellbeing, including biological changes (38). For example, physical activity is associated with reduced inflammation (39) and psychological distress is associated with a pro-inflammatory state (40). Previous research have found that moderate-intensity physical activity can reduce mental health symptoms through potentially reducing tumor necrosis factor alpha, a pro-inflammatory cytokine (41). Physical activity could also protect against psychological distress through reducing cortisol or improving hippocampal structure or functioning (42–46). LTPA could also enable social network and support, which are associated with reduced psychological distress and increased wellbeing (47–49).

Our results also suggest that BMI partially mediated the association between LTPA and psychological wellbeing, and cognition mediated the association between LTPA and psychological distress. LTPA was not prospectively associated with physical limitations, including disability, mobility and pain. Physical limitations typically increase with age (50), suggesting that these associations could be more pronounced in an older sample of adults than we used in this study (51,52).

Higher BMI can affect psychological distress and psychological wellbeing through different mechanisms, including weight-related stigmatization or physical self-esteem (53–55). Higher BMI could also lead to higher inflammation, including through a poor quality diet (40,56,57). However, we found that the association of LTPA with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing was predominantly through a direct effect, suggesting that other factors than BMI may predominantly explain the associations.

We study included prospective data from a large national birth cohort with a 12-years follow-up. However, potential limitations include the use of self-report measure of LTPA, psychological distress, wellbeing and potential mediators, which are prone to recall and social desirability bias. The LTPA and mediator measures were also unvalidated. There was considerable attrition throughout the study, which may have induced a selection bias. We were unable to adjust for unmeasured confounding, such as social relationships quality, loneliness, the presence of mental disorders, or genetic mental health risks. We were also unable adjust the analyses for baseline psychological wellbeing due to unavailability of data.

In conclusion, LTPA was prospectively associated with lower psychological distress and higher psychological wellbeing and this association varied according to frequency and intensity. We found some evidence that BMI partially mediated the association of LTPA with psychological wellbeing. Our findings highlight the public health importance of the LTPA in reducing mental health disorders in the population. Future research should explore the prospective role of different physical activity intensities in its association with psychological distress and wellbeing and potential mediators of this association.

#### REFERENCES

1. Ferrari AJ, Charlson FJ, Norman RE, Patten SB, Freedman G, Murray CJL, Vos T, Whiteford HA. Burden of Depressive Disorders by Country, Sex, Age, and Year: Findings from the Global Burden of Disease Study 2010. Hay PJ, editor. PLoS Medicine. 2013;10:e1001547.

2. Schuch FB, Vancampfort D, Firth J, Rosenbaum S, Ward PB, Silva ES, Hallgren M, Ponce De Leon A, Dunn AL, Deslandes AC, Fleck MP, Carvalho AF, Stubbs B. Physical Activity and Incident Depression: A Meta-Analysis of Prospective Cohort Studies. American Journal of Psychiatry. 2018;175:631–48.

3. Schuch FB, Stubbs B, Meyer J, Heissel A, Zech P, Vancampfort D, Rosenbaum S, Deenik J, Firth J, Ward PB, Carvalho AF, Hiles SA. Physical activity protects from incident anxiety: A meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies. Depression and Anxiety. 2019;36:846–58.

4. Blomstrand A, Björkelund C, Ariai N, Lissner L, Bengtsson C. Effects of leisure-time physical activity on well-being among women: a 32-year perspective. Scandinavian Journal of Public Health. 2009;37:706–12.

5. Perales F, Pozo-Cruz J del, Pozo-Cruz B del. Impact of Physical Activity on Psychological Distress: A Prospective Analysis of an Australian National Sample. American Journal of Public Health. 2014;104:e91–97.

6. Sheikh MA, Vancampfort D, Stubbs B. Leisure time physical activity and future psychological distress: A thirteen year longitudinal population-based study. Journal of

Psychiatric Research. 2018;101:50-56.

