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INFLUENCE OF PHYSICAL FITNESS ON DEVELOPMENT OF PHYSICAL SELF-CONCEPT ON UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The primary goal of this research is to conduct a study on physical fitness & self-concept in under graduate students in the Uttar Kannada district of Karnataka State. According to the research, psychological factors play an important part in sports and games. Many psychological elements influence success. Some key psychological ideas were employed in this investigation. However, the study's sample includes both athletes and nonathletes. The term "sport person" was used in a restricted meaning here; students at a physical education institution were considered as such since they were introduced to various sports and games and were required to participate in a few games and sports as part of their training. The self-concept of athletes was evaluated as dependent variables. A brief description of self-concept has previously been provided. When one considers self-concept as an ordered pattern of perceptions and judgments of one's own traits, it is clear that it is impacted by a variety of circumstances. Studies on non-athletes studied the effects of various parameters such as IQ, SES, sex, and so on on the formation of self-concept. Physical fitness, sex, and sport person were handled as independent factors in this study. The current study will look at the relationship between dependent and independent variables.

Keywords: self-concept, self-perception, sportsperson, physical fitness etc.

INTRODUCTION

Several behavior scientists in Europe have focused emphasis on the mentality of exceptional sportsmen during the last 50 years. After the 1960 Melbourne Olympics, coaches in eastern European nations began to recognize the need of competent psychological examination and training of athletes, and their results were given special attention. This curiosity sometimes consolidated into reasonably objective laboratorial experiments probing the talents of elite sports performers, other times field tests were continued, and a third strategy was to analyze the behavior of individuals and groups of sports performers in actual game settings. These data have helped to a better understanding of human behavior in a variety of ways. But, before we go into "psychologizing" the process, let's take a look at history of sports psychology.

There are various personal characteristics that are strongly linked to athletic or sporting achievements. The first thing to consider is physical fitness. Physical fitness necessitates physical education. "Physical education has enormous potentialfor learning, development of reflective thinking, & intellectualization ofour decisions". This idea is supported by facts. For instance, according to Oberfeuffer & Ulrich (1962)

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1. When a person learns, he does so on three levels: physically, mentally, and socially. Learning has an impact on all of his abilities.
2. When a learner is learning a motor skill, there is more going on in his or her mind than just the exercise of neuromuscular patterns.
3. The linked learnings are significant and should be planned for in a classroom setting. Skills should be meaningful, and knowing the "why" facilitates learning.
4. Mental practice may help a competent performer enhance their skills even further.
5. Intelligence and motor learning have a good relationship.

Physical fitness is so crucial that without it, a sportsperson may not exist in the true sense. That is, without physical fitness, a person cannot perform well in sports, games, or athletic competitions. In other words for engaging in sports, games or in athletic activities certain physical fitness is important. In present study physical fitness is considered as a physical and mental state of a person exhibited on the nine different tests of physical fitness.

Physical fitness appears to be a simple concept, however defining a good definition of physical fitness is a challenging process. Is physical fitness a solely physical state of well-being or a combinationof well-developed physical & mental abilities? The reality is that "physical fitness" does not fit into a neat straight jacket; that is, there is no tidy term that will encapsulate all of the advantages connected with fitness and good health - the benefits are acknowledged by people in different ways.To some, it is the capacity to thrive in physical activities; to others, it is the foundation for their entire way of life and their road to the maximum pleasure of existence. Fitness isn't only for muscle-heads or fitness junkies; many of us struggle to find fitness in our daily lives.

Regular daily exercise became a common concern as industrialization and transportation advanced. The majority of ignorant individuals say that their everyday employment provides them with all of the exercise they require. When evaluated, what type of workout is it?. Dull, repetitive, and mechanical activities that normally engage only one or two muscle groups and have little physical consequence. According to research in this field, recurrent job loads never result in balanced exercise. So, what is fitness? It has been defined as "including measurements and degrees of physical strength and endurance, muscle tone, cardiac action, and activity response." It is also really personal.It influences how we feel when we get up in the morning, how exhausted or refreshed we are after a day's work, and how eagerly we anticipate doing the things we like the most. Physically fit people can deal with changes in their surroundings with little variation from their typical behavior, can withstand physical stress to a higher extent, and have a stronger cardiac activity in general than their less fit counterparts. There is also a link between mental alertness, lack of nervous tension, and physical fitness.When we pursue fitness for a specific goal, such as sports skill performance, we leave the domain of general fitness for life and enter the world of the particularly trained athlete. This is particular fitness, in which the capacity to do a skill activity becomes the measure of fitness accomplished, and is exclusively tied to the real performer (Healy 1973).

