

Students' attitudes towards and experiences of the Youth-fit health related fitness test battery.

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Students' attitudes towards and experiences of the Youth-fit health related fitness test battery.

The aim of this study was to examine secondary school students' attitudes towards and experiences of a student-centred health related fitness test battery. A total of 795 adolescents (403 boys, 50.7%; 392 girls, 49.3%) aged 13.2 years (± 0.39) from 20 secondary schools in the Republic of Ireland participated in the study. Schools were stratified for gender, location and educational (dis)advantage. Students completed the test battery in small groups ($n \leq 6$) and each test item was administered by a trained senior student facilitator. Testing took place during physical education lessons. Test items included: body mass index; 20m shuttle run; back-saver sit and reach; hand-grip strength; standing long jump; isometric plank-hold; 90° push-up; 4x10m shuttle run; and blood pressure. Following participation in the test battery, students completed an instrument with valid scores for measuring attitudes towards fitness tests (Mercier and Silverman, 2014b). Students' experiences of each test item were also analysed. Overall, students had a positive attitude towards fitness testing ($M = 3.9, \pm 0.59$) on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Although both positive, the mean attitude score for boys ($M = 4.05, \pm 0.59$) was significantly higher than girls ($M = 3.79, \pm 0.59; p < 0.01, t\text{-test}$). Most students ($n = 690, 86.8\%$) agreed or strongly agreed that the senior student facilitator made it easier for them to perform the tests. In conclusion, students had positive attitudes towards and experiences of the Youth-fit test battery. Physical education teachers should consider implementing a small group and senior student facilitated approach when administering fitness tests.

Keywords: adolescents, monitoring, health, physical fitness, student-centred

1 **Introduction**

2 Schools, and specifically physical education programmes, have been identified as the
3 most suitable vehicle for the promotion of active and healthy lifestyles among young
4 people (Pate et al., 2006). In recent years, the unique position of physical education as a
5 key stakeholder in the promotion of healthy lifestyle behaviours among youth has been
6 increasingly acknowledged by global (WHO, 2018) and national (Department of Health,
7 2016) policy makers. Rising obesity and inactivity levels among youth have stimulated a
8 continued push for health-related fitness outcomes to be a focal point of physical
9 education (Garn and Sun, 2009). In a worldwide survey of physical education
10 programmes, health related physical fitness (HRPF) was ranked the number one most
11 significant curriculum theme in school-based physical education (UNESCO, 2014).
12 Fitness testing, a component of fitness education programmes, has been part of physical
13 education for over half a century (Morrow et al., 2009), and has been reported as one of
14 the most practical ways to teach the components of HRPF in physical education settings
15 (Garn and Sun, 2009). Indeed, several states in the United States, and countries including
16 Japan, China, Slovenia, Hungary and Finland have mandated monitoring physical fitness
17 in school physical education programmes in the form of HRPF test batteries (O’Keeffe et
18 al., 2020b).

19 Although fitness testing continues to be a component of most physical education
20 programmes (Cooper et al., 2010), its role in physical education remains a divisive topic.
21 Critics claim the prominence of fitness testing could be contributing to the growing
22 performative culture that has enveloped education systems in recent years (Alfrey and
23 Gard, 2014), and its inclusion in physical education programmes may well represent a
24 misdirected effort at health promotion (Cale and Harris, 2009). In one of the few empirical
25 studies of students’ attitudes towards fitness testing, Hopple and Graham (1995)

26 suggested that students are often unclear about what they actually learn from the process.
27 In contrast, proponents highlight the potential educational (Pate et al., 2013), motivational
28 (Graser et al., 2011) and health (Ruiz et al., 2009) benefits of HRPF testing. Many
29 scholars have cited the importance of teaching students how to self-assess their fitness
30 levels as a core element of promoting lifelong physical activity (Castelli and Williams,
31 2007). Artero and colleagues (2011) suggested that fitness testing in school settings
32 coordinated by qualified physical education professionals could represent a viable
33 alternative to monitoring key indicators of health among youth in epidemiological
34 studies. Despite these contrasting views, there is an emerging consensus that, if
35 appropriately employed and incorporated as just one component of a broad and balanced
36 programme, there is no reason why HRPF testing cannot make a valuable contribution to
37 physical education in schools (Cale et al., 2014; Wiersma and Sherman, 2008).

38 There has been a wealth of research on HRPF test items that produce valid scores
39 (Lubans et al., 2011; Ramírez-Vélez et al., 2015; Ruiz et al., 2009) in addition to
40 pedagogically sound approaches to integrating fitness testing in school-based physical
41 education programmes (Corbin et al., 2014; Harris and Cale, 2007; Liu, 2008; Wiersma
42 and Sherman, 2008; Zhu et al., 2018). Recently, the ALPHA (Assessing Levels of
43 Physical Activity) fitness test battery was developed to facilitate monitoring HRPF in a
44 comparable way in the European Union (Ruiz et al., 2011). The ALPHA test battery was
45 shown to produce valid and reliable scores, and was found to be safe for use in school
46 settings when administered by a physical education teacher (Espana-Romero et al., 2010).
47 Recommendations for integrating fitness testing in school-based physical education
48 programmes in a pedagogically sound manner included: moving away from command-
49 style test administration, to a more reciprocal, student-centred approach (Graser et al.,
50 2011); using criterion rather than norm referenced health standards to promote self-

51 referenced comparison with attainable health standards (Mahar and Rowe, 2008); and
52 allowing students an opportunity to familiarise themselves with tests prior to testing
53 (Martin et al., 2010). However, a recent review of HRPF monitoring practices from a
54 nationally representative sample of schools in the Republic of Ireland indicated that many
55 teachers were not implementing these best practice recommendations, instead integrating
56 tests in isolation and minimising learning opportunities for students (O’Keeffe et al.,
57 2020b).

