

1 **Interpreting therapeutic landscape experiences through rural stroke survivors' biographies of**
2 **disruption and flow**

3

4 **Abstract**

5 This article utilizes the concepts of biographical disruption and biographical flow to expand
6 understandings of how a therapeutic engagement with the rural landscape may change over time for
7 individual stroke survivors. In doing so, it explores how the rural landscape can be experienced as
8 both a therapeutic and a non-therapeutic landscape. The paper draws on in-depth interviews with
9 nineteen stroke survivors living in rural areas in the Northern Netherlands. Because of the cognitively
10 and physically disabling changes that can occur as a result of stroke, interviewees' stories revealed
11 complex and often contradictory experiences of the rural, post-stroke, that varied significantly from
12 their pre-stroke experiences. Our findings demonstrate that the rural holds potential to function as a
13 therapeutic landscape for stroke survivors, especially through its enabling natural and social
14 characteristics. However, the different physical, social, natural, and healthcare aspects of the rural
15 can also disrupt stroke survivors' individual biographies and their sense of self. The privileging of
16 place in these biographies may provide important insights that can help improve the practice of
17 stroke care. It also leads us to conclude that the concepts of biographical flow and disruption, though
18 useful, need to take into account the influence of the wider (spatial) context. We thus coin the terms
19 *bio-geo-graphical flow* and *bio-geo-graphical disruption*, and suggest that these may more accurately
20 reflect the spatio-temporal disruptions and flows experienced by stroke survivors in the post-stroke
21 period.

22

23 **Keywords:** therapeutic landscape; stroke survivors; biographical disruption and biographical flow;
24 qualitative methods; rural areas; the Netherlands

25

26 **Therapeutic landscapes**

27 The natural environment has often been framed as health promoting, especially for people who
28 experience physical or mental ill-health (Hartig and Staats, 2006; Kaplan, 1995; Ulrich, 1984). One
29 way in which researchers have sought to understand the inter-relationships between people, place
30 and health is through the concept of therapeutic landscapes. First posited by Gesler (1992: 743) the
31 concept focuses on “how the healing process works itself out in places (or situations, locales, settings
32 and milieus)”. Since Gesler’s (1992) initial work, numerous geographers, particularly those working in
33 the sub-disciplinary field of health, have drawn on his ideas to tease out the therapeutic effects of a
34 wide range of landscapes – from landscapes that are highly individual and unique to those that are
35 more ubiquitous such as built and urban landscape (e.g. Curtis et al, 2013; Masuda and Crabtree,
36 2010; Williams, 2010). Importantly for this article, significant weight has been attached to
37 understanding the potential healing, or health enhancement effects, of the natural landscape. A
38 growing body of knowledge within both health geography and environmental psychology highlights
39 the positive and restorative effects of being in, or engaging with, the natural environment. Work
40 here, for example, has considered the relational health effects of natural landscapes with varying
41 groups of people ranging from: young adults; older people; those seeking respite; the terminally ill;
42 those in recovery from either mental or physical ill-health; and family care-givers (e.g. Conradson,
43 2005; Hartig and Staats, 2006; Kaplan, 1995; Milligan et al, 2004; Moore et al, 2013; Ulrich, 1983,
44 1984; Willis, 2009; Wood et al, 2013). Research in this field points to a range of health promotion and
45 wellbeing benefits from engagement with natural and healing environments including: an increased
46 sense of belonging and purpose (Williams, 2002); the moderation of stress and anxiety (Korpela et al,
47 2008); increased social interaction and the promotion of social capital (Carpiano, 2006; Cattell et al,
48 2008); and the instigation of social and environmental interventions designed to promote and
49 support healthy behaviors (Milligan et al, 2004; Milligan et al, 2015). In a review of this broad range
50 of literature, Duff (2012) noted that one of its most salient themes is that there is a need to further
51 understand the social, affective and material resources of enabling places that contribute to the
52 promotion of wellbeing.

53 The therapeutic landscapes literature has also drawn attention to the diverse ways in which
54 different people can experience the same landscapes. Hence, what may prove a therapeutic or
55 salutogenic experience for one individual, can give rise to anxiety, uncertainty or fear in others
56 (Milligan and Bingley, 2007). The emphasis here, however, has been on differences in experiences
57 *between* individuals, highlighting how some places can both ‘hurt’ and ‘heal’ at the same time
58 (Wakefield and McMullan, 2005: 300). Willis (2009) also raised the important question of whether
59 the therapeutic landscape is experienced as palliative (i.e. where therapeutic benefits are
60 experienced only when *in* or *on* the landscape but not beyond), or whether there are longer-term
61 healing or health enhancement effects. What is largely absent in the literature then, is an
62 understanding of the temporal dimension of therapeutic landscape effects; that is, how the relational
63 and the therapeutic engagement with landscape can change for the individual at different points in
64 their lives.

65

66 **Stroke and disability**

67 In this article, we address the biographical stories of enabling and disabling aspects of the rural
68 environment by drawing on the specific experiences of stroke survivors living in rural areas in the
69 Netherlands. A stroke is a sudden death of brain cells due to a lack of oxygen, caused by blockage of
70 blood flow, or by rupture of an artery to the brain. Most stroke survivors continue their lives with
71 lasting physical, cognitive and/or emotional impairments which can include paralysis, loss of balance,
72 and coordination, loss of concentration, memory, understanding, speech, and reading and writing
73 skills (BHF, 2014). Such lasting impairments are likely to change the ways in which stroke survivors
74 perceive and engage with their environment.

