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Frailty as biographical disruption

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Abstract

Biographical disruption positions the onset of chronic illness as a major life disruption in which changes to body, self and resources occur (Bury 1982). The concept has been used widely in medical sociology. It has also been subject to critique and development by numerous scholars. In this paper, we build on recent developments of the concept, particularly those taking a phenomenological approach, to argue that it can also help in understanding other disruptive health-related experiences across the lifecourse, in this case the onset of frailty. We draw on the findings of 30 situated interviews with frail older people, relating their experiences of frailty to the concept of biographical disruption. We show that frailty shares many similarities with the experience of chronic illness. Using the lens of biographical disruption to understand frailty also offers insights relevant to recent debates around both concepts, and on the continued relevance of the idea of biographical disruption given changing experiences of health and illness, including the circumstances in which biographical disruption is more and less likely to be experienced. Finally, we reflect on the potentials and limitations of applying the concept to a health-related condition that cannot be categorised as a disease.

Abstract: 197 words

28 Main text: 8.271 words

29 **Key words:** biographical disruption, frailty, embodiment, ageing, old age, qualitative, UK.

30 **Data sharing:** The data that support the findings of this study are available from the
31 corresponding author upon reasonable request.

32 **Introduction**

33 Over the last few decades, the idea of ‘frailty’ has gained traction in the care of older people in
34 many healthcare systems with ageing populations. Used in general parlance to convey some
35 form of physical or mental weakness (Cluley et al 2020), in clinical circles it is used to refer to
36 “a multi-system reduction in physiological capacity,” resulting in decline of resilience so that
37 an individual’s function and wellbeing may be compromised by minor challenges (Campbell
38 and Buchner 1997: 317). While often linked to the ageing process, frailty and ageing are
39 distinct concepts. Frailty is not an inevitable consequence of the arrival of old age. Frailty has
40 a multifactorial aetiology that can overlap with the ageing process (Rogans-Watson *et al.*
41 2020). Those experiencing frailty will likely also experience a variety of chronic illnesses such
42 as arthritis, diabetes and Parkinson’s disease (Rahman 2018). Besides older people, frailty has
43 been described in homeless people (Rogans-Watson *et al.* 2020), middle-aged adults
44 (Petermann-Rocha *et al.* 2021), and younger people with HIV (Montaño-Castellón *et al.* 2020).
45 While not unique to the ‘very old’ or even the old, its incidence and prevalence increase with
46 age, as people accumulate more deficits that can render them susceptible to frailty (Rockwood
47 and Mitnitski 2007).

48 As clinical use of the term frailty has increased, so scores, measures and indexes have
49 proliferated to define frailty more precisely, identify those experiencing it, and aid decision-
50 making (e.g. Fried *et al.* 2001; Rockwood *et al.* 2005). Though they vary in exactly how they

51 define frailty, as Grenier (2020: 71) notes, such approaches “treat frailty as the purview of
52 biomedical and health care specialists.” Frailty does not constitute a disease; however, it is
53 usually associated with multi-morbidity, and through this process of medicalisation, ‘the frail’
54 are constituted as a clinical population group, constructed through clinical understandings and
55 classification systems (Grenier 2007).

56 The medicalisation of frailty is subject to growing interest among social scientists, who have
57 attended to both the implications of the adoption of the term by clinicians, and the experience
58 of frailty among older people. Studies have suggested that whatever the clinical utility of the
59 term, a ‘diagnosis’ of frailty may have negative consequences for older people (Grenier 2007;
60 Grenier *et al.* 2017a; Grenier and Hanley 2007; Torres and Hammarström 2006; Warmoth *et*
61 *al.* 2016; Authors forthcoming). More broadly, Grenier *et al.* (2017a) and Pickard *et al.* (2019)
62 highlight the social function of the term as a counterpoint to discourses of successful ageing: a
63 means of connoting what older people should avoid. Frailty has been associated with the
64 negative discourse of the ‘fourth age’ (Gilleard and Higgs 2011; Pickard 2014), with older
65 people failed or ‘fraild’ by society’s stigmatisation of deep old age and frail bodies (Grenier
66 *et al.* 2017a). A growing number of studies offer insight into the experience of frailty as a
67 disruptive life experience with profound consequences for both sense of identity and day-to-
68 day functioning (Grenier 2007; Nicholson *et al.* 2012; Torres and Hammarström 2006)—what
69 writers in the sociology of chronic illness have long referred to as a ‘biographical disruption’.

70

71 First conceptualised by Bury (1982) in his analysis of interviews with people affected by
72 rheumatoid arthritis, biographical disruption positions the emergence of “chronic illness as a
73 major kind of disruptive experience” (Bury 1982: 169). The idea is premised on Giddens’
74 (1979: 124) concept of the ‘critical situation’: “a set of circumstances which—for whatever

75 reason—radically disrupt accustomed routines of daily life.” For Bury (1982), the onset of a
76 chronic illness represents this very disruption to biographical continuity: “illness, and
77 especially chronic illness, is precisely that kind of experience where the structures of everyday
78 life and the forms of knowledge which underpin them are disrupted” (Bury 1982: 169).

79

80 In the near four decades since Bury introduced the term, it has become one of the best-known
81 concepts in medical sociology (Locock and Ziebland 2015). It has been applied to a wide range
82 of long-term conditions, and has been subject to critique, revision and reorientation in the
83 process. Engman (2019) recently sought to expand the theoretical basis of the concept,
84 proposing embodiment as a lens through which to view the experience of biographical
85 disruption. In this paper, we seek to build on this proposition to advance the debate around the
86 applicability of biographical disruption, by applying the concept to the experience of frailty
87 among older people. In so doing, we extend biographical disruption to a health-related status
88 that is subject to ongoing contestation and development (Rockwood and Howlett 2018)—and
89 one where the existing literature would make conflicting predictions about whether
90 biographical disruption has conceptual purchase. This allows us to offer theoretical
91 propositions about the circumstances in which biographical disruption is most likely to be
92 experienced, which might be tested in other conditions, including health-related experiences
93 that fall outside disease categories, at the frontiers of medicalisation.

