

Cover page

## **Leadership and Professional Identity in School Teacher Training in Spain (Catalonia).**

Pilar Iranzo-García. ORCID: 0000-0002-8516-9205.

[pilar.iranzo@urv.cat](mailto:pilar.iranzo@urv.cat)

Marta Camarero-Figuerola. ORCID: 0000-0001-6116-0882.

[marta.camarero@urv.cat](mailto:marta.camarero@urv.cat)

Juana-María Tierno-García. ORCID: 0000-0002-1027-7332.

[juanamaria.tierno@urv.cat](mailto:juanamaria.tierno@urv.cat)

Charo Barrios-Arós. ORCID: 0000-0002-3620-9338.

[charo.barrios@urv.cat](mailto:charo.barrios@urv.cat)

*Universitat Rovira i Virgili*

Carretera de Valls, s/n 43007 Tarragona (Spain)

Corresponding author:

Marta Camarero-Figuerola. [marta.camarero@urv.cat](mailto:marta.camarero@urv.cat)

# **Leadership and Professional Identity in School Teacher Training in Spain (Catalonia)**

## **Abstract**

A holistic distribution of leadership, where the entire community is committed to both learning and the organisation's development, is considered an important factor in educational success. Initial training should contribute towards building teachers' identities as leaders (teachers-leader) in order to prepare future school teachers. Our research examines how teaching competences are built with regard to coordination, leadership, and collaboration with the community during school teacher training. In this paper, we present the results of a questionnaire comparing the vision and perception of these competences in the context of trainees, university lecturers, and state school teachers. The results show visions aligned with a holistic form of leadership distributed amongst the three groups. Moreover, they reveal a close link between the construction of the identity of teacher-leaders and the practical and specific challenges of trainee teachers, university lecturers, and school teachers. This implies that the initial training must expressly include the distributed leadership competences in the syllabus, while also encouraging situations in which students, together with their tutors, gain these competences.

## **Keywords**

Teacher education, leadership competences, professional identity, self-perception, community networks

## **Introduction**

In recent decades, school leadership and related professional competences have been analysed as influential factors in school success (Leithwood et al. 2006; Radinger 2014) as they encourage an environment which fosters a committed professional (Day and Sammons 2016). The existing literature highlights the importance not only of the leadership competences of principals, but also of school teachers, in terms of their teaching, coordination, assessment, community collaboration, and supervisory actions (Perrenoud 2007; Elmore 2010; Leijen, Kullasepp, and Anspal 2014), with an emphasis on transformational (Day, Gu, and Sammons 2016), pedagogical (Day, Sammons, Hopkins, et.al. 2009; McKinsey Report 2010), and distributed leadership (Harris 2005;

Danielson 2006; Leithwood et al. 2006; OECD, 2009; Spillane 2012). We agree with the concept of the teacher-leader as an individual who integrates all of these dimensions (Barth 2001; Gabriel 2005; Darling-Hammond and Rothman 2011).

However, the existing literature has also highlighted difficulties in developing this broadened vision of teaching identity (Morrison 2013). On the one hand, due to the complexity inherent in the construction of teachers' identity before their multiple and complex roles, while on the other hand, because there are contexts in which school management is semi-professional, such as countries in southern Europe and Latin America, (Bush 2009; OECD 2016) the complexity of the identities of both teachers and principals is even greater because they have a double role (Jones 2006).

While the aforementioned studies have analysed the development of leadership competences in the teaching profession, little attention has been paid to how initial school teacher training encourages the creation of professional identities whereby individuals take on the challenge of becoming teacher-leaders who actively work to achieve educational success for their communities. Since Harris (2005), research has instead focused on the practice of distributed leadership, which is defined as the development of leadership and the school organisation by the entire community. Given the importance placed on initial training regarding the active competences that enable future teachers to identify and establish themselves as main agents (Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson 2015), it is crucial to explore how school teachers' initial training helps them to construct their identities as teacher-leaders.

