## Chapter - 2

**REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contents</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>ATTITUDE TOWARDS PHYSICAL ACTIVITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>SELF - ESTEEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>SELF - EFFICACY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature involves the systematic identification, location and analysis of documents containing information related to the research problem (Gay, 1996). It does help a researcher to have a clear understanding of what has already been done and also what is left to be done in particular areas. The researcher has left no stone unturned in this regard, and has gone into a detailed review of available literature on the relationship between academic achievement and students’ attitude towards physical activity and selected psychological attributes. In this connection it needs to be pointed out that precious little has been done in India to carry out an in-depth study of the attitude of college students towards physical activity, selected psychological attributes and academic achievement.

Another equally important aspect of a review of related literature is that unnecessary duplication of a study can be avoided. A review would also give the researcher insights into the tools and instruments which proved to be useful and promising in previous studies. Moreover, a proper review would enable a fresh researcher to
zero in on a suitable research problem. Cited below are the relevant parts of the works reviewed.

2.1 ATTITUDE TOWARDS PHYSICAL ACTIVITY

Liu; Wang & Xu (2009) designed a study to examine “middle school children’s attitude toward physical activity.” A sample of 199 middle school children from a school in the United States participated in the study. The children’s attitude toward physical activity inventory (CAPTA) and survey of organized sports participation was administered to the participants. Inferential and descriptive statistics were used to examine the differences in attitude toward physical activity among groups.

The children were found to value health, enjoyment and social interaction benefits of physical activity the most. But they did not enjoy physical activities involving risk-taking movements and hard practice very much. When compared between genders, boys were found to enjoy risk-taking movements more than girls, whereas, girls liked physical activities with beautiful movements more than boys. Further, it was found that organized sports participants demonstrated significantly more positive attitudes towards health, enjoyment, and social interaction aspects of physical activity than those who did not
participate in any organized sports. It is concluded that participating in organized sports is positively associated with children’s attitude towards, physical activity.

Fenczyn & Szmigiel (2006) conducted a study to establish whether gender constituted a factor that differentiated physical activity amongst young people with obesity, and amongst non-obese young people during physical education classes and during their free time outside school. A subject group of 300 individuals were examined. The experimental group (group E) comprised 75 girls and 75 girls of primary, lower secondary and secondary schools- of Cracow in Poland, who suffered from simple obesity. The control group equalled 150 pupils from the same schools selected at random from among individuals that fitted between 25 and 25 percentiles according to weight-height grid.

The attitudes of the young people towards compulsory physical exercise and active movement outside school were tested by means of an original questionnaire developed by the authors. The result of the research showed that overweight young people of both the genders attempted more often to avoid physical activity than their non-obese peers, both during physical education classes and outside school.
Almost a total avoidance of physical activity by obese girls as compared to obese boys was observed.

Physical activity has received considerable attention for its role in the prevention and treatment of diseases. The American College of Sports Medicine and the American Heart Association recommend engaging in at least 30 minutes of moderate-intensity aerobic physical activity on five or more days a week or a combination of the two (Haskell 2007). The benefits of a physically active life style are well documented and can lead to improvements of physiological and psychological health (US Department of Health and Human Services).

Gotzche & Karmisholt (2005) have linked regular exercise to longevity and individuals who remain physically active or physically fit live longer than their counterparts). In their research, Benzer, Adams & Whistler (1999) found that active lifestyle is a vital tool to physical, mental, social, intellectual and spiritual wellness. Fox (1999) maintains that exercise really has the potential to be used in the prevention of some diseases and thereby to keep people healthy.

Moode & Finkerberg (1994) conducted a study of participation in wellness course and attitude toward physical education. 70 women
and 46 men enrolled in a college of physical education course emphasizing concepts of wellness were administered the ‘Attitude Towards Physical Activity Inventory’ at the beginning and the end of a semester. Gender differences at the end were obtained on social experience, health and fitness, aesthetic experience with scores for men significantly higher than those for women. When comparing scores of students required to participate in the course with those students electing not to, no significant differences were found. Scores by gender showed significant differences on ascetic experience by men with scores of non-education majors significantly higher than those of education majors. Significantly higher scores for women in health cum fitness, and ascetic experience for men were obtained.

