



UNIVERSIDAD METROPOLITANA DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN
FACULTAD DE HISTORIA, GEOGRAFÍA Y LETRAS
DEPARTAMENTO DE INGLÉS

**SOCIO-EMOTIONAL COMPETENCIES OF TEACHERS FROM A PUBLIC AND A
WALDORF SCHOOL.**

MEMORIA PARA OPTAR AL TÍTULO DE PROFESOR DE INGLÉS

AUTORES:

VALENTINA PAZ FLORES SEGUEL
MARÍA ISABEL VEGA ALARCÓN

PROFESOR GUÍA:

LEANDRO ANDRÉ SILVA BRAVO

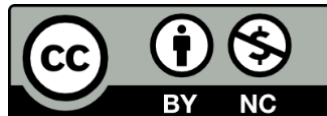
SANTIAGO DE CHILE, SEPTIEMBRE DE 2020

AUTORIZACION

2020

Flores, V.; Vega, M.I..

Se autoriza la reproducción total o parcial de este material, con fines académicos, por cualquier medio o procedimiento, siempre que se haga la referencia bibliográfica que acredite el presente trabajo y su autor.



Atribución-No Comercial

CC BY-NC

AGRADECIMIENTOS

Me gustaría agradecerle a mi familia, en especial a mi papá, quien me ha acompañado durante todo este camino, dándome ánimos para seguir adelante. Quien también me ha acompañado durante todo este viaje escolar/universitario, sin dejar de apoyarme ni de creer en mi. A la Molly y a la Tichi, mis perritas que me contuvieron durante la semi-soledad de la pandemia, que despertaban conmigo temprano para acompañarme a escribir, y no se iban a dormir hasta que yo terminara. Gracias a mis amigas, que me dieron ánimos y buenos deseos durante el desarrollo de la investigación. A la Jose, que me ha acompañado y me ha visto crecer como persona, siendo una de las mejores amigas con las que me he podido cruzar. Gracias por tu confianza, sinceridad, e infinita paciencia. A la Isa, con quien hemos hecho la gran mayoría (por no decir todos) de los trabajos en la U, y coronamos todo ese camino con esta gran tesis que leerán a continuación. Gracias por tanto apañe y por tanta sabiduría que compartes.

Quiero agradecer a nuestro profe supervisor, Leo, por ser un mediador en el proceso, por entender y ayudar con todas las trabas con las que nos fuimos encontrando en el camino de la investigación. A los profesores que me acompañaron durante estos años de universidad, Lore, Mauro, Dani, Kenita, entre tantes otros que con sus clases, consejos, tecitos, buena onda en los pasillos y en la vida han sido un gran plus, qué suerte tengo de conocerles y de que hayan sido parte de todo el proceso universitario.

Gracias a todes ustedes, amigos, familia, profes, por ser parte de este camino y de este momento tan importante.

Valentina Paz Flores Seguel

Me gustaría agradecer a mi madre por su apoyo incondicional, por sus consejos y por ser la mejor mamá. A mi padre, por motivarme siempre, porque de todo lo que hemos pasado he sacado las mejores lecciones. A mi hermano, por siempre sacarme una sonrisa. Gracias por todo el amor y por confiar en mí siempre.

Agradecer además a todas aquellas personas que de alguna manera u otra estuvieron conmigo, dándome ánimos. A quienes están aquí y en las estrellas.

También agradecer a Leandro, nuestro supervisor, con quien compartimos la loca experiencia que fue hacer esta tesis, por todo lo que aprendí y su ayuda en este proceso, además de las eternas terapias telefónicas y la confianza de estos últimos años. También agradezco a Florci, my partner in crime, porque no sólo escribimos esta tesis sino que siempre hemos sido un gran equipo, por la compañía y el apañe eterno dentro y fuera de la universidad.

Finalmente, me gustaría agradecer a mi pequeña familia. A Jaime, por ser mi compañero de vida y vivir este proceso (y más) conmigo en las buenas y en las malas, por escucharme, alentarme y por los cafecitos de media tarde que me hacían sentir mejor; y a mi hijo Máximo, por ser tan comprensivo siempre y por el amor que me da todos los días. Esto es para ti.

M^a Isabel Vega Alarcón

Como equipo, queremos agradecer a los profesores de ambos colegios que fueron parte de esta investigación, a las profesoras M^a Eugenia Hernandez y Lery Mejías por participar de la validación del instrumento, y a Edwin Abbett por revisar y editar esta tesis, además de ser un gran profesor y una gran persona. Gracias a todos.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

AUTORIZACION	ii
AGRADECIMIENTOS.....	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	v
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	ix
ABSTRACT	x
RESUMEN	x
Introduction	1
Research Problem:	2
1. Literature Review	3
1.1 Emotions	3
1.1.1 Emotion and culture.	9
1.2. Education And Emotions	12
1.2.1 Emotionality and education.	12
1.2.1.2.2 Bisquerra and Perez’s emotional competencies.	17
1.2.1.2.3 Mayer and Salovey’s model of emotional intelligence.	18
1.2.1.2.3.1 The Trait Meta-Mood Scale.	19
1.2.2 Classroom climate.	31
1.2.3 Emotions, education and curricula	43
1.3 Conclusions	49
2. Methodology	51
2.1 General Objective	51
2.2 Specific Objectives	51
2.3 Research Design	52

2.4 Participants	53
2.4.1 Schools.....	54
2.4.2 School sampling justification.	55
2.5 Data	57
2.5.1 Data collection tools.	57
2.5.2 Data collection procedures.	60
2.6 Data Analysis.....	60
3. Results.....	63
3.1 Comparisons Of Results Within The Total Sample	63
3.1.1 Total sample results.	63
3.1.2 Average results according to age.	69
3.1.3 Average result divided by gender.	70
3.2 Comparison Of Results According To Tmms-24 Categories	72
3.2.1 Total tmms-24 dimensions results.	73
3.2.2 Total Attention results.	74
3.2.3 Total clarity results.	76
3.2.4 Total reparation results.	78
3.3 Total Sample Results According To The Type Of School.....	80
3.3.1 Comparison of results according to the type of school.	86
4. Discussion	94
4.1 Teachers.....	94
4.1.1 Total sample results.	94
4.1.2 Average result according to age.....	96
4.1.3 Average result divided by gender.	97
4.1.4 Total TMMS-24 dimensions results.	99
4.1.5 Total Attention results.	99
4.1.6 Total clarity results.	100

4.1.7 Total reparation results	101
4.2 Schools	103
4.2.1 Total sample results according to type of school financing.....	103
4.2.2 Public school results.....	104
4.2.3 Waldorf school results.	105
5. Conclusions.....	110
5.1 Findings For Research Question 1	110
5.2 Findings For Research Question 2	111
5.3 Limitations To The Study	114
5.4 Further Studies	116
5.5 Implications Of This Study	117
References.....	119
Appendixes	131
Appendix A.....	131
Appendix B.....	136
Appendix C.....	140
Appendix D.....	142
Appendix E	147
Appendix F	148
Appendix G.....	149

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Characteristics of toxic and nutritious social climates in the school context.	33
Table 2: Components of the TMMS-24 test.	57
Table 3: TMMS-24 test evaluation.	58
Table 4: Evaluation score according to the Attention category.	58
Table 5: Evaluation score according to the clarity category.	59
Table 6: Evaluation score according to the repair category.	59
Table 7: Excel® sheet used in data tabulation.	61
Table 8: Statistical description of the TMMS-24 test according to gender and test dimensions.	64
Table 9: Statistical description of the TMMS-24 test according to the type of school and test dimensions.	80

LIST OF FIGURES

Graph 1: Total TMMS-24 score according to the subject	68
Graph 2: Average TMMS-24 score according to age groups.	69
Graph 3: Average TMMS-24 score according to gender.	70
Graph 4: Average TMMS-24 score according to female subjects.	71
Graph 5: Average TMMS-24 score according to male subjects.	72
Graph 6: TMMS-24 scores according to test's dimensions.	73
Graph 7: Attention scores according to the subject.	74
Graph 8: Attention scores according to the subject and type of school financing.	75
Graph 9: Clarity scores according to the subject.	76
Graph 10: Clarity scores according to the subject and type of school financing.	77
Graph 11: Reparation scores according to the subject.	78
Graph 12: Reparation scores according to the subject and type of school financing.	79
Graph 13: Average TMMS-24 scores according to the type of school financing.	85
Graph 14: TMMS-24 scores according to the Public School subjects.	86
Graph 15: Attention scores according to the Public School subjects.	87
Graph 16: Clarity scores according to the Public School subjects.	88
Graph 17: Reparation scores according to the Public School subjects.	89
Graph 18: TMMS-24 scores according to the Waldorf School subjects.	90
Graph 19: Attention scores according to the Waldorf School subjects.	91
Graph 20: Clarity scores according to the Waldorf School subjects.	92
Graph 21: Reparation scores according to the Waldorf School subjects.	93

ABSTRACT

The present study explores the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies in a sample of teachers who work in a public and a Waldorf school in Santiago. In order to do so, a quantitative descriptive study was conducted over the data provided by the TMMS-24 test which was applied to 11 teachers from both schools; in addition, a Mann-Whitney U test was applied to determine statistical significance between the scores obtained by the participants. The results indicate that, overall, the complete sample of teachers has adequate levels of socio-emotional competencies according to the test, which implies that they recognise, process and regulate their emotions appropriately, contributing to the creation of positive classroom climates. The findings suggest that these differences go beyond the participants' age, gender or schools' educational projects, and might thus be related to the characteristics of each school, their communities and the participants' personal life story.

RESUMEN

El presente estudio explora el nivel de desarrollo de competencias socio-emocionales en una muestra de profesores que trabajan en una escuela pública y una escuela Waldorf en Santiago. Para esto se llevó a cabo un estudio cuantitativo descriptivo en base a la información entregada por el test TMMS-24 el cual fue aplicado a 11 profesores de ambas escuelas; sumado a esto, una prueba Mann-Whitney U fue aplicada para determinar diferencias estadísticas significativas entre los puntajes obtenidos por ambos grupos. Los resultados indican que, en general, la muestra completa de profesores tiene niveles adecuados de competencias socio-emocionales de acuerdo al test, lo cual implica que ellos reconocen, procesan y regulan sus emociones apropiadamente, contribuyendo a la creación de climas de aula positivos. Los hallazgos sugieren que estas diferencias van más allá de la edad, género o proyectos educativos de las escuelas, y por lo tanto podrían estar relacionadas con las características de cada escuela, sus comunidades y la historia personal de los participantes.

Introduction

The relationship between emotionality and education has become a relevant topic in the social sciences since the publication of Goleman's Emotional Intelligence (1995). This book proposes that emotional intelligence is a master aptitude that profoundly affects all other abilities, such as self-control, zeal and persistence, and the ability to motivate oneself, interacting with others, etc. The publication of this book had a significant impact on the scholarly community and drew attention towards the relevance and role of emotions within other social sciences, including education.

Following this line, the area of emotional competencies in teachers has become relevant in recent decades, and thus, several studies have been conducted to establish a relationship between the emotional competencies of educators and the role they play in their professional practice. The findings of these studies suggest that teachers transmit attitudes through their interaction with students; therefore it is essential for teachers to develop socio-emotional skills in order to bring emotions to the classroom and create bonds that foster positive classroom climate (Zembylas, 2003; Palomero, 2009; Moreno et al. 2011).

In the Chilean context, specific research into teachers' socio-emotional competencies has not yet been carried out. On the one hand, there are studies that address the development of this competence focused on students in elementary schools (Milicic & Arón, 2011). On the other hand, teacher-related emotional studies have been more oriented to the psycho-social dimension of teaching (Guerrero, Balboa & Miranda, 2017; Guerrero & de Gaulejac, 2017) and how teachers' working conditions have had a negative impact on their physical and mental health causing burnout and stress (Cornejo, 2009). In short, there is no information regarding how teachers incorporate emotional competencies into their work, or if they have the abilities to tackle the adverse conditions they are faced with.

It is in this context that the present study means to contribute to the area of emotionality and education through identifying and analyzing the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies reported by two groups of teachers working at a public and a Waldorf School in

Santiago. The results of this investigation intend to contribute to teacher training programmes and school communities to raise awareness of the influence of these competencies in teachers, students and therefore the learning-teaching process as a whole.

This thesis is organized sequentially. The introduction presents the main concepts and research problem of the investigation; Section 1 presents the literature review, which includes studies regarding emotions, socio-emotional competencies and education, along with the research questions; Section 2 includes the objectives of the study along with the methodological design and procedures undertaken; Section 3 presents the results obtained in the study; Section 4 offers a discussion of the main findings; and finally, Section 5 presents the conclusions and limitations of the investigation, as well as further research suggestions.

Research Problem:

As mentioned above, previous studies regarding emotionality and education have been focused on the importance of socio-emotional competencies in learning-teaching contexts from students' perspectives and the way teachers, management teams and school communities can contribute through the implementation of emotional competency programmes. However, even though this information is relevant and a lot of research has been conducted in this area, it has become necessary to question how teachers can help to develop emotional competencies in others, when they have little or no evidence in relation to their own socio-emotional competencies. This information is meaningful as a knowledge of teachers' socio-emotional processes is necessary if we are to understand how these internal processes are developed, and in turn how they affect the teacher's role in the classroom and the connections they forge with their students.

1. Literature Review

1.1 Emotions

Emotions are a fundamental and intrinsic part of human existence, yet the varied and sometimes divergent views on the concept and its nature make it difficult to define it univocally. In this respect, Lyons (1980) proposes that “Definitions of emotion are nothing other than functional models put into words, and it is hard to see how anyone could proceed very far without attempting to formulate such definitions” (p. 4). This definition leads us to reflect on the ontological status of what emotions are, considering that their very nature is multidimensional and omnipresent in human life and interaction. Every area of study concerning emotional matters, such as psychology, biology, and physiology, among others, has its own definition of emotion in light of what is important to its particular framework and object of study, subjectively widening the range of definitions.

Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) collected definitions of emotion from diverse sources and then classified them into 11 categories divided into broad and narrow interpretations depending on the focus: applied or theoretical.

The analysis carried out by Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) separates the eleven categories into five groups:

Group 1: Emphasis on the subjective or experiential aspects of emotion.

Categories:

1. Affective: feelings of excitement/depression or pleasure/displeasure. As explained in Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981), this aspect seems to be the most crucial part of emotion, due to the levels of feeling arousal and pleasure or displeasure. It is so relevant that it is emphasised in 23 definitions as a primary element, and 44 as a secondary element; but still it is not the only one. For the authors, the question of the affective aspect

of emotion being the most critical feature of emotional phenomena remains.

2. Cognitive: appraisal and/or labelling processes. This aspect focuses on the perceptual and thinking aspects of emotion. The approach assumes that when proper arousal occurs, people may engage in different types of cognitive-emotional activity, from labelling the emotion to eliciting control mechanisms to deal with the emotional situation or other kinds of cognitive activities triggered by that situation. The cognitive approach does not pretend to be the only aspect of emotion, but to be one of the essential factors in determining how one reacts to potentially emotional situations. Even though there were only four definitions which emphasised primarily cognitive factors, 47 others also mentioned it as an aspect of emotion; that is to say, more than half of the definitions found by Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) recognised the role of cognitive processes.

Group 2: Based on a Stimulus-Organism-Response Paradigm.

Categories:

3. External emotional stimuli. This category emphasises external triggers of emotion. Expressing that “emotion has primarily external triggers while motivation has primarily internal triggers” (Kleinginna & Kleinginna, 1981 p. 350). This distinction is not always suitable, due to the possibility of interoceptive stimuli setting off emotions, and external incentives setting off motives. There are only three definitions that had their primary emphasis on external stimuli, and 24 others mentioned their role in emotion.
4. Physiological: mediates those mechanisms of emotion. These definitions highlight the dependence of emotions on biological mechanisms.

Nevertheless, there is still a debate going on regarding the identification of the physiological structures of emotions. However, there are seven definitions with a strong emphasis on physiological mechanisms and 59 others that also mentioned physiological factors.

5. Emotional/expressive behaviour. This classification emphasises the externally observable emotional responses. Those responses can be of any kind, from specific changes in facial expressions, to breathing or from sound-producing structures. Whereas only 2 of 101 definitions emphasised emotional behaviour to fit into this category, 43 others mention behaviour as a part of the emotion. Charles Darwin particularly emphasised the expressive aspects of emotional behaviour and their reactions on other organisms in a functional way, both in animals and humans.

Group 3: Based on the functional consequences of emotions.

Categories:

6. Disruptive: emphasises emotion's great potential for causing disruptive and/or maladaptive effects in light of an unpleasant feeling, causing negative responses on the individual such as disorganisation.
7. Adaptive: emphasises the opposite of a disruptive category. It implies that emotion usually increases the likelihood of the organism meeting its needs, whereas the repetition of different positive responses in order to cause pleasant feelings.

Group 4: Based on the scope of the definitions:

Categories:

8. Multi-aspect: emphasises the many facets of emotion. This category has 32 definitions that emphasise that emotion contains a variety of important

components, the most common being: affective, cognitive, physiological, and emotional/expressive behaviour. However, even when it is the largest category, most of the definitions do not go far enough in differentiating the concept of "emotion" from other psychological processes.

9. Restrictive: attempts to differentiate emotions from other psychological concepts, especially the distinction between emotion and motivation. In Kleinginna and Kleinginna's (1981) work, there were nine definitions with an emphasis on this category and ten others that mention restrictions in their theories.
10. Motivational: emphasises the overlap of emotion and motivation. It provides a contrast to a lot of the definitions in the restrictive group, as it has been said before, this category highlights the overlap of emotion and motivation, considering emotion as to be our primary motives. This category has seven definitions placing their primary emphasis on motivation, and 31 others mentioning the motivational properties of emotion.

And the last group: Others

Categories:

11. Sceptical Statements: it refers to those who question or deny the usefulness of the concept of emotion. In some cases, the statements just point out dissatisfaction with psychology's lack of agreement on a single definition of emotion; meanwhile, other cases reflect disapproval of intervening variable concepts in general.

Taking into consideration all the inchoate definitions of emotion and the lack of consensus among the scholars, we can conclude that the very nature of emotions is multidimensional and, consequently, irreducible to a single definition.

Thus, according to the taxonomy elaborated by Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981), it is possible to assert on a broad sense that emotions exhibit not only psychological but also biological features, whether it results in physical or emotional responses. However, such conceptualisation of the notion falls short when it comes to an understanding of the role of emotions in interactions and identity formation due to the lack of research on social matters.

Considering these several attempts to define what an emotion is (and bearing in mind different labels within the aforementioned categorised literature), the variety of sciences developed their own definitions based on their object of study. According to the APA Dictionary of Psychology (2015), the concept of emotion is defined as “a complex reaction pattern, involving experiential, behavioral, and physiological elements, by which an individual attempts to deal with a personally significant matter or event” (p. 362). According to Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981) and Schachter and Singer (1962), there are three groups into which the psychological theories can be divided: the physiological theories suggest that the mechanism responsible for our emotional responses is our body; then, the neurological theories claim that first, we have an activity going through our brain that leads us to an emotional response; and finally, the cognitive theories propose that there is an outside stimulus which provokes a physiological response that is labelled during a cognitive process and finally results in an emotion.

One of the very first studies that tried to answer and classify what emotion is was Wundt's Three-dimensional Theory of Emotion (Reisenzein, 1992). This theory suggested that emotions can be analysed based on the following three dimensions: like-dislike, tension-relaxation, and excitement-calm. Each of these emotions can be understood as a specific combination of these dimensions (p. 145). In other words, Wundt's Three-dimensional Theory of Emotion (Reisenzein, 1992) is founded on what we perceive from the outside, how our body reacts to that and how we decide to show as a reaction.

The sociological study of emotions is founded on the fact that most of our emotions are caused and experienced in the context of our social relationships. Feelings such as fear, pride,

joy, happiness, sadness, anger and countless other emotions arise in specific social situations (Kemper, 2002). As stated just before, it is not possible to develop an emotion without having an external factor that affects us in a particular manner, because we need an element from our environment or context that creates a response in ourselves, creating a specific emotion.

According to Bisquerra (2003), an emotion is a complex state of an organism characterised by excitation or disturbance that predisposes to a coordinated response. Emotions are generated in response to an external or internal event (p.12). Bisquerra (2003) asserts that emotions are difficult to explain but that they work by giving a response to a factor that may come from our inside or the world around us.

In this line, several authors agree that emotion contains the "pleasant-unpleasant" dimension, including Chóliz (2005), who proposes that it can be defined as an affective experience that is pleasant or unpleasant to some extent. This dimension comprises three response systems: cognitive-subjective, behavioural-expressive and physiological-adaptive. As stated before, the first step of the emotion process is to acknowledge the external factor in a personal way. After that, a specific behavioural reaction is associated with emotional appraisal and intervening contextual variables. In this regard, the interaction between self, biology, and culture, leads to a considerable number of possible emotional reactions which can vary significantly from individual to individual. Zembylas (2003) proposes the idea that emotions are strictly related to identity formation as he analyses private and social areas of emotional development (such as values, ideas, and rules). Zembylas (2003) explains how emotions influence and construct an individual's identity in the light of social interaction, considering not only personal cognitive processes but also political views and dogmatic beliefs that shape socio-cultural work lines. Therefore, culture leads to personal identity within group interaction (Zembylas, 2005, 2007).

As a convergent position, Casassus (2007) proposes that due to this quality of linking the external with the internal, emotions are at the centre of the subjective and social human experience. They are a way of relating the internal and external, of internalisation and externalisation, connected by an energy which is a willingness to act (p. 99). This definition

incorporates not only the proposals of the previously mentioned authors but also positions the emotional experience of individuals at the very centre of their will and interactions, as well as providing emotions with an integrative or synthesising force that leads us to decision making and action-taking.

1.1.1 Emotion and culture.

As previously seen, emotions establish inner connections between individuals and communities in interaction with the social context/environment, or *social media* —understood here as the synergy that occurs among societies—. Individually speaking, emotions tend to be seen as arrangements of intrapersonal change (Keltner & Haidt, 1999) while as in collective experiences, they simplify to external events in contact with individuals.

In this regard, Tiedens and Leach (2004) suggest that "Individual emotions have also been conceptualised as regulated by the social constraints and affordances provided by norms, morals, and values" (p. 3). These are in agreement with Bisquerra (2003), who postulates in that emotions are a response that is triggered by social experiences. Therefore, emotional demeanour varies depending on the cultural archetype of social values constructed by social rules (Basabe, Paez, Valencia, Rimé, Pennebaker, Diener, & González, 2000), as in, for example, gender-based cultural notions.

When speaking of gender notions within social structures, we speak of cultural backgrounds that determine which responses relate to a specific gender role in society, as it is taught by prosocial structures (Eisenberg, Fabes, & Spinrad, 2006; in Samayoa, 2013, p. 322); in this case, while the masculine notion of gender relates to negative affirmation (as in defence of personal rights and displeasure reactions), initiative with the opposite gender, and aggressive-competitive behaviour, the feminine notion of gender relates to highlighting outside needs, consenting the opposite gender's initiative, and prioritising others' opinions and desires over one's own. These notions of gender support emotional inhibition instead of expressing provided by social rules that build social responses (Eisenberg et al., 2006; in Samayoa, 2013, p. 322).

Hence, cultural constraints within a social group are seen as external factors that affect emotions in their performative aspect.

Some studies highlight the role of emotions in social behaviour. For instance, Keltner and Haidt (1999) have found that in dyadic relationships —i.e., a meaningful partnership between two persons— individuals are more aware of their emotional states when communicating. As persons meet and know emotions, beliefs, and intentions, they rapidly develop and acknowledge social interactions. Another case occurs when speaking of bigger social groups. As the participants co-create social rules in light of moral and ethical basis, they react by tolerating, punishing, rewarding, encouraging, tabooing, etc. the member(s) behaviour pattern that follows or breaks said rules (Frijda & Mesquita, 1994). Karstedt's (2002) studies implicate the value of emotions within criminal courts. As their procedures establish connections in how emotions vary among people related to the judging process (shame, anger, remorse, justice, among others) and the cultural approaches in which it is based. Law has integrated into the criminal justice system the relevance of emotional intelligence, for instance, the categorisation of crimes of passion, hate crimes, or denying evidence that may emotionally influence jury members and judges (Karstedt, 2002). While some authors focus on the reciprocal aspect, others such as Keltner and Haidt (1999, p. 509), concerning individual features, see intrapersonal emotions among groups as a personal reaction following a social event or condition. Thus, every social event that surrounds individuals evokes an emotion, whereas the participants experience the common stimulus/stimuli.

Thoroughly, in a sense that includes group beliefs connected by culture, we must assume that this process shapes the borders and details of a said belonging set of emotions. Further, group belonging characteristics match cultural sets of ideas sharing meaning, as Keltner and Haidt (1999) propose that "Culture not only creates the social world, it guides people in the affective reactions needed to function in that world" (p. 513). In other words, culture provides the mainstays of emotional responses, as it builds power roles and hierarchies (Shilling, 1997) or bounds ideological responses to shared emotions. Concerning this, it is important to highlight the relevance of culture due to the social set of beliefs bounding society; however, this set may vary regarding the country in which it takes place.

Considering cultural contexts, current research has found a relation between the geographical zone and the dominant set of beliefs. In 2009, Studies from New Zealand and Iran led by Novin, Banerjee, Dadkhah, and Rieffe witnessed how culture affects the outcomes of expressing emotions in 56 Iranian and 56 Dutch children. Factors of the social environment such as family and peers were considered as well as negative and positive emotions. The results conveyed that children from both countries tend to suppress their feelings; nevertheless, the Iranian children tended to be more hermetic than the Dutch ones in terms of social experiences based on the display of rules present on their daily life. In other words, motives were different when children explained their reasons for not showing their emotions, all of them based on either self-protection or family and peers presence (Novin, Banerjee, Dadkhah, & Rieffe. 2009). Hence, the presence of cultural backgrounds (such as social rules) determines parameters for expressing emotions, in both the cognitive and biological areas.

To summarise, the socio-cultural context modifies the human emotional dimension. This modification is related to culturally agreed on rules regarding the ways that individuals act. These ways can have positive or negative effects on personal emotional behaviours in the sense of punishing or rewarding specific actions, attitudes, outcomes, and so on. In this regard, culture becomes a shape former for communities to develop relationships and roles as members share a set of social beliefs that governs their social interaction. Hence, the relationship between culture and emotion will be conditioned by the set of social rules and beliefs in a determined zone. In this sense, the right way of expressing emotions is also led by cultural approaches which will be explained in the following section.

