Personal recovery after mental illness from a cultural perspective: a scoping review

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Abstract

Background: Although personal recovery has become a well-known concept in most Western countries, it remains under-recognised in non-Western countries. Aims: This scoping review aimed to investigate how culture impacts the conceptualisation of personal recovery by evaluating how well the personal recovery framework CHIME (Connectedness, Hope, Identity, Meaning and Empowerment) fits amongst individuals from non-Western ethnic origin. Method: A scoping review with systematic searches was conducted. Studies were included in the scoping review if they examined personal recovery among individuals from non-Western cultures. Articles were excluded if the target population had no experience with mental illness or had an ethnic Western origin. The review used the CHIME framework in a "best-fit" framework synthesis, to understand how culture impacted the understanding and experience of recovery. A comprehensive search of five databases (PsycInfo, ProQuest, EMBASE, MEDLINE and CINAHL) resulted in the inclusion of 76 studies out of the 1,641 studies identified. The search was conducted in February 2023 and updated the same month in 2024. **Results**: The 76 studies demonstrated that the CHIME framework is applicable in non-Western cultures, with few adjustments to the subcategories. Generally, there was a greater emphasis on connectedness with others across all categories of CHIME, and religion was more frequently used as source to achieve the components of CHIME more often in non-Western cultures. Socio-structural factors influenced how personal recovery can be experienced, and important factors such as welfare benefits impacts recovery. Conclusion: Special attention should be given to the importance of relationships, especially family, in achieving recovery and religion should be recognised as a crucial element to experiencing connectedness, hope, identity, meaning and empowerment. To enhance the CHIME framework, integrating the sub-components shared responsibility and shared control would be beneficial. Socio-structural factors should be considered when using the CHIME framework.

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Keywords: culture, personal recovery, CHIME, non-Western, mental illness, "best-fit" framework synthesis

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Introduction

Mental illness affects people worldwide, and increased openness has sparked discussions on recovery (Slade, 2009). Traditionally, the discussion focused on symptoms; however, the concept of personal recovery, which emphasizes aspects beyond symptoms, has gained importance in both research and practice (Slade, 2009; Sofouli, 2021; WHO, 2021).

One of the most cited definitions of personal recovery was offered by Anthony (1993, p. 17): Recovery is described as a deeply personal, unique process of changing one's attitudes, values, feelings, goals, skills, and/or roles. It is a way of living a satisfying, hopeful, and contributing life even with limitations caused by illness. Recovery involves the development of new meaning and purpose in one's life as one grows beyond the catastrophic effects of mental illness.

The shift towards personal recovery has led to new policies and services, especially in Western countries (Slade, 2009; WHO, 2022). Nations like New Zealand, Australia, the USA, the UK, Ireland, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway have incorporated the recovery framework (Bejerholm & Roe, 2018). This reflects a move-away from traditional psychiatry's focus on symptom management, towards well-being and personal recovery (Bejerholm & Roe, 2018). However, this shift is less evident in non-Western cultures. Few countries in Asia, Africa, South America, and the Middle East have adopted personal recovery in their policies (Sofouli, 2021) due to a lack of infrastructure and budget in many middle-/low-income countries (Slade et al., 2014). For instance, Cambodia, Laos, the Philippines, and Vietnam lack comprehensive mental health policies and allocate < 1% of their health budgets to this area (Murwasuminar et al., 2023). These studies highlight significant differences in the adoption of personal recovery between Western and non-Western cultures.

Culture and personal recovery

The recovery process is closely intertwined with culture, which shapes individuals' attitudes, behaviours and perceptions (Çam & Uğuryol, 2019; Nolen-Hoeksema, 2020). For instance, in some Southeast Asian cultures mental illness and recovery are understood through a religious lens rather than the medical understanding, common in Western cultures (Murwasuminar et al., 2023). These cultural differences complicate the application of

Tabel 7. Middle eastern studies definition of elements in recovery

Author Connectedness Hope and optimism Identity Meaning Empowerment Other

Western frameworks in non-Western contexts. This review examines personal recovery in non-Western cultures, encompassing all countries outside of Europe, Australia, New Zealand and North America as well as ethnic minorities in these regions. Even though categorizing culture as "Western" and "non-Western" is reductionist and may imply a negative connotation, we have not found a more inclusive term.

CHIME Framework: Cultural application beyond West

Research on personal recovery reveals diverse perspectives, underscoring its personal and complex nature (Jaiswal et al., 2020). Nonetheless, Leamy et al. (2011) developed one of the most comprehensive models for personal recovery, CHIME (Connectedness, Hope, Identity, Meaning, and Empowerment). While influential in Western countries, research from non-Western regions is lacking (van Weeghel et al., 2019). A review of 228 studies urges more exploration of non-Western contexts to avoid a monocultural perspective. The authors stress the need to adapt the CHIME framework to diverse populations, emphasizing the need to adapt the CHIME framework for diverse populations (van Weeghel et al., 2019).

This scoping review aimed to explore the impact of culture on personal recovery with the following research questions (RQs):

- RQ1. What is the nature of the evidence base on the significance of non-Western cultures in personal recovery?
- RQ2. How well does the CHIME framework fit individuals of non-Western ethnic origins?
- RQ3. What cultural adaptations are needed to improve the CHIME framework for diverse populations?

Method

The scoping review aimed to identify articles on personal recovery in non-Western cultures. A systematic search was conducted using a basic search string (Table 1), modified for each database's MeSH terms. Searches used free-text and indexed terms with truncation (*) and proximity operators across PsycInfo, ProQuest, EMBASE, MEDLINE, and CINAHL. The initial search was on February 14, 2023, and updated on February 29, 2024. Additional backward citation-tracing was performed on included studies' references.

Table 1. Search terms used in PsycInfo.

(culture change OR Sociocultural factors OR Cultur* OR Culture sensitivity OR Culture anthropological OR Multiculturalism OR Cultural diversity OR Cross culture psychology OR Cultural identity OR Racial and ethnic groups OR Cross culture differences OR Ethnic diversity) AND (Person* adj3 recover* OR Personal recovery OR Recovery (disorders) OR CHIME)

Table 2. Inclusion and exclusion criteria

Inclusion Exclusion

- Empirical research in peer-reviewed journals
- Danish, Norwegian, Swedish or English language
- Articles that aim to explore personal recovery
- Articles that aim to explore CHIME
- Articles which target population is individuals that has experienced or is currently experiencing psychopathology
- Client's experience of personal recovery
- Interaction between non-Western cultures and personal recovery
- Individuals in non-Western cultures
- Adult population

- Target population is from Western cultures
- Articles that examine clinical or functional recovery
- Target population which has not experienced mental illness (clinicians or family)
- Personal recovery after somatic illness
- Organisational implementation of the personal recovery framework
- Articles that only examines minor aspects of personal recovery or does not aim to explore the experience of personal recovery
- Articles that are not peer-reviewed (discussions, editorials, personal opinions or theory construction)
- Children or adolescence
- Personal recovery in a Western context

Eligibility

Before screening, inclusion and exclusion criteria were established (Table 2). Articles had to be empirical, peer-reviewed, and in Danish, Norwegian, Swedish, or English. Studies on personal recovery, CHIME, and non-Western cultures were included, provided they connected culture with personal recovery *experiences*. Excluded were studies from clinicians' perspectives, intervention studies, and those on recovery after somatic disorders.

