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7	The prevalence of mental ill health in elite Counter-Strike athletes			
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29	institution.			
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#### Abstract

32 The present study provides a unique contribution to the literature by offering the first study to 33 examine the prevalence of mental ill health and mental wellbeing of professional Counter-Strike 34 athletes. The sample consisted of 51 current Counter-Strike professionals (Mage = 23.22, SD =35 4.7 years; Male = 48, Female = 3) representing 17.1% of all registered Counter-Strike 36 professionals. An online questionnaire battery was administered via Qualtrics. We found that one 37 quarter of our sample reported moderately severe (15.7%) and severe (9.8%) symptoms of 38 depression using the PHQ-9, over three quarters (82.4%) reported symptoms of 39 anxiety/depression using the GHQ-12, over half (54.9%) reported psychological distress using 40 the distress screener, and nearly three quarters (72.5%) reported low mental wellbeing using the 41 SWEMWBS. Our findings suggest that greater importance should be placed on screening and 42 intervention support by both performance and clinical practitioners to facilitate mental health within the esports ecosystem. 43

44 Key Words: wellbeing, anxiety, depression, distress, professional, esports

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- 46 47

#### The prevalence of mental ill health in elite Counter-Strike athletes

#### Introduction

48 Mental health can be defined as 'a state of wellbeing in which every individual realises 49 his or her own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and 50 fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to his or her community' (The World Health 51 Organisation, 2022, pp. 8), and is synonymous with the term 'flourishing' (Keyes, 2002, pp. 210). 52 Accordingly, mental ill health refers to a negative state of wellbeing, and severe mental ill health 53 refers to diagnosable disorders such as depression or panic disorder. According to a 2019 report 54 by the World Health Organization (WHO), nearly one billion people worldwide were living with 55 a mental disorder, with anxiety and depression being the most common disorders (WHO, 2022). 56 Indeed, a meta-analysis using over 390,000 participants representing 32 countries estimated rates of depression (28%), anxiety (26.9%), and psychological distress (50%; Nochaiwong et al., 57 2021). Despite the lack of a universally agreed definition of wellbeing, there appears to be some 58 59 consensus that it encompasses both hedonic (happiness through striving for rewarding experiences) and eudaimonic (personal qualities which promote achievement and living well) 60 61 components which can predict flourishing in multiple life domains (Forgeard et al., 2011; Hone et al., 2014; Huppert & So, 2013; Huta & Ryan, 2010; Longo et al., 2017). 62

Research has highlighted that elite athletes are particularly susceptible to mental health
disorders and lower mental wellbeing, with over 640 distinct stressors potentially contributing to

65 poor mental health (Arnold & Flecther, 2012). An increasing number of reviews and meta-66 analyses show that competing at the elite level is related to an increased prevalence of mental 67 health including anxiety and depression (e.g., Akesdotter et al., 2020; Foskett & Longstaff, 2018; Gouttebarge et al., 2019; Kuettel et al., 2020; Nicholls et al., 2020; Rice et al., 2016). For 68 69 example, a meta-analysis by Gouttebarge et al. (2019) using elite athletes (competing at the time 70 of the study) found 19.6% and 33.6% for the prevalence of distress, and anxiety and depression, 71 respectively. Consensus statements have also highlighted further stressors faced by those 72 competing at the elite level and the subsequent impact of these stressors on mental ill health, including high training loads, competition stress, insufficient recovery, and high likelihood of 73 74 experiencing injury, leading to insomnia, and suicidal thoughts (e.g., Henriksen et al. 2020; 75 Reardon et al., 2019). Ultimately, such experiences are a particular concern for elite athletes 76 given their association with increased anxiety (Nicholls et al., 2016) and possibly self-regulation 77 (Welsh et al., 2023), which in turn, has been shown to negatively impact performance (Sharpe et 78 al., 2024; Trotter et al., 2023; Wolanin et al., 2015). Given the apparent susceptibility of athletes 79 to suffer from mental ill health, more research is needed to advance our understanding of the 80 prevalence of mental ill health in athletes (Gouttebarge & Aoki, 2014).

