

1     **Identity in Elite Level Disability Sport: A Systematic Review and Meta-Study**  
2   **of Qualitative Research**

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## IDENTITY IN DISABILITY SPORT

**15 Identity in Elite Level Disability Sport: A Systematic Review and Meta-Study of**  
**16 Qualitative Research**

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18

**Abstract**

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20 This meta-study evaluated qualitative identity literature within elite disabled sport. Following

21 a systematic search of EBSCO SPORTDiscus, MEDLINE, PsycINFO, and Web of Science,

22 nine articles met the inclusion criteria. The meta-study examined how identity was framed

23 from participant or author perspectives, employing narrative analysis to understand the

24 participant stories and broader storylines crafted by authors. Two distinct narratives were co-

25 constructed; *Re-birth*: characterising athlete identity experiences and how overcoming career

26 challenges developed traits necessary for elite athlete status, and *Tragedy*: how authors’

27 interpretations indicated that although athletes achieved personal sporting success, the ‘bigger

28 battle’ of how disability was presented within society remained. The *Re-birth* and *Tragedy*

29 narratives update the prospective gap between how elite disability athletes story their

30 experiences and their framing within society.

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*Keywords:* athlete, narrative analysis, storytelling, society

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41 Elite level disability sport is becoming more popular and professional. Contemporary  
42 research exploring empowerment (Powis, 2020), high-performance coaching (Townsend et  
43 al., 2018), and classification (Powis & Macbeth, 2020), have readdressed how disabled  
44 people<sup>1</sup> in sport are framed in social discourse. Research identifies disabled athletes have  
45 complex contradictions regarding their sporting participation, advocating for further research  
46 on how athletes may refute dominant disability stereotypes (Guerrero & Martin, 2018). One  
47 example, the ‘supercrip’, is defined as an inspirational disabled person, glorified, and lauded  
48 in the media (Schalk, 2016), which emphasises individual attitude, work, and perseverance as  
49 the key to thriving. This highlights the person with a disability as living a ‘normal’ existence  
50 as a result of overcoming or defeating their disability (Martin, 2013). However, this  
51 stereotype implies disability can be overcome through hard work, framing disability as a  
52 deficit, located in the person. Yet, athletes in this population retain positive perceptions about  
53 the supercrip identity, with it portraying athletes positively and a better alternative to being  
54 ignored completely (Hardin & Hardin, 2004). Nevertheless, the broader landscape where  
55 disabled people may feel ‘more’ or ‘less’ disabled when encountering daily challenges may  
56 reflect a different outlook. These may exhibit a stereotype, where athletes in elite competition  
57 (Paralympics) may be distanced from the general population of disabled people (Cherney et  
58 al., 2015). On the contrary, not all disabled athletes may view themselves, or wish to be  
59 viewed, as “elite” (Brittain, 2004). Cherney et al. (2015) share Blauwet and Willick’s (2012)  
60 view that disabled athletes should be viewed equal in skill and worth as nondisabled athletes.

61 Identity refers to our understanding of ourselves and other people, and their  
62 understanding of themselves and us (Jenkins, 2014). Approaches to identity focus on the

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<sup>1</sup> This paper follows the UK Social Model of disability (Oliver, 2004) using identity-first language (‘disabled people’ and ‘disabled athletes’). We acknowledge ‘disabled people’ globally refer to themselves in various ways, such as ‘persons with disabilities’ as used in the UN Convention of Rights for Persons with Disabilities or ‘athletes with disabilities’ as language recommended by the International Paralympic Committee.

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63 context in which the individual operates to form their behaviour. In some contexts, a person's  
64 sense of self is based on seeing themselves as a unique individual (personal identity); in other  
65 contexts, self-definition and behaviour are underpinned by the individual's sense that they  
66 share a common group membership (Rees et al., 2015). Here, two main approaches have  
67 explored identity; a cognitivist and a cultural perspective. These approaches influence how  
68 scholars conceptualise disability: the medical model understands disability as a problem  
69 residing in the individual, and the social model outlines disability as a cultural phenomenon.

70         Cognitivist approaches, view identity as fixed, permanent, or innate. Identity involves  
71 a self-schema that interprets information about an individual's role in society (Guerrero &  
72 Martin, 2018). For example, an athletic identity adopts this, defined as the degree to which a  
73 disabled individual identifies with the social role of an athlete (Tasiemski & Brewer, 2011).  
74 Disability identity, when shaped as more of a personal identity, is a "unique phenomenon,  
75 shaping a person's way of seeing themselves, their bodies, way of interacting with the world  
76 and adapting to their disability" (Forber Pratt et al., 2017; p.15). The cognitivist lens  
77 promotes a medical understanding of disability (see Smith & Perrier, 2014). This  
78 understanding views disability as a 'personal loss' (impairment), to be 'fixed' through  
79 intervention (Smith & Bundon, 2018). For example, therapeutic approaches underpinned by  
80 cognitivism (e.g., REBT) imply athletes' psychological challenges, such as compromised  
81 self-identity, are linked to specific biological conditions such as visual impairment (Wood et  
82 al., 2018a; 2018b). Therefore, scholars accuse the cognitivist approach is pre-occupied with  
83 rational thought, reduces identity to individual psychology, targets only individual agency,  
84 and promoting the neoliberal viewpoint that disabled people are responsible for their  
85 identities (Smith & Perrier, 2014).

86         Scholars who adopt a cultural sport psychology (CSP, e.g., McGannon & Smith,  
87 2015) lens, look to challenge individualist assumptions underpinning cognitivist approaches.

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88 A CSP approach assumes thought and emotion reside in social relations and seek to facilitate  
89 contextual understandings of identities (McGannon & Smith, 2015). This challenges  
90 persisting meanings of identity embedded in cognitivist approaches, and regards identity as  
91 non-essentialist (i.e., changeable). Identity, from a CSP approach is constantly negotiated and  
92 socially constructed (McGannon & Smith, 2015; Schinke et al., 2019); it is seen as the  
93 product of (dis)empowering histories and discourses (Bundon et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2016).  
94 CSP researchers often endorse qualitative methods and a social constructionist philosophy to  
95 capture social context (Perrier et al., 2012). CSP approaches complement a social-relational  
96 model understanding of disability, in which disability reflects a problem with society not the  
97 individual (Smith & Bundon, 2018). For example, the social model highlights how people  
98 with impairments are disabled by the attitudinal and environmental barriers they encounter  
99 (Goodley, 2016). A social-relational model considers the meaning of exclusion in different  
100 contexts and how this impacts disabled people's wellbeing (Smith & Bundon, 2018, Thomas,  
101 2004), with these models promoting psychological intervention at an environmental level  
102 (McGannon & Smith, 2015; Schinke et al., 2019).

