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Effect of Instructional Support Structures on
Novice Teachers' Efficacy
and Job Satisfaction

by

Ashley Nicole Klein

April 22, 2021

A Dissertation submitted to the Education Faculty of Lindenwood University in
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education
School of Education

Effect of Instructional Support Structures on
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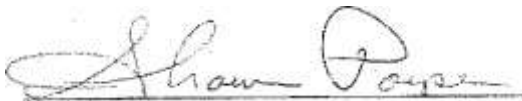
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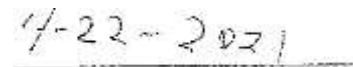
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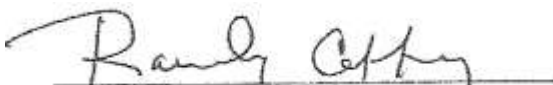
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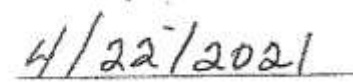
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Date



Dr. Randy Caffey, Committee Member



Date

Declaration of Originality

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree.

Full Legal Name: Ashley Nicole Klein

Signature: Ashley N. Klein Date: 4-22-2021

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Abstract

As school districts across the nation continuously struggle to retain high-quality, effective teachers, a closer look into teacher efficacy and job satisfaction was warranted (Ingersoll et al., 2018; Sutters & Savage, 2016). The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among novice elementary teachers' efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction in their first through fifth years of teaching. Five hundred sixteen Missouri public school districts were invited to participate in the study, and 48 school districts participated. The instrumentation for this study included the Teacher's Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES), the Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory, and the Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS). Data were analyzed by examining the mode and frequency distribution of all responses. A Pearson correlation coefficient and simple linear regression were used to test the relationship among variables. Analysis of the data indicated instructional support positivity predicted job satisfaction. When analyzing teacher efficacy and years of teaching experience, no statistically significant relationship existed. Based on the findings, no significant relationship existed among teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction; however, a significant relationship existed between instructional support and job satisfaction. The results of this study lend further support to the importance of instructional support as a predictor of job satisfaction among novice elementary teachers.

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Chapter One: Introduction

School districts across the United States face the challenge of retaining high-quality, effective teachers (Ingersoll et al., 2018). The Consortium for Policy Research in Education reported 44% of novice teachers leave the teaching profession within the first five years of entering the education field (Ingersoll et al., 2018, p. 20). Additionally, the National Center for Education Statistics found 10% of novice teachers move to teach in different school districts than where they started their teaching careers (Gray & Taie, 2015, p. 3).

Sutters and Savage (2016) asserted high-quality novice teachers leave the profession after teaching three to five years for jobs with more administrative or peer supporting structures (p. 21). Although there are several factors that contribute to teachers leaving the profession, job satisfaction (Nagar, 2012), self-efficacy (Wang et al., 2015), and support structures (Watson, 2018) are among the most notable. This study was conducted to investigate the relationship between support structures and novice teachers' efficacy to identify their contribution to novice teachers' job satisfaction.

Background of the Study

Teacher efficacy studies have been conducted by researchers for many years to investigate the development of efficacy, changes to efficacy, and pedagogical beliefs and skills (Bandura, 1993, 1995, 1997; Lopez, 2018; Ozder, 2011; Swan et al., 2011; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, 2007; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). Teacher efficacy is referred to as a teacher's belief in his or her ability to promote student learning (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Teachers with a high sense of efficacy believe they can overcome problems with time and effort (Swan et al., 2011) and therefore

experience greater satisfaction in teaching (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Teachers with a strong sense of efficacy exhibit greater levels of organization, planning, and enthusiasm for teaching and their students (Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). In addition, teacher efficacy affects the effort teachers invest in teaching and the goals they set (Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). Although researchers have conducted numerous studies on teacher efficacy, research on the development and change of novice teachers' efficacy within the first five years of teaching warrants further study (Chaaban & Du, 2017; Goldrick, 2016; Turkoglu et al., 2017; Woolfolk & Burke Spero, 2005).

Many novice teachers benefit from a variety of support structures during their first year of teaching (Bowsher et al., 2018; Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Warsame, 2011; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). Novice teacher support structures include instructional coaching, professional learning communities, feedback, job-embedded professional development, and collaboration with the intent to provide levels of support to all educators (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Odell & Huling, 2000; Warsame, 2011). Although most school districts in the United States offer support structures to novice teachers during the first year of teaching, the amount of support varies (Goldrick, 2016).

Several school districts across the country only emphasize support during teachers' first year of teaching (Goldrick, 2016). Woolfolk Hoy and Burke Spero (2005) reported efficacy in novice teachers fell when support was withdrawn. Currently, only nine states offer support for novice teachers beyond their first two years of teaching (Goldrick, 2016, p. 4). Goldrick (2016) explained, "Without strong support and continued growth, many new educators do not stay on the job—and fewer who do can be effective in helping students reach higher academic standards" (p. 2). Although numerous studies

have proven support structures for novice teachers increase teacher efficacy (Chaaban & Du, 2017; Goldrick, 2016; Turkoglu et al., 2017; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005), further research needs to be conducted on the length and type of support structures offered to novice teachers within the first five years of teaching.

Job satisfaction is the attitude an employee has about his or her job and the degree to which the employee feels content with the work and responsibility that goes along with the job (Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction studies have been conducted for several years with relation to teacher retention, attrition, and burnout (Nagar, 2012; Tait, 2008; Tolliver, 2018; Wang et al., 2015). Although studies conducted have indicated an increase in teacher job satisfaction when efficacy is high (Anghelache, 2014; Armour, 2012; Carswell, 2018; Lopez, 2018; Turkoglu et al., 2017), fewer studies have been conducted to investigate novice teacher efficacy and job satisfaction (Blackburn & Robinson, 2008; Redman, 2015). While there is emerging evidence that links novice teacher efficacy and job satisfaction (Blackburn & Robinson, 2008; Redman, 2015), no studies to date have explored the effects of novice teacher support structures and efficacy on job satisfaction.

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The framework for this study was based on three primary concepts: teacher efficacy, instructional support structures, and job satisfaction. These concepts are grounded in Bandura's (1977, 1986, 1997) social cognitive theory, Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory, Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs motivational theory, and Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory.

Self-efficacy is a fundamental aspect related to the social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). The social cognitive theory provides a valuable framework for understanding teaching and learning, as these exist within a social context (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). Instructional support structures are defined as instructional coaching, professional learning communities, feedback, job-embedded professional development, and collaboration with the intent to provide levels of support to all educators (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Odell & Huling, 2000; Warsame, 2011). Vygotsky (1978) suggested the accumulation of knowledge is not an isolated experience. Knowledge is not simply transmitted from one person to another but is socially constructed through interactions with other individuals (Vygotsky, 1978).

Job satisfaction refers to how teachers generally feel about their jobs (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015). Job satisfaction is grounded in Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory and Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory. Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory explains how motivation and hygiene factors affect perceptions of job satisfaction. Damij et al. (2015) confirmed Herzberg's theory including motivation and hygiene factors that determine if an employee is satisfied or dissatisfied at work. Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs is a motivational theory that suggests human needs can be organized into five categories on a hierarchy. This hierarchy ranges from basic needs, such as food and water, and progresses to self-actualization. Maslow (1943) proposed when higher needs in the hierarchy begin to emerge, people have sufficiently satisfied the previous need.

Numerous studies have been conducted to determine the impact of teacher efficacy on job satisfaction (Anghelache, 2014; Armour, 2012; Carswell, 2018; Lopez, 2018; Turkoglu et al., 2017; Von Der Embse et al., 2016). Von Der Embse et al. (2016)

investigated whether positive teacher efficacy predicts job satisfaction. The authors concluded from their study all three domains of teacher efficacy (classroom management, instructional practices, and student engagement) are positively related to job satisfaction (Von Der Embse et al., 2016). Researchers have demonstrated instructional support structures can be vital to help teachers become more effective in the classroom and to encourage educators to remain in the teaching field (Quintero, 2019; Rebore, 2015; Roff, 2012; Simpson, 2017; Warsame, 2011). Frazier (2018) conducted a longitudinal study to determine if instructional support affects teacher job satisfaction. According to Frazier (2018), a significant relationship exists between instructional support and increased job satisfaction among teachers.

Many studies have been conducted to examine variables that affect teacher job satisfaction (Anghelache, 2014; Armour, 2012; Carswell, 2018; Lopez, 2018; Quintero, 2019; Rebore, 2015; Roff, 2012; Simpson, 2017; Warsame, 2011). Instructional support (Duyar et al., 2013; Gaikhorst et al., 2014) and teacher efficacy (Chaaban & Du, 2017; Turkoglu et al., 2017) are among the most notable variables that positively correlate to increased job satisfaction and teacher retention. The concepts comprising the framework for this study include teacher efficacy, instructional support structures, and job satisfaction. Social and motivational theories were reviewed when selecting research-based surveys and the development of the research questions.

Statement of the Problem

Although a number of researchers have identified a relationship between novice teachers' efficacy and job satisfaction within their first two years of teaching (Blackburn & Robinson, 2008; Redman, 2015; Turkoglu et al., 2017) and a relationship between

support structures and teacher efficacy (Goldrick, 2016; Kraft et al., 2018; Watson, 2018; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005), the question of how instructional support structures relate to novice teacher efficacy and job satisfaction within the first through fifth years of teaching remains. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) suggested teacher efficacy can be predicted by teachers' capability concerning instructional strategies, student engagement, and classroom management. As noted by Blackburn and Robinson (2008), teachers in their first and second years of teaching have high levels of teacher efficacy in classroom management and student engagement and lower levels of teacher efficacy in instructional practices.

Prior researchers have suggested the level of support during the first year of teaching correlates with positive changes to teacher efficacy (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). Swan et al. (2011) revealed the lowest levels of teacher efficacy at the end of the first year of teaching. Teacher efficacy declines in the first year, possibly due to the lack of support structures (Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). However, there is little empirical evidence showing that support structures provided to novice teachers for more than the first year of teaching affect efficacy and job satisfaction

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate the relationship between instructional support structures and novice teachers' efficacy to determine whether district-provided instructional support affects job satisfaction among novice teachers. Through evaluating current teacher efficacy levels and effective, district-provided instructional supports, the potential changes needed to ensure positive job satisfaction

among novice teachers were addressed. This need is brought about as teachers' efficacy falls when instructional support is withdrawn within the first two years of teaching (Blackburn & Robinson, 2008; Swan et al., 2011; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005).

This investigation required gathering data from kindergarten through fifth-grade novice teachers regarding their levels of teacher efficacy and job satisfaction. Research participants also identified district-provided instructional support structures. Quantitative methods were applied to gain an in-depth insight into the data analysis. These data were contextualized with a review of recent literature on teacher efficacy, instructional supports, and job satisfaction.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses guided the study:

1. In what way, if any, is instructional support a predictor of positive job satisfaction among novice elementary teachers?
2. What is the relationship between a novice elementary teacher's efficacy and years of teaching experience?

H2_o: There is no statistically significant relationship between a novice elementary teacher's efficacy and years of teaching experience.

3. What is the relationship among teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction?

H3_o: There is no statistically significant relationship among teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction.

Significance of the Study

The findings from this study may provide an explanation about if and how instructional support structures predict novice teachers' job satisfaction. Identifying and understanding instructional support structures provided to novice teachers between their first and fifth years of teaching, including instructional coaching, school-wide professional development, collaboration among peers, and professional learning communities, will assist building and district leaders. Additionally, the results of the study may offer school leaders a clearer picture of how instructional support structures relate to novice teachers' efficacy and job satisfaction within the first five years of teaching. While there have been studies conducted to investigate the influence of instructional support on first- and second-year novice elementary teachers' efficacy (Bettini et al., 2018; George et al., 2018; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005), little empirical research has been conducted to investigate this topic.

Watson (2018) recommended school districts provide novice teachers with more job-embedded support structures to increase novice teacher retention and job satisfaction. Although there are many factors that contribute to teachers leaving the profession, job satisfaction (Nagar, 2012), self-efficacy (Wang et al., 2015), and instructional support structures (Watson, 2018) are among the most notable. While there is substantial research on teacher efficacy (Lopez, 2018; Ozder, 2011; Swan et al., 2011; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005), specific data regarding novice teacher efficacy within the first five years are limited. These findings will contribute to the body of knowledge on novice teacher efficacy and may offer school leaders insight into how to build novice teacher

efficacy, as well as give insight into efficacy struggles among novice teachers in kindergarten through fifth grade.

Definition of Key Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following terms are defined:

Collaboration

Collaboration is continuous talk among professionals about effective teaching practices with the aim of improving the academic achievement of all students (Little, 1987; Schmoker, 2005).

Effective Feedback

Effective feedback is evidence-based, actionable, based on a specific area of focus, and is provided to teachers in a timely manner (Feldman, 2016; Jacob, 2016).

Instructional Coach

An instructional coach works collaboratively with a teacher to improve that teacher's practice and content knowledge with the goal of improving student achievement and engagement (Knight, 2007; Yopp et al., 2011). An instructional coach helps the teacher gain a clear picture of current reality, identify goals, implement effective teaching practices, and problem solve until goals are met through mentoring, effective feedback, collaboration, and by providing job-embedded professional development (Knight, 2018).

Job-Embedded Professional Development

Job-embedded professional development occurs several times per week among grade-level teams, principals, and other instructional staff members to enhance instructional practice and improve student learning (Croft et al., 2010; Yendol-Hoppey & Dana, 2010).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the attitude an employee has about his or her job and the degree to which an employee feels content with the work and responsibility that goes along with the job (Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Spector, 1997).

Mentor

A mentor is a peer who provides a supportive relationship to a novice teacher to facilitate success within a school district (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004). Daloz (2012) suggested a mentor's role should be a balance among offering support, creating challenges, and facilitating vision.

Novice Teacher

For the purpose of this study, a novice teacher is described as a teacher who has taught one to five years and is also referred to as a new or beginning teacher (Kim & Roth, 2011).

Professional Learning Communities

Professional learning communities are comprised of a group of educators who collaborate with one another to analyze and improve classroom practices while increasing student achievement (DuFour et al., 2016).

Support Structures

For the purpose of this study, support structures include instructional coaching, professional learning communities, feedback, job-embedded professional development, and collaboration with the intent to provide levels of support to all educators (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Odell & Huling, 2000; Warsame, 2011).

Teacher Efficacy

Teacher efficacy is a teacher's belief in his or her ability to promote student learning (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

Delimitations, Limitations, and Assumptions

The scope of the study was bounded by the following delimitations:

Time Frame

Data were collected during the first semester of the 2020–2021 academic school year.

Location of the Study

The target location for this study was Missouri public school districts.

Sample

The sample size of this research study included 516 public school districts located in various regions throughout Missouri. The participants were novice teachers in kindergarten through fifth grades in their first through fifth years of teaching. Teacher participation in the study was completely voluntary, anonymous, and confidential.

Criteria

Missouri public charter schools and private schools were excluded from the study. Participants for the study had to be kindergarten through fifth-grade teachers in their first through fifth years of teaching.

Limitations of a research study include possible weaknesses of the research presented (Brutus et al., 2013). Brutus et al. (2013) suggested limitations are useful to understand the importance of the weaknesses in the study and attribute a credibility level

to it. Limitations within the study could be addressed with directions for future research (Brutus et al., 2013). The following limitations were identified in this study:

Sample Demographics

Although this study was limited to Missouri public school districts, each region in Missouri was represented. The sample did not represent all novice teachers in the entire state of Missouri.

Instrument

The instruments used in this study were also considered a limitation. Participation in the study was voluntary and required participants to answer several questions related to teacher efficacy, instructional coaching support, and job satisfaction. The short form of the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale was selected due to the length and number of questions on the original, long version; however, using the longer version may have provided more data (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (long form) may have provided an opportunity for more in-depth analysis (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). However, the participants would have been required to spend more time answering questions, which may have posed further limitations to the study's sample size.

The present study was conducted with certain preexisting assumptions. It was assumed teachers participating in the study understood the general purpose of the research project. Also, an assumption was made that teacher participants responded to the items with complete honesty and without bias, as the survey instruments used have been shown in previous studies to be valid and reliable.

Summary

While the concept of novice teacher efficacy and job satisfaction in education is not new, teacher efficacy and job satisfaction in the first through fifth years of teaching warranted further investigation. The lack of research regarding instructional support structures as a predictor of novice teacher efficacy and job satisfaction also merit additional inquiry. The background information and theoretical and conceptual frameworks outlined in Chapter One were included to demonstrate the theories and concepts of teacher efficacy, instructional support structures, and job satisfaction. Chapter One also included the purpose of the study, the research questions, and terms that were used throughout the research. Finally, an overview of the potential limitations and assumptions associated with a quantitative study was presented.

Chapter Two contains a review of relevant literature relating to teacher efficacy, instructional coaching support, and job satisfaction, which provided the framework for this study. A brief analysis of the historical development of teacher efficacy and job satisfaction is provided in the subsequent chapter. Finally, an explanation and examination of the multiple instructional coaching supports districts can provide are presented.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

As school districts across the United States face the challenge of retaining high-quality, effective teachers, many researchers have looked to past research to find answers (Ingersoll et al., 2018). The review of existing literature provides an overview of changes that have contributed to the development of teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction. The theoretical and conceptual perspectives of this research study are rooted in social cognitive theory, sociocultural theory, Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs, and Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory. In this chapter, a more in-depth examination of the results of research studies conducted regarding novice teacher efficacy is provided. Additionally, current literature about instructional support structures and job satisfaction among novice teachers is examined. Lastly, teacher efficacy, instructional support structures, and job satisfaction are outlined to provide a foundation for analysis of the survey results for this study.

Theoretical and Conceptual Frameworks

The social cognitive theory is based upon the idea that learning occurs by observing others, with the influence of the environment and behaviors (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). Social cognitive theory provides a valuable framework for understanding teaching and learning, as these exist within a social context (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). A fundamental aspect of social cognitive theory is related to self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Bandura's (1977, 1993) theory of self-efficacy introduced the idea that an individual's perceptions are influenced by four sources of information: performance accomplishments or mastery experiences, vicarious experience, verbal (social) persuasion, and emotional arousal. Hattie and Zierer's (2017) research on visible learning

indicated educators believe all students can learn and that teachers are an agent of change.

