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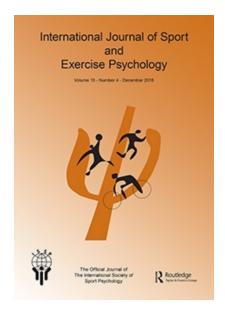
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Development and Preliminary Validation of the Sport Situation Attentional Questionnaire

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Development and Preliminary Validation of the Sport Situation Attentional

Questionnaire

Abstract

Sport participants' ability to be concentrated and ignore distractors has been recognized as a crucial cognitive skill for optimizing cognitive and motor learning. To date, no instrument enables to assess concentration and distraction during a sport situation. This paper aimed at developing and validating the Sport Situation Attentional Questionnaire (SSAO) among French sport participants. Study 1 developed items measuring the level of concentration and distraction. Content validity was assessed with a panel of experts, and by using cognitive interview with ten sport sciences students. Study 2 included 164 sport sciences students, and explored the factor structure of the questionnaire. Exploratory factor analysis refined the scale to 18 items and supported a four-factor model: concentration on the task, concentration due to the teacher, distraction away from the task, and distraction toward the teacher. Study 3 included 216 sports sciences students and confirmed the factor structure. Results showed satisfactory internal consistency, convergent and divergent validity, as well as gender invariance. The relationships between SSAQ factors and state anxiety subscales supported concurrent validity. Study 4 included 481 high school students and supported a four-factor model, using confirmatory factor analysis. Results also supported the convergent, divergent validity and reliability of the SSAQ. Combined, these studies provided preliminary evidence to support the psychometric properties of the SSAQ, a questionnaire that could be used to assess sport participants' perceived concentration and distraction during a sport situation.

Keywords: Attention, concentration, distraction, sport, physical education, psychometric scale

Introduction

The ability to be attentive has been widely regarded as a major prerequisite in motor learning (Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2016), whether in a sport (Moran, 2016) or an educational context where physical activities are taught (Standage et al., 2005). However, sport participants can experience difficulties in turning their attention on sport situation (Maldonado et al., 2019; Moran, 2016). Less is known on how to optimize attention during a sport situation. To our knowledge, in comparison to the flourishing literature in cognitive and clinical psychology on attention, research evidences, especially on the measurement of attention during a sport situation, are sparse. Researchers have analyzed attentional processes through three kinds of measures (Calmels et al., 2004): (1) behavioral (e.g. time reaction; Posner, 1980), (2) physiological (e.g. pupil dilatation; van der Wel & van Steenbergen, 2018), or (3) self-reported measurement (Calmels et al., 2004). These methods have been applied to laboratory situations. However, behavioral and physiological measurement can hardly be implemented in ecological situations such as a sport situation. Thus, the purpose of the present paper was to develop and validate a self-reported scale, to measure attention during a sport situation. The concept of attention entails a variety of interconnected processes (Ocasio, 2010). At least three distinct forms of attention have been identified: attentional vigilance, selective attention, and executive attention (Ocasio, 2010). Based on these three forms, the concept of attention in sport has been used loosely to express performer's concentration (Calmels et al., 2004). Concentration was defined as the ability to focus on one source of relevant information while ignoring distracting stimuli as irrelevant information (Moran, 2016). Concentration has been used as a relevant cognitive ability for purposes of optimizing learning in sport (e.g. Moran, 2016) and physical education (PE; e.g. Maldonado et al., 2019). In contrast, distraction was defined as a diversion of attention from some intended targets (Moran, 2016). Distraction

could refer to inward (e.g. daydreams), outward (e.g. scenery), involuntary (e.g. when environment captures attention), and active distraction (e.g. sending SMS during classroom activities; Brick et al., 2014).

In the sport context, Moran (2016) suggested that an attentive performer have to continually take relevant cues on the task into account, and ignore numerous distractors to achieve success during motor action. In educational context, Leconte (2005) provided a similar definition underlying the importance of being attentive to relevant information, and to ignore distractors. In PE, Maldonado et al. (2019) defined concentration as the act of focusing on a major event, that would be difficult, because the mind may be easily distracted. The need to identify potential distractors, as non-relevant information and thoughts during a lesson, has also been underlined by Ntoumanis (2005). Content regarding particular movement-relevant cues, the relationships with others (either partners or opponents) and the environment noises are some non-exhaustive examples of relevant and irrelevant cues (Moran, 2016; Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2016).

In regard to the relationship with others, the supervisor (e.g. coach or teacher) could be considered as a source of relevant information for cognitive (Cohen et al., 2003; Leconte, 2005) and motor learning (Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2016), by playing a role in creating and maintaining an appropriate learning space during the task (French, 1997). Supervisor also frequently give tailored and supporting instructions and feedbacks during the task performance, which evolve according to the goal and the understanding of this task (Cohen et al., 2003; Grobe & Pettibone, 1975; Rowe et al., 2014). However, these instructions could also be irrelevant. For example, it has been demonstrated that an inaccuracy in one or two words can lead to a differential effect on learning (Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2016). Instructions could also be perceived as unnecessary, and thus irrelevant, especially when the supervisor

interacts with other sport participants. Supervisor could also provide unclear and stressful feedbacks/instructions (Rowe et al., 2014), inducing an irrelevant cue hard to process. In sport, critical or punitive feedback can evoke high level of state anxiety that, in turn, contributes to a threatening environment and constitutes an irrelevant source of information for learning (Smith et al., 2007). In PE, it has also been demonstrated that, through what the teacher says and does, he/she could foster one student's state anxiety (Liukkonen et al., 2010) and becomes a distractor for the task at hand. State anxiety could be defined as a situational concept, referring to how the participant feels a situation, in response to possible actual or non-actual threats (Spielberger, 1983). State anxiety could be cognitive (i.e. tension, apprehension) and somatic (i.e. activation of the autonomic nervous system; Spielberger, 1972). Previous research has shown that state anxiety was one of the most important predictor of distractibility (Eysenck et al., 2007) and harmed processing efficiency (Eysenck & Calvo, 1992). State anxiety has also been linked to ruminating about irrelevant things, subsequently distracting athletes (McCarthy et al., 2013). The Attentional Control Theory (Eysenck et al. 2007), based on the Processing Efficiency Theory (Eysenck and Calvo 1992) and validated in the sport anxiety literature (Wilson et al. 2009), postulates that state anxiety interferes with the goal-oriented system of attention and fosters fixation on threatening or irrelevant stimuli in the environment (e.g. Wilson et al. 2009). To our knowledge, measurement of attention and distraction in sport situations has been given little attention. In sport psychology, some psychometric scales measuring attention were interesting (e.g. Test of Attentional and Interpersonal Style, Attentional Focus Questionnaire, Flow State Scale; Nideffer, 1976; Brewer et al., 1996; Fournier et al., 2007), but limited in

regard to the definitions of attention, because they used different concepts than

concentration/distraction processes. In PE context, previous studies (Maldonado et al., 2019;

Zhang et al., 2012) measured students' concentration using the six items (e.g. "I really concentrate in PE") developed by Standage et al. (2005). In the same vein, Ntoumanis (2005) measured students' concentration using three items (e.g. "In PE, I concentrate on the skills/tasks I have to do"). Although some items of both scales were interesting, none allowed to capture the sport participants' distraction, which has been identified as a major limitation by Ntoumanis (2005). While these studies have reported a suitable internal consistency, both scales were not published nor validated through an extensive validation process. Otherwise, the Cognitive Processes Questionnaire in Physical Education (Solmon & Lee, 1997) assessed cognitive variables intervening in the achievement among elementary and middle schools students. This scale was composed of 33 items divided in five subscales: self-regulation, confidence-efficacy, attention-concentration, willingness to engage, and strategies. Attentionconcentration included six items and aimed at assessing the level of concentration by using task-references (e.g. "When I practice, I try to think only about the skill I am working on") and teacher-references (e.g. "I miss important things the PE teacher says because I am not paying attention"). This scale was interesting because it took into account the task and the teacher as relevant cues. However, the role played by the teacher as a potential distractor during the task at hand was not considered. Therefore, while these scales included specific and interesting items about the task and the supervisor, it may not be well suited to the definition of an attentive sport participant, mainly because the supervisor contribution on the distraction process during the task should be considered. Therefore, our aim by developing and validating the Sport Situation Attentional Questionnaire (SSAQ) was to provide a much-needed measure to comprehensively assess sport participants' attention. The scale that we tried to develop would allow researchers to better understand the

complex attentional processes involved during a sport situation. Moreover, sport supervisors

could use this type of scale in order to analyse the impact of their pedagogical strategies on sport participants' attention. In that respect, to develop and perform an initial validation of the SSAQ, we have followed the validation steps proposed by Messick (1995) and Boateng et al. (2018). Taking into account the similarities between organized and academic sport practice, in regard to sport situation, such as (1) the implication in cognitive or motor task (e.g. Müller et al., 2018; Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2016), (2) the definition of attention towards the task (e.g. Maldonado et al., 2019; Moran, 2016), (3) the role played by the supervisor (e.g. Camiré, 2015; Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2016), we conducted the present study in high school and college PE classes. Both of these sport environment offered an important application of the constructs outlined in the introduction, and targeted sport participants of all skill levels, and in many and various sport activities. In Study 1, we aimed at developing an initial pool of items. First, we provide a clear definition of what is an attentive student in sport situations, and then we present the process by which we identified and created relevant items and assessed their content validity. In Study 2, we explored the factor structure of the questionnaire, to determine the optimal number of factors that would fit the pool of items, and reduce their numbers. In Study 3, we confirmed the factor structure and its reliability with sports sciences students. Study 3 examined the concurrent validity of the scale with Pearson's correlations between the SSAQ factor dimensions and state anxiety subscales. Measurement invariance across gender groups was also investigated in Study 3. In Study 4, we confirmed the factor structure and its reliability with high school students in PE.