81 Unsurprisingly, mental health is also an important issue in elite esports athletes (Cottrell 82 et al., 2019; Pereira et al., 2019; Shen & Cicchella, 2023). Esports can be defined as the 83 competitive play of specific video games that provides professional or personal development to 84 the player (Pedraza-Ramirez et al., 2020). Preliminary research has identified a range of stressors 85 faced by elite esports athletes including personal performance, team issues, audience/opposition, 86 social media, and life outside of competing (Leis et al., 2022; Poulus et al., 2022; Smith et al., 87 2019). Although these stressors are reported to negatively impact esport performance (e.g., Leis 88 et al., 2022), little is known about the prevalence of mental ill health in elite esports athletes. 89 Preliminary research by Pereira et al. (2021) using competitive FIFA video game players showed 90 the prevalence of distress (22.2%), anxiety (38%), and depression (37.1%) symptoms. Indeed, the observed values are comparable to the prevalence of distress (14.8%) and anxiety (37.9%) 91 92 reported by professional football players (Gouttebarge et al., 2015a). Research by Smith et al. 93 (2022) found sleep quality, burnout, and social phobia anxiety, as well as three specific categories 94 of stressors (i.e., personal concerns, game-specific uncertainty, in-game pressure), predicted 95 mental ill health. Furthermore, Poulus et al. (2024) used network analysis and identified that 96 resilience negatively related to symptoms of burnout and avoidance coping positively related to 97 symptoms of burnout in competitive esports players. While research by Smith et al. (2022) used 98 313 university based competitive first-person shooter esport athletes and Pereira et al. (2021) 99 used 292 FIFA athletes who competed at both national and international competitions, there is 100 an absence of research which has examined professional esports athletes. Such research may

support practitioners in effectively developing personal growth, functioning, and performance.
Research is therefore warranted to advance our understanding of the prevalence of mental ill
health and mental wellbeing in elite esports athletes.

104 To the authors' knowledge, no research has explicitly examined the prevalence of mental 105 ill health and mental wellbeing in professional esports athletes. Given the need to capture the 106 feelings, functioning, and life satisfaction of individuals when assessing overall mental health 107 (Huppert, 2009; Stranges et al., 2014), we adopted measures of both mental ill health and mental 108 wellbeing. It is important for the esports community (e.g., competitors, coaches, support roles, 109 managers, sport scientists, event organisers, key funding bodies) to recognise the importance of 110 mental health and mental wellbeing to provide early and effective interventions when supporting 111 esports athletes. This may include providing access to mental health professionals, implementing 112 mental health policies (e.g., event organisers considering rest periods in competitive schedules), promoting a healthy work-life balance, and providing education and resources on mental health 113 114 and mental wellbeing (e.g., Cottrell et al., 2019). Therefore, the aim of the present study was to examine the prevalence of mental ill health and mental wellbeing in professional Counter-Strike 115 116 athletes.

117

#### Method

#### 118 **Participants**

119 We successfully contacted 147 Counter-Strike athletes, yet 96 participants were excluded 120 due to not being a current registered Counter-Strike professional (n = 79) and/or excluded from the analysis for failing to fully complete the questionnaires (n = 17). For a detailed description of 121 Counter-Strike see Sharpe et al. (2022). A total of 51 currently registered Counter-Strike 122 professionals ( $M_{age} = 23.22$ , SD = 4.7 years), with varying durations of experience at a 123 124 professional level ( $M_{\text{experience}} = 39.41$ , SD = 31.84 months), participated in the present study. The 125 sample consisted of three females (6%) and 48 males (94%). At the time of this study (January 126 to June 2022), a total of 299 Counter-Strike athletes were registered as professional competitors 127 according to PROSETTINGS.NET, and thus our sample constitutes 17.1% of this population. The categorisation of our professional sample is in line with the work of Mendoza et al. (2023). 128 Specifically, 76.5% played at least one tournament with a EURO500,000 or above prize pool 129 130 (which is the highest level of competition as of 2023) in the last 12 months. All participants competed in regulated online (M = 20.35, SD = 20.87) and Local Area Network (LAN; M = 3.59, 131 SD = 3.50) competitions in the last 12 months. Practice hours per week included individual 132 practice (M = 31.71, SD = 24.57 hours), team practice (M = 22.78, SD = 12.57 hours), practice 133 with coach (M = 7.00, SD = 8.60 hours), and recreational play (M = 14.94, SD = 18.61 hours). 134 135 To gain an understanding of our sample's current mental health care provision, we asked whether

136 they had been offered mental health support by their current or former professional team(s) with 137 the majority not being offered support (No = 68.6%; Yes = 13%; Unsure 5.9\%; No response = 12.5%). Ethical approval for the study protocol was awarded by the lead author's Research Ethics 138 Committee. The ethical approval obtained for this study adhered to rigorous data protection 139 140 protocols, specifically designed to exclude sensitive personal information. This measure was implemented to uphold confidentiality and protect the identities of participants, who, in this case, 141 142 are professionals in the public eye. The omission of certain demographic information aligns with 143 the study's focus on mental health and the need to prioritise the confidentiality of the individuals 144 involved. All participants provided informed written consent prior to completing the online 145 questionnaire battery.