SELF-CONCEPT

Beliefs (such as "I am competent/incompetent") and feelings (such as triumph/despair, pride/shame) are all components ofself-esteem. Self-esteem may be shown by behavior (for example, assertiveness/timorousness, confidence/caution).

Self-esteem is often seen by psychologists as a permanent personality attribute (trait self-esteem), albeit natural, short-term changes (state self-esteem) occur.

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Self-esteem can relate to a specific component (for example, "I believe Iam a good author, & I am proud of that in specific") or it can refer to a broad range of factors (for example, "I believe I am a wonderful individual, & I am happy of myself in general").

Self-worth, self-regard, self-respect, self-love(which can have undertones of promotion of oneself), & self-integrity are synonyms or near-synonyms of self-esteem. Self-esteem differs from self-confidence & self-efficacy, which are beliefs in one's own ability and potential for achievement.

HISTORY OF THE CONCEPT

According to Oxford English Dictionary (OED), term "self-esteem" first appeared in English in 1657. [This word is said to have been invented by John Milton. Following a career in protopsychological knowledge of phrenology in nineteenth century, word gained into mainstream psychological use in 1890 with work of American psychologists & philosophers Lorne Park & William James.

Self-esteem has risen to become third most commonly appearing issue in psychological literature, with over 25,000 articles, chapters, & books mentioning it as of 2003.

DEFINITIONS

Given its lengthy and diverse history, it is not unexpected that the word has at least three primary types of definitions in area, each of which has spawned its own legacy of study, conclusions, & practical applications:

1. The initial description of self-esteem defines it as a ratio determined by dividing one's accomplishments in important areas of life by one's failings in them, or one's "success / pretensions." The problem with this method is that it makes self-esteem reliant on achievement, which indicates inherent instability because failure can happen at any time.
2. In mid 1960s, Morris Rosenberg and social-learning theorists defined self-esteem as a constant feeling of personal value or quality (see Rosen self esteem scale). Although it has boundary-defining concerns, making self-esteem identical from narcissism or just bragging, this became the most often used concept for study.
3. Nathaniel Brandon defined self-esteem in 1969 as "... experience of being qualified to cope with life's basic challenges and deserving of happiness."

This two-factor approach, as it is commonly referred to, provides a balanced description that appears to be capable of overcoming the limits of defining self-esteem solely in terms of competence or value.

Branden’s (1969)description ofself-esteem includes following primary properties:

1. Self-esteem as a fundamental human requirement, i.e., "...it contributes significantly to life process," "...is essential to normal and healthy personal growth, & has a survival value."
2. Self-esteem as an inherent & unavoidable result of totality of people' conscious decisions.
3. Something felt as part of or as a backdrop to all of individual's thoughts, feelings, & activities.

Self-esteem is a mental notion; in order for it to grow, we must first have self-worth, which will be sought by accepting difficulties that result in display of achievement. Consider the expressions "self-love" and "self-confidence."

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Implicit self-esteem refers to a person's tendency to judge oneself highly or negatively in an unplanned, instinctual, or unconscious manner. It varies from explicit self-esteem in that it requires more purposeful and conscious self-evaluation. Both explicit and implicit self-esteem are types of self-esteem.

In order to measure implicit self-esteem, indirect cognitive process tests are used. The Name Letter Task & Implicit Association Test are two examples.] Such indirect approaches are intended to limit knowledge of and control over assessment process. They contain stimuli meant to reflect self, such as personal pronouns (e.g., "I") or letters in one's name, when used to test implicit self-esteem.

MEASUREMENT

For empirical research reasons, psychologists often evaluate self-esteem using a self-report assessment that yields a quantitative result. They test questionnaire's validity & reliability before using it. Researchers are growing increasingly interested in implicit self-esteem measurements. Popular lore recognizes just "high"self-esteem & "low"self-esteem.