58 There is a dearth of research on student voice regarding their attitudes towards
59 and experiences of fitness testing. Much of the research that is commonly cited when
60 debating the role of fitness testing in physical education is based on a very small number
61 of empirical research studies, some of which were conducted over quarter of a century
62 ago (Cale and Harris, 2009; Hopple and Graham, 1995; Luke and Sinclair, 1991).
63 Students’ experiences of fitness tests using the aforementioned pedagogically sound
64 recommendations have yet to be analysed in order to determine whether or not they
65 actually work, and calls for more empirical work on the views of young people on fitness
66 testing have mostly gone unanswered (Alfrey and Gard, 2019). Furthermore, given the
67 prominence of testing in fitness education units (O’Keeffe et al., 2020b), what students
68 think and feel about fitness testing and how these attitudes could affect participation in
69 life-long physical activity are important to identify (Mercier and Silverman, 2014b).
70 Vazou, Mischo and Ladwig (2019) similarly highlighted the scarcity of pragmatic
71 experimental investigations examining the effects of specific changes to how physical
72 education, and more specifically fitness testing, is delivered, on the quality of the
73 experience that students derive.

74 In an effort to address this paucity of empirical research, Mercier and Silverman
75 (2014b) developed an instrument to measure students’ attitudes towards fitness testing.

76 The 18-item instrument, which was shown to produce valid and reliable scores with
77 adolescent populations, is comprised of four sub-factors namely: cognitive; affect-
78 enjoyment; affect-feelings; and affect-teacher (Mercier and Silverman 2014a). The
79 instrument was informed by Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behaviour, which posits
80 that attitudes are a significant predictor of human behaviour, in addition to subjective
81 norms and perceived behavioural control. Researching attitudes is important as decisions,
82 such as whether to remain physically active, can be strongly influenced by attitudes
83 (Solmon, 2003). In the only large scale study to use the instrument to date, Mercier and
84 Silverman (2014a) found that students had a slightly positive attitude toward fitness
85 testing, with boys reporting significantly higher mean values in comparison to girls.
86 However, this instrument has not been used to examine students' attitudes towards fitness
87 testing outside of the United States. In addition, to the authors' knowledge, no study has
88 examined students' experiences of multiple commonly administered HRPF test items
89 when delivered in the form of a test battery in a physical education context. Therefore,
90 the aim of the current study was to examine students' attitudes towards and experiences
91 of a student-centred health related fitness test battery in secondary school-based physical
92 education programmes.

93 **Methods**

94 The methodological design of this study included four steps: 1) instrumentation; 2) school
95 and participant recruitment; 3) Youth-fit test battery administration and evaluation; 4)
96 data analysis. Ethics committee approval was granted by the Research Ethics Committee
97 of the Faculty of Education and Health Sciences at the University of Limerick
98 (EHS_2017_02_12).

99 *Instrumentation*

100 Data were collected using the Students' Attitudes towards Fitness Testing instrument,
101 developed by Mercier and Silverman (2014b). This is an 18-item instrument, made up of
102 four sub-factors: cognitive (6 items), affect-enjoyment (3 items), affect-feelings (4 items)
103 and affect-teacher (5 items). Scores from this instrument were shown to be valid and
104 reliable for measuring adolescents' attitudes towards fitness testing. The development of
105 this instrument has been described comprehensively elsewhere (Mercier and Silverman,
106 2014b). Questions specifically in relation to students' experiences of the Youth-fit test
107 battery were included in the evaluation in addition to the 18-item instrument used to
108 examine attitudes towards fitness tests. Students were asked to rate their experiences of
109 completing each test item on a scale of 1 (very poor) to 5 (very good). Students also
110 indicated if they preferred a self/peer, teacher or external expert approach to
111 administering the test battery, and if they shared their HRPF results with a
112 parent/guardian. Finally, students were asked two open ended questions which required
113 them to identify the most and least enjoyable component of the test battery.

114 A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to examine data fit to the model
115 proposed by Mercier and Silverman (2014b) for the current study sample using SPSS
116 Amos (v26, Chicago IL). The CFA confirmed an overall good fit of the data to the four-

117 factor model; all indicator variables loaded significantly ($p < .001$) on the associated latent
118 factor. Model fit indices including the comparative fit index, the Tucker-Lewis Index and
119 root mean square error of approximation, were .897, .877 and .085, respectively,
120 indicating a good fit of the data to the model. Cronbach's alpha internal consistency
121 coefficients were also determined and represented good to excellent levels of reliability
122 for each sub-factor and for the overall model. The alpha reliability coefficient for the
123 entire model was .892, and the four factors and their reliability scores were cognitive (α
124 .887), affective-enjoyment (α .808), affective-feelings (α .834), and affective-teacher (α
125 .732). Furthermore, a Cronbach's alpha measure of .851 was established for the 10-item
126 test experience scale developed specifically for this study, representing excellent
127 reliability.

