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Teacher Efficacy, Burnout, and Retention: An Examination of Instructional Coaching
and the Implications as Measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory

by

Patricia Jeannette Rodriguez

November 18, 2021

A Dissertation submitted to the Education Faculty of Lindenwood University in

partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

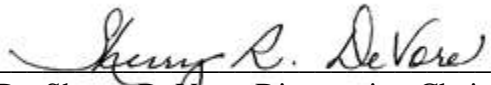
School of Education

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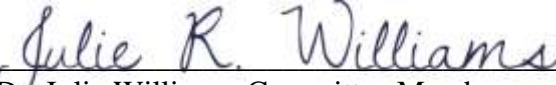
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Declaration of Originality

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.

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Acknowledgements

Throughout this project, I enjoyed the support and guidance of Drs. DeVore, Grover, and Williams. Without the assistance and dedication of the participants in this research, the project could not have come to fruition. Thank you to my family, Bucky, Evelyn, and Meritt Rodriguez, for their support in achieving this goal.

Abstract

Instructional coaching is implemented by school districts for the professional development of staff (Knight, 2007). The purpose of this quantitative study was to gain information regarding the effectiveness of an instructional coaching program to limit teacher burnout and increase teacher retention. Non-tenured teachers from two rural school districts were surveyed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory to determine levels of burnout in teachers who participated in an instructional coaching program versus teachers in a school district that did not offer instructional coaching. Retention data gathered from district administrators were analyzed to determine how instructional coaching impacts teacher retention. A purposive sample was used to select participants based on their nontenure status and placement in a rural district. The findings did not reveal a significant difference between districts based on the availability of an instructional coaching program. These findings are relevant as school districts face an increasingly challenging task to keep teachers in the profession and provide social-emotional support for educators.

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Chapter One: Introduction

Professional development is a key component of growth from pre-service to in-service teachers, and instructional coaching is an important part of professional development due to its personalized nature (Ning et al., 2018). Specifically, Ning et al. (2018) found peer coaching-based learning has a positive effect on “learning participation, learning design skills, and in-practice teaching abilities” (p. 302). The shift from traditional professional development to a more personalized approach is motivating a new generation of teachers (Abrams, 2018). Professional development programs that include an instructional coach for new teachers result in clear benefits (Abrams, 2018).

The shift from traditional to personalized professional development has caused teacher retention to become a focus of schools (Farmer, 2017). Farmer (2017) stated, “On average, one-third of teachers leave the profession within five years. Burnout is blamed for short tenure... 46% of teachers say they feel daily stress on a level that’s shared by doctors and lawyers” (p. 14). The stress can affect performance for quality educators (Farmer, 2017). Hennick (2015) cited lack of support as a leading cause of low teacher retention.

Background of the Study

The increased need for highly qualified teachers is outlined in the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA) (2015), which replaced the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965. The ESSA (2015) charges school districts with hiring instructional coaches to provide teachers with support for developing assessments and designing instruction and recommends school leaders provide useful feedback to inform decision-making about professional development. The Race to the Top Program recommended

providing effective support to teachers through data-informed professional development and coaching as part of a reform plan to develop teachers and leaders (U.S. Department of Education, 2009).

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for this study was based on the theory of adult learning (Knowles et al., 2011) and Knight's (2007) theory of instructional coaching. Knowles et al.'s (2011) theory of adult learning emphasizes the practice of adults using personal experience to create new learning. Cox (2015) applied the theory to instructional coaching and asserted, "Coaching is presented as the dialectic process that integrates experiences, concepts, and observations to facilitate understanding, provide direction, and support action and integration" (p. 30).

Knight (2007) expanded on adult learning theory and emphasized professional development experiences teachers engage in daily. Teachers learn from each other daily through conversations about teaching and learning (Knight, 2007). Instructional coaching can be key to meeting the needs of teachers by facilitating a learning space for practitioners to reflect (Knight, 2007). Knowles et al.'s (2011) theory provides guidance when working with adults to facilitate learning and implement effective practices in the classroom.

Statement of the Problem

Desimone and Pak (2017) recommended further research on how and why coaching models create valuable classroom experiences. This research was designed to determine the effects of an instructional coaching program on teacher retention and efficacy. Teachers who leave the teaching profession attribute the decision to factors,

such as lack of administrative support and isolated working conditions (Hennick, 2015). The question then arises: does instructional coaching help to alleviate these stresses?

Burnout is a problem in many school settings and results in reduced teacher effectiveness (Herman et al., 2018). In the Maslach Burnout Toolkit for Educators, burnout is recognized as having severe consequences including feelings of hopelessness, irritability, impatience, and poor interpersonal relationships (Mindgarden, 2018). Early measurements of the effectiveness of the ESSA (2015) have resulted in inconclusive outcomes (Shelton, 2019). Further research should be conducted to gain a better viewpoint regarding the functionality of the ESSA (Shelton, 2019).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this project was to determine differences in teacher burnout, self-efficacy, and retention dependent upon exposure to and participation in an instructional coaching program. In 2009, the U.S. Department of Education tasked schools with “developing teachers and principals, including by providing relevant coaching, induction support, and/or professional development” (p. 9). In the ESSA (2015), districts are tasked with hiring instructional coaches to assist teachers with developing assessments and improving instruction. The U.S. Department of Education (2009) suggested the importance of creating and maintaining an instructional coaching program.

At the time of this study, School District A was entering the sixth school year of instructional coaching (2020–2021) and had implemented an instructional coaching program for the previous five school years. The study was designed to determine whether differences existed between non-tenured teachers who experienced instructional coaching in School District A versus those who had not experienced instructional coaching in

School District B in terms of teacher burnout, self-efficacy, and retention as determined by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Mindgarden, 2018).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses guided the study:

1. What is the difference in burnout of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as determined by Maslach's Burnout Inventory?

H_{1o}: There is no significant difference in burnout of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as determined by Maslach's Burnout Inventory.

H_{1a}: There is a significant difference in burnout of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as determined by Maslach's Burnout Inventory.

2. What is the difference in self-efficacy of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by Maslach's Burnout Inventory?

H_{2o}: There is no significant difference in self-efficacy of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and

non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by Maslach's Burnout Inventory.

H2_a: There is a significant difference in self-efficacy of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by Maslach's Burnout Inventory.

3. What is the difference in teacher retention of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by retention data for years 2014–2019?

H3_o: There is no significant difference in teacher retention of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by retention data for years 2014–2019.

H3_a: There is a significant difference in teacher retention of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by retention data for years 2014–2019.

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study will provide guidance to school districts that may wish to implement an instructional coaching program. The study will inform districts on the

effects of instructional coaching on retaining teachers and preventing them from burnout while increasing feelings of self-efficacy. Current research suggests teacher retention will increase after introducing a coaching program for new teachers (Abrams, 2018). Through this current study, the practice of instructional coaching was analyzed as in previous research; however, this study was focused on rural education and emphasized application to all non-tenured teachers, not just teachers in their first to third years of teaching (Callahan, 2016).

Delimitations, Limitations, and Assumptions

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

Time Frame

Data were collected in 2020.

Location of the Study

The location of the study was two rural school districts including a total of four elementary schools.

Sample

The majority of participants in the study were female, non-tenured teachers.

Criteria

Only teachers who had not obtained tenure within their school districts were considered for this study.

The following limitations were identified in this study:

Sample Demographics

The sample only represented non-tenured teachers from two rural school districts.

Instrument

The use of Maslach's Burnout Inventory (Mindgarden, 2018) is a limitation due to the possibility of bias if participants become tired or are rushed (Fraenkel et al., 2019).

The following assumptions were accepted:

1. The responses of the participants were offered honestly and willingly.
2. The sample was representative of the general population of educators who were non-tenured and either a participant in an instructional coaching program or not a participant in an instructional coaching program.

Definition of Key Terms

For this study, the following terms were defined:

Burnout

Burnout is the accumulation of response to extended stressors caused by one's job; characteristics of burnout include emotional exhaustion, cynicism (depersonalization), and low levels of self-efficacy (Herman et al., 2018).

Instructional Coach

An instructional coach is an individual who is a full-time, on-site professional developer in schools (Knight, 2007).

Professional Learning Community

Professional learning communities (PLCs) are a form of ongoing professional learning using collaboration as a tool to foster student learning (Owen, 2016).

Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is a person's belief in his or her capacities to mobilize the cognitive and motivational resources necessary to successfully complete tasks (Iorga et al., 2016).

Teacher Retention

Teacher retention is defined as the differentiation between college graduates who teach continuously and those who leave the teaching profession within five years (Chapman & Green, 1986).

Summary

Instructional coaching can be the catalyst that enables school districts to retain teaching staff (Knight, 2007). Instructional coaching provides teachers with a personalized professional development opportunity, which may help diminish stressors by fostering positive relationships in the workplace (Hennick, 2015). In a society that values highly qualified teachers, diminishing teacher burnout is essential to student learning (Herman et al., 2018).

In Chapter Two, a review of relevant literature is presented. The main topics of discussion include instructional coaching, teacher efficacy, teacher retention, teacher burnout prevention, professional learning communities, and professional development. Elements of instructional coaching programs are also explained in the literature review.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

The importance of ensuring teacher efficacy and preventing burnout is cited throughout the literature (Battersby & Verdi, 2015; Cayirdag, 2017; Hennick, 2015; Herman et al., 2018). Aguilar (2018) suggested routes school districts can take to retain teachers, which include support from an instructional coach. In this chapter, the purposes and varied aspects of instructional coaching are presented. The main topics explored include instructional coaching, teacher efficacy, teacher retention, teacher burnout prevention, professional development, professional learning communities, and elements of an instructional coaching program.

Each topic is presented in the literature review to form a basis of understanding. Throughout the review of literature, a lack of research was evident regarding the effects of instructional coaching on teacher retention, burnout, and efficacy in rural school districts. In addition, the effects of instructional coaching on non-tenured teachers was not present in the literature. Elements of effective professional development are supported through the framework of instructional coaching.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework that guided this study's course included Knowles et al.'s (2011) theory regarding the creation of new learning from past experiences in adults and Knight's (2007) theory of instructional coaching models. Through Professional Learning Communities (PLCs), coaching becomes a common catalyst for reflective practices in teachers (Knight, 2007). Instructional coaches can use their observations during a teacher's lesson or interaction with students to delve into how and why things are done to create new learning for the teacher (Knight, 2007). Knight (2007) suggested

instructional coaching is a way to facilitate conversations to guide non-tenured teachers toward mastery.

Within Knowles et al.'s theory, several components link instructional coaching to effective adult learning (Cox, 2015; Knowles et al., 2011). One of Knowles et al.'s (2011) principles is the need for adult learners to have ownership over what they are learning. The ownership factor is part of an instructional coaching program, because feedback is given based on direct observations of teaching practices (Knight, 2007). Another component of Knowles et al.'s (2011) learning theory is the assumption adults have an abundance of prior life and work experience. Instructional coaching helps facilitate an understanding of this assumption through conversations between the coach and coaching participants (Knight, 2007). Coaches can draw on the past experiences of teachers to connect to more effective teaching practices (Knight, 2007).

Instructional Coaching

Gallucci et al. (2010) defined instructional coaching as a non-supervisory role that capitalizes on expertise and relationships to work alongside teachers in their efforts to improve instruction. Instructional coaching is often guided by observations of classroom teachers and debriefing conferences between the practitioner and coach before and after the observation has taken place (Gallucci et al., 2010). Gallucci et al. (2010) cited the importance of instructional coaches having skills in communication and relationship building. Instructional coaches must also understand the differences between andragogy and pedagogy to better serve adults (Franco, 2019). A major difference between adult learning and children's learning is that adults have more life experiences that impact their intrinsic motivation and methods of learning (Franco, 2019). For adult learners, part of

the development process includes reflection to interpret information (Franco, 2019). Without reflection, adult learners may not consider other perspectives or interpretations of the same information; therefore, collaborative discussions involving a peer coach can have a high impact on teacher efficacy (Franco, 2019).

Due to the multifaceted nature of instructional coaching, models are often contextually dependent (Poglinco et al., 2003). The instructional coach's role is to work with teachers and teacher teams to implement practices and systems set forth by the school district (Freeman et al., 2017). The instructional coach's role varies from district to district as expectations also vary (Freeman et al., 2017).

When teacher leaders are granted contracted time to examine unique issues within a school district or building through a different lens from that of an administrator, the effectiveness of instructional coaching becomes evident (Wolpert-Gawron, 2016). In education, an increasing sense of disempowerment and frustration with the teaching profession has impacted the efficacy of teachers in their field (Wall & Palmer, 2015). Instructional coaches work to mitigate those feelings by working to empower teachers in their role as leaders (Wall & Palmer, 2015). Instructional coaches are generally few in each school district, and they can struggle with their identity and role (DeWalt & Mayberry, 2019). Instructional coaches must work to find a community of coaches to derive strategies, discuss challenges, and think through conflicts and misunderstandings (DeWalt & Mayberry, 2019).

Instructional coaching takes many forms across various school districts and classrooms (Connor, 2017). Coaching models have become increasingly present in schools across the United States (Desimone & Pak, 2017). Schools have used

instructional coaches as a mechanism to aid teachers in adapting their instruction to meet the needs of new state standards (Desimone & Pak, 2017). Instructional coaches play vastly different roles in each school district (Knight, 2007). Foundational to all coaching relationships is the existence of trust among colleagues (DeWalt & Mayberry, 2019). One of the roles instructional coaches play is that of mentor (Knight, 2007). Instructional coaches can mentor teachers through understanding a new technology tool or instructional strategy (Knight, 2007). Pre-service teachers also benefit from the close mentorship of practicing teachers (Riley & Sakimura, 2018).

When pre-service teachers move from classroom learning to classroom leadership, significant rates of burnout can occur without adequate support (Rosenberg, 2020). When entering the field of teaching, new teachers must overcome a large learning curve due to gaps in their preparation (Walsh, 2018). The relationships among universities and participating school districts are key to better preparing pre-service teachers for the career (Walsh, 2018).

Districts can work with universities to promote alignment of practice with the preparation programs they host (Riley & Sakimura, 2018). Districts and universities should engage in alignment through vertical and horizontal dimensions (Riley & Sakimura, 2018). Vertical alignment refers to the understanding of a pre-service teacher's development, with specific roles for both the participating teacher and the professors at the university (Riley & Sakimura, 2018). Horizontal alignment refers to common language used by the partnering school and the university to refer to the practices of teaching (Riley & Sakimura, 2018). Riley and Sakimura (2018) identified curriculum,

expectations, data sharing, and improvement ethos as areas of horizontal alignment to eliminate confusion for pre-service teachers across their preparation.

Preparation programs are developing to help pre-service teachers gain experience in the same way medical residents gain experience (Goodwin et al., 2018). Pre-service teachers are immersed in schools alongside experienced teachers over an entire school year before becoming teachers of their own classrooms (Goodwin et al., 2018).

Universities are working with partnering school districts to provide these authentic experiences for pre-service teachers, often allowing pre-service teachers the opportunity to connect with two different schools to learn more about the context and culture of different districts (Goodwin et al., 2018).

In one case study within New York City, the first teachers who participated in these programs during college were in their seventh year at the time of publication; 92% of those teachers remain in teaching, with 86% still in New York schools similar to their residency schools (Goodwin et al., 2018, p. 67). When school districts and universities partner together to form a high-quality student teaching or residency experience, all parties benefit from better-prepared teacher candidates (Walsh, 2018). Instead of working separately, preparation programs and K–12 schools should form partnerships that will build the knowledge and skills novice teachers need to be successful in the classroom (Riley & Sakimura, 2018).

After pre-service teachers complete their programs and certification, they enter into contracts with school districts for their first teaching jobs, and this is where new teacher induction occurs (Totaro & Wise, 2018). Many districts have adopted the practice of new teacher induction programs, because they allow districts to support new teachers

regarding the culture and expectations of the district where they will work (Totaro & Wise, 2018). As new teachers engage in the induction process, they gain the opportunity to build relationships with the teachers and administrative team they will work with in the coming year (Totaro & Wise, 2018).

Another approach to new teacher induction is called *shelter-and-develop* (Rosenberg, 2020). Districts work to *shelter* new teachers by simplifying the regular teaching job through reduction of preps, students, hours teaching, or responsibilities outside the classroom (Rosenberg, 2020). In the aspect of *development*, districts use strategies to support the effective use of teacher time through observations of master teachers, collaborative planning, skills practice, and observations and feedback from mentors (Rosenberg, 2020). Instructional coaches are a resource for the shelter-and-develop model because they work to facilitate collaborative planning, model instruction in the novice teacher's classroom, and help the novice teacher develop his or her own teaching (Rosenberg, 2020).

Coaches use various methods to impact teacher efficacy, including explicit modeling, guided practice, and regular feedback through each coaching session (Glover, 2017). Coaches who work with new teachers can also support pre-service teachers through similar models to meet the needs of pre-practicing teachers (Riley & Sakimura, 2018). Coaching cycles based on student performance data shift the focus from problems with the teacher to student-focused solutions; therefore, teachers can focus on adjusting instruction to meet the needs of their students rather than feeling as though they are inadequate teachers (Glover, 2017). The work of instructional coaches and the administrative team helps to move professional learning from theory into practice as

teachers gain experience and engage in various modalities of professional development (Totaro & Wise, 2018).

Another role instructional coaches take is researching and curating information for teachers (Knight, 2007). Instructional coaches can weed through vast research and resources to curate information for teachers to implement in their classrooms, finding supplemental materials and tools for teaching the curriculum (Knight, 2007).

Instructional coaches can also use their role in schools to become a change agent for public education through collaboration with other instructional coaches (Wolpert-Gawron, 2016).

Professional development is available for instructional coaches; when a consortium of instructional coaches comes together, they can discuss common issues in public education as it relates to their students' particular needs (Wolpert-Gawron, 2016). Instructional coaches are also commonly used for leading professional development (Knight, 2007). The coaches work to synthesize information as it applies to classrooms, teachers, and students within their particular districts (Knight, 2007).