Ethical Requirements

All participants gave informed consent to their participation. According to the declaration of Helsinki and the French current legislation, participants were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences. They were clearly informed

that anonymity was retained and that their personal information would remain confidential and intended only for research purposes. These provisions were applied for all subsequent studies. Each study has been formally notified to the French National Commission of Informatics and Liberty (N°2017-261; N°2017-266).

Study 1

Following the steps of scale development and validation (Boateng et al., 2018; Messick, 1995), Study 1 aimed to develop a preliminary version of the SSAQ. The first step was to provide a clear definition of attentive sport participant. Secondly, an item generation was conducted, identifying appropriate questions that fitted the previous definition (Boateng et al., 2018). Third, items content validity was examined by the evaluation of a panel of experts, and cognitive interviews were conducted (Boateng et al., 2018; Messick, 1995). The panel of experts' evaluation and cognitive interview focused on the discrimination and the reliability of the scale to control the risks of deviation of personal interpretations and decision-making due to unclear items (Cohen et al., 2013).

Study 1: Domain identification

The first step in our scale development was to provide a clear definition of an attentive sport participant, to ensure that the measurement tool adequately captured the concept of attentive sport participant, eliminating extraneous content (Boateng et al., 2018). From existing definitions in the sport (Moran, 2016; Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2016) and PE literature (Maldonado et al., 2019; Ntoumanis, 2005), we identified how an attentive sport participant has been defined, what does imply a good concentration, and which distractors could occur during a sport situation. The first part of the definition of an attentive sport participant was to consider the concentration on the task and the distraction away from the task because a sport

participant should adopt an external focus on the relevant informations on the task, and ignore irrelevant informations and distractors (Moran, 2016; Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2016). The second part of the definition of an attentive sport participant was to consider the supervisor as an exogenous cue about the task, which could be relevant when he/she supports the sport participant's cognitive processes (e.g. Wulf & Lewthwaite, 2016), or irrelevant when he/she interferes in the sport participant's cognitive processes (e.g. Liukkonen et al., 2010). In that respect, the definition of an attentive sport participant was the following: a sport participant would be attentive when he/she is able to focus on the relevant cues (e.g. the task, the supervisor's instructions) by not being distracted by irrelevant cues (e.g. distractors linked to the task, distraction linked to the supervisor). From this definition, the research team could not identify a suitable questionnaire to measure concentration and distraction during a sport situation, because distraction, as well as the supervisor contribution on the concentration/distraction process, were not considered.

Study 1: Item Generation

The item generation of the initial version of the SSAQ was established, using the deductive method, through an analysis of existing instruments (Boateng et al., 2018; Clark & Watson, 2016), by a panel of four experts. These experts had a previous applied and experimental background in sport practice, PE, cognitive sciences, and psychometric questionnaire development. The item inclusion criteria were: (1) being related to concentration and distraction processes, and (2) being relevant to the context of a sport situation. Some items from the Cognitive Processes Questionnaire in Physical Education (Solmon & Lee, 1997) and the scales developed by Standage et al. (2005) and Ntoumanis (2005) were selected and new ones were created, based on the inclusion criteria and the definition of an attentive sport participant. English items were translated into French by two independent researchers, then

the expert panel compared the two propositions to choose the most relevant item. As recommended (Boateng et al., 2018), initial item generation have been broader and more comprehensive than the theoretical view of an attentive sport participant, entailing 50 items at the end of the process.

Study 1: Providing Content Validity Evidence

The 50 items were again submitted to the panel of experts for evaluation to take into account the redundancies, the form and the wording of the items, in order to conserve items simply and unambiguously worded (Boateng et al., 2018). To reach a consensus, the item formulation problems were discussed within the expert panel. In case of disagreement among the panel and after discussion, the item was eliminated. This evaluation had 30 items deleted because they were redundant, tangential or did not perfectly fit the definition of an attentive sport participant during a sport situation (Boateng et al., 2018). Following this process, the pool of items included 20 items (Table 1). After the review process, a content validity assessment was conducted to establish the intelligibility of the questionnaire items, and to identify any potential difficulties in its administration. The approach used a self-reported questionnaire, and was completed by cognitive interviews.

Participants and Procedure

Seven and three women sport sciences students ($M_{age} = 18.60$ years; $SD_{age} = .70$) took part in this study. The first author distributed the surveys and conducted cognitive interviews. It took place after a sport lesson, in a quiet place of the University campus. Each student had to answer each item on a Likert scale of six points ranging from one "absolutely not clear" to six "absolutely clear." The six-point scale was used in order to avoid middle option meaning "cannot say" (Clark & Watson, 2016). The inventory took approximately five minutes to complete.

When the score was not maximal (i.e. below six), cognitive interviews were conducted to identify the difficulty and to ensure that participants interpreted questions as intended (Boateng et al., 2018). During the cognitive interview, the participant verbalized the mental process used to answer (Boateng et al., 2018), then indicated the part of the item that could not be properly understood. Each cognitive interview took approximately five minutes. *Results and Discussion*This study demonstrated an excellent item understanding (M = 5.93; SD = .25; data are described in detail in Supplementary file 1). No item was assessed below 5.50. Among item

This study demonstrated an excellent item understanding (M = 5.93; SD = .25; data are described in detail in Supplementary file 1). No item was assessed below 5.50. Among items not achieving the maximal score, the cognitive interviews revealed that participants were not completely sure of the meaning of some terms (e.g. "distracted", "I felt", and "I happened"). After the cognitive interview, the first author concluded systematically that participants interpreted questions as intended, and an agreement on the meaning proposed by the first author was reached. These outcomes attested the clarity and proper understanding of the 20 items by the teenagers (Clark & Watson, 2016). Due to the high scores obtained in regard to the item clarity and understanding, no item modification has been undertaken after this first round of interviews (during which few new insights have emerged; Boateng et al., 2018). The pool of the 20 selected items were validated as such by the panel of experts. Our following studies have tested their psychometric properties.

Study 2

This second study aimed at assessing the structural aspect (Messick, 1995) of the SSAQ by exploring its factor structure. This step determined the optimal number of factors that could fit the pool of items, by examining the covariance that existed between all the scale items. This step may also reduce the number of items (Boateng et al., 2018).

Study	2:	Me	tho	ods

- Participants and Procedure
- The participants consisted in 164 sport sciences students ($M_{age} = 19.63$ years; $SD_{age} = 2.10$),
- including 43 women and 121 men. The survey was administered during a regular weekly
- sport practice that took place at the university's sports department. The first author distributed
- 253 the surveys immediately after a sport situation. The teacher was present but did not interact
- with the students. The inventory took approximately five minutes to complete. Sports practice
- included athletics (n = 35), baseball (n = 27), basketball (n = 47), and American football (n = 47)
- 256 55).
- 258 Measures
- **Demographic information.** Participants indicated their age, gender (i.e. men, women, or
- other), and sports experience (i.e. no practice, and regular practice).
- **SSAQ.** Answers were collected on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from one "absolutely
- 262 not agree" to seven "absolutely agree" to increase the usability of the collected data. This
- ranging scale seemed the most appropriate (Boateng et al., 2018), as a five-point scale seemed
- 264 too restrictive in regard to extreme values (i.e. one and five) and more than seven points on
- 265 the scale could lead to problems of interpretation (Cohen et al. 2013).
- 267 Data Analysis

- Data analysis were conducted using SPSS 22. Missing values were analyzed and univariate
- 269 normality distribution was examined. The factorability of the data was tested using Bartlett's
- test of sphericity, which should be significant (p < .05; Dziuban & Shirkey, 1974). The

sampling adequacy was tested using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's test (KMO), which should be higher than .80 (Dziuban & Shirkey, 1974). Based on the theoretical definition of an attentive sport participant, we had an a priori understanding of the number of factors to retain, expecting two (e.g. concentration/distraction) or four-factor (e.g. concentration related to the task, concentration related to the teacher, distraction related to the task, distraction related to the teacher). However, the extraction method used in SPSS software had not previously specified the number of factor to retain. Scree plot inspection method (Cattell, 1966) conjointly with Minimum Average Partial method (MAP; Velicer, 1976) were used to decide how many factors to retain (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Izquierdo et al., 2014). Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) with maximum likelihood factors extraction were conducted (Gaskin & Happell, 2014). Oblimin rotation was chosen because of the likelihood that the factors might be correlated. The following indicators were used and their satisfactory cut points are mentioned in brackets: factor loading (> .40; Costello & Osborne, 2005), no salient crossloading (i.e. item loading at .32 or higher on two or more factors; Costello & Osborne, 2005) and total variance explained (> 50%; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1987). Internal consistency of factor dimensions was evaluated with Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha > .80 =$ excellent, $.80 > \alpha > .70 =$ satisfactory, $.70 > \alpha > .60 =$ lower limits; Hair et al., 2010) and inter-correlations were inspected.