128 *School and participant recruitment*

129 A randomised sample of 20 schools, stratified for gender (boys, girls and mixed-gender),
130 location (categorised by population density: urban, the cities of Cork and Limerick; rural,
131 all other areas of the mid and south west of the Republic of Ireland) and educational
132 (dis)advantage (designated disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged schools), classified by
133 the Department of Education and Skills, Government of Ireland (2017), participated in
134 the study. If a school in the initial sample declined to participate, a replacement list of
135 schools for each stratum was generated to provide an alternative school with the same
136 demographics. Due to the geographical spread of schools, and the need to visit each
137 school individually, 20 schools was considered to be the maximum sample size
138 achievable from a logistical viewpoint, and the minimum required to ensure a sufficient
139 number of schools in each of the chosen strata. Approval from the principal and
140 cooperating physical education teacher in each school was granted following an initial

141 email and telephone conversation. Written informed consent was obtained from the
142 parents/guardians of the students, and the students themselves. The Republic of Ireland
143 education system comprises three levels including, primary, post-primary (secondary)
144 and third level. Post primary or secondary education is made up of junior cycle (years one
145 to three, ages 13 to 15), a transition year (year four, age 16) and senior cycle (years five
146 and six, ages 17 to 18). This study focused specifically on students in year one of
147 secondary school education (ages 13 to 14) and was open to all students in the selected
148 year group in each participating school.

149 *Youth-fit test battery administration and evaluation*

150 Cooperating physical education teachers in each school selected eight senior students
151 (years four to six, ages 16 to 18) as test facilitators. A detailed standard operating
152 procedure was designed for and read by senior student facilitators and cooperating
153 teachers, who also participated in a three-hour workshop delivered by the lead author one
154 week in advance of testing. Administration protocols for each test item have been
155 described elsewhere (O’Keeffe et al., 2020a). One week after administering the test
156 battery, participating students completed the evaluation survey during physical education
157 class time. For convenience and wide distribution, an online questionnaire, via
158 SurveyMonkey (Palo Alto, CA) cloud-based software, was utilised to administer the
159 evaluation survey. All student participants received an email that outlined the purpose of
160 the survey, details regarding the time commitment and confidentiality, and a web link to
161 complete the survey. Participants were informed that they could exit the survey at any
162 time without implication. Cooperating physical education teachers clarified any
163 questions students had on specific items in the survey.

164 *Data analysis*

165 Complete responses ($N = 795$) were extracted from SurveyMonkey and transferred to
166 SPSS (version 25; IBM Corp. Chicago, IL) for analysis. The research team defined an
167 incomplete response as missing one or more items from the attitude instrument.
168 Incomplete responses ($n = 74$) were excluded from all analyses. A visual inspection of
169 histograms for key outcome variables showed that data were normally distributed, with
170 skewness of ≤ -1.3 ($SE = .087$) and kurtosis of ≤ 1.9 ($SE = .173$). Descriptive statistics
171 including means (M), standard deviations (\pm) and 95% confidence intervals were
172 determined for gender and school type for factor and overall attitude scores. Independent
173 samples t -tests were used to compare differences between boys and girls, and school level
174 socio-economic status. Effect size was determined by calculating the mean difference
175 between the two groups and dividing the result by the pooled standard deviation (Cohen's
176 d).

177 A factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) using gender and school
178 type as independent variables and the four factor variables as dependent variables was
179 performed. The absence of multicollinearity was confirmed by examining correlations
180 among the four sub-factor dependent variables. The dependent variables were moderately
181 related, ranging from $r = .27$ to $r = .58$, and thus did not exceed the .80 threshold (Dormann
182 et al., 2013). A separate ANOVA was conducted for each factor. Effect sizes for
183 ANOVAs were calculated using the η^2 (Eta squared) method, by dividing the treatment
184 sum of squares by the total sum of squares. A one sample t -test, was used to compare
185 total and factor mean values of students in this study with age-matched values reported
186 in a study that used the same instrument to measure students' attitudes towards fitness
187 tests in the United States (Mercier and Silverman, 2014a). The rationale for this
188 comparison was to determine if there was a significant difference in students' responses

189 to contrasting approaches of administering fitness test batteries in school contexts.

190 Correction for multiple comparisons was via the Bonferroni correction (Abdi, 2007).

191 Responses to the two open-ended questions regarding the most and least enjoyable

192 aspect of the test battery were reviewed and organised thematically in line with the

193 guidelines set out by Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003) for analysing qualitative data.

194 This involved identifying themes and patterns from the responses. Once the key themes

195 had been established and agreed upon by each author, responses were arranged into

196 coherent categories and frequencies of responses within each category were calculated.

197 **Results**

198 Overall, students had a positive attitude towards fitness testing (M= 3.92, ±0.59) on a
 199 five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The
 200 cognitive (perceived usefulness) factor had the highest mean score (M=4.19, ±0.66),
 201 while the affect-feelings factor produced the lowest mean score (M=3.58, ±1.05).
 202 Although both positive, boys (M=4.05, ±0.55) had significantly higher overall attitude
 203 scores in comparison to girls (M=3.79 ±0.59) ($t(793) = 6.34, p = 0.001$, Cohen’s $d = .44$).
 204 Boys produced significantly higher scores across all factors in comparison to girls, with
 205 the exception of affect-teacher, in which there was no significant difference. The
 206 cognitive factor produced the highest mean scores for boys and girls; however, the lowest
 207 mean scores differed between genders, affect-teacher for boys and affect-feelings among
 208 girls, as illustrated in **Table 1**.

209 **Table 1.** A comparison of overall and sub-factor descriptive statistics of boys’ and girls’
 210 attitudes towards fitness testing.