94 The focus here is on frailty in older age. This focus allows us to extend the concept of
95 biographical disruption to the furthest reaches of the lifecourse. We acknowledge that frailty
96 and ageing are not synonymous, and frailty can be experienced by those who are not old;
97 moreover, the ageing process itself, distinct from frailty, can be disruptive (Taghizadeh Larsson
98 and Jeppsson Grassman 2012).

99 **Biographical disruption: a biography**

100 Biographical disruption has been applied to a great variety of chronic illnesses. We examine
101 this literature selectively to show how the concept has developed since its introduction, and
102 highlight key points of debate (see Locock and Ziebland 2015 for a more comprehensive
103 literature review).

104 Bury (1982) identified three forms of biographical disruption: disruption to the ‘normal’ way
105 of being, including bodily performance and help-seeking behaviour; disruption to self-identity,
106 involving change to the individual’s sense of self and position within society; and disruption
107 of the social and material resources that people rely on for everyday life. The majority of
108 subsequent studies have focused on the first two elements (Ciambrone 2001; Gisquet 2008). In
109 applying the concept to a wide range of conditions, researchers since Bury have tested the
110 ‘boundary conditions’ under which biographical disruption might apply. Several studies have
111 suggested that the concept’s usefulness can depend on the chronic illness in question, its timing,
112 and the circumstances of the person affected (Engman 2019; Faircloth *et al.* 2004; Williams
113 2000). Most recently, Wedgwood *et al.* (2020) highlight the problematic nature of
114 heterogeneous samples used in many studies to explore biographical disruption, which, they
115 argue, has resulted in the neglect of influences such as age, gender and class on the experience
116 of chronic illness.

117 Perhaps most notably, studies have found that the diagnosis of a chronic disease can be much
118 less impactful for people whose lives are already characterised by challenge and disruption.
119 Pound *et al.*’s (1998) study of the experience of stroke among older, working-class people
120 found that the concept had limited resonance. This was seemingly not just a matter of
121 superficial stoicism: given wider experiences of poverty and hardship, Pound *et al.* (1998: 502)
122 argue, “chronic illness may be anticipated and experienced by some older people as normal.”

123 Faircloth et al. (2004) similarly found that for participants who had suffered stroke,
124 biographical disruption did not always occur. Depending on their stage in life and wider health
125 experiences, some considered it part of their ongoing life course trajectory rather than a distinct
126 disruption: “when the stroke is associated with ageing and other health conditions the stroke
127 survivor may simply be resigned to their current experience of physical decline” (Faircloth *et*
128 *al.* 2004: 258). The majority of Harris’s (2009: 1031) participants recalled their diagnosis with
129 hepatitis C as “no big deal”: something that was almost expected given their previous status,
130 in most cases, as injecting drug users. In some circumstances, a diagnosis may represent less a
131 biographical disruption, and more another trial to contend with—one that may be less
132 challenging than other events that fill their day-to-day lives (Ciambrone 2001).

133 Moreover, the experience of chronic illness has itself changed considerably since Bury
134 developed the concept. Bury (1982) notes that the ambiguity associated with the diagnosis of
135 rheumatoid arthritis contributed to the disruption his participants experienced, including
136 uncertainty about both cause and treatment. Changes in the state of knowledge about many
137 chronic conditions, and the rise of evidence-based medicine and shared decision-making, mean
138 that a diagnosis now may have somewhat different practical and symbolic implications
139 (Shostak and Fox 2012; Wouters and De Wet 2016).

140 As well as offering insight into the breadth of experiences of chronic illness, studies since
141 Bury’s have spawned a range of variants of the concept of biographical disruption. Notions
142 such as biographical continuity (Williams 2000) and biographical flow (Faircloth *et al.* 2004)
143 suggest that for many people, chronic illnesses are not abrupt disruptions but inescapable
144 elements of “the ‘normal chaos’ [...] of everyday life and existence” (Williams 2000: 51). For
145 Bell et al. (2016), illness experiences may be best characterised through the idea of
146 ‘biographical oscillation’. Rather than a “one-off biographical ‘disruption’ that steers us off an
147 ‘illusory’ linear or predictable life trajectory,” for Bell et al. (2016: 184), the onset of chronic

148 illness might “be usefully reframed as one of many ‘biographical oscillations’ encountered in
149 the life course that re-route us between continually shifting, often ‘messy’ and unanticipated
150 life trajectories.”

151 Some of the evidence from existing studies suggests that these limits to the applicability of
152 biographical disruption may be especially pertinent in relation to the experiences of older
153 people. Pound et al. (1998: 501) assert that older people “may anticipate illness as inevitable
154 in old age,” while Bury himself suggests that expectation, rather than disruption, may typify
155 the experience of chronic illness among the ‘very old old’ (Bury and Holme 2002). Yet other
156 studies suggest that this is not universal. Sanders et al.’s (2002) participants simultaneously
157 viewed osteoarthritis as normal (in that it was an expected aspect of the ageing process) and
158 highly disruptive to identity and to day-to-day life. Similarly, combining two longitudinal
159 studies of ageing with chronic illnesses and disabilities, Taghizadeh Larsson and Jeppsson
160 Grassman (2012: 1167) find “that illness changes do not necessarily have to be wholly
161 unexpected to be experienced as disruptive.”