Student achievement is at the center of district planning for professional development (Desimone & Pak, 2017). Recent researchers have indicated forms of professional development, such as workshops and lectures, are not as effective as well-developed coaching models (Connor, 2017). Freeman et al. (2017) cited the following issues with traditional professional development: "short in duration, focused on knowledge acquisition, lacking opportunities for fluency building, inadequate with respect to performance feedback in the natural setting, and missing systemic implementation supports, especially for sustained reports" (p. 30). Coaching is

recommended as an important catalyst for addressing these concerns and limitations (Freeman et al., 2017).

After over 15 years of research on professional development, Knight (2007) found teachers value a more one-to-one approach in which they can engage in listening and empathetic dialogue with peers. The role of the instructional coach is to collaborate with teachers to implement effective, research-based instructional practices and interventions based on a teacher's professional goals for his or her students (Knight, 2007). For professional development to be effective, it must come with job-embedded support, occurring in the context of the learning and providing opportunities for reflection and performance feedback (Snyder et al., 2015).

Teachers and coaches must engage in discussions centered around a mutually agreed-upon belief, need, or concern (Hasbrouck, 2017). They must work collaboratively to achieve the desired effect they have identified through the coaching process (Hasbrouck, 2017). One of the main goals of coaching is to draw on problem-solving strategies and research to improve student outcomes and strengthen the knowledge and skillset of the teacher who participated in the coaching cycles (Hasbrouck, 2017). Coaches must work to build a professional relationship with the teachers who complete coaching cycles (DeWalt & Mayberry, 2019). Coaches must also develop the faith of the teacher in the coach's competence, confidentiality, and professionalism (DeWalt & Mayberry, 2019).

A common misconception is that the instructional coach is meant to fix teachers who are struggling or not fully competent; however, the coach and teacher must have a positive and trusting relationship to be successful (Hasbrouck, 2017). The coach has the

task of embracing a role not better or smarter than other staff, but simply as a model for staff to be united in their vision and commitment to student success at every level (Hasbrouck, 2017). The culture of coaching is important to establish in order to have the greatest impact on student learning (DeWalt & Mayberry, 2019). The coach works as a model for the districts' goals and vision and is responsive to the needs of staff and students alike (DeWalt & Mayberry, 2019).

The development of coaching models can help close achievement gaps (Connor, 2017). Policymakers have placed significant importance on student outcomes and teacher evaluations (Connor, 2017). An important aspect of an effective coaching program is the use of data to make decisions (Freeman et al., 2017). Next, priority must be given to evidence-based practices in the coaching cycle (Freeman et al., 2017). Finally, fidelity to programs through support systems is an integral part of effective coaching programs to achieve student gains (Freeman et al., 2017). Instructional coaches expand a teacher's professional learning community by adding one more expert to discuss student data and effective teacher practices (Knight, 2007). An effective PLC will also benefit students (Battersby & Verdi, 2015).

An instructional coach takes on many roles, including facilitator of teacher reflections on new practices (Knight, 2007). Another role is working closely with teachers to help them create a plan to reach professional goals set forth with the guidance of the instructional coach (Knight, 2007). Instructional coaching is an increasingly popular method for moving teachers toward mastery and supporting their professional growth using a coaching cycle (Reddy et al., 2017). Instructional coaches are also tasked with helping new teachers adapt to the emotional impact of teaching (Brown, 2019).

Instructional coaches must also work to stay up-to-date on research about how beginning teachers develop throughout their careers; coaches work to collect evidence, provide feedback, and guide new teachers through self-reflection (Brown, 2019).

One aspect of coaching in school districts is developing and maintaining the coach-principal relationship (Ippolito & Bean, 2019). Teachers are more likely to respond to the work coaches do if teacher leadership is prioritized by the building principal (Ippolito & Bean, 2019). Trust can be built through a collaborative response by the principal and coach to teacher needs in the classroom (Ippolito & Bean, 2019). Coaches and principals can also work together to honor teacher autonomy, a fundamental part of effective coaching practices (Knight, 2019). Teachers feel motivated and successful when they “(a) are competent at what they do, (b) have a large measure of control over their lives, and (c) are engaged in positive relationships” (Knight, 2019, p. 16).

Building leaders foster teacher autonomy by opening conversations about teacher needs regarding professional learning and what they have determined will impact student learning (Knight, 2019). Teachers need a clear understanding of instructional coaching and what it offers them (Moody, 2019). Teachers should also be given a voice and opportunity for feedback to their coach and principal about the effectiveness of the coaching program (Moody, 2019).

Teachers and coaches work together to collect and analyze data to evaluate the effectiveness of their work together (Hasbrouck, 2017). The cycle includes gathering data, analyzing the data, creating an action plan, setting goals, researching best practices, and implementing what they have found together through coaching cycles (Hasbrouck, 2017). Glover (2017) suggested coaches scaffold teacher learning and progress using

skill-specific assessments and instruction through modeling, lesson planning support, or observational feedback to best understand student performance and growth. As teachers become more adept at using assessments to guide instruction, they are likely to move students toward mastery as they adjust teaching to more effectively impact student learning (Glover, 2017).

To round out the instructional coaching program, many school districts integrate the role of technology integrator into a coach's job description (SASD Next, 2017). The practice capitalizes on a coach's in-depth understanding of the curriculum, and the coach can aid teachers in the quality use of technology in the classroom (SASD Next, 2017). In one school district, 60% of teachers stated their instructional coaches were able to help them feel more comfortable with technology by scaffolding its use, and 80% believed the technology helped to enhance instructional practices (SASD Next, 2017, p. 9). Technical coaching is one variance of instructional coaching programs that aids in modeling, teacher practice, and observations with feedback as it applies to the implementation of instruction (Kurz et al., 2017).

Ultimately, the goal of an instructional coaching program is not to remediate teachers but to collaborate with colleagues (Suarez, 2018). Instructional coaches work alongside teachers to reflect on practices, learn from them, and grow to use more effective strategies (Suarez, 2018). Coaches work against a rushed culture to provide moments for teachers to reflect deeply and find solutions that fit the demographics within the classroom (Wall & Palmer, 2015). Wall and Palmer (2015) discussed the human side of instructional coaching and the empathy fostered through collaboration.

In schools where instructional coaching provides a safe space for failure, teachers develop a sense their practice is important and supported (Wall & Palmer, 2015). A more personalized approach to professional development is the ultimate purpose of an instructional coaching program (Knight, 2007). Coaches and teachers work in conjunction with each other to improve the learning environment based on needs discovered through assessments of student learning and performance (Glover, 2017). Glover (2017) found teachers who participate in coaching cycles including modeling, practice, and ongoing feedback demonstrate greater increases than their control counterparts in terms of their own perceptions of self-efficacy in the classroom.

Teacher Efficacy

Teacher efficacy is defined as a teacher's feeling of confidence in his or her capacity to manage classroom behaviors and deliver effective practices (Herman et al., 2018). Cayirdag (2017) identified two types of efficacy: internal locus of control and external locus of control. Teachers who possess external locus of control base their efficacy on external conditions, such as parents and administrators (Cayirdag, 2017). Teachers whose efficacy is defined under internal locus of control see themselves as the main factor in making a difference (Cayirdag, 2017). Herman et al. (2018) found positive self-efficacy leads to positive student response to classroom management; however, the opposite is true as well. If a teacher lacks self-efficacy, mediocrity and stagnation occur because the teacher lacks confidence or willingness to try new strategies in the classroom (Thornton et al., 2020). If a teacher lacks self-efficacy, student achievement is negatively impacted at an individual or organizational level (Thornton et al., 2020).

According to Yu et al. (2015), teachers who report low levels of self-efficacy demonstrate increased job burnout compared to teachers who report high levels of self-efficacy. Yu et al. (2015) found self-efficacy and job burnout are negative correlated. Work-related pressures must be responded to quickly to avoid severe consequences for teachers including extreme fatigue, loss of enthusiasm, and negative or indifferent attitudes toward students (Yu et al., 2015). Teacher self-efficacy is an important concept, because teachers are tasked with building upon the informal education begun in the home that creates healthy societies (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020). Teachers must have the belief they play an important role in society and in the lives of their students (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020).

Principals play an important role in developing a strong sense of teacher self-efficacy, often serving to communicate the positive influence teachers have in the classroom (Liu & Gumah, 2020). Leadership styles can determine teachers' internal or external locus of control (Liu & Gumah, 2020). Leaders contribute to levels of self-efficacy through their feedback (Liu & Gumah, 2020). Leaders also develop teachers professionally, which increases feelings of self-efficacy (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020). Liu and Gumah (2020) indicated there are two leadership styles that play a role in teacher self-efficacy. The effects of transactional leadership include setting goals, providing expectations, and reward systems (Liu & Gumah, 2020). Transformational leadership leads to effects, such as intrinsic motivation, emotional strength, and commitment (Liu & Gumah, 2020).

Efficacy is a result of factors, such as personality, environment, and behavior (Pierce, 2019). Efficacy is also derived from personal experiences, indirect experiences of

peers, verbal judgments by stakeholders, and emotional readiness (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020). Teachers' personal beliefs in their efficacy and the efficacy of their teams impact how they feel, act, think, and are motivated (Pierce, 2019). Feelings of accomplishment within the framework of teams are referred to as collective teacher efficacy (Thornton et al., 2020). Throughout research, a correlation among teacher self-efficacy, collective teacher efficacy, and impact on lesson planning, instructional practices, and interactions with students is supported (Thornton et al., 2020). Since teachers can derive self-efficacy indirectly from interactions within their teams and through their peers, it is essential to positive self-efficacy for teachers to be surrounded by people who believe in the work they do together (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020). The attitudes of the people teachers work with affect their attitudes toward the job (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020).

Cayirdag (2017) suggested teacher training programs must foster creativity in teaching to have an impact on student creativity and teacher efficacy. Herman et al. (2018) added, "Academic achievement and yearly gains were best predicted by teacher behavior" (p. 91). Instructional coaching may benefit teachers through personalized professional development, because self-efficacy is a "malleable teacher characteristic that can be altered through cognitive restructuring and mastery experiences" (Herman et al., 2018, p. 91).

Self-efficacy can mediate teachers' feelings of burnout, because it is a cognitive motivation mechanism through which teachers develop faith in their ability to teach effectively and maintain their moods (Yu et al., 2015). As teachers are more satisfied with their jobs, the gap between expectations and the gains they experience closes (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020). Principals have the ability to improve teacher self-efficacy

through “effective praise, modeling of the vision, database decision-making and positive relationships with teachers” (Thornton et al., 2020, p. 173).

Teacher efficacy also increases as a result of mindful coping (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Teachers who practice and are supported in their endeavors to actively cope with the stressors of teaching perform to a higher degree than teachers who have not been supported in coping with stress (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Teachers can better access their working cognitive capacity when they reduce stress through mindful coping (Skinner & Beers, 2016). For instructional coaching programs to have the highest degree of impact on teaching practice, the coach must have a specific strategy in place to make effective use of time (Stevenson, 2019). A strategy provides context, goals, and priorities to give everyone a clear idea about how the plan should be implemented to a high rate of success (Stevenson, 2019). When planning for professional development, stakeholders must value contemplation over completion and capability over accountability (Stevenson, 2019).

Teacher self-efficacy has a significant, positive relationship with job satisfaction (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020). As teachers feel more supported, their resilience to the stress of the job increases (Richards et al., 2016). Educational leaders can support teacher self-efficacy through structures and supports within the district (Thornton et al., 2020).

Teachers’ access to technology and information is also an indicator of high self-efficacy (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020). When teachers experience high levels of efficacy, the results include better classroom instruction, high levels of student achievement, and organizational change (Thornton et al., 2020). Through the societal pressures of teaching, it is important to recognize teachers play an essential role in educational systems, a basic institution of society (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020).

Teacher Burnout

Burnout refers to experienced teachers' dissatisfaction with the profession and their departure from it (Santoro, 2018). Burnout occurs in phases that shift through the elements of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and decreased personal accomplishment (Vicente de Vera García & Gabari Gambarte, 2019). A teacher may experience an imbalance between organizational demands and personal resources, developing emotional exhaustion (Vicente de Vera García & Gabari Gambarte, 2019). Teachers are pressured from various levels, such as federal and state governments, districts, school boards, community, and parents (Kafele, 2019).

Often, teachers struggle with maintaining a career in education as pressure mounts to meet the goals of each layer of government (Kafele, 2019). The teacher may experience depersonalization, which creates feelings of disappointment (Vicente de Vera García & Gabari Gambarte, 2019). If a teacher feels unsafe or unsupported in a school system, burnout increases (Berg & Cornell, 2016). Frequently, school leaders deal with similar pressures as teachers and struggle to meet demands to make schools effective in a short period of time (Kafele, 2019).

As leaders and teachers work together to meet the demands and expectations placed on them, it is important to identify the “why” behind the organization and its purpose (Kafele, 2019). School leaders must remain focused on their purpose to empower teachers and help them feel energized to come to work and do the job well (Kafele, 2019). Demoralization of the teaching profession can occur if teachers feel as though mandates of the job are harmful to students and call into question values and motivation

to participate in the profession; school leaders must work to keep demoralization at bay in order to retain teachers (Santoro, 2018).

In the burnout system, teachers feel decreased personal accomplishment, resulting in inefficiency when dealing with different stressors (Vicente de Vera García & Gabari Gambarte, 2019). Teacher burnout is often related to the amount of stress teachers are under due to the extent of work involved, inconsistencies with programs, and relationship-building with peers and students (Aguilar, 2018). Molero Jurado et al. (2019) reported that at least 30% of teachers experienced burnout during the last two decades (p. 1). Aguilar (2018) cited support from schools and organizations as one mediating factor of teacher burnout and recommended boosting support staff, such as coaches, to help build the resilience necessary to temper teacher burnout.

Teacher burnout has a few defining factors: “emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and negative relation to personal accomplishment” (Aguilar, 2018, p. 30). The symptoms of emotional exhaustion remove a teacher from the positive aspects of teaching, such as trying new ways to teach a lesson (Aguilar, 2018). Emotional exhaustion is often rooted in shifting educational policies related to high-stakes testing and accountability (Richards et al., 2016). Burnout is exhibited through physical, emotional, and behavioral symptoms:

Physical symptoms are observed as chronic fatigue, loss of energy, sleep disturbances and shortness of breath. Emotional symptoms are seen as a lack of motivation, decrease in self-esteem, feeling of worthlessness, excessive skepticism, anxiety, restlessness, feeling isolated, quick irritation, dissatisfaction, concentration disorders, helplessness, stress, confusion, and disorder. Behavioral

symptoms include sudden responsiveness and hypersensitivity to criticism, irritability, impatience, rigidity in rules, susceptibility, time spent with other things instead of dealing with work, constant defense and blame, denial, rationalization, and deterioration in relations with the environment. (Bakioğlu & Kiraz, 2019, pp. 521–522)

Individuals who experience burnout also experience a reduction in their overall well-being (Bakioğlu & Kiraz, 2019).

Richards et al. (2016) stated stress related to teaching roles positively predicts burnout in teachers. As teachers feel more stress from external factors, burnout increases (Richards et al., 2016). Teacher wellbeing should be a priority of school leaders (Bakioğlu & Kiraz, 2019). Wellbeing is a subjective assessment of an individual's satisfaction with life as well as the positive and negative emotions they feel (Bakioğlu & Kiraz, 2019). One factor that contributes to the negative emotions of burnout is student misbehavior (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Students often struggle with apathy, absence, and failure to learn; as a result, seemingly minor incidents create negative emotions in teachers and lead to burnout (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Teachers who can mitigate their negative emotions toward these factors are able to enjoy their jobs to a higher degree and are more likely to maintain tenure in the school in which they work (Bakioğlu & Kiraz, 2019).

School-related factors, such as excessive work tasks and high numbers of students in the classroom, and external factors, such as family circumstances and social life, contribute to burnout (Vicente de Vera García & Gabari Gambarte, 2019). To mitigate burnout, teachers use coping mechanisms to deal with work-related stress (Skinner &

Beers, 2016). Coping falls into two categories: adaptive and maladaptive (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Poor or maladaptive coping is a cause and a symptom of stress and burnout in teachers (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Coping is a dynamic process that can make a difference in the physiological, psychological, and behavioral components of teacher development, ultimately determining if the stress a teacher faces will play a positive or negative role (Skinner & Beers, 2016). The ability to cope with stress may improve engagement in teaching and the quality of the teacher's relationships (Skinner & Beers, 2016).

One coping mechanism that helps to diminish burnout is access to social support (Skinner & Beers, 2016). When teachers have access to social support, they report active coping, positive thinking, health, and lower levels of negative emotions and disengagement from students (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Another factor that works to diminish burnout is resilience (Richards et al., 2016). Resilience is defined as “the ability to successfully deal with setbacks and challenges that are typical of the course of ordinary life” (Skinner & Beers, 2016, p. 6).

Resilience is key to reducing burnout, because teachers can better navigate the political landscape of the schools in which they work; they also exhibit less stress derived from their role as teachers (Richards et al., 2016). As teacher resilience increases, a stronger sense of community manifests, and teachers demonstrate increased confidence in their ability to teach (Richards et al., 2016). The opposite is also true; if teachers are predisposed to negative emotions, overestimation of risk, or fatigue and indifference to work, they are less resilient to burnout (Vicente de Vera García & Gabari Gambarte, 2019).

Teaching is often ranked as one of the top professions in terms of stress-related health problems; developing mindfulness is an important skill for all teachers (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Mindfulness is the ability to maintain awareness and attention to the present moment and suspend judgmental attitudes (Guidetti et al., 2019). Resilience works to counteract the impacts of and negative consequences of burnout (Richards et al., 2016). To the benefit of the workplace, resilience is not static; therefore, researchers can explore social, cultural, and contextual factors to develop teacher resiliency (Richards et al., 2016).