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (1965) & Self-Esteem Inventory developed by Coopersmith (1967/1981) are 2 of most extensively used self-esteem evaluations. The Rosenberg exam is typically a ten-question battery graded on a four-point scale, with participants required to indicate their level of agreement with a series of self-assessment assertions. The Coopersmith Questionnaire is a 50-question questionnaire that asks participants to judge another person's positive and negative attributes as similar or dissimilar to their own.

THEORIES

Many early theories held that self-esteem is a basic human need or objective. The American psychologist Abraham Maslow included self-esteem in his hierarchy of needs. He distinguished between two sorts of esteem: the need for other people's acceptance and the need for self-respect, which is referred to as inner self-esteem. Other people's respect was considered as more fragile and easily lost than one's own self-esteem. If the need for self-esteem is not fulfilled, people will seek it out and will be unable to grow and reach achieving one's according to Maslow.

Modern self-esteem theories investigate why humans are driven to hold a high regard for themselves. According to socioometer theory, self-esteem evolved to assess one's social standing & approval. Self-esteem, according to terror theory of management, offers a protective role by reducing worry about life & death.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

- To search influence of physical fitness on development of physical self-concept.
- To investigate sex differences in physical self-concept.
- To investigate impact of athletes & non athletes on the development of physical self-concept.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Alfurmann and Stoll, (2000) exercise onself-concept & well-being were explored in two field trials with middle-aged persons. Ss were randomly allocated to either the experimental or control groups in both experiments. In Experiment 1, twenty-four ladies and males participated in a 6-month workout regimen. Before and after the 6-month treatment,

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physical self-concept, self-esteem, & subjective well-being were evaluated. Exercisers dramatically improved their physical self-concept and lowered their psychosomatic problems when compared to 13 wait-list controls. Experiment 2 involved 57 girls and boys in 6-month fitness programs, while 36 placeb attention group participants conducted either relaxation or back training. Self-concept and well-being features were examined before and after the 6-month program (running or combined sports), as well as six months afterward. R.J.Sonstroem's exercise & self-esteem model (EXSEM) might be partially duplicated. Furthermore, the large effects of time revealed that, in addition to exercise, other types of intervention might impact the dependent variables. The motor performance test also demonstrated that all S's improved with time, demonstrating that exercise is one method for enhancing mental health, but it is not the only one.

F.Hülya Aşç (2003) investigates impact of physical fitness program participation on anxiety & physical self-concept of female university students in Turkey. The experimental cohort improved more than the control group in the physical activity, coordination, sport skill, & flexibility subscales of physical self-concept. Furthermore, participants in experimental group had significantly lower trait anxiety levels than those in control group.

The goal of the study by Hamid ARAZI et al. (2013) was to compare physical self-concept among university students who studied physical education and those who did not. To investigate gender and significant distinctions, the data was analyzed using two MANOVAs. The results indicated that the physical education major students' mean vectorscores in following scales: physicalactivity; overall physical competency; sports;strength; stamina; & flexibilitywere substantially (p0.05) higher thannon-physical education majorstudents. The findings might imply that male and fitness students, who frequently commit more time to bodily physical activity and athletic training, have a more fit and skill-oriented self image than female peers.

Pedro L. Rodrguez Garca et al.'s (2014) study sought to investigate the relationship b/w general self-concept & physical fitness for health reasons inprimary school pupils. A cross-sectional design & a descriptive court are among the design components. Method: A total of 216 students (9.26 1.26 years old) participated in assessment of physical fitness components such as speed-agility, muscle strength, & aerobic capacity. The Scale of Self-Concept Piers-Harris investigated six aspects of self-concept: cognitive, behavioral, physical, anxious-free, social, and life satisfaction. In terms of self-concept, men and women did not differ much. Males outperformed females in the 4 10 m ($p < 0.05$), manual dynamometry ($p < 0.005$), and course navigation ($p < 0.005$) tests. Increasing fitness level was positively and substantially connected to higher overall self-concept scores in all genres ($p < 0.005$). According to the study's findings, students with higher levels of overall fitness had higher levels of general self-concept. More study is required to establish which physical fitness characteristics are most strongly related to self-concept.