162 Given such diversity of findings in both different and seemingly similar groups (see also
163 Locock and Ziebland 2015 for a more comprehensive review), it is difficult to draw conclusions
164 about the transferability of the concept of biographical disruption, or to make firm predictions
165 about the circumstances in which it is more likely to occur. Characteristics such as age, prior
166 experience of adversity and socio-economic background seem to be at best inconsistent
167 predictors of biographical disruption. In consequence, the literature on biographical disruption
168 can appear rather idiographic and descriptive, providing insight into a wide range of
169 experiences but offering little predictive or explanatory purchase that cuts across them.

170 The recent contribution of Engman (2019) seeks to move beyond this impasse. Drawing on the
171 work of Merleau-Ponty (1964), she argues that “embodiment constitutes a mechanism whose

172 contours explain whether or not biographical disruption becomes a meaningful feature of the
173 illness experience” (Engman 2019: 120). Positioned phenomenologically, bodies are our site
174 of experience, and it is through our bodies that we come to know the world. Merleau-Ponty’s
175 (1964) ‘sentient-body-subject’ positions bodies as the sites of meaning via individual
176 perception and experience within a shared world (Williams and Bendelow 1998). Our
177 knowledge of the world, and of our bodies, is accumulated over time and is drawn upon to
178 make sense of things. Echoing calls for greater attention to the role of the body in chronic
179 illness (e.g. Kelly and Field 1996; Williams 1996), Engman (2019) posits that since
180 embodiment is central to both the *biological* and the *social* dimensions of the experience of
181 disease, it is key in determining the occurrence (or not) of biographical disruption.
182 “Biographical disruption does not,” she argues, “result from illness as such, but from the ways
183 that illness impinges on one’s physical ability to engage with everyday life” (Engman 2019:
184 120). The participants in Engman’s study, organ transplant recipients with a variety of
185 conditions, varied in the extent to which they experienced biographical disruption: she
186 attributes this to differences in the degree to which the transplant introduced “novel physical
187 limitations that make familiar behaviours and habits inaccessible” (Engman 2019: 124).

188 From this perspective, one might expect the onset of frailty—defined clinically as a “multi-
189 system reduction in reserve capacity” that leaves the frail person “at increased risk of disability
190 and death from minor external stresses” (Campbell and Buchner 1997: 315)—to be an
191 axiomatic example of biographical disruption. Such a fundamental change in one’s relationship
192 with the world, mediated through a body whose capacities have previously been taken-for-
193 granted (Williams 1996), presents a significant break in experience. Whereas the experience of
194 at least some long-term conditions might be sidelined or compartmentalised by people who are
195 otherwise able to continue as normal, frailty is all-encompassing: the accumulation of multiple
196 deficits that, together, leave an individual’s capability and experience of the world

197 fundamentally altered. As noted above, however, frailty is not a disease. Some approaches to
198 frailty tend to conceptualise frailty as synonymous with the ageing process, and see frailty as
199 invariably associated with increasing chronological age (Bergman *et al.* 2007). Here, we take
200 the alternative standpoint, associated with various geriatricians and social gerontologists, that
201 although age is a strong predictor of frailty, the aetiology of frailty is more complex, to be
202 found in the “accumulation of deficits” (Rockwood and Mitnitski 2007: 722) over time from
203 long-term conditions and other “behavioural, environmental and social risk factors” (Bergman
204 *et al.* 2007: 732). Frailty, in this conception, is the cumulative impact of “a diverse range of
205 deficits including functional limitations, morbidity, psychosocial status, and cognitive ability”
206 (Bergman *et al.* 2007: 732). Correspondingly, the consequences of frailty for older people are
207 not readily grouped into a common, delimited set of symptoms and bodily impacts, as is
208 arguably the case for most chronic diseases. Moreover, a ‘diagnosis’ of frailty has important
209 social as well as clinical implications. As Grenier (2020: 71) puts it, frailty “is not only a marker
210 of illness, decline or a period of the life course where one is ‘closer to death’. Frailty is also a
211 set of discourses and practices that have emerged in tandem with contemporary ideas of
212 autonomy and individual responsibility.” Frailty is experienced as a mix of healthcare needs,
213 bodily incapacities, and economic, cultural and social norms regarding independence and the
214 idea of ‘good ageing’.

215 Together, arguably, this combination of clinical and socio-cultural influences make the
216 consequences for the embodied experience of the frail individual all the more profound in the
217 way they “rupture [...] the ability to enact habits and routines” (Engman 2019: 124). On the
218 other hand, this supposition would appear to contradict the notion that biographical disruption
219 is contextually contingent, and less forceful for those who might anticipate decline and
220 disruption (Bury and Holme 2002; Faircloth *et al.* 2004; Pound *et al.* 1998; Sanders *et al.* 2002).

221 With these debates in mind, therefore, we consider the relevance of the concept to a cohort of
222 older patients who—according to one clinical assessment tool at least—fall into the category
223 ‘frail’. We examine the applicability of the concept to this group, the degree to which it
224 appeared to characterise their experiences accurately, and the implications of our findings for
225 Engman’s proposition that phenomenological understandings of embodiment hold the key to
226 explaining the presence or absence of biographical disruption. Finally, we reflect on the validity
227 of our approach, and the extent to which applying a concept developed in relation to chronic
228 conditions to a much wider and more loosely defined status is viable and produces useful
229 insights.

230 **The study**

231 The findings drawn on to show the use of biographical disruption as a tool for making sense of
232 experiences of frailty are taken from a wider project, *Understanding frailty: patient, carer and*
233 *health care professional perspectives*. This qualitative study was undertaken in a busy
234 emergency department (ED) in an NHS hospital in the English Midlands. We aimed to explore
235 how key stakeholders in emergency care, including clinicians, patients and carers, make sense
236 of frailty. Situated interviews (Gale and Sidhu 2019) were conducted within the ED with 100
237 participants including patients (30), carers (30) and healthcare professionals (40). Twenty-two
238 interviews took place with patients and one or more carers and eight with patients alone. The
239 interviews were conducted over the summer of 2018 and the project was granted NHS ethics
240 approval by the London – Brighton and Sussex Research Ethics Committee. This paper draws
241 on these 30 interviews with patients and/or carers.