75 In the Netherlands, 6.1% of people aged 50 and over experience a stroke and survive (CBS,
76 2014); many of these survivors live in rural areas. Following a stroke, most are admitted to an acute
77 stroke unit in hospital. They are then either discharged back to their own home, sent to a specialized
78 stroke rehabilitation unit, or relocated to a nursing home. The place to which they are discharged

79 depends on the impact of the stroke on the individual, their age and their prospects for recovery. Our
80 study focused on stroke survivors with moderate to severe disabilities who worked on their recovery
81 in a rehabilitation stroke unit before being discharged to their home. Within the rehabilitation stroke
82 unit, survivors work on their recovery with the support of a specialized multi-disciplinary team of
83 psychiatrists, physical therapists, occupational therapists, nutritionists, speech therapists,
84 psychologists, social workers, and nursing staff.

85 When studying disability in rehabilitation medicine, the International Classification of
86 Functioning, Disability and Health (ICF) is widely used, as it provides a coherent view of health from a
87 biological, individual and social perspective (Stucki et al, 2002). Although the ICF stresses
88 environmental and personal factors of health and disability, rehabilitation medicine tends to neglect
89 the spatial and social environment as well as changes over the individual life course (Cott et al, 2007;
90 Jansma et al, 2010). Since the 1990s, the social model of disability has increasingly gained traction.
91 This model places less emphasis on disability as a medical condition and more on exclusionary
92 societal practices that act to disable. First coined by the disabled activist and writer Mike Oliver
93 (1983), the social model has been widely adopted by critical geographers and is the framing of
94 disability we utilize for this paper. Following Chouinard (2010: 242), we define the social model of
95 disability as “the embodied process of becoming disabled through experiences of physical or mental
96 impairment or illness and the negotiation of relations and practices that value able bodies and minds
97 at the expense of others”. This approach helps us to look at disability as constructed through societal
98 exclusionary practices.

99

100 **Biographical disruption and flow**

101 The stroke literature notes how impairments following stroke can impact adversely on an individual’s
102 life course, disrupting and inhibiting the continuance of their ‘normal’ life as experienced prior to the
103 onset of the illness (Cott et al, 2007; Nanninga et al, 2015a). Bury (1982) defined this experience as
104 one of ‘biographical disruption’. He maintained that we can learn much about everyday situations

105 and experiences through analyzing the circumstances in which disruption occurs. His work identifies
106 three key features that underpin biographical disruption. Firstly, he points to disruption of the taken
107 for granted assumptions and behaviors that previously characterized an individual's daily life.
108 Attention here focuses on embodied states not previously brought into consciousness and how these
109 are addressed. Secondly, he identifies a disruption of the individual's biography and their sense of
110 self. Thirdly, he refers to the coping mechanisms mobilized in response to the altered state arising
111 from the disruption. Importantly, biographical disruption is not viewed solely as impacting on the
112 individual experiencing the stroke, but also on families and members of a stroke survivor's wider
113 social networks. In the immediate post-stroke period, survivors are likely to focus on their functional
114 impairments, and on recovering from these. In the longer term, where some impairments prove to
115 be enduring, individuals may identify as being chronically ill and/or disabled (see Cott et al, 2007;
116 Nanninga et al, 2015a).

117 Despite being widely accepted and having come to form something of a 'grand narrative' of
118 stroke, Faircloth et al (2004) maintain that the concept of biographical disruption may be too
119 simplistic. Where illness is marked by sudden onset – as in stroke – they argue that lives are not
120 *inevitably* disrupted, especially where different symbolic significance may be attached to the
121 experience. So while some individuals may indeed find their lives disrupted as a result of a stroke,
122 others may view having a stroke simply as part of their ongoing life narrative, that is, as a different
123 stage of their life embodiment. In this respect stroke survivors will in maintain a coherent sense of
124 the pre- and post-stroke self. In their critique of the notion of biographical disruption Faircloth et al
125 (2004) draw attention to the intersectionality of stroke with the ageing process, co-morbidity, or pre-
126 existing knowledge of the stroke. They posit that these overlaps may result in what they refer to as
127 'biographical flow' in the experiences of a person pre- and post-stroke (p. 242). Adding further
128 complexity to the literature is a study of identity changes following stroke undertaken by Kuenemund
129 et al (2016). In this research the authors found evidence of personal growth following the trauma of
130 stroke and argued that it would be worthwhile to also consider positive changes post-stroke.

131 Whilst we accept the argument that biographical disruption is not inevitable, it nevertheless
132 offers a useful lens through which to interpret and to understand how people experience their pre-
133 and post-stroke body physically, cognitively, and emotionally. The concepts of biographical flow and
134 disruption also highlight the importance of understanding the temporal dimensions surrounding the
135 disabling conditions of a stroke. While much of the argument about disruption and flow is cast in
136 temporal terms, the specific focus of this article is on how the spatial, in all its manifestations, such
137 as place, environment and landscape, enters into the story. Therefore, our paper seeks to expand
138 understandings of how a therapeutic engagement with the rural landscape may change over time for
139 individual stroke survivors.

140

141 **Understanding rurality in the Dutch context**

142 Our study was conducted in the rural environment of the Northern Netherlands. Our interpretation
143 of rurality draws on Woods' (2012: 3) definition of: "how rural spatial and social relations are
144 constructed, represented, materialized, performed and contested". The rural is a place where
145 aspects of what is commonly regarded as 'natural' in terms of for instance vegetation, animals,
146 rivers, and slopes, are more obviously present. We recognize, of course, that, in most areas these
147 features of rurality are rarely entirely 'natural' but rather are the product of centuries of
148 interventions from factors such as human occupation and agricultural production. In this article, we
149 focus on the 'everyday lives of the rural' which has been identified as one of the key facets of rurality
150 (Halfacree, 2006: 51). The rural setting is appropriate, since it contains a variety of spatial
151 characteristics that, in one way or another, appear to be deepen biographical disruptions or facilitate
152 biographical flows in the lives of stroke survivors.