Universities in Spain offer a syllabus which includes some fundamental competences, which aim at creating this broadened vision of teacher-leaders, such as providing family education guidance or accepting teaching as a profession that should be open to innovation. We note, however, that there is no specific mention of training regarding competence in leadership, coordination, or community collaboration. This absence is especially significant given the semi-professionalization of principals in the Spanish context: school principals are always school

teachers who, during a certain period of time and with little specific training, move into the administration sector while simultaneously performing teaching tasks (Schleicher 2012; OECD 2014).

Given the information outlined above, we aim to investigate how teaching competences are built in terms of internal coordination, leadership, and community collaboration during initial teacher training from the perspective of three groups of agents (teacher trainees, the university lecturers, and school teachers, including those who perform managerial roles). This research focuses on analysing the visions and self-perceptions of these agents because the beliefs and perceptions of teacher trainees about the profession have already been identified as elements that influence the development of their professional commitment (Moses et al. 2017). Professional identity is also a representation of how one sees oneself, based on the individual's own beliefs and values (Aravena 2013; Morrison 2013).

This article analyses the self-perception that these three groups have about their own levels of leadership competence, as well as the perceptions that school teachers and university lecturers have regarding students' levels of competence in those competences. To this end, the research process aims to answer the following questions:

- How do each of these agents define the competences of coordination, leadership, and community collaboration?
- How does each group perceive its own competences, and to which factors do they attribute these competences?
- How do university lecturers and school teachers perceive students' competence levels?

## **Theoretical background**

### ***A broader teacher-leader identity***

Establishing oneself as a teacher capable of leading the way to educational success involves a

shift from a teacher identity, which is restricted to the demands of managing one's own classroom or curricular material in contexts of individualistic cultures, towards an interactive and broadened professionalism, which emphasises both individual and collective decision-making in methodological, organisational, and relational matters (Hargreaves 1994). This entails creating learning opportunities for all members of the community together. In short, it involves a shift from a technical and isolated professional perspective towards placing oneself within a social-critical and participative paradigm.

In this sense, the complexity of the process of developing professional identity is assumed, particularly because it is a multifaceted and non-linear interaction process between individuals and their diverse social and professional environments. Furthermore, whilst the common development patterns within school teachers' professional stages appear to be straightforward, the formation of professional identity has been shown to be far less uniform (Morrison 2013). In addition, teaching identity has a direct impact on professional effectiveness (Leijen, Kullasepp, and Anspal 2014).

The concept of professional identity points to the interaction of three elements: professional knowledge, which includes theoretical and conceptual codified knowledge, procedural practical knowledge based on competences, reflective knowledge based on intuition, and personal experiences and beliefs (Leijen, Kullasepp, and Anspal 2014); the various contexts in which professional knowledge has been developed, which have a powerful influence on teachers' behaviour and ultimately define their own professional identity (Sutherland and Markauskaite 2012; Morrison 2013); and personal characteristics (Moses et al. 2017).

Professional identity thus becomes a framework which allows us to analyse aspects of teaching, including questions about how to become teachers, how to act, and how to understand the profession, as well as how all this is reconstructed with experience (Beauchamp and Thomas 2009).

Based on the broadened teaching perspective, instructional-pedagogical and distributed

leadership must define the educational practice both of principals and teachers, as well as those of other members of the educational community. This is what the concept of middle leadership, which is currently emphasized, reflects (Gronn 2003; Louis, KS, Leithwood, K., Wahlstrom, K., Anderson, et. Al. 2010; Grootenboer, Edwards-Groves and Rönnerman 2015; Day, Gu, & Sammons 2016).

Thus, Day and Sammons (2016) identify the following key dimensions of successful leadership: a shared vision in terms of values and direction; improving conditions for teaching, learning and the curriculum; enhancing teacher quality; and building relationships inside and outside the school community.

As can be deduced from the above, the leadership process involves developing all sorts of competences, ranging from technical to strategic and creative competences; intrapersonal and interpersonal competences; and planning, interactive, and assessment competences; furthermore, from managing learning to the creation and maintenance of organisational structures.