Study 2: Results and discussion

291 Preliminary Analysis

Ten items presented missing data without exceeding 2.4%. Therefore, a list-wise deletion was applied (Garson, 2015). A scoring distribution analysis showed that univariate normality (scoring distribution of each item are available in Supplementary file 2) was not achieved for eight items (skewness range: -4.37 to 12.14; kurtosis range: -3.48 to 14.36). Despite the fact

that the assumption of normality was not met, the EFA with maximum likelihood method was fairly robust, justifying its use (Gaskin & Happell, 2014).

Exploratory factor analysis of the 20-SSAQ

The sampling was adequate (KMO = .86). Bartlett's test showed no problem of sphericity (χ^2 (190) = 1426.55, p < .01). An examination of the scree plot of the initial eigenvalues and the MAP method indicated that a four-factor structure should be retained. The percentage of total variance explained by the extracted four factors was 63.43%. EFA with maximum likelihood method and Oblimin rotation was generated with a four-factor structure (Table 1). The items were clustered into the following four categories, which the previously mentioned expert panel had labeled as: (I) concentration on the task, (II) concentration due to the teacher, (III) distraction away from the task, and (IV) distraction toward the teacher. No cross loading was observed and items loaded highly, excepted item 3 (i.e. "I made mistakes of inattention") and item 20 (i.e. "I directed more my attention to the teacher than to the exercise"). Item 3 loaded below the cut point of .40 on the category labelled distraction away from the task and item 20 loaded weakly on the category labelled concentration due to the teacher, whereas the expert panel formulated item 20 in reference to the distraction toward the teacher (Table 1). Internal consistency of each factor dimensions was satisfactory, and inter-item correlations within factor dimensions varied between .44 and .68 for the factor I ($\alpha = .88$), between .52 and .64 for the factor II (α = .87). The factor III (α = .75) showed inter-item correlations between .42 and .57, except item 3 (between .04 and .32). The factor IV ($\alpha = .75$) showed inter-item correlations between .39 and .53, except item 20 (between .18 and .35). Considering the weak factor loading of item 3 and item 20 and their low inter-correlations, a second analysis was conducted without them (Little et al., 1999).

Exploratory factor analysis of the 18-SSAQ

The sampling was adequate (KMO = .87). Bartlett's test showed no problem of sphericity (γ^2 (153) = 1369.28, p < .01). Examination of the scree plot of the initial eigenvalues and the MAP method again indicated that a four-factor structure should be retained. The total percentage of variance explained by extracted four factors was improved to 67.49%. EFA with maximum likelihood method and Oblimin rotation was generated with a four-factor structure. The items were clustered into the same four categories as labelled above. No cross loading was observed and all item loaded highly on its intended factor (Table 1). Internal consistency improved for the factor dimensions III ($\alpha = .77$) and IV ($\alpha = .79$), as well as their inter-item correlations (between .39 and .53 for the factor dimension III and between .42 and .57 for the factor dimension IV). To summarize, EFA on the 18-SSAQ version was more adequate, showing better sampling adequacy, better four-factor structure with all items loading highly on only one factor, and higher total explained variance. Reliability analysis showed better internal consistency and inter-correlations. Each factor entailed the minimum of four items, which is a key aspect in scale development because it ensures an adequate internal consistency reliability (Clark & Watson, 2016). Consequently, the version with 18 items entailing four factors has been retained: concentration on the task (CTASK), concentration due to the teacher (CTEACHER), distraction away from the task (DISTASK), and distraction toward the teacher (DISTEACHER). These four factors were in line with the definition of an attentive sport participant. The factors concentration on the task and concentration due to the teacher referred to "focus on the relevant cues (e.g. the task, the supervisor's instructions)." The factors distraction away from the task and distraction toward the teacher referred to "being not distracted by irrelevant cues (e.g. distractors linked to the task, distraction linked to the *supervisor*)."

[Table 1 near here]

Study 3

The third study aimed at assessing the structural aspect and the external aspect of the SSAQ validity (Messick, 1995) with sport sciences students, confirming the factor structure of the SSAQ and testing the concurrent validity of the scale on state anxiety. The second goal of this study was to assess the generalizability aspect of the SSAQ validity (Messick, 1995).

Therefore, social desirability was controlled because of the human tendency to present oneself in the best possible way could significantly distort the information obtained through self-assessments (Van de Mortel, 2008). Finally, measurement invariance was examined to determine if the four-factor structure of the SSAQ was the same across gender groups. Then, differences in score according to the gender were examined, because this consideration is commonplace in the sport group dynamics literature, frequently identifying gender as moderation variable (Benson & Eys, 2017), and because gender differences has been shown to influence cognitive ability (Alavi et al., 2019). Differences in score according to the sport experience were also examined because attentional behaviors could differ between an expert practicing with more automatic attention and a novice practicing with more controlled attention (Abernethy et al., 2007).

Study 3: Methods

Participants and Procedure

As the data collection in Study 2 and Study 3 were on different campuses or sports premises, no participants had the opportunity to take part in both data collections. In Study 3, the participants were 216 sports sciences students ($M_{age} = 18.91$ years; $SD_{age} = 1.30$), including 96 women and 120 men. The first author distributed the surveys immediately after a sport

- situation during a regular weekly sport practice at the university's sports department. The teacher was present but did not interact with the students. The inventory took approximately ten minutes to complete. Sports practices were swimming (n = 19), floor gymnastics (n = 15), French boxing (n = 28), volleyball (n = 109), badminton (n = 20), and tennis (n = 25).
- 375 Measures

- *Demographic information.* Participants indicated their age, gender (i.e. men, women, or
 377 other), and sports experience (i.e. no practice, and regular practice).
- 378 SSAQ. Answers to 18 items were on a Likert scale of seven points ranging from one379 "absolutely not agree" to seven "absolutely agree."
- State anxiety. The French version of the Competitive State Anxiety Inventory-2 (CSAI-2; Cury et al., 1999) is a global measure of state anxiety adapted to sport competition and includes three subscales: self-confidence (nine items; e.g. "I was confident."), cognitive state anxiety (seven items; e.g. "I was afraid of failing."), and somatic state anxiety (seven items; e.g. "I felt my stomach tighten."). Answers were on a Likert scale of four points ranging from one "not at all" to four "much." This French version of the CSAI-2 has been validated in a sport context with middle school and high school students, sport science students and elite athletes (Cury et al., 1999). This scale has been previously used by Arous et al. (2013) with a population of 320 practitioners of individual and team sports ($M_{age} = 19.37$ years; $SD_{age} =$ 1.26), including 160 women and 160 men. This study reported satisfactory internal consistency for self-confidence ($\alpha = .93$), cognitive state anxiety ($\alpha = .89$), and somatic state anxiety ($\alpha = .82$). In a PE context, this scale has been used by Isoard-Gautheur et al. (2010) with 461 middle school and high school students ($M_{age} = 15.68$; $SD_{age} = 1.17$), including 213

women and 248 men. Isoard-Gautheur et al. (2010) reported satisfactory internal consistency for self-confidence (α = .79), cognitive state anxiety (α = .79), and somatic state anxiety (α = .74).

Social desirability. The Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability scale form C (Reynolds, 1982) evaluates social desirability with 13 items. Participants rated "true" or "false" to answers concerning their personal attitudes (e.g. "I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable"). The present study used a French adaptation, which have been administered by Verardi et al. (2010) with 697 participants ($M_{age} = 32.14$; $SD_{age} = 13.76$), including 370 women and 327 men. The authors reported a satisfactory internal consistency ($\alpha = .63$).

