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ADHD and Counselling Skills: A reflective exploration and early experiences of a neurodivergent  
psychologist in-training

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### Abstract

This case study explores the early professional experiences of a psychologist in training with ADHD, offering insight into how neurodivergence shapes counselling skill development in sport and exercise psychology contexts. Departing from a deficit-oriented narrative, the case offers a balanced perspective on how ADHD-related differences, specifically in listening and attending, pragmatic communication, and creativity influence key principles of athlete-centred counselling, including the therapeutic relationship, attentional control, and adaptability in delivery. Practical strategies for managing challenges, such as curating delivery environments, using mindful grounding techniques, and areas for developmental focus, are discussed alongside reflecting the value of neurodivergent strengths like creativity and resourcefulness. Crucially, this case highlights the opportunity for supervisors, training providers, and professional bodies to play a transformative role in empowering neurodivergent practitioners. By challenging normative assumptions about trainee capabilities and foregrounding lived experience, the profession not only becomes more inclusive, but also enriched by the diverse perspectives and strengths neurodivergent practitioners bring to athlete support and counselling.

Keywords: Neurodiversity, practitioner, professional relationship, sport and exercise psychology

## The Trainee Practitioner

46

### Background and Approach to Practice

47

48 I (first author) identify as a white, cis-gender woman, am in my mid-twenties, and grew up in  
49 the United Kingdom. I studied sport and exercise psychology for four years at university, of which  
50 both my BSc and MSc degrees were accredited by the British Psychological Society (BPS). Upon  
51 completion, I chose to enrol on the Chartered Association of Sport and Exercise Sciences' (CASES;  
52 formerly BASES) Sport and Exercise Psychology Accreditation Route (SEPAR) to become a  
53 registered psychology practitioner with the Health and Care Professions Council (HCPC). In my  
54 continued practitioner development as part of the SEPAR program, I have taken part in practical,  
55 post-graduate level, profession-specific training including counselling skills, professional ethics, and  
56 equality, diversity, and inclusion. At the time of writing, I work on a freelance consultancy basis with  
57 individuals and sport organisations.

58 In my early consultancy practice, I adopt a person-centred approach (Rogers, 1959) –  
59 promoting congruence and authenticity, offering unconditional positive regard, and seeking an  
60 empathic understanding of my client's internal frame of reference. I develop interventions  
61 collaboratively, as dictated by a philosophical stance rooted in pragmatism and critical realism  
62 (Scambler, 2022). Through placing value in clients' internal and interpretation of experiences (i.e.,  
63 epistemological relativism) and acknowledging the objective and observable features of their  
64 interaction with the environment (i.e., ontological realism; Goldman & Gervis, 2025), I aim to offer  
65 support in which interventions are chosen collaboratively and with flexibility to meet clients' specific  
66 needs (i.e., pragmatism). For example, when working with a client whose goal is to increase their  
67 physical activity, I might draw on principles of motivational interviewing to better understand their  
68 motives for behaviour change. Then, I might encourage the client to adopt an ecological lens to  
69 consider the supportive and restrictive influences of their social and physical environment and  
70 implement changes accordingly.

71 **Self-Identifying as “Neurodivergent”**

72 “Only through openness can we create a positive community of practice that drives the field  
73 of sport and exercise forward” (Cotterill et al., 2016, p. 2)

74 It is with the above sentiment that I am choosing to disclose that I identify as  
75 “neurodivergent” and as a trainee sport and exercise psychologist with Attention-  
76 Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD). The term “neurodiversity” refers to the naturally occurring  
77 variations in how humans think, process information, and interact with the world around them  
78 (Walker, 2021). Neurodiversity can be understood from an evolutionary basis, similar to the idea of  
79 biodiversity (Singer, 1999). Distinctions are made between neurotypes; *neurotypical* – “having a  
80 cognitive profile or neurology which is statistically normal or average” and *neurodivergent* – “the  
81 position of being unusual, not having a typical cognitive ability profile or neurological presentation”  
82 (Doyle, 2024, p. 16). Neurodivergent encompasses neurominorities such as ADHD and dyslexia  
83 (Chapman, 2020).

