

1 **Being physically active through chronic illness: Life experiences of people**
2 **with arthritis**

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1 **Being physically active through chronic illness: Life experiences of people** 2 **with arthritis**

3 Despite the therapeutic potential of exercise for people with arthritis, they are
4 considerably less active than the general population. To explain this phenomenon,
5 research rarely moves beyond descriptive accounts of exercise barriers and facilitators.
6 Although a useful start point, such studies list decontextualized factors without
7 situating these within the wider experience of living with chronic illness. As such, we
8 know little about what physical activity means to people with arthritis and the personal
9 circumstances that support exercise participation or otherwise. To address this gap, we
10 used life-story interviews to explore participants' broad experiences of exercise and
11 arthritis. Interviews with 21 people (6 male, 15 female) aged between 24 and 79 years
12 ($M=57.7$ years) and diagnosed with arthritis for between 6 months and 35 years
13 ($M=12.7$ years) yielded over 35 hours of data, with each interview lasting between 55 –
14 160 minutes. Through an inductive thematic analysis of the data, we constructed 3
15 themes; *making sense of arthritis*, *adapting and enjoying exercise*, and *exercise as*
16 *medicine*. Participants constructed both illness and exercise differently and this held
17 consequences for their exercise experience. Barriers to exercise became more
18 surmountable once participants had achieved a satisfactory understanding of arthritis
19 and its consequences. Physical activity promotion in clinical populations might benefit
20 from supporting adaptation to illness more generally as opposed to an exclusive
21 exercise focus.

22 **Keywords:** exercise, rheumatology, osteoarthritis, disability, life-story

1 **Introduction**

2 Arthritis is a chronic condition characterised by the inflammation and deterioration of the
3 joints. There are many types of arthritis that fall within two main categories: inflammatory
4 arthritis (e.g. Rheumatoid Arthritis, Psoriatic Arthritis) and degenerative arthritis (e.g.
5 Osteoarthritis) (Hughes 2009). The different types of arthritis can vary in severity and
6 symptoms, but most commonly people with arthritis can experience pain, stiffness, fatigue,
7 and flu-like symptoms. In addition to symptoms, arthritis can have a broader negative impact
8 on physical, psychological and social health. Physically, arthritis is one of the leading causes
9 of disability (Vos et al. 2015) and people with arthritis can experience comorbidities such as
10 cardiovascular disease, osteoporosis, and infections (Michaud and Wolfe 2007).
11 Psychologically, having arthritis has been associated with anxiety and the on-set of
12 depressive symptoms (Bookwala, Harralson, and Parmelee 2003; Zyrianova et al. 2011).
13 Socially, people with arthritis are reported to have difficulties maintaining social activities,
14 becoming more isolated from society (Gettings 2010). Thus, arthritis can have a large impact
15 on the quality of life for the individual (Bolen et al. 2010; Theis et al. 2007).

16 Physical activity has been shown to have a positive impact on the physical and mental
17 health of people with arthritis. By participating in appropriate low-impact physical activity,
18 individuals can reduce pain and improve quality of life, daily functioning and mental health
19 (Gay et al. 2016). Psychologically, exercise has been widely associated with the reduction of
20 depressive symptoms for people with arthritis (Josefsson, Lindwall, and Archer 2013;
21 Neuberger et al. 2007). Physically, exercise is not only beneficial for symptom reduction, but
22 can slow down the progression of the condition (Bennell, Hall, and Hinman 2016). As such,
23 clinical recommendations now suggest that exercise should be included as a treatment option
24 for symptom management for osteoarthritis and as part of physiotherapy for rheumatoid
25 arthritis (NICE 2018a, 2018b; Bennell et al. 2016). The notion of “treatment” bears the

1 essential hallmark of exercise is medicine (EiM); a global health initiative promoting physical
2 activity and exercise as fundamental in preventing, managing and treating disease (Lobelo,
3 Stoutenberg, and Hutber 2014). The movement calls on healthcare professionals to prescribe
4 exercise and for patients to take responsibility for their health by becoming more active
5 (Sallis 2015; Berryman 2010). EiM promotes more exercise as good for everyone, but
6 although exercise can be beneficial, there are tensions in the way it is promoted. Namely,
7 Williams, Hunt, Papathomas, and Smith (2018) critique EiM in relation to a clinical
8 population of people with spinal cord injury and people with arthritis. They highlight how
9 physical activity guidelines lack specificity for the individual, which can be problematic
10 given the variance in severity of symptoms in chronic illness. Furthermore, EiM provides a
11 blanket statement that more exercise is always good for all, but this arguably is not the case
12 for clinical illness. In addition, by overly promoting exercise for health, Williams et al (2018)
13 argue it may undermine other motivators for activity, such as for fun and enjoyment. Others
14 have also acknowledged the controversial nature of EiM, specifically Adamson et al. (2018)
15 identified that when exercise was not possible people with multiple sclerosis had feelings of
16 guilt due to a lack of compliance with prescriptions. Too much emphasis on exercise for
17 health can therefore have negative consequences.