103         Despite studies into disability identity in non-sporting populations (e.g., Forber-Pratt  
104 et al., 2017) and athletic identity in elite disability sport populations (e.g., Guerrero & Martin,  
105 2018), few reviews of disability identity in elite disability sport populations exist. Haslett et  
106 al. (2020) advocate for further clarity surrounding different disability contexts and how  
107 athletes negotiate these, to further understand the various forces contributing to psychological  
108 adversity within disability studies (Smith & Perrier, 2014). Moreover, with a complex  
109 relationship existing between embodiment, identity and disability sport, there is value in  
110 focusing on athletes' lived experiences and voices (McKay, 2022). On a cultural level, Maher  
111 et al. (2022) identify the need to consider how sports environments and relationships are  
112 constructed to foster a shared sense of belonging, acceptance, and value. Consequently, a

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113 review of disability identity may identify how elite athletes story their lived identity  
114 experiences, the meaning behind these, and how these are (re)told. Peers (2016) outlines the  
115 importance of disabled people being active in the (re)production of disability, through de-  
116 composing the stories and cultures that disable and interrogating these. The concept of  
117 narratives may bridge the gap between stories told by individuals and the dominant  
118 discourse(s) within their lives (McLeod, 2006). In the current review, the stories provide an  
119 understanding of identity development, with individuals understanding themselves through  
120 the stories they tell and feel part of (Smith, 2007). This review explores what Frank (2010)  
121 termed socio-narratology, where value is in what stories *do* and their capacity to shape  
122 meaning, personal experience, embodiment, and social life. Here, comparing how athletes  
123 story their experiences and how authors re-tell these, addresses the cultural approach by  
124 conducting narrative analysis at two levels. This understands how stories present a co-  
125 constructed appreciation of how society, environment, and cultures shape dominant sporting  
126 narratives. Stories often limit the values people can hold (Frank, 2010), which may close  
127 down conversations as opposed to opening them up. Therefore, critically analysing the ‘good’  
128 and ‘bad’ ways stories act (Caddick, 2018), may shed light on marginalised narratives, which  
129 may contradict the supercrip/empowerment storyline often seen in the area.

130         The aim of the present study is to review and synthesize qualitative studies on identity  
131 in elite disability sport to investigate: (a) how elite disability athletes construct their  
132 identities; (b) how authors are interpreting these stories; and (c) the meanings behind identity  
133 construction within this population. It is anticipated the study will outline how authors review  
134 and interpret data relating to the social significance of disability sport (Cherney et al., 2015).  
135 This is significant given that previous literature (Braye, 2017) has highlighted that events  
136 such as the Paralympic Games may often provide a false impression that disabled people  
137 have equal opportunities in wider society.

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**Method****139 Review Design**

140 The meta-study method is based on a constructivist approach and provides tools for  
141 analysing and synthesising qualitative research (Ronkainen et al., 2022). Meta-study involves  
142 meta-method, meta-data, meta-theory analysis, and meta-synthesis (Paterson et al., 2001).

143 The first three components take place concurrently; the meta-synthesis is presented as the  
144 outcome of a meta-study. The meta-study combines the results of multiple studies, identifies  
145 patterns amongst these results, sources of disagreements, and other relationships (Rothman et  
146 al., 2008), leading to knowledge generation in the area. We used the meta-study method to  
147 understand how identity in disability sport contexts is differently viewed, defined,  
148 understood, or acted upon in relation to how the research is conducted. Furthermore, we  
149 acknowledge the role of both research participants and study authors within the process and  
150 how these shape identity meanings in the reviewed studies. While the meta-study method is  
151 growing in popularity in sport and exercise psychology (see Ronkainen et al., 2022, for a  
152 review), no studies have yet focused on a disability athlete population nor adopt a narrative  
153 approach to data analysis. Despite potential gaps, Pereira Vargas et al. (2021) provide a  
154 comprehensive account of narratives in meta-study methodologies. Here, Pereira Vargas et al.  
155 showed the significance of how participants shaped their mental illness through narratives.

**156 Search Strategy****157 *Keywords Development.***

158 Key words were developed via a scoping review, hand searching research in the area,  
159 and subsequent discussion by authors. These were underpinned by CHIP (Shaw, 2010) (Table  
160 4.) to break the research question down into key components: Context of the study (identity  
161 in elite disability sport); How it was conducted (qualitative methods); Issues investigated

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162 (identity construction and meaning); and Population involved (elite disability athletes). The  
163 search strategy consisted of four separate term searches: (1) *disab\** OR *paralympi\** OR  
164 *parasport* (2) *identit\** OR *character* (3) *sport\** OR *athlet\** OR *exercise* 4) *1<sup>st</sup>* AND *2<sup>nd</sup>* AND  
165 *3<sup>rd</sup>* keyword search. Pilot testing indicated these keywords and search combinations yielded a  
166 concise and sensitive (wide breadth and depth) data retrieval to maximise reliability.

### 167 ***Search Strategy***

168 The search databases were: EBSCO SPORTDiscus, MEDLINE, PsycINFO, and Web of  
169 Science. The first author completed electronic searches on June 2021. An additional search  
170 was completed on December 2022, which resulted in the addition of one further study  
171 (Kirakosyan, 2021). Backward (scanning reference lists of included articles) and forward  
172 (searching works citing included articles) manual search strategies were conducted to check  
173 articles fitting the criteria were collected, identifying any key research articles missed through  
174 electronic searches. These records were screened and assessed for eligibility. The titles and  
175 abstracts of sixteen journals exploring identity in competitive disability sport were explored.  
176 The general search strategy is shown in *Table 1*.

### 177 ***Inclusion Criteria.***

178 The meta-study focuses on qualitative research studies only. Studies were included if  
179 they reported: (a) primary data obtained through at least one qualitative data collection  
180 method, (b) exploring the role of identity in elite disability sport and were (c) peer-reviewed  
181 research articles. There were no date limitations. Elite athlete was defined as someone who  
182 either participated in elite talent programs, competed at high level events like the  
183 Paralympics, and/or experienced sustained success at the highest level (Swann et al., 2015).

### 184 **Data Extraction**

185 Following meta-study guidelines (Paterson et al., 2001), key features of retained



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186 research articles were collated (see *Table 2.* and 3.). These templates were constructed by  
187 assessing other published meta-studies (e.g., Ronkainen et al., 2016) to identify helpful  
188 groupings and subsequently choosing categories to best fit the current review's purpose.

**189 Data Analysis**

190 **Meta-method analysis.** Meta-method analysis assesses the influence of each study's  
191 method on findings. Following examples set in previous qualitative meta-studies (Massey &  
192 Williams, 2020; Ronkainen et al., 2016) the included articles were reviewed with specific  
193 methodological data extracted from each paper and summarised in *Table 2.* *Table 2.*'s content  
194 was examined for patterns across the literature and reported in the meta-method analysis  
195 results section. We achieved this by following a process similar to that of Massey and  
196 Williams (2020), involving reviewing: (1) the philosophical assumptions underpinning the  
197 research design, (2) whether the research questions and role of the researchers aligned to this  
198 philosophical stance, (3) the researchers' rationale for data collection and data analysis  
199 methods, and (4) how the methodological approach influenced the research finding.

200 **Meta-theory analysis.** Meta-theory analysis identifies the key theoretical paradigms  
201 within the literature base, with theoretical and analytical data extracted from each paper and  
202 presented in *Table 2.* Here, focus is on larger social, historical, cultural and political contexts,  
203 and how theoretical underpinnings influence a body of work (Paterson et al., 2001).