84 In my teen years, I experienced mental health difficulties which severely impacted my ability  
85 to function in daily life, including periods of depression, anxiety, and disordered eating. After starting  
86 university, I felt I would benefit from additional support with the transition and began seeing a  
87 psychotherapist. Following three years of regular contact, my therapist asked if anyone had ever  
88 spoken to me about ADHD and suggested I seek an evaluation. Despite my education in psychology  
89 and long-term engagement with mental health services, I felt no identification with the possible label  
90 of “ADHD” and what, at the time, I believed ADHD to look like. Nor did I identify with being  
91 “neurodiverse” – a term I would not encounter for another couple of years. With some scepticism,  
92 but an underlying trust that the referral was made by someone who “knew” me, I pursued an  
93 assessment for ADHD and was positively diagnosed in 2021, aged 22. I felt confused as to why the  
94 diagnosis could have been missed for so many years and overwhelmed by a label which seemed life-  
95 long, compared to depression or anxiety which I perceived to be temporary – although debilitating –

96 states. With the continued support of psychotherapy, the long journey began to understand both what  
97 it means to have ADHD and disentangle my sense of self from the diagnostic traits and widely  
98 believed stereotypes attached to an enduring disorder.

99         Years later, in a reflective diary entry the day before my first one-to-one client session as a  
100 trainee sport and exercise psychologist, I wrote: *“I am concerned about how my ADHD may interfere*  
101 *with my ability to really listen to and engage with this client – and all clients, I suppose.”* And  
102 following, the self-affirmation that: *“My ADHD will not significantly interfere with my work as a*  
103 *practitioner.”* In my continuing professional development activities, I have noted and reflected upon  
104 observations that those skills and behaviours which are considered fundamental to ‘counselling’  
105 practice do not necessarily come easily to me, as a neurodivergent person. To quote myself, again:  
106 *“In my less confident moments I have questioned whether my neurodivergence is an un-overcome-*  
107 *able barrier to my working as a psychology practitioner”.* The following review of the literature and  
108 personal reflections seek to discredit my fears by offering relatable management strategies to support  
109 myself and my neurodivergent peers as sport and exercise professionals and help others to better  
110 understand us.

### 111 **A Neurodiversity Approach**

112         Aligned with my personal experience and beliefs, the present case study adopts a  
113 differences/abilities-oriented perspective to mental health pathology and acknowledges the  
114 heterogeneity within diagnosed conditions (Schleim, 2022). The legitimacy of diagnosis as a clinical  
115 practice is supported here as a route to facilitate treatment (where appropriate), understanding and  
116 self-compassion, and inclusion.

117         At this point it is important to highlight how the prevailing medical model’s approach and  
118 pathologising language can be experienced by many as stigmatising and harmful. Alternate frames of  
119 understanding, such as the social model (Oliver, 1990; UPIAS, 1976), instead posits that disability is  
120 not the result of a person’s abnormal or atypical pathology, but is the consequence of society’s



146 European Consensus Statement (Kooji et al., 2019) describes how “inattention” manifests in ADHD  
147 adults, demonstrated through high levels of distractibility and mind-wandering, being slower to  
148 process and formulate ideas, and a tendency to ‘hyperfocus’ on personally interesting or gratifying  
149 activities. “Hyperactivity” and “impulsivity” are experienced as a feeling of inner or mental  
150 restlessness leading to a difficulty relaxing, challenges with self-regulation of behaviour such as in  
151 verbal communication, and sensation- and novelty-seeking behaviours.

152 It is estimated that 3.5% of adults in the UK, and 5% of children under the age of 14 have  
153 ADHD (National Institute for Health and Care Excellence, 2022), making it among the most  
154 prevalent neurodevelopmental conditions. It should be noted, however, that there is considerable  
155 discord as to the accuracy of reported prevalence statistics because of age- and gender-related biases  
156 in identification and/or diagnosis (Faraone & Biederman, 2016). This potential inaccuracy, combined  
157 with a high rate of comorbidity with other conditions suggests that ADHD could remain undiagnosed  
158 in as many as 80% of affected individuals (ADHD UK, 2023). Despite the high prevalence among  
159 both children and adults, ADHDers can face suspicion, a lack of understanding, and stigma upon  
160 disclosure of their diagnosis. In recent years, the legitimacy of ADHD as a diagnosable condition in  
161 adults, particularly, has been questioned (e.g., Moncrief & Timimi, 2010). Indeed, a supposed  
162 “epidemic” of false-positive diagnoses aligns with the high prevalence of stigmatising  
163 misconceptions about the condition held by the public (Godfrey et al., 2021). While the purpose of  
164 the present case study article is not to evaluate or critique such narratives, it is important to  
165 acknowledge the impact they may have on those affected. Contemporary researchers have described  
166 how the stigma attached to a diagnosis of ADHD adds to the burden, leading to feelings of self-  
167 devaluation and alienation, withdrawal from social interactions, and the experience and anticipation  
168 of discrimination in occupational, educational, social, and societal domains (Masuch et al., 2019).

