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Research paper

Positive psychology interventions to promote resilience and wellbeing among educators: A scoping review

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ABSTRACT

Addressing teacher burnout and turnover through strategies that promote wellbeing and resilience is essential for thriving schools. Although there is extensive literature on positive psychology interventions (PPIs) for educators, we lack insight into how these interventions are implemented in practice. In this scoping review, we systematically charted school-based PPIs designed to promote wellbeing and/or resilience among educators—teachers and other school-based staff in instructional, leadership, or support roles. We searched randomised and non-randomised studies (2000–2025), identifying 247 sources (135 quantitative, 48 qualitative, 64 mixed-methods) and examined intervention characteristics, outcomes, reported effects, and factors that may influence implementation and effectiveness. The most frequently identified approaches—and those most consistently associated with positive effects—were combined mindfulness and social-emotional learning (SEL) interventions (n = 56), mindfulness-based approaches (n = 52), and multi-component PPIs (n = 37). These typically aimed to strengthen self-regulation and mindfulness skills, enhance teacher self-efficacy, and cultivate positive relationships to promote wellbeing and resilience. Qualitative findings suggest that successful implementation may benefit from systems-informed approaches that actively involve staff in program design and delivery. We provide recommendations for designing and implementing interventions to support educator wellbeing and resilience, with implications for research and practice.

1. Introduction

Teachers play a critical role in shaping student development, educational attainment, and thriving school environments (Hanushek, 2011; Jennings & Greenberg, 2009). Yet teaching is widely recognised as a highly stressful occupation, with longstanding concerns about teacher distress, burnout, and attrition that have become increasingly urgent in recent years (García-Carmona et al., 2019; Mijakoski et al., 2022). Teacher burnout is a global issue, resulting from prolonged occupational stress and is characterised by emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and reduced personal accomplishment (García-Carmona et al., 2019; Maslach et al., 2001; Mijakoski et al., 2022; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). Emotional exhaustion reflects a depletion of teachers' psychological and physical resources, or an inability to draw upon these resources when needed, to meet the social and emotional demands of their work. This depletion manifests through symptoms such as fatigue, insomnia, irritability, anxiety, and depression (Iancu et al., 2018). Depersonalisation involves emotional detachment and negativity toward students, colleagues, or work, often giving rise to apathy, compassion fatigue, and cynicism (Iancu et al., 2018). Reduced personal accomplishment reflects a diminished sense of professional efficacy, whereby teachers experience heightened self-doubt, lower

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work performance, strained student relationships, and avoidance of professional challenges (Iancu et al., 2018). Common stressors contributing to teacher burnout include excessive workload, challenging student behaviour, administrative burdens, limited professional autonomy, and unsupportive school climates (Chang, 2009; Harmsen et al., 2018; Howard & Johnson, 2004; Mijakoski et al., 2022; Montgomery & Rupp, 2005).

Collectively, these stressors undermine teachers' wellbeing and contribute substantially to attrition within the profession. For instance, up to 50% of teachers in the United States are estimated to leave the profession within their first five years of teaching, with chronic stress frequently cited as a key driver of this turnover (Farmer, 2020). High teacher turnover diminishes instructional quality, disrupts students' learning, particularly in disadvantaged communities, and intensifies staffing shortages and subsequent pressure on school systems (Carver-Thomas & Darling-Hammond, 2019; Ronfeldt et al., 2013; Sorensen & Ladd, 2020). Importantly, higher levels of teacher wellbeing and resilience, and correspondingly lower levels of burnout, are associated with improved teaching quality and more positive teacher–-student interactions (Granziera et al., 2023; Herman et al., 2018; Roffey, 2012; Spilt et al., 2011). One proposed mechanism is that greater wellbeing and resilience free the emotional resources needed to sustain a more autonomy-supportive and motivating teaching style, which is associated with better outcomes for both teachers and students (Moè & Katz, 2020, 2021, 2022; Reeve, 2009; Wang et al., 2024). Overall, these findings suggest that addressing teacher burnout is critical for retaining teachers while supporting high-quality teaching and student outcomes.

There is increasing recognition that reactive approaches, which focus on mitigating illness, reducing stress, or alleviating symptoms after they arise, are insufficient for sustaining teacher wellbeing (Acton & Glasgow, 2015). In contrast, growing attention is being directed toward proactive efforts that promote teacher wellbeing and resilience by developing individual capacities and strengthening workplace supports, thereby preventing harm and creating the personal and environmental conditions that enable teachers to thrive—even before distress or burnout symptoms emerge (Beltman et al., 2011; Gu & Day, 2007). Although they are distinct concepts, teacher wellbeing and resilience are closely linked and often addressed together in integrated frameworks (Hascher et al., 2021; Mansfield et al., 2016). Despite extensive research, there remains little consensus on how teacher wellbeing should be defined, with varied theoretical foundations and operationalisations contributing to conceptual ambiguity, heterogeneity, and overlap across studies (Hascher & Waber, 2021). However, for the purposes of this review, teacher wellbeing is broadly conceptualised as a multidimensional construct encompassing emotional, cognitive, social, and physical domains—it includes positive experiences such as job satisfaction, motivation, and engagement, and also allows for negative emotions that can contribute to meaning and growth (Hascher & Waber, 2021). This conceptualisation aligns with established theories of subjective wellbeing (hedonia), centred on positive emotions and life satisfaction (Diener, 1984; Diener et al., 1999), and psychological wellbeing (eudaimonia), which emphasises optimal functioning and recognises challenging experiences as integral to personal development (Ryff, 1989).

Similarly, while no single agreed-upon definition of teacher resilience exists, it is defined here as teachers' individual capacity to access and use personal, social, and organisational resources that sustain wellbeing, as well as the ability to negotiate for these resources in contextually appropriate ways when facing significant occupational adversity (Beltman et al., 2011; Hascher et al., 2021; Ungar & Theron, 2020). Teacher resilience is shaped by individual factors (e.g., self-efficacy, motivation, coping skills, and emotional regulation) as well as by relationships and resources within the broader school environment (Beltman et al., 2011; Gu & Day, 2013; Luthar & Cicchetti, 2000; Mansfield et al., 2016; Ungar & Theron, 2020). Supporting teacher resilience is critical for helping teachers navigate professional challenges, maintain wellbeing, and remain engaged over time (Gu & Day, 2007). Despite conceptual differences, both constructs are (a) dynamic, changing over the school year and across a teacher's career, (b) multifactorial, involving multiple interrelated components, and importantly, (c) modifiable, meaning they can be improved through intervention. Accordingly, school leaders typically recognise the importance of seeking effective ways to promote teacher wellbeing and resilience (Hascher et al., 2021; Mansfield et al., 2016).

The literature is replete with interventions targeting teacher stress and burnout, most of which emphasise symptom reduction rather than promoting long-term wellbeing and resilience (Von der Embse et al., 2019). It is implausible to remove all stressors from the school environment, highlighting the importance of resilience-building approaches that enable teachers to adapt positively to the inherent challenges of the profession (Beltman et al., 2011). Additionally, while most interventions focus on individual teachers, emerging approaches that also address systemic challenges may promote more sustained and integrated improvements in teacher wellbeing and resilience (Naghieh et al., 2015). Attention could therefore be directed toward approaches that combine systemic supports (e.g., reduced workload, supportive leadership, collegial relationships, professional development opportunities) with the development of individual capacities (e.g., teacher self-efficacy, self-regulation, and adaptive coping skills), targeting multiple facets of teacher wellbeing and resilience. By integrating both systemic and individual elements, such approaches can help build resilience, buffer against stress, and promote sustained teacher wellbeing (Bakker et al., 2007; Bakker et al., 2014; Dicke et al., 2018; Hakanen et al., 2006; Kangas-Dick & O'Shaughnessy, 2020). As such, growing recognition of the limits of individually focused stress-reduction approaches has prompted calls for interventions that not only alleviate stress but also promote strengths, build personal resources, support professional growth, and improve workplace conditions that sustain teacher wellbeing (Beltman et al., 2011; Gu & Day, 2007).

Positive psychology presents a promising strengths-based lens for promoting sustained wellbeing and resilience in school settings (Seligman et al., 2009). Emerging in the late 1990s, positive psychology is the scientific study of optimal functioning, wellbeing, and the conditions that enable individuals and communities to thrive (Gable & Haidt, 2005; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). The proliferation of research on this topic has led to the development of positive psychology interventions (PPIs) designed to cultivate strengths, foster resilience, and promote lasting improvements in psychological wellbeing (Seligman et al., 2005). Although there is no universal definition for PPIs, Sin and Lyubomirsky (2009) describe PPIs as structured activities, practices, or programs aimed at cultivating positive feelings, behaviours, or cognitions. PPIs are broadly characterised by their aim to enhance wellbeing through structured activities grounded in positive psychology frameworks (Carr et al., 2021, 2024). One commonly used framework that informs the design of many PPIs is Seligman's PERMA model, which identifies five core building blocks of wellbeing: Positive emotion, Engagement, Relationships, Meaning, and Accomplishment (Seligman, 2018). Interventions drawing on this framework often incorporate strategies such as setting valued goals, envisioning one's best self, practicing gratitude, reflecting on positive experiences, using and developing one's strengths, showing kindness and self-compassion, practicing empathy, cultivating mindfulness, building optimism, and fostering hope (Carr et al., 2021; Parks & Biswas-Diener, 2013; Parks & Titova, 2016). Another framework relevant to educational contexts is the SEARCH framework, which outlines six pathways to wellbeing in schools: Strengths, Emotional Management, Attention and Awareness, Relationships, Coping, and Habits and Goals (Waters & Loton, 2019). The SEARCH framework extends broader positive psychology models by identifying mechanisms and pathways particularly relevant to wellbeing in educational settings.