204 Challenges may arise when authors do not explicitly reference their theoretical framework,  
205 form of inquiry, or method of analysis. This is common when, due to journal word length  
206 restrictions, qualitative papers focus on research findings at the expense of detailing their  
207 methodology (Williams & Shaw, 2016).

208 **Meta-data analysis.** Here, we critically examined how the research process  
209 (methodology, research design, method) influenced the research findings. The first and

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210 second authors initially engaged in the meta-data process independently, by reading and re-  
211 reading the articles. We then collectively appraised the articles in chronological order to gain  
212 historical context and examine whether there had been changes in how the topic had been  
213 explored over time. Cross case analysis (Riessman, 2008) was utilised throughout, with the  
214 research team acting as ‘critical friends’ to review the data collected and the primary  
215 researcher’s conclusions.

216 Data analysis (narrative analysis) was conducted on two levels. First, we explored the  
217 stories told by participants within each study (primary data), presented as the verbatim quotes  
218 in the articles results’ sections. The research team reviewed the meaning attributed to each  
219 participant experience, whilst acknowledging the story structure and the dominant narrative  
220 features underpinning these. This enabled a shift between the narrative (how is the story  
221 being told?) and the product of the story (what is being said?) (Smith & Sparkes, 2009). The  
222 structure of the stories were explored through The Seven Basic Plots (Booker, 2004), with  
223 this framework helping story how participants described their identity experiences and how  
224 authors then interpreted these. All participant stories followed a similar structure, with some  
225 divergence in end points; a) the participant embarks on a journey towards a goal, b) they  
226 experience some form of obstacle or threat, c) resulting in some form of change when  
227 attempting to overcome the obstacle, and d) there is an ending to the story, or the story  
228 continues. Structuring in this format, paralleled common storytelling plots around:  
229 Overcoming the Monster, Rags to Riches, The Quest, Voyage and Return, Comedy, Tragedy,  
230 and Rebirth (Booker, 2004). The plots storied key narratives outlined throughout the review  
231 and explored areas that may have previously been overlooked. Furthermore, the author  
232 interpretations consider how participant stories fit within society with regard to disability.  
233 The meta-data analysis is summarised in *Table 3*. and discussed within the meta-data results.

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234           **Meta-synthesis.** This stage integrates the interpretations from the meta-data, meta-  
235 method, and meta-theory analyses. A meta-synthesis explores beyond the descriptive  
236 meanings of findings, and towards generating an explanatory or integrative theoretical  
237 framework to extend upon what is already known (Paterson et al., 2001). The purpose of the  
238 current meta-synthesis was to review how identity is constructed in elite disability sport, to  
239 clarify what identities are made available to elite disability athletes, their engagement, and the  
240 meaning behind identity construction. Two key stories were co-constructed surrounding  
241 participant and author experiences of disability identity in elite disability sport: (1) Rebirth -  
242 *'Supercrip': 'You are doing extraordinary things!'*; (2) *Tragedy: The 'bubble' of sport and*  
243 *the 'bigger battle' within society.*

244

**Results**

245           **Meta-Method Analysis.** Six of the nine studies included in the review provided  
246 sufficient detail to fully evaluate methodological quality (Bantjes et al., 2019; Campbell,  
247 2018; Kirakosyan, 2021; Pack et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2016; Wickman, 2007). Of these six  
248 studies, three explicitly outlined the philosophical assumptions underpinning the research  
249 study (Bantjes et al., 2019; Kirakosyan, 2021; Smith et al., 2016). In the other three studies,  
250 philosophical stance was implied (Campbell, 2018; Pack et al., 2017; Wickman, 2007). The  
251 remaining three studies did not outline (explicitly or implicitly) the methodology  
252 underpinning the study design. When reviewing the philosophical assumptions underpinning  
253 the studies, we identified a number of methodological inconsistencies across the sample;  
254 especially in relation to how the research methodology aligned to data analysis techniques.  
255 For example, Pack et al. (2017) stated “the aim of IPA is to understand lived experience,  
256 rather than the aim of producing objective accounts” (p. 2064) and yet regularly used  
257 ‘emerging’ or ‘emergent’ when describing the data analysis process. The words ‘emerging’,  
258 ‘emerge’, ‘emergence’, and ‘found’ were used in three other studies (Huang & Brittain, 2006;

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259 Kirakosyan, 2021; Smith et al., 2016), which contradicted the stated philosophical stance (i.e.  
260 *epistemological constructivism*; Smith et al., 2016) by implying that reality is objective and  
261 readily available to discover through the data collected. We identified further inconsistencies  
262 between research methodology and methods with researchers' use of member checking (Pack  
263 et al., 2017; Wickman, 2007) and data saturation (Smith et al., 2016; Pack et al., 2017). Both  
264 member checking (Smith & McGannon, 2018) and data saturation (Braun & Clarke, 2021)  
265 have been criticised within qualitative literature and may also be seen to contradict the  
266 philosophical positions of these studies.

267         Despite these inconsistencies, across the sample, there were a number of  
268 methodological strengths. For example, six of the studies clearly outlined a connection  
269 between the research aims and methodology (Bantjes et al., 2019; Campbell, 2018; Hu et al.,  
270 2021; Kirakosyan, 2021; Pack et al., 2017; Wickman, 2007), which allowed the authors to  
271 create a 'golden thread' in their research and explicitly highlight how their findings  
272 contributed towards knowledge advancement in the area. The majority of the studies utilised  
273 a purposeful sampling technique to recruit participants (Hu et al., 2021), which represented  
274 both males and females, as well as a variety of sports (Taekwondo, Swimming, Volleyball,  
275 Wheelchair Rugby etc.) across a number of countries (Britain, Taiwan, Canada, Brazil etc.).  
276 Participants included in the studies were described as belonging to an 'elite' status, with most  
277 competing at an international level (Paralympics). However, only one study (Smith et al.,  
278 2016) explicitly defined what elite meant. All studies used semi-structured interviews to  
279 collect data. However, in some cases, the interviews were particularly short in length (19  
280 minutes; Hu et al., 2021) or the interview timings were not provided (Le Clair, 2011)  
281 reducing the transparency of the research findings. Some interviews were conducted  
282 alongside participant observations (Le Clair, 2011) and fieldwork observations (Smith et al.,  
283 2016). Le Clair's (2011) study was the only study to explore the topic longitudinally. Sole

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284 use of semi-structured interview guides may have impacted the research findings, by 1)  
285 preventing participants from exploring areas of the topic important to them, and 2)  
286 encouraging the creation of ‘themes’ to represent similar experiences across the sample.  
287 Taken together, this may have contributed towards the silencing of already marginalised and  
288 unexplored narratives. Furthermore, the variety of sample sizes (six - Campbell, 2018 to 41 –  
289 Kirakosyan, 2021) may also have contributed towards the silencing of alternative narratives.  
290 Studies with a smaller sample size (nine – Wickman, 2007) were able to celebrate the  
291 idiosyncrasies of the participants’ stories. Sample size should be closely considered in line  
292 with research methodology, methods, and research aims. Moreover, we recognise the value of  
293 open-ended or even unstructured interviews (Dale, 1996). Furthermore, focus groups have  
294 been found useful for participants to interact and relate to one another’s experiences. This  
295 may allow identity to discuss subjective meanings and interpretations, and enable individuals  
296 to align themselves more readily with those facing similar experiences. Regardless of the data  
297 collection method undertaken, authors should outline their position, through a process of  
298 reflexivity, and how this may impact the interpretation of data (Hu et al., 2021). When this  
299 was not achieved, it was also unclear how the authors’ wanted the quality of their research to  
300 be judged (Huang & Brittain, 2006; Le Clair, 2011; Wickman, 2007).