Study selection

The search yielded 1,641 results. Two reviewers screened all studies using Covidence, resolving conflicts through discussion.

Tabel 7. Middle eastern studies definition of elements in recovery

| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
|--------|---------------|-------------------|----------|---------|-------------|-------|

Data extraction

Data extracted included author, year, country, participant details (age, gender, diagnosis), procedure, aim, study design, conclusion, and CHIME elements studied.

Analysis

The synthesis used a best-fit framework synthesis, coding new studies against CHIME themes (Carroll et al., 2013). Three codings were conducted:

- 1. Overarching CHIME categories, coding 76 studies line by line.
- 2. CHIME subcategories, such as social connectedness, according to Leamy et al. (2011) definitions (e.g., peer support, relationships, support from others, societal inclusion).
- Themes not represented in CHIME, resulting in an extended model incorporating both CHIME categories and newly identified themes.

Reviewers discussed and identified categories throughout the process.

Lastly, CHIME elements were scored from zero to five based on the significance in each study, and were summed to calculate the total weight.

Results

Figure 1 shows the PRISMA flowchart detailing the selection process. Searches in the five databases generated 1,641 results. After removing 321 duplicates, 1,321 abstracts and titles were screened, of which, 1,176 studies were excluded. Full-text screening was conducted on 145 studies, with 100 exclusions. Citation searching added 31, resulting 76 included studies.

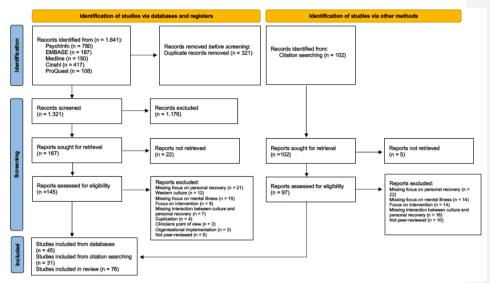


Figure 1. Flowchart of the systematic search

Evidence base

The 76 studies, published between 2006 and 2024, showed increasing interest in personal recovery in cultural contexts, with the most studies in 2023. Eight used quantitative approaches (Table 3b), seven used mixed-method (Table 3c), and 53 used qualitative approaches (32 interviews only; Table 3a). Nine studies replicated four datasets (Kuek et al., 2022, 2024; Pouille et al., 2021; Pouille et al., 2023; Tang, 2018, 2019a, 2019b; Tuffour, 2020; Tuffour et al., 2019).

Thirty-four studies were from Asian, primarily Taiwan and India. Nineteen focused on ethnic minorities in North America, while there were fewer studies from Africa (1), Middle East (3), and South America (3).

Diagnoses included schizophrenia (28 studies), depression (20), substance use disorder and bipolar disorder. Anxiety diagnoses were less represented, with few studies on PTSD (2) and OCD (2), and panic disorder and general anxiety (4). Eighteen did not specify diagnoses.

Data were organised into nine tables by design (Table 3 a-d), and content (Table 4 a-g).

Tabel 7. Middle eastern studies definition of elements in recovery

| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
|--------|---------------|-------------------|----------|---------|-------------|-------|

| Author | Design | Gender | Age | Culture in target group | Mental illness |
|---|--|--------------------|-------|------------------------------|---|
| Agrest et al. (2018) | Semi-structured interview, focus group interview | 11 men 13 women | 19-60 | Argentina | Mood disorder, personality disorder, schizophrenia, SUD |
| Amini et al. (2019) | Interview | 7 men 13 women | 23+ | Iran | Depression |
| Antunes de Campos et al. (2023) | Semi-structured interview | 13 women | 31-77 | Brazil | SUD |
| Armour et al. (2009) | Semi-structured interview | 4 men 5 women | 25-54 | African minority in USA | Bipolar, depression, schizophrenia |
| Bingham and Kelley (2022) | Interview | 6 participants | - | North American Native | SUD |
| Bone et al. (2011) | Visual art-based interview | 1 man 1 woman | - | Indigenous | SUD |
| Brijnath (2015) | Interview | 13 men 15 women | 18+ | Indian minority in Australia | Depression |
| Chen et al. (2006) | Interview | 23 men 23 women | 19-38 | Taiwan | Depression |
| Chi et al. (2014) | Semi-structured interview | 2 men 12 women | 35-57 | Taiwan | Depression |
| Clark et al. (2024) | Interview | 15 participants | 16+ | Indigenous in Australia | Eating disorder |
| Doty-Sweetnam and Morrissette (2018) | Semi-structured interview | 7 participants | 32-68 | Indigenous | SUD |
| Eltaiba and Harries (2015) | Interview | 10 men 10 women | 21-50 | Jordan | Anxiety, depression, OCD, panic attack |
| Gandhi et al. (2020) | Interview | 7 men 11 women | 22-53 | India | Schizophrenia |

| Author | Design | Gender | Age | Culture in target group | Mental illness |
|---------------------------------|--|--------------------|-------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Gopal and Henderson (2015) | Interview | 10 men 9 women | m: 37 | India | Schizophrenia |
| He and Petrakis (2023) | Semi-structured interview | 2 men 2 women | 24-70 | Chinese minority in Australia | Mental health challenges |
| Kanehara et al. (2022) | Semi-structured interview, focus group interview | 16 men 14 women | 16+ | Japan | Mood disorder, schizophrenia |
| Kelner and Gavriel-Fried (2023) | Semi-structured interview | 14 women | 21-60 | Israel | SUD |
| Kok and Lai (2017) | Interview | 6 men 6 women | 20-24 | Malaysia | Depression |
| Kuek et al. (2022) | Online interview | 4 men 17 women | 21-51 | Singapore | General mental illness |
| Kuek et al. (2024) | Online interview | 4 men 17 women | 21-51 | Singapore | General mental illness |
| Kwok (2014) | Autobiographical case description | 1 woman | - | Chinese minority in Canada | Bipolar |
| Lam et al. (2011) | Focus group interview | 3 men 3 women | 23-29 | Hong Kong | Psychosis, schizophrenia |
| Lavallee and Poole (2010) | Focus group interview | - | - | North American Native in Canada | Depression, eating disorder SUD |
| Lee et al. (2015) | Semi-structured interview | 4 men 4 women | 28-60 | Asian minority in USA | Schizophrenia |
| Levy-Fenner et al. (2022) | Digital short film | 9 people | - | Refugees in Australia | General mental illness |
| Lewis and Allen (2017) | Interview | 9 men 1 woman | 61-90 | Alaska natives | SUD |
| Liu (2014) | Interview | 4 men 4 women | 27-52 | Hong Kong | Bipolar, schizophrenia |