### 146 Procedure

147 We would like to highlight that we collaborated with author AA who is a trained 148 psychiatric physician, given that Kroenke et al. (2001) states that the PHQ-9 should only be 149 administered by trained professionals. The survey was made available online using Qualtrics 150 (https://www.qualtrics.com/) and posted on X (formally Twitter) accounts of the authors, in Counter-Strike related Reddit forums, and sent to personal contacts of the authors. Professional 151 Counter-Strike athletes also distributed the survey within their competitive network. Once 152 opened, the survey provided all key information, including the information sheet and informed 153 consent form. If informed consent was received, participants were asked to complete a series of 154 basic demographic questions (age, gender, months active as a Counter-Strike professional), 155 followed by four instruments to measure mental ill health and mental wellbeing. All participants 156 were debriefed during the final section of the survey which signposted mental health support 157 158 links and directed participants to seek professional guidance from their general practitioner if questions elicited any assumed symptoms of mental ill health. Average completion time was 14 159 160 minutes.

#### 161 Measures

## 162 *The Patient Health Questionnaire*

163 The Patient Health Questionnaire (PHQ-9; Kroenke et al., 2001) was used to screen for 164 depression, and provide an indication of severity<sup>1</sup>. The nine items cover experiences of pleasure, 165 feeling down, sleep disruption, energy levels, appetite, feelings of failure, trouble concentrating, 166 speaking slowly or being fidgety and having negative thoughts around suicide or self-harm over 167 the previous two weeks. An example item is "Feeling down, depressed or hopeless". Participants

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> To differentiate discussions about the PHQ-9 and the GHQ-12, depression severity will be used to reference reported scores using the PHQ-9 and 'anxiety/depression' will be used to reference GHQ-12 scores (Armino et al., 2021).

- are asked to respond to the stem "Over the last 2 weeks, how often have you been bothered by any of the following problems?" using a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 3 (nearly every day). As a severity measure, the PHQ-9 score can range from 0-27. Researchers have used a cut-off score of 10 or higher to indicate symptoms of depression (He et al., 2020).
- 172 Indeed, meta-analyses have defined acceptable cut-off points between 8 and 11 (Manea et al.,
- 173 2012) and scores  $\geq 10$  had a sensitivity of 80–90% of detecting major depressive disorder (Levis
- et al., 2019). We used the following thresholds suggested by Kroenke et al. (2001) to distinguish
- severity of depression including none (0-4), mild (5-9), moderate (10-14), moderately severe (15-
- 176 19), while scores equal or above 20 represented severe depression. Several studies have supported
- the diagnostic accuracy and psychometric properties of PHQ-9 (El-Den et al., 2018; Kroenke et
- al., 2001, 2010; Levis et al., 2017; Manea et al., 2017). The internal consistency of the PHQ-9 in the present study was acceptable (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.91$ ), with values above 0.70 denoting acceptable reliability (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

# 181 The General Health Questionnaire

182 The General Health Questionnaire - short form (GHQ-12; Goldberg et al., 1997) is a 12-183 item instrument used to assess anxiety/depression experienced in the previous four weeks. An example item is "Have you recently felt constantly under strain?". Participants are asked to 184 respond using a 4-point scale ("not at all," "no more than usual," "rather more than usual" and 185 "much more than usual") and data were analysed using the traditional GHQ binary scoring 186 method (0-0-1-1). A total score between 0-12 was obtained by summing responses, with scores 187 ≥2 indicating symptoms of anxiety/depression (Goldberg et al., 1997). Research has adopted this 188 threshold with both athletic and non-athletic populations in comparable research (Goldberg et al., 189 190 1997; Gouttebarge et al., 2015a). The psychometric properties of the GHQ-12 have been 191 supported including internal consistency ( $\alpha = 0.76 - 0.94$ : Anjara et al., 2020; Lesage et al., 2011) and criterion-related validity (sensitivity = 0.763, specificity = 0.834, Area Under ROC Curve  $\geq$ 192 0.83; Goldberg et al., 1997). The internal consistency of the GHQ-12 in the present study was 193 194 adequate (Cronbach's  $\alpha = 0.66$ ) given that it approached an acceptable level ( $\alpha > 0.70$ ; Nunnally 195 & Bernstein, 1994).