The visible learning research initiative suggested professional learning is enhanced when teachers collaborate, support, and share ideas with one another (Hattie & Zierer, 2017). Woolfolk Hoy (2000) disclosed when teacher support is withdrawn, efficacy decreases; however, the level of support during the first year of teaching correlates with positive changes to efficacy. This provides evidence that teacher support may be essential to protecting efficacy during early teaching (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Additionally, novice teachers who are supported in their early years of teaching are more likely to stay in the teaching field, as opposed to novice teachers who are not provided instructional support (Warsame, 2011).

The use of instructional coaches is an effective way to implement change and improve teacher capacity and instruction (Fullan & Knight, 2011). Kraft et al.'s (2018) recent meta-analysis of 60 instructional coaching evaluations revealed positive effects of coaching support on teachers' instructional practices. Pollara (2012) proved a positive relationship exists between a teacher's instructional practices and the teacher's confidence after participating in peer coaching. Through effective professional learning communities, "teachers feel more confident and develop a strong sense of self-efficacy; they believe in their ability to influence student learning and make a difference in student outcomes and achievement" (Pirtle & Tobia, 2014, p. 6).

Job satisfaction refers to how teachers generally feel about their jobs (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015). Job satisfaction is grounded in Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs and Herzberg's two-factor theory (1959). Herzberg (1959) argued job satisfaction depends on

two factors: motivators and hygiene factors. Furthermore, Maslow (1943) explained job satisfaction is achieved when the job and its environment meet the needs of the individual. Turkoglu et al. (2017) concluded self-efficacy is positively correlated with a novice teacher's job satisfaction.

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009) revealed novice teacher job satisfaction is gained from a supportive school environment. According to Bandura and Locke (2003), evidence from meta-analyses is “consistent in showing that efficacy beliefs contribute significantly to the level of motivation and performance” (p. 87). Novice teachers who have experienced high levels of job satisfaction are more motivated and committed to the teaching profession, despite job demands (Chaaban & Du, 2017). Additionally, novice teachers report cooperation and collaboration among peers are important for their satisfaction (Chaaban & Du, 2017).

Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1995) defined self-efficacy as an individual's beliefs about his or her capability to learn or complete a task. Individuals with a strong sense of their own ability will set challenging goals for themselves, which results in a firmer commitment to complete tasks on a positive level (Bandura, 1993). Often self-efficacy expectations can determine “how much effort people will expend and how long they will persist in the face of obstacles and adverse experiences” (Bandura, 1977, p. 194).

Self-efficacy often dictates what people think they can do in certain conditions (Ignat & Clipa, 2012). Bandura (1993, 1994, 1997) concluded efficacious people approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered, set higher goals, and put forth higher levels of commitment to accomplish goals. In addition, individuals who possess

high self-efficacy approach difficult or threatening situations with confidence they have control over the circumstances (Bandura, 1997; Maddux & Kleiman, 2016; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016). Maddux and Kleiman (2016) reported, “Perseverance usually produces desired results, and this success then strengthens the individual’s self-efficacy beliefs” (p. 93). This outlook on situations reduces stress and lowers the risk of depression (Bandura, 1997; Maddux & Kleiman, 2016; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016).

In contrast, people with low self-efficacy doubt their ability to accomplish tasks and view them as threatening (Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2016). Those with low self-efficacy struggle; they tend to dwell on personal weaknesses and things that can go wrong, increasing self-doubt (Maddux & Kleiman, 2016). By focusing on negative outcomes, these individuals will give up quickly due to fear of failure or tasks being too difficult (Maddux & Kleiman, 2016). Bandura (1993) declared, “People’s beliefs in their efficacy influence the types of anticipatory scenarios they construct and rehearse” (p. 118). From this, one could conclude people with high self-efficacy visualize success, while people with low self-efficacy visualize failure (Bandura, 1993).

Development of Efficacy

Bandura’s (1977, 1993) theory of self-efficacy introduced the idea that individuals’ perceptions are influenced by four sources of information: performance accomplishments or mastery experiences, vicarious experience, verbal (social) persuasion, and emotional arousal. Performance accomplishments occur when repeated successes lead to mastery expectations (Bandura, 1993). Individuals who continually find success in completing a task develop a higher self-efficacy (Njega et al., 2019). Additionally, self-efficacy increases as individuals meet or surpass established norms

(Prelli, 2016). However, if individuals encounter multiple failures, they are more likely to have low self-efficacy levels and believe future attempts will also end in failure (Bandura, 1997; Njega et al., 2019).

Vicarious experiences occur as individuals observe the successes and failures of others (Bandura, 1977, 1993). According to Bandura (1977), individuals who observe others performing threatening activities without failure generate expectations that they too can improve if they persist in their efforts. Consequently, individuals who observe others fail often develop decreased efficacy levels (Bandura, 1997; Schunk & Mullen, 2012). The closer the observer identifies with the individual performing the task, the stronger the effect of efficacy levels (Bandura, 1997; Schunk & Mullen, 2012).

Verbal persuasion refers to the verbal interaction an individual has regarding his or her capacity for completing a specific task (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Positive verbal comments encourage an individual to put forth greater effort and resolve problems when they occur (Bandura, 1997). The influence of verbal persuasion on self-efficacy differs based on the individual's interpretation of the feedback (Bandura, 1997). Evaluative feedback highlighting an individual's capabilities is shown to raise efficacy levels (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). The feedback will have a greater influence if the person offering it is seen as credible and knowledgeable about the task (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Furthermore, to improve self-efficacy beliefs, feedback must be clearly connected to the objective or task being attempted and specific to the person making the effort (Van Dinther et al., 2015).

Physiological arousal refers to the physical and emotional reactions of the body during an activity (Bandura, 1997). Individuals often read their physical and emotional

states as indicators of their abilities (Bandura, 1997). Physical reactions to stressful situations, such as sweating, fatigue, and raised heart rate, lead individuals to believe they cannot succeed in completing a task, therefore lowering their self-efficacy (Zajacova et al., 2005). Additionally, past experiences influence individuals' perceptions in their ability to complete a task successfully (Schunk & Mullen, 2012). The influence of physiological arousal on self-efficacy depends upon the individual's interpretation of the meaning of physical and emotional changes (Bandura, 1997; Schunk & Mullen, 2012; Zajacova et al., 2005).

Development of Novice Teachers' Efficacy

Teacher efficacy is referred to as a teacher's "judgement of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p. 783). Teacher self-efficacy ranked 11th on Hattie's rankings of 252 influences and effect sizes, with an effect size of 0.92 (Hattie, 2017, p. 1). This was more than double the average effect size of all influences (Hattie, 2017).

Teacher efficacy changes over time and does not remain constant (Pfitzer-Eden, 2016; Sciuchetti & Yssel, 2019; Yuksel, 2014). Minghui et al. (2018) concluded a teacher's years of experience are a significant predictor of teacher efficacy. Klassen and Chiu (2010) found teacher efficacy starts low, gradually increasing until the 23rd year of teaching, then gradually declines until retirement (p. 746). Teacher efficacy plays an important role in educational contexts for teachers to maintain student engagement and implement diverse instructional strategies while sustaining classroom management

(Jaengaksorn et al., 2015). Akhavan and Tracz (2016) concluded the teacher's ability to positively impact learning is one of the most critical factors a school can manipulate.

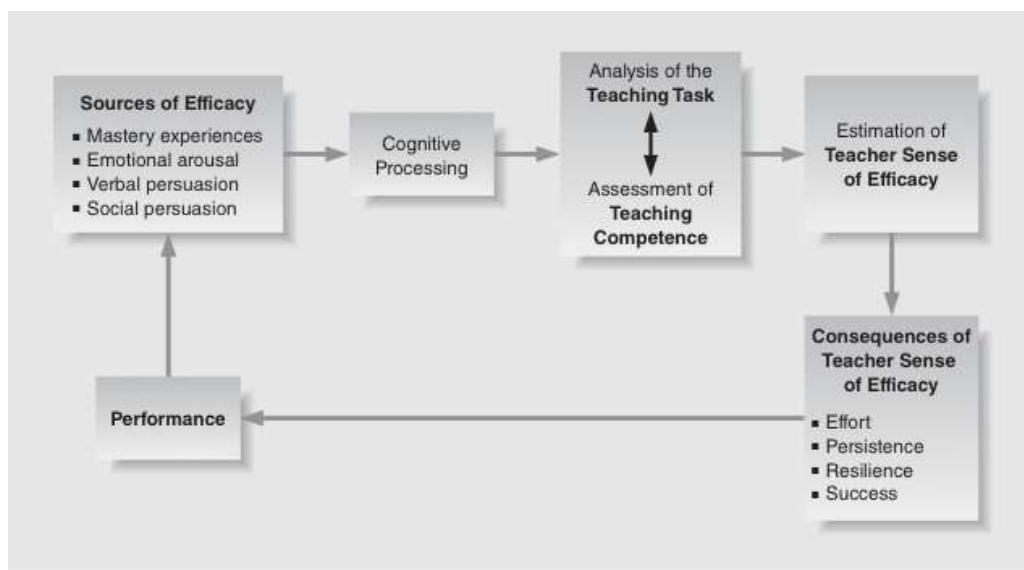
Mastery experiences are the most powerful source of efficacy information (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). Changes in a teacher's efficacy are directly influenced by the mastery experiences gained from the early years of teaching (Bandura, 1995; Pfitzer-Eden, 2016; Protheroe, 2008). Novice teachers' mastery experiences are largely informed by vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal (Bandura, 1995; Pfitzer-Eden, 2016; Protheroe, 2008). Consequently, the first years of teaching could be the most important to the long-term development of teacher efficacy (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000).

Woolfolk Hoy and Hoy (2012) concluded teacher efficacy increases from real success with students and not solely due to moral support from administrators and colleagues. Furthermore, any experience and training novice teachers receive for day-to-day tasks of teaching assist in the development of efficacy (Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 2012). As teachers approach a teaching situation, an analysis of task difficulty and resource availability are considered, along with their teaching competence in skills and knowledge (Isbell & Szabo, 2015; Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 2012). These judgments can influence whether the individual's sense of self-efficacy raises or lowers (Njega et al., 2019). Efficacy increases as teachers are successful through mastery experiences (Njega et al., 2019). In contrast, efficacy decreases as teachers fail at challenges or tasks that should be easily attained (Bandura, 1997; Maddux & Kleiman, 2016).

Teachers with a high sense of efficacy demonstrate effort, persistence, resilience, and active teaching (Dimopoulou, 2012; Donohoo et al., 2018). Donohoo et al. (2018)

stated, “When efficacy is present in a school culture, educators’ efforts are enhanced – especially when they are faced with difficult challenges” (p. 41). As teacher expectations for success continue to rise, teachers with high self-efficacy approach tasks with more persistence and resilience (Dimopoulou, 2012). In contrast, teachers with a low sense of efficacy exhibit helplessness, minimal effort, and weak teaching (Donohoo et al., 2018).

According to Dimopoulou (2014), “Efficacious teachers devise and modify instructional strategies to meet students’ needs” (p. 1470). Furthermore, teachers who are efficacious are more willing to learn and try new approaches and strategies in order to best meet each individual student’s needs (Guskey, 2012). Teachers with low teacher efficacy implement a custodial approach to classroom management, are easily angered by student misbehavior, and have difficulty maintaining student engagement (Mojavezi & Tamiz, 2012). Figure 1 illustrates A Model of Teacher’s Perceived Efficacy (Woolfolk Hoy & Hoy, 2012).

Figure 1*A Model of Teachers' Perceived Efficacy*

Note. Adapted from *Instructional Leadership: A Research-Based Guide to Learning in Schools* by A. Woolfolk Hoy and W. Hoy, 2012, p. 164. Copyright 2012 by Pearson.

A longitudinal investigation conducted by Woolfolk Hoy (2000) included examination of changes in efficacy during student teaching and the first year of employment. The results from the study revealed efficacy rose during teacher preparation but declined in the first year of teaching (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000). During the first year of teaching, novice teachers often experience job overload and stress that could lead to low job satisfaction (Silver, 2014). Silver (2014) recommended providing novice teachers with multiple opportunities to observe and debrief with master teachers and school leaders. Silver (2014) specified, “If a trusted group of colleagues could also be used as ‘critical friends’ who observe, model, and provide feedback to one another, enormous growth and optimism can ensue” (p. 49). High-quality feedback from school leaders and

master teachers is necessary for novice teachers to make connections between performance and skill proficiency to promote reflection (Dicke et al., 2014).

Ozder (2011) examined data related to novice teachers' self-efficacy beliefs and their performance in the classroom. According to Ozder (2011), "It is very important to provide teachers with high levels of self-efficacy beliefs in order to develop practices to train quality and successful teachers" (p. 2). Ozder (2011) concluded novice teacher self-efficacy beliefs are highest in using instructional strategies, followed by classroom management, and are lowest in ensuring student engagement. In contrast, Walsh et al. (2020) found teachers in preschool through sixth grade report greater efficacy overall in classroom management and student engagement. Wang et al. (2015) concluded when teachers lack belief in their ability to use effective instructional strategies, their intention to quit increases while their job satisfaction decreases.

Vicarious experiences are important to raise novice teachers' level of self-efficacy for classroom management (Mongillo, 2011). Bandura (1994) asserted vicarious experiences are foundational in building efficacy. Teachers look to their colleagues as models for how to interact with students in positive ways, as well as observing teachers with strong classroom management skills (Mongillo, 2011). Novice teachers who enter their teaching careers with a greater set of knowledge and skills, as well as an awareness of those skills, are better prepared to increase their perceptions of self-efficacy through observation of other master teachers (Pfitzer-Eden, 2016). Furthermore, Turkoglu et al. (2017) concluded teacher efficacy correlates positively with teacher job satisfaction; when teachers' perceptions of efficacy increase, their job satisfaction also increases.

Instructional Support Structures

Instructional support structures can play an important role in helping teachers become more effective in the classroom (Quintero, 2019). By providing more personalized support to novice teachers, school districts can ensure students are taught by effective teachers (Quintero, 2019). Roff (2012) suggested providing support to novice teachers and making improvements to existing support structures to influence novice teachers' decisions to remain in the teaching profession.

Visible learning is about teachers making their impact on student achievement visible (Hattie, 2012; Knight, 2012). Educators are continuously learning about the factors that influence student achievement, as identified in Hattie's evolving list of best practices with the highest effect size (Knight, 2012). Hattie and Zierer (2017) suggested educators make learning visible by understanding every students' needs, having knowledge about effective interventions, and collaborating and evaluating the effectiveness of those interventions on student achievement (Hattie, 2012; Hattie & Zierer, 2017). Support structures provide opportunities for teachers to engage in the 10 mind frames for visible learning (Hattie, 2012; Hattie & Zierer, 2017). Through these mind frames, educators are encouraged to use data to drive instructional practices, collaborate with peers on the impact of student learning, believe all students can grow and gain academic success, build trusting relationships with colleagues, and focus on learning (Hattie, 2012; Hattie & Zierer, 2017).

School districts can provide numerous instructional support structures to novice teachers (Feiman-Nemser, 2001; Odell & Huling, 2000; Warsame, 2011). Simpson (2017) emphasized instructional support is the "future of our educational system, opening

the doors of our classrooms, and no longer celebrating pockets of excellence” (p. 5). Furthermore, instructional support empowers educators to do things they may not be compelled to do alone (Simpson, 2017).

Warsame and Valles (2018) evaluated the effectiveness of novice teacher support structures such as mentoring, professional development preparation, program supervision, and school district support. Warsame (2011) revealed:

Teachers who perceived a lack of support from their school districts or school administrators were more likely to give up on teaching, not because they disliked teaching, but because they were discouraged by the attitudes at the schools where they taught. (p. 104)

In contrast, teachers who are supported by mentors, colleagues, and professional development activities are more likely to stay in the teaching field and have higher levels of teacher efficacy (Warsame & Valles, 2018; Wyatt, 2014; Zee & Koomen, 2016).

Collaboration

Collaboration supports a togetherness mindset and develops collective knowledge among educators that extends beyond individual experiences in the classroom (Bates & Morgan, 2018). Simpson (2017) determined when educators collaborate and reflect together, positive things happen, and their teacher efficacy in being able to implement instructional and classroom management strategies is positively impacted. Parise and Spillane (2010) concluded the frequency of collaborative discussion with peers has the largest effect on teacher efficacy and changes to instructional practice. Numerous researchers have found a positive and significant association between teacher collaboration and job satisfaction, giving teachers more confidence in their teaching and

increasing teacher efficacy (Goddard et al., 2007; Mostafa & Pal, 2018; Yoo, 2016). Furthermore, student achievement can be positively influenced when effective collaborative structures for teachers to learn together and problem solve are implemented (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017).

Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) identified teacher collaboration as a feature to effective professional development and support structure for teachers. Specifically, Darling-Hammond et al. (2017) stated, “By working collaboratively, teachers can create communities that positively change the culture and instruction of their entire grade level, department, school, and/or district” (p. v). Johnson (2003) evaluated teacher perceptions of collaboration. In the study, Johnson (2003) found some teachers feel collaboration improves morale and reduces workload and the feeling of isolation. Through collaboration and developing trust among colleagues, teachers are willing to take risks and try new activities that they would not try otherwise (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017). Datnow (2011) viewed collaboration as teachers challenging one another, raising questions, and sharing ideas during decision-making meetings to promote student achievement.

Instructional Coaching

Instructional coaching may be defined differently in different school districts; however, for many school districts, instructional coaching is viewed as a partnership (Knight, 2007, 2018). In most schools, instructional coaches work collaboratively with teachers to improve practice and content knowledge and increase student achievement (Yopp et al., 2011). Multiple studies over time have indicated instructional supports, such as instructional coaching, positively impact novice teachers’ efficacy (Eastman, 2019;

Knight, 2012; Quintero, 2019; Simpson, 2017) and job satisfaction (De Jong & Campoli, 2018). Aguilar (2013) argued, “Coaching creates a collaborative culture where school staff feel ownership and responsibility for leading improvement efforts in teaching and learning” (p. 9). Simpson (2017) concluded novice teachers’ instructional practice efficacy increases after working with an instructional coach. Furthermore, participants feel more confident implementing differentiated instructional strategies to meet student needs (Simpson, 2017).