As teachers practice mindfulness habitually, the skills become a resource for focus on the present moment to meet student needs (Guidetti et al., 2019). Teachers can become more compassionate, resilient leaders in their classrooms because they become more detached from the ancillary tasks that relate to teaching and focus on the tasks that have a greater impact on student learning (Guidetti et al., 2019). Teachers who are mindful tend to rethink stressful working conditions and reframe them in a way that emphasizes the importance of relationships with students and colleagues (Guidetti et al., 2019).

Richards et al. (2016) cited factors that support teacher resilience. Teacher resilience increases through adequate time to complete tasks, professional development, adequate materials, relationships with colleagues, high expectations for students, and opportunities for shared decision-making (Richards et al., 2016). In workplaces where these factors are seen more often, teachers better meet the challenges of their role and manage burnout (Richards et al., 2016). Mindfulness is another skill teachers can develop to address the stress of the workplace (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Mindfulness is awareness

of and attention on present events viewed with acceptance, compassion, and no judgment (Skinner & Beers, 2016). As mindfulness is practiced, positive modes of coping with stress increase (Skinner & Beers, 2016).

Depersonalization can be mitigated early if district leaders are cognizant and willing to intervene for effective teachers (Benita et al., 2019). School administrators can mitigate burnout in the teaching profession by supporting teachers in their daily tasks (Rankin, 2018). For example, activating community members as volunteers can help teachers by building a sense of purpose for the relationship between community and school (Rankin, 2018). Districts can also help teachers by supporting limits on homework, a practice that has shown no correlation with academic achievement (Rankin, 2018). With a supportive atmosphere for teachers, district leaders can improve rates of burnout (Rankin, 2018).

Teachers must also be autonomously motivated to pursue activities that help them move out of the spectrum of depersonalization (Benita et al., 2019). Mindfulness can bring back into focus the reason teachers began their careers in the first place; it helps to remove negative emotions related to student discipline, motivation, or learning issues (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Mindfulness counteracts the depersonalization aspect of teacher burnout (Skinner & Beers, 2016).

Depersonalization affects teachers due to increased isolation from peers and students (Aguilar, 2018). As depersonalization moves across the spectrum, it can become more extreme, manifesting as a negative and cynical attitude toward students (Skinner & Beers, 2016). When teachers experience depersonalization, students may also become withdrawn and uncooperative (Benita et al., 2019). Teachers may experience lowered

levels of enthusiasm for working with students (Benita et al., 2019). Student misbehavior and teacher depersonalization are a reciprocal process, with teachers feeling a lack of enthusiasm and students responding with interrupting and negative behaviors (Benita et al., 2019).

Teaching is an inherently interpersonal profession, and the quality of relationships with teachers is critical to motivating and engaging students (Benita et al., 2019). If teachers are supported in mindfulness, the negative stigma of the demands of teaching are removed and views are shifted to informative feedback (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Teachers use students' actions to learn more about their own teaching, management, and motivation practices (Skinner & Beers, 2016).

Another result of practiced and supported mindfulness is decreased stress reactivity (Skinner & Beers, 2016). A teacher with decreased reactivity is less easily set off by student behavior and can respond to threatening situations with more calm (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Implications for practice to limit the incidence of depersonalization include inner motivation resources, flexible language, and careful listening in instances of distress (Benita et al., 2019).

Personal accomplishment also diminishes in teachers who experience burnout, and they fail to set goals for themselves and their students (Aguilar, 2018). Teachers in the profession may experience high levels of role stress and burnout but remain teaching; these teachers exhibit less satisfaction in the workplace and do not teach to the same level of quality as teachers with heightened resilience (Richards et al., 2016). Personal accomplishment is developed through programs in a district that promote resiliency and mitigate burnout (Richards et al., 2016).

Molero Jurado et al. (2019) also found a relationship between burnout and teaching efficacy, job satisfaction, and commitment. Stress from the teaching occupation can lead to burnout with feelings of indolence, slackness, and lack of professionalism (Wu, 2020). If stress cannot be mitigated, teachers are at a disadvantage for psychological and physiological conditions (Wu, 2020). Most teachers are under different degrees of occupational stress due to various factors as they relate to the tasks of the job, such as “work intensity, school management, social environment, economic situation, student pressure, career development and family background” (Wu, 2020, p. 314). Wu (2020) also found certain populations of teachers are more likely to experience higher degrees of burnout. For example, female teachers report greater stress than male teachers, and middle-aged teachers experience higher degrees of burnout (Wu, 2020). Occupational stress is directly related to teacher burnout, and mental health may also be related to occupational stress and teacher burnout (Wu, 2020).

Teacher Retention

Teacher retention is a growing problem in the United States (Callahan, 2016). Mayer (2019) indicated 30% to 46% of new teachers leave the profession in the first five years (p. 58). Ingersoll et al. (2018) conducted an analysis of 30 years of data regarding the teaching workforce to determine the makeup of the occupation and identify staffing priorities across the field. Of interest is that K–12 teaching as an occupation has grown over the last 30 years, increasing 65% from the late 1980s (Ingersoll et al., 2018, p. 45).

Ingersoll et al. (2018) determined the modal age range of teachers increased from 41 in 1987–1988 to 45 in 2015–2017 (p. 47). The teaching population has also indicated a third trend of younger people now represented more in teaching; the teaching force has

become less experienced (Ingersoll et al., 2018). Another trend is that the teaching force is becoming more racially and ethnically diverse; between 1987–1988 and 2015–2016, the number of minority teachers increased faster than the number of minority students (Ingersoll et al., 2018, p. 47).

One of the most impactful trends noted by Ingersoll et al. (2018) is the instability of the teaching force. Turnover rates have increased since the early 1990s by 27% (Ingersoll et al., 2018, p. 48). However, teacher turnover is not equally distributed across states and districts; 45% of all teacher turnover in public schools takes place in one-fourth of schools (Ingersoll et al., 2018, p. 48). Schools with a population of high-poverty, high-minority students, and urban or rural schools, are among the highest areas of teacher turnover (Ingersoll et al., 2018). Teachers from rural communities must find a professional learning network to help them improve their own learning due to the lack of resources in the immediate area (Johnston et al., 2018).

Attrition rates in some content areas, such as science, mathematics, and languages, can be particularly high (Mayer, 2019). Leaders within school districts have looked to research to find ways to entice teachers to stay in the profession (Pedota, 2015). One initiative approach in schools is the creation of coaching programs (Abrams, 2018). A new generation of Millennial teachers is shifting the focus of their development from being received by school leaders to participating in a collaborative process (Abrams, 2018). It is important to recognize teachers need to feel a part of the school community to be effective (Richards et al., 2016).

As stakeholders work together to create a collaborative environment, teachers can better cope with the stress they experience in their roles at work (Richards et al., 2016).

Unmanageable workload and low job satisfaction are major factors in determining if a teacher will stay in the profession (Worth, 2020). When teachers have a lot of influence over how they do their jobs, they are more likely to report autonomy positively impacts their feelings of adequacy (Worth, 2020).

A study conducted in one Florida school district revealed teacher retention increased by 22% after introducing a coaching program (New Teacher Center, 2017, p. 3). Experienced teachers typically become highly qualified after three to seven years; however, one-third of teachers leave within five years in the profession (Callahan, 2016, p. 6). Tomlinson (2018) suggested school leaders should reinvigorate teachers through affirmations of their work. For example, Tomlinson (2018) determined certain promises should define schools, such as valuing the work of teachers, developing visionary leaders, promoting positive school climates, improving rates of teacher pay, honoring the learning process over test scores, etc. Tomlinson (2018) referred to the exodus of young teachers as a leaky pipeline and extended the analogy by insisting it must be repaired or the costs of neglect will be high.

As districts intervene for preservice and new teachers, innovation is important to attract and retain teachers (Clark et al., 2018). One way districts are attempting to attract teachers is by expanding preservice experiences with a range of learners (Clark et al., 2018). College students are engaged in classrooms as aspiring educators and work with coordinating teachers to record and track student progress as well as provide one-on-one instruction for young learners (Clark et al., 2018). The school benefits by growing preservice teachers, because experienced staff can support teachers and address students' academic and behavioral issues (Clark et al., 2018). The preservice teachers benefit

because a traditional on-campus college classroom cannot replicate the true experience and discourse among administrators, teachers, and support staff to review data and establish goals for student behaviors and learning (Clark et al., 2018).

Leaders within the district must provide the support needed to encourage longer tenure within the teaching profession (Callahan, 2016). Stress related to teaching roles in the classroom and community has implications for teacher retention as well as teacher effectiveness (Richards et al., 2016). Programs that include elements to support resiliency see reductions in teacher attrition (Richards et al., 2016). Effective teacher preparation requires collaborative relationships and developing those relationships with all stakeholders (Clark et al., 2018). School districts, universities, preservice teachers, and teachers in classrooms benefit from experiences where they collaborate to develop a true experience for incoming teachers (Clark et al., 2018).

When teachers experience increased regulation of their work, workload issues tend to increase as a result (Mayer, 2019). The problem is systemic, and some current initiatives to relieve teacher workload and stress do not account for rethinking aspects of the system that might be causing the poor work conditions (Mayer, 2019). Many districts focus their attention on teacher recruitment and preparation, but a balance of emphasis on teacher retention and support is also needed (Rebora, 2018). Rebora (2018) identified the conflicting statistics that the teaching profession has grown dramatically, yet annual turnover rates outpace the growth. Another element of concern is that this outpacing is occurring in high-needs schools and with minority teachers and novice teachers (Rebora, 2018).

Direct support and induction programs help new teachers cope with the stress of the career, while also positively impacting instructional practices as well as student achievement (Mayer, 2019). Teacher-prep programs could begin preparing teachers by coordinating with partnering school districts so post-secondary schools can get a truer picture of what teachers are expected to do in the profession (Rebora, 2018). An induction program should include basic information about district operations but also authentic experiences of the system's instructional culture (Rebora, 2018).

New teachers need opportunities to identify their learning needs and engage in the school cultural context to develop professional practice (Mayer, 2019). Teacher candidates who participate in a year-long clinical experience in classrooms are more likely to be retained in a given school district after being more prepared for the true work the teaching profession requires (Rebora, 2018). Additional costs come with high levels of attrition, including using scarce funds to recruit and replace teachers (Moore, 2016). Teachers who are inexperienced and unsupported struggle to provide the level of instruction they desire (Moore, 2016).

One strategy that has resulted in large gains in teacher job satisfaction is increasing the amount of influence teachers have over their professional development goals (Worth, 2020). In Springfield Public Schools in Missouri, 31% of new teachers left the district by the end of their first year, each year, from 2000–2003 (Moore, 2016, p. 60). After the creation and launch of their STEP-UP coaching program, Springfield Public Schools experienced only 9% of teachers leaving after their first year (Moore, 2016, p. 62). The coaching program is largely based on the particular professional development needs of the individuals inducted into the school district (Moore, 2016).

Professional Development

Teachers are faced with a unique challenge in the digital age (Shyba, 2019). Teachers reflect the world around them, and as technology enhancements are created, teachers must make a shift from instructivist to constructivist approaches to guide, support, and facilitate student learning (Shyba, 2019). Professional development is an integral part of a modern shift in teaching (Battersby & Verdi, 2015). Change in patterns of behavior takes time, and movement toward proficiency can be unpredictable (Knight, 2021).

Leaders in a given field must understand the progression toward proficiency to recognize where their staff is regarding new learning (Knight, 2021). Many districts have made the move to tap into the internal capacity of teachers to lead professional learning (Niehoff, 2019). Professional learning requires consistent and dedicated time for implementation of new strategies and skills in the teaching profession (Niehoff, 2019). Niehoff (2019) stated, “Time is a challenge, but we always find time for what is important” (p. 20).

Desimone and Pak (2017) provided evidence for effective professional development and five elements necessary for high levels of improvement of teacher practices and student learning:

(a) *content focus*: activities that are focused on subject matter content and how students learn in that content; (b) *active learning*: opportunities for teachers to observe, receive feedback, analyze students work, or make presentations, as opposed to passively listening to lectures; (c) *coherence*: content, goals, and activities that are consistent with the school curriculum and goals, teacher

knowledge and beliefs, the needs of students, and school, district, and state reforms and policies; (d) *sustained duration*: PD activities that are ongoing throughout the school year and include 20 [hours] or more of contact time; and (e) *collective participation*: groups of teachers from the same grade, subject, or school participate in PD activities together to build an interactive learning community. (pp. 4–5)

Instructional coaching is representative of a combination of all five of these elements of effective professional development (Desimone & Pak, 2017).

Knight (2007) suggested professional development needs to be personalized for teachers through programs, such as instructional coaching. For teachers to engage in professional development in a meaningful and efficient way, they must believe they can accomplish the implementation of new learning and that the new learning and its implementation are worth the time and effort (Knight, 2018). By working together in a collaborative team, teachers can share ideas to meet these criteria; the learning become more relevant when a peer has already implemented the learning previously (Knight, 2018).

In school districts, peer-led professional development is a great option to foster talented and creative educators and the support of one another (Niehoff, 2019).

Instructional coaches can share and showcase the strengths of teachers across the district (Niehoff, 2019). Professional learning also acts as a model for classroom instruction (Hanson, 2019). Teachers benefit from having a voice in professional learning decisions to create the buy-in needed for mass change (Hanson, 2019).

A menu of professional development options emphasizes choice for teachers so the learning is relevant to them, whether the professional development opportunities are inside or outside the district (Hanson, 2019). Hanson (2019) emphasized a need for consideration of the whole adult, because adults bring a wealth of experience to their jobs and also need support for their mental and physical health (Hanson, 2019). Instructional coaches meet the various needs of teachers by working closely with teachers in a collaborative partnership (Niehoff, 2019). As teachers and instructional coaches work together, a relationship of understanding must be developed for both parties to benefit (Knight, 2018). Adapting the classroom environment to new learning can feel personal and challenging to teachers because of the nature of teaching (Knight, 2018).

Through the collaborative work of instructional coaches, teachers can work to identify goals relevant to their students' development, creating an applicable approach to professional development content (Schachter et al., 2019). As adult learners, teachers are motivated to learn if they are working on a problem they have identified in their own content or grade level (Schachter et al., 2019). For example, teachers of early childhood students may feel insecure about their skills teaching science or phonological awareness (Schachter et al., 2019). New teachers have a particular need for support to identify the goals they have for their own learning (Lakhwani, 2019). As teachers gain experience, they feel more confident in the ability to perform the roles and tasks assigned to them, such as planning, teaching, and classroom management (Makovec, 2018).

The professional competence of teachers has become a main concern of pedagogy (Shyba, 2019). Professional competence is defined as “the degree of mastery of the profession... manifested in the adequacy of solving professional tasks in the sphere of...

teaching” (Shyba, 2019, p. 105). Professional development opportunities must include content that addresses goals for the students served (Schachter et al., 2019). For example, if students have social-emotional challenges, professional development should be provided to teachers to meet those student needs (Schachter et al., 2019).

Knight (2021) proposed an understanding of the stages of progress toward proficiency for teachers to implement new learning. These stages include “(1) non-use, (2) awareness, (3) mechanical, (4) routine, and (5) proficient” (Knight, 2021, p. 17). In the first stage, non-use, educators are either unable or unwilling to implement the new strategy (Knight, 2021). In the stage of awareness, teachers know about the innovation but are not implementing the new learning due to misunderstanding or fear of the unknown (Knight, 2021). In the mechanical stage, teachers implement the strategy but may feel clumsy or incompetent; results are not immediate, so teachers may not return to the new teaching strategy (Knight, 2021). In the routine stage, educators begin to feel comfortable with aspects of the new strategy or skill but may fall into the cycle of comfort and oversimplify the new learning (Knight, 2021). Finally, in the proficient stage, teachers have developed a deep understanding of the new skill and can fluently modify the strategy to best support student learning (Knight, 2021).

Another important aspect of planning professional development is the format, taking into consideration adult learning and intervention (Schachter et al., 2019). Adult learners need to engage in critical reflection, have time to plan for the use of new ideas, build new skills tied to prior knowledge, gain confidence, and actively interact with the content they are learning (Schachter et al., 2019). One factor of effective professional development is the duration and dosage of strategies (Schachter et al., 2019). Most states

require 10 to 15 hours of professional development per year; however, professional development encompassing 50 hours or more influences teacher and student outcomes to a higher degree (Schachter et al., 2019). Principals play an integral part in ensuring time is allotted for teachers to engage in meaningful professional development (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Principals may have to get creative in how they allot time for teachers to engage in professional development, often providing substitutes, offering courses during a working lunch, or reading professional resources to make the most of time allotments (Gaikhorst et al., 2019).

In the process of learning new content, teachers must engage in a cycle of observation, practice with structured feedback, and self-reflection (Schachter et al., 2019). One way for teachers to observe a new practice is through the modeling of another teacher or an instructional coach (Schachter et al., 2019). Professional development strategies may also be demonstrated through video exemplars to illustrate the teaching strategy in action (Schachter et al., 2019). Teachers should understand why the strategy is high-quality and why the strategy should be implemented with their students (Schachter et al., 2019). The support of peer coaching may be particularly beneficial for new teachers due to being prone to stress and low job satisfaction (Johnson et al., 2017).

Principals have an impact on how internal expertise is exchanged among teachers through the development of workplace conditions (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Teachers must learn from previous experience and learning through active participation in the process of professional development (Svendsen, 2020). Teachers gain confidence when they see strategies work in a real-life classroom setting (Svendsen, 2020). Johnson et al. (2017) found classroom teachers are able to benefit from their interactions with students while

incorporating new strategies to improve student learning. Instructional coaching programs can benefit teachers and students by enhancing classroom quality and supporting the adaptive development of all students (Johnson et al., 2017). Students from economically disadvantaged areas have shown a positive impact in learning due to peer coaching exposure in their classrooms (Johnson et al., 2017).

To continue in the learning process, teachers must practice new content with structured feedback (Schachter et al., 2019). For the most effective professional development outcomes, time must be established for continued practice and modification when teachers return from professional development experiences (Schachter et al., 2019). Feedback is an essential part of this process and is most effective when tied to a set of standards or a framework (Schachter et al., 2019). To facilitate a more knowledgeable staff, professional development should be tied to teacher practices and should be standards-driven (Eisenberg, 2016). Teachers need to plan, implement, and evaluate the practice based on their own inquires and attempts at the new strategy or skill (Svendsen, 2020).

