copyright.

BMJ Open Sport & Exercise Medicine

Neurodiversity in elite sport: a systematic scoping review

Erin Hoare ⁽¹⁾, ^{1,2} Jonathan Reyes, ^{2,3,4} Lisa Olive, ^{1,5,6,7} Catherine Willmott, ^{2,3,4} Emma Steer, ⁸ Michael Berk, ^{1,6,7,9,10} Kate Hall^{2,5}

ABSTRACT

The objective of this systematic scoping review is to

neurodiversity in elite sport. This systematic scoping

mentary and viewpoints papers, systematic review

and meta-analyses, and any intervention or clinical

treatment, management and practice studies in relation

to neurodiversity in elite sport. Case studies and grey

literature were ineligible for review. Neurodivergence

included neurodevelopmental disorders such as autism

(ADHD) and specific learning disorders. Elite sport was

defined as Olympic. Paralympic. national, international.

studies included in this review comprised 10 observational

studies. 4 systematic/narrative reviews. 6 commentary/ position statements and 3 gualitative studies. The literature reflected a major focus on ADHD as a risk factor for

concussion and prognosis for postconcussion recovery.

Further, there was a focus on the medical management

autism in athletes in elite sport settings through qualitative

elite athletes, with ADHD emerging as a major risk factor.

of ADHD, regarding adherence to sporting antidoping

regulations. One study focused on the experience of

interviews. One study focused on anxiety disorders in

There is a strong rationale for future research to build

on the evidence for neurodiversity in elite sport to foster supportive and inclusive elite sporting environments.

professional and semiprofessional sport. The final 23

spectrum disorder, attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder

review considered epidemiological studies, com

understand the extent and scope of evidence regarding

To cite: Hoare E, Reyes J, Olive L. et al. Neurodiversity in elite sport: a systematic scoping review. BMJ Open Sport & Exercise Medicine 2023;9:e001575. doi:10.1136/ bmjsem-2023-001575

 Additional supplemental material is published online only. To view, please visit the iournal online (http://dx.doi. org/10.1136/bmjsem-2023-001575).

Accepted 24 May 2023

INTRODUCTION

Mental health in elite sport is increasingly recognised as a foundation for performance and well-being of athletes,¹⁻³ however, there is little evidence summarising the state of evidence in relation to neurodiversity in this unique setting. Neurodiversity affirming practice is a strengths-based approach to education and ability.45 The term neurodiversity has emerged in response to the potential stigmatisation of medical diagnoses, and the recognition of the need for social models of disability and strengths-based approaches in understanding experiences and assets of neurodivergent groups. There is debate in the literature as to the appropriate language used for referring to neurodivergent populations.⁶⁷ While medical and scientific experts

WHAT IS ALREADY KNOWN ON THIS TOPIC

- \Rightarrow There is community and scholarly shift towards understanding neurodiversity from a strengths-based approach, which recognises differences in cognition, social learning and other behaviours as variations in the context of human neurodevelopment.
- \Rightarrow There is yet to be a synthesis of evidence summarising the state and scope of evidence relating to neurodiversity in elite sport.

WHAT THIS STUDY ADDS

 \Rightarrow The findings of this systematic scoping review indicate that while neurodivergence is present in elite sport, there is very limited research in this space to date

HOW THIS STUDY MIGHT AFFECT RESEARCH, PRACTICE OR POLICY

- \Rightarrow Practice implications of the evidence gap are that neurodiversity inclusive practices are not evidence informed in sport.
- \Rightarrow The needs of neurodivergent athletes may be overlooked and the environmental, social, and emotional needs of neurodivergent athletes are vet to be defined and identified in the scientific literature.

have historically viewed person-first language (ie, person with autism) as most appropriate, this has been opposed by many individuals in the autism community who advocate identityfirst language as least harmful (ie, autistic person).⁶ Research supports the preferred use of identity-first language for a proportion of individuals.⁸ Both person-first and identityfirst language are used throughout this work to reflect the diversity in preference regarding language.79

Neurodiversity assumes there are variations in cognition, social learning and other behaviours which are normal variations in the context of human neurodevelopment. It is recognised there is ongoing discussion among academic, community and practitioner communities relating to consensus in the definition of neurodiversity, neurodivergence and

permitted under CC BY. For numbered affiliations see

employer(s)) 2023. Re-use

C Author(s) (or their

Published by BMJ.

end of article.

Check for updates

Correspondence to Dr Erin Hoare: erin.hoare1@deakin.edu.au



1

neurotypicality.^{10–12} For this systematic scoping review, neurodiversity refers to the broad range of cognitive, behavioural, social and emotional presentations across individuals. Neurodivergence is used as a broad term incorporating autism spectrum disorder, attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) and other neurodevelopmental conditions including specific learning disorders. It is also accepted that heterogeneity exists in presentations of neurodivergence, and that aggregating evidence must be in the context of such heterogeneity.^{12 13} As per the American Psychiatric Association Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, ADHD is characterised by differences of inattention and/or hyperactivity impulsivity that interferes with functioning or development.¹⁴ Autism is characterised as social communication differences, and restricted, repetitive and/or sensory behaviours or interests. ADHD and autism have been overlooked in the broader context of elite athlete mental health,¹⁵ and there is a broader need to understand the unique experiences of neurodiversity.¹⁶