There is substantial evidence supporting the effectiveness of PPIs across clinical and non-clinical populations. For instance, authors of

several systematic reviews (e.g., Bolier et al., 2013; Carr et al., 2021; Koydemir et al., 2021; Sin & Lyubomirsky, 2009) report that PPIs are associated with significant improvements in wellbeing and reductions in depression, anxiety, and stress across a range of populations and settings. In workplace contexts, researchers have linked PPIs to greater job satisfaction, improved work engagement, and increased resilience to stressors (Donaldson et al., 2019; Meyers et al., 2013). Within education, a growing number of studies suggest PPIs may support teacher wellbeing and professional fulfilment. For example, a recent randomised controlled trial by Dreer (2020) found that a PPI improved job satisfaction and work engagement while reducing emotional exhaustion among teachers across primary, secondary and other school settings. Several scholars have conducted reviews examining PPIs and other wellbeing interventions for educators, consistently identifying key gaps that require contemporary synthesis (Avola et al., 2025; Berger et al., 2022; Cann et al., 2024; Dreer & Gouasé, 2022; Griffiths et al., 2024; Oliveira et al., 2021a; Oliveira et al., 2021b; Waters, 2011). Authors of these reviews highlight the need to (a) capture a broader range of PPIs in terms of design, delivery, and implementation, (b) examine a broader range of outcomes encompassing wellbeing, resilience, and their key predictors or correlates, and (c) consider individual, school-level, and systemic factors influencing implementation and effectiveness. For example, recent meta-analytic evidence suggests social and emotional learning (SEL) interventions for teachers can produce small-to-moderate improvements in teachers' social and emotional competence, wellbeing, and psychological distress, while also revealing substantial heterogeneity in intervention design, outcomes assessed, and methodological approaches (Oliveira et al., 2021a). Similarly, Oliveira et al. (2021b) reported that SEL interventions can reduce teacher burnout symptoms but emphasised the need for further research examining broader wellbeing outcomes, intervention design features, and contextual factors influencing effectiveness.

Vo and Allen (2022) called for further research examining the impact of teacher wellbeing interventions on related professional outcomes (e.g., classroom climate, student–teacher relationships, and teachers' sense of belonging), and how these outcomes may relate to broader constructs such as teacher wellbeing and resilience. They also highlighted the need to better understand the design, implementation, and effectiveness of school-based PPIs. Berger et al. (2022) emphasised the need to synthesise additional (e.g., school-level) factors influencing implementation and adopt an ecological lens to capture how interventions function within school systems, including whole-school approaches and the role other school staff could play in supporting teacher wellbeing. Beames et al. (2023) also identified gaps in understanding resilience-related outcomes (e.g., alongside wellbeing outcomes), delivery methods, and implementation factors that support the effectiveness of PPIs in practice. Shankland and Rosset (2017) highlighted the need for brief, accessible PPIs and for more rigorous exploration of long-term outcomes, potential mechanisms of change, and both individual and collective measures of wellbeing. Similar findings and recommendations have been echoed by numerous authors of reviews exploring teacher wellbeing and/or resilience (e.g., Avola et al., 2025; Cann et al., 2024; Dreer & Gouasé, 2022; Griffiths et al., 2024).

Collectively, this literature highlights a fragmented evidence base that makes it difficult to understand the full range of PPIs designed to support educator wellbeing and resilience across different school settings (e.g., primary, middle, secondary, and other school types). Teaching contexts also vary across countries, which may influence how these interventions are designed, implemented, and evaluated, the outcomes they target, and the organisational factors shaping their effectiveness (e.g., leadership support, workload, or school climate). This fragmentation likely stems from inconsistent definitions, theoretical foundations, and applications of PPIs across educational contexts. As Carr et al. (2021) noted in their meta-analysis, earlier reviews often adopted narrow conceptualisations, which limited understanding of the diversity of PPIs, their underlying mechanisms, and the contextual factors influencing their effectiveness—a pattern also evident in research on educator wellbeing and resilience. This is especially relevant as contemporary research suggests positive psychology's scope is considerably broader than previously described (Rusk & Waters, 2013). A more comprehensive and contemporary synthesis is therefore needed to map how PPIs targeting educator wellbeing and resilience have been designed, implemented, and evaluated across diverse school settings, identify patterns in reported outcomes, and examine implementation factors that may influence their adoption and delivery.

In this scoping review, we provide an updated and comprehensive synthesis of school-based PPIs aimed at enhancing educator wellbeing and resilience, drawing on over two decades of research. A scoping review was chosen given the heterogeneity of research designs, intervention types, and focal outcomes, as well as the lack of conceptual clarity around what constitutes a PPI (Munn et al., 2018; Peters et al., 2021; Tricco et al., 2016). Building on prior reviews, we adopted a broad definition of PPIs to capture a more complete and contemporary view of available interventions (Carr et al., 2021; Rusk & Waters, 2013; Schueller et al., 2014). By encompassing a wide range of intervention types and delivery formats, this review offers a contemporary and comprehensive overview of PPIs in educational contexts—synthesising a diverse and expanding evidence base to inform context-sensitive and sustainable approaches to supporting educator wellbeing and resilience in schools. Our primary aim was to synthesise the extant literature on school-based PPIs designed to enhance educator wellbeing and resilience, including the types of interventions implemented, the outcomes examined, the effects reported, and the factors that may influence their implementation in school settings. Here, "school-based" refers to PPIs implemented within preschool, primary, secondary, or other school settings, and educator refers primarily to teachers across all career stages and school types. While these interventions were predominantly teacher-focused, we also included studies involving other school personnel who contributed to, or were affected by, teacher wellbeing initiatives, but would not typically be classified as educators. With this scope in mind, this review was guided by four research questions: (1) What school-based PPIs have been used to promote resilience and wellbeing among educators? (2) What outcomes have been measured in these interventions, and what proposed pathways or mechanisms of change have been explored? (3) What effects have been reported? (4) What are the factors that may influence implementation and effectiveness of PPIs in school settings? In doing so, our aim was to guide future research and inform the design, implementation, and evaluation of PPIs targeting educator wellbeing and resilience.

2. Methods

This review was conducted in accordance with the Preferred Reporting Items for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR) guidelines (Tricco et al., 2018) and aimed to provide an overview of school-based PPIs targeting educator wellbeing and resilience, their outcomes, and the factors that may have influenced their implementation and effectiveness. We followed the six-stage scoping review framework developed by Arksey and O'Malley, 2005. The protocol was prospectively registered on Open Science Framework (https://osf.io/txck8/). There was a minor deviation from the protocol in that we did not conduct a quality assessment of the included studies. This decision aligned with best practice recommendations for scoping reviews, which typically aim to map the breadth of available evidence rather than assess study quality (Arksey and O'Malley, 2005; Peters et al., 2021). Instead, we reported the number of studies that found positive, null, or negative effects to provide a descriptive overview of intervention effects.

2.1. Eligibility criteria

Two reviewers independently assessed the eligibility of studies based on the inclusion criteria. Studies were included if they reported on the

implementation of a school-based PPI (including preschool, primary, middle, secondary, and other school settings) designed to promote educator wellbeing and/or resilience. We adopted a broad definition of PPIs, guided by Carr et al.'s (2021) systematic review and meta-analysis, which conceptualises PPIs as evidence-based interventions designed to enhance wellbeing and/or resilience through 'pathways' grounded in positive psychology theory. These pathways are often operationalised in frameworks such as Seligman's PERMA model (Seligman, 2018), though are not limited to it. To be included, studies needed to measure wellbeing and/or relevant pathways, such as character strengths (Peterson & Seligman, 2004). This broad definition is consistent with recommendations by Schueller et al. (2014), who advocated an inclusive synthesis of interventions aligned with positive psychology frameworks (e.g., Seligman's PERMA model), even if developed outside the field or not explicitly labelled as PPIs. It also reflects contemporary perspectives suggesting that positive psychology extends beyond earlier conceptualisations (Rusk & Waters, 2013). Accordingly, study eligibility was determined based on alignment with this conceptual definition of PPIs, encompassing interventions such as those focused on emotional intelligence, mindfulness, relationship-building, self-compassion, and adaptive stress-coping.

Studies were included if they involved educators or other school staff, including teachers, principals, administrative staff, support staff, and pre-service teachers undertaking workplace placements. Studies were not restricted by participant demographics, such as age, gender, or clinical status. Studies were included if they evaluated wellbeing, psychological resilience, or any of the 24 character strengths outlined in Peterson and Seligman's (2004) framework of character strengths and virtues. Although these positive outcomes (e.g., wellbeing, resilience, strengths) were the primary focus, studies measuring negative outcomes (e.g., depression, anxiety, burnout) were also included if the intervention aligned with positive psychology pathways (e.g., cultivating character strengths, fostering positive emotions and relationships, enhancing mindful awareness, and promoting goal pursuit and self-regulation). Additionally, to explore factors influencing successful implementation, we included studies that reported exclusively on implementation outcomes of PPIs, such as barriers and facilitators, design elements, mode of delivery, and intervention duration. Our reporting was guided by established implementation science frameworks, including Proctor et al.'s (2011) implementation outcomes framework, Durlak and DuPre's (2008) review of implementation influences on program outcomes, and Damschroder et al.'s (2022b) updated Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research (CFIR 2.0).

Eligible study designs included pre-experimental, experimental, and quasi-experimental interventions conducted in school settings, specifically those evaluating interventions aimed at improving outcomes listed above. This eligibility coverage encompassed randomised controlled trials (RCTs), cluster-RCTs, feasibility or pilot studies, outcome evaluations, process evaluations, realist evaluations, and pre-posttest designs. Studies utilising qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods were all eligible for inclusion. In addition to peer-reviewed journal articles, we also considered unpublished grey literature, such as doctoral theses. Studies published between 2000 and 2025 were included—we selected the year 2000 because this marked the formal introduction of positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Only studies published in English were considered for inclusion.

Studies were excluded if they focused exclusively on improving *physical* wellbeing (e.g., physical activity or nutrition interventions) and/or student wellbeing. Whole-school interventions were excluded if they focused exclusively on student outcomes and did not include any measures of educator wellbeing or resilience. Additionally, studies conducted in university settings were not included. Studies that did not implement an intervention, such as review papers, book chapters, study protocols, or theoretical papers, were also excluded. A full summary of the eligibility criteria for this scoping review is provided in Table 1 below.

