

FOOTBALL AND MENTAL HEALTH RECOVERY

1 ‘Think Football’: Exploring a Football for Mental Health Initiative Delivered in the
2 Community through the Lens of Personal and Social Recovery.

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21 Abstract

22 The practice and discourse of mental health recovery is evolving, with increasing
23 appreciation given to personal recovery and now social recovery. It therefore follows that we
24 need initiatives that enhance levels of social capital, positive social identities and social
25 inclusion within the community, not just within mental health services. These initiatives must
26 bring people together in ways that allow them to feel that they have ownership of any new
27 social infrastructures and use evidence-based frameworks to evaluate them. One context that
28 has been given some consideration is the use of community sport. This paper therefore
29 contributes to the steadily growing literature in this area by exploring the specifics of a
30 community mental health football project, through the utilisation of the personal and social
31 recovery frameworks that have been established within the ‘mainstream’ mental health
32 evidence base. This relativist study utilised seventeen semi-structured interviews (with
33 participants and staff) and, as a deliberate departure from existing research, chose to adopt a
34 deductive, theoretical approach to the analysis that located the data within the personal
35 recovery and social recovery literature. Both participants and staff were considerably positive
36 about the sessions, and data suggested an adherence to the empirically based CHIME
37 personal recovery framework. In terms of alignment with the social recovery concepts, the
38 data was particularly robust in supporting active citizenship processes, which can increase
39 levels of social capital and enhance social identities. Future work is required to further
40 explore the contextual impact of poverty and employment, and the role that sport can
41 potentially play.

42 *Keywords:* Personal Recovery; Social Recovery; Mental Health; Football; CHIME

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48 Personal recovery has an emerging prioritisation in western mental health services
49 (Wallace et al., 2016), however, there is limited literature to support the filtering down of this
50 focus into community contexts. Whilst there are numerous different interpretations of what
51 personal recovery might mean, Anthony’s (1993) definition is most frequently cited, which
52 outlines how it is “a deeply personal, unique process of changing one’s attitudes, values,
53 feelings, goals, skills, and/or roles. It is a way of living a satisfying, hopeful, and contributing
54 life even within the limitations caused by illness” (p.527). Personal recovery can be seen as a
55 subjectively viewed and valued process (Borg & Davidson, 2008; Slade, 2009), which
56 accepts that each individual’s experience is different and that there is no blueprint for
57 recovery (Perkins & Slade, 2012), an approach that is gaining increased support (Watson,
58 2012). One issue of personal recovery is the degree of conceptual confusion or
59 misunderstanding (Davidson & Roe, 2007) and also how it lacks an evidence base (Davidson
60 et al., 2006). In response to these claims, there has been a body of work from Mike Slade and
61 colleagues (the REFOCUS programme, see Bird et al., 2014; Slade et al., 2011; Wallace et
62 al., 2016) that has aimed to address this. Their work includes the development and
63 ‘validation’ of the empirically-based CHIME conceptual framework for personal recovery
64 that comprises five recovery processes, namely Connectedness, Hope and optimism, Identity,
65 Meaning and purpose, and Empowerment (Leamy et al., 2011). The implementation of this
66 framework is gaining traction in varying contexts (e.g., Brijnath, 2015), although critics have
67 claimed that the CHIME framework tends towards the positive or optimistic (Connell et al.,
68 2014) and does not always encompass the difficulties faced by many (Stuart, Tansey &
69 Quayle, 2016). The framework and subsequent critique have contributed to moving the

70 broader recovery discourse forwards, which has in recent years led to more attention being
71 given to social recovery.

72 Ramon (2018) made the case to look at social recovery consistently alongside
73 personal recovery. Existing literature suggests that there is not a specific definition of social
74 recovery, instead that it reflects that health services, policy makers and practitioners must
75 look beyond the person, and appreciate issues of social justice and social inclusion (Davidson
76 et al., 2009), as well as considering how the recovery processes can be supported in
77 communities and facilitate social relationships (Fenton et al., 2017). Personal and social
78 recovery can be viewed as being interconnected and overlap in many ways, but to distinguish
79 between them it is useful to consider social recovery as being an even more distinct departure
80 from the clinical (or medical) model of recovery (than personal recovery). Whilst personal
81 recovery still focuses somewhat on the individual and might not fully encourage an
82 appreciation of the social context, the concept of social recovery aims to consider the social
83 barriers or challenges that are limiting someone's recovery or negatively impacting upon their
84 health (Ramon et al, 2007). This thinking has been influenced by the broader social model for
85 disability (Repper & Perkins, 2003). As Tew et al. (2012) outlined, there is substantial
86 evidence that demonstrates the importance of social factors in contributing to the incidence of
87 mental health *difficulties*, but there is less emphasis on "how social factors may also play a
88 central role in people's *recovery*" (p.444). Evidence suggests that both 'social' and 'clinical'
89 recovery rates correlate much more closely with socio-economic factors (Tew et al., 2012),
90 such as social class inequalities (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2018), employment rates (Burns et al.,
91 2009) or cultural contexts (Clarke et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2016), than they do with any
92 advances in medical treatment (Warner, 2004). In line with the personal recovery focus,
93 social recovery is about "rebuilding a worthwhile life, irrespective of whether or not one may
94 continue to have particular distress experiences – and central to this can be reclaiming valued

95 social roles and a positive self-identity” (Tew et al., 2012., p.444). Furthermore, Ramon
96 (2018) highlighted the importance for people to lead “meaningful and contributing lives as
97 *active citizens* while experiencing mental ill health” (p.1), which exemplifies going beyond
98 the personal focus. Ramon’s (2018) model for social recovery specifically highlights the key
99 areas for consideration as being: Shared decision making, Co-production and Active
100 citizenship; Employment; Living in poverty; the Economic case for recovery, and the
101 Scientific evidence for the recovery model. Consideration of these social recovery elements
102 can potentially compliment the personal recovery CHIME framework, and help to address
103 some of the criticisms that Leamy et al.’s (2011) framework is overly positive and lacks
104 appreciation of the difficulties (Stuart et al., 2016), many of which might be due to a person’s
105 idiosyncratic social context.