It has been estimated that the prevalence of autism is approximately 0.70%-3% in those under 18 years, although prevalence estimates vary.¹⁷ Approximately 5%-11% of those under the age of 18 years have been diagnosed with ADHD.¹⁷ Specific learning disorders have been proposed to occur at about 3%-10% of the global population.¹⁷ The historical context of neurodevelopmental conditions is important to consider when assessing prevalence of neurodivergence. As an example, diagnostic criteria have traditionally overlooked the specific characteristics for women and girls such as masking, leading to very large proportions (estimated around 80% in some studies) to be misdiagnosed.^{18 19} Masking or camouflaging, whereby neurodivergent individuals adopt neurotypical traits to adapt to environmental or other challenges, is a known concept through which neurodivergence can go under-recognised.²⁰ Masking is a social compensation or coping strategy and may be used in environments where neurodivergent behaviours are not accepted or understood in order to belong or avoid stigma or bullying.²¹ The cognitive and emotional efforts of masking have been associated with stress, anxiety, depression and exhaustion.^{22 23}

Elite sport is a setting of interest given the increasing understanding and importance of mental health and well-being among athletes, and the extant evidence to date in the field.^{3 24 25} There has been suggestion that the demands of elite sport, such as intense focus and structure for training regimes, high energy expenditure, structured play and particular personality and cognitive requirements and strengths, may appeal particularly to the unique abilities of neurodivergent groups, respectfully noting that heterogeneity that exists within neurodivergent groups.²⁶ As an example, the organised way in which social interaction occurs in sport may be protective for those with social-emotional reciprocity differences, enhanced by the predictability of peer socialisation within sport. Conversely, there are known

BMJ Open Sport Exerc Med: first published as 10.1136/bmjsem-2023-001575 on 15 June 2023. Downloaded from http://bmjopensem.bmj.com/ on April 27, 2024 by guest. Protected by copyright.

behavioural, cognitive, sensory and other needs of neurodivergent individuals that may be exacerbated in the elite sport setting.

The research relating to best practice regarding mental health and well-being in elite sport is rapidly evolving, such as with the publication of the International Olympic Committee Consensus Paper on mental health in elite athletes, and the promotion of best practice frameworks for prevention and promotion in elite sport settings.^{24 25} Given the large proportion of neurodivergent individuals across the general population and the unique stressors and characteristics of elite sport, it is important that the state of neurodiversity in elite sport is assessed. This will allow the needs of these individuals to be incorporated into future best practice so that sporting environments adapt to meet the needs of neurodivergent athletes and the health and well-being of neurodivergent athletes is understood and supported by sporting organisations.

Overall, this systematic scoping review aimed to understand the current state of knowledge in the elite sport field in relation to neurodiversity, including what key characteristics or factors relating to neurodiversity in elite sport have been identified, and in turn, to establish the knowledge gaps.

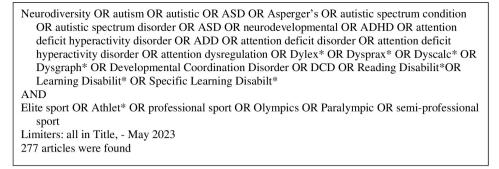
METHODS

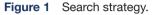
Protocol and registration

This systematic scoping review was informed by Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) Extension for Systematic Scoping Reviews (checklist attached as online supplemental table 1). This systematic scoping review was prospectively registered on Open Science Framework on 12 August 2022 (osf.io/36w7m).

Eligibility criteria

Studies were eligible for review if they examined neurodivergence in elite sport. Neurodivergence included autism, ADHD and learning disorders including dyslexia, dyscalculia and dysgraphia (now known as specific learning disorders). Studies that considered other recognised neurodiversity areas of interest (eg, Tourette syndrome) were eligible for review. Elite sport was defined as Olympic, Paralympic, national, international, professional and semiprofessional athletes and the systems in which they train and compete (ie, elite coaching, elite sport leadership, professional sporting organisational research were eligible for review). Study types eligible for review included observational, intervention, perspective or commentary studies and reviews. Case studies and reviews of case studies were ineligible for review, as was grey literature. Exclusion criteria were studies that focused on sport participants not in elite categories as above (ie, community level, general population), non-English language publications, and studies that included neurodiversity in the aims and objectives but failed to report on outcomes relating to neurodiversity (eg, one study included ADHD in search terms but did not report on findings related to neurodiversity and was therefore excluded).²⁷





Search strategy

The following databases were searched to identify all relevant literature; Academic Search Complete, CINAHL Complete, Health Source-Nursing and Academic Edition, MEDLINE Complete, APA PsycINFO and Sport-DISCUS with full text, all accessed via EBSCOHost. Keywords were related to neurodiversity, autism, ADHD, neurodevelopmental and elite sport key words (figure 1). All English language publications since journal inception until 12 May 2023 that met the above criteria were eligible for review. Figure 1 describes the search strategy used in this systematic scoping review. We extended this search strategy to examine all reference lists of identified studies to ensure all relevant literature was sourced. We also examined all included studies within identified literature reviews and used this strategy to allow iterative searches to identify any further possible literature (ie, if a study appeared relevant the reference list of that particular study was also screened).

Title and abstract screening were completed by one author (EH), following which full text screening occurred with articles that appeared eligible. A second reviewer screened 10% of articles to ensure consistency (JR). A third reviewer (LO) was consulted for discrepancies. Reference lists of identified reviews were screened to identify any further possible articles eligible for review. PRISMA flow chart for article selection is presented in figure 2.