Table 3a (continued)

| Author | Design | Gender | Age | Culture in target group | Mental illness |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|-------|---------------------------------|------------------------|
| Ma et al. (2023) | Semi-structured interview | 5 men 6 women | 22-55 | China | Schizophrenia |
| Madill et al. (2023) | Photo-led interview | 11 men 4 women | 19-24 | India | SUD |
| McCarron et al. (2018) | Interview | 18 women | 20-36 | Alaska natives | SUD |
| Mizuno et al. (2015) | Semi-structured interview | 11 men 5 women | m: 43 | Japan | Schizophrenia |
| Ng et al. (2008) | Focus group interview | 4 men 4 women | 36-43 | China | Schizophrenia |
| Nxumalo Ngubane et al. (2019) | Interview | 15 women | 21-70 | Swaziland | Schizophrenia |
| Nygaard (2012) | Semi-structured interview | 9 men 11 women | - | North American Native in Canada | SUD |
| Pouille et al. (2021) | Semi-structured interview | 30 men 4 women | 18-60 | Immigrants in Belgium | SUD |
| Pouille et al. (2023) | Semi-structured interview | 30 men 4 women | 18-60 | Immigrants in Belgium | SUD |
| Ricci et al. (2021) | Interview | 4 men 6 women | 33-71 | Brazil | General mental illness |
| Saputra et al. (2022) | Focus group interview | 11 participants | 21-44 | Indonesia | Schizophrenia |
| Saunders et al. (2023) | Photo-led interview | 17 women | 18-25 | Latina in USA | Eating disorder |
| Song and Shih (2009) | Interview | 12 men 7 women | 22-46 | Taiwan | General mental illness |
| Subandi (2015) | Interview and observation | 7 participants | 16-42 | Indonesia | Psychosis |
| Subandi and Good (2018) | Interview and observation | 6 patients and family | 15-50 | Indonesia | Psychosis |

| Author | Design | Participants | Age | Culture in target group | Mental illness |
|-----------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|-------|------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| Tanaka (2018) | Interview and observation | 5 men 7 women | 62-82 | Japan | Depression |
| Tang (2019a) | Interview | 9 men 13 women | 25-85 | Chinese minority in England | General mental illness |
| Tang (2019b) | Interview | 9 men 13 women | 25-28 | Chinese minority in England | General mental illness |
| Tang (2018) | Interview | 9 men 13 women | 25-28 | Chinese minority in England | General mental illness |
| Tuffour (2020) | Interview | 3 men 9 women | 19-57 | African minority in England | Depression, SUD, schizophrenia |
| Tuffour et al. (2019) | Interview | 3 men 9 women | 19-57 | African minority in England | Depression, SUD, schizophrenia |
| Whitley (2016) | Interview | 24 men 23 women | 20-69 | Caribbean minority in Canada | Bipolar, depression, schizophrenia |
| Whitley (2012) | Focus group and observation | 40 men 10 women | - | African minority in USA | SUD, trauma |
| Yang et al. (2024) | Interview | 12 women | 20-65 | Taiwan | SUD |
| Zaheer et al. (2019) | Semi-structured interview | 10 women | 19-51 | Chinese minority in Canada | Bipolar, depression |

Table 3b. Table of characteristics of quantitative studies. m: mean.

| Author | Design | Participants | Age | Culture in target group | Mental illness |
|------------------------|---------------|----------------------|-------|-------------------------|---|
| Fukui et al. (2012) | Questionnaire | 121 men 91 women | m: 43 | Japan | Bipolar, depression, schizophrenia |
| Gandotra et al. (2017) | Questionnaire | 52 men 38 women | 20-60 | India | Bipolar, depression, delusional disorder, dysthymia, hypochondria, OCD, panic attack, schizophrenia |
| Lee et al. (2022) | Questionnaire | 47 men 52 women | 16-40 | Singapore | Bipolar, depression, delusional disorder, schizophrenia, psychotic episodes |
| Moore et al. (2022) | Questionnaire | 53 men 30 women | 18-34 | Ethnic minority in USA | Bipolar, depression, schizophrenia |
| Song (2017) | Questionnaire | 297 men 290 women | m: 41 | Taiwan | Affective disorder, schizophrenia |
| Tse et al. (2014) | Questionnaire | 66 men 84 women | 18-65 | Hong Kong | Bipolar, schizophrenia |
| Wu et al. (2021) | Questionnaire | 178 men 132 women | 41-50 | Taiwan | General mental illness |
| Young et al. (2020) | Questionnaire | 100 men 166 women | m: 44 | China | General mental illness |

| Author | Design | Participants | Age | Culture in target group | Mental illness |
|----------------------|--|---------------------|-------|--|---|
| Gopal et al. (2020) | Interview and questionnaire | 55 men 45 women | m: 38 | India | Schizophrenia |
| На (2016) | Interview and questionnaire | 15 men 16 women | 18+ | South Korea | Schizophrenia |
| Kakuma et al. (2024) | Interview and questionnaire | 5 men 4 women | 18-75 | Iran and Myanmar minorities in Australia | General mental illness, PTSD |
| Matsuoka (2015) | Interview, observation and questionnaire | 2 men 6 women | 64-89 | Japanese minority in Canada | General mental illness |
| Pahwa et al. (2020) | Interview and questionnaire | 46 men, 40 women | m: 41 | India and USA | Bipolar, depression, schizophrenia |
| Siu et al. (2012) | Interview and questionnaire | 72 men 65 women | m: 42 | Hong Kong | Bipolar, depression, delusional disorder, dysthymia, hypochondria, OCD, panic attack, schizophrenia |
| Yu et al. (2021) | Interview and questionnaire | 70 men 97 women | 18+ | China | Schizophrenia |

Table 3d. Table of characteristics of articles using other methods. (-) indicates that information is missing

| Author | Design | Included studies | Culture in target group | Mental illness |
|-------------------------------|--|------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------|
| Hickey et al. (2017) | Discussion | - | International | General mental illness |
| Kuek, Raeburn and Wand (2023) | Scoping review | 30 | Asian perspectives | General mental illness |
| Leamy et al. (2011) | Systematic review | 97 | International (mostly Western) | General mental illness |
| Murwasuminar et al. (2023) | Systematic review | 31 | Southeast Asia | General mental illness |
| Pouille et al. (2022) | Systematic review of qualitative studies | 15 | International (minorities in USA) | SUD |
| Slade et al. (2012) | Systematic review | 115 | International (mostly Western) | General mental illness |
| Sofouli (2021) | Literature review | - | International | General mental illness |
| van Weeghel et al. (2019) | Scoping review | 25 | International (mostly Western) | General mental illness |

Framework fit

This section addresses RQ2: how well the CHIME framework fits non-Western cultures.

Personal recovery

Multiple studies explored cultural variations in the definition of personal recovery, finding consistency across diverse cultures (Kuek et al., 2022; Murwasuminar et al., 2023; Slade et al., 2012), though the emphasis differed. Clinical recovery was often prioritized in Asian cultures (Kuek, Raeburn and Wand (2023), with an increased focus on functional recovery potentially linked to limited welfare support (Liu, 2014).