Instructional coaching is viewed as a partnership between the coach and teacher (Knight, 2019; Sweeney & Harris, 2020). For the partnership approach to be effective, instructional coaches must structure coaching so teachers use knowledge and experience to continue moving student learning forward (Knight, 2019; Sweeney & Harris, 2020). Thomas et al. (2015) reported the instructional coach and elementary teacher are more likely to have discussions about changing instructional practices after developing a sense of trust and partnership. Rather than solely focusing on instructional practices, instructional coaching focuses on student-focused goals (Knight, 2019). Teachers implement effective instructional practices to meet student-focused goals and increase student achievement (Knight, 2019; Sweeney & Harris, 2020).

Instructional coaching that combines planning, teaching, and reflection has the ability to transform teacher learning and student achievement (Knight, 2007; Suarez, 2017). When teacher-selected goals and student learning are the foundation of instructional coaching, teachers are able to design and implement more effective instructional practices (Knight, 2019; Sweeney & Harris, 2020; Suarez, 2017). Knight (2019) reported instructional research becomes a part of what happens every day in

schools when teachers take ownership of their goals and partner with instructional coaches who understand effective strategies and provide adaptive instructional support.

Job-Embedded Professional Development

Effective professional development should be intentional to teachers' instructional needs, ongoing, and allow for frequent modeling, observation, reflection, and feedback (Abu-Tineh & Sadiq, 2018). Zepeda (2015) explained professional development that does not include ongoing support through teacher collaboration, coaching, and dedicated collaboration and communication among colleagues is a form of malpractice in education. Job-embedded professional development is integrated into the job setting, grounded in day-to-day teaching practices, and designed to enhance instructional practices with the intention to improve student learning (Knight, 2019; Zepeda, 2012). Through job-embedded professional development, teachers learn from teaching their students, studying student work samples, analyzing student data, and engaging in conversations with their colleagues (Zepeda, 2015).

One of the most important characteristics of job-embedded professional development is being highly individualized to teacher needs in terms of instructional, classroom management, and student engagement practices (Zepeda, 2015). Job-embedded learning includes collaborative supports and feedback (Zepeda, 2015). Abu-Tineh and Sadiq (2018) found teachers rate collegiality and collaboration as the most effective characteristics of professional development. Bold (2011) suggested job-embedded professional development supports inquiry, that over time, encourages teachers to actively reflect on their knowledge and practice. Furthermore, ongoing

support through modeling, observation, feedback, and reflection is linked to professional learning and the transfer of skills (Zepeda, 2015).

Watson (2018) concluded job-embedded professional development is related to increasing novice teacher efficacy, job satisfaction, and ultimately teacher retention. The lack of professional development opportunities and increasing accountability have been shown to decrease novice teachers' job satisfaction (Watson, 2018). Findings from numerous studies have revealed a statistically significant increase in teacher efficacy after participating in school-based, job-embedded professional development (Althausser, 2015; Skoretz & Childress, 2013; Yoo, 2016).

Mentoring and Peer Support

Strong mentoring programs can have a positive impact on new teacher efficacy and longevity in the teaching profession (Rebore, 2015). Master teachers and other educator peers offer support, guidance, and encouragement throughout the entire year (Rebore, 2015). Abu-Tineh and Sadiq (2018) concluded novice teachers perceive professional support from an experienced teacher as the most effective model of professional development. According to Clark and Byrnes (2012), teachers who have both common planning time with a master teacher or mentor and release time to observe other teachers rate the mentoring experiences as more helpful than those who are not provided these mentoring supports.

An experienced teacher can act as a role model, and through coaching, can help the novice teacher develop competencies and self-efficacy (Rebore, 2015). Novice teachers value peer support, especially having an active listener and a person to give encouragement during times of self-doubt (Clark & Byrnes, 2012). Additionally,

Pogodzinski (2012) found novice teachers report the support received from close colleagues is more important than the support received from a formally assigned mentor.

Mentor teachers should have experience and expertise in the same content area or grade level as novice teachers and should focus on improving instruction rather than solely providing moral support (Bettini et al., 2018). Bettini et al. (2018) suggested frequent instructional interactions with a mentor or master teacher result in a positive effect on novices' perceptions of workload manageability. Consequently, instructional interactions with colleagues negatively predict novice teachers' workload manageability (Bettini et al., 2018). Rebore (2015) suggested school leaders should facilitate mentoring by creating a time for novice teachers and mentors to meet, observe in other classrooms, and reflect. Quality mentoring and peer support can increase teacher efficacy and job satisfaction (Clark & Byrnes, 2012; Rebore, 2015; Yoo, 2016)

Professional Learning Communities

Professional learning communities provide teachers an opportunity to engage in collaborative professional learning and self-reflection to improve classroom instruction and academic achievement (Pirtle & Tobia, 2014). According to Pirtle and Tobia (2014), "The use of professional learning communities in schools offers a powerful infrastructure where teachers can engage in constructive dialogue, reflect on and improve instruction, and learn how to become more effective in the classroom to improve student learning" (p. 1).

The professional learning communities project began in Missouri after a state-sponsored initiative for school improvement in 2003 (Scott, 2019). The primary reason school districts and individual schools within districts implement professional learning

communities is to advance student learning outcomes while nurturing an improved school culture and developing teachers' instructional expertise (DuFour et al., 2016; Kramer, 2019; Pirtle & Tobia, 2014). The most effective structure of professional learning communities focuses on learning, a collaborative culture, and being results-oriented (DuFour et al., 2016; Rebore, 2015).

To implement effective professional learning communities, school leaders must provide a clear structure and focus on learning (Pirtle & Tobia, 2014). As groups of teachers work in collaborative teams, the focus is on student learning as much as it is on teacher learning (DuFour et al., 2016; Kramer, 2019). Kramer (2019) explained this level of collaboration not only improves student achievement but simultaneously improves teacher efficacy.

To implement and sustain effective work in professional learning communities, teachers need support from all levels of the school system (Rebore, 2015). Furthermore, teachers need adequate time to meet and prepare for professional learning communities, as well as resources to be effective in the classroom (DuFour et al., 2016). Before the focus on learning and collaboration can take place, trust must develop (DuFour et al., 2016). Gray et al. (2016) concluded school structure, trust, and academic emphasis are the most important characteristics when implementing professional learning communities. According to Pirtle and Tobia (2014), "Many school and district administrators initiate the implementation of professional learning communities while overlooking the shifts necessary to help teachers move from a culture of isolation to a culture that promotes a true collaborative learning organization" (p. 4). To build trust, school leaders must model trusting relationships and develop conditions where teachers

can be vulnerable with one another, take risks, and reflect deeply with one another about their teaching (DuFour et al., 2016; Kramer, 2019; Pirtle & Tobia, 2014).

Through effective professional learning communities, “teachers feel more confident and develop a strong sense of self-efficacy; they believe in their ability to influence student learning and make a difference in student outcomes and achievement” (Pirtle & Tobia, 2014, p. 6). The teachers’ sense of self-efficacy strengthens their commitment to work collaboratively with peers to improve instruction and enhance student achievement (Pirtle & Tobia, 2014). Furthermore, teachers are more likely to share and learn from colleagues’ successes with instructional practices while incorporating strategies shared into their own classrooms (Pirtle & Tobia, 2014).

Job Satisfaction

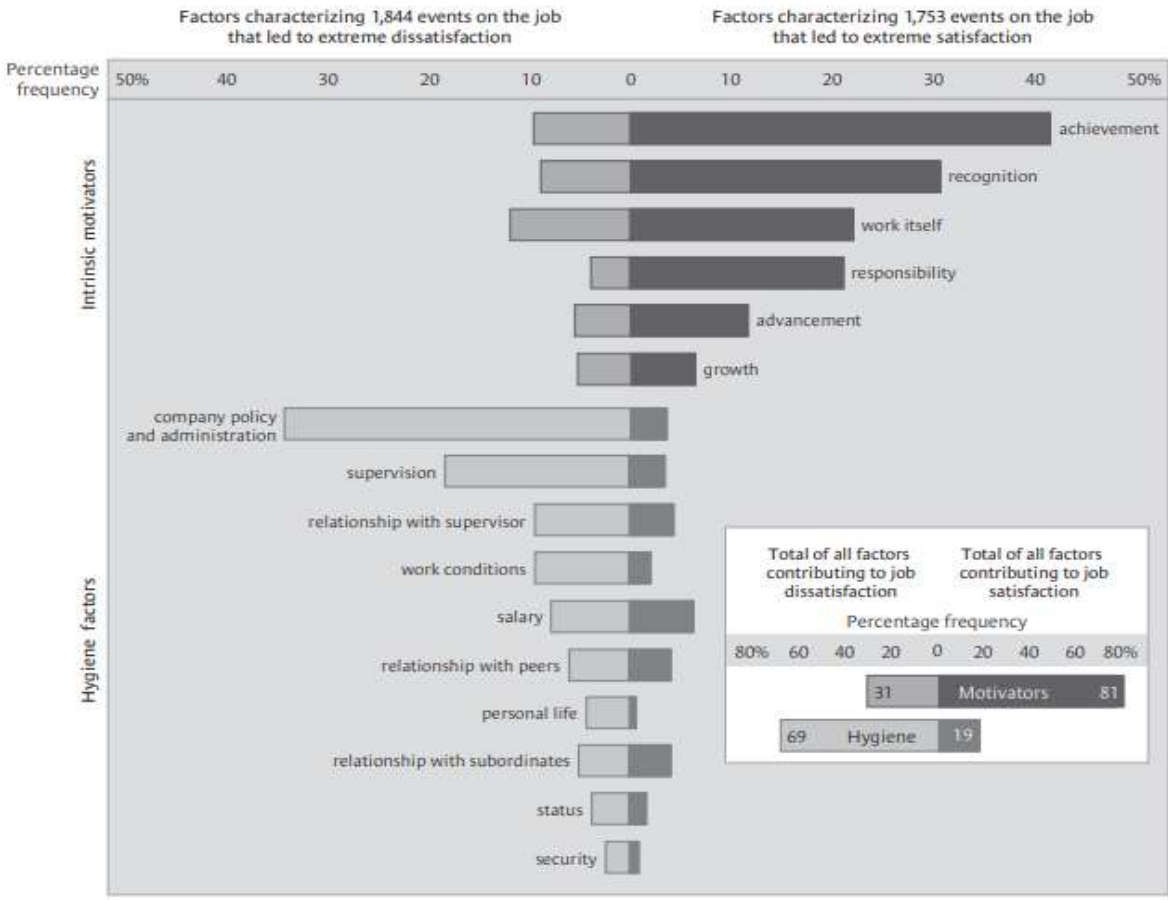
Job satisfaction is regarded as the attitude an employee has about his or her job and the degree to which an employee feels content with the work and responsibility that goes along with the job (Rad & De Moraes, 2009; Spector, 1997). The MetLife Survey of American Teachers examined teacher job satisfaction and how the factors of job satisfaction change over time (Markow et al., 2013). The findings from the survey indicated teacher job satisfaction rose from 40% in 1984 to a high of 62% in 2009 (Markow et al., 2013, p. 45). However, in 2012, teacher job satisfaction dropped 23% to the lowest point since 1986 (Markow et al., 2013, p. 45).

The theoretical foundation of job satisfaction is grounded in theories of motivation espoused by Herzberg (1959) and Maslow (1943). In reference to the two-factor theory, Herzberg (1959) argued job satisfaction depends on two factors: intrinsic motivators and hygiene (see Figure 2). Khanna (2017) proved Herzberg’s intrinsic

motivation and hygiene factors were positively and significantly related to job satisfaction among teachers. Herzberg (1959) found the presence of intrinsic motivators within the job causes employees to work harder. For example, teacher achievement, job recognition, responsibility, and efficacy in completing the work have shown to positively impact job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1959).

In addition, the absence of hygiene factors, including school policy, supervision, teacher evaluation, the relationship among colleagues and administration, salary, work conditions, and security, cause an employee to work less (Herzberg, 1959). Jesinova et al. (2014) emphasized a need to focus on hygiene factors related to cooperation and communication with school administrators. In addition, Jesinova et al. (2014) suggested school districts focus on teacher preparation and in-service support. According to Atalic et al. (2016), teacher motivation relies heavily on the fulfillment of hygiene and intrinsic motivation factors. Furthermore, Atalic et al. (2016) proved when hygiene and motivation factors are satisfied, job satisfaction among teachers is significantly higher.

Figure 2
Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation



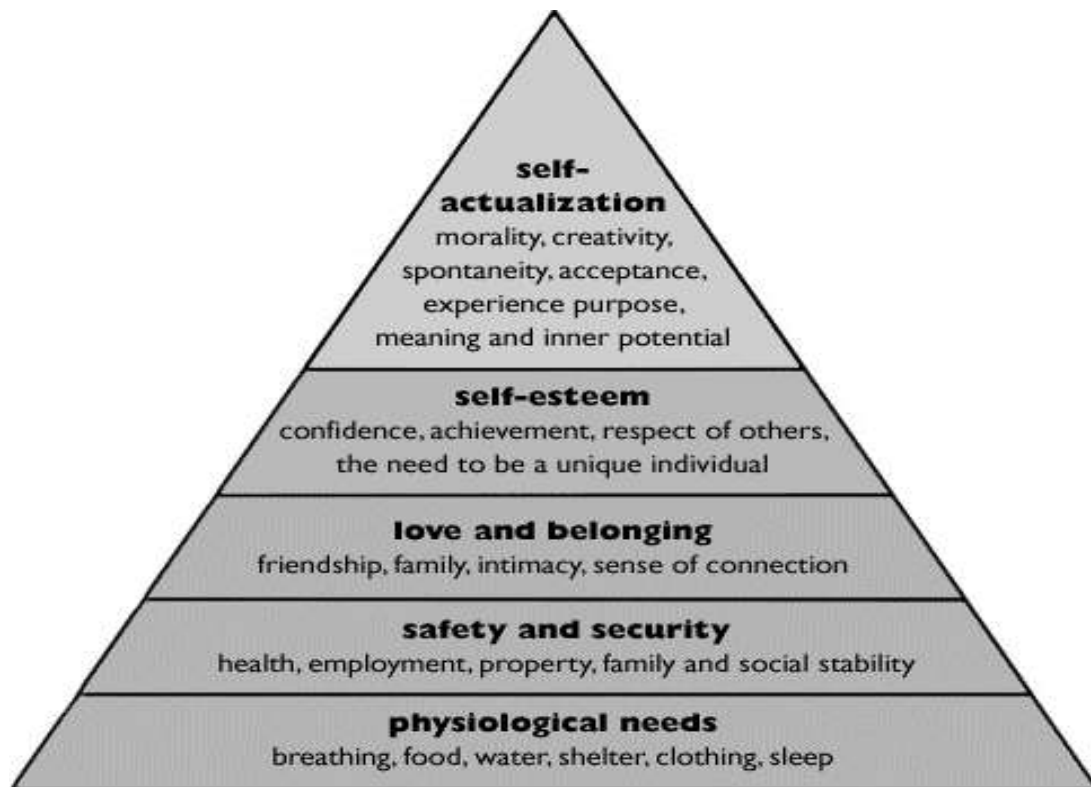
Note. From “One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?” by F. Herzberg, 2003, *Harvard Business Review*, 81(1), p. 90. Copyright 2003 by the Harvard Business Publishing. Reprinted with permission.

In addition to Herzberg’s (1959) two-factor theory, job satisfaction is also grounded in the theoretical framework of Maslow’s (1943) hierarchy of needs. Job satisfaction is attained when the job and environment meet the individual’s needs (Maslow, 1943). Maslow (1943) organized needs into a hierarchy of basic physiological needs, safety and security, belonging and love, self-esteem, and self-actualization (see

Figure 3). Larkin et al. (2016) stated, “Only when one feels connected, safe, and a sense of belonging at their place of employment can the higher-level needs, such as esteem and self-actualization be achieved” (p. 28). Larkin et al. (2016) revealed when teachers’ needs are met, they are more satisfied with their jobs, specifically with regard to relationships among coworkers, having input in the planning of curriculum, and being able to meet student needs.

Figure 3

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs



Note. From “A Theory of Human Motivation” by A. H. Maslow, 1943, *Psychological Review*, 50(4), pp. 370–396. In the public domain.

Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory and Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs work together to prove the results of positive job satisfaction (Ozguner & Ozguner, 2014). According to Osemeke and Adegboyega (2017), Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory is based on the use of motivators, such as achievement, recognition, and opportunity for growth, whereas Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs is based on the concept of human needs and their satisfaction. However, Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory and Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory suggest without hygiene factors and the bottom levels of the hierarchy, job satisfaction will decrease (Osemeke & Adegboyega, 2017; Ozguner & Ozguner, 2014).

Several researchers have found job satisfaction has a positive impact on the individual and school (Hoigaard et al., 2011; Malinen & Savolainen, 2016; Markow et al., 2013). Furthermore, Duyar et al. (2013) concluded the ability to communicate and collaborate with other teachers is the strongest predictor of job satisfaction among novice teachers. Novice teachers who experience high levels of job satisfaction are more motivated and committed to remain in the teaching profession (Chaaban & Du, 2017).

In comparison, Whittington et al. (2006) found novice teachers with a high level of efficacy tend to have a greater commitment to teaching and are more motivated to remain in the teaching profession. Blackburn and Robinson (2008) found novice teachers in their first and second years of teaching report high levels of job satisfaction. Additionally, the MetLife Survey of American Teachers indicated novice teachers are less likely to have low job satisfaction than mid-career teachers (Markow et al., 2013).

In contrast, Blackburn and Robinson (2008) proposed a decline in job satisfaction during the third and fourth years of teaching. Furthermore, Gaikhorst et al. (2014) found

novice teachers at risk of leaving the teaching profession express a strong dissatisfaction with their work environment and school culture, frustration with relationships among colleagues, and discontent with the amount of support they are provided. In addition, dissatisfied teachers are more likely to report higher levels of stress and burnout and lower levels of self-efficacy (Chaaban & Du, 2017). Although many researchers have concluded novice teachers with high self-efficacy have high job satisfaction, Reilly et al. (2014) examined teacher efficacy in predicting job satisfaction and found no significant association between self-efficacy and job satisfaction.

What Influences Teacher Job Satisfaction?