1.1.1.1 Emotional expression.

It is known that culture has an important role in emotional expression, as it provides the constraints for its expression or the lack thereof (Novin et al., 2009). Language becomes a key element as a constraint when speaking of sharing ideas and feelings. In the earlier stages of cognitive and emotional development, infants communicate their emotions through nonverbal devices such as gestures, body postures, and vocalisations that individuals around them interpret as specific emotions, e.g., smiles with happiness, cries with sadness, etcetera., this varies

depending on their communication needs (Kubicek & Emde, 2012). Later on, as infants learn and practice the ability to speak, they address certain labels that culture uses within the cultural tongue, presenting and relating their emotions with the corresponding existent words (Bloom, 1998; Kubicek & Emde, 2012). Further, Fainsilber and Ortony (1987) examined the metaphorical aspect of language and its importance in the revealing of emotions, suggesting that most of the ideas related to emotions do not always evoke a particular set of words. In this sense, group interaction discloses and varies meanings not only to current social labels but also creates some of them regarding the communicating needs of expressing an emotion or a set of emotions.

To summarise, emotional expression relies upon the channels in which social groups provide the acceptance or rejection of particular expressive manners, both verbal and non-verbal. Furthermore, analysing the social environment that surrounds individuals (Basabe et al., 2000; Tiedens & Leach, 2004), it is noticeable that culture induces an extensive amount of perceptions in the light of emotional development, which influences our thinking and emotional processes. As a matter of fact, culture provides the necessary rules that allow group membership (Shilling, 1997) as a product of the relationships between individuals and their social environment, which builds the essential atmosphere that accepts or rejects patterns of emotional behaviour (Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Frijda & Mesquita, 1994). Indeed, culture shapes the channels by which emotions are expressed, such as language or cultural approaches. However, both expressing or suppressing emotions relies upon positive and negative responses related to said social environment and group belonging (Novin et al., 2009). Hence, we as a human species are emotional beings capable of feeling intrapersonal and environmental aspects of emotions that take place within society, labelled and led by the culture that determines the ways of interacting among individuals (Fainsilber & Ortony, 1987).

1.2. Education And Emotions

1.2.1 Emotionality and education.

The relationship between emotions and education has long been discussed since Hargreaves' (1998a, 1998b, 2000) and Goleman's (1995) postulations on the relevance of

emotions in education. In this regard, several perspectives aim to explain said relationship, from psychological theories, which highlight the biological and cognitive dimension of affect, to socio-cultural theories, which emphasise the pervasiveness of culture in emotional expression and perception.

1.2.1.1 Psychological perspective.

Many attempts have been made in order to tackle the issue of education and emotions. In this regard, Schutz, Aultman, and Williams-Johnson (2009) carried out a study where they classified these experiences into three transactional processes in order to understand teachers' and students' emotions and their effect on the classroom in terms of boundaries and role negotiation. These categories are Affective Tendencies, Core Affect, and Emotional Episodes, which are explained in the following paragraphs.

a. Affective Tendencies: This is a term used to describe a predisposition to act in a specific environment. For example, suppose a teacher is predisposed to see their new working place as a scary environment. In that case, they are more likely to experience emotions such as anxiety or fear, and forasmuch that is their predisposition. This term is organised into two categories of influence. Social-historical perspective is a viewpoint that includes the accumulated evidence suggesting stronger cultural influences on some affective experiences than what psychologists once believed (Parkinson, Fischer & Manstead, 2005). This idea means that teachers who come from different socio-cultural backgrounds do not react to a similar context in the same way. On the other hand, Individual Influences are affected by personal experience, temperament, and behaviour activation/inhibition systems (Schutz et al., 2009). The former has to do with how some emotions may be passed from parents to their children (or vice versa) via particular transactions in the family context (Larson & Almeida, 1999; Larson, Gillman, & Richards, 1997). Therefore, teachers who come from a family environment where emotional episodes are not demonstrated openly, may see their affective tendencies in the classroom influenced in a similar way. Temperament and behaviour are both somewhat biological in nature; nevertheless, they can be affected by

the socio-cultural environment and the relation with people who surround them. The former is used to describe models of behavioural and emotional responsiveness that are stable throughout a person's lifetime. At the same time, the latter is based on biological aspects of human processes that have the potential to influence affective tendencies (Schutz et al., 2009). To sum up, the affective tendencies are rather stable predispositions that have the potential to influence how teachers may react when they face the school environment.

b. Core Affect: According to Russell (2003), Core Affect can be defined as "a neurophysiological state that is consciously accessible as a simple, nonreflective feeling that is an integral blend of hedonic (pleasure–displeasure) and arousal (sleepy–activated) values" (p. 147). Since Core Affect refers to how people feel in a particular moment, independently if they are aware of it or not, teachers' and students' Core Affect can be influenced by the classroom environment and the interactions between them. Therefore, Core Affect can be explained as states experienced as feeling good or bad, stimulated or weak. These situations can be experienced as a mood without any apparent cause, or they can be ascribed to a reason and therefore be the start of an emotional episode.

c. Emotional Episode: Numerous authors claim that emotional episodes consist of a physiological response, cognitive appraisal, and behavioural tendency (e.g. Frijda 2008; Izard 2007; Russell & Barrett 1999; Smith 1991), focusing on the automatic reaction that triggers a physical response, the subjective interpretation to stimuli in the environment, and how people act. Afterwards, Schutz et al. (2009) built on that theory by highlighting the social and historical aspects, describing them as socially constructed, personal ways of being. They can come out from conscious and/or unconscious judgements concerning perceived successes at fulfilling goals or keeping the standards or beliefs during transactions as part of social-historical contexts.

To conclude with the psychological perspective of emotion, it is essential to keep in mind that social-historical contexts define the processes involved in affective experiences, and they

occur in the same environment. All these factors that influence emotions (such as personal experience, predisposition, temperament and behaviour), have the potential also to influence the type, tendency and duration of these particular emotional experiences. Therefore, experiences cannot be compared to one another with just superficial characteristics due to its complexity and uniqueness.

Besides these influential factors, there are some abilities and knowledge that can be acquired in order to understand one's own and others' emotions and their influence on actions. These are called socio-emotional competencies, which will be explained next.

1.2.1.2 Socio-emotional competencies.

The concept of competence is understood as the capacity to properly mobilise a set of necessary knowledge, abilities and attitudes to perform diverse activities with a certain level of quality and efficiency (Bisquerra, 2010, p.143). There have been several studies on how people manage their emotions, for example, Teruel, Salavera, Usán, and Antoñanzas (2019) who applied the Rotterdam Scale for Emotional Intelligence (REIS) to evaluate one's own and others' emotional regulation. However, for purposes of this study, the models or competencies explained by Casassus (2007), Bizquerra and Perez (2007), and Mayer and Salovey (1997, in Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2005, p. 68), will be described in the following sections.

1.2.1.2.1 Casassus and the development of emotional competencies.

According to Casassus (2007), the emotional competencies are a set of qualities that imply the incorporation of specific skills, leading to a transformative process that allows people to be aware of and understand their own and others' emotions (p.124). The author describes seven emotional competencies (p. 160-183):

- A. The ability to be open to the emotional world: Being interested in knowing and appreciating emotionality and being willing to explore it.

B. The ability to be aware: listen, perceive, name and give meaning to one or several emotions: Being and staying in different experiences, being aware of them and taking responsibility for that state. Paying attention and being conscious about what is happening can lead to actions.

C. The ability to link emotion and thought: Linking emotional competencies to thinking skills increases the capacity to see, think logically, make judgements and generate actions. The lack of contact with our emotions blocks thinking and acting well since it prevents logical thinking and can lead to fake emotions.

D. The ability to comprehend and analyse the information related to the emotional world: The emotional world allows us to see the world from different perspectives, making us more willing to solve problems.

E. The ability to regulate emotions: Emotions are neutral, but it depends on us what we do with them. Emotion regulation is an internal process that occurs in three different moments: awareness, recognition and emotion domestication. We need to be aware of what is being felt, recognise and name it in order to identify how these emotions are affecting our bodies, thoughts and behaviour, and thus give ourselves a better chance to act on them. Emotion regulation is what prevents people from being dependent on emotions.

F. The ability to modulate and express emotions: Emotional modulation is the expression of emotions through actions from the body, along with verbal and non-verbal expressions. Emotional modulation allows wellness and tranquillity that comes from not acting compulsively and not projecting in others what is being felt, and it prevents emotions from taking control of people's actions.

G. The ability to receive, contain and hold others: listen to others compassionately leaving all judgements behind, and connect with their feelings in order to understand their feelings and make them feel better.

According to Casassus (2007), these competencies can be understood from the difference between intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence. Emotional awareness means working with oneself in order to learn about the emotional world, which is a condition to be able to identify emotions in others. On the other hand, the development of emotional comprehension allows working efficiently with others since it allows us to know, understand, bond and act positively towards others.

1.2.1.2.2 Bisquerra and Perez's emotional competencies.

Additionally, Bisquerra and Perez (2007, p. 9-12) define the emotional competencies as a set of necessary knowledge, capacities, abilities and attitudes that allow people to comprehend, express and regulate, in an appropriate way, the emotional phenomena. The authors describe five emotional competencies:

1. Emotional conscience: Being aware of our own and others' emotions, naming them and understanding the emotional climate of a determined context.
2. Emotional regulation: Appropriately handling emotions, being aware of the relationship between emotion, cognition and behaviour, having suitable coping mechanisms, and having the ability to auto-generate positive emotions to improve quality of life.
3. Emotional autonomy: Characteristics related to personal self-management such as self-esteem, positive attitude in life, responsibility, ability to look for help, emotional self- efficacy and resilience.
4. Social competence: The ability to maintain good relationships with other people taking into consideration social skills such as respect, assertiveness, effective communication, prosocial attitudes, problem-solving and the ability to manage emotional situations.

5. Competencies for life and wellness: The ability to adopt appropriate and responsible behaviours to tackle everyday challenges in order to organise lives in a healthy and balanced way.

Bisquerra (2003) states that amongst these competencies, two aspects can be distinguished: Firstly, the ability of self-reflection (intrapersonal intelligence), which is identifying one's own emotions and regulating them appropriately. Secondly, the ability to recognise what others think and feel (interpersonal intelligence) which is linked to social skills such as empathy and non-verbal communication. Additionally, this model is also related to the concept of emotional intelligence: emotional self-awareness, emotion management, self-motivation, and social skills.

1.2.1.2.3 Mayer and Salovey's model of emotional intelligence.

Mayer and Salovey's model of emotional intelligence (1997, in Fernández-Berrocal and Extremera 2005, p. 68), defines emotional intelligence as an ability centred on processing the emotional information that unifies emotions and thought, which allows us to use our emotions to facilitate more effective reasoning and think more intelligently about our emotional life. These authors also stated that emotions help solve problems and adapt to the environment; therefore, emotional intelligence is based on the adaptive use of emotions and the way they can be linked to thoughts. According to this, Mayer and Salovey describe four necessary abilities:

1. Emotion regulation: Being able to be open to all emotional states, reflect on emotions, recognise our own and others' emotions and have the ability to regulate emotions without minimising or exaggerating them.
2. Comprehension and analysis of emotions, emotional knowledge: Being able to recognise and name emotions, understand the relationship between emotions and the different situations from which they come from, understand complex emotions and recognise the transitions from one emotional state to another.

3. Emotions that facilitate thinking: Emotions lead thought to relevant information and facilitate judgement, considering different points of view to solve problems.
4. Perception, evaluation and expression of emotions: Being able to identify our own and others' emotions, express our feelings and needs and differentiate between honest and dishonest emotions.

This set of abilities is known as a "skills model" since emotions are used to process different information, which is later linked to thought. Additionally, this model conceptualises emotional intelligence through four basic abilities (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera 2005, p. 68): perceiving, valuing and expressing emotions with precision; accessing and/or generating feelings that facilitate thought; understanding emotions and emotional knowledge; and regulating emotions promoting emotional and intellectual growth.

1.2.1.2.3.1 The Trait Meta-Mood Scale.

The Trait Meta-Mood Scale was designed by Mayer and Salovey (1995) to measure individual differences in people's inclination to attend to their moods and emotions, discriminate clearly among them, and regulate them (Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey & Palfai, 1995). In order to create and develop this Trait Meta-Mood Scale, the authors asked two hundred individuals to answer to 48 items that were divided into five-item domains: clarity of emotional perception, referring to the ability to understand one's mood; strategies of emotional regulation, acknowledging the degree to which individuals moderate their moods; integration of feelings, involving questions about correspondences between feelings and thoughts; attention to emotions, referring to the degree to which individuals notice and think about their feelings; and attitudes about emotion, referring to subjects' perceptions of the importance of emotional experiences (Salovey et al., 1995).

Salovey et al.'s (1995) idea with this was to locate their results onto the three primary domains of reflective mood experience described by Mayer and Gaschke (1988). They

demonstrated that there is a continuing process linked with moods, where individuals continuously reflect upon their feelings, monitoring, evaluating, and regulating them. Mayer and Gaschke (1988) termed this process the meta-mood experience. They developed the Meta-Mood Experience Scale in order to measure an individual's thought about an ongoing mood state (Mayer & Gaschke, 1988). Later on, the Meta-Mood Experience Scale evolved into the State Meta-Mood Scale (SMMS) due to its emphasis on moment-by-moment changes in reflections about ongoing mood. However, as the scale did not consider more stable attitudes about moods in general, Salovey et al. (1995) came up with the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS). This scale was designed to rate relatively stable individual differences in people's tendency to pay attention to their moods and emotions, to have enough clarity to discriminate among them and regulate them.

A shorter version of TMMS-48 was adapted by Fernández-Berrocal, Extremera and Ramos (2004), named TMMS-24. The latter edition was translated to Spanish, and it maintains the three original components of the TMMS, which have been reduced in half while keeping the most consistent and relevant items. The final scale consists of 24 items, 8 items per factor and its reliability of each component is: Attention ($\alpha = 0.90$); Clarity ($\alpha = 0.90$) and Reparation ($\alpha = 0.86$). Additionally, the test presents an adequate test-retest reliability (Attention = 0.60; Clarity = 0.70 y Reparation = 0.83). TMMS-24 was chosen over TMMS-48 in order to avoid a language barrier between the participants and the duration of the test application. TMMS-24 has been tested on several occasions and has consistently demonstrated its validity and reliability (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005).

Emotional Intelligence dimensions evaluated through TMMS.

- a. Attention: This refers to people's tendency to observe and reflect on their own emotions, value and examine their affective states and to focus and maximise their emotional experience (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005, p.115). An appropriate level of Attention means that people have adaptive regulation strategies due to the correct use of emotional information, whereas extreme levels of Attention are related to emotional maladjustment. That is to

say, people with little Attention do not regulate their emotional states; while people with excessive Attention usually tend to have issues implementing regulation strategies (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005).

According to Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2006), Attention is closely related to Clarity and Reparation. On the one hand, having high levels of Attention without appropriate levels of Clarity and Reparation leads to ruminative thoughts, maintaining rather than relieving negative moods. On the other hand, appropriate or lower levels of Attention along with high levels of Clarity and Attention allows adequate processing of emotional information and better levels of adjustment.

b. Clarity: This refers to people's ability to identify, distinguish and describe the emotions they experience on a daily basis. It is the ability to name our emotions, as opposed to knowing only if one feels bad or good (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005, p. 116). Thus, Clarity can be understood as the basis of intrapersonal emotional comprehension, which allows people to be aware of what to expect and the consequences of emotions, focusing more on what to do instead of how they feel.

Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2006) also report that having high levels of Clarity reflect fewer thoughts suppression, increased life and interpersonal satisfaction, positive coping strategies, good self-esteem, less vulnerability to rumination and other mental health issues, and greater adaptability to stressful situations. On the other hand, low levels of Clarity are related to problematic and unpredictable reactions to emotional circumstances.

c. Reparation: This refers to people's belief in their ability to interrupt negative emotional states and extend the positive ones (mood recovery) (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005, p. 117). This dimension, therefore, is

related to a person's ability to reverse negative emotions in a more pleasant direction in order to protect mental health and improve people's wellness.

Additionally, several studies contribute to the analysis of having high total scores on the TMMS test and its implications for the development of socio-emotional competencies. For example, a study carried out by Gohm and Clore (2002) concluded that high scores are related to positive reinterpretation and growth strategies, active coping mechanisms, action planning and more considerable search for emotional support. Hence, emotional intelligence allows people to focus on their emotions without avoiding stressful situations through behaviour or mental suppression. (Gohm & Clore, 2002). In the same line, in a research conducted by Salovey, Stroud, Woolery and Epel (2002) participants took the TMMS test and six other tests related to depression, anxiety, empathy, self-esteem, physical symptoms and interpersonal satisfaction. The results obtained in this study show that people with high scores on the TMMS test also got lower scores on the depression, physical symptoms and anxiety tests and higher levels of interpersonal satisfaction and self-esteem (p. 615).

Moreover, having high scores in the TMMS test also gives information about other aspects of people's daily lives, such as their work environment. According to the study conducted by Gohm and Clore (2002) about interpersonal relationships at work, a high score in the test is associated with higher job satisfaction and good relationships with coworkers. Additionally, Extremera, Fernández-Berrocal and Durán (2003), carried out a study with 183 teachers from secondary school working in different institutes in Málaga, Spain, who voluntarily took this study related to emotional states and their personality in their work environment. In the study, the TMMS-24 test, in addition to the other three instruments that measure socio-emotional skills were carried out. The results show that teachers with nine or more years' professional experience have higher scores in the tests, which means that they develop more strategies when repairing their emotions. It was also found that elderly teachers promote positive attitudes through different strategies to deal with negative emotions (as cited in Samayoa, 2013, p. 50, 108, 323, 327).

Furthermore, the TMMS-24 test has been used to measure socio-emotional competencies in students. Ponce and Aguaded (2017) carried out a study with 100 teenagers from a secondary school, who were asked to take the TMMS-24 before and after an intervention about emotional intelligence. The results show that after the intervention students got lower scores in the test when compared to the results obtained before the intervention, which implies that after certain circumstances people are more aware of their emotional skills, therefore, there is more self-criticism when valuing them. In the same line, Gómez-Díaz, Delgado-Gómez, and Gómez-Sánchez (2016) performed a similar study, but participants were 108 first-year nursing students from Universidad Católica de Murcia. The results show that after the intervention participants got higher results in Attention and Clarity but not in Reparation; however, these differences were not significant. Therefore, interventions that approach socio-emotional competencies have a positive impact on the way participants perceive themselves and their emotional skills.

The TMMS-24 has also been used in studies related to the differences in public and private education. Samayoa (2013) carried out a mixed study to identify teachers' socio-emotional competencies in a public and a private school in Mexico with a sample of 681 teachers, 54% belonging to the public school and 46% belonging to the private school. After exploring, describing, and comparing the information provided by the participants using an emotional coefficient self-evaluation and the TMMS-24, the study concluded that, in general terms, teachers do not perceive their emotional capacity regardless of their gender, age or professional experience.

Similarly, the results obtained show that the private school got higher scores on the tests since private education tends to pay more attention to students' and teachers' emotional health. Therefore their lack of awareness of their competencies means that their emotional self-regulation occurs unconsciously. In contrast, teachers from the public school stated that emotional intelligence is something they are continually learning.

In terms of gender, Samayoa's study concluded that women pay more attention to their emotions, which makes them attend emotions better and have more empathy. The author states

that this difference in gender can occur as a consequence of the gender roles learned in society; whereas, in terms of age and working years, the findings show that teachers with less working experience have more developed socio-emotional competencies than more seasoned teachers.

As already mentioned, the TMMS, more specifically the TMMS-24, is a test that measures socio-emotional competencies through its three categories: Attention, Clarity and Reparation. This test has demonstrated its validity in numerous studies, which provides information about the participants' emotionality and its influence on aspects such as work environment, health issues and education. Furthermore, this test is relevant for our study since it is an indicator of teachers' socio-emotional competencies that have a relevant impact in school and classroom climate and the learning-teaching process.

To summarise, competencies are knowledge that allows people to be aware and understand their own and others' emotions, and to express and receive them in a positive way. This means emotions can become a useful tool for the teacher, instead of something to be avoided. More importantly, emotional competencies involve a process of transformation, meaning that emotions are information that can be used in situations such as problem-solving. The three classifications mentioned state that being emotionally competent requires personal emotional development in addition to the awareness of other people's emotions. Said development would allow people to understand and act consciously of what they feel, improving everyday interactions and contexts where different relationships are developed.

1.2.1.2 Role of emotionality in the educational process.

Emotions and their influence on education have become a relevant aspect to be studied and taken into consideration when reflecting on teachers' pedagogical practices. In Chile, several guidelines and documents aim to foster the implementation of best practices in teaching.

One of these documents is the “Marco para la Buena Enseñanza” (MINEDUC, 2008), a document that aims to serve as a reference guide of best practices in teaching, comprising several

dimensions that are associated with good quality education. Its main objective is to contribute to the improvement of the teaching process through the renovation of pedagogical practices along with the appreciation of the emotional classroom climate under the concept of “good teaching”: the process that accomplishes all students’ learning by accepting their differences (p. 41).

This document is divided into four domains, each dealing with one of the dimensions involved in education such as students, teachers, classroom climate and the schools’ communities:

a. Teaching preparation: This domain involves the teachers' competencies for planning their lessons and setting the appropriate objectives to accomplish the teaching-learning process based on the national curriculum (p. 8). Additionally, this document states that teachers should not only have knowledge of their disciplines but also plan their lesson considering aspects such as their students' development stages and their social, cultural and economic contexts (p. 11). The educational process, therefore, does not occur in isolation since teachers must consider the factors previously mentioned when planning a lesson in order to create a meaningful learning experience for students.

b. Creation of a propitious environment for learning: This domain refers to the environment that teachers create for their students and their lessons. This is an essential aspect of the teaching-learning process since students' quality of learning is benefited when that learning takes place in a climate of trust, acceptance, equity and respect among people, along with well established and maintained constructive rules of behaviour (p. 9). According to this domain, teachers have to promote a stimulating learning environment in addition to their commitment to their students’ learning and development.

Since this domain is a crucial part of our investigation, it will be explained in greater detail in the next section.

c. Teaching for all students' learning: This domain refers to the teachers' abilities to create opportunities for all their students to learn by taking into consideration their previous knowledge and personal interests, along with teachers' constant feedback to the students. Students learn differently and at their own pace; however, once they know their students, teachers will be able to communicate the class contents in a clear, precise way and develop them according to their students' level of comprehension (p. 28). Additionally, the clarity of the class objectives, procedures, and feedback becomes important since students' comprehension is benefited when they receive effective and constructive feedback from either their teachers or classmates, so it becomes an input for their learning process (p. 31). Therefore, teachers need to be explicit when presenting the class objectives, what is expected from them in evaluations and receiving feedback. These aspects allow teachers to track the way students learn and take action if some of them need additional help in order for all students to learn.

d. Professional responsibilities: This domain is related to the reflections made by teachers around their own teaching practices within students, themselves, their colleagues, and their role in the school community. As stated in the document, teachers have to evaluate their students' learning processes in order to understand them, discover their difficulties, help them to get over them and consider the effect that their own teaching strategies have on their students' learning achievements (p. 9). Teachers need to reflect on their teaching practices because students are not the only agents involved in the learning process; consequently, teachers must reflect and improve continuously in order to guarantee quality education. Also, it is important for teachers to share experiences with their colleagues so the learning-teaching process can improve inside the classroom as well as at a school level.

For the purposes of this study, it is necessary to inquire specifically into domain B of *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* since it refers to the teachers' influence on the learning environment and classroom climate.

Domain B: Creation of a propitious environment for learning

According to Wilson (1996), a learning environment can be understood as “a place where people can draw upon resources to make sense out of things and construct meaningful solutions to problems” (p. 3). Many authors propose that a good learning environment is characterised by specific material conditions that ensure the comfortability of the space for students to learn, while some others highlight the relevance of the social dimension of the learning environment. Domain B of the *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* is directly related to the importance of the teachers' role in the classroom and the relationship they establish with their students.

As previously mentioned, this domain is related to the climate that teachers generate in the classroom and its influence on students' learning process. Its importance lies in the fact that teachers play an essential role in motivating their students to learn in a safe, accepting and respectful environment through how they relate to their students and their type of relationship that teachers stimulate amongst them and their students (p. 23). The following four criteria explain how teachers can contribute to a positive classroom environment for students (p. 13):

1. Establishing an environment of acceptance, equity, trust, solidarity and respect: Teachers have to set respectful and empathetic interpersonal relationships with their students, give their students opportunities to participate and promote solidarity and commitment attitudes amongst students, taking into consideration gender, socioeconomic, ethnic and cultural differences.
2. Manifesting high expectations about students' possibilities of learning and development: Teachers present challenging and appropriate learning

situations, transmitting positive motivation for learning, inquiry and research by promoting students' autonomy, effort and perseverance.

3. Establishing and maintaining consistent norms of classroom climate: Teachers set rules that are understandable and known to all students, and these rules are appropriate to students' needs. At the same time, teachers should monitor the fulfilment of these rules, generating assertive and practical solutions when the rules are broken.

4. Establishing an organised working environment and disposition of learning resources: Teachers use strategies to create and maintain an organised environment in the classroom such as appropriate use of space and resources in order to make connections with the classroom activities.

As previously described, this domain of the *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* focuses on the actions that teachers can do to improve the classroom climate and, consequently, improve their students' performance as well. Once teachers know their students, their needs and help them understand what is expected from them, students will react positively and, at the same time, contribute to improving classroom climate, making this a task in which all agents are involved.

In general terms, the *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* contributes to the improvement of the teaching profession, taking into consideration that teachers do not work in isolation. Teachers are part of a system that demands them to know the technical aspects of their work, such as planning lessons based on the national curriculum and its objectives. Also, they are part of a community where they contribute collaboratively along with their colleagues in order to improve and guarantee quality education for all their students.

Similarly, the Ministry of Education published a document for the promotion of best practices in education in the "Política Nacional de Convivencia Escolar" (PNCE) (MINEDUC, 2019). This policy is orientated to the strengthening of the teaching and learning process, as well

as the management of the school community in order to develop various fields, such as personal, social, and of knowledge and culture.