Support between veteran and new teachers must be in place over a long period of time for feedback to be effective, because teachers rely on one another to reach the needs of students within their district (Lakhwani, 2019). A focus on student learning is more effective than a focus on teaching methodology (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Professional development should increase student achievement through improving teacher knowledge and skills (Svendsen, 2020). When feedback techniques are used to help teachers focus on their goals, a positive attitude toward professional learning is maintained (Johnson et al., 2017).

After working through practice and feedback, teachers must be allotted time for self-reflection (Schachter et al., 2019). The practice of self-reflection helps teachers think critically and intentionally about how they teach (Schachter et al., 2019). Self-reflection is an important personality trait of teachers to help define their professional identity and improve practice (Makovec, 2018). Teachers who engage in conversations about their learning are better able to implement the strategies learned (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). To create a culture of learning, principals must recognize the culture and facilitate collaboration and knowledge exchange among teachers, creating a space and time for these discussions (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Instructional coaches must understand the process of instruction, recognize effective practices, assess data, and engage in conversations dependent on circumstance and context (Eisenberg, 2016).

Reflection can be taken for granted in an educational setting, so allotting time for reflection is a key factor of professional development and is critical to the learning process (Svendsen, 2020). When teachers become aware of their practice and employ metacognitive strategies in their teaching, an opening for change is created (Svendsen, 2020). Another strong source for reflection is feedback from students to teachers on their response to teaching within the classroom (Svendsen, 2020).

Through each of the elements of effective professional development, an instructional coach's work is beneficial (Schachter et al., 2019). Peer coaching can be rewarding when teachers coach each other in a skill (Schachter et al., 2019). Schachter et al. (2019) emphasized effective coaching employs an intensive collaborative model to open dialogue about current practice and goals around new strategies or content. Coaching provides teachers with multiple opportunities to be observed, receive feedback,

and reflect on their teaching practice (Schachter et al., 2019). Professional development implemented over an extended time helps teachers to adequately integrate new learning into their repertoire of skills (Brezuleanu & Sirghea, 2020). Gaikhorst et al. (2019) indicated another purpose of working with an instructional coach is developing a meaningful relationship to face challenges and problem-solve. Professional learning requires time to be thoughtful and reflective about practice through vulnerability and trusting relationships (Schachter et al., 2019).

After effective professional development has been planned and implemented, it is important to create and maintain a culture that supports learning and professional development throughout the tenure of a district's staff (Schachter et al., 2019). Teachers must be encouraged to seek out professional learning opportunities that contain meaningful content and effective formats to emphasize the value of professional development for educational reform (Schachter et al., 2019). Professional development must become a part of teachers' everyday experiences, with time and space allotted for teachers to come together and talk about how their own professional learning has progressed in a span of time (Schachter et al., 2019). As teachers develop in their support of one another, they advance skills of reflective questioning to engender curiosity and problem-solving (Schachter et al., 2019). Principals facilitate professional development by fostering and supporting an open work climate where new initiatives are not condemned and colleagues show respect to one another (Gaikhorst et al., 2019).

The culture must be one in which staff can make mistakes without blame in a safe environment for using new strategies taught through professional development (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Gaikhorst et al. (2019) emphasized the importance of feedback

as a cultural condition to support professional learning. As teachers reflect on their own learning and model it for students, the potential for student achievement is increased (Knight, 2018). Teachers' lives, along with the lives of their students, are impacted by the engagement of personalized learning for teachers (Knight, 2018).

Teachers are an integral part of effective professional learning, as are building principals (Schachter et al., 2019). A principal's presence and understanding of new skills or strategies learned from professional development courses adds value to continued education (Schachter et al., 2019). Administrators must understand the goals set forth by teachers and the needs of the students they serve to best plan for professional development of teachers (Schachter et al., 2019). Principals can emphasize the importance of professional learning by focusing the outcomes on student learning and results (Gaikhorst et al., 2019).

Clear and concrete methodology must be in place for professional development to be most effective; the principal enacts these structures by allotting time and support to teachers as they attempt new skills and strategies in their classrooms (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Principals and other instructional leaders can help teachers move through the stages of Knight's (2021) implementation. First, if teachers are resistant to change, a leader should determine why people are not embracing the innovation through a nonjudgmental survey about worries and objections (Knight, 2021). Often teachers are looking for validation of their input from leaders about the efficacy of the change; leaders must honor the valuable feedback educators offer (Knight, 2021).

A lack of teacher involvement will not yield high-quality implementation (Knight, 2021). Adult learners also value proof of the effectiveness of a new, innovative strategy

(Knight, 2021). Knight (2021) proposed leaders must move the focus away from the innovation itself and to student learning and well-being; if educators see the benefits for students, they are more likely to embrace the change (Knight, 2021).

Professional Learning Communities

Professional development is best accessed through collaborative teams engaged in authentic conversations to assess failures and develop self-reflection practices (Battersby & Verdi, 2015). Matherson and Windle (2017) cited the development of communities to collaborate and speak honestly about issues in the teaching profession to improve practice. Teachers' identities are determined by internal and external factors that influence perception of their role as teachers (Makovec, 2018). As teachers grow in their experience, their identities are influenced by the context of experience; teachers who teach students with lower abilities see their role differently than teachers who teach more capable students (Makovec, 2018).

Another important element of successful teacher professional development is the involvement and efficiency of the building principal (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Principals must facilitate a structural and cultural foundation for professional development to be transferable to the classroom (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Professional learning communities can be supported and developed through both shared learning experiences and individualized opportunities for growth including choice in professional development plans (Rodman, 2018).

A blanket approach to professional development does not benefit teachers (Knight, 2007). The work of instructional coaches is content-neutral, which allows teachers to use evidence-based practices and practical instructional conventions in the

content areas (Eisenberg, 2016). Teachers must be able to set goals for their students to apply new information to the study of their teaching (Knight, 2007). Knight's (2007) work was echoed in Desimone and Pak's (2017) work regarding the following elements: teachers must engage in their own specific content, actively learn through application in the classroom, develop coherence through practice, sustain duration through direct work with an instructional coach, and participate and collaborate across a content area or grade level.

In small, rural school districts, finding a collaborative team or partner may prove challenging due to the lack of resources in the area (Johnston et al., 2018). In one program, Northwest Rural Innovation and Student Engagement, teacher participants are grouped into job-alike partnerships across school districts to engage in professional communities and connect students with a variety of others as writers, readers, and mathematicians (Johnston et al., 2018). In this program, teachers are given the time and space to share their learning with others who teach similar content or grade levels even though they may teach hundreds of miles apart (Johnston et al., 2018). Participants collaborate to discuss the problems they face in their individual schools and develop practical solutions (Johnston et al., 2018).

Eisenberg (2016) asserted teams must make time to collectively solve the instructional problems of practice that influence teaching and learning. Coaches must develop a nonthreatening, risk-free environment and use mistakes as a learning experience to improve future instructional practices (Eisenberg, 2016). School districts often expend massive amounts of both financial and human capital on professional learning for their staff, but many of these activities have little impact on classroom

instruction or student achievement (Rodman, 2018). Professional learning is highly personalized for teachers, and identifying the most effective forms is difficult (Rodman, 2018). Teachers can be empowered to play a significant role in their own professional learning experiences (Rodman, 2018). Effective professional learning within a community of teachers includes consideration of the voices of many teachers and offers a variety of choices for personalized learning (Rodman, 2018).

Instructional coaching programs offer professional development through one-on-one collaboration (Desimone & Pak, 2017; Knight, 2007). Coaches work with teachers on lesson-planning strategies, assessment of students, alignment to standards, and feedback (Desimone & Pak, 2017; Knight, 2007). Instructional coaching programs differ from traditional professional development through active learning (Desimone & Pak, 2017; Knight, 2007). Active listening can be employed through coaching activities, such as “observing expert teachers or being observed, followed by interactive feedback and discussion; review student work in the topic areas being covered; and leading discussions” (Desimone & Pak, 2017, p. 6).

Instructional coaches can also coach teams of teachers through the collaborative process (Lockwood, 2018). Instructional coaches can facilitate the learning of a team by establishing collaborative structures, supporting data use, supporting an improvement process, supporting team facilitators, and sharing instructional strategies (Lockwood, 2018). Through the support of a facilitator, teachers can make meaning of the professional learning process and scaffold the experience to gain efficiency in the process (Lockwood, 2018). The work of the instructional coach is to provide an outside perspective to help guide teachers’ thinking to a deeper level of understanding

(Lockwood, 2018). Boyce et al. (2018) found bringing in an outside perspective in the form of another school's staff is also beneficial to guide the inquiry process of professional learning communities.

Boyce et al. (2018) reported that within their district, two schools collaborated by brainstorming topics they needed support with based on classroom observations. Then teachers from School A brought resources from their practice to support School B and vice versa (Boyce et al., 2018). The practice of sharing resources served two purposes: relevance to the curriculum and students and being accomplishable because their peers had already put them into practice (Boyce et al., 2018). In their next session, the teachers reflected on something they were proud of related to instructional practices (Boyce et al., 2018). Teachers from both schools shared their practices and presented them in a template or through a creative presentation (Boyce et al., 2018). This type of professional learning community developed a rich network of in-service teachers, emphasizing and affirming teachers in their practice and developing leaders out of staff members (Boyce et al., 2018).

Elements of effective professional development should include linkages between theory and practice, a hands-on approach to learning, and opportunities for feedback and self-reflection (Crawford et al., 2017). While these principles are difficult to implement in a workshop method of professional development, they can be put into practice through individualized coaching approaches (Crawford et al., 2017). In a professional learning community, interventions to promote knowledge sharing should focus on mitigating teacher burnout (Zhang et al., 2016). Interventions should address work-related factors

rather than focusing on teacher personal characteristics to best promote knowledge sharing (Zhang et al., 2016).

Thurlings and den Brok (2017) found teachers have to enact rather than reflect on professional development to influence student learning. Knowledge sharing among teachers is an effective form of professional development, often structured through professional learning communities (Zhang et al., 2016). Teacher personality is a major indicator of the effectiveness of this approach to professional learning (Zhang et al., 2016). Teachers who are extroverted and agreeable are more likely to engage in knowledge sharing in a professional learning community (Zhang et al., 2016). On the other hand, if teachers are experiencing high degrees of burnout, they are less likely to engage in knowledge sharing in a professional learning community (Zhang et al., 2016). The relationship between work-related stress and overall working conditions impacts teacher burnout and knowledge sharing (Zhang et al., 2016).

Researchers have supported the effectiveness of instructional coaching as a model for effective professional development (Pomerantz & Pierce, 2019). Pomerantz and Pierce (2019) discovered teachers are more likely to incorporate professional learning if they participate in coaching cycles. Coaches work with teachers over an extended period, allowing teachers to practice new skills with support (Brezuleanu & Sirghea, 2020).

The goal of professional development for teachers is to integrate new learning into daily and consistent actions in teaching (Brezuleanu & Sirghea, 2020). Peer coaching and communities of practice offer means for teachers to interact with professional development through collaboration (Thurlings & den Brok, 2017). Teachers should interact with subject matter as it relates to the classroom and to pedagogical content

knowledge; structures should include inquiry-based activities over a long period of time (Thurlings & den Brok, 2017). Thurlings and den Brok (2017) found teachers individually and collectively learn from each other in collaborative structures, but the intensity of the learning and transfer of knowledge can vary dependent on the settings of collaboration and the culture of the school.

Through professional development, teachers are expected to refresh their knowledge of up-to-date pedagogy, maintain knowledge of current issues, prepare for new curriculum, and more (Velikova, 2020). Teachers respond to the demands of professional growth positively with the support of an instructional coach (Pomerantz & Pierce, 2019). Reflection questions include the following: “What did you notice? Did any of the children surprise you? How is this lesson different from the lessons you usually teach? What kind of follow-up would you like to do in regard to this lesson?” (Pomerantz & Pierce, 2019, p. 95). After the coach and teacher discuss these questions, coaches analyze the data across many teachers to determine what additional professional development should be offered to support teachers (Pomerantz & Pierce, 2019). The coach works as each teacher’s thought partner to brainstorm future practice strategies to most effectively impact student learning (Pomerantz & Pierce, 2019).

Innovations in teaching are supported through this work to diversify the tools used in schools (Velikova, 2020). Pedagogical specialists, such as instructional coaches, temper the demands of teaching, which include a wide range of skills and pressures, such as “implementation and use of information computer technologies... prevention of dropping out of school; prevention and reduction of bullying and violence in school; ... communication and work with parents, etc.” (Velikova, 2020, p. 331). The preparation

and stimulation of teachers to apply innovative teaching strategies increases the satisfaction of all participants in the educational process (Velikova, 2020). Makovec (2018) found teachers report various levels of competence on different aspects of teaching; teachers feel most qualified to perform a direct instructive role. Teachers feel less qualified to orchestrate educational activities or publish professional papers based on their experience or expertise in a given area (Makovec, 2018).

A barrier exists between learning about innovative strategies and implementation within an actual classroom (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). The data change when professional development is embedded in the school organization and success and sustainability are maximized (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Gaikhorst et al. (2019) suggested one-time workshops and conferences are less likely to enact change within teaching practice, but many contact hours over a long period reveal different results. A delicate balance exists between hours of support and too much professional development (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Professional development helps teachers grow in their understanding of pedagogy but also reflects a level of voluntary effort to engage in training and feedback (Svendsen, 2020). Teachers must feel as though the professional development offered takes into consideration the context, culture, and needs of their school and classroom for it to be successful (Svendsen, 2020).

Teachers also face the challenge of culturally responsive teaching, as the number of minority students increases along with inequities against those minorities (Lakhwani, 2019). Teachers must be included in the process of determining how to spend their professional development hours (Svendsen, 2020). Without buy-in from teachers, professional development cannot be successful in terms of transfer and application into

the classroom; teachers must also feel successful and confident in the professional development to apply it in the classroom (Svendsen, 2020). Teachers are a major transformative agent within the classroom and require ongoing opportunities to learn new practices relevant to their classroom and culture (Lakhwani, 2019).

Collaboration is essential to teacher success with professional development activities (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Teachers who engage in a collegial relationship that supports collaboration feel supported by their colleagues (Gaikhorst et al., 2019). Gaikhorst et al. (2019) reinforced the work of PLCs when teams have the following characteristics: “collaboration, mutual trust, a common vision, shared norms and values, and feedback” (p. 608). Teachers, through their years of experience, are expected to remain informed concerning current best practices in various domains related to instruction, curriculum, and assessment (Philipsen et al., 2019). Overall, collaboration is essential to professional development; it increases teachers’ knowledge and skill and affects their attitudes and beliefs, leading to improvements in instruction and increases in student learning (Philipsen et al., 2019).

Summary

This chapter served as a review of literature on the link between instructional coaching programs and teacher efficacy, as well as teacher burnout and teacher retention. Also included in this chapter was a review of current research literature on professional learning communities and professional development. In addition, Chapter Two included a review of current research on elements of an instructional coaching program.

In Chapter Three, research design elements are discussed. The methodology used in the study is described. Elements of the study, such as problem and purpose, research

design, population and sample, instrumentation, data collection, data analysis, and ethical considerations are presented. A summary of the chapter is also provided.

Chapter Three: Methodology

The purpose of this research was to determine the effects of an instructional coaching program on teacher burnout, retention, and self-efficacy. Maslach's Burnout Inventory was used to assess teacher perceptions of the instructional coaching program. The participants in the study included non-tenured elementary teachers of kindergarten through fifth grades. Teachers submitted answers to the Maslach's Burnout Inventory to gauge teacher burnout in relation to exposure to an instructional coaching program.

Problem and Purpose Overview

Desimone and Pak (2017) suggested further research on how and why coaching models create valuable classroom experiences. Through this current study, an analysis of the effects of instructional coaching on teacher retention and efficacy was conducted. The effects of an instructional coaching program on teacher retention and efficacy are important to districts considering implementation of coaching in schools (ESSA, 2015). If coaching has a positive impact on teacher retention, a positive trend may occur in the number of instructional coaching programs across the United States.

Instructional coaching expands the realm of PLCs, bringing professional development to teachers on an increasingly regular basis (Battersby & Verdi, 2015). Due to collaboration between teachers and instructional coaches, teachers feel more open to sharing mistakes and failures, which increases success in the classroom (Battersby & Verdi, 2015). Burnout is a problem in many school settings and results in reduced teacher effectiveness (Herman et al., 2018). Burnout is characterized by symptoms, such as exhaustion, poor interpersonal relationships, and inefficacy (Molero Jurado et al., 2019).

As part of the ESSA (2015), districts are tasked with hiring instructional coaches to assist teachers with developing assessments and improving instruction. The U.S. Department of Education (2009) suggested the importance of developing and maintaining an instructional coaching program. The purpose of this project was to explore the effects of a rural school district's instructional coaching program on teacher retention and efficacy.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions and hypotheses guided the study:

1. What is the difference in burnout of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as determined by Maslach's Burnout Inventory?

H₀: There is no significant difference in burnout of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as determined by Maslach's Burnout Inventory.

H_{1a}: There is a significant difference in burnout of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as determined by Maslach's Burnout Inventory.

2. What is the difference in self-efficacy of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured

teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by Maslach's Burnout Inventory?

H2_o: There is no significant difference in self-efficacy of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by Maslach's Burnout Inventory.

H2_a: There is a significant difference in self-efficacy of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by Maslach's Burnout Inventory.

3. What is the difference in teacher retention of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by retention data for years 2014–2019?

H3_o: There is no significant difference in teacher retention of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by retention data for years 2014–2019.

H3_a: There is a significant difference in teacher retention of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an

instructional coaching program as measured by retention data for years 2014–2019.