Job satisfaction is a self-evaluation of the teaching profession by teachers themselves which influences burnout, quitting intention, and overall teaching efficacy (Torres, 2019). Klassen and Tze (2014) identified teacher job satisfaction among other indicators of teaching and effective teachers. Additional researchers acknowledged teacher characteristics and school working conditions as the two main factors for influencing teacher job satisfaction (Boyd et al., 2011; Cameron & Lovett, 2015; Johnson et al., 2012; Sass et al., 2012; Sims, 2019; Sims & Jerrim, 2020).

Teacher Characteristics. The relationship between teacher job satisfaction and several other factors, such as age, years of experience, and teacher efficacy, have been documented (Karousiou et al., 2019; Mahamoud, 2017; Njiru, 2014). It has been argued that the relationship between a teacher's age and job satisfaction or turnover follows a "U-shaped curve" (Ingersoll, 2001, p. 502). Sass et al. (2012) found the rate of attrition to be higher on the edges of the curve, with both young and older teachers, while it is more stable with middle-aged teachers. While older teachers presumably leave due to

retirement, a variety of variables, including job satisfaction and efficacy, are likely to contribute to higher attrition rates among younger teachers (Sass et al., 2012). Njiru (2014) revealed job satisfaction increases with age and years of teaching experience. As teachers gain more years of experience, their confidence and self-efficacy are attributed to greater levels of job satisfaction (Njiru, 2014).

Numerous researchers have revealed a significant positive relationship between teacher self-efficacy and job satisfaction (Karabiyik & Korumaz, 2014; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015; Toropova et al., 2020; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Teacher self-efficacy is a significant predictor of job satisfaction (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015; Turkoglu et al., 2017). Klassen and Chiu (2010) suggested teacher efficacy may interact with teaching experience in its effect on job satisfaction. According to Klassen and Chiu (2010), teacher self-efficacy levels are low for inexperienced teachers, peak for mid-career teachers, and slowly decline for pre-retirement teachers. These conclusions support the curvilinear shape of the relationship between age and teacher attrition (Klassen & Chiu, 2010).

Turkoglu et al. (2017) found a significant positive correlation between each subscale of teacher self-efficacy (student engagement, instructional practices, and classroom management) and job satisfaction for elementary, middle, and high school teachers. Bolton's (2018) and Turcan's (2011) data confirmed teacher self-efficacy is a statistically significant predictor of job satisfaction; the higher the teacher efficacy, the higher the job satisfaction. Furthermore, the analyses conducted by Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2015) revealed a strong correlation between mastery experiences and job satisfaction. In conclusion, teachers who have a high level of efficacy tend to have a

greater commitment to teaching and higher job satisfaction (Blackburn & Robinson, 2008; Bolton, 2018; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015; Toropova et al., 2020; Zee & Koomen, 2016).

School Working Conditions. School working conditions are not only important for student opportunities to learn but also for teacher motivation, effectiveness, and job satisfaction (Toropova et al., 2020). Previous researchers have recognized adequate resources, feasible workload, collegial cooperation, professional development, school culture and climate, and leadership support as some of the most crucial factors in job satisfaction (Malinen & Savolainen, 2016; Toropova et al., 2020). Teacher perceptions of workload have a significant association with job satisfaction (Toropova et al., 2020).

Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2015) asserted an excessive workload is directly related to exhaustion, stress, and job satisfaction. Anghelache (2014) studied the level of job satisfaction for kindergarten teachers and revealed teachers from rural areas have a higher level of job satisfaction than teachers in urban areas. The expectations and workload of kindergarten teachers differ in rural areas, resulting in less stress, fewer responsibilities, and decreased workload (Anghelache, 2014). The strongest impact on teacher job satisfaction is stress due to poor working conditions (Karabatak & Alanoglu, 2019). Karabatak and Alanoglu (2019) found increased stress levels affect teacher job satisfaction negatively. Conversely, Collie et al. (2012) suggested when stressful working conditions are coupled with a strong sense of teacher efficacy, challenges are possible to overcome and do not affect job satisfaction negatively.

Principal support (Aldridge & Fraser, 2016; Johnson et al., 2012) and teacher cooperation (Sims, 2017; 2018; Turkoglu et al., 2017) are positively associated with job

satisfaction. Johnson et al. (2012) investigated the effects of school working conditions on teacher job satisfaction. According to Johnson et al. (2012), collegial support, principal leadership, and school culture have almost double the effect of school material resources. Similarly, Sims (2019) analyzed job satisfaction data from 35 countries around the world and found teacher cooperation is positively related to teacher job satisfaction in all countries (p. 8). Moreover, Turkoglu et al. (2017) showed teachers are more satisfied based upon interpersonal relationships and the organizational setting of the job.

Supportive and approachable school principals contribute both directly and indirectly to job satisfaction (Aldridge & Fraser, 2016). Conversely, teacher job satisfaction is more likely to be higher when someone other than the principal, such as a fellow teacher or mentor, participates in teacher evaluations (Ford et al., 2018). Chaaban and Du (2017) emphasized novice teachers are more satisfied with coworker support, including learning from others, exchanging ideas, and sharing resources, than are experienced teachers.

Malinen and Savolainen (2016) discovered school climate has a positive effect on job satisfaction. Teachers who evaluate school climate more positively at the beginning of the year report higher job satisfaction at the end of the year (Malinen & Savolainen, 2016). Similarly, Anghelache (2014) indicated kindergarten teachers' job satisfaction levels depend upon the climate they carry out their activities in and their relationship with school leaders. Prior researchers identified overall school climate as a measure of working conditions that influence job satisfaction among teachers (Johnson et al., 2012).

Summary

The conceptual framework was presented in Chapter Two. The variables of teacher efficacy, instructional support structures, and job satisfaction were discussed. Teacher efficacy does not remain constant and often changes over time (Pfitzer-Eden, 2016; Sciuchetti & Yssel, 2019; Yuksel, 2014), and instructional support structures seem to increase novice teacher efficacy (Hattie & Zierer, 2017; Warsame & Valles, 2018; Wyatt, 2014; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Furthermore, as instructional support is withdrawn, teacher efficacy declines (Goldrick, 2016; Kraft et al., 2018; Warsame, 2011; Watson, 2018; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). Novice teacher job satisfaction increases as teachers receive instructional support from school leaders and colleagues (Malinen & Savalainen, 2016; Sims, 2019; Toropova et al., 2020; Turkoglu et al., 2017).

The quantitative research methodology and design for the study are presented in Chapter Three. Discussions of the population, sample, and survey instruments are found in the next chapter. Additionally, a complete outline of the methods employed throughout the data collection and the data analysis process is provided.

Chapter Three: Methodology

In this chapter, the purpose and problem of the study are presented. The questions which guided this research are restated, and an outline of the research design is included. A description of the participants and survey instruments, as well as details regarding the data collection process, are identified. Furthermore, the procedures used for data analysis and interpretation are discussed.

Problem and Purpose Overview

This study was conducted to explore the relationship between novice teacher efficacy and district-provided instructional support to determine if instructional support affects job satisfaction among novice elementary teachers. While there has been research conducted on instructional coach support and first- and second-year novice elementary teacher efficacy (Bettini et al., 2018; George et al., 2018; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005), there was a need for further research to determine the relationship among novice elementary teacher efficacy, instructional coaching support, and job satisfaction in the first through fifth years of teaching.

Much of the research on novice teacher efficacy was conducted on first- and second-year novice elementary teachers. As noted by Blackburn and Robinson (2008), teachers in their first and second years of teaching have high levels of teacher efficacy related to classroom management and student engagement and lower levels of teacher efficacy in terms of instructional practices. Prior researchers have suggested the level of support during the first year of teaching correlates with positive changes to teacher efficacy (Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). Swan et al. (2011) revealed the lowest levels of teacher efficacy are noted at the end of the first year of teaching. This finding

supported previous research, which indicated teacher efficacy declines in the first year, possibly due to the natural consequence of being overwhelmed with the unknown (Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

To better understand the relationship among novice teacher efficacy, instructional coaching support, and job satisfaction, the following research questions and hypotheses guided the study:

1. In what way, if any, is instructional support a predictor of positive job satisfaction among novice elementary teachers?
2. What is the relationship between a novice elementary teacher's efficacy and years of teaching experience?

H2_o: There is no statistically significant relationship between a novice elementary teacher's efficacy and years of teaching experience.

3. What is the relationship among teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction?

H3_o: There is no statistically significant relationship among teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction.

Research Design

A quantitative research approach was used in this study of teacher efficacy, instructional coaching support, and job satisfaction. Hoy and Adams (2016) explained quantitative research is the best approach to use to test hypotheses and theories.

Additionally, quantitative research is based upon a philosophical belief that researchers

can measure and understand the world to make broad generalizations and examine the relationship or trends among variables (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Mertler, 2016).

For this study, the independent variable was teacher efficacy of novice elementary teachers in their first through fifth years of teaching. In addition, district-provided instructional support was an independent variable. Independent variables are those that influence or affect dependent variables in a study (Hoy & Adams, 2016). The dependent variable for this research study was job satisfaction. According to Hoy and Adams (2016), “Dependent variables are those that depend on the independent variables; they are the outcomes or results of the influence of the independent variable” (p. 51).

Population and Sample

The target population for this study included Missouri public school districts. Missouri public charter schools and private schools were excluded from the study. The sample size of this research study included 516 school districts located in various regions throughout Missouri.

In this study, school districts were selected for participation using a purposive sample. Purposive sampling is commonly used in research studies, as it allows researchers to identify individuals familiar with the topic to be studied (Creswell & Guetterman, 2019; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). The teacher sample was purposive, because the teachers are familiar with the topic under study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). Additionally, Fraenkel et al. (2019) determined a purposive sampling is appropriate when the researcher uses “their judgement to select a sample that they believe, based on prior information, will provide the data they need” (p. 100).

To alleviate potential problems, clear criteria were established for the sample, including the following: novice elementary teachers of kindergarten through fifth grade; novice elementary teachers teaching five years or less; and novice elementary teachers at a Missouri public school district. G-Power Version 3.1.9.2, a statistical software package, was used to determine the effect size of .3, error of probability of .05, power of .95, and a minimum sample size of 111 (Faul et al., 2013). The minimum sample size of 111 was chosen to ensure validity. Creswell and Creswell (2018) suggested using power analysis when determining if a relationship between variables exists within the study. When a .05 or lower power significance is obtained, researchers can be 95% confident the results from the study are real and are not due to chance factors alone (Wilson VanVoorhis & Morgan, 2007). This sample was selected as a good representation of the total population, since all Missouri public school districts were invited to participate in the research study.

Instrumentation

To achieve the purpose of this study, three instruments were used to collect data from participants. The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (short version) by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), the Job Satisfaction Scale by Spector (1997), and the Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory by Wise and Hammack (2011) were combined on *Qualtrics* into one survey for the participants to complete.

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale

The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (short form) (TSES), developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), was the instrument used to assess participants' sense of teacher efficacy. The TSES (short form) consists of a 12-item Likert-scale survey (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The appropriate teacher

efficacy construct has been questioned for years (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The TSES was created based on Bandura's Teacher Efficacy scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) discovered a three-factor solution for both the long and short form. These factors are labeled as follows: efficacy for instructional strategies, efficacy for classroom management, and efficacy for student engagement (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) indicated the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale is valid and considered a reliable measure of efficacy. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) found a coefficient alpha of at least 0.80 for each subscale of the TSES (short form) (p. 800). Table 1 shows the internal consistency reliability coefficients for all subscales of the TSES (short form) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The lowest coefficient alpha was engagement (0.81), and the highest was instruction (0.86) and management (0.86) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p. 800). The overall reliability for the Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale (short form) was 0.90 (Tshannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, p. 800).

Table 1

TSES (Short Form) Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients

Subscale	Alpha
Instruction	0.86
Management	0.86
Engagement	0.81
Total	0.90

Note. Based on a sample of 410 participants.

Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory

The Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory, developed by Wise and Hammack (2011), was the second instrument used to assess participants' instructional coaching support. The initial work of developing the Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory was derived from gathering numerous coaching competencies and best practices (Wise & Hammack, 2011). In a study conducted by Wise (2008), 54 coaching competencies and 16 best practices were determined through content analysis and an expert group (Wise & Hammack, 2011, p. 459). The results of the study revealed the importance of each coaching competency with regard to bringing about best practices (Wise & Hammack, 2011).

Wise and Hammack (2011) redefined the list of coaching competencies and best practices included in Wise's (2008) previous study. A factor analysis was conducted to provide clarity on the relationship between some of the competencies and assist in reducing the total number of competencies included in the survey (Wise & Hammack, 2011). As a result of the reduction process, further factor analysis, and consultation with leadership experts to ensure reliability and validity, 20 key coaching competencies and nine best practices were placed on the survey instrument (Wise & Hammack, 2011, p. 460). The 20 key coaching competencies were distributed and grouped into three categories: establishing the coaching relationship (five competencies), communicating effectively (six competencies), and facilitating learning and performance (nine competencies) (Wise & Hammack, 2011). Furthermore, categories were not established for the nine key best practices, as the concepts did not lend themselves to categorization (Wise & Hammack, 2011).

The Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory contains a 29-item Likert-scale survey comprised of coaching competencies and best practices (Wise & Hammack, 2011). The Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory provides a total score for an individual while also containing three categories that reflect distinct components of coaching (Wise & Hammack, 2011). The three categories include establishing the coaching relationship, communicating effectively, and facilitating learning and performance (Wise & Hammack, 2011).

Job Satisfaction Scale

The Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS), developed by Spector (1997), was the third instrument used to assess participants' job satisfaction. The JSS is extensively used to measure the level of job satisfaction in public service fields (Anari, 2012). Additionally, the JSS provides a total satisfaction score for an individual while also containing subscales that reflect on distinct components of job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). The inclusion of subscales allows for components of job satisfaction to be measured individually (Spector, 1997).

The JSS contains a 36-item Likert-scale survey grouped into nine facets of job satisfaction in public service including pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, contingent rewards, operating procedures, coworkers, nature of work, and communication (Spector, 1997). The combined total of these facets determines the individual's total job satisfaction (Spector, 1997).

Spector (1997) computed the internal consistency reliability of the Job Satisfaction Scale based on a sample of 2,870 (p. 10). Internal consistency reliability estimates how well items of a scale relate to one another (Spector, 1997). The JSS

exhibits high internal consistency reliability (Spector, 1997). Spector (1997) found a coefficient alpha of at least 0.60 for all of the nine facets of the JSS (p. 10). Table 2 shows the internal consistency reliability coefficients for all facets of the JSS (Spector, 1997). The lowest coefficient alpha was coworkers (0.60), and the highest was supervision (0.82) (Spector, 1997, p. 10). Only two facets, coworkers and supervision, fell below the minimum standard for internal consistency of 0.70 (Spector, 1997, p. 10). The coefficient alpha for the total scale was 0.91 (Spector, 1997, p. 10).

Table 2

JSS Internal Consistency Reliability Coefficients

Facet	Alpha
Pay	0.75
Promotion	0.73
Supervision	0.82
Fringe Benefits	0.73
Contingent Rewards	0.76
Operating Procedures	0.62
Coworkers	0.60
Nature of Work	0.78
Communication	0.71
Total	0.91

Note. Based on a sample of 2,870 participants.

Validity evidence for the Job Satisfaction Scale was conducted by comparing other job satisfaction scales with one another on the same employees (Spector, 1997). Spector (1997) reported the JSS has been shown to correlate with numerous scales and variables in other job satisfaction scales.

Data Collection

Recruitment letters (see Appendix A) were emailed to 516 school districts to gain permission from superintendents for participating in the study. The recruitment letter included descriptions of the purpose of study, how information gathered may positively contribute to the body of knowledge, and information regarding informed consent. The informed consent form (see Appendix B) allows potential participants sufficient written information to decide whether to participate in a study and complete a survey (Fink, 2017). The written consent form described the purpose of the study, the potential use of information derived from the study, and the participant's ability to withdraw from the survey at any given time (Fink, 2017).

After school districts provided informed consent to participate in the study, an emailed letter confirming their respective participation was sent (see Appendix C). The participants were assured all of the procedures were approved by the Institutional Review Board. Additionally, the types of items on the survey and approximately how long it would take each participant to complete were explained (see Appendix D). Furthermore, the direct link to the survey from *Qualtrics* was included, along with the two-week timeframe it would be available. All participating school districts were assured accurate, unbiased, and complete reporting of the data would be assured in all research reports. To ensure the confidentiality of participants, the names of school districts were not used as part of the study or disclosed during the survey.

Along with the confirmation letter, the school district superintendents received a subsequent emailed letter to be sent to kindergarten through fifth-grade teachers throughout the school district. This letter included information regarding the purpose of

the study, how the information gathered through the research may positively contribute to the body of knowledge, and directions on how to access the survey. Additionally, the direct link to the survey was included (see Appendix E). Furthermore, participants were assured teacher participation in the study was completely voluntary, anonymous, and confidential.

A final reminder was sent to participants about the survey at the end of two weeks, allowing participants an appropriate amount of time to complete the survey if they chose to participate. At the end of the two-week data collection period, the survey was closed, and data were collected from participating school districts following *Qualtrics'* protocol of confidentiality.

Data Analysis

The results of the combined survey, which included the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (short version) by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), the Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory by Wise and Hammack (2011), and the Job Satisfaction Scale by Spector (1997), were collected and analyzed. Any outlier was excluded from the study. In this study, outliers were those who completed less than 75% of the survey, those who did not teach kindergarten through fifth grade, or those who had taught for more than five years during the 2018–2019 academic year.

The data analysis consisted of “describing trends, comparing group differences, and relating variables” through the use of correlation and regression analyses (Fink, 2017, p. 55). The unit of analysis for this study was the school district. The results were imported from *Qualtrics* and entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS), where school-level descriptive statistics and other statistical analyses were

calculated. Descriptive statistical data provided simple summaries about the sample and were used to simplify large amounts of data (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Participants' responses to survey questions were disaggregated to measure both independent and dependent variables and to ensure methodological independence.

Through the use of SPSS, a linear regression statistical test was conducted to analyze the data to answer research question one. A linear regression tests the impact of change in one variable on the other variable (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

To answer research question two, a coefficient of correlation test was applied to measure the statistical significance and the magnitude of the relationship between the independent and dependent variable (Hoy & Adams, 2016). Hoy and Adams (2016) explained, "A coefficient of correlation is a number that indicates the magnitude of the relation between two continuous variables such that the higher the absolute value of correlation, the stronger the relation" (p. 59).