### ***Initial training and professional identity***

Professional identity is initiated when training begins in a certain professional environment (Sutherland and Markauskaite 2012; DeAngelis, Wall, and Che 2013; González et al. 2018) or even, in the case of school teachers, from one's personal experience as a student (Morrison 2013). This, therefore, is a process of shared responsibility, as it involves the participation of various actors. It is also a continuous, albeit nonlinear, process, since the quality and quantity of interactions is not uniform.

Creating an identity involves cognitive, affective, and socio-emotional processes, which both converge in certain contexts (Beauchamp and Thomas 2009; Leijen, Kullasepp and Anspal 2014) and should be tackled during the initial training process. Moreover, understanding education as a basis for the processes of socialisation and consolidation of a society's values implies bolstering the school teacher's professional identity in order to empower them, which has a positive

influence on social improvement (Valenčič Zuljan and Marentič Požarnik 2014; Desjardins 2015;).

Current perspectives on teaching consider teachers as ‘agentic teachers (who) perceive themselves as pedagogical experts who have the capability of intentional and responsible management of new learning at both individual and community levels’ (Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson 2015, 615). These teachers have new and important roles (such as social management in the classroom or the tutoring of other teachers) that require new professional identities which are, as yet, weakly constructed (Livingston 2014; Eteläpelto, Vähäsantanen, and Hökkä 2015).

Training programmes are key, not just in the skill-based development of future school teachers, but also in the development of their professional identity, perception of self-efficacy, and professional commitment. Formative experiences that generate positive emotions and autonomy, as well as sufficient guidance, have a positive correlation with the perception of self-efficacy and student engagement (Leijen, Kullasepp and Anspal 2014; Moses et al. 2017). There is also a direct relation between the positive perception of the initial training and the intention to remain a teacher, rather than leave the profession, which is a pressing problem in some contexts (DeAngelis, Wall, and Che 2013; Morrison 2013).

Therefore, these formative experiences, which will underpin good teaching practice, should represent extensive and actual visions of the different situations that teachers will face when carrying out their work (González et al. 2018; Morrison 2013). Thus, such formative experiences should include evaluation and self-assessment (Radinger 2014; Sutherland and Markauskaite 2012), involve reflective practice (Valenčič Zuljan and Marentič Požarnik 2014), and provide strategies to enable leadership in these situations, based on agentic teachers’ identities (Jones 2006; Soini et al. 2015).

## **Methodology**

A mixed method has been used (Creswell and Plano, 2006), although quantitative predominance (QUAN) and support for qualitative deepening (QUAL) were also utilised. A single questionnaire (see appendix) with open-ended and closed-ended questions was also deployed.

### ***Data collection and analysis***

The main tool used was a questionnaire, which was designed based on an extensive literature review and validated by four experts from national and international universities. In addition, it was applied to three school principals, three university lecturers, and five students who were not part of the sample to check the understanding of the questions and the time needed to complete the questions.

Once these changes were incorporated, the final version contained 25 questions (open-ended and closed-ended). In this article, we analyse only the items related to our ‘research questions’ (see appendix). It was distributed by the online *Lime Survey* platform from November 2016 to April 2017.

A content analysis was carried out to identify the main emerging categories regarding both the open-ended questions and the closed-ended answers, while a quantitative analysis with the SPSS programme (v.22.0) using descriptive statistics (ANOVA [F] factor and *t* of Student [t]) was used to identify significant differences. The Levene statistic allowed us to select the most appropriate test (HSD Tukey or Games-Howell), based on the result of the homogeneity of variances, through which to identify where the significant differences were (inter-groups and intra-groups). The reliability (Cronbach’s alpha) of the items analysed ranged from 0.878 to 0.909.

### ***Participants***

In terms of the participants, the population comprised all the students enrolled (166) and university lecturers (32) of one of the *Universitat Rovira i Virgili* (URV) campuses, as well as three state schools in the area (20 teachers). All the participants gave their informed consent and received a certificate for having collaborated in this study.