18 Despite the exercise is medicine agenda within clinical practice, people with arthritis
19 are continually reported to be less active than the general population (Murphy et al. 2017).
20 Further, 84% of adults with arthritis were found to avoid activities such as exercise or sport
21 (Hunter and Riordan 2014). Avoidance of activities can have negative consequences, with a
22 reduction in physical activity associated with an increase in arthritic symptoms such as pain
23 and stiffness (Richardson, Grime, and Ong 2014). Activity restrictions may also limit
24 opportunities to socialise, putting people with arthritis at greater risk of mental distress
25 (Machado, Gignac, and Badley 2008; Richardson et al. 2014). Maintaining a physically

1 active lifestyle can thus be extremely beneficial for people with arthritis. Although all these
2 factors are relevant, it is important to note that the highest rates of inactivity are in people
3 with arthritis who are older, less educated and have poorer levels of psychosocial and
4 physical health (Murphy et al. 2017). To help promote and increase physical activity in this
5 population, it is important to first understand why people with arthritis are inactive.

6 Existing research has focused on exploring the barriers, facilitators, and benefits of
7 physical activity and exercise for people with arthritis (Wilcox et al. 2006; Gyurcsik et al.
8 2009; Kamwendo, Askenbom, and Wahlgren 1999; Veldhuijzen van Zanten et al. 2015). A
9 review by Veldhuijzen van Zanten et al. (2015) found that pain and fatigue are the two most
10 commonly reported arthritis specific barriers to exercise throughout the literature. Other
11 common barriers included stiffness, mobility, a lack of provisions such as arthritis specific
12 exercise programmes, a lack of knowledge about appropriate exercise regimes, and a fear of
13 aggravating the disease. Findings from exercise interventions echo these barriers,
14 highlighting how ill-health such as flare-ups of the condition and exercise induced pain can
15 result in dropout from an exercise programme (Beckwée et al. 2015; Withall et al. 2016). Yet,
16 symptom management, pain relief and distraction, joint function, and independence were all
17 cited by Veldhuijzen van Zanten et al. (2015) as perceived benefits of activity, whereas,
18 support (from a variety of sources) and strength and aerobic capacity were viewed as
19 facilitators to exercise. Veldhuijzen van Zanten et al. (2015) argued that there was a clear
20 similarity between the factors cited as barriers and benefits of exercise. For instance, pain and
21 fatigue are the most common barriers, but reductions in pain and fatigue, through symptom
22 management and pain relief, are perceived benefits of exercise. As such, factors that are
23 associated with the physical impairment are largely important for adopting and maintaining a
24 physically active lifestyle. On top of the arthritis specific barriers, people with arthritis also

1 report generic barriers to participation, such as time, motivation, weather, and competing
2 responsibilities.

3 In general, the research literature on barriers, facilitators and benefits of exercise often
4 risks artificially segregating factors at the expense of understanding the process of exercise
5 experiences. Methodologically, many of the studies use surveys or questionnaires to collect
6 data (e.g. Brittain et al. 2011; Gyurcsik et al. 2009; Henchoz, Zufferey, and So 2013; Hutton
7 et al. 2009). This type of method isolates factors from the context in which they are
8 experienced. For example, we know pain is a commonly reported barrier to physical activity,
9 but we do not know how pain occurs (symptomatic or aggravated from exercise) or what
10 other daily activities it may limit. In addition, deductive questionnaires and surveys limit
11 findings to previously identified barriers. On the rare occasions a qualitative approach is
12 used, insights into context and meaning have been constrained by highly structured interview
13 schedules incorporating predominately closed questions (e.g. Fongen, Sveaas, and Dagfinrud
14 2015). Similarly, Fongen et al. (2015) reduced interview data to a frequency analysis, stating
15 that 45 people report fatigue as a barrier to activity. This quantification limits the
16 understanding about the meaning behind fatigue as a barrier.