301       **Meta-Theory Analysis.** In the meta-theory analysis, we investigated what major  
302 traditions of thought were represented in the theoretical frameworks and conceptualisations  
303 of identity in the primary research (see Paterson et al., 2001). Campbell (2018) mapped  
304 findings to the social-relational model of disability to better understand the relationship  
305 between individual perception, impairment and environment. Kirakosyan (2021) discussed  
306 the ‘continuum’ in which theories of disability are explored, bounded by the medical model  
307 and the social model. In itself, Kirakosyan (2021) showcased the challenges disabled people  
308 faced when equated to the medical model (medical professionals should provide a ‘solution’

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309 to the individual) and the social model (difficulties surrounding disabled peoples' ability to  
310 take independence). The remaining seven studies did not specify explicitly, the model of  
311 disability they adopted (studies such as Smith et al., 2016 implicitly discussed models of  
312 disability within the discussion, however this was not clear). Given the umbrella term  
313 'disability' encompasses (broad range of physical, sensory, psychological, and cognitive  
314 capacities) and language which is fluid and evolving (especially within identity); the  
315 implications of studies not explicitly outlining the authors' understanding of what is meant by  
316 disability, may provide barriers to the reader in their understanding of disability and the  
317 transparency of the research. Referring back to reflexivity, Massey & Williams' (2020) meta-  
318 study previously cited that researchers should be reflexively aware of the decisions they take,  
319 to justify and communicate the rationale behind them. Thus, by not being explicitly clear on  
320 their theoretical frameworks and conceptualisations of identity in disability, it may lack  
321 transparency for readers to understand how knowledge is constructed, its role and impact in  
322 the process, and arrival at their own conclusion.

323         While in some articles it was challenging to locate a named identity theory (e.g.,  
324 social identity theory, narrative identity theory), it was clear that some studies gravitated  
325 towards 'a thick individual' and others 'a thick social-relational' perspective on identity  
326 (Smith & Sparkes, 2009). From a thick individual perspective, Campbell (2018) highlighted  
327 the lack of literature uncovering the lived experiences of student-athletes who participate in  
328 Paralympic sport, and analysed her data using IPA. When interpreting the findings, Campbell  
329 (2018) emphasised that, despite shared life environments, participants had unique ways of  
330 making meaning of their identities as 'athletes', 'students' and 'disabled', and also  
331 highlighted the importance of differentiating the impairments that student-athletes may have.  
332 An example of a thick socio-cultural perspective, Wickman (2007) drew from a  
333 poststructuralist lens, arguing that identity is multiple, unstable, and constituted through

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334 discourse. In discussing her findings, she highlighted that normative discourse of able-ism  
335 was oppressive and led participants to dis-identify from being ‘disabled athletes’. Overall,  
336 several studies drew on narrative and discursive theoretical perspectives and ways that  
337 identities are culturally shaped and negotiated within narrative-discursive resources (Bantjes  
338 et al., 2019; Huang & Brittain, 2006; Kirakosyan, 2021; Smith et al., 2016).

339         **Meta-Data Analysis.** The structural meta-data analysis began by identifying the  
340 beginning, middle, and end of each story within the dataset. These were compared to the  
341 Seven Basic Plots to connect the participant journeys and the narrative structure of the plots.  
342 The temporal nature of the data (themes) co-created stories aligning to the broad structure of  
343 beginning, middle, and end. For example, Bantjes et al. (2019) results’ begin by outlining  
344 participants’ struggles with discrimination and being a disabled athlete (introduction). They  
345 present sport as a ‘way out’, despite on-going discrimination (middle). Finally, they outline  
346 sport as a way for participants to transform themselves and reach ‘self-acceptance (end). The  
347 second level of data analysis also used this structure to analyse the authors’ interpretations,  
348 reflected in the introduction (beginning), results (middle), and discussion (end).

349         Meta-data analysis results are constructed around the two main stories of: 1) Re-born  
350 as ‘Supercrip’ - ‘You are doing extraordinary things!’; (2) The ‘bubble’ of sport and the  
351 ‘bigger battle’ within society. These stories reflect accounts of the participant(s), and  
352 author(s) interpretation of the participants’ stories. Framing the results in this manner,  
353 allowed us to achieve the first two aims of the study. Through primary data analysis, we  
354 interpreted that the athletes’ stories were best captured by the Re-birth plot. However, we felt  
355 the authors’ interpreted these stories within the Tragedy narrative, because although  
356 participants had achieved success within their own journeys, this was often at the expense of  
357 losing a wider perspective of the bigger battle. This represented the challenges experienced  
358 by disabled people within society, including retirement, marginalisation, politics, and

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359 disability rights. One exception was Kirakosyan (2021), where there were several references  
360 by participants to broader society when discussing disability identity and prejudice.

361 Kirakosyan (2021) was the only study that explicitly discussed activism outside of a sporting  
362 context (i.e., in society) from the perspective of the participants. Here, the ‘superhero’  
363 narrative was rejected by participants as this devalued their sporting achievements, with  
364 participants underlining the significance of being role models in sport and life. As such, the  
365 participant and author stories aligned more closely.

366 **Re-born as ‘Supercrip’ - You are doing extraordinary things!**

367 The participants followed this narrative through: (1) the participant becomes aware of  
368 their disability and/or sporting identity status (depending on where the story begins), (2) they  
369 encounter initial struggle with this identity status due to stigma, marginalisation, and  
370 exclusion, (3) these encounters involve negotiation of their identity(ies) in order to establish  
371 ‘normality’ within their experience(s), (4) although achieving some success, there remains a  
372 gap between the participant and their counterparts (e.g. able-bodied athletes), (5) through  
373 success and overcoming challenges, the traits developed here, enabled the participant to  
374 emerge from the darkness to demonstrate their status (e.g. as an elite athlete or ‘supercrip’).

375 Participants demonstrated their athletic ability through the status and success of  
376 competing at an elite level. In the early stages of this plot, participants were presented with  
377 varying levels of challenge and acceptance concerning their disability, showcasing the ‘dark  
378 shadow’. Five of the nine stories detailed these in terms of marginalisation and exclusion at  
379 an early stage (childhood). This represents the initial ‘dark shadow’ of the Rebirth plot:

380 When I was growing up, they imitated the way I walked... they called me retard  
381 because it was the only thing they knew and understood about my disability (Le Clair,  
382 2011; p.1119).