The creation of this document lies, once again, on the importance of the influence of a positive school environment in the educational process. This document states that harmonious and nutritious classroom environments are a crucial factor in developing better teaching and learning processes due to their influence on the participants' involvement in the educational processes (p.12). Therefore, by improving the school environment, there will also be an improvement in terms of the learning-teaching process as well as the climate of the school community.

For MINEDUC, the most important aspect to focus on is the set of conditions that should be met in order for the school climate to be safe, respectful, trustworthy, fair, and accepting all of the cultural differences, either on gender, personal, social or cultural terms. (MINEDUC, 2019). Considering this, PNCE proposes four characteristics of school climate to improve the school environment with the participation of all community members:

1. A climate based on respect amongst all members of the school community: As already mentioned, respect should be the base of all relationships established in schools. The respectful treatment is manifested in an honest relationship, in the recognition and positive assessment of people, and in behaviours, attitudes and basic habits of courtesy and kindness (p. 13). Consequently, all members should recognise the others as equals, remembering that everybody has the right to be treated with respect.

2. Inclusive climate: Empathy, as well as respect, are essential when it comes to school climate. According to PNCE, empathy facilitates better comprehension and appreciation of others, making everybody feel welcomed (p.14). A positive school environment, therefore, is the one that accepts all members of a community regardless of their gender, cultural, and economic contexts, allowing them to develop their personal and social skills.

3. Democratic and collaborative participation: All members of the school community should participate in instances that foster a sense of belonging to the group and its activities since the expression of opinions, a well-grounded debate of ideas, agreement building and respect for these agreements require collaboration for all members of the community (p.14). Consequently, instances like parents-teachers meetings, assemblies, among others, enrich respect, solidarity and responsibility.

4. Peaceful conflict resolution: this tackles all previous characteristics (being the respectful, inclusive climate and democratic and collaborative participation). Its importance lies in the fact that these characteristics prevent violence and promote the expression of a variety of opinions in order to identify disagreements so all members can gently approach them.

The *Política Nacional de Convivencia Escolar* pays special attention to the participation of all members of the school community in reliance on respect, empathy, responsibility and dialogue. These characteristics foster a positive school environment, leading to an improvement in students' performance, participation and sense of belonging to their community.

In addition to these documents, MINEDUC also created "Compromiso Sana Convivencia" (MINEDUC, 2018), which is a distinction for Chilean schools that implement successful strategies that improve school climate. Its objective is to help schools to identify improvement opportunities in terms of school climate and institutional capacities (p.6). The schools, particularly the school climate departments, should elaborate goals and actions to improve the climate for all members of the school communities.

As previously mentioned, in Chile, the *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* and *Política Nacional de Convivencia Escolar* are the documents that allow school communities to pay attention to emotionality and climate in education. In addition to this, MINEDUC and Universidad de Chile created a document called *Set Metodológico para Equipos de Convivencia Escolar* (2017). This set is a tool that facilitates dialogue and cooperation amongst all members

of the school community to reflect on school climate through workshops based on sharing personal experiences, reflective exercises, and teamwork, leading to the elaboration of improvement plans for the climate.

Thus, Chilean curricular policies have been dealing with social environments inside schools aiming at building constructive atmospheres that evoke healthy and nutritious relationships among every agent within the school community. For instance, *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza* fulfils the teachers' 4 criteria, provided to understand the emotional aspect by safeguarding the current climate, framed by mainly respect among individuals, as well as motivating students to collaborate with teachers and peers in order to enhance the teaching-learning process. Additionally, PNCE establishes four main characteristics that promote the construction of safe social environments. These characteristics exist to improve the social environment, which includes every individual present that coexists within the school community, and they are framed by tolerance, democracy, empathy, etc. Besides, MINEDUC educational framework cooperates with universities that integrate pedagogical matters such as Universidad de Chile in order to develop strategies that are essential to building communication channels. However, there is little literature that tackles the issue of the implementation of said frameworks, on the one hand, and the skills of teachers to implement these frameworks.

1.2.2 Classroom climate.

1.2.2.1 School climate.

The simple definition of school climate is the setting and the environmental conditions in which the class is developed, as a matter of fact, "school climate has been recognised as an opportunity to enhance student achievement and reduce problem behaviors and dropout rates" (Wang & Degol, 2015). But in order to understand what school climate is, we need to acknowledge the meaning of a social climate first. Social climate is the perception that individuals have of the different aspects of the environment where they develop their daily activities, including the perceptions they have regarding rules and beliefs (Milicic & Arón, 2011).

Since social climate can be perceived through different aspects, school climate can be understood similarly. Cohen, McCabe, Michelli and Pickerall (2009) propose that school climate is based on patterns of school life that reflect norms, goals, values, interpersonal relationships, teaching and learning practices along with organisational structures, allowing students to feel physical, socially and emotionally safe. Therefore, how students feel determines climate and the behaviour of the different members of the community.

Since social school climate can be perceived through different perspectives and agents involved, it can have different characteristics. According to Milicic and Arón (2011), school climate can be perceived as *nutritious* or *toxic*. On the one hand, a nutritious social climate is characterised by fostering a positive social climate, where individuals are willing to learn and enjoy participating since they feel that they belong to a community. This is the kind of environment that allows the best aspects of people to flourish, including appropriate physical surroundings, diverse and fun activities, respectful relationships, mutual interest, and non-violent conflict analysis. On the other hand, a toxic social climate is characterised by the appearance of only negative aspects of people, fostering stressful interactions and the absence of constructive conflict resolution, and including poisonous physical environment, violence, economic pressure, and asymmetric peer relationship (Milicic & Arón, 2011).

Milicic and Arón (2011) describe nutritious and toxic social school climates from different definitions provided by teachers (p. 7-8):

Table 1: *Characteristics of toxic and nutritious social climates in the school context*

Nutritious climate	Toxic climate
Perception of a climate of justice.	Perception of injustice.
Predominance of positive appreciation.	Predominance of criticism.
Error tolerance.	Overfocusing on mistakes.
Feeling of being valuable.	Feeling of being invisible.
Sense of belonging.	Sense of not belonging, marginality.
Knowledge of rules and consequences of their transgression.	Ignorance and arbitrariness of rules and consequences of their transgression
Flexibility of rules.	Rigidity of rules.
Feeling respected in their dignity, individuality and differences.	Not feeling respected in their dignity, individuality and differences.
Access and availability of relevant information.	Lack of transparency and privileged use of information systems.
Promotion of personal growth.	Interference in personal growth.
Facilitation of creativity.	Obstacles in creativity.
Constructive conflict confrontation.	Authoritarian or lack of conflict confrontation.

(Taken from Milicic & Aron, 2011)

As we can see, Milicic and Arón's taxonomy (2011) differentiates nutritious and toxic school social climates. A nutritious school climate facilitates personal growth and problem solving, fosters creativity and allows community members to feel they belong, making them feel valued. In contrast, in a toxic climate there are obstacles in creativity and development in addition to arbitrariness in decision making, making community members feel invisible.

In that sense, the social environment becomes the core of any emotional response that may result in a positive impact that nurtures constructivist characteristics or as a negative impact that develops toxic climates within social groups. These characteristics include social climate, facility status, safety rules, social and emotional intelligence development, among others. Hence, the different factors that promote useful patterns of behaviour guarantee positive social climates in the school environment, subsequently, building the necessary atmosphere to implement in the matter of emotional climates within schools.

1.2.2.2 Emotional climate in the classroom.

The emotional climate in the classroom has been considered one of the most important factors in terms of the influence it has on the development of the learning-teaching process (Bisquerra, 2003; Casassus, 2007; Milicic & Arón, 2011). According to numerous authors, learning occurs in a context where emotional relationships are developed; therefore, education is an emotional process. Casassus (2007) states that the emotional climate in the classroom is made up of three variables (p. 239-251):

- a. The teacher-student bond: Teachers recognise students' needs, such as being recognised, respected, autonomous and heard. Once these needs are satisfied, students will feel more confident and less afraid to make mistakes. Additionally, teachers feel confident as well, being able to express their emotions and look more authentic to their students.
- b. The bond amongst students: When students feel confident, they feel allowed to show themselves as they are, feeling they belong to a community where they feel welcomed and accepted. This decreases violence and intolerance, generating positive relationships amongst them.
- c. The climate that emerges from these two: the emotional comprehension that emerges when teachers establish relationships with their students fosters

proper learning conditions, high academic results and satisfaction and wellness feelings in teachers.

A positive emotional classroom climate has a positive impact not only for the climate between teachers and students but also for the cognitive aspect of the learning-teaching process. Positive classroom climate improves performance, fosters the acquisition of cognitive abilities and develops positive attitudes towards studying and going to school. (Moreno, Diaz, Cuevas, Nova & Bravo, 2011; Molina de Colmenares & Pérez de Maldonado, 2006; Witt, Wheelless & Allen, 2004).

Emotional climate in the classroom has a powerful influence on the way students learn and how relationships are developed in the educational context. Both school and classroom climate can be perceived through the community members; therefore, it is important to take into consideration teachers' and students' emotionality in order to understand how these climates can be developed and their influences.

1.2.2.3 Teachers' emotionality and socio-emotional competencies.

Teachers play a role in the educational system by guiding students through their learning process. However, the teacher's role is highly conditioned not only for their work inside classrooms but also what is expected from them outside their daily work with their students, in addition to the cultural context in which they are immersed. As stated by Casassus (2007), this role, in general, has been defined purely under rational terms, without considering the emotional dimension of human relationships, leaving behind the fact that teaching must have emotional awareness since it is based on relationships with others. Therefore, it is reasonable to find the emotional side of a teacher's role left aside, prioritising rationality over emotionality.

As already mentioned, an awareness of teachers' emotional competencies improves classroom climate and management along with the relationship that teachers establish with their students since the learning-teaching process is based on bonds and emotional relationships. Therefore, teachers need to develop these emotional and social competencies in order to develop

these relationships in a healthy way. As stated by Palomero (2009), teachers' training process should consider the development of their ethical and affective qualities since teachers transmit values and attitudes through the way of being with their students. Consequently, the development of socio-emotional competencies is highly important for teachers if they are to transmit positive attitudes to their students and create bonds with them.

Some authors (Palomero 2009; Moreno et al. 2011) have proposed a scale of socio-emotional skills that teachers can develop in classrooms and the schools' contexts which are helpful not only for academic success but also to foster a positive environment. However, it is necessary to start with the teachers' own emotions. Considering this, Palomero (2009) describes five attitudes related to teachers' social and emotional competencies:

1. Awareness: being conscious of their own and others' feelings.
2. Autonomy: the ability to solve problems and lead their behaviour inside the classroom.
3. Responsibility: the ability to respond to their feelings, thoughts and behaviour. This is an aspect that teachers should be careful since there could be difficulties to assume this responsibility, leading to evasion, distancing and guiltiness.
4. Criterion independence: teachers' ability to build their professional identity from their personality, experience and training by knowing what they can or cannot do, their limits and taking responsibility for their actions and decisions.
5. Cooperative disposition: recognising themselves as part of a group, leading to satisfactory interpersonal relationships.

These competencies are the basis for the creation of bonds with others since considering one's own emotions, thoughts and behaviour is key to determine what to expect from others.

Additionally, there are other competencies that teachers should develop not only for themselves but also for their students to promote a positive learning environment and climate. According to Moreno et al. (2011), three characteristics play an important role when creating bonds with their students:

1. Authenticity: Teachers are genuine people aware of themselves and able to behave according to the way they feel.
2. Respect: Teachers treat students like people worthy of being considered positively, with dignity and tolerance.
3. Empathy: Teachers understand their students' feelings and respond to them adequately.

Furthermore, as classrooms are constituted by students with different personalities, and numerous situations take place at the same time, there is one additional competence that has a direct impact on the climate of the learning-teaching process. As proposed by Sutton, Mudrey-Camino and Knight (2009), emotional regulation is fundamental to avoid interpersonally disruptive emotions and increase positive prosocial emotions. For instance, teachers who reduce negative emotions in their classrooms help students to focus on their goals and nurture relationships with and amongst students; while teachers who up-regulate positive emotions help students to increase their level of motivation and attention. The authors also propose that showing and regulating emotions fosters, on the one hand, teacher effectiveness, and, on the other, students' self-regulation and lesson engagement.

However, the importance of teachers' socio-emotional competencies has not been given the relevance it deserves in the research agenda, especially when it comes to teaching training programmes in Chile. As stated by Tellez (2016), working with one's own and others' emotions

and other soft skills such as teamwork, empathy and adaptive skills are abilities that teachers learn only once they start working in schools, since pedagogy programmes do not prepare future teachers in this area (p. 26). Tellez (2016) also agrees with the fact that the development of these abilities improves classroom climate and students' learning (p. 17). Thus, it can be challenging for teachers to learn on their own and start working in schools without having any support in this area in their formative years.

Consequently, teachers' socio-emotional competencies are necessary for creating positive relationships with students and the school community in general, improving, as mentioned, the social and emotional climate. However, some abilities such as assertivity, recognising and dealing with emotions and conflict resolution can only be developed once in contact with students, since they are not taught during teachers' years of training, which leads teachers to develop said abilities on their own. Therefore, it is imperative for teachers to be able to work on their own emotions and how they relate to others to create a better social and emotional environment.

1.2.2.3.1 Teachers' working conditions.

As previously mentioned, socio-emotional competencies are an important aspect of a teacher's job since they contribute to a positive school and classroom environments along with fostering healthy relationships with their students. However, the way in which teachers carry out their daily work is conditioned not only by emotional climate but also their working conditions, which depend on both how education is seen in a particular country and how the school where they work is managed.

The clinical sociology of work (Guerrero & de Gaulejac, 2017) states that workers look for self-realisation through their productive energy, along with their efforts to get results and be recognised for that. Recognition is one of the main sources of satisfaction or suffering at work since it is focused on efficiency and performance increase (Guerrero, Balboa & Miranda, 2017; Guerrero & de Gaulejac, 2017). When there is a lack of recognition, workers set defensive strategies to avoid discomfort and mental illnesses that affect productivity and organisation (Guerrero et al., 2017).

In Chile, education is conceived from a business-like paradigm called "new management" (Guerrero et al., 2017; Ruffinelli 2016). Education, and teachers' jobs, are directly associated with results, and people are seen as resources that must be productive and non-conflictive. According to Ruffinelli (2016), new management is also reflected in the educational reforms that have been fostered by the MINEDUC. These reforms are based on accountability and incentives, measurement under a system of price and punishment and scarce support to teachers and their professional development which individualises and devalues their job, despite the existence of the previously mentioned *Marco para la Buena Enseñanza*.

The way education is seen in Chile has led to criticism of the new management model. As stated by Guerrero et al. (2017), new management fosters competence amongst colleagues, complicates the construction of professional identity and causes workers to demand themselves to satisfy the requirements of the organisation excessively. Hence, the new management ideology makes it difficult for teachers to work appropriately when there is little in favour of an ideal working environment.

From this perspective, teachers' working conditions are characterised by the lack of socio-emotional healthy spaces to fulfill the numerous responsibilities that they face daily. In the Chilean educational system, teachers are seen as the only people responsible for their own, their students' and their schools' results, since schools' accountability is reflected on test results like SIMCE or PSU (Guerrero et al., 2017). Furthermore, teachers receive insufficient remuneration considering all the challenges that need to be tackled both inside and outside the classroom such as diversity, vulnerability, demotivation of students and families, ministry demands and social demands update (Ruffinelli, 2016). Therefore, there are considerable conditions that make teaching a challenging profession due to the tasks and responsibilities that need to be assumed with numerous aspects against them.

Additionally, the concern about teachers' mental health has been brought to the attention of scholars since working conditions have a direct effect on teachers' wellness and mental health. In this respect, Cornejo (2009) indicates that, on the one hand, teachers have the opportunity to

make decisions about how they want to teach, have meetings with colleagues to discuss, although little, about contents and how they work. Also, teachers feel recognised, and feel less over-worked, when they feel supported by peers and schools' management team (Cornejo 2009; Brackett, Palomera, Mojsa-Kaja, Reyes & Salovey, 2010). While on the other hand, teachers have excessive working hours and amount of work that come from new labour demands. Changes in pedagogical approaches, standardised performance, increased inequality in terms of resources and infrastructure, lack of support outside schools and devaluation of the teaching profession (Cornejo, 2009), affect teachers' psychological and physical wellness. As a result, Cornejo (2009) also states that teachers tend to present burnout, affecting the creation of a nurturing climate amongst them and their students, in addition to a high amount of teachers that have diseases that affect their bodies. For example, their voice or hands, or their mental health, like depression or anxiety. Therefore, teachers' working conditions have a considerable influence not only in their performance but also how they affect teachers' physical and mental health. Which influences the way they develop their profession inside and outside the classroom, and the repercussions that this might have in other aspects of their lives.

The teaching profession is a challenging one considering all the responsibilities that teachers need to fulfil every day. In Chile, there is a system that does little to help teachers to develop their profession: full responsibility of results, low wages compared to other professions, adverse effects on their health, and educational reforms that support competition but lack of support for teachers. Taking this into account, it is difficult for teachers to pay attention to the emotional environment and their socio-emotional competencies when they present burnout or depression caused by teaching or the management team's requirements, which directly affects their relationships with students.

1.2.2.4 Students' emotionality.

Students' emotionality can be understood as how the pupils' behaviour changes as a response to different stimuli. While most of these can be observed by other people, other responses can only be observed by the person experiencing them. Students can go through a variety of different emotions, and to each one of them, they may react in several ways. It is

important to take students' emotionality into account in order to understand how they feel, make them feel comfortable and safe in the classroom environment (Molina de Colmenares & Pérez de Maldonado, 2006; Moreno et al., 2011; Witt, Wheelless & Allen, 2004).

A safe environment for students' emotionality can be created by enforcing the positive emotions in the classroom in order to enhance an optimistic atmosphere for students to carry out their school day properly. As stated by Sutton et al. (2009), negative emotions are reduced to help focus on goals of academic learning and nurturing relationships. Therefore, detrimental feelings are decreased in the classroom while teachers up-regulate the positive emotions since they consider that it can help increase students' motivation in the classroom.

There are numerous advantages to having a healthy environment in school. According to Casassus (2007), these include the fact that when students feel respected a virtuous circle takes place where they feel safe, accepted, and confident in their surroundings. Additionally, Milicic and Arón (2011) state that a healthy environment fosters positive social interactions, and it helps to emerge the best of people. Therefore, their fear of making mistakes in the classroom is reduced, and students feel safe enough to talk in class and participate in discussions. Students' emotionality and how teachers influence it are the basis of a positive development of the former during their school years.

After all, how students' behaviour changes can be understood as a response emerging from different stimuli appearing in the classroom and, consequently, it has an enormous impact on the development of the class. Considering the results of building a proper climate such as more or less participation, the feeling of being safe in their everyday study place, and the confidence in actively talking as a part of the lesson, are important factors that are enhanced with the development of a positive environment.

1.2.2.5 Emotional alignment.

Emotional alignment may be understood as cognitive coordination among people while communicating and how emotions, arising from interaction within people from the same space,

impact on how they relate with the rest (De Boer & Badke-Schaub, 2008). According to Lawler (2001), emotional alignment explains the generation of stronger or weaker ties to relations, groups, or networks produced by the social exchange of emotions. Jaecks and Hielscher-Fastabend (2008) supported this statement in their study of emotional alignment in communication by asserting that “In daily communication people do not only exchange pure information, they often transmit their emotions about a subject discussed” (para. 1). Understanding this concept, we can interpret emotional alignment as the result of environmental connection approaching the psychological, sociological, and emotional levels, consequently, bearing in mind the repetitive pattern of social interaction that occurs, it happens continuously as the synergy flows.

For instance, Boer and Badke-Schaub (2008) analysed the emotional side of a team working by exploring the NASA moon landing management case. For their study, they examined two teams working on the same project. The results showed better communication and problem-solving in one team whose members were emotionally aligned than in the second one, which dis-aligned emotionally speaking. The reason behind their conclusion lies in the way the first group negotiated their ideas, including all of their members' cognitive and emotional areas rather than the second one, which excluded members from their work-related discussions. Consequently, splitting their team, harming their interactions, and hampering their work.

Atoofi (2013) states emotional alignment as the negotiation and adjustment of affective behaviours that occur within social interaction. This emotional alignment can be either fostered or suppressed depending on the one hand, the degree of emotional awareness that individuals understand and, on the other one, the channels in which emotions align, considering verbal and non-verbal communicative devices. However, the most crucial characteristic of this emotional process lies in the context in which it is produced. As the social interaction leans on the variety of people and circumstances present, every affective perception is modified because of the social environment.

As previously seen, with the classroom context in mind, Atoofi (2013) explains the relevance of considering both the cognitive and affective areas of learning and teaching

development, as the learning experience relies on the relationship between teachers and students. Positive feedback built on emotional awareness academically improves students' performance whereas either negative feedback or lack of assessment provokes lower students' performance in the teaching-learning background. In this manner, the emotional practice of both students and teachers lead positive results such as acknowledging goals, increasing motivation, problem-solving, among others, in light of developing a safe learning atmosphere which is constructed by the in-class participants.

In this regard, the teacher's attitude towards the class is a relevant factor in the creation of a positive affective environment within the group dynamics. As long as teachers incorporate emotional intelligence in their life and working environment (Zembylas, 2003), the classroom interaction enhances the proper conditions and climates to develop a healthy and reliable teaching-learning experience, based on both the current circumstances and needs of the class members (Atoofi, 2013). Therefore, the presence or absence of emotional alignment among the members of a group will either enhance or hinder the learning of students.

1.2.3 Emotions, education and curricula.

1.2.3.1 Chilean education.

According to the MINEDUC curricular bases (2009), the Chilean educational model is based on the political constitution of 1980, human rights (MINEDUC, 2009), and the general education law (OECD, 2017). These documents aim at building an equal and quality educational system whose principles state the development of cognitive, emotional, and practical competencies along with values and attitudes, reflecting students' life experiences in the context of formal and informal learning environments (MINEDUC, 2009). In this regard, academically speaking, the Chilean educational curricula have the following characteristics:

1. Levels

a. **Preschool:** This is the first level of education amongst children from 0 to 6 years old. It is divided into nursery levels, lower and higher middle levels, and first and second transition levels. This is a non-compulsory level; however, the second transition level was made mandatory in 2014, but its implementation has not started yet.

b. **Elementary:** This is a compulsory level, and it corresponds to grades 1 to 8, and it is divided into the first cycle (grades 1 to 4) and second cycle (grades 5 to 8).

c. **Secondary:** This covers grades 9 to 12. It is also divided into the first cycle (grades 9 and 10) and second cycle (11 and 12). Secondary education also offers students the choice between the humanities, technical subjects and the arts in order to prepare them for higher education or working environments. This level is also compulsory.

d. **Tertiary or higher education:** It is a non-compulsory level, and it consists of academic, professional, and technical degrees, whose study programs long usually from 2 to 5 years each (OECD, 2017).

2. Training areas.

a. **General training:** This area facilitates integral training that allows students to develop themselves in multiple aspects of their lives and society such as social integration, economic growth and political development. The Chilean curriculum is priority oriented to general training, and its subjects vary according to the different levels:

- Elementary: Literacy, Foreign Language, Maths, Natural Sciences, History Geography & Social Sciences, Technological Education, Arts, Physical Education and Religious Studies (optional for students).
 - Secondary grades 9 and 10: Literacy, Foreign Language, Maths, History Geography & Social Sciences, Biology, Chemistry, Physics, Technological Education, Arts or Music, Physical Education and Religious Studies.
 - Secondary grades 11 and 12 (Scientific-Humanistic): Literacy, Foreign Language, Maths, History Geography & Social Sciences, Psychology, Philosophy, two sciences among Biology, Chemistry or Physics, Arts or Music, Physical Education and Religious Studies.
 - Secondary grades 11 and 12 (Technical-Professional): Literacy, Foreign Language, Maths, History Geography & Social Sciences, and Religious Studies.
 - Secondary grades 11 and 12 (Artistic): Literacy, Foreign Language, Maths, History Geography & Social Sciences, Psychology and Philosophy, Biology, and Religious Studies.
- b. Differentiated training: This covers the specialised areas of study chosen by students in grades 11 and 12 and varies according to the schools' curricular organisation.
- Scientific - Humanistic: deepening of their specialised areas such as Literacy, Science, etcetera.

- Technical - Professional: specialised training of 15 economic sectors with 34 specialisation areas (OECD, 2017, p. 61):

- Woodwork: forests and furniture.
- Agriculture: agriculture.
- Food Technology: industrial preparation of food; gastronomy.
- Construction: construction; refrigeration and air-conditioning; sanitation; industrial assembly.
- Metalwork and Mechanics: automotive mechanic; industrial mechanic; metallic constructions.
- Electricity: electricity; electronics.
- Maritime Studies: aquaculture; fishing; crew of merchant and special ships; port operations.
- Mining: mining exploitation; extractive metallurgy; geology assistance.
- Graphics: graphics; technical drawing.
- Textiles: clothing and textile apparel.
- Administration: administration; accounting.
- Health and Education: early childhood care; nursing care.
- Chemistry and industry: industrial chemistry.
- Technology and Communications: connectivity and networks; telecommunications; programming.
- Hospitality and Tourism: hospitality services; tourism services.

- Artistic: specialised training in different artistic fields.

c. Free disposition: It is the schools' liberty to create their own programmes based on their educational projects (PEI in Spanish). Schools can assign class hours to general or differentiated training or create curricular activities designed by themselves.

Considering this, schools can choose, build or adapt the curriculum they want to implement in order to fulfil the needs from schools and their communities (MINEDUC, 2009). Moreover, families have the opportunity to choose a school that suits their educational preferences (Scientific - Humanistic, Technical - Professional or Artistic) and their educational needs since some schools have integration programs (OECD, 2017). Additionally, teachers can adapt to their students' different abilities and learning styles, influencing teachers to apply diverse pedagogical strategies (MINEDUC, 2009). However, despite the freedom provided in terms of curricula, MINEDUC evaluates schools through the SIMCE standardised test in grades 4, 8 and 10 in order to assess students' competencies developed during their compulsory levels (MINEDUC, 2009).

As already mentioned, the priority in the Chilean curricula goes to all the subjects from the general training area with its variations according to the students' level, and the free disposal hours depend on each school's educational projects. However, other educational projects aim at a different approach in the learning-teaching process by following different philosophies that influence how the school community develops, such as Waldorf education.