17 In contrast, the use of narrative interviews has helped to better contextualise
18 previously segregated factors (Cartwright et al. 2015; Kaptein et al. 2013; Squire 2012;
19 Stamm et al. 2008, 2009; T. A. Stamm et al. 2010). Kaptein et al. (2013) discussed how other
20 roles, such as balancing demands of work, can make the decision to be physically active more
21 difficult. For example, people with arthritis make 'trade-offs' as to where to put their energy,
22 such as choosing to clean the house rather than exercise. This adds to our understanding of
23 how commonly reported barriers, such as fatigue and competing responsibilities, can interact
24 and impact on regular exercise (Der Ananian et al. 2008; Wilcox et al. 2006). Equally,
25 making adaptations to daily occupations such as work, home-life and exercise is associated

1 with *living-well* with rheumatoid arthritis (Squire 2012); suggesting that people who are more
2 able to adapt their physical activity to suit the needs of the condition are more likely to lead
3 more advantageous lives. Nonetheless, this research broadly analyses daily life experiences
4 of people with arthritis, consequently a more focused study on physical activity is needed to
5 develop a deeper theoretical understanding (Squire 2012). Thus, there is a need to
6 specifically address physical activity and arthritis (inflammatory and degenerative), whilst
7 using interpretive methods of inquiry to understand the process and meaning of exercise
8 experiences with arthritis. The present study therefore aims to build on previous research by
9 interpretively exploring experiences of arthritis and physical activity. In this study the
10 research questions were: 1) how do people with arthritis experience physical activity after
11 illness? and 2) what are the processes that enable or restrict people with arthritis to lead
12 physically active lifestyles?

13 **Methodology**

14 The present study was driven by an interpretivist paradigm that assumes a relativist ontology,
15 for instance, meaning is subjective and realities are multiple, and a constructionist
16 epistemology, such as we construct our knowledge through interactions with others and
17 knowledge cannot be objectively observed (Creswell 2013). By asking participants to narrate
18 their subjective experience, the multiple versions of reality of living with arthritis and
19 physical activity can be illuminated and explored.

20 ***Sampling and Participants***

21 Ethical approval was granted by the University Ethics Committee prior to a focused
22 recruitment period. A purposive sampling strategy was used to select the most appropriate
23 sample to answer the research question (for example, selecting participants with a variety of
24 arthritic conditions and physical activity experiences). Recruitment information was

1 distributed to UK based arthritis charities and through social media. On expressing an interest
2 in participating, the lead researcher confirmed with participants that they were diagnosed
3 with either inflammatory arthritis (e.g. rheumatoid arthritis, ankylosing spondylosis, or
4 psoriatic arthritis) or degenerative arthritis (e.g. osteoarthritis). In total, 21 people (6 male, 15
5 female) participated in the study and were aged between 24 and 79 years ($M=57.7$). As both
6 rheumatoid arthritis and osteoarthritis are most likely to develop over the age of 40 and are
7 more common in women than in men, the sample was considered appropriate for the arthritis
8 population (Carmona et al. 2010; Palazzo et al. 2016). Participants had been diagnosed with
9 arthritis for between 6 months and 35 years ($M=12.7$ years) at the time of the study; by
10 interviewing participants with a range of time since diagnosis, the researcher can address the
11 exercise experiences at different stages after diagnosis and treatment.

12 [Table 1 near here]

13 ***Data Collection***

14 Participants engaged in a life-story interview with the lead researcher. The interviews took
15 place at a time and location suitable to the participant and lasted between 55 – 160 minutes
16 ($M=102$ minutes); a combined total of 35 hours of data. The focus of the interviews was for
17 the participant to tell their personal story of arthritis and physical activity. Loosely referring
18 to the interview guide, the researcher emphasised discussion around their physical activity
19 involvement across their lifespan. As Riessman (2008) argues, the researcher must give-up
20 control and allow the participant to lead the interview. For example, during one interview the
21 researcher followed digressions towards stories about family members, which at first seemed
22 unrelated, however became important for understanding the participant's exercise
23 experiences. In addition, questions such as 'tell me a story about being active with arthritis?'
24 or 'can you describe the last time you were physically active?' were used to stimulate

1 descriptive life-story data. Probing questions were also utilised to encourage rich, detailed
2 explanations. For instance, ‘can you describe how that made you feel?’ or ‘can you expand
3 on that further?’

4 *Analysis*

5 The present study used an inductive thematic analysis to consider ‘what’ was being said, with
6 a focus on the content of the stories (Riessman 2008). The process of thematic analysis is
7 reflexive; the researcher moves forward and backwards through several stages of analysis,
8 including: *data familiarisation, coding, theme development, revision, naming and writing up*
9 (Braun, Clarke, and Weate 2016). During data familiarisation the researcher transcribed the
10 interviews verbatim and read and re-read transcripts, becoming immersed in the data, whilst
11 making general notes in the margins about the meaning of what is being said (e.g. ‘negative
12 experience of exercise’ or ‘learning about arthritis’). This helped to stimulate coding, a
13 process that systematically identifies important topics of interest to the research questions.
14 This process was data-driven; inductively analysing the transcripts and coding based on the
15 data, rather than a pre-existing framework (Nowell et al. 2017). For example, the code
16 ‘support impact on family’ was labelled to the extract: ‘the kids coped very well, a lot of
17 support, activities I couldn’t do anymore, so friends would take them’. This example portrays
18 the use of semantic coding, closely capturing the content and describing the data. Latent
19 coding was also used to interpret the deeper meaning of the data. For example, the code:
20 ‘health deterioration as motivation’ was labelled to the following extract: ‘I had to have a
21 wheelchair ... I don’t want to go back there’. Although the participant does not explicitly
22 indicate they felt motivated, nor do they specify their past health deterioration as a source of
23 motivation, it is reasonable to infer this from the content and the wider context of the
24 interview. Once all transcripts were systematically coded, the researcher moved on to theme

