



## Original Article

# Investigating the effect of yoga on self-efficacy: A systematic review and meta-analysis

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Received: 1 Nov. 2025

Revised: 10 Jan. 2026

Accepted: 26 Feb. 2026

Published: 27 Apr. 2026

## Article Info

### Keywords:

Yoga  
Self-efficacy  
Preventive Care  
Systematic Review  
Meta-analysis

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### How to Cite This Article:

Jalali A, Heidarian P,  
Ghasemianrad MR, Taheri M,  
PourmirzaKalhori R, Magholi  
M, Kazeminia M.  
Investigating the effect of yoga  
on self-efficacy: A systematic  
review and meta-analysis. Prev  
Care Nurs Midwifery J.  
2026;16(2):70-82.

## Abstract

**Background:** Self-efficacy is a key modifiable factor in preventive care, influencing health promotion and disease prevention behaviors.

**Objective:** This systematic review and meta-analysis evaluated yoga's effects on self-efficacy as a low-cost preventive intervention.

**Methods:** This study was conducted following the PRISMA guidelines through 26 February 2026. Relevant articles were gathered from databases such as MagIran, SID, PubMed, Embase, Web of Science, Scopus, and Google Scholar using specific keywords. Interventional original studies with full text that evaluated the effect of yoga on self-efficacy and reported sufficient data were included. Studies lacking a control group, full text, or sufficient data, as well as non-interventional or duplicate studies, were excluded. The methodological quality of the included studies was assessed using the JBI checklist for interventional studies. Heterogeneity was assessed via  $I^2$ , and publication bias via Egger's regression.

**Results:** From 1,273 records, 14 studies ( $n = 843$ ) were included. Yoga significantly enhanced self-efficacy versus control (SMD = 1.175; 95% CI: 0.750–1.600;  $P < 0.001$ ), with an increasing yearly effect ( $P < 0.001$ ).

**Conclusion:** Yoga appears to improve self-efficacy. From a preventive care perspective, integrating yoga into routine health promotion programs offers a practical, non-pharmacological approach to strengthening self-efficacy.

### Implications for Nursing and Midwifery Preventive Care

- Integrate yoga into family planning counseling to enhance self-efficacy and informed choice.
- Include yoga stress management in preventive education to improve service engagement.
- Yoga is a low-cost, non-drug tool to boost adherence and reproductive well-being.



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## Introduction

Self-efficacy refers to individuals' beliefs in their ability to perform actions that lead to specific outcomes [1]. It is a personal, situational, and culturally dependent concept that significantly influences behavior, predicts activity performance, and determines performance levels [2]. From a preventive care standpoint, self-efficacy is recognized as a key modifiable determinant that can influence engagement in health-promoting and disease-preventing behaviors. Self-efficacy affects the time individuals dedicate to tasks, their adaptability in various situations, and their resilience when facing challenges [3].

Individuals with high self-efficacy are better at overcoming problems and resolving issues due to their strong problem-solving skills and positive experiences [4]. In difficult situations, they focus on their abilities to tackle challenges and actively seek solutions instead of viewing the situation negatively [5]. This proactive approach is particularly valuable in preventive care, where early action and adherence to health recommendations can significantly reduce the risk of future illness. Self-efficacy impacts various factors, such as goal selection, decision-making, and mental health. It also creates a sense of ease when approaching challenging tasks and activities [6].

Therefore, interventions that enhance self-efficacy can serve as effective preventive strategies. Yoga is one recommended practice for enhancing self-efficacy [7]. It encompasses various forms, such as Asana (yoga postures that relax the pelvic region and promote calmness) and Pranayama (breathing techniques that calm the mind) [8]. Yoga also promotes soothing thoughts that reduce stress, improve the self-efficacy levels, and enhance emotional control [7]. It has proven effective in treating conditions like depression, sleep disorders [9], and anxiety [10] and can also play a role in preventing these conditions by strengthening psychological resilience. By reducing sympathetic activity and increasing parasympathetic activity, yoga alleviates stress, leading to better endocrine function and immune adaptation [11], all of which

are relevant targets for primary and secondary prevention.

The objective of yoga is to regulate the mind and its impact on the central nervous system. Unlike other forms of exercise, yoga has a unique modulatory effect on the central nervous system, internal hormone secretion, physiological changes, neural signal regulation, and other related processes [12]. As a result, yoga can effectively complement conventional medical treatments for various physical and mental disorders [13]. Moreover, as a low-cost and accessible practice, yoga aligns well with the goals of preventive care, which emphasize population-wide, cost-effective interventions. It is a cost-effective and universally accessible practice that requires minimal resources, making it suitable for individuals of all ages and enhancing their physical and mental health [14].

Several preliminary studies have examined the impact of yoga on self-efficacy across diverse populations worldwide [15-17]. However, the potential of yoga as a preventive tool targeting self-efficacy has not yet been systematically evaluated. Given the varied outcomes of these studies, a systematic review and meta-analysis is essential to provide clear and consistent findings. Such research could serve as a comprehensive guide for policymakers and researchers interested in integrating preventive interventions into routine care.

## Objectives

The present systematic review and meta-analysis aims to assess and synthesize the findings regarding the effects of yoga on self-efficacy within the context of preventive care.

