

**SPORTS PEOPLE'S SELF-CONCEPTS REGARDING
AGGRESSION AND THEIR MOTOR SKILLS****Dr. Rajendra R Dhakne**

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ABSTRACT

Self-esteem and aggressiveness, comprising psychological and personality factors that impact the mental health of the individual. Also it was proven that physical activities connected with the development of psychological qualities. The goal of this study was to compare the self-esteem and aggressiveness among high school athletic guys in Rajasthan city. Research Methods: The study population consisted of all city high school student athletes Rajasthan were selected by cluster sampling method in age range of (14 to 18) who were among the 146 students as the sample that 81 athletes were in individual disciplines (wrestling and karate and judo) and a field of 65 athletes in (football and basketball) (football and basketball). Measuring the Eysenck personality questionnaire survey instruments (particularly young and the elderly) and Kopo smith and SCL90 questionnaire was associated to aggressiveness. Data analysis utilising the Mann-Whitney U test, Kruskal-Wallis test and Pearson correlation coefficient was utilised. Findings and results have demonstrated that self-esteem and aggressiveness among boys there was no significant difference between group and solo sports. There is no substantial association between self-esteem and assertiveness training courses for individual pupils.

Keywords: *self, aggression, motor*

Introduction

The study and development of learning strategies in connection with basic motor abilities, physical abilities, and motor skills at various ages is the focus of sport psychology, which is a subfield of psychology. The scope of their activities includes research and development of these learning strategies (Davoudi et al., 2006). In the meanwhile, one of the characteristics of personality that has received inadequate consideration is aggressiveness, as well as the influence that involvement in sports might have on it. The term "aggression" refers to any sort of activity that is intentionally intended to cause harm to other creatures (Baron and Richardson, 1994). Studies have been conducted in the area of sports psychology to investigate the connection between psychological traits, such as self-esteem, and performance (both success and failure.

According to Donnelly¹ (2001), the definition of self-esteem is our views as well as how successfully, effectively, and valuably competition is done (Donnelly et al., 2001). A person's level of self-esteem in sports can influence their level of motivation and engagement in individual sports activities, as well as their ability to sustain productive collaborations. There is no one definition of self-esteem; rather, it is a collection of specific characteristics that relate to various aspects of conduct and status. For instance, a young boy's self-esteem or self-dependence in the realm of health-social or physical pursuits may be substantial; yet, for

his success in the course, there may not be an excessive amount of reliance on self-esteem. Even within the parameters of an individual's self-esteem, there is room for variation (Fox and corbin, 1989). In their study, Armstrong and Oomen-Early (2009) compare the social interactions, levels of self-esteem, and signs of depression experienced by athletes versus those who do not participate in athletics. Students who participated in athletics had much greater levels of self-esteem and social interactions, and they had significantly less depression than students who did not participate in athletics, according to the findings (Armstrong and Oomen-Early) (2009). According to studies, persons whose self-esteem is higher because they take part in athletic activities have higher self-esteem overall than those whose self-esteem is lower because they do not take part in sporting activities (Payne and Isaacs, 2002). In a study conducted by Bizman and Union1(2002), the authors examined the impact that a basketball team's win or loss has on the self-esteem and emotional response of the team's spectators. The authors came to the conclusion that when the team is victorious, the level of its spectators' positive emotions and self-concepts increases, while the level of their negative emotions decreases Parrot looked into factors such as age, level of athletic engagement, and level of self-esteem (2001).

There was found to be no significant difference, according to the findings, in the levels of self-esteem held by older non-athletes and younger non-athletes. There was also not a significant difference found in the levels of self-esteem of young people who participated in athletics and those who did not participate in athletics. When compared to elderly people who were not sports, older athletes and athletes had a better self-esteem (Parrott, 2001). Younger athletes tended to have a lower sense of self-worth than older athletes. Those who had greater levels of self-esteem also tended to be healthier and more physically active. People who have a greater self-esteem tend to be joyful and full of energy, whilst those who have a lower self-esteem tend to have a more negative influence on their conduct. The idea that one may improve their capacities by working on their physical fitness is a sound one. Participating in sports can be of very little value and even cause a decline in one's sense of self-worth if there are none of the aforementioned psychological advantages to be gained from doing so.

