

Service-learning in teacher training in Spanish universities

El aprendizaje-servicio en la formación del profesorado de las universidades españolas

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Abstract

A culture of training teaching staff in specific teaching skills is spreading throughout higher education in Europe and other regions. In recent years, service learning has been one of the active methodologies that has attracted the most attention in educational literature and in training practices. This piece uses an ex post facto cross-sectional study to quantify and describe service learning training provision in Spanish universities, using an information recording sheet to gather evidence from institutional websites and an unstructured questionnaire as a complementary data source. Our results support the claim that teaching training activities are growing and that there are some advances in the consolidation of this trend. However, significant limitations were identified, such as a lack of a practice-based orientation in teacher training and the lack of a coordinated plan to facilitate learning ecologies, something that is hindering the reflective, cooperative, and

transformative impact that is attributed to the service learning method. Based on this diagnosis, we suggest that training activities be incorporated into multi-year plans, and note that sociocritical and practical orientations would work better together, and that collaborative work between universities and community services should be strengthened.

Keywords: Service learning, teacher education, higher education, professional development, experiential learning.

Resumen

Tanto en Europa como en otras regiones se está generalizando una cultura de la formación del profesorado universitario en competencias docentes específicas. Una de las metodologías activas a la que se viene prestando interés durante los últimos años, tanto en la literatura pedagógica como en las prácticas de formación, es el aprendizaje-

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je-servicio. Con la intención de cuantificar y caracterizar su oferta formativa en las universidades españolas, se llevó a cabo un estudio *ex post facto* de carácter transversal, basado en el registro de información publicada en las webs institucionales, así como en una encuesta no estructurada. La evidencia pone de manifiesto la tendencia ascendente en la oferta formativa de la metodología docente de ApS, al tiempo que progresa la institucionalización de la misma. No obstante, se identifican también importantes limitaciones, que alejan la orientación práctica del ámbito de la formación y no favorecen la planificación

coordinada de las ecologías del aprendizaje, lo que reduce considerablemente el impacto reflexivo, cooperativo y transformador que se le presume a esta metodología. A partir de este diagnóstico, se sugiere la inserción de las actividades formativas en planes plurianuales, la combinación de las orientaciones sociocrítica y práctica, y la potenciación del trabajo conjunto entre las universidades y las agencias comunitarias.

Descriptor: Aprendizaje-servicio, formación de profesorado, educación superior, desarrollo profesional, aprendizaje experiencial.

1. Introduction

Since the signing of the Bologna Declaration in 1999, the European Higher Education Area has recognised teaching as a highly important professional role for which teachers require training in specific competences. A 2013 report on this subject, commissioned by the European Commission for Education, Culture, Multilingualism and Youth and written by a group of leading experts in higher education recommended that all teaching staff in European higher education institutions have certified teacher training by 2020 (McAleese, 2013; see also McAleese, 2014). This type of guidelines is ever more present in the European agenda for modernising higher education. Their aim is to overcome the existing relationship in professional identity between research and teaching (Ruè, 2014), in order for staff to have a set of skills appropriate to their teaching role and the corresponding training.

In accordance with these regulations, the great majority of European higher education institutions have implemented initial and ongoing training programmes for their teaching staff in the last two decades, as they have started to regard teaching as a demanding and complex task. The scope of this training provision is broader in some universities, as is the case of the UK (Chalmers & Gardiner, 2015). In Spain, the Organic Universities Act (LOU) of 2001 considers teacher training to be a relevant criterion for determining the professional effectiveness of academic staff (sec. 33.3). As a result of this regulation, numerous universities started to implement training plans, spurred on by different technical proposals (for example, MEC, 2006), or aimed at fulfilling the expectations of methodological change created by the new plan for official university syllabuses (Royal Decree 1393/2007). Consequently, and despite the difficulties of the processes

for consolidating training (Zabalza, Cid, & Trillo, 2014), Amador (2012) stated that the 31 universities in his study already had continuing training activities, while 84% had started to implement specific programmes for training new teachers.

Following the launch phase, the framework of competences for teacher training has been consolidated (Triadó, Estebanell, Márquez, & del Corral, 2014), and new active methodologies and techniques have been incorporated into training plans, including service learning (SL). This study, carried out in the context of a broader research project (Ref. EDU 2013-41687-R), is intended to unveil the scope of training for university teachers in this methodology and provide a description of it.