169 Recently, it has been proposed that the prevalence of ADHD among athletes may be higher  
170 than that of the general population (e.g., Hoare et al., 2023). This is hypothesised to be the result of

171 two factors: Firstly, that the well-documented beneficial effects of physical activity on challenging  
172 ADHD-related tendencies (e.g., mental or physical restlessness) lead to increased participation rates  
173 in childhood which persist through to adulthood (LaCount et al., 2022). And secondly, that the  
174 demands of an elite sport environment align favourably to common characteristics of neurodiverse  
175 individuals, such as intense focus, highly structured routines, reward sensitivity, and sport-specific  
176 strengths such as rapid, reactive, decision-making (Han et al., 2019). The aforementioned  
177 misjudgements have, unfortunately, also followed neurodivergent individuals into their sporting  
178 domains. Athletes with ADHD have reported feeling misunderstood by athletic staff, stereotype  
179 threat (i.e., underperformance due to fears of confirming negative stereotypes) and a reluctance to  
180 disclose their neurodiversity status (Brooks, 2023; O'Donnell, 2020). Meanwhile, suspicion around  
181 the validity of diagnoses and treatments have been exacerbated by the abundance of academic  
182 publications considering the performance enhancing properties of pharmaceutical treatments for  
183 ADHD (see Berezanskaya et al., 2022 for a comprehensive review).

#### 184 **Case Study Rationale**

185 Contemporary works have sought experiential understanding and to offer guidance on how to  
186 best support athletes with ADHD (e.g., Zöllner et al., 2025). However, the unique experiences of  
187 neurodivergent professionals in sport remain largely unknown. One could logically extrapolate that  
188 an increased occurrence of ADHD symptomology among athletes may be reflected, also, in those  
189 who choose to pursue careers in the sport and exercise domain (i.e., coaches, managers, support  
190 staff), as was suggested by Gökçen and colleagues' (2013) exploration of academic choices. To the  
191 authors' knowledge, such a demographic analysis among sport professionals has not been published  
192 in the literature, to date. The present case study aims to contribute to the growing applied literature  
193 which seeks to understand, include, and support neurodivergent individuals in sport – whether their  
194 role lies on or off the field.

#### 195 **Counselling Skills**

## 196 **Setting the Scene**

197           The main section of this case study considers three neurocognitive and behavioural  
198 differences associated with ADHD adults, namely listening and attending, pragmatic skills, and  
199 creativity. Each of the three differences are then put into context for counselling within the sport and  
200 exercise psychology field. The potential implications to the effectiveness and experience of one-to-  
201 one interactions are presented from the perspective of the practitioner, with the first author providing  
202 reflections of their lived experience. Following a summary of the neurocognitive differences,  
203 implications and reflections for counselling, the authors offer suggestions of empirically based  
204 strategies to support neurodiverse practitioners. A summary of the differences, implications, and  
205 suggested management strategies can be found in Table 1.

206           For the purposes of this case study, ‘counselling’ is understood as the collaborative interaction  
207 between a helping professional *practitioner* (e.g., sport & exercise psychologist) and a *client* (e.g.,  
208 athlete, coach) on a one-on-one basis, with a shared intention to achieve positive outcomes. In line  
209 with a Rogerian person-centred underpinning, the relationship between practitioner and client is  
210 referred to as the *therapeutic relationship*, and *athlete-centred counselling* denotes the contextual  
211 application of these principles to an athlete population, specifically. The authors draw upon adjacent  
212 fields such as psychotherapy, where applicable to the counselling context described, when discussing  
213 *counselling skills*; as here defined as practitioners’ behaviours and strategies which support and  
214 facilitate effective counselling outcomes (e.g., rapport, client outcomes).