Birtwistle & Brodie (1991) conducted a study of school students’ attitude towards physical activity and their perceptions of physical education. A sample of 291 secondary and 316 primary school boys and girls were investigated with respect to health promotion. Using analysis of variance techniques, significant differences between boys’ and girls’ attitude towards physical activity was found in both the primary and secondary samples. Girls had significantly more positive attitudes toward physical activity than
boys, but the data yielded no difference in attitude between socio-economic levels.

Patterson & Faucette (1990) carried out a study on children’s attitudes toward Physical activity in classes taught by specialist versus non-specialist physical education teachers. Fourth and fifth grade students from four schools participated in the study. Two schools had physical education specialists teaching physical education classes while the other two schools had classroom teachers teaching the classes. Attitudes were assessed by employing the children’s attitude toward physical activity inventory (CAPTA, Simon & Smoll, 1974). Although discriminate function analysis resulted in a significant difference between the attitudes of both groups of children, only 57.48% of the cases were correctly classified. These results suggest that teachers play minimal role in children’s attitude toward physical activity.

Sherril & Caywood (1989) conducted a study on fitness, attitude towards physical activity and self-concept of elementary school children. Data were collected using children’s Attitude towards Physical Activity Inventory, A game of Paris for preference among school subjects, and Children’s Self-concept Scale. Analysis
of variance indicated significant differences in all tests between boys and girls on fitness – boys high in fitness – girls high in fitness, and boys low in fitness – girls low in fitness. Subsequent Scheffe tests indicated that highly fit girls had significantly higher attitude and self-concept scores than boys of low fitness.

Mowatt & Hulac, (1988) state that the assessment of attitude of students of all ages and adults toward physical activity, sports and exercise is not a new phenomenon in physical education. Interest in this research area has been derived from the notion that if one shows a positive attitude towards physical activity, sports and exercise the individual would be inclined toward participating in active physical type programmes throughout one’s life time. Physical educators, teachers, doctors and many others have always attempted to educate the public on the benefits of regular exercise. It is believed that through participation in physical activities and sports, individuals gain in social skills, develop desirable attitude toward physical activities and develop worthy values (Miranda, 1977). The engagement of students in physical activities at an early stage not only develops their physique but also inculcates positive attitudes toward these.
Allport (1967) presented a model definition of attitude as a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experiences exerting a direct, dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to all objects and situations with which it is related. Attitudes are directed towards attitude objects such as classes of people, objects, or ideas. Thus, if a person has a positive attitude towards physical fitness, behaviour should reflect this attitude.

2.2 ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Wagnsson (2014) tested the longitudinal associations between sport participation and self-esteem across adolescence, addressing the mediating role of perceived sport competence from a developmental perspective. Three waves of data were collected from three age cohorts (10-12, 13-15, and 16-18 years) of school aged youth. The results demonstrated that sport participation and self-esteem are related across time and that perceived sport competence has an important role in this relationship, both from a skill development and a self-enhancement perspective. In the skill development model, the mediating role of perceived sport competence was significantly stronger in the youngest cohort, whereas, the effect of perceived sport competence on completed measures assessing achievement goal
orientation and the need for uniqueness prior to competing in a marathon race.

Veena & Shastri (2013) investigated whether achievement motivation on individual variables (disciplines/courses, academic performance and gender). A questionnaire was administered to 656 pure science and applied science undergraduate students of Bangalore city. Academic achievement referred to their results in the previous semester. Gender was also considered for the analysis. The tool used for the study was Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation Scale (n-ach) (1985). For non-normal variable Mann Whitney U Kruskal Wallis were used to test various hypotheses of the study. Pure science and applied science course students differed significantly in achievement motivation. There was no significant difference in achievement motivation among high and low academic performance students. Boys and girls differed significantly in achievement motivation.

Sekhar & Devi (2012) carried out a study of achievement motivation across gender and different Academic Majors among college students. A sample of 80 undergraduate students of various colleges of Jammu region, 40 males and 40 females, aged 18-23, were selected through purposive sampling method. As per the
research plan, 80 subjects were selected on the basis of gender (males/females) and academic majors (arts/sciences) using achievement motivation scale. Significant difference was found between the achievement motivation of sciences and arts stream students and achievement motivation among male and female students. The differences indicate the significant role of gender and academic majors in achievement motivation of college students.

Manjuvani & Anuradha (2011) conducted a study to compare the achievement motivation of children in single parent and two parent families. The sample comprised 186 students of both the genders selected purposively for the study. Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation Scale was used to collect the data. Research results showed that children of single parent families differed significantly in achievement motivation from the children of two-parent families. It was also concluded that parental expectations and guidance developed the need for high achievement.