Research Design

This study was based on a purposive sample of all non-tenured teachers who had exposure to the instructional coaching program in School District A versus non-tenured teachers who had no exposure to an instructional coaching program in School District B. Each district was selected based on purposive sampling due to the rural setting and similar demographics (Fraenkel et al., 2019). Data were collected to reflect each district's teacher retention rates. Teacher perceptions of self-efficacy were elicited using Maslach's Burnout Inventory in both districts, one with an instructional coaching program and one without an instructional coaching program (Mindgarden, 2018). Maslach's Burnout Inventory was an appropriate measure for teacher burnout and self-efficacy because it measures three aspects: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Mindgarden, 2018).

Population and Sample

The population for this study included all public-school teachers in Missouri. At the time of the study, there were 33,112 elementary school classroom teachers in Missouri (Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education [MODESE], 2019). A purposive sample of preschool through fifth-grade, non-tenured teachers within the two rural school districts was determined as appropriate for this study. The two districts were chosen because they were relatively similar in geographical location, student population, and staff population. Approximately 30 teachers participated in this study.

Fraenkel et al. (2019) recommended a minimum of 30 individuals, with 15 in each group, for a causal-comparative study. The use of purposive sampling was employed because participant criteria must be maintained (Fraenkel et al., 2019). The participant criteria were that the teachers were non-tenured and instructors in kindergarten through fifth grade. In the study, 15 teachers were part of the instructional coaching program at School District A, and the remaining 15 teachers were not a part of an instructional coaching program in School District B.

Instrumentation

The authors of Maslach's Burnout Inventory for Educators are Christina Maslach, Susan E. Jackson, and Richard Schwab (Maslach et al., 2018a). The instrument used in the study included 22 items (Maslach et al., 2018b). The 4th edition of the inventory was created in 2018 (Maslach et al., 2018a). The purpose of the inventory is to measure burnout, addressing three scales: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2018a).

Reliability

The Maslach Burnout Inventory has internal reliability and stability over time (Maslach et al., 2018b). Cronbach alpha estimates have been reported for each element of the Inventory: .90 for Emotional Exhaustion, .76 for Depersonalization, and .76 for Personal Accomplishment (Iwanicki & Schwab, as cited in Maslach et al., 2018b, p. 32). Test-retest reliability revealed a lower outcome for the reliability of the Inventory: .60 for Emotional Exhaustion, .54 for Depersonalization, and .57 for Personal Accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2018b, p. 33). The Maslach Burnout Inventory also has measured reliability across cultures, including non-Western cultures (Abu-Hilal & Salameh, 1993).

The stability of Maslach's Burnout Inventory for Educators is also important to note. Because teachers have breaks in time, such as summer break, to recover from feelings of burnout, the stability of the inventory needs to be researched more (Maslach et al., 2018b). Aguayo et al. (2011) found the average alpha coefficients of .88 for Emotional Exhaustion, .71 for Depersonalization, and .78 for Personal Accomplishment (p. 34). Aguayo et al. (2011) also commented that the reliability estimates in the three dimensions of the Maslach Burnout Inventory depend on the characteristics of the sample.

Caution should be used when generalizing the study; however, the reliability estimates were higher in studies undertaken in North America, administered in English, and based upon the Educator Survey form of the inventory (Aguayo et al., 2011). When administering the Maslach Burnout Inventory, researchers must take into account the specific reliability of each dimension of the inventory, taking care to understand the variance that can occur outside of the listed factors of studies in North America, in English, and using the Educator Survey (Aguayo et al., 2011).

In another study, Lemke (2000) categorized the Maslach Burnout Inventory into four factors (Factor I: Emotional Exhaustion, Factor II: Depersonalization, Factor III: Personal Accomplishment related to people, Factor IV: Personal Accomplishment related to the job). Factor I had a high level of reliability ($\alpha = .87$), but the other factors fell below the acceptable level of reliability when using the *Maslach Burnout Inventory – Educator Survey* with college basketball coaches (Lemke, 2000). Therefore, the Educator edition of this survey may not be generalizable to post-secondary educator populations (Lemke, 2000).

Validity

The validity of the Maslach Burnout Inventory was tested against the job conditions associated with burnout and long-term outcomes associated with burnout (Maslach et al., 2018b). Maslach et al. (2018b) provided an example:

A study of full-time elementary ($n = 1203$), intermediate ($n = 410$), and secondary teachers ($n = 1431$), whose working conditions were characterized by role conflict, work overload, classroom climate, and social support from peers were correlated with Emotional Exhaustion, Depersonalization, and reduced Personal Accomplishment as predicted across all three groups. (p. 33)

Student misbehavior also correlates to the categories of burnout presented with the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach et al., 2018b). When students misbehave, educators experience feelings of lower self-efficacy, which leads to decreased feelings of personal accomplishment, greater depersonalization, and increased emotional exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2018b).

Schaufeli et al. (2001) measured the Maslach Burnout Inventory against the Burnout Measure created by Pines and Aronson. Schaufeli et al. (2001) found that except for personal accomplishment, the internal consistencies of the remaining four burnout scales were similar to the samples and symptoms in participants of the survey. Schaufeli et al. (2001) also determined Maslach's Burnout Inventory clearly distinguished burnout from other mental syndromes, such as anxiety and depression, because the symptoms defined by the inventory were work-related.

Long-term outcomes can also be correlated to the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach et al., 2018b). Teachers who experience emotional exhaustion,

depersonalization, and reduced personal accomplishment are negatively affected, and their actions impact the instructor-child relationship as well as the literacy skills of students (Maslach et al., 2018b). The implications of the long-term effects of burnout affect a teacher's personal well-being and the learning experiences of students (Maslach et al., 2018b).

Data Collection

After the Lindenwood Institutional Review Board approved the study (see Appendix A) and superintendents from the school districts gave permission (see Appendix B), the data collection process began. With the assistance of each superintendent, a designated administrator within the district identified the non-tenured teacher participants for the study. After teacher participants were identified, the administrators notified each teacher of his/her selection for the study. A letter of participation (see Appendix C) and a consent form (see Appendix D) were emailed to the teachers. Teachers were given a link to access the Maslach's Burnout Inventory through *Qualtrics*, an online survey management tool. The researcher collected teacher retention data from cooperating district-level administrators. The district-level administrators provided the reasons for leaving a teaching position for teachers who had left the districts since 2014.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data analysis included statistical analysis of each inventory item from Maslach's Burnout Inventory. Data were compared using a paired sample *t*-test. The alpha level was set at $\alpha = 0.05$. The two-tailed *p* values were reported for the study. Responses from participants were analyzed for statistical significance regarding

differences in teacher burnout in a school with an instructional coach and a school without an instructional coach. Retention data were not statistically analyzed because data were not available from one district, and the other district could not provide information on which teachers had left the profession before receiving tenure.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations were accounted for during the study (Fraenkel et al., 2019). Throughout the study, no human subjects were at risk of harm. Measures were taken to ensure the teachers' identities remained anonymous. Some participants in the study were members of the instructional coaching program with the researcher. Individual characteristics were not identifiable, since responses to the inventory were entered anonymously. After completion of the study, all documents will be destroyed after three years. To ensure anonymity, no identifiable characteristics, such as participant name, age, sex, race, or location, were included in the study.

Summary

In Chapter Three, the purpose of the study for examining the effects of an instructional coaching program on teacher burnout, retention, and self-efficacy was presented. The research questions were outlined to guide the study. The research design was articulated as a comparison of non-tenured teachers who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers who had not participated in an instructional coaching program. The population and sample were detailed. Instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis were presented. Finally, ethical considerations were reported through the perspective of maintaining anonymity and confidentiality.

In Chapter Four, the data from Maslach's Burnout Inventory and school retention rates are presented. The data are analyzed and organized based on themes. Figures are included to display and clarify data.

Chapter Four: Analysis of Data

The purpose of this study was to understand what, if any, impact instructional coaching has on teacher efficacy, burnout, and retention. Teachers from two school districts were surveyed using the Maslach Burnout Inventory. District-level administrators from each district were also surveyed for information about teacher retention. In this chapter, an analysis of the data is presented.

Quantitative Data Analysis

In the Maslach Burnout Inventory, developed by Maslach et al. (2018b), statements are provided for teachers to rank how often they experience phenomena. Teachers rank the frequency of their experience from *never* (0) to *every day* (6) (Maslach et al., 2018b). Statements are categorized into three factors associated with burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2018b).

The Maslach Burnout Inventory was used to answer research questions one and two. Only elementary teachers who were non-tenured in their school districts were surveyed. The inventory was managed by *Qualtrics* and consisted of 22 statements. Statistical analysis was used to describe the data. A survey consisting of a single, open-ended question was sent to district-level administrators from each district. The quantitative data compiled from this survey were analyzed to answer research question three.

Emotional Exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion is defined as “the tired and fatigued feeling that develops as emotional energies are drained. When these feelings become chronic, teachers find they

can no longer give of themselves to students as they once could” (Maslach et al., 2018b, p. 30). Survey data are presented in bar graph representations or narrative descriptions.

Survey Item One. I feel emotionally drained from my work.

A total of 12 teachers from School District A responded to the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Of the 12 teachers, 42% ($n = 5$) responded they experienced this statement *every day or a few times a week*, while 42% ($n = 5$) responded *a few times a month or once a week*, and 17% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a year or less or once a month or less*. Analysis of this survey item indicated teachers in School District A experienced a high degree of emotional exhaustion.

Fewer teachers in School District B experienced emotional exhaustion. Of the 10 teachers who responded, 60% ($n = 6$) experienced this statement *a few times a month or once a week*, while 20% ($n = 2$) responded *once a month or less*, and 20% ($n = 2$) responded *once a week or every day*. Teachers in School District B experienced emotional drain less often than teachers in School District A.

Survey Item Two. I feel used up at the end of the workday.

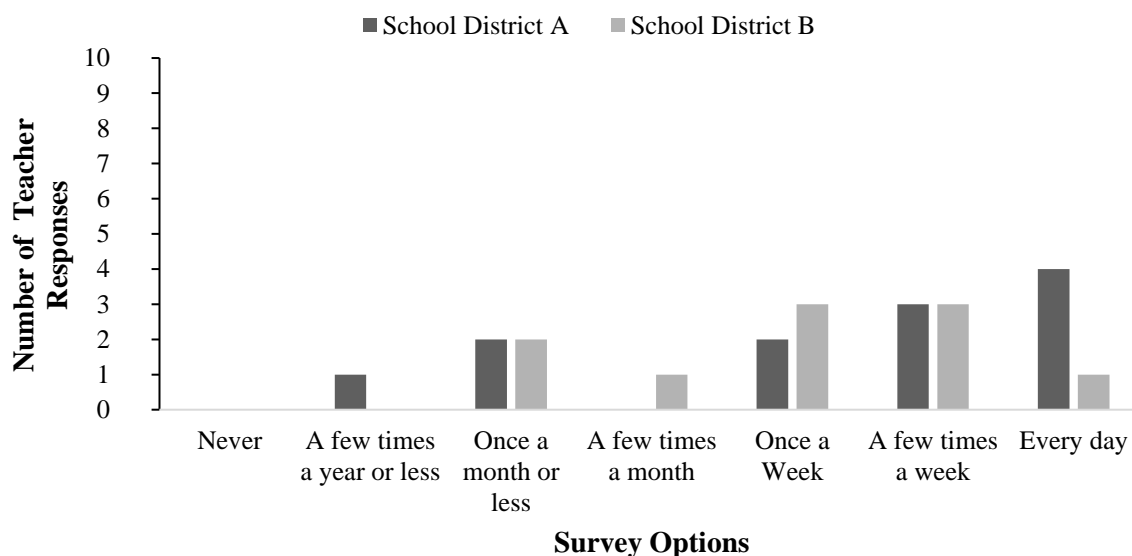
Twelve teachers from School District A responded to item two: 58% ($n = 7$) responded they experienced this statement *every day or a few times a week*, while 25% ($n = 3$) responded *a few times a year or less or once a month or less*, and 17% ($n = 2$) responded *once a week*. Analysis of the responses indicated teachers in School District A felt ‘used up’ at the end of the school day more often than their counterparts in School District B (see Figure 1).

The responses from teachers at School District B were similar but indicated a less frequent feeling of being ‘used up.’ Of the 10 teachers, 60% ($n = 6$) responded they

experienced this statement *once a week* or *a few times a week*, while 30% ($n = 3$) responded *once a month or less* or *a few times a month*, and 10% ($n = 1$) responded *every day*. The majority of teachers in School District B felt ‘used up’ once a week or a few times a week in comparison to the majority in School District A.

Figure 1

Responses from Teachers to the Prompt: I Feel Used Up at the End of the Workday



Survey Item Three. I feel fatigued when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job.

Teachers in School District A responded with the following results: 42% ($n = 5$) experienced this statement *a few times a month* or *once a week*, while 33% ($n = 4$) responded *a few times a week*, and 25% ($n = 3$) responded *never* or *a few times a year or less*. Teachers in School District A experienced emotional exhaustion more frequently than teachers from School District B.

Many of the teachers from School District B indicated they experienced emotional exhaustion infrequently. Of the 10 teachers, 60% ($n = 6$) experienced this statement *a few times a year or less* or *once a month or less*, while 20% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a month* or *once a week*, and 20% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a week*. The frequency of responses indicated lower emotional exhaustion in relation to burnout for teachers in School District B.

Survey Item Six. Working with people all day is really a strain for me.

Teachers in School District A responded to item six of the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Of the 12 teachers who participated, 50% ($n = 6$) responded they *never* or *a few times a year or less* experienced this statement, while 42% ($n = 5$) responded *once a month or less* or *a few times a month*, and 8% ($n = 1$) responded *a few times a week*. The majority of teachers in School District A responded they never felt strain from working with people all day.

Teachers in School District B reported a higher frequency of emotional exhaustion from working with people all day when compared to teachers in School District A. Of the 10 teachers at School District B, 60% ($n = 6$) responded they experienced strain from working with people all day *a few times a year or less* or *once a month or less*, and 40% ($n = 4$) responded *never*.

Survey Item Eight. I feel burned out from my work.

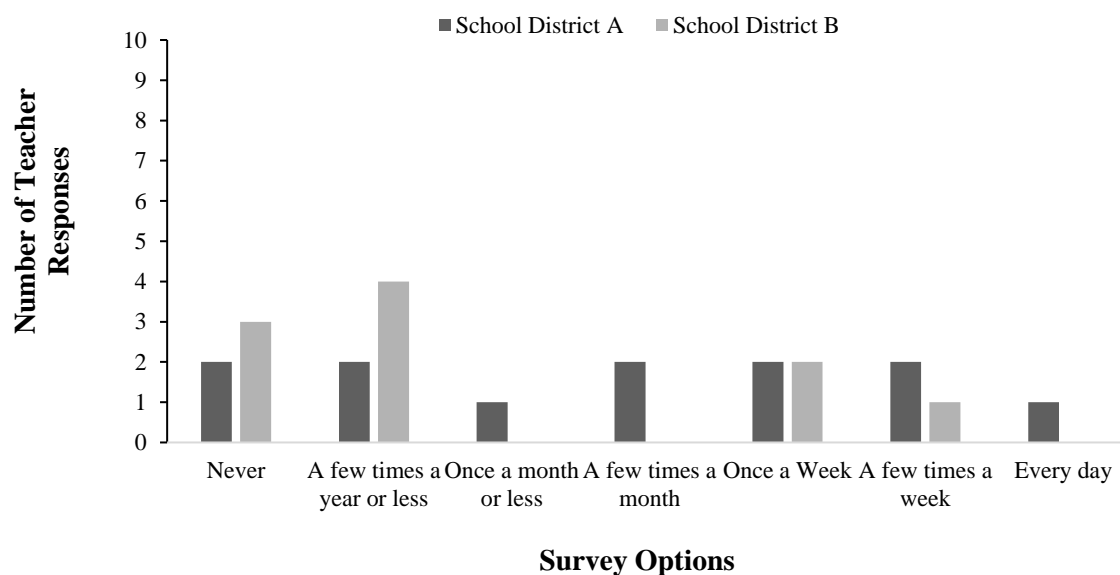
Teachers from School District A responded to item eight. Of the 12 teachers, 42% ($n = 5$) responded they experienced this statement *never* to *once a month or less*, while 33% ($n = 4$) responded *a few times a month* or *once a week*, and 25% ($n = 3$) responded *a*

few times a week or *every day*. On item eight, more teachers in School District A indicated they felt burned out from their work *a few times a week* or *every day*.

The responses from teachers at School District B were similar, but fewer experienced burnout. Of the 10 teachers who answered, 70% ($n = 7$) responded they *never* experienced this statement, or they experienced it *a few times a year or less*, and 30% ($n = 3$) responded *once a week* or *a few times a week*. Teachers in School District B reported a lower frequency of burnout than teachers in School District A.

Figure 2

Responses from Teachers to the Prompt: I Feel Burned Out from My Work



Survey Item 13. I feel frustrated by my job.

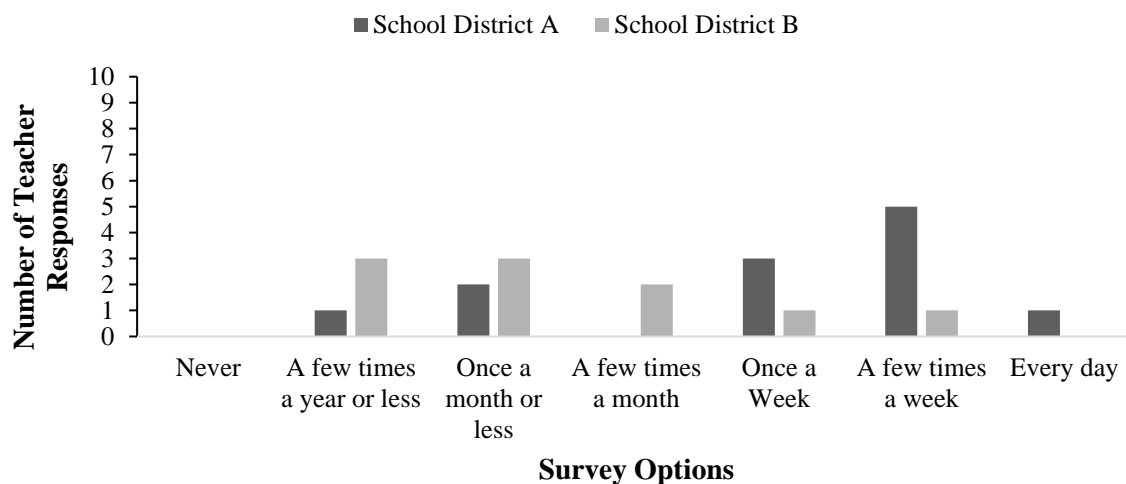
Survey item 13 is another indicator of emotional exhaustion. In School District A, 12 teachers gave feedback regarding the frequency they feel frustrated with their job. Of

the 12 teachers, 50% ($n = 6$) responded they experienced this statement *a few times a week* or *every day*, while 25% ($n = 3$) responded *once a week*, and 25% ($n = 3$) responded *a few times a year or less* or *once a month or less*.