## Methods

This study used a systematic review and meta-analysis approach with no time limit until February 26, 2026. It followed the PRISMA 2020 protocol (<http://www.prisma-statement.org/>), encompassing the stages of identification, screening, eligibility, and inclusion [18].

### Identification of Articles

To identify published articles relevant to the research objective, we searched Persian-language databases (SID: <https://www.sid.ir> and MagIran: <https://www.magiran.com>) as well as international databases, including PubMed, Embase, Scopus, and Web of Science (WoS). We conducted searches using keywords such as “Self-Efficacy” and “Yoga,” validated through MeSH for PubMed and Emtree for Embase, and combined these terms using *OR* and *AND* operators.

No time restrictions were applied to ensure the retrieval of all potentially relevant studies. To enhance the comprehensiveness of our search, we also utilized Google Scholar and manually reviewed the references of all related articles that met our inclusion criteria.

### Search Strategy

For instance, the search strategy used for PubMed was structured as follows: ((Self Efficacy [MeSH Terms]) OR ("Self-Efficacy"[Title/Abstract])) AND ((Yoga [MeSH Terms]) OR (Yoga [Title/Abstract])) AND (English [Filter]).

### Inclusion Criteria

- Original scientific research articles.
- Interventional studies.
- Full text available.
- Studies examining the impact of yoga on self-efficacy.
- Sufficient data (reporting Mean  $\pm$  SD of self-efficacy scores before and after the intervention in both the intervention and control groups).

### Exclusion Criteria

- Studies unrelated to the research objective.
- Cross-sectional studies, case reports, case series, conference proceedings, letters to the editor, qualitative studies, theses, systematic reviews, meta-analyses, and animal studies.
- Duplicate studies across databases (only one instance retained).
- Studies without full-text access.
- Absence of a control group.

### Data Extraction

All retrieved articles from various databases were imported into EndNote X8 software, and duplicates were removed. Next, the titles and abstracts of the

studies were carefully reviewed to exclude irrelevant ones. The full texts of the remaining articles were then thoroughly evaluated. Studies that did not meet the established inclusion and exclusion criteria were dismissed. During the selection process, reviewers were blinded to the authors, institutions, and journals of the articles. All selected articles were subsequently subjected to qualitative assessment for inclusion in the systematic review and meta-analysis.

### Quality/ Risk of Bias Assessment Tools

The qualitative evaluation was performed using the Joanna Briggs Institute (JBI) checklist, a well-established tool for assessing the quality of interventional studies [19]. This checklist consists of 13 items that address key aspects, including randomization, allocation, baseline similarity of treatment groups, participant blinding, blinding of those implementing the intervention, and blinding of outcome assessors. It also evaluates whether treatments were similar across groups, except for the intervention itself, along with follow-up, participant analysis, outcomes, the reliability of the outcome measurement method, appropriate statistical analysis, and suitable trial design. For scoring, "Yes" was given if an item was addressed, "No" if it was not, and "NA" if it was not applicable. The scores ranged from 0 to 13, based on the number of "Yes" responses. For quasi-experimental studies, the 9-item JBI Critical Appraisal Checklist for Quasi-Experimental Studies was used for methodological quality assessment.

### Data extraction

Data extraction from the final articles included in the systematic review and meta-analysis was conducted manually using a pre-prepared checklist. The checklist contained the following items: first author, year, study location, age, and sample size, mean  $\pm$  SD of self-efficacy scores before and after the intervention for both the intervention and control groups, study type, target population, and diagnostic tools. To reduce publication bias and errors, all stages of identification, selection, quality assessment, and data extraction were carried out independently by two researchers, A.J. and M.K. In the event of a disagreement between the researchers,

the issue was discussed and resolved by reaching a consensus in the presence of a supervisor.

### Synthesis Methods

The main parameter evaluated in this study was the impact of yoga on self-efficacy.

To synthesize the results of various studies, we calculated the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation of self-efficacy scores before and after the intervention for both the intervention and control groups.

We assessed heterogeneity among the studies using the  $I^2$  index, where a value below 50% indicated "low heterogeneity" and a value above 50% indicated "high heterogeneity."

Due to the significant heterogeneity among the included studies ( $I^2 > 50\%$ ), we employed a random-effects model.

This model effectively accommodates variations across studies, yielding more generalizable results under high heterogeneity compared to a fixed-effects model [20].

A sensitivity analysis was performed to identify the sources of heterogeneity.

To evaluate publication bias, we utilized Egger's regression intercept, which is particularly effective for detecting publication bias in meta-analyses containing 10 to 75 studies [21].

Additionally, Meta-regression analysis was conducted to explore the impact of study-level variables (sample size, year of publication, mean participant age, and JBI quality score) on the pooled standardized mean difference (SMD).

Statistical analysis was conducted using Comprehensive Meta-Analysis Software (Version 2), with a significance threshold set at  $P < 0.05$ .

## Result

### Summary of Article Inclusion in the Meta-Analysis

Through the database search strategies, a total of 1,273 studies were identified.

After removing 556 duplicate and overlapping articles, 717 studies remained.

In addition, 635 articles were excluded after the title and abstract screening due to irrelevance to the research topic. Out of the remaining 82 studies, 68

were excluded based on full-text evaluation for not meeting the inclusion criteria.

Thus, 14 articles meeting the inclusion criteria were included in the meta-analysis.