106 It therefore follows that we need initiatives to enhance levels of social capital, positive
107 social identities and social inclusion within the community (not just within mental health
108 services) as a whole. These initiatives must bring people together in ways that allow them to
109 feel that they have ownership of any new social infrastructures and use evidence-based
110 frameworks to evaluate them (for instance, the CHIME framework and the social recovery
111 model), or as Tew et al., (2012) suggested, we need to continue to explore ‘what works?’
112 (p.455). One specific area that might ‘work’, which is gaining momentum, is sport and
113 physical activity, especially football.

114 **Enhancing Mental Health Through Sport**

115 Whilst various policies in the UK are, gradually, focusing more on the potential
116 benefits of community sport to enhance mental health and wellbeing (terms often used
117 interchangeably), Smith et al. (2016) highlighted the ongoing confusion in policies between
118 sport, physical activity (PA) and exercise. For example, the UK’s Department of Health’s
119 (2015) ‘Future in Mind’ policy specifically highlighted the scope available for general

120 practitioners and other professionals to offer social prescribing of activities such as sport (but
121 does not mention exercise or physical activity) to improve wellbeing and mental health. The
122 Government's (2015) 'Sporting Future' strategy places emphasis on mental wellbeing within
123 the nation's sporting agenda, and Sport England's (2016) 'Towards an Active Nation'
124 attempted to outline how key performance indicators would be evaluated and met in regards
125 to sport for the government's priorities, including mental health and/or wellbeing. However,
126 the existing evidence-base for these policies is predominantly based on PA or exercise, not
127 for sport, which is significant, due to sport differing from PA and exercise in a range of ways.
128 A key difference is the competitive and organised nature of sport that necessitates interaction
129 with other people in a number of different ways (Carless & Douglas, 2008), as opposed to PA
130 or exercise that is often (but certainly not always) undertaken as a lone activity (for a more
131 robust analysis, see Smith et al., 2016). Therefore, before bold policy statements relating to
132 the relationship between sport and mental health are made, and outcomes are potentially
133 'measured', the evidence base that recognises the nuanced complexity of different sports in
134 different contexts needs to be developed and appreciated. Furthermore, much of the evidence
135 focuses on how PA and exercise may "alleviate symptoms, impairment, and dysfunction
136 rather than its potential to contribute meaning, purpose, success, and satisfaction to a person's
137 life" (Carless & Douglas, 2008, p.140). Exploring the potential of sport and how it could
138 contribute to a person's life more broadly would not only help to inform evidence-based
139 practice, it also aligns well with the personal (Leamy et al., 2011; Watson, 2012) and social
140 (Ramon, 2018; Tew et al., 2012) recovery approaches.

141 Football (or soccer) is the sport that has received the most attention in terms of being
142 used to enhance mental health in the UK, which is perhaps due to it being the most popular
143 sport (The FA, 2015; Sport England, 2018). Friedrich and Mason's (2017a) review found
144 there to be sixteen football for mental health (or similar) studies published (the majority

145 conducted in England, with two in Scotland and one in Australia), with a key finding from
146 the review being that the projects investigated were very different in a number of ways (for
147 instance, target audience, form, frequency, cultural context, clinical staff involvement, type of
148 location). This further demonstrates the idiosyncratic and complex cultural manifestations of
149 sport in a mental health context, as assuming that projects delivered in a football club setting
150 (e.g. Henderson et al., 2014) are synonymous with projects delivered in mental health service
151 settings (e.g. Lamont et al., 2017) would be problematic. Friedrich and Mason (2017a)
152 therefore declared that it is vital to have more specific, empirical studies to continue to inform
153 the evidence-base and ‘make the case’ to policy makers and funders that football (or sport)
154 may have the potential to be beneficial, but as Smith et al. (2016) have cautioned there needs
155 to be due consideration to complexity and context. A clear theme across Friedrich and
156 Mason’s (2017a) review was that the cultural nature and popularity of football was providing
157 a ‘hook’ to engage groups of participants, and the review and a further study by (Friedrich
158 and Mason, 2018) viewed there to be “a developing consensus that there is a range of benefits
159 from football interventions that go beyond physical improvements to include well-being on
160 an emotional and social level” (p.136). It does remain prudent, however, to consider that the
161 ‘hook’ of football (or sport more generally) may well privilege some groups over others, for
162 instance, Spandler and McKeown (2012) highlighted the difficulties relating to gender and
163 masculinities within a football for mental health project. It still remains heartening that
164 studies have found benefits from football for mental health projects, which include: helping
165 to open up about health concerns (McKeown et al., 2015; Spandler et al., 2013), tackling
166 stigma (Magee et al., 2015), helping people to (re)discover their identity (Brawn et al., 2015)
167 and recover personal and social roles (Mason & Holt, 2012), often engaging those ‘hardest to
168 reach’ who are most at risk (Lewis et al., 2017; Spandler & McKeown, 2012). There is also
169 growing evidence that physical activity levels increase through involvement in these types of

170 projects (Friedrich & Mason, 2017b), although it is not clear if this increase is sustained
171 beyond the project. However, the literature remains sparse rather than extensive and
172 compelling, as the varied contexts, project approaches and types of participants, combined
173 with established conceptual or theoretical frameworks (or lack thereof), are not always
174 reflected in existing published studies. This paper therefore aims to contribute to the steadily
175 growing literature in this area by exploring the specifics of a community mental health
176 football project, through the utilisation of the personal and social recovery frameworks that
177 have been established within ‘mainstream’ mental health evidence. The rationale for this, in
178 line with Friedrich and Mason’s (2017a) call to move beyond the current inductive studies
179 that find similar themes, and instead to add some coherence and robustness to the analysis by
180 locating this work within the broader health service literature in order to add to the evidence-
181 base and contribute to making a strong case to policy makers and funders for any future
182 projects, given that initial findings in this area appear positive.