In School District B, the greatest number of teachers experienced frustration with their job either *a few times a year or less* or *once a month or less*. Of the 10 teachers, 60% ($n = 6$) responded they experienced this statement *a few times a year or less* or *once a month or less*, while 20% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a month*, and 20% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a week* or *every day*. In School District A, the greatest number of teachers experienced frustration with their job *a few times a week*.

Figure 3

Responses from Teachers to the Prompt: I Feel Frustrated by My Job



Survey Item 14. I feel I'm working too hard on my job.

In School District A, 12 teachers responded to item 14. Of the 12 teachers, 42% ($n = 5$) responded they experienced this statement *a few times a week* or *every day*, while

33% ($n = 4$) responded *a few times a month* or *once a week*, and 25% ($n = 3$) responded *never* or *once a month or less*. The greatest frequency of teachers answered they experienced this statement *a few times a week* or *every day*.

The responses from teachers at School District B were similar. Of the 10 teachers, 50% ($n = 5$) responded they experienced this statement *once a month or less* or *a few times a month*, while 30% ($n = 3$) responded *a few times a year or less* or *never*, and 20% ($n = 2$) responded *once a week* or *a few times a week*. The teachers in both districts reported they were working too hard at their jobs.

Survey Item 16. Working with people directly puts too much stress on me.

Teachers in School District A indicated a higher frequency of feeling like working with people causes too much stress. Of the 12 teachers who completed the survey, 50% ($n = 6$) responded they experienced this statement *never* or *a few times a year or less*, and 50% ($n = 6$) responded *once a month or less* or *a few times a month*.

The responses from teachers at School District B revealed a lower frequency. Of the 10 teachers, 50% ($n = 5$) responded they *never* experienced this statement, while 40% ($n = 4$) responded *a few times a year or less* or *once a month or less*, and 10% ($n = 1$) responded *a few times a week*. In School District B, most teachers who responded to the survey reported they never felt like working with others caused too much stress.

Survey Item 20. I feel like I'm at the end of my rope.

Most teachers in School District A responded they felt at the end of their rope up to *a few times a month*. Of the 12 teachers, 42% ($n = 5$) responded they experienced this statement *never* or *a few times a year or less*, while 42% ($n = 5$) responded *once a month or less* or *a few times a month*, and 8% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a week* or *every*

day. A couple of teachers mentioned they felt at the end of their rope either *a few times a week* or *every day*, a contrast to School District B.

Teachers in School District B indicated a much lower frequency of occurrence to this statement. Of the 10 teachers, 60% ($n = 6$) responded they experienced this statement *never* or *a few times a year or less*, and 40% ($n = 4$) responded *once or month or less* or *a few times a month*. There were no teachers who indicated they felt at the end of their rope more than *a few times a month*.

Analysis of Emotional Exhaustion. After an analysis of the data, the *t*-test yielded a *p*-value of 0.1 (0.0997), which is greater than 0.05. There was not a significant difference between School District A and School District B in their responses to survey items regarding emotional exhaustion. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

Depersonalization

Depersonalization measures “an unfeeling and impersonal response toward students. Educators who no longer have positive feelings about their students are experiencing the second component of teacher burnout” (Maslach et al., 2018b, p. 31). The following items are indicators of depersonalization as it relates to burnout. Survey data are presented in narrative and bar graph representations.

Survey Item Five. I feel I treat some students as if they were impersonal objects.

Of the 12 teachers who responded from School District A, 67% ($n = 8$) *never* experienced this statement, while 17% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a year or less*, and 17% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a month* or *once a week*. In comparison to School District B, two teachers reported a higher frequency of treating students as impersonal objects.

The responses from teachers at School District B showed a tendency of feeling this statement happened with less frequency than School District A. Of the 10 teachers, 80% ($n = 8$) responded they *never* experienced this statement, and 20% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a year or less* or *once a month or less*. No teachers indicated they had impersonal feelings toward students more than *once a month or less*.

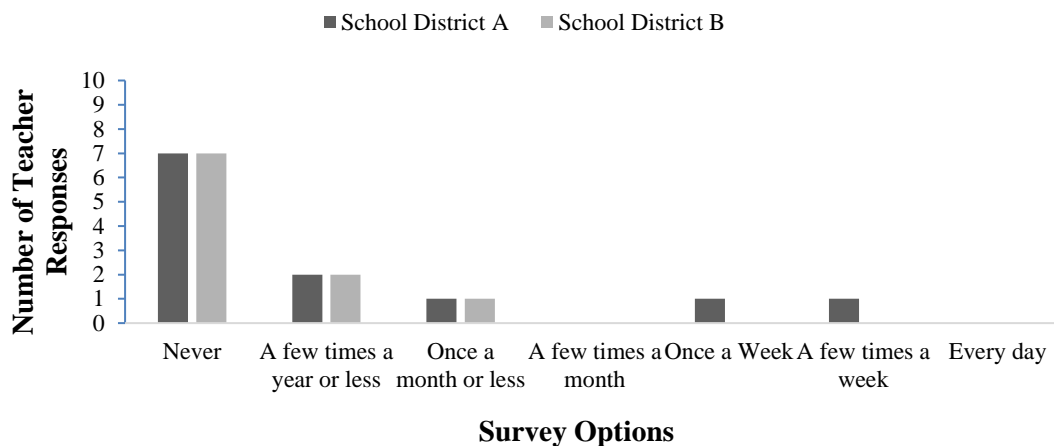
Survey Item 10. I've become more callous toward people since I took this job.

Teachers in School District A responded to this item with a higher frequency than teachers in School District B. Of the 12 teachers, 83% ($n = 10$) responded they experienced this statement *never* to *once a month or less*, and 17% ($n = 2$) responded *once a week* or *a few times a week*. Two teachers reported feeling callous toward people very often since becoming a teacher.

Again, the results show much less frequency of this in School District B. Of the 10 teachers, 70% ($n = 7$) responded they *never* experienced this statement, and 30% ($n = 3$) responded *a few times a year or less* or *once a month or less*. No teachers indicated they felt more callous toward people more than *once a month or less*.

Figure 4

Responses from Teachers to the Prompt: I've Become More Callous Toward People Since I Took This Job



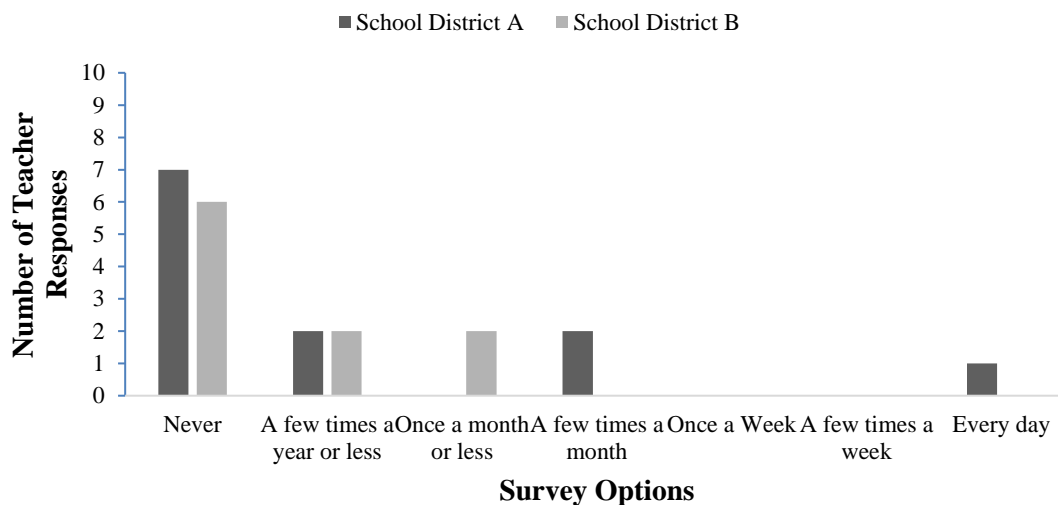
Survey Item 11. I worry that this job is hardening me emotionally.

Another indicator of depersonalization is a feeling of being hardened emotionally due to the job. Teachers in School District A responded as follows: 75% ($n = 9$) responded they experienced this statement a *never* or *a few times a year or less*, while 17% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a month*, and 8% ($n = 1$) responded *every day*.

School District B responses showed the highest frequency at no more than *once a month or less*. Of the 10 teachers who participated, 60% ($n = 6$) responded they *never* experienced this statement, and 40% ($n = 4$) responded *a few times a year or less* or *once a month or less*. Teachers in School District B reported a lower frequency of feeling as though the job was hardening them emotionally.

Figure 5

Responses from Teachers to the Prompt: I Worry This Job Is Hardening Me Emotionally



Survey Item 15. I don't really care what happens to some students.

Item 15 is an indicator of depersonalization, and the language of the survey item is strong. Of the 12 teachers from School District A who participated, 83% ($n = 10$) responded they *never* experienced this statement, and 17% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a year or less*.

The responses from teachers at School District B were similar. Of the 10 teachers, 80% ($n = 8$) responded they *never* experienced this statement, and 20% ($n = 2$) responded *a few times a year or less*.

Survey Item 22. I feel students blame me for some of their problems.

Of the 12 teachers from School District A who participated, 58% ($n = 7$) responded they experienced this statement *never* or *a few times a year or less*, while 25% ($n = 3$) responded *once a month or less* or *a few times a month*, and 17% ($n = 2$)

responded *a few times a week*. Teachers may indicate high rates of depersonalization through “exhibiting cold or distant attitudes” (Maslach et al., 2018b, p. 31).

The responses from teachers at School District B were similar. Of the 10 teachers, 40% ($n = 4$) responded they experienced this statement from *once a month or less* to *a few times a week*. Another 30% ($n = 3$) responded *a few times a year or less*. The remaining 30% ($n = 3$) responded they *never* experienced this statement.

Analysis of Depersonalization. After an analysis of the data, the t -test yielded a p value of 0.562, which is greater than 0.05. There was not a significant difference between School District A and School District B in their responses to survey items regarding depersonalization. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

Personal Accomplishment

Personal accomplishment measures “feelings of competence and successful achievement in one’s work with students” (Maslach et al., 2018b, p. 31). The personal accomplishment scale is positively stated, so the more frequently a teacher aligns to a statement, the higher their personal accomplishment score should be (Maslach et al., 2018b). The emotional exhaustion and depersonalization scores should be low if a teacher has low burnout (Maslach et al., 2018b).

Survey Item Four. I can easily understand how my students feel about things.

The personal accomplishment of teachers in School District A was similar to teachers in School District B for item four. Of the 12 responses from School District A, 58% ($n = 7$) experienced this statement every *day*, and 42% ($n = 5$) responded *once a week* or *a few times a week*.

Teachers in School District B also reported a high frequency of personal accomplishment on item four. Of the 10 teachers, 90% ($n = 9$) responded they experienced this statement *a few times a week* or *every day*, and 10% ($n = 1$) responded *once a month or less*.

Survey Item Seven. I deal very effectively with the problems of my students.

The responses to item seven were similar in both districts. In School District A, 12 teachers responded. Of the 12 teachers, 92% ($n = 11$) experienced this statement *a few times a week* or *every day*, and 8% ($n = 1$) responded *a few times a month*.

Of the 10 teachers who responded from School District B, 50% ($n = 5$) experienced this statement *a few times a week*, while 50% ($n = 5$) responded *every day*.

Survey Item Nine. I feel I'm positively influencing other people's lives through my work.

Teachers in School District A reported frequent feelings of positively influencing lives through their work. Of the 12 teachers who answered item nine, 50% ($n = 6$) experienced this statement *every day*, while 25% ($n = 3$) responded *a few times a week*, and 25% ($n = 3$) responded *a few times a month* or *once a week*. Most teachers in School District A felt they were a positive influence every day.

The responses from teachers at School District B were similar. Of the 10 teachers, 60% ($n = 6$) responded they experienced this statement *once a week* or *a few times a week*, and 40% ($n = 4$) responded *every day*.

Survey Item 12. I feel very energetic.

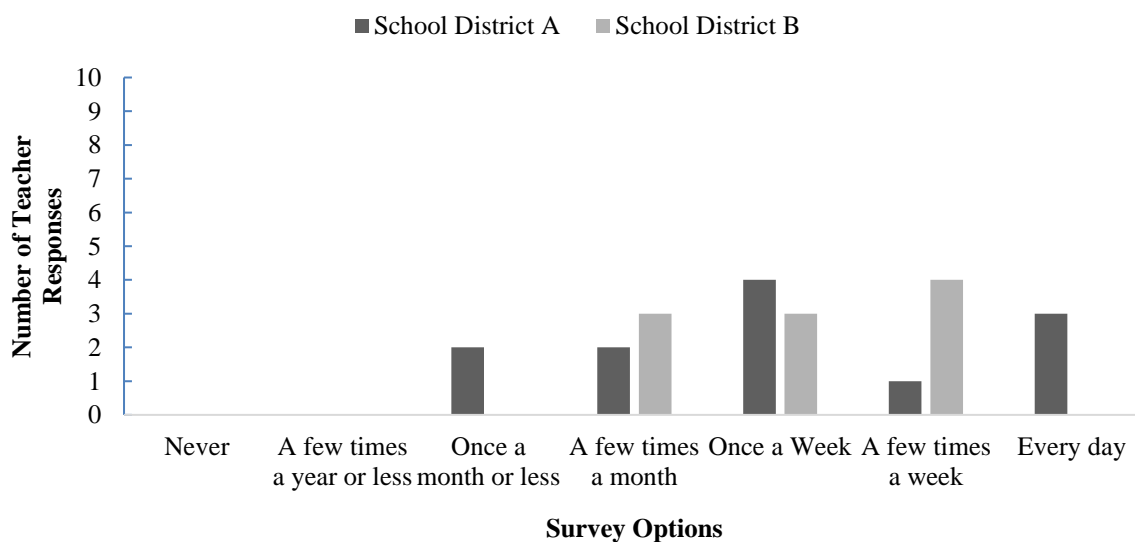
Of the 12 teachers who responded from School District A, 50% ($n = 6$) experienced this statement *a few times a month* or *once a week*, while 33% ($n = 4$)

responded *a few times a week* or *every day*, and 17% ($n = 2$) responded *once a month or less*. The range of responses was more diverse than those from teachers at School District B.

Teachers in School District B reported feelings of being energetic between *a few times a month* and *a few times a week*. Of the 10 teachers, 60% ($n = 6$) responded they experienced this statement *a few times a month* or *once a week*, and 40% ($n = 4$) responded *a few times a week*.

Figure 6

Responses from Teachers to the Prompt: I Feel Very Energetic



Survey Item 17. I can easily create a relaxed atmosphere with my students.

Twelve teachers from School District A responded to item 17. Of the 12 teachers, 67% ($n = 8$) experienced this statement *every day*, and 33% ($n = 4$) responded *a few times a week*.

Of the 10 teachers from School District B, 50% ($n = 5$) responded they experienced this statement *every day*, while 40% ($n = 4$) responded *a few times a week*, and 10% ($n = 1$) responded *never*. Results were similar for both school districts.

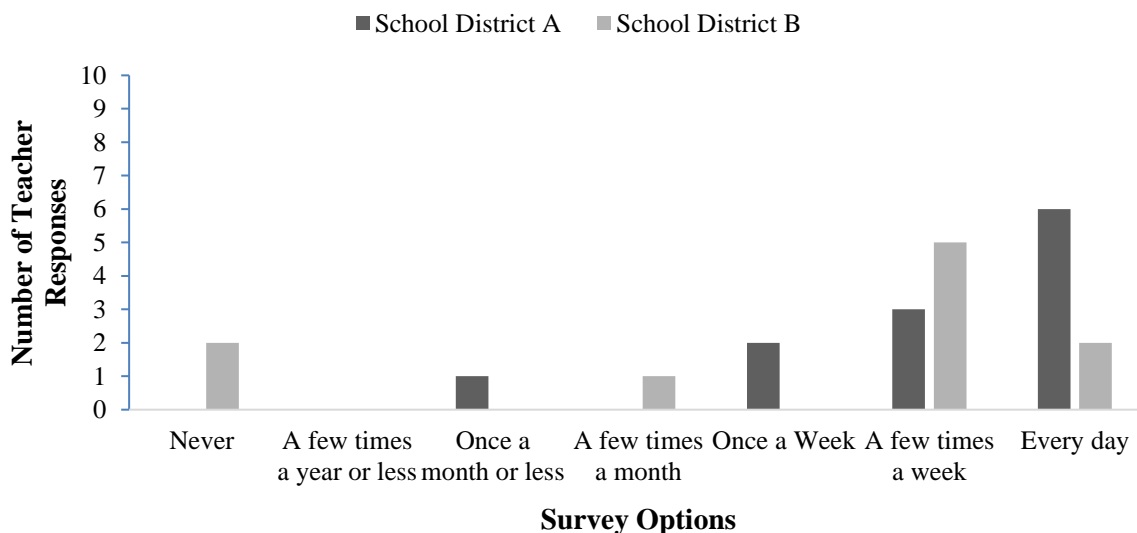
Survey Item 18. I feel exhilarated after working closely with my students.