A multiple coefficient of correlation statistical test was applied to analyze the data to answer research question three. A multiple coefficient of correlation is a statistical measure used to determine an association or relationship between multiple continuous variables (Hoy & Adams, 2016).

Ethical Considerations

Developing an understanding of novice teachers' efficacy and job satisfaction in their current jobs required participants to respond honestly to the survey. The confidentiality of all of the participants in the study was maintained. The privacy of the respondents to the survey was protected by not collecting the respondents' names or

participating school districts. All data were electronically saved using a protected password.

Summary

This quantitative study was intended to determine the relationship among novice teachers' efficacy, district-provided instructional support, and job satisfaction of elementary teachers of kindergarten through fifth grades who taught for one to five years. Five hundred sixteen Missouri public school districts were selected to participate in the study. The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (short form) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), the Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory (Wise and Hammack, 2011), and the Job Satisfaction Scale (Spector, 1997) were combined into one survey and distributed to participants through *Qualtrics*. Data regarding teachers' efficacy and instructional support were collected and compared to the results of online surveys sent to all of the participating school districts. These independent variables, which included mean scores of Likert-scale items, were compared to the dependent variable of job satisfaction.

Chapter Four includes an overview of the data collected and the instruments used for data collection. Furthermore, the results of the statistical analysis of data are organized using charts, graphs, and tables. Summaries of the Likert-scale items, the procedures that were followed, and the outcomes of the study are provided.

Chapter Four: Analysis of Data

This study was conducted to investigate the relationship between instructional support structures and novice teachers' efficacy to determine whether district-provided instructional support affects job satisfaction among novice teachers. Survey data were examined to determine (a) if instructional support structures predict job satisfaction; (b) the relationship between years of teaching experience and teachers' sense of efficacy; and (c) the relationship among teachers' sense of efficacy, instructional support structures, and job satisfaction.

The analysis of data could assist school leaders with ideas for how to build novice teachers' efficacy, as well as offer a clearer picture of how instructional support structures relate to novice teachers' efficacy and job satisfaction within the first five years of teaching. This chapter is presented in three sections: the descriptive analysis section for each variable of the study, Pearson correlation and Linear regression tests, and the summary.

Data Analysis

The participants in this study took part in a 78-item Likert-type survey. Survey items were designed to elicit responses to kindergarten through fifth-grade novice teachers in the areas of teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction. Five hundred sixteen Missouri public school districts were invited to participate in the study. Of the 516 Missouri public school districts, 48 superintendents provided consent to participate in the study and forwarded the survey to their teachers. Overall, 203 teachers (6.3%) of the roughly 3,228 kindergarten through fifth-grade teachers who should have received the survey responded. Respondent surveys were considered valid if 75% or

more of the survey was completed and a response of one to five years of teaching experience was selected. Of the 203 respondents, 56 (27.6%) surveys were considered valid for the study.

Teacher Demographic Analysis

Teacher demographic data were collected through the survey. Respondents were asked to provide demographic information with regard to grade level and years of teaching experience by answering questions one and two on the survey. From the sample of 56 respondents, nine (16.1%) identified as teaching kindergarten, nine (16.1%) identified as teaching first grade, eight (14.3%) identified as teaching second grade, 11 (19.6%) identified as teaching third grade, eight (14.3%) identified as teaching fourth grade, and 11 (19.6%) identified as teaching fifth grade. The grade-level mean for the study was 3.59.

With regard to years of teaching experience, seven (12.5%) participants reported one year of teaching experience, 13 (23.2%) reported two years of teaching experience, 10 (17.9%) reported three years of teaching experience, 16 (28.6%) reported four years of teaching experience, and 10 (17.9%) reported five years of teaching experience. The years of teaching experience mean for the study was 3.16. See Table 3 for the disaggregated frequency distribution of all participants.

Table 3*Demographic Characteristics of Teacher Respondents*

Characteristic	<i>n</i>	%
Grade Level		
Kindergarten	9	16.1%
First	9	16.1%
Second	8	14.3%
Third	11	19.6%
Fourth	8	14.3%
Fifth	11	19.6%
Years of Teaching Experience		
1	7	12.5%
2	13	23.2%
3	10	17.9%
4	16	28.6%
5	10	17.9%

Note. *n* = 56.

Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Teacher Efficacy

The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (short form) shaped the first section of the survey (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The reliability of the scale yielded a Cronbach's Alpha of .878, a high standard of reliability (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Respondents were asked to indicate their opinions about each statement using a Likert scale of one (*Nothing*) to nine (*A Great Deal*).

All 56 participants responded. A total score of 108 indicated the highest level of efficacy. When the data were disaggregated by grade level, a maximum score of 108 and a minimum score of 66 were reported. Fifth-grade teachers' responses yielded a mean score of 93.5, whereas first-grade teachers' responses yielded a mean score of 85.7. When data were disaggregated by years of teaching experience, second-year teachers' responses yielded a mean score of 92.9, while first-year teachers' responses yielded a

mean score of 86. The overall mean for the 56 respondents was 88.6 with a standard deviation of 9.8. Table 4 contains the disaggregated distribution for the 56 responses.

Table 4

Teacher Efficacy – Overall Efficacy

Characteristic	<i>M</i>	Min.	Max	<i>SD</i>
Grade Level				
Kindergarten	91.7	70	108	13.7
First	85.7	68	98	9.5
Second	86.5	81	95	4.7
Third	88.3	75	104	7.6
Fourth	84.4	66	96	10.9
Fifth	93.5	78	108	9.1
Years of Teaching Experience				
1	86.0	66	108	14.6
2	92.9	70	104	10.4
3	86.1	76	99	6.6
4	87.2	75	96	6.5
5	91.0	68	108	11.9
Overall	88.6	66	108	9.8

Note. $n = 56$.

The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (short form) was grouped into three subscales including student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Survey questions 4, 5, 6, and 13 were framed around student engagement (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). For reliability of the responses to the questions in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .77 (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). All 56 participants responded to these questions. The mean for student engagement was 7.3 with

a standard deviation of 1.3. Table 5 contains the mean and standard deviation for each question included in the student engagement subscale.

Question 4: How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work? Overall, 46 (82%) of the responses to this question were 7- *Quite a Bit* to 9- *A Great Deal*. No participants responded 1-*None* to 3-*Very Little*. The mode was 7-*Quite a Bit*, with 24 (42.9%) respondents choosing this option.

Forty-nine (87.5%) participants responded 7-*Quite a Bit* to 9-*A Great Deal* to *Question 5: How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school?* No participants responded 1-*None* to 3-*Very Little*. The mode was 7-*Quite a Bit*, chosen by 19 (33.9%) of the respondents.

Forty-five (80.4%) of the responses to *Question 6: How much can you do to help your students value learning?* were 7-*Quite a Bit* to 9-*A Great Deal*. Only one (1.8%) of the participants selected 1-*None* to 3-*Very Little*. The mode was 7-*Quite a Bit*, with 17 (30.4%) participants selecting this option.

Thirty-five (62.5%) participants responded 7-*Quite a Bit* to 9-*A Great Deal* to *Question 13: How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?* No participants selected 1-*None* to 3-*Very Little*. The mode was 7-*Quite a Bit*, with 21 (37.5%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 5*Questions from Scale Composing Efficacy in Student Engagement*

Questions	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
4. How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	7.3	1.3
5. How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well on school work?	7.7	1.1
6. How much can you do to help your students value learning?	7.4	1.5
13. How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	6.7	1.4

Note. $n = 56$.

Survey questions 7, 11, 12, and 14 were framed around instructional strategies (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). For reliability of the responses to the questions in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .82 (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). All 56 participants responded to this statement. The mean for student engagement was 7.3 with a standard deviation of 1.3. Table 6 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the instructional strategies subscale.

Overall, 44 (78.6%) of the responses to *Question 7: To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?* were 7-*Quite a Bit* to 9-*A Great Deal*. No participants responded 1-*None* to 3-*Very Little*. The mode was 7-*Quite a Bit*, with 22 (39.3%) respondents choosing this option.

Thirty-eight (67.9%) of the participants responded 7-*Quite a Bit* to 9-*A Great Deal* to *Question 11: How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?* Only

two (3.6%) participants selected *1-None* to *3-Very Little*. The mode was *7-Quite a Bit*, chosen by 16 (28.6%) respondents.

Forty-nine (87.5%) of the responses to *Question 12: To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?* were *7-Quite a Bit* to *9-A Great Deal*. No participants selected *1-None* to *3-Very Little*. The mode was 8, with 18 (32.1%) participants selecting this option.

Forty-three (76.8%) participants responded *7-Quite a Bit* to *9-A Great Deal* to *Question 14: How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?* Only one (1.8%) participant selected *1-None* to *3-Very Little*. The mode was *7-Quite a Bit*, with 17 (30.4%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 6

Questions from Scale Composing Efficacy in Instructional Strategies

Questions	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
7. To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	7.4	1.1
11. How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	7.0	1.6
12. To what extent can you provide an alternate explanation or example when students are confused?	7.6	1.1
14. How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	7.3	1.4

Note. $n = 56$.

Survey questions 3, 8, 9, and 10 were framed around classroom management (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). For reliability of the responses to the questions in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .81 (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). All 56 participants responded to this

statement. The mean for student engagement was 7.6 with a standard deviation of 1.3. Table 7 contains the mean and standard deviation for each question included in the classroom management subscale.

Overall, 48 (85.7%) of the responses to *Question 3: How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?* were 7-*Quite a Bit* to 9-*A Great Deal*. No participants responded 1-*None* to 3-*Very Little*. The mode was 7-*Quite a Bit*, with 26 (46.4%) respondents choosing this option.

Fifty-three (94.6%) participants responded 7-*Quite a Bit* to 9-*A Great Deal* in response to *Question 8: How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?* No participants selected 1-*None* to 3-*Very Little*. The mode was 8, chosen by 19 (33.9%) respondents.

Forty-one (73.2%) of the responses to *Question 9: How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?* were 7-*Quite a Bit* to 9-*A Great Deal*. No participants selected 1-*None* to 3-*Very Little*. The mode response was 7-*Quite a Bit*, with 22 (39.3%) participants selecting this option.

Fifty-two (92.9%) participants responded 7-*Quite a Bit* to 9-*A Great Deal* to *Question 10: How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?* No participants selected 1-*None* to 3-*Very Little*. The mode was 8, with 19 (33.9%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 7*Questions from Scale Composing Efficacy in Classroom Management*

Questions	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
3. How much can you control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	7.4	1.1
8. How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	7.9	1.0
9. How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	7.2	1.1
10. How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	7.9	1.0

Note. $n = 56$.

Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Instructional Support

The Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory formed the next section of the survey (Wise & Hammack, 2011). The reliability of the scale yielded a Cronbach's Alpha of .982, which is a high standard of reliability (Wise & Hammack, 2011). Respondents were asked to rate coaching competencies on a scale from one to five. Overall, 52 survey participants responded to this section of the survey. Total instructional support scores ranged from 28 to 140.

When the data were disaggregated by grade level, a maximum score of 140 and a minimum score of 42 were reported. Second-grade teachers' responses yielded a mean score of 121.3, whereas third-grade teachers' responses yielded a mean score of 110.4. When data were disaggregated by years of teaching experience, a mean score of 121.1 was calculated for third-year teachers, while a mean score of 110.0 was calculated for second-year teachers. The overall mean for all 52 respondents was 115.7 with a standard deviation of 25.5. Table 8 contains the disaggregated distribution for all 52 responses.

Table 8*Instructional Support – Overall Support*

Characteristic	<i>M</i>	Min.	Max	<i>SD</i>
Grade Level				
Kindergarten	114.7	64	140	25.3
First	116.8	53	140	29.7
Second	121.3	84	140	21.1
Third	110.4	42	140	29.8
Fourth	114.6	42	138	32.4
Fifth	117.4	88	140	18.5
Years of Teaching Experience				
1	120.1	99	140	16.0
2	110.1	64	137	22.6
3	121.1	92	138	18.0
4	115.8	42	140	32.1
5	115.2	53	140	29.4
Overall	115.7	42	140	25.5

Note. n = 52.

The Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory is grouped into four subscales including competencies for establishing the coaching relationship, communicating effectively, facilitating learning and performance, and best practices (Wise & Hammack, 2011). Survey statements 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19 were framed around competencies for establishing the coaching relationship (Wise & Hammack, 2011). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .97 (Wise & Hammack, 2011). Overall, 52 participants responded to these statements. The mean for competencies for establishing the coaching relationship was 4.2 with a standard deviation of 1.2. Table 9 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the establishing the coaching relationship coaching competencies subscale.

Statement 15: The coach clarifies expectations, roles, and responsibilities of the coach and client. Overall, 40 (77%) responses to this statement were 4 to 5. Of the 52 participants, four (7.7%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 24 (46.2%) respondents choosing this option.

Thirty-nine (75%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 16: The coach establishes a specific, results-oriented coaching plan.* Of the 52 participants, five (9.6%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, chosen by 24 (46.2%) of the respondents.

Forty-one (78.8%) of the responses to *Statement 17: The coach fosters a confidential, safe environment during our coaching sessions* were 4 to 5. Only three (5.8%) of the participants selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 28 (53.8%) participants selecting this option.

Forty-four (84.6%) participants responded 4 to 5 in response to *Statement 18: The coach keeps commitments she/he has made with me.* Of the 52 participants, four (7.7%) selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 36 (69.2%) respondents choosing this option.

Overall, 45 (86.5%) of the responses to *Statement 19: The coach holds high expectations for our coaching relationship and for me* were 4 to 5. Of the 52 participants, four (7.7%) responded 1 to 2. The mode response to this statement was 5, with 31 (59.6%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 9*Coaching Competencies for Establishing the Coaching Relationship*

Coaching Competency Statement	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
15. The coach clarifies expectations, roles, and responsibilities of the coach and client.	4.1	1.2
16. The coach establishes a specific, results-oriented coaching plan.	4.0	1.2
17. The coach fosters a confidential, safe environment during our coaching sessions.	4.2	1.1
18. The coach keeps commitments she/he has made with me.	4.4	1.2
19. The coach holds high expectations for our coaching relationship and for me.	4.3	1.1

Note. $n = 52$.

Survey statements 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, and 25 were framed around communicating effectively (Wise & Hammack, 2011). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .98 (Wise & Hammack, 2011). Overall, 52 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the communicating effectively subscale was 4.1 with a standard deviation of 1.2. Table 10 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the communicating effectively subscale.

Statement 20: The coach listens attentively to everything that I say. Overall, 42 (80.8%) of responses to this statement were 4 to 5. Of the 52 participants, four (7.7%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 31 (59.6%) respondents choosing this option.

Thirty-nine (75%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 21: The coach paraphrases and summarizes key points/patterns in a condensed fashion.* Of the 52 participants, five (9.6%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, chosen by 26 (50%) of the respondents.

Forty (76.9%) of the responses to *Statement 22: The coach asks open-ended questions which help me clarify my thinking* were 4 to 5. Only four (7.7%) of the participants selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 26 (50%) participants selecting this option.

Forty-one (78.8%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 23: The coach delivers feedback in a supportive, nonjudgmental manner*. Of the 52 participants, five (9.6%) selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 27 (51.9%) respondents choosing this option.

Thirty-seven (71.2%) of the responses to *Statement 24: The coach provides feedback that is specific rather than general* were 4 to 5. Of the 52 participants, four (7.7%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 22 (42.3%) respondents choosing this option.

Thirty-six (69.2%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 25: The coach knows when to push me and under what conditions*. Of the 52 participants, five (9.6%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, chosen by 23 (44.2%) respondents.

Table 10*Coaching Competencies for Communicating Effectively*

Coaching Competency Statement	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
20. The coach listens attentively to everything that I say.	4.3	1.2
21. The coach paraphrases and summarizes key points/patterns in a condensed fashion.	4.1	1.2
22. The coach asks open-ended questions which help me clarify my thinking.	4.1	1.2
23. The coach delivers feedback in a supportive, nonjudgmental manner.	4.1	1.2
24. The coach provides feedback that is specific rather than general.	4.0	1.2
25. The coach knows when to push me and under what conditions.	4.0	1.2

Note. $n = 52$.

Survey statements 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, and 33 were framed around facilitating learning and performance (Wise & Hammack, 2011). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .98 (Wise & Hammack, 2011). Overall, 52 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the facilitating learning and performance subscale was 4.0 with a standard deviation of 1.2. Table 11 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the facilitating learning and performance subscale.

Thirty-six (69.2%) of the responses to *Statement 26: The coach helps me identify my goals and prioritize them* were 4 to 5. Of the 52 participants, eight (15.4%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 22 (42.3%) respondents choosing this option.

Thirty-five (67.3%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 27: The coach helps me understand and manage the process of change*. Of the 52 participants, six (11.5%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, chosen by 22 (42.3%) respondents.

Forty (76.9%) of the responses to *Statement 28: The coach helps me brainstorm possibilities* were 4 to 5. Only five (9.6%) of the participants selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 25 (48.1%) participants selecting this option.

Forty-two (80.8%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 29: The coach is knowledgeable about best practices that enhance student learning*. Of the 52 participants, three (5.8%) selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 27 (51.9%) respondents choosing this option.

Thirty-nine (75%) of the responses to *Statement 30: The coach helps me to implement intervention programs that meet student needs* were 4 to 5. Of the 52 participants, five (9.6%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 21 (40.4%) respondents choosing this option.

Thirty-three (63.5%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 31: The coach helps me articulate a vision of cultural responsiveness*. Of the 52 participants, five (9.6%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, chosen by 17 (32.7%) respondents.

Thirty-eight (73%) of the responses to *Statement 32: The coach helps me focus on the big picture* were 4 to 5. Only five (9.6%) of the participants selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 23 (44.2%) participants selecting this option.

Thirty-six (69.2%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 33: The coach inspires me to believe in new possibilities*. Of the 52 participants, five (9.6%) selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 26 (50%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 11*Coaching Competencies for Facilitating Learning and Performance*

Coaching Competency Statement	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
26. The coach helps me identify my goals and prioritize them.	3.9	1.3
27. The coach helps me understand and manage the process of change.	3.9	1.3
28. The coach helps me brainstorm possibilities.	4.1	1.2
29. The coach is knowledgeable about best practices that enhance student learning.	4.2	1.1
30. The coach helps me to implement intervention programs that meet student needs.	4.0	1.1
31. The coach helps me articulate a vision of cultural responsiveness.	3.8	1.2
32. The coach helps me focus on the big picture.	4.0	1.2
33. The coach inspires me to believe in possibilities.	4.0	1.2

Note. $n = 52$.