Variable	Total Mean (±) (N=795)	Boys Mean (±) (N=403)	Girls Mean (±) (N=392)	95% CI of difference (lower)	95% CI of difference (higher)	p value	Effect size (Cohen’s d)
Overall	3.92 (.59)	4.05 (.55)	3.79 (.59)	0.18	0.34	<0.01*	.44
Cognitive	4.19 (.66)	4.27 (.66)	4.12 (.64)	0.05	0.24	<0.01*	.22
Affect Enjoyment	3.90 (.83)	4.08 (.77)	3.71 (.86)	0.26	0.49	<0.01*	0.45
Affect Teacher	3.82 (.68)	3.86 (.67)	3.78 (.69)	0.01	0.18	NS	0.12
Affect Feelings	3.58 (1.05)	3.88 (.95)	3.27 (1.05)	0.47	0.75	<0.01*	0.58

211 Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval. Data are shown as means with standard deviation in brackets. * Significant at
 212 Bonferroni adjusted p value < 0.01.
 213

214 In terms of differences by selected demographics, total and factor attitude scores for
 215 students in designated disadvantaged and non-disadvantaged schools did not differ
 216 significantly, with the exception of the cognitive factor which produced a significantly
 217 higher mean score for students in non-disadvantaged schools (M=4.22, ±0.65) in

218 comparison to those in designated disadvantaged schools ($M=4.08, \pm 0.65$) ($t(793) = 2.58$,
219 $p = 0.01$, Bonferroni correction). Furthermore, total and factor attitude scores did not
220 differ significantly between students from urban or rural schools.

221 A MANOVA with follow-up, using gender and school type as independent
222 variables and the four factor variables as dependent variables indicated that there was a
223 significant difference between participants in boys, girls and mixed-gender schools when
224 considered through each of the four factors combined, Wilk's $\Lambda = .970$, $F(8, 1578) =$
225 3.07 , $p = .002$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.15$. A separate ANOVA was conducted for each factor using
226 a Bonferroni adjusted p value of $.01$. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test
227 indicated that the total attitude mean scores for boys' schools and mixed-gender schools
228 were significantly higher than girls' schools, specifically within the cognitive, affect-
229 enjoyment and affect-feeling factors. However, despite reaching statistical significance,
230 the actual differences in mean values between school types was quite small, as evidenced
231 by the effect size values in **Table 2**. Although relatively small, the largest differences
232 were produced in the affect feelings factor $F(2, 792) = 10.00$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = 0.03$. A
233 significant difference was not found between school types in the affect teacher domain,
234 $F(2, 792) = 2.91$, $p = .06$, $\eta^2 = 0.001$.

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Table 2. Overall and sub-factor mean (\pm) scores for students' attitudes towards fitness testing by school type.

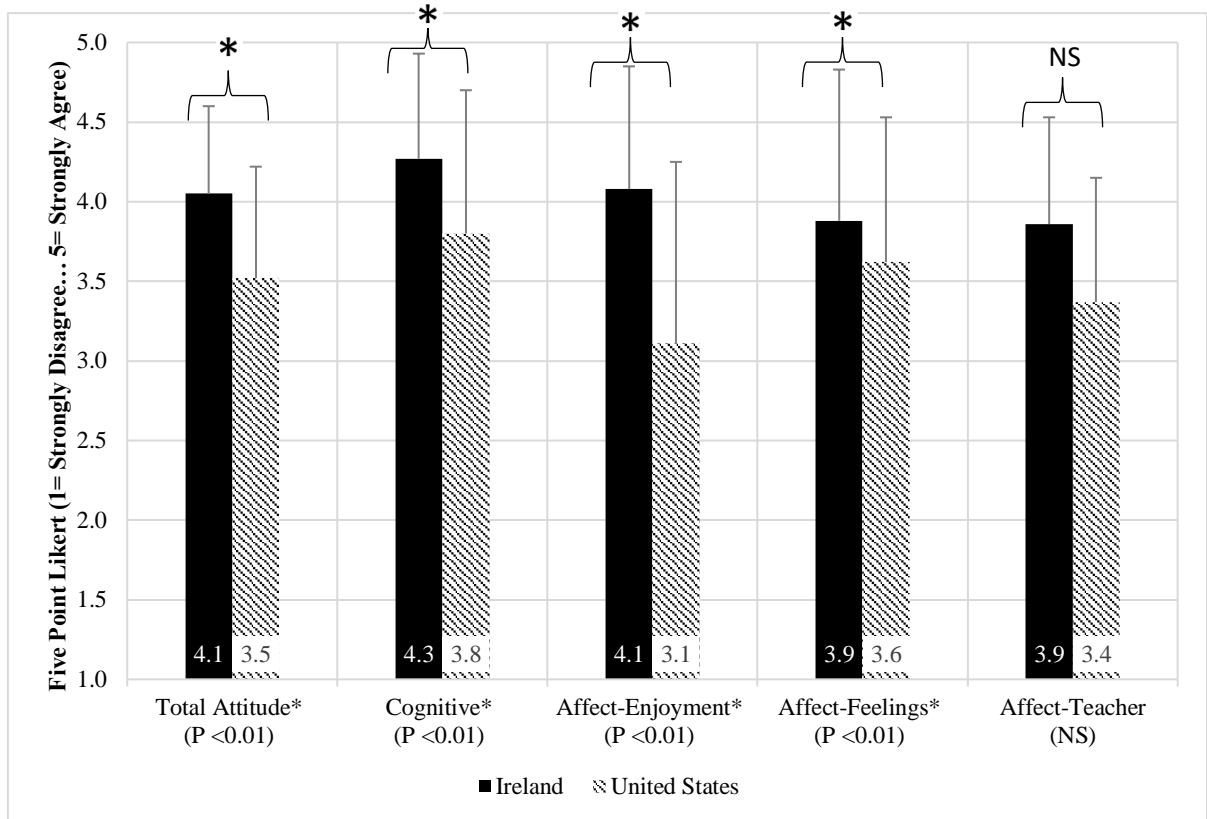
Dependent Variable	School Type	Mean (\pm)	Lower (95% CI)	Upper (95% CI)	<i>p</i> value	Effect size (η^2)
Cognitive	Boys (n = 100)	4.27 (0.51)	4.14	4.40	<0.01*	.01
	Girls (n = 101)	4.02 (0.75)	3.89	4.15		
	Mixed (n = 594)	4.21 (0.66)	4.16	4.26		
Affect Enjoyment	Boys	3.98 (0.82)	3.82	4.14	<0.01*	.02
	Girls	3.63 (0.90)	3.46	3.79		
	Mixed	3.93 (0.82)	3.87	4.00		
Affect Teacher	Boys	3.85 (0.66)	3.72	3.99	NS	.00
	Girls	3.67 (0.77)	3.54	3.80		
	Mixed	3.84 (0.66)	3.79	3.90		
Affect Feelings	Boys	3.81 (0.95)	3.61	4.02	<0.01*	.03
	Girls	3.19 (1.1)	2.99	3.39		
	Mixed	3.61 (1.0)	3.53	3.69		
Overall	Boys	4.01 (0.48)	3.92	4.11	<0.01*	.02
	Girls	3.76 (0.67)	3.56	3.83		
	Mixed	3.95 (0.58)	3.90	3.99		