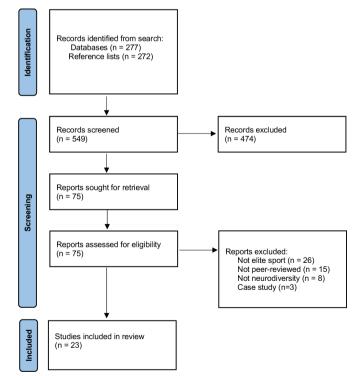
Data items

A data extraction tool was developed which extrapolated data on study author, year, country, type of evidence (observational, review, longitudinal, experimental, qualitative, viewpoint/commentary, other), study aims, participants, findings and overall implications for the study of neurodiversity in elite sport settings. The data extraction tool was used to report the summary of results in online supplemental table 2.

RESULTS Study characteristics

A summary of studies reviewed is presented in table 1. Online supplemental table 2 describes overall findings. Of the 277 articles identified in the above search, and 272 articles screened through reference lists of identified studies, there were 76 that met criteria for full-text review. On full-text screening, there were 23 studies that were identified as eligible and were subsequently included in this review. Online supplemental table 3 reports on the excluded articles and reasons for exclusion. Generally, articles were excluded due to not being elite sport focused (eg, community-level, school-level sport) and not focusing on neurodivergence (eg, neuropsychological assessment in the general population) (online supplemental file 3). Most of the reviewed literature was published in the last decade since 2012. One study examined specific learning disorders.²⁸

The most frequent study design was observational with 10 studies (48%) examining athlete cohorts through surveys, medical examination data or other routinely collected information regarding athlete health and well-being.^{28–37} Of the observational studies, six were conducted in the USA,^{28 31 32 35–37} one was conducted



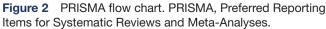


Table 1 Summary of	Summary of studies included in the review	view		55
Author, year	Study type	Focus	Sources	Implications
Åkesdotter, 2020 ²⁹	Observational	ADHD	College athletes	Prevalence
Alosco, 2014 ³¹	Observational	ADHD	College athletes	Concussion screening, treatment, management
Beidler, 2021 ³²	Observational	ADHD	College athletes	Concussion screening, treatment, management
David, 2022 ³³	Observational	ADHD	Professional footballers	Concussion screening, treatment, management
Ekman, 2021 ³⁰	Observational	ADHD	Youth athletes	Prevalence
Gunn, 2022 ²⁸	Observational	ADHD	College athletes	Concussion screening, treatment, management
Manderino, 2018 ³⁵	Observational	ADHD	College athletes	Concussion screening, treatment, management
Manderino, 2019 ³⁶	Observational	ADHD	College athletes	Concussion screening, treatment, management
Nelson, 2016 ³⁷	Observational	ADHD	College athletes	Concussion screening, treatment, management
Li, 2021 ³⁴	Observational	ADHD	College athletes	Anxiety management
Kutcher, 2011 ³⁸	Review	ADHD	Published literature	Medical treatment
Stewman, 2018 ³⁹	Review	ADHD	Published literature	Prevalence
Han, 2019 ²⁶	Review	ADHD	Published literature	Prevalence and treatment
White, 2015 ⁴⁰	Review	ADHD	Published literature	Sport performance
Garner, 2018 ⁴¹	Commentary	ADHD	Published literature and professional expertise	Treatment
Parr, 2011 ⁴²	Commentary	ADHD	Published literature and professional expertise	Lived experience and treatment
Putukian, 2011 ⁴³	Position statement	ADHD	Published literature and professional expertise	Treatment and management
Pujalte, 2023 ⁴⁵	Position statement	ADHD	Published literature and professional expertise	Diagnosis and management
Reardon, 2016 ⁴⁴	Commentary	ADHD	Published literature and professional expertise	Management
Ciocca, 2019 ⁴⁶	Commentary	ADHD	Published literature and professional expertise	Treatment
Duquesne, 2022 ⁴⁸	Qualitative	Autism	Elite table tennis players and track and field athletes	Lived experience
Palmer, 2003 ⁴⁹	Qualitative	ADHD	College athletes	Lived experience
Cushing, 2020 ⁴⁷	Qualitative	ADHD	College athletes	Lived experience, treatment and management
ADHD, attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder.	/peractivity disorder.			

6

in Canada,³³ two in Sweden,^{29 30} one in China.³⁴ The remaining studies were systematic or narrative reviews,^{26 38-40} commentary/position statements⁴¹⁻⁴⁶ and qualitative studies,⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ conducted in the USA^{47 49} and France.⁴⁸ In terms of populations studied within the review literature, most work focused on college athlete groups, primarily in the USA.^{28 31 32 35–37 47 49} Professional Canadian footballers were studied in one reviewed publication.³³ One study focused on Swedish national athletes applying for university sporting scholarships.²⁹ Another study examined Swedish youth who were enrolled in the Swedish national sports talent programme.³⁰ French elite table tennis and track and field athletes were studied in another included paper.⁴⁸

Findings in reviewed studies

Concussion

The literature to date on neurodivergence in elite sport has largely focused on ADHD, and specifically on the screening, treatment and management of concussion among elite athletes with ADHD.^{28 31–33 35–37} Among the college athlete population, ADHD has been examined as a risk factor for previous and future concussion. The diagnosis of ADHD has been shown to impact baseline screening performance on concussion assessments and was further implicated in the subsequent treatment and management outcomes following a concussion.^{31 32 36} ADHD appears to co-occur with greater rates of single and multiple concussions, and the validity of concussion assessments may differ among those with ADHD compared with neurotypical peers.^{35 36}