Understanding of personal recovery varied due to cultural perspectives on mental health (Antunes de Campos et al., 2023; Kakuma et al., 2024; Kuek et al., 2024; Kuek, Raeburn, & Wand, 2023; Nxumalo Ngubane et al., 2019) and linguistic differences (Kakuma et al., 2024)((Slade et al., 2012), highlighting challenges in translating terms like "personal recovery" in certain languages and regions.

The CHIME framework

Few studies directly evaluated CHIME's relevance in non-Western settings, yet those that did generally supported its applicability across diverse cultures. However, the diverse recovery narratives across non-Western contexts suggested that a single model may not capture the full spectrum of recovery experiences (Kuek, Raeburn, & Wand, 2023), with some studies preferring a classification into facilitators and inhibitors of personal recovery (Bone et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2006; Gandhi et al., 2020) (Table 4a-g).

| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
|-----------------------------------|---|--|---|--|--|--|
| Amini et al. (2018) | Support from family and staff. Communication with other patients. | Positive thinking. Seeking help increased hope. | Regain positive self- esteem. Support was important to do so. | God gives meaning to illness. | Responsibility for recovery. Feeling control by reading the Quran | Medicine was important. |
| Eltaiba & Harries (2015) | Being a part of the community. Family and others with mental illness were important. | Having a plan for the future. God gave hope. | New identity. Deeper and more reflective thoughts. High Stigma. | Meaning through religion. Illness was Allah's will. | Feel in control. Responsibility for recovery. Seeking information. | |
| Kakuma et al. (2024) | Social belonging was complex because of migration. Family reputation was important. | | Gain a better understanding of yourself. | Religion and spirituality gave meaning. Lack of comprehension of the category. | Taking charge in life. | |
| Kelner & Gavriel- Fried (2023) | Peer relationships and friendships. Connection and relationships were necessary. | | Labels as "normative" or "not normative" | ine category. | | |
| Levy-Fenner et al. (2022) | Family was primary support. Living in a new country was a barrier for support. Support from the state. | Having hope that you can rebuild life. | Experiencing war was a challenge for rebuilding a positive identity. Having a dual identity. | Meaning through religion. Generativity gave meaning in life. | Helping others with their mental illness. Control over the illness. | Creativity as a wa to understand symptoms. |
| Pouille et al. (2021) | Relationship with God. Family, partners, friends and peers. Practical and emotional support. Religious centres. Cultural communities were helpful. | Financial resources and God as motivator. Intrinsic motivation grew. Social support increased hope. | Cope with stigma. Cultural identity as a resource. Various social identities. | Religion increased meaning. Forgiveness from God. | Limitations of neoliberal notions of individual autonomy which overlook societal responsibility | |
| Pouille et al. (2023) | Supportive social networks. Humanizing interactions. Holistic perception from others of the mental illness. | | Intersection stigma on race and illness. Cultural identity. Internalised stigma was present. | Acceptance of mental illness. | | |

Note: Findings from the 76 studies regarding CHIME categories, along with an "other" category for findings outside the CHIME framework, categorized by geographic locations (Table 4a-g).

Table 4b. North American Native populations in Western countries results on elements in recovery

| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|--|---|--------------------------------|--|
| Bingham & Kelley (2022) | Mentors in program were important, by increasing peer support. | Maintain positivity for family. Peers enhanced hope. Have goals for the future. | Personal growth after mental illness. | Being a giving person. Purpose in sharing testimonies. Reconnect with spirituality. | | |
| Bone et al. (2011) | Connection to land and community. Romantic connection. Support from relations. Elders as supportive | | Connection with cultural heritage. Challenge of dual identity. | Participating in traditional ceremonies. Teaching tradition. Giving back | | |
| Clark et al. (2024) | A strong support system was important. | Connection with others was a motivator. | Awakening from mental illness | Be a good role model | Desire to take ownership | |
| Doty-Sweetnam & Morrissette (2018) | Supportive relationships. Guidance from Elders. Challenges with professional help. Support from family. | Positive attitude and belief in recovery. Valuing accomplishment. | Rebuilding cultural identity. | Role as knowledge keepers. Being able to extend support and hope to others. Spiritual meaning with illness. | Reclaiming power. Take agency. | Facing underlying issues. Colonialism. |
| Lavallee & Poole (2010) | | | Self-discovery and connection to ethnic identity. Internalised oppression. | Spiritual connection and healing increased meaning | | |
| Lewis & Allen (2017) | Family members' support. Role models in treatment. | | Cultural activities were important for identity | Role as respected Elders. Pass on traditional knowledge. Generative acts. Spirituality. | | |
| McCarron et al. (2018) | Family support. Other support system. Emotional support, practical support, financial assistance. Community integration. | Family as motivation for recovery. | Gaining self- awareness. Increased independence | Religion increased meaning. Focusing on traditional AI values | | |

Other

Empowerment

Author

Table 4b. (continued).

Connectedness

| Tutiloi | Connectedness | riope and optimism | identity | Micaning | Linpowerment | Other |
|---------------------------------------|--|-------------------------------------|--|---|--|--|
| Nygaard (2012) | Supportive environment | | Positive cultural identity. Positive self-identity | Engagement in cultural activities. Passing traditional knowledge on to children | | Poverty as a challenge |
| | merican studies results on the | | | | | |
| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
| Agrest et al. (2018) | Relationships in group therapy. Ability to see yourself in others. Clinicians made participants feel important. | Seeing others improve gave hope to. | Accept yourself and see yourself in a new perspective. | | Responsibility to participate in treatment. Believe in your own abilities. | Physical surroundings in hospitals were important. |
| Antunes de Campos et al. (2023) | Peer group was important. Mutual support. Problems with mixed groups | | Understanding themselves in light of illness. Overcome prejudices. | Role as mothers. Understanding disease. Role as women | Control over disorder. Reclaim responsibility. Confidence in skills. | Patriarchal culture in AA. Freedom in women's meetings. Gender roles. |
| Ricci et al. (2021) | Family, professionals, friends and peer-relationships had an impact on recovery. Information about mental illness increased support. | Hope returned with recovery | Changing the way of thinking and acting. | Acceptance of the illness gave meaning and increased hope. It was important to give a meaning to the illness. | Important to believe in oneself. | |
| Saunders et al. (2023) | Familial support. Role of familism. | Recovery for family. | Invisibility of mental illness. Shift in perspective | | | |