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Abbreviations: CI, confidence interval. Data are shown as means with standard deviation in brackets. * Significant at Bonferroni adjusted *p* value < 0.01.

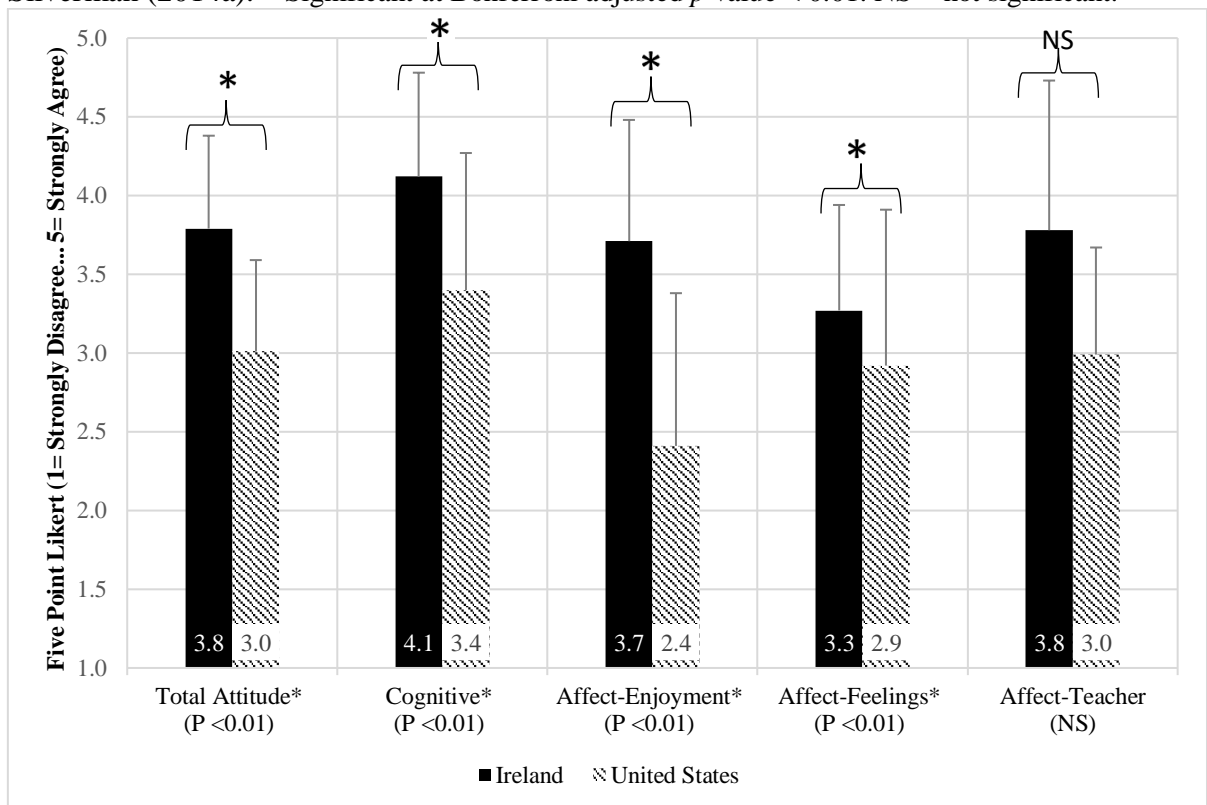
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When compared with single value age-matched mean scores from United States, as reported in Mercier and Silverman (2014a), boys (**Figure 1**) and girls (**Figure 2**) in the Youth-fit study had a significantly higher overall mean attitude scores across ($t(793) = 2.58, p = 0.01$). Participants in this study scored significantly higher across three of the four sub-factors, with the largest difference recorded in the affect-enjoyment factor for both boys ($t(403) = 25.8, p < .001$) and girls ($t(392) = 14.0, p < .001$).