2.2. Search strategy

The search strategy was conducted in accordance with the PRISMA-S extension for Reporting Literature Searches in Systematic Reviews (Rethlefsen et al., 2021) and followed a three-step process commonly used in scoping reviews (Peters et al., 2017). An iterative approach was used to refine search terms, using the initial overarching terms: Positive

Table 1
Summary of eligibility criteria used to determine study inclusion, aligned with review objectives and theoretical frameworks.

Category	Inclusion Criteria	Exclusion Criteria	Rationale
Population	Educators working in school settings, including teachers, principals, support staff, administrative staff, and pre-service teachers in placements.	Studies focused solely on students, university educators, or those in non-school settings (e.g., higher education)	Focus is on interventions targeting school-based educators' wellbeing and resilience
Intervention	Interventions explicitly or implicitly grounded in positive psychology pathways (e.g., mindfulness, self-compassion, emotional intelligence, relationship-building, strengths use)	Interventions focused solely on physical wellbeing (e.g., exercise, nutrition), or interventions with a harm-reduction or clinical/tertiary focus	To align with definitions of PPIs grounded in the PERMA model and consistent with inclusive criteria recommended in PPI literature
Theoretical Framework	Interventions aligned with positive psychology theory, including those based on PERMA or character strengths	Interventions not grounded in positive psychology principles or unrelated to wellbeing/resilience promotion	Ensures theoretical coherence with the review's aim to examine PPIs that enhance educator's wellbeing and/or resilience
Outcomes	Studies measuring educator wellbeing, psychological resilience, character strengths, or relevant negative outcomes (e.g., burnout, anxiety, depression), as well as studies reporting on implementation outcomes (e.g., barriers, facilitators, design, delivery)	Studies without any educator-focused outcomes or those measuring only student outcomes	Captures a full range of relevant wellbeing/resilience outcomes while including implementation-related findings
Setting	School-based settings (e.g., early childhood, primary, secondary schools)	Studies conducted in non-school or tertiary education settings	School environments present unique stressors and systems relevant to educator wellbeing
Study Design	Pre-experimental, quasi-experimental, and experimental designs, including RCTs, cluster RCTs, pre-post evaluations, feasibility/pilot studies, process or realist evaluations; qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods	Non-empirical studies (e.g., reviews, protocols, commentaries, book chapters), and studies not implementing an intervention	Prioritizes original empirical research while allowing a wide range of methodologies suitable for scoping review synthesis
Language	English	Non-English publications	Resource limitations prevented consistent translation and quality appraisal
Publication Type	Peer-reviewed articles and grey literature (e.g., doctoral theses)	Book chapters, protocols, blogs, and non-peer-reviewed sources	Ensures methodological rigor while allowing inclusion of relevant unpublished or grey literature
Time Frame	Studies published between 2000 and 2025	Studies published before 2000	Reflects the formal introduction and evolution of the positive psychology field (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000)

Psychology AND Educators AND Schools AND Interventions. First, an initial search was conducted in PsycINFO and Embase to analyse common affiliated terms and refine search terminology. Next, a second search was performed across multiple databases, including PsycINFO, Embase, ERIC, Medline, Web of Science, Scopus, and CINAHL, using identified keywords and index terms in the title and abstract fields of retrieved studies. Finally, the references of all included articles and reports were manually screened to identify additional relevant studies. To cross-check our findings and ensure all relevant literature was included, additional manual searches were conducted in Google Scholar, and studies cited in previous meta-analyses and systematic reviews of PPIs (e.g., Carr et al., 2021) were reviewed. Additionally, a targeted search of key positive psychology-related journals was performed, including *Journal of Positive Psychology*, *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *Journal of Positive Psychology and Wellbeing*, *International Journal of Applied Positive Psychology*, *Mindfulness*, *Coaching: An International Journal of Theory, Research and Practice*, and *European Journal of Work and Organisational Psychology*. All retrieved articles were deduplicated following the methods outlined by Bramer et al. (2016) before abstract screening. The original search was conducted on 15 August 2022, and an updated search was performed on 11 April 2025 to capture newly published studies. For a detailed summary of the final search strategy and terms, see Supplementary Material S1.

2.3. Study selection and data extraction

Article titles and abstracts were imported into EndNote 20, where duplicates were removed before being uploaded into Research Screener (see Chai et al., 2021), a validated semi-automated machine learning tool designed to rank and reorder articles based on their relevance to the review. The tool determines relevance using 'seed articles' selected by the review team, along with machine learning algorithms that adapt based on reviewer decisions regarding inclusion and exclusion. Sensitivity analyses conducted by Chai et al. (2021) revealed that, using Research Screener, 100% of relevant articles across 11 reviews were identified after screening between 4% and 40% of all articles. Chai et al. (2021) indicated that systematic reviewers can be confident that all relevant articles will have been identified after 50% (a conservative estimate) of articles have been screened, and we adhered to this recommendation in this review. Two independent reviewers assessed all titles and abstracts against the eligibility criteria, resolving any discrepancies through discussion until agreement was reached. The search and selection process are illustrated in the PRISMA flow diagram in Fig. 1.

Data extraction was conducted independently by three reviewers (LT, IJ, and TK), with extracted entries cross-checked for accuracy by the first author (LT). Extracted data included study characteristics such as author, year, location, study design, sample size, participant demographics, recruitment methods, and intervention details. Intervention characteristics were charted using the TIDieR checklist (Hoffmann et al., 2014) to systematically document components such as intervention content, duration, mode of delivery, provider, adherence, and theoretical framework. Outcome measures and measurement tools were also extracted, along with reported results for wellbeing, resilience, and implementation-related outcomes. To ensure accuracy and reliability, 100% of extracted entries were reviewed and cross-checked by the first author. Any discrepancies were resolved through discussion among the review team.

2.4. Data analysis and synthesis

A narrative synthesis approach was employed to systematically analyse and summarise the extracted data, following the PRISMA-ScR guidelines (Tricco et al., 2018) and recommendations for scoping reviews (Peters et al., 2021). Narrative synthesis, as outlined by Popay et al. (2006), was used to identify patterns, themes, and variations across studies, providing a structured, descriptive overview of the findings. Both inductive and deductive thematic content analysis were used to identify patterns across studies, following Pollock et al.'s (2023) updated recommendations for qualitative analysis in scoping reviews.

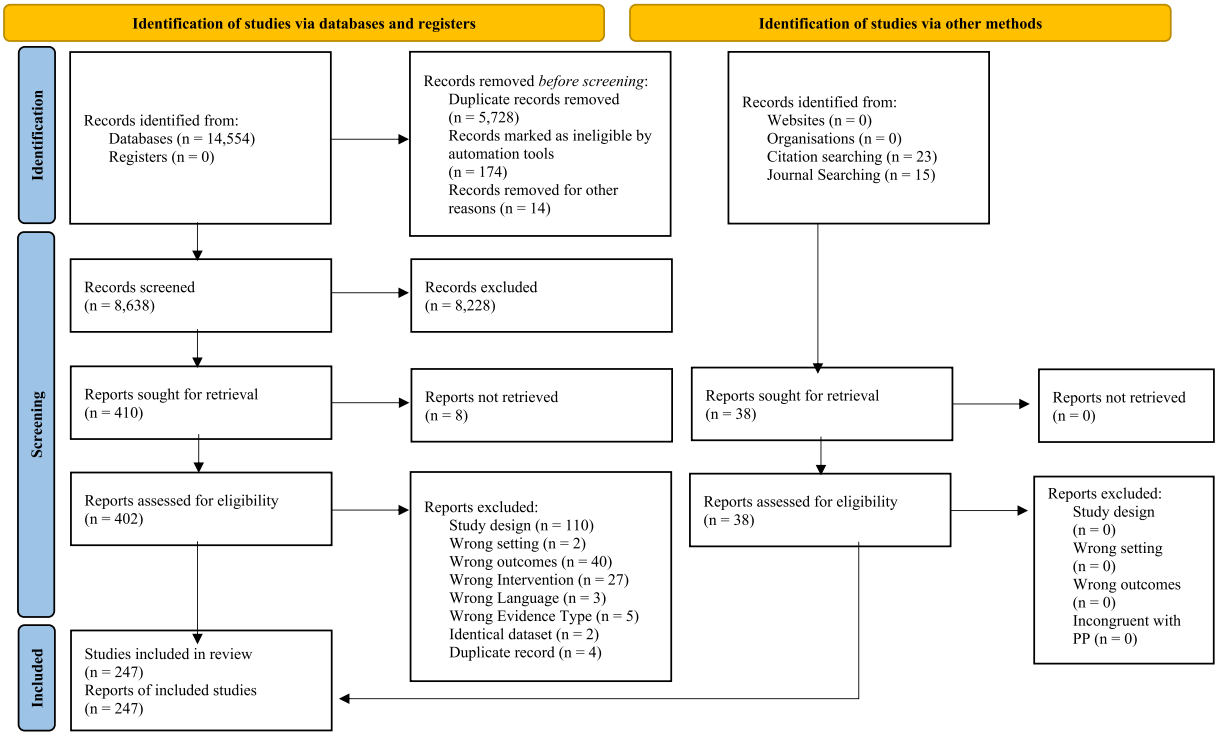


Fig. 1. *PRISMA Flow Diagram*
*One unpublished thesis contained the same data as a published journal article by the same authors. This thesis was excluded in favour of the journal article.

The coding and synthesis process was conducted iteratively by the lead author. Emerging codes, categories, and interpretations were reviewed through periodic critical friend discussions with members of the research team to refine theme definitions and ensure consistency and trustworthiness in the interpretation of the data (Pollock et al., 2023). Intervention characteristics were identified by extracting common themes and concepts from the included studies, focusing on what was done, how interventions were structured, and the key elements they incorporated.

The PERMA framework (Seligman, 2018) informed the conceptual scope and guided the search strategy, given its widespread use in defining wellbeing constructs in positive psychology. However, during synthesis, Waters and Loton's (2019) SEARCH framework was applied to organise and interpret wellbeing pathways specific to educational contexts, integrating both general and education-focused dimensions of wellbeing. This dual-framework approach aligns with the iterative nature of scoping reviews and supports a more context-sensitive synthesis of wellbeing and resilience outcomes.