# 196 Psychological Distress

A 3-item scaled distress screener (Foskett & Longstaff, 2017; Gouttebarge et al., 2015b;
Gouttebarge et al., 2015a; Gouttebarge et al., 2016), based on the Four-Dimensional Symptom
Questionnaire (4DSQ; Terluin et al. 2006; Braam et al., 2009), was administered to assess
psychological distress experienced in the previous four weeks. The present study assessed
distress given that it has previously been defined as being independent from either anxiety or
depression (Terluin et al. 2006). An example item is "Have you recently suffered from worry?".

203 Using the same scoring used for the 4DSQ (van Rhenen et al., 2008), responses are provided 204 using 4-point scoring system and scored as follows; absence of distress ('no': 0 points), 205 doubtfully present ('sometimes': 1 point), or present at a clinically significant level ('regularly or very often': 2 points). A total score between 0–6 was obtained by summing responses. Like 206 207 previous research using elite athlete samples (Braam et al., 2009; Gouttebarge et al., 2016; 208 Terluin et al. 2006), we used a score of  $\geq 4$  to indicate symptoms of psychological distress. Previous literature has demonstrated adequate internal consistency ( $\alpha$  range = 0.60 - 0.70; Braam 209 et al., 2009; Gouttebarge et al., 2017), with the value obtained for the present study being 210 211 acceptable ( $\alpha = 0.82$ ; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

### 212 The Short Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Wellbeing Scale

The Short Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Wellbeing Scale (SWEMWBS; Stewart-Brown 213 214 et al. (2009) was used to access positive aspects of mental health. The 7-item measure, which is 215 derived from the original 14 item Warwick-Edinburgh Mental Wellbeing Scale (WEMWBS 216 Tennant et al., 2007), provides a general measure of overall mental wellbeing, including 217 subjective wellbeing and psychological functioning. Each question has a 5-point score system ranging from 'strongly disagree' (1) to 'strongly agree' (5). Items cover different aspects of 218 eudaimonic and hedonic wellbeing and are positively framed including "I've been feeling 219 220 relaxed". Individuals were asked to indicate which score best describes their experiences over 221 the last two weeks. Responses produce a global score between 7-35. Although the items of the 222 SWEMWBS better represent psychological functioning than subjective feeling states, the superior scaling properties and reduced completion time have made the short version the 223 224 instrument of choice for many recent studies examining mental wellbeing (Fat et al., 2017). 225 According to Fat et al. (2017), scores between 7.0-19.3 indicate low mental wellbeing, 20.0-27.0 226 indicate normal mental wellbeing, and scores between 28.1-35 indicate high mental wellbeing. 227 Construct validity has been confirmed using confirmatory factor analysis and Rasch modelling 228 (Fat et al., 2017; Koushede et al., 2019; Melendez-Torres et al., 2019; Stewart-Brown et al., 2009; 229 Vaingankar et al. 2017) alongside test-retest reliability (Sun et al., 2019). Fat et al. (2017) has 230 found acceptable Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha = 0.84$ ), with the present study also providing support ( $\alpha$ 231 = 0.91; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

#### 232 Data Strategy

All data were processed using the statistical software IBM SPSS statistics 23.0 for Windows. We want to emphasize that the authors who processed the data all have prior experience in mental health esport research. Additionally, the lead author who has expertise in psychometrics evaluated the properties of each scale and author AA who has expertise in clinical psychiatry assisted in the interpretation of the data. Given calls to improve mental health and mental wellbeing prevalence and incidence comparisons, means and standard

- 239 deviations were reported as well as percentages (Goldberg et al., 1998). The authors wish to
- emphasise that the present study exclusively focuses on the prevalence of mental ill health. For
- readers with an interest in exploring associations, correlations can be accessed via
- 242 <u>https://osf.io/dtv5r</u>.
- 243

#### Results

The mean PHO-9 score was 9.18 (SD = 7.26) with 15.69% and 9.80% reporting 244 moderately severe and severe depression symptoms, respectively (Kroenke et al., 2001). Using 245 Goldberg et al.'s (1997) guidelines, 82.35% reported symptoms of anxiety/depression (M = 4.39, 246 SD = 2.69) as measured by the GHQ-12, while 54.90% (M = 3.51, SD = 1.97) reported symptoms 247 of psychological distress (Braam et al., 2009; Gouttebarge et al., 2016; Terluin et al. 2006). The 248 249 mean wellbeing score was 17.90 (SD = 7.64) with 72.55% reporting low wellbeing (Fat et al., 250 2017). Absolute and relative percentages of prevalence are presented in Table 1 while means and 251 standard deviations for the respective measures are presented in Table 2.