Aurelio olmedilla et al. (2016) sought to evaluate association b/w physical activity & participation in sport (or lack thereof) & selfconcept among Spanish university students. 372 female university students made up the sample. To collect demographic and physical activity data, Autoconcepto Forma five questionnaire & an ad hoc questionnaire were employed. Students at universities who are physically active &/or participate in sport have higher levels of mental & physical self-concept than those who are not generally active and do not participate in sport, according to the research. Students who exercise or participate in sports have a more positive mental and physical self-concept than those who do not.

Revuelta, Esnaola, and Goi (2016) investigate two fighting models of the relationship

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among physical self-image and physical activity during adolescence: one in which physical activity impacts physical self-concept and the other in which bodily self-concept influences physical activity. 704 pupils aged 11 to 19 (M = 14.91; SD = 2.13) from two autonomous regions of Spain (Cantabria in and the Basque Country) participated. There were 394 men (54.96% of the total) and 310 women (44.04%). The findings demonstrate that effects of one's self-concept on physicalactivity are unidirectional; nevertheless, the model that adds physical character as an affecting component was shown to be more accurate. The model revealed differences between male and female pupils. Furthermore, it was discovered that selfperception of physical beauty was adversely associated to physical exercise.

Juan Gregorio Fernández-Bustos et al. (2019) look at the influence ofbody dissatisfaction,physical self-image, & body mass index(BMI) in mediation of exercising & self-concept in adolescents. Fit indices for the created models are quite high. The final model explained 17% of the variation in dissatisfaction with one's body, 57% of the variation in physical self-concept, & 60 percent of variation in general self-concept for all individuals. Physical activity had a positive & indirect effect onself-concept ($\beta = 0.29$, $p < 0.01$) & direct effects on bodydissatisfaction ($\beta = -0.26$, $p < 0.01$) and physical self-concept ($\beta = 0.20$, $p < 0.01$). BMI had a directeffect on bodydissatisfaction ($\beta = 0.31$, $p < 0.01$) & on physical self-concept ($\beta = -0.10$, $p < 0.01$) and an indirect effect ongeneral self-concept ($\beta = -0.24$, $p < 0.01$). It was, however, solely connected with physical activity in men, acting as a mediator b/w physical exercise & dissatisfaction with one's body.

The study by Wulandari Putri et al. (2019) used a comparative technique. The study's instrument was a shorter version of the Physical Self-Description The survey (PSDQ-S), which had forty items organized into eleven categories related to Physical Self-Concept. The questionnaire was distributed to 322 college students from varied academic backgrounds, 92 female students and 230 male students. An independent t-test was used to evaluate the questionnaire. Male students outperformed female students in ten of eleven areas, according to the data. Only in the global physical category did female students outperform male pupils. Significant disparities in physical self-concept b/w male & female students were found in seven categories,including cooperation, physical activity, athletic skill, attractiveness, strength, flexibility, and endurance. Male students outperformed female pupils in all seven areas of physical self-concept. Male students exhibited a greater physical self-concept than female students, according to data. It is strongly advised that efforts to improve pupils' physical self-concept be put in place.

Pedro Cantero Castrillo et al. (2020) investigate relationship b/w teenagers' physical self-concept & self-rated health. The physical self-perception profile (PSPP) was employed to evaluate physical perception of oneself in the current study, whereas the global fitness scale (IFIS) was utilized to predict self-reported OPF in teens. Gender (boys and girls) differed significantly in both PSPP sections and OPF, but BMI status varied significantly in all clinical variables, PSPP, and OPF (underweight = 19 students, normal weight = 53 students, overweight/obese = 13 students).The study comprised 1697 adolescents between the ages of 12 and 16 (14.21.0), with 824 men (48.5%) and 873 females (51%). A questionnaire was utilized to collect data. Health perception, physiological self-concept, and gender were the factors investigated. The chi-square test was performed to assess data and evaluate the association between variables, and Cramer's V was used to measure the degree of linkage. The impact of the elements that influence health perception was investigated using a Classification and Regression Tree (CART) analysis.According to the data, men had greater health and a stronger physical self-concept than women. Similarly, there is a positive

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relationship between perceptions of health and physical self-concept in each of its subdomains in both genders.