153 When studying the potentially therapeutic nature of the rural environment, it is important to
154 acknowledge that what is 'rural' and what the rural landscape looks like differs significantly between
155 different countries. The Netherlands is a largely urbanized country, with very high population
156 densities, averaging 498 people per square kilometer. In comparison, the population density of

157 Belgium is 369; the United Kingdom 265; and Sweden 23 (World Bank, 2013). Even the environment
158 that *is* classified as rural in the Netherlands can be relatively densely populated, with areas being
159 designated as rural if they have an address density of fewer than 500 people per square kilometer¹
160 (CBS, 2015). Importantly, 99.6 percent of rural dwellers in the Netherlands are still able to reach a
161 first aid post in a hospital within a 30 minute drive and 53.7 percent are able to reach a hospital
162 within a 10 minute drive (RIVM, 2014). This means that even for those areas defined as rural, acute
163 care is never really that far away.

164 However, in a broader context dominated by neoliberal imperatives, health care services
165 (particularly in rural areas) are typically being reduced and concentrated (Chouinard and Crooks,
166 2008; England et al, 2007). In the Dutch context, austerity measures and cutbacks have led to a
167 concentration of health services in areas of higher population density, resulting in the demise of local
168 village-based services (RIVM, 2014; Gijsen and Poos, 2013). In their stead, healthcare providers, such
169 as general practitioners, physiotherapists, dentists, psychologists, social workers, occupational
170 therapists, as well as surgeons undertaking minor operations previously carried out their duties in
171 local hospitals. However, today they are typically concentrated in larger regional centers. Financial
172 cutbacks are also placing pressure on rehabilitation centers to shorten the duration of expensive in-
173 patient rehabilitation services. The focus is on delivering post discharge care and treatment at home,
174 by a specialized team, as early as possible (see, for example, Mas and Inzitari, 2015; Nanninga et al,
175 2015b). Although these services are potentially enabling for rural dwellers who require them, service
176 concentration is based on the premise that rural dwellers can secure access to them (see Goins et al,
177 2005). Understanding how service concentration is impacting on the lives of rural stroke survivors
178 may be an important aspect of their spatial experience post-stroke.

179

¹ the number of addresses within a circle with a one kilometer radius around an address, divided by the surface of the circle (CBS, 2015).

180 **Methodology²**

181 This article is part of a larger qualitative study on stroke survivors' experiences of the transition from
182 the rehabilitation unit to the home-setting. Our methodology is informed by approaches to the
183 geographies of disability (Chouinard, 2010; Imrie and Edwards, 2007). That is, we undertook
184 qualitative in-depth interviews designed to give voice to stroke survivors, to understand their
185 experiences over time, and to increase insight into the diversity of their experiences.

186 The sample of participants for the larger study included stroke survivors living in both urban
187 and rural areas. However, given the neo-liberal imperatives discussed above, we were particularly
188 interested in the experiences of rural dwelling stroke survivors. Hence, in this article, we draw
189 specifically on data collected with those stroke survivors who were living in rural areas in the North
190 of the Netherlands pre-stroke. The data are drawn from semi-structured in-depth interviews with 19
191 stroke survivors, collected in two separate phases. In the first phase (2010-2011), thirteen
192 participants (1-13, Table 1) were approached as a follow-up after they had completed a survey and
193 indicated they were willing to participate in an in-depth interview. Subsequently, in 2011 and 2012,
194 six participants (14-19, Table 1) were interviewed twice, once in the rehabilitation unit and once at
195 home. Participants were recruited by the third author, who was working as a physiotherapist at the
196 stroke rehabilitation unit at the time. All in-depth interviews were conducted at a time and location
197 that was convenient for the participants, and in the presence of a 'significant other' such as a partner
198 or a sibling. During the interviews, the participants were asked to reflect on their current bodies and
199 (expectations about) their lives in the rehabilitation unit, at home and in the community, and to
200 comment on differences in their daily lives pre- and post-stroke. Overall, the interview guides in both
201 phases covered the same questions; however, our learning experiences and the inductive inferences
202 emerging from the first set of interviews were used to refine the questions in the second set of
203 interviews and opened new paths of inquiry.

² This study was part of a previously published larger study. Given the same methodology was used, parts of this section are taken from Nanninga et al (2015a).

204 All interviewees underwent multidisciplinary treatment in the same rehabilitation stroke unit
205 for at least one month, and all returned home afterwards. Since we recruited participants through
206 the rehabilitation unit, our sample consists of participants who had suffered a moderate to severe
207 stroke, and were relatively young. Older and fragile stroke survivors more often undertake
208 rehabilitation in a nursing home setting, and survivors of a light stroke are typically discharged home
209 following hospital admission.

210 All participants were informed about the aims of the study, signed a consent form, and
211 participated voluntarily. Following Dutch ethical review processes, the study was submitted to the
212 Medical Ethical Review Committee of the University Medical Center Groningen. It was exempted
213 from review, which means that the Committee did not identify any ethical problems with the
214 research. The in-depth interviews were digitally recorded, transcribed verbatim, coded and analyzed
215 using Atlas-ti, a software package for qualitative data analysis. Coding and analysis were carried out
216 by the first author and reflected on by the second and last authors. In our analysis, we focused on
217 how the social and material components of the rural landscape created different therapeutic
218 encounters pre- and post-stroke, identifying patterns of biographical flow and disruption. Our
219 approach to the data analysis was both deductive and inductive, enhancing the depth of our analysis
220 (see Thornberg, 2012).