Identity

Meaning

Hope and optimism

| Table 4d. African | n studies results on the elements | in recovery | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other | |
| Armour et al. (2009) | Being a productive part of society. Family and clinicians were important. | Having hope for the future. Dreams about better relationships. Belief in possible recovery. | Don't feel sorry for yourself. Appear normal | Meaning through God and church. | Focus on your own strength. Family increased responsibility. Belief in authorities. | Race discrimination. Economy related to work and transport. | |
| Nxumalo Ngubane et al. (2019) | Family and support from professionals were important. Participants felt excluded by family and society. | · | Feeling better about yourself | Found meaning in religion and being involved in local society. | Participants knew best when they recovered | Hard to understand mental illness. Used witches and black magic as explanation. Work was important | |
| Moore et al. (2022) | Positive relationship between recovery and belonging to your own ethnic group. Social support was important. | | Ethnic identity mediates your ability to focus on important aspects of life. | | | was important. Structural racism as a barrier. Economic equality was important. | |
| Tuffour (2019) | Family and relationships made recovery possible. Participating in social arrangement was important. Integration in society. | Medicine inspires optimism. Treatment gives understanding about mental illness. | Participants increased proud ethnic identity. This supported recovery. | Important to have a meaningful role. Religion played a big part. | Believing in your own strength. | Medicine and work were important. | |
| Tuffour (2020) | Feeling connected to God and the church. | God gave hope for recovery, and belief for a better future. | Participants protested negative stereotypes | Seeking answers and meaning with God. Satan was a metaphor for mental illness. | Participants found control in praying. | | |
| Whitley (2012) | Personal relationship with God. Fellowship in church. | Hopeful relationships. Faith in God and Gods ability to provide recovery | | God as primary agent of change. Gratitude for the lessons learned and the ability to cope with hardships. | God is ultimately in control for their life. God is guiding decisions and actions. | Finding peace | |

| | s result on elements of recovery | | | | | |
|-----------------------------|---|---|--|--|---|--|
| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
| Brijnath (2015) | Relationships are important. More stigmatisation from family in Indian populations. Being a burden to the family. | Belief in recovery. No hopeful relationships. | Finding a new identity. Medicine had an impact on identity. | Meaning through religion in the Indian group. | Important to feel in control and feel responsible for recovery. Barrier: dependence on society. | |
| Chen et al. (2006) | Family as support. Lack of support from husbands. Conflicts with in-laws | Optimistic attitude. Hope for recovery | Integrate themselves in new roles. Meeting societal expectations | Predetermined fate. Acceptance of mental illness. | Having internal encouraging conversation | |
| Chi et al. (2014) | Connections with professionals. Community support. Family members, friends, religion as support. | Belief in process of recovery. | Accept and embrace self. Shift in values | Meaningful activities. Befriending depression. | Responsibility for their lives. Impact on children. Avoiding harm to others | Recognise emotions and past coping mechanisms |
| Fukui et al. (2012) | Cultural differences in reliance on others. Reciprocal support. | Emphasis on hope. Hope as self- cultivation | Focus on humility | | | |
| Gandhi et al. (2020) | Family support. Peer support. Negative family climate. Dependency on family | Positive attitude and optimism | Participants reported no stigma in study | Peace of mind and meaningful role. Religious practices | | Medication adherence. Fulfilment of basic needs |
| Gandotra et al. (2017) | Support from relationships. Emotional, informal and instrumental support | Hopeful relationships | | | | Education level and psychological recovery |
| Gopal & Henderson (2015) | Importance of social inclusion. Dependency on family | | Discrimination was high. Self-esteem was only relevant in Australian sample | | Role of family in empowerment. Independence. Giving doctors "Godly" status. | Being symptom free and regain social role functioning |
| Gopal et al. (2020) | Important to have relationships, getting married and have children. | | Wanting to be normal | | | 88 % of recover was symptom remission. |

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Table 4e (continued)

| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
|-------------------------|---|---|---|---|---|--|
| Ha (2016) | Peer support was crucial | Gained hope for the future and had dreams and goals | Self-awareness | Meaning in new role as peer supporter | Active rather than passive in treatment | |
| He & Petrakis (2023) | Connectedness through religious groups. Got economic, interpersonal and emotional support. | Having a positive attitude | The spiritual identity supported a positive self-image. Wishing to be a role model. | Spirituality increased meaning in life. | | Religious conflicts in families were a barrier. |
| Ho et al. (2016) | Connection with God. Connection with spiritual community | Spirituality helped with short-term goals | Spirituality helped improve and change oneself | Spirituality were concrete goals | | |
| Kanehara et al. (2022) | Compassion towards others played a big role. | Hope and optimism for the future. | Important to rebuild a positive self-image free of social stigma. | Participants sought meaning with mental illness. | Personal responsibility and control in life was important. | |
| Kok & Lai (2017) | Interaction with others was important. Family played a big role in recovery. Shame related to disappointing family. | Important to have dreams for the future. | Getting to understand yourself better. | Accepting both good and bad things in life. Meaning through religion. | Responsibility to live a meaningful life. Fulfil parents' expectations. | |
| Kuek et al. (2022) | Participants wanted to hide the symptoms and tried to appear normal. This decreased support. | Trying to be positive in current situation. | Participants identified with the illness. See themselves in a more positive light. | Hard to give meaning to mental illness. | Most experienced loss of control. | |
| Kuek et al. (2023) | Support from family and friends. Being part of a religious group. Professional support. | Maintaining a hopeful attitude | Grow and remerge as new people | Strong religious beliefs. Mental illness as a result of wrongdoings. Meaningful activities as work or hobbies. | Regaining control in life. | |

| Table 4e (continue | ed) | | | | | |
|-----------------------|--|---|--|---|---|------------------------------------|
| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
| Kuek et al. (2024) | Desire for reintegration. Relief for supporters. Reciprocal support | Focusing on improvement. Sense of resignation regarding possibility of recovery | Live without the burden of stigma. Contribute to society and viewed as normal. | Fulfil role expectation | More autonomy over mental health. Greater sense of control | |
| Kwok (2014) | Support from family. Important to strengthen relationships. Trust in other people. | Follow your dreams and set up goals for recovery. | Break expectations about what it is to be a woman in Chinese culture. Overcome stigma. | Religion contributed to meaning. | Responsibility through reading books. Training skills in solving interpersonal conflicts. | |
| Lam et al. (2011) | Sense of normalcy in community. Connect with others through activities. Integration into the community | Better outcook on the future. Optimism and hope. Identifying positive changes | Concealing illness because of stigma. Positive change: clearer thinking, increased maturity, more considerate | Value of helping others. Normal social role | Illness as life-enhancing. Sense of control and developed strength | |
| Lee et al. (2015) | Instrumental support e.g., economic help. Being a burden for the family. | | | | Authorities were important. | |
| Lee et al. (2022) | | | | Less use of religion in recovery due to secularised nature of Singapore. | | |
| Liu (2014) | Work professionals. Importance of friendships and peers. Communication with the Supreme Being | Think more positively. | Changes in the way of thinking. Changes in standards and lower expectations. Individuals through God's eyes. View themselves positively | Helping others. Accept themselves as persons with mental illness. Religious beliefs | Increase one's sense of usefulness and responsibility. Making decisions for oneself. Relinquishing control to a higher power | Work was important. Medication. |