248

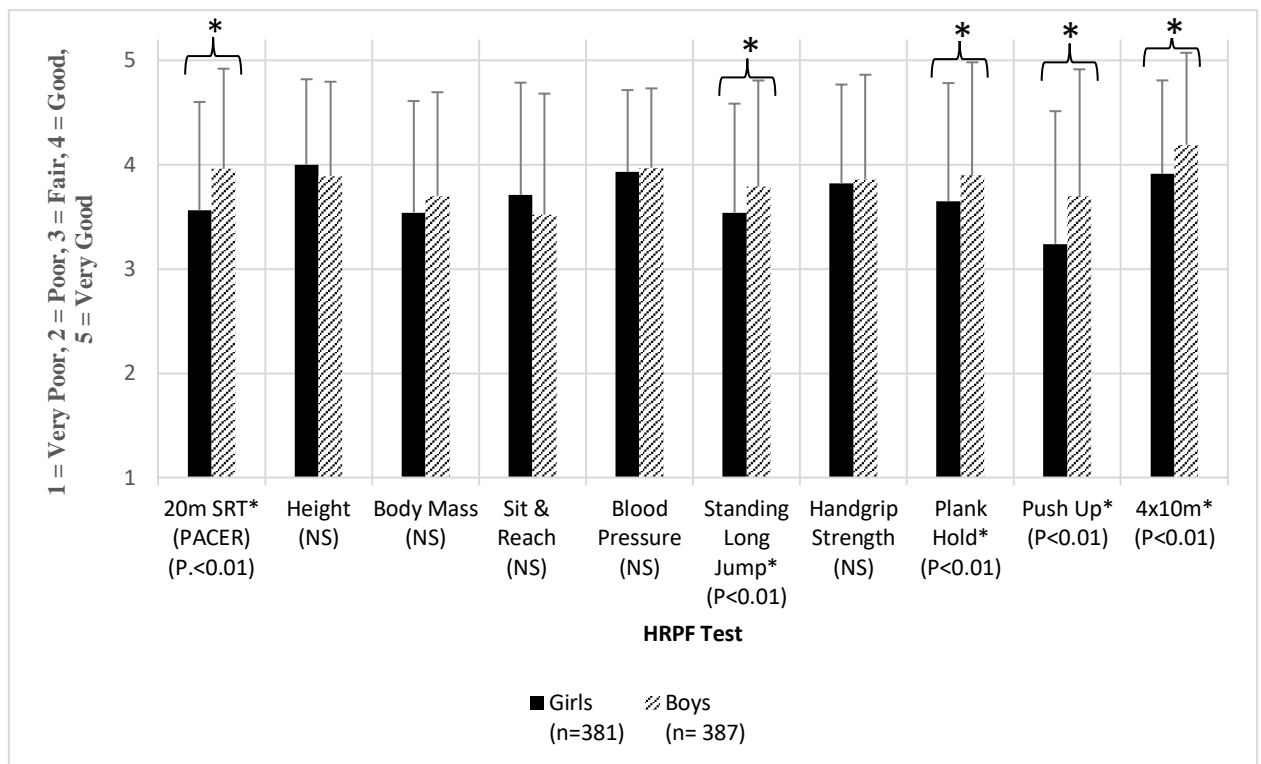
249 **Figure 1.** A comparison of overall and sub-factor attitude scores between boys in the
 250 Youth-fit study (Ireland) and single value age-matched mean scores from Mercier and
 251 Silverman (2014a). *Significant at Bonferroni adjusted p value < 0.01. NS = not significant.



252

253 **Figure 2.** A comparison of overall and sub-factor attitude scores between girls in the
254 Youth-fit study (Ireland) and single value age-matched mean scores from Mercier and
255 Silverman (2014a). *Significant at Bonferroni adjusted p value < 0.01 . NS = not significant.
256

257 Responses to survey items examining students' experiences of the Youth-fit test
258 battery specifically were encouraging. Overall, 78% ($n=618$) of students agreed or
259 strongly agreed that completing the Youth-fit test battery was a worthwhile experience,
260 with a further 16% undecided. The vast majority of students ($n = 636$, 81.3%) agreed or
261 strongly agreed that they would like to track their HRPF while in secondary school. When
262 asked to rank who they would like to administer fitness tests from most preferred to least
263 preferred, students ($n = 413$, 52.8%) indicated that they would be in favour of the student-
264 centred format used in the Youth-fit test battery, in comparison to an external expert
265 (27.0%) or their teacher (20.2%) recording test scores. In addition, 86.8% ($n = 690$) of
266 students agreed or strongly agreed that the senior student facilitator made it easier for
267 them to perform each test item. Students reported fair to good experiences of each test
268 item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from very poor to very good ($M= 3.78 \pm 1.0$).
269 The 90° push-up for girls ($M= 3.24 \pm 1.27$) and sit and reach for boys ($M= 3.52 \pm 1.16$)
270 had the lowest mean scores, while the 4x10m shuttle run had the highest mean scores for
271 both groups (Girls, $M=3.91 \pm 0.90$; Boys, $M= 4.19 \pm 0.89$). Overall, boys ($M=3.45 \pm 0.62$)
272 reported significantly more positive test experiences in comparison to girls ($M=3.33$
273 ± 0.58) on all items combined ($t(766) = 2.73, p = .007$). It was also interesting to note
274 that students who indicated they shared their test results with a parent/guardian had a
275 significantly higher mean score on the attitude towards fitness tests instrument ($M=4.02$
276 ± 0.49) in comparison to those who did not ($M=3.69 \pm 0.62$) ($t(218) = 4.4, p = 0.001$).