242 Situated interviews seek to combine the open and situated approach of ethnographic research
243 with the flexible focus of semi-structured interviews (Gale and Sidhu 2019). Situated
244 interviews take place within the setting of interest. Like semi-structured interviews, they are

245 based on a relatively flexible approach to conversation. They also account for the goings on of
246 the research setting such as environmental, sensory and emotional aspects. In this way, they
247 seek to capture “situated sense-making practices” (Housley and Smith 2011: 704). The author
248 responsible for data collection was situated within the ED over a three-month period and
249 identified participants opportunistically. The interviews took place at bedsides, in empty bays,
250 in ambulances, at workstations and in the waiting room.

251 Both our study design and our sampling frame were opportunistic. The study was conducted in
252 a local ED because of our prior interest in the increase in admissions of patients considered
253 frail nationally. To work towards efficient and effective decision-making, the hospital had
254 recently implemented the voluntary use of a frailty screening tool for people aged 65 and over
255 attending the ED. This formed the basis for our sampling frame: patients identified as frail by
256 clinicians using the Clinical Frailty Scale. This tool, originally developed by Rockwood *et al.*
257 (2005) and extended into its current nine-point form in 2008, involves scoring patients on a
258 scale from 1 (very fit) to 9 (terminally ill) on the basis of their reported functioning and ability
259 two weeks before. Patients who had a frailty score of 5 (mild frailty) and over were given
260 information sheets about the study; informed, written consent was obtained prior to beginning
261 interviews. Patients may or may not have been made aware of their frailty score following this
262 assessment (see Cluley et al 2020 for an in-depth discussion of this), and therefore some were
263 likely aware that they had been ‘diagnosed’ as frail, while others were not. However, given the
264 nature of the assessment process (particularly its focus on the status of the individual two week
265 previously, rather than in the moment of crisis that precipitated the ED attendance) and the
266 threshold score of 5 used for recruitment (implying that individuals needed, at a minimum,
267 “help with high order instrumental activities of daily living,” such as “finances, transportation
268 and heavy housework”), it is reasonable to surmise that participants were experiencing frailty,
269 whether or not they had been told about the label. Thus, while we took this clinical assessment

270 of frailty as a convenient means of identifying potentially eligible participants, we acknowledge
271 the limitations in such clinical categorisations. Our aim was to explore the experience of frailty
272 more broadly for people who, the assessment suggested, were affected by it. The study's focus,
273 accordingly, was not the specific episodes that had prompted the current attendance or
274 admission, but the lived experience of this cohort, including the full breadth of health,
275 wellbeing and sociocultural influences of the condition identified by authors such as Grenier
276 (2020) and Pickard (2014). We understood the disruptive effects of the experience of frailty as
277 occurring as much through these wider influences as through its direct manifestation in their
278 health, reduced resilience, and increased susceptibility to disease (Campbell and Buchner
279 1997).

280 Interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim. To ensure confidentiality, names and
281 personal details were not recorded. For patients, only frailty score and gender were recorded.
282 Transcripts were analysed using discourse analysis. We followed Potter and Wetherell's (1987)
283 flexible ten-step guide, focusing particularly on the identification of interpretive repertoires.
284 Potter and Wetherell (1987: 149) define interpretive repertoires as "recurrently used systems
285 of terms used for characterising and evaluating actions, events and other phenomena" that are
286 "constituted through a limited range of terms used in particular stylistic and grammatical
287 constructions." We followed Potter and Wetherell's (1987) approach closely to identify six
288 repertoires used by patient participants to make sense of frailty. Given limits of space, here we
289 offer detail mainly on our approach to coding (step six) and analysis (step seven).

290 Unlike thematic analysis, coding in Potter and Wetherell's approach to discourse analysis seeks
291 actively to identify anomalies and inconsistencies, owing to the range of linguistic resources
292 available to speakers and the acceptance that speakers may shift between compatible and
293 incompatible repertoires to construct meaning. With this in mind, we first organised the
294 interview talk into broad codes using qualitative data analysis software (NVivo 12). Coding

295 was an iterative process that involved re-reading transcripts to identify specific topics discussed
296 in similar and different ways.

297 The analysis process in Potter and Wetherell’s approach to discourse analysis has two aims: to
298 highlight patterns and to establish functions of the discourse. [First author] re-read codes and
299 transcripts many times, searching for patterns across the talk, particularly instances of
300 similarity and contradiction where participants used similar patterns of words and phrases to
301 make sense of what they were talking about, consistent with the characteristics of interpretive
302 repertoires. We identified three repertoire pairs that were used consistently throughout
303 participants’ talk:

- 304 • Frailty is a bodily issue / frailty is about mind-set
- 305 • Frailty is a negative experience / frailty is an inevitable experience
- 306 • I’m not frail / I feel frail

307 We then recoded data according to these repertoire pairs, again using NVivo. Organising the
308 data in this way allowed comparison within and across the data coded to each repertoire, to
309 interrogate how the repertoires related to participants shared social and cultural worlds (see
310 Authors forthcoming), and to wider themes in the sociological literature—including the
311 concept of biographical disruption.

312 **Findings**

313 This paper draws on the talk shared in the interviews with the 60 patient and carer participants.
314 Overall, they constructed frailty as a bodily state that is seen and felt but can also be resisted.
315 Participants’ descriptions of frail older people included reference to mobility issues such as
316 walking with a frame or “doddering around,” physical weakness, thin bodies without “much
317 on their bones,” and the need for support with day-to-day activities. This embodied experience
318 was overwhelmingly described in negative terms. However, even though all patients

319 interviewed alluded to personal experiences of frailty, most did not identify as frail. At once,
320 therefore, participants acknowledged the disruptive impact of frailty in terms of its bodily
321 consequences on them personally, and disavowed the label, playing down its impact. Quite
322 apart from their categorisation as frail in the eyes of clinicians in the ED, they recognised the
323 applicability of the term to their lived experience—and yet they declined to identify themselves
324 as ‘frail people’. In exploring this apparent contradiction, and its implications for our
325 understanding of the circumstances in which biographical disruption is experienced, we present
326 our findings using the three constituent components identified by Bury (1982) as a structuring
327 device.