Finally, 163 answered questionnaires were obtained:

- 111 students participated (66.9% of the population). Of these, 97.3% are women; 57.7% are 22 years old or younger, 34.2% are between 23 and 26 years old, and 8.1% are 27 years old or older; 73% have work experience in educational contexts. More than half (56%) combine work and study; 54.1% accessed this university degree through previous professional training, 40.5% after completing the A-level, and a mere 5.4% through other means. Turning to the participants' year of study, 60% are in the first or second year, so they have not yet carried out teaching practice, 17% are in their third year, where they do *Practicum I*, and 23% are in their fourth year and are undertaking their *Practicum II*.
- Of the university lecturers (32) who took part, 78.1% are women, 56.3% are 40 years old or over ( $\bar{x}=43$  years old;  $\sigma=9.20$ ), 84.4% have less than 11 years' university experience ( $\bar{x}=9$ ;  $\sigma=6.06$ ), 59.4% combine university teaching with professional activity outside the university, 62.5% have supervised teaching practice over the last three years, and, 50% have school experience.
- From the three schools, 20 school teachers took part, of whom 80% are women and 50% are 40 years old or over, 100% work full time, 65% have a permanent post, 70% have 11 years' experience or more, and 75% have supervised teaching practice over the last three years.

## Findings

### *1. Definition of the competences of coordination, leadership, and community collaboration*

The established emerging categories are shown in Tables 1 to 3. The participants were coded with a letter which identifies them (S=Students/Trainees; T=School Teachers; and L=University Lecturers), and a random three-digit number.

[Table 1 near here]

We analysed both the signified unit and the percentage of their citations and we note that:

For the students/trainees, coordination is mostly and closely related to ‘teamwork’, understood as *‘working together and in parallel (...) all working towards one goal’*(S071) *‘(...) to improve the children’s development’* (S052).

On the other hand, for the university lecturers, coordination means, above all, achieving ‘consensual agreements’ on the decisions and actions to be taken at a school (L004, L026).

The school teachers concur on many issues mentioned above, and believe that ‘avoiding inconsistencies’ is what best defines coordination: *‘that there is no dissonance between levels, cycles, and educational approach’* (T008).

We also note that both trainees and school teachers include ‘collaboration with the community’ in their definitions coordination, while school teachers understand it as ‘co-leadership’ and an ‘exchange of knowledge’.

[Table 2 near here]

In the conceptualisation of leadership, the three groups agree that leading is ‘providing direction’: *‘knowing how to lead and making the best decisions in situations that arise on a day-to-day basis’* (S035) and *‘encouraging and leading educational actions’* (T009), with the aim of *‘making progress and enabling other people achieve progress in constructing educational programmes’* (L011). University lecturers and school teachers also emphasise ‘motivating and overseeing’ this guidance.

Unanimously, they see the importance of the ‘leader’s personal characteristics’. *‘The ability to express your opinion to the group (...) and take initiative’* (S024) stands out, while *‘expressing oneself in an assertive and empathetic way’* (T016) and *‘acting as a role model and building trust’* (L019) were also cited.

For all, community collaboration is synonymous with ‘collaborating with other educational bodies’ to integrate school activities into pupils’ social and family environments. This means ‘*linking the teaching profession with the different members of the community*’ (L021), which involves ‘*working together with families*’ (S068) and ‘*with organisations and services from the wider community*’ (T005), as well as ‘*avoiding segregation*’ (S060).

[Table 3 near here]

A large percentage of citations referred to a ‘learning resource’ for ‘*linking classroom activities to real-life situations*’ (L006) and ‘*explaining the subject matter*’ (S061). Therefore, ‘*the community is an essential source for more lively, functional, and meaningful learning*’ (T002).

Others, albeit in the minority, referred to the ‘knowledge of the context’: ‘*knowing where you are, participating, and making the whole community participate*’ (T019); to ‘giving knowledge back to society’: ‘*working to ensure progress in the wider community*’ (S105); and to ‘socio-political responsibility’: ‘*taking stock of society’s needs and demands to promote research and competences in these areas*’ (L032).