221

222 **Disruption and flow in rural therapeutic landscape experiences**

223 *Differences between participants*

224 Participant characteristics are summarized in Table 1. In our analysis we explored patterns of
225 biographical flow and disruption in the stories of different subgroups of participants. Our analysis did
226 not reveal any significant variations in patterns of disruption and flow arising from differing
227 impairments following the stroke; marital; or employment status. Furthermore, while we had
228 anticipated that age might impact significantly on an individual's experience of disruption and flow
229 (e.g. with greater evidence of flow in later life), the data did not support this expectation.

230 Interestingly, this runs counter to what some of the existing biographical disruption literature tells us.
 231 Our data suggest that it is perhaps too simplistic to assume that greater biographical disruption will
 232 be experienced at younger age. This is consistent with Faircloth et al's (2005) findings, that narratives
 233 of stroke onset can be characterized by both disruption and flow irrespective of age. For example, for
 234 working age stroke survivors, biographical disruption may be experienced in relation to employment.
 235 At the same time our data reveals that older stroke survivors can also experience significant
 236 biographical disruption to their lives, for instance with regard to hobbies or other forms of social
 237 engagement.

238 Furthermore, when looking at time since the onset of a stroke, we found that narratives of
 239 disruption dominated the stories of participants who had experienced a stroke more than 24 months
 240 prior to the interview. This suggests that disruption is likely to remain dominant within stroke
 241 survivors' narratives over time. When considering differences in education, our findings indicated
 242 that people with vocational training seemed to cope with the stroke effects relatively well; this may
 243 be related to their ability to create practical solutions to everyday problems. Another difference
 244 between subgroups was that both married and single men experienced rather more biographical
 245 flow than women. For some male participants, this may be linked to their vocational training. We
 246 acknowledge that the claims made in the section above are tentative, given the relatively small
 247 number of participants.

248

249 Table 1: Participant Pseudonyms and Characteristics

| No | Name | Age | Stroke effects ^a | Education ^b | Employment status | Marital status | Time since stroke onset (months) ^c | Biographical flow/disruption ^d |
|----------------|-------|-----|---|------------------------|--------------------------------------|----------------|---|---|
| 1 | John | 57 | Motor and cognitive | Vocational | Incapacitated | Single | 10 | D |
| 2 | Paul | 50 | Motor | Unknown | Working | Single | 17 | F |
| 3 ^e | Simon | 41 | Motor and behavioural, mood, swallowing | Higher | Incapacitated | Single | 60 | D |
| 4 | Tom | 60 | Motor, cognitive and speech | Vocational | Incapacitated | Married | 47 | D |
| 5 | Caren | 60 | Motor and cognitive | Higher | Partly incapacitated, partly working | Single | 25 | D |

| | | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|---------|----|---|------------|---------------|------------|----|---|
| 6 | Sam | 40 | Cognitive, mood, speech, sight and epilepsy | Vocational | Incapacitated | Cohabiting | 23 | F |
| 7 | Nina | 47 | Motor, cognitive and sight | Vocational | Incapacitated | Married | 17 | F |
| 8 | Violet | 42 | Motor and cognitive | Lower | Incapacitated | Cohabiting | 23 | D |
| 9 | James | 58 | Cognitive and behavioural | Vocational | Incapacitated | Married | 7 | F |
| 10 | Victor | 71 | Motor and speech | Vocational | Pensioner | Married | 19 | F |
| 11 | Rose | 53 | Motor and cognitive | Vocational | Unemployed | Married | 33 | D |
| 12 | Laura | 49 | Motor and cognitive | Lower | Pensioner | Married | 21 | D |
| 13 ^e | Isa | 48 | Motor and cognitive | Vocational | Incapacitated | Single | 78 | F |
| 14 | Kate | 61 | Motor | Lower | Unemployed | Married | 8 | F |
| 15 | Henry | 69 | Motor | Higher | Pensioner | Married | 6 | D |
| 16 | Raymond | 68 | Motor | Higher | Pensioner | Married | 6 | D |
| 17 | Roy | 66 | Cognitive | Vocational | Pensioner | Single | 6 | F |
| 18 ^e | Peter | 46 | Motor and behavioural | Vocational | Incapacitated | Married | 6 | F |
| 19 | Ron | 63 | Motor and cognitive | Higher | Pensioner | Married | 6 | F |

250 ^a The listed stroke effects were recorded by the rehabilitation clinicians, and these typically coincided with the
251 stories that were discussed during the interviews.

252 ^b Levels of education: lower - finishing secondary school but no further education; vocational - for example
253 tradesman, care worker; higher - technical college/university educated.

254 ^c For the participants who were interviewed in round 2, we recorded the time post-stroke at the time of the
255 second interview.

256 ^d Based on text analysis, we determined whether the story of each participant was dominated by narratives of
257 biographical disruption or flow. This does not mean that participants experiencing flow did not recount any
258 experiences of disruption, and vice versa.

259 ^e Used to live in a rural area pre-stroke, and moved to an urban area post-stroke.

260

261 *Disruption and flow in interactions with things and people in rural space*

262 Pre-stroke, most of our participants enjoyed engaging with the rural landscape but gave little
263 thought to either the enabling or the potentially disabling aspects of the environment. Faced with a
264 post-stroke body, however, many noted how elements of the physical environment that had
265 previously been negotiated with ease, were now experienced as disabling. Participants revealed how,
266 rather than engaging with, and enjoying the wider rural landscape (e.g. the natural scenery, wildlife),
267 they now found themselves focusing closely on immediate material objects that had become
268 obstacles to their negotiation of the natural environment. This resulted in experiences of
269 biographical disruption. Victor, for example, explained how he used to enjoy walking or cycling in the
270 rural landscape before his stroke, and had never considered the potential material difficulties
271 involved in moving through this landscape:

272

273 You are never going to be as secure as you were [before the stroke]. I do cycle well, but I
274 have to go through a tunnel at first, and it's very difficult for me to get up [the slope]. So, this
275 hinders me [in going out]. (Victor)