2. Service learning as an active and socio-critical teaching methodology

Service learning is becoming a strategic tool in the process of consolidation of a democratic, supportive, and cooperative pedagogical culture, one which is based on coexistence and is eminently practical (Alonso & Longo, 2013; Folgueiras, Luna, & Puig, 2013; Jacoby, 2013), given that it is rooted in the solution of problems as Dewey already showed with his pedagogical pragmatism (Santos Rego, 2013).

Service learning is described as a proactive, cooperative, problematising, relational, reflexive, and transformative methodology (Martínez Usarralde, 2014; Santos Rego, Sotelino Losada, & Lorenzo Moledo, 2015), and research shows it has progressively being consolidated, both institutionally and in teaching, over

the last decade at an international level (Jacoby, 2009, 2013; Jouannet, Montalva, Ponce, & von Borries, 2015). In Spain, its institutionalisation was proposed by the Association of Vice Chancellors of Spanish Universities itself in a technical paper supporting SL as a teaching strategy, in the context of university social responsibility (CRUE, 2015).

This recognition is a result of intense expansion across all educational levels. However, the university level is a particularly important setting owing to the age range of its students; these acquire professional action competences through performing well-planned acts of solidarity, and also competences for critical reflexion as global citizens through active experiences that are planned and integrated into the curriculum in particular modules or complete courses (Gil-Gómez, Moliner-García, Chiva-Bartoll, & García-López, 2016), and even by consolidating holistic projects at a campus-wide level (Jouannet *et al.*, 2015).

Within the framework of this increasingly robust pathway, SL has been defined as a pedagogical approach aimed at searching for specific formulas for involving students in the everyday life of their communities, neighbourhoods, nearby institutions, and DNGOs (Piñeiro, 2013), internalising what it means to “take a side” and “commit” in a far more meaningful way than simply through discourses and texts (Puig, Gijón, Martín, & Rubio, 2011; Tande & Wang, 2013). Participation by the community’s different social agents is also promoted at the same time, with citizen spaces converging with professionalised educational spaces (Batllé, 2013) and joint solutions being sought

for the needs identified in the work that the students themselves have chosen (Waldner, Mcgorry, & Widener, 2012). Service learning provides opportunities for students to “go out” into the setting of their community and “research” what real needs exist (Weiler *et al.*, 2013). The concept of awareness-raising is involved here, and, along with the concept of impact, is central to some university modules such as those relating to development cooperation and education. Service learning is, therefore, integrated into experiential education (Rodríguez, 2014) and is characterised by the following features: tacitly giving the lead role to students who actively participate; examining a real need that the students themselves have identified; an evident and necessary connection with curricular objectives; completion of the service project; and, finally, reflecting on and evaluating the particular activity performed (Chen & Chang, 2013).

The expansion of SL is apparent in universities in their organizational structure. It is also important to note the emergence of SL groups and networks in Spain, such as the Red Española de Aprendizaje Servicio (Spanish Service Learning Network) and the Red Española de Aprendizaje Servicio Universitario (Spanish University Service Learning Network). The following organisations are especially noteworthy in the Autonomous Regions: the Centro Promotor de Aprendizaje-Servicio (Centre for the Promotion of Service Learning) in Barcelona, which arranges meetings on SL and universities; Ashoka and Zerbikas in the Basque Country; and ESCULCA in Santiago de Compostela. These are all examples of activism in the university sector (some also

operating in the school setting) and, among other tasks, they disseminate specialist publications (one good example is the proceedings published in 2015 by the Spanish University Service Learning Network).

Regarding SL as an object of research, the number of studies into it has increased as several elements of this methodological tool have attracted interest. Among the more general lines of research, it is worth noting SL’s potential strategic impact on teaching and learning (Alonso, Arandia, Martínez-Domínguez, Martínez-Domínguez, & Gezuraga, 2013; Fontana, Peláez, & Del Pozo, 2015), tutorial activity and its evaluation (Gezuraga & Malik, 2015), its relationship with local and community action (Aramburuzabala, 2013; Larsen, 2016; Santos Rego *et al.*, 2015), its connection to teaching civic values and civic commitment (Batllé, 2013; Lin, 2015), the acquisition of socio-professional and relational competences (Ayuste, Escofet, Obiols, & Masgrau, 2016; Ibarrola, & Artuch, 2016), its impact on students (Russo, 2013; Torío & García-Pérez, 2015), the obstacles and limitations that these projects display and their connection with teacher training (He & Prater, 2014; Morin, & Waysdorf, 2013), and the dissemination of this methodology’s acknowledged experiences in the USA, Latin America, the United Kingdom, and the rest of Europe (Folgueiras *et al.*, 2013; García López, Escámez, Martínez Martín, & Martínez Usarralde, 2008; Rodríguez, 2014; Santos Rego, 2013), and also in Asian countries (Chui & Leung, 2014; Ho & Vivien, 2012).