Prevalence

Prevalence studies suggest the elite athlete population may present with ADHD at greater rates than that observed at the general population level.^{26 29 30 39} There is suggestion that ADHD may provide competitive advantage in elite sport, such as rapid reaction and attention diversion to random emerging stimuli.⁵⁰ There was evidence for this finding earlier in life: one study examined whether ADHD was more present among youth athletes in the national Swedish sports talent programme, compared with non-athletes, finding that athletes displayed greater alignment with ADHD criteria.³⁰ Interestingly, this study found that the ADHD criteria were observed at a higher level in the education setting for athletes, compared with the sporting environment.³⁰

Treatment

There has also been a focus on the safe and effective medical treatment of athletes with ADHD.^{26 38 41 43 45-47} Specifically, this body of research has examined the role of stimulants in medicating ADHD symptoms, and the potential to conflict with sport doping codes. Indeed, research identified through this review examined the need for appropriate treatment strategies for ADHD, in the context of high performance and ensuring athlete health and well-being generally.^{40 42 45 46} A recent position

statement from the American Medical Society for Sports Medicine highlighted the need for physicians to strive for early diagnosis, multidisciplinary supports and other supports to allow athletes to successfully compete in elite sport.⁴⁵

Qualitative research

There were three studies that considered the qualitative lived experience of autistic athletes and athletes with ADHD.^{47–49} The focus of the qualitative studies, all conducted with elite athletes through interviews, was to understand the lived experience of neurodivergence in elite sport, and specifically how their diagnosis impacts their ability to engage in high-performance sporting settings. They considered whether there were specific barriers to excelling in elite sport, relative to living with ADHD and autism. Just one study of the included 23 papers focused on autism in elite sport, which specifically examined the lived experience of autistic French elite table tennis players and track and field athletes through qualitative interview.48 Findings across qualitative studies suggested the need for sporting organisations to ensure flexibility to meet the needs of neurodivergent athletes. Athletes identified a range of challenges including lack of understanding of neurodiversity in sporting contexts, coping mechanisms associated with diagnosis and positive benefits of being engaged in sports such as inclusion.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this systematic scoping review indicate that while neurodivergence is likely to be present in elite sport there is very limited research in this space to date. Most studies identified through this review focused exclusively on ADHD in college athlete populations based in the United States. There was a specific focus on the role of ADHD as a risk factor for concussion, and the subsequent management of athletes with ADHD in concussion screening, treatment and management. There was also a focus on the appropriate treatment and management of symptoms of ADHD in athlete populations. Specifically, these studies considered the appropriateness of stimulant medications for the treatment of ADHD symptoms among athletes, and specifically considered in the context of adherence to sporting doping codes to which stimulants are typically banned. A smaller body of research focused on the lived experience of athletes, identifying that the unique experiences of athletes with ADHD and autism warrant careful consideration in terms of providing tailored supports to athletes for health, performance and well-being. Most of the literature to date has examined college athlete populations, based in the USA. Just one study examined autism in elite sport, examining the lived experiences of French elite table tennis and track and field athletes. Notably, there were no studies of sports adopting practices or approaches informed by an understanding of the social, cognitive and environmental needs of neurodivergent athletes.

Findings in the context of existing knowledge

The lack of literature examining neurodivergence in elite sport reflects the dearth in research examining mental health and well-being generally in athlete populations. There have been recent calls to action to establish frameworks to support athlete mental well-being, that go beyond building mental health literacy, to providing systems that support and enable athletes to reach their athletic and non-athletic potential.^{24 51} There are additional sport-specific risks (eg, media scrutiny, performance and training pressures) that athletes experience that may place them at risk for poorer mental health outcomes.³ There is ongoing need to further understand the prevalence, experiences and outcomes of elite athletes, specifically regarding mental health and, as identified in this review, among neurodivergent populations.

Research to date has focused on the association between concussion and clinical outcomes among individuals with ADHD. Among community-level athletes, premorbid ADHD is found to be associated with greater symptom report,⁵² and worse cognitive performance at baseline assessment,⁵³ as well as a greater prevalence of having a previous concussion⁵² and a greater propensity to incur concussion within the sporting season.⁵⁴ Findings regarding protracted recovery following sportsrelated concussion, however, remain mixed^{52 55} possibly due to the lack of research with well controlled methodology. In a systematic review by Cook et al including 14 studies constituting 3623 participants (n=359 (9.9%) with ADHD), the authors found only two studies with a statistical association between ADHD and prolonged recovery-with both studies having limited sampling (21 participants total).⁵⁶ Of note, only one other study in the review was designed specifically to examine ADHD and protracted recovery post sports-related concussion without any significant findings.⁵⁶

Interestingly, it has been suggested that ADHD is more prevalent in athlete populations than non-athlete populations^{26 29 30 45 46} although prevalence data to confirm this are limited. Pagani et al argued that the demands of competitive sport (eg, intense dedication, structured regimens, high physical stamina requirements) may have a protective role for individual attributes of people with ADHD (eg, need for energy outlet, need for routine, hyperfocus, high energy stores) thereby increasing the prevalence of ADHD in sport disproportionally to the population.⁵⁷ It is also possible that athletes with ADHD are more likely to succeed in terms of performance in elite sport given the inherent traits and characteristics of ADHD. Hyperfocus and rapid reaction to changing stimuli has been reported to occur among people with ADHD when there is an immediate source of feedback, and when the individual is highly stimulated and can ignore other distractions.⁵⁸ It is conceivable that these skills are likely to be highly advantageous in elite sport settings which require rigorous training and focus, structured skill development, responding to feedback and

other goal orientated behaviours. Conversely, it is also likely that there may be limiting aspects to neurodivergence in the context of elite sport such as uncertainty and changing environments, which may pose unique challenges to such groups.^{59 60} Ultimately, further research is needed to explore such experiences, recognising the heterogeneity that exists within neurodivergent groups which requires research centred on lived experiences and community participatory action research in which researchers and community members are equal partners.