Data Analysis

Data analysis were performed using SPSS Amos 22. Missing values were inspected and univariate normality distribution was tested. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with maximum likelihood robust estimator was applied on the SSAQ to confirm the structure of the scale. A CFA were also conducted with the CSAI-2 and the social desirability scale. Following adjustments indices were used and their satisfactory cut-off points are mentioned in brackets (Hu & Bentler, 1999): the chi-square fit index (χ^2), Comparative Fit Index and Tucker-Lewis Index (CFI and TLI > .90 were satisfactory and > .95 were excellent), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA < .08 indicated adequate model, < .06 excellent fit), and RMSEA 90% confidence intervals. To test the measurement model's reliability, the composite reliability (CR > .70; Hair et al., 2016) was examined in addition to the internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha. To complete the structure analysis, convergent validity was assessed using the Average Variance Extracted (AVE > .5) and divergent validity was assessed using the Average Shared Variance (ASV < AVE; Hair et al.,

2016). External aspect of the SSAQ validity was inspected, testing the concurrent validity of the scale with Pearson's correlations between the SSAQ factor dimensions and the CSAI subscales (coefficients r ranging between .10 - .30 = small effect, .30 - .50 = medium effect, and $\geq .50$ = large effect; Cohen, 2013). To test the bias of social desirability, Person's correlations and a one-way ANOVAs were conducted. To determine if the four-factor structure of the SSAO was the same across gender groups (i.e. women and men), configural invariance (i.e. same factor structure across groups), metric invariance (i.e. same factor loadings across groups), and scalar invariance (i.e. same item intercepts across groups) were examined, using multiple groups CFA. Metric invariance was tested once configural invariance was established, and scalar invariance was tested once metric invariance was established. We compared models by examining χ^2 , CFI, TLI, and RMSEA differences. There was no invariance when changes in CFI and TLI were < .01 and increases in RMSEA were < .015 (Chen, 2007). Strong measurement invariance was demonstrated when all three tests showed invariance. Then, to examine the scale sensitivity to gender and sport experience, one-way ANOVAs were conducted. For all statistical tests, the significance level was set at p < .05.

Study 3: Results and discussion

Preliminary analysis

Between 0% and 1.9% of missing data per variable were observed. Since the missing data were considered as missing completely at random (MCAR; p > .05; Little, 1988), data were estimated using full information Maximum Likelihood estimation (ML; Garson, 2015). Scoring distribution analysis showed that univariate normality (scoring distribution of each item are available in Supplementary file 2) was not achieved for nine items (skewness range: -7.18 to 16.07; kurtosis range: -4.18 to 23.56). CFA with the social desirability scale supported

adequate model fit (Supplementary file 3). CFA with CSAI-2 indicated that the item 4 (i.e. "I am agitated") loaded negatively in its intended factor (i.e. somatic state anxiety). We therefore applied a CFA with the CSAI-2 excluding item 4, which presented an acceptable model fit (Supplementary file 3). Item 4 was excluded from the following analysis. The Cronbach's alpha of CSAI-2 subscales and social desirability scale were satisfactory (ranging from .64 to .91; Table 3).

Confirmation of the Factor Structure

The model fit was adequate ($\chi^2 = 297.6$, df = 129, p < .001, TLI = .90, CFI = .91, RMSEA = .08, LO 90% = .07, HI 90% = .09) and the standardized factor loadings were between .55 and .89 (model data are described in detail in Supplementary file 4). Modification indices (MI) indicated the model fit could be improved, if the error covariance between two items from the concentration due to the teacher (i.e. item 6 "I felt that the teacher was helping me to be concentrated on the exercise", and 18 "I felt that the teacher was helping me focus better") was free to co-vary (MI = 22.27). Because these items were theoretically close, the final model included these specifications. The new model (Figure 1) showed a better fit to the data: $\chi^2 = 255.89$, df = 128, p < .001, TLI = .92, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .07, LO 90% = .06, HI 90% = .08. The standardized factor loadings were between .55 and .89.

[Figure 1 near here]

Validity, Reliability, Outcomes Correlations, Measurement Invariance and Sensitivity

Cronbach's alphas, factor correlations, CR, AVE, ASV, means and standard deviations are
presented in Table 2. AVE were above .05 and ASV below their respective AVE, meeting the
requirements for convergent validity and divergent validity. All factor dimensions presented a

satisfactory reliability with all CR above .70. Correlations between each factor dimensions were almost all significant. Concentration factor dimensions had significant and negative relationships with distraction away from the task. Concentration factor dimensions were positively related to each other as well as distraction factor dimensions. All Cronbach's alpha were above .70, meeting the requirements for internal consistency.

[Table 2 near here]

Correlations with the CSAI-2 confirmed the concurrent validity of the SSAQ (Table 3). Low positive correlations between distraction away from the task and somatic state anxiety, and between distraction toward the teacher and cognitive state anxiety and somatic state anxiety were found. Low negative correlations between distraction away from the task and self-confidence were also observed. These results were in line with previous studies showing that state anxiety was related to distractibility, but especially when stimuli was threat related (Eysenck et al., 2007). This could explain why the correlations with the distraction factor dimensions were low, because the teacher was considered as a factor of state anxiety, but probably not as a threat. Usually, state anxiety is related to distraction (Eysenck & Wilson, 2016; Grossbard et al., 2009), and interacts less with the willingness of focusing on the task or the teacher. Another explanation of the weak correlations with SSAQ factors could be related to the calculation of Pearson's correlations, relying on the covariance of two variables divided by the product of their standard deviation (Bishara & Hittner, 2015). The high skewness and high kurtosis, due to floor and ceiling effects (Supplementary file 2), could have limited the correlation effect (Bishara & Hittner, 2015).

[Table 3 near here]

 Concerning the measurement invariance models of the SSAQ, the $\Delta\chi^2$ (Δ df) was not significant for both models. CFI, TLI and RMSEA changes were < .01 (Table 4). We have concluded that factor structure, factor loadings, and item intercepts remained invariant across gender. Then, SSAQ sensibility was tested using one-way ANOVAs. Levene statistic indicated that assumption of variance homogeneity was not violated (p > .05). Results showed a significant difference on concentration due to the teacher (F(1,215) = 5.57, $\eta^2 = .03$, p = .02), with women (n = 96; M = 5.08; SD = 1.33) more concentrated due to the teacher than men (n = 120; M = 4.62; SD = 1.49). Similar results were found among elementary students, showing that girls demonstrated higher level of attention than boys (Alavi et al., 2019; Grossbard et al., 2009). In addition, women may have been more concentrated because they tend to be more learning goal oriented (Anderman & Young, 1994), whereas men tend to be less self-disciplined (Zimmerman & Martinez-Pons, 1990). Therefore, future research using the SSAQ should consider the influence of gender.

[Table 4 near here]

Concerning the influence of social desirability, one-way ANOVAs were conducted based on the median value which separated the sample into two groups. Students with a score of social desirability under seven (median value) were included in the fewest desirable ones' group. Inversely, students with a score of social desirability above seven were included in the most desirables ones' group. Levene statistic indicated that assumption of variance homogeneity was not violated (p > .05). A significant difference was found on distraction away from the task (F(1,215) = 6.84, $\pi^2 = .03$, p = .01), with the most desirable ones (n = 104; M = 2.95; SD = 1.48) having a lower distraction scores than the fewest desirable ones (n = 112; M = 3.51;

SD = 1.64). Results also showed low negative correlations with distraction away from the task and distraction toward the teacher. Students' distraction would be related to social desirability because students' indicators such as attention, interest and task execution have been considered as relevant for teachers (Durand, 1996) yielding items as socially sensitive (Van de Mortel, 2008). Students with high social desirability may have modified their answer in order to appear less distracted and therefore to build a good reputation with their teacher. Although this bias could be low, some precautions should be taken. During the instructions given to sport participants, investigators should emphasize that the data will be collected and held anonymously (Randall & Fernandes, 1991). Participants could fill out a social desirability scale allowing to control the characteristics of the study sample. It may be envisaged as well that the supervisor will be absent when the sport participants answer the questionnaire.

Finally, one-way ANOVAs were conducted with sport experience outside school as a group variable. Two groups were distinguished: no practice (n = 40) and regular practice (n = 176). Levene statistic indicated that assumption of variance homogeneity was not violated (p > .05). There was no significant difference between the two groups (p > .05). Despite this result, future studies should consider the influence of sport experience because the sample was small and subsequent studies may find differences.

Study 4

This fourth study aimed at confirming the factor structure of the SSAQ and assessing its reliability with high school students in a PE context. This study completed the assessment of the structural aspect of the SSAQ (Messick, 1995), examining its validity in another relevant context.

Study 4: Methods

Participants and Procedure

The participants consisted in 481 high school students ($M_{age} = 15.40$ years; $SD_{age} = .87$), including 317 girls and 161 boys (3 did not specify their gender), from 23 different high schools. A single class from each school took part in the study, based on the PE teachers' approval. The first author distributed the surveys immediately after a sport situation (after a warm-up) during a regular PE lesson. The teacher was present but did not interact with the students. Participants answered the SSAQ on a Likert scale of seven points ranging from one "absolutely not agree" to seven "absolutely agree." The inventory took approximately five minutes to complete. Sports practices were athletics (n = 33), climbing (n = 23), rugby (n = 21), volleyball (n = 27), basketball (n = 55), team handball (n = 30), table tennis (n = 15), artistic gymnastics (n = 54), badminton (n = 64), step (n = 46), and strength training (n = 113).

Data Analysis

Data analysis were conducted using the statistics software SPSS Amos 22. Missing values were examined and univariate normality distribution was analyzed. A CFA with maximum likelihood robust estimator was applied on the SSAQ to confirm the structure of the scale, using the same criteria described in Study 3. The measurement model's reliability was tested by examining the composite reliability, the internal consistency of each factor dimension, the convergent validity, and the divergent validity, with the same criteria described in Study 3.