328 *Frailty and the disruption of a ‘normal’ way of being*

329 The first aspect of biographical disruption involves “the disruption of taken-for-granted
330 assumptions and behaviours,” “the breaching of common-sense boundaries” and “attention to
331 bodily states not usually brought into consciousness” (Bury 1982: 169). This disruption to a
332 previous or ‘normal’ way of being and a new awareness of bodily and existential issues was
333 evident throughout our participants’ talk about frailty. Generally speaking, participants tended
334 towards the idea of frailty as a normal part of the ageing process, rather than as a syndrome
335 arising from ill-health. When asked to describe a frail person, participants were readily able to
336 do so, invoking familiar tropes about physical weakness and vulnerability, and often suggesting
337 a sense of inevitability or even fatalism:

338 “Well it’s a damned nuisance. It’s typical old age, I suppose; we’ve got to accept
339 these things, haven’t we?” (Participant 2)

340 “You always meet these kinds of people, frail and that, it’s just one of those things in
341 life as you get older” (Participant 25).

342

370 “Not being able to do things sometimes, you know, or reach things off high
371 shelves. [...] Yes, you want to get something and you can’t but you struggle and
372 try and it’s maddening sometimes.” (Participant 12)
373

374 The participants’ negative descriptions of their experiences of frailty also highlight the severity
375 of disruption that their frailty had brought to their lives. Their talk pertained to loss, pain,
376 inability and frustration.

377 Participant 24’s carer: “Quite scary, it’s a loss of independence.”
378 Participant 24: “You lose everything.”

379 “Oh, I get frustrated naturally because when you live on your own, you’ve just
380 got to be able try, even if you don’t make a very good job of things.” (Participant
381 2)

382 “Frustrating, so frustrating. And then it’s, you know, silly little things that you
383 can’t do, that we all take for granted.” (Participant 29)

384 In all, participants suggested that the experience of frailty in old age is very disruptive to
385 normality: to what Bury (1982: 169) refers to as “taken-for-granted assumptions and
386 behaviours.” Although some participants drew little distinction between old age and frailty—
387 reflecting broader ambiguities in general usage of the term (Authors under review), as well as
388 clinical debates around the nature of frailty alluded to earlier (Bergman *et al.* 2007)—for others,
389 frailty represented something quite distinct. That they anticipated gradual decline as part of old
390 age did not make the additional deficits associated with frailty less troublesome. Just as “the
391 body in pain emerges as an estranged, alien presence” (Williams 1996: 25), with the onset of
392 frailty, the participants’ bodies were rendered visible to them through their changed appearance
393 and the things they could no longer do.

394 *Frailty and the challenge to identity*

395 Bury (1982: 169) describes this component of biographical disruption as necessitating “a
396 fundamental re-thinking of the person’s biography and self-concept.” Changes in the way they

397 felt about themselves and their personal abilities were seen in our participants' talk about their
398 experiences of frailty.

399 "I've struggled with my legs for two years, why I don't know. Because we have
400 been abroad for 50 years and we used to do a hell of a lot of walking. And we
401 used to always walk, we never stayed around the hotel sort of thing. And I
402 thought my legs should be good, you know. They just went funny, they just did. I
403 don't know, they just went weak." (Participant 6)

404

405 They described feeling scared of hurting themselves, feeling embarrassed and feeling reluctant
406 to ask for help. Adaptations to their day-to-day lives left some feeling dependent. For others,
407 attempts to resist dependency, fear and embarrassment, and instead to carry on as 'normal',
408 had produced their own problems. Participant 29 discussed how, in trying to maintain his
409 garden, he fell and had to wait for help.

410 Participant 29: "I was painting the fence and I found myself on the floor. As you
411 can see, I banged my head, and somebody found me on the floor
412 and fetched my wife."

413 Interviewer: "Gosh, that must have been a shock."

414 Participant 29: "Yeah, I wanted to get it done and I felt fine but I don't know
415 what happened."

416 Here participant 29 had attempted to resist the increasing impediments frailty was placing on
417 his body.

418 More broadly, despite the personal experiences recounted in the previous section, most
419 participants contested the label of frailty. Much of their talk was performative: it served to
420 maintain their sense of self, and to distance themselves from an image of frailty that was both
421 negative and stigmatising. For example, even as they acknowledged their reduced bodily
422 abilities, participants sought to affirm what they could still do, emphasising continuity with
423 their earlier selves. In so doing, and despite their inherently bodied experiences of frailty,
424 participants set up a separation between their bodies and their sense of self.

425 Interviewer: “So if someone said to you, “You’re a bit frail,” how would that
426 make you feel?”

427 Participant 3: “Not very good. I would say I was strong. Like I say, I’d not be
428 very good for a punch-up. But I like to think I can hold my own.”