7. White RL, Babic MJ, Parker PD, Lubans DR, Astell-Burt T, Lonsdale C. Domain-Specific Physical Activity and Mental Health: A Meta-analysis. American Journal of Preventive Medicine. 2017;52:653–66.

8. Keyes CLM. The Mental Health Continuum: From Languishing to Flourishing in Life. Journal of Health and Social Behavior. 2002;43:207.

9. Ridner SH. Psychological distress: concept analysis. Journal of Advanced Nursing. 2004;45:536–45.

10. Kubzansky LD, Huffman JC, Boehm JK, Hernandez R, Kim ES, Koga HK, Feig EH, Lloyd-Jones DM, Seligman MEP, Labarthe DR. Positive Psychological Well-Being and Cardiovascular Disease. Journal of the American College of Cardiology. 2018;72:1382–96.

11. Lazzarino AI, Hamer M, Stamatakis E, Steptoe A. The Combined Association of Psychological Distress and Socioeconomic Status With All-Cause Mortality: A National Cohort Study. JAMA Internal Medicine. 2013;173:22.

12. Martín-María N, Miret M, Caballero FF, Rico-Uribe LA, Steptoe A, Chatterji S, Ayuso-Mateos JL. The Impact of Subjective Well-being on Mortality: A Meta-Analysis of Longitudinal Studies in the General Population. Psychosomatic Medicine. 2017;79:565–75.

13. Welsh J, Korda RJ, Joshy G, Butterworth P, Brown A, Banks E. Psychological distress and ischaemic heart disease: cause or consequence? Evidence from a large prospective cohort study. Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health. 2017;jech-2017-209535.

14. Keyes CLM, Dhingra SS, Simoes EJ. Change in Level of Positive Mental Health as a Predictor of Future Risk of Mental Illness. American Journal of Public Health. 2010;100:2366–71.

15. World Health Organization. WHO guidelines on physical activity and sedentary behaviour. Geneva, Switzerland: World Health Organization; 2020.

16. Galper DI, Trivedi MH, Barlow CE, Dunn AL, Kampert JB. Inverse Association between Physical Inactivity and Mental Health in Men and Women: Medicine & Science in Sports & Exercise. 2006;38:173–78.

17. Hamer M, Stamatakis E, Steptoe A. Dose-response relationship between physical activity and mental health: the Scottish Health Survey. British Journal of Sports Medicine. 2009;43:1111–14.

18. Bernard P, Doré I, Romain A-J, Hains-Monfette G, Kingsbury C, Sabiston C. Dose response association of objective physical activity with mental health in a representative national sample of adults: A cross-sectional study. van Amelsvoort T, editor. PLOS ONE. 2018;13:e0204682.

19. Firth J, Siddiqi N, Koyanagi A, Siskind D, Rosenbaum S, Galletly C, Allan S, Caneo C, Carney R, Carvalho AF, Chatterton ML, Correll CU, Curtis J, Gaughran F, Heald A, Hoare E, Jackson SE, Kisely S, Lovell K, Maj M, McGorry PD, Mihalopoulos C, Myles H, O'Donoghue B, Pillinger T, Sarris J, Schuch FB, Shiers D, Smith L, Solmi M, Suetani S, Taylor J, Teasdale SB, Thornicroft G, Torous J, Usherwood T, Vancampfort D, Veronese N, Ward PB, Yung AR, Killackey E, Stubbs B. The Lancet Psychiatry Commission: a blueprint for protecting physical health in people with mental illness. The Lancet Psychiatry. 2019;6:675–712.

20. Hattar A, Pal S, Hagger MS. Predicting Physical Activity-Related Outcomes in Overweight and Obese Adults: A Health Action Process Approach. Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being. 2016;8:127–51.

21. Stubbs B, Koyanagi A, Schuch FB, Firth J, Rosenbaum S, Veronese N, Solmi M,

Mugisha J, Vancampfort D. Physical activity and depression: a large cross-sectional, populationbased study across 36 low- and middle-income countries. Acta Psychiatrica Scandinavica. 2016;134:546–56.