| Table 4e (continued) | | | | | | |
|----------------------------|---|--|--|--|---|--|
| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
| Ma et al. (2023) | Easing burden on family. Developing trust in others. More social interaction | Family was motivation for recovery. Family goals increased pride | Relying on oneself. Self-support and taking action. Self-discovery. Taking good care of themselves to ease burden on family. | Religious beliefs. Meaning in life was for family. | Responsibility for family. Taking responsibility for one's life. Self-encouragement. Familism and responsibility to provide | |
| Madill et al. (2023) | Acceptance of support. Contact with recovery community. | Motivation to change | | Meaning in supporting others | | |
| Matsuoka (2015) | Peer support. Social workers. | Self-worth fostered hope. Shift towards positivity and optimism | Increased understanding and sense of self-worth. Cultural values as humility and modesty. | Accepting life. Not taking things for granted. | Acknowledge own worth. Control of life. Self-determination. Taking action | |
| Mizuno et al. (2015) | Interaction with healthy individuals. Importance of work as societal participation. Supportive friends. Integrate in society. | Clear intentions for future lives. Goals for the future. Positive outlook on life. | Complex interplay between self-identity and societal perceptions. Change in self-identity. Desire to "fit-in". | Sense of purpose. Contribute to others. Make a positive impact. Increasing knowledge of mental illness. | Responsibility to live properly. Striving for strength. | Medication. |
| Murwasuminar et al. (2021) | Integration in community. Support from family and friends. Connectedness through activities. | Hope. Hopeful relationships with professionals. Barrier in lack of knowledge | Stigma among traditional healers | Perception of the source of illness. Strengthen faith and reconnect with God. | Remain passive and avoid stressors. Family lead in seeking treatment. | |
| Ng et al. (2008) | Family and romantic relationships were important. Participants didn't want to be a burden for the family. | Participants felt hopeless and doubted the possibility of recovery. | Wanted to be normal. | Hard to understand and give meaning to illness. | Using medication to feel control. | Economic independence. Medicine was important. |

| 3 | | | | | International Journal of | Social Psychiatry |
|--------------------------------------|---|---|--|--|--|--|
| Table 4e (<i>continue</i> Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
| Pahwa et al. (2020) | Social support from family and co-workers in India. Indian participants were afraid of being a burden for the family. | nope and optimism | Indian participants experienced more stigma. | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
| Saptura et al. (2022) | Both friends and family improved recovery. Being a part of society was important. Felt a lot of stigmas, that made it hard. | Participants experienced hope | Gain insight into what started the problem. To know yourself. | Spirituality was important for recovery and meaning. | Self-control and mastery were mentioned. | Focus on being normal |
| Siu et al. (2012) | Low peer support. Connection was important. Respect. | Significance of hope. | Positive identity and overcoming stigma. | Finding meaning in life | Sense of control. Being active. | |
| Song (2017) | Family support was important | | | | | Resilience |
| Song & Shih (2009) | Feeling loved by parents was important. Clinicians, friends and society were a part of feeling connected. | Parents and professionals inspired hope. | Identifying as productive. Work was an important part of identity. | Meaning through religion. | Autonomy contributed to a feeling of normality. Important to be independent. Religion gave control. | Work and symptom remission was important. |
| Subandi (2015) | Being more open about the illness. Family played a big part in recovery. Important to be integrated in society. | Renewed sense of optimism. Motivation to reach recovery. | Change from being passive to being active. This change led to a more positive self-image and accept. | To understand the meaning of the illness. | Being active gave a feeling of control in life. Family helped control the illness. Religion impacted the feeling of control. | |
| Subandi & Good (2018) | | | Recovery was associated with reading the norms of society. | | | |

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Table 4e (continued)

| Table 4e (continu | | | | | | |
|--------------------|---|--|--|--|--|---------------------|
| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
| Tanaka (2018) | Emotional connection. Support from family, therapist and peers. Community support. | Hopeful relationships. | New perspectives. Maintaining independence. Positive self-identity. Re- discovering the self | Legacies would be passed down. Understanding illness and progress. Finding fulfilment. Spiritual satisfaction | Accomplishments and pride. Self-control. | |
| Tang (2018) | Professional support. Community meeting places. Information sharing. | Dreams of living a good life. | Racism. Employment as crucial to their self-worth | Helping others | Autonomy. Sense of control. Empowerment through knowledge. Role of others and community | Language barrier |
| Tang (2019a) | Connection in counselling. Enhancing social support. | | Patienthood. Double stigmatisation. | Understanding mental illness. Embracing spirituality. | Family's role in decision-making. Self-care skills and taking control. | Medication. |
| Tang (2019b) | Connection in counselling. Enhancing social support. | | Patienthood. Double stigmatisation. | Understanding mental illness. Embracing spirituality. | Family's role in decision-making. Self-care skills and taking control. | Medication. |
| Tse et al. (2014) | | | Chinese people are less likely to reveal mental illness | | | |
| Wu et al. (2021) | Trust in professionals increased quality of life. | | | | Personal power was important. Important to believe in one's own abilities. | |
| Yang et al. (2024) | Integrate into community. Supportive networks. Family played a significant role. Professional workers. | Realistic view of recovery. Ongoing struggle. Completing task. | Believing in oneself. Overcoming fear of rejection. Changing for the better. | Participating in purposeful activities | Personal willpower. Mental control. Power of mindset. Sense of accomplishment. Autonomy. | |

| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
|----------------------|---|--|--|---|---|--|
| Young et al. (2020) | Family provides emotional support, but could also be a barrier due to stress, stigma. | | A positive self-image was important for recovery. It was important not to bring shame on the family. | - | | Important to have a job. |
| Yu et al. (2021) | Family was important for recovery. Treatment was only effective if the participants received support from family. | | Family affected how participants identified themselves. | | | |
| Zaheer et al. (2019) | Support from family and professionals was important for recovery. | Hope for the future increased with coping abilities. | New perspective. Others had a big impact on identity. | Finding meaning with the illness. Help from clinicians. | Responsibility for recovery. Focusing on own strengths. | Being normal. Medicine and work were important. |

| Tal | ole 4f. | Elements | of recovery | in (| Caribb | ean studies |
|-----|---------|----------|-------------|------|--------|-------------|
|-----|---------|----------|-------------|------|--------|-------------|

| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
|----------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|----------|------------------|-------------|-------|
| Whitley (2016) | Recovery in being active | Hope for the future was | | God and religion | | |
| | in society. Family | essential in recovery. | | were important | | |
| | support was important. | | | among Caribbean- | | |
| | | | | Canadian | | |