1.2.3.2 Waldorf Education.

Waldorf education was founded by the Austrian philosopher Rudolf Steiner. He founded "Anthroposophy", a human-oriented spiritual philosophy that is based on the knowledge of the true nature of the humankind. Steiner believed in "unity of spirit, soul, and body, and that good education restores the balance between thinking, willing, and feeling" (Steiner, 1995 in Edwards, 2002, p. 5). In this line, Waldorf education goes hand in hand with Anthroposophy, placing its focus on the process of learning and the stages of human development holistically, which will be explained in detail in the following paragraph.

1.2.3.2.1 Rudolf Steiner and his educational point of view.

Steiner's theory of child development was divided into three cycles of seven-year stages (Edwards, 2002). The first one that includes children under seven years old is focused on learning through imitation and doing, where imaginary play is the most critical task of the infant

and leads to a physical, emotional, and intellectual growth. This stage is focused primarily on bodily exploration, creativity and oral language, such as stories or songs that take place during a big part of the morning, which is dedicated to uninterrupted imaginary play. The most important learning is the importance of "rhythm" and cyclical schedules, such as energetic and calm games, weekly, monthly, and daily activities, including festivities and traditions. The second stage is from 7 to 14 years old, where children stay with the same group and teacher, looking for the creation of unity and bonding among the members while exploring the world through attentive imagination. During this second stage of education, there is a curriculum with a structured organisation and sequence. However, it does not include textbooks, since Waldorf Education promotes an "integrated, multisensorial approach to learning and expression, with more emphasis on oral listening and memory" (Edwards, 2002, p. 5) in comparison with the earlier stage. The teacher may introduce science topics, such as math, by telling a story in which numbers are the main characters, after that the students can create their own textbook including what they have learned in class, composing their texts showing their personal experience with learning. During this cycle, students learn about subjects from mythology to languages, including rhythmical musical movement, natural sciences, and art. Finally, in the high school stage, the main focus of learning is the abstract power of intellect, emphasising social responsibility, ethics, and complex subjects with specialised teachers. Throughout this stage, students learn "actively, emotionally and thoughtfully" (Petrash, 2002), taking care of every aspect of their high school experience.

1.2.3.3 The role of emotion in Waldorf Education.

Social-emotional learning is a critical factor in this type of education, due to the encouragement of "a balanced development toward behavioral, emotional, social, and spiritual maturation" (Waldorf education and Social-Emotional Learning, para. 1; In Mitchell, 2009), among other elements. Educators consider that the first experience with a new subject must be an organic/emotional encounter, and then the subject should be intellectually discussed. The reason behind this order is that according to Waldorf educators, "a precocious intellectual experience with a new subject might prevent children from connecting with it in a more

organic/emotional level" (De Souza, 2012, p. 59). That is to say, children may feel more interested in a new subject if it is not being treated as school content.

One of the most relevant characteristics of Waldorf Education is that students stay with the same teacher for an extended period of eight years. Even when this may have both strengths and weaknesses, it can be a considerable advantage to the harmony and continuity provided by the educator in students' school experiences. Furthermore, as students, teachers, and parents spend a tremendous amount of time together, they have several chances to get to know each other and create strong bonds among the Waldorf community. The result of this is that students do not see the school environment as something boring, unknown, and uncertain, but as a familiar, everyday experience, where they learn by doing and experimenting with the new subjects.

To sum up, Waldorf education focuses on the true nature of humankind. When it comes to the socio-emotional dimension, Waldorf education highlights the strong relationship that grows between teachers, students, and parents during the whole process, especially during the eight years of the second stage of learning. As the learning-teaching process occurs from an organic/emotional perspective, it motivates students to feel more interested and experience this process from a personal level.

1.3 Conclusions

The literature reviewed in this chapter shows that studies on teaching and emotions are rather scarce, and the ones available support the idea that the area of teachers' socio-emotional competencies needs further research. As it has been reported, most of the studies on the topic have focused primarily on students' emotionality rather than teachers' (see, for example, Ponce & Aguaded, 2007; Gómez-Díaz et al., 2016; Salovey et al., 2002). Moreover, important conclusions concerning school and classroom climate, in addition to teachers' working conditions, have been stated, such as the fact that socio-emotional competencies do influence the learning-teaching environment along with the way teachers deal with the context where they work (Milicic & Arón, 2011; Palomero, 2009; Ruffinelli, 2016; Cornejo, 2009). However, not

much has been said about the differences observed amongst different types of schools and how they influence the development of teachers' emotional competencies (see, for example, Téllez, 2016).

Similarly, the literature suggests that emotional competencies vary not only at an individual or subjective level but also at institutional levels as evidenced by the differences between public and private schools (Samayoa, 2013). However, no research in this area has been conducted in the Chilean context, as most studies have focused on either students' socio-emotional development and competencies or school climate and wellbeing (Milicic & Arón, 2011; Cornejo, 2009; Ruffinelli, 2016).

It is in this context that obtaining research-based information about the socio-affective competencies of teachers becomes highly relevant, as to determine whether the evidence presented by the authors mentioned above replicates in this context. Also, it provides details about possible differences in the different Chilean educational models, as well as differences in participants' gender and age. Thus, it would be relevant to enquire in this area in order to establish if these cultural differences apply to the Chilean reality and school system and determine their pervasiveness in the learning outcomes of students.

The present study deals with these issues through an analysis of the data obtained from the socio-emotional competencies self-assessment test Trait Meta-Mood Scale (Salovey et al., 1995) adapted by Fernández-Berrocal, Extremera and Ramos (2004) being namely, the TMMS-24 test.

Hence, this study addresses the issues discussed above by analysing the data obtained from tests taken by teachers from a public and private school in Santiago. In order to do so, this study has set forth the following research questions:

1. Is there any difference between the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies amongst the participant teachers?
2. Is there a relationship between the degree of development of teachers socio-emotional competencies and the type of school in which they work?

2. Methodology

The present study aims at exploring the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies in a group of teachers working at two schools in Santiago de Chile. To do so, this investigation has established the following objectives:

2.1 General Objective

1. To analyse the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies in a sample of teachers working in public and a Waldorf school by means of the application of the TMMS-24 test.

2.2 Specific Objectives

- 1.1 To determine the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies in a sample of teachers working in two schools by means of the application of the TMMS-24 test.
- 1.2 To analyse the results obtained in the test using psycho-social criteria.
- 1.3 To compare the participants, based on their test results, by using psycho-social and pedagogical criteria.

To meet the objectives, a study was conducted on data consisting of the results obtained from the application of the TMMS-24 test (Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS)), which is a test that assesses the self-perceived degree of development of socio-emotional skills. The data obtained from the application of this test was analysed in order to identify the self-perceived degree of development of socio-emotional skills in a group of teachers working in two schools in Santiago.

2.3 Research Design

The research design proposed in this study is of a quantitative descriptive transversal nature, as it aims at describing the differences in the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies in the participants by means of a standardised test whose results will be statistically analysed in order to estimate quantitative trends that allow us to reach inferences from the data.

Moreover, this study also attempts to establish a relationship between the schools where the participants work, through associating the results of the individuals with each of the educational institutions that participated in this study. One of the schools belongs to the national public system of education and is located in a low-income district while the other one is a private Waldorf school located in a middle-class neighbourhood in Santiago.

This design was chosen considering the existing literature on research methodologies (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007; 2011; King, Keohane, & Verba, 1994; Hernández, Fernández, & Baptista, 2014) concerning qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods (Creswell, 2003; 2007). The design was also chosen due to contextual variables related to socio-political events that have been taking place in Chile and the world during the course of this research. These events have led most of the schools to the discontinuation of classes and, thus, the entire semester was ended prematurely.

Initially, the research design consisted of a mixed-methods study that comprised a quantitative stage consisting of gathering data from applying a test, and a qualitative stage consisted of group interviews based on focus groups in order to analyse the quantitative data. However, during the qualitative process with the schools, a wave of protests caused significant disruption in Chile and our public school was occupied by protesting students, causing school services to cease and, consequently, not allowing us to complete the second stage of data collection procedures. After said events, we managed to work with the already gathered data from the first stage, and the study became a quantitative-descriptive analysis study.

2.4 Participants

The participant sampling method used in this study is of a two-stage purposeful opportunistic nature. In the first stage, the schools were chosen according to their pedagogical project (Traditional versus Waldorf), financing (public or private) and the total number of teachers working at the school. The latter criterion is relevant as it assures that both schools are comparable from a staff size perspective, which is indicative of the relative number of students that the school can serve. The second stage consisted of participant sampling. In this stage, all the teachers in each school were voluntarily invited to take part in the study, and those who accepted to participate were included in the sample. After the procedure, the final sample was made up of 11 teachers.

The participants from the public school are all secondary education teachers, four of them are men, while the remaining four participants are women. The teachers have been working at the public school for 17.7 years on average ($SD = 9.7252$). As for their age, the average age of the participants was 44 years old ($SD = 10$) by the date of the data collection procedure. Within this group, the average age of the female teachers was 40 ($SD = 12$), while the average age of men was 48 ($SD = 8$).

As for the participants from the private Waldorf school, they are eight secondary school teachers, seven women, and one man. The teachers have been working at the school for an average time of 10.8 years ($SD = 6.03$). When it comes to the age of the participants, the average was 39 years old ($SD = 10$) by the date of the data collection procedure. The average age of the women teachers is 38 ($SD = 12$), and the male participant is 46 years old ($SD = 8$).

The number of participants represents 62.5% of the total number of teachers at the private school and 75% at the public school. Therefore, the sample can be regarded as representative of each school.

2.4.1 Schools.

Chilean educational institutions are ruled by the General Education Law (Law N° 20.370). This regulation provides educational institutions with principles and teaching-learning goals by means of determining the minimum requirements for completion of each of the education levels as well as granting institutions with education provider certifications. (Santiago, Fiszbein, Garcia Jaramillo, & Radinger, 2017). As mentioned in section 1, schools can design their curriculum according to their educational projects. Therefore, there are numerous curricula available to meet the educational needs of different communities. For the purposes of this study, we chose a public and a private Waldorf school in order to identify any difference related to socio-affective competencies among teachers.

2.4.1.1 Sampled schools.

2.4.1.1.1 Public School.

The first school we chose for this study is a public school located in La Cisterna, a low to a middle low-income level district in Santiago, Metropolitan Region. This public institution began its life in 1989, with its official recognition from the Ministry of Education, and it is administered by the local municipality. It is a secondary school which focuses its education from a scientific-humanistic approach. There are one hundred and eighty (180) students in total, with an average of forty-five (45) students per class and ten teachers. Within the pedagogical community, there are assistance teachers, a psychologist, educational psychologist support specialists, a teaching counsellor, a special education teacher, a social worker, and a speech pathologist. The institutional educational project states that the school will ensure the provision of instances for the integral development of the students, including a healthy school environment. Besides the compulsory subjects included in the national curriculum, the school provides its community with counselling-related programmes (healthy school relationship, drugs and alcohol consumption prevention, sex education, and healthy lifestyle promotion programmes, for example). On the whole, this public institution offers an extensive and complete educational project. However, it is also important to note that no mention is made as to activities or programmes related to the development of socio-emotional skills in students, or

the community as a whole as it is possible to notice in the school datasheet (see Appendix A for the datasheet).

2.4.1.1.2 Private Waldorf School.

The second school is a private Waldorf institution, located in Ñuñoa, a middle-class district in the Metropolitan Region. Said private school was officially recognised by the Ministry of Education in 2011. It is a secondary school which focuses its education from a scientific-humanistic approach. There are seventy (70) students in total, with an average of seventeen (17) students per class and ten teachers. Within the pedagogical community, there are assistant teachers and psychologists. The institutional educational project makes emphasis on the integral development of the students, an inclusive focus and a pleasant school climate. Its formation programme includes a guidance programme, a healthy school relationship programme, drugs and alcohol consumption prevention, sex education, a healthy lifestyle promotion programme, and guidance on the importance of social action, which relates to the school's humanistic project proposed in 2002 by Edwards (see Appendix B for the datasheet).

2.4.2 School sampling justification.

The present study compares a public and a private school, where the public institution is led by MINEDUC curricular standards, and the private institution is led by Waldorf curricular standards. These two schools were chosen because their educational projects allow us to make a significant comparison concerning the development of socio-emotional skills regarding teachers.

Since this study focuses on the identification of differences in the degree of development of socio-emotional skills in teachers working in different contexts, we decided to compare a subsidised public school and private Waldorf-oriented school. These considerations are based on each of the schools' curricula. On the one hand, the public school's project focuses on the achievement of learning objectives, which fulfil academic needs based on MINEDUC's

measurement devices. The implementation of these devices demonstrates the importance of summative assessments within public institutions. On the other hand, our private school's project reflects socio-emotional based objectives, as it considers Rudolf Steiner's philosophy focused on humanistic development rather than achieving results. In this sense, the Waldorf's educational project promotes formative assessments, which, in turn, demonstrates the Waldorf focus on developing their students as whole human beings. Hence, as Waldorf education regards socio-emotional competencies development rather than MINEDUC's curricular programs, it is relevant to compare these two educational projects in order to notice the level of socio-emotional competencies self-awareness in teachers from these both schools.

In this regard, previous studies on the matter suggest that some differences in the degree of socio-emotional competencies can be identified in both students and teachers belonging to schools from private and public sectors. For instance, firstly, Ponce and Aguaded (2017) studied emotional competencies in a group of secondary students belonging to a public school in Spain. They analysed their perceived emotional intelligence through the TMMS-24 before and after the implementation of a plain emotional intelligence intervention programme, whose purpose was to work on emotional abilities. Secondly, Gómez-Díaz et al. (2016) researched first-year nursery students at a Spanish university. The analysis of emotional abilities took place before and after the assistance of 4 workshops regarding the improvement of socio-emotional competencies. They also studied perceived emotional intelligence through the TMMS-24. Last but most important, Samayoa (2013) who conducted a study to design and develop a formative programme to promote and train teachers' socio-emotional competencies within a public and a private school in Mexico, which has also been assessed in terms of perceived emotional intelligence through the TMMS-24 in teachers.

Given said studies, we considered the idea of studying a public and private school in Santiago. In this line, we specifically searched for a private Waldorf school in order to compare it with a public school. The comparison between these two schools is interesting because of their curriculum. On the one hand, Waldorf schools are socio-emotional oriented (Mitchel, 2009), while on the other hand, public schools are focused on results. In this sense, we come up with the idea of comparing a public school and a private Waldorf school in the topic of socio-

emotional competencies awareness. However, as most studies focused on students (Gómez-Díaz et al., 2016; Ponce & Aguaded, 2017), our attention was aimed at teachers from these educational systems in order to know teachers' level of emotional awareness.

2.5 Data

2.5.1 Data collection tools.

Regarding the data collection tools, we chose the trait meta-mood scale (TMMS) version 24 validated by Fernández-Berrocal, Extremera, and Ramos (2004). This is a Spanish reformulated version of the original 1997 scale designed by Mayer and Salovey. This scale consists of 3 groups of questions that assess different dimensions of emotional competencies: Attention, Clarity and Reparation. The components are as follows:

2.5.1.1 Components.

Table 2: Components of the TMMS-24 test.

Attention	I am able to <i>feel</i> and <i>express</i> my feelings in an adequate way.
Clarity	I <i>understand</i> my emotional states clearly.
Reparation	I am able to <i>regulate</i> my emotional states correctly.

The test consists of 24 statements separated into 3 groups of 8 items each, organised in terms of emotional Attention (people's awareness of their emotional condition), emotional Clarity (people's ability to understand their emotions), and emotional Reparation (people's capacity to interrupt and regulate their negative emotional states and to extend their positive emotional states) (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2005). Each statement is assessed on a Likert scale that ranges from 1 to 5, where 1 corresponds to full disagreement and 5 to full agreement (see Table 3). (See Appendix C for the full instrument).

Table 3: TMMS-24 test evaluation.

TMMS-24. INSTRUCCIONES: A continuación encontrará algunas afirmaciones sobre sus emociones y sentimientos. Lea atentamente cada frase e indique por favor el grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con respecto a las mismas. Señale con una "X" la respuesta que más se aproxime a sus preferencias. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas, ni buenas o malas. No emplee mucho tiempo en cada respuesta.

1	2	3	4	5
Nada de Acuerdo	Algo de Acuerdo	Bastante de Acuerdo	Muy de Acuerdo	Totalmente de Acuerdo

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Presto mucha atención a los sentimientos.					
2 Normalmente me preocupo mucho por lo que siento.					
3 Normalmente dedico tiempo a pensar en mis emociones.					

The table below shows the different items and scores assigned to each category and gender. First, it is the emotional Attention factor for questions 1 to 8; then, the emotional Clarity factor for question 9 to 16, and finally, the emotional Reparation factor for question 17 to 24.

2.5.1.2 Evaluation score.

- Attention

Table 4: Evaluation score according to the Attention category.

Male	Female
<21 : Pay Little Attention <i>Must improve their Attention</i>	<24 : Pay Little Attention <i>Must improve their Attention</i>
22 - 32 : Adequate Attention	25 - 35 : Adequate Attention
>33 : Pay Too Much Attention <i>Must improve their Attention</i>	>36 : Pay Too Much Attention <i>Must improve their Attention</i>

- Clarity

Table 5: Evaluation score according to the Clarity category.

Male	Female
<25 : Must improve their Clarity	<23 : Must improve their Clarity
26 - 35 : Adequate Clarity	24 - 34 : Adequate Clarity
>36 : Excellent Clarity	>35 : Excellent Clarity

- Reparation

Table 6: Evaluation score according to the Reparation category.

Male	Female
<23 : Must improve their Reparation	<23 : Must improve their Reparation
24 - 35 : Adequate Reparation	24 - 34 : Adequate Reparation
>36 : Excellent Reparation	>35 : Excellent Reparation

As for scientific rigour, the TMMS-24 has been tested in several studies in order to prove its reliability and validity. Giménez-Espert and Prado-Gascó (2017) researched on the psychometric properties of the TMMS-24 within their study related to nurses, namely, the characteristics of a test for reliability or appropriateness within research circumstances. Their study found the reliability of the test when it comes to research perceived emotional intelligence. Taramuel and Zapata (2017), for instance, tested the relevance of gender in relation with emotional intelligence, their result concluded by statistically representing differences in gender according to each principal component of the test: Attention, Clarity, and Reparation. As already seen, the TMMS-24 test has been validated as multiple authors have used the test to obtain data that effectively assesses emotional competencies. Thus, considering said studies, the TMMS-24 scale suits the best of our needs to research educators' socio-emotional competencies.

Since the native language of Chilean educators is Spanish, we discussed the importance of applying the instrument in its Spanish version TMMS-24 in order to maximise the test validity and reliability.

Finally, we conducted a content and instrument validation procedure in order to ensure the rigour of the test in relation to the objectives set forth in this study. We did so employing an expert judgement methodology, in which we asked two teachers to assess the instrument (see Appendix D for the validation document).

2.5.2 Data collection procedures.

The data collection procedures consisted of several stages. Firstly, the sampling process was carried out. In order to select the participants, we conducted an intentional two-stage sampling process, in which we chose the schools and participants bearing in mind the research questions put forth at the beginning of this chapter.

Secondly, we had to ask for permission at the DEM (Municipal Department of Education) (see Appendix E for the letter) in order to implement our test in the public school. After obtaining the corresponding permission (see Appendix F for the approval document), we went to the schools concerned to gather the consents of the participants (see Appendix G for the information and consent form). Finally, we applied the tests on two different dates, first at our public school and then at our private institution, within a time span of two weeks.

2.6 Data Analysis

In order to analyse the data, several procedures were conducted. Firstly, the results of the test were digitalised and then tabulated in a Microsoft Excel ® sheet to organise the information according to the variables relevant to the study: the number of subjects, gender, teaching area, years as a teacher, and TMMS-24 scores. See example below:

Table 7: Excel® sheet used in data tabulation.

PUBLIC SCHOOL								
Subject	Subject information				Scores			
	Gender	Age	Teaching Area	Working Years	Attention	Clarity	Reparation	Total
1	F	42 years	Philosophy	20 years	37 pts > Pays too much attention	24 pts < Must improve their clarity	23 pts < Must improve their repair	80 points
2	M	50 years	Personal Development	25 years	37 pts > Pays too much attention	31 pts = Adequate	36 pts > Excellent	104 points
3	M	40 years	Language	13 years	36 pts > Pays too much attention	32 pts = Adequate	37 pts > Excellent	105 points
4	F	24 years	Special Education	2 months	25 pts = Adequate	34 pts = Adequate	32 pts = Adequate	91 points
5	F	40 years	Special Education	20 years	33 pts = Adequate	40 pts > Excellent	39 pts > Excellent	113 points
6	F	52 years	Religion	20 years	34 pts = Adequate	34 pts = Adequate	35 pts > Excellent	103 points
7	M	45 years	Math	22 years	32 pts = Adequate	32 pts = Adequate	33 pts = Adequate	97 points
8	M	58 years	Biology	26 years	30 pts = Adequate	34 pts = Adequate	36 pts > Excellent	100 points
WALDORF SCHOOL								
Subject	Subject information				Scores			
	Gender	Age	Teaching Area	Working Years	Attention	Clarity	Reparation	Total
9	F	36 years	Theatre	11 years	39 pts > Pays too much attention	32 pts = Adequate	37 pts > Excellent	108 points
10	F	37 years	Math	5 years	35 pts = Adequate	28 pts = Adequate	35 pts > Excellent	98 points
11	F	43 years	Arts	13 years	18 pts < Pays little attention	32 pts = Adequate	28 pts = Adequate	78 points
12	F	34 years	Biology	5 years	31 pts = Adequate	20 pts < Must improve their clarity	22 pts < Must improve their repair	73 points
13	F	26 years	Language	3 years	38 pts > Pays too much attention	40 > Excellent	40 > Excellent	118 points
14	F	40 years	Chemistry	14 years	22 pts < Pays little attention	28 pts = Adequate	39 pts > Excellent	89 points
15	F	48 years	History	20 years	22 pts < Pays little attention	32 pts = Adequate	28 pts = Adequate	82 points
16	M	46 years	Basic Sciences	16 years	30 pts = Adequate	23 pts < Must improve their clarity	32 pts = Adequate	85 points

Secondly, after the digitalisation and tabulation of the data, the statistical descriptions were calculated in order to determine the central tendency measures and, consequently, the homogeneity of the data. In this regard, the *SD* outliers were eliminated in order to ensure content validity. Within the total sample ($M = 96.5$, $SD = 8.6$), there were five participants with outlying scores which were left out. Out of the total sample, 2 participants from our public school, being $M = 100$, $SD = 5.3$, and 3 participants from our private school, being $M = 92.4$, $SD = 13$, deviated from the standard statistic, consequently, these five participants were left out of the sample to maintain the reliability of the data. Thus, the final corpus that we worked with consisted of 11 tests.

The data analysis was conducted in three stages:

Firstly, it was analysed using the variables present in the TMMS-24 test, namely: Attention, Clarity, and Reparation. Similarly, other control variables relevant to the objectives of this study were included, such as age, gender, and schools.

Secondly, in order to analyse the data, we conducted a statistical analysis in which the test results were added to determine the participants' scores according to each category. Afterwards, the total scores obtained by the participants were analysed individually to determine the degree of self-perceived socio-emotional development in each participant.

Finally, after obtaining the results of all the participants, we compared the TMMS-24 test results of the participants according to the control and interest variables used in the study (age, gender, and type of school). To do so, we conducted a Mann-Whitney U test for independent groups to determine whether the differences were statistically significant, according to the resulting p -value ($p < 0.05$). We used this test because it provides the statistical significance value for comparisons made between two independent groups of non-parametric characteristics, which is the case of the present study ($n < 30$). In the results section, we provide the p -values obtained for each category under analysis.

After the quantitative analyses were conducted, we proceeded to identify major trends in the results and discuss their relationship with the literature reviewed in Section 1.

The next section presents the discussion emerging from the analysis of the results obtained in this study and the reviewed theoretical inputs presented in this investigation.

3. Results

The purpose of this study is to explore the degree of socio-emotional competencies in teachers from two schools in Santiago: a Waldorf and a public one. To do so, we implemented the TMMS-24 test (Fernández-Berrocal, Extremera, & Ramos, 2004) on a group of 11 teachers from a public and a Waldorf school in Santiago de Chile. After the data was digitised and tabulated on an Excel® sheet, a statistical analysis was conducted in order to determine the relationship between the test result and the variables under study in this piece of research. This section presents the results obtained after the analysis process. These are presented in a sequential fashion following the order of the study objectives stated in Section 2.

3.1 Comparisons Of Results Within The Total Sample

3.1.1 Total sample results.

Table 8 shows the age range of the sample and the results of the TMMS-24 test concerning the gender of the participants, suggesting the existence of some differences amongst women and men. In what respects to the female group, the average age was 40.5 years with a standard deviation of 9.87 points. Likewise, the older age registered was 52 years, while the youngest of the female group was 24 years, which results in a range of 28 years. In terms of the total score, the mean was 91.83 points with a standard deviation of 11.69 points. On the same line, the higher score was 108 points whilst the lowest score marked 78 points, resulting in a range of 30 points. In the Attention category, the mean score was 26.67 points with a standard deviation of 8.09 points. The higher score was 39 points, whereas the lower score was 18 points; thus, the range was 21 points. Moreover, on the Clarity dimension, the mean score was 32 points with a standard deviation of 2.19 points. Similarly, the maximum score received was 34 points, while the minimum was 28 points, leading to a range of 6 points. In regards to the Reparation category, the mean score was 33.17 points with a standard deviation of 4.62 points. The higher score was 39 points, while the lower score was 28 points, which results in a range of 11 points.

Table 8: Statistical description of the TMMS-24 test according to gender and test dimensions.