Acharya & Joshy (2009) studied the influence of parental education level on achievement motivation of adolescents. A total of 200 students belonging to parents having four levels of education: high school, intermediate, graduation and post graduation from
Varanasi were selected as the sample. Data were collected by administering Deo-Mohan Achievement Motivation Scale (1985) to the students. The result indicated that parental education level influenced achievement motivation in academic area. The higher the level of parental education, the better was the achievement motivation in the academic area.

Wilkins (2009) carried out a longitudinal study to evaluate family processes promoting achievement motivation and perceived competence among Latino youth. The sample comprised 15,362 Latino adolescents from immigrant families. Data were collected by administering parental involvement in schooling scale by Steinberg (1992) and others to assess the degree parents assisted their child and also by using the achievement motivation scale created by the researcher himself. It was confirmed that parental involvement related significantly and positively to the process of achievement motivation.

Adepoju (2008) examined the degree of relationship among motivational variables and academic performance of students in secondary school students in Oyo state, Nigeria. A sample of 100 senior school students was selected for data collection. The result of the study revealed that there was high relationship of each motivation
variable with academic performance. The results also indicated that a significant difference ($t=2.74$) existed between the level of motivation in urban and rural areas.

Hector & Flynn (2007) carried out a study of culture and achievement motivation in Latino and Anglo American high school students of the USA on a sample of 149 students from the high school districts in California. Data were collected by culture value orientation and attribution--emotion scale by administering to the sample. Grade point average was taken as academic achievement measures of the students. Socio–economic status and education of the parents had been found.

Sidhu & Parminder (2005) carried out a comparative study of concept attainment model, advance organiser model and conventional method in teaching of Physics in relation to intelligence and achievement motivation of ninth class students. Data were collected by using achievement motivation test by Prathibha Deo and Asha Mohan from 240 students of Sangrur district in Punjab. The results indicated that there was no statistically significant effect of achievement motivation on scholastic achievement of the students.
The results also revealed that there was no relationship between intelligence and achievement motivation.

Panda & Jena (2000) studied the effect of some parental characteristics on students’ achievement motivation. The sample comprised 200 students of ninth class selected from six secondary schools of Jaipur, whose parents had high educational qualification, had better achievement motivation compared to the students of Kalahandi district whose parents had low educational qualifications. The findings also revealed that parental education was positively related with achievement motivation.

No two individuals are alike in everything that goes to construct personality. This is very well explained in the individual differences that exist among people who do achieve things in life. Achievement motivation remains a central issue within sport psychology as researchers continue to examine an individual’s choice, effort and persistence related to physical activity participation. Much research conducted in the area of achievement motivation has been based on Nicholl’s (1984, 1989) Goal Perspective Theory. The theoretical perspective states that individuals try to display high ability and to avoid demonstrating low ability. In addition, definition
of success and failure are based on goal orientation. A task goal orientation is characterized by self-referenced perception of competence and an emphasis effort, task mastery, and performance improvement.

Parker & Johnson (1981) affirm that an individual’s achievement motivation may be seen as a personality trait. Each person has different degrees of achievement motivation. High achievers may be classified as driven, striving for success, competitive or taking charge. Low achievers may be seen as quitters, non-participants or failures. Each person approaches each situation with a unique combination of several achievement motives. These achievement motives are shaped by significant interactions in a child’s early childhood developmental years. They are learned motives shaped by play, experience, and rewards or consequences of actions or behaviours. It is at this time when parents, role models, and teachers have the greatest impact on a child’s habits and values about achievement motivation.

2.3 SELF - ESTEEM

Koyalis (2012) examined how wheelchair basketball players’ self-esteem and motivation levels impact their state and trait anxiety
levels. The Coopersmith Self-esteem Inventory, Sport Motivation Scale and State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) were applied to the players before a competition. Data were collected from 124 players with disabilities. In this study descriptive statistical techniques, Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression Analysis were used. Multiple Regression Analysis indicated that self-esteem, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and motivation, all of which function as predicting variables, recorded 42% variance in state anxiety and 50% in trait anxiety. Motivation and self-esteem are the best predictors of trait and state anxiety among the premier league wheelchair basketball players.