Table 4g. Elements of recovery in international reviews

| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
|---------------------------|--|---|---|---|--|-------|
| Hickey et al. (2017) | Family was important for recovery in Taiwan. Important to include family in treatment in Taiwan. | Hope for the future and never give up in Taiwan. | Identity in Arab cultures is understood and defined by participating in a collective community. | | Important to feel in control. The doctor has a strong authority in Arab cultures. Family gave autonomy in Arab cultures. | |
| Leamy et al. (2011) | Extra focus on community. | | Collectivistic identity. Double stigma in ethnic minorities in Western cultures. | Faith community. Religion and God as a higher power. | | |
| Pouille et al. (2022) | Love and support from family. Peer support. Community level recovery. | Harmful consequences of SUD as motivator. Spirituality motivated to stop misuse | Cultural identity. Positive self-view as traditional men. Minority-related experiences such as labelling. | Reconnecting with culture. Religion and spirituality. Meaningful relationships. Help others. Being role model for children. | Taking responsibility. | |
| Slade et al. (2012) | | | Spiritual identity. Cultural identity. | | | |
| Sofouli (2021) | Family plays a central role. Providing support | Estonian language lacks future tense and makes it hard to perceive and express hope | | Spirituality was more present in non-Western cultures | Family member and professional make decisions | |
| van Weeghel et al. (2019) | | | Overcome double stigmatisation | | | |

Social connectedness

The importance of social connectedness was universally acknowledged, though the nature of supportive relationships varied. Family and colleagues were primary sources of support in Asian cultures, while friends were more prominent in the USA (Pahwa et al., 2020). Cultural factors influenced these relationships, with concerns about burdening family members and upholding family honor being more pronounced in Asian and Middle Eastern contexts Kuek et al. (2022)(Brijnath, 2015; Chen et al., 2006; Kakuma et al., 2024; Lee et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2023; Pahwa et al., 2020).

Hope and optimism for the future

Hope and optimism were widely recognized as essential for recovery, albeit with cultural nuances. In Eastern cultures, hope was linked to self-cultivation and courage, whereas Western cultures emphasized mastery and control Fukui et al. (2012). Hope depended on perceived opportunities, with role models acting as both sources of inspiration and anxiety, illustrating a complex interplay between hope and insecurity Tang (2019).

Identity

Rebuilding identity was crucial across cultures, often involving self-acceptance and finding new purpose. Collective identity was particularly significant in indigenous communities, where connection to family, spirituality, and cultural heritage supported recovery (Bone et al., 2011; Doty-Sweetnam & Morrissette, 2018; Lavallee & Poole, 2010; Nygaard, 2012). Stigma, however, frequently complicated identity reconstruction (Amini et al., 2019; Armour et al., 2009; Brijnath, 2015; Eltaiba & Harries, 2015; Kanehara et al., 2022; Kuek et al., 2022; Kwok, 2014), especially among African Americans, where mental health stigma intersected with racial discrimination Armour et al. (2009).

Meaning

Finding meaning after mental illness was highlighted across studies, with cultural practices contributing to this sense of purpose (Bone et al., 2011; Chi et al., 2014; Pouille et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2024). Generativity—passing knowledge to younger generations—was valued in Asian and Native American communities (Doty-Sweetnam & Morrissette, 2018; Lewis & Allen, 2017; Tanaka, 2018).

Religion and spirituality played significant roles in recovery. Religion and spirituality were major sources of meaning, more so in non-Western than Western cultures (Brijnath,

Tabel 7. Middle eastern studies definition of elements in recovery

| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
|--------|---------------|-------------------|----------|---------|-------------|-------|

2015; Hickey et al., 2017; Leamy et al., 2011; Sofouli, 2021; van Weeghel et al., 2019; Whitley, 2012), with religious beliefs framing mental illness as a form of trial or karmic consequence (Kuek, Raeburn, & Wand, 2023; Murwasuminar et al., 2023).

Empowerment

Empowerment involved personal responsibility and strength-based approaches. In Asian cultures, recovery often included a duty to uphold family reputation (Ma et al., 2023). However, family members sometimes shared responsibility for recovery (Gandotra et al., 2017), particularly when individuals lacked confidence (Wu et al., 2021). In some Middle Eastern cultures, doctors were seen as central to the recovery process, with individuals delegating responsibility to medical professionals (Gandotra et al., 2017; Hickey et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2015). Social and religious support also played significant roles in shaping empowerment (Antunes de Campos et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2006).

Weight of the CHIME elements

Connectedness was the most frequently mentioned element among the included studies (91%). Empowerment was mentioned the least (62%).

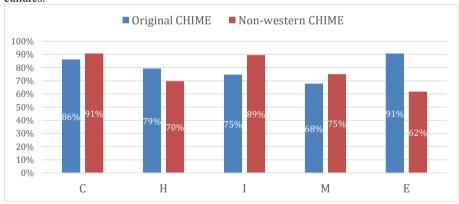
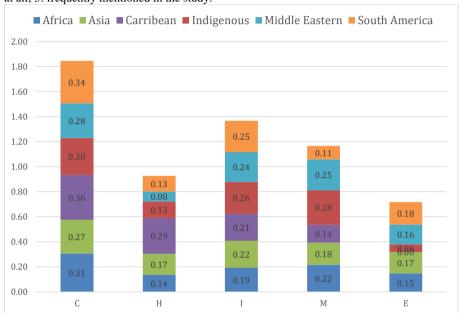


Figure 2. Percentage of studies examining CHIME-elements in Western and non-Western cultures.

When examining the weight of each element, Connectedness consistently received the highest score across all continents (Figure 3). Conversely, Empowerment received the least attention, followed by hope. Notably, in Asian, North American Native and Middle Eastern cultures, Meaning held great importance.

Figure 3. The summed weight of each element of CHIME divided by the total weight of all elements in each continent. Each element was rated on a scale from 0 to 5, 0: not mentioned at all; 5: frequently mentioned in the study.



Extended CHIME

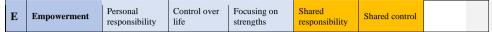
Regarding RQ3, the analysis indicated that while the five CHIME categories were universally understood and applicable. Two subcategories need to be added to Empowerment: "shared responsibility" and "shared control" (Table 5).

Table 5. Summary of the synthesis of findings.

| Table 5. Summary of the synthesis of findings. | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------------------|---|---|------------------------------|---|--|--------------------|--|--|
| C | Connectedness | Peer support | Relationships | Support from others | Being a part of the community | | | | |
| н | Hope and optimism | Belief in possibility of recovery | Motivation to change | Hope-inspiring relationships | Positive thinking and valuing success | Dreams and aspirations | | | |
| I | Identity | Dimensions of identity | Rebuilding positive sense of self | Overcoming stigma | | | | | |
| M | Meaning | Meaning of mental illness | Spirituality / Religion | Quality of life | Meaningful life and social goals | Meaningful life and social roles | Rebuilding of life | | |

Tabel 7. Middle eastern studies definition of elements in recovery

Author Connectedness Hope and optimism Identity Meaning Empowerment Other



Note. Dark blue represents the main categories of the original CHIME model, light blue marks the original subcategories, and new subcategories identified in the analysis are suggested for greater inclusivity.

Discussion

This scoping review aimed to describe the nature of the evidence base of personal recovery in research with non-Western individuals, and to investigate how well the CHIME framework fits among them. The findings highlight how the CHIME framework aligns broadly with non-Western experiences of recovery, though adaptations may enhance cultural relevance across different global contexts. This finding expands upon a limited evidence base.