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383 Yet, as the dark shadow grew, many participants discovered sport, which ran parallel  
384 as a core narrative. How this was framed by participants at an early age, was perhaps central  
385 to overcoming experiences of exclusion: ‘My brother and I started lessons [swimming] just  
386 like any other child’ (Pack et al., 2017; p. 2065). Maintaining a close allegiance with sport  
387 from an early age eclipsed notions of indifference: ‘since I was little, I always tried to get into  
388 as many sports as I possibly could, and been like that ever since’ (Hu et al., 2021; p.6). In  
389 Kirakosyan (2021), although no mention of their own childhood experiences, participants  
390 revisited these stages by now visiting schools: ‘I visited, I talked about my experience, and  
391 kids without impairments were curious. They can grow up to become future physiotherapists  
392 or coach a Paralympic sport’ (p.17). This helped ‘break the stereotype of a victim who cannot  
393 do anything’ (p.17). Although participants in the study may not have their own experiences at  
394 that age, they endeavoured to help ensure it would not happen to others. For Kirakosyan  
395 (2021) this draws on activism in sport and wider society.

396 After early disability identity experiences, all nine studies highlighted the participants’  
397 current status. These experiences often lacked clarity surrounding identity, with participants’  
398 struggling to accept their identity as a disabled (sports)person. In Kirakosyan (2021), this  
399 revolved around impairment acting as a barrier to masculinity, as society often associated  
400 able-bodiedness with being masculine. Yet, the participants challenged these views  
401 throughout Paralympic wheelchair rugby: ‘We are not some poor souls ‘playing’ sport. They  
402 saw how competitive we were... we do things that many people without impairment could  
403 never do’ (p.11). In Huang & Brittain (2006), participants framed their identity as a blend of  
404 impairment and disability: ‘I think it [the impairment] is always there... you just can’t get  
405 away from it... sometimes I do wish I was able-bodied’ (p. 358); whereas other participants  
406 in the study did not view themselves as disabled: ‘I see myself as someone that goes around  
407 on wheels, but just a normal person’ (p.360). This ambiguity was demonstrated further within

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408 sport by Wickman (2007): ‘Subconsciously I see myself as a disabled sportsman, but when I  
409 am competing, I don’t think like that’ (p.162), with this lack of familiarity challenging for  
410 some: ‘I didn’t have people there who were similar to me... training and studying, yeah I was  
411 a bit of a loner’ (Campbell, 2018; p.778). At this stage, participants have begun to fall under a  
412 dark shadow, within childhood or more contemporary experiences. This shadow grows, with  
413 it providing contested meanings of identity. Here, sport and identification as an athlete,  
414 demonstrates either an embracement or rejection of disability, with the latter showcasing how  
415 identifying as an athlete, enabled them to embrace their disability:

416           Body image is huge, it’s been huge my whole life with my leg, always wanting to fit  
417           in or identify with something. It was very easy for me to identify with being an  
418           athlete. I look like an athlete, I act like an athlete. I’m an athlete. (Hu et al., 2021; p.7).

419           The authors frame this stage of the journey from multiple angles (Sport as an arena for  
420           personal transformation - Bantjes et al., 2019; Rejecting disability and embracing ability - Le  
421           Clair, 2011; Questioning disability sport – Wickman, 2007). The events offer both positive  
422           and negative experiences and how this shapes participant status. As is the nature of the  
423           *Rebirth* plot, the darkness grows and reveals its true impact on the individual, with this  
424           impacting participants in different ways. For some, this provided a concept of normality: ‘my  
425           impairment is normal to me. All the inconvenience and unequal treatment become normal to  
426           me’ (Huang & Brittain, 2006; p.359), with participants highlighting disability as a trait and  
427           that everyone is different:

428           Disability is normal to me and all that I have known... who is normal? Everyone is  
429           different, but to them that difference is normal. Society puts normal labels on people.  
430           (Huang & Brittain, 2006; p.362)

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431 This normality provided participants' own perception of status: 'You can do anything really,  
432 anything a 'normal person' would do' (Campbell, 2018; p.775) and 'I do not think about  
433 what I could not do because of my impairment. I think about what I can do because of it... it  
434 is a tool... With it, I am a Paralympic athlete and a more active citizen'. (Kirakosyan, 2021;  
435 p.13). Yet, this often coincided with the darkness provided by reminders from others: 'When  
436 people refer to me but can't remember my name, they mention my impairment. They  
437 automatically regard me as a disabled person.' (Huang & Brittain, 2006; p.359).

438 When transferring this to sport the darkness remained, with participants often required to  
439 align with being a disabled athlete, as opposed to being an athlete:

440 I struggled because to participate in Paralympic sport you have to first say I have a  
441 disability... I'm an athlete first and happen to have a disability (Le Clair, 2011; p.  
442 1124)

443 In Smith et al., (2016, p.11) participants battled with the darkness by maintaining a consistent  
444 view of achievement: 'my goal is to win, and be the best I can'. Often reached through  
445 closing the gap between themselves and those able-bodied, this conflicted with whether it  
446 closed or widened the gap between themselves and their disability (seven out of nine studies):

447 I don't accept the inequalities between what we have and what Olympic, able-bodied  
448 have... inequalities are wrong and really stressful, but I don't take it lying down...  
449 (Smith et al., 2016; p.11).

450 People cannot identify with a disabled person... when Sweden wins a gold medal in  
451 archery, or ice hockey... then it is "we" who win... If a disabled person wins a gold  
452 medal – then it is "they". My identity is not disability sport. (Wickman, 2007; p.157).

453 Although the first quote indicates the participant promotes disability rights to foster change,  
454 the second implies society is yet to buy into and view disability sport alongside able-bodied

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455 sport. Kirakosyan (2021) demonstrates inconsistency relating to the Paralympics and cultural  
 456 perception: “I was in London [2012], they had a different view of Paralympic sport...  
 457 featuring Olympic and Paralympic athletes together... In Brazil, before the Paralympics, I  
 458 would tell people I was a Paralympic athlete, they would ask, “Para what?” (p.8)

459 Nevertheless, the battles experienced, allow the supercrip narrative to be (re)born, where the  
 460 participants’ stories emerge from the darkness and demonstrate extraordinary abilities and  
 461 mind-sets. This emphasised hard-work, resilience, and competing at an elite level:

462 I train hard, I lift weights, I cover hundreds of miles... I am an athlete, and want to be  
 463 seen as one, not disabled, but an athlete outright, a winner... I’m a Paralympian and  
 464 for me that is all about being an athlete, not disability (Smith et al., 2016; p.13)

465 Furthermore, when framed by authors, the acceptance and integration of those with a  
 466 disability was achieved through focusing on present behaviour and performance to achieve an  
 467 athletic identity (Pack et al., 2017), with liberation accomplished through mastery of physical  
 468 skill on the sports field and witnessed by spectators (Bantjes et al., 2019). Ultimately, the  
 469 narrative plot of rebirth and the participants’ stories and authors framing of these, provides  
 470 the notion that the participants have achieved a sense of normality in the sporting arena. This  
 471 itself, may be quite powerful:

472 I became a swimmer rather than just someone with a disability swimming up and  
 473 down... I was doing the same sort of training and had the same mentality as some  
 474 able-bodied swimmers (Pack et al., 2017; p.2067)

#### 475 **Tragedy: The ‘bubble’ of sport and the ‘bigger battle’ within society**

476 Here, we discuss the participant lived experiences in sport and society, prior to moving onto  
 477 how the authors’ framed these within a tragedy narrative. This narrative plot involved: (1) the  
 478 participant is valued, identifies with their sport and being an athlete, however challenges

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479 surrounding their disability surface, (2) these instances demonstrate how disabled people may  
480 be regarded, which prompts the participant to advocate change, (3) yet, the participant's  
481 immersion of an athletic identity and one aspect of their life (sporting achievement), (4) often  
482 screens what may occur for disabled people outside sport, (5) for participants who are aware,  
483 they attempt to (re)address marginalisation, with this an ongoing battle.