		Mean	Median	SD	Range	Minimum	Maximum
FEMALE	<i>Age</i>	40.50	41.50	9.87	28.00	24.00	52.00
	<i>Total Score</i>	91.83	90.00	11.69	30.00	78.00	108.00
	<i>Attention Score</i>	26.67	23.50	8.09	21.00	18.00	39.00
	<i>Clarity Score</i>	32.00	32.00	2.19	6.00	28.00	34.00
	<i>Reparation Score</i>	33.17	33.50	4.62	11.00	28.00	39.00
MALE	<i>Age</i>	47.80	46.00	6.72	18.00	40.00	58.00
	<i>Total Score</i>	98.20	100.00	8.04	20.00	85.00	105.00
	<i>Attention Score</i>	33.00	32.00	3.32	7.00	30.00	37.00
	<i>Clarity Score</i>	30.40	32.00	4.28	11.00	23.00	34.00
	<i>Reparation Score</i>	34.80	36.00	2.17	5.00	32.00	37.00
TOTAL SAMPLE	<i>Age</i>	43.82	45.00	9.02	34.00	24.00	58.00
	<i>Total Score</i>	94.73	97.00	10.26	30.00	78.00	108.00
	<i>Attention Score</i>	29.55	30.00	6.93	21.00	18.00	39.00
	<i>Clarity Score</i>	31.27	32.00	3.23	11.00	23.00	34.00
	<i>Reparation Score</i>	33.91	35.00	3.65	11.00	28.00	39.00

When comparing the results obtained by the female group concerning the total sample, it is possible to observe that the mean and median of this group regarding the age variable are respectively 3.32 and 3.5 points lower than the total sample, while the standard deviation is 0.85 points higher, which indicates a broader scattering of the age data in respect of the media. In relation to the minimum, maximum, and range of the participants' ages, comparing the female group with the total sample, it can be observed that the total sample of the study is older than the female group, as the latter's maximum stands 6 points under the former's maximum, while the minimum presents no difference amongst groups. In respect of the total score obtained by the female group in comparison with the total sample of our study, it can be observed that the

mean and median of this group are 2.9 and 7 points respectively lower than the total group score. Similarly, the standard deviation is 1.43 points higher, that indicates a wider dispersion of the data than the whole sample group. In terms of minimum, maximum, and range of the scores amongst the female group and the total sample, it can be noticed that there is no difference between both groups. Regarding the Attention category of both the female group and the total sample, it is possible to observe that the mean and median of the former are respectively 2.88 and 6.5 points under the total sample score, while the standard deviation is 1.16 points higher than the total sample, which indicates a broader distribution of data than the total sample. When it comes to the minimum and maximum scores, as well as the range of said scores compared to the total sample, there are no differences amongst the total sample and the female group. In regards to the comparison of the Clarity dimension between the female group and the total sample, it can be observed that the mean of the former is 0.73 points higher than the total sample and the median does not present a difference. At the same time, the standard deviation is 1.04 points lower than the total sample, which indicates that the distribution of the data was narrower than in the complete sample. In terms of the range of scores, the minimum score stands 5 points higher than the complete sample, though there is no difference in the maximum score between the female group and the total sample. As for the Reparation category, it can be observed that the mean and median of the female group are respectively 0.74 and 1.5 points below the total sample scores. Meanwhile, the standard deviation is 1 point higher than the complete sample, meaning that the distribution of the data is broader in the female group. Regarding the minimum, maximum, and range of scores, there are no differences amongst the total sample and the female group.

In what respects to the male group, the average age was 47.8 years with a standard deviation of 6.72 years. The minimum age registered for men was 40 years, while the maximum was 58 years, resulting in a range of 18 years. In terms of the total score, the mean was 98.20 points with a standard deviation of 8.04 points. Along the same lines, the higher score was 105 points while the lower score marked 85 points, which results in a range of 20 points. In the Attention category, the mean score was 33 points, with a standard deviation of 3.32 points. The higher score was 37 points whereas the lowest score was 30 points, resulting in a range of 7 points. In regards to the Clarity dimension, the mean score was 30.40 points with a standard

deviation of 4.28 points. Likewise, the maximum score registered in this category was 34 points, while the minimum score was 23 points, leading to a range of 11 points. Concerning the Reparation category, the mean score was 34.80 points with a standard deviation of 2.17 points. The highest score was 37 points, while the lowest score was 32 points, resulting in a range of 5 points.

From a comparison of the results obtained by the male group in relation to the total sample, it can be observed that the mean and median of this group in terms of the age variable are respectively 3.98 points and 1 point higher than the sample, while the standard deviation is 2.3 points lower than the total sample, which indicates a narrower distribution of the age data in respect of the media. In relation to the minimum, maximum, and range of the age of the participants comparing the male group with the total sample, it is possible to observe that while there is no difference between the maximum age, there is a variance between the minimum age: a difference of 16 years. In terms of the total score obtained by the male group in comparison with the total sample of our study, it is possible to observe that the mean and median of this group are 3.47 points and 3 points respectively higher than the sample. While at the same time, the standard deviation is 2.22 points lower than the total sample, which means that there is a narrower dispersion of the data than the entire sample group. When referring to the minimum score, it can be noticed that the male group is 7 points higher than the sample, while the maximum is 3 points lower than the sample. In regards to the Attention category, it is possible to observe that the mean and median of the male group is 3.45 points and 2 points higher than the total sample, respectively, while the standard deviation is 3.61 points lower than the complete sample. This indicates a broader distribution of the data than the total sample group. In terms of the range of scores, the minimum score of the male group is higher than the total sample by 12 points, while the maximum score is lower than the total sample by 2 points. Regarding the Clarity dimension, it can be observed that the mean is 0.87 points lower than the total sample, whereas the median does not present a difference. The standard deviation is 1.05 points higher than the complete sample, which leads us to indicate that the distribution of the data is broader in the male group than in the total sample. In terms of the minimum, maximum, and range of scores, there are no differences amongst the total sample and the female group. When it comes to the Reparation category, it is possible to observe that the mean and median of

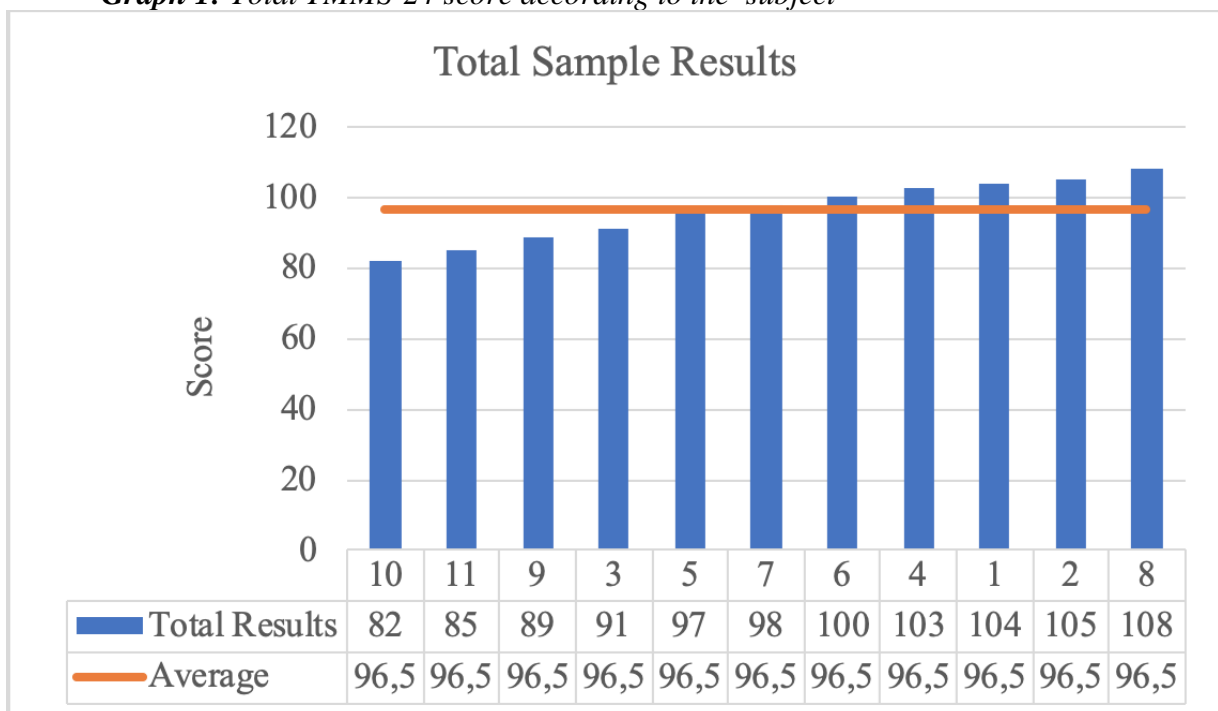
the male group are respectively 0.89 points and 1 point above the total sample. It has a standard deviation of 1.48 points lower than the complete sample, which indicates that the distribution of data is narrower than the total sample of our study. As for the range of scores, the minimum score stands 4 points higher than the complete sample, while the maximum stands 2 points under the total sample score.

Contrasting between the female and male groups, it is possible to observe that the difference between the age mean of the groups is 7.3 points lower for the female group, which shows that the male sample is comparatively older than the female sample. The standard deviation of age indicates that there is a broader dispersion on the female group, which is 3.15 points higher than that of the male group. When comparing the minimum, maximum, and range age data, it is possible to note that the female group is made up of younger participants as compared with the male group. The minimum and maximum are respectively 16 and 6 years lower than the male group, on the other hand, the range of age is 10 points lower than the male group, which indicates a narrower distribution of years than the female group. When it comes to the total score of both male and female groups, it can be observed that the difference between the mean score of both groups is 6.37 points higher for males than females. The standard deviation is 3.65 points lower for the male group, which indicates that men have a higher score than women; however, the dispersion of scores is narrower for the former. In terms of minimum score, the female group stands below for 7 points, at the same time the maximum score for women is 3 points higher than men, which indicates a wider range of scores in comparison to the male group. Referring to the Attention category, it is possible to observe that the difference of the mean score between women and men is 6.33 points standing higher for the male group with a standard deviation of 4.77 points under the female group, which indicates that the male sample has a narrower dispersion of scores. In relation to the minimum score, the male group is 12 points above the female group while women scored the maximum punctuation as it is 2 points higher than the men sample, with a range 14 points higher for the former. When it comes to the Clarity dimension of the test, it can be observed that the difference between the mean score between the groups is 1.6 points higher for the female group. The standard deviation of 2.09 points lower for the former, which means that the score distribution is narrower in comparison to the male group. The minimum score is 5 points higher for the female group, while there is no

difference in the maximum score of both groups. As for the Reparation category, it is possible to observe that the mean score is 1.63 points higher for the male group with a standard deviation 2.45 points lower for the said group in comparison to the women, which indicates a narrower dispersion of scores. In terms of minimum score, the female group stands below for 4 points, while at the same time the maximum score for women is 2 points higher than men, which indicates a broader range of scores in comparison to the male group.

To conclude, the results reported suggest that, comparatively, the female group is younger than the male group, as their age difference on average is 7.3 years. Similarly, the female group has a wider range of ages when compared to the male sample. Moreover, the male group scored better on average on the Attention and Reparation TMMS-24 dimensions and the total score, which is observable on the mean and median compared above, which are higher in the male sample. On the other hand, women scored better on the Clarity dimension, with both minimum and maximum scores standing higher than the male group. Additionally, it is also observable that women had a more comprehensive range of scores and a higher standard deviation in the majority of the categories compared, which suggests a greater homogeneity of scores in the male group.

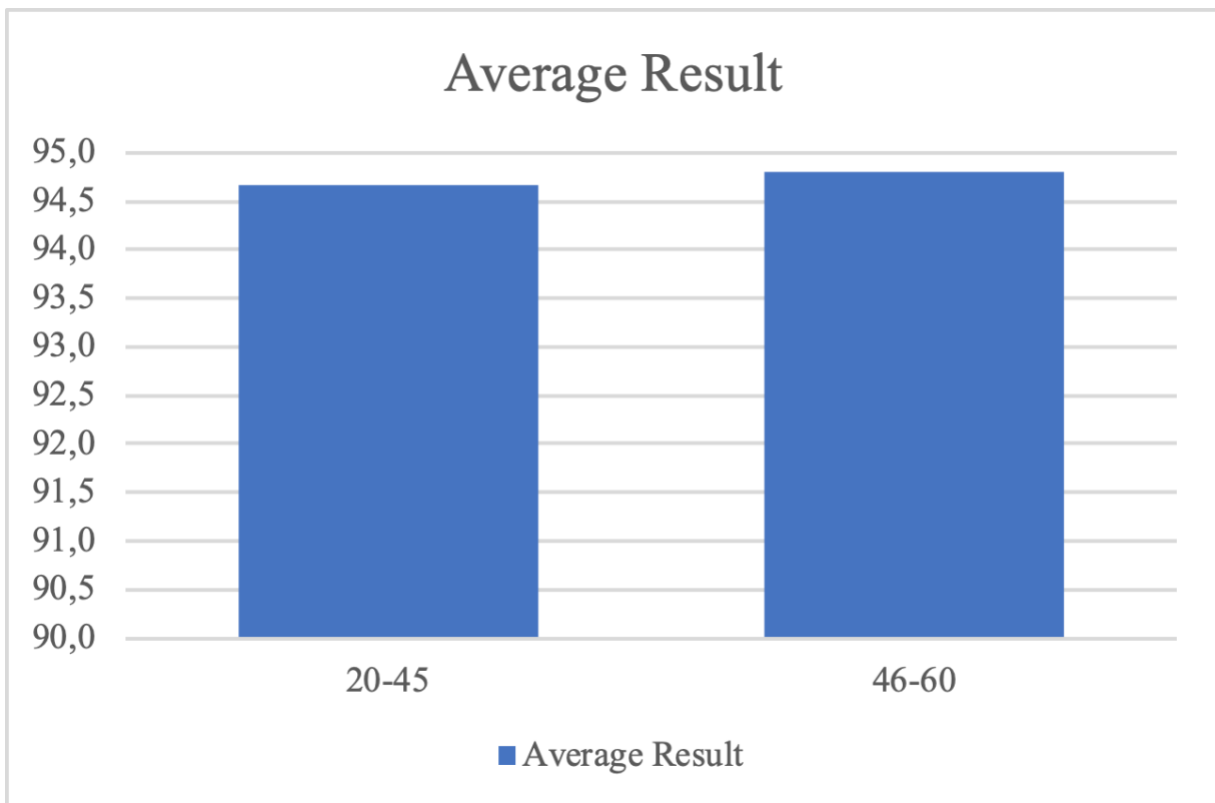
Graph 1: Total TMMS-24 score according to the subject



The graph shows the total score of the TMMS-24 test applied to the 11 participant teachers who make up the complete sample of this study. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows the cumulative score obtained by each participant. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 96.5$, $SD = 8.6$) of the total sample. The results indicate that there were four teachers whose score stood below the average, while seven teachers scored more than 96.5 points, standing above average.

3.1.2 Average results according to age.

Graph 2: Average TMMS-24 score according to age groups.

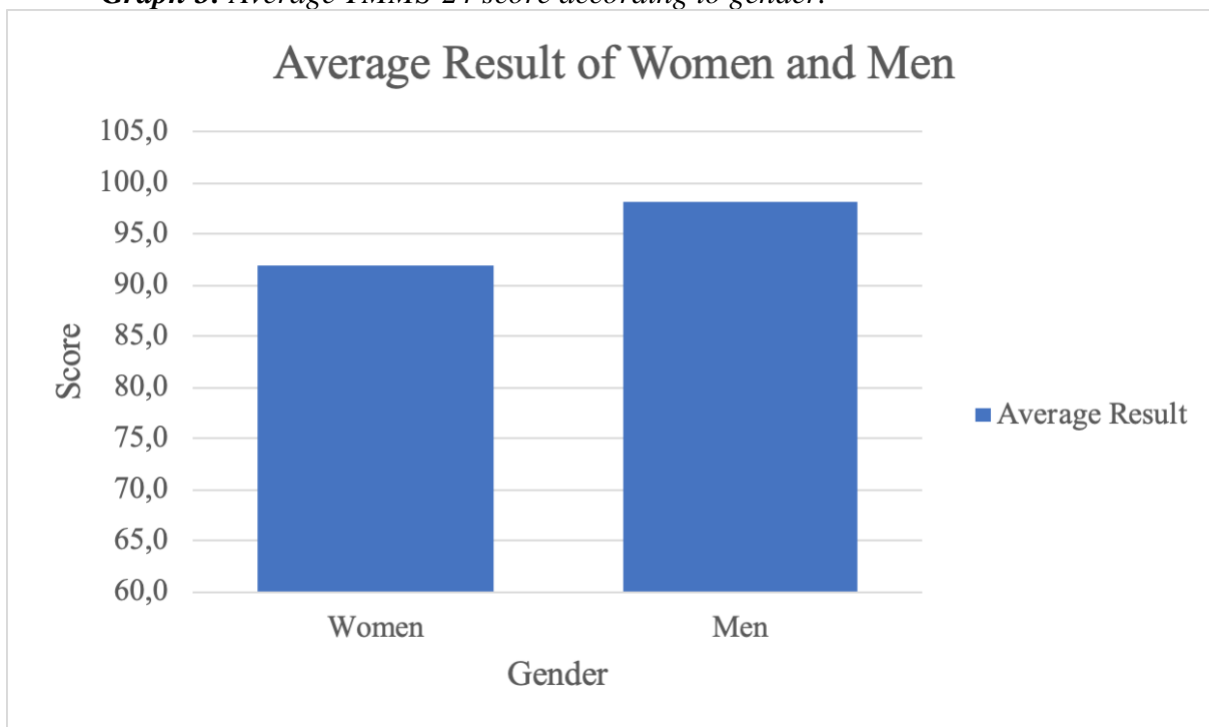


The graph shows the average score of the TMMS-24 test divided into two age groups chosen when separating the sample from the lowest data to the median ($Mdn = 45$), from 20 to 45 years old, and the second one from the median to the highest age from 46 to 60 years old. The horizontal axis presents the age, and the vertical axis shows the scores obtained by the participants. The graph indicates the average scores obtained by the teachers belonging to both

age groups does not present a significant statistical difference (0.1 points); thus, the results indicate that age is not a significant factor in terms of emotional competence among the participants.

3.1.3 Average result divided by gender.

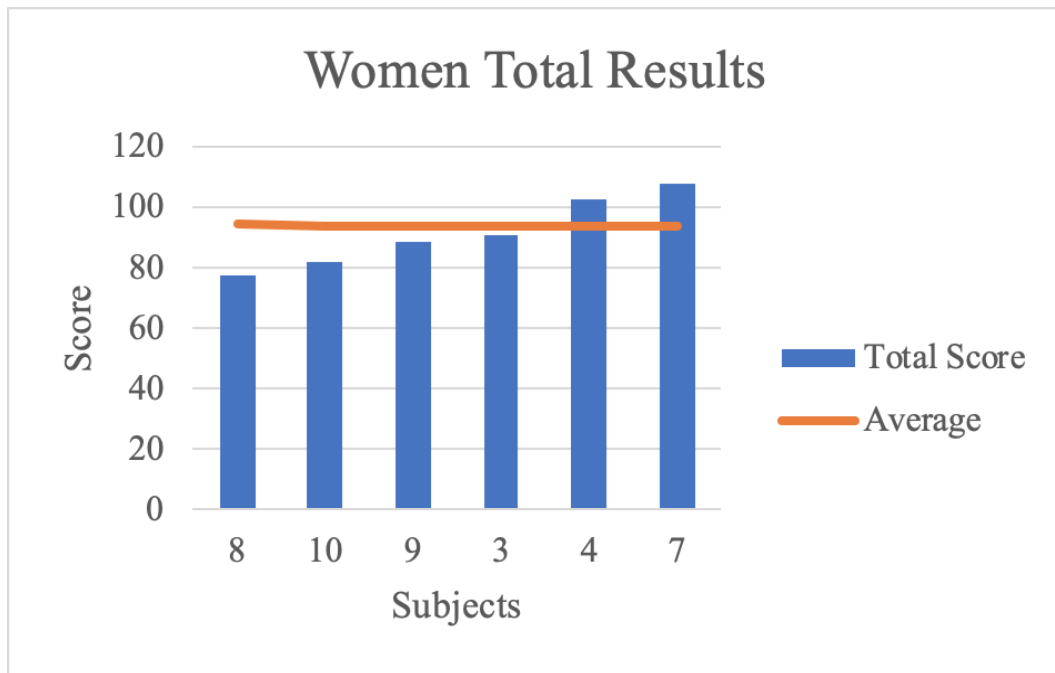
Graph 3: Average TMMS-24 score according to gender.



The graph shows the average score of the TMMS-24 test divided into gender groups, women on the left and men on the right side. The horizontal axis presents the gender, and the vertical axis shows the scores obtained by the participants. The graph indicates the average score obtained by teachers who participated in this research in order to get a difference between genders. Women scored 91.8 points on average, while men scored 98.2 points on average. The score difference between them was 6.4 points, meaning that men scored higher than women on average. A Mann-Whitney test was conducted in order to identify significant differences contrasting the results of women and men in the TMMS-24 test. The results indicate that the difference is not significant ($p = 0.41222$), which indicates that, regardless of the score

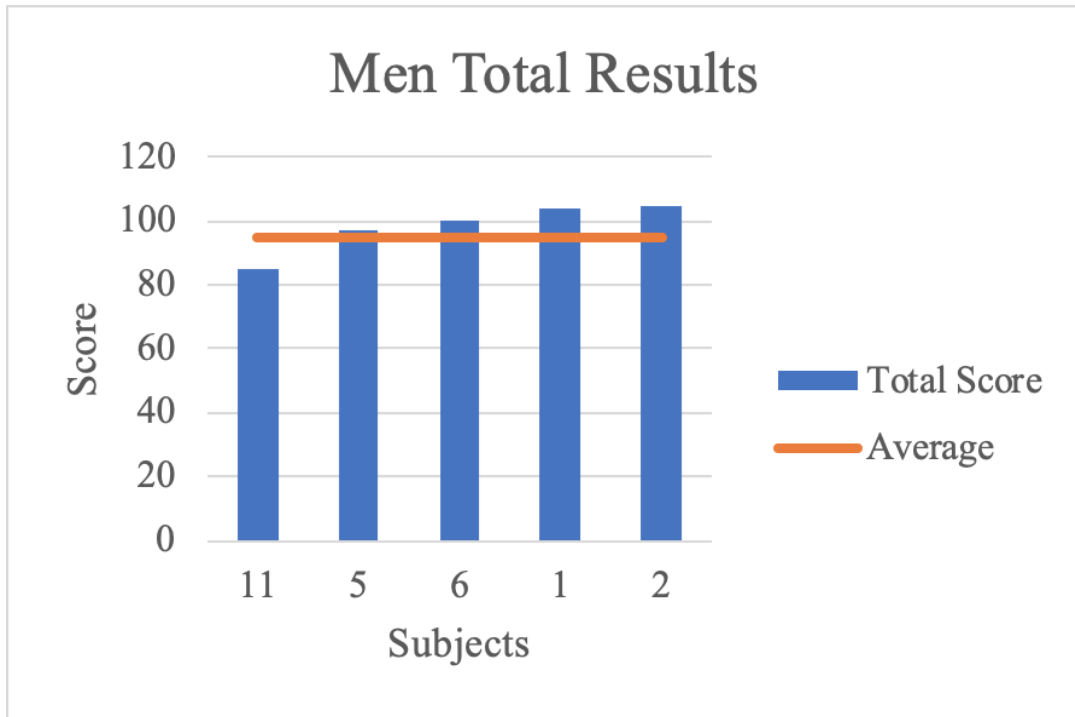
difference between men and women, the groups can be considered similar in general, allowing us to state that, in this sample, the gender factor was not a pervasive variable in the whole sample.

Graph 4: Average TMMS-24 score according to female subjects.



The graph shows the female sample results of the TMMS-24 test applied for this research. The horizontal axis presents the number assigned to each participant, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each teacher. The graph indicates, in rising order, the Attention score obtained by female teachers who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 91.8$, $SD = 11.7$) of the test. There were four women whose score stood below the average line, while two teachers scored more than the average line. These results show a variation within the women group that suggests more presence of individual variation among the group members.

Graph 5: Average TMMS-24 score according to male subjects.



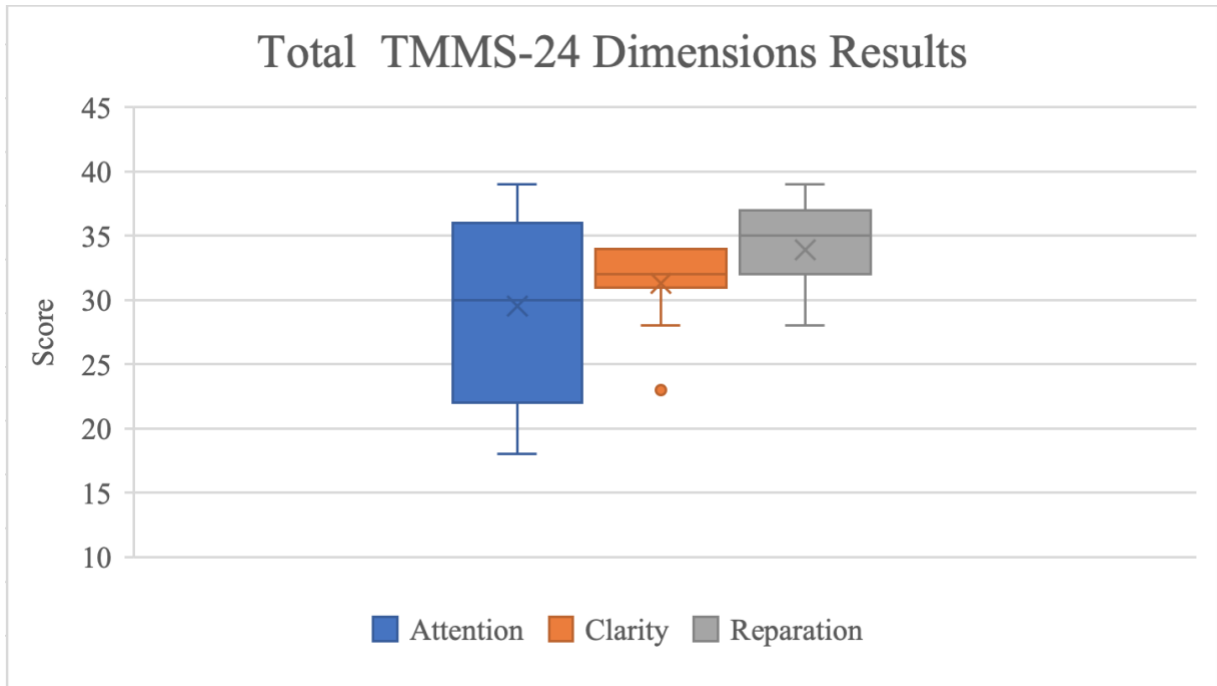
The graph shows the male sample results of the TMMS-24 test applied for this research. The horizontal axis presents the number assigned to each participant, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each teacher. The graph indicates, in rising order, the Attention score obtained by male teachers who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 98.2$, $SD = 8$) of the test. There was one man whose score stood below the average line, while the other four teachers scored above the average line. This suggests that the internal variation within the male group is low, especially if compared with the female group.