## ***2. Perception of the competences of coordination, leadership, and community collaboration***

In this section, we present the self-perception of the three groups on the 16 proposed competences. Next, we compare the self-perception of each group and analyse all cases where there are significant differences.

The three groups perceive themselves as more competent in terms of ‘responsibility at work’ and less so regarding their ‘relationship with organisations from the wider community’.

The average score of the different elements by the university lecturers ranged between 5.3 and 8.8 ( $\bar{x}=7.4$ ). The most highly rated competences are ‘responsibility at work’ (8.8), ‘autonomous learning’ (8.5), and ‘critical thinking’ (8.3). The least highly rated are ‘relationships with families’

(5.3), relationships with organisations from the wider community' (5.8), and 'participation in the centre's organisational culture' (6).

For school teachers, the scores varied between 6.3 and 9.2 ( $\bar{X}=7.8$ ). The competences they believe they have developed most fully are 'responsibility at work' (9.2), 'relationships with families' (8.7), and 'teamwork' (8.5). The least developed are: 'momentum and revitalisation of working groups' (6.3), 'project leadership' (6.6), and 'relationship with organisations from the wider community' (6.9).

The trainees' scores varied between 7.1 and 8.8 ( $\bar{X}=7.8$ ). They perceive themselves to be more competent at 'responsibility at work' (8.8), 'teamwork' (8.4), and 'teacher-pupil interaction' (8.3). They feel less competent at 'combined analysis of complex situations' (7.1), 'relationship with organisations from the wider community' (7.1), and 'participation in the centre's organisational culture' (7.2).

It is only in the trainee group where we encountered significant differences (intra-group). The trainees who have not carried out their Teaching Practice consider themselves to be more competent (compared to those who have actually done it) in 'project leadership (7.63 vs 7.17). This difference is significant:  $t(106) = -2.098, p = .038$ . The same applies to 'momentum and revitalisation of working groups' (7.87 vs 7.26), where there is also a significant difference:  $t(107) = -3.005, p = .003$ .

There are also some significant differences depending on the course:

[Table 4 near here]

- In 'project leadership' [ $F(3,104)=3.815, p=.012$ ] and 'momentum and revitalisation of working groups' [ $F(3,105)=4.426, p=.006$ ], third-year students (6.87 and 7.14, respectively) consider themselves to be significantly less competent than both first-year (7.65 and 8.02, respectively) and second-year students (8.00 and 8.07, respectively).

- In ‘problem solving’ [ $F(3,104)=2.945$ ,  $p=.036$ ], third-year students also consider themselves to be significantly less competent than first-year students (7.13 vs. 7.89).
- In ‘combined analysis of complex situations’ [ $F(3,105)=4.536$ ,  $p=.005$ ], first-year (7.37) and fourth-year (7.39) students consider themselves to have a greater competence level, and, again, it is those in their third year who rate this the lowest (6.33).
- In ‘relationship with organisations from the wider community’ [ $F(3,104)=3.293$ ,  $p=.023$ ], fourth-year students (7.49) perceive themselves as being significantly more competent than those in their third year (6.48).
- In ‘classroom management’ [ $F(3,105)=9.923$ ,  $p<.001$ ], fourth-year students (8.12) consider themselves to be the most competent, in comparison with third-year (7.13) and first-year (7.42) students. Furthermore, third-year students see themselves as less competent than those in their second year (8.02).

In Table 5, we see the significant differences that arise when comparing the three groups (inter-group):

[Table 5 near here]

- In ‘participation in the centre’s organisational culture’ [ $F(2,153)=8.817$ ,  $p<.001$ ], school teachers (8.2) consider themselves to be significantly better than university lecturers (7.2).
- In ‘project leadership’ [ $F(2,153)=7.962$ ,  $p=.001$ ] and ‘relationship with organisations from the wider community’ [ $F(2,153)=6.204$ ,  $p=.003$ ], trainees (7.5 and 7.1, respectively) consider themselves more competent than university lecturers (6.1 and 5.8, respectively).
- In ‘relationships with families’ [ $F(2,154)=21.529$ ,  $p<.001$ ], teachers (8.7) perceive themselves to be significantly more competent than trainees (7.8) and university lecturers (5.3).