484         Participants in all nine studies referenced how elite sport had positively impacted their  
485 life achievements: 'Sport gives you recognition, it gives you a certain place, you're seen on a  
486 level' (Bantjes et al., 2019; p.825). Although highlighting the positive impact sport and  
487 retaining an athletic and/or disability identity had on participants, their elite status produced  
488 thoughts of life without it: 'I've always played sports... to think about not playing anymore...  
489 I don't have an identity outside of goalball' (Hu et al., 2021; p.8). This drew attention to the  
490 'bubble of sport' and that participants, although satisfied with their present status, became  
491 aware of either their life without sport, or the wider context of non-sporting disabled people:  
492 'Sport changed the way I thought about disabled people' (Bantjes et al., 2019; p.824). For  
493 those discussing their subjective experiences, this drew comparison with the 'darkness' of  
494 tragedy (depression and death):

495         After impairment, one experiences depression. I used to practice sport before the  
496 accident, liked sport, and suddenly everything stopped... you begin mourning.

497         (Kirakosyan, 2021; p.11)

498 Personal experience provided insight into the prospective day-to-day lives of disabled people.  
499 For some, this empowered participants to return to the definition of the self and how they  
500 may use their status to create change. Within the tragedy narrative plot, this involved  
501 committing to a course of action:

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502 I'm disabled, and that defines me... disabled athlete, in that order... disability isn't  
503 just about me, my body, Paralympic sport, or winning a medal. It's political... society  
504 treats you like a 2<sup>nd</sup> class citizen, as if being disabled is a horrible, abnormal thing,  
505 and we should be grateful for pity... (using) my status as an athlete to bring disability  
506 rights to people's attention, is as good as any gold medal (Smith et al., 2016; p.14).

507 This course of action heightened perspectives: 'Sport gave me a different view – that I look  
508 differently at life' (Bantjes et al., 2019; p. 824) and 'Everybody has a story to tell, something  
509 to learn from everybody, so respect everybody for the way they are' (Le Clair, 2011; p.1120).

510 As a result, participants in six of the nine studies explicitly engaged in activism in sport.

511 However, this was often carried out on a personal level, through a) avoiding marginalisation  
512 within society, through personal investment to alter how they were viewed: 'I proved that  
513 most people with disability can fit in somewhere as long as they're willing to work' (Pack et  
514 al., 2017; p.2066) or b) attempting to tackle the issues at the heart of disability sport:

515 Activism for me is all about getting equality in sport... my goal is to win...  
516 sometimes it feels as though I can't do this... It's the fault of the organization to come  
517 up with good training facilities, parking, lack of good coaches that understand my  
518 needs and being a Paralympian. (Smith et al., 2016; p.11)

519 This disparity between what elite disability athletes are provided with and their able-bodied  
520 counterparts, characterised a lack of funding and resources, or suggested that the disabled  
521 person has to either conform, fit in with ableist structures, or prove their worth. When  
522 confronting these: 'Challenging the physical and psychological abuse disabled people face is  
523 now second nature to me' (Smith et al., 2016; p.23); the participants may have engaged in  
524 acts that conflicted with their personal self and 'blur the lines' of authenticity:

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525           Being an elite powerlifter is my major identity... I was nobody... didn't think I could  
526           be somebody (Huang & Brittain, 2006; p.365)... only when you are good at  
527           something can you feel you actually exist, because people take notice of you. (p.369)

528   This suggests that without their sport, participants would either be a 'nobody', not 'exist', or  
529   felt little worth outside of sport. This is evident in five studies: 'I don't think you can accept  
530   yourself right away. I'm still working on it. It's a day-by-day thing' (Le Clair, 2011; p. 1121).  
531   Yet, there was resistance to this narrative, with participants outlining their disability made  
532   them who they are: 'All this was meant to happen... end up at this university... go to the  
533   games [Paralympics]' (Campbell, 2018; p.779) and 'Being an athlete has opened so many  
534   doors to opportunities, influenced my life in such a positive way... life would be totally  
535   different without it' (Hu et al., 2021; p.7).

536           *Author Interpretations*

537           Eight out of nine authors (consciously or subconsciously) presented *tragedy* as the  
538   prevailing narrative of the participants' stories, when discussing these within a broader  
539   context. The bigger picture of disability rights, disability in society, and activism, indicated  
540   that these 'darker sides' were prevailing amongst the participant stories. Kirakosyan (2021)  
541   presented both *tragedy* and *the quest* narratives, demonstrating that disability rights and  
542   activism were actively being broken down, yet negative societal attitudes toward disability  
543   still remained. This indicated participants' collectively overcoming their battles and arriving  
544   at their goal (the quest), yet also retained elements of the dark side still prevailing (tragedy).

545           Within sport, authors framed the participant storyline in one of two ways: 1) sport  
546   prompted participants to move away from negative connotations around disability  
547   (restriction, frailty) and towards the athletic narrative: 'I'm not a disabled sportswoman. I am  
548   a wheelchair athlete, because I don't compete in disability' (Wickman, 2007; p.162); or 2)

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549 sport prompted participants to embrace disability and place it alongside their athletic role:  
550 '[swimming] gave me the confidence to recognize that I've got a disability, embrace it.'  
551 (Pack et al., 2017; p.2067). These alternate perspectives shaped how activism may be  
552 accessed or promoted within the sporting context(s). On the one hand, highlighting the  
553 sporting excellence itself (exclusive of disability) and drawing focus to success had motivated  
554 the participants to succeed, and as such may motivate others. Alternatively, joint exposure to  
555 being an athlete and how disability carried participants there, was viewed as the most  
556 befitting for exploring elite disability athletes' identity experiences. Kirakosyan (2021)  
557 identified an empowering view of disability was offered by sport, which resisted stigma  
558 surrounding impairment. Yet, there was a lack of recognition and appreciation in sport for  
559 participants. As these were limited to sporting context(s), although experiencing sporting  
560 success, the 'bigger battle' of disability within society remained (tragedy).