183 **Collaborative Partnership Working in Practice**

184 In order to align with Friedrich and Mason’s (2017a) review, so comparisons can be
185 made with other projects when required, this section outlines the key components of the
186 Think Football project in a similar fashion.

187 *Project name and description:* The project was called ‘Think Football’, and was
188 advertised as being for ‘personal and mental wellbeing’, and was initially a thirteen-month
189 pilot project beginning in March 2017, which has since been extended beyond the pilot phase.
190 The project was a collaboration between Aston Villa FC Foundation, and Birmingham
191 MIND, and was part-funded by Sport Birmingham, BT Sport and the Premier League, with
192 Newman University being the research partner. The project can be viewed as sitting under a
193 broader umbrella partnership in the West Midlands between the local mental health trust, the
194 county sports partnership, the university, the combined authority and sporting organisations

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195 who aim to work together in the community to enhance mental health through sport (see
196 MentalHealthThroughSport.com). This study was of the initial pilot phase of Think Football,
197 which was initially planned to be six months but was extended to a total of thirteen months.

198 *Form/Frequency:* Sessions ran each Wednesday from 11am to 12.30pm, in the
199 Academy Building, which is located on Aston Villa FC's Villa Park stadium site. Sessions
200 are free to attend. The activities within the session were deliberately varied, but generally
201 comprised of initial warm-up drills and basic ice-breaker activities, followed by different
202 football-specific coaching style elements (that were sometimes designed and led by
203 participants), before having either small-sided games (5-a-side) or larger games (11-a-side)
204 depending on what participants wanted to do (or the practicality of numbers of attendees
205 present). The design of the sessions incorporated a non-football-related workshop style
206 delivery towards the end that would provide information, advice or practical skills that might
207 benefit the participants. For instance, basic fitness sessions, information on nutrition, team
208 building activities, advice on other local services or activities that they could get involved in,
209 having time to sit and talk after the football whilst having a cup of tea and some biscuits,
210 offers from the local council, and so on. These additional workshop elements were delivered
211 by various organisations that were working in partnership together (see above). It is to be
212 noted that during the early months of the pilot phase, these workshop sessions were quite
213 infrequent, but became more regular and established towards the end of the pilot phase.
214 Approximately every two months there was a football tournament, during which teams from
215 other mental health football initiatives (regional and national) would come and compete
216 against the Think Football participants, during the same time period on Wednesdays in the
217 same location.

218 *Target group:* Although the sessions were advertised generically as being for personal
219 and mental wellbeing, it was the specific aim to engage men and women over the age of 18

220 who had low level mental illness, which the organisers deemed to be most commonly
221 depression and/or anxiety. Participants were to be from the community (i.e., not formally
222 referred from health services), and were able to self-refer themselves by contacting the
223 project lead based at Aston Villa's Foundation and registering their information prior to
224 attending. Whilst an informal discussion was had regarding their suitability for the sessions,
225 the decision was made by the organisers to not record specific mental illness diagnoses (or
226 lack of) or seek evidence of previous diagnoses or treatment, in order to provide an open,
227 relaxed and most importantly non-clinical environment. Participants in the sessions could
228 register and join at any point after the project started, and in total during the thirteen month
229 project period there were 94 people who registered. During the first six months of the project
230 the average number of attendees each week would fluctuate between 12-22, but by the end of
231 the period the weekly average number of attendees was approximately 30-35.

232 *Intended outcomes:* Given that the project encouraged self-referrals and participants
233 were from a range of backgrounds and had varied mental illness experiences, the outcomes
234 for the pilot were deliberately kept broad and open; aiming to help to improve the mental
235 health and recovery of the participants, which included increasing participants' feelings of
236 social inclusion, confidence and levels of physical activity, alongside being able to use
237 football as the hook to engage participants with other related services or support.

238 *Methods of evaluation:* Semi-structured interviews with participants and also staff
239 leading the sessions.

240 *Identified themes:* These shall be outlined in the results and discussion.

241 **Method**

242 It is important to understand people's experiences in order to understand recovery,
243 due to the subjective and idiosyncratic nature of a person's recovery journey (Slade et al.,
244 2012). So it follows that adopting a qualitative methodology is a suitable approach, as it

245 enables exploration of individual experience in context (Stuart et al., 2016). This approach
246 was underpinned by the philosophical assumptions of a relativist ontology (assumes
247 numerous subjective realities) and a constructionist epistemology (our understanding is based
248 on appreciating multiple social constructions of knowledge; Williams et al., 2018), as the
249 study sought to make sense of the socio-cultural contexts and structural conditions that
250 influenced the participants' experiences (Braun & Clarke, 2006), relating specifically to the
251 concepts of personal (Leamy et al., 2011) and social recovery (Ramon, 2018; Tew et al.,
252 2012).