277
 278 **Figure 3.** A comparison of boys' and girls' experiences of each Youth-fit test battery
 279 item. *Note:* *Denotes a significant difference, $p < 0.01$.
 280

281 The final part of the evaluation survey was comprised of two open ended style
 282 questions in which students were requested to identify the most and least enjoyable part
 283 of the test battery. Participating with friends and having fun were the most commonly
 284 cited enjoyable aspects of the test battery (n=196). For example, one student stated, (I
 285 enjoyed) “*doing it with a small group of my closest friends and motivating each other to*
 286 *get a good score*” (male, boys school). Completing the muscular endurance test items was
 287 cited by 210 participants as the least enjoyable component of the test battery. Although
 288 not in the top five most frequently cited least enjoyable components of the test battery,
 289 83 students noted having their height/weight measured. One student stated, “*if someone*
 290 *is a bit heavier than another then they could get bullied for their weight*” (male, mixed
 291 school).

292 **Discussion**

293 The aim of this study was to examine secondary school students' attitudes towards and
294 experiences of a student-centred health related fitness test battery. Much of the research
295 on students' perceptions of fitness testing to date have been generated from relatively
296 small sample sizes (Davis et al., 2018; Garn and Sun, 2009; Graser et al., 2011), and
297 participants in these studies often experienced different test items and administration
298 protocols (Mercier and Silverman, 2014a). This investigation, the first outside of the
299 United States to use the students' attitudes towards fitness testing instrument (Mercier
300 and Silverman, 2014b), included a stratified sample of students from a randomised sample
301 of 20 secondary schools. In summary, students had a positive attitude towards fitness
302 testing, boys had a significantly more positive attitude than girls, and students in this
303 study produced significantly higher mean scores when compared to age-matched scores
304 of students from the United States whose attitudes towards fitness testing were measured
305 using the same instrument.

306 Students had a positive attitude towards fitness tests, with the cognitive, or
307 perceived usefulness, factor scoring highest across all demographic groupings, indicating
308 that they perceived fitness testing to be a useful component of their physical education
309 programme. This corroborates the findings of Mercier and Silverman (2014a), in which
310 the same instrument was administered to 1199 students from 9th to 12th grade in the United
311 States. Unlike Mercier and Silverman's study, in which affect-enjoyment was the factor
312 with the lowest mean score, the affect-feelings factor had the lowest mean score among
313 students in this study, indicating that students may have been nervous about performing
314 the tests. However, relatively large standard deviations for each factor reported by
315 Mercier and Silverman, likely composed of students with highly positive or highly

316 negative attitudes, were not as extreme in this investigation, indicating less variation in
317 students' attitudes. Indeed, students in this study had significantly higher mean attitude
318 scores when compared to age-matched data from the United States in three of the four
319 factor variables (Mercier and Silverman, 2014a), namely, cognitive, affect-feelings and
320 affect-enjoyment.

321 An interesting finding to emerge from the current study was the disparity between
322 boys' and girls' attitudes towards fitness testing. Boys reported significantly more
323 positive attitudes across all factors in comparison to girls, with the exception of affect-
324 teacher which did not differ significantly. Furthermore, mean scores for students in boys'
325 schools and mixed-gender schools were significantly higher than girls' schools. An
326 exploratory study which investigated the factors that influence high school girls'
327 enrolment in elective physical education (Davis et al., 2018) indicated that students
328 (n=17) acknowledged the importance of HRPF, but desired less of a focus on fitness
329 testing. Similarly, Zhu, Chen and Parrott (2014) found that boys reported significantly
330 higher situational interest in the PACER (progressive aerobic cardiovascular endurance
331 run) test in comparison to girls. Engaging girls in physical education has been reported
332 as a challenge for teachers across most aspects of a curriculum (Enright and O'Sullivan,
333 2010), particularly so when it comes to fitness testing (Davis et al., 2018). However,
334 although girls reported significantly lower attitudes in comparison to boys, their mean
335 scores were positive and significantly higher than those reported by Mercier and
336 Silverman (2014a). This suggests that physical education teachers should consider
337 adopting the student-centred test administration protocol used in this study. However,
338 despite the positive attitudes reported, further research is needed on how best to integrate
339 fitness tests to ensure that girls in particular are comfortable participating and motivated
340 to try their best.

341 Although fitness testing is highly prevalent in physical education programmes
342 internationally, to the authors' knowledge, this is the first study of its kind to
343 quantitatively analyse students' experiences of multiple HRPF test items. Students
344 reported fair to good experiences of each test, with the lowest mean scores recorded in
345 the 90° push-up for girls and sit and reach test for boys. It has been suggested that the
346 maximal and physically challenging nature of aerobic tests, such as the PACER, may lead
347 to more negative motivation among students, and the appropriateness of such tests in a
348 physical education context has been questioned (Cale et al., 2014; Ladwig et al., 2018;
349 Wrench and Garrett, 2008). Interestingly, students in this study reported fair to good
350 experiences of the PACER test, and it was frequently highlighted as the most enjoyable
351 aspect of the test battery in the open-ended part of the survey. Simonton and colleagues
352 (2019) recently reported that PACER performance predicted lower reports of future anger
353 toward physical education for both girls and boys.