- 252 INSERT TABLE 1 HERE
- 253 INSERT TABLE 2 HERE
- 254

## Discussion

The aim of the present study was to examine the prevalence of mental ill health and mental wellbeing in professional Counter-Strike athletes. We found that one quarter of our sample reported moderately severe (15.7%) and severe (9.8%) symptoms of depression using the PHQ-9, over three quarters (82.4%) reported symptoms of anxiety/depression using the GHQ-12, over half (54.9%) reported psychological distress using the distress screener, and nearly three quarters (72.5%) reported low wellbeing using the SWEMWBS.

The authors would like to emphasise that the ensuing discussion does not posit esports, 261 particularly Counter-Strike, as a causal factor for any reported mental ill health. Conversely, the 262 263 data serves the purpose of offering insights into the mental ill health and mental wellbeing of 264 individuals. It is important to acknowledge that issues relating to mental ill health can stem from various sources such as early childhood trauma, negative experiences, and genetic 265 266 predispositions, among others (e.g., Baldwin et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023). These factors may be 267 unrelated to an individual's chosen career, hobby, or current lifestyle. It is imperative for future researchers and practitioners operating within the esports domain to diligently undertake efforts 268 269 to comprehend individual needs more effectively. This involves educating individuals about 270 signs, symptoms, management strategies, and treatments related to mental health. Furthermore, there is a pressing need to develop both short- and long-term interventions aimed at preserving 271

positive aspects of mental wellbeing (Enns et al., 2016; Iasiello & Agteren, 2020), thus mitigating
the potential negative impact of mental ill health on a competitor's ongoing personal and
professional life, both of which are imperative for the sustainability of esports across all levels of
participation.

276 Our findings indicate a high levels of depression severity using the PHO-9. We found 277 that one quarter of the professional Counter-Strike sample reported moderately severe (15.7%) 278 and severe (9.8%) symptoms of depression. Expert consensus guidelines have proposed treatment 279 action for moderately severe depression as pharmacotherapy and/or psychotherapy, whereas 280 individuals experiencing severe depression are recommended immediate pharmacotherapy and 281 if impairment persists, referred to a mental health specialist for psychotherapy (Cleare et al., 282 2015). Our findings are substantially higher than those found in the general population. For 283 example, Qato et al. (2018) found 7.6% of a sample from the United States (n = 26,192) reported moderately severe and severe depression as measured by the PHQ-9. Given the lack of literature 284 285 which has examined depression in both traditional sports athletes and esports athletes, it is challenging to draw comparisons to our sample. Notwithstanding, research by Akersdotter et al. 286 287 (2019) using the PHQ-9 with Swedish elite traditional athletes found lower prevalence levels of 288 moderate (14.7%) and severe (3.6%) depression. Specifically, female depression severity was 289 higher (20.4% and 5.6%) for both moderate and severe depression when compared to males 290 (6.6% and 0.7%), respectively. Given that our sample was heavily weighted with males (n = 48, 291 94%), our findings highlight the seemingly high level of depression severity. To the author's 292 knowledge, our findings are the first to identify the prevalence of depressive symptoms within a 293 sample of professional esport athletes which highlights the importance of mental health support 294 provision at an organisational and individual level for Counter-Strike athletes.

295 Our findings also indicate a high prevalence of anxiety/depression and psychological 296 distress. We found that over three quarters (82.4%) of our sample reported symptoms of 297 anxiety/depression as measured by the GHQ-12, and over half our sample (54.9%) reported 298 psychological distress as measured by the distress screener. Recent research by Nochaiwong et 299 al. (2021) examining prevalence of mental ill health in the general population estimated rates of 300 anxiety (26.9%), depression (28%), and psychological distress (50%). Moreover, a systematic 301 review and meta-analysis of mental ill health in elite traditional sports athletes identified that 302 33.6% reported anxiety/depression and 19.6% reported distress (Gouttebarge et al., 2019). Our findings therefore indicate seemingly high prevalence of anxiety/depressive symptoms and 303 psychological distress when compared to the general population and traditional sports athletes. 304 305 When compared to the esports literature, our findings also exceed reported anxiety (38%), 306 depression (37.1%), and psychological distress (22.2%) in FIFA competitors (Pereira et al., 307 2021). Our findings therefore advance the dearth of research which has examined the prevalence

of mental ill health and mental wellbeing in esports. This further highlights the need for greater
examination of the mechanisms underlying potential mental ill health in professional CounterStrike athletes.