22. Cairney J, Faulkner G, Veldhuizen S, Wade TJ. Changes over Time in Physical Activity and Psychological Distress among Older Adults. The Canadian Journal of Psychiatry. 2009;54:160–69.

23. Mandolesi L, Polverino A, Montuori S, Foti F, Ferraioli G, Sorrentino P, Sorrentino G. Effects of Physical Exercise on Cognitive Functioning and Wellbeing: Biological and Psychological Benefits. Frontiers in Psychology. 2018;9:509.

24. Caputo J, Simon RW. Physical Limitation and Emotional Well-Being: Gender and Marital Status Variations. Journal of Health and Social Behavior. 2013;54:241–57.

25. Gale CR, Harris A, Deary IJ. Reaction time and onset of psychological distress: the UK Health and Lifestyle Survey. Journal of Epidemiology and Community Health. 2016;70:813–17.

26. Elran-Barak R. The associations of healthful weight-control behaviors with psychological distress and changes in body mass index among young adults. Journal of Health Psychology. 2019;135910531984069.

27. Elliott J, Shepherd P. Cohort Profile: 1970 British Birth Cohort (BCS70). International Journal of Epidemiology. 2006;35:836–43.

28. Rutter M, Tizard J, Whitmore K. Education, health and behaviour. London: Longmans; 1970.

29. Rodgers B, Pickles A, Power C, Collishaw S, Maughan B. Validity of the Malaise Inventory in general population samples. Social Psychiatry and Psychiatric Epidemiology. 1999;34:333–41. 30. Ploubidis GB, Sullivan A, Brown M, Goodman A. Psychological distress in mid-life: evidence from the 1958 and 1970 British birth cohorts. Psychological Medicine. 2017;47:291–303.

31. Tennant R, Hiller L, Fishwick R, Platt S, Joseph S, Weich S, Parkinson J, Secker J, Stewart-Brown S. The Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Well-being Scale (WEMWBS): development and UK validation. Health and Quality of Life Outcomes. 2007;5:63.

32. Juneau C-E, Sullivan A, Dodgeon B, Côté S, Ploubidis GB, Potvin L. Social class across the life course and physical activity at age 34 years in the 1970 British birth cohort. Annals of Epidemiology. 2014;24:641-647.e1.

33. Kantar Public UK. Technical report of the 1970 British Cohort Study: Age 42 survey
(2012 – 2013). London, UK: TNS BMRB; 2013.

34. EUROSTAT. Methodological guidelines and description of EU-SILC target variables. Luxembourg City, Luxembourg; 2017.

35. Valeri L, VanderWeele TJ. Mediation analysis allowing for exposure–mediator interactions and causal interpretation: Theoretical assumptions and implementation with SAS and SPSS macros. Psychological Methods. 2013;18:137–50.

36. Discacciati A, Bellavia A, Lee JJ, Mazumdar M, Valeri L. Med4way: a Stata command to investigate mediating and interactive mechanisms using the four-way effect decomposition. International Journal of Epidemiology. 2019;48:15–20.

37. Currier D, Lindner R, Spittal MJ, Cvetkovski S, Pirkis J, English DR. Physical activity and depression in men: Increased activity duration and intensity associated with lower likelihood of current depression. Journal of Affective Disorders. 2020;260:426–31.

38. Kandola A, Ashdown-Franks G, Hendrikse J, Sabiston CM, Stubbs B. Physical activity

and depression: Towards understanding the antidepressant mechanisms of physical activity. Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews. 2019;107:525–39.

39. Fernandes RA, Ritti-Dias RM, Balagopal PB, Conceição RDO, Santos RD, Cucato GG, Bittencourt MS. Self-initiated physical activity is associated with high sensitivity C-reactive protein: A longitudinal study in 5,030 adults. Atherosclerosis. 2018;273:131–35.