### 215 **1. Listening and Attending**

#### 216 **Neurocognitive Differences: Working Memory and Inhibitory Control**

217           The most prominent neurocognitive differences inherent to ADHD concern executive  
218 functions; the collection of cognitive processes which allow individuals to take actions to achieve  
219 their goals, adapt appropriately to everyday demands, and manage social interactions (Cristofori et  
220 al., 2019). Executive ‘dysfunction’, relative to societally defined demands, has been consistently

221 shown to be highly prevalent in ADHD adults, supported by the identification of structural  
222 differences found in brain imaging studies (Adler et al., 2017). Differences in working memory, the  
223 multicomponent system which holds and manipulates verbal and visuospatial information, affect an  
224 individual's ability to process, reason, and problem solve associated with hypoactivity in the  
225 prefrontal cortex (Buschkuhl et al., 2014). Reduced working memory capacity manifests in  
226 challenges familiar to ADHDers such as following a conversation and generating appropriate  
227 responses, keeping track of time, and keeping track of one's belongings (Solanto, 2015).

228         A second important executive function which has been investigated as relevant to ADHD is  
229 inhibitory control. Contemporary conceptualisations consider inhibitory control to comprise of  
230 response inhibition – the withholding of a cognitive or behavioural impulse (i.e., impulsivity,  
231 Solanto, 2015) and interference control – the ability to resist distraction by irrelevant information  
232 (i.e., distractibility, Çelik et al., 2023). For ADHDers, reduced inhibitory control may lead to  
233 responding to a question before it's completed, a lack of consideration of the available options or  
234 consequences, or failure to ignore (or suppress a response to) irrelevant stimuli. When considering  
235 inhibitory control, it must be noted that many of the social environments in which we often discuss  
236 the need to control one's impulses are entirely dictated by societal and cultural norms and  
237 expectations of behaviour.

### 238 **Implications for Counselling Practice**

239         In their most recent edition of counselling skills and theory, Hough (2024) writes that:  
240 “Listening is by far the most important skill in counselling” (p. 44). However, striving to be a “good  
241 listener” is far from a straightforward endeavour; demonstrated by the abundance of structures  
242 involved in processing verbal and non-verbal communication (Ivey & Daniels, 2016). The practice of  
243 counselling in sport often differs from other domains due to the non-traditional settings in which  
244 service delivery takes place (Winter & Collins, 2016). It is commonplace for practitioners not to have  
245 access to physical spaces which are private, secluded, and free from distractions. For the

246 neurodiverse practitioner, an environment high in task-irrelevant stimuli presents a real challenge of  
247 interference control, whereby an excess of auditory and visual information to the perceptual system  
248 overwhelms attentional capacity.

249 As one of the three core conditions, a Rogerian person-centred approach to counselling  
250 emphasises the importance of empathic understanding, where the practitioner seeks an understanding  
251 of the client's "internal frame of reference" and the client perceives that understanding (Rogers,  
252 1959, p. 213). In short, the client is heard and feels heard (Murphy & Murphy, 2023). Should the  
253 client perceive attentional distractibility from the practitioner, and interpret this as disinterest, there  
254 could be negative consequences for the therapeutic relationship. The sport psychology practitioner  
255 with ADHD must therefore work harder than their neurotypical peers to overcome the compounding  
256 challenges of a functionally overstimulating environment and a predisposition to struggle with  
257 interference control.

### 258 **Reflections and Applied Strategies**

259 A few years ago, a psychiatrist used an analogy to explain to me the attentional and  
260 perceptual function of ADHD adults. They suggested I think of the perceptual system as a radar on a  
261 ship or aircraft; scanning the environment for data and alerting the operator to those deemed  
262 significant. They described the ADHD brain as having an overreactive or hypersensitive radar,  
263 overestimating the importance of considerable perceptual data and promoting 'unworthy' (i.e., task  
264 irrelevant) stimuli into conscious consideration by the operator. Although I am not appropriately  
265 placed to testify to the neurobiological nor engineering basis of the analogy, this comparison gave me  
266 an intuitive and self-compassionate lens through which to understand my tendency towards  
267 distractibility. And, importantly, a kind of framework to seek greater attentional control, firstly, to  
268 reduce the presence of task-irrelevant cues in the environment (i.e., minimising distractions), and  
269 secondly, decrease the sensitivity of the radar (i.e., internal state).