The PRISMA 2020 flow diagram illustrates these steps (Figure 1).

### General specifications of the studies

The total sample size across all studies included in the analysis comprised 423 participants in the intervention group and 420 participants in the control group. The oldest study dated back to 2006, while the most recent study was from 2024.

The highest number of studies were conducted in the USA, with five articles. The diagnostic tool for self-efficacy in most studies (11 articles) was Self-Efficacy Questionnaire (SEQ).

The quality assessment scores of the studies, JBI checklist (13 items, total score: 13). The specifications and data of the studies meeting the inclusion criteria are provided in Table 1.

### Meta-Analysis of the Standardized mean Difference before and after the Intervention between the Intervention and Control Groups

The results of the present meta-analysis indicate a high level of heterogeneity among the studies ( $I^2 = 86.62$ ).

Therefore, a random-effects model was employed to synthesize the studies and derive the final results.

The pooled analysis revealed a statistically significant increase in self-efficacy scores in the intervention group by SMD 1.175 (95% CI: 0.750-1.600) compared to the control group, which was statistically significant ( $P < 0.001$ ). The forest plot (Figure 2) illustrates the combined estimate of all studies and the standardized mean difference for each study.

The 95% confidence intervals are represented by the horizontal lines of each square (Figure 2). Based on Egger's regression intercept, there was no evidence of publication bias at the 0.1 level ( $P = 0.238$ ) (Figure 3).

Sensitivity analysis demonstrated that removing any of the studies did not result in a significant change in the final outcome (Figure 4).