1 development; organising the codes into themes and continuously refining until the themes
2 robustly represent higher-level patterns in the data. These themes were then listed, with the
3 relevant codes underneath, and checked against original data quotes to ensure they robustly
4 represented the titled theme. The second author then acted as a critical friend in developing
5 and refining the themes by critiquing and questioning the structure and content of previously
6 constructed themes. After revising and renaming the themes, the researcher continued the
7 writing up process and returned to the data extracts to ensure each theme was correctly
8 represented. Further refinement of the theme structure and naming was conducted if the
9 extracts no longer fitted within the original thematic framework.

10 **Results and discussion**

11 The results and discussion have been combined to conceptualise and theorise the reported
12 data instantaneously. Through our inductive thematic analysis of the data we produced 3
13 themes; *making sense of arthritis*, *adapting and enjoying exercise*, and *exercise as medicine*.
14 These 3 themes offer an insight into how people with arthritis can experience physical
15 activity, and the processes which can enable or restrict physically active lifestyles.

16 ***Making sense of arthritis***

17 Through the early stages of arthritis, people go through a period of biographical disruption, in
18 which life is interrupted by symptoms and alterations to daily living (Bury, 1982). The
19 unpredictable nature of arthritis can be difficult to understand. For instance, people with
20 arthritis can experience sudden *flare-ups* which are acute bouts of pain or inflammation,
21 usually with an unknown trigger, causing severe physical limitations (Bingham et al. 2009).
22 Even when illness is expected (i.e. as part of aging), symptoms can be highly disruptive to the
23 life course and can have a large impact on daily living (Sanders, Donovan, and Dieppe 2002).
24 Thus, we highlight that people with arthritis must go through a period of *making sense of*

1 *arthritis* to adjust to their symptoms. Developing a greater understanding of arthritis and
2 gaining perceived control of the condition was important to how they experienced exercise.
3 Participants were able to have positive exercise experiences through an ongoing meaning
4 making process that draws on their experiential, social and medical knowledge over time.
5 Participants commonly described pain as one of the most prominent symptoms that they
6 experienced. How participants perceived their pain was a particularly important factor in
7 whether pain hindered physical activity, as one participant stated:

8 It's not the pain itself that stops me doing it, it's what that pain means and the
9 implications of that pain in the future. So, before I was diagnosed with arthritis, I didn't
10 know what it was, and I hoped that it would get better and that carrying on playing
11 [sport] to a certain extent wouldn't really make it worse, whereas now I know that it is
12 worse, the pain stops me because I think, ok I'm doing some damage and that scares me.
13 [Tammy, 26, OA]

14 Tammy interpreted pain as a signal that exercise was worsening her arthritis. Previous
15 literature regarding avoidance behaviours suggests that when people perceive pain to be
16 doing harm they avoid certain activities, for instance, their negative beliefs about pain
17 reinforce inactivity (Löf et al. 2015). If activity levels are reduced this can lead to a negative
18 pain cycle; reduced physical activity leading to increased pain, stiffness, and immobility,
19 leading to further inactivity (Kamwendo et al. 1999). One participant explained how her
20 evolving interpretations of flare-ups relate to her physical activity:

21 I realised that the flares are just flares ... you can't control the flares, a flare is a flare, if
22 you flare up it doesn't necessarily mean you have done something, it just means that you
23 have flared, I remember sitting there [doctor's office] thinking I always thought you
24 flared if you had hurt yourself or done too much or over exercised or done this or done
25 that. [Jessica, 50, Psoriatic Arthritis]

26 Some participants, like Jessica, initially interpreted flare-ups as an indicator of physical
27 overexertion. Fear of exercise causing harm or aggravating the condition is regularly

1 reported as a barrier to physical activity (van den Berg et al. 2007; Bajwa and Rogers 2007).
2 However, Jessica was able to reflect on her learning process, identifying the doctor's
3 knowledge and advice as stimulus for re-interpretation. Participants discussed how learning
4 about pain, and re-evaluating their perceptions, shaped their experience of exercise.