253 **Participants and Procedure**

254 Semi-structured interviews (see Appendix A for the interview guide) were undertaken
255 in a one-to-one style, in order to focus on the voices and experiences of those whom actually
256 experience this social phenomenon. These methods have been used by a number of studies
257 related to this topic (see Carless & Douglas, 2008; Crone, 2007; Spandler et al., 2013, 2014).
258 Semi-structured interviewing allows for a pre-planned interview guide to direct the
259 discussion, whilst still allowing participants flexibility in expressing their opinions through
260 open ended questioning (Williams et al., 2018). Initially, the questions were straightforward
261 in order to help participants feel comfortable ("Can you tell me about some of your
262 experiences during the sessions, e.g., what are some of the things you have enjoyed, disliked,
263 found challenging?"; "What are some of the benefits for you personally?") ranging to more
264 probing questions ("What has your experience been in terms of interacting with others during
265 the sessions?"; "To what extent do you feel you have had the opportunity to have a say in
266 what the sessions involve?"; "How do you think the sessions could be improved?"). Whilst
267 the researchers have no control over who attends the sessions each week, in terms of the
268 semi-structured interviews during the data collection process, purposive sampling (Cresswell,
269 2007; DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree 2006) was used, as individuals were selected who it was

270 felt (following engagement with them during the sessions) may provide further insight into
271 the experiences of those that attend the sessions. The total number of participants was
272 seventeen, with thirteen being participants and four being those involved in the delivery of
273 the sessions (referred to henceforth as staff). The age range of participants was between 18
274 and 55 years of age. No participants below the age of 18 are able to attend sessions.
275 Participants were approached by the lead researcher after a session had finished and were
276 given a participant information sheet and the opportunity to ask any questions about the
277 study, prior to being asked to complete and sign a written informed consent form. Only at this
278 point would an interview be arranged and subsequently undertaken. Interviews were
279 undertaken in the building where the football sessions were held, either in a separate room or
280 next to the pitch after sessions had finished once others had dispersed. Interview length
281 varied between 15 and 51 minutes. Interview data was recorded on password-protected smart
282 phones by the researchers, and then transcribed.

283 **Ethical considerations**

284 Ethical approval was gained for the study from the lead author's institution. Due to
285 the nature of the football sessions, and the potential sensitivity that can be related to some
286 mental health issues, the researchers initially attended sessions in an informal, voluntary
287 capacity. This helped the participants become acquainted with the researchers' presence and
288 rapport to be developed (Flick, 2014), prior to outlining the nature of the study and seeking
289 consent. As is the focus of the advertised sessions, all of the attendees are considered to have
290 some form of 'low-level' mental illness. Whilst consideration was given to the mental
291 capacity (based on the Mental Capacity Act 2005) of participants to provide informed
292 consent, it was not envisaged that this would be an issue for the participants attending these
293 sessions. For instance, the participants have made the decision to attend the optional football
294 sessions and make their own travel arrangements. Also, at the heart of the Mental Capacity

295 Act is the assumption that people do indeed have capacity (in this case, to provide informed
296 consent) unless an assessment has proven otherwise. Given the nature of the sessions being
297 aimed at low level mental illness, it was considered extremely unlikely that anyone would
298 have been formally considered to lack capacity to consent, however, in the unlikely event that
299 this was a possibility, the sessions were attended by MIND staff, whose role it was to work
300 with people with mental illness in the community, and there were also qualified support
301 workers from various services present with attendees, so researchers had the opportunity to
302 seek guidance from these individuals. However, as anticipated, this did not materialise as an
303 issue during the study. Debriefing was regarded as the on-going engagement with participants
304 as the researchers regularly attended the weekly sessions (in an informal manner, not
305 formally observing), and as part of the reflexive process (Etherington, 2004) the researchers
306 repeatedly discussed on-going findings and analysis with participants throughout the data
307 collection process (which spanned five months) as initial themes were identified, informally
308 discussed and anything unclear could be clarified. As rapport had been developed with
309 participants over time, this informal interaction and discussion was considered to be more
310 suitable than, for instance, formal member checking (which does not necessarily provide
311 more rigor, see Smith & McGannon, 2018) as the researchers did not want to add additional
312 formal burdens upon any participants, like asking them to stay behind after sessions for a
313 second or third time for a formal debrief and discussion of ongoing analysis. The researchers
314 also answered any questions that participants had about the research during this time. The
315 participants remain anonymous, with pseudonyms used throughout the analysis and
316 dissemination of the research.

317 **Analysis**

318 Once transcription was completed, transcripts were read and re-read to ensure
319 familiarity with the data (Jones, Holloway & Brown, 2013). As outlined previously, Friedrich

320 and Mason (2017a; 2018) suggested that existing studies in this area have all been inductive
321 and have found similar thematic outcomes, but remain relatively conceptually isolated within
322 the broader literature. As a deliberate departure from the existing research, rather than again
323 adopt an inductive approach, this study chose to adopt a deductive, theoretical approach to
324 the analysis, as outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006), through the utilisation of the personal
325 and social recovery frameworks that have been established within ‘mainstream’ mental health
326 evidence.