	Study	<i>4</i> :	Results	and	discus	ssion
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Preliminary analysis

Between 0% and 1.9% of missing data per variable were observed. Since the missing data were considered as MCAR (p > .05; Little, 1988), data were estimated using full information ML estimation (Garson, 2015). Scoring distribution analysis showed that univariate normality (scoring distribution of each item are available in Supplementary file 2) was not achieved for 14 items (skewness range: -10.39 to 19.75; kurtosis range: -6.44 to 18.14).

Confirmation of the Factor Structure

The model fit was adequate ($\chi^2 = 321.55$, df = 129, p < .001, TLI = .94, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .06, LO 90% = .05, HI 90% = .06) and the standardized factor loadings were between .44 and .82 (model data are described in detail in Supplementary file 4) in a sport situation. As was the case in the CFA of Study 3, MI indicated the model fit could be improved if the error covariance between two items from the concentration due to the teacher (i.e. item 6 "*I felt that the teacher was helping me to be concentrated on the exercise*", and 18 "*I felt that the teacher was helping me focus better*") was free to co-vary (MI = 22.34). Because these items were theoretically close and in line with the CFA of Study 3, these specifications were accepted. The new model (Figure 2) showed a better fit to the data: $\chi^2 = 285.38$, df =128, p < .001, TLI = .95, CFI = .96, RMSEA = .05, LO 90% = .04, HI 90% = .06). The standardized factor loadings were between .44 and .83.

[Figure 2 near here]

Validity and Reliability

Cronbach's alphas, factor correlations, CR, AVE, ASV, means and standard deviations are presented in Table 5. AVE were above .05 and ASV below their respective AVE, meeting the requirements for convergent validity and divergent validity. All factor dimensions presented a satisfactory reliability with all CR above .70. All factor correlations were significant.

Concentration factor dimensions showed significant and negative relationships with distraction factor dimensions. Concentration factor dimensions were positively related to each other as well as distraction factor dimensions. All Cronbach's alpha scored above .70, and showed a correct internal consistency.

[Table 5 near here]

General Discussion

The purpose of the present work was to develop a self-reported measurement of sport participants' concentration/distraction. In the current set of studies, we offered a definition of an attentive sport participant, which could be useful to better understand how to maximize sport participants' concentration and reduce distraction. We then developed a self-reported measurement to capture the sport participants' level of concentration/distraction.

Four separate studies provided evidence for the construct validity of the SSAQ. Study 1 provided a definition of attentive sport participant, and developed 50 items. Based on the definition, the panel of experts' evaluations refined the initial pool of items to 20 items. Cognitive interviews with sport sciences students ensured the content validity of this initial pool of 20 items. Study 2 provided evidence for the four-factor structure of the SSAQ subscales (i.e. concentration on the task, concentration due to the teacher, distraction away from the task, and distraction toward the teacher). Refining the scale to 18 items, by

considering factor loading in EFA and inter-correlations, the SSAQ respected the minimum of four items for each factor (Clark & Watson, 2016). Study 3 provided evidence for the factor, convergent and divergent validity of the subscales, and found support for measurement invariance according to the gender. Study 3 also supported concurrent validity, as state anxiety was correlated with the distraction subscales. Study 4 demonstrated a consistently good factor structure of the SSAO across a sample of high school students during a PE sport situation. Finally, studies 2, 3 and 4 demonstrated satisfactory internal consistency reliability of the SSAQ. A noteworthy feature of the SSAQ is its adaptability to several sport situations context. This adaptability results from the wordings of the items that are easily tailored to academic or organized sport situation (e.g. using "coach" instead of "teacher"; Riou et al., 2012). As a result, the SSAQ is a somewhat short instrument (18 items) that can be easily used to measure sport participants' concentration and distraction during different sport situations, such as PE course, sport lesson in higher education, sport training in club and sport programs for health and well-being (Riou et al., 2012). Another important strength of the SSAQ is that this questionnaire considers the concentration/distraction with the task and the supervisor, as an aspect which has never been considered before, when capturing sport participants' concentration with self-reported measures (Maldonado et al., 2019; Ntoumanis, 2005; Solmon & Lee, 1997; Standage et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2012). From a theoretical standpoint, the SSAQ will allow researchers to test various theories and pedagogical practices that can improve sport participants' concentration and reduce sport participants' distraction. For example, using selfdetermination theory (Ryan & Deci, 2017), the following sequence could be investigated: motivational climate – basic psychological need satisfaction/frustration – self-determined motivation – concentration/distraction. Similar causal sequences have been previously tested

with concentration (Maldonado et al., 2019; Ntoumanis, 2005; Standage et al., 2005). However, none of these authors have considered sport participants' distraction. Besides, few studies have focused on how self-determined behaviours influence cognitive variables (Vasconcellos et al., 2020). The SSAQ and self-determination theory combined offer possibilities to begin inspecting the effects of motivational climate in sport participants' concentration/distraction. By developing and validating the SSAO as well, we have attempted to fill a theoretical gap and a lack of psychometric scale in sport situations. However, although all studies in this paper provided evidence for the validity and reliability of the SSAQ, our work also have some limitations. Items asymmetry and kurtosis are high in all of the studies. The factor dimension distraction toward the teacher also presented high skewness and kurtosis in all the studies. In accordance with these results (Terwee et al., 2007), the response frequencies for each item in each study (presented in Supplementary file 2), have underlined floor and ceiling effects (i.e. when more than 15% of participants achieved the lowest or highest possible score; Terwee et al., 2007). This result could be explained because the supervisor did not adopted distracting behaviors. It would be interesting to examine the concurrent validity of the SSAQ during anxiety-inducing situations in sport, fostering sport participant's state anxiety that may increase distraction (Eysenck & Wilson, 2016) and may disrupt concentration (Smith et al., 2006). In the same vein, concurrent validity should be also tested with other variables such as reaction time or other psychological variables, in order to improve evidence of the SSAQ validity. Furthermore, although validity and reliability of the SSAQ were also investigated among high school students ($M_{age} = 15.40$ years; $SD_{age} = .87$), the content validity of the SSAQ was established with university students aged around 18 to 19 years. The SSAQ questionnaire interpretation may be different across age groups. Future research should run invariance analysis to examine the role of age gap in the measurements of these four factor dimensions. Another limitation of

the present research is that the SSAQ relies on students' perceptions of whether they felt concentrated and distracted during the sport situation. With any self-reported measure, there are always concerns with memory recall, social desirability and the truthfulness of responses (Brenner & DeLamater, 2014). For example, Study 3 found that the distraction factor dimensions were slightly affected by the social desirability response bias.

In conclusion, the present studies provided evidence for the validity and reliability of the SSAQ. The SSAQ could be used to conduct research with individuals during a sport situation implying a supervisor, aiming at assessing the predictors and consequences of sport participants' concentration and distraction on various variables such as emotion, motivation, learning, and performance. The SSAQ fosters initiatives such as exploring the role of pedagogical strategies during sport situations on sport participants' concentration and distraction. The SSAQ could also be used by supervisors to evaluate the level of concentration and distraction of individuals during a sport situation.

Disclosure statement

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Table 1. Exploratory factor analysis with maximum likelihood method and internal consistency (Study 2)

	2	0-SSA	.Q Fac	tor	18-SSAQ Factor			
	I	II	Ш	IV	I	II	Ш	IV
[I] Concentration on the task	$\alpha = 0$.88ª			α =	.88b		
Item-1. I was concentrated to success the exercise	.78				.76			
Item-5. I was focused on the exercise	.67				.60			
Item-9. I was devoted to realize the exercise	.78				.81			
Item-13. I kept attentive throughout the exercise	.66				.53			
Item-17. I was concentrated to get the exercise done	.79				.73			
[II] Concentration due to the teacher		α=	.87ª			$\alpha = .$	87 ^b	
Item-2. The teacher directed my attention on what needed to be done		.56				.57		
Item-6. I felt that the teacher was helping me to be concentrated on the exercise		.79				.79		
Item-10. I felt that the teacher knew what to be done in order for me to be concentrated on the exercise		.83				.87		
Item-14. The teacher was able to capture my attention in order to get me involved in the exercise		.67				.68		
Item-18. I felt that the teacher was helping me focus better		.73				.76		
[III] Distraction away from the task		α	= .75a				$\alpha = .7$	7 ^b
Item-3 ^C . I made mistakes of inattention			.38					
Item-7. I happened to have my head in the clouds			.55				.60	
Item-11. I happened to be distracted			.76				.77	
Item-15. I happened to think about something else rather than the exercise			.53				.58	
Item-19. I was distracted by external events			.58				.73	
[IV] Distraction toward the teacher			α	$= .75^{a}$			α=	: .79b
Item-4. During the exercise, I was distracted by the teacher				.71				.72
Item-8. I happened to be distracted by what the teacher was doing				.73				.70
Item-12. Some teacher's explanations distracted me during the exercise				.69				.66
Item-16. I happened to be distracted by what the teacher was talking about				.67				.67
Item-20 °. I directed more my attention to the teacher than to the exercise		.32						

Note. a = Cronbach's alpha of 20-SSAQ; b = Cronbach's alpha of 18-SSAQ; c = items excluded from 18-SSAQ; To facilitate the reading, all values < .32 were not reported; English items have not been validated; French validated items are available in Supplementary file 1.