276

277 The northern Netherlands is a region that is mostly flat and has no steep hills. Thus, Victor's
278 comment highlights how even relatively minor topographical features can present challenges for the
279 post-stroke body and result in experiences of biographical disruption. A sloping tunnel that facilitated
280 the opening up of the rural landscape in his pre-stroke life, had become a barrier to outdoor activities
281 post-stroke. Sam's experiences revealed another challenge of cycling, namely that of dealing with
282 other traffic participants. Sam ran a nursery garden with his family, and his home and business were
283 located outside a village, in a very quiet rural environment. The quiet traffic situation, together with
284 problems he now experienced with his eyesight, heightened his sense of other traffic participants as
285 'obstacles':

286

287 At first I would cycle and there would be another cyclist coming my way, and I would not see
288 him coming. And when he would be cycling right next to me, and say "hi", I was scared out of
289 my wits, because I would have missed him completely. And now, with a certain way of
290 observing, my eyes to the left and to the right, it's going well. (Sam)

291

292 Sam's narrative reveals how he developed a technique to manage the challenges of bicycling post-
293 stroke, and participating in traffic situations in particular. He took great pride and pleasure in the fact
294 that he could once again take his five-year-old son on bicycle tours through the rural landscape,
295 which strengthened their bond. This demonstrates how material objects and aspects of the
296 environment are connected to the social landscape. Furthermore, Sam's experiences show how he

297 had developed a technique that enabled him to manage his post-stroke body in a way that
298 demonstrates a shift toward biographical flow.

299

300 Physical elements of the seasons can also hinder stroke survivors' engagement with the
301 natural environment. These experiences can illuminate the psycho-emotional dimensions of disability
302 which pertain to internalized oppression and negative stereotypes of disability in society (Reeve,
303 2002). Laura, for example, expressed frustration that her hemiplegic body left her unable to walk
304 outdoors in the winter time, because bad weather made the landscape slippery to negotiate,
305 resulting in a decline of her physical condition. Even when it was not slippery outside, she had to
306 concentrate on her right leg when walking outdoors:

307

308 When there's no snow, I go out for a walk, to the shopping mall, or to visit my mother. [...].
309 When it is slippery, [my partner] does not allow me to go outdoors. [I'm afraid to fall]. It's not
310 nice, that stupid right side [of my body]. I keep dragging [my right leg]. [...] And even when I
311 focus on my right side, when I walk past a wall I stumble into it.

312 I: Does it become worse when you're tired?

313 L: That's for sure. (Laura)

314

315 For Laura, as well as other participants, the change in their embodied state post-stroke rendered
316 artefacts in the rural environment more challenging and the rural space less accessible. Previously
317 taken-for-granted features of the physical landscape were problematic for the post-stroke body. This
318 changed the nature of their experience and shifted their engagement with the rural landscape from
319 one that focused on enjoyment and engagement, to one that was heavily focused on negotiation and
320 the negative emotions associated with highly circumscribed bodily movement ("that stupid right
321 side").

322 While not specifically a rural issue, what became clear was that the post-stroke body can find
323 previously accessible landscapes disabling. Material objects such as slopes, walls, and tiles become
324 obstacles to any therapeutic encounter with the landscape. This was especially challenging for our
325 participants since they had not perceived these things to be disabling pre-stroke. This reflects the
326 literature on disabling environments and 'ableist spaces', which illustrates how environments are
327 often designed without taking into account the needs and experiences of people with disabilities
328 (Chouinard, 1997; 2006; Crooks et al, 2008a; Imrie and Edwards, 2007; Rattray, 2013).

329 When looking at how stroke survivors interact with other people in the rural landscape, our
330 participants revealed how their social needs and abilities had changed. In particular, they noted that
331 they felt a continuous need to belong and to be recognized. How this was achieved tended to differ
332 for participants pre-and post-stroke. Pre-stroke, our participants would engage with other villagers in
333 casual conversation, for instance when meeting them in the street or at the local shops. Post-stroke,
334 participants revealed how they tended to avoid potentially difficult social encounters by engaging
335 with people from a distance. Laura, for instance, noted that she would go out with the specific aim of
336 waving at some family members and friends. It gave her a good feeling to go out with a particular
337 purpose rather than "just walking around aimlessly" as she described it.

338

339 L: [When going for a walk,] there are a couple of places, where I have to check, I have to
340 wave. And, well I walk up until [partner's workplace] and I check whether he's there and I
341 wave at him. Yes, that's nice, but that's not just going for a walk, there's [a social purpose].

342 (Laura)

343

344 By engaging in social interaction from a distance with, in this case, her partner, Laura illustrated how
345 she had developed a strategy that helped her to feel socially included and part of the community,
346 thus achieving a sense of biographical flow. It seemed that for her, as well as for some other
347 participants, direct conversation with other people could be demanding and hence something to be

348 avoided where possible. This was most evident where oral communication skills and/or information
349 processing abilities were impaired. The social landscape of rural village dwelling, we suggest, can
350 offer a relatively quiet and unthreatening social space, that can provide opportunities for stroke
351 survivors to engage in social interaction from a distance; in doing so it enables them to feel
352 acknowledged and included without the pressure of close physical engagement. These findings
353 reinforce Jones and Curtis' (2010) Australian study on rural-dwelling survivors of a Traumatic Brain
354 Injury (TBI), where the rural, offering a potentially quiet social environment, was found to actually
355 suit participants. These findings reinforce the notion of the rural as an enabling social space (Walsh
356 and O'Shea, 2008), as well afford support to the claim that informal practices in rural communities
357 can help to reduce experiences of social exclusion (Walsh et al, 2014). However, we acknowledge
358 that the rural can also be a space of social exclusion. Parr et al (2004), in her study with people with
359 mental health problems in the UK, for example, noted that the social environment in rural areas can
360 be characterized by both social inclusion and social exclusion. The rural social environment, they
361 maintained, can sometimes be experienced as an unnerving space, which can be difficult to
362 'navigate' in social terms, and where disabled bodies are stigmatized. Similarly, stroke survivors, can
363 experience social exclusion based on a lack of understanding of their disabling conditions by others in
364 their social environment (Crooks et al, 2008b; Nanninga et al, 2015a).