311 In addition to the high prevalence of mental ill health in our sample, our findings also 312 indicate low prevalence of mental wellbeing. Using the guidelines proposed by Fat et al. (2017), 313 72.5%, 15.7%, and 11.8% reported low, normal, and high mental wellbeing, respectively. 314 Although we lack ethnicity and nationality data of participants in the present study, due to the 315 need to protect anonymity, we found low levels of wellbeing in our sample (M = 17.90, SD =316 7.64) when compared to the mean mental wellbeing score identified in Fat et al. (2017) in an 317 English sample of men (M = 23.67, SD = 3.92) and women (M = 23.59, SD = 3.99). To our 318 knowledge, these findings are the first to characterise and indicate the prevalence of mental 319 wellbeing states within professional Counter-Strike athletes.

320 To supplement our understanding, we asked whether our sample had been offered mental 321 health support by their current or former professional team(s) and the majority reported not being 322 offered support (No = 68.6%; Yes = 13%; Unsure 5.9\%; No response = 12.5%). Although the 323 support experiences of our sample may elucidate the reasons underpinning the high mental ill 324 health and low mental wellbeing symptoms, we would like to highlight the possible shortcomings 325 of the single question asked in the present study. For example, it would have been prudent to ask 326 additional questions including "Have you ever thought about consulting a mental health professional for mental ill health issues?" and "Do you know where to find mental health support 327 if you need it?". Such information would help build a more accurate understanding of the 328 experiences of mental health support and advance our understanding of the mechanisms 329 330 underpinning mental health in professional esports athletes. Indeed, we encourage both performance and clinically trained practitioners to use such questions to help provide effective 331 332 proactive and reactive interventions when supporting esports athletes.

The use of questionnaires, such as the PHQ-9, to case-find depression within primary 333 care is supported by the US Preventative Services Task Force (USPSTF) only when treatment 334 335 provisions are already in place (US Preventive Services Task Force, 2009). Moreover, the UKbased National Institute for Health and Care Excellence (NICE) recommend the use of the 336 337 abbreviated PHQ-2 to facilitate early detection of depression in at-risk groups (National Institute 338 for Health and Care Excellence, 2022). Taken together with the prevalence of depressive 339 symptoms within our sample, this indicates the importance of reducing barriers in receiving 340 trained mental health support for Counter-Strike esports athletes (see Kegelaers et al., 2024 for a 341 discussion on mental health support in esports). This is particularly vital when considering that 342 early detection and treatment of depression is associated with a significantly better response to 343 treatment and higher rates of remission (Ghio et al., 2014). Further research is needed to

determine if esports athletes are at higher risk of developing symptoms of anxiety and/or
depression compared to the general public, and if there are game specific differences in
presentation, as there is evidence that targeted use of screening questionnaires to at-risk groups
provides greater clinical outcomes (Kessler et al., 2005; MaGPle Research Group, 2005).

## 348 Limitations, Future Research, and Practical Implications

349 Although the present study has shed light on the prevalence of mental ill health and 350 mental wellbeing of professional Counter-Strike athletes it is not without its limitations. Owing 351 to the constraints imposed by our ethical approval and adherence to data protection policies, we 352 were mandated to employ Qualtrics for our online survey, limiting our ability to counterbalance the order of distributed questionnaires. Despite this limitation, our data collection procedure 353 adhered to established practices in prior literature, and we took deliberate measures to minimise 354 355 participant burden, as evidenced by an average completion time of 14 minutes. It is worth noting 356 that literature has indicated a decline in vigilance after tasks of significantly greater durations 357 (e.g., Sharpe et al., 2023), hence we are confident that our participants did not experience fatigue 358 during the survey, thereby mitigating any potential negative impact on the data's rigor. It is also 359 important to highlight that our data were collected January to June 2022. Given that pandemic 360 restrictions generally eased globally during this time, it could be argued that the pandemic may have had a limited impact on participant mental ill health and mental wellbeing. Indeed, research 361 362 (e.g., DiFrancisco-Donoghe et al., 2023) has suggested that gamers may have managed challenges experienced during the pandemic better than the general population due to easier 363 accessibility to social activities that align to their pre-pandemic lifestyle (e.g., social support via 364 365 gameplay). However, we do concede that the impact of the pandemic on mental health and mental 366 wellbeing cannot be dismissed, and further research is required.