Table 2. Factor correlations, variances, means, standard deviations and internal consistencies (Study 3)

	1	2	3	4	CR	AVE	ASV	M	SD
1. Concentration on the task	.87	.41***	55***	n.s	.88	.59	.16	5.28	1.08
2. Concentration due to the teac	her	.90	18**	n.s	.89	.62	.07	4.82	1.44
3. Distraction away from the task			.80	.23**	.81	.51	.13	3.24	1.59
4. Distraction toward the teacher				.76	.77	.47	.02	1.75	.98

Note. α = diagonals; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted; ASV = Average Shared Variance; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; n.s = no significant; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001



Table 3. Outcomes correlations, descriptive statistics and internal consistencies (Study 3)

	SC	CSA	SSA	Soc Des
Concentration on the task	n.s	n.s	n.s	n.s
Concentration due to the teacher	n.s	n.s	n.s	n.s
Distraction away from the task	19**	n.s	.20***	21**
Distraction toward the teacher	n.s	.15*	.14*	15*
Mean	3.02	1.71	1.48	7.08
Standard Deviation	.68	.78	.49	2.77
Cronbach's alpha	.89	.91	.66	.64

Note. SC = Self-Confidence; CSA = Cognitive State Anxiety; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability excluding the item 4; Soc Desirability excluding the item 4; Soc Des = Social Desirability excluding the item 4; Social Desirability excluding the i

Table 4. Measurement invariance testing across gender groups (Study 3)

Model	χ²(df)	RMSEA (90% CI)	CFI	TLI	CM	$\Delta \chi^2$ (Δdf)	Δ RMSEA	ΔCFI	ΔTLI
a: Configural	417.170 (256)***	.054 (.045064)	0.917	0.900	-	-	-	-	-
b: Metric	432.080 (270)***	.053 (.044062)	0.916	0.905	a	14.910 (14)	001	001	.005
c: Scalar	457.969 (288)***	.053 (.043061)	0.912	0.906	b	25.889 (18)	.000	004	.001

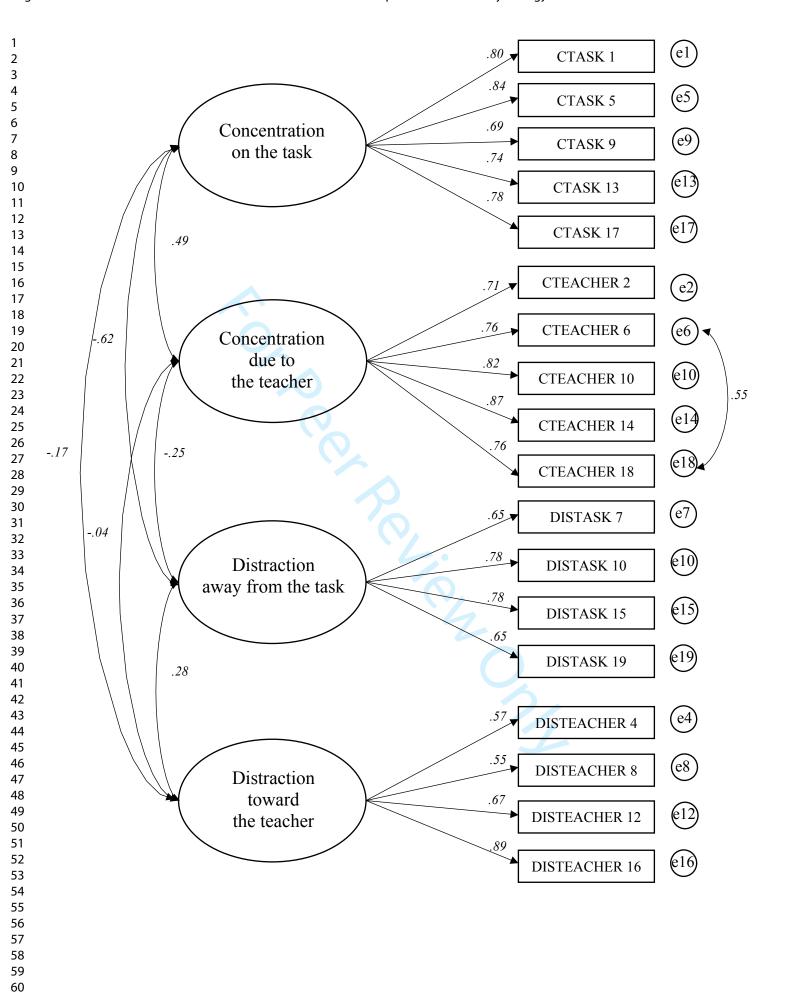
Note. The subsamples for the different measurement invariance analyses were women (n = 96), and men (n = 120); df = degrees of freedom; RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; Cl = Confidence Interval; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; CM = comparison model; **** = p < .001.

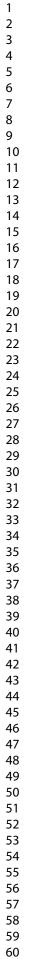
Table 5. Factor correlations, variances, means, standard deviations and internal consistencies (Study 4)

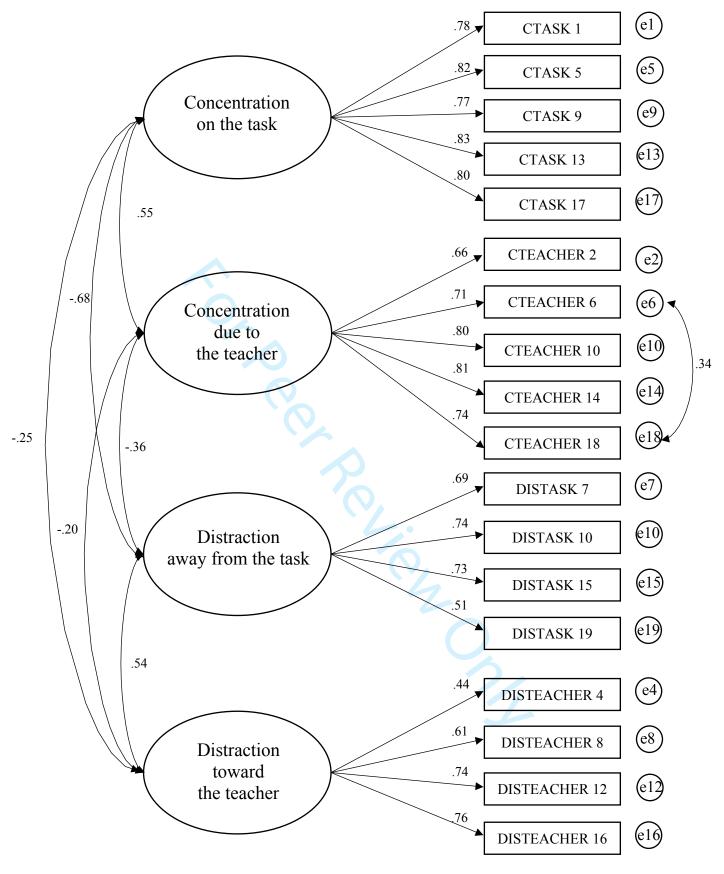
	1	2	3	4	CR	AVE	ASV	M	SD
1. Concentration on the task	.90	.47***	55***	19***	.90	.64	.19	5.28	1.27
2. Concentration due to the tea	cher	.87	26***	15**	.86	.56	.10	4.69	1.46
3. Distraction away from the ta	ask		.76	.42***	.76	.45	.18	3.47	1.62
4. Distraction toward the teach			.73	.74	.42	.08	2.06	1.21	

Note. α = diagonals; CR = Composite Reliability; AVE = Average Variance Extracted; ASV = Average Shared Variance; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; n.s = no significant; ** = p < .01; *** = p < .001