561         When considering activism out of sport, societal impact was an area scrutinised in all  
562 nine studies, where from the current review's perspective, these were arranged to both  
563 precede (i.e., introduction) and proceed (i.e. discussion/conclusion) the participant narratives.  
564 This framed the current outlook of disability in sport and society (which was negative for six  
565 studies - e.g., 'Elite disability sport as a context to disrupt societal attitudes' - Bantjes et al.,  
566 2019; p.821), discussed the participant experiences, and then applied them to pre-existing  
567 narratives to add further support or critique. For example, Campbell (2018) highlighted that  
568 the generic policies to support teaching and learning often did not meet the specific needs of  
569 disabled students in higher education. This was mirrored in the results section of the study by  
570 the participants. This is as opposed to Le Clair (2011) and Pack et al. (2017) who maintained  
571 a more neutral outlook prior to the participant stories ('sport as a domain has been identified  
572 as a venue that can facilitate opportunity for favorable self-perceptions to develop among  
573 individuals with disabilities' (Pack et al., 2017; p.2063). The reason we highlight its



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574 significance, is that this immediately frames the context of the study, which may highlight  
575 either a) a lack of coverage, with exclusion and marginalisation highly prominent, or b)  
576 disability sport is an ongoing area of discussion, where the above elements may have or may  
577 still be present, but some focus has shifted from disability to proficiency. The authors'  
578 decision on how to frame the backdrop to their study, may impact the reader(s) interpretation  
579 and meaning of the participants' stories.

580 Within the studies' discussion sections, the authors applied the participant stories to wider  
581 contexts. Although two studies within their introduction(s) maintained a more neutral (or  
582 even favourable) stance, in the discussion section(s), tragedy is the overriding theme in eight  
583 studies, and in Kirakosyan (2021) as a co-theme. For those who consciously framed a tragedy  
584 narrative, the authors', although emphasising the positive aspects associated with participant  
585 experiences, referred to the broader context in which they operated. Here, although there was  
586 either personal recognition of disability success, or sport had reframed public perception of  
587 disability, both stigma and difference remained outside of sport. This again emphasises the  
588 'bigger battle'; For example, Huang & Brittain (2006), Smith et al. (2016), and Wickman  
589 (2007) all drew attention to the ideology that to be accepted and generate change, the  
590 participants have to somewhat sacrifice their disability and appear 'attractive' to society:

591       The fit able-bodied sportsperson is central to discourses of national identity. Disability  
592       sports do not seem to work this way... interviewees expressed feelings of otherness.  
593       They tried hard to position themselves within the discourse of able-ism (Wickman,  
594       2007; p.157)

595       Participants rejected the term disability to describe themselves, preferring to define  
596       themselves as simply an athlete... 'athlete only identity discourse' legitimised their  
597       athletic status, competence, and talents as a sportsperson. (Smith et al., 2016; p.13)

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598           Alternatively, Kirakosyan (2021) viewed these as ‘tensions’ between identity-related  
599 goals of agency, communion and coherence. This suggests that sacrifice may not be required,  
600 and accepting the uncertainty of change, instead of changing the ‘light’ participants are seen  
601 in, is most appropriate. For authors who perhaps subconsciously framed a tragedy narrative,  
602 they initially discussed positive aspects of identity: ‘Participants said they had assumed the  
603 function of a role model and embraced becoming a person of influence... being an elite  
604 athlete entailed a responsibility to motivate others and have a positive impact’ (Bantjes et al.,  
605 2019; p.826). Yet, when considering societal impact, and although assigning positive  
606 connotations, the tragedy narrative and ‘bigger monster’ became apparent:

607           Participants drew a distinction between “successful disabled people” (presumably  
608 those who have made some kind of visible mark on society or achieved some position  
609 of status) and others who were unsuccessful. (Bantjes et al., 2019; p.826)

610           This demonstrates the challenges associated with wider contexts. Here, when  
611 interpreted by the authors’, whether there is a requirement to be a role model for others  
612 (which in itself may pose an issue), rejection of disability, marginalisation in society, or  
613 sacrificing of values to be ‘accepted’, it is visible that sport (in the most part) provides the  
614 ability for participants to form an identity. Yet, this often characterises the bubble of sport,  
615 wherein the authors’ go on to describe the bigger battle of tragedy within society.

**616 Discussion and Meta-Synthesis**

617           The current review explored identity literature within elite disability sport, investigating how  
618 elite disability athletes described their identity experiences and how authors’ interpreted  
619 these. Through a storytelling approach, after analysing narrative structure, we identified two  
620 plots as best representing athlete narratives and author interpretations; *Re-birth*, and *Tragedy*.

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621           Our first contribution to knowledge is identifying a divergence between how identity  
622 is constructed and applied based on the lens it is discussed through (i.e. participant or author).  
623 For example, the supercrip narrative has often underplayed social barriers, where in the  
624 apparent need for elite athletes to ‘defeat’ their disability, there lacks clarity on whether: a) is  
625 this wanted by elite athletes? and b) if so, how do they approach this? This is due to a  
626 previous lack of coverage on the comprehensive aspects associated with identity in elite  
627 disability athletes and how this is then appraised by disabled people. The current study’s  
628 narrative plots, demonstrate that due to being wholly committed in their pursuit of athletic  
629 achievement, participants identify heavily with being elite athletes and were provided with  
630 status and recognition. For example, when showcasing their sporting ability, participants  
631 were immersed in their identity as an athlete and ability to look, act, and feel like an athlete  
632 (Hu et al., 2021). This aligned with dominant notions of identity and physicality, with McKay  
633 (2022) identifying that disability is a contested label for participants, whereas ‘athlete’ is a  
634 shared identity that is celebrated. Through being elite athletes, participants possessed  
635 desirable ‘able-bodied attributes’ of strength, fitness, skill, and competitiveness (Richardson  
636 et al., 2017; Perrier et al., 2012). This detached participants from negative connotations  
637 around disability (restriction, frailty), and aligned them with able-bodied athletes. Here, being  
638 an athlete contributed to disabled athletes’ self-worth, confidence, and management of ableist  
639 stigma, which may motivate athletes to be increasingly active in promoting disability rights  
640 (Cherney et al., 2015). This characterised the *Re-birth* plot surrounding elite disability athlete  
641 identity, and how overcoming challenges in sport developed traits for athletic success. Yet,  
642 this contrasted with the majority of the author interpretations, which when framed within a  
643 wider context (society), provided a negative outlook (*Tragedy*).

644           One key area concerned how disability had empowered participants to achieve elite  
645 sport status, however it was alignment with how able-bodied athletes were viewed that

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646 portrayed them more favourably. This often went unnoticed by participants and was made  
647 apparent by the authors, noting that fit able-bodied males were often the role models sought  
648 after. In the current review, we identified that meaning is heavily attached to identity  
649 construction through sporting achievement. Yet, participants were unaware of broader  
650 societal discourse, which did not come to light until participants' experienced critical  
651 moments (i.e., retirement issues, employment concerns). This may have been a way to  
652 'survive' within their personal journeys, but often resulted in being unprepared in taking steps  
653 to help them cope, regretting that they had not been more proactive (Bundon et al., 2018;  
654 Campbell, 2013; Day, 2013). Sport seemingly 'protected' participants from the severity of  
655 the challenges faced in a disabled person's daily life. The authors indicated the challenge for  
656 athletes to comprehend these, due to their sporting endeavours ('the individual has to contend  
657 with the difficulties of being accepted as an athlete by challenging dominating values, norms,  
658 and standards of the culture in which elite sport operates... for instance independency and  
659 individualism, which stand in sharp contrast to the meanings of dependency that disability is  
660 commonly associated with'; Wickman, 2007; p.163). This highlights the difficulty in  
661 participants maintaining an awareness of their identity within society, due to an inherent need  
662 to possess and maintain high levels of independency, and focus on their own strengths and  
663 skills to overcome adversity. As stated, this likely conflicts with connotations associated  
664 around society and how disability may be perceived. An exception to this, was Kirakosyan  
665 (2021), being the only study where both participant and author stories aligned, and  
666 highlighted both an awareness and explicit discussion of activism in and out of sport. This  
667 linked to the rationale for the current review, wherein Kirakosyan (2021) provided the  
668 opportunity to discuss alternative narratives that are often underrepresented in elite disability  
669 athletes. This included the unanimous dismissal of the supercrip ('superhero') due to it  
670 undervaluing sporting performance, and collective focus on active attempts to break down

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671 barriers and stereotypes, change societal attitudes, and create opportunities for all. Crucially,  
672 this pertained to both those with and without impairment and celebrated the individual stories  
673 of participants (with the author closely aligning). This study indicates a contemporary  
674 approach to exploring identity in elite disability sport.