In all cases, it was the university lecturers who rated their competence level as significantly lower than the rest.

The three groups mostly attributed their highest-rated competences, as mentioned above, (8 or over) to ‘work experience related to education’ and ‘individual characteristics and personal experience’. Furthermore, the university lecturers and school teachers emphasised ‘continuous training’, whilst the trainees highlighted ‘practical university classes’.

### ***3. Perception of university lecturers and school teachers about the level of competence of students***

Having analysed the self-perception of the competence level, we present (Tables 6 and 7) how the university lecturers and school teachers perceive the competence level of trainee teachers, compared to this group’s self-perception.

[Table 6 near here]

[Table 7 near here]

In general, trainees’ self-perception of their abilities was always higher than that of the professionals who were training them. However, there is agreement between all groups on the three highest-rated competences (responsibility at work, teamwork, and teacher-pupil interaction). All groups also believe that trainees should be more skilful in their ‘relationship with organisations from the wider community’, while the university lecturers and school teachers also add their ‘relationships with families’.

The university lecturers and school teachers who had experience tutoring in the *Practicum* (as opposed to those who did not) consider the trainees best prepared with regard to ‘initiative’ (7.55 vs 5.91). This is a significant difference:  $t(40)=4.154$ ,  $p<.001$ . Another significant difference was identified with respect to ‘autonomous learning’ (7.52 vs 6.09):  $t(13,12)= 2.430$ ,  $p=.030$ .

### **Discussion and conclusions**

Two lines of work on educational leadership contributed substantially to this work’s foundation:

First, the importance of extending the practice of holistic and distributed leadership (Gronn 2010); and second, the strategic focus on knowing more effectively exactly how middle leadership is built (Gronn 2003; Grootenboer, Edwards-Groves, and Rönnerman 2015; Day, Gu, and Sammons 2016), especially that which develops the teacher as a leader, link, and facilitator amongst pupils, colleagues, families, and organisations related to the school. Our interest lies in how the initial training of teachers includes these connections.

The results obtained from our study show that trainees, university lecturers, and school teachers share both these visions, which represents a good professional platform for expanding and distributing school leadership. As Jackson (2017) states, in order for the initial training to help the development of professional identity and enable students to progress from the initial phase of ‘following formulas’ to attaining full maturity and being guided by their own ‘internal foundation’, training must have an impact on their pre-professional identity: confidence, self-directed learning, self-evaluation and reflection, understanding of responsibilities, expectations and standards, attitudes, beliefs, ethical values, and culture.

Fostering a broadened vision of identity, or that of a teacher-leader, from initial training necessitates an in-depth knowledge of the processes of identity building. When analysing the results in-depth, the three groups see distributed leadership from a holistic perspective, though each group highlights aspects related to its own daily practical challenges. Thus, in terms of coordination, students emphasise ‘teamwork’, (Barnacle and Dall’Alba, 2017; Talvitie, Peltokallio & Mannisto, 2000), university lecturers emphasise ‘reaching a consensus’, and school teachers emphasise ‘avoiding inconsistencies’. Leadership combines ‘providing direction’ and the importance of a leader’s personal characteristics (communication skills, assertiveness, and empathy). Only the university lecturers and school teachers highlighted ‘motivating and providing leadership, and guiding projects’. Regarding collaboration with the wider community, they envisage collaborating with other local institutions (Biesta, Priestley, and Robinson 2015; Jackson 2017) and using them as a learning resource; moreover, they stress their socio-political responsibility and commitment to giving knowledge back to society. That would lead us to

conclude that developed action and practical challenges are the forces behind identity-building with regard to leadership competences in the three groups.