5 I might be a bit stiff as anybody is that exercises, but I'm not in pain, and there is a
6 difference, I think there is good pain and bad pain, when you are in bad pain it is the
7 throbbing pain that you can't move away from, and it's there. But the good pain is the
8 pain where you think, yeah OK you hurt but I knew I lifted those weights this morning
9 you know, so it's almost like a badge of honour. [Isabelle, 62, OA]

10 Isabelle differentiates between pain as a natural consequence of physical exertion (O'Connor
11 and Cook 1999) and symptomatic arthritis pain which is a widely accepted barrier to physical
12 activity (Kaptein et al. 2013; Petursdottir, Arnadottir, and Halldorsdottir 2010). By
13 continually being active, participants can learn to differentiate between types of pain, and the
14 bodies reaction to exercise (Loeppenthin et al. 2014). Similarly, participants who described
15 exercise pain as an achievement rather than a destructive concept, associated themselves
16 more with an exercise identity, stepping away from the suffering of arthritis and embracing
17 their experiences of exercise.

18 For many participants, engaging with regular exercise was determined by whether
19 their symptoms were managed:

20 If I wasn't on the medication then that [pain] would go back into complete overdrive and
21 I would get pain in all the joints and I wouldn't be able to move, that's like I was in the
22 beginning, so it is only the medication that is doing a lot of the controlling, but I have to
23 do the rest. [Dorothy, 63, RA]

24 Dorothy recognised the necessity of medication in controlling arthritis but depicts her
25 perceived responsibility to further help control the condition. Feeling responsible for health
26 can to some extent be beneficial and motivate people to be physically active, however it can

1 also be detrimental when being active becomes unattainable (Guttman and Ressler 2001).
2 Thus, when arthritis is not under control, exercise becomes difficult, as another participant
3 claimed:

4 It [exercise] has always been a big part, but it isn't now. I can't do anything now at all.
5 As I say I still swim, but not as often as I would like too, but that depends on health and
6 things as well, but also, I say the incontinence hasn't helped, but that is not to do with
7 arthritis, it is to do with the medication ... for the arthritis. [Jasmine, 65, RA, OA &
8 Psoriatic Arthritis]

9 Many factors can therefore impact whether exercising is possible, including symptoms and
10 side-effects of medication. If the condition is not under control, participants have more
11 negative experiences of exercise, or disengage from activity altogether. Thus, although
12 physical activity can be used as a way to take control of life with arthritis by resisting
13 disability and creating a meaningful life (Loeppenthin et al. 2014), it is also important to note
14 that at times exercise is not possible and not suitable. Participants therefore suggested that by
15 developing a better understanding of their arthritis and learning how to control the condition
16 through medication and appropriate rest, they could have more rewarding experiences of
17 physical activity and exercise. For many, this learning process was not in isolation from
18 society and participants highly valued the experience of others in this process:

19 If you get a first-hand experience, from somebody who is perhaps in the same boat as
20 you, I think then you might take note might you, and think you know if that helped that
21 person then perhaps it can help me... with the [arthritis charity] if you meet other people,
22 you know, they understand a bit more because they may have had the same experience as
23 you, or you learn from each other really. [Valerie, 73, OA]

24 It is well documented that vicarious experience can have a positive impact on the person's
25 self-efficacy for physical activity (Warner et al. 2014). Hearing about others' experiences
26 may promote confidence in their ability to perform an activity, alongside giving information

1 and increasing their knowledge about arthritis and exercise. Kaptein et al. (2013) report that
2 having social support in the form of a role model was an important facilitator in staying
3 active with arthritis. Similarly, Richardson, Smith, and Papatthomas (2017) suggest that
4 people with disabilities may feel more supported if they have a role model in an exercise
5 environment, and these vicarious experiences can positively shape beliefs about exercising
6 with a disability.

7 *Adapting and enjoying exercise*

8 To be physically active, participants at times had to make substantial changes to their daily
9 life. For participants who previously exercised, adapting exercise meant making physical
10 changes to their lifestyle to be able to continue without aggravating the condition:

11 But I always use to love running outdoors, it's so much better for me than being in the
12 gym. I don't find cycling that hard to do, I could just carry on forever, unless you are
13 going up a hill I suppose faster, but it doesn't get you working, I don't get worked up, my
14 body doesn't feel worked cycling as it used to do when I did all of my other exercises,
15 but I am persevering with it. [Andrew, 56, OA]