Teacher training for university staff would expand the SL dimensions that are amenable to research but still lack robust

studies. On these lines, the research objectives and design will depend on educational traditions. In principle, the critical or socio-critical focus (Feiman-Nemser, 1990), based on ethical and social commitment, would have a prominent role in SL (without ignoring other significant focuses, such as a practical focus based on experience as a source of knowledge), as this is the focus that generates the most pressing need to adopt training strategies linking professional development and socio-community service. However, this focus involves expanding training in spaces for non-academic community practice, suggesting a systemic relationship between training contexts when developing professional skills.

Nonetheless, there is hardly any evidence about the areas in which university teachers who apply the SL methodology are trained. So while the literature has on several occasions reported on this type of methodological experiences in Spain (for example, Alonso *et al.*, 2013; Ayuste *et al.*, 2016; Folgueiras *et al.*, 2013; Fontana *et al.*, 2015; Gezuraga, 2014; Gil-Gómez *et al.*, 2016; Ibarrola & Artuch, 2016; Rodríguez, 2014; Santos Rego *et al.*, 2015; Torío & García-Pérez, 2015), it is unusual for it to reveal how teachers in higher education have acquired the teaching competences that allow them to put SL projects into practice. On one of the rare occasions that data on training were collected, Gezuraga (2014) identified 13 SL experiences implemented in the University of the Basque Country over two academic years, then questioned the participants (11 teachers, 154 students, and 14 community partners) about whether they had received prior training, with 50.3% of them giving

an affirmative response. In the teaching sector in particular, 6 of the 11 teachers said that they had received training, 4 of whom said that the university was the institution that had offered it to them. On the other hand, 8 of the 11 teachers wanted more training to be able to approach future SL projects with greater guarantees of success. Similarly, teacher training emerged as one of the areas that, in an evaluation by international referents (people in charge of teaching management in foreign higher education institutions), was identified as an area that should be promoted as part of the element of engagement and support for teachers.

The fact that only 4 of the 11 university teachers in Gezuraga's research (2014) said that their university had offered them training suggests that other teachers might have acquired the necessary skills to use this methodology in other types of setting. However, before undertaking research into non-formal and informal training spaces, it is worth systematising the training provision provided by university institutions —formal spaces— to verify whether it is up to the job of meeting the need for pedagogic training required by the European higher education modernisation agenda. Our own research on which we rely in this article complies with this remit.

3. Method

3.1. Design

A rationalist approach was chosen, intended to quantify empirically the presence and characteristics of the SL teaching

method in the training provision for university teachers in Spain. Starting from this paradigm, a transversal *ex post facto* design was used, based reviewing the information published on the websites of Spanish public universities and on an unstructured questionnaire sent to the people in charge of university teacher training.

Despite the transversal design, the information collected covered four years in the provision of training for university teachers. This was with the aim of allowing us to trace the recent evolution of this offer in relation to the SL methodology.

3.2. Sample

The study population comprised all the universities in Spain as listed on the website of the Ministry of Education, Culture, and Sport (51 public and 34 private), initially making the sample coincide with the population. Nonetheless, when identifying the specific sampling units that would correspond with the services, institutions, centres, or units responsible for training university teachers, those universities that did not have this type of service at the moment of the data collection (September 2015) or that did not have a section on the institutional website were omitted. Two public universities and 15 private ones were found that were in one or other of these positions, and so 49 public and 19 private universities were included in the final sample.