3.2 Comparison Of Results According To Tmms-24 Categories

Out of the 11 tests that make up the total sample of this study, the total added score was to 1042 points. Within this number, 325 points correspond to the Attention category (31.2%), 344 points relate to the Clarity category (33%), and 373 points that correspond to the Reparation category (35.8%). These results indicate that the total score of each category is slightly different from a quantitative perspective, being the Reparation category the one with the highest summed up score, surpassing both preview categories for 4 and 2 percentual points respectively.

3.2.1 Total tmms-24 dimensions results.

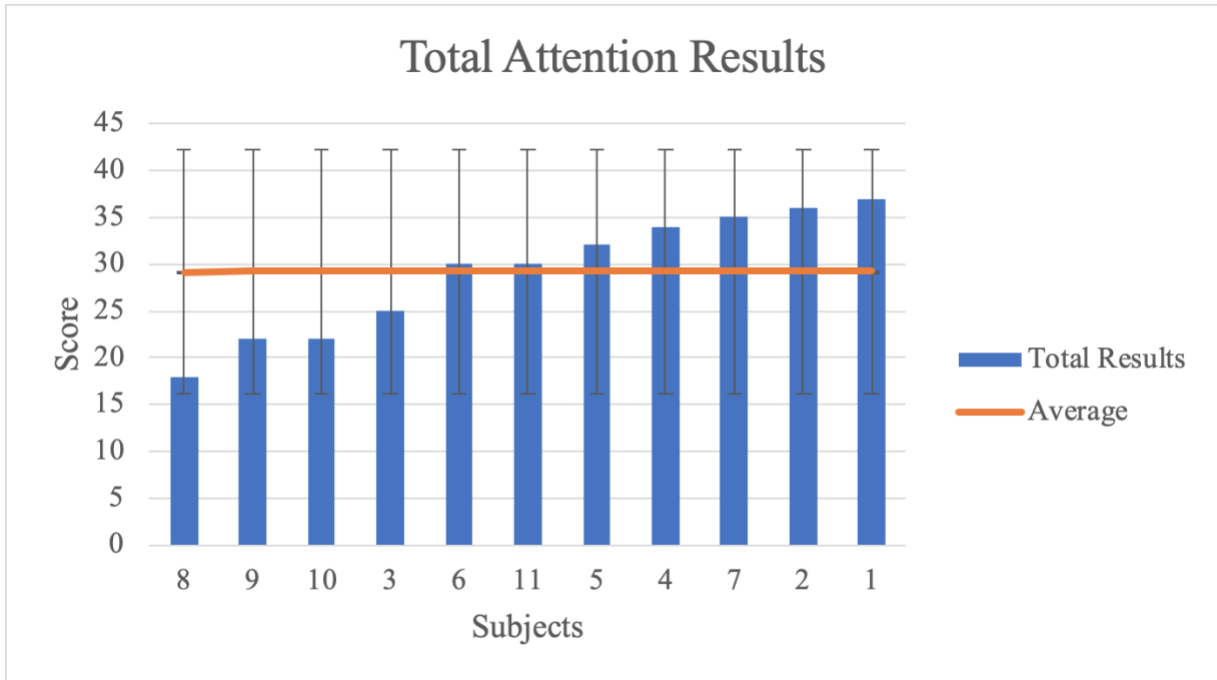
Graph 6: TMMS-24 scores according to test's dimensions.



As can be observed, the distribution of scores per category shows a broader dispersion of the scores in the Attention category, with scores going mostly from 22 points to 39 points. On the other hand, the category with the narrowest dispersion of scores is the Clarity category, with scores that fluctuate between 28 and 34 points. These results indicate that the participants behaved similarly in both the Clarity and the Reparation categories. On the other hand, the Attention category exhibits a wider range of variance among the participants.

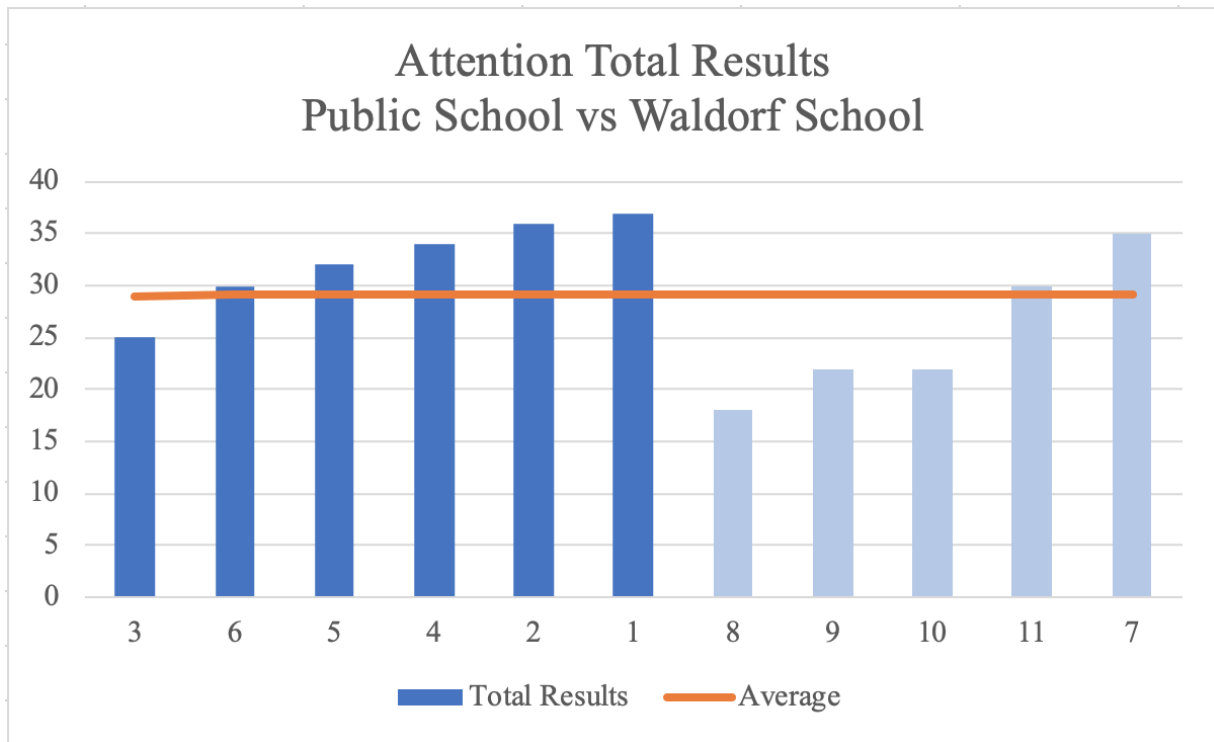
3.2.2 Total Attention results.

Graph 7: Attention scores according to the subject.



The graph shows the scores of the Attention category from the TMMS-24 test applied to 11 teachers working in two schools in Chile. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each participant, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each teacher. The graph indicates, in rising order, the Attention scores obtained by teachers who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 29.2$, $SD = 6.5$) of the test. There were four teachers whose score stood below the average line, while seven teachers scored more than 29.2 points, standing above average. A Mann-Whitney test was carried in order to determine significant differences between the Attention scores of teachers from both schools. The results show that the difference is not significant ($p = 0.101$), which indicates that, regardless of the differences between teachers of public and Waldorf schools, both groups can be considered similar.

Graph 8: Attention scores according to the subject and type of school financing.

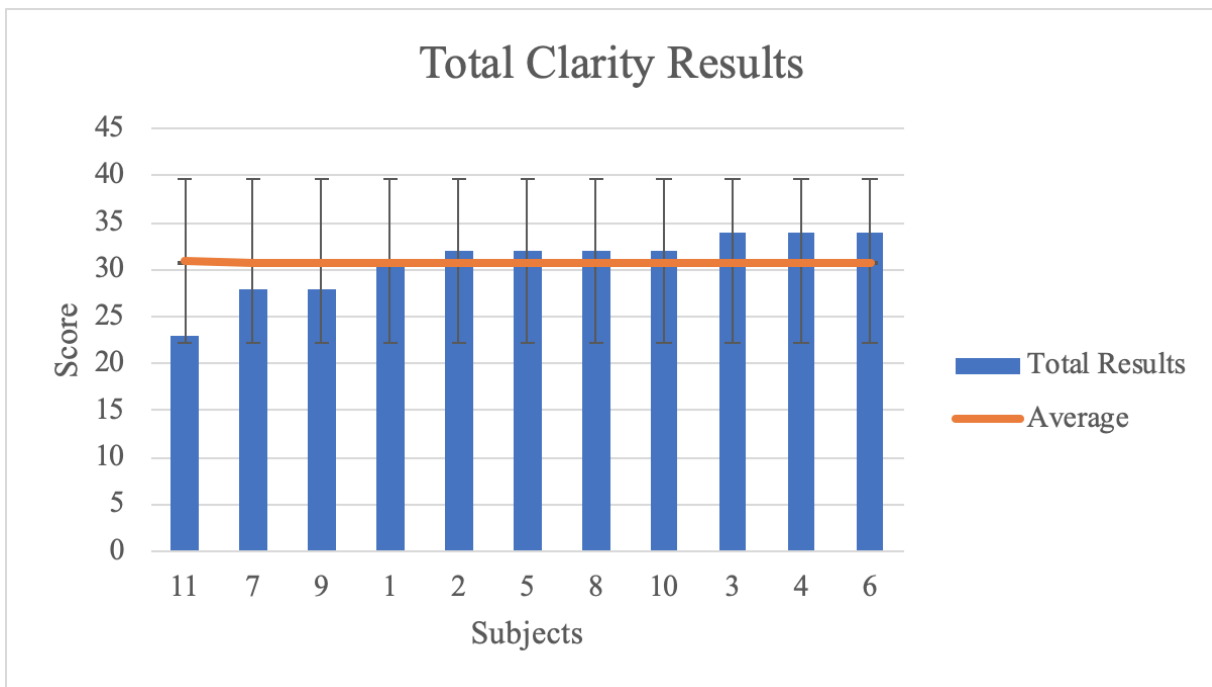


The graph shows a comparison between the scores of the Attention category of the TMMS-24 test applied in two schools in Chile. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows score numbers. The graph is separated into two colours, blue on the left side, which indicates the scores from the public school, and light blue on the right that indicates the total results of the Attention category of the TMMS-24 in the Waldorf school. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 29.2$, $SD = 6.5$) of the test. From the public school, only one teacher stood below the average line, while the other five teachers scored above average, one of them scoring the highest score of the full sample. The average scores obtained by the participants belonging to this school was 32.3 points, which is 3.1 points above the average score obtained by the complete sample. On the other hand, three of the five teachers from the Waldorf school scored under the average, while the two others scored above it. The average scores obtained by the participants belonging to the Waldorf school was 25.4 points, which is 3.8 points below the score obtained by the complete sample. In order to identify significant differences between the Attention Results in both public and Waldorf schools, a Mann-Whitney test was conducted. The results indicate that the difference is not significant

($p = 0.101$), this indicates that notwithstanding the differences between the participants from both schools, the groups can be regarded as generally similar.

3.2.3 Total clarity results.

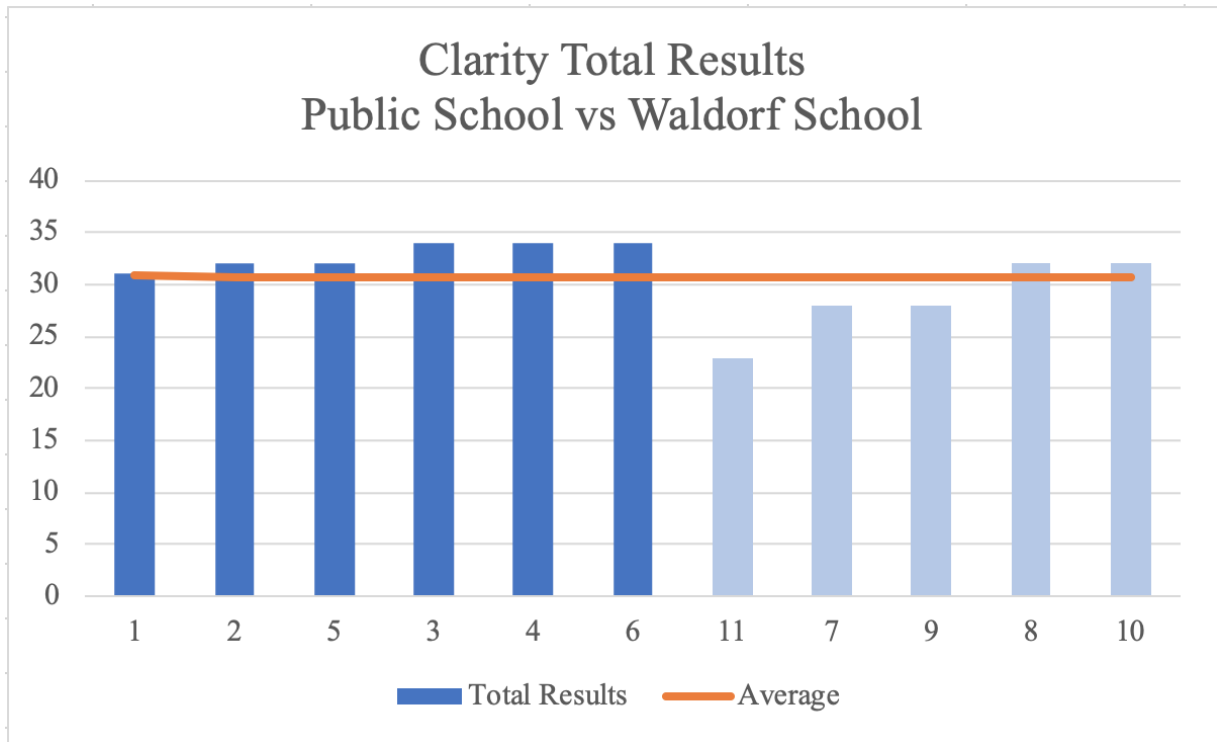
Graph 9: Clarity scores according to the subject.



The graph shows the achieved score of the participants in the Clarity category from the TMMS-24 test. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each participant, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each teacher. The graph indicates, in rising order, the Clarity score obtained by the teachers who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 30.9$, $SD = 3.4$) of the test. There were three participants whose score stood below the average, while eight teachers scored above average.

In order to identify significant differences between the Clarity results in both the public and Waldorf school, a Mann-Whitney test was conducted. The results indicate that the difference is not significant ($p = 0.05486$), this indicates that despite the differences among the public and Waldorf school, both can be regarded as generally similar.

Graph 10: Clarity scores according to the subject and type of school financing.

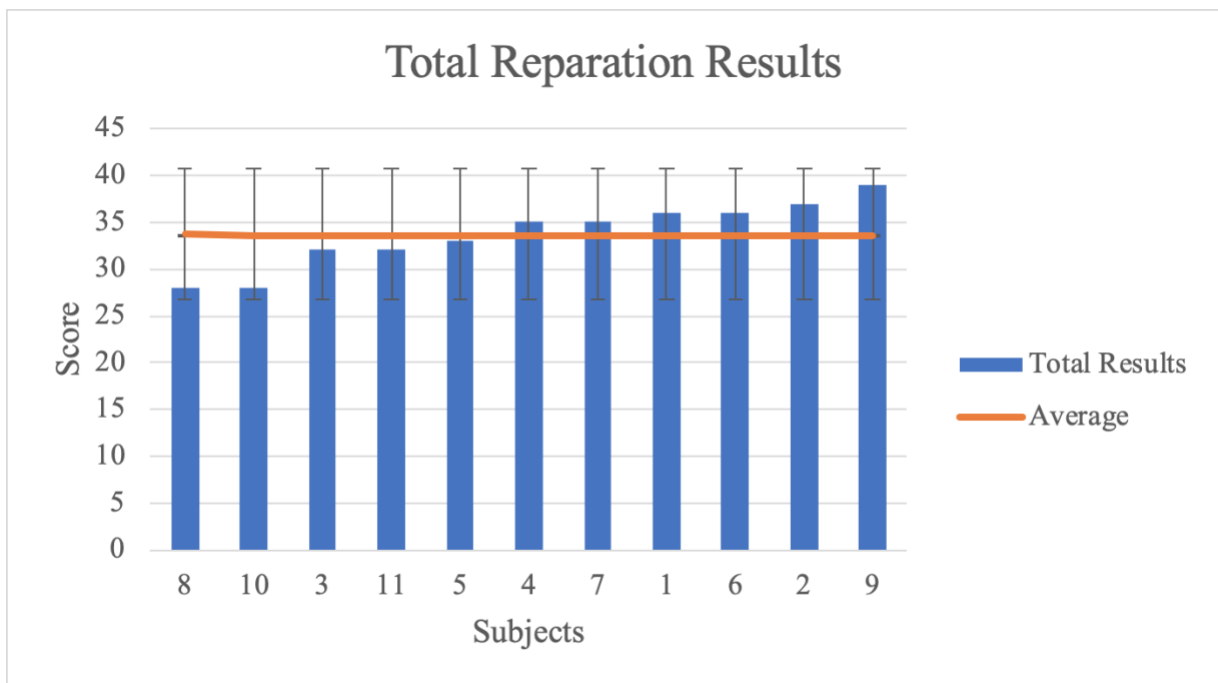


The graph shows a comparison between the scores of the Clarity category of the TMMS-24 test applied in two schools in Chile. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows score numbers. The graph is separated into two colours, blue on the left side, which indicates the scores from the public school, and light blue on the right that indicates the total results of the Clarity category of the TMMS-24 in the Waldorf school. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 30.9$, $SD = 3.4$) of the test. None of the teachers from the public school stood below the average line, that is to say, the whole school sample of six teachers scored above average, one of them scoring the highest score of the full sample. The average scores obtained by the participants belonging to this school was 32.8 points, which is 1.9 points above the average score obtained by the complete sample. On the other hand, three of the five teachers from the Waldorf school scored under the average, while the two others scored just above it. The average scores obtained by the participants belonging to the Waldorf school was 28.6 points, which is 2.3 points below the score obtained by the complete sample. A Mann-Whitney test was carried in order to determine significant differences between the Clarity scores of teachers from both schools. The results indicate that

the difference is not significant ($p = 0.05486$), which indicates that, irrespective of the differences between teachers of public and Waldorf schools, both groups can be considered as similar.

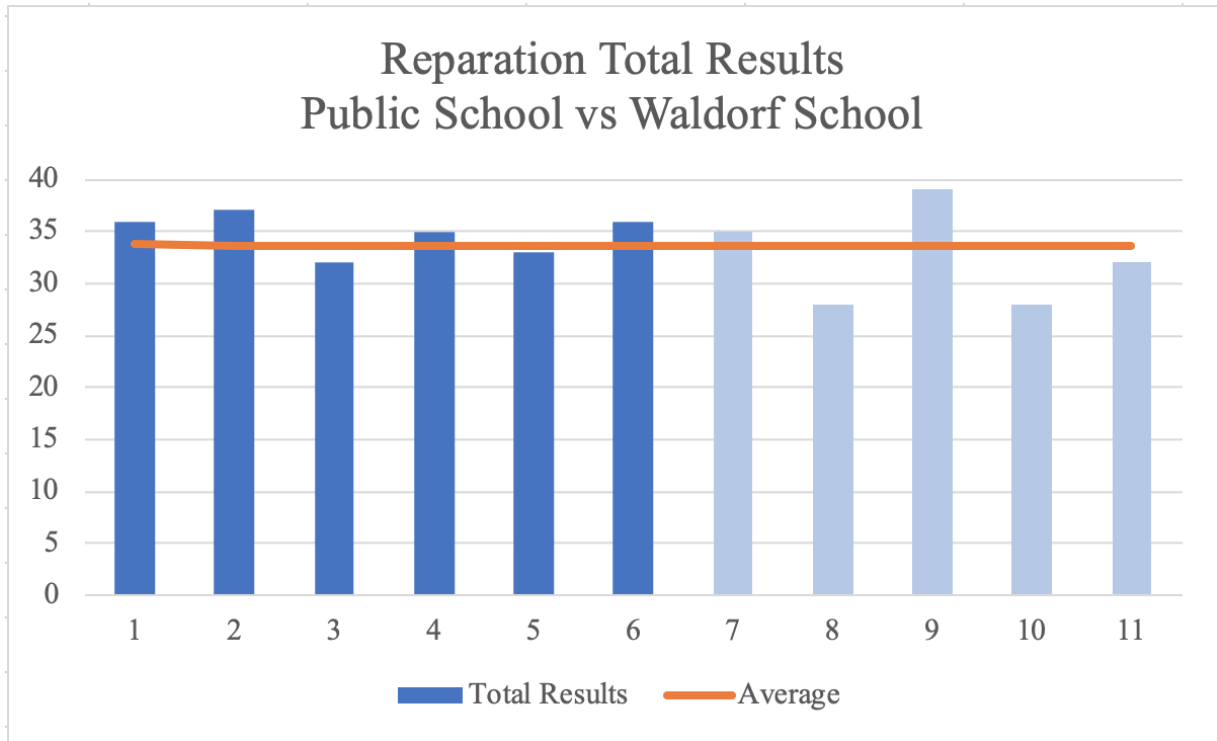
3.2.4 Total reparation results.

Graph 11: Reparation scores according to the subject.



The graph shows the score of the participants in the Reparation category from the TMMS-24 test applied to 11 teachers from two schools in Chile. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each participant, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each teacher. The graph indicates, in rising order, the Reparation score obtained by teachers who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 33.7$, $SD = 3.5$) of the test. There were five participants whose score stood below the average, while six teachers scored above 33.7 points. A Mann-Whitney test was conducted to identify significant differences between the total results of the sample from the public and private school. The results indicate that the difference is not significant ($p = 0.06432$), which indicates that, regardless of the differences between both schools, the groups can be regarded as similar in general.

Graph 12: Reparation scores according to the subject and type of school.



The graph shows a comparison between the scores of the Reparation category of the TMMS-24 test applied in two schools in Chile. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows score numbers. The graph is separated into two colours, blue on the left side, which indicates the scores from the public school, and light blue on the right that indicates the total results of the Reparation category of the TMMS-24 in the Waldorf school. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 33.7$, $SD = 3.5$) of the test. There were two teachers from the public school standing below the average line, while four teachers scored above 33.7 points. The average scores obtained by the participants belonging to this school was 34.8 points, which is 1.1 points above the average score obtained by the complete sample. On the other hand, three of the five teachers from the Waldorf school scored under the average, while the two others scored above it, one of them scoring the highest score of the full sample. In order to identify significant differences between the Reparation Results in both public and Waldorf schools, a Mann-Whitney test was conducted. The results indicate that

the difference is not significant ($p = 0.31732$); this indicates that notwithstanding the differences between the participants from both schools, the groups can be regarded as generally similar.

3.3 Total Sample Results According To The Type Of School

Table 9: Statistical description of the TMMS-24 test according to the type of school and test dimensions.

		Mean	Median	SD	Range	Minimum	Maximum
PUBLIC SCHOOL	<i>Age</i>	44.83	47.50	11.91	34.00	24.00	58.00
	<i>Total Score</i>	100.00	101.50	5.29	14.00	91.00	105.00
	<i>Attention Score</i>	32.33	33.00	4.41	12.00	25.00	37.00
	<i>Clarity Score</i>	32.83	33.00	1.33	3.00	31.00	34.00
	<i>Reparation Score</i>	34.83	35.50	1.94	5.00	32.00	37.00
WALDORF SCHOOL	<i>Age</i>	42.60	43.00	4.77	12.00	36.00	48.00
	<i>Total Score</i>	88.40	85.00	11.67	30.00	78.00	108.00
	<i>Attention Score</i>	26.20	22.00	8.38	21.00	18.00	39.00
	<i>Clarity Score</i>	29.40	32.00	3.97	9.00	23.00	32.00
	<i>Reparation Score</i>	32.80	32.00	5.07	11.00	28.00	39.00
TOTAL SAMPLE	<i>Age</i>	43.82	45.00	9.02	34.00	24.00	58.00
	<i>Total Score</i>	94.73	97.00	10.26	30.00	78.00	108.00
	<i>Attention Score</i>	29.55	30.00	6.93	21.00	18.00	39.00
	<i>Clarity Score</i>	31.27	32.00	3.23	11.00	23.00	34.00
	<i>Reparation Score</i>	33.91	35.00	3.65	11.00	28.00	39.00

Table 9 shows the age range of the sample and the results of the TMMS-24 test concerning the schools of the participants, suggesting the existence of some differences between a public and a Waldorf school. In regards to the public school, the average age was 44.83 years with a standard deviation of 11.91 points. Likewise, the oldest age registered was 58 years, while

the youngest of the group was 24 years, which results in a range of 34 years. In terms of the total score, the mean was 100 points with a standard deviation of 5.29 points. On the same line, the higher score was 105 points whilst the lowest score marked 91 points, resulting in a range of 14 points. In the Attention category, the mean score was 32.33 points with a standard deviation of 4.41 points. The higher score was 37 points, whereas the lower score was 25 points; thus, the range was 12 points. Moreover, on the Clarity dimension, the mean score was 32.83 points with a standard deviation of 1.33 points. Similarly, the maximum score received was 34 points, while the minimum was 31 points, leading to a range of 3 points. In regards to the Reparation category, the mean score was 34.83 points with a standard deviation of 1.94 points. The higher score was 37 points, while the lower score was 32 points, which results in a range of 5 points.