367 We encourage future research to replicate the present study by representing gender (e.g., Rogstad, 2022), individual differences (e.g., Birch et al., 2023), expertise (Murphy et al., 2020), 368 and athletes from different esport titles (Griffiths & Sharpe, 2024) to advance our understanding 369 370 of mental health prevalence in professional esports athletes. Previous research by Smith et al. 371 (2022) identified stressors, sleep, burnout, and social phobia to predict mental ill health in a university-based sample of first-person shooter esports competitors. Research is therefore 372 373 required to elucidate the precipitants (i.e., risk factors) underlying mental ill health in professional 374 esports athletes. The inclusion of demographic information (e.g., hours played, time with coach, 375 time with teammates, prize pool) may enable researchers to perform more complex analyses (e.g., path analysis) to better understand the diverse variables which may positively and/or negatively 376 377 impact mental ill health. For example, the phenomenon of problematic gaming has been 378 empirically linked to a diverse array of adverse health-related consequences (see Männikkö et 379 al., 2020 for a review and meta-analysis).

380 Our findings offer a range of implications for both practice and future research. Previous 381 research studies examining traditional sports athletes has tended to use instruments to either 382 measure mental ill health (e.g., Akesdotter et al., 2020) or mental wellbeing (e.g., Grimson et al., 2023), with only a small number harnessing both (e.g., Nicholls et al., 2020). Research adopting 383 384 both clinical and non-clinical measures may not only advance our understanding of the 385 prevalence of mental ill health in esports, but also advance understanding of mental ill health in 386 other performance contexts. However, it must be highlighted that the use of clinical assessment 387 tools such as the PHQ-9 requires professional training for both implementation and interpretation. 388 Given that Kroenke et al. (2001) states that the PHQ-9 should only be administered by trained 389 professionals, we collaborated with author AA who is a trained psychiatric physician. However, 390 we appreciate that few researchers and practitioners will be qualified to appropriately administer 391 and interpret the PHQ-9. Nonetheless, we encourage clinical practitioners to harness validated 392 clinical tools such as the PHQ-9 to better understand the prevalence and severity of mental ill health in esports. Alternatively, the SWEBWBS provides a quick and easy to use measure of 393 394 mental wellbeing which affords a single summary score for comparisons across different 395 populations and settings (Stewart-Brown et al., 2009). Indeed, higher wellbeing is extensively 396 evidenced as being protective of mental health disorders such as depression and anxiety (Grant 397 et al., 2013; Keyes et al., 2010). Therefore, the SWEMWBS could be a useful instrument for both 398 researchers and practitioners seeking to longitudinally examine and support positive psychology in esports competitors and beyond. Indeed, the SWEMWBS may provide sport and exercise 399 400 psychologists with means to assess wellbeing which may act as a preventative strategy to support 401 players, whereby more severe cases can then be referred to a clinical psychologist if necessary. 402 Given that the literature in traditional sports (e.g., Henriksen et al. 2020; Reardon et al., 2019) and esports (e.g., Leis et al., 2022; Poulus et al., 2022; Smith et al., 2019) have highlighted the 403 demands placed on athletes (e.g., high training loads, competition stress, team issues, life outside 404 405 of competing), we encourage practitioners to be vigilant of these risk factors when supporting the mental health of professional esports athletes. We hope that esport-specific mental health referral 406 407 pathways can be established to facilitate the development and sustainability of esports. We 408 encourage esport organisations to employ sport and exercise psychologists and/or coaches with 409 mental health first aid training to provide the first line of mental health support to promote 410 flourishing in esports (Keyes, 2002).