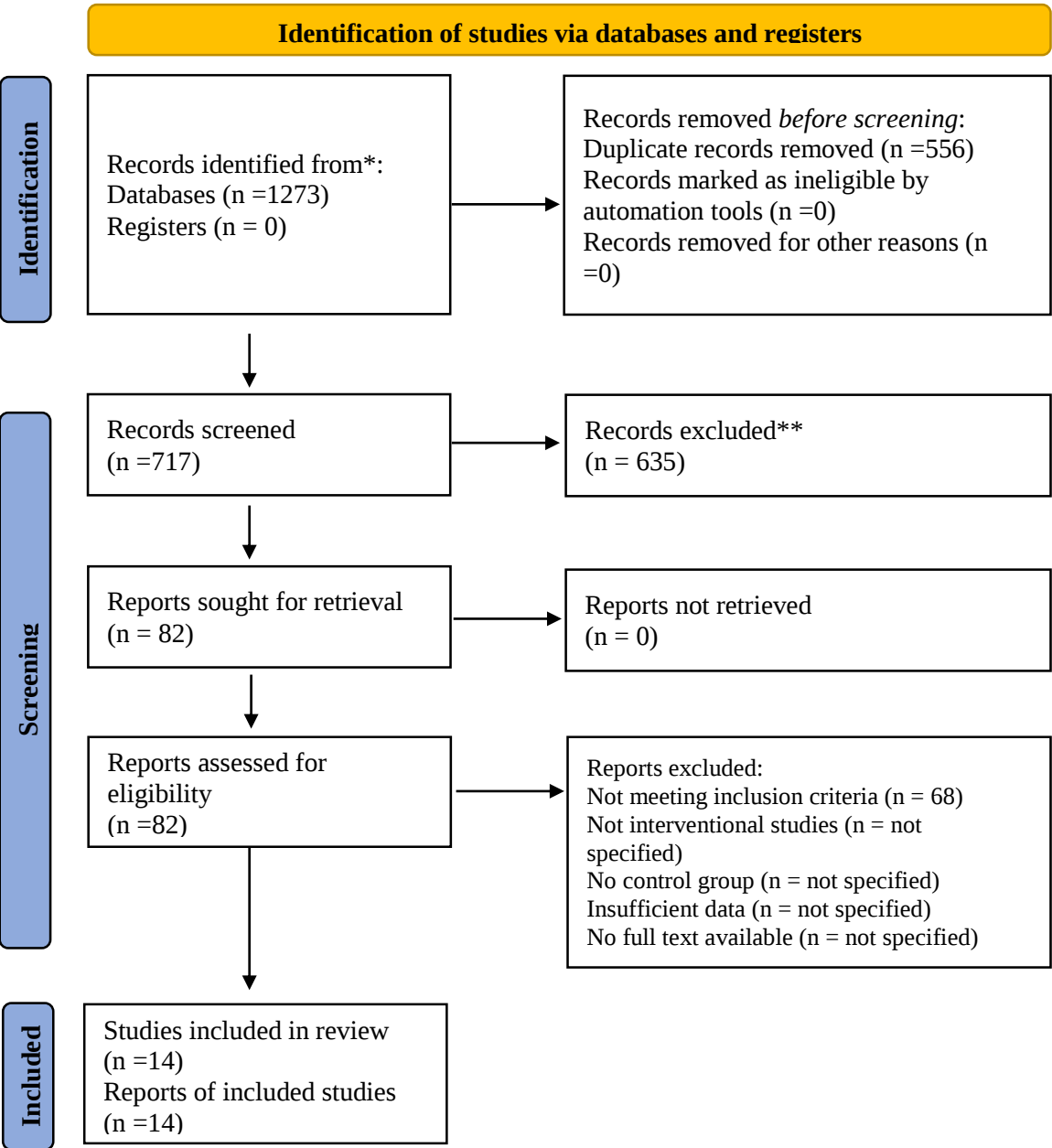


Figure 1. PRISMA 2020 flow diagram for article selection

### Meta-Regression

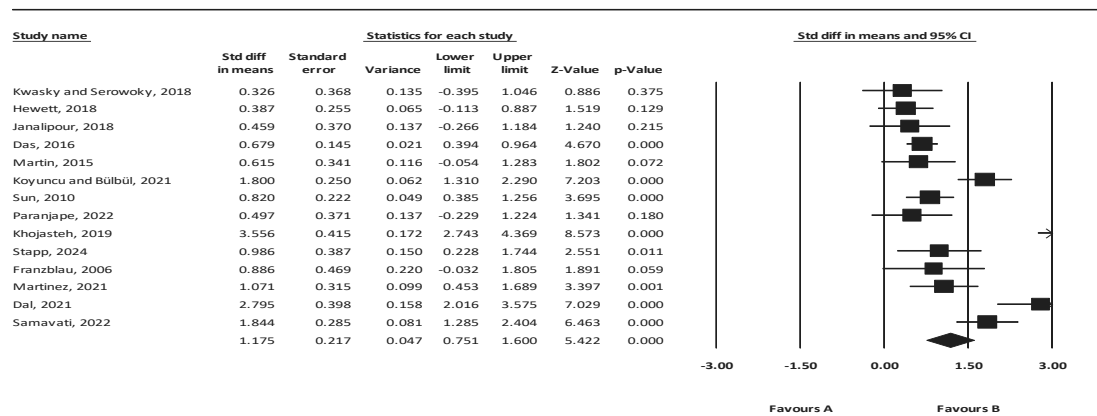
Meta-regression was conducted to assess the association between potential study-level factors (year of publication [Figure 5], sample size [Figure 6], mean age [Figure 7], and JBI quality assessment score [Figure 8]) and the pooled standardized mean difference (SMD).

The results indicated that as the publication year increased, the effect of the intervention significantly increased ( $P < 0.05$ ) (Figure 5).

However, the relationships between sample size, patient age, and the JBI checklist quality assessment score with the intervention effect were not statistically significant ( $P > 0.05$ ) (Figures 6–8).

**Table 1.** Specifications of studies entered the meta-analysis

| Study                        | Country   | Population                     | Intervention                                 | Design             | Instrument            | Quality Score | Sample Size (I/C) | Age (Mean $\pm$ SD) | Baseline Mean $\pm$ SD (I/C)           | Post-intervention Mean $\pm$ SD (I/C) |
|------------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|---------------|-------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| Kwasky & Serowoky, 2018 [17] | USA       | Adolescents (11–14 years)      | Yoga, twice weekly for 8 weeks               | Quasi-experimental | SEQ-C                 | 11            | 15/15             | 12.27 $\pm$ 1.47    | 30.30 $\pm$ 5.81 / 31.40 $\pm$ 4.55    | 29.10 $\pm$ 5.93 / 28.50 $\pm$ 4.28   |
| Hewett, 2018 [7]             | Australia | Sedentary adults               | Bikram yoga, 16 weeks                        | RCT                | General Self-Efficacy | 13            | 34/29             | 37.2 $\pm$ 10.8     | 30.4 $\pm$ 4.6 / 32.3 $\pm$ 4.2        | 29.3 $\pm$ 4.6 / 29.5 $\pm$ 4.4       |
| Janalipour, 2018 [15]        | Iran      | Women with multiple sclerosis  | Yoga, twice weekly for 8 weeks               | RCT                | MSSS                  | 12            | 15/15             | NR                  | 34.67 $\pm$ 6.98 / 49.53 $\pm$ 6.75    | 43.80 $\pm$ 12.01 / 47.20 $\pm$ 8.05  |
| Das, 2016 [22]               | India     | School children                | Yoga for 10 days                             | Quasi-experimental | SEQ                   | 10            | 100/100           | 13.7 $\pm$ 0.8      | 30.46 $\pm$ 6.15 / 29.71 $\pm$ 5.11    | 30.10 $\pm$ 6.44 / 25.51 $\pm$ 7.12   |
| Martin, 2015 [23]            | USA       | Women with PTSD                | Yoga, twice weekly for 8 weeks               | RCT                | BREQ-2                | 10            | 18/18             | 44.37 $\pm$ 12.37   | 25.60 $\pm$ 15.27 / 34.64 $\pm$ 27.15  | 25.44 $\pm$ 20.60 / 20.94 $\pm$ 24.98 |
| Koyuncu & Bülbul, 2021 [16]  | Turkey    | Third-trimester pregnant women | Yoga, 2 days/week for 4 weeks                | Quasi-experimental | SEQ                   | 11            | 45/45             | NR                  | 161.22 $\pm$ 7.16 / 180.33 $\pm$ 12.37 | 169.99 $\pm$ 7.90 / 170.91 $\pm$ 8.33 |
| Sun, 2010 [24]               | Taiwan    | Pregnant women                 | Prenatal yoga, 12–14 weeks, 3 $\times$ /week | Quasi-experimental | SEQ                   | 11            | 43/45             | 28.27 $\pm$ 3.1     | 38.28 $\pm$ 8.99 / 43.62 $\pm$ 9.25    | 37.60 $\pm$ 8.64 / 35.46 $\pm$ 8.53   |
| Paranjape, 2022 [25]         | USA       | Adults                         | Yoga, 2 days/week for 4 weeks                | Quasi-experimental | SEQ                   | 10            | 15/15             | NR                  | 25.32 $\pm$ 3.22 / 28.10 $\pm$ 5.13    | 24.98 $\pm$ 2.91 / 25.63 $\pm$ 3.63   |
| Khojasteh, 2019 [26]         | Iran      | Primiparous women              | 12–15 yoga sessions                          | Quasi-experimental | SEQ                   | 10            | 30/30             | 24.1 $\pm$ 2.8      | 92.75 $\pm$ 16.33 / 124.45 $\pm$ 13.26 | 99.62 $\pm$ 21.74 / 78.43 $\pm$ 24.70 |
| Stapp, 2024 [27]             | USA       | School children                | Yoga, 2 days/week for 4 weeks                | RCT                | SEQ                   | 10            | 15/15             | NR                  | 3.5 $\pm$ 0.7 / 3.6 $\pm$ 0.5          | 2.2 $\pm$ 0.8 / 1.7 $\pm$ 0.7         |
| Franzblau, 2006 [28]         | USA       | Battered women                 | Two 45-min sessions on consecutive days      | Quasi-experimental | SEQ                   | 10            | 10/10             | NR                  | 1.50 $\pm$ 0.70 / 1.20 $\pm$ 1.61      | 1.60 $\pm$ 0.51 / 2.04 $\pm$ 0.20     |
| Martinez, 2021 [29]          | Spain     | Adults                         | Yoga, 2 days/week for 4 weeks                | RCT                | SEQ                   | 11            | 23/23             | 45.98 $\pm$ 8.78    | 30.74 $\pm$ 3.66 / 17.87 $\pm$ 4.34    | 33.26 $\pm$ 3.65 / 16.09 $\pm$ 3.68   |
| Dal, 2021 [30]               | Turkey    | Pregnant women                 | NR                                           | Semi-experimental  | SEQ                   | 10            | 25/25             | 30.1 $\pm$ 6.87     | 60.86 $\pm$ 1.12 / 39.49 $\pm$ 1.74    | 51.58 $\pm$ 1.50 / 34.30 $\pm$ 1.10   |
| Samavati, 2022 [31]          | Iran      | Primiparous women              | Three sessions/week for 2 weeks              | RCT                | SEQ                   | 12            | 35/35             | 23.06 $\pm$ 3.80    | 50.13 $\pm$ 6.04 / 57.66 $\pm$ 6.04    | 47.11 $\pm$ 5.31 / 43.05 $\pm$ 5.06   |