Intervention outcomes were synthesised by mapping the types of outcomes measured, the instruments used to measure them, and the frequency of reported measures across studies. For intervention effectiveness, a descriptive synthesis approach was adopted, consistent with best practices for scoping reviews (Peters et al., 2021). Each study's reported effects were classified as positive, negative, or null, according to the direction of the reported findings. A positive effect was recorded if an outcome trend aligned with the expected direction, even if statistical significance was not reached. Negative effects indicated change in the opposite direction, while null effects represented no observable change. The above process is known as vote counting and was used to classify reported intervention effects and determine the proportion favouring the intervention, rather than to estimate the magnitude or statistical significance of effects (Cumpston et al., 2022). Implementation factors were analysed using an adapted version of the Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research (Damschroder et al., 2022b), ensuring a comprehensive representation of relevant implementation-related themes. Extracted data relating to barriers, facilitators, and contextual influences on intervention delivery were coded and organised according to relevant CFIR domains and constructs. In line with the descriptive aims of scoping reviews, these implementation themes reflect patterns reported across studies rather than empirically tested predictors of implementation success or intervention outcomes. Findings are reported using tables and descriptive summaries, providing a structured synthesis of study characteristics, intervention characteristics, measured outcomes, intervention effectiveness, and implementation factors. This approach allowed for a systematic yet flexible synthesis of the available evidence on school-based PPIs aimed at promoting educator wellbeing and resilience.

3. Results

3.1. Study characteristics

A total of 14,554 records were identified through the search process (Fig. 1). Following the removal of 5,728 duplicate records, an additional 188 records were excluded as ineligible prior to screening. During the eligibility screening, 8,429 articles were further excluded based on the predefined inclusion and exclusion criteria. A manual search yielded an additional 38 studies, which were subsequently included. In total, 247 records met the eligibility criteria and were included in the full review, comprising 135 quantitative studies, 48 qualitative studies, and 64 mixed-methods studies (see supplementary material ‘S2’, ‘General Info’ tab for the full list). Among the included sources, two were research reports, 40 were dissertations, and 205 were journal articles, with the highest number of publications occurring in 2024 ($k = 41$), 2023 ($k = 26$), and 2022 ($k = 26$). Geographically, most studies were conducted in the USA ($k = 105$), followed by China ($k = 19$) and England ($k = 17$), with research spanning 42 countries in total. Regarding study design, randomised controlled trials were the most common ($k = 88$), followed by quasi-experimental ($k = 67$), non-experimental ($k = 61$), and pre-experimental studies ($k = 26$). In terms of study populations, the majority focused on teachers teaching multiple grade levels ($k = 97$), followed by primary school teachers ($k = 83$) and secondary school teachers ($k = 48$). Full study details, including detailed participant information, are provided in Supplementary Material S2 (‘General Info’ and ‘Participant Details’ tabs). Descriptive summaries of study characteristics, including distributions by country, sample population, and study design, are provided in Supplementary Material S3 (‘Study Details’ tab).

3.2. Intervention characteristics

Across the 247 studies, 247 interventions were identified. We categorised these interventions into 15 distinct types following repeated consultations with the research team and an extensive review of the literature. The most common approaches were: (1) a combination of Mindfulness and SocialandEmotional Learning Interventions (assessed in 56 studies; e.g., combining emotional skills training, mindfulness, stress reduction practices, empathy and compassion training), (2) Mindfulness-Focused Interventions (52 studies; e.g., focused exclusively on formal mindfulness practices like meditation, and informal practices such as mindful eating or short mindful pauses), and (3) Multi-Component PPIs (37 studies; e.g., combining multiple positive psychology activities such as gratitude practice, strengths development, savouring, and the Best Possible Self exercise). Table 2 provides an overview of each intervention type. For a full list of included studies within each category and additional details on example curriculums, see the supplementary material ('S3', ‘Intervention Summary’ tab). Figures illustrating the frequency and relative distribution of intervention types across included studies are also presented in the supplementary material ('S3', ‘Intervention Graphs & Charts’ tab). For a detailed overview of intervention delivery modes (e.g., in-person training or workshops, online modules, video-based formats, resource materials), refer to the supplementary material (‘S2’, ‘Intervention Details’ tab).

3.3. Intervention outcomes

Across the 247 studies, 461 total outcomes were measured and reported. We classified these outcomes into two primary categories: wellbeing and illbeing, each comprising several sub-categories. Of these, 230 pertained to wellbeing, which was further divided into six distinct types: (1) Occupational wellbeing was the most frequently measured (78 instances; including outcomes such as work engagement, job satisfaction, and workplace wellbeing), followed by (2) subjective wellbeing (62 instances; including outcomes such as positive and negative affect, life satisfaction and subjective happiness) and (3) psychological wellbeing (38 instances; including outcomes related to self-acceptance, relationship satisfaction, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose and meaning in life and personal growth). The Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (UWES; Schaufeli et al., 2002; Schaufeli et al., 2003) was the most used instrument for assessing occupational wellbeing (used in 16 studies). For subjective wellbeing, variations of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS; Watson et al., 1988) were employed 28 times (across all variations), while the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS; Diener et al., 1985) was used in 12 instances. The Psychological Wellbeing Scale (PWBS; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) was the primary measure for psychological wellbeing (used in 10 instances). Additional wellbeing outcomes included (4) psychological resilience (25 instances), (5) combined wellbeing (14 instances), and (6) physiological wellbeing (13 instances).

The remaining 231 outcomes pertained to illbeing, which we further divided into five distinct types. Occupational burnout was the most frequently measured (70 instances; including outcomes such as

Table 2
Intervention types included in this review were grouped based on how each intervention was described in the original studies.

Intervention	Description of Intervention
Combined Mindfulness & SEL Interventions k = 56	Interventions combining mindfulness, social and emotional learning (SEL), and compassion training. They are often based on the Prosocial Classroom Model (Jennings & Greenberg, 2009), which highlights the importance of teacher SEC and wellbeing in fostering positive classroom environments and student learning. Key components include (1) emotional skills training to enhance emotion recognition, understanding, and regulation, (2) mindfulness and stress reduction practices, and (3) empathy and compassion training to promote prosocial behaviour. Subtypes include Cultivating Awareness and Resilience in Education (CARE), Resilience in Schools and Educators (RISE), Community Approach to Learning Mindfully (CALM), MindUP (MU), and Mindfulness-Based Emotional Balance (MBEB).
Mindfulness Interventions k = 52	Interventions focused on mindfulness or meditation. They may be delivered as single or multi-session programs. Core learning components include (1) focused attention and present-moment awareness, (2) meta-cognition, openness, and non-judgmental observation, (3) self-regulation and non-reactivity, (4) bodily awareness and relaxation, (5) acceptance, and (6) self-compassion. Techniques include both formal practices (e.g., guided meditation, mindful breathing, body scans, yoga, loving-kindness meditation) and informal practices integrated into daily life (e.g., mindful eating, walking, and the STOP method). Common subtypes include Mindfulness-Based Stress Reduction (MBSR), Mindfulness-Based Cognitive Therapy (MBCT), Mindfulness-Based Art Therapy (MBAT), Mindfulness in Schools Project (MiSP and the b. foundations) and Stress Prevention and Mindfulness (SPAM).
Multi-Component PPIs k = 37	Interventions that are largely or solely focused on combined positive psychology exercises. They aim to enhance wellbeing through a variety of evidence-based positive psychology practices. Components may include (1) strengths development, (2) practicing gratitude, (3) savouring positive emotions, (4) fostering optimism and hope (e.g., best possible selves), (5) nurturing positive relationships, (6) resilience, coping, and post-traumatic growth, (7) kindness, compassion, and forgiveness, (8) meaning, purpose, and values clarification, (9) goal setting and achievement, (10) flow and engagement, (11) growth mindset, (12) perseverance and grit, (13) practicing mindfulness, (14) humour, and (15) creativity. Subtypes could include the ACHIEVER Resilience Curriculum (ARC), the CALMERSS program, Educators Thriving, ENhancing Teacher REsilience in Europe (ENTREE), the Flourishing Schools Program (FSP), PROSPER (Positivity, Relationships, Outcomes, Strengths, Purpose, Engagement and Resilience), the Early Advancement in Social–Emotional Health and Positivity (EASP) program, Positive Mindfulness Programs (PMP) and multi-component interventions stemming from Positive Education.
SEL & Classroom Management Interventions k = 25	Interventions focused on social and emotional learning (SEL) and positive school environments. They are typically multi-session programs or embedded within whole-school initiatives. Key learning components include promoting (1) self-awareness, (2) self-management, (3) social awareness, (4) relationship skills, and (5) responsible decision-making. They also aim to enhance teacher self-efficacy and strengthen student-teacher relationships through effective classroom management. SEL practices include reflective journaling, self-assessments (e.g., strengths assessment), the RULER approach, developing personal/shared vision statements, goal setting, stress and time management, perspective-taking, conflict resolution, active listening, collaboration, and shared decision-making. Positive classroom management strategies include reinforcing positive behaviour, setting clear limits, establishing classroom structure (e.g., rules, norms, expectations), and proactive approaches to student behaviour. Subtypes include Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS), Teacher Classroom Management training (TCMT), Tuning in to Students (TIS), Emotional Intelligence Training (EIT), the PAX Good Behaviour Game (PAX GBG), Promoting Mental Health at Schools (PROMEHS) and Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies (PATHS).
Coping & Resilience Interventions k = 21	Interventions focused on stress-coping, building resilience, and/or post-traumatic growth. They aim to strengthen individuals' ability to manage and recover from adversity. Core components include enhancing (1) knowledge of stress, (2) perceptions of stress, (3) skillful stress responses, and (4) capacity to bounce back from challenges. Techniques include psychoeducation, cognitive reappraisal, mindset approaches (e.g., stress or growth mindset), emotion-focused and problem-focused coping, expressive writing, and self-reflection. Subtypes include trauma-informed interventions, Rational Emotive Behavior Therapy (REBT), Dialectical Behavior Therapy Skills Training (DBT-ST), programs promoting post-traumatic growth, hope and optimism-focused programs (e.g., academic optimism), and habit-building strategies such as implementation intentions.
Positive Psychology Coaching Interventions k = 11	Interventions focused on executive coaching and/or positive psychology coaching. They are often based on Anthony Grant's cognitive-behavioural, solution-focused framework and the generic model of self-regulation (Grant et al., 2010). Core components include (1) building a supportive coaching relationship, (2) strengths profiling and feedback, (3) developing a personal and professional future vision, (4) goal setting and action planning, (5) enhancing motivation, strengths use, and self-efficacy, (6) monitoring and evaluating progress, and (7) modifying actions based on feedback. Techniques aim to foster (1) self-leadership or transformational leadership, (2) learning and skill transfer, (3) self-regulation, and (4) ongoing personal and professional growth. Practices include using strengths, values and personality assessments, SMART goals, the GROW model, motivational interviewing techniques (e.g., active listening and questioning), vision development, coaching conversations, check-ins, and self-reflection.
Social Capital Interventions k = 11	Interventions focused on developing social and/or human capital. They aim to enhance individual and collective capacity within organisations. Core social capital strategies include (1) strengthening social support networks, (2) improving communication channels, (3) leadership development, (4) team-building activities, and (5) fostering mutual trust, shared values, and group norms. Human capital strategies focus on (1) recruitment and induction, (2) training, education, and professional development, and (3) building tacit knowledge. Subtypes include coaching and mentoring (e.g., MyTeachingPartner [MTP]), the Development of trust and belonging in interpersonal relationships of school teachers (DTBIR) program, induction programs, peer support groups, structural and administrative support, structured team meetings, work-life balance initiatives, time-management and planning tools, communication and conflict resolution training, motivational interviewing, psychological safety training, (self-)leadership development, and application of learning theories.
Compassion Interventions k = 7	Interventions focused on compassion towards others and oneself. They may be delivered as standalone or multi-component programs. Key learning components include developing (1) (self-)compassion motivation, (2) (self-)compassion actions, and/or (3) reducing fears of (self-)compassion. Techniques focus on cultivating compassion towards others, receiving compassion from others, and fostering self-compassion. Practices towards others include compassionate communication, active listening, perspective-taking, acts of kindness, recognising others' suffering, responding with empathy, sharing vulnerability, and offering or receiving social support. Self-compassion practices include mindful reflection and journaling, compassionate self-talk and imagery, loving-kindness meditation, and redirecting self-criticism. Subtypes include Mindful Self-Compassion (MSC), Compassion-Focused Therapy (CFT), Compassionate Mind Training for Teachers (CMT-T), and Compassion Cultivation Training (CCT).
Gratitude Interventions k = 6	Interventions focused on cultivating gratitude. They may be delivered as standalone sessions or as part of a multi-component program. Key forms of gratitude include (1) emotional, (2) dispositional, and (3) action-based gratitude. Four core facets of developing a grateful disposition are (1) intensity (strengthening feelings of gratitude), (2) frequency (how often gratitude is experienced or expressed), (3) span (broadening the range of people, situations, or things one feels grateful for), and (4) density (the number of people one feels grateful to for a single outcome). Techniques aim to evoke positive emotions, shift inner attitudes, and enhance relationships. Practices include (1) gratitude listings (e.g., daily gratitude lists), (2) grateful contemplation (e.g., journaling and reflection), and (3)