365

366 *Disruption and flow in interactions with rural gardens and nature*

367 When looking at participants' relationships with the rural landscape, stories encompassing
368 complexity and change in therapeutic and disabling landscape experiences emerged. In the
369 Netherlands, rural gardens are generally significantly larger than those situated in urban areas, and
370 are one of the reasons why people choose to live in a rural area. Gardens thus form an important
371 part of people's experiences of rural dwelling and green space, and are important to consider in the
372 context of the rural experience of stroke. Many participants spoke of how, pre-stroke, they had
373 enjoyed working in their gardens, but that this had changed. Take Henry's case:

374

375 H: I do mow the lawn. We have a sizeable piece of grassland, with these precise little corners
376 that you have to do. The first time I did it [after the stroke], I did it in three turns. [...] It's still
377 tiring, but I can do it now. And when I know, I'm going to mow the lawn, I don't do [another
378 exercise]. But it's like, I walk in the garden, and I see all the stuff I'd like to do, but I can't get
379 around to doing it yet. [...] It's my balance, when weeding, you have to get down and up
380 again, it's tiring.

381 P: It's heavy work, gardening. [...]

382 H: I now do less in the garden, my wife is gardening more. (Henry and partner)

383

384 As a gardener, Henry experienced the garden in a different way pre-and post-stroke. On the one
385 hand, the things he can still do in his garden, such as mowing the lawn, give him a sense of
386 achievement, so contribute to his experience of the garden as a therapeutic place. On the other
387 hand, his story is illustrative of the frustration people can feel post-stroke, when they want to engage
388 in an activity they used to enjoy, but can no longer do so. This loss of place - in Henry's case his
389 interaction with the flower beds - can affect how participants feel about their garden. His story
390 illustrates how the socio-spatial disruptions experienced by the post-stroke body can change an
391 individual's relationship with those places from which people previously derived therapeutic
392 enjoyment. Such findings run counter to those discussed in Jones and Curtin's (2010) work, where
393 stories of disruption such as recounted by Henry, were largely absent. Rather, participants expressed
394 a strong rural identity and found solace in their attachment to a rural idyll, centered around a
395 peaceful and quiet environment. Importantly, as distinct from our study, Jones and Curtis' (2010)
396 work presented a single 'in the moment' account that did not attend to how the experiences of a
397 stroke survivor may change over time.

398 Other participants in our study expressed experiences of disruption from a range of other
399 rural landscapes beyond the garden. In the Dutch context, a specific feature of the rural concerns

400 coasts and lakes. Simon's narrative, for example, revealed a sense of biographical disruption from his
401 favorite activity of sailing. He particularly enjoyed the challenge of curbing the natural environment
402 of the sea. Post-stroke his inability to continue sailing was manifested through a narrative of
403 biographical disruption:

404

405 I don't have any hobbies anymore, everything takes so much energy. And sailing, [my] sailing
406 boat, I sold it. I tried, but I can't do it anymore. It is difficult. And the most difficult thing for
407 me was, the boat was in [sea port on the Waddensea]. And normally we would go to
408 [another port on the Waddensea] to get an ice cream. My sister was here on Saturday, and
409 she took me where I used to live, and I enjoyed that, to the Waddensea. (Simon)

410

411 In returning to the sea shore, Simon sought to re-incorporate his therapeutic engagement with the
412 landscape through the sensory rather than the physical experience: watching the width of the sea
413 from the dyke, smelling the seaweed and eating an ice cream in the restaurant on the seafront.
414 Laura, in contrast, sought to re-incorporate a physical and therapeutic engagement with the canals
415 and lakes close to her home, but struggled to achieve this:

416

417 P: [Pre-stroke] we were always outdoors when we were free.

418 L: Canoeing. [...]

419 P: She says she can't use the paddle anymore. And I tell her, what's the big deal. [...]

420 I: So, you don't enjoy the canoeing when you can't paddle?

421 L: No, because I wouldn't do my job properly.

422 P: I don't mind, as far as I'm concerned you could just sit and relax, maybe read a book or
423 something.

424 L: And if I would have done that before I had the stroke, brought a book. He would have
425 thrown me in the water, figuratively speaking <laughs>. [...] You should paddle.

426

427 Laura's strong connection to canoeing was a key theme in her narrative. This was expressed both
428 through her dialogue and through her emotions. She indicated that while she wanted to enjoy the
429 therapeutic benefits of canoeing again, she had not come to terms with the alternative 'solution' to
430 participating in this activity. The notion of taking a less active role in the canoe and perhaps reading a
431 book or watching birds while still immersed in the quiet, natural environment was not palatable to
432 Laura. Her narrative reveals that in the absence of being able to undertake the repetitive movements
433 of paddling and engaging in the physicality of canoeing she felt out of control in the natural
434 landscape. A space and an activity undertaken in this space that were previously therapeutic were no
435 longer experienced as such. Whilst not the core focus of our paper, Simon and Laura's stories also
436 highlight the benefits of 'blue space' as therapeutic landscapes in that they may also provide physical
437 and emotional restoration (Korpela et al, 2010; Völker and Kistemann, 2011; 2013).