Supplementary file 1. Item comprehension of the pool of 20 items in Study 1

Items	M	SD	Problem mentioned during the interview
CTASK1. J'étais concentré(e) pour réussir l'exercice.	6.00	.00	
CTEACHER2. J'ai eu l'impression que l'enseignant savait quoi faire pour que je me concentre sur l'exercice.	5.80	.63	"SAVAIT QUOI FAIRE"
DISTASK3. Il m'est arrivé(e) d'être déconcentré(e).	6.00	.00	
DISTEACHER4. Pendant l'exercice, j'ai été déconcentré(e) par l'enseignant.	6.00	.00	
CTASK5. J'étais focalisé(e) sur l'exercice.	6.00	.00	
CTEACHER6. J'ai senti que l'enseignant m'aidait à me concentrer sur l'exercice	5.90	.32	"J'AI SENTI"
DISTASK7. Il m'est arrivé(e) d'être dans la lune	5.90	.32	"EST ARRIVE"
DISTEACHER8. Il m'est arrivé(e) d'être déconcentré(e) par ce que faisait l'enseignant.	6.00	.00	
CTASK9. Je me suis appliqué(e) à réaliser l'exercice	6.00	.00	
CTEACHER10. L'enseignant a su diriger mon attention sur ce qu'il fallait faire.	6.00	.00	
DISTASK11. J'ai commis des erreurs d'inattention.	6.00	.00	
DISTEACHER12. Certaines explications de l'enseignant m'ont distrait pendant l'exercice	5.80	.42	"DISTRAIT"
CTASK13. Je suis resté(e) attentif(ve) tout le long de l'exercice	6.00	.00	
CTEACHER14. L'enseignant a su capter mon attention pour que je m'implique dans l'exercice.	6.00	.00	
DISTASK15. Il m'est arrivé(e) de penser à autre chose plutôt qu'à l'exercice.	5.90	.32	SAISI MAL LE SENS GENERAL
DISTEACHER16. Il m'est arrivé(e) d'être déconcentré(e) par ce que disait l'enseignant.	6.00	.00	
CTASK17. J'étais concentré(e) pour réaliser l'exercice.	6.00	.00	
CTEACHER18. J'ai eu l'impression que l'enseignant m'aidait à mieux me concentrer.	5.90	.32	SAISI MAL LE SENS GENERAL
DISTASK19. J'ai été distrait(e) par des événements extérieurs	5.80	.42	"EVENEMENTS EXTERIEURS"
DISTEACHER20. J'étais davantage concentré(e) sur l'enseignant que sur l'exercice.	5.50	.85	SAISI MAL LE SENS GENERAL

Supplementary file 2. Scoring distribution of the SSAQ in Study 2, 3 and 4

		Study 2			Study 3			Study 4	
Items	M	Skew	Kurt	M	Skew	Kurt	M	Skew	Kurt
	(SD)			(SD)			(SD)		
CTASK1	4.65	-1.65	-1.17	5.12	-2.30	-1.64	5.34	-5.02	81
	(1.35)			(1.30)			(1.63)		
CTEACHER2	4.81	-1.85	-1.61	5.61	-7.18	3.63	5.50	-9.87	2.19
	(1.50)			(1.43)			(1.60)		
DISTASK3	3.09	1.61	-2.96	-	-	-	-	-	-
	(1.72)								
DISTEACHER4	1.68	12.14	14.36	1.45	16.07	23.56	1.72	19.75	18.14
OTT A OTT 5	(1.32)	1.05	1 45	(.97)	2.22	1.06	(1.41)	- 44	1.06
CTASK5	4.94	-1.85	-1.47	5.19	-3.32	-1.26	5.12	-5.44	-1.26
OTE A CHED ((1.45)		1.02	(1.32)	2.20	2.72	(1.53)	2.51	2.74
CTEACHER6	4.09	34	-1.83	4.48	-2.38	-2.72	4.49	-3.51	-3.74
DICTACLT	(1.56)	1 27	1.52	(1.86)	5 12	2.10	(1.85)	4.20	E 17
DISTASK7	2.74	4.37	-1.53	2.73	5.13	-2.18	3.17	4.38	-5.47
DICTEACHEDO	(1.92)	10.09	7.10	(2.03)	12.40	12.00	(2.16)	15 01	0.22
DISTEACHER8	1.91 (1.50)	10.08	7.48	1.64	13.49	13.99	1.96	15.84	9.32
CTASK9	5.52	-4.19	1.03	(1.25) 5.73	-6.34	3.19	(1.63) 5.61	-10.39	4.58
CIASK9	(1.22)	-4.19	1.03	(1.21)	-0.34	3.19	(1.41)	-10.39	4.36
CTEACHER10	4.27	-1.02	-1.76	4.74	-3.80	-1.12	4.48	-2.79	-4.32
CIEACHERIO	(1.60)	-1.02	-1.70	(1.69)	-3.60	-1.12	(1.88)	-2.19	-4.32
DISTASK11	3.77	.87	-3.29	3.61	.99	-3.95	3.87	.34	-6.04
DISTASKIT	(1.89)	.07	-3.47	(2.02)	.,,	-3.73	(2.11)	.54	-0.04
DISTEACHER12	2.13	7.53	4.20	1.94	9.93	4.86	2.33	10.68	.79
DISTERICIER(12	(1.41)	7.55	1.20	(1.53)	7.75	1.00	(1.78)	10.00	.17
CTASK13	4.64	-2.34	-1.48	5.01	-3.33	80	4.99	-5.54	-1.97
	(1.54)			(1.50)			(1.68)		
CTEACHER14	4.50	92	-1.46	4.94	-4.08	69	4.80	-5.27	-1.89
	(1.43)			(1.67)			(1.73)		
DISTASK15	3.94	13	-3.48	3.72	.48	-4.18	3.88	.24	-6.44
	(2.06)			(2.06)			(2.16)		
DISTEACHER16	2.22	7.70	4.88	1.94	9.24	4.75	2.25	11.35	2.71
	(1.49)			(1.37)			(1.67)		
CTASK17	5.04	-4.35	1.13	5.34	-4.42	.80	5.36	-8.61	2.02
	(1.46)			(1.28)			(1.52)		
CTEACHER18	3.95	64	-1.43	4.33	-2.25	-2.77	4.19	-2.00	-4.48
	(1.51)			(1.83)			(1.91)		
DISTASK19	3.20	2.25	-2.77	2.92	3.53	-2.89	2.95	5.69	-4.51
	(1.94)			(1.90)			(2.08)		
DISTEACHER20	2.16	7.23	4.06	-	-			-	-
	(1.43)								
CTASK	4.95	-2.22	-0.64	5.28	-3.56	-0.06	5.28	-6.59	0.33
	(1.18)			(1.08)			(1.27)		
CTEACHER	4.32	-0.72	-1.33	4.82	-3.39	-1.38	4.69	-3.52	-2.57
	(1.24)			(1.44)			(1.46)		
DISTASK	3.42a	2.22^{a}	-1.46a	3.24	2.08	-2.86	3.47	2.42	-3.98
p. ramp. 1 2	(1.53)	0.651	0.451	(1.59)	40	40 = .	(1.62)		
DISTEACHER	1.99 ^b	8.32^{b}	8.12 ^b	1.75	10.67	10.74	2.06	11.58	5.42
	(1.11)			(.99)			(1.21)		

Note. Study 2: n = 164 sport sciences students; Study 3: n = 216 sport sciences students; Study 4: n = 481 high school students; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation; Skew. = Skewness value; Kurt. = Kurtosis value; CTASK = Concentration on the task. CTEACHER = Concentration due to the teacher. DISTASK = Distraction away from the task. DISTEACHER = Distraction toward the teacher; a = DISTASK skewness and kurtosis scores were calculated without DISTASK3; b = DISTEACHER skewness and kurtosis scores were calculated without DISTEACHER20

Supplementary file 2. Frequency tables of the answers to items of the SSAQ in Study 2, Study 3 and Study 4

Study 2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CTASK1	1	5	13	26	23	26	6
CTEACHER2	2	5	13	23	18	26	13
DISTASK3	24	21	11	18	15	9	1
DISTEACHER4	68	13	6	7	0	2	2
CTASK5	1	5	10	21	24	22	16
CTEACHER6	5	13	18	23	23	13	6
DISTASK7	40	18	12	9	10	7	5
DISTEACHER8	58	24	2	5	3	4	2
CTASK9	1	1	5	15	19	37	22
CTEACHER10	5	9	15	27	16	20	7
DISTASK11	11	24	12	15	13	16	9
DISTEACHER12	44	29	10	10	3	3	1
CTASK13	3	7	14	19	21	27	9
CTEACHER14	1	9	14	25	26	18	8
DISTASK15	16	17	7	15	17	13	14
DISTEACHER16	43	26	15	9	3	2	3
CTASK17	4	2	7	20	20	33	13
CTEACHER18	7	12	17	28	20	12	4
DISTASK19	28	17	12	15	13	9	7
DISTEACHER20	45	26	12	12	3	2	2

Note. n = 164; values are expressed in percentage.