(*continued on next page*)

Table 2 (*continued*)

Intervention	Description of Intervention
	gratitude expression (e.g., expressing appreciation to a colleague). Subtypes include count-your-blessings, three-good-things, gratitude journals, gratitude letters, gratitude visits, and Naikan Therapy.
Character Strengths Interventions k = 4	Interventions focused on character strengths and virtues. They may be delivered as standalone activities or as part of multi-component programs. Based on Peterson and Seligman's (2004) framework of 24 character strengths and six core virtues, these interventions aim to enhance self-efficacy and career adaptability over time. Key virtues include (1) wisdom (creativity, curiosity, open-mindedness, love of learning, perspective), (2) courage (bravery, persistence, integrity, vitality), (3) humanity (love, kindness, social intelligence), (4) justice (citizenship, fairness, leadership), (5) temperance (forgiveness, humility, prudence, self-regulation), and (6) transcendence (appreciation of beauty, gratitude, hope, humour, spirituality). Techniques focus on developing (1) strengths awareness, (2) strengths use, and (3) strengths spotting in others. Example practices include Character Empowerment Training (CET), completing a VIA or personality strengths assessment, writing about being at your best, using time/activity logs, receiving 360 feedback, envisioning a future best self, identifying values, setting meaningful goals, and recognising strengths in colleagues or students (e.g., during feedback and performance meetings).
Spirituality & Prayer Interventions k = 4	Interventions focused on prayer, spirituality, and religion-based meditation. They may be delivered as one-off sessions, multi-session programs, or embedded within a religious school's culture. Key forms of prayer include (1) conversational, (2) meditative, (3) ritual, and (4) intercessory prayer. Techniques aim to strengthen one's relationship with (1) a higher power (e.g., God) and/or (2) others in the community. Meditative prayer practices include reflection and expressing gratitude toward a spiritual being through reading, writing, or silent prayer. Intercessory prayer involves praying for the wellbeing of others, such as in religion-based loving-kindness meditation.
ACT Interventions k = 4	Interventions focused on Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (ACT). They typically involve multiple sessions incorporating a range of ACT techniques. Grounded in Relational Frame Theory (RFT), ACT aims to enhance psychological flexibility. Key learning components include promoting (1) acceptance, (2) cognitive defusion, (3) present-moment awareness, (4) self as context, (5) values clarification, and (6) committed action. Practices include mindfulness (e.g., accepting rather than avoiding thoughts), self-distancing techniques (e.g., observing thoughts without attachment), perspective-taking (e.g., self as context), self-reflection, ACT matrix exercises, values clarification worksheets, and developing change plans for committed action. Other interventions include ACT-based self-help books such as Get Out of Your Mind and Into Your Life by Stephen Hayes et al. (2011).
Appreciative Inquiry Interventions k = 3	Interventions focused on Appreciative Inquiry (AI). They use a positive approach to organisational development and change. AI fosters change by (1) elevating and expanding the focus of inquiry, (2) creating a broadening and building effect, and (3) establishing strengths—such as relationships, resources, and ideas—that help shift attention away from problems. AI typically follows the 4D cycle: (1) discovery (exploring what works well), (2) dream (co-creating a shared vision of an ideal future), (3) design (developing a blueprint to achieve that vision), and (4) destiny (implementing, monitoring, and refining actions). Activities include group summits, workshops, interviews, focus groups, shared reflection, brainstorming, goal setting, action planning, future visioning, monitoring and feedback.
Job-Crafting Interventions k = 3	Interventions focused on job crafting. They encourage employees to take initiative in shaping the perceptual, structural, and relational aspects of their work. Grounded in Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) theory, the goal is to optimise the balance between job demands (e.g., workload, student behaviour, emotional strain) and job resources (e.g., supervisor support, role clarity, peer support, feedback). Job crafting interventions are based on the Michigan Job Crafting Exercise (JCE; Berg et al., 2013) and involve three key forms: (1) task crafting, (2) relational crafting, and (3) cognitive crafting. The process typically includes personal analysis, job analysis, job-person fit analysis, creation of a job crafting action plan, and ongoing feedback. Example activities include mapping a 'before sketch' of current tasks, grouping tasks into blocks, creating an 'after sketch' of an ideal role aligned with strengths and values, reframing tasks, and setting short- and long-term action goals to transition from current to ideal role.
Psychological Capital (PsyCap) Interventions k = 3	Interventions focused on building Psychological Capital (PsyCap). They may be delivered as one-off sessions or multi-session programs. Grounded in theories of work motivation, positive psychology, social cognitive and agency theory, psychological resources theory, subjective wellbeing, and broaden-and-build theory, PsyCap interventions aim to strengthen four key capacities: (1) hope (willpower and pathways to achieve goals), (2) efficacy (belief in one's ability to succeed), (3) resilience (ability to bounce back from adversity), and (4) optimism (positive expectations about future outcomes)—collectively forming the acronym HERO. Techniques aim to build positive states, traits, and capacities. Practices to enhance hope include goal setting, sub-goal planning, and contingency planning; for efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious learning, positive feedback, and strengths use; for resilience: reality acceptance, positive reappraisal, growth mindset, and social support; and for optimism: future-focused thinking, gratitude, and envisioning an ideal future self.

emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation and inefficacy), followed by psychological distress (64 instances; including outcomes such as perceived stress) and depression and anxiety (59 instances). Variations of the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI-ES; Maslach et al., 1996) were the most used instrument for assessing occupational burnout, employed in 62 instances. For psychological distress, variations of the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS; Cohen et al., 1983) were primarily used (52 instances), and for depression and anxiety, the Depression Anxiety Stress Scales (DASS Manual; Lovibond & Lovibond, 1995; DASS-21; Norton, 2007) was the most used instrument (12 instances). Additional illbeing outcomes included occupational stress (21 instances) and physiological distress (17 instances). Measures that did not fit discretely into either category, encompassing elements of both wellbeing and illbeing, were grouped under general physical and mental health, with the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ-12; Goldberg & Williams, 1988) being the most frequently employed (6 instances). For a comprehensive overview of all instruments and measures used, please refer to the supplementary material (S3, 'Outcome Summary' and 'Outcomes Graphs & Charts' tab).