Else-Quest (2012) upholds the general statement that women, for example, are expected to show more guilt, shame and embarrassment whereas, men are likely to show more pride, but research in fact shows that women do show more guilt, shame and embarrassment than men but, both show the same amount of pride. Women have often been expected and labelled as being more emotional than men. This area of gender difference is important to research as self-esteem or self-image that encompass gender may also encompass the self-conscious emotions or tendencies associated with
gender. Furthermore, gender difference in self-conscious emotions are different between ethnicities, and are the greatest within white populations when compared to other cultures like Black or African, Asian and Latin American samples. More research in this area is needed to through light on the gender difference across different cultures and ethnicities, as most of the samples used in gender studies are collected from white cultures only. This reliance on a specific sample can lead researchers to overestimate the magnitude of gender difference in terms of self conscious emotions of women in comparison to men.

Ruth & Ulrich (2011) examined the development of self-esteem in adolescence and young adulthood. Data came from the Youth Adult section of the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth, which included 8 assessments across a 14 year period of national probability sample of 7100 individuals aged 14 to 30 years. Latent growth curve analysis indicated that self-esteem increases during adolescence and continues to increase more slowly in young adulthood. Women and men did not differ in their self-esteem trajectories. Hispanics had a lower self-esteem than Blacks and Whites, but the self-esteem increased more strongly so that at age 30
Blacks and Hispanics had higher self-esteem than the Whites. At each age, emotionally stable individuals experienced higher self-esteem than the emotionally unstable.

Erol & Orth (2011) carried out a study in the University of Basel examined the development of self-esteem in adolescence and young childhood. The aim of the study was to determine the direction of self-esteem development; as to when self-esteem development occurs in life and in what direction. Another aspect of the study was to discover potential individual factors in self-esteem development after recording trajectories. It was expected that self-esteem development would continuously increase during adolescence and young youthhood as previous studies have suggested. But interestingly, it was found that self-esteem increased moderately through adolescence and continued to increase in young adulthood at a much slower rate. A high sense of skill, low risk-taking and better overall health predicted higher self-esteem in participants. This study did not show any results of significant difference between self-esteem directions of men and women.

Frost & McKelvie (2005) studied the relationship of self-esteem and body satisfaction to exercise activity for male and female
elementary school, high school and university students. One hundred and twenty seven male and female elementary school, high school and university students who were classified as high or low exercisers completed questionnaires that measured global self-esteem, body satisfaction and body build. For all participants combined, high exercisers reported greater self-esteem than low exercisers, showing that the positive relationship between exercise activity and self-esteem is robust across sex and age. High exercising male participants had a bigger body build than low exercising male participants, and they also reported greater satisfaction with specific aspects of their bodies (body-cathexis).

Crocker & Luhtanen (2002) assert that during the early school days, academic achievement is a significant predictor of self-esteem development. Academic achievement becomes the first identity with which a child relates himself. A student achieving success or consistent failing strongly affects their self-esteem Social experiences are the important contributor for it. As children go to school they begin to understand and note various differences between themselves and their class mates. By using social comparisons children learn to judge whether they are better or worse than their classmates in
different activities. These comparisons play a role in moulding self-esteem and influence the development of positive or negative feelings they have about themselves (Butler, 1998, Pomerantz, 1995).

Leary & Baumeister (2000) have confirmed that social acceptance brings about self-confidence and produces high self-esteem in children whereas, rejection from peers and loneliness brings about self-doubt, poor self-image and produces low self-esteem.

Gabriel & Gardner (1999) have given a slightly different version. Their recent research has shown that, while men and women do not differ much between independence and interdependence generally, they do differ between relational and collective interdependence. Men are known for collective interdependence while women for relational interdependence. In other words, women identify more with dyadic (one to one) relationships; whereas, men identify themselves more often within the context of the larger groups (Boesch & Boesch, 2000). Research also shows that as gender roles are dissolving in the western society where differences may changes very quickly.
Cross & Madson, (1997) say that there is hardly any research on gender difference in the children in respect of the self-esteem or self-concept. Early research inspired by the differences in self-concept across cultures suggested that men tend to be more independent universally while women tend to be more dependent on one another i.e. they need some other women for their support and development; being independent in self-concept means that assessment of others is not affecting the self. Interdependent self-construct refers to the fact that the assessment of others becomes the self-assessment.