Nature of the evidence base

The number of studies investigating personal recovery and its interaction with culture has notably increased in the past five years. However, despite this growth, there remains a significant gap in the research, particularly from developing countries. Many of the studies included in the review focused on minorities in Western countries, indicating a need for research conducted in non-Western countries. While Asian cultures had the largest evidence base, it is important to note that these studies were predominantly from high-income Asian countries such as Taiwan, Hong Kong, Singapore and Japan. No research was conducted in Central America, Russia and the Pacific Islands and only one study was conducted in Africa.

Schizophrenia, depression, substance use disorder and bipolar were the diagnosis most frequently included in the studies. However, diagnosis such as anxiety disorders, eating disorder, and personality disorder were largely underrepresented, highlighting a significant evidence gap in this field. Further research should aim to include individuals with a more diverse range of diagnoses to provide a more comprehensive understanding of personal recovery across various mental health conditions.

Fitness of the CHIME framework

Across the 76 studies included, all five categories of the CHIME model proved relevant in the experience of personal recovery. However, it was observed that certain categories held greater significance than others in different cultures. For instance, meaning

seemed to hold greater significance among Asian, Native North American and Middle Eastern participants, compared to South American participants.

Religion and relationships in personal recovery

Religion plays a vital role in personal recovery, influencing all CHIME categories. Joshanloo (2014) highlights cultural differences, noting that Western cultures often view religion as a well-being tool, while in non-Western contexts, it is foundational to understanding life itself. Religion's importance in interdependent cultures exceeds the CHIME subcategory of "spirituality" within meaning. In terms of empowerment, religion shapes individuals' sense of responsibility rather than merely acting as a coping strategy, challenging psychology's tendency to separate religion from mental health (Reme, 2014). Relationships, especially family, are also central across CHIME categories, reflecting a stronger focus on connectedness in non-Western cultures. Markus and Kitayama (1991) note that while relationships in independent cultures often serve personal goals, in interdependent cultures, building relationships is the goal. Family bonds, emphasized more in non-Western recovery, are tied to the broader concept of familism, where family, including close-knit community members, takes precedence over individual needs (Tuffour et al., 2019) (Saunders et al., 2023).

Empowerment

Empowerment is interpreted differently in independent versus interdependent cultures. The review shows empowerment mentioned less often than in Leamy et al.'s original CHIME study (2011), suggesting its higher relevance in Western contexts (Stuart et al., 2017). This may be due to researchers' priorities or its reduced importance in collectivist societies, where individuals often share responsibility for recovery decisions and place greater emphasis on relational aspects. Collectivist cultures prioritize group connection and interconnectedness, which contrasts with the Western focus on autonomy, personal control, and independence (Abdullah & Brown, 2011) (Heim et al., 2022). Here, well-being is often linked to interpersonal harmony rather than individual mastery, with an external locus of control and belief in concepts like fate or divine plans (Kong et al., 2023; Stanhope, 2002). This cultural difference suggests that Western empowerment models may not fully apply to non-Western contexts, where humility and shared responsibility are emphasized, requiring a rethinking of patient involvement and empowerment approaches (Johnsen et al., 2017; Khanthavudh et al., 2023; Susanti et al., 2020).

Commented [YK1]: Multiple in-text citations should be combined? As done above?

| Tabel 7. Middle | eastern studies | definition of | elements in | n recovery |
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Author Connectedness Hope and optimism Identity Meaning Empowerment Other

Cultural differences in personal recovery

Culture can either facilitate or hinder the process of recovery, depending on specific cultural norms and how they shape individual needs (Çam & Uğuryol, 2019). Different cultures have distinct approaches to achieving recovery. For instance, some North American Native cultures believe healing occurs through harmony with nature, while certain Asian cultures emphasise conformity to norms and emotional self-control (Abdullah & Brown, 2011). While the CHIME framework appears applicable across different cultures, it is important to adapt each element to the specific context. For instance, directing treatment solely at the individual level may not yield productive results in societies that prioritise relationships and interdependence (Kuek, Raeburn, Liang, et al., 2023).

Limitations

A strength of the review is that it was guided by the PRISMA checklist (Tricco et al., 2018). Moreover, given the novelty of this field, a scoping review is particularly relevant, as it highlights existing evidence and identifies areas requiring further empirical support. Finally, reviewing 76 papers offers a comprehensive overview of the field.

However, several limitations are also present. Firstly, the differences in experiences of recovery found in this review can be the cause of factors other than culture. Amati et al. (2023) argue that before attributing differences in recovery to culture, one should consider how factors such as institutional racism and other socio-structural disadvantages affect different ethnicities. This suggest that to fully comprehend personal recovery, a political agenda on social justice and human rights needs to be included.

The inclusion criterion requiring studies to be written in English, Danish, or Norwegian may inadvertently exclude relevant non-Western research. Even though few non-English studies were identified during screening, that could be due to limitations in search terms. The inclusion criterion required the term "personal recovery" to be present in a paper, but many studies focused on related concepts like well-being, coping, resilience, post-traumatic growth, and quality of life. While these terms differ, they often overlap, and recovery concepts might be present even if not explicitly addressed (Lee et al., 2022; Young et al., 2016).

Future research

Considering the heterogeneity among non-Western cultures, further research on CHIME and personal recovery in various cultural contexts is essential. Future studies could explore how family and religion can be integrated into treatment within collectivist cultures and examine how different cultures prioritize elements of recovery, especially hope and empowerment. Research could also focus on culturally sensitive understandings of personal recovery.

The absence of linguistic representation of personal recovery may reflect a gap in expressing lived experiences calling for research on linguistic differences and metaphors across cultures offering insights into the boundaries and nuances of the recovery experience within each culture (Davies, 1990; Davies & Harré, 1990; Hacking, 2007).

Echoing Karadzhov (2023) arguing that future research should focus on understanding how oppressive social structures influence recovery and coping mechanisms among marginalized populations, especially ethnic minorities in Western countries, we advise future research to explore how socio-structural factors such as poverty and social marginalization impact recovery. Such insights can inform the development of anti-oppressive interventions to enhance recovery outcomes among marginalized individuals.

Conclusion

The CHIME framework shows universal applicability for describing recovery across cultures. However, adapting the "empowerment" category to include interdependent values would enhance its relevance to non-Western cultural contexts. In non-Western cultures, the importance of relationships and religion suggests that these elements should be incorporated more prominently within the CHIME model.

This review highlights a need for further research on underrepresented non-Western cultures. In particular, it is important to examine how social injustice and the absence of a national language dedicated to personal recovery can impact recovery. Additionally, focused studies on personal recovery in trauma and affective disorders are essential to filling current research gaps.

| Tabel 7. Middle | eastern | studies | definition | of | elements | in recovery |
|-----------------|---------|---------|------------|----|----------|-------------|
| | | | | | | |

| Author | Connectedness | Hope and optimism | Identity | Meaning | Empowerment | Other |
|--------|---------------|-------------------|----------|---------|-------------|-------|
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Tabel 7. Middle eastern studies definition of elements in recovery

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