429 “If somebody told me I was frail, I couldn’t do anything for myself, I’d feel a
430 bit upset, you know. Can you dress yourself? I said of course I can. I can’t do
431 washing, I mean, which is a big job, or cook dinners, a dangerous job, you know,
432 using the gas and that. But otherwise I can do pretty well everything, I can do
433 shopping and I know how much money is, you know, I can count money.”
434 (Participant 12)

435 In these excerpts, participants draw a distinction between the increasing problems posed by
436 their bodies, and their continued competence as individuals. Again, this talk is evidence of
437 Bury’s (1991) concept of ‘coping’. While she may not be “good for a punch-up,” participant
438 3 says that she remains “strong.” Participant 12 draws a distinction between “big” or
439 “dangerous” jobs, including the kind of “heavy housework” identified in the Clinical Frailty
440 Scale as symptomatic of mild frailty, and things that she can still do, such as shopping and
441 counting money. In both cases, the participants note their continued *cognitive* capability even
442 in the face of physical decline: they are keen to assert that their bodily limitations have not
443 compromised the essence of their selves. Perhaps paradoxically, the all-encompassing nature
444 of frailty as a generalised reduction in capacity seems to make it all the more important for
445 these participants to retain their non-frail identity. Rather than being overwhelmed, they
446 emphasise what they retain.

447 *Frailty and the mobilisation of resources*

448 The third component in Bury’s (1982) original construction of biographical disruption pertains
449 to the social resources on which individuals draw, and to which they contribute, through
450 participation in familial and community networks. Bury’s participants described disruption to
451 such resources due to their own sense of embarrassment and separation from wider society;
452 this resulted in the contraction of their social worlds.

453 Similar disruption was evident in the interviews with patients and carers in this study. It was
454 particularly pronounced for those who still lived independently. Their increasing need for
455 support conflicted with their desire for independence and their need to maintain their sense of
456 identity. Many tried to continue with their everyday lives without support and were reluctant
457 to ask for help.

458 Participant 6: “Yes, yes. I always have this feeling I don’t like putting on
459 people, if I can do anything for myself, I’d do it, you know.”

460 Participant 6’s son in law: “They don’t accept, they’re not accepting that they
461 can’t do things.”

462 Participant 6’s daughter: “They can’t do it, they’re still, yeah. I understand to a
463 certain extent she feels like, ‘I don’t want to just sit there and
464 everybody do everything for me, I want to try and do some bits’,
465 but there’s some things we don’t really want her to do, like
466 cooking.”

467
468 In many cases, participants benefitted from strong social networks that could compensate for
469 the restrictions that frailty presented. Several were accompanied by relatives in the emergency
470 department. Their responses, however, emphasised the importance of independence to their
471 identity: the importance of continuing to be seen as competent adults, capable of performing
472 everyday tasks by themselves.

473 Participant 6: “I went up [the stairs] on my own all the while before. Up ‘til
474 then, we were doing pretty well. I cooked what we needed, we
475 did the shop, bit of gardening.”

476 Participant 6’s daughter: “Yeah, you were still doing your cooking, weren’t you,
477 mum?”

478 Participant 6: “Yeah. So they all told me in the hospital when I was here the
479 other week, last week: I’m too independent.”

480 “I don’t like people looking after me, you know what I mean? I wouldn’t like
481 someone to come and give me a bath, or anything like that, you know? Or if
482 they come and look after your, you know, body functions and all, I’d feel very,
483 very embarrassed about that.” (Participant 11)

484 Seemingly simple tasks could thus become, as Bury (1982: 176) describes, “a burden of
485 conscious and deliberate action.”

486 Following Goffman (1968), Bury (1982: 176) argues that this burden can lead people with a
487 chronic condition to deliberately limit their social circles, and “restrict their terrain to local and
488 familiar territory where they are least likely to be exposed to the gaze and questions of
489 acquaintances and strangers.” The declared response of our participants was somewhat
490 different. As noted in the previous section, participants sought to emphasise their ongoing
491 cognitive ability and show that the physical challenges they were facing did not define them.
492 Similarly, they adjusted their day-to-day routines with a view to achieving continuity,
493 managing the impacts of frailty and avoiding the sense that this was an all-encompassing, all-
494 changing challenge to their routines, resources and identities.

495 Participant 21: “It’s so frustrating because I can’t do it now so he has to. I can’t
496 do like I used to do and now I can’t change a duvet cover.”

497 Interviewer: “Right, yeah, OK, so day-to-day tasks like that have become a
498 bit harder? Sure. Duvets are heavy sometimes, aren’t they?”

499 Participant 21: “Yeah, they are and especially the one I bought from Marks and
500 Spencer. I can’t think of anything else. I can’t go shopping, not
501 on my own. If I go with my son, we go in the car and we walk,
502 and I push the trolley round but I daren’t go out on my own.”

503 “It’s a big step back for people if you’ve got to ask, can you do so-and-so for
504 me? Can you do so-and-so? That’s if you feel, ‘oh I can do that for myself’, you
505 know, ‘I’ll manage that’.” (Participant 11)

506 Where possible, participants described maintaining routines in adapted form, acknowledging
507 the limitations that frailty brought, but resisting the notion that this was a matter of life-
508 changing decline. Again, the far-reaching scope of frailty made it all the more important for
509 participants to delimit its impact. This meant *emphasising* the separation between body and
510 disease, between body and mind, and between body and self.

511 “To me, it’s for older people, I don’t count myself old. We don’t, I think it’s all
512 in your head, if you think you’re old, you will be old, won’t you? But we don’t
513 think ourselves old, do we?” (Participant 27)

514 **Discussion**

515 Our findings suggest that the concept of biographical disruption has strong resonance with the
516 experiences of people discussing their experiences of frailty in older age. The themes resonate
517 with other studies of the experiences of frail older people (e.g. Grenier 2007; Grenier and
518 Hanley 2007; Nicholson *et al.* 2012; Puts *et al.* 2009; Torres and Hammarström 2006; Warmoth
519 *et al.* 2016). We show that that their experiences reflect the challenges to everyday life, sense
520 of self and resources that Bury (1982) identified in his original exposition. While frailty is not
521 a disease, its wide-ranging impact on individuals and their activities means that it is perhaps
522 even more disruptive than chronic conditions whose effects are narrower, and more readily
523 contained. This can be attributed to the profound effects of frailty on the body, and thus on
524 embodied experience and sense of self (Engman 2019). However, our findings also challenge
525 the notion that the physical and social consequences of change to one’s bodily abilities alone,
526 as Engman (2019) suggests, offers the key to understanding the circumstances in which
527 biographical disruption applies. Rather, we suggest, a broader understanding of embodiment,
528 encompassing the cognitive response to physical decline, is critical to identifying the
529 circumstances in which biographical disruption is likely to be experienced.