3.3. Instruments and procedure

Two instruments were used simultaneously, one non-interactive and another

interactive, with the aim of recording the information about activities that provided SL training:

1. An information recording sheet for university teacher training activities relating to SL: this was applied to the analysis of content from the websites of the teacher training units of the 68 universities in the final sample and, where appropriate, to the content of other sites that they linked to (additional services or programmes, or centres that also offered teacher training to teaching staff), in order to record all of the training activities which have the aim of training teachers in use of the SL methodology, as well as the profile of the activities. As information on activities from before 2012 was scarce, a description was prepared of the training carried out during the 2012-2015 period.

2. An unstructured questionnaire for key informants (people in charge of training university teachers) sent by email. The objective of this questionnaire was to complement the information compiled using the sheet and so increase the degree of reliability of the evidence. An email was sent to the people in charge of training for teaching and research staff when this information was available on the websites (53 of a total of 68: 77.9% of the final sample). The email asked them to state whether any teacher training activity that included elements of the SL methodology was provided in the institute, service, or unit that they managed, or from by other university service or centre.

The information recording sheet, which was the principal technique for obtaining information, was designed in two phases:

1. An initial list of items was drawn up by an expert on university teacher training who had a position of responsibility in this area, considering the structure and procedures of the plans, programmes, and different types of teacher training activities, and the information on SL requested in a previously designed sheet (service learning experiences information recording sheet) that was adapted from Villa (2013). The general structure of this instrument, enables the identification of SL training provided by centralised services and training planned by other university centres if there was a training programme in centres or an equivalent. This first draft of the sheet contained 26 items.

2. Apparent validation of the sheet by two experts in university teacher training with positions of responsibility in this area in a university. Both experts provided critical comments that were then reviewed by the expert who had initially helped to prepare the first draft, with the aim of including the necessary improvements to the instrument. The sheet finally contained 23 items requesting the name of the university, centralised planning instruments for teacher training, the existence of university services or centres offering training associated with SL, and the elements of this methodology associated with the training activities (the teachers for whom the training was intended; the planning element in which learning was linked to serv-

ing the community; the topic of the service element of the training activities; teaching competencies that were the object of training; type of training activity and calendar year; credits and contact hours for training activities with SL components; the presence of participation by community agents; the type of community agents who participated in the training activities, where appropriate; the existence of a system of learning evaluation; and, where appropriate, types of learning evaluation techniques envisaged).

3.4. Data analysis

Once the data had been obtained, they were codified in an SPSS table for quantification. In this table the data collected using the information recording sheet were reorganised so that the results could subsequently be presented as clearly and concisely as possible. The analyses performed were descriptive, and inferential in the case of a contingency table that combined the two-year period in which the activities were performed with the centralised character of the planning.

For its part, the information provided by the interactive technique (unstructured questionnaire) was used, in the case of the universities that responded to the email message, to complement the descriptive results obtained from the non-interactive technique.

4. Results

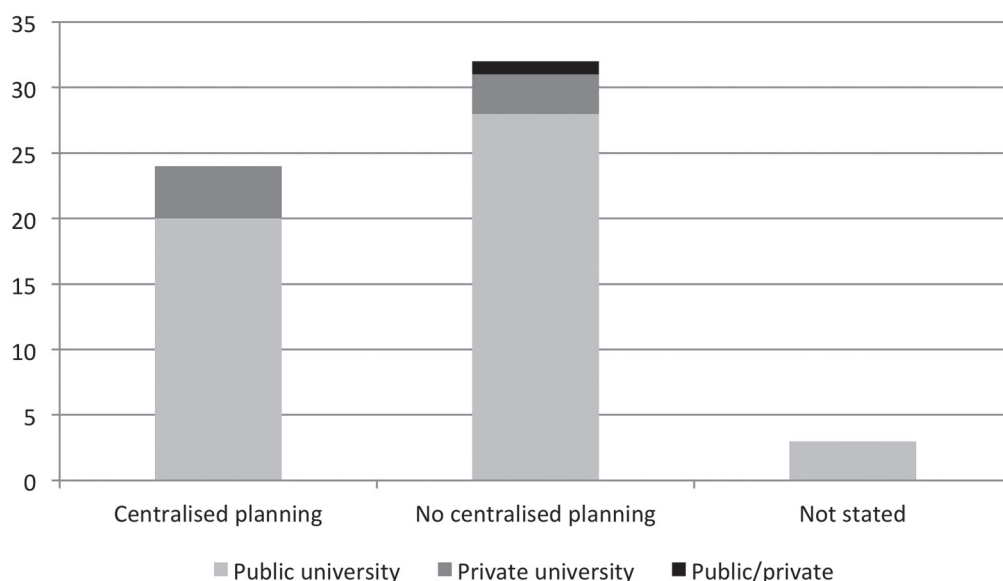
Annexe 1 summarises the evidence about teacher training provision related

to SL at the Spanish universities, as identified from the institutions' websites. The information collected with the sheet was grouped into 20 criteria (the subject of the service performed by the participants is not included because only one activity with an associated service was recorded).