327 Therefore, the coding of the data was informed by both the concepts relating to social
328 recovery (Ramon, 2018; Tew et al., 2012), and also the CHIME framework (Leamy et al.,
329 2011) in a similar way to the work of Bird et al. (2014) and Brijnath (2015) that both used
330 deductive analysis that sought to explore the adherence of data in differing contexts of
331 ‘mainstream’ mental health recovery frameworks. Specifically, data was coded using the
332 concepts relating to the CHIME framework (Leamy et al., 2011), which are Connectedness,
333 Hope and optimism, Identity, Meaningful activities and Empowerment; and also relating to
334 social recovery (Ramon, 2018; Tew et al., 2012), which consisted of Shared decision making,
335 Co-production, Active citizenship, Employment and Living in poverty. During the initial
336 phases of the analysis, some themes were developed that were subsequently not utilised
337 during the deductive analysis as they were not judged to fit within the chosen frameworks.
338 The coding of this data gives some insight into these initial themes that were not included in
339 the results and discussion, as they included: ‘having fun versus coaching’; ‘improving fitness
340 levels’; ‘initial anxiety’; ‘feeling comfortable’; and ‘positive comments about sessions’. As is
341 explicated further in the discussion, in many cases certain data could have been judged to
342 align with more than one of the CHIME or social recovery themes. Therefore, the researchers
343 had frequent discussions together in order to make judgements about coding, and sometimes

344 sought clarification from participants. These judgements highlight the subjective nature of
345 this relativist approach.

346 **Results**

347 Following the theoretical coding and analysis, the findings are presented here in order
348 of the extent to which they aligned to the personal and social recovery concepts, i.e.,
349 Connectedness was interpreted as being the most significant theme from the data and Poverty
350 the least. However, it is acknowledged that there was often overlap amongst these related
351 concepts in the analysis.

352 **Connectedness**

353 This was a key theme, as many participants spoke about their lack of social
354 interaction prior to the Think Football sessions, and their limited social networks. The
355 following comment is indicative:

356 *Yes, absolutely. Like I say, it's been a really good experience, as I say because as*
357 *soon as I turn up... I've never been particularly good being around people... new*
358 *people. I kind of get a bit anxious, a bit socially anxious. For me it was quite a bit of*
359 *a... I had to really push myself to get into it in the first place. Now, because I've seen*
360 *all the lads, we've pretty much all been here from the very start. (Jay, Participant)*

361 The theme of having a supportive community amongst participants was very strong
362 throughout, and the development of communication outside of the sessions was reported as
363 being particularly helpful for a number of participants.

364 *They're all communicating and talking with each other. We have a WhatsApp group,*
365 *too. All of them coming together and talking to one another... Obviously, in*
366 *comparison to the first week where it was very hard to get them all to engage with one*
367 *another, they've come on massive leaps and bounds. I'd say that there is a general*

368 *connection within the group, and a group feel, and great group cohesion between all*
369 *of them. (Nick, Staff)*

370 These social benefits are in line with findings from previous studies, for example,
371 Dyer and Mills (2011) found that for their participants the “social aspects are as important
372 and enjoyable as the physical” p.35. The data suggested that the sessions were also beneficial
373 for the coaching staff to make new relationships and to support people in new ways, which
374 are important elements within Leamy et al.’s (2011) conceptualisation of connectedness. This
375 was especially important as staff were quite open that they had not worked within a specific
376 mental health context previously.

377 **Active Citizenship**

378 For Ramon (2018), having something that facilitates an increase in active citizenship
379 is vital for the social recovery model. This involves exploring ways people can contribute to
380 the wider community, enlarging social networks and advocating for change, whether that be
381 from within a local family circle or ranging up to membership in a political party. At a basic
382 level, the data suggested that the Think Football project was helping with the initial
383 development of the elements highlighted by Ramon, many of which participants seemed to
384 have struggled with previously, as the following comments reflect on:

385 *For me, I’ve always, always, always, loved football and I’ve always felt a lot more*
386 *positive when I’m playing. I was in a position where I just didn’t even want to play at*
387 *one stage. Now for me, doing this every week, now I genuinely I’ve got better, I play*
388 *other football as well now outside of this. I’m back in. I absolutely love my football*
389 *again now. I physically can’t play enough at the minute. (Simon, Participant)*

390

391 *Some of the benefits I've witnessed were all of them being more social together. For*
392 *example, after the first couple of weeks, a load of them went to the cinema with each*
393 *other, which we were very, very, surprised at. (Dee, Staff)*

394

395 *I've enjoyed just learning some new skills, and meeting new people, having a laugh,*
396 *having fun, and doing some new training. Yes, I feel happier. I'm meeting new people,*
397 *just having a good talk to them, which isn't always easy. (Ahmed, Participant)*

398 It has been demonstrated by empirical research that people who increase their
399 citizenship activities increase their recovery (Pelletier et al., 2015). Therefore, it is worth
400 highlighting that data supported all of the elements of Ramon's (2018, p.6) view of what
401 active citizenship should involve:

402 *Enlarging one's meaningful network, moving from being a passive to an active*
403 *citizen, being validated by other people in the community, learning skills necessary*
404 *for the specific activity, learning more about one's potential and one's strengths, and*
405 *becoming motivated for further such activities due to the success experienced. The*
406 *fact that many such activities take place outside the arena of mental health services is*
407 *a bonus, as it expands and reinforces people's connectedness, living beyond the*
408 *illness, and their recovery capital.*

409 **Meaning in Life and Meaningful Activities**

410 Another key process in terms of maintaining or recovering mental health is doing
411 things in your everyday life that you find meaningful and improves the quality of life (Leamy
412 et al., 2011; Slade et al., 2012). For these participants, this was evident through their passion
413 for and enjoyment of the football sessions:

414 *I think the variety of things we've done as well, so going from the football games, to*
415 *the fitness sessions that we've done as well, as I say, I've done quite a lot of stuff. I've*

416 *really found it good, really, really enjoyed myself to be fair, every week I've been*
417 *here. (Darren, Participant)*