3.4. Intervention pathways

Across the 247 studies, 415 wellbeing pathways were measured and reported. We categorised these pathways into six distinct categories, modelled using Waters and Loton's (2019) SEARCH framework and additional literature (e.g., Ciarrochi et al., 2022). (1) Habits, goals, and self were the most frequently measured pathway to wellbeing (101 instances; e.g., self-efficacy, self-regulation, and self-compassion), followed by (2) attention and awareness (96 instances; e.g., mindfulness skills), and (3) relationships (89 instances; e.g., compassion, teacher-student relationships, quality of interactions, trust, and forgiveness). Variations of the Teacher Sense of Self-Efficacy Scale (TSES; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; Schwarzer et al., 1999) were the most used instrument for assessing habits, goals, and self (34 instances across all variations). For attention and awareness, variations of the Five Facet Mindfulness Questionnaire were the most used instrument (FFMQ; Baer et al., 2006) (47 instances) and for relationships the Classroom Assessment Scoring System (CLASS; Pianta et al., 2008) was primarily used (8 instances). Additional pathways included (4) Coping (64 instances; e.g., cognitive reappraisal, coping efficacy, and growth mindset), (5) emotional management (54 instances; e.g., gratitude, emotional

Table 3
Direction of effects grouped by intervention type, outcomes, and pathways.

Intervention Type	+	-	Nil	No Data	Total	+ %	- %	Nil %
Combined MBI + SEL	200	6	16	0	222	90.09	2.70	7.21
Mindfulness	165	3	35	0	203	81.28	1.48	17.24
Multi-Component PPI	124	0	50	0	174	71.26	0.00	28.74
Coping	51	2	8	0	61	83.61	3.28	13.11
SEL + CMT	48	0	10	1	58	82.76	0.00	17.24
Compassion	33	0	8	0	41	80.49	0.00	19.51
Gratitude	20	0	2	0	22	90.91	0.00	9.09
Social Capital	20	0	3	0	23	86.96	0.00	13.04
PPC	11	0	1	0	12	91.67	0.00	8.33
Job-Crafting	11	0	1	0	12	91.67	0.00	8.33
ACT	10	0	0	0	10	100.00	0.00	0.00
Prayer	7	1	0	0	8	87.50	12.50	0.00
Character Strengths	6	0	2	0	8	75.00	0.00	25.00
PsyCAP	3	0	1	0	4	75.00	0.00	25.00
Appreciative Inquiry	0	0	0	1	0	0.00	0.00	0.00
Well-Being Outcome	+	-	**Nil**	**No Data**	**Total**	**%**	**%**	**%**
Occupational WB	59	2	16	1	77	76.62	2.60	20.78
Subjective WB	57	0	10	0	67	85.07	0.00	14.93
Psychological WB	25	0	12	1	37	67.57	0.00	32.43
Resilience	21	1	3	0	25	84.00	4.00	12.00
Physiological WB	11	0	1	1	12	91.67	0.00	8.33
Combined WB	11	0	3	0	14	78.57	0.00	21.43
Ill-Being Outcome	+	-	**Nil**	**No Data**	**Total**	**%**	**%**	**%**
Burnout	55	2	11	2	68	80.88	2.94	16.18
Psychological Distress	53	2	6	3	61	86.89	3.28	9.84
Depression & Anxiety	35	0	12	12	47	74.47	0.00	25.53
Occupational Stress	15	0	4	2	19	78.95	0.00	21.05
Physiological Distress	13	1	0	3	14	92.86	7.14	0.00
Pathway Type	+	-	**Nil**	**No Data**	**Total**	**%**	**%**	**%**
Habits, Goals & Self	83	2	16	0	101	82.18	1.98	15.84
Attention & Awareness	77	1	6	13	84	91.67	1.19	7.14
Relationships	71	0	12	6	83	85.54	0.00	14.46
Coping	48	0	13	3	61	78.69	0.00	21.31
Emotional Management	46	1	1	6	48	95.83	2.08	2.08
Strengths	7	0	5	0	12	58.33	0.00	41.67

Note: Vote counting does not consider statistical significance. The table above shows the number of outcomes that were in a positive (i.e., desirable; '+') direction, a negative (i.e., undesirable; '–') direction, or showed no clear direction. 'No data' refers to outcomes where effect sizes could not be calculated due to insufficient or unclear data, and these were excluded from the vote counting analysis. Percentages were calculated based on the total number of outcomes included in the vote counting analysis (i.e., excluding outcomes classified as 'No data').

regulation, and emotional intelligence), and (6) strengths development (11 instances; e.g., strengths use and strengths spotting). For a comprehensive overview of all instruments and measures used, please see supplementary material S3 ('Pathways Summary' tab).

3.5. Intervention results

Given the exploratory nature of this scoping review, we did not analyse effect sizes or overall intervention effects. Instead, we categorised the direction of effects reported in each study as positive, negative, or null. These effects were examined based on intervention type, wellbeing outcomes, illbeing outcomes, and pathway type to provide a structured overview of the findings. A full summary of effects based on intervention type, wellbeing outcome, illbeing outcome, and pathway type is available in Table 3. Interventions combining mindfulness and SEL reported the highest number of positive effects, with 200 positive effects (90.1%), alongside six negative effects (2.7%) and 16 null effects (7.2%). Mindfulness interventions followed, with 165 positive effects (81.3%), three negative effects (1.5%), and 35 null effects (17.2%). Multi-component PPIs were next, reporting 124 positive effects (71.3%), zero negative effects, and 50 null effects (28.7%). For wellbeing outcomes, occupational wellbeing had the highest number of positive effects (59 positive [76.6%], two negative [2.6%], 16 null effects [20.8%]), followed by subjective wellbeing (57 positive [85.1%], zero negative, 10 null effects [14.9%]) and psychological wellbeing (25 positive [67.6%], zero negative, 12 null effects [32.4%]). For illbeing outcomes, burnout showed the highest number of positive effects (55 positive [80.9%], two negative [2.9%], 11 null effects [16.2%]), followed by psychological distress (53 positive [86.9%], two negative [3.3%], six null effects [9.8%]) and depression and anxiety (35 positive [74.5%], zero negative, 12 null effects [25.5%]). When grouped by pathway, 'habits, goals, and self' had the highest number of positive effects (83 positive [82.2%], two negative [2.0%], 16 null [15.8%]), followed by attention and awareness (77 positive [91.7%], one negative [1.2%], six null [7.1%]), and relationships (71 positive [85.5%], zero negative, 12 null [14.5%]). A full breakdown of the proportions of positive, negative, and null effects across all outcome categories is presented in Table 3.

3.6. Factors influencing implementation

Across studies that reported implementation data, 1,745 codes were identified. These were categorised into five distinct domains, each comprising multiple subcategories, modelled from the Consolidated Framework for Implementation Research 2.0 (CFIR) (Damschroder et al., 2022a; Damschroder et al., 2022b). The most frequently cited domain was (1) implementation processes (471 instances; 27.0%), referring to the methods and procedures used to implement the

intervention, followed by (2) individual characteristics (405 instances; 23.2%), referring to the personal attributes and qualities of the school staff involved, and (3) school characteristics (389 instances; 22.3%), referring to the attributes and features of the schools where the interventions were implemented. Other domains included (4) intervention characteristics (317 instances; 18.2%), referring to attributes and features of the intervention itself that influence implementation, and (5) external factors, which were the least cited (163 instances; 9.3%), referring to the broader contextual factors outside the school that influence implementation. For an overview of all implementation domains, including illustrative examples of specific barriers and facilitators within each, please refer to the supplementary material (S3, 'Implementation Graphs & Charts' tab).

Implementation processes contained several subcategories that emerged from the literature. The most frequently cited were "Implementation Timeline and Planning" (102 instances), referring to the schedule and pacing of the intervention, including how it is introduced and integrated into existing routines; "Training and Support" (95 instances), referring to the availability and quality of coaching or training provided to staff for effective implementation; and "Engagement Strategies" (94 instances), referring to techniques used to engage school staff and maintain their interest and participation, such as active learning, group training, case studies, real-life examples, and active involvement of participants. Other subcategories included "Feedback Mechanisms" (87 instances), referring to processes designed to provide information on implementation progress; "Fidelity Monitoring" (57 instances), referring to procedures used to ensure the intervention is delivered as intended; and "Offsite or Onsite Delivery" (36 instances), referring to whether the program is delivered on-site or off-site and how the physical setting influences implementation.

Individual characteristics were further divided into several subcategories. The most frequently cited were "Attitudes and Beliefs" (126 instances), referring to staff members' attitudes toward the positive psychology intervention and their belief in its benefits; "Competing Priorities and Time Constraints" (79 instances), referring to challenges individuals face in engaging with an intervention due to existing responsibilities, high workload, or other urgent demands that limit their capacity to adopt new practices; and "Self-efficacy" (72 instances), referring to staff members' confidence in their ability to implement the intervention effectively. Other subcategories included "Stress and Wellbeing" (49 instances), referring to staff members' current stress levels and overall wellbeing, which can influence their engagement; "Professional Development" (43 instances), referring to prior training and experience with similar interventions; and "Motivation" (36 instances), referring to the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that drive staff to participate in and support the intervention.

School characteristics included numerous subcategories. The most frequently cited were "Collaborative Environment and Communication" (90 instances), referring to the presence of a collaborative, supportive, and team-oriented working environment among staff, supported by strong social networks and clear communication channels across the school; "School Culture & Climate" (78 instances), referring to the prevailing attitudes, values, norms and practices within the school; and "Leadership and Administrative Support" (72 instances), referring to the commitment and involvement of the school's leadership team in championing and supporting wellbeing initiatives. Other subcategories included "Classroom Environment and Students" (71 instances), referring to the characteristics of the students and the overall classroom environment, including how well the intervention can be applied in classroom settings and whether staff observe positive outcomes in students as a result; "Existing Programs, Curriculums and Initiatives" (49 instances), referring to the compatibility and integration with other ongoing programs and initiatives within the school; and "Infrastructure and Internal Resources" (29 instances), referring to the physical and technological infrastructure, as well as the resources available within the school to support implementation of the intervention.

Intervention characteristics encompassed multiple subcategories. The most frequently cited were "Complexity and Practicality" (102 instances), referring to how easy or difficult the intervention is to understand and implement, including how readily staff can learn and apply the practices and how realistically they can be embedded into daily school routines; "Flexibility and Accessibility" (82 instances), referring to the extent to which the intervention can be adapted to different school contexts, needs, and populations while retaining its core components, as well as how easily participants can access and engage with it based on format, cost, and logistical demands; and "Scalability" (61 instances), referring to the potential for the intervention to be expanded or replicated in other settings or with larger groups while maintaining effectiveness, including its capacity to support school-wide implementation. Other subcategories included "Resource Requirement" (44 instances), referring to the level and type of resources needed to deliver the intervention effectively, including time, staffing, materials, and financial investment required for implementation and ongoing delivery; and "Credibility" (28 instances), referring to the degree to which the intervention is grounded in scientific research and has an established evidence base in a school setting.