40. Goldman-Mellor S, Brydon L, Steptoe A. Psychological distress and circulating inflammatory markers in healthy young adults. Psychological Medicine. 2010;40:2079–87.

41. Paolucci EM, Loukov D, Bowdish DME, Heisz JJ. Exercise reduces depression and inflammation but intensity matters. Biological Psychology. 2018;133:79–84.

42. Firth J, Stubbs B, Vancampfort D, Schuch F, Lagopoulos J, Rosenbaum S, Ward PB. Effect of aerobic exercise on hippocampal volume in humans: A systematic review and metaanalysis. NeuroImage. 2018;166:230–38.

43. Firth JA, Smith L, Sarris J, Vancampfort D, Schuch F, Carvalho AF, Solmi M, Yung AR, Stubbs B, Firth J. Handgrip Strength Is Associated With Hippocampal Volume and White Matter Hyperintensities in Major Depression and Healthy Controls: A UK Biobank Study. Psychosomatic Medicine. 2020;82:39–46.

44. Kubarych TS, Prom-Wormley EC, Franz CE, Panizzon MS, Dale AM, Fischl B, Eyler LT, Fennema-Notestine C, Grant MD, Hauger RL, Hellhammer DH, Jak AJ, Jernigan TL, Lupien SJ, Lyons MJ, Mendoza SP, Neale MC, Seidman LJ, Tsuang MT, Kremen WS. A multivariate twin study of hippocampal volume, self-esteem and well-being in middle-aged men. Genes, Brain and Behavior. 2012;11:539–44.

45. Van 't Ent D, den Braber A, Baselmans BML, Brouwer RM, Dolan CV, Hulshoff Pol HE, de Geus EJC, Bartels M. Associations between subjective well-being and subcortical brain volumes. Scientific Reports. 2017;7:6957.

46. Fuqua JS, Rogol AD. Neuroendocrine alterations in the exercising human: Implications for energy homeostasis. Metabolism. 2013;62:911–21.

47. Bian Y, Hao M, Li Y. Social Networks and Subjective Well-Being: A Comparison of Australia, Britain, and China. Journal of Happiness Studies. 2018;19:2489–2508.

48. Fu R, Noguchi H, Tachikawa H, Aiba M, Nakamine S, Kawamura A, Takahashi H, Tamiya N. Relation between social network and psychological distress among middle-aged adults in Japan: Evidence from a national longitudinal survey. Social Science & Medicine. 2017;175:58–65.

49. Thoits PA. Mechanisms Linking Social Ties and Support to Physical and Mental Health. Journal of Health and Social Behavior. 2011;52:145–61.

50. Ferrucci L, Cooper R, Shardell M, Simonsick EM, Schrack JA, Kuh D. Age-Related Change in Mobility: Perspectives From Life Course Epidemiology and Geroscience. The Journals of Gerontology Series A: Biological Sciences and Medical Sciences. 2016;71:1184–94.

51. Huang C, Sun S, Tian X, Wang T, Wang T, Duan H, Wu Y. Age modify the associations of obesity, physical activity, vision and grip strength with functional mobility in Irish aged 50 and older. Archives of Gerontology and Geriatrics. 2019;84:103895.

52. Makino K, Lee S, Lee S, Bae S, Jung S, Shinkai Y, Shimada H. Daily Physical Activity and Functional Disability Incidence in Community-Dwelling Older Adults with Chronic Pain: A Prospective Cohort Study. Pain Medicine. 2019;20:1702–10.

53. Alimoradi Z, Golboni F, Griffiths MD, Broström A, Lin C-Y, Pakpour AH. Weightrelated stigma and psychological distress: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Clinical Nutrition. 2019;S0261561419331024. 54. Emmer C, Bosnjak M, Mata J. The association between weight stigma and mental health: A meta-analysis. Obesity Reviews. 2020;21:e12935.