Study 3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CTASK1	0	3	9	19	26	28	15
CTEACHER2	2	1	6	9	19	29	33
DISTASK3	75	14	4	4	2	0	0
CTASK5	0	3	9	16	24	33	15
CTEACHER6	10	8	11	19	14	23	15
DISTASK7	44	19	4	9	10	7	2
DISTEACHER8	70	13	7	3	5	1	1
CTASK9	0	1	3	10	19	35	31
CTEACHER10	6	8	4	23	19	25	14
DISTASK11	21	19	8	13	18	11	10
DISTEACHER12	61	17	5	6	5	5	1
CTASK13	2	3	11	19	21	26	17
CTEACHER14	6	3	10	19	19	25	19
DISTASK15	21	16	11	9	18	14	10
DISTEACHER16	56	19	11	6	6	2	0
CTASK17	0	3	5	15	25	33	19
CTEACHER18	11	9	11	18	19	22	11
DISTASK19	35	18	9	13	12	8	4

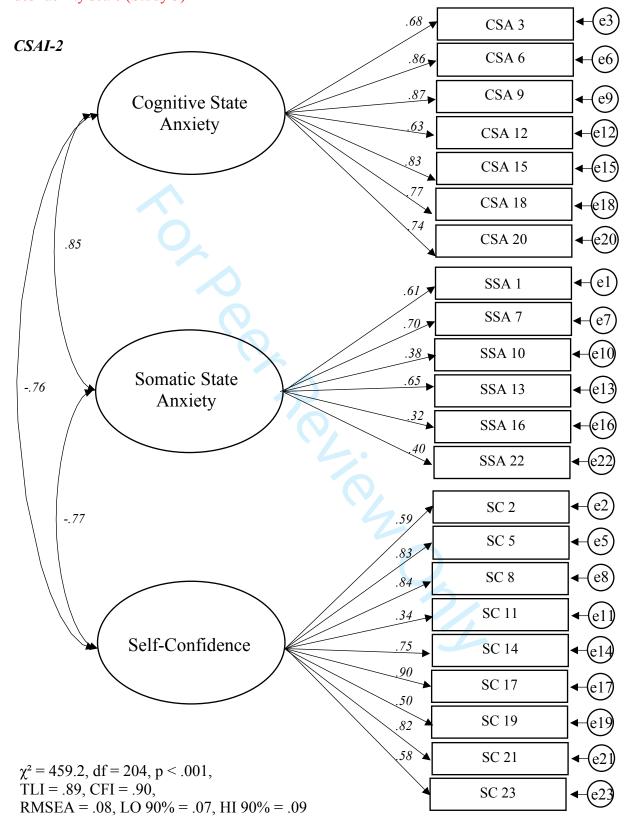
Note. n = 216; values are expressed in percentage

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Study 4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
CTASK1	1	1	8	16	27	23	25
CTEACHER2	3	4	5	10	17	26	35
DISTASK3	70	15	4	5	3	3	1
CTASK5	2	4	10	16	22	24	22
CTEACHER6	10	7	11	19	18	19	16
DISTASK7	36	14	7	11	13	7	11
DISTEACHER8	63	15	5	6	5	3	4
CTASK9	2	2	6	9	19	31	32
CTEACHER10	9	10	11	19	17	16	18
DISTASK11	20	15	8	16	15	11	16
DISTEACHER12	51	17	7	8	7	6	3
CTASK13	4	5	10	16	19	23	22
CTEACHER14	7	6	7	22	19	21	19
DISTASK15	21	15	9	10	16	13	16
DISTEACHER16	51	17	9	10	6	3	3
CTASK17	3	3	6	14	19	29	26
CTEACHER18	14	8	12	21	16	16	13
DISTASK19	40	14	9	11	12	7	9

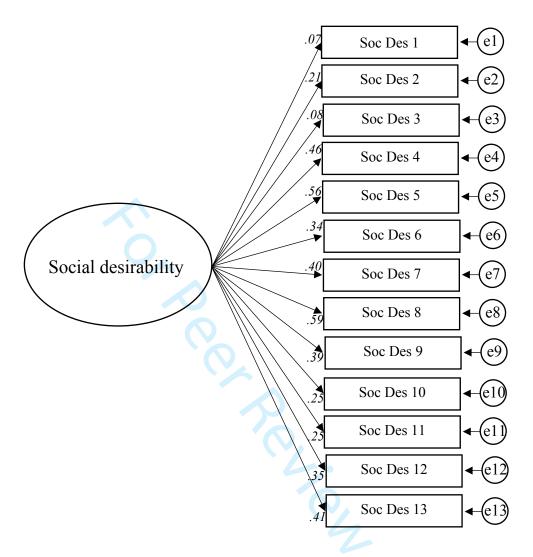
Note. n = 481; values are expressed in percentage.

Supplementary file 3. Confirmatory factor analysis with the CSAI-2 and the social desirability scale (Study 3)



Note. CSA = Cognitive State Anxiety; SSA = Somatic State Anxiety excluding the item 4; SC = Self-Confidence

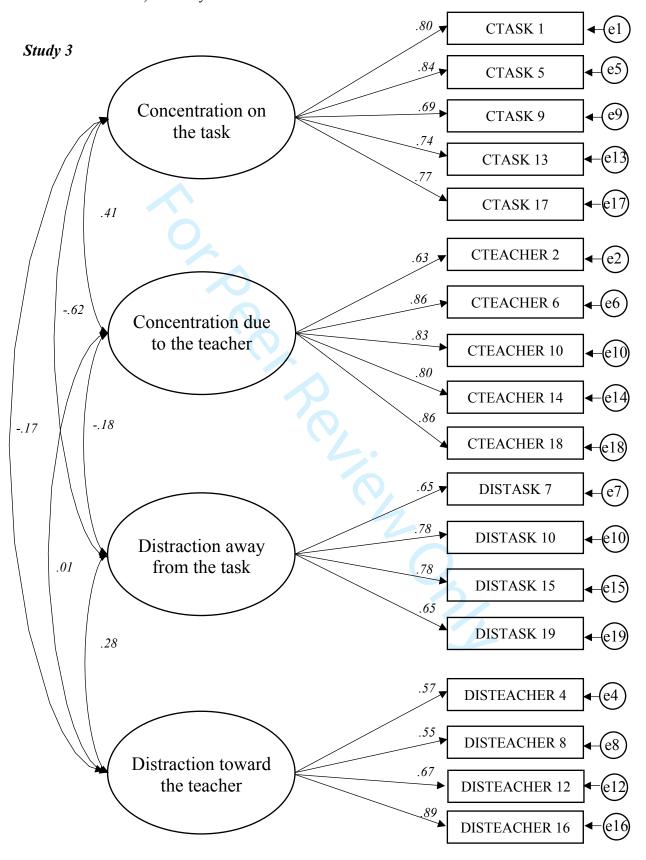
Social desirability scale



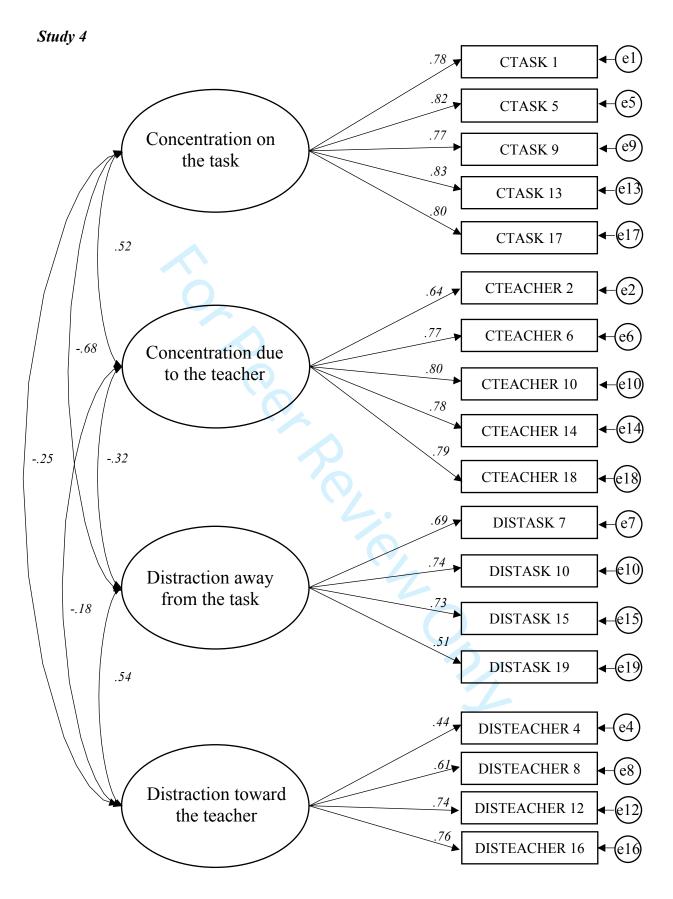
$$\chi^2$$
 =84, df = 63, p = .035,
TLI = .86, CFI = .89,
RMSEA = .04, LO 90% = .01, HI 90% = .06

 $Note.\ Soc\ Des = Social\ Desirability$

Supplementary file 4. Initial confirmatory factor analysis (without error covariance between item 6 and item 18) in Study 3 and 4



Note. Study 3: n = 216 sport sciences students. CTASK = Concentration on the task. CTEACHER = Concentration due to the teacher. DISTASK = Distraction away from the task. DISTEACHER = Distraction toward the teacher



Note. Study 4: n = 481 high school students. CTASK = Concentration on the task. CTEACHER = Concentration due to the teacher. DISTASK = Distraction away from the task. DISTEACHER = Distraction toward the teacher