In the total of 68 universities in the final sample, 59 training activities relating to SL were found, concentrated in 37 universities (30 public and 7 private). While 48 of the activities were provided by one or more universities, 11 were from a partnership of some type (university and an external agent). In contrast, a wide variety of units organised SL training activities within the universities, and

so the centralised institute or service responsible for teacher training provided a minority, albeit a significant one, of these activities (39%, increasing to 44.1% if activities jointly organised with a different unit are included). On 79.1% of occasions, the activities organised by the centralised unit formed part of a centralised plan or programme for training university teachers, although these activities represented under half of the provision (40.7%) when taking into account the group of organisational units, this being the case in 11 universities (10 public and 1 private). Graph 1 shows the absolute frequency of this type of centralised design along with that of activities without centralised planning, by the type of organising university.

FIGURE 1. Frequency of SL training activities with and without centralised planning by type of organising university.



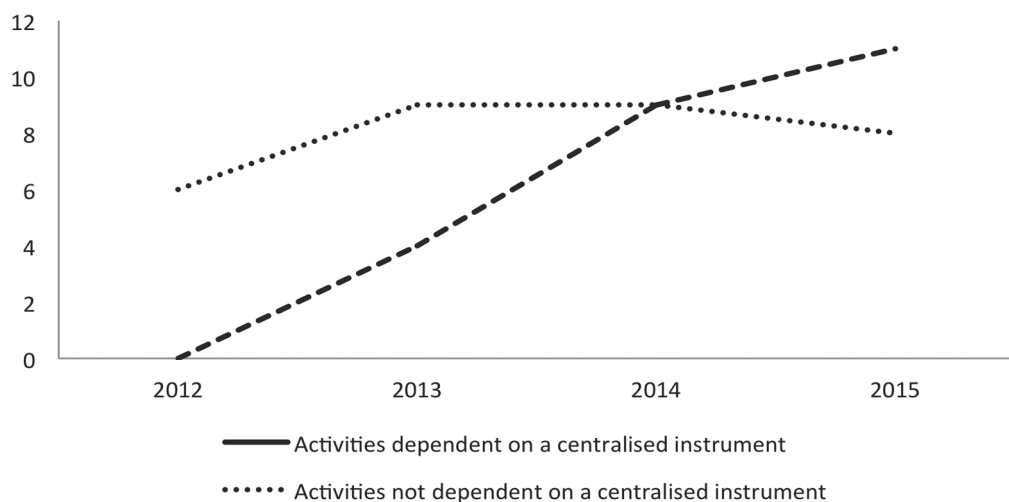
Source: Own elaboration.

An increase is visible in the training offer over the years included in the interval analysed. There was an increase from 6 activities in 2012 (10.2% of the total) to 21 in 2015 (35.6% of the total). An increase in hours was also detected. Although it was not possible to discover the duration of all of the activities, this was possible for most of them (51 of 59). Grouping these activities into two year periods to obtain a more reliable result, we can see that during 2012 and 2013, 174.1 hours of training in SL were provided, while this duration increased to 634.3 hours in the 2014-2015 period.

Alongside the simple overall quantification by two year periods, revealing a trend towards an increase in SL training activities, it is even more interesting to obtain an indicator of institutionalisation. If we treat the frequency with which training activities form part of centralised plans, programmes, and qualifications

—more stable instruments than simply organising occasional courses or workshops— as an indicator of institutionalisation, we can see that of the 56 activities that could be identified as being linked or not to a centralised instrument, the number not linked remained approximately constant (15 in the 2012-2013 period and 17 in the 2013-2014 period), but those connected to a plan, programme, or qualification increased significantly (4 in the 2012-2013 period, 20 in the 2013-2014 period). The Chi-squared test, including correction for continuity, confirms the statistical significance of the difference in frequencies over the two-year periods ($\chi^2(1) = 4.317$, $p = 0.038$), although the value of the contingency coefficient is of limited magnitude, $C = 0.301$ (the result of Fisher's exact test corroborates the rejection of the null hypothesis, $p = 0.024$, exact two-tail significance). Graph 2 breaks down the development of centralised SL training by years.