438 Nina, who experienced a stroke as a complication with a hip surgery, revealed a more
439 positive narrative. She had struggled for years with a deteriorating ability to walk, especially since
440 hiking used to be a pre-arthritis hip and pre-stroke leisure activity that she and her family vastly
441 enjoyed. Following a hip replacement, Nina managed to regain her pre-stroke and pre-surgery
442 physical condition, enabling her to take up hiking again around the rural living environment
443 proximate to where she lived. She commented on how much this meant for her:

444

445 N: Walking is going really well, fantastic. I walk about ten kilometers per day, it's great.

446 I: You don't know what's happening to you. [laughter]

447 N: No, really. We say it to each other like ten times on the way, like this is so special, so
448 special.

449 I: And no limitations?

450 N: No, really. That's the great thing, because I have not been able to do this for years. My
451 mum lives in the next village, more than four kilometers from here. And now, well the first

452 time I did not walk all the way to [my mum's village] of course. And the first time I did walk
453 there, I had to rest on a bench on the way. And now I walk there, just like that. And I even
454 walk back. The first time you had to call like, well I'm there, please come and pick me up. And
455 now I walk back home, that's fantastic. And we go on long walks in the forest, and we go
456 everywhere, it's great. (Nina)

457

458 Nina's narrative is one of biographical flow, in which she was able to regain much of her former life
459 following a period of disruption resulting from her hip problems and stroke. After this period of
460 disruption, it might even be argued that she experienced a 'biographical peak'. By this we mean that
461 following a long period of physical disability, Nina's regaining an ability to walk significant distances
462 was experienced as particularly enabling.

463

464 *Barriers in interacting with rural health care services*

465 As well as being a material, social and natural environment, the rural landscape is also a setting in
466 which stroke survivors have to negotiate and access services, including health care services. Our
467 participants' experiences of accessing and using these services were often framed in terms of
468 barriers which can be interpreted through the notion of biographical disruption. This was, in part,
469 related to issues of transportation. In the case of stroke survivors, this is an important issue in the
470 Netherlands as stroke survivors are, by default, banned from driving for at least six months post-
471 stroke. Given that rural areas are generally not well-served by public transport, rural stroke
472 survivors are often dependent on being driven by significant others or reliant on professional taxi
473 drivers to take them to health care services that they are unable to reach by foot, bicycle or mobility
474 scooter. Raymond, for instance, explained how he had become dependent on his wife, since being
475 banned from driving:

476

477 R: Well, I used to be much more mobile, I had my driving license. I do still have it, but I am
478 not allowed to drive for another three months. So that makes you dependent on others to
479 drive you around.

480 P: One other person [laughs].

481 R: Dependent on your wife [laughs].

482

483 Stroke survivors' ability to drive pre-stroke was typically self-evident, meaning our participants were
484 unlikely to have considered this a potential issue when able-bodied. However, the loss of a driving
485 license in combination with the demise of some village-based services, underlined a challenging
486 aspect of the rural environment.

487 One particular issue that some participants highlighted related to the time it took to get to
488 health care services. James, for instance, had to travel three times a week for outpatient treatment:

489

490 On average, I go to [the rehabilitation center] three times a week. [...] I typically go on a
491 Monday, Wednesday and Thursday. [...]

492 I: How long does it take you to get there?

493 J: By taxi, you mean? That's about 45 minutes [one-way].

494

495 Whilst transport by taxi would be covered by health insurance, a single journey by taxi to a
496 healthcare service can take up to one hour, as in James' case. Rural dwelling stroke survivors may
497 thus find themselves spending a significant part of their week on travelling to (and engaging in)
498 outpatient treatment.

499 As well as health care, other services, such as shops and transport were vital for enabling our
500 participants to continue living in a rural area. Some participants realized that they would be unable
501 to regain a sense of biographical flow in a rural setting, and had therefore decided to move away.
502 Peter described how the remote nature of his former rural home had compelled him and his partner

503 to move to an urban location. Although he had anticipated having to move into town in his later life
504 (i.e. post-retirement), the disabling experiences of the rural landscape post-stroke led him to
505 advance this decision:

506

507 These circumstances have sped up the process of moving [into town]. We used to live in the
508 middle of nowhere [sic] outside the village. There's no public transport in our village, while I
509 am not reliant on [public transport]. There are no shops [in our village], which is also very
510 convenient now [in town]. Overall, this is better. (Peter)

511

512 Hence, rather than living in what Peter had come to experience as a disabling environment, he chose
513 to move to an area where he had easier access to shops and services. Peter's decision illustrates how
514 he reorganized his life so that his lived experience was not manifest in biographical disruption, but in
515 biographical flow. Again this narrative runs counter to that of other research on disability and rurality
516 that suggests that the attachment to the rural social and physical landscape, and the desire to
517 preserve a rural identity, outweigh restrictions in terms of access to services such as healthcare,
518 shops and public transport (Jones and Curtis, 2010).

519

520 **Concluding comments: Towards bio-geographical disruption and flow**

521 Drawing on our work with rural-dwelling stroke survivors, we have explored how the biographical
522 disruption and flow that occurs as a result of stroke impacts on the therapeutic experience of the
523 person-landscape encounter in the Northern Netherlands. In particular, we have highlighted the
524 importance of bringing together the dimensions of time and place in studying disabled people's
525 everyday lives. More specifically, our findings demonstrate how material, social, natural and
526 healthcare environments that have previously been experienced as enabling, easily negotiable and
527 health enhancing may become disabling and non-therapeutic for the post-stroke body (and vice

528 versa). Furthermore, they show how stroke survivors experience biographical flow in engaging with
529 some natural and social rural places.