As far as their perception of competence is concerned, all three groups perceive responsibility at work as their highest level of competence. The most remarkable differences are shown by those who have supervised students undertaking teaching practice, who consider them more competent in autonomous learning and initiative than do those who have not supervised them. Therefore, the trainees' deepest knowledge, especially in experimental training contexts, should be the focus of improving initial training.

The formative experience of students in actual situations makes them less self-complacent about their own competencies (Baartman and Ruijs, 2011). For example, trainees who have not completed the *Practicum* consider themselves better able to lead projects and lead working groups. Students in their last two years also have a more prudent competence assessment than their first-year peers.

As has been seen, the three groups attribute their high perception of competence to a combination of work experience linked to education, their own characteristics (Moses et al, 2017), and personal experience (Leijen, Kullasepp, and Anspal, 2014). School teachers and university lecturers also emphasise continuous training, while trainees highlight the importance of university practical classes and their previous professional training. However, the fact that students' work experience in the educational field does not appear to give rise to significant differences in their competence-based self-perception of leadership (Fernández-Martínez, Gutiérrez-Cáceres and Hernández-Garre 2017) highlights the importance of initial training as an ideal framework for building a broader and more reflective professional identity.

It seems important, therefore, to continue influencing initial teacher training by:

1. Explicitly incorporating leadership, coordination, and community collaboration competences, both within the classroom and during teaching practice.



2. Offering meaningful and real training experiences which pose competence challenges.
3. Bolstering the figure of the university lecturer as a facilitator to develop leadership teaching competences, in the sense of designing, developing, and evaluating experiences which foster the construction of teacher-leader identities.
4. Bolstering the figures of the tutor or teaching practice mentor in the same way (DeAngelis, Wall, and Che 2013; Leijen, Kullasepp, and Anspal 2014; Valenčič Zuljan and Marentič Požarnik 2014; Jackson 2017).
5. Designing formative actions that encourage confidence, a realistic and positive self-image, (Baartman and Ruijs 2011; Moses et al. 2017), and a perception of self-efficacy and professional commitment as teacher-leaders.

### **Limitations**

We accept that using a questionnaire to analyse some of the results has limitations, although it has been evaluated and has high reliability indices. The research on which this article is based analyses other moments and tools, while also continuing to analyse contributions from the different parties involved, because, besides providing a diagnosis, it aims to influence an improvement in the initial training of future school teachers.

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## APPENDIX

### ***QUESTIONS ANALYSED FROM THE QUESTIONNAIRE***

1. What do you understand by: coordination/leadership/community collaboration?
2. As regards the following competences, how competent do you feel?

Rate the following competences from 0 (minimum) to 10 (maximum)	Score
<i>1.Participation in the centre's organisational culture</i>	
<i>2.Teamwork</i>	
<i>3.Project leadership</i>	
<i>4.Problem solving</i>	
<i>5.Momentum and revitalisation of working groups</i>	
<i>6.Joint analysis of complex situations</i>	
<i>7.Classroom management</i>	
<i>8.Teacher-pupil interaction</i>	
<i>9.Relationships with families</i>	
<i>10.Relationship with organisations from the wider community</i>	
<i>11.Initiative</i>	
<i>12.Responsibility at work</i>	
<i>13.Autonomous learning</i>	
<i>14.Communicative skills (includes social and personal skills)</i>	
<i>15.Critical thinking</i>	
<i>16.Self-regulation</i>	

3. If you have rated 8 or above, to what do you attribute your competence level? (maximum 4 answers):

- ☐ 1. Prior training before university
- ☐ 2. Theoretical classes at university
- ☐ 3. Practical classes outside the classroom
- ☐ 4. University practice outside the classroom
- ☐ 5. Continuous training (parallel to or after university training)
- ☐ 6. Work experience linked to education
- ☐ 7. Work experience NOT linked to education
- ☐ 8. Experience in unpaid social-educational fields (voluntary work, leisure clubs, etc.)
- ☐ 9. Relationships with colleagues
- ☐ 10. Individual characteristics and personal experience
- ☐ 11. Other (please specify)