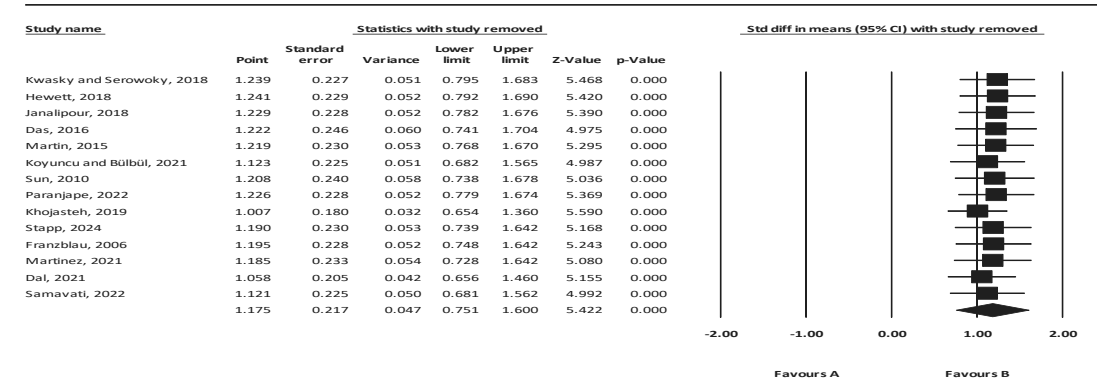


Meta Analysis

Figure 2. Forest plot of studies in the meta-analysis before and after intervention for control and intervention groups