418 Key elements of this process for Leamy et al. (2011) were 'rebuilding life' and 'social
419 goals', and for many participants the sessions provided them with a process that helped them
420 with the relatively fundamental underpinnings of making positive changes, including fitness
421 and having a goal to get out of bed for:

422 *When I first came, I couldn't do nothing because of my fitness. But obviously, coming*
423 *here has made me fitter, and I enjoy it more. Each and every week it just gets better*
424 *and better. (Musa, Participant)*

425 There remained an overwhelming sense that the sessions were facilitating the
426 participants doing something meaningful, which was exemplified most succinctly by Simon
427 (Participant):

428 *I've enjoyed every single week. I'm happy when I'm playing football. I'm happy with*
429 *the ball at my feet.*

430 **Hope and Optimism about the Future**

431 An important element for good mental health and for personal recovery is hope for the
432 future (Wallace et al., 2016), and data suggested that the sessions help to provide hope for the
433 participants, both in terms of short term (looking forward to something each week), and also
434 longer term (making plans). For instance, following the feedback from participants on
435 wanting to get involved in coaching more outside of the sessions, the Foundation
436 subsequently ran coaching qualifications for the participants.

437 *Yes, the sessions help me feel more optimistic about my future, definitely. I want to*
438 *play football when I get out [of the health unit] now, and just keep at it. Even if I start*
439 *coaching and stuff, I really want to keep up football now. (Sam, Participant)*

440 **Identity**

441 Many participants highlighted just how important football specifically is to them and
442 their identity, and how they valued coming to the sessions. Leamy et al. (2011) highlighted
443 how (re)building a person's social identity is vitally important to their recovery, and data
444 suggested that sessions and playing football at Villa specifically was significant for
445 participants:

446 *They have all been given a reward after the ten weeks. They get a Villa shirt. Literally*
447 *three quarters of them, apart from the ones that are West Brom fans, they wear their*
448 *Villa shirt so they can identify that they play at Villa. They all wear their Villa shirt to*
449 *the tournament so they identify themselves as being at Villa, as I think that Villa is a*
450 *big thing for them. I think if it wasn't Villa and it was a normal Leisure Centre, you*
451 *wouldn't get as many. (Nick, Staff)*

452 **Empowerment**

453 Perhaps the most difficult element of the CHIME processes for organisations to
454 facilitate are enabling genuine empowerment in the activities in a certain context (in this case,
455 football sessions). Participants spoke warmly about having the opportunity to lead parts of
456 sessions and having some input, but this is perhaps an area that could receive more attention
457 moving forwards, to have more input from participants on the broader running – perhaps an
458 advisory group made up of participants, staff and external partners. However, as the data
459 suggested, empowerment can look different to different people who are in different places in
460 their lives/recovery, and many were very positive about their involvement:

461 *It's great to be able to have an option of what you want to do. You never want*
462 *anything to get repetitive, so it's great to be able to have that bit of variation as well.*
463 *We've done different aspects of football, we went from playing games just to doing the*
464 *drills and then throw in the extra bit of fitness as well. The fitness sessions which I've*
465 *really enjoyed as well. I 100% can't complain. I think it's been really good, we've*

466 *been given every opportunity to be able to do what we wanted, lead the session our*
467 *way. (Ahmed, Participant)*

468 **Shared Decision Making and Co-Production**

469 In a similar manner to the Empowerment for attendees, the interview data suggested
470 that they were involved in making some decisions, and that the staff responded to the
471 feedback, but this was arguably retrospective, rather than, for instance, having some of the
472 attendees on the steering group to shape decision making from the start in a more genuine co-
473 production. Participants reported that the feedback was often related to the desire for sessions
474 to be longer and having some focus or ice-breaker activities earlier in the sessions when some
475 people get nervous or anxious before the start. These are elements that could have been
476 highlighted even prior to the first session if (potential) attendees had been involved in
477 decision making, and this could also have helped to break down power differentials that exist
478 within any intervention (Ramon, 2018).

479 **Employment**

480 To provide some context, the majority of those that attend sessions came from Aston
481 and the surrounding wards in Birmingham. According to the most recent 2011 Census data
482 (Birmingham City Council, 2018), Aston had an unemployment rate of 13.2%, compared to
483 9.3% for Birmingham and 5.8% for England. 41.6% of the Aston population between 16-64
484 years of age were economically inactive, which was higher than the rate for Birmingham
485 (30.7%) and England (23.0%). The wards immediately surrounding Aston had similarly high
486 levels of unemployment, ranging from Stockland Green (10.1%) and Gravelly Hill (11.3%)
487 to Nechells (14.1%), Lozells (14.3%) and Newtown (15.0%). Given that the sessions are
488 based within a broader societal context that has significant issues regarding employment, it
489 was perhaps somewhat surprising that this was not a concept that participants discussed to
490 any large extent. This may reflect where individual participants were in their own recovery

491 journey, and how employment fits (or does not), as there remain issues both for people with
492 mental illness to gain employment and also mental illness for an estimated 60% of those in
493 employment (Ramon, 2018). Some participants were perhaps not in a position to seek work,
494 and the sessions were an earlier stepping stone in their journey, although they were not
495 always explicit about work:

496 *I got my qualifications years ago, and I worked as a coach, but it was the same thing,*
497 *I just completely lost it - didn't want to know. Gave up that as well. So [leading parts*
498 *of the Think Football sessions] felt quite good as well, to go in and do that again*
499 *because it's been a long time. That again, was quite a pretty terrifying thing to go and*
500 *do because it's been so long since I've done it and my self-confidence with it was just*
501 *so low. (Jordan , Participant)*