530 Within these narratives of stroke and stroke survival, the spatial relationship between the
531 pre- and post-stroke body and the (rural) environment is crucial. We thus suggest that rather utilizing
532 the terms 'biographical flow' and 'biographical disruption', we should instead engage the notions of
533 'bio-geo-graphical flow' and 'bio-geo-graphical disruption'. For us, the inclusion of the -geo-graphical
534 perspective, focuses particular attention on the extent to which relational experiences of space/place
535 are disrupted by changes in the life course arising from disability as well as and on how taken for
536 granted embodied states have to be renegotiated at any other place anew. A bio-geo-graphical
537 perspective thus has the potential to explain: 1) how the embodied experiences of places that were
538 experienced as therapeutic pre-stroke, are renegotiated and can become ambiguous post-stroke; 2)
539 how stroke survivors actively seek to (re)gain certain abilities that will enable them to access 'lost'
540 and 'new' activities and places. This suggests that whilst some stroke survivors may initially
541 experience bio-geo-graphical disruption, there is a determination to return to a position of bio-geo-
542 graphical flow, or to create a renewed sense of bio-geo-graphical flow.

543 The concepts of bio-geo-graphical disruption and flow are not restricted to either rural areas,
544 or to stroke survivors, since they engage with the interactions between people who become disabled
545 and places over time. At a more general level, the experiences of our disabled participants also
546 illuminate how they sometimes struggled to move and live in spaces that are essentially 'ableist',
547 reinforcing the critical work emerging from within disability geography (Chouinard, 2006). Our
548 findings thus provide a compelling case for re-thinking the medical model which continues to
549 dominate rehabilitation research and practice and instead working to enhance a more embodied and
550 robust social model of disability.

551

552 In terms of therapeutic landscapes, we reflected on the limited engagement with the temporal
553 nature of the therapeutic landscape encounter to date. Drawing on the concepts of bio-geo-graphical

554 flow and bio-geo-graphical disruption, we suggest, provides a framework through which we can
555 begin to understand the importance of time and life-course in shaping landscape experiences. Taking
556 a temporal lens to the experiences of stroke survivors has enabled us to reveal how an individual's
557 construction of a therapeutic landscape can and does, change over time. In the case of rural stroke
558 survivors we have illustrated how the relational engagement with some rural environments can
559 change from being therapeutic and enabling landscapes to ones that are disabling and filled with
560 tension, and vice versa. We also suggest that questions about the palliative or longer-term healing
561 effects of therapeutic landscapes (Willis, 2009) are complex, and need to be understood in relation to
562 individualized experiences and contexts over time. However, the participants' stories also reinforced
563 the importance of understanding the relational nature of therapeutic landscapes (Conradson, 2005),
564 as the individual's relational experience of the physical and social landscape jostle against each other
565 in ways that have the potential to cause a friction that did not occur pre-stroke. Nevertheless, our
566 participants' stories reveal that despite the loss stroke survivors experience on all those domains,
567 they may still experience and gain benefit from the beauty of the rural landscape (see Price et al,
568 2012).

569 Like all research, our study has limitations. Firstly, it did not set out to explore biographical
570 flow and/or disruption and hence our interview themes were not specifically designed to elicit
571 experiences of flow or disruption. Rather, these concepts emerged through our data-analysis.
572 Secondly, we did not attempt to achieve theoretical sampling or data-saturation for subgroups of
573 rural stroke survivors, for example, by age, gender, education and ethnicity, as well as place of
574 residence (urban-rural), place of origin and health status pre-stroke. Hence, we cannot draw
575 definitive conclusions about differences between groups, though as we have indicated, some
576 differences between groups of participants were evident and this warrants further exploration.
577 Thirdly, in this study we were unable to follow up with participants whose stories were dominated by
578 narratives of bio-geo-graphical disruption to see if, over time, they may have returned to a narrative
579 of bio-geo-graphical flow (or vice versa). This too is deserving of further enquiry. Hence, in relation to

580 the above limitations, we see considerable scope for further research – not just among different
581 subgroups of stroke survivors, but also amongst people experiencing other types of chronic ill-health.
582 Additional research has the potential to increase our understanding of how bio-geo-graphical flow
583 and bio-geo-graphical disruption may be experienced by different groups of people, in different
584 places with different acquired impairments. Finally, we acknowledge that using in-depth interviews
585 meant that those whose speech and/or language were impaired, and who found it difficult to
586 articulate their stories orally, were underrepresented in our study. Whilst efforts were made to
587 include those who had difficulties expressing their stories through encouraging partners to help, we
588 acknowledge that this strategy has limitations. For future studies, it may be useful to think of
589 adopting visual and/or interactive methods, such as observation, mental mapping, photo elicitation,
590 and walking interviews, to capture the perceptions and practices of people experiencing different
591 impairments. Whilst our methodology enabled us to give voice to our participants, it might also be
592 worth considering the ways in which co-production of this knowledge can be enhanced in the future
593 (see Chouinard, 2010).

594 As we form an interdisciplinary team, comprising geographers, rehabilitation researchers and
595 practitioners, the findings from our study have informed rehabilitation practice. For instance, a
596 coaching program has been established for stroke survivors who have returned home. The purpose
597 of the program is to support the home-making process at places where stroke-survivors wish to
598 (inter)act, such as everyday rural landscapes. Further research is needed to improve the lives of
599 stroke survivors and will contribute to further exploring how re-embodiment for stroke survivors
600 needs to be considered a life long project. This is of particular importance given stroke survivors need
601 to re-engage with both familiar and non-familiar place in rural and urban landscapes. These places
602 contain diverse human and non-human actors that need to be tackled consciously every day anew.
603 Both stroke rehabilitation practice and research appear to have neglected this important aspect of
604 stroke survivors' engagement with the landscape (Cott et al, 2007). Therefore, adding the prefix *geo*

605 to the theoretical repertoire of the biographical disruption literature may help both rehabilitation
606 practitioners and researchers to acknowledge the importance of place in stroke care.

607

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