FIGURE 2. Development of the frequency of SL training activities by their link to centralised planning instruments.



Source: Own elaboration.

As for the type of training activities, face-to-face courses and workshops were the two main formats (together representing 61% of training provision), with the remaining activities comprising a range of formats. This is a classic training structure, the significance of which has continued over time: in the 2012-2013 period, courses and workshops represented 60% of training activities, and a similar frequency (61.5%) was observed in the 2014-2015 period.

The SL training that the universities provide is intended for very varied groups, not just university teachers, although 61% of the activities are expressly directed at this group. Almost a quarter of them (23.7%) are aimed not only at teaching and research staff but also groups from outside the university. This fact is usually associated with the mixed character of the organisation of the training. Typical examples include meetings, workshops, and conferences organised by the networks in collaboration with the universities (Red Española de Aprendizaje-Servicio [Spanish Service Learning Network] and Red Universitaria Española de Aprendizaje-Servicio [Spanish University Service Learning Network]).

Surprisingly, only one activity was recorded that included a service component, this being a practice performed in a socio-educational community setting. One circumstance related to this fact is the brief duration of the training activities, averaging 15.8 hours. Specifically, 47 of the 51 activities with a quantified duration were implemented over a period of between 3 and 24 hours; only 2 of the remaining 4 activities exceeded 100 hours.

The specific activity for which the provision of a service was identified was one of these 2 long duration training activities.

Nonetheless, the number of activities in which community agents participated was of greater significance (approximately a third of those carried out: 20). Furthermore, in 75% of these 20 activities several agents participated, mainly (again, 75% of cases) from a range of socio-community bodies; professionals from 2 agencies participated in 8 activities, professionals from 3 agencies participated in 5 activities, and 4 bodies participated in 2 activities. Educational agencies displayed the greatest presence in training (11 activities from a total of 20) if we add their exclusive participation to their combined participation with other bodies, followed by foundations (participating in 8), and associations (participating in 6).

The number of sampling units that participated in the unstructured questionnaire was much smaller than the number finally included in the data collection through the websites (10 people in charge of teacher training responded by email). Consequently, the evidence collected in this second phase is complementary in nature. Furthermore, a significant part of the data overlapped with those from the institutional websites. Nonetheless, four new results should be noted:

1. Five public universities for which SL training activities had already been identified through their websites informed us of the operation of groups of teaching staff (association, network, teaching innovation groups, permanent educational innovation

groups) that worked actively and co-operatively, as a training strategy, on extending the SL methodology in teaching.

2. Two public universities informed us of 5 training activities that had not been collected by the information recording sheet. Both implemented these activities based on a centralised plan (one of these institutions did not appear in the list of 37 universities offering training in SL).

3. Two public universities were still not providing SL training to their teachers, but were already planning training strategies in this area.

4. One public university cited various programmes promoted by the Development Cooperation Office, although it did not specify whether these included a training dimension. This fact is mentioned because it supports the idea of the importance of volunteer and development cooperation units in promoting the SL methodology.

5. Discussion and conclusions

The evidence collected illustrates the growing trend for provision of training in the SL teaching methodology in Spanish universities, and simultaneously how its institutionalisation is progressing, as can be seen from the increase in the number of training activities connected to centralised planning instruments. These are the two most positive conclusions of the study based on collecting information from the institutions' websites. Therefore, university training policies seem to be responding to European policy guidelines on teachers' professional development,

resulting from the Declaration of Bologna and the recommendations adopted by the European Commission (McAleese, 2013, 2014), and, at a national level, from the Organic Universities Act and, in the particular case of SL methodology, from the proposal made by the Association of Vice Chancellors of Spanish Universities (CRUE, 2015) regarding the institutionalisation of SL.

The complementary information obtained through the unstructured questionnaire also confirms the expansion and institutionalisation of SL training at the same time as identifying working groups, formalised in a variety of different formats, as an important training strategy. Training in networks, broken down into various activities that were collected using the information recording sheet (workshops, meetings, conferences), is another even clearer expression of the consolidation of cooperative work by professionals, thus reflecting new forms of working and training in an inter-dependent world (Álvarez, 2007).