Teacher responses ranged from *once a month or less* to *every day*. Of the 12 teachers from School District A, 75% ($n = 9$) responded they experienced this statement *a few times a week* or *every day*, and 25% ($n = 3$) responded *once a month or less* or *once a week*.

Of the 10 teachers from School District B, 70% ($n = 7$) responded they experienced this statement *a few times a week* or *every day*, while 20% ($n = 2$) responded *never*, and 10% ($n = 1$) responded *a few times a month*. The responses from the two school districts varied in frequency, with two teachers in School District B responding that they never felt exhilaration when working with students.

Figure 7

Responses from Teachers to the Prompt: I Feel Exhilarated After Working Closely with My Students



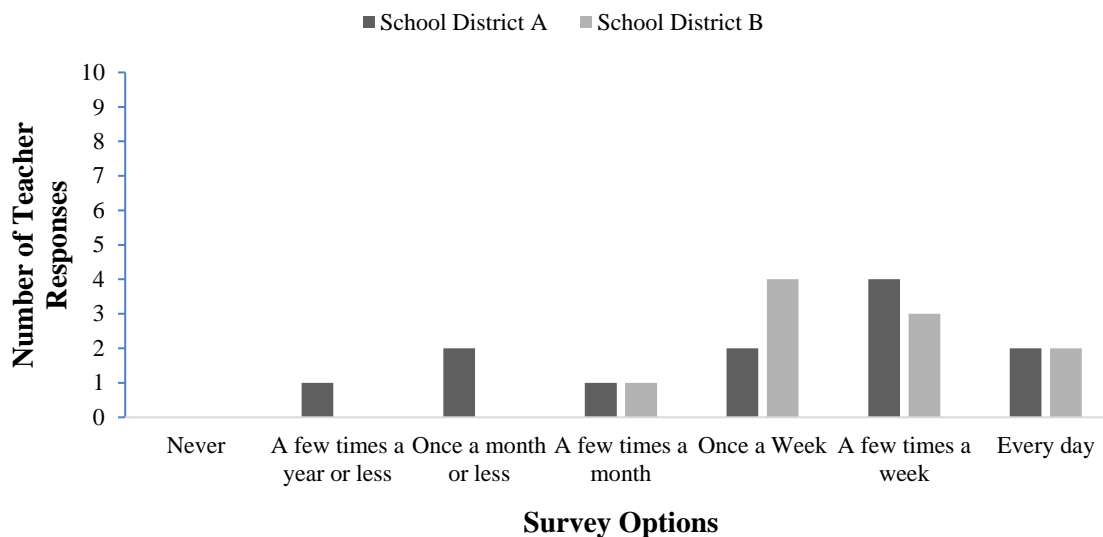
Survey Item 19. I have accomplished many worthwhile things in this job.

Of the 12 teachers from School District A, 50% ($n = 6$) responded they experienced this statement *a few times a week* or *every day*, while 25% ($n = 3$) responded *a few times a month* or *once a week*, and 25% ($n = 3$) responded *a few times a year or less* or *once a month or less*.

Of the 10 teachers from School District B, 70% ($n = 7$) responded they experienced this statement *once a week* or *a few times a week*, while 20% ($n = 2$) responded *every day*, and 10% ($n = 1$) responded *a few times a month*.

Figure 8

Responses from Teachers to the Prompt: I Have Accomplished Many Worthwhile Things in This Job



Survey Item 21. In my work, I deal with emotional problems very calmly.

Most of the teachers in School District A responded with either *a few times a week* or *every day*, with only one outlier responding *once a month or less*. The breakdown of responses was as follows: 50% ($n = 6$) responded they experienced this statement *every day*, while 42% ($n = 5$) responded *a few times a week*, and 8% ($n = 1$) responded *once a month or less*.

The responses from teachers at School District B were similar. Of the 10 teachers, 50% ($n = 5$) responded they experienced this statement *once a week* or *a few times a week*, while 40% ($n = 4$) responded *every day*, and 10% ($n = 1$) responded *once a month or less*.

Analysis of Personal Accomplishment. After an analysis of the data, the *t*-test yielded a *p*-value of 0.449, which is greater than 0.05. There was not a significant difference between School District A and School District B in their responses to survey items regarding personal accomplishment. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

Retention

To answer research question three, a single, open-ended question was sent to district-level administrators at each district. The administrator from School District A indicated that in the time span from 2014–2020, 69 teachers left the school district for any reason. Data had not been collected for teachers who left the district, only for those who left the profession entirely. The administrator from School District B had not collected information on teacher retention at the time of the survey.

Summary

The analysis of the data in Chapter Four was organized into two parts to answer the research questions. First, quantitative data were described regarding the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Second, quantitative data were presented regarding teacher retention in each district. The results of the data were presented in figures, percentages, and narrative form.

In Chapter Five, findings are presented. The conclusions from the research are detailed in Chapter Five. Each research question from the study is answered. Implications for practice for school districts to employ the findings are discussed. Recommendations for future research are discussed. Finally, a summary of the project is presented for review.

Chapter Five: Summary and Conclusions

Instructional coaching is a practice supported across the literature to enable teachers to meet the needs of students (Desimone & Pak, 2017). Traditional professional development has fallen short of meeting those needs (Connor, 2017). Teachers are leaving the profession at a high rate, with one-third leaving within the first five years (Callahan, 2016, p. 6). If schools want to make an impact on teacher retention, support from an instructional coach may be the solution districts seek (Aguilar, 2018).

One factor districts can measure to limit turnover is teacher burnout (Aguilar, 2018). Molero Jurado et al. (2019) found at least 30% of teachers have experienced burnout in the past two decades (p. 1). To mitigate the impact of stress on teachers, districts can provide support through instructional coaches who develop the resilience necessary for maintaining teachers in their roles (Aguilar, 2018).

The purpose of this study was to obtain information regarding the impact of an instructional coaching program on teacher efficacy, burnout, and retention. The focus of the study was on non-tenured teachers because of their high rates of leaving the profession altogether (Callahan, 2016). Teachers responded to 22 items on the Maslach Burnout Inventory to determine levels of burnout in the areas of emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. District-level administrators were also surveyed about rates of teacher retention within their districts. According to current research, instructional coaching positively impacts outcomes for teachers regarding burnout and teacher retention (Aguilar, 2018).

Chapter Five includes a review of the findings from a quantitative analysis of survey data. The chapter also includes a discussion of conclusions drawn from the

findings and supported by current literature presented in Chapter Two. Implications for practice and recommendations for future research are discussed. The chapter concludes with a summary of the study.

Findings

An analysis of the data was presented in Chapter Four. In the following section, a discussion of findings is provided. The findings are presented factually in an organized narrative as a review of the statistical analysis.

Maslach Burnout Inventory

The Maslach Burnout Inventory was used to gather data in order to answer research questions one and two. The Maslach Burnout Inventory is used to measure the following elements of burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment (Maslach et al., 2018b). As emotional exhaustion and depersonalization increase, chances of burnout also increase (Maslach et al., 2018b). As personal accomplishment increases, the chances of burnout decrease (Maslach et al., 2018b).

Emotional Exhaustion. On the Maslach Burnout Inventory, specific questions measured emotional exhaustion (Maslach et al., 2018b). After collecting data, a paired sample *t*-test was applied yielding a *p*-value of 0.1 (0.0997), which is greater than 0.05. There was not a significant difference between School District A and School District B in their responses to survey items regarding emotional exhaustion. The null hypothesis was not rejected. Teachers from both school districts indicated a low incidence of emotional exhaustion in the workplace. While there were some variances in the responses, neither group of teachers indicates a significant risk for burnout as it relates to emotional exhaustion.

Depersonalization. Other questions on the Maslach Burnout Inventory measured depersonalization, the impersonal feeling a teacher may have for their students or fellow teachers (Maslach et al., 2018b). After collecting responses from participants, a paired sample *t*-test was applied, yielding a *p*-value of 0.562, which is greater than 0.05. There was not a significant difference between School District A and School District B in participants' responses to survey items regarding depersonalization. The null hypothesis was not rejected. Teachers in neither group had a high incidence of depersonalization as it relates to job-related duties or as it relates to working in close relation with people. There were variances between responses from School District A and School District B, but neither group provided concerning responses as they relate to depersonalization, indicating a low risk of burnout.

Personal Accomplishment. The third aspect of the Maslach Burnout Inventory measures personal accomplishment, which is a teacher's feelings of competence and efficacy in relation to his or her work (Maslach et al., 2018b). Once responses were collected from participants, a paired sample *t*-test was applied, which yielded a *p*-value of 0.449, which is greater than 0.05. There was not a significant difference between School District A and School District B as participants responded to the survey items regarding personal accomplishment. The null hypothesis was not rejected. Teachers in School District A and School District B indicated high levels of personal accomplishment as it relates both to job-related duties and to working with other people. While there were variances in responses from teachers in both groups, no group indicated a concerning incidence of poor feelings of personal accomplishment.

Administrator Survey

A single, open-ended question was sent to district-level administrators to gauge the teacher retention rates at each school district. The administrator from School District A indicated that between 2014–2020, 69 teachers left their school district for any reason. School District A did not record when teachers left the profession altogether until the 2020–2021 school year.

The administrator from School District B had not collected information on teacher retention at the time of the survey. As a result, the findings were inconclusive; however, it is a recommendation of the researcher that districts gather data on teacher retention for future trends in their respective school districts. More detail on how to gain retention data through exit interviews is presented in the Implications for Practice section.

Conclusions

In this section, research questions are discussed and study results are compared with the literature in Chapter Two. A quantitative design was implemented for this study. Participants responded to questions from the Maslach Burnout Inventory to determine if a risk of burnout exists. Conclusions are organized and categorized by research question, and conclusions are drawn from the whole picture of the implemented study.

Throughout the research project, the researcher found instructional coaching to be supported through many avenues in education. For example, the Every Student Succeeds Act supports the implementation of instructional coaching. Researchers have also supported the practice to retain teachers and prevent burnout. Instructional coaching is a way to support teachers on a more personal basis as they challenge themselves to improve their professional practice. First, conclusions are discussed concerning

mitigating emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, two core aspects of the burnout syndrome (Maslach et al., 2018b). Then, the effects of professional development to build teacher resilience to burnout are described.

Research Question One

What is the difference in burnout of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as determined by Maslach's Burnout Inventory?

There was no significant difference between teacher responses in District A and District B.

Emotional Exhaustion. Emotional exhaustion is one element of burnout as identified by the Maslach Burnout Inventory (Maslach et al., 2018b). Emotional exhaustion has roots in shifting educational policies related to high-stakes testing and accountability (Richards et al., 2016). The more teachers experience shifts in educational policies, the more they experience emotional exhaustion (Richards et al., 2016). Emotional exhaustion has symptoms that remove teachers from the positive aspects of teaching (Aguilar, 2018). When teachers experience emotional exhaustion, their job performance is impacted through their viewpoint of the profession; teachers feel as though they are not an important part of their organization (Aguilar, 2018). The findings indicated a school district must value teachers' emotional well-being to prevent burnout and increase the retention of trained professionals.

The Maslach Burnout Inventory measures feelings of being emotionally strained and exhausted by the profession (Mindgarden, 2018). If a teacher experiences this aspect

of burnout, they may be tired and appear drained of emotional energy when completing job duties (Maslach et al., 2018b). If districts want to mitigate the effects of emotional exhaustion, they must intervene with teachers who display these traits in their teaching. Teachers should be recognized by stakeholders across the organization to emphasize the importance of their role. Community involvement in the school helps to create a sense of appreciation for the work and dedication teachers exhibit in their schools (Wong et al., 2018). When parents and other community members can be involved in operations, celebrations, and decision-making in schools, teacher and staff recognition increases (Wong et al., 2018).

Depersonalization. Depersonalization is the trait of burnout that results in an impersonal feeling and response toward students (Maslach et al., 2018b). When the teacher experiences depersonalization, feelings of disappointment occur concerning his or her profession and role in education (Vicente de Vera García & Gabari Gambarte, 2019). If a teacher feels unsafe or unsupported in a school system, burnout increases (Berg & Cornell, 2016). Districts must help teachers feel safe and supported in the school system through various efforts to reach more audiences and staff members. The community must also demonstrate support for the teacher (Wong et al., 2018).

Teachers must foster their own resilience within the workplace as well, using mindfulness to counteract the depersonalization aspect of teacher burnout (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Depersonalization affects teachers due to increased isolation from peers and students as the teacher retreats into his or her own problems within the system (Aguilar, 2018). As depersonalization moves across the spectrum, it can become more extreme, manifesting as a negative and cynical attitude toward students (Skinner & Beers,

2016). Teachers, administrators, and community members should be observant of these factors and their impact on staff so teachers can be retained in their positions without entering a cycle of burnout. The findings indicated teachers who practice mindfulness and feel appreciated by stakeholders are more likely to show fewer signs of burnout in their daily interactions with peers and students alike. As efforts are made to mitigate negative student behavior and increase positive community involvement, teachers are more likely to have positive attitudes toward their jobs, peers, and students (Wong et al., 2018).

Professional Development. Instructional coaching is an important part of professional development due to its personalized nature (Ning et al., 2018). The findings revealed a district that engages in support of teachers and the teaching profession as a whole is more likely to see fewer symptoms and indicators of burnout. Instructional coaching provides teachers with a personalized professional development opportunity, which may help diminish the stresses teachers are under by fostering a positive relationship in the workplace (Hennick, 2015). As indicated by burnout measures, teachers must have a positive relationship with stress to limit indicators of burnout throughout their career in education.

While the findings did not reveal any specific indicators for decreased burnout in teachers as they are exposed to an instructional coaching program, the research from Chapter Two supports instructional coaching as an integral part of helping teachers move from novice to expert (Glover, 2017; Knight, 2007; Wall & Palmer, 2015). A more personalized approach is an effective dimension of motivating a new generation of teachers, as opposed to traditional professional development (Abrams, 2018). Programs

that provide new teachers with an instructional coach have shown clear benefits (Abrams, 2018).

Student achievement is at the center of district planning for professional development (Desimone & Pak, 2017). Current studies indicate some forms of professional development, such as workshops and lectures, are not as effective as well-developed coaching models (Connor, 2017). Coaching is recommended as an important catalyst for addressing these concerns and limitations (Freeman et al., 2017).

Research Question Two

What is the difference in self-efficacy of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by Maslach's Burnout Inventory?

There was no significant difference between teacher responses in District A versus District B. Conclusions are discussed concerning building teachers' personal accomplishments, the third core aspect of the burnout syndrome (Maslach et al., 2018b). The effects of professional development to build teacher self-efficacy are also described.

Personal Accomplishment. Personal accomplishment is defined as feelings of competence when working with one's students (Maslach et al., 2018b). Teachers must feel as though they are contributing to the success of their students to limit the effects of burnout. Some teachers base their efficacy on external conditions, such as parents and administrators (Cayirdag, 2017). Other teachers see themselves as the main factor in making a difference (Cayirdag, 2017). If a teacher lacks self-efficacy, mediocrity and stagnation occur because the teacher lacks confidence or willingness to try new strategies

(Thornton et al., 2020). If a teacher lacks self-efficacy, student achievement is negatively impacted at an individual or organizational level (Thornton et al., 2020).

Professional Development. In education, an increasing sense of disempowerment and frustration with the teaching profession has impacted the efficacy of teachers in their field (Wall & Palmer, 2015). Instructional coaches work to mitigate those feelings and empower teachers in their role as leaders (Wall & Palmer, 2015). Coaches use various methods to impact teacher efficacy, including explicit modeling, guided practice, and regular feedback through each coaching session (Glover, 2017). Other leaders in education, including principals and curriculum directors, impact teacher self-efficacy. Principals play an important role in developing a strong sense of teacher self-efficacy, often serving to communicate the positive influence teachers have in the classroom (Liu & Gumah, 2020). Leaders also develop teachers professionally, which increases feelings of self-efficacy (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020).

Research Question Three

What is the difference in teacher retention of non-tenured teachers from School District A who participated in an instructional coaching program and non-tenured teachers in School District B who did not participate in an instructional coaching program as measured by retention data for years 2014–2019?

There was no significant difference between teacher responses in District A versus District B. In this section, conclusions are discussed with relation to districts' response to teacher shortages nationwide.

Supporting Teachers. The findings from the two districts studied in this project revealed little information about the reality of a teacher shortage across the nation. Going

forward, districts should conduct exit interviews of teachers who leave the profession to track data and gain better insight into the reasons teachers leave. Mayer (2019) found 30% to 46% of new teachers leave the profession in the first five years (p. 58).

Little research has been conducted to gain insight into what causes poor work conditions for teachers (Mayer, 2019). Teachers need to feel part of the community to succeed in their roles (Richards et al., 2016). Many school districts have looked to effective instructional coaching programs to mitigate feelings of inadequacy among teachers (Abrams, 2018). Springfield Public Schools in Springfield, Missouri, implemented an instructional coaching program when they found that 31% of their teachers left after their first year (Moore, 2016, p. 62). After implementing and refining the instructional coaching program, only 9% of teachers left the district after their first year (Moore, 2016, p. 62).

Implications for Practice

To increase teacher self-efficacy and reduce burnout, it is recommended to provide necessary support to teachers (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020). Teacher trainings and in-service should be provided to improve professional self-efficacy (Kasalak & Dağyar, 2020). Based on this study, there is a need for the development and expansion of an instructional coaching program to foster teacher self-efficacy as well as the collective efficacy of the team. Developing a consistent and methodical cycle of recognizing and accommodating teacher social-emotional needs is another avenue to reduce burnout. Finally, to learn and improve practice and retain teachers, exit interviews of leaving staff are a recommended practice.

Instructional Coaching

Across the literature, instructional coaching is a supported approach for retaining teachers and limiting burnout. Teachers experience direct support from a mentor, which involves a cycle of reflection and implementation of practice (Glover, 2017).