The findings provide evidence of the varying consequences that heterogeneity may have. A collection of findings that encompass a greater number of participants, ranging from children to adults, confirms a link between performance and exercise and a favourable impact it has on subjects' levels of self-esteem. The influence of self-esteem on one's level of athletic achievement has been the subject of yet another set of research, which has led to the confirmation of a positive link between the two variables. There is no evidence that exercising may boost one's self-esteem, according to the Class III research. Shoja-oddin (2002) investigated the connection between high levels of self-esteem and successful competition in the sports of football and wrestling. Wrestlers' levels of self-esteem were shown to have a positive association with their level of physical achievement. There is a strong connection between a football player's athletic prowess and their on-field performance. Self-respect and the ability to succeed in football are more important than self-respect and the ability to succeed in wrestling (Shoja-o-ddin, 2002). If the athlete is not prepared with an effective plan for coping with situations that need emotional reactions and has a limited capacity to comprehend and regulate their own emotions as well as the emotions of others, they may suffer unpleasant feelings and unpleasant emotions. This mode also causes athletes to become more aggressive, stressed, and suffer a loss of their psychological well-being, which means that the athletes' subsequent performances will not be as good as they might have been. Studies have demonstrated a substantial connection between a

person's self-perception of their physique and their level of self-esteem. People who have healthy bodies have higher levels of self-esteem than those who are afflicted with unhealthy bodies (Kang, 2004). The findings reveal that there are no significant differences in terms of self-esteem between students who participate in athletics and those who do not, nor between students who participate in academic disciplines other than physical education (NisiShushtari, 2001). Aggression may be described as any sort of behaviour that is targeted at hurting or causing harm to another living being.

It has not been shown that athletes competing in different sports significantly differ from one another in terms of the aggressive tendencies they exhibit (HadiPour, 2006). Verbal or physical hostility are both examples of aggressive conduct. This conduct is easier for the other person to comprehend in comparison to that of inanimate objects (Maxwell, 2004). The research that has been done in this field may be split into two areas. First group of research that have shown their anger among athletes is real; second category of studies, on the other hand, demonstrates that athletes are choosing the wrong alternative. The theory is supported by the majority of the investigations. When compared to those who are not interested in athletics, athletes are more likely to engage in aggressive behaviour (Chandler, et al., 1999; Frinter and Rubinson, 1993). Researchers from Safari (2008) investigated how high school students' mental health was affected by their engagement in sports like football and volleyball. After the competition, the data indicated that students' levels of anxiety had greatly increased, although their mental health and aggressive behaviour had not altered significantly (Safari, 2008). Teams that have not earned a place have seen significant declines in several aspects of their mental health, including depression, anxiety, and overall mental health. Teams that have earned a place, on the other hand, have seen significant improvements in their mental health and several other aspects did a study in which she compared the personality characteristics of female athletes to those of students who were not involved in athletics. According to the data, athletes who are significantly different from non-athletes tend to exhibit extraversion in addition to high self-esteem and fewer aggressive tendencies than non-athletes. By employing the approach of comparing athletes and non-athletes, were unable to validate the findings of earlier research that showed differences in the aggressiveness of athletes and non-athletes (Backmand et al., 2001). According to the findings of a research that Maxwell (2004) carried out on athletes competing in a variety of sports, there is a substantial association between players' aggressiveness and the type of sport they compete in (Maxwell, 2004). Teenagers are put in a condition of perpetual defensiveness as a result of the aggressive and negative actions that are targeted against them. This, in turn, prevents the growth and prosperity of the capacity and capability, as well as the socialisation of adolescents. As a result, this behaviour can be modified to increase a person's sense of self-confidence, social competency, academic performance, social performance, and their acceptance among their peers. If research is conducted in this field, it will be possible for educators and coaches to obtain useful information on educational programmes that are relevant to the prevention of mental diseases. As a result, the purpose of this study was to examine the differences in levels of self-esteem and aggressiveness among students who participated in either solo sports or team sports.