270 Through intentionally optimising our delivery environment to meet our own needs,  
271 practitioners with ADHD can reduce the attentional load placed on their perceptual system.  
272 Examples of facilitative adaptations could include removing visual distractions from their eyeline  
273 (e.g., a smartphone or laptop which might illuminate or vibrate), seeking out spaces free from  
274 intrusive noises, and, where appropriate, equipping the space with task-relevant cues. Suggestions for  
275 physical environment, as discussed by McCarthy and Moffat (2024), also included the potential  
276 utility of a wall clock in aiding the practitioner's pace and timing, without requiring an overt time-  
277 checking behaviour which could be negatively perceived by the client. Contemporary guidance  
278 suggests that practitioners do not place chairs directly 'face-to-face' (Miller & Rollnick, 2013),  
279 therefore leaving the client to choose between averting their gaze or making eye contact. I have  
280 found that, in professional and personal day-to-day contexts, when sitting too squarely in front the  
281 person with whom I'm speaking, my gaze tends to stray more from them to their surroundings. And  
282 where my gaze goes, my attention is primed to follow. In my case, and perhaps other practitioners  
283 with ADHD, I have found it attentionally beneficial to take the time to consider physical space  
284 elements before beginning a session.

285 Where adaptations to the environment are not achievable (e.g., when travelling with a team),  
286 strategies to adapt one's internal state presents an alternate self-management opportunity. With a  
287 philosophical grounding in Buddhist principles (Andersen & Williams, 2020), mindfulness has been  
288 defined as "paying attention in a particular way: on purpose, in the present moment and non-  
289 judgmentally" (Kabat-Zinn, 1994, p. 8). Siegel (2010) wrote how counsellors' mindfulness  
290 influences the therapeutic relationship quality via the characteristics of presence (i.e., attentiveness),  
291 "attunement" (to each other), and resonance (i.e., interpersonal connection; Henriksen et al., 2019).  
292 Specifically considering the experiences of trainee psychologists, researchers have suggested that  
293 mindful practice enhances their counselling-efficacy via their ability to be present, control their  
294 attention, and achieve a state of mental clarity (Holt, 2023). Specific examples of exercises which

295 may support a mindful internal state include a meditative body scan or sitting meditation (see  
296 Shapiro & Carlson, 2017), grounding oneself in the proximal environment, and focused breathing  
297 (e.g., Eisenbeck et al., 2018).

## 298 **2. Pragmatic Skills**

### 299 **Neurocognitive Differences: Turn-taking and Narrative Comprehension**

300 “Pragmatics” refers to the branch of linguistics concerning communication in social contexts;  
301 the appropriate use of language to comprehend ideas and interact effectively in social situations  
302 (Rad, 2014). The National Deaf Children’s Society (NDCS; 2025) describe three key pragmatic  
303 skills: 1) using language for different purposes (e.g., to inform, to greet, to question); 2) changing  
304 language according to the listener and context (e.g., public versus private spaces, an adult or a child,  
305 a novice or expert); and, 3) following conversational rules (e.g., turn-taking, managing changes in  
306 topic, and non-verbal cues). Although differences in general and pragmatic communication are not  
307 explicitly included in the diagnostic criteria for ADHD (Even-Simkin, 2024), statements included in  
308 self- and other-reported diagnostic assessments reflect pragmatic differences. For example, under the  
309 category of symptomatic behaviours indicating “Hyperactivity & Impulsivity” (DSM 5-TR; APA,  
310 2022), criterion include “often talks excessively”, “often blurts out an answer before a question has  
311 been completed” (i.e., turn-taking and presupposition), and “often interrupts or intrudes on others”.

312 Although our understanding of differences in pragmatic skills in ADHDers has predominantly  
313 come from investigating children’s communication, contemporary researchers have begun to  
314 consider the persistence of pragmatic differences into adulthood. Even-Simkin (2024) noted  
315 challenges specifically in pragmatic comprehension, relating to understanding of discourse and the  
316 ability to verbally describe figurative language components (e.g., idioms and metaphors). Similarly,  
317 ADHD adults reported significant difficulties regulating their behaviour in spoken interactions  
318 (Köder et al., 2024), manifesting in excessive talking, speaking without thinking first, and frequently  
319 interrupting others.

320 In much of the literature around communication and ADHD (and other neurominorities),  
321 there is a problematising of characteristic ADHD behaviours, as opposed to a consideration of the  
322 influence and value of societal expectations. In contrast, it has been suggested that the reduced  
323 efficiency of communication results from a mismatch of characteristic behaviours between  
324 neurodivergent and neurotypical communicators (Stones, 2023). In other words, the ‘fault’ or  
325 impairment is not with the neurodivergent individual, but an incongruence in the dyad’s  
326 conversational styles. The relative efficiency of communication both across and between different  
327 neurotypes is yet to be widely investigated, however researchers have suggested that neurotype-  
328 matched pairs communicated more accurately and developed stronger rapport than mixed-neurotype  
329 pairs (Jameson & Bean, 2025).