It is likely that a reaction to the policy guidelines is not the only phenomenon that explains the increase in training as part of the institutionalisation of SL, but that in parallel a certain change in the university teaching professionals' view of themselves as educators might be discernible, including a view of their role that goes beyond the function of simply transmitting knowledge that is closely linked to their research tasks, and includes responsibility for creating opportunities for more holistic learning and development. This would, for example, include education for community participation and for

citizenship in general (Gil-Gómez *et al.*, 2016; Hébert & Hauf, 2015; Puig *et al.*, 2011), but also other personal and social competences on which SL has shown positive effects (see the meta-analysis by Yorio & Fe, 2012). The specifically professional knowledge, in regards to which a significant improvement has also been shown when the SL methodology is used (see the meta-analyses by Novak, Markey, & Allen, 2007; and Warren, 2012), would, therefore, no longer be the only teaching focus.

Along with this changing role, it is also necessary to evaluate the motivational potential of a methodology based on experiential learning (Kolb, 1984), with its roots in the thinking of William James and John Dewey, as well as the effectiveness of critical reflection on socially contextualised action (Deeley, 2015), of which Paulo Freire is a fundamental reference. These methodological features, along with the broad range of skills whose development SL facilitates, can eventually lead to a range of benefits in terms of employability (Matthews, Dorfman, & Wu, 2015), as well as those already cited in relation with civic commitment. In this context, the ongoing expansion of SL in higher education can be better understood, as can the subsequent demand for pedagogical training that Gezuraga (2014) identifies.

However, Spanish universities are still far from featuring a consistent generalised implementation of teacher training provision in SL methodology, as has already started to be tried in some entities from other countries with the aim of ensuring its institutionalisation (Jouannet *et al.*, 2015). The format of their ac-

tivities is still very classical (face-to-face courses and workshops are predominant); very few activities with a service element are organised, thus preventing them from having truly practical training credits; and socio-community agents only participate in a third of them. Consequently, the advance of the socio-critical focus is limited and, furthermore, there is an almost complete absence of the practical paradigm, which is what can potentially stimulate an in-depth reflection on the teaching activity itself in dynamic interaction with pedagogical knowledge (Nevgi & Löfström, 2015), as well as representing the humus that favours learning ecologies (Jackson, 2013). Although ecological learning inevitably appears based on the decisions that the teachers take regarding the contexts, targets, processes, and relations with which they are involved during their professional career, planned coordination of these elements could effectively boost teachers' professional development, particularly in methodologies that are suitable for systemic inter-relationship, as is the case with SL.

In summary, at a time when large numbers of Spanish universities are starting to commit to SL in teacher training (according to the data collected by both instruments in this study, 38 institutions are doing so and 2 more are involved in planning tasks), this is perhaps the moment to take a step forwards and evaluate the provision, and so guarantee the reflexive, cooperative, and transformative impact that this methodology is assumed to have (Martínez Usarralde, 2014; Santos Rego *et al.*, 2015). With regards to this qualitative dimension, the integration of

training activities into multi-year plans instead of running them on an occasional basis might be important, deciding to combine sociocritical and practical focuses, as a minimum, and promoting cooperative and ecological learning. The need to strengthen the relationship with community agencies follows from these last two criteria, bringing these agencies to the university and taking the trainers and, in particular, trainee teachers to areas of

community service, something that would require participation in training activities by external agents, as well as the inclusion of a service element in all of the activities. When these requirements have been implemented, this would be the moment to put into operation a systemic evaluation of the transference and impact, the need for which is widely recognised (Chalmers & Gardiner, 2015; Feixas, Lagos, Fernández, & Sabaté, 2015).

ANNEXE 1. Absolute and relative frequency of university teacher training activities related to SL, according to 20 classifying criteria.