External factors also revealed multiple distinct subcategories. The most frequently cited were "Policy, Curriculums and Regulations" (47 instances), referring to educational policies and regulations that support or hinder implementation; "District Leadership" (35 instances), referring to the role of district-level leaders in advocating for and supporting the intervention; and "Socioeconomic Context" (34 instances), referring to the broader socioeconomic factors that can impact the implementation and effectiveness of the intervention. Other subcategories included "Funding and Resources" (27 instances), which refers to availability of external funding and resources from the district or other sources; and "Community Support" (20 instances), referring to the level of support and involvement from the wider community, other schools, and parents. A full description of each domain and the factors influencing implementation can be found in the supplementary material 'S3', 'Implementation Summary' tab.

Collectively, these findings indicate that the implementation of positive psychology interventions is shaped by interrelated processes, individual attributes, and contextual factors within schools and their broader districts. Most factors reported in the literature emphasised bottom-up processes and individual-level approaches, focusing on how interventions are delivered (e.g., planning, timelines, training, feedback, and staff engagement) and on individual enablers or barriers to success (e.g., staff attitudes, beliefs, self-efficacy, skills, competing priorities, and time constraints). In contrast, fewer studies examined organisational or systemic influences such as district policies, leadership, community engagement, and work design, suggesting that broader ecological factors remain underexplored. Overall, while considerable attention has been paid to individual-level adoption and short-term engagement with school initiatives, less is known about the structural, policy, and broader contextual factors that support the sustainability and scale-up of whole-school approaches.

3.7. Summary of results

The findings above synthesised over two decades of research on school-based positive psychology interventions (PPIs) targeting educator wellbeing and resilience across 247 sources spanning 42 countries. The highest number of publications appeared between 2022 and 2024, with schoolteachers across multiple grade levels being the most commonly targeted study population. We identified 15 distinct intervention types, with combined mindfulness and SEL interventions, mindfulness-focused interventions, and multi-component PPIs being most prevalent. These interventions primarily aimed to promote wellbeing by building mindfulness and self-regulatory skills, enhancing self-efficacy, and fostering positive relationships with self and others (e.g., students, colleagues and/or parents). Occupational, subjective, and

psychological wellbeing were the most frequently measured outcomes, alongside burnout, psychological distress, depression, and anxiety. Positive effects were frequently reported across interventions, with combined mindfulness and SEL interventions, mindfulness-focused interventions, and multi-component PPIs reporting the highest numbers of positive effects. Factors influencing implementation were reported across five domains, with implementation processes and individual-level factors most frequently discussed, while broader external factors—such as district policies—received less attention. While many studies used robust designs, evidence regarding the longer-term effects of interventions remains limited, with relatively few longitudinal studies and mixed findings at follow-up.

4. Discussion

Our review aimed to synthesise how school-based PPIs have been used to support educator wellbeing and resilience by identifying the types of interventions implemented, the outcomes examined, the effects reported, and the factors that may influence their implementation and effectiveness. Mindfulness-based approaches (alone or combined with SEL), multi-component PPIs, and interventions integrating SEL with classroom management were the most commonly implemented. Other approaches, including coping and resilience training, compassion-focused training, gratitude interventions, character strengths interventions, and job-crafting interventions, appeared less frequently. Outcomes were conceptualised and measured in diverse ways, contributing to variability in both reported effects and theorised mechanisms of change. Positive effects were most frequently reported for occupational and subjective wellbeing, psychological resilience, burnout, and psychological distress, with more mixed effects for depressive and anxiety symptoms and psychological wellbeing. Most studies relied on self-report measures, and few included long-term follow-up, limiting conclusions about sustained effects. Study designs also varied considerably, ranging from randomised controlled trials to pre-experimental designs, which should be considered when interpreting the reported effects. Successful implementation was typically influenced by alignment with school priorities, a supportive school culture, adequate training and guidance, compatibility with staff beliefs and time constraints, accessible content, strong leadership engagement, and coherence with school and district policies. Below, we elaborate on these themes in relation to the review questions and outline implications for the design, implementation, and evaluation of PPIs. A summary of key insights, practical implications and future research directions is provided in the supplementary materials S3, 'Practical Implications' tab.

4.1. Mindfulness and educator wellbeing

We identified mindfulness as one of the most common intervention components, with a high proportion of positive effects reported across studies, consistent with prior reviews (Beames et al., 2023; Emerson et al., 2017; Hidajat et al., 2023; Hwang et al., 2017; Klingbeil & Renshaw, 2018; Lomas et al., 2017, 2019; Zarate et al., 2019). Drawing on Shapiro et al.'s (2006,2008) Intention-Attention-Attitude (IAA) model, one proposed explanation is that mindfulness effects stem from improvements in educators' intentions (e.g., self-awareness, values alignment), attention (e.g., present-moment awareness, reduced rumination), and attitudes (e.g., self-compassion, non-reactivity, non-judgment, acceptance). These theorised mechanisms may in turn support psychological flexibility, self-regulation, and emotion regulation during challenging classroom situations, such as managing disruptive behaviour and responding to student distress (Hwang et al., 2017; Meiklejohn et al., 2012). Mindfulness differs from traditional PPIs by engaging with both positive and negative experiences, addressing critiques that 'first-wave' PPIs overemphasised positivity (Held, 2002). It also aligns with evidence that avoiding negative emotions predicts poorer psychological outcomes and that experiencing them is inherent to meaningful work (Kashdan & Biswas-Diener, 2015; Hayes et al., 2006; Keyes & Annas, 2009; Ryan and Deci, 2001; Steger et al., 2012) This perspective is consistent with 'second-wave' positive psychology, which integrates negative experiences into wellbeing (Ivtzan et al., 2015; Lomas & Ivtzan, 2016) and informs approaches such as Acceptance and Commitment Therapy (Hayes et al., 2006) and Mindfulness-to-Meaning Theory (Garland et al., 2015a; Garland et al., 2015b). From this theoretical perspective, integrating mindfulness within positive psychology and positive education frameworks could provide a dual process that cultivates positive emotions and personal resources (e.g., broaden-and-build theory; Fredrickson, 2001) while enhancing psychological acceptance and flexibility in response to the inevitable demands of teaching.

Beyond stress reduction, mindfulness has been linked to improved teacher self-efficacy (Emerson et al., 2017; Flook et al., 2013; Meiklejohn et al., 2012), greater ability to savour positive moments with students or colleagues (Garland et al., 2010; Ivtzan et al., 2016), stronger school relationships (Emerson et al., 2017; Jennings et al., 2013), and more effective coping with work stress (Hwang et al., 2017; Taylor et al., 2016). It may also enhance work engagement through increased recognition and use of personal strengths and experiences of flow (Kaufman et al., 2009; Kee & Wang, 2008; Niemiec, 2013). These outcomes suggest that mindfulness may be foundational to educator wellbeing, supporting multiple potential pathways such as strengths development, self-efficacy, self-regulation, self-compassion, attentional control, relationship quality, emotion regulation, and coping efficacy (Tarrasch et al., 2020; Waters & Loton, 2019), though the specific causal pathways linking mindfulness to these outcomes require further empirical testing.

However, several issues warrant attention when applying mindfulness in practice. Common barriers for schools and educators included limited time, misconceptions about mindfulness, and difficulty applying strategies during the school day. Many interventions emphasised formal meditation while underutilising informal mindfulness that could be integrated into routine classroom activities. Programs may therefore benefit from offering brief, informal strategies; clarifying what mindfulness is and is not; providing concrete classroom-relevant examples; and embedding mindfulness more fully into professional development, school culture, and pre-service teacher education.

4.2. Relational and intrapersonal resources in teaching

Prosocial relationships were a consistent focus across interventions and were associated with improvements in teacher wellbeing and resilience. Many interventions strengthened relational skills such as empathy, compassion, and mindful communication, consistent with reviews showing that supportive relationships protect against stress and burnout and contribute to a positive school climate (Beltman et al., 2011; Nwoko et al., 2023; Roffey, 2012; Spilt et al., 2011). Teacher–student relationships were particularly salient across interventions and align with broader research linking positive teacher–student interactions to improved teacher self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and reduced emotional strain (Jennings et al., 2009; Lever et al., 2017; Roffey, 2012; Spilt et al., 2011; Tarrasch et al., 2020). Such relationships may also foster a sense of meaning and purpose important for long-term engagement and resilience.

In addition to relational factors, our review highlighted the importance of intrapersonal resources such as self-compassion, self-efficacy, self-regulation, and a balanced professional identity, which can help educators feel capable and purposeful in their roles while maintaining healthy boundaries. Self-compassion may support more adaptive responses to stress by reducing self-criticism and feelings of isolation (Chen, 2022; Hu, 2023; Wong et al., 2025), while teacher self-efficacy is consistently associated with greater teacher wellbeing, lower burnout, and more effective classroom management (Cansoy & Türkoğlu, 2024; Lauermann & König, 2016; Ortan et al., 2021; Skaalvik & Skaalvik,

2010; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Self-regulation can further support goal-directed behaviour and constructive responses to setbacks, and professional identity is associated with greater clarity about one's values and purpose as a teacher and a stronger sense of meaning in the role (Day, 2018; Day & Kington, 2008; Toubassi et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2022; Zhai et al., 2025). When combined with healthy boundaries between work and personal life, this sense of identity may also buffer against burnout and support longer-term wellbeing (Avanzi et al., 2012). Taken together, these intrapersonal capacities can shape how educators interpret, respond to, and recover from workplace demands, with potential implications for the impact and sustainability of wellbeing interventions.