### 330 **Implications for Counselling Practice**

331 It is paramount that practitioners are mindful and self-evaluative of the consequences their  
332 communicative behaviours have on their client, the therapeutic relationship, and, in turn, therapeutic  
333 outcomes (Little et al., 2023). Violations of turn-taking conventions, such as through interrupting a  
334 client’s speech, have the potential to disrupt the building of rapport, with individuals who frequently  
335 interrupt judged, in modern societies, as rude and less likeable. The act of interruption itself has been  
336 considered a demonstration of power and dominance over the interruptee, untoward and violative, or  
337 even a hostile transgression upon another person's speaking rights (Drew, 2009). Aside from the risk  
338 of being negatively perceived by the client, ill-placed interruptions can functionally inhibit the  
339 practitioner’s ability to achieve empathic understanding of their client’s experience. For example, by  
340 jumping in with a question or observation before the client has fully explored their narrative. As a  
341 result, they may lose track of what they were saying or withhold a reflection or deeper emotional  
342 association which could have come to light after a momentary pause.

343 Fundamental to building rapport within the therapeutic relationship is endeavouring to  
344 establish an empathic understanding of the client’s internal frame of reference, including

345 “perceptions, ideas, meanings and the emotional-affective components” (Brodley, 1996, p. 22). One  
346 conceptualisation of empathy distinguishes between personal, affective, and cognitive types.  
347 Personal empathy refers to a holistic understanding of the individual in context, based on their  
348 experiences; affective describes an attunement to the emotional experiences of others both in the  
349 present moment and through their narratives; lastly, cognitive (factual) empathy is the capacity to  
350 understand and make sense of clients’ narratives (Watson, 2016). Each component relies on the  
351 pragmatic abilities of the practitioner, which may be more challenging for those whose  
352 neurodiversity-characteristic behaviours are misaligned with societal norms of communication.

353         Conversely, and considering the early research concerning communication between  
354 neurotypes and neurominorities; perhaps an atypical conversational and communication style could  
355 be beneficial to counselling outcomes. Although research findings are lacking in terms of ADHD,  
356 specifically, ADHDers anecdotally describe a relative sense of ease and comfort in their experiences  
357 of communicating with fellow ADHDers. For example, as much as I am prone to interrupting others,  
358 it does not bother me to be interrupted, and I do not experience interruptions and swift changes in  
359 conversation topic as disruptive or problematic for discourse. In fact, I have often found that I am  
360 drawn to, and form bonds quickly with individuals whose minds work rapidly and with whom  
361 conversation flows and moves dynamically in a way that feels natural to me. This is not to say that  
362 neurodivergent practitioners are not suited to work with neurotypical clients, rather, that their  
363 differing ways of thinking and communicating may be of additional benefit to building rapport and  
364 navigating conversation for neurodivergent clients.

### 365 **Reflections and Applied Strategies**

366         In consideration of the therapeutic relationship and empathic understanding, as is central to  
367 athlete-centred counselling, it would be remiss to overlook the contributions of active listening  
368 techniques. Active listening is a dynamic, non-directive process combining factual and emotional  
369 elements using techniques such as summarising, clarifying, paraphrasing, and reflecting (Katz &

370 Keys, 2020). These skills serve not only to support mutual understanding but also demonstrate the  
371 practitioner's genuine interest and valuing of the client, and to offer the opportunity for further  
372 reflection. As relevant to the pragmatic ability discrepancies which practitioners with ADHD may  
373 experience, the active listening skills of clarifying, summarising, and paraphrasing hold particular  
374 value. Clarification of the accuracy of understanding or terminology supports the practitioner's  
375 factual understanding, especially in cases where they may have a tendency towards presupposition.  
376 Subsequently, summarising and paraphrasing offer the practitioner an opportunity to share and verify  
377 understanding of the client's narrative in combination with implicit observations such as non-verbal  
378 cues. In using these techniques of inquiry, the practitioner with ADHD is further supported in  
379 overcoming difficulties in narrative comprehension and decoding figurative language.