CRITERION	CATEGORIES	<i>fa</i>	<i>fr</i>
Providing agency	<i>University</i> (activity organised by the body in charge of training university teachers — university staff training— or another unit within one or several universities)	48	81.4%
	<i>Mixed</i> (an activity organised by one or several universities along with a department of the autonomous region's administration, a network, or another type of external agent)	11	18.6%
Type of providing university	<i>Public</i>	51	86.4%
	<i>Private</i>	7	11.9%
	<i>Mixed</i> (an activity co-organised by public and private universities)	1	1.7%
Unit organizing or providing	<i>Competent university staff training body</i> (ICE [Institute for Educational Sciences], university staff training unit, section, or centre)	23	39.0%
	<i>Mixed</i> (activity organised by the competent university staff training body, along with others for which it is not their remit)	3	5.1%
	<i>Others</i> (Faculties) offices, teaching groups, etc., for which university staff training is not their remit)	33	55.9%
The training provision is part of an instrument for training university teachers	<i>Yes</i>	24	40.7%
	<i>No</i>	32	54.2%
	<i>Not specified</i> (an activity organised by a university staff training centre, unit, or service, but whether it is included in a plan or programme is not specified)	3	5.1%

CRITERION	CATEGORIES	<i>fa</i>	<i>fr</i>
Type of instrument	<i>Plan</i>	14	58.3%
	<i>Programme</i>	5	20.8%
	<i>Qualification</i>	4	16.7%
	<i>Not specified</i>	1	4.2%
Typo of activity	<i>Face-to-face course</i>	22	37.3%
	<i>Online course</i>	2	3.4%
	<i>Seminar</i>	3	5.1%
	<i>Workshop</i>	4	6.8%
	<i>Workshops</i>	14	23.7%
	<i>Meeting</i>	7	11.9%
	<i>Conference</i>	5	8.5%
	<i>Conference</i>	2	3.4%
Year in which this training activity was delivered	<i>2012</i>	6	10.2%
	<i>2013</i>	14	23.7%
	<i>2014</i>	18	30.5%
	<i>2015</i>	21	35.6%
Hours of training	<i>No. of hours</i>	808.4	
Recipients of the training activity	<i>Teaching and research staff</i>	36	61.0%
	<i>New teaching and research staff</i>	1	1.7%
	<i>University educational community</i>	4	6.8%
	<i>Education professionals</i> (any stage in the educational system)	2	3.4%
	<i>Several</i> (combination of different types of professionals, university or otherwise)	12	20.3%
	<i>Not specified</i>	4	6.8%
Training activity that includes objectives relating to SL	<i>Yes</i>	33	55.9%
	<i>No</i>	19	32.2%
	<i>Not specified</i>	7	11.9%
Training activity that includes competences related to SL	<i>Yes</i>	2	3.4%
	<i>No</i>	49	83.1%
	<i>Not specified</i>	8	13.6 %
Training activity that includes content related to SL	<i>Yes</i>	51	86.4%
	<i>No</i>	1	1.7%
	<i>Not specified</i>	7	11.9%
Training activity that includes a methodology related to SL	<i>Yes</i>	46	78.0%
	<i>No</i>	6	10.2%
	<i>Not specified</i>	7	11.9%

CRITERION	CATEGORIES	<i>fa</i>	<i>fr</i>
Training activity that includes an SL evaluation procedure	<i>Yes</i>	50	84.7%
	<i>No</i>	2	3.4%
	<i>Not specified</i>	7	11.9%
How many types of evaluation does it have?	<i>One</i>	25	50.0%
	<i>Several</i>	25	50.0%
Type of evaluation	<i>Attendance</i>	24	48.0%
	<i>Participating in activities and/or submitting a report, project, or various pieces of work</i>	26	52.0%
Participants perform a socio-community service	<i>Yes</i>	1	1.7%
	<i>No</i>	51	86.4%
	<i>Not specified</i>	7	11.9%
The community agents participate in the training activity	<i>Yes</i>	20	33.9%
	<i>No</i>	35	59.3%
	<i>Not specified</i>	4	6.8%
Number of community agents who participate in the training activity	<i>One</i>	5	25.0%
	<i>Several</i>	15	75.0%
Types of community agents who participate	<i>Foundation</i>	3	15%
	<i>Association</i>	1	5%
	<i>Educational Body</i>	1	5%
	<i>Others</i> (a combination of 2 or more types of agents: NGO, foundation, association, educational institution, citizen organization, public body, political organisation, religious institutions, etc.)	15	75%

Source: Own elaboration.

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can be found at the website www.usc.es/apsumi.

It is important to note that, in the implementation phase of this study's method, the first two authors were responsible for the training of university teachers in the institutions with which they are affiliated.

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