4.3. Multi-component and flexible PPIs

Many interventions in our review were multi-component PPIs combining several positive psychology practices (e.g., gratitude, strengths use, mindfulness). These interventions were among those most frequently associated with improvements in educator wellbeing and resilience. One possible explanation is that both constructs are multifaceted and involve cognitive, emotional, social, and behavioural processes (Carr et al., 2021; Hendriks et al., 2020). By targeting multiple pathways, multi-component PPIs may be well suited to the diverse demands of teaching and support improvements across a broader range of outcomes over time, consistent with prior reviews (Cann et al., 2024; Carr et al., 2021; Vo & Allen, 2022). A key strength of these interventions is their flexibility, allowing educators to select personally relevant and actionable strategies, which may support person–activity fit and self-determined motivation (Lyubomirsky & Layous, 2013).

However, multi-component PPIs are also complex to implement and evaluate, and several studies reported null effects. Few studies examined which components were essential, how choice influenced engagement, or whether specific combinations were more effective for particular groups of educators. Clearer specification of core and optional components, alongside more robust process evaluation, is needed to understand how these interventions operate across varied school contexts (Hendriks et al., 2020). These design considerations must also be balanced against real-world constraints. Time pressure, workload, and scheduling demands frequently limited participation, underscoring the importance of brief, low-burden entry points, voluntary participation, and flexible delivery formats (e.g., hybrid or asynchronous modes) to support sustained engagement. These findings align with evidence that while multi-component or whole-school approaches may enhance long-term outcomes, brief and accessible formats can provide a practical entry point for educators (Shankland & Rosset, 2017). Overall, findings suggest that multi-component PPIs may be particularly beneficial when they balance comprehensive, multi-pathway content with the practical realities of teachers' work, offering choice and flexibility without adding unnecessary burden.

4.4. Clarifying constructs and measuring real-world impact

There was substantial variability in how studies defined and measured teacher wellbeing, resilience, and illbeing, echoing previous reviews (Fox et al., 2023; Hascher & Waber, 2021). This lack of conceptual clarity hinders comparison across studies and obscures which outcomes are most meaningful or sensitive to change in schools. To address this, we consolidated the disparate outcomes reported in the literature into broader domains for wellbeing, illbeing, and pathways (see Supplementary Material S3—Outcomes Graphs & Charts and Pathways Graphs & Charts—for further detail). While not intended as a definitive model, this structure helps organise and distinguish diverse constructs while highlighting areas of duplication and omission in the literature. It also underscores the need for theory-aligned definitions of PPIs, wellbeing, and resilience, clearer justification for outcome selection, and greater use of validated measures aligned with proposed mechanisms of change.

Measurement quality presented an additional challenge. Both wellbeing and resilience are multifaceted and fluctuate across the school year, yet most studies relied on self-report measures, assessed only a single aspect of these broader constructs (e.g., job satisfaction, trait-based resilience), and lacked long-term follow-up. More teacher-specific and context-sensitive tools are needed, as general and work-related wellbeing are related but may not align. To build a more practical evidence base, future studies should incorporate a broader mix of methods—including repeated measurement, behavioural indicators, ecological momentary assessment, and multisource data—and examine outcomes at teacher, classroom, and school levels. These could include teacher outcomes (e.g., wellbeing, occupational wellbeing, resilience), classroom outcomes (e.g., classroom climate, teacher–student interactions, instructional quality), and school-level indicators (e.g., school climate, team functioning, staff absences and turnover). Multilevel, mixed-method, and ecologically grounded assessment strategies may provide a more realistic understanding of intervention impact and how wellbeing and resilience are supported in schools.

4.5. Strengthening implementation and systemic supports

Several factors may have influenced implementation and effectiveness, although attention to these varied across studies. Participatory and system-wide approaches, which are widely recommended in the wellbeing and implementation literature (Donetto et al., 2015; Goldberg et al., 2019; March et al., 2022; Ruttledge, 2022), may be particularly important for sustaining outcomes. However, they represented only a small proportion of the interventions identified, a pattern also noted in recent reviews (Beames et al., 2023; Cann et al., 2024; Vo & Allen, 2022). When adopted, these approaches tended to enhance feasibility, implementation quality, acceptability, and contextual relevance. Systems-informed designs may also strengthen leadership engagement and support the sustained uptake of wellbeing initiatives (Brady & Wilson, 2021; Cann et al., 2021). Given that teacher wellbeing fluctuates across the school year, co-designed programs that adapt to changing demands may be particularly valuable (Von der Embse & Mankin, 2021).

Despite these potential benefits, most interventions focused on individual-level change, with limited attention to broader external influences on implementation. Using the CFIR 2.0 framework, studies most often reported on implementation processes, individual educator characteristics, and school-level factors. External influences such as district leadership, policy mandates, resource availability, and curriculum integration received far less attention, despite their recognised importance for long-term sustainability and teacher wellbeing (Collie et al., 2015; Skinner et al., 2021). This gap is notable in light of long-standing calls for ecological approaches that consider individual, relational, and systemic contributors to teacher wellbeing (Kangas-Dick & O'Shaughnessy, 2020; Lester et al., 2020; Mansfield et al., 2016) and reflects the broader movement toward 'third-wave' positive psychology, which emphasises systems thinking, contextual adaptation, and collective wellbeing (Lomas et al., 2021). Operationalising these approaches will require assessment and intervention that account for the interrelated factors influencing educator wellbeing. One practical starting point for researchers is to collaborate with stakeholders across the school system (e.g., teachers, school leaders, and district personnel) to develop a shared understanding of educator wellbeing and co-design interventions responsive to local needs. More broadly, embedding wellbeing literacy across teacher education, early career induction, and leadership development may provide an upstream opportunity to develop a common language around educator wellbeing and the practices that support it across the profession (e.g., Allison et al., 2021, 2024; Kern et al., 2020; Kern & Taylor, 2021; Oades et al., 2021). Finally, future research should move beyond individual-level interventions by addressing organisational work conditions, such as workload,

administrative burden, role expectations, and relational support, using established work design principles and frameworks (e.g., Griffiths, 2014; Humphrey et al., 2007; Parker, 2014; Parker & Jorritsma, 2021; Parker & Knight, 2024). Together, these recommendations provide practical guidance for adopting systems-informed approaches to educator wellbeing.

4.6. Limitations and future research

This review has several limitations that should be acknowledged. Although extensive search strategies were used across multiple databases and sources, it is possible that some relevant studies were not captured. Additionally, only studies published in English were included, which may have excluded relevant research conducted in other languages. Although critical friend discussions were used to support consistency, aspects of the coding and synthesis process were led by the first author, which may have influenced the interpretation of themes. While scoping reviews enable a broad mapping of the literature, they do not typically include a formal quality appraisal of included studies. Consequently, this review is well suited to identifying patterns, gaps, and factors that may influence implementation across the literature, but is less suited to drawing definitive conclusions about intervention effectiveness. The evidence base also encompassed a wide range of study designs, from randomised controlled trials to pre-experimental studies, and this methodological diversity should be considered when interpreting the review's conclusions. In particular, findings from non-randomised designs should be interpreted more cautiously given their greater susceptibility to confounding and selection bias than randomised controlled trials. Similarly, factors associated with successful implementation should not be interpreted as evidence of intervention effectiveness, but rather as factors that may facilitate the uptake and delivery of PPIs in school settings. Although the predominance of positive findings identified across the literature is encouraging, these findings should be interpreted in light of these methodological considerations. As the evidence base matures, more rigorous primary studies (e.g., randomised controlled trials incorporating both process and outcome evaluations) and systematic reviews incorporating formal quality appraisal will strengthen confidence in intervention effectiveness, the causal mechanisms underpinning observed effects, and the distinction between successful implementation and meaningful intervention impact.

Beyond these methodological considerations, most studies relied on self-report measures and short-term outcomes, with limited use of longitudinal designs or follow-up assessments. Greater use of third-party observational measures could enhance data quality, reduce participant burden, and provide greater insight into educator behaviour and wellbeing in practice. Measurement was also often limited in scope, with many studies using unidimensional measures that may not adequately capture the dynamic and multifaceted nature of wellbeing and resilience over time. Finally, most interventions focused on individual-level change, with less emphasis on broader ecological or system-level factors, including the role of school leadership, district-level support, and district policy. These limitations highlight key directions for future research, including the need for more rigorous evaluation designs, broader and longer-term measurement, improved reporting of intervention components and mechanisms, and a greater emphasis on sustainability, scalability, and implementation in real-world school settings.

5. Conclusion

This review provides an updated and comprehensive synthesis of school-based PPIs designed to support educator wellbeing and resilience—contributing to the literature by offering a more complete and contemporary catalogue of available interventions, the outcomes and correlates they target, patterns in reported effects, proposed pathways and mechanisms through which they may operate, and the factors that may influence implementation and effectiveness. This broader synthesis is important because it consolidates a previously fragmented evidence base, identifies commonalities across the literature, and highlights key gaps that limit progress in the field. Mindfulness interventions, SEL interventions, and multi-component PPIs showed particularly encouraging patterns of reported effects. However, supporting lasting change may require attention to both individual and broader relational, organisational, and systemic factors. Interventions that are flexible, encourage teacher involvement, and are integrated into the wider school context may be more likely to have a long-term impact. Future research and practice should therefore move beyond individual-focused strategies toward more collaborative, systems-informed approaches to educator wellbeing. A practical summary of intervention types, core characteristics, outcome measures, pathways, and implementation factors is provided in Supplementary Material S4.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Luke Tomlin: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Data curation, Conceptualization. **Timothy Budden:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization. **Aaron Simpson:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization. **Travis Kingdon:** Writing – review & editing, Validation, Data curation. **Daniel F. Gucciardi:** Writing – review & editing, Validation, Supervision, Software. **Ivan Jeftic:** Writing – review & editing, Validation, Data curation. **James Dimmock:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization. **Cameron Norsworthy:** Writing – review & editing, Validation. **Jessica L. Borelli:** Writing – review & editing, Validation. **Holly E. Brophy-Herb:** Writing – review & editing, Validation. **Ben Jackson:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization.

Statements and declarations

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The authors report there are no competing interests to declare.

Declaration of competing interests

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2026.105810.

Data availability

The data supporting the findings of this study are available in the supplementary materials.

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