When comparing the results obtained by the public school with the total sample, it is possible to observe that the mean and median of this group regarding the age variable are respectively 1.01 and 2.5 points higher than the total sample, while the standard deviation is 2.89 points lower, which indicates a narrower scattering of the age data in respect of the media. In relation to the minimum, maximum, and range of the participants' age comparing the public school with the total sample, there are no differences amongst them. In respect of the total score obtained by the public school in comparison with the total sample of our study, it can be observed that the mean and median of this group are 5.27 and 4.5 points respectively higher than the total group score. At the same time, the standard deviation is 4.97 points lower, that indicates a smaller dispersion of the data than the total sample group. In terms of the minimum score, it stands 13 points higher than the total sample, while the maximum score stands 3 points lower than the complete sample. Regarding the Attention category of both the public school and the total sample, it is possible to observe that the mean and median of the former are respectively 2.78 and 3 points under the total sample score, while the standard deviation is 2.52 points lower than the total sample, which indicates a narrower distribution of data than the total sample. When it comes to the minimum score, it stands 7 points higher than the total sample, while the maximum score stands 2 points lower than the complete sample. In regards to the comparison of the Clarity dimension between the public school and the total sample, it can be observed that the mean and median of the former are respectively 1.56 points and 1 point higher than the total

sample while the standard deviation is 1.9 points lower than the total sample, which indicates that the distribution of the data was narrower than in the complete sample. In terms of the range of scores, the minimum score stands 8 points higher than the complete sample, though there is no difference in the maximum score between the public school and the total sample. As for the Reparation category, it can be observed that the mean and median of the public school are respectively 0.92 and 0.5 points higher than the total sample scores. The standard deviation is 1.71 points lower than the complete sample, meaning that the distribution of the data is narrower in the public school. Regarding the minimum score, the public school stands 4 points higher than the total sample, while the maximum score stood 2 points below the total sample.

With regards to the Waldorf school, the average age was 42.60 years with a standard deviation of 4.77 years. The minimum age registered for this school was 36 years, while the maximum was 48 years, resulting in a range of 12 years. In terms of the total score, the mean was 88.40 points with a standard deviation of 11.67 points. Along the same lines, the higher score was 108 points whilst the lower score marked 78 points, which results in a range of 30 points. In the Attention category, the mean score was 26.20 points, with a standard deviation of 8.38 points. The higher score was 39 points whereas the lowest score was 18 points, resulting in a range of 21 points. In regard to the Clarity dimension, the mean score was 29.40 points with a standard deviation of 3.97 points. Likewise, the maximum score registered in this category was 32 points, while the minimum score was 23 points, leading to a range of 9 points. In relation to the Reparation category, the mean score was 32.80 points with a standard deviation of 5.07 points. The highest score was 39 points, while the lowest score was 28 points, resulting in a range of 11 points.

From a comparison of the results obtained by the Waldorf school with the total sample, it can be observed that the mean and median of this group in terms of the age variable are respectively 1.22 points and 2 points lower than the sample. Similarly, the standard deviation is 4.25 points lower than the total sample, which indicates a narrower distribution of the age data in respect of the media. In relation to the minimum age, it stands 12 years above the total sample, while the maximum stands 10 points under the total sample maximum age and range of the age of the participants comparing the male group with the total sample. In terms of the total score

obtained by the Waldorf school in comparison with the total sample of our study, it is possible to observe that the mean and median of this group are 6.33 points and 12 points respectively lower than the sample. In contrast, the standard deviation is 1.41 points higher than the total sample, which means that there is a broader dispersion of the data than the whole sample group. In terms of the minimum, maximum, and range of scores, there are no differences amongst the total sample and the Waldorf school. In regards to the Attention category, it is possible to observe that the mean and median of the Waldorf school is 3.35 points and 8 points lower than the total sample, respectively, while the standard deviation is 1.45 points higher than the complete sample. This indicates a narrower distribution of the data than the total sample group. In terms of the range, minimum and maximum scores, there are no differences between the total sample and the Waldorf School. Regarding the Clarity dimension, it can be observed that the mean is 1.87 points lower than the total sample while the median does not present a difference, the standard deviation is 0.74 points higher than the complete sample, which leads us to indicate that the distribution of the data is broader in the Waldorf school than in the total sample. In terms of the minimum score, it presents no difference when compared to the total sample, while the maximum score is 2 points lower than the total sample. When it comes to the Reparation category, it is possible to observe that the mean and median of the Waldorf school are respectively 1.11 points and 3 points below the total sample. The standard deviation of 1.42 points higher than the complete sample indicates that the distribution of data is broader than the total sample of our study. In terms of the minimum, maximum, and range of scores, there are no differences amongst the total sample and the Waldorf school.

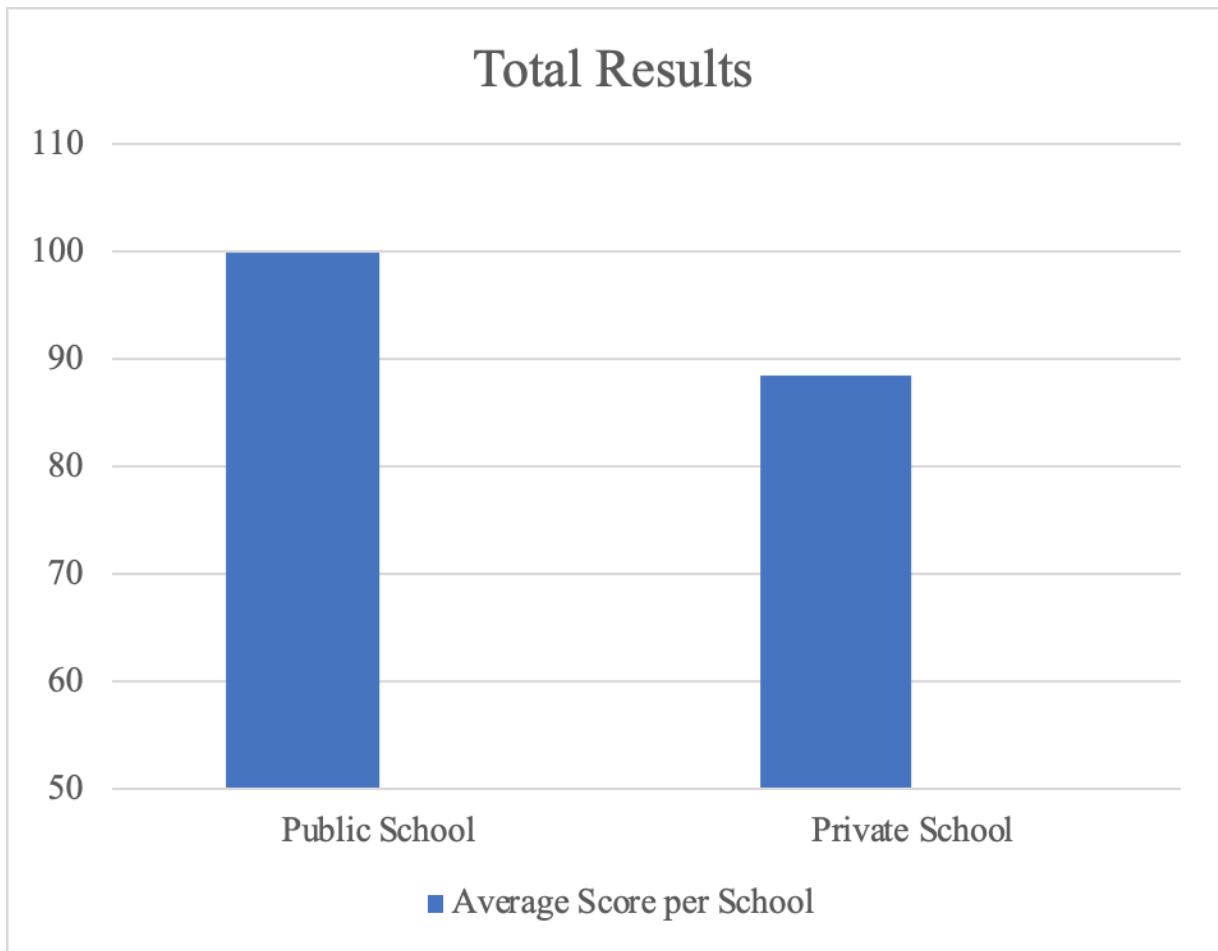
Contrasting between the public school and Waldorf school, it is possible to observe that the difference between the age mean of the schools is 1.7 points lower for the Waldorf school, which shows that the public school sample is comparatively older than the sample of Waldorf school. The standard deviation of age indicates that there is a broader dispersion of age in the public school, which is 4.5 points higher than the Waldorf school. When comparing the minimum, maximum, and range data for age, it is possible to note that the Waldorf school is younger on average. The minimum age is 12 years older, but the maximum age is ten years younger than the public school. On the other hand, the range of age is 22 points lower than the Public school, which indicates a narrower distribution of years than the public school. When it

comes to the total score of both male and female groups, it can be observed that the difference between the mean score of both groups is 11.6 points higher for the public school than Waldorf, with a standard deviation 6.38 points lower for the public school. This indicates that the public school has a higher score than the Waldorf school; however, the dispersion of scores is narrower for the former. The public school stands 13 points above the Waldorf school in terms of minimum score, while at the same time the maximum score for the former school is 3 points lower than the latter school, which indicates a wider range of score on the Waldorf school in comparison to the public school. With regards to the Attention category, it is possible to observe that the difference between the mean score between public and Waldorf school is 6.13 points, where the public school scores higher. At the same time, the standard deviation of 3.97 points under the Waldorf school indicates that the public school has a narrower dispersion of scores. In relation to the minimum score, the public school is 7 points above the Waldorf school, while the maximum score was achieved by the Waldorf school as it is 2 points higher than the public school, with a range 9 points higher for the former. When it comes to the Clarity dimension of the test, it can be observed that the difference in the mean score between the groups is 3.43 points higher for the public school. The standard deviation is 2.58 points lower for the former, which means that the score distribution is narrower in comparison to the Waldorf school. The minimum score is 8 points higher for the public school, while the maximum score is higher for the Waldorf school by 2 points. As for the Reparation category, it is possible to observe that the mean score is 2.03 points higher for the public school with a standard deviation 3.13 points lower for the said group in comparison to the Waldorf school, which indicates a narrower dispersion of scores. In terms of minimum score, the public school stands 4 points above, while at the same time the maximum score for the public school is 2 points lower than the Waldorf school, which indicates a wider range of scores for the Waldorf school in comparison to the public school.

To conclude, the results reported suggest that, comparatively, the Waldorf school is younger than the public school, as their age difference on average is 2.23 years. Similarly, the public school has a wider range of ages when compared to the Waldorf school. Moreover, the public school scored better on average on the three dimensions of the test and the total score, which is observable on the mean and median compared above, which are higher for the public

school. On the other hand, the highest individual scores recorded occurred at the Waldorf school in the total average score, the Attention and Reparation dimensions, as the maximum score on said categories stood above the public school results. Additionally, it is also observable that the Waldorf school had a more extensive range of scores and a higher standard deviation in the majority of the categories compared, which suggests a greater homogeneity of scores in the male group.

Graph 13: Average TMMS-24 scores according to the type of school.



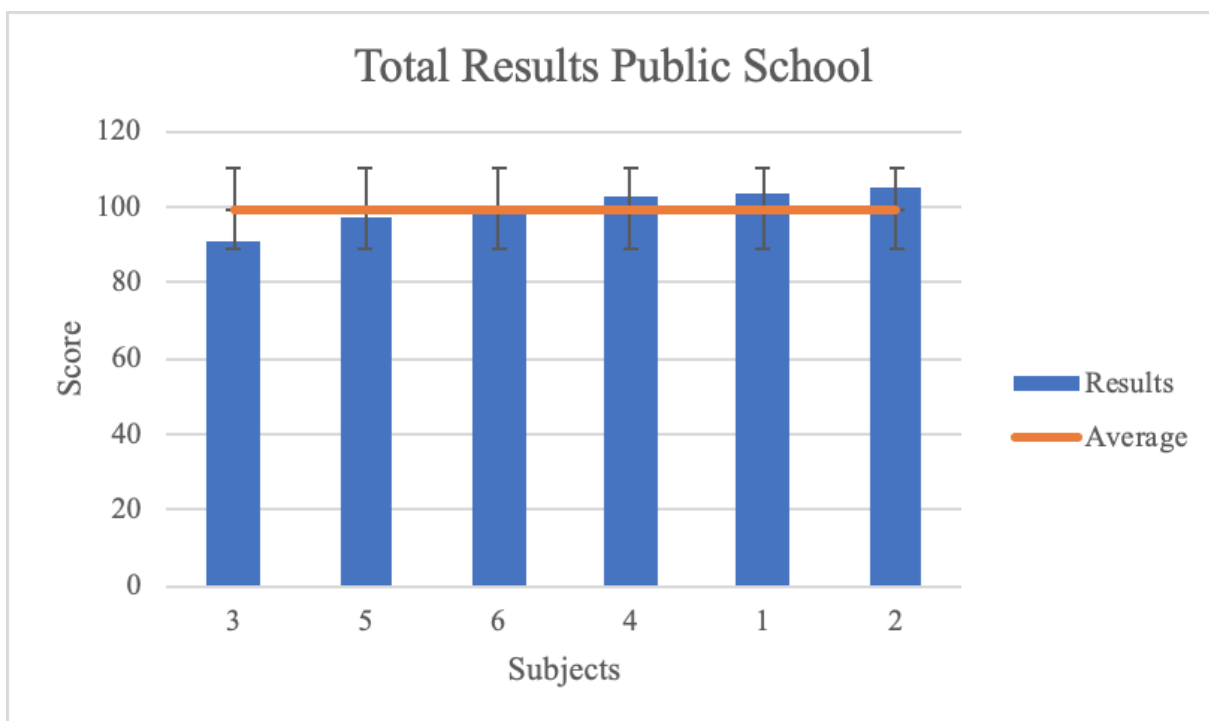
The graph shows a comparison between the total scores of the TMMS-24 test of two schools in Chile. The horizontal axis presents the name of both schools, and the vertical axis shows the average score obtained by said schools. The average scores obtained by the participants belonging to the public school was 100 points, which is 11.6 points above the average score of the Waldorf school, which scored 88.4 points ($SD = 8.2$). A Mann-Whitney

test was conducted to identify significant differences between the total results of the sample from the public school and the Waldorf school. The results indicate that the difference is significant ($p = 0.0027$), which indicates that, due to the differences between both schools, the groups can be regarded as different.

3.3.1 Comparison of results according to the type of school.

3.3.1.1 Public school results.

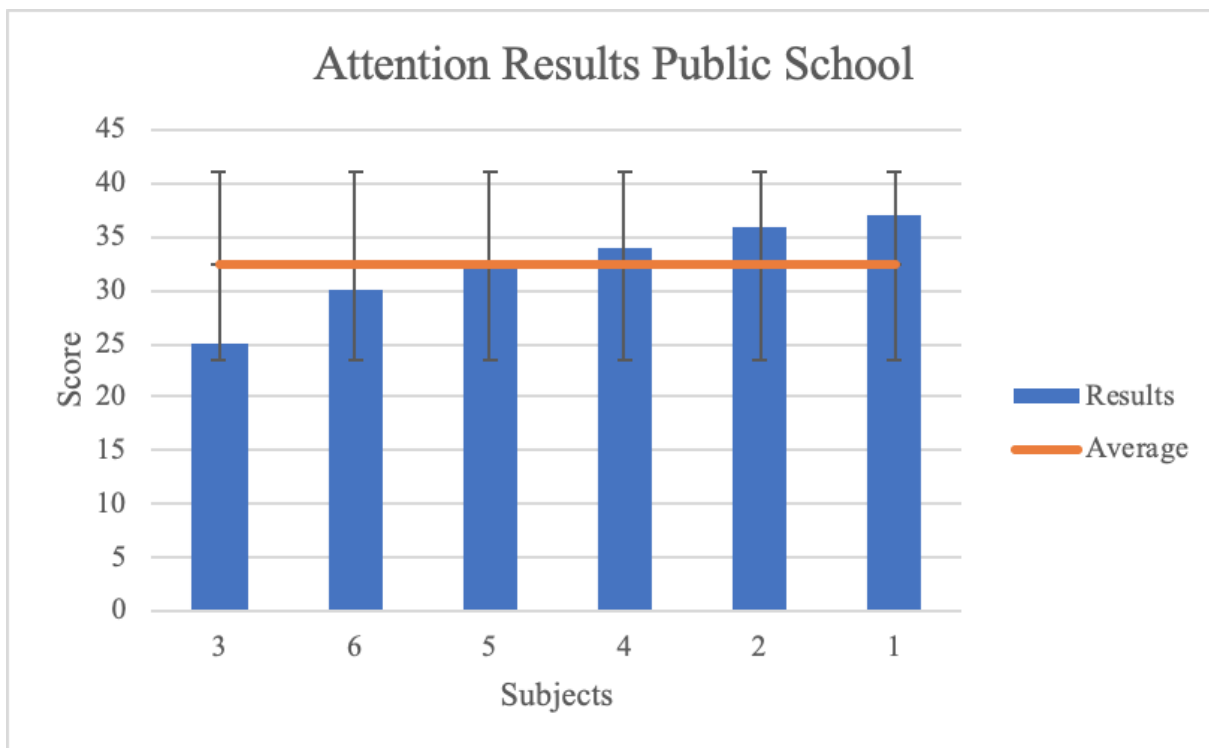
Graph 14: TMMS-24 scores according to the Public School subjects.



The graph shows the total score of the TMMS-24 test applied to 6 teachers working in a public school in Chile. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each participant. The graph indicates, in rising order, the total score obtained by teachers from this school who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 99.3$, $SD = 5.3$) of the test. There were

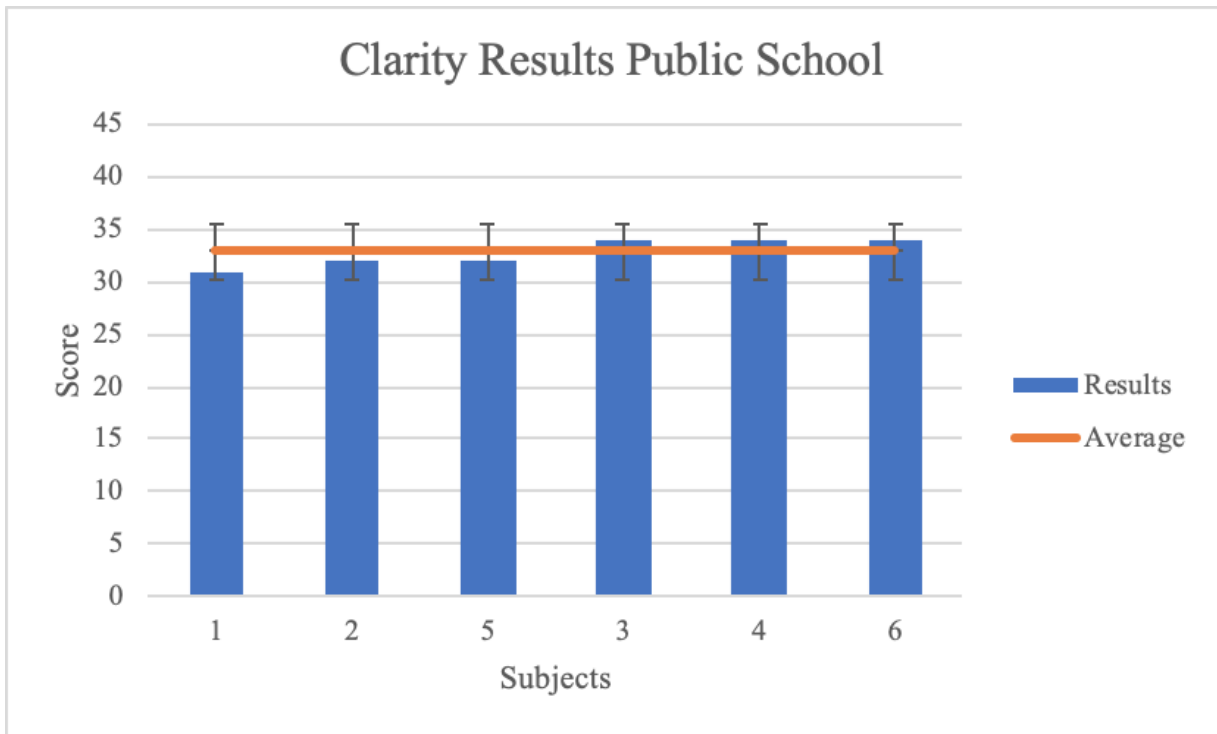
two teachers whose score stood below average, while four teachers scored more than 99.3 points, standing above average.

Graph 15: Attention scores according to the Public School subjects.



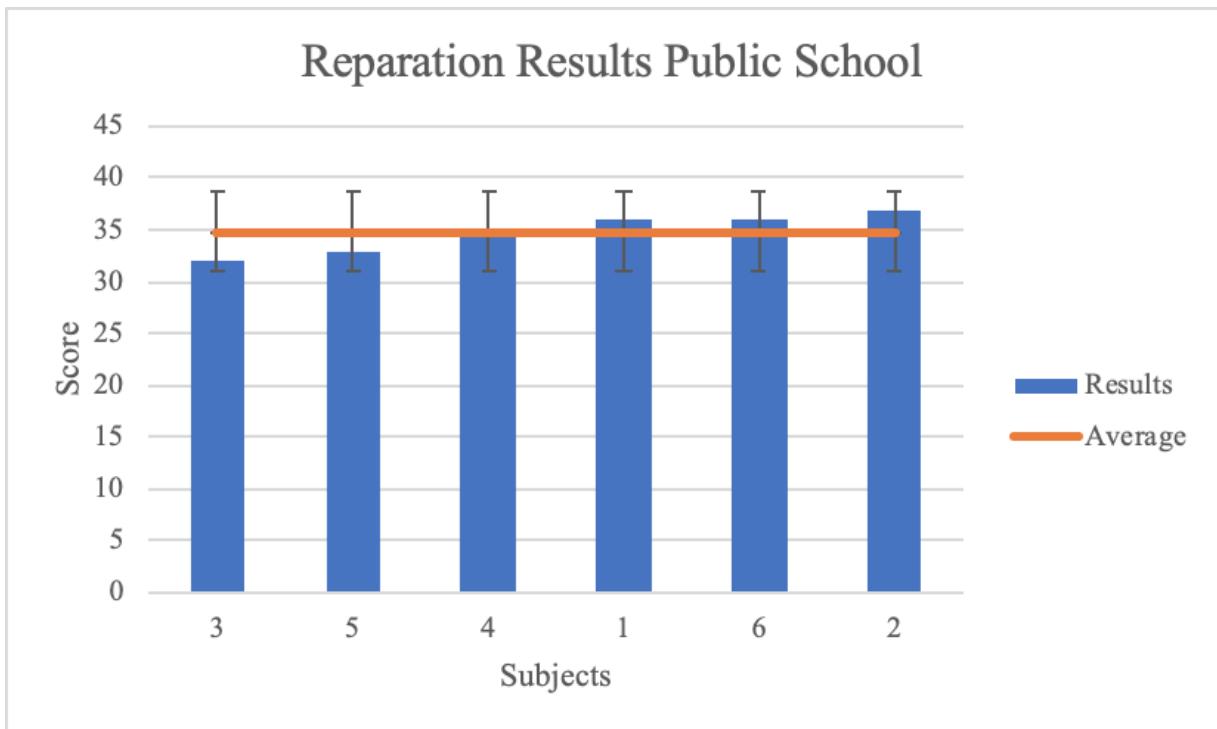
The graph shows the score of the Attention category of the TMMS-24 test applied to 6 teachers working in a public school. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each participant. The graph indicates, in rising order, the total score obtained by teachers from this subsidised school who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 32.3$, $SD = 4.4$) of the test. Half of the teachers' scores stood below average, while the three other teachers scored more than 32.3 points, standing above the average line.

Graph 16: Clarity scores according to the Public School subjects.



The graph shows the score of the Clarity category of the TMMS-24 test applied to 6 teachers working in a public subsidised school. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each participant. The graph indicates, in rising order, the total score obtained by teachers from this public school who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 33$, $SD = 1.3$) of the test. The results were split right down the middle: there were three teachers whose score stood below average, while three teachers scored more than 33 points, standing above the average line.

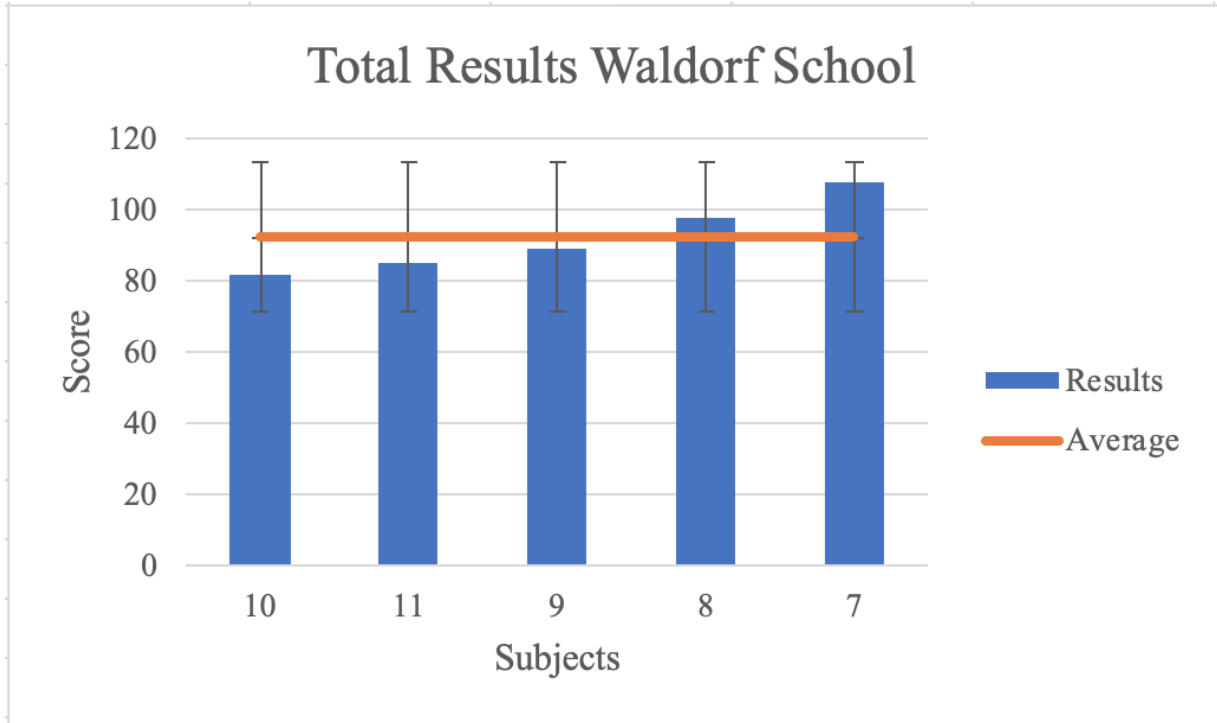
Graph 17: Reparation scores according to the Public School subjects.