Self-esteem and sport:

Self-esteem is "one's sense of worth" High self-esteem tends to aid life adjustment and mental wellness, "even if it's a good illusion that doesn't fit to reality" (Taylor & Brown, 1988 in Hewstone, Stroebe & Jones, 2008). Self-esteem is crucial for mental health. Self-esteem affects social life and health. It's a behaviour

mediator (Hatter, 1989, as cited in Hayes, Crocker & Kowalski, 1999). High self-esteem leads to confidence and life satisfaction, whereas low self-esteem causes lack of confidence and a bad self-image. Sport boosts self-esteem. Sport supposedly provides psychological and physical advantages. discovered that exercise improves mental health. Sport engagement can help people feel good about their physical ability. Self-concept affects self-esteem. Self-concept is "a cognitive picture of oneself that provides meaning to experience". Due to adult obesity, exercising and enjoying sports may boost self-esteem. Women exercise to lose weight, whereas males desire to gain. Sporting partnerships can boost self-esteem. Athletes have better self-esteem than non-athletes, according to Mark Leary and colleagues presented the Sociometer Theory, which suggests that self-esteem is a "psychological gauge" that measures social acceptance. Self-esteem reflects societal acceptance and rejection inside.

If someone excels at sports, coaches and teammates may boost their self-esteem. Winning games or winning rewards can boost self-esteem. People with low body image may have low self-esteem. Body image satisfaction might impact athletes' self-esteem. Silberstein et al. (1988) identified a link between body esteem and self-esteem in men and women. Self-esteem may be tied to performance. Higher self-esteem correlates with improved athletic performance, according to Athletes with poor self-esteem were unhappy with their performance because they thought their parents were criticising Many athletes worry about their image. They attempt to be ideal and positive. Perfectionists are prone to failure. Coaches may increase athletes' performance pressure. Meeting these norms affects athletes' self-image. Negative self-esteem causes depression and eating problems discovered a link between restraint and social pressure, self-esteem, body image, and competition anxiety. If these risk factors are present, all athletes are at risk for an eating problem. created the Self-evaluation maintenance methodology. This model identifies 3 self-evaluation variables. Self-and-others-performance 2. Personal closeness. 3. How much another's performance affects self-definition. Some combinations in this paradigm boost self-esteem, while others are dangerous. Being outperformed in sports can harm self-esteem. It may motivate them to work harder. It may produce ineptitude. As self-esteem is linked to confidence and self-respect, it may be linked to life satisfaction. Fox (1992) found a link between self-esteem and success, contentment, and less worry (as cited in Hayes, Crocker & Kowalski, 1999). Study links self-esteem with life fulfilment In self-esteem studies, "are there gender differences?" is a prevalent question. Men and women have distinct expectations and problems in daily life, therefore a difference is typically expected. Females are assessed harsher than males, according to Seifert and Miller (1988). Media ideals affect self-perceptions. People are increasingly assessed by their looks, making fitness and beauty more significant. This affects self-esteem because individuals compare themselves to the ideal. Women desire to be slender and toned guys huge and muscular. When expectations aren't satisfied, self-esteem drops. Males have better global self-esteem than females; according to research Self-esteem and violence have been studied extensively. Some scholars believed that poor self-esteem led to aggressiveness and misbehaviour.

High self-esteem may also moderate hostility. High self-esteem individuals expressed more anger, according to Some ideas say it's related to ego danger. Anger is directed outward to prevent lowering self-esteem. Sport structure (team vs. individual) and self-esteem have received limited investigation. Studies have linked athletic involvement to self-esteem No study compares team vs. solo sports. Team athletes have great self-esteem. Dancing and Gaelic encourage social contact and social solidarity. Social support correlates with self-esteem Identifying with teammates may boost self-esteem. Boxing and tennis emphasis on personal

improvement. Individual sports build self-confidence since players learn to rely on themselves, whereas team sports emphasise teamwork and reliance. This can backfire. Losing hurts more in individual sports. Without teammates, they must do well. After a loss, teammates discuss their disappointment and modify game strategy.