16 How participants experienced exercise changed; exercise was at times perceived by
17 participants as restricted to suit the arthritis and lacking enjoyment. Enjoyment of exercise is
18 considered an important factor to be able to maintain engagement with regular exercise
19 (Larkin, Gallagher, et al. 2017; Petursdottir et al. 2010), and therefore for exercisers, one of
20 the main difficulties to adapting exercise successfully can be interest in continuing the
21 activity (Der Ananian et al. 2006). Similarly, Hunt and Day (2019) identified in a sample
22 with chronic pain that although adapted sport can enable someone to maintain an active
23 lifestyle, it often lacked the fulfilment that their previous sporting involvement once gave
24 them. Thus, it was important for participants to discover enjoyment from adapted exercise, as
25 one participant described:

1 I have played tennis, well that's a fun exercise to me, whereas swimming I really enjoy it
2 once I'm there, I suppose I enjoy it, I do enjoy it, I love getting in the water and once you
3 start swimming it's a lovely feeling and actually I enjoy the yoga once I start, it sort of
4 takes your mind and you concentrate on something, just on that basically, it's free, it
5 makes you relax I suppose and frees your mind and so, yeah sort of is a pleasure.
6 [Valerie, 73, OA]

7 Affective responses to exercise, such as pleasure or displeasure, are thought to influence
8 motivation. For instance, feelings of enjoyment are considered to be more powerful than
9 knowledge of health benefits for continuing prolonged exercise behaviour (Ekkekakis, Parfitt,
10 and Petruzzello 2011; Dishman, Sallis, and Orenstein 1985). Thus, when participants were
11 able to find an exercise or sport that adapted to their arthritis but was also enjoyable, exercise
12 was considered more sustainable and became a positive experience. Others found it more
13 difficult to gain enjoyment from exercise, as certain elements were seemingly missing from
14 their experience:

15 Generally, I don't enjoy it [adapted exercise] that much unless it is a lovely walk on the
16 downs. But I really want to get back into my life the enjoyment factor and that's what
17 I'm missing at the moment, so I really want to try and find some sort of team sport or
18 team activity where it is competitive and I'm actually just loving it, because you know
19 when you have an amazing game of football, you are flying ... there is nothing better
20 than when you are playing well and just absolutely buzzing and enjoying it, it's just
21 fantastic, and that's really what I'm missing in my life at the moment, so yeah it has
22 definitely changed since I have been diagnosed. [Tammy, 26, OA]

23 Tammy described how playing in a team sport could enhance her enjoyment of adapted
24 exercise, but how she is yet to find this since having arthritis. The social benefits of
25 exercising in groups has been widely reported, not only for adherence to an exercise regime
26 (Kang et al. 2007; Schoster et al. 2005) but as a buffering effect against symptoms such as
27 pain (Zimmer, Hickey, and Searle 1995). Another participant also suggested how social
28 support impacted positively on his gym experience:

1 Actually, there is a lot of people who if you go to the gym, you know they understand. If
2 something is wrong and they will help you and they will give you the incentive and
3 motivation to work through it and you know you build up a new social life and that sort
4 of drags you into it and then you want to go more. [Richard, 53, RA]

5 Richard built a new social group through being active, he believed that this helped to
6 motivate him to continue; ‘dragging’ him into the exercise world. Thus, support from others
7 is more than direct encouragement or guidance; the act of social inclusion and being part of a
8 group identity may be more important for maintaining exercise involvement over a longer
9 period of time (Loeppenthin et al. 2014). Participants also discussed how their wellness
10 improved by socialising with others through exercise, as one participant added:

11 You have that pleasure of feeling like you belong to something. Because most of the time
12 you don’t feel like you belong in the human race, you feel a bit, umm, you just don’t feel
13 like you can join in, so you don’t feel like you are part of it anymore. [Jasmine, 65, RA,
14 OA & Psoriatic Arthritis]

15 Living with a chronic condition, such as arthritis, can increase social isolation by
16 compromising the autonomy of the individual (Mackichan, Adamson, and Gooberman-Hill
17 2013). However, exercise can facilitate greater social inclusion and bring pleasure into their
18 life by increasing contact with others and helping people with arthritis feel more included
19 within society.

20 *Exercise as medicine*

21 Exercise has been shown to have health and medicinal benefits for people with arthritis
22 (Bennell et al. 2016; Gay et al. 2016). The role of exercise for some was to improve health
23 and arthritic symptoms:

1 It's my health, I just want to, I just want to keep going because I have realised ... my
2 health has improved since the op, it has improved and that's what is motivating me, I
3 don't want to lose it, I want it to get better. [Elizabeth, 51, RA]

4 Most participants identified how they experienced physical and/or mental health benefits of
5 exercise, suggesting it held medicinal qualities for them. Most people recognise that exercise
6 is good for your health, but experiencing health benefits first-hand can reinforce motivation
7 for exercisers to maintain regular activity (Wilcox et al. 2006).