Watkins (1996) investigated culture and gender differences in the self-esteem of college students. The responses of 268 Hong Kong and 399 Nigerian first or second year science under graduate students to the personal and academic self-concept inventory were compared to previously reported findings with similar groups of American and Nepalese students. Country and gender analysis indicated clear, statistically significant main and interaction effects which varied according to the area of self-esteem under investigation. Support was found for the tendency found in research with secondary school students for subjects from non-western cultures to report higher
academic but lower non-academic self-esteem than their western peers. However, the gender did not generalize across cultures.

Thorne & Michaelieu (1996) believe that, as children go through adolescence peer influence becomes as much important as adolescents make assessment of themselves based on their relationship with close friends. A successful peer relationship is very important for the development of self-esteem for children.

Steinberg & Domusch (1991) affirm that parenting can also play an important role in self-esteem development of children. Students in elementary schools who have high self-esteem have parents who are caring and supportive, who set high standards for their children and encourage them to voice their opinion in decision making (Although studies are very limited in this regard, the common finding is that warm supportive parenting has a high correlation with high self-esteem in children. It could be easily thought of as having a casual effect in self-esteem development (Coopersmith, 1967; Isberg, 1989). Childhood experiences that contribute to healthy self-esteem also include talking to them and allowing them to talk respectfully, providing appropriate attention and affection, recognizing their accomplishments and mistakes or failures. Experiences that are
responsible for low self-esteem in children include being harshly criticized, being physically, sexually or emotionally abused, being ridiculed, ignored or being expected to be the best and the most perfect all the time.

Braden (1987) considers self-esteem as the sum of self-confidence and self-respect. It can be understood as a consequence of the subjective judgment that every person makes of his ability to face life’s challenges, to understand and solve problems, and his right to achieve happiness and be given respect. Moreover, self-esteem has also been thought of as an important outcome due to its close relation with psychological well-being of children. Subjective experience in a person’s life is chief contributor in self-esteem development. In the initial years of a child’s life parents cause the most significant influence on self-esteem and remain the chief source of positive or negative experiences a child may have. The emphasis is on unconditional love from the parents has high importance in child developing a stable sense of being cared for and respected. These feelings translate into later effects of self-esteem as the child grows older (Olsen, 2008). In social psychology self-esteem is an important measure because researchers have conceptualized it as an influential
predictor of various outcomes such as academic achievement and behaviour.

2.4 SELF- EFFICACY

Individuals who possess a high degree of self-efficacy are more likely to attempt challenging tasks, to persist longer at them, and to put in more effort into the process. If highly efficacious individuals fail, they attribute the outcome to lack of effort or an adverse environment. When they succeed, they credit their achievement to their abilities. It is the perception that their abilities caused the achievement that affects the outcome rather than their actual abilities. Four factors determine self-efficacy: enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and psychological and emotional states. The most influential of these is enactive mastery experience, which refers to individuals’ experiences of success or failure in past situations. Information gathered from these experiences is then internalized. Past success raises self-efficacy and repeated failures lower it, which indicates to individuals their levels of capability. In a vicarious experience, individuals compare themselves to peers whom they perceive are similar in ability and intelligence to themselves. Watching peers succeed raises the
observer’s self-efficacy and seeing them fail lowers it. Exposure to multiple successful role models helps increase self-efficacy in observers. Verbal persuasion tries to convince individuals, who may doubt their capabilities that they possess the skills needed for success at a given task. In education, verbal persuasion delivered by teachers often takes the form of verbal feedback, evaluation and encouragement. Persuasion must be realistic, sincere, and from a credible source otherwise, it can negatively affect student self-efficacy beliefs.

Alemnu (2013) aver that emotional state can either positively or negatively affect interpretation of an event’s outcome. In addition to the four factors that determine general self-efficacy, aptitude, attitudes, and attributions are also found to predict sports self-efficacy. Efficacy beliefs vary between individuals and will actually fluctuate within an individual for different tasks. In many activities, self-efficacy contributes to self-esteem. Self-efficacy beliefs determine how people approach new challenges and will contribute to performance, since these beliefs influence the thought process, motivation, and behaviour. Self-efficacy is not static, and can change over time resulting from periodic reassessments of how adequate
one’s performance has been. For example, in a college population, Chemistry laboratory self-efficacy increased over the course of an academic year, whereas, Biology laboratory self-efficacy decreased over the same duration.