55. Jackson SE, Steptoe A. Obesity, perceived weight discrimination, and hair cortisol: a population-based study. Psychoneuroendocrinology. 2018;98:67–73.

56. Ellulu MS, Patimah I, Khaza'ai H, Rahmat A, Abed Y. Obesity and inflammation: the linking mechanism and the complications. Archives of Medical Science. 2017;4:851–63.

57. Holder MD. The Contribution of Food Consumption to Well-Being. Annals of Nutrition and Metabolism. 2019;74:44–52.

Variable	N (%) or mean $\pm$ SD
34 years	
Sex (Women), %	2,688 (51.7%)
Country of residence, %	
England	4,516 (86.9%)
Scotland	415 (8.0%)
Wales	266 (5.1%)
LTPA frequency, days/week	$2.5 \pm 2.4$
LTPA intensity, score	$2.4 \pm 1.5$
Total LTPA, score	$7.4\pm7.6$
Psychological distress, score	$1.5 \pm 1.8$
Education, %	
None	1,096 (21.1%)
Up to high school	2,587 (49.8%)
More than high school	1,514 (29.1%)
Employment (yes), %	3,891 (74.9%)
Tobacco smoking, %	1,437 (27.7%)
Alcohol use, %	881 (17.0%)
42 years	
Cognition, score	$13.1 \pm 3.4$
Body mass index, kg/m <sup>2</sup>	$26.7\pm5.1$
Disability, %	642 (12.4%)
Mobility problems, %	1,129 (21.7%)
Pain, %	846 (16.3%)
46 years	
Psychological distress, score	$1.7 \pm 2.0$
Well-being, score	$50.6 \pm 8.3$

1 **Table 1.** Characteristics of the sample (n = 5, 197).

Note. Values are described using absolute and relative frequencies or means with standard 2

3 4 deviation. LTPA, leisure-time physical activity.

Variable	Included	Non-included	р
	(n = 5, 197)	(n = 4,468)	
Sex (Women), %	51.7	52.7	0.316
Country of residence, %			< 0.001
England	86.9	83.2	
Scotland	8.0	6.0	
Wales	5.1	10.8	
Education, %			< 0.001
None	21.1	36.9	
Up to high school	49.8	42.6	
More than high school	29.1	20.5	
LTPA frequency, days/week	2.5 (2.4)	2.5 (2.5)	0.668
LTPA intensity, score	2.4 (1.5)	2.2 (1.6)	< 0.001
Total LTPA, score	7.4 (7.6)	7.1 (7.7)	0.024

**Table 2**. Characteristics of included vs. non-included sample

6 Note. Values are presented using relative frequencies or means (standard deviations).

Table 3. Regression models of the association between different leisure-time physical activity
 indicators at 34 years with psychological distress and psychological wellbeing at 46 years.

2	1, 0		0
Model		Psychological distress	Wellbeing
		β (95%CI)	β (95%CI)
LTPA Frequency			
Crude model	Physical activity	-0.010 (-0.033 to 0.013)	0.150 (0.056 to 0.244)*
Adjusted model	Physical activity	-0.004 (-0.011 to 0.002)	0.089 (0.002 to 0.176)*
LTPA Intensity	- •		
Crude model	Physical activity	-0.123 (-0.159 to -0.087)*	0.500 (0.353 to 0.647)*
Adjusted model	Physical activity	-0.038 (-0.069 to -0.007)*	0.262 (0.123 to 0.401)*
<b>Total LTPA</b>	· ·		
Crude model	Physical activity	-0.012 (-0.020 to -0.005)*	0.070 (0.040 to 0.099)*
Adjusted model	Physical activity	-0.001 (-0.021 to 0.018)	0.041 (0.013 to 0.069)*

12 Note. Adjusted for sex, country, education, employment, tobacco smoking, alcohol use and

values of malaise inventory at age 34. CI, confidence interval. LTPA, leisure-time physical

14 activity. \*p<0.05.