Sport and Life Satisfaction:

Exercise reduces stress and boosts happiness. Life satisfaction is a person's contentment with life. Life contentment is key to mental health. Sport can make people feel productive and less stressed, according to some. Non-contact athletes reported reduced anxiety, according to a research. 2005 Gender disparities, athletic involvement, hostility, and self-esteem will be explored. What influences life satisfaction? Environment affects life satisfaction, according to one view. One study indicated the ratio of negative to positive occurrences in the preceding year predicted life satisfaction the following year multiple discrepancy theory proposes that self-reported life satisfaction depends on "how things are" vs. "how things should be". Discrepancies in this area reduce life pleasure. 700 undergraduates tested this notion. Males and females experience life satisfaction similarly, according to the study. Joseph Sirgy's thesis indicates that one's expectations, goals, and feelings of entitlement all affect life pleasure. Sousa & Lyubomirsky. Life pleasure often tests gender. Conflicting findings exist. Some research indicate strong relationships, others none. Women are sadder and happier than males. Women had greater depression rates but better well-being (Sousa & Lyubomirsky, 2001). Diener and Fujita (1995) discovered that social interactions determine male and female life satisfaction. Athleticism was solely linked to male life satisfaction. Life satisfaction and leisure were linked in an experiment. High-leisure-activity people were happier (Joseph & Singh, 1996). Some research imply males gain more from sports than girls. Several research have studied sport's impact on life satisfaction and gender. Varca, Shaffer, and Saunders (1984) showed a link between life satisfaction and male athletic involvement, but not females. Their study found that adolescent sports activity affects adult guys' life satisfaction. Zullig and White (2010) identified a link between teenage females' physical activity and life satisfaction, but not boys'. Playing on a team boosted girls' and boys' life satisfaction. Non-athletic youths were more likely to report fair or poor health than athletes Social features of sports might boost life pleasure. Being on a team or in a club may give you a sense of purpose. Club or team involvement can lead to social connections outside athletics. Individual sports vary from team sports because personal growth is emphasised. This might lead to great life satisfaction since the person feels competent and confident. Sports can inspire career desire. Trophies or martial arts belts can boost life satisfaction by confirming a person's ability. Sport boosts self-esteem. Self-esteem can boost life satisfaction. Chen & Zhang (2004) discovered that students with high self-esteem were happier with life. examined movement training and dancing on older persons. Their investigation demonstrated a considerable change in life satisfaction. As dancing courses fostered friendship and group engagement, social components of physical activity led to enhanced life satisfaction, self-confidence, and body awareness.

Aggression and sport

Aggression is the goal to injure or seem superior to others, does not always involve physical injury (violence), and may be motivated by diverse things (Siann, 1985; as cited by Coulomb, 1998). Frustration, mentality, and role models can cause aggression in sports. Some sports are more violent than others. Media