530 In contrast to some of the long-term conditions that have been viewed through the lens of
531 biographical disruption in past studies, the impacts of frailty were pervasive. As Grenier (2020)
532 shows, while frailty may be physically felt, it is also politically, socially and culturally
533 constructed. This leaves frail older people with the task of managing a stigmatised identity as
534 well as physical implications. While the impact of diseases such as Ménière’s Disease (Bell *et*
535 *al.* 2016) is undoubtedly profound, they are perhaps not as existentially consequential as an
536 experience that leaves people “at increased risk of disability and death from minor external
537 stresses” (Campbell and Buchner 1997: 315). Yet for the patients we spoke to, this appeared to
538 render a response that contained the impacts of frailty all the more important. This manifested

539 in particular in allusions to activities that participants could still undertake, and in participants'
540 work to distinguish between the physical impacts of frailty and its cognitive impacts.

541 Participants thus drew a line between their identities and biographies, and the impact of frailty,
542 casting it as an “outside force” even as they felt “its invasion of all aspects of life” (Bury 1982:
543 173). While embodied experience is “central to the social process” of the impact of disease on
544 lives (Kelly and Field 1996: 246), constructing a duality between self and body was
545 functionally helpful to our participants (cf. Williams 1996). It enabled them to preserve a sense
546 of their selves and their capacities that was safe from the tendrils of frailty—at least as long as
547 they could demonstrate their continued cognitive competence, or their ability to undertake
548 some tasks with a degree of independence.

549 More than this, however, our findings suggest a need for a more thoroughgoing
550 conceptualisation of embodiment that goes beyond Engman’s (2019: 124) primary focus on
551 the way in which “a breakdown at the level of the physical body [...] impinges on one’s ability
552 to enact one’s embodied orientation towards the world.” Engman (2019: 124) argues that
553 “biographical disruption begins with a breakdown at the level of embodiment (specifically, the
554 introduction of novel physical limitations that make familiar behaviours and habits
555 inaccessible),” such that people’s “identities have been thrown into question due to their
556 inability to enact the roles that they associate with those identities”. Certainly, the direct impact
557 of frailty on the everyday lives of participants in our study was profound and consequential.
558 However, our findings suggest that physical changes alone, and the changes in embodied
559 orientation to the world, are not sufficient to explain the presence or otherwise of biographical
560 disruption. Rather, an expanded understanding of embodiment, incorporating an understanding
561 of its cognitive components, is required.

562 Williams (1996) notes that the onset of chronic illness renders the body apparent to the
563 individual, disrupting the taken-for-granted relationship between self and body. The body “dys-
564 appears” (Williams 1996: 38): it becomes visible through its failure, and individuals become
565 estranged from their bodies. In response, they seek a reconciliation—a “re-embodiment” in
566 response to “dys-embodiment”—that adapts to and makes sense of the new bodily state
567 (Williams 1996: 38; cf. Bury 1991). Yet such “negotiated settlements” with the body are often
568 transient and fragile. Thus, Williams (1996) argues, chronic illness is experienced as a series
569 of oscillations between embodied, dys-embodied and re-embodied states.

570 Our findings show how frailty causes biographical disruption not just through its direct impact
571 on one’s physical and social capacities, but also through the threat it poses to an imagined
572 (future) personal narrative, particularly through its association with cognitive decline. In
573 seeking reconciliation with their changed bodily reality, participants focused on what remained
574 of their previous embodiment. They emphasised what they still could do over what they could
575 not, focusing on their cognitive ability, separating the mind from the body. They adopted what,
576 following Williams (1996), might be termed a ‘strategic dualism’, distinguishing between their
577 cognitive and physical capacities in seeking to achieve reconciliation with their new bodily
578 realities. The participants’ construction of and resistance to frailty was framed as much in terms
579 of the ways it did not (yet) affect them bodily: it was the wider connotations of frailty as much
580 as its material bodily impact that was disruptive.

581 Relatedly, the participants’ awareness of the stigmatised status of frailty was evident
582 throughout the interviews. Other writers have noted the construction of frailty as an undesirable
583 other to discourses of ‘active ageing’ (Marhánková 2011): a ‘fourth age’ or ‘failed old age’
584 through which positive images of a successful and healthy ‘third age’ are constructed (Grenier
585 *et al.* 2017a; Pickard *et al.* 2019). Participants’ eagerness to disavow the impacts of frailty on
586 their bodies, and to emphasise their continued cognitive ability and capacity for independent

587 living, should be read in this wider socio-cultural context. Even as they constructed frailty as
588 an epidemiological inevitability at the population level—i.e. something that would affect a
589 significant portion of people in their age group—they viewed it as a failure at the personal
590 level, and emphasised what they were doing to resist it. The valorisation of independence is a
591 strong and persistent feature of late-modern liberal society (Aronson 2002; Cluley *et al.* 2020;
592 Giddens 1991; Martin *et al.* 2005), and the efforts of participants to salvage their identities and
593 resist the stigmatising connotations of frailty should be understood accordingly.