502 Alternatively, Shay (Participant) used the sessions to help share experiences and
503 maintain mental health whilst in employment:

504 *I come here, I take time off work to come here and when I come here, all the past*
505 *experiences... some of us have been in hospital, some of us have been in respite, some*
506 *of us now with our doctors in the communities. We talk about all the experiences.*
507 *Some, they're even escorted into being told what to do, when to eat, when to do this.*
508 *When we meet here it's very different to all that.*

509 **Poverty**

510 As a city, Birmingham suffers from high levels of deprivation, being the 6th most
511 deprived authority in England, with 40% of its population living in wards that are classed
512 within the most deprived 10% of the country. Aston is the 11th most deprived ward (out of 69
513 wards) in Birmingham, with the immediately surrounding wards of Newtown, Nechells,
514 Birchfield, Lozells and Gravelly Hill all within the top ten most deprived wards. All of those
515 wards are also within the 10% most deprived areas of England (Birmingham City Council,

516 2018). Similarly to employment, there was not a strong focus on poverty within the
517 participant data, other than when barriers to attending or ceasing attendance were discussed.
518 Finance was frequently cited as an issue, despite the sessions being free. Transport to the
519 sessions was highlighted as an issue for participants, even considering the relatively short
520 distances required to travel across the city, which perhaps highlights the degree of the
521 financial issue for many, Neil's (Participant) comments were indicative: "*Not having money*
522 *to get here is a barrier, not so much for me but I know for a lot of the fellas who come ... its*
523 *hard*". Given the limited data on both employment and poverty here, there is therefore further
524 need to explore experiences of these elements relating to social recovery within sporting
525 contexts.

526 Discussion

527 The overall sense of the analysis is that both participants and staff were considerably
528 positive about the sessions, and that data suggest an adherence to the empirically based
529 CHIME personal recovery framework (Leamy et al., 2011; Slade & Longden, 2015) and the
530 social recovery approach (Ramon, 2018) that have been found to support and facilitate
531 recovery. Specifically, the five super-ordinate categories of the CHIME framework were all
532 supported within the analysis. As evidence suggests that Think Football facilitates
533 connectedness, hope, identity (re)development, provides meaningful activities and a level of
534 empowerment (that might otherwise be lacking), then it can be said that Think Football
535 sessions (and other sessions run in this specific way in the community) can benefit
536 individuals' personal recovery and mental health due to the facilitation of these underpinning
537 processes. Leamy et al. (2011) proposed that their framework could help to identify and
538 organise these specific recovery-related processes, in order to aid someone in their own
539 idiosyncratic journey. Judging by the most prominent themes, for the participants, football
540 acted as the vehicle to provide many of them with connectedness and social relations (in line

541 with findings from McKeown, Roy, & Spandler, 2015) that it would appear they are lacking
542 at their particular point in their journey. Similarly, the meaningfulness of football
543 (specifically, as an activity) was also central to the participants' experiences, which supports
544 the narrative synthesis of Leamy et al. (2011) that highlighted the importance of quality of
545 life, doing meaningful activities and how these activities may help people rebuild their lives.
546 Continuing work could explore further the role of sport in this sense, whether it is just an
547 early stepping stone or something more substantial that can help to rebuild lives.

548 Despite the positivity of participant data, there is a danger of adopting an overly
549 functionalist approach (Giulianotti, 2016) in praising the personal and broader societal
550 benefits of sport, whilst neglecting to learn from areas that need improving. As Stuart et al.
551 (2016) argued, the 'difficulties' within mental health contexts need to be appreciated more in
552 the CHIME framework (as they advocated for it to be CHIME-D). An aspect to reflect on
553 here is the empowerment within the sessions, as especially in community settings it can often
554 be context specific for individuals depending on their health or personal journey, for instance,
555 they might have either very little or actually quite considerable empowerment in their
556 everyday lives (when compared to someone who might be in secure care). Also, the limited
557 empowerment might have been self-imposing (or at least, social actors are complicit within
558 patterns of disempowerment and stigma), as people could accept the stereotype of the
559 mentally ill person, and subsequently contribute to their social inclusion when in community
560 settings. Whereas, it has been found elsewhere (Warner, 2010) that those who accept their
561 illness and begin to achieve some form of mastery over their lives (and their social
562 environment) have better outcomes. Therefore, what one person considers to be empowering
563 might be experienced very differently by someone else in the group, so it is imperative that
564 those designing and leading sessions take time to get to know their attendees and find out
565 'what works' (Tew et al., 2012) for them. It is also acknowledged that interviews were

566 undertaken with participants that had attended the sessions regularly, so as with other studies
567 of this nature little is known about the experiences of those who ceased attending, which is an
568 area for future work to explore.

569 In terms of alignment with the social recovery concepts, the data was particularly
570 robust in supporting active citizenship, as outlined by Ramon (2018). Whilst the elements of
571 shared decision making and co-production were less favourable, the basis for active
572 citizenship that the sessions were found to provide could, in time, arguably facilitate
573 participants having the confidence and experience to push for more decision making
574 involvement, as opposed to the expectation of adjunct interventions ‘handing it over’ to
575 participants. However, in line with the social model, it is still imperative that interventions
576 are designed in such a way so that the emphasis or blame is not on the individuals (Warner,
577 2010), so there remain lessons to learn for practitioners and educators. In terms of the broader
578 inequalities that underpin mental health prevalence (Wilkinson & Pickett, 2018), and the
579 context of poverty and employment specifically, a limitation of this study is that there could
580 have been more of a consistent focus on these elements within the data collection process, as
581 the social and economic deprivation in Aston and surrounding areas could be playing more of
582 a part than is currently understood. Upon reflection, the sensitive nature of these elements
583 within a hegemonically masculine environment (Spandler & McKeown, 2012) might have
584 meant that participants were not comfortable discussing these aspects with researchers during
585 interviews, for fear of it damaging their cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1984). Therefore, to
586 remedy this, future work could potentially adopt an ethnographic approach in order to spend
587 more time with participants inside and outside of the sessions via participant observation (as
588 advocated by Pilgrim, 2009) to further explore their context and how issues relating to
589 poverty and employment might be impacting their social recovery, and what role sport can
590 play.