coverage of violent sports occurrences gives the idea that sport fosters aggressiveness. Sport and aggressiveness researchers expected that athletes would be less aggressive than non-athletes. Contact sports include team sports like Gaelic and combat sports like MMA. This sport category is more aggressive. In a study of male college athletes' dating aggressiveness, contact sports players exhibited more trait anger than non-contact athletes. Recent research linked aggressive athletic behaviour to contact sports and men (Conroy, Silva, Newcomer, Walker & Johnson, 2001). Contact sports, especially team sports, may increase aggression because of the added pressure to win. Studies on martial arts imply athletic involvement doesn't enhance violence. Among one research, taekwon do reduced hostility in 6-11-year-olds (Skelton, Glynn & Berta, 1991). Daniels & Thornton (1990) discovered that martial arts students became less antagonistic over time. Martial arts increase discipline, reducing aggression. A research on athletics and criminality found no link between the two (Begg, Langley, Moffitt, Marshall, 1996). Gender differences in violence are debated. Men are more aggressive. Scientists say male sex desire is at the basis of most conflict, from football violence to world wars (Von Radowitz, 2012). Males are more aggressive in contact sports, according to research. Women see aggressiveness as a loss of self-control, whereas males see it as a way to dominate others. Astin, Redston, & Campbell (2003). Males reported increased physical violence than females, according to Burton, Hafetz, and Henninger (2007). Burns (2010) observed that men's trait rage differed greatly. Team cohesiveness can impact aggressiveness when members unify against the other team; violence towards one team member might engage others. Males may be more aggressive in contact sports due to their social nature. Non-contact sports like dancing reduce aggression. Byron Garcia, a security expert in the Philippines, established dancing workshops for detainees in 2007. Prisoners rehabilitated via dance. Since dancing courses were introduced, violence has lessened, convicts' health has improved, and recidivism rates have plummeted, according to Garcia. The convicts enjoyed dancing and rehearsed together. 70% of detainees had murder, rape, or narcotics convictions. Maybe their new talent gave them concentration and motivation, reducing violence. Aggression is harmful behaviour. Aggression helps many creatures preserve social order. (McCawley). Studies show hostility may be learnt. Direct reinforcement, i.e. being rewarded for violence, or modelling "learning by imitation, witnessing a model being rewarded or penalised for his/her conduct" Sports are aggressive. When a team wins, joy and celebration strengthen their hostility. Coaches can also encourage hostility. They may also be a team model. Hartmann (1969) found competitive gamers were more hostile. When exposed to modelled aggressiveness, boys and girls are equally violent. examined modelled hostility using "bobo dolls." In this experiment, youngsters saw an adult model act violently or non-aggressively towards a bobo doll. Children who saw an angry model displayed increased aggression. This experiment resembles sports aggressiveness. Aggression in sports is often depicted in the media, and it's considered as a prerequisite of sport. TV portrayals and rewards may make it more acceptable in amateur sports. Aggressive athletes may be imitating others. Positive leadership promotes sportsmanship and moral thinking, say Nucci and.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Descriptive study. The statistical community includes all high school athletes in Rajasthan city (14 to 18). Four schools from different regions of the city made up the initial sample. A coach and a questionnaire selected 50 athletes as students, and utilising Table of Takman, 40 were chosen as the sample size and questionnaires were delivered. After 70 lie detector-removed letters. Individually, 65 and 81 participants were investigated.

Measurements tools

[1] A demographic questionnaire that includes questions on age, academic concentration, highest level of education achieved, and participation in athletics. The following inquiry assesses numerous sports, training sessions, durations of exercise, and modes of physical activity, as well as participation in various sport groups. That only focuses on the athletes, but makes sure to provide some background information on the sport for context. When participants fill out a questionnaire, they are questioned about the drugs (nerve agents) they have used in the previous 48 hours. This is done to guarantee that the participants are in good mental health.

[2] The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, which was administered to both adults and adolescents, as well as the Cooper-Smith Questionnaire and a portion of the SCL-90 Questionnaire comprised 86 Questions about aggressive behaviour are followed by a letter that indicates the appropriate response: yes or no. The extraversion and introversion components of personality, as well as aggressiveness and self-esteem, are measured by this questionnaire. In addition to that, it features a distinct lie detector scale for those who are concerned with their appearance, providing a measurement instrument for the purpose of this investigation.

All standard measures were used to determine the validity and reliability of the questionnaires. Cronbach's alpha test is used to collect responses from the 36 questionnaires that were randomly distributed among the statistical community in order to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. final Eysenck questionnaire, 85 percent , final Aggression questionnaire, 81 percent , final self-esteem questionnaire of Cooper–Smith, 89 percent , respectively. Tables, the average, and the standard deviation were utilised to provide a description of the search data and were utilised for statistical analysis, which included descriptive statistical frequencies and basic percentages. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Levin tests were utilised to check the normality of the data as well as the homogeneity of the variance. Comparisons of anomalous and incongruous groups were made using tests, independent groups, and Scheffe's Ftest in normal and homogeneous variances. Additionally, the Mann-Whitney U test and the Kruskal-Wallis test were utilised.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results