It is of interest that there was so little research examining autism in elite sport, given the high prevalence reported globally and the high co-occurrence rate with ADHD.⁶¹ Indeed, much of the excluded literature in this current review related to autism in sport, although at the community and school levels. There is likely improved psychological well-being, cognitive and physical health outcomes among autistic individuals as a result of physical activity and sport participation.⁶² The historical context of autism is relevant to this current review in that there is evidence to suggest high rates of misdiagnosis, and in particular misdiagnosis among women, and among adult presentations of autism.⁶³ ⁶⁴ For example, diagnostic processes have been refined and altered corresponding to improved understandings of autism presentations among women, who have historically been overlooked in autism diagnostic criteria.⁶⁵ It is, therefore, possible that the lack of evidence to date examining autism in athlete populations relates to historical poor diagnostic understanding, reduced access to experienced professionals and through other socio-cultural mechanisms such as stigma at the general population level. In the general community, an autistic individual may develop masking techniques and other coping mechanisms to manage their symptoms in adult and later life.²⁰ The consequences of masking behaviours with anxiety, stress, depression and lifetime suicidality have been established.⁶⁶ Indeed, common mental disorders are highly prevalent in older populations who have misdiagnosed autism.⁶⁷ Taken together, the current findings identify a current unmet need in understanding autism in the elite sport setting.

Gaps in evidence

The available literature regarding neurodivergence in elite sport is limited, and of the evidence that does exist, this relates almost exclusively to concussion experienced by ADHD athletes, and the medical treatment of ADHD in the context of antidoping regulations. There is some evidence relating to the lived experience of neurodivergent athletes, but again this mostly related to ADHD. There was a gap in evidence in autism in elite sport across all study types. Further, while there were some prevalence, treatment and management studies (at least for ADHD), there were no identified intervention or clinical practice focused studies on supporting the neurodivergent athletes regarding specific needs.

Notably, there were no studies focused on environmental practices to support adaptions in the elite sport setting for neurodivergent needs. This is inconsistent with present ethos in community and education which advocates for environmental adaptions in line with strengths-based approaches for neurodiversity inclusivity.^{11 68} As a practical example, education of coaches and performance staff around sensory, emotional and cognitive needs of neurodivergent athletes is required. Healthcare staff such as sports physicians, physiotherapists and other professionals would likely benefit from such education. This was a particularly important finding given the shift towards psychological safety in sport which values the individuality of athletes, and the recommended systemic approaches to athlete well-being which promote cultures of inclusivity.^{24 69} It can be surmised the needs of autistic athletes may be overlooked and the environmental, social and emotional needs of neurodivergent athletes are yet to be defined and identified in the scientific literature. Practice implications of this evidence gap are that evidence-based neurodiversity inclusive practices are limited in elite sport.

It remains unclear whether ADHD, for example, confers any advantages to elite athletes, although literature has suggested this is possible.⁴⁵ It is conceivable that hyperactivity in a classroom may be commonly observed as a disadvantage, whereas the sports field these skills may be an advantage. The same might apply to increased reactivity to ambient stimuli. Autism can confer deep interest and focus on singular topics that could be perceived to be disadvantage in a social setting, but possibly an advantage in a domain requiring singular focus and diligence.⁷⁰ The above considerations are yet to be explored in the elite sport literature to date but are warranted given the potential for strengths-based approaches.⁷¹ There is also the consideration that the significant transitions experienced in elite sport, such as the transition to postcareer retirement, may hold unique implications for neurodivergent individuals. This further justifies the need for future research in this area.

There were methodological limitations evident across the reviewed studies that affected interpretation of findings. This included self-report measures of neurodevelopmental differences which are amenable to individual bias compared with clinician diagnostic interviews and other more objective measures. Sample sizes were often small, and this limits the generalisability of findings, particularly in the context of elite sport which is highly heterogeneous across sporting codes. Our search strategy for this scoping review was pragmatic and iterative in its approach and it is possible that literature was overlooked due to the methods adopted (ie, the inclusion of abstract in the search strategy limiters may have allowed more comprehensive literature search and may have led to further evidence available for review). We propose this scoping review as an important summary of evidence to date, but do not assume that the studies included in this review are exhaustive. As a consequence, our scoping review did not examine grey literature and it is possible that we failed to incorporate relevant evidence. A limitation of the evidence generally is the heterogeneity in the definition of athlete populations, with a large proportion of excluded literature

being categorised as such due to focusing on sport participation in the general community (online supplemental table 3). Finally, given the wider movement and advocacy among neurodivergent populations in terms of research and practice, it is important to note that there was little evidence for research adopting strengths-based approaches for neurodiversity(eg, well-being supports for athletes to accommodate unique neurodivergent needs) in the elite sport setting.