Survey statements 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, and 42 were framed around coaching on best practices (Wise & Hammack, 2011). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .94 (Wise & Hammack, 2011). Overall, 52 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the best practices subscale was 4.2 with a standard deviation of .9. Table 12 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the best practices subscale.

Forty-five (86.5%) of the responses to *Statement 34: There is an emphasis on continual improvement at the school* were 4 to 5. Of the 52 participants, one (1.9%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 31 (59.6%) respondents choosing this option.

Forty-one (78.8%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 35: Professional development for instructional improvement is ongoing*. Of the 52 participants, three (5.8%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, chosen by 31 (59.6%) respondents.

Thirty-nine (75%) of the responses to *Statement 36: Teachers differentiate instruction such that all students have access to the same rigorous curriculum* were 4 to 5. Only one (1.9%) of the participants selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 24 (46.2%) participants selecting this option.

Forty-two (80.8%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 37: School leaders review student achievement data regularly with each teacher*. Of the 52 participants, three (5.8%) selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 27 (51.9%) respondents choosing this option.

Forty-one (78.8%) of the responses to *Statement 38: School leaders hold teachers accountable to help the students reach clearly articulated goals* were 4 to 5. Of the 52 participants, three (5.8%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 26 (50%) respondents choosing this option.

Forty-two (80.8%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 39: School leaders recognize noteworthy efforts and accomplishments of students, staff, and community*. Of the 52 participants, two (3.8%) responded 1 to 2. The mode was 5, chosen by 24 (46.2%) respondents.

Thirty-nine (75%) of the responses to *Statement 40: Teachers learn and use appropriate intervention techniques and skills* were 4 to 5. Only one (1.9%) of the participants selected 1 to 2. The mode was 5, with 26 (50%) participants selecting this option.

Thirty-two (61.5%) participants responded 4 to 5 to *Statement 41: Student intervention needs are met mainly within the regular classroom*. Of the 52 participants,

one (1.9%) selected 1 to 2. The mode was 4 and 5, with 16 (30.8%) respondents choosing each option.

Forty-one (78.8%) of the responses to *Statement 42: Teachers regularly meet in teams to discuss common curriculum and assessments* were 4 to 5. Of the 52 participants, four (7.7%) responded 1 to 2. The mode response to this statement was 5, with 30 (57.7%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 12

Coaching on Best Practices

Best Practices Statements	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
34. There is an emphasis on continual improvement at the school.	4.4	.8
35. Professional development for instructional improvement is ongoing.	4.3	.9
36. Teachers differentiate instruction such that all students have access to the same rigorous curriculum.	4.2	.9
37. School leaders review student achievement data regularly with each teacher.	4.2	1.1
38. School leaders hold teachers accountable to help their students reach clearly articulated goals.	4.2	1.0
39. School leaders recognize noteworthy efforts and accomplishments of students, staff, and community.	4.2	.9
40. Teachers learn and use appropriate intervention techniques and skills.	4.2	.9
41. Student intervention needs are met mainly within the regular classroom.	3.9	.9
42. Teachers regularly meet in teams to discuss common curriculum and assessments.	4.2	1.1

Note. $n = 52$.

Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Job Satisfaction

The Job Satisfaction Survey formed the final section of the survey (Spector, 1997). The reliability of the scale yielded a Cronbach's Alpha of .92, displaying a high standard of reliability (Spector, 1997). Respondents were asked to select the one number

that comes closest to reflecting their opinions using a Likert scale of one (*strongest disagreement*) to six (*strongest agreement*). Overall, 55 participants responded. Total job satisfaction could range from 36 to 216. When the data were disaggregated by grade level and years of teaching experience, a maximum score of 198 and a minimum score of 85 were reported.

Second-grade teachers' responses yielded a mean score of 162.5, whereas fourth-grade teachers' responses yielded a mean score of 153.5. When data were disaggregated by years of teaching experience, third-year teachers' responses yielded a mean score of 167.5, while second-year teachers' responses yielded a mean score of 152.3. The overall mean for the 55 respondents was 159.3 with a standard deviation of 23.2. Table 13 contains the disaggregated distribution for the 55 responses.

Table 13

Job Satisfaction – Overall Satisfaction

Characteristic	<i>M</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>SD</i>
Grade Level				
Kindergarten	159	106	198	26.2
First	162.4	132	180	18.3
Second	162.5	144	190	15.6
Third	156.8	85	193	31.0
Fourth	153.5	104	173	24.4
Fifth	161.2	116	191	24.4
Years of Teaching Experience				
1	164.9	132	180	18.1
2	152.3	116	180	19.4
3	167.5	144	191	17.9
4	156.3	85	193	32.5
5	160.5	143	198	17.5
Overall	159.3	85	198	23.2

Note. $n = 55$.

Survey statements 43, 52, 61, and 70 were framed around pay (Spector, 1997). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .59 (Spector, 1997). Overall, 55 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the pay subscale was 3.7 with a standard deviation of 1.5. Table 14 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the pay subscale.

Statement 43: I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do. Overall, nine (16.3%) of responses were *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much*. Of the 52 participants, 25 (45.5%) responded *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *2-Disagree moderately*, with 16 (29.1) respondents choosing this option.

Twelve (21.8%) participants responded *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much* to *Statement 52: Raises are too few and far between.* Of the 55 participants, 18 (32.7%) responded *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *3-Disagree slightly*, chosen by 17 (30.9%) respondents.

Thirteen (23.6%) of the responses to *Statement 61: I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me* were *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much*. A total of 27 (49.1%) of the participants selected *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *1-Disagree very much*, with 17 (30.9%) participants selecting this option.

Eighteen (32.7%) participants responded *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much* to *Statement 70: I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.* Of the 55 participants, 10 (18.2%) selected *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode response was *4-Agree slightly*, with 19 (34.5%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 14*Job Satisfaction – Pay*

Statement	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
43. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	2.9	1.4
52. Raises are too few and far between.	3.8 ^a	1.5
61. I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	4.1 ^a	1.8
70. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	3.8	1.4

Note. $n = 55$. ^a reflects the statement was reverse scored.

Survey statements 44, 53, 62, and 75 were framed around promotion (Spector, 1997). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .73 (Spector, 1997). Overall, 55 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the promotion subscale was 3.6 with a standard deviation of 1.3. Table 15 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the promotion subscale.

Twelve (21.8%) of the responses to *Statement 44: There is really too little chance for promotion on my job* were 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much. Of the 55 participants, 12 (21.8%) responded 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 3-Disagree slightly, with 17 (30.9%) respondents choosing this option.

Fourteen (25.5%) participants responded 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much to *Statement 53: Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted*. Of the 55 participants, nine (16.4%) responded 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 4-Agree slightly, chosen by 21 (38.2%) respondents.

Thirteen (23.6%) of the responses to *Statement 62: People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places* were 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much. Additionally,

13 (23.6%) of the participants selected *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *3-Disagree slightly*, with 15 (27.3%) participants selecting this option.

Thirteen (23.6%) participants responded *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much* to *Statement 75: I am satisfied with my chances for promotion*. Of the 55 participants, seven (12.7%) selected *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *4-Agree slightly*, with 25 (45.5%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 15

Job Satisfaction – Promotion

Question	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
44. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	3.5 ^a	1.2
53. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	3.7	1.4
62. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	3.4	1.4
75. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	3.8	1.2

Note. $n = 55$. ^a reflects the statement was reverse scored.

Survey statements 45, 54, 63, and 72 were framed around supervision (Spector, 1997). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .91 (Spector, 1997). Overall, 55 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the supervision subscale was 5.4 with a standard deviation of .9. Table 16 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the supervision subscale.

Forty-eight (87.3%) of the responses to *Statement 45: My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job* were *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much*. Of the 55

participants, one (1.8%) responded *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *6-Agree very much*, with 31 (56.4%) respondents choosing this option.

No participants responded *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much* to *Statement 54: My supervisor is unfair to me*. Of the 55 participants, 47 (85.5%) responded *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *1-Disagree very much*, chosen by 38 (69.1%) respondents.

Only one (1.8%) of the responses to *Statement 63: My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates* was *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much*. Overall, 43 (78.2%) of the participants selected *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *1-Disagree very much*, with 29 (52.7%) participants selecting this option.

Forty-six (83.6%) participants responded *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much* to *Statement 72: I like my supervisor*. Of the 55 participants, none selected *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *6-Agree very much*, with 34 (61.8%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 16

Job Satisfaction – Supervision

Question	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
45. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	5.4	.9
54. My supervisor is unfair to me.	5.5 ^a	.8
63. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	5.2 ^a	1.0
72. I like my supervisor.	5.5	.8

Note. $n = 55$. ^a reflects the statement was reverse scored.

Survey statements 46, 55, 64, and 71 were framed around fringe benefits (Spector, 1997). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .68 (Spector, 1997). Overall, 55 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the fringe benefits subscale was 4.2 with a standard deviation of 1.3. Table 17 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the fringe benefits subscale.

Eight (14.6%) of the responses to *Statement 46: I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive* were 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much. Of the 55 participants, 26 (47.3%) responded 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 2-Disagree moderately, with 15 (27.3%) respondents choosing this option.

Twenty-one (38.1%) participants responded 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much to *Statement 55: The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer*. Of the 55 participants, five (9.1%) responded 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 4-Agree slightly, chosen by 20 (36.4%) respondents.

Twenty-six (47.2%) of the responses to *Statement 64: The benefit package we have is equitable* were 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much. Overall, four (7.3%) of the participants selected 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 5-Agree moderately, with 19 (34.5%) participants selecting this option.

Seven (12.7%) participants responded 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much to *Statement 71: There are benefits we do not have which we should have*. Of the 55 participants, 25 (45.5%) selected 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 2-Disagree moderately, with 15 (27.3%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 17*Job Satisfaction – Fringe Benefits*

Question	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
46. I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	4.2 ^a	1.4
55. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	4.2	1.2
64. The benefit package we have is equitable.	4.3	1.1
71. There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	4.2 ^a	1.3

Note. $n = 55$. ^a reflects the statement was reverse scored.

Survey statements 47, 56, 65, and 74 were framed around contingent rewards (Spector, 1997). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .70 (Spector, 1997). Overall, 55 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the contingent rewards subscale was 4.4 with a standard deviation of 1.3. Table 18 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the contingent rewards subscale.

Statement 47: When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive. Overall, 30 (54.5%) of responses were 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much. Of the 55 participants, five (9.1%) responded 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 5-Agree moderately, with 16 (29.1%) respondents choosing this option.

Six (10.9%) participants responded 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much to *Statement 56: I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.* Of the 55 participants, 35 (63.6%) responded 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 1-Disagree very much, chosen by 19 (34.5%) respondents.

Two (3.6%) of the responses to *Statement 65: There are few rewards for those who work here* were 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much. A total of 28 (50.9%) of the participants selected 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 2-Disagree moderately, with 21 (38.2%) participants selecting this option.

Seven (12.7%) participants responded 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much to *Statement 74: I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be*. Of the 55 participants, 24 (43.6%) selected 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 3-Disagree slightly, with 18 (32.7%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 18

Job Satisfaction – Contingent Rewards

Question	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
47. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	4.5	1.3
56. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	4.6 ^a	1.5
65. There are few rewards for those who work here.	4.4 ^a	1.1
74. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	4.2 ^a	1.3

Note. $n = 55$. ^a reflects the statement was reverse scored.

Survey statements 48, 57, 66, and 73 were framed around operating conditions (Spector, 1997). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .30 (Spector, 1997). Overall, 55 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the operating conditions subscale was 3.6 with a standard deviation of 1.4. Table 19 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the operating conditions subscale.

Four (7.3%) of the responses to *Statement 48: Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult* were 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much. Of the 55 participants, 30 (54.5%) responded 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 2-Disagree moderately, with 16 (29.1%) respondents choosing this option.

Fourteen (25.5%) participants responded 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much to *Statement 57: My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape*. Of the 55 participants, 22 (40%) responded 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 1-Disagree very much, chosen by 12 (21.8%) respondents.

Eighteen (32.7%) of the responses to *Statement 66: I have too much to do at work* were 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much. Overall, 12 (21.9%) of the participants selected 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 3-Disagree slightly, with 13 (23.6%) participants selecting this option.

Eleven (20%) participants responded 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much in response to *Statement 73: I have too much paperwork*. Of the 55 participants, 16 (29.1%) selected 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 4-Agree slightly, with 18 (32.7%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 19

Job Satisfaction – Operating Conditions

Question	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
48. Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	4.5 ^a	1.3
57. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	3.1	1.6
66. I have too much to do at work.	3.3 ^a	1.4
73. I have too much paperwork.	3.6 ^a	1.4

Note. $n = 55$. ^a reflects the statement was reverse scored.

Survey statements 49, 58, 67, and 76 were framed around coworkers (Spector, 1997). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .84 (Spector, 1997). Overall, 55 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the coworkers subscale was 5.0 with a standard deviation of 1.2. Table 20 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the coworkers subscale.

Forty-six (83.6%) of the responses to *Statement 49: I like the people I work with* were 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much. Of the 55 participants, one (1.8%) responded 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 5-Agree moderately and 6-Agree very much with 23 (41.8%) respondents choosing each option.

Five (9.1%) participants responded 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much in response to *Statement 58: I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with*. Of the 55 participants, 37 (67.2%) responded 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 1-Disagree very much, chosen by 24 (43.6%) respondents.

Forty-six (83.6%) of the responses to *Statement 67: I enjoy my coworkers* were 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much. Overall, only one (1.8%) of the participants selected 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 5-Agree moderately and 6-Agree very much, with 23 (41.8%) participants selecting each option.

Four (7.3%) participants responded 5-Agree moderately to 6-Agree very much to *Statement 76: There is too much bickering and fighting at work*. Of the 55 participants, 37 (67.3%) selected 1-Disagree very much to 2-Disagree moderately. The mode was 1-Disagree very much, with 22 (40%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 20*Job Satisfaction – Coworkers*

Question	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
49. I like the people I work with.	5.2	.9
58. I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	4.7	1.5
67. I enjoy my coworkers.	5.2	.9
76. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	4.8	1.3

Note. $n = 55$. ^a reflects the statement was reverse scored.

Survey statements 50, 59, 69, and 77 were framed around nature of work (Spector, 1997). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .83 (Spector, 1997). Overall, 55 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the nature of work subscale was 5.2 with a standard deviation of .9. Table 21 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the nature of work subscale.

Statement 50: I sometimes feel my job is meaningless. Overall, one (1.8%) response was *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much*. Of the 55 participants, 40 (72.7%) responded *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *1-Disagree very much*, with 26 (47.3%) respondents choosing this option.

Forty-nine (89.1%) participants responded *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much* to *Statement 59: I like doing the things I do at work*. Of the 55 participants, none (0%) responded *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *5-Agree moderately*, chosen by 27 (49.1%) respondents.

Forty-seven (85.4%) of the responses to *Statement 69: I feel a sense of pride in doing my job* were *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much*. Overall, one (1.8%) of the

participants selected *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *6-Agree very much*, with 29 (52.7%) participants selecting this option.

Forty-six (83.6%) participants responded *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much* to *Statement 77: My job is enjoyable*. Of the 55 participants, none (0%) selected *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *5-Agree moderately*, with 24 (43.6%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 21

Job Satisfaction – Nature of Work

Question	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
50. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	5.1 ^a	1.1
59. I like doing the things I do at work.	5.3	.7
69. I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	5.3	.9
77. My job is enjoyable.	5.2	.8

Note. $n = 55$. ^a reflects the statement was reverse scored.

Survey statements 51, 60, 68, and 78 were framed around communications (Spector, 1997). For reliability of the responses to the statements in the subscale, a factor analysis revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .88 (Spector, 1997). Overall, 55 participants responded to these statements. The mean for the communications subscale was 4.7 with a standard deviation of 1.3. Table 22 contains the mean and standard deviation for each statement included in the communications subscale.

Statement 51: Communications seem good within this organization. Overall, 33 (60%) of responses were *5-Agree moderately* to *6-Agree very much*. Of the 55 participants, three (5.5%) responded *1-Disagree very much* to *2-Disagree moderately*. The mode was *5-Agree moderately*, with 21 (38.2%) respondents choosing this option.

Four (7.3%) participants responded 5-*Agree moderately* to 6-*Agree very much* to *Statement 60: The goals of this organization are not clear to me*. Of the 55 participants, 44 (80%) responded 1-*Disagree very much* to 2-*Disagree moderately*. The mode was 1-*Disagree very much*, chosen by 31 (56.4%) respondents.

Six (10.9%) of responses to *Statement 68: I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization* were 5-*Agree moderately* to 6-*Agree very much*. Overall, 31 (56.4%) of the participants selected 1-*Disagree very much* to 2-*Disagree moderately*. The mode was 6-*Agree very much*, with 17 (30.9%) participants selecting this option.

Four (7.3%) participants responded 5-*Agree moderately* to 6-*Agree very much* to *Statement 78: Work assignments are not fully explained*. Of the 55 participants, 37 (67.3%) selected 1-*Disagree very much* to 2-*Disagree moderately*. The mode was 1-*Disagree very much*, with 21 (38.2%) respondents choosing this option.