Iker Sáez et al. (2020) investigate university students' physical self-concept scores & their relationships with gender, physical condition, & level of self-perceived competence. Despite fact that the advantages of physical activity have been thoroughly demonstrated among university students, some do not adhere to international guidelines. This stage of life is critical in developing good behaviors for adulthood. We discovered substantial differences in physical self-concept b/w men and women, although it appeared to be mostly an indirect influence via mediation of exercise hours & physical condition.

Juan L. Nez et al. (2021) investigated the impact of physicalself-concept on objectively assessed moderate-to-vigorous physical activity (MVPA) in teenagers via mediation of needs fulfillment & 2 forms of autonomous motivation, academic & physical education. Physical activity among teenagers is declining, which is causing considerable worry. In the search for factors associated with physical activity. Data were obtained from 618 pupils aged 10–14 years (301 males and 317 girls) from 24 secondary schools in Spain. Physical self-concept highly predicted needs fulfillment, which was subsequently positively & significantly connected with 2 types of autonomousmotivation, according to path analysis results. Finally, only the teens' autonomous motivation for physical education accurately foretold their MVPA. According to our findings, there was no evidence of an indirect influence of physical self-concept on MVPA. The data are studied using the notion of self-determination, with a focus on the role of physical self-concept in increasing teen physical activity.

Palenzuela-Luis et al. (2023) discovered a poor self-concept, anadequate self-perception, moderate physical activity witha proclivity for inactive lives, & a fair lifestyle. It is notable that teenagers do not consider their poor self-concept, physical activity, food, sleep, & violent figures as reflected in their health. It is well recognized that the alterations made throughout youth will be carried over into adulthood. As a result, influencing this demographic group is thought vital, especially if they are possible future health professionals.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Because psychological aspects are incorporated in the study, complex research technique is required. Although there are numerous research designs in psychology such as RBD, LSD, and so on, it was chosen to use a factorial design due to the nature of the study, its purpose, and aims. The systematic methodology began with a random sampling procedure to choose the sample, followed by the use of well-standardized and highly reliable psychological instruments to measure the parameter under research. A variety of physical fitness tests were also used to determine the Ss's physical fitness. The sample were drawn from the Uttar Kannad District of Karnataka. At the start of the study, the total sample size will 160, with 80 athletes and 80 being non-athletes of under graduate students from academic colleges. The Ss ranged in age from 19 to 22 years old, and their educational level was B.A., B.P.Ed. The male to female ratio was one to one.

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DATA ANALYSIS AND DATA INTERPRETATION

Table 1 shows the physical self concept deviations of eight classed groups.

TABLE 1: PHYSICAL SELF CONCEPT

GROUPS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	A1 B1 C1	A1 B1 C2	A1 B2 C1	A1 B2 C2	A2 B1 C1	A2 B1 C2	A2 B2 C1	A2 B2 C2
N	20	20	20	20	20	20	20	20
MEAN	37.8	35.6	33.3	31.2	28.7	27.5	25.5	21.5
SD	1.65	1.34	1.94	1.65	1.33	1.34	1.44	1.06

On the PSC measure, there were significant disparities between the means of the eight grouped groups. For example, Gr. A1B1C1 has the highest mean score of 37.8 (SD= 1.65), while Gr. A2B2C2 has the lowest mean score of 21.5 (SD= 1.06). The gap between the greatest and smallest means is substantial, but it cannot be determined only on basis of means & standard deviations. Only after running data through a three-way Analysis of Variance did it become clear if the findings supported the hypothesis or not.

TABLE 2: THREE WAY ANOVA FOR PHYSICAL SELF CONCEPT

Area ofVariance	SS	Df	MSS	F
A Fitness	6055.3	1	6055.3	621.67**
B Gender	1692.7	1	1692.7	173.78**
C Sportsperson	460.7	1	460.7	43.32**
A X B	0.21	1	0.21	
A X C	5.01	1	5.01	0.51
B X C	24.3	1	24.3	2.47*
A X B X C	28.7	1	28.7	2.96*
Within	3040.1	152	9.75	
Total	11307.02			

**Significant at 0.01 level. *Significant at 0.05 level.

The summary shows that primary impact A is extremely significant. The aspect of physical fitness is referred to as main impact A. It was divided into two levels: physically fit & physically unfit. It was hypothesized that PSC differed greatly between physically fit and physically unfit people. Because main effect A is extremely significant (F= 621.67, df= 1 & 152, $p<0.01$), it is obvious that physically fit & physically unfit people vary greatly.