8 For some, exercise even became an alternative option to medication, as another
9 participant explained:

10 I thought well actually I'm going downhill and I have to start to go see the doctor again
11 to try and see if he has got anything new for me, but that's not the way out of here, I
12 don't want the medication, and so I forced myself into the gym. [Richard, 53, RA]

13 Although health may be an initial reason to adopt a physically active lifestyle, or new
14 exercise regime, this was not always perceived positively and at times exercise became a
15 chore, as one participant described:

16 I always make sure it is in my diary and it is my time and it has to be something fairly
17 major that will stop me going to it. So, it is high priority and probably non-negotiable,
18 there was a time when, anybody could have said "oh would you like a coffee on Monday
19 morning" and I would have gone "YES!" but I have changed my attitude ... I have tried
20 to make myself not feel negative about having to do the exercise. At first, I did, at first, I
21 felt angry and resentful because you know, very much poor me, I have been through all
22 this and now I have to do this as well, and ... so there was a feeling of resentment ...
23 another burden that I had to do. [Isabelle, 62, OA]

24 When participants thought of exercise as something they 'have to do', something they should
25 be doing for their health, it became a burden in their life. It is argued that when exercise is
26 framed in terms of health, rather than fun or enjoyment, it can suppress the later, changing the
27 way people experience exercise (Werle, Wansink, and Payne 2015). Critically, this may be

1 exaggerated for people with disabilities as there is an overt focus on the specific health
2 benefits of exercise, ignoring and stifling other possibilities of exercise experiences (Williams
3 et al. 2017). Thus, when participants perceived exercise as a burden it was said to make it
4 more difficult to persevere with an exercise regime. Participants spoke of how they needed to
5 change their attitude towards exercise in order to maintain an active lifestyle and feel more
6 positive towards being active.

7 Attitudes and perceptions towards exercise and understanding how to exercise may
8 also be impacted by the way healthcare professionals discuss physical activity with the
9 patient, as one participant described:

10 When you are sporty, they [doctors] generally just don't really get it. I think they just
11 kind of say just stop doing this ... but it's like I need more than that, I need "this is what
12 I can do, this is what I can't do, this is what is going to happen" ... so basically kind of
13 said "don't do this and don't do that" but they haven't really said "but do this and do
14 that". [Tammy, 26, OA]

15 A lack of professional support is regularly reported as a barrier to activity (e.g. Wilcox et al.
16 2006; Veldhuijzen van Zanten et al. 2015), however our participants' experiences portray that
17 support not only needs to be given but must be better tailored to the individual. Although
18 participants' received support, at times healthcare professionals (e.g. doctors or
19 physiotherapists) were said to have a blinkered approach, preferring to offer surgery over
20 exercise management. Research has demonstrated that patients with arthritis are less likely to
21 engage in regular exercise if they do not discuss it with their rheumatologist (Iversen, Eaton,
22 and Daltroy 2004). Therefore, it is important for healthcare professionals to address exercise
23 and combat possible negative beliefs (Larkin, Kennedy, et al. 2017). By reinforcing to
24 patients what they cannot do this may emphasise a negative stigma towards arthritis and
25 physical activity.

1 **Conclusions**

2 This study is one of few studies to qualitatively explore physical activity and arthritis (see
3 also, Kaptein et al. 2013; Loeppenthin et al. 2014). We have offered unique insights into how
4 people living with arthritis experience physical activity after illness and the processes that are
5 involved in trying to fulfil a physically active lifestyle. First, our findings suggest exercise is
6 experienced as part of a larger ongoing meaning-making process that participants go through
7 in an effort to live better with arthritis. In the early phases of the illness, participants tried to
8 make sense of new and unpredictable symptoms, and exercise often assumed secondary
9 importance compared to adapting to chronic illness. Later, after living with and learning
10 about the illness, participants perceived they had greater control over arthritis and were better
11 able to engage with exercise in a positive way. Second, enjoyment of exercise was important
12 to participants as they tried to find pleasure in exercising. The social dimension of exercise
13 gave many participants pleasure, providing a sense of belonging. Although preserving health
14 and wellbeing was almost always constructed as a motivating factor in the pursuit of physical
15 activity; participants connected an exclusive health focus to negative emotions and
16 resentment towards exercising.