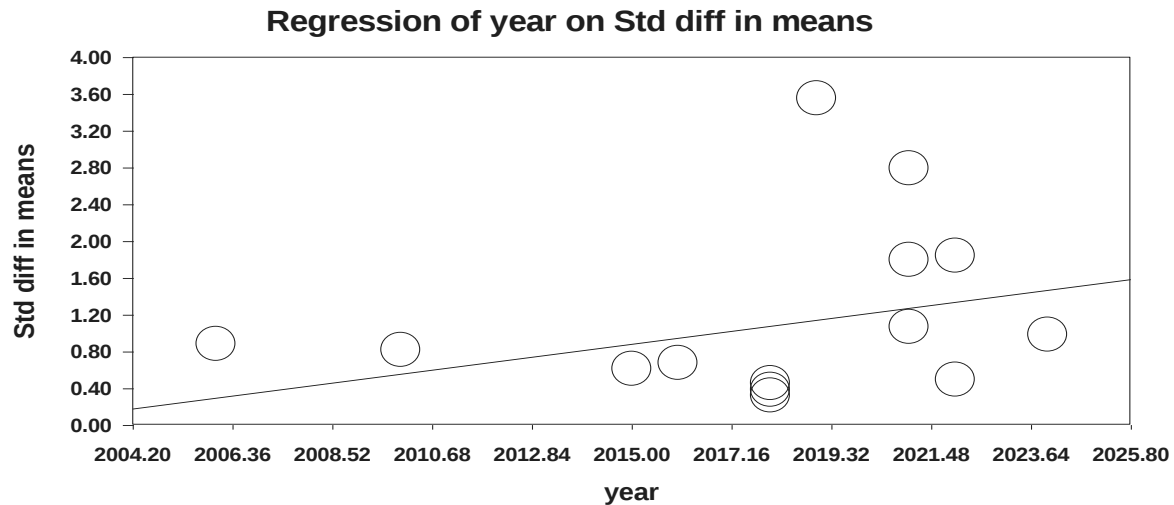


Figure 3. Funnel plot of studies in the meta-analysis before and after intervention for control and intervention groups

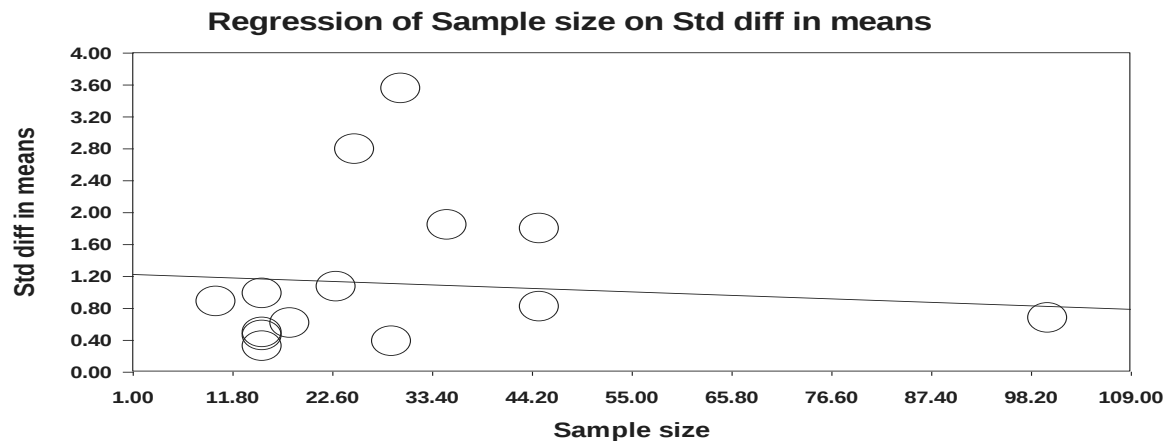


Meta Analysis

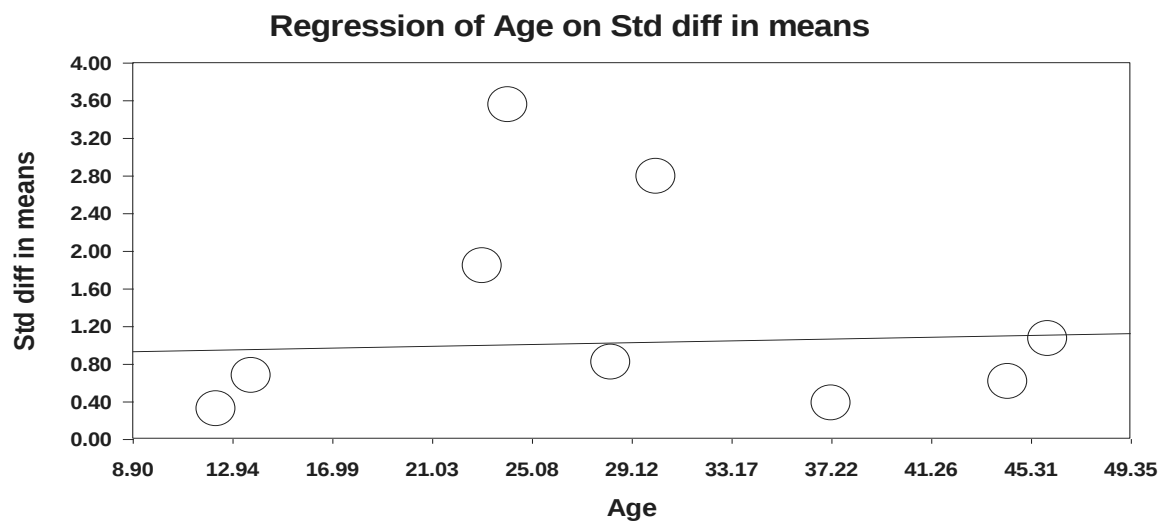
Figure 4. Sensitivity analysis plot before and after the intervention for the control and intervention groups based on the random-effects model