CONCLUSION

This systematic scoping review found limited evidence examining neurodivergence in elite sport, despite suggestions that ADHD may occur at higher rates in athlete populations, the recognised connection between sport performance and supporting the mental health and well-being needs of athletes, and the high prevalence of neurodivergence in the wider population. There is a strong rationale for future research to build on this evidence, given the younger age at which individuals often first commence their pathways into elite sport coincides with the developmental period during which ADHD, autism and other neurodevelopmental differences are first identified. There are performance and coachingrelated reasons for understanding neurodiversity in elite sport, particularly given the learning and developmental processes involved in acquiring and refining skills that are required to succeed in competition. Finally, there are known unique social, emotional, cognitive, behavioural, sensory and other needs that correspond to neurodiversity, and to truly create supportive elite sporting systems it is crucial such needs are understood and addressed in this context. As such, there is a need for evidencedinformed approaches that achieve as such, and therefore, an understanding of the sociocultural contexts as they apply in sport are urgently needed as a future focus of research.

Author affiliations

¹IMPACT, The Institute for Mental and Physical Health and Clinical Translation, School of Medicine, Barwon Health, Deakin University, Geelong, VIC, Australia ²Australian Football League, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

³Turner Institute for Brain & Mental Health, School of Psychological Sciences, Monash University, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

⁴Monash-Epworth Rehabilitation Research Centre, Epworth Hospital, Melbourne, VIC, Australia

⁵School of Psychology, Deakin University, Burwood, Victoria, Australia

⁶Orygen, National Centre of Excellence in Youth Mental Health, Parkville, Victoria, Australia

⁷Centre of Youth Mental Health, University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia
⁸Clinical and Educational and Developmental Psychologist, Melbourne, Victoria, Australia

⁹Florey Institute for Neuroscience and Mental Health, University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia

¹⁰Department of Psychiatry, Royal Melbourne Hospital, University of Melbourne, Parkville, Victoria, Australia

Contributors EH led the study design, article search and screening, manuscript write-up, collated all authors input and prepared manuscript for submission. JR and LO provided high level expertise in overarching concepts, and contributed to the article screening and selection. CW, MB and ES provided senior subject matter expertise and contributed to the manuscript drafting. KH provided senior subject matter expertise and oversaw the study.

Funding MB is supported by a NHMRC Senior Principal Research Fellowship and Leadership 3 Investigator grant (1156072 and 2017131). L0 is supported by a NHMRC Early Career Research Fellowship (1158487).

Competing interests EH, JR, CW and KH are employed by the Australian Football League. EH is a current athlete in the Australian Football League Women's programme.

Patient consent for publication Not applicable.

Provenance and peer review Not commissioned; externally peer reviewed.

Supplemental material This content has been supplied by the author(s). It has not been vetted by BMJ Publishing Group Limited (BMJ) and may not have been peer-reviewed. Any opinions or recommendations discussed are solely those of the author(s) and are not endorsed by BMJ. BMJ disclaims all liability and responsibility arising from any reliance placed on the content. Where the content includes any translated material, BMJ does not warrant the accuracy and reliability of the translations (including but not limited to local regulations, clinical guidelines, terminology, drug names and drug dosages), and is not responsible for any error and/or omissions arising from translation and adaptation or otherwise.

Open access This is an open access article distributed in accordance with the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 Unported (CC BY 4.0) license, which permits others to copy, redistribute, remix, transform and build upon this work for any purpose, provided the original work is properly cited, a link to the licence is given, and indication of whether changes were made. See: https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

ORCID iD

Erin Hoare http://orcid.org/0000-0001-6186-0221

REFERENCES

- 1 Poucher ZA, Tamminen KA, Kerr G, et al. A commentary on mental health research in elite sport. J Appl Sport Psychol 2021;33:60–82.
- 2 Reardon CL. The mental health of athletes: recreational to elite. *Curr* Sports Med Rep 2021;20:631–7.
- 3 Rice SM, Purcell R, De Silva S, *et al.* The mental health of elite athletes: A narrative systematic review. *Sports Med* 2016;46:1333–53.
- 4 den Houting J. Neurodiversity: an insider's perspective. *Autism* 2019;23:271–3.
- 5 Kapp SK. Autistic community and the Neurodiversity movement. In: Autistic community and the neurodiversity movement: Stories from the frontline. Singapore: Springer Nature, 2020.
- 6 Botha M, Hanlon J, Williams GL. Does language matter? identityfirst versus person-first language use in autism research: A response to Vivanti. J Autism Dev Disord 2023;53:870–8.
- 7 Vivanti G. Ask the editor: what is the most appropriate way to talk about individuals with a diagnosis of autism *J Autism Dev Disord* 2020;50:691–3.
- 8 Robison JE. Talking about autism—thoughts for researchers. *Autism Res* 2019;12:1004–6.
- 9 Buijsman R, Begeer S, Scheeren AM. Autistic Person'Or 'person with autism'? person-first language preference in Dutch adults with autism and parents. *Autism* 2023;27:788–95.
- 10 Chapman R. Defining Neurodiversity for research and practice Neurodiversity studies:: *Routledge* 2020:218–20.
- 11 Doyle N, McDowall A. Diamond in the rough? an "empty review" of research into "Neurodiversity" and a road map for developing the inclusion agenda. *EDI* 2022;41:352–82.
- 12 Russell G. Critiques of the Neurodiversity movement. Autistic Community and the Neurodiversity Movement 2020;287.
- 13 Márquez-Caraveo ME, Rodríguez-Valentín R, Pérez-Barrón V, et al. Children and adolescents with neurodevelopmental disorders show cognitive heterogeneity and require a person-centered approach. Sci Rep 2021;11:18463.
- 14 Association AP. Diagnostic and statistical Manual of mental disorders. In: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders Fifth Edition Text Revision—DSM-5-TR. Washington, DC, USA: American Psychiatric Association, 18 March 2022.
- 15 Larsen CH, Küttel A, Moesch K, et al. Setting the scene: mental health in elite sport mental health in elite sport:: Routledge 2021:1–21.
- 16 Rosqvist HB, Chown N, Stenning A. Neurodiversity studies. In: Neurodiversity studies: A new critical paradigm. Routledge, 2020.
- 17 Francés L, Quintero J, Fernández A, et al. Current state of knowledge on the prevalence of neurodevelopmental disorders in childhood according to the DSM-5: a systematic review in