#### **Only for university lecturers and school teachers**

4. In your experience, what is the competency level of trainee teachers when they arrive at the school? (*using the same competences from the table of question 2*)

Table 1. Categorisation of the concept of coordination

Units of meaning	% Statements		
	Students/Trainees	University Lecturers	School Teachers
<b>Consensual agreements</b>	29.72	<b>50</b>	20
<b>Avoiding inconsistency</b>	20.72	12.5	<b>25</b>
<b>Teamwork</b>	<b>48.64</b>	25	20
Exchanging knowledge and experience	2.70	9.37	10
Co-leadership	1.80	37.5	15
Collaboration with the community	14.41	-	15
Facilitating classroom management	6.30	3.12	-

Table 2. Categorisation of the concept of leadership

Units of meaning	% Statements		
	Students/Trainees	University Lecturers	School Teachers
<b>Providing direction (start)</b>	<b>45.04</b>	<b>50</b>	<b>50</b>
<b>Personal characteristics of a leader</b>	<b>30.63</b>	<b>21.87</b>	<b>30</b>
Motivational and supervisory skills (continuity)	10.81	31.25	30

Table 3. Categorisation of the concept of collaboration with the community

Units of meaning	% Statements		
	Students/Trainees	University Lecturers	School Teachers
<b>Collaboration with educational institutions</b>	<b>49.54</b>	<b>31.25</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>Learning resource</b>	<b>24.32</b>	<b>31.25</b>	<b>15</b>
Knowledge of the context	10.81	18.75	15
Decision-making with the community	10.81	15.62	5
Inclusion in the classroom	3.60	3.12	10
Giving knowledge back to society	3.60	6.25	5
Social-political responsibility	-	6.25	5



Table 4: Comparisons depending on the course

Dependent variable				Mean difference (I-J)	Sign.
Course					
HSD Tukey	Project leadership	3	1	-.776*	0.048
			2	-1.130*	0.013
	Problem solving (conflict management)	1	3	.757*	0.043
	Momentum and revitalisation of working groups	3	1	-.886*	0.011
			2	-.941*	0.039
	Combined analysis of complex situations	3	1	-1.045*	0.011
			4	-1.064*	0.005
	Relationship with organisations from the wider community	4	3	1.010*	0.019
Games Howell	Classroom management	3	2	-.941*	0.001
			4	-.992*	0.000
		4	1	.703*	0.010

Table 5. Comparisons depending on the self-perception of competence (S=Students/Trainees, T=School Teachers, L=University Lecturers)

Dependent variable				Mean difference (I-J)	Sig.
Group					
Games-Howell	Participation in the centre's organisational culture	T	L	2.211	0.009
	Project leadership	S	L	1.350	0.025
	Relationships with families	T	L	3.374	0.000
			S	.849	0.002
		S	L	2.525	0.004
	Relationship with organisations from the wider community	S	L	1.333	0.044

Table 6. Perception of the three most developed competences by trainees according to the following groups

Most developed competences by trainees (0 to 10)	Students/Trainees (7.1 to 8.8) $\bar{X}=7.8$	University Lecturers (5.4 to 7.6) $\bar{X}=6.5$	School Teachers (5.0 to 8.0) $\bar{X}=6.7$
Responsibility at work	8.8	7.6	8.0
Teamwork	8.4	7.3	7.4
Teacher-pupil interaction	8.3	7.0	7.4

Table 7. Perception of the three least developed competences by students according to the following groups

<b>Least developed competences by trainees (0 to 10)</b>	<b>Students/Trainees (7.1 to 8.8) <math>\bar{X}=7.8</math></b>	<b>University Lecturers (5.4 to 7.6) <math>\bar{X}=6.5</math></b>	<b>School Teachers (5.0 to 8.0) <math>\bar{X}=6.7</math></b>
Combined analysis of complex situations	7.1		5.8
Relationship with organisations from the wider community	7.1	5.4	5.0
Participation in the centre's organisational culture	7.2		
Relationships with families		5.4	5.9
Project leadership		6.0	