**Table 4**. Association between leisure-time physical activity indicators (at 34 years) and mediators (at 42 years).

LTPA indicators	Cognition	Body Mass Index	Disability	Mobility	Pain
	β (95%CI)	β (95%CI)	β (95%CI)	β (95%CI)	β (95%CI)
Frequency	0.004 (-0.031 to 0.039)	-0.124 (-0.181 to -0.067)*	0.018 (-0.016 to 0.053)	0.002 (-0.026 to 0.030)	0.027 (-0.004 to 0.057)
Intensity	0.117 (0.061 to 0.173)*	-0.047 (-0.139 to 0.044)	-0.047 (-0.103 to 0.009)	-0.033 (-0.077 to 0.012)	-0.004 (-0.046 to 0.055)
Total	0.016 (0.005 to 0.027)*	-0.024 (-0.042 to -0.006)*	0.002 (-0.009 to 0.013)	-0.003 (-0.012 to 0.006)	0.008 (-0.002 to 0.018)

Note. Adjusted for sex, country, education, employment, tobacco smoking, alcohol use and malaise inventory during baseline (34 years). LTPA, leisure-time physical activity. \*p<0.05.</li>

18 19

Table 5. Mediation models of the association of leisure-time physical activity (at 34 years) with psychological distress and
 psychological wellbeing at 46 years.

	Total effect β (95%CI)	Controlled direct effect β (95%CI)	Reference interaction β (95%CI)	Mediated interaction β (95%CI)	Pure indirect effect β (95%CI)
Psychological dist	ress	• • •	• • •	• • • •	• • •
LTPA Intensity					
Cognition	-0.038 (-0.069 to -0.007)*	-0.038 (-0.069 to -0.007)*	0.000 (-0.001 to 0.001)	0.000 (-0.001 to 0.001)	0.000 (-0.002 to 0.002)
Body Mass Index	-0.039 (-0.070 to -0.008)*	-0.038 (-0.069 to -0.007)*	0.000 (0.000 to 0.001)	0.000 (-0.001 to 0.001)	-0.001 (-0.002 to 0.001
Wellbeing					
LTPA Frequency					
Cognition	0.088 (0.001 to 0.175)*	0.087 (0.001 to 0.175)*	0.000 (-0.001 to 0.001)	0.000 (0.000 to 0.000)	0.000 (-0.001 to 0.001
Body Mass Index	0.093 (0.006 to 0.180)*	0.078 (-0.009 to 0.165)	0.002 (-0.001 to 0.006)	-0.002 (-0.005 to 0.001)	0.015 (0.006 to 0.023)
LTPA Intensity					
Cognition	0.262 (0.123 to 0.401)*	0.260 (0.120 to 0.399)*	0.000 (-0.004 to 0.005)	0.000 (-0.004 to 0.005)	0.002 (-0.007 to 0.011
Body Mass Index	0.261 (0.122 to 0.401)*	0.256 (0.117 to 0.396)*	0.000 (-0.001 to 0.001)	0.000 (-0.001 to 0.001)	0.005 (-0.005 to 0.015
Total LTPA					
Cognition	0.042 (0.014 to 0.069)*	0.041 (0.013 to 0.069)*	0.000 (0.000 to 0.000)	0.000 (0.000 to 0.000)	0.000 (-0.001 to 0.001
Body Mass Index	0.041 (0.014 to 0.069)*	0.039 (0.011 to 0.066)*	0.000 (-0.001 to 0.001)	0.000 (0.000 to 0.000)	0.003 (0.001 to 0.005)

22 Note. Adjusted for sex, country, education, employment, tobacco smoking, alcohol use and baseline values of malaise inventory.

23 Percentage of mediation of the BMI on total physical activity model with wellbeing: 6.2%. BMI on physical activity frequency model

24 with wellbeing: 15.7%. LTPA, leisure-time physical activity. \*p<0.05.