Table 22

Job Satisfaction – Communications

Question	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
51. Communications seem good within this organization.	4.6	1.2
60. The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	5.2 ^a	1.2
68. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	4.4 ^a	1.5
78. Work assignments are not fully explained.	4.7 ^a	1.4

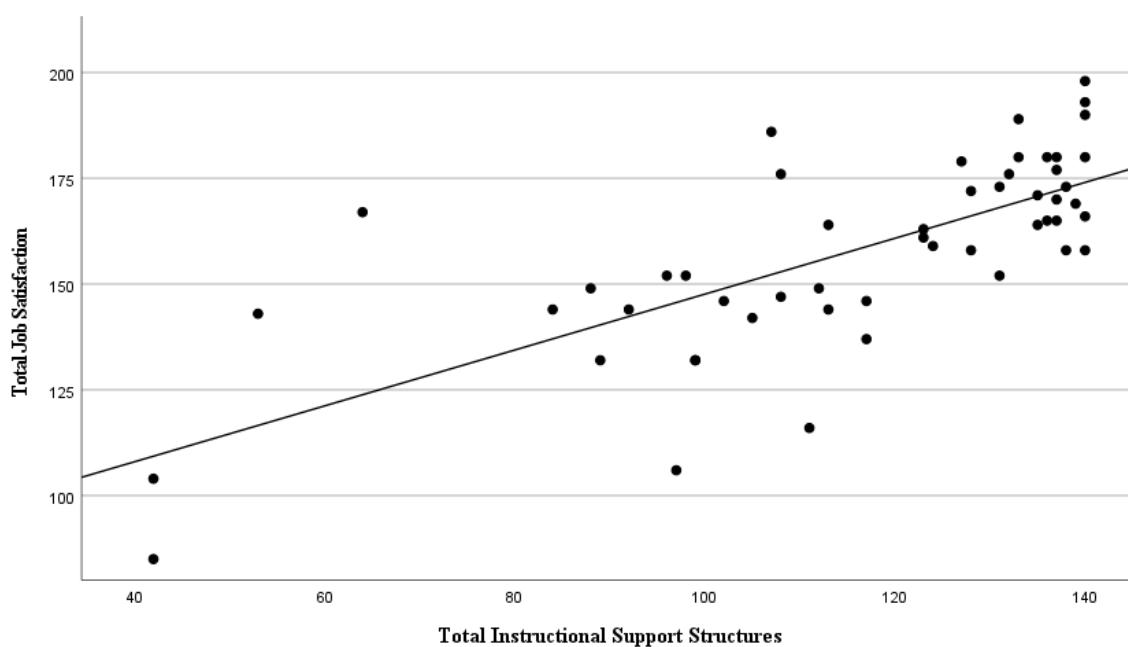
Note. $n = 55$. ^a reflects the statement was reverse scored.

A simple linear regression was calculated to predict job satisfaction based on instructional support. The scatterplot revealed a strong positive linear regression between the variables (see Figure 3). A significant regression equation was found ($F(1, 49) =$

55.87, $p < .001$), with an R^2 of .528. Job satisfaction increased .726 for each point of total instructional support.

Figure 4

Instructional Support Structures as a Predictor of Job Satisfaction



Note. Each dot represents an individual participant.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship between years of teaching experience and teachers' sense of efficacy. A weak positive correlation was found ($r(56) = .026, p=.85$), indicating no statistically significant relationship between the two variables. Table 23 shows the correlations between years of teaching experience and teachers' sense of efficacy.

Table 23*Correlations for Years of Teaching Experience and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy*

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2
1. Years of teaching experience	56	3.2	1.3	-	
2. Teachers' sense of efficacy	56	88.6	9.8	.026	-

A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship among teachers' sense of efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction. A weak positive correlation was found ($r(52) = .361, p < .01$), indicating a statistically significant relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and instructional support. A strong positive correlation was found ($r(52) = .726, p < .01$), indicating a statistically significant relationship between instructional support and job satisfaction. A weak positive correlation was found ($r(52) = .219, p = .11$), indicating no statistically significant relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and job satisfaction. Table 24 displays the correlations among the three variables.

Table 24*Correlations for Teachers' Sense of Efficacy, Instructional Support, and Job Satisfaction*

Variable	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3
1. Teachers' sense of efficacy	56	88.6	9.8	-		
2. Instructional support	52	115.7	25.5	.361**	-	
3. Job satisfaction	55	159.3	23.2	.219	.726**	-

Note. ** $p < .01$.

Summary

Approximately 516 Missouri public school districts were invited to participate in this study by completing the survey instrument. Overall, 203 teachers responded to the survey; however, only 56 surveys were considered valid for the study. In the first section of the survey, participants provided demographic information. The second section of the survey requested participants to use a Likert-type scale to indicate their opinions regarding teacher efficacy with respect to student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management. Data were disaggregated by grade level taught and years of teaching experience. Additionally, data were analyzed by identifying the mean and standard deviation for each statement and the mode for each subscale. A Pearson correlation was calculated to determine the relationship between teachers' sense of efficacy and years of experience.

The third section of the survey was focused on instructional support. Participants were asked to rate coaching competency with relation to amount of coaching on a Likert-type scale. Data were disaggregated by years of teaching experience and grade level taught. The data were also analyzed by identifying the mean and standard deviation for each statement and the mode for each subscale including establishing the coaching relationship, communicating effectively, facilitating learning and performance, and best practices.

In the final section of the survey, participants were directed to use a Likert-type scale to reflect their opinions regarding job satisfaction with respect to pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communications. The data were disaggregated by grade level taught and

years of teaching experience. Data were analyzed by identifying the mean and standard deviation for each statement and the mode for each subscale. A simple linear regression was calculated to predict job satisfaction based on instructional support. A Pearson correlation was calculated to determine the relationship among teachers' sense of efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction.

In Chapter Five, the findings from the study are summarized and evaluated in narrative form to provide an explanation of the effect of instructional support structures on novice teachers' efficacy and job satisfaction. Conclusions are drawn for each of the three research questions based on analysis of the data presented in Chapter Four. Lastly, implications for future practice as well as opportunities for future research are provided based on conclusions drawn from this study.

Chapter Five: Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between instructional support structures and novice teachers' efficacy to determine whether instructional support structures predict job satisfaction. All Missouri public school districts were selected to participate in the study. While there are many instructional support structures school districts can implement, this particular study was focused on collaboration, instructional coaching, job-embedded professional development, mentoring and peer support, and professional learning communities.

The findings of this study were centered around data collected from the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), the Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory (Wise & Hammack, 2011), and the Job Satisfaction Scale (Spector, 1997). Each variable was analyzed using descriptive statistics to summarize and provide a more meaningful interpretation of the data. Next, data were evaluated using inferential statistics to suggest explanations and draw conclusions among the variables to make connections to the three research questions.

Findings

Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Teacher Efficacy

The data from the teacher efficacy section of the survey, collected from the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), was used to answer research questions two and three. Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement for 12 different statements using a nine-point Likert-type scale. Analysis of total teacher efficacy revealed a minimum score of 66 and a maximum score of 108.

When the results were disaggregated by grade level, the analysis revealed fifth-grade teachers had high teacher efficacy with a mean score of 93.5, while fourth-grade teachers had the lowest efficacy with a mean score of 84.4. Disaggregation of results by years of teaching experience revealed second-year teachers had the highest efficacy with a mean score of 92.9. In contrast, first-year teachers had the lowest efficacy with a mean score of 86.0, which aligned with previously documented research (Pfitzer-Eden, 2016; Sciuchetti & Yssel, 2019; Yuksel, 2014).

The Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale is grouped into three subscales including student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Student engagement efficacy was revealed when participants responded to survey statements 4, 5, 6, and 13. The mean for the student engagement subscale was 7.2. The mode response to each statement was *7-Quite a Bit*. Teachers' student engagement efficacy aligned closely with Hattie's (2012) assertion that teachers believe all students can grow and gain success.

Instructional strategies efficacy was revealed when participants responded to survey statements 7, 11, 12, and 14. The mean for the instructional strategies subscale was 7.3. The mode response to each statement was *7-Quite a Bit* and 8. Teachers' instructional strategies efficacy aligned closely with Hattie's (2012) statements in his book, *Visible Learning*, when he determined it is not about *what* students are learning but *how* they are learning. Hattie and Zierer (2017) recommended educators make learning visible by understanding each student's individual needs, having knowledge of effective interventions and instructional strategies, and evaluating those practices to increase student learning.

Classroom management efficacy was revealed when participants responded to survey statements 3, 8, 9, and 10. The mean for the classroom management subscale was 7.6. Walsh et al. (2020) concluded novice teachers are more efficacious in classroom management than student engagement and instructional strategies.

Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Instructional Support

The data from the instructional support section of the survey, formed by the Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory (Wise & Hammack, 2011), was used to answer research questions one and three. Participants were asked to rate coaching competencies on a scale from one to five. Analysis of total instructional support revealed a minimum score of 42 and a maximum score of 140.

When the results were disaggregated by grade level, the analysis revealed second-grade teachers received more instructional support with a mean score of 121.3. Third-grade teachers' responses revealed less instructional support than the other grade levels with a mean score of 110.4. Disaggregation of results by years of teaching experience revealed first- and third-year teachers were offered more support with a mean score of 120.1 and 121.1. In contrast, second-year teachers' data analysis revealed less instructional support overall with a mean score of 110.1. Numerous researchers have concluded novice teachers receive a variety of support structures during their first year of teaching (Bowsher et al., 2018; Ingersoll & Kralik, 2004; Warsame, 2011).

The Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory is grouped into four subscales including competencies for establishing the coaching relationship, communicating effectively, facilitating learning and performance, and best practices (Wise & Hammack, 2011). Coaching competencies for establishing the coaching relationship were revealed

when participants responded to survey statements 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19. The mean for competencies for establishing the coaching relationship was 4.2. The mode response to each statement was 5. Analysis of the data revealed a vast majority of teachers agreed with each statement regarding coaching competencies for establishing the coaching relationship.

Coaching competencies for communicating effectively were revealed when participants responded to survey statements 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, and 25. The mean for communicating effectively was 4.1. The mode response for each statement was 5. Analysis of the data revealed teachers moderately agreed with each statement regarding coaching competencies for communicating effectively.

Facilitating learning and performance coaching competencies were disclosed when participants responded to survey statements 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, and 33. The mean for facilitating learning and performance competencies was 4.0. The mode for each statement was 5. Analysis of data revealed teachers adequately agreed with each statement regarding coaching competencies for facilitating learning and performance. Hattie and Zierer (2017) recommended educators who believe all students can learn and who trust they can be agents of change.

Coaching competencies for best practices were revealed when participants responded to survey statements 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, and 42. The mean for best practices was 4.2. The mode response for most statements was 5. Analysis of data revealed teachers overwhelmingly agreed with each statement regarding coaching competencies for best practices. Support structures provide opportunities for teachers to engage and use data to drive instructional practices; collaborate with peers on the impact

of student learning; believe that all students can grow and gain academic success; build trusting relationships among colleagues, mentors, and school leaders; and focus on learning (Hattie, 2012; Hattie & Zierer, 2017).

Teachers' Beliefs Regarding Job Satisfaction

The data from the job satisfaction section of the survey, formed by the Job Satisfaction Scale (Spector, 1997), were used to answer research questions one and three. Participants were asked to rate their level of agreement using a Likert scale of one (*strongest disagreement*) to six (*strongest agreement*).

Analysis of total job satisfaction revealed a minimum score of 85 and a maximum score of 198. The overall mean was 159.3 with a standard deviation of 23.2. When the results were disaggregated by grade level, the analysis revealed second-grade teachers had high job satisfaction with a mean score of 162.5. Fourth-grade teachers' responses revealed less job satisfaction than the other grade levels with a mean score of 153.5. Disaggregation of results by years of teaching experience revealed first- and third-year teachers had high job satisfaction with mean scores of 164.9 and 167.5. In contrast, second-year teachers' data analysis revealed low job satisfaction overall with a mean score of 152.3.

The Job Satisfaction Scale is grouped into seven subscales including pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communications (Spector, 1997). The pay subscale was revealed when participants responded to survey statements 43, 52, 61, and 70. The mean response for pay was 3.7. Analysis of data revealed a low satisfaction with each statement from the pay subscale.

Statements 44, 53, 62, and 75 revealed data disclosing the promotion subscale. The mean for promotion was 3.6. Analysis of data revealed adequate job satisfaction with each statement from the promotion subscale.

The supervision subscale was revealed when participants responded to survey statements 45, 54, 63, and 72. The mean for supervision was 5.4. Analysis of data disclosed moderate job satisfaction with each statement from the supervisor subscale. Aldridge and Fraser (2016) found supportive and approachable school leaders contribute both directly and indirectly to job satisfaction.

Survey statements 46, 55, 64, and 71 revealed data disclosing the fringe benefits subscale. The mean for fringe benefits was 4.2. Data analysis disclosed adequate job satisfaction with each statement from the fringe benefits subscale.

The contingent rewards subscale was revealed when participants responded to survey statements 47, 56, 65, and 74. The mean for contingent rewards was 4.4. Data analysis of the contingent rewards subscale revealed adequate job satisfaction. Okeke and Mtyuda (2017) concluded teacher recognition is a significant source of teacher job satisfaction.

Survey statements 48, 57, 66, and 73 revealed data disclosing the operating conditions subscale. The mean for operating conditions was 3.6. Data analysis indicated adequate job satisfaction with each statement from the operating conditions subscale. Teacher perceptions of their workloads have a significant association with job satisfaction among both novice and experienced teachers (Toropova et al., 2020).

The coworkers' subscale was revealed when participants responded to survey statements 49, 58, 67, and 76. The mean for coworkers was 5.0. Data analysis of the

coworkers' subscale revealed high job satisfaction. Novice teachers are more satisfied with having supportive coworkers than are experienced teachers (Chaaban & Du, 2017).

Survey statements 50, 59, 69, and 77 revealed data regarding the nature of work subscale. The mean for nature of work was 5.2. Data analysis disclosed high job satisfaction with each statement from the operating conditions subscale.

The communication subscale was revealed when participants responded to survey statements 51, 60, 68, and 78. The mean for communication was 4.7. Data analysis of the communication subscale revealed moderate job satisfaction.

Inferential Statistics

Inferential statistics were used to answer three research questions. The relationship of the variables – teachers' sense of efficacy, instructional support structures, and job satisfaction – relative to each research question was compared. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to determine the relationship between years of teaching experience and teachers' sense of efficacy. A simple linear regression was calculated to investigate the prediction of job satisfaction based on instructional support. The following is a review of the data and findings.

Research Question One

In what way, if any, is instructional support a predictor of positive job satisfaction among novice elementary teachers?

The simple linear regression for instructional support and job satisfaction was calculated to be $R^2 = .528$. Job satisfaction increased .726 for each point of total instructional support.

Research Question Two

What is the relationship between a novice elementary teacher's efficacy and years of teaching experience?

The Pearson correlation coefficient for teacher efficacy and years of teaching experience was $r = .026$. The null hypothesis, indicating there is no statistically significant relationship between a novice elementary teacher's efficacy and years of teaching experience, was not rejected.

Research Question Three

What is the relationship among teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction?

The Pearson correlation coefficient for instructional support structures, teaching efficacy, and job satisfaction was calculated. The data analysis between instructional support structures and job satisfaction yielded $r = .726$, indicating a strong positive correlation. The data analysis between teacher efficacy and instructional support structures yielded $r = .361$, indicating a weak positive correlation. The correlation coefficient for teachers' efficacy and job satisfaction was $r = .219$, signifying a weak positive correlation. The null hypothesis, indicating there is no statistically significant relationship among instructional support structures, teacher efficacy, and job satisfaction, was not rejected due to a weak correlation between teacher efficacy and job satisfaction.

Conclusions

The purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between district-provided instructional support, novice teachers' efficacy, and job satisfaction. All participants in the study worked in Missouri public school districts as kindergarten

through fifth-grade teachers. Based on the findings, several conclusions were drawn in relation to the research questions.

Instructional Support Predicts Job Satisfaction

When comparing job satisfaction data, there was a significant contrast between novice teachers who had high instructional support and those who had low instructional support. The respondents with high instructional support were more likely to have a job satisfaction score of 25 more points than participants with low instructional support. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2009) revealed job satisfaction among novice teachers increases with a supportive environment.

Analysis of the data revealed first-year teachers receive a great deal of instructional support as compared to other educators. While the data indicated a high level of support for first-year teachers, data also indicated high job satisfaction. Evidence from the literature reviewed in Chapter Two supported the idea of first-year teachers receiving a variety of instructional supports during the first year of teaching. This study revealed second-year teachers received limited instructional support and had the lowest job satisfaction of the participants. This finding supports previously documented research in which job satisfaction declines when instructional support is withdrawn (Okeke & Mtyuda, 2017).

Among the respondents who received little to no instructional support within their districts, best practices including professional development and teacher collaboration, communication, and facilitating learning and performance were among the lowest-rated competencies. Previous researchers concluded leadership communication and teacher

collaboration are the strongest predictors of job satisfaction among novice teachers (Duyar et al., 2013; Sims, 2019; Turkoglu et al., 2017).

Teacher Efficacy and Years of Teaching Experience

Teacher efficacy changes over time and does not remain constant (Pfitzer-Eden, 2016; Sciuchetti & Yssel, 2019; Yuksel, 2014). Analysis of the data revealed teachers' efficacy is the highest during the second year of teaching and the lowest during the first year of teaching. Furthermore, teachers in their third and fourth years of teaching reported lower efficacy than teachers in their second and fifth years of teaching. These findings support previous research; teacher efficacy declines during the first year of teaching (Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005) and is the lowest at the end of the first year of teaching (Swan et al., 2011).

When instructional support is withdrawn, teacher efficacy declines (Goldrick, 2016; Kraft et al., 2018; Warsame, 2011; Watson, 2018; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). The findings from this study support this conclusion due to an approximate seven-point decline in teachers' efficacy during the third and fourth years of teaching, as opposed to the first and second years of teaching.

The majority of respondents had high efficacy in classroom management, followed by instructional strategies and student engagement. Blackburn and Robinson (2008) and Walsh et al. (2020) noted similar findings, in which teachers in their first and second years of teaching reported higher levels of teacher efficacy in classroom management and student engagement and lower levels of teacher efficacy in instructional practices.

Although previous researchers have concluded years of experience are a significant predictor of teacher efficacy (Minghui et al., 2018), the findings from this study revealed no statistically significant relationship between teacher efficacy and years of teaching experience. To determine if a relationship exists between teacher efficacy and years of teaching experience, additional research needs to be conducted with more teacher participants in each year of teaching.

Teacher Efficacy, Instructional Support, and Job Satisfaction

Based on the findings from this study, there was no statistically significant relationship among teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction. Additional research needs to be conducted with more teacher participants in the area of teacher efficacy. Although a significant relationship did not exist among all three variables, a slight statistically significant relationship existed between teacher efficacy and instructional support. Woolfolk Hoy and Hoy (2012) supported this finding by stating early instructional support provides a foundation in developing a strong sense of efficacy among teachers. Silver (2014) recommended providing novice teachers with multiple opportunities to engage in peer collaboration and to debrief with school leaders and master teachers about effective instructional practices. Furthermore, providing novice teachers with vicarious experiences is important for the development of teacher efficacy (Bandura, 1994; Mongillo, 2011; Pfitzer-Eden, 2016).