accordance with the PRISMA criteria. *Child Adolesc Psychiatry Ment Health* 2022;16:27.

- 18 Lockwood Estrin G, Milner V, Spain D, et al. Barriers to autism spectrum disorder diagnosis for young women and girls: A systematic review. *Rev J Autism Dev Disord* 2021;8:454–70.
- 19 Zener D. Journey to diagnosis for women with autism. *AIA* 2019;5:2–13.
- 20 Cook J, Hull L, Crane L, et al. Camouflaging in autism: A systematic review. *Clin Psychol Rev* 2021;89:102080.
- 21 Hull L, Petrides KV, Allison C, *et al.* Putting on my best normal": social Camouflaging in adults with autism spectrum conditions. *J Autism Dev Disord* 2017;47:2519–34.
- 22 Cage E, Troxell-Whitman Z. Understanding the reasons, contexts and costs of Camouflaging for autistic adults. J Autism Dev Disord 2019;49:1899–911.
- 23 Dewey D. What is Comorbidity and why does it matter in neurodevelopmental disorders Curr Dev Disord Rep 2018;5:235–42.
- 24 Purcell R, Gwyther K, Rice SM. Mental health in elite athletes: increased awareness requires an early intervention framework to respond to athlete needs. *Sports Med Open* 2019;5:46.
- 25 Reardon CL, Hainline B, Aron CM, et al. Mental health in elite athletes: International Olympic committee consensus statement (2019). Br J Sports Med 2019;53:667–99.
- 26 Han DH, McDuff D, Thompson D, et al. Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder in elite athletes: a narrative review. Br J Sports Med 2019;53:741–5.
- 27 Glick ID, Stillman MA, Reardon CL, et al. Managing psychiatric issues in elite athletes. J Clin Psychiatry 2012;73:640–4.
- 28 Gunn BS, McAllister TW, McCrea MA, et al. Neurodevelopmental disorders and risk of concussion: findings from the National collegiate athletic Association Department of defense grand alliance concussion assessment, research, and education (NCAA-DOD CARE) consortium (2014–2017). J Neurotrauma 2022;39:379–89.
- 29 Åkesdotter C, Kenttä G, Eloranta S, et al. The prevalence of mental health problems in elite athletes. J Sci Med Sport 2020;23:329–35.
- 30 Ekman E, Hiltunen A, Gustafsson H. Do athletes have more of a cognitive profile with ADHD criteria than non-athletes. *Sports (Basel)* 2021;9:61.
- 31 Alosco ML, Fedor AF, Gunstad J. Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder as a risk factor for Concussions in NCAA division-I athletes. *Brain Inj* 2014;28:472–4.
- 32 Beidler E, Schmitt AJ, Matta M, et al. Diagnosed and Nondisclosed sport-related concussion: an exploratory comparison study by ADHD status in collegiate athletes. J Atten Disord 2022;26:606–15.
- 33 David CV, Varkovetski M, Wagner R, et al. A-12 mental health outcomes for CFL athletes with ADHD. Arch Clin Neuropsychol 2022;37:1053.
- 34 Li C, Fan R, Sun J, et al. Risk and protective factors of generalized anxiety disorder of elite collegiate athletes: a cross-sectional study. *Front Public Health* 2021;9:607800.
- 35 Manderino L, Gunstad J. Collegiate student athletes with history of ADHD or academic difficulties are more likely to produce an invalid protocol on baseline impact testing. *Clin J Sport Med* 2018;28:111–6.
- 36 Manderino LM, Zachman AM, Gunstad J. Novel impact validity indices in collegiate student-athletes with and without histories of ADHD or academic difficulties. *Clin Neuropsychol* 2019;33:1455–66.
- 37 Nelson LD, Guskiewicz KM, Marshall SW, et al. Multiple self-reported Concussions are more prevalent in athletes with ADHD and learning disability. *Clin J Sport Med* 2016;26:120–7.
- 38 Kutcher JS. Treatment of attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder in athletes. Curr Sports Med Rep 2011;10:32–6.
- 39 Stewman CG, Liebman C, Fink L, et al. Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder: unique considerations in athletes. Sports Health 2018;10:40–6.
- 40 White RD, Harris GD, Gibson ME. Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and athletes. *Sports Health* 2014;6:149–56.
- 41 Garner AA, Hansen AA, Baxley C, *et al*. The use of stimulant medication to treat attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder in elite athletes: a performance and health perspective. *Sports Med* 2018;48:507–12.
- 42 Parr JW. Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder and the athlete: new advances and understanding. *Clin Sports Med* 2011;30:591–610.
- 43 Putukian M, Kreher JB, Coppel DB, *et al.* Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder and the athlete: an American Medical society for sports medicine position statement. *Clin J Sport Med* 2011;21:392–401.
- 44 Reardon CL, Factor RM. Considerations in the use of stimulants in sport. Sports Med 2016;46:611–7.
- 45 Pujalte GGA, Narducci DM, Smith MS, *et al.* Athletes with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder: position statement of the

<u>ð</u>

Open access

American Medical society for sports medicine. *Clin J Sport Med* 2023;33:195–208.