354 It should also be noted that the body mass test item had the joint second lowest
355 mean score among students, and having body mass and height recorded was cited by 83
356 students as the least enjoyable aspect of the test battery. While some scholars have
357 highlighted the benefits of systematic monitoring of anthropometric measures in school
358 settings (Thompson et al., 2019), physical education teachers need to be mindful that
359 body image concerns and elevated levels of anxiety appear to undergird the influence of
360 self-efficacy in fitness test performance, particularly so in females (Lodewyk and
361 Sullivan, 2016). Lodewyk and Sullivan (2016) provide some suggestions to assist
362 physical education teachers in structuring fitness education units to better minimise this
363 vulnerability. Recommendations included, reducing social and normative comparisons,
364 making accommodations for attire and providing the option of gender-segregated health-
365 related fitness units in coeducational settings. However, the recommendation to offer

366 gender-segregated HRPF units could be questioned based on the findings of this study
367 which indicated that girls in coeducational or mixed-gender schools had significantly
368 more positive attitudes towards fitness testing than participants in girls' schools.
369 Providing students in coeducational settings with the opportunity to complete fitness tests
370 battery in small groups of their closest peers regardless of gender could potentially
371 enhance students', and girls' in particular, motivation to participate.

372 Much of the existing research regarding students' attitudes towards fitness
373 education, and physical education more broadly, has highlighted the importance of
374 enjoyment (Garn and Sun, 2009; Prochaska et al., 2003). Participating with friends and
375 having fun was the most commonly cited enjoyable aspect of the HRPF test battery by
376 students in this study. Similar studies that have investigated experiences of fitness tests
377 to date indicate students enjoy a peer-assessed testing format in small groups (Mercier
378 and Silverman, 2014a; Phillips et al., 2017). The student-centred approach affords
379 participants the opportunity to develop a sense of personal control and fitness autonomy
380 (Biddle and Fox, 1998). Indeed, Prusak and Vincent (2005) noted that students tested in
381 an environment that supports their autonomy will be more motivated to participate and
382 strive for self-improvement. Research by O'Keeffe et al. (2020a) demonstrated that,
383 following a period of familiarisation with test items, student administered fitness tests in
384 physical education lessons were as reliable as those taken by experienced research
385 assistants. The vast majority of students in the current study agreed that the senior student
386 facilitator at each test station made it easier for them to complete each test. The student-
387 centred approach also offers the physical education teachers the opportunity to move
388 throughout the learning space, and provide individualised feedback where appropriate,
389 without being restricted to delivering a single test item. Therefore, both the process of

390 engaging in the test battery and the validity of the scores obtained can be simultaneously
391 enhanced.

392 Students who shared their fitness test results with a parent/guardian had
393 significantly more positive attitudes towards fitness testing in comparison to those who
394 did not share their results. A recent review of HRPF monitoring practices involving a
395 nationally representative sample of schools in the Republic of Ireland revealed that less
396 than one third of physical education teachers shared HRPF test results with their students'
397 parents/guardians (O'Keeffe et al., 2020b). Mercier et al. (2016) also reported that less
398 than 30% of teachers surveyed in their study sent HRPF test results home. The importance
399 of integrating parents/guardians in a child's education has been well established (Jeynes,
400 2007), and sharing fitness test results could represent a useful avenue to keep
401 parents/guardians informed of their child's HRPF levels. Furthermore, many school-
402 based fitness test batteries, including Fitnessgram (Meredith and Welk, 2010), have been
403 updated to include a greater focus on physical activity promotion in addition to physical
404 fitness, further emphasising the opportunity to integrate fitness testing as part of a broader
405 HRPF education unit and more broadly to promote lifelong physical activity beyond the
406 school context.

407 Caution should be applied when interpreting the results of this study. Participants
408 in the current study were in year one of secondary school education and research
409 consistently indicates that students' attitudes towards physical education decline as they
410 get older (Silverman, 2017). Furthermore, comparisons with data that used the same
411 measurement instrument in the United States (Mercier and Silverman, 2014a) were
412 generated from age-matched fixed means as opposed to the original dataset. Future
413 research should analyse how attitudes towards fitness testing change as students progress
414 through secondary school. In addition, although students in each of the 20 schools

415 involved in the study were represented, response rates within schools varied between 60
416 and 100 percent, which could have resulted in some response bias. Finally, this survey
417 was based on a single data source; therefore, data were not verified a second time,
418 potentially resulting in a lack of depth in the interpretation of responses for which
419 qualitative methods may have provided further insights.

420

421 **Conclusion**

422 Analysing students' attitudes and experiences is a critical step in developing evidence-
423 based pedagogical approaches. Overall, students had a positive attitude towards fitness
424 testing and participants clearly perceived fitness testing to be a useful component of a
425 fitness education unit. This study illustrates the potential of a student-centred approach to
426 administering fitness tests in a physical education context. Teachers should strongly
427 consider educating senior students to facilitate in both the set-up and administration of a
428 fitness test battery as a mechanism to enhance participants' understanding of each test
429 item while also improving the accuracy of the measure obtained. Further research is
430 needed to confirm if the positive responses to the student-centred approach presented in
431 the current study maintain as students progress through secondary school.

432

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