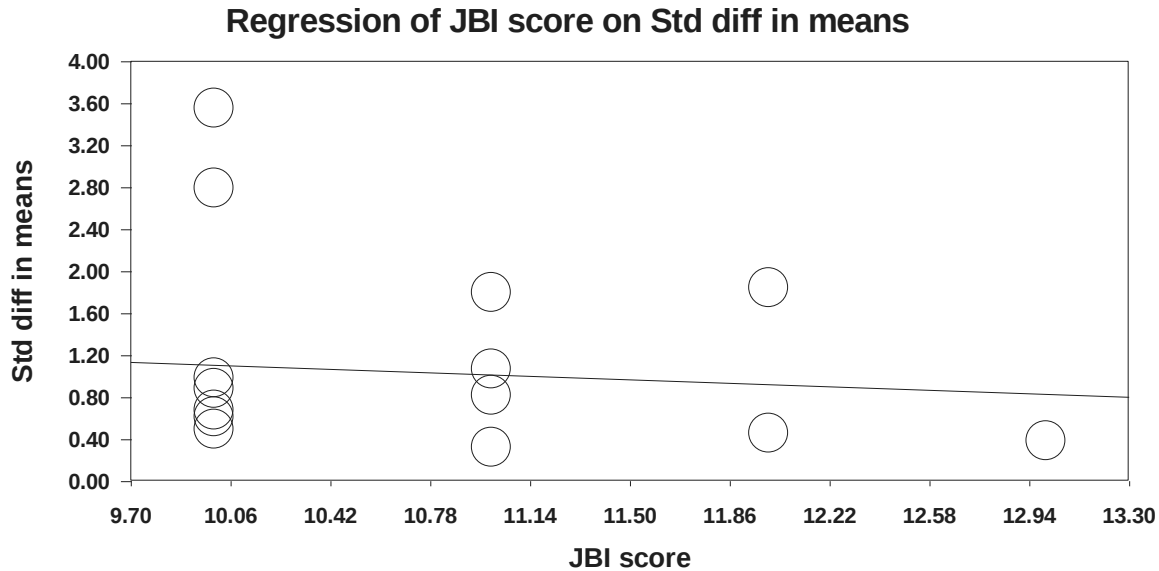
**Figure 5.** Meta-regression of the relationship between the year of study and standardized mean difference before and after intervention for control and intervention groups



**Figure 6.** Meta-regression of the relationship between the sample size of study and standardized mean difference before and after intervention for control and intervention groups



**Figure 7.** Meta-regression of the relationship between the mean age and standardized mean difference before and after intervention for control and intervention groups



**Figure 8.** Meta-regression of the relationship between the JBI checklist quality assessment and standardized mean difference before and after intervention for control and intervention groups

## Discussion

The effects of yoga on self-efficacy were examined through a systematic review and meta-analysis. The findings, based on a synthesis of 14 relevant studies, revealed a significant increase in self-efficacy among participants in the intervention group compared to those in the control group, highlighting the positive impact of yoga on self-efficacy. From a preventive care perspective, this improvement in self-efficacy is clinically important, as higher self-efficacy is associated with better adherence to health-promoting behaviors and reduced risk of various health conditions.

Yoga includes not only physical exercises but also breathing techniques, mental relaxation, and focus practices [32]. This combination can enhance both physical and mental health by fostering a strong connection between the mind and body [33, 34]. Numerous studies have shown that yoga can improve psychological conditions such as symptoms of depression, anxiety, and sleep disorders [33]. Beyond alleviating these symptoms, yoga also boosts psychological factors like mindfulness, resilience, and self-efficacy [35]. These psychological improvements are directly relevant to preventive care, as they can reduce the likelihood of developing stress-related and lifestyle-mediated

diseases. Some research has specifically confirmed its positive effects on self-efficacy [16, 27].

The findings of the present meta-analysis are consistent with previous studies reporting the positive effects of yoga on self-efficacy. For example, Stapp (2024) found that yoga sessions significantly improved self-efficacy among school students [27], while another study among adolescents aged 11–16 years reported improvements in academic, emotional, and social self-efficacy following yoga interventions [22]. Similarly, Martinez et al. observed increased emotional self-efficacy among Spanish adults after yoga practice [29]. While these studies examined specific populations and domains of self-efficacy, the present meta-analysis synthesizes evidence across diverse groups and demonstrates an overall significant improvement in self-efficacy, supporting yoga as a broadly applicable and low-cost preventive strategy.

Other studies have focused on how yoga can enhance childbirth self-efficacy, showing positive outcomes for pregnant women [2, 16, 24]. Additionally, one study investigated the effects of yoga during pregnancy, demonstrating its significant role in improving breastfeeding self-efficacy among expectant mothers [30]. Thus, yoga exercises appear

to have a beneficial influence on self-efficacy among adults, students, and especially pregnant women. In the context of preventive care, improving self-efficacy during pregnancy can contribute to better maternal and neonatal health outcomes, representing a valuable secondary prevention opportunity.

Although yoga has been practiced for centuries, its therapeutic applications have only recently gained recognition. Research demonstrates that yoga can have positive effects not just for healthy individuals, but also for those in clinical populations [36]. For example, one study focused on the impact of yoga therapy on patients with multiple sclerosis (MS) and found that participants' self-efficacy scores significantly improved after attending yoga sessions, showcasing the positive effects of yoga on their sense of self-efficacy [15]. Additionally, Hewett et al. studied yoga interventions with a group of sedentary, stressed adults and reported a significant increase in self-efficacy scores among those who participated in yoga sessions compared to the control group [7]. These findings indicate that yoga can be integrated into preventive care programs for both general and high-risk populations. These findings reinforce and support the results of the current research.