Analysis of the data revealed a statistically significant relationship between instructional support and job satisfaction. Previous researchers supported this conclusion; instructional support, specifically collegial cooperation, professional development, and

leadership support, are some of the most crucial factors of job satisfaction (Malinen & Savolainen, 2016; Sims, 2019; Toropova et al., 2020; Turkoglu et al., 2017).

Implications for Practice

The results of the study will assist school and district administrators aiming to increase job satisfaction among novice elementary teachers. It is important for school districts to understand how teacher efficacy develops and changes throughout the teaching career (Pfitzer-Eden, 2016; Sciuchetti & Yssel, 2019; Yuksel, 2014). Furthermore, a novice teacher's efficacy is highly influenced by the first few years of teaching (Woolfolk Hoy, 2000).

This study revealed novice elementary teachers' job satisfaction was lowest in relation to operating conditions such as paperwork. Swan et al. (2011) found first-year teachers begin their teaching careers with the lowest teacher efficacy among educators due to stress and work challenges. School and district administrators should explore ways to increase mastery experiences and vicarious experiences. Changes in teacher efficacy and job satisfaction could be influenced by encouraging novice teachers to observe and collaborate with mentors, colleagues, or instructional coaches, as well as limiting job tasks during the first couple of years.

Instructional support positively predicted job satisfaction; when instructional support was high, levels of job satisfaction were also high and vice versa. It is likely school districts that offer effective instructional support structures are also perceived as having high job satisfaction among novice elementary teachers. School and district administrators can work on increasing job satisfaction by implementing effective instructional support structures.

Current and previous research has proven a significant association between teacher collaboration and job satisfaction (Goddard et al., 2007; Mostafa & Pal, 2018; Yoo, 2016). School and district leaders should build and foster a school culture of collaboration among colleagues. Job-embedded professional development has also shown to significantly increase teachers' efficacy (Althausser, 2015; Skoretz & Childress, 2013; Yoo, 2016) and job satisfaction (Watson, 2018). It is recommended school districts implement job-embedded professional development, tied to Hattie's (2012) *Visible Learning* mind frames, where teachers meet during the school day to discuss and collaborate about student data and effective instructional practices to increase student academic achievement. Once a school culture of collaboration and trust is established, more instructional support structures can be implemented.

Recommendations for Future Research

Although the findings of this study offered valuable information, there were several gaps identified and further research that could take place. The present study included all Missouri public school districts; however, due to limitations caused by the COVID pandemic, only 48 school districts responded to the survey. This study should be conducted again when all Missouri public school districts are conducting in-person learning as opposed to virtual learning. As education is ever-changing and distance learning is more prevalent throughout Missouri, it would be wise to investigate the relationship among novice elementary teachers' efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction while they are participating in distance learning. Since this study included all Missouri public school districts, a limited sample size of regional school districts could

be investigated to determine the relationship among the variables in rural, urban, and suburban public school districts in Missouri.

Although the survey was comprised of items addressing teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction, the instructional support identifiers were not specific enough to encompass all instructional support structures, such as professional development and collaboration. Specific research on types of instructional support could identify effective support structures and how to increase teacher job satisfaction. With this knowledge, school districts would be able to create and provide specific support to novice teachers.

This study involved novice elementary teachers of kindergarten through fourth grades. More research needs to be conducted to see if similar results would be found in the middle and secondary settings. Middle and secondary schools tend to be more departmentalized and curriculum-focused. School leaders tend to have less overall expertise in each content field, therefore limiting the amount of instructional support given. A possible altering of results could occur in the prediction of instructional support on job satisfaction in middle and secondary settings.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationship among teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction exhibited by novice elementary teachers in Missouri public school districts. The theoretical and conceptual frameworks presented in Chapter One were included to demonstrate the theories and concepts of teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction. Chapter One also included the research questions which guided the study and terms that were used throughout the research.

Finally, an overview of limitations and assumptions associated with this quantitative study was presented.

In Chapter Two, a thorough review of literature and the conceptual framework of teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction were explored in-depth. Teachers' efficacy often changes over time and ceases to remain constant (Pfitzer-Eden, 2016; Sciuchetti & Yssel, 2019; Yuksel, 2014). Instructional support structures increase novice teachers' efficacy (Hattie & Zierer, 2018; Warsame & Valles, 2018; Wyatt, 2014; Zee & Koomen, 2016). However, as instructional support is withdrawn, novice teachers' efficacy tends to decline (Goldrick, 2016; Kraft et al., 2018; Warsame, 2011; Watson, 2018; Woolfolk Hoy & Burke Spero, 2005). Novice teachers' job satisfaction increases as teachers receive instructional support (Malinen & Savolainen, 2016; Sims, 2019; Toropova et al., 2020; Turkoglu et al., 2017).

Chapter Three included a detailed explanation of the methodology utilized for this study. A survey was created using the Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), the Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory (Wise & Hammack, 2011), and the Job Satisfaction Scale (Spector, 1997). The survey was sent to approximately 516 Missouri public school districts. A total of 48 school district superintendents responded that the survey could be forwarded to their K–4 teachers, and 56 novice elementary teachers completed the survey.

Chapter Four included an overview of the data collected and the instruments used for data collection. The results of the statistical analysis of data were organized using tables and graphs. In the first section of the survey, participants provided demographic information. Then, participants were provided a Likert-type scale to indicate their

opinions on specific statements regarding teacher efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction. Data were disaggregated by grade level taught and years of teaching experience.

Additionally, data were analyzed by identifying the mean and standard deviation for each statement and the mode for each subscale. A simple linear regression was calculated to predict job satisfaction based on instructional support. A Pearson correlation was calculated to determine the relationship between teacher efficacy and years of teaching experience, as well as the relationship among teachers' sense of efficacy, instructional support, and job satisfaction.

In Chapter Five, the findings, conclusions, implications for practice, and recommendations for future research were presented. Overall, an analysis of the data suggested school districts should provide instructional support to novice elementary teachers. The findings from the study indicated teachers support school district best practices but are often overwhelmed with operating conditions. Furthermore, based on the findings from this study, instructional support should be provided in the areas of student engagement and classroom management to increase novice elementary teachers' efficacy. By providing specific and intentional instructional support to novice teachers, school districts may increase teachers' efficacy and job satisfaction.

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Appendix A

Recruitment Letter: Superintendent

Lindenwood University

School of Education
209 S. Kingshighway St.
St. Charles, Missouri 63301

Date:

Dear Superintendent,

I am conducting a research study entitled Effect of Instructional Support Structures on Novice Teachers' Efficacy and Job Satisfaction in partial fulfillment of the requirement for a doctoral degree at Lindenwood University. The purpose of this study is to explore the relationship between district-provided instructional support and novice teachers' efficacy to determine whether or not instructional coaching affects job satisfaction among novice elementary teachers. I believe the information gathered through this research may positively contribute to the body of knowledge regarding the relationship between district-provided instructional support and teacher efficacy of novice elementary teachers in their first through fifth years of teaching.

I am writing to ask permission to request kindergarten through fifth-grade teacher participation in my doctoral research project. Participation in the study is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. The school district's name, as well as the participants, will remain anonymous in the dissertation and any future publications of this study.

Please do not hesitate to contact me (ak441@ed.lindenwood.edu) with any questions or concerns about participation in the study. A copy of this letter and your written consent should be retained by you for future reference.

Yours truly,

Ashley Klein
Primary Researcher
Doctoral Candidate
Lindenwood University

Appendix B**Informed Consent****Lindenwood University**

School of Education
209 S. Kingshighway St.
St. Charles, Missouri 63301

I, _____, grant permission to Ashley Klein, the primary researcher, to request kindergarten through fifth-grade teacher participation in my doctoral research project titled *Effect of Instructional Support Structures on Novice Teachers' Efficacy and Job Satisfaction*.

By signing this permission form, I understand that the following safeguards are in place:

1. I may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.
2. The identity of the school district, and the participants, will remain anonymous in the dissertation or any future publications of the study.

I have read the information above, and any questions I have posed have been answered to my satisfaction.

Signature

Date

Appendix C

Letter to Participants

Lindenwood University

School of Education
209 S. Kingshighway St.
St. Charles, Missouri 63301

Date:

To all participating school districts,

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study related to novice teachers' efficacy, instructional coaching support, and job satisfaction among kindergarten through fifth-grade elementary teachers. The survey may be accessed through the *Qualtrics* link shown below. The survey includes background information about the participant and demographic information about the school district.

Please complete the survey within two weeks of receiving this message.

Your participation in the study is completely voluntary. You may choose not to participate in this research study or withdraw your consent at any time. You may choose not to answer any questions that you do not want to answer. The identity of the school district will not be revealed in any publication or presentation that may result from this study. All information will remain in the possession of the researcher in a safe, password-protected location.

You may request the results of this survey upon completion of this project.

If you have any questions, you may contact me at xxx-xxx-xxxx or via email Ak441@ed.lindenwood.edu.

Thank you for your time, effort, and participation.

Sincerely,

Ashley Klein

Appendix D

LINDENWOOD

Survey Research Information Sheet

You are being asked to participate in a survey conducted by Ashley Klein and Dr. Sherry DeVore at Lindenwood University. We are conducting this study to explore the relationship between district-provided instructional support and novice teachers' efficacy to determine whether or not instructional coaching affects job satisfaction among novice elementary teachers. We believe the information gathered through this research may positively contribute to the body of knowledge regarding the relationship between district-provided instructional support and teacher efficacy of novice elementary teachers in their first through fifth years of teaching. It will take about 15 minutes to complete this survey.

Your participation is voluntary. You may choose not to participate or withdraw at any time by simply not completing the survey or closing the browser window.

There are no risks from participating in this project. We will not collect any information that may identify you. There are no direct benefits for you participating in this study.

WHO CAN I CONTACT WITH QUESTIONS?

If you have concerns or complaints about this project, please use the following contact information:

Ashley Klein, ak441@ed.lindenwood.edu

Dr. Sherry DeVore, sdevore@lindenwood.edu

If you have questions about your rights as a participant or concerns about the project and wish to talk to someone outside the research team, you can contact Michael Leary (Director - Institutional Review Board) at 636-949-4730 or mleary@lindenwood.edu.

By clicking the link below, I confirm that I have read this form and decided that I will participate in the project described above. I understand the purpose of the study, what I will be required to do, and the risks involved. I understand that I can discontinue participation at any time by closing the survey browser. My consent also indicates that I am at least 18 years of age.

You can withdraw from this study at any time by simply closing the browser window. Please feel free to print a copy of this information sheet.

Appendix E

Survey Questions

Section 1: Demographics

What grade level do you currently teach?

Kindergarten
First Grade
Second Grade
Third Grade
Fourth Grade
Fifth Grade

How many years have you been a teacher?

1 year
2 years
3 years
4 years
5 years
More than 5 years

Section 2: Teacher Efficacy

On a scale of 1 (*Nothing*) to 9 (*A Great Deal*), please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below.

- How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?
- How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?
- How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well on school work?
- How much can you do to help your students value learning?
- To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?
- How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?
- How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?
- How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?
- How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?
- To what extent can you provide an alternate explanation or example when students are confused?
- How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?

- How well can you implement alternate strategies in your classroom?

Section 3: Instructional Support

Please rate the following coaching competencies in relation to how much using a scale of 1 to 5.

- The coach clarifies expectations, roles, and responsibilities of the coach and client.
- The coach establishes a specific, results-oriented coaching plan.
- The coach fosters a confidential, safe environment during our coaching sessions.
- The coach keeps commitments she/he has made with me.
- The coach holds high expectations for our coaching relationship and for me.
- The coach listens attentively to everything that I say.
- The coach paraphrases and summarizes key points/patterns in a condensed fashion.
- The coach asks open-ended questions which help me clarify my thinking.
- The coach delivers feedback in a supportive, nonjudgmental manner.
- The coach provides feedback that is specific rather than general.
- The coach knows when to push me and under what conditions.
- The coach helps me identify my goals and prioritize them.
- The coach helps me understand and manage the process of change.
- The coach helps me brainstorm possibilities.
- The coach is knowledgeable about best practices that enhance student learning.
- The coach helps me to implement intervention programs that meet student needs.
- The coach helps me articulate a vision of cultural responsiveness.
- The coach helps me focus on the big picture.
- The coach inspires me to believe in new possibilities.
- There is an emphasis on continual improvement at the school.
- Professional development for instructional improvement is ongoing.
- Teachers differentiate instruction such that all students have access to the same rigorous curriculum.
- School leaders review student achievement data regularly with each teacher.
- School leaders hold teachers accountable to help the students reach clearly articulated goals.
- School leaders recognize noteworthy efforts and accomplishments of students, staff, and community.
- Teachers learn and use appropriate intervention techniques and skills.
- Student intervention needs are met mainly within the regular classroom.

- Teachers regularly meet in teams to discuss common curriculum and assessments.

Section 4: Job Satisfaction

Using the scale 1 (*Disagree very much*) to 6 (*Agree very much*), please select the one number for each question that comes closest to reflecting your opinion about it.

- I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
- There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.
- My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.
- I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.
- When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
- Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.
- I like the people I work with.
- I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.
- Communications seem good within this organization.
- Raises are too few and far between.
- Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.
- My supervisor is unfair to me.
- The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.
- I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.
- My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.
- I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.
- I like doing the things I do at work.
- The goals of this organization are not clear to me.
- I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.
- People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.
- My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.
- The benefit package we have is equitable.
- There are few rewards for those who work here.
- I have too much to do at work.
- I enjoy my coworkers.
- I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.
- I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.
- I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.
- There are benefits we do have which we should have.
- I like my supervisor.
- I have too much paperwork.

- I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.
- I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.
- There is too much bickering and fighting at work.
- My job is enjoyable.
- Work assignments are not fully explained.

Appendix F

Survey Permissions

Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (short form) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001)



ANITA WOOLFOLK HOY, Ph.D.

PROFESSOR
PSYCHOLOGICAL STUDIES IN EDUCATION

Dear

You have my permission to use the *Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale* in your research. A copy the scoring instructions can be found at:

<http://u.osu.edu/hoy.17/research/instruments/>

Best wishes in your work,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Anita Woolfolk Hoy".

Anita Woolfolk Hoy, Ph.D.
Professor Emeritus

Leadership Coaching Competencies Inventory (Wise & Hammack, 2011, p. 23)

This instrument is available to anyone wishing to use it. However, we request that the findings of research conducted using the instrument be shared with us for the sole purpose of building a body of evidence and findings around its use.

Job Satisfaction Scale (Spector, 1997)

All of my scales are copyrighted. I allow free use under two conditions.

1. The use is for noncommercial educational or research purposes. This means no one is charging anyone a fee. If you are using any of my scales for consulting purposes, there is a fee.

2. You agree to share results with me. This is how I continue to update the norms and bibliography.

What Results Do I Need?

1. Means per subscale and total score
2. Sample size
3. Brief description of sample, e.g., 220 hospital nurses. I don't need to know the organization name if it is sensitive.
4. Name of country where collected, and if outside of the U.S., the language used. I am especially interested in nonAmerican samples.
5. Standard deviations per subscale and total score (optional)
6. Coefficient alpha per subscale and total score (optional)

I would love to see copies of research reports (thesis, dissertation, conference paper, journal article, etc.) in which you used the JSS. Summaries are fine for long documents (e.g., dissertation), and e-mailed documents are preferred (saves copy and mail costs). Be sure to indicate how you want the work cited in the bibliography.

You can send the material to me via e-mail: pspector [at sign goes here] usf.edu or via regular mail: Paul Spector, Department of Psychology, PCD 4118, University of South Florida, Tampa, FL 33620 USA.

Note: The JSS is a copyrighted scale. It can be used free of charge for noncommercial educational and research purposes, in return for the sharing of results. See the "Sharing of results" page above for instructions. The JSS is copyright © 1994, Paul E. Spector, All rights reserved. All reproductions of the JSS should include this copyright notice.

Appendix G

Institutional Review Board Approval

Sep 23, 2020 7:22 PM CDT

RE:

IRB-21-4: Modification - Effect of Instructional Support Structures on Novice Teachers' Efficacy and Job Satisfaction

Dear Ashley Klein,

The study, Effect of Instructional Support Structures on Novice Teachers' Efficacy and Job Satisfaction, has been Exempt.

Category: Category 1. Research, conducted in established or commonly accepted educational settings, that specifically involves normal educational practices that are not likely to adversely impact students' opportunity to learn required educational content or the assessment of educators who provide instruction. This includes most research on regular and special education instructional strategies, and research on the effectiveness of or the comparison among instructional techniques, curricula, or classroom management methods.

The submission was approved on September 23, 2020.

Here are the findings:

Regulatory Determinations

- This modification substantially increases the recruitment pool. However, the PI will be directly contacting Superintendents directly for authorization and dissemination of the survey instrument. This modification does not affect the previously approved risk determination or the ongoing approvability of the study.

Sincerely,

Lindenwood University (lindenwood) Institutional Review Board

Vita

Ashley Klein has been a public school educator for the past 10 years. She currently serves as an Instructional Coach with Sedalia School District 200. As an Instructional Coach, Ashley seeks to build capacity in kindergarten through fourth-grade teachers through coaching, collaborating, and professional learning. Ashley has created numerous professional development videos on guided reading, math fluency, critical thinking, and lesson pacing that are used throughout several school districts.

Prior to transitioning to an Instructional Coach, Ashley was a kindergarten and first-grade teacher at Sedalia School District 200. As a first-grade teacher, Ashley was the grade-level team leader, and she attended the Building Leadership committee and communicated with school leaders. In 2018, Ashley won the Parkview Elementary Educator of the Year award.

Ashley continues to influence literacy education throughout the community by presiding on the Boonslick Library Board of Directors. She currently leads the Board of Directors, serving as president.

Ashley earned a Bachelor of Science Degree in Early Childhood and Elementary Education from the University of Central Missouri in Warrensburg, Missouri, and a Master of Education Degree in Literacy Education from the University of Central Missouri in Warrensburg, Missouri.