Baron (2004) defines self-efficacy as the belief that one has capabilities to execute a course of action required to manage prospective situations. Unlike efficacy which is the power to produce an effect, self-efficacy is the belief that one has the power to produce that effect. Bandura states that self-efficacy predicts actual performance when necessary skills and appropriate incentives are present.

Bandura (2004) emphasizes that self-efficacy is the critical mediating variable. Baron discusses four factors affecting self-efficacy; experience, modelling, social persuasions and psychological factors. ‘Mastery experience’ is the most important factor affecting person’s efficacy (Baron, 2004). In simple terms success raises self-efficacy while failure lowers it. Modelling, which Bandura and Baron refer to as vicarious experience, is a comparison process between one person and another. In other words, watching someone else accomplish a skill can affect the viewer’s own self-efficacy. Gill
(2000) suggests that demonstrations used by coaches and instructors may reduce worry and enhance confidence. Vicarious experience has not been shown to be as effective as actual experience.

Self-efficacy affects human function in a variety of ways Baron (2004). People tend to be more inclined to take on a task if they believe that they can succeed and generally avoid tasks where self-efficacy is low. Self-efficacy affects motivation by affecting the level of effort people are willing to expend in a given situation, and can be in the level of a person’s persistence. Thought patterns and responses are also affected by self-efficacy in that low self-efficacy can lead people to believe that the tasks are harder than they actually are. This often results in poor planning efforts and increased stress. Lastly, Baron discusses the effect self-efficacy has on the destiny idea. People of differing levels of self-efficacy perceive the world in a fundamentally different way. For example, people of high self-efficacy are generally of the opinion that they are in control of their own lives. This view not only affects self-efficacy, it also affects levels of motivation. Efficacy expectations are primary determinants of choice of activity, level of effort, and degree of persistence. High self-efficacious people seek challenges, try hard and persist even
when faced with adversity. Bandura distinguishes the concept of self-efficacy from outcome expectancies by defining outcome expectancies as beliefs that a particular action will produce desired results. Self-efficacy theory implies that various strategies used by coaches, instructors, and performers affect performance and behaviour because they affect self-efficacy.

Gill (2000) attempted to summarize and diagram the relationship of the above mentioned concepts using Bandura’s original model as a guide. In the model performance accomplishments, or mastery experience, provide the most dependable information and have the most powerful effects of self-efficacy. Participant modelling has shown to be most effective in increasing self-efficacy, reducing anxiety, and improving performance. Vicarious experience also can increase self-efficacy. In other words, watching someone else accomplish the skill can affect a person’s own self-efficacy level. Demonstrations are shown to be useful teaching tools to decrease worry and increase self-confidence. Verbal persuasion is less powerful than experience, but often serves as an encouragement piece for some. The role of emotional arousal is less clear. The more correct term may actually be the perception of
arousal. For example, an increased heart rate may affect self-confidence and, therefore, affect efficacy expectations. These four factors affect efficacy expectations and therefore affect behaviour and thought patterns.

Self-efficacy predicts intellectual performance better than skills, and it directly influences academic performance through cognition. Self-efficacy also indirectly affects perseverance. Although past achievements raise self-efficacy, it is student interpretation of past successes and failures that may be responsible for subsequent success. Perceived self-efficacy predicts future achievement better than past performance. Self-efficacy beliefs also contribute to performance since they influence thought processes, motivation and behaviour. Fluctuations in performance may be explained as fluctuations in self-efficacy. For example, varying beliefs in self-efficacy may alter task outcome, whether it involves two similarly-skilled individuals, or the same person in two different situations.

Strecher & Rosenstock (1997) discuss self-efficacy in relation to the Health Belief Model. The definition they offer for self-efficacy is that it relates to one’s confidence in one’s ability to take action. Bandura makes clear that there is a clear distinction between self-
efficacy and outcome expectation. A lack of efficacy may be perceived as a barrier to taking a recommended health action. One of these health actions would be exercise. A person who is confident in his ability to exercise is more likely to engage in exercise behaviour even in the presence of potential barriers to the behaviour.