380         The value of active listening techniques, however, could be undermined by poor timing of  
381 their deployment. Role playing, or scenario-based learning activities have long been considered a  
382 staple of practitioner training; offering an ethically responsible space to refine delivery skills and  
383 seek feedback from peers and more experienced practitioners (Fifer et al., 2008). Though some  
384 practitioners reported minimal engagement role-playing during their own training (McEwan & Tod,  
385 2015), the present advancements in professional routes and supervisory relationships (e.g., CASES'  
386 SEPAR and BPS' Qualification in Sport and Exercise Psychology programs in the UK) make such  
387 opportunities more abundant. For the trainee practitioner with ADHD, whose pragmatic  
388 communication skills may be less sophisticated, role-playing activities support competency  
389 development alongside coping strategies to manage unhelpful tendencies such as interrupting or  
390 overlooking narrative details. In their awareness of the value and collective willingness to facilitate  
391 additional role-playing experiences for their trainee(s) with ADHD, supervisors demonstrate an  
392 individualised, neuro-affirmative approach to support competency development.

393 “Clients should never be interrupted...counsellors need to keep questions in abeyance until  
394 the time is right to ask them...a counsellor who is truly listening will be in tune with  
395 unspoken invitations to speak.” (Hough, 2024, p. 59)

396 Through reading a handbook chapter about listening skills, I came across the above quote,  
397 and my heart sank. My tendency to interrupt others when they are speaking is the characteristic-  
398 ADHD tendency of which I am the most self-conscious. Like many others, as a child it was  
399 commonplace that I hear the phrase “*I hadn’t finished speaking*” or “*Wait your turn*”. More recently,  
400 during a training course on counselling skills, I anxiously anticipated taking part in role play  
401 exercises; where my peers’ feedback related to instances where I interrupted and had a too-fast pace.  
402 As disappointing as that felt, engaging in role plays and the feedback that followed were the elements  
403 of the course I found most valuable – over and above our discussions of theory, philosophy, and  
404 approach.

405 As I reflected on the sentiment above, the implication was that one cannot be an effective  
406 counsellor, nor be “truly listening”, without this sixth sense for the appropriate moment to speak,  
407 which, surely, not everyone possesses in equal measure. I searched for guidance: *If these skills don’t*  
408 *come naturally to me, how can I learn them?* Unfortunately, I was unable to find such guidance, nor  
409 any acknowledgement that diversity exists in the “innateness” of skills, such as conversational turn-  
410 taking, within the counselling literature. Anecdotally, I have been advised to take a whole breath  
411 before beginning to speak, or count to two, and I have come across similar questions posed by  
412 neurodivergent-identifying therapists and practitioners across social media. To be a truly neuro-  
413 inclusive profession, such skills must not be presumed as innate, as reflected by current literature.

### 414 **3. Creativity**

415 “Not all symptoms of ADHD are maleficent” (Sedgwick, 2019, p. 250).

416 The prevailing perspective, described as ‘deficits-oriented’ (Nordby et al., 2023),  
417 conceptualises ADHD as an amalgamation of neurological and behavioural deficits. Consequentially,

418 the burden faced by ADHDers may be worsened; subjected to stigma, prejudice, and criticism  
419 (Beaton et al., 2022). In the inclusion of creativity as a positive difference associated with ADHD,  
420 the authors seek to embody an ability-oriented perspective and highlight the value of diversity within  
421 society (Garland-Thompson, 2012), and by extension, our profession.

### 422 **Neurocognitive Differences**

423 Creativity is a complex, multifaceted concept, referring to processes, personal characteristics,  
424 and results (e.g., a creative product). Creativity is here defined as ingenuity in producing relevant and  
425 effective novelty (Cropley, 2020); the ability to create something original and of particular contextual  
426 use. Adults with ADHD have consistently cited creativity as a core positive aspect of ADHD. They  
427 describe themselves as imaginative and inventive, with an analytic style characterised by  
428 unconventional perspectives; an ability to ‘see’ connections and associations that others might miss  
429 (Nordby et al., 2023). In their problem-solving, ADHD adults describe non-conformity and  
430 flexibility, characterised by resourcefulness and courage in seeking out alternative solutions  
431 (Sedgwick, 2019).

432 Such self-appraisals find support in the quantitative literature. In a series of experiments  
433 comparing college students with and without ADHD, White and Shah (2011) demonstrated that  
434 ADHDers excelled at idea generation and divergent thinking, the ability to generate multiple ideas  
435 from a singular starting point, as predictive of creative potential. More recently, White (2020) found  
436 that students with ADHD were less constrained by previous knowledge during tasks of conceptual  
437 expansion. Further, albeit indirect, corroboration is found in neuroscience research (Hoogman et al.,  
438 2020). Similar activation (and inactivation) can be observed across brain regions associated with  
439 both creativity and an ADHD pathology, such as the default mode network and pre-frontal cortex.