591 **Practice Implications**

592 Sport potentially offers a social space to work with those who suffer, and also work
593 developmentally with their friends, family and communities, as Tew et al. (2012) suggested
594 we must do more in this regard. Community projects of this nature make this (more)
595 achievable in a practical sense (as opposed to clinical settings). Attention must be given,
596 where possible, to participants' journeys and the nuances that are involved that mean they
597 experience adjunct interventions (for instance, football) in different ways. Encouraging and
598 facilitating active citizenship appears to show potential for making a real difference to
599 people's lives, and incorporating activities (e.g., workshops on personal finance or nutrition,
600 volunteering opportunities) and community partners (e.g., engagement with local council,
601 MIND and other sporting organisations) alongside the sessions can enable further
602 development outside of the intervention. Those considering establishing sessions of this
603 nature should work hard for genuine co-production, as participants, service-users, volunteers
604 and staff do not necessarily share the same understanding of what recovery is, therefore,
605 working in collaborative ways and educating each other about mental health recovery-
606 oriented initiatives (and how they might be viewed differently) will benefit both the
607 individuals and the community, as advocated by Bedregal et al. (2006). Friedrich and Mason
608 (2017a) highlighted that evidence for football sessions of this nature was vital to facilitate
609 more funding and changes in practice, and upon completion of this study of the pilot phase of
610 Think Football it was possible for the authors to feedback to the collaborative partnership and
611 they have since implemented recommended changes and also secured more funding for the
612 sessions to continue, which shows a demonstrable research impact on the community.

613 **Academic Implications**

614 The idiosyncrasies and nuances of participants' experiences in this study add further
615 weight to the evidence that people from different backgrounds can experience recovery very

616 differently, so researchers need to be methodologically creative and flexible, and recognise
617 that personal and social recovery contexts do not always lend themselves well to certain
618 methodologies, for instance, randomised controlled trials. As suggested previously, further
619 evidence and understanding is required of how the underpinning inequalities that impact
620 mental health prevalence (Smith et al., 2016; Wilkinson & Pickett, 2018) are influencing
621 community contexts and specific interventions, such as sport-based interventions that
622 continue to demonstrate a positive impact on personal and social recovery. Furthermore,
623 future research needs to consider how these inequalities and/or intersectionalities might be
624 experienced differently by individuals or groups in these types of contexts.

625 **Conclusion**

626 This study responded to the call of Freidrich and Mason (2018) to add to the limited,
627 but growing, evidence base of ‘adjunct interventions’ (or alternatives to mainstream or
628 ‘clinical’ services) of this nature. Tew et al. (2012) stated that we need to know ‘what works’
629 in terms of specific social recovery focused interventions that may enable processes of
630 recovery and enhance social capital, positive social identities and social inclusion. This is the
631 first study that has placed a community football for mental health project within the personal
632 and social recovery context, and specifically made use of the CHIME framework (Leamy et
633 al., 2011) and the social recovery model (Ramon, 2018) together in order to add to the
634 evidence base, in a similar way to Bird et al. (2014) and Brijnath (2015) in different contexts.
635 More broadly, locating work within the established personal and social recovery frameworks
636 helps to avoid the danger highlighted by Bedregal et al. (2006) that “recovery may become
637 simply the latest fad in the line of social policies informing— but not yet dramatically
638 changing— community mental health” (p.97), and as discussed in the implications section,
639 these frameworks are arguably already informing community practice.

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Appendix A

Semi-structured Interview Guide (Not including probes)

1. How did you hear about the sessions, and what made you join?
2. What were your first impressions when you joined? Were the sessions what you were expecting?
3. Can you tell me about some of your experiences during the sessions - i.e., what are some of the things you have enjoyed, disliked, or found challenging, and why?
4. What are some of the benefits for you personally? Have you noticed any changes in yourself, especially outside of the sessions? If so, why do you think this has happened?
5. What has your experience been in terms of interacting with others during the sessions?
6. Having come to the sessions across a number of weeks, do you feel connected to the group (or members of the group), and if so, in what ways?
7. To what extent do you feel you've had the opportunity to have a say in what the sessions involve?
8. Do you feel it has been beneficial to have choices during the sessions, e.g., on what activities you do, and how the sessions work?
9. How would you say playing football each week makes you feel? Do you think about the sessions during the week, or look forward to playing?
10. How important is football to you, and what role would you say it plays in your week?
11. To what extent would you say that football is a part of your identity, and in what ways?
12. How do you think the sessions could be improved? Are there specific things that make it difficult for you to attend?

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846 13. Are there any examples of people you know who could benefit from the sessions, but

847 there is something specific that is preventing them from attending - as we want to

848 know how sessions could be more accessible to a range of people?

849 14. How have you felt about the engagement with the coaches during the sessions?

850 15. Would you like the sessions to continue, and are there things you would like them to

851 include in the future?

852 16. Are there any other things you would like to say about the sessions that we have not

853 covered?

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