Individuals high in self-efficacy attempt challenging tasks more often, persists longer with them, and put in more effort. If there are failures, highly efficacious individuals attribute it to a lack of effort or an adverse environment. When they succeed, they attribute it to their abilities. The perception that their abilities caused the achievement affects the outcome rather than their actual abilities. Those who regard themselves as inefficacious individuals, shy away from difficult tasks, slacken their efforts and give up readily in the face of difficulties, dwell on their personal deficiencies, lower their aspirations and suffer much anxiety and stress. Such self-misgivings undermine performance. Conversely, individuals with high self-efficacy frequently persevere despite difficult tasks or challenging odds and often succeed because perseverance usually results in a successful outcome. Numerous studies link self-efficacy to academic achievement.
Bandura (1997) concluded that efficacy beliefs help regulate aspirations, choice of behaviour, and maintenance effort. Much research has been conducted on the four major psychological processes through which self-beliefs of efficacy affect human functioning. The first of these are cognitive processes that take on a variety of forms. Much human behaviour, being purposive, is regulated by forethoughts embodying valued goals. Personal goal setting is influenced by self-appraisal of capabilities. The stronger the perceived self-efficacy, the higher the goal challenges people set for themselves and the firmer their commitments to them.

The second major psychological process is motivation. Self-efficacy plays a key role in self-regulation of motivation. Most of this motivation is cognitively generated. People motivate themselves and guide their actions by the application of forethought. Beliefs are formed about what they can do and cannot do. They set goals for themselves and plan courses of action to meet these goals. The third process is labelled the affective process. People’s belief in their coping abilities affects how much stress and depression they experience in threatening or difficult situations as well as their level motivation. Perceived self-efficacy to apply control over stressors
plays a central role in anxiety arousal and helps to regulate avoidance behaviour. Selection processes are centred on these avoidance behaviours.

A person who has a high level of self-efficacy in regard to a particular behaviour or activity is more likely to participate in that particular activity. Conversely, a person with low levels of self-efficacy is more likely to find ways, or reasons to avoid activities in which he feels he has a low probability of success. Beliefs about personal efficacy can shape the course of lives by influencing the types of activities and environments people choose. For example, a person is more likely to engage in regular physical activity if he believes he can meet his exercise goals and overcome any obstacles that may arise. Research also supports the idea that such persons are likely to challenge themselves in regard to physical activity behaviour and work to meet specified goals. Self-efficacy is similar to self-motivation in a number of ways. The construct has received much attention regarding its effects on exercise behaviour. Effects of exercise specific self-efficacy, however, have received considerably less attention. Self-efficacy is considered by many as an abstract construct that is difficult to quantify. Lastly, like self-motivation, self-
efficacy is influenced by and influences a number of other personal and psychological factors; they are discussed later in this section. This section discusses exercise as physical activity that is planned and structured. As stated earlier, there are a number of predictors and factors that affect and are affected by self-efficacy.

Bandura (1996) defines self-efficacy as people’s belief about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives. The definition goes on to state that self-efficacy beliefs determine how people feel, think, and motivate them.

Bandura (1994) describes self-efficacy as a situation specific-form of self confidence, or belief that one is competent and can do whatever is necessary in a specific situation. Self confidence is seen as a more global and stable personality characteristic whereas, self-efficacy may fluctuate greatly.

Bandura (1986) developed the Social Cognitive Theory. This theory includes the concept of reciprocal interrelationships among cognitive (self-efficacy), the environment, and behaviour.

Bandura (1982, 1986) believed that self-efficacy should reflect a person’s evaluation of their confidence in performing a given behaviour in the face of salient barriers and facilitating conditions. If someone has the requisite skills and sufficient motivation, then the major determinant of their performance is self-efficacy. Self-efficacy alone is not sufficient to be successful - the person must want to succeed and have the ability to succeed Weinberg & Gould (1995).

2.5 ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

Pathan & Iqbal (2010) examined the relationship between sport activities, academic achievements and personality dynamics of high school students in Sindh. The study analyses the relationship between educational performance of a person and his grooming in the society with sports activities especially at early education levels of schooling. Some valid inferences have been drawn to indicate that sports activities in the early schooling age has significant impact on personality traits in later professional life of an individual.
Peternelj & Branko (2009) carried out a study to establish whether there are any differences between groups of peoples attending a sport class for eight years and those attending a regular class in terms of their final grade. The ‘t’ test for independent samples and the chi square test confirmed the statistical significance of the differences between the pupils attending the regular school programme and those attending a sport class in those subjects that they attend throughout the eight years. The analysis of covariance showed that the differences in the final grade mainly stemmed from the differences in the overall achievement at the beginning of schooling and the influence of the family environment, especially the parents’ education. This means that the observed differences in the overall achievement of pupils attending sport and regular classes are mainly a consequence of the initial formation of individuals. In a family environment where high levels of knowledge and education are perceived valuable, parents show greater interest in and care for both the education of their children and the develop of a healthy lifestyle.