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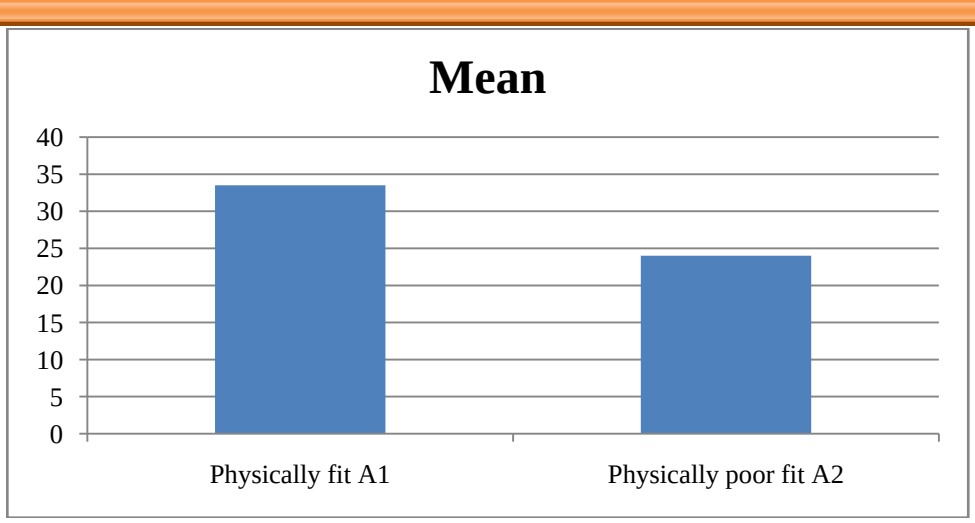

FIG 1 SHOWS MEAN VALUES OF PHYSICALLY FIT AND PHYSICALLY POOR FIT SS

The physically fit had much superior PSC than the physically unfit, according to fig 1 and mean scores. These findings are consistent with the study's concept.

The gender component was the second independent variable. It was thought to be a crucial aspect in development of self-concept. Itwas hypothesized that male Ss produce much more PSC than female Ss. The summary of ANOVA was used to determine how well hypothesis was supported by results. The main impact B indicates gender component, which was also modified at two levels.

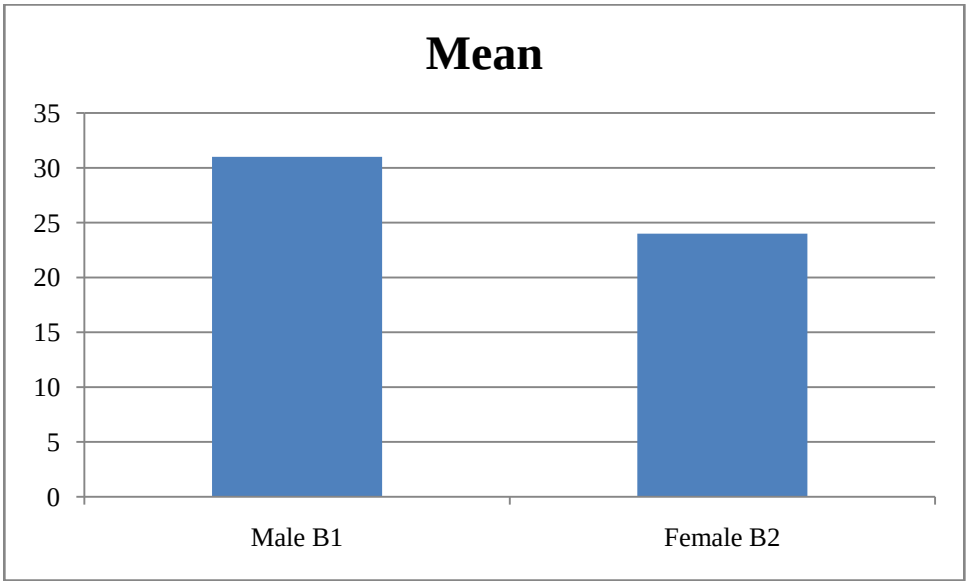

FIG 2 SHOWS MEANVALUES OF MALEAND FEMALE SS.