Description of data

Age of the subjects and the average and standard deviation of these variables are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive information about participants

| Number of athletes | Self-esteem score | Aggression score | Sport disciplines |
|--------------------|-------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| 35 | 34/62 | 2/05 | wresting |
| 31 | 33/38 | 1/58 | karate |
| 20 | 30/48 | 1/82 | Judo |
| 43 | 33/67 | 1/96 | Football |
| 22 | 31/45 | 2/78 | Basketball |
| 151 | Total | | |

Table 2. Descriptive information about participants

| Variable | Group | Average and standard deviation | Maximum | Minimum |
|-------------|------------|--------------------------------|---------|---------|
| Age | Individual | 15/9 1/3 | 18 | 14 |
| | Group | 15/7 1/12 | 18 | 14 |
| | Overall | 15/8 1/2 | 18 | 14 |
| Self-esteem | Individual | 33/48 6/45 | 46 | 14 |
| | Group | 32/85 7/13 | 46 | 18 |
| | Overall | 33/21 6/7 | 46 | 14 |
| Aggression | Individual | 1/89 0/63 | 4/2 | 1 |
| | Group | 2/13 0/72 | 4 | 1 |
| | Overall | 1/99 0/68 | 4/2 | 1 |

As can be seen in Table 1, descriptive information on the individuals of the research, including their ages and a number of other factors, is presented both individually and collectively, in different tables. Following the selection of the group and the pre-test evaluation, the normal distribution of the data (as determined by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) and the homogeneity of the variance (as determined by the Levine test) were analysed. The findings are shown in the following tables: (2).

Table 3. Results of the normal distribution of data pre-test groups

| Aggression | Self- esteem | |
|------------|--------------|-------------------|
| 2/39 | 1/95 | Amount of Z |
| 0/0001 | 0/002 | Significant level |

He results in Table (3) show that, in all cases, the test data are not normally distributed. For this reason, nonparametric tests were used to analyze the hypothesis.

Discussion

Similar findings were discovered by Fisher et al. (1996), Waters and Martin (2000), Parot (2001), and NisiShushtari (2001), as shown by the data collected from the analysis of the findings, which reveals that there is no significant difference between group and individual self-esteem among students. The findings of the researchers' experiments shown that there is no discernible gap in the levels of self-esteem that exist between athletes and non-athletes, and they also demonstrated that exercise does not have an effect on raising levels of self-esteem. There is a discrepancy between the findings of this study and those of Weissand Abak (1996), Shoja-o-ddin (2002), Richman and Shafer (2000), Fox (2000), Motamedi (1994), Payne (2002), and Armstrang and Oomen-Early (2009). Researchers have demonstrated that those who take part in sporting activities have higher levels of self-esteem than those who do not take part in sporting activities during the course of their studies. And research has shown that people's self-esteem may be positively impacted by performance, exercise, and good correlations between the two. People who exercise regularly have more mental steadiness and higher levels of self-esteem. When a person accepts themselves as valued, their self-esteem rises, which in turn boosts their motivation, their sense of usefulness, their sense of responsibility, their sociability, their willingness to cooperate, and their mental health overall. It seems to be attempting to arrange sporting events, particularly among young people and in educational institutions, and as a result, training programmes need to be a top concern. According to this research, the self-esteem of individual athletes was higher than that of team sport players because individual athletes relied more heavily on their own personal qualities, abilities, and stamina. Since thoughts and feelings are what cause a negative mood, such as aggression, irritability, property, and other factors, aggression can disrupt the mental health of young boys and their future, and it is possible that the next generation will be faced with significant challenges because boys are the parents of tomorrow. It would appear that education would be a smart idea to be able to attract the attention of students to exercise more seriously and to give the required circumstances and facilities. The importance of individual sports played by male students is brought up; nevertheless, further study is required in order for this point to be understood. According to the findings, there were no significant changes in the aggressive conduct of group competitors compared to athletes competing alone. To put it another way, the propensity of athletes to engage in aggressive conduct is independent of the sport in which they compete. It would appear that a number of elements might play a role in violent conduct, including the degree of fitness, age of players, and stability of their sports personalities; sensitivity to race; the results of matches; and physical confrontations. This study's findings are consistent with those discovered by Bekmand et al. (2001) and Safari (2008). The participants in this study, both athletes and non-athletes, showed no significant difference in terms of their aggressive tendencies. If that is the case, then these results don't line up with what Maxwell (2004), Momenzadeh (1386), Chandler (1999), and Frynter have found (1993). The researchers were able to establish, during the course of their experiments, that there is a connection between aggressive behaviour and engagement in sports. The results of this research suggest that those who exercise regularly have higher self-esteem and are less likely to engage in violent behaviour. According to the findings of the research conducted, there is no significant association between high self-esteem and aggressive behaviour among students of specific disciplines. Athletes have a tendency for aggressive conduct, which is not only dependent on their sport. A broad guarantee is not being given out since this problem concerns the innate fitness of athletes as well as the connection between self-esteem and aggressive behaviour in athletics. This calls for further investigation. According to research conducted by Safari (2008),