### 440 **Reflections and Implications for Counselling Practice**

441 Although not traditionally considered a ‘creative’ profession, calls have been made to  
442 incorporate the consideration of creativity into counselling education and suggestions made that



467 In lieu of deficit-oriented or “superpower” narratives, the present case study sought to offer a  
468 balanced perspective as to the implications of ADHD characteristics on sport and exercise  
469 psychology counselling (Bertilsdotter Rosqvist et al., 2023). In combination with reflections upon  
470 early consultancy experiences, differences in listening and attending (i.e., working memory and  
471 inhibitory control), pragmatic communication (i.e., turn-taking and narrative comprehension), and  
472 creativity (i.e., divergent thinking and conceptual expansion) were discussed as applicable to  
473 principles of athlete-centred counselling: the therapeutic relationship, attentional control, and  
474 dynamic approaches to consultancy.

475 For the practitioner with ADHD, the suggested strategies may offer a means to manage  
476 tendencies that have the potential to disrupt therapeutic outcomes. Firstly, distractibility may be  
477 reduced by curating the delivery environment and using mindful grounding techniques. Similarly, for  
478 the practitioner who finds it challenging to accurately follow a narrative or manage turn-taking in  
479 conversation, an increased developmental focus on role-play exercises and active listening  
480 techniques could support fostering the therapeutic relationship. Lastly, an appreciation of the positive  
481 impact that one’s own experience of ADHD might have in counselling contexts, such as  
482 inventiveness and resourcefulness, facilitates self-compassion and efficacy.

483 ADHDers, like other neurominorities, are far from a homogenous group. There is  
484 heterogeneity in neurobiology (e.g., Wolfers et al., 2020), and clinically, historical distinctions were  
485 made between those presenting with and without ‘hyperactivity’ (Brown, 1995). In addition, attempts  
486 to label sub-types and groups (Nigg et al., 2010; Martel et al., 2010) and heterogeneity is also likely  
487 influenced by cooccurring conditions, such as with autism. Although the authors do not advocate,  
488 necessarily, for attempts to dichotomise and label the wide array of characteristics which are  
489 attributed to being an ADHDer. The point remains that there is variation in how ADHD is  
490 experienced by individuals, and thus, variation in the type of support which will be most effective.

491           Rather than placing the onus wholly on the neurodivergent practitioner themselves;  
492 supervisors, professional bodies, and training providers can be a valuable source of support through  
493 their understanding and appreciation of individual differences. This is particularly emphasised, given  
494 the links between ADHD and sport involvement, and the intuitive extrapolation to sporting  
495 professions. It is therefore crucial that assumptions are not made regarding the traits a trainee sport  
496 and exercise psychologist inherently possesses (e.g., conversational turn-taking), thus risking the  
497 exclusion of those whose characteristics do not conform to societal norms and expectations. We hope  
498 by highlighting and encouraging the voices of other neurodivergent practitioners, the value of  
499 diversity within our profession becomes evident and inclusive pathways for entry and training can be  
500 championed.

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**Table 1.** Summary of the relationship between differences, implications for counselling practice, and suggested management strategies for the neurodivergent practitioner.

<b>Neurocognitive and communication differences in persons with ADHD</b>	<b>Implications for counselling practice</b>	<b>Applied strategies</b>
<b>Listening and attending</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Working memory</li> <li>• Inhibitory control</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Distractibility</li> <li>• Attentional control</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Optimising the delivery environment</li> <li>• Mindfulness techniques</li> </ul>
<b>Pragmatic skills</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Turn-taking</li> <li>• Narrative Comprehension</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Therapeutic relationship</li> <li>• Empathic understanding of client's experience</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Active listening skills: Clarifying, summarising, and paraphrasing</li> <li>• Developmental focus on role-plays</li> </ul>
<b>Creativity</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Divergent thinking</li> <li>• Conceptual expansion</li> <li>• Overcoming knowledge constraints</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Unconventional perspectives and representations</li> <li>• Dynamic problem solving: Flexible and resourceful</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Analytic professional judgement and decision-making</li> <li>• Imaginative and inventive resources</li> <li>• Variable and adaptable delivery styles</li> </ul>