According to the summary, primary impact B is linked with a veryhigh F value. Gender appears to have had the most important role in affecting the evolution of PSC. When the df are 1 and 152, a F value of 173.78 produced by maineffect B is highly significant beyond the.01 threshold. According to fig 3 and mean scores, the man had considerably

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higher PSC than the female. These findings are consistent with study's concept.

The factor of sportsperson was the third independent variable. It was also changed on two separate levels. Athletes and non-athletes were segregated from the effective sample. The major effect C denotes the athlete component. The primary effect C yielded highly significant results. A F value of 43.32 is significant over the 0.01 criterion for 1 and 152 df. It suggests that athletes Ss and non-sportsperson Ss are quite different.

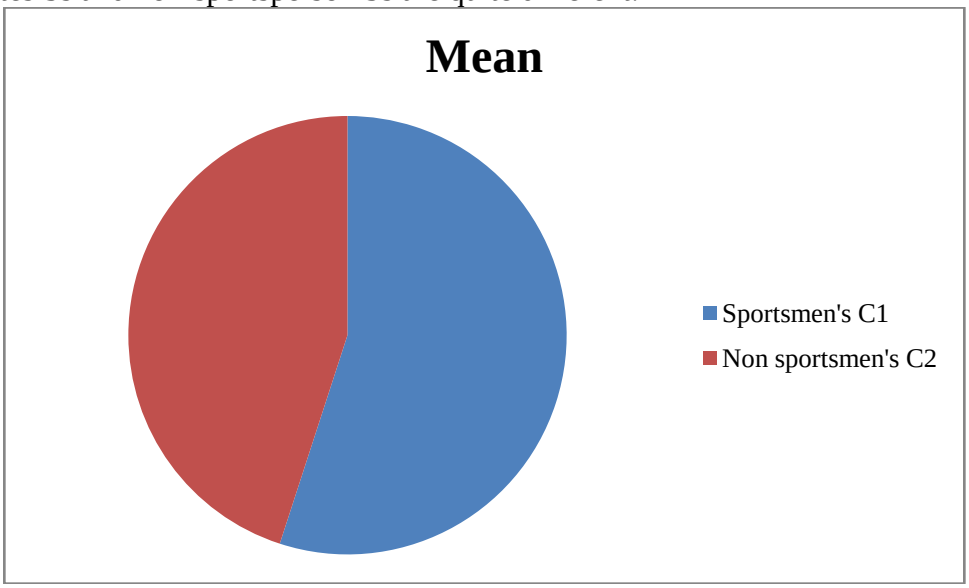

FIG 3 SHOWS MEAN VALUES OF SPORTSPERSON AND NON SPORTSPERSON

When the means and fig 3 are evaluated, it is clear that the sportsperson's mean score is higher than that of non-sportsperson Ss. These findings back up study's theory.

Despite the fact that all three major effects were very significant, the results revealed that the factors fitness and gender were acting separately in determining the development of PSC. The interaction effect demonstrated this. When the df are 1 and 152 and interaction is A x B, F value is 0.00, which is substantially less than what is required to be significant at.05 level. In other words, main effect A & primary effect B are unrelated.

Interaction A x C is also non-significant ($F = 0.52$, $df = 1$ & 152, $p<.05$). It means main effects A & C are independent on each other. From results it is clear that main effect B & main effect C are independent of each other.

But interaction B x C is significant ($F= 2.47$, $df= 1$ & 152, $p>.05$). The interaction A x BxC is significant ($F=2.96$, $df =1$ & 152; $p>.05$), which suggests that all the 3 independent variables namely fitness, gender and Sportsperson are either directly or indirectly interdependent on each other.