when schools had contests, the kids' levels of anxiety dramatically rose, yet their mental health and aggressive behaviour did not significantly alter. Also, Fisher et al., (1996) and Waters and Martin (2000) in a study concluded that exercise does not improve self-esteem, and they obtained similar results with this study that are inconsistent with Maxwell's research (2004); Momenzadeh (1386); Weiss and Abak (1996); Shoja-oddin (2002); Richman and Shaffer (2000); Fox (2000); Motamedi (1994), Pin (2002); Bizman and Union (2002) and Arms (2009). There, researchers discussed the personality profile that distinguished players from non-athletes within the context of their study. They talked on the relationship between aggressive behaviour and one's sense of self-worth. The outcomes of this research reveal that there is a strong connection relationship between boys' levels of self-esteem and their levels of aggressive behaviour. Maxwell (2004) conducted research on athletes from various sports and came to the conclusion that there is a significant relationship between aggression and sport. Momenzadeh (2007) found that athletes with a significant difference compared to non-athletes tend to have extraversion, as well as high self-esteem and less aggressive behaviours. These conclusions confirm the findings of Maxwell (2004). Maxwell (2004) conducted research on athletes from various sports and came to the conclusion that there is a significant relationship between aggression and sport. Maxwell's research (2004), Momenzadeh's research (2007), Weiss and Abak's research (1996), Shoja-o-research ddin's (2002), Richman and Shaffer's research (2000), Fox's research (2000), Motamedi's research (1994), Pin's research (2002), Bizman and Union's research (2002), and Armstrang and Oomen-research Early's (2002) all found that the results of (2009). Researchers shown that persons who participate in sporting activities have a greater self-esteem than those who do not participate in sporting activities through the use of research. Researchers Safari (2008) and Fisher et al. (1996) and Waters and Martin (2000) came to the conclusion in a study that it is inconsistent with exercise because it has no effect on improving one's self-esteem. Safari's study showed that after holding competitions, students experienced a significant increase in anxiety. However, mental health and aggressive behaviour did not significantly change. It is possible to draw the conclusion, based on the fact that there is a negative correlation between self-esteem and aggression in team sports, that athletes who are more aggressive, have lower self-esteem. On the other hand, the effects that individual and group exercises have on the mental health of students are also discussed. Therefore, we may get the following conclusion: motion activities, in addition to developing physical strength, also generate development regions and enhance mental, social, and spiritual aspects. In this scenario, every single one of the numerous social and personal indicators may be interpreted in terms of the individual's traits without any exception. It is possible to make note of the characteristics of tenacity, confidence, and self-esteem among these indications. According to this topic, it is possible to notice that self-esteem and aggressiveness levels can be lowered by exercising and engaging in other forms of physical activity, as suggested by the findings of the research.

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