However, the effects of yoga-based interventions on self-efficacy have not been consistently positive. For example, Kwasky and Serowoky found no significant improvement in the overall self-efficacy scores of children aged 11 to 14 years following yoga sessions, and the changes in these scores were not statistically significant [17]. Similarly, Martin et al. reported that yoga-based interventions did not significantly improve self-efficacy in women with post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) symptoms [23]. These inconsistencies highlight the need for standardized protocols and further research to identify for whom and under what conditions yoga can be most effective as a preventive intervention.

Self-efficacy is defined as an individual's belief in their ability to achieve desired goals [37], and various personal factors, such as past experiences or personality traits, can influence an individual's self-efficacy. For instance, research has shown that factors including age, gender, educational level, and

place of residence (urban vs. rural) are associated with self-care ability, which itself can be considered an indicator of self-efficacy [38, 39, 40]. On the other hand, external variables such as the degree of social interaction, cultural contexts, and complementary interventions like massage therapy may also affect self-efficacy [41]; for example, non-pharmacological methods such as foot reflexology massage, by reducing pain and fatigue in the early postoperative period, can enhance patients' sense of efficacy and control [42, 43, 44]. These factors can vary among participants across different studies, which may explain the differing effects of yoga interventions on self-efficacy. Furthermore, variations in the frequency and duration of sessions, participant skills, experience, readiness to engage in interventions, and the methods used to measure self-efficacy could also contribute to the lack of effect observed in some studies. Understanding these moderators is essential for designing effective preventive programs tailored to specific populations. The results indicated no significant relationship between age and the effects of yoga therapy, suggesting that these interventions could positively impact individuals across all age groups, aligning with findings from the study by Jalali et al [37]. This age-independence supports the feasibility of yoga as a universal preventive intervention across the lifespan. The meta-regression results also showed that as publication years increased, the effects of yoga therapy on self-efficacy significantly improved. This trend may be attributed to the growing body of knowledge about yoga, advancements in scientific research, and the use of more sophisticated techniques over time, resulting in a greater impact of yoga in recent years. This temporal improvement suggests that contemporary yoga protocols are becoming increasingly optimized for use in preventive care settings.

A notable strength of this study was the estimation of the pooled standardized mean difference between the intervention and control groups following the intervention. Despite conducting a thorough review of international databases, including PubMed, Embase, Scopus, and Web of Science (WoS), only 14 studies met the specified inclusion and exclusion

criteria. This highlights the need for further research in various regions. Future studies should specifically evaluate the long-term preventive effects of yoga on health outcomes mediated by self-efficacy. Other limitations of this research included the use of non-random sampling methods, varied implementation techniques, and limited access to full texts of some papers.

One of the main limitations of this study was the substantial heterogeneity among the included studies; therefore, a random-effects model was used to obtain a more conservative pooled estimate. Meta-regression analysis was performed to explore potential sources of heterogeneity, which partially explained the variability; however, the overall heterogeneity remained high. In addition, because of the limited number of eligible studies, subgroup analyses could not be conducted to further investigate potential moderating factors such as population characteristics, intervention duration, or study design. Consequently, the results of this meta-analysis should be interpreted with caution, and further well-designed studies with more homogeneous methodologies are recommended to provide more robust evidence.

### **Conclusion**

This meta-analysis shows that yoga. Further well-designed studies with standardized interventions are needed to confirm the long-term effects significantly improves self-efficacy across diverse populations. These findings support yoga as a low-cost, non-pharmacological strategy for strengthening self-efficacy and promoting preventive health behaviors.

### **Ethics Consideration**

Ethics approval was received from the Ethics Committee of Deputy of Research and Technology, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences (IR.KUMS.REC.1403.575). All ethical issues of the Declaration of Helsinki were observed from the search for articles to the publication of the results.

### **Acknowledgements**

This study is the result of research project No. 4030926 approved by the Student Research

Committee of Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences. We thank the esteemed officials of that center for accepting the financial expenses of this study.

### **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

### **Funding**

Funding source: Deputy for Research and Technology, Kermanshah University of Medical Sciences (IR) (Grant number: 4030926).

### **Authors' Contributions**

Data collection: Kazeminia M, Heidarian P, Ghasemianrad M, Taheri M, Pourmirza Kalhori R, Magholi M; Study design: Jalali A, Kazeminia M; Writing the original draft: Kazeminia M, Ghasemianrad M; Review and editing: Jalali A, Taheri M, Pourmirza Kalhori R; Data analysis: Kazeminia M, Jalali A; Conceptualization: Jalali A, Kazeminia M. All authors have read and approved the content of the manuscript.

### **Artificial Intelligence Utilization**

Not used.

### **Data Availability Statement**

Data available upon reasonable request from the corresponding author.

### **Abbreviations**

SID: Scientific Information Database; WoS: Web of Science; MeSH: Medical Subject Headings; JBI: Joanna Briggs Institute; PRISMA: Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis; SEQ-C: Self-Efficacy Questionnaire for Children; RCT: Randomized Controlled Trial; MS: Multiple Sclerosis; MSSS: Multiple Sclerosis Self-Efficacy Scale; SEQ: Self-efficacy questionnaire; BREQ-2: Behavioral Regulation in Exercise Questionnaire-2.

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