DISCUSSION

Psychological study has undoubtedly aided physical education. Professional services have been improved via a better knowledge of people of all ages and methods for generating more effective learning environments. Social psychologists' work suggests ways to promote a positive self image, connect with others, and obtain pleasure and success via involvement in physical activities. The physical educator is concerned with desired behavior, whether in the form of a learning result, skill, or a more learned and adjusted individual. (Singer, et al. 1972)

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Physical fitness appears to be a simple concept, however defining a good definition of physical fitness is a challenging process. Is physical fitness a simply physical state of well-being, or a combination of well-developed physical & mental abilities? The truth is that "physical fitness" does not fit into a neat term that would describe all the benefits connected with fitness and good health--the benefits are acknowledged by people in different ways. To some, it is the capacity to thrive in physical activities; to others, it is the foundation around which they build their whole way of life & their road to living life to fullest. Fitness isn't only for muscle-men or fitness freaks; fitness for everyday life is something that many people struggle with. Regular daily exercise became a common concern as industrialization and transportation advanced. Most naive individuals say that their everyday employment provides them with enough exercise.

The majority of other personal factors are primarily psychological in nature. The first of these is about self-concept. This aspect is extremely important in the sphere of sports and games. A sportsperson's self concept relates to the degree to which they are content and confident. It is determined by a range of personal experiences. A good attitude about oneself offers the incentive for action. Such emotions are most likely expressed by the amount of aspiration chosen before to the competition. The personality structure of the athlete, his experiences and successful performances, as well as the reactions of others directed toward him, all have a significant impact on development of his self-concept. Whereas constant criticism and rejection might prevent a sensitive athlete with huge talent from fulfilling that potential and place them in the category of an underachiever.

Since self-concept develops in the social setting, it gradually changes as we grow older. Several additional elements impact our self-concept and cause changes in our perceptions about who we are. An individual's self-concept may alter on the day he starts a new job, for example. An jobless graduate develops a specific self-concept; but, if he receives a job he has yearned for and accepts it, the same individual creates a new self-concept about himself after a few days. This self-concept is constructive. After working for a firm for 10 to 15 years, the other person loses his job and establishes a new social identity as an unemployed person. In this case, the shift in self-concept is negative. Such alterations in the selfconcept of athletes are plainly seen. When a sportsperson improves his or her performance or skill, his or her self-concept improves. When he wins a race or a sporting event, his self-esteem improves. Positive self-concept development aids in the improvement of sportspeople's performance. It goes without saying that athletes with a positive self-concept perform better on the field than athletes with a negative self-concept. Carver, Reynolds, and Scheier (1994) observed a similar result. They classed the college students as either notably optimistic or pessimistic in general. These pupils were asked to write a description of their future selves. Both groups of pupils could picture bright futures, but the optimistic ones had stronger aspirations of achieving a positive possible self than the pessimistic ones.

CONCLUSION

Sportspeople's achievements are the outcome of a range of sports-related circumstances. These variables are both physical and psychological in nature. As physical fitness is required to develop skill in any sport or game, psychological fitness is equally important in developing skill, physical features, sense acuity, perception, and decision making process, gained understanding, and developed skills arrangement the human system for intriguing preparation. However, emotions and attitudes converted into motivating power do far more. They are accountable for the athlete's decision to pursue a certain sport over others

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at some time in his or her life. Different sorts of self-concept & adjustment play important roles in lives of athletes, particularly in their athletic successes. We build notions about ourselves in the same way that we form impressions of other individuals. Every normal individual perceives himself as a distinct, ongoing entity or "object" with defined physical limits. Each individual develops attitudes about the item and names it "I" or "me" or "myself" as they mature. Thus, self-concept is how one perceives oneself. It is the collection of features that he possesses regardless of the particular setting in which he may be at any given time. The self-concept of athletes was evaluated as dependent variables. A brief description of self-concept has previously been provided. When one considers self-concept as an ordered pattern of perceptions and judgments of one's own traits, it is clear that it is impacted by a variety of circumstances. Studies on non-athletes studied the effects of various parameters such as IQ, SES, sex, and so on on the formation of self-concept. Physical fitness, sex, and sport person were handled as independent factors in this study. The current study will look at the relationship between dependent and independent variables.

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