Chowdhury & Shahafuddin (2007) conducted a study on self-efficacy, motivation and their relationship to academic performance
of Bangladesh college students. Data were collected through self–administered questionnaire from the 123 college students. Results revealed that the students’ academic achievement was affected by motivation. It was also found that the students who attained the highest level of academic performance were those who were simultaneously highly motivated. The findings further indicated both intrinsic (.327) and extrinsic motivation (.251) were positively related with academic achievement.

Sumerson & Farley (2007) examined the contribution of motivation, personality, learning strategies and scholastic aptitude to academic achievement in college students. Data collected were through grade point average for academic achievement scale and achievement motivation strategies for learning questionnaire from 186 undergraduate students of North Eastern University. The results indicated that motivation was significantly and positively related to academic achievement.

Broussard (2002) explored the relationship between classroom motivation and academic achievement in first and third graders. The respondents of the study included 122 first year and 129 third grade students from the mid-sized southern city of Louisiana. Data were
collected by using Harter’s scale of intrinsic versus extrinsic motivation orientation. The findings indicated that higher levels of mastery motivation and judgement motivation were related to the higher academic performance of the students of the third grade. However, only higher levels of mastery motivation were found to be related with higher academic performance of the students of the first grade.

Archer & Bourke (1999) studied the interrelationship among characteristics that predicted achievement among undergraduate students. The sample included 71 older and 51 younger students of Australia. The data were gathered through a questionnaire containing measures of motivation. The results in the college records were taken as the academic achievement of the students. The findings revealed that motivation had a positive relationship with academic achievement of groups.

Alderman (1999) adds that some individuals feel that success is based on ability, and failure is caused by lack of ability. When competitive situations occur, many of these individuals often feel a need to protect themselves from failure or a perceived lack of ability, so they develop strategies such as withholding an effort or setting
unrealistic goals. Ability and effort have typically been found to be the most frequent reasons for success and failure in achievement contexts. Ability and self-worth are often seen by students as synonymous. It is ability, often in the absence of accomplishment that denies self-worth for them. For students, who believe success is unlikely, the main problem is to avoid failure that is linked or attributed to ability through the use of failure-avoiding strategies. Personal experience is one of the most influential sources of efficacy information.

Eppler & Beverly (1997) investigated achievement goals in relation to academic performance in traditional and non-traditional college students. The sample comprised 262 students of Carolina. Both the groups rated themselves higher on learning goals than on performance goals. The result of the study indicated that learning goal orientation was significantly and positively related with academic performance of both the groups. Relationship between performance goal and academic success was comparatively less significant. Goal orientations were found to be better predictors of academic success than students’ status.
Schommer; Calvert; Gariglietti & Bajaj (1997) argue that some students do not believe in additional effort. They believe that the ability to learn is fixed at birth. These students believe that they can only learn so much so fast, and they will arrange the circumstances so that if poor performance should occur, those circumstances will be seen as the cause rather than lack of ability.

Keefe & Jenkins (1993) are of the opinion that extrinsically motivated individuals are those who participate to receive a reward or avoid a punishment; they typically do not want to do the task and believe that it is out of their control whether they succeed or not. If they do the task they expect some sort of gain other than knowledge such as praise, rewards or avoiding punishment.

Haasen & Shea (1979) state that if we accept the notion of intrinsic motivation, it implies that there is a powerful potential for self-actualization within each of us. This potential is based on the intensity of our need to achieve as well as our enjoyment of achieving. Students who are intrinsically motivated participate in learning activities for their own sake; they desire the outcome. They do not need reward or praise; they find satisfaction in knowing that,
what they are learning will be beneficial later. They want to master the task, and they believe it is under their control to achieve mastery.

Atkinson & Feather (1966) state that a person’s achievement oriented behaviour is based on three parts: the individual’s predisposition to achievement, the probability of success, and individual’s perception of the value of the task. The strength of motivation to perform some act is assumed to be a multiplicative function of the strength of the motive, the expectancy (subjective probability) that the act will have as a consequence the attainment of an incentive, and the value of the incentive.