17 Our analysis presents several important considerations for effective physical activity
18 promotion for people living with arthritis. First, making sense of a life-changing chronic
19 illness is a difficult process that cannot be isolated from efforts to get people more active. It is
20 well-known that arthritis can be a detrimental interruption to the expected life course which
21 demands a focused period of adjustment and acceptance (Bury 1982; Cartwright et al. 2015).
22 As the body changes due to illness it will go through fluctuations in bodily sensations, such
23 as stiffness, joint pain, and fatigue, over time but also on a daily basis. As Phoenix and Bell
24 (2018) state in relation to an aging population, these fluctuations interrupt and often
25 compromise a person's capacity or inclination to be physically active. Exercise promotion, or

1 indeed prescription, must therefore be sensitive to the demands of adapting to a new life, an
2 ongoing, dynamic process (Grønning et al. 2011). In fact, physical activity promotion should
3 purposfully address this transitional period rather than provide an exclusive focus on exercise
4 motivation and behavior. For instance, a more holistic early intervention to promote exercise
5 might include educational sessions on living with arthritis symptoms such as, pain, fatigue
6 and stiffness without any explicit reference to exercise. Although not focusing on exercise
7 may appear counterintuitive, if adaptation to arthritis must occur before exercise can be
8 enjoyed, it makes sense for exercise promotion to support this process first and hopefully
9 accelerate it. As the intervention progresses towards more exercise-specific information,
10 healthcare professionals would do well to maintain the holistic approach via more patient-
11 centred efforts (e.g. Williams et al. 2018). For example, discussing with the patient their
12 adaptations to daily tasks, how they are coping with the condition, and their perceptions of
13 exercise, will help both parties gauge the type of physical activity/exercise appropriate for
14 that person. This study suggests that if a patient is still processing the changes associated with
15 chronic illness, then it may be ineffective to over-prescribe exercise at this time, as it may
16 contribute to negative exercise experiences and long-term disengagement. Understanding the
17 relationship between physical activity and biographical disruption due to arthritis is an area
18 for future research. Utilising life-history or biographical interviews to contextualise stories
19 within the broader life history would support this future research direction; developing
20 understanding of the meaning making of the body before arthritis and through the illness
21 transition (Coles and Knowles 2001; Smith and Sparkes 2016). Furthermore, analysing the
22 data through the means of narrative analysis would be beneficial, as it would help forge
23 connections between the past, present and future (Riessman 2005). How people story their
24 lives through the transition into illness can impact coping and therefore the likelihood of
25 exercise engagement (see Papathomas, Williams, and Smith 2015).

1 The value placed on exercise enjoyment and social benefits also challenges the way
2 exercise is traditionally prescribed for arthritis. For example, most public health messaging
3 frames exercise as a means to manage arthritis symptoms, alleviate pain and improve health
4 and wellbeing (Public Health England 2014; Arthritis Research UK 2017). References to
5 pleasure and social engagement are conspicuous by their absence and are not a part of the
6 broader exercise is medicine narrative. Finding ways to integrate pleasure across all phases of
7 exercise prescription is an important next step for those seeking to increase exercise in
8 arthritis populations. Echoing suggestions from past research (e.g. Kamwendo, Askenbom,
9 and Wahlgren 1999; Williams et al. 2018), healthcare professionals should guide patients to
10 participate in activities that are fun and emphasise the importance of enjoyment and
11 meaningful activities as well as the health benefits it provides. Particularly, this study
12 suggests that encouraging activities that involve social interaction, would for some be an
13 effective way of increasing pleasure in exercise. Although a focus of enjoyment is warranted,
14 if no health benefits are being experienced by the patient, or worse it is having a negative
15 impact on pain, this could be detrimental to the their condition and exercise motivation. Thus,
16 healthcare professionals must try to guide patients towards exercise that brings both
17 enjoyment and health benefits. Balancing exercise for pleasure with exercise for health is a
18 delicate, personal process and healthcare professionals must tailor their exercise
19 recommendations if they are to achieve it.

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1 Table 1: Participant demographics

Pseudonym	Gender	Age (years)	Type of arthritis	Length of diagnosis (years)
Dorothy	Female	63	RA	20
Jasmine	Female	65	OA, RA & PA	10
William	Male	72	OA	12
Ruth	Female	79	OA & RA	9
Jessica	Female	50	PA	24
Isabelle	Female	62	OA	7
Linda	Female	69	OA	4
Susan	Female	52	RA	36
Elizabeth	Female	51	RA	13
Teresa	Female	73	OA	8
Dianne	Female	67	OA	7
Valerie	Female	73	OA	3
Wanda	Female	52	OA	9
Tim	Male	46	AS	20
Andrew	Male	56	OA	8
Lawrence	Male	53	OA	13
Claire	Female	24	Arthritis in back	0.5
Richard	Male	53	RA	30
Tammy	Female	26	OA	0.5
Graham	Male	57	OA	15
Victoria	Female	69	OA	5

Note. RA = Rheumatoid Arthritis; OA = Osteoarthritis; PA = Psoriatic Arthritis; AS = Ankylosing spondylitis.