# 411 Conclusion

412 Our study provides a unique contribution to the literature by offering the first study to 413 examine the prevalence of mental ill health and mental wellbeing of professional Counter-Strike 414 athletes. We found that one quarter reported moderately severe (15.7%) and severe (9.8%) 415 depression, over 75% reported anxiety/depression, over half (54.9%) reported psychological 416 distress, and nearly three quarters (72.5%) reported low mental wellbeing. Despite these 417 concerning findings, only 13% of our sample reported being offered mental health support by 418 their current or former professional team(s). We highlight the need to advance our understanding 419 of mental ill health and mental wellbeing in professional Counter-Strike. Our findings suggest 420 that greater importance should be placed on screening and intervention support by both 421 performance and clinically trained practitioners to facilitate mental health within the esports 422 ecosystem. 423 References Åkesdotter, C., Kenttä, G., Eloranta, S., & Franck, J. (2020). The prevalence of mental health 424 problems in elite athletes. Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport, 23(4), 329-335. 425 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsams.2019.10.022 426 Anjara, S. G., Bonetto, C., Van Bortel, T., & Brayne, C. (2020). Using the GHQ-12 to screen for 427 428 mental health problems among primary care patients: psychometrics and practical considerations. International Journal of Mental Health Systems, 14, 1-13. 429 https://doi.org/10.1186/s13033-020-00397-0 430 Armino, N., Gouttebarge, V., Mellalieu, S., Schlebusch, R., van Wyk, J. P., & Hendricks, S. (2021). 431 432 Anxiety and depression in athletes assessed using the 12-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12)-a systematic scoping review. South African Journal of Sports Medicine, 33(1). 433 https://doi.org/10.17159/2078-516x/2021/v33i1a10679 434 435 Arnold, R., & Fletcher, D. (2012). A research synthesis and taxonomic classification of the organizational stressors encountered by sport performers. Journal of Sport and Exercise 436 Psychology, 34(3), 397-429. https://doi.org/10.1123/jsep.34.3.397 437 438 Baldwin, J. R., Sallis, H. M., Schoeler, T., Taylor, M. J., Kwong, A. S., Tielbeek, J. J., ... & Pingault, 439 J. B. (2023). A genetically informed Registered Report on adverse childhood experiences 440 and mental health. Nature Human Behaviour, 7(2), 269-290. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41562-022-01482-9 441 442 Birch, P. D., Greenlees, L., & Sharpe, B. T. (2023). An Exploratory Investigation of Personality in 443 Counter-Strike: Global Offensive. Journal of Electronic Gaming and Esports, 1(1). 444 https://doi.org/10.1123/jege.2022-0027 Braam, C., Van Oostrom, S. H., Terluin, B., Vasse, R., De Vet, H. C. W., & Anema, J. R. (2009). 445 446 Validation study of a distress screener. Journal of Occupational Rehabilitation, 19, 231-237. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10926-009-9178-z 447 Cleare, A., Pariante, C. M., Young, A. H., Anderson, I. M., Christmas, D., Cowen, P. J., ... & 448 members of the Consensus Meeting. (2015). Evidence-based guidelines for treating 449 depressive disorders with antidepressants: a revision of the 2008 British Association 450 for Psychopharmacology guidelines. Journal of Psychopharmacology, 29(5), 459-451 525. https://doi.org/10.1177/0269881115581093 452 Cottrell, C., McMillen, N., & Harris, B. S. (2019). Sport psychology in a virtual world: 453 Considerations for practitioners working in eSports. Journal of Sport Psychology in 454 Action, 10(2), 73-81. https://doi.org/10.1080/21520704.2018.1518280 455

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# Table 1

Absolute values and relative percentages of prevalence for mental ill health and mental wellbeing.

Measure	п	n %	
PHQ-9			
None (score 0-4)	18	35.29	
Mild (score 5-9)	11	21.57	
Moderate (score 10-14	9	17.65	
Moderately-severe (15-19)	8	15.69	
Severe (≥20)	5	9.80	
	_		
GHQ-12 (score >2)	42	82.35	
DS (score ≥4)	28	54.90	
SWEMWBS			
Low wellbeing (score 7-19.3)	37	72.55	
Normal wellbeing (score 20.0-27.0)	8	15.69	
High wellbeing (score 28.1-35)	6	11.76	

*Note.* PHQ-9 = Patient Health Questionnaire-9; GHQ-12 = General Health Questionnaire—short form-12; DS = Distress Screener; SWEMWBS = Short Warwick–Edinburgh Mental Well-Being Scale.

# Table 2

Measure	M SD		95% CI	
			LL	UL
PHQ-9	9.18	7.26	7.19	11.20
GHQ-12	4.59	2.67	3.86	5.32
DS	3.51	1.97	2.97	4.05
SWEMWBS	17.90	7.64	15.80	20.00

Prevalence means, standard deviations and confidence intervals for mental ill health and mental wellbeing.

*Note.* M = Mean; SD = Standard deviation; CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit; UL = upper limit.