594 Thus, participants resisted a sense of biographical disruption by rethinking their relationships
595 with their bodies in a way that allowed them to adapt to their changing circumstances. Thus it
596 is not just the impact of a condition on an individual’s “ability to enact an embodied orientation
597 towards the world” (Engman 2019: 120) that determines the likelihood of the experience of
598 biographical disruption: it is the extent to which individuals are able to reconcile themselves
599 with their new corporeal reality, and achieve ‘re-embodiment’. Yet even successful
600 reconciliations are contingent and precarious, particularly when trajectories are unknown.
601 Therefore the oscillation between embodiment, dys-embodiment and re-embodiment is likely
602 to require an ongoing process of negotiation (Williams 1996). Mirroring Bell *et al.*’s (2016)
603 view of biographies as oscillating processes (rather than fixed ideals) that impel ongoing
604 adaptation, the experience of disease, impairment, disruption and resolution too will oscillate.
605 For an experience like frailty, therefore, and perhaps for progressive diseases too, the
606 experience of biographical disruption is likely to unfold through time, as individuals oscillate
607 between successful re-embodiments and further challenges posed by new developments in their
608 condition.

609 Our paper has strengths, including its application of the notion of biographical disruption to an
610 emergent clinical classification not previously viewed through this lens, and also some
611 limitations. Most notably, while the presence (and sometimes the contribution) of informal

612 carers in interviews sometimes added richness to the conversations, it may also have resulted
613 in a form of social-desirability bias, perhaps encouraging patient participants to ‘talk up’ their
614 desire for independence. The setting for the interviews may also have had an important bearing
615 on their content. While there are some methodological advantages to situated interviews of this
616 kind (Gale and Sidhu 2019), the emergency department environment is likely to have
617 influenced the discussions in difficult-to-predict ways. The ED attendance and frailty screening
618 process was not the focus of our study; nevertheless, this setting could have affected patients’
619 accounts, given the uncertainty brought about by emergency situations. Certainly, our dataset
620 falls short of the longitudinal approach taken by some writers in this field, which permits the
621 development of biographical disruption to be examined as it unfolds (e.g. Taghizadeh Larsson
622 and Jeppsson Grassman 2012). Our findings, however, do echo those of similar studies not
623 conducted in hospital settings (Warmoth *et al.* 2016).

624 Finally, our work to apply the concept of biographical disruption to a health-related state other
625 than a long-term condition deserves some further reflection. It could be objected that this
626 constitutes an over-extension of a concept that was developed, and to date has been applied, in
627 relation to long-term conditions. Whether understood as a corollary of the normal ageing
628 process or as a collection of symptoms arising from illnesses and other behavioural, social and
629 environmental influences (Bergman *et al.* 2007), frailty is rather different: it does not present
630 in a uniform fashion, and as our participants discussed, it was seen not as abnormal but as
631 something to be anticipated in later life. To this extent, one might question whether it has
632 potential to disrupt at all. We defend the application of biographical disruption to frailty on
633 three counts.

634 First, the degree of disruption to biographies likely to arise from different long-term conditions
635 is also likely to vary. Contrast, for example, the onset of rheumatoid arthritis in middle age
636 (Bury 1982) with the experience of stroke in later life, an event “anticipated by some as being

637 an event along the trajectory of old age” (Pound *et al.* 1998: 503). The experiences described
638 by participants in our study resonated strongly with all three components of biographical
639 disruption set out by Bury (1982): as we note, just because frailty can be seen as an
640 epidemiological inevitability for a wider population does not mean it is not disruptive for the
641 individual, especially given the discourses that construct frailty as a personal failing (Grenier
642 *et al.* 2017b; Pickard *et al.* 2019).

643 Second, alongside this face validity, applying the concept of biographical disruption to frailty
644 generates analytically useful insights, with potential relevance to other applications. Our
645 analysis identifies the disruptive capacity of the social as well as the physical features of frailty:
646 the way in which stigmatisation and individualisation of blame for frailty themselves disrupt,
647 and demand a response from those affected. Such a finding has clear relevance to long-term
648 conditions whose effects are also constituted socially, and indeed has resonance with Bury’s
649 (1982) own identification of embarrassment and stigma as important aspects of rheumatoid
650 arthritis’s disruptive impact. Similarly, our finding regarding the ‘strategic dualism’ deployed
651 by participants—their separation of bodily and cognitive impacts—also has relevance for the
652 response to disruption posed by both long-term conditions and other health-related experiences.

653 Third, as we noted in the introduction, the increasing concern with frailty of healthcare systems
654 and biomedical researchers places the term, and the people experiencing it, at the frontier of
655 medicalisation. By definition, medicalisation is not beholden to conditions that fall easily into
656 accepted categories of health and illness. If medical sociology is to provide critical insights into
657 its impacts that remain current and relevant, we must apply our conceptual tools in ways that
658 are responsive to these shifting boundaries. The resonance of biographical disruption with
659 experiences of a non-disease category is perhaps testament to the impact that medicalisation
660 *itself* has on the subjects of medical discourse, categorisation and intervention.

661 **Conclusion**

662 In applying the concept to a health status encompassing a wide range of bodily consequences,
663 we argue that biographical disruption presents a useful concept for understanding experiences
664 of frailty. Moreover, we suggest, considering frailty through the lens of biographical disruption
665 offers insights that help to explain the mixed findings of others with regard to the applicability
666 of the concept of biographical disruption. Since frailty represents a condition that is to some
667 extent an expected part of the lifecourse but is also thoroughgoing in its impact on people who
668 experience it, the existing literature offers conflicting predictions about the relevance of the
669 concept.

670 In line with the proposition put forward by Engman (2019), our findings indicate the
671 importance of a condition's impact on individuals' embodied relationship with the world as a
672 determinant of biographical disruption. But beyond this, drawing on Williams (1996), we also
673 highlight how a 'negotiated settlement' between individuals and their new bodily reality leads
674 them to resist the label of frailty, achieve reconciliation (albeit provisional), and minimise
675 biographical disruption. For other conditions, our findings suggest that both the disruption of
676 day-to-day embodied existence, and the reconfiguration of the relationship between self and
677 body it precipitates, are important in influencing the presence of biographical disruption.

678

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684

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