Instructional coaches work with teachers to make instructional decisions based on skill-specific assessments and instruction; coaches support teachers in analyzing the information they receive to identify common skills needed among students (Glover, 2017). As non-tenured teachers are supported in this process, they experience fewer indicators of burnout and develop a higher level of self-efficacy (Reddy et al., 2017). Evidence supports instructional coaching as an effective method for changing teacher practice (Reddy et al., 2017).

Student achievement is a guiding factor for many district decisions (Desimone & Pak, 2017). Policymakers have shifted the focus to teacher performance and student outcomes, placing teachers at the forefront of student gains (Connor, 2017). Implementation of an instructional coaching program is recommended, because novice teachers benefit from the mentoring process (Abrams, 2018).

In one Florida district, new teacher retention increased by 31% after a coaching program was introduced (Abrams, 2018, p. 77). The new generation of teachers want to be valued as equal partners and work with mentors to create change within their districts (Abrams, 2018). Instructional coaching has been so effective across research studies that federal, state, and district-level governments have mandated this practice as a strategy for developing teacher practice (Desimone & Pak, 2017). Coaching is effective because it

promotes highly effective pedagogy through site-based, individualized, and sustained professional development (Desimone & Pak, 2017).

Teacher Social-Emotional Needs

Rowcliffe and Schroeder (2021) identified a shift in practice concerning leveraging the disruption of schools due to the COVID-19 pandemic. In this post-pandemic world, it is important to capitalize on the opportunity for more significant innovations in the school system (Rowcliffe & Schroeder, 2021). Teachers must experience compassion and continuous collaboration for their learning and well-being (Rowcliffe & Schroeder, 2021). Basic needs satisfaction and social-emotional competencies are essential to limiting teachers' feelings of burnout (Maior et al., 2020).

To have highly satisfied teachers in the profession, districts must work to develop social-emotional competencies in teachers (Maior et al., 2020). Districts can implement this in practice through timely feedback, choices for teachers, and a positive school climate (Maior et al., 2020). Khaliq et al. (2018) found teachers also benefit from self-governance, or choice, as it relates to making decisions within the classroom, building, and district. Teachers can be more engaged in the decision-making process at every level of education (Khaliq et al., 2018).

Teachers' social and emotional needs must be prioritized to maintain a highly-qualified and effective workforce (Rowcliffe & Schroeder, 2021). Rowcliffe and Schroeder (2021) recommended the Compassionate Systems Leadership (CSL) system to facilitate teachers' nurturing of the self, each other, and the system of which they are a part. Personal reflection is one of the aspects of CSL, incorporating mindfulness and

meditation (Rowcliffe & Schroeder, 2021). Skinner and Beers (2016) supported the role of meditation and mindful coping to deal with the stressors of teaching.

Teachers can better implement what they learn through action research and professional development if they have developed a healthy response to stressors in the workplace (Skinner & Beers, 2016). Another aspect of CSL is fostering a deeper and more trusting relationship among colleagues, using a “check-in” system to emphasize intentional speaking and listening when teams come together in collaboration (Rowcliffe & Schroeder, 2021). Knight (2019) emphasized the importance of developing teachers’ feelings of competence among their peers.

At all levels in education, a professional relationship is built on trust, competence, and confidentiality, which are vital to teacher success (DeWalt & Mayberry, 2019). Finally, CSL develops connections of individuals and groups for viewing the challenges and opportunities faced by schools at any given time (Rowcliffe & Schroeder, 2021). Through the work of PLCs in schools, teachers build a community of professionals who work together to help students learn, develop an involved community, and bridge the gaps in education (Battersby & Verdi, 2015).

Exit Interviews

The practice of exit interviews has been implemented in businesses for a long time. Research has shown that if a company has a high turnover, low performance is also a norm for that company (Spain & Groysberg, 2016). If employees are leaving an organization at a high rate, it is important to understand why, and exit interviews can help provide insight (Spain & Groysberg, 2016). Conducting the exit interviews is only the beginning; data must be analyzed and shared with the appropriate parties to act on and

change practice within the company (Spain & Groysberg, 2016). If schools want accurate information, it is important to either informalize the process or digitize the process, depending on the terms on which the employee is leaving (Counter, 2015).

By digitizing the process, schools can gain quality information when employees can take their time and even answer anonymously (Counter, 2015). Information from exit interviews can help retain skilled teachers when employers listen to those who leave and consider what should change (Spain & Groysberg, 2016). Exit interviews signal to employees that their views and opinions matter to inform what does or does not work or to highlight hidden challenges and opportunities (Spain & Groysberg, 2016). Kacius et al. (2015) applied the process of exit interviews to students. In their research, Kacius et al. (2015) found feedback was high-quality and helped to adjust practice to the expectations of graduates in their program.

Effective exit interviews should be conducted by a second-line manager, such as a direct supervisor's manager (Spain & Groysberg, 2016). Timing is also essential to an effective interview, because there should be a little distance between a notice of leaving and the actual departure to remove as much emotion from the situation as possible (Spain & Groysberg, 2016). In schools, the process can be tied to working with the human resources manager before the teacher leaves as part of departure procedures to ensure all employees are interviewed and to obtain aggregate data (Kacius et al., 2015). It is also helpful to follow-up with employees to inform them of how their responses were used and what changes were made (Kacius et al., 2015).

An imposed structure of the interviews promotes collection and analysis of data to affect future practice (Spain & Groysberg, 2016). Schumaker (2016) proposed an

ongoing cycle of feedback throughout an employee's tenure to support the findings of exit interviews. Schumaker (2016) recognized some of the data from exit interviews may come from dissatisfied employees who do not provide accurate data because of discontentment with the job or profession; however, if employee feedback is sought as a way of operating, the data can be reinforced throughout an employee's career.

Recommendations for Future Research

This quantitative study focused on Missouri public schools in a rural area and included non-tenured teachers. The Maslach Burnout Inventory was used to gather responses from participants who were non-tenured teachers in two similar districts in rural Missouri. A survey was also developed for Human Resource Directors to measure the retention or attrition each district experienced from 2014–2020.

Supported in the review of literature is the notion that school districts are facing a challenge of balancing accountability with teachers, student outcomes, and teacher retention (Callahan, 2016; Mayer, 2019; Moore, 2016). Understanding the system of burnout in teachers is helpful to gain insight into why teachers feel pressure to leave the profession. Further research should be conducted to find out what builds resilience in teachers. The following are recommendations for areas of future research:

1. Survey non-tenured teachers in various rural districts, expanding the sample for this study. The sample of the study was limited. If the sample is expanded, more clear conclusions can be derived and generalized.

2. Determine levels of burnout in non-tenured teachers across various rural school districts. Data collected during the COVID-19 pandemic may be valuable to analyze trends of teacher burnout in response to the pandemic. Data would be beneficial

to districts to inform practices and mitigate the impact of teacher turnover as it relates to the pandemic and other stressors of the profession.

3. Develop qualitative survey questions to gain more insight into why non-tenured teachers feel levels of burnout in rural schools. More information could be gained from having open-ended questions for teachers' responses. Trends could be analyzed across several districts to help attract more teachers to the profession.

4. Compare established instructional coaching programs across Missouri to determine characteristics of effective programs. As instructional coaching becomes more popular and relevant, professional development will be needed to develop the practice. Districts interested in developing an instructional coaching program would benefit from this information.

5. Developing social-emotional programming for implementation in schools is relevant as students and teachers experience trauma from the COVID-19 pandemic. As shown in the study, teachers have been impacted by the quick shifts in practice that were made in response to COVID-19, and their own social-emotional needs may have been neglected. For districts to have a more stable workforce, these programs are important.

6. Districts that implement exit interviews should aggregate data across districts for use in attracting teachers to the profession. Teacher attrition has become an issue in recent years, but there is little research on the lack of district engagement with teacher preparation programs in colleges. Data would be valuable to colleges, universities, and districts alike.

Summary

As a response to a national teacher shortage, the purpose of this study was to determine the differences in teacher burnout, self-efficacy, and retention dependent on exposure to and participation in an instructional coaching program. In addition, district-level administrators were interviewed to determine the state of teacher retention for each participating school district. The first research question was designed to determine if a significant difference existed in the characteristics of burnout in teachers, such as emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. The second research question was designed to determine if a significant difference existed in the self-efficacy of non-tenured teachers, as measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Lastly, the third research question was designed to determine if there was a significant difference in retention for those teachers who participated in an instructional coaching program.

A review of literature relevant to the study comprised Chapter Two. First, the theoretical framework of the study was discussed. Then, information was presented regarding instructional coaching, teacher efficacy, teacher burnout, professional development, and professional learning communities.

In Chapter Three, the methodology of the study was explained. The research design was based on a purposive sample of non-tenured teachers. In this causal-comparative study, 15 teachers participated from each district and provided input on their levels of burnout through the Maslach Burnout Inventory. Half of the sample were non-tenured teachers who had participated in an instructional coaching program, and the remaining non-tenured teachers had not participated in an instructional coaching program.

In Chapter Four, a detailed analysis of the data collected was presented. First, the quantitative data were described. The results of the survey were presented in figures, percentages, and narrative form. The chapter was organized by each element of Maslach's Burnout Inventory: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. No significant difference was found between teachers from School District A and teachers from School District B based upon their responses to the inventory.

Finally, in Chapter Five, findings based on the data were presented. The conclusions were explained within the context of the literature from Chapter Two. Furthermore, conclusions were developed based on the three elements of Maslach's Burnout Inventory: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and personal accomplishment. In the first research question, emotional exhaustion and depersonalization were addressed. In the second research question, personal accomplishment, or self-efficacy, was addressed. Then, conclusions based on data collected regarding teacher retention were addressed to respond to research question three.

Implications for practice were connected to the theoretical framework of Knowles et al. (2011) and adult learning theory, as well as Knight's (2007) framework for instructional coaching. Teachers should be supported, and their input should be valued to promote retention in a given school district (Knowles et al., 2011). School districts can offer this support through instructional coaching programs, teacher recognition, and exit interviews. The implications for practice presented in Chapter Five will provide school districts with critical first steps to retain highly qualified and valued teachers.

Recommendations for future research included replicating and expanding the study. Future researchers might expand the number of school districts and non-tenured teachers who participate in the study. Using Maslach's Burnout Inventory, further research can be conducted on teacher burnout, specifically in response to the COVID-19 pandemic. Future researchers could also develop qualitative research questions to gain a more comprehensive look at teacher attrition and retention. Researchers can also develop a study on established coaching programs and their successful elements. Finally, districts should address teacher social-emotional needs and competencies as well as develop a process to implement exit interviews and gain a comprehensive picture of teacher satisfaction.

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Appendix A

Lindenwood University IRB Approval

Date: 5-14-2020

IRB #: IRB-20-150

Title: Teacher Efficacy, Burnout, and Retention: An Examination of Instructional Coaching and the Implications as Measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory

Creation Date: 2-24-2020

End Date:

Status: **Approved**

Principal Investigator: Patricia Rodríguez

Review Board: SC Institutional Review Board

Sponsor:

Study History

Submission Type	Review Type	Decision
Initial	Exempt	Exempt

Key Study Contacts

Member	Role	Contact
Sherry DeVore	Co-Principal Investigator	SDevore@lindenwood.edu
Patricia Rodríguez	Principal Investigator	PR023@lindenwood.edu
Kathy Grover	Primary Contact	kgrover@lindenwood.edu

Appendix B
Letter to Superintendents

Date:

Dear Superintendent:

I am conducting a research study entitled *Teacher Efficacy, Burnout, and Retention: An Examination of Instructional Coaching and the Implications as Measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory* in partial fulfillment of the requirement for a doctoral degree in Educational Administration at Lindenwood University. The data gathered should assist in providing insight into the effects of an instructional coaching program on teacher efficacy, burnout, and retention.

I am seeking your permission as the superintendent of _____ to secure data regarding the retention rates of non-tenured teachers.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may withdraw your consent at any time without penalty. The identity of the school district will remain confidential and anonymous in the dissertation or any future publications of this study. Please do not hesitate to contact me with any questions or concerns about participation at [REDACTED]. You may also contact Dr. Sherry DeVore (sdevore@lindenwood.edu), my dissertation advisor. A copy of this letter and your written consent should be retained by you for future reference.

Respectfully,

Patricia Rodriguez
Doctoral Candidate
Lindenwood University

Permission Letter (cont.)

I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions.

I understand it is my responsibility to retain a copy of this consent form, if I so choose. I

consent to participation in the research described on the preceding page.

Superintendent's Signature/Date

Superintendent's Printed Name

Primary Investigator's Signature/Date

Primary Investigator's Printed Name

Appendix C

Letter of Participation

Date:

Dear Teacher,

As a doctoral candidate at Lindenwood University, I am extending an invitation to you to participate in a study.

I am conducting a research study entitled *Teacher Efficacy, Burnout, and Retention: An Examination of Instructional Coaching and the Implications as Measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory* to fulfill part of the requirements for a doctoral degree in Educational Administration at Lindenwood University. The purpose of this study is to research the implications of an instructional coaching program on teacher efficacy, burnout, and retention.

Participation in this study is voluntary. The survey will take approximately 10–15 minutes. The identity of the participants will remain confidential and anonymous in the dissertation and any future publication of this study.

If you are interested in participating, please see the attached informed consent.

Please do not hesitate to contact me with any questions or concerns about participating in the research. I can be reached at [REDACTED]. You may also contact the dissertation advisor for this research study, Dr. Sherry DeVore, at sdevore@lindenwood.edu.

A copy of this letter should be retained for future reference. Thank you for your time.

Patricia Rodriguez
Doctoral Candidate

Appendix D

Consent Form

Teacher Efficacy, Burnout, and Retention: An Examination of Instructional Coaching and the Implications as Measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory

Before reading this consent form, please know:

- Your decision to participate is your choice
- You will have time to think about the study
- You will be able to withdraw from this study at any time
- You are free to ask questions about the study at any time

After reading this consent form, we hope you will know:

- Why we are conducting this study
- What you will be required to do
- What are the possible risks and benefits of the study
- What alternatives are available, if the study involves treatment or therapy
- What to do if you have questions or concerns during the study

Basic information about this study:

- We are interested in learning about what effects an instructional coaching program has on teacher efficacy, burnout, and retention.
- You will complete the Maslach's Burnout Inventory using Qualtrics, an online survey website.
- There are no risks of participation.

LINDENWOOD

Research Study Consent Form

Teacher Efficacy, Burnout, and Retention: An Examination of Instructional Coaching and the Implications as Measured by the Maslach Burnout Inventory

You are asked to participate in a research study being conducted by Patricia Rodriguez under the guidance of Dr. Julie Williams at Lindenwood University. Participation in a research study is voluntary, and you are free to stop at any time. Before you choose to participate, you are free to discuss this research study with family, friends, or a physician. Do not feel like you must join this study until all your questions or concerns are answered. If you decide to participate, you will be asked to sign this form.

Why is this research being conducted?

We are conducting this study to assess the effects of an instructional coaching program on teacher efficacy, burnout, and retention. We will be asking about 35 other people to answer these questions.

What am I being asked to do?

You will be asked to complete Maslach's Burnout Inventory, which assesses three measures of teacher burnout: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, and professional accomplishment.

How long will I be in this study?

The study will be conducted from January 2019 to May 2020, after IRB approval.

Who is supporting this study?

The study is funded by [REDACTED] School District.

What are the risks of this study?

- Privacy and Confidentiality

We will be collecting data that could identify you, but each survey response will receive a code so that we will not know who answered each survey. The code connecting you and your data will be destroyed as soon as possible.

We will be collecting data from you using the internet. We will take every reasonable effort to maintain security. The study will use Qualtrics to support security. It is always possible that during this research study,

information may be captured and used by others not associated with this study.

What are the benefits of this study?

You will receive no direct benefits for completing this survey. We hope what we learn may benefit other people in the future.

Will I receive any compensation?

Participants will not receive compensation.

What if I do not choose to participate in this research?

It is always your choice to participate in this study. You may withdraw at any time. You may choose not to answer any questions or perform tasks that make you uncomfortable. If you decide to withdraw, you will not receive any penalty or loss of benefits. If you would like to withdraw from a study, please use the contact information found at the end of this form.

What if new information becomes available about the study?

During the course of this study, we may find information that could be important to you and your decision to participate in this research. We will notify you as soon as possible if such information becomes available.

How will you keep my information private?

We will do everything we can to protect your privacy. We do not intend to include information that could identify you in any publication or presentation. Any information we collect will be stored by the researcher in a secure location. The only people who will be able to see your data include members of the research team, qualified staff of Lindenwood University, and representatives of state or federal agencies.

How can I withdraw from this study?

Notify the research team immediately if you would like to withdraw from this research study.

Who can I contact with questions or concerns?

If you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this research or concerns about the study, or if you feel under any pressure to enroll or to continue to participate in this study, you may contact the Lindenwood University Institutional Review Board Director, Michael Leary, at (636) 949-4730 or mleary@lindenwood.edu. You can contact the researcher, Patricia Rodriguez, directly at [REDACTED] or [REDACTED]. You may also contact Dr Sherry DeVore at sdevore@lindenwood.edu.

I have read this consent form and have been given the opportunity to ask questions. I will also be given a copy of this consent form for my records. I consent to my participation in the research described above.

_____	_____
Participant's Signature	Date

Participant's Printed Name	

_____	_____
Signature of Principal Investigator or Designee	Date

Investigator or Designee Printed Name	

Vita

Patricia Rodriguez began her career in education in August 2010 as an after-school program coordinator. After spending evenings with students, she went on to gain her bachelor's degree from Missouri State University in December 2013. In August 2014, Patricia was hired at a public school district and began her master's degree in Elementary Administration from William Woods University.

Patricia transitioned to working as an instructional coach in August 2018, beginning the second generation of instructional coaching in her district. Building from the ground up, Patricia worked as an elementary instructional coach for preschool through fifth grade. Her work and dedication to teachers have come to fruition through this practice.