- 46 Ciocca M. Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder in athletes. *Clin* Sports Med 2019;38:545–54.
- 47 Cushing AD. The Experience of NCAA Division-1 Athletes Diagnosed with Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder and Subsequently Prescribed a Stimulant Medication. Kennedy University, 2019.
- 48 Duquesne V, Richard R, Andrieu B, et al. n.d. Sports experiences of elite athletes with intellectual disabilities and/or autism spectrum disorders. Sport in Society;2022:1–15.
- 49 Palmer CG. College student-athletes' experience of living with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD): A phenomenological analysis. University of Montana, 2002.
- 50 Austin RD, Pisano GP. Neurodiversity as a competitive advantage. Harv Bus Rev 2017;95:96–103.
- 51 Olive LS, Rice SM, Gao C, et al. Risk and protective factors for mental ill-health in elite para-and non-para athletes. *Front Psychol* 2022;13:939087.
- 52 Iverson GL, Kelshaw PM, Cook NE, et al. Middle school children with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder have a greater concussion history. *Clin J Sport Med* 2021;31:438–41.
- 53 Kaye S, Sundman MH, Hall EE, *et al.* Baseline Neurocognitive performance and symptoms in those with attention deficit hyperactivity disorders and history of concussion with previous loss of consciousness. *Front Neurol* 2019;10:396.
- 54 Valovich McLeod TC, Shepherd LI, Bay RC, et al. Reports of concussion history and newly diagnosed Concussions are higher among students with self-reported learning disabilities and attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. Athl Train Sports Health Care 2018;10:64–8.
- 55 Martin AK, Petersen AJ, Sesma HW, et al. Learning and attention deficit/hyperactivity disorders as risk factors for prolonged concussion recovery in children and adolescents. J Int Neuropsychol Soc 2022;28:109–22.
- 56 Cook NE, laccarino MA, Karr JE, *et al.* Attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder and outcome after concussion: a systematic review. *J Dev Behav Pediatr* 2020;41:571–82.
- 57 Pagani LS, Harbec M-J, Fortin G, et al. Childhood exercise as medicine: Extracurricular sport diminishes subsequent ADHD symptoms. *Preventive Medicine* 2020;141:106256.

- 58 Ashinoff BK, Abu-Akel A. Hyperfocus: the forgotten frontier of attention. *Psychol Res* 2021;85:1–19.
- 59 Fasey KJ, Sarkar M, Wagstaff CRD, et al. Defining and characterizing organizational resilience in elite sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise* 2021;52:101834.
- 60 Dwyer P. The Neurodiversity approach (es): what are they and what do they mean for researchers. *Hum Dev* 2022;66:73–92.
- 61 Antshel KM, Russo N. Autism spectrum disorders and ADHD: overlapping Phenomenology, diagnostic issues, and treatment considerations. *Curr Psychiatry Rep* 2019;21:34.
- 62 Huang J, Du C, Liu J, *et al.* Meta-analysis on intervention effects of physical activities on children and adolescents with autism. *IJERPH* 2020;17:1950.
- 63 Au-Yeung SK, Bradley L, Robertson AE, et al. Experience of mental health diagnosis and perceived Misdiagnosis in autistic, possibly autistic and non-autistic adults. *Autism* 2019;23:1508–18.
- 64 Fusar-Poli L, Brondino N, Politi P, et al. Missed diagnoses and Misdiagnoses of adults with autism spectrum disorder. Eur Arch Psychiatry Clin Neurosci 2022;272:187–98.
- 65 Harris JC. The origin and natural history of autism spectrum disorders. *Nat Neurosci* 2016;19:1390–1.
- 66 Cassidy SA, Gould K, Townsend E, et al. Is Camouflaging autistic traits associated with suicidal thoughts and Behaviours? expanding the interpersonal psychological theory of suicide in an undergraduate student sample. J Autism Dev Disord 2020;50:3638–48.
- 67 Lai M-C, Kassee C, Besney R, *et al.* Prevalence of Co-occurring mental health diagnoses in the autism population: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Lancet Psychiatry* 2019;6:819–29.
- 68 Doyle N. Neurodiversity at work: a Biopsychosocial model and the impact on working adults. *Br Med Bull* 2020;135:108–25.
- 69 Vella SA, Mayland E, Schweickle MJ, et al. n.d. Psychological safety in sport: a systematic review and concept analysis. Int Rev Sport Exerc Psychol;2022:1–24.
- 70 Courchesne V, Langlois V, Gregoire P, et al. Interests and strengths in autism, useful but misunderstood: A pragmatic case-study. Front Psychol 2020;11:569339.
- 71 Ortiz LA. Reframing Neurodiversity as competitive advantage: opportunities, challenges, and resources for business and professional communication educators. Bus Commun Q 2020;83:261–84.