675         To understand the lack of preparation for critical moments throughout their life, we  
676 question the narratives accessible to elite disabled athletes pre-, within-, and post-career and  
677 how this translates to the general population. Most apparent during sport retirement, the  
678 transition from being a disabled athlete to a disabled person is often more problematic than  
679 those able-bodied (see Patatas et al., 2018). Bundon et al. (2018) described this ‘buffering  
680 effect’, as exposing the profound disablism that often exists within society. Linking to our  
681 aims, the portrayal of identity by participant and author highlights both the social impact elite  
682 disability sport may have, but also its complex issues. Here, there may be value in reframing  
683 elite disability athletes as ‘educational’ figures, instead of ‘empowerment’ ones. What we  
684 mean by this, is the participants demonstrated a mixed response in relation to how disability  
685 was experienced in sport and were often unaware of societal impact, with the authors framing  
686 these within predominantly negative narratives. It was suggested that the participant has to  
687 either conform, fit in with ableist structures, or prove their value through an ability to work  
688 and contribute to sport and society. As such, empowering individuals may promote a  
689 medicalised understanding of disability by placing increased emphasis on the origins of  
690 thought and emotion residing in the individual, and para-athletes required to act as a form of  
691 empowerment for the disability community (Kolotouchkina et al., 2021). Here, disabled  
692 people may adhere to the cognitivist approach wherein if they do not possess the  
693 characteristics often exhibited by elite disability athletes (i.e., competitive, powerful,  
694 resilient), how can they expect to feel empowered or empower others? Empowerment is often  
695 accessed through reducing social barriers, changing perceptions of disability and stimulating

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696 political action (Barnes, 2014), which lends well to an elite disability sport level, where as  
697 demonstrated by the narratives, the participants have achieved mastery and success. This  
698 changed perceptions of what a disabled athlete is, as sport gave them recognition and to be  
699 seen on a level; yet, outside of this, there was minimal recognition from others and a lack of  
700 awareness from themselves. Furthermore, we are implying that empowerment is the  
701 fundamental goal here, whereby disabled people may not want to feel empowered or deem it  
702 is inappropriate to them. This highlights concerns raised by McPherson et al. (2016), where  
703 focus is increasingly aimed at sporting success and highlighting the value of elite para-sport  
704 competition. This is achieved through strengthening para-athletes as models of empowerment  
705 for the disability community and their ability to gain elite status. Yet, McPherson et al. argue  
706 that the contrast in coverage further complicates the normalization and representation of  
707 disability in para-sport, and may actually be contradictory.

708         With this in mind, the current review advocates for elite disability athletes to be  
709 viewed as educational figures. This highlights the second contribution to knowledge, by  
710 demonstrating the power of storytelling as a means of data analysis in qualitative research.  
711 Here, the lived experiences provide value through what the narratives do, incorporating both  
712 the ‘good’ and ‘bad’ ways in which stories act (Caddick, 2018). The good (*Rebirth*) and bad  
713 (*Tragedy*) stories act as educational pieces through providing individuals with the  
714 information to attach meaning to personal experience, which likely fosters a deeper  
715 awareness of how society, environment, and cultures may shape dominant sporting  
716 narratives. This is as opposed to employing elite disability athletes’ experiences as  
717 empowerment tools, resulting in disabled people being unable to feel part of them, and as  
718 such may struggle to feel empowered. As stated by Frank (2010), this limits the values people  
719 can hold and solely offers one perspective (elite disability sport), which closes down  
720 conversations as opposed to opening them up. In opening conversations up, it enables what

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721 Williams et al. (2021) identified in Frank's work: 'People do not simply listen to stories.  
722 They become caught up... stories get under people's skin. Once stories are under people's  
723 skin they affect the terms in which people think, know and perceive' (2010, p.48). As such,  
724 the current review argues how disabled people may not benefit from being empowered by  
725 elite disability athlete experiences; instead, providing a narrative structure, enables  
726 individuals to increasingly resonate and apply meaning to narratives, view alternate  
727 perspectives (participant and author), and comprehend how this affects their interpretation of  
728 identity. This is as opposed to feeling 'required' to view narratives through one lens, and the  
729 possibility that they either a) do not feel empowered, or b) feel empowered by the narrative,  
730 yet disheartened that this is an elite athlete and may not apply to them.

731 Future research should continue to integrate storytelling within disability sport, yet  
732 may wish to consider the use of alternative narrative approaches such as 'small stories'. Here,  
733 the small story (see Ronkainen & Ryba, 2020) focuses on narratives-in-interaction, how  
734 people use small stories, their inconsistencies and contradictions, and what is achieved by  
735 stories (Bamberg, 2011). From our perspective, future small-story research may provide  
736 varying storytelling possibilities that are on-going, and not solely presented as one finished  
737 coherent product, viewed through a singular lens. Here, studies may gather past, present, and  
738 future stories that range in size and meaning, to form a more comprehensive picture that  
739 considers wider societal context alongside elite disability sport, and how these influence  
740 identity on an ongoing basis. Understanding the context surrounding elite disability athletes  
741 and their disability identity will continue to update the existing gap in literature. In addition,  
742 studies adopting a similar approach to Kirakosyan (2021) may be warranted, exploring  
743 underrepresented narratives in disability and celebrating individuality, with authors providing  
744 coherence with this. A concentrated focus on the theoretical orientations adopted by studies  
745 may increase clarity surrounding the participant stories and author interpretations of these.

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746 The present review explored the stories of elite disability athletes and the role of  
 747 identity in elite disability sport. This encompassed how athletes tell and authors interpret  
 748 these stories, to understand identity construction meaning. The results provide a critical  
 749 insight into the journeys and challenges faced throughout the participants' careers and the  
 750 factors critical to these. The stories were most closely represented by the Re-birth and  
 751 Tragedy plots, which highlighted the success experienced by the participants in their own  
 752 journeys, but the potential 'bigger battle' that remained within society. This may offer key  
 753 information around 'future proofing' athletes for life beyond/outside of sport.

754 **Data Availability Statement**

755 Availability of data: Data openly available in a public repository that issues datasets with  
 756 DOIs

757 **References**

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