The graph shows the score of the Reparation category of the TMMS-24 test applied to 6 teachers working in a subsidised school. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each participant. The graph indicates, in rising order, the total score obtained by teachers from this public school who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 34.8$, $SD = 1.9$) of the test. There were two teachers whose score stood below average, while the other participants scored more than 34.8 points, standing above the average line.

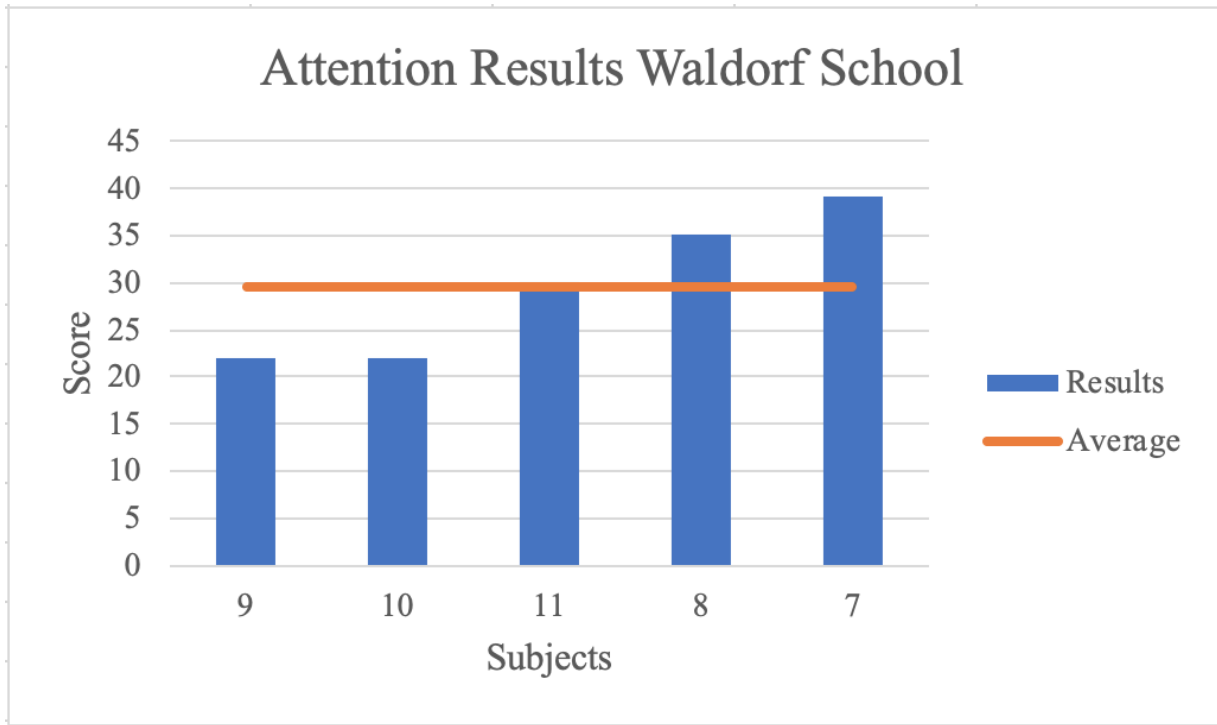
3.3.1.2 Waldorf school results.

Graph 18: TMMS-24 scores according to the Waldorf School subjects.



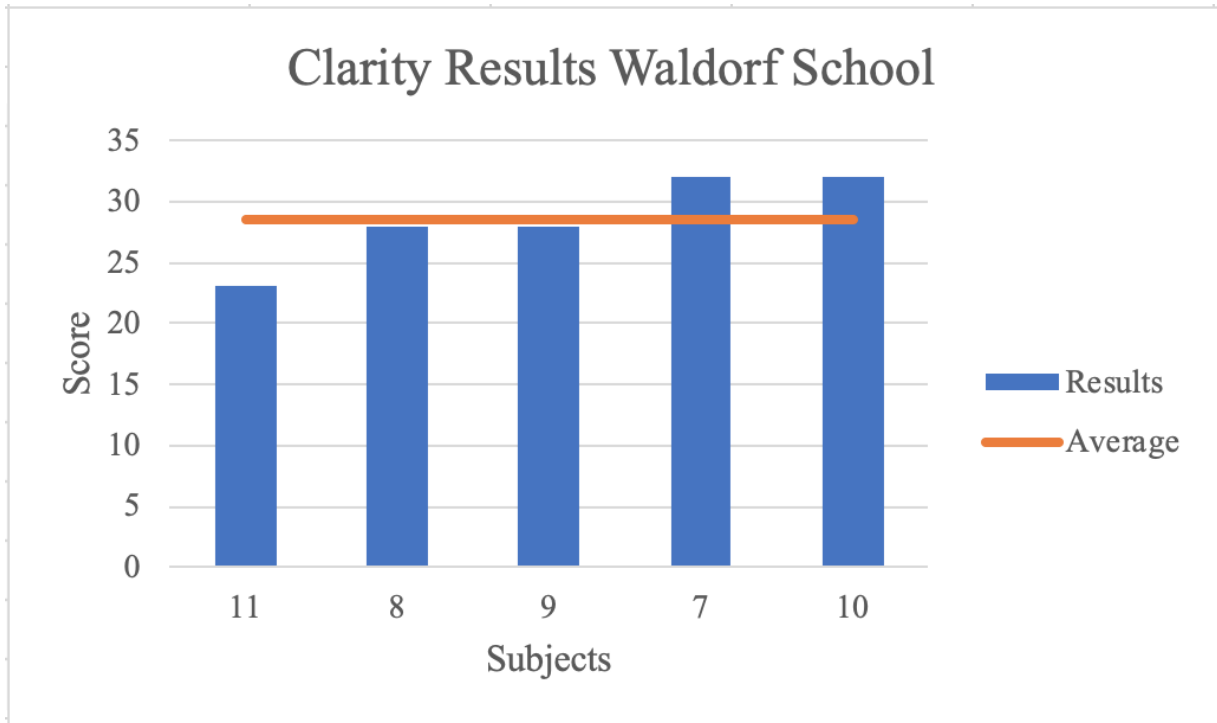
The graph shows the total score of the TMMS-24 test applied to 5 teachers working in a private school under the Waldorf model of education in Chile. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each participant. The graph indicates, in rising order, the total score obtained by teachers from this school who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 92.4$, $SD = 10.6$) of the test. There were three teachers whose score stood below average, while two teachers scored more than the average line.

Graph 19: Attention scores according to the Waldorf School subjects.



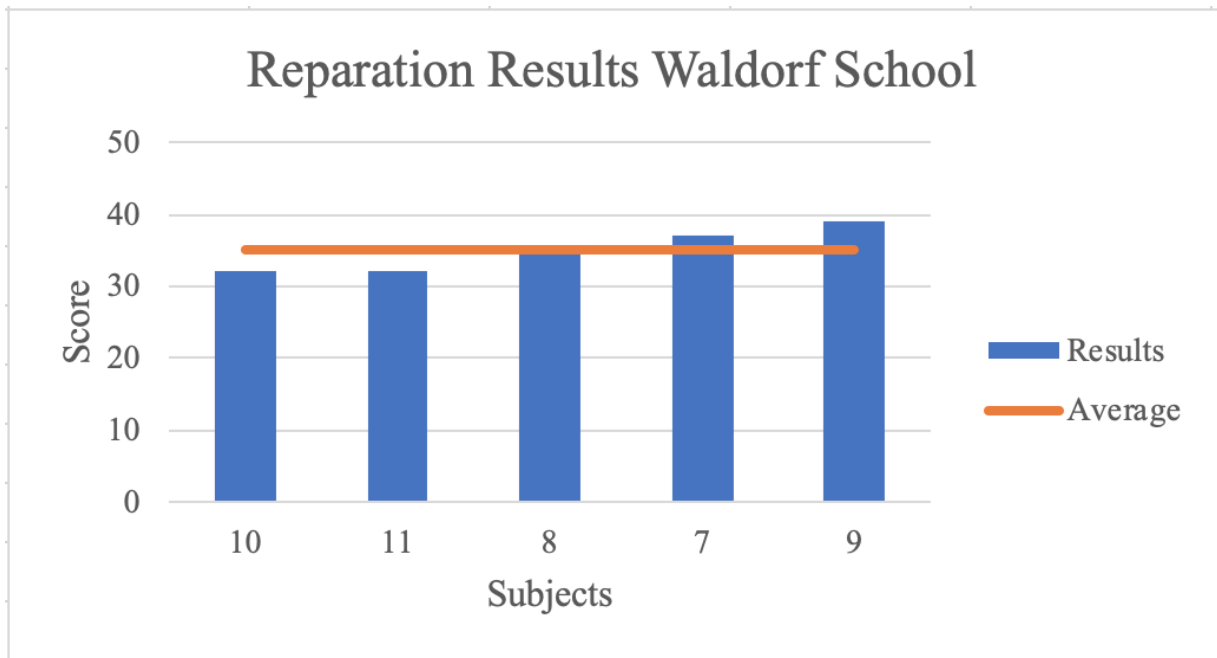
The graph shows the score of the Attention category of the TMMS-24 test applied to 5 teachers working in a private Waldorf school. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each participant. The graph indicates, in rising order, the total score obtained by teachers from this Waldorf school who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 29.6$, $SD = 7.6$) of the test. There were two teachers whose score stood below average, while three teachers scored above the average line.

Graph 20: Clarity scores according to the Waldorf School subjects.



The graph shows the score of the Clarity category of the TMMS-24 test applied to 5 teachers working in a Waldorf school. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each participant. The graph indicates, in rising order, the total score obtained by the participants from this Waldorf school who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 28.6$, $SD = 3.7$) of the test. There were three teachers whose score stood below average, while two teachers scored more than 28.6 points, standing above the average line.

Graph 21: Reparation scores according to the Waldorf School subjects.



The graph shows the score of the Reparation category of the TMMS-24 test applied to 5 teachers working in a Waldorf school. The horizontal axis presents the subject number assigned to each teacher, and the vertical axis shows the score obtained by each participant. The graph indicates, in rising order, the total score obtained by the participants from this Waldorf school who participated in this research. The orange line shows the average score ($M = 35$, $SD = 3.08$) of the test. There were two teachers whose score stood below average, and two teachers scored more than 35 points standing above the average line, and one participant who scored 35 points exactly.

4. Discussion

The present study aims to explore the socio-emotional competencies of teachers from both a Waldorf and a public school in Santiago de Chile. To do so, a descriptive quantitative study was conducted over the analysis of the results obtained from the TMMS-24 test taken by a sample of teachers working at these schools. The present section offers a discussion of the results reported in Section 3 in light of the literature reviewed in Section 1. The section is organised by first discussing the categories related to teachers' socio-emotional competencies, and then, a comparison between the two schools. Finally, a brief conclusion of the main findings will be presented.

4.1 Teachers

4.1.1 Total sample results.

The overall results obtained in the analysis indicate that all teachers obtained adequate scores in the TMMS-24 test ($M = 96.5$, $SD = 8.6$).

The results in our sample indicate that our participants demonstrate high levels of socio-emotional competencies. This is a positive aspect in light of what is proposed by Fernández-Berrocal and Extremera (2005) based on Mayer & Salovey's model of emotional intelligence, who propose that emotionally competent people have the ability to think more intelligently about their emotional life, facilitating skills such as problem-solving and adaptation to different types of environment, besides the four abilities contained in the model (emotional regulation, emotional comprehension and analysis, emotions facilitating thinking and perception, and evaluation and expression of emotions). Similarly, Casassus (2007) and Bisquerra and Perez (2007) understand emotional competencies as knowledge and capacities that allow people to comprehend the emotional phenomena in themselves and others. As being emotionally competent means being aware of and reflecting on our own emotions and being able to recognise others' emotions as well.

In the same line, these results can be associated with the importance of emotional skills in their role as teachers. As proposed by Palomero (2009), socio-emotionally competent teachers are conscious of their own emotions, autonomous, responsible with their emotions, conscious about themselves and their boundaries, and willing to participate in a group. These characteristics contribute to improving their job with their students in terms of developing a healthy and reliable learning-teaching environment (Zembylas, 2003; Atoofi, 2013), as well as fostering a positive social climate with other teachers where they are willing to learn and participate, have respectful relationships, and conduct non-violent conflict analysis (Milicic & Arón, 2011).

Our results divert from the ones obtained by other researchers (Samayoa, 2013; Gómez-Díaz et al., 2016; Ponce & Aguaded, 2017) who obtained lower total scores in their samples. In this regard, the different results can be explained by methodological issues related to sample size and data collection procedures. Specifically, in the reported studies (Samayoa, 2013; Gómez-Díaz et al., 2016; Ponce & Aguaded, 2017) the samples were constituted, in order, by 681 teachers from public and private education, 108 first-year Nursing students, and 100 adolescent students from a secondary public school. Additionally, the data collection procedures were quota sampling, convenience sampling, and voluntary sampling, respectively. Furthermore, the sample characteristics are different, as the size of them are considerably larger, the countries where the studies were carried out have different cultures to ours, and the methodology varied, as they included assessment of their learned emotional skills. Thus, these methodological differences may explain the different results obtained.

According to the results obtained in this study, participants seem to have high levels of socio-emotional competencies, which suggests that they can develop socio-emotional competencies that improve the way they see themselves and others. These competencies can also determine how they develop in their jobs as teachers since competencies allow them to improve their working environment regarding their relationship with their students as well as their coworkers and school environment in general.

4.1.2 Average result according to age.

In terms of the age range, the results obtained after the application of TMMS-24 test and the comparison made based on age groups (20-45 and 46-60 years old), indicate that there are no significant differences between the age of participants and the development of their socio-emotional competencies. This can be noticed in that the Attention, Clarity, and Reparation dimensions remained the same in both age groups, that is to say, their score difference is 0.13 points, and the percentage difference is only 0.14% ($p = 0.05486$).

These results differ from the study obtained by Samayoa (2013), in relation to the importance of age groups in teaching, as it indicates that the participants with better scores in the three areas of the TMMS-24 were the group that has been working as professional teachers for less than nine years.

Our results also differ from the study conducted by Extremera et al. (2003), whose findings indicate that older teachers have socio-emotional skills and promote positive emotions, while younger teachers tend to present lower scores in socio-emotional development (as cited in Samayoa, 2013, p. 323).

Therefore, concerning the influence of age in the results of TMMS-24 and socio-emotional skills, we can state that the results within our sample are not significant when related to age, as it made no difference whether the participants were younger or older. This differs from what has been proposed by other studies that indicate a difference in results between age groups, both having contrary outcomes but that still are relevant.

Thus, when it comes to the age factor and its relationship with emotional competencies, the results of Extremera et al. (2003, as cited in Samayoa, 2013, p. 323, 327) and Samayoa (2013) studies are inconclusive, which suggests that other variables may be intervening. Nevertheless, it is necessary to standardise the criteria when studying age and emotions, in order to reach findings that can be extrapolated to more significant populations than the ones described here. Hence, it would be interesting to conduct studies with factors such

as the emotional maturity of teachers and the relation with their age and the levels of socio-emotional competencies they have.

It is interesting to note how different studies result in different conclusions, which presents a challenge as there is no clarity in the relation of age and socio-emotional skills. Taking this into consideration, it would be significant and interesting to inquire in the relation of said factors, in order to get conclusive results. To do so, bigger populations, as well as other methodologies, would be of help in order to determine the relationship between affect and teachers' age.

4.1.3 Average result divided by gender.

The results shown in the analysis section indicate that in terms of gender, men scored higher than women, ($M = 98.2$; $SD = 8$) and ($M = 91.8$; $SD = 11.7$) respectively, with a difference of 6.4 points. According to the Mann-Whitney U test, this difference is perceived as non-significant ($p = 0.4654$), which means that both groups can be regarded as similar. However, in relation to each component of the test, in the first category of Attention, our results showed a higher percentage of adequate Attention in men than women. In the second category of Clarity, all of the female sample scored at an adequate level, while 25% of the male sample must improve their levels of Clarity. In the last category of Reparation, even though every participant scored within adequate and excellent levels of Reparation, the proportion of women scoring excellent Reparation levels was higher. These results, in comparison with Samayoa (2013), demonstrated agreement as to the percentage of women scoring adequate and excellent levels of Clarity and Reparation was higher than men, as in our case. However, in the level of Attention, our sample chunk differs from the one obtained by Samayoa (2013) whose portion showed a higher number of women scoring adequate levels of Attention than ours.

In relation to Basabe et al. (2000), these differences of gender within our results may suggest cultural differences in notions of masculinity and femininity. Eisenberg et al. (2006; in Samayoa, 2013, p. 322) suggest that masculinity is related to aggressive-competitive behaviours and femininity is related to condescending behaviours, amongst others. However, these

demeanours vary depending on the established social gender roles within a community. In this line, our results suggest that the interpretation of the test components' levels vary depending on the gender emotional roles in cultures, as these roles determine either the suppression and expression of emotional responses (Eisenberg et al., 2006; in Samayoa, 2013, p. 322). Hence, our results considering gender seem variable depending on the local notions of masculinity and femininity.

In average terms, this is in agreement with Gómez-Díaz et al. (2016) whose findings report that gender is not a significant factor. As for gender, our results indicate that no significant statistical differences ($p = 0.4654$) can be found between the genders. So, the quantitative relevance of this independent variable within the sample can be regarded as minor. For this study, therefore, we can assert that both the men and women of our sample have a similar degree of socio-emotional competencies.

From a substantive perspective, these results pose several questions, as some studies indicate that the gender factor is highly relevant, especially as viewed from a socio-anthropological perspective (Basabe et al., 2000), while others report smaller effects. In this regard, future research in the area of gender and emotional competencies is encouraged with larger samples, as such information would reveal in a more representative manner the pervasiveness of this factor. Consequently, for the sake of this study, the relevance of the gender factor can be scaled down.

Hence, socio-cultural phenomena, such as gender roles and beliefs, might be linked to learned emotional appraisal and expression (Basabe et al., 2000; Eisenberg et al., 2006 in Samayoa, 2013, p. 322), which might, in turn, be associated with the results of our study. However, it should be noted that the results here accounted for are constrained to specific psychological measures associated with socio-emotional competencies rather than gender phenomena; thus, further studies in the area should be conducted.

4.1.4 Total TMMS-24 dimensions results.

As already mentioned, the overall results of this study show that participants got adequate scores on the test ($M = 96.5$; $SD = 5.07$). More specifically on the TMMS-24 categories, results indicate that the participants behaved similarly in both the Clarity and the Reparation categories, but not in the Attention category, which is the one that exhibits a wider range of variance among the participants.

Accordingly, the results obtained in this study are positive in the light of what is proposed by Salovey et al. (2002), who states that the three subscales of the test are positively related to self-esteem. In the same line, Gohm and Clore (2002) claim that participants with high scores in this test show a positive correlation with better coping mechanisms, better action planning, and increased search for social and emotional support. Moreover, Gohm and Clore (2002) also state that high scorers on the test are more satisfied with their jobs and their relationship with their coworkers.

In general, having high scores on the test implies that the participants can process and express emotions appropriately. Additionally, they exhibit a more extensive range of emotional coping mechanisms. Since the TMMS-24 is used to evaluate the self-perceived emotional competencies of the participants by analysing three dimensions of emotions, in the following sections these categories will be discussed in detail in order to obtain more information about the participants.

4.1.5 Total Attention results.

The results obtained in the data regarding the first category of the TMMS-24 show that participants have appropriate levels of Attention ($M = 29.2$; $SD = 6.48$), and, according to Mann Whitney U test, the difference between groups is not significant as in $p = 0.101$.

As proposed by Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2005), Attention refers to the observation and reflection of our own emotions. In this line, people with appropriate levels of

Attention use information related to their emotions in order to implement adaptive regulation strategies. This aspect of emotionality is relevant to the teaching profession since being aware of our emotions is an important characteristic when relating to other people (Palomero, 2009; Moreno et al. 2011). Additionally, a teacher's awareness of what they feel and their behaviour according to these emotions are competencies that promote a positive learning environment and climate for their students and themselves as well (Moreno et al., 2011).

The results obtained in this study are higher than the ones obtained by Gómez-Díaz et al. (2016) since 64% of the participants in our study scored more than the average of the study mentioned ($M = 25.38$). This difference can be explained by methodological differences, such as sample size and data collection procedures. Additionally, socio-cultural contexts are dissimilar since both studies were carried out in different countries (Spain and Chile) and the participants' occupations are also different (nursing students and school teachers).

Therefore, according to the results obtained in our study, participants have appropriate levels of Attention, which can be associated with their ability to be aware of their own emotions and reflect on them. Also, this awareness means that they have more adaptive resources to use when in interaction with other people, in this case, students, being able to be connected with themselves in order to generate a better learning-teaching environment.

4.1.6 Total clarity results.

To begin with, the results obtained after the application of the TMMS-24 test indicate that the participants scored high in the Clarity dimension ($M = 30.9$; $SD = 3.36$), and the difference between groups is not significant, as in $p = 0.05486$. As proposed by Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2005), the Clarity aspect of the TMMS-24 test refers to the ability to identify, distinguish and describe the emotions people experience on a daily basis. People with high levels of Clarity present less thought suppression, more positive coping strategies, less vulnerability to rumination and other mental health issues, as well as a greater adaptability to stressful situations (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2006). This idea is also shared by other

researchers, such as Palomero (2009), who implicates that the development of socio-emotional skills is incredibly important for teachers so they can transmit positive attitudes to their students.

The results obtained in our research are higher when compared with the study carried out by Ponce and Aguaded (2017), including a difference of 1.07 points on average ($M = 29.83$; $SD = 6.45$).

In this regard, when in the classroom, high Clarity levels are translated into a better intrapersonal emotional comprehension, as teachers can be aware and act willfully of what they feel, enhancing the interactions and understanding of their students. As a result, teachers and students develop a healthy relationship, as the former knows how to act and manage both their own emotions and feelings and how to react when their students have emotional difficulties. Taking all said factors into consideration, teachers with high socio-emotional levels can lead their pupils and the classroom environment to increase their awareness and lead the group in a positive direction.

4.1.7 Total reparation results.

In view of total Reparation results gathered by the TMMS-24 test, the participants show appropriate levels of Reparation at an individual level ($M = 33.7$, $SD = 3.5$), with a non-significant difference between the groups as in $p = 0.06432$ according to the Mann-Whitney U test.

As stated by Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2005), Reparation is a perceived inner ability which aids in the regulation of emotional states by cutting off negative emotions and broadening positive ones. This ability belongs to emotional competencies, understood as skills of personal and social-emotional understanding (Bisquerra, 2010; Casussus, 2007; Bisquerra & Perez, 2007). In terms of the teaching profession, emotional regulation is a relevant aspect since regulating one's emotions allows teachers to regulate students' emotions as well by avoiding disruptive situations and promoting pro-social environments (Sutton et al., 2009). At the same time, these conditions also contribute to developing healthy relationships that foster nutritious

climates (Milicic & Arón, 2011; Cohen & Michelli, 2009; Wang & Degol, 2015) and contribute to a positive learning-teaching process (Moreno et al, 2011).

The results obtained in our study are higher when compared with the ones obtained by Samayoa (2013) since participants in this study got a higher average of Reparation ($M = 30.74$; $SD = 5.72$).

Therefore, as the teachers' average Reparation level is adequate, we understand them to be capable of performing emotional competencies related to repairing emotional states and building healthful school and classroom climates, which improves the teaching-learning experience from both teachers' and students' perspectives.

In summary, in this first section regarding teachers' socio-emotional competencies, the main findings were the following:

According to the results obtained in this study, and as compared with studies carried out by Samayoa (2013), Gómez-Díaz et al. (2016) and Ponce and Aguaded (2017), the participants have a high development of socio-emotional competencies. This suggests that being emotionally competent helps them to foster a nutritious climate where respectful relationships and non-violent conflict analysis (Milicic & Arón, 2011) contribute to developing a healthy environment. This affects their learning-teaching process with their students (Atoofi, 2013; Zembylas, 2003) and with their coworkers, as well as feeling satisfied with their job (Milicic & Arón, 2011; Palomero, 2009).

In terms of age and gender, the results of this study show that there are no significant differences regarding the two age groups analysed and teachers' gender. Therefore, other variables may be intervening in the analysis.

Finally, concerning the TMMS-24 results, the scores obtained by the participants suggest that appropriate levels of Attention along with high levels of Clarity and Reparation in the classroom context promote a positive learning environment for their students. Consequently,

they can identify their own and other's emotions (Moreno et al., 2011), adapt to stressful situations, regulate their emotional states (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2006) and have a wider variety of coping mechanisms that can improve school climate (Palomero, 2009).

The following section will present the discussion of the results obtained for the second category related to the comparison of the two schools which were part of this study.

4.2 Schools

4.2.1 Total sample results according to type of school financing.

The results obtained in our study suggest that both the public and Waldorf schools have an appropriate level of socio-emotional competencies; however, the public school has a comparatively higher development of said competencies as compared to the Waldorf school according to the statistical values. It represents a significant difference as its p-value equals 0.0226 points.

These results can be interpreted against the findings of authors such as Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2005), who suggest that high development of socio-emotional competencies is directly related to positive coping mechanisms. These abilities could imply that teachers from the public school have adequate strategies to cope with the challenges imposed by the context where they work at, demonstrating adaptive skills. In this line, Guerrero et al. (2009) and Ruffinelli (2016), highlight in their studies the fact that teachers undergo considerable pressure and stress due to the excessive demands of the schools. Such demands respond to the accountability logic which states that the Chilean educational system should prioritise results (in terms of grades or standardised tests scores) over contextualised learning goals and the creation of nurturing work climates and good mental health (Cornejo, 2009). On the contrary, Edwards (2002) states that Waldorf education is more oriented to a more human process of learning, balancing thinking willing and feeling, therefore, paying more attention to these aspects.

These results differ from the ones obtained by Samayoa (2013), who found that private schools pay more attention to emotional skills and their teachers' emotional health, whereas public schools are not aware of the development of these skills. This could imply that public school teachers have to learn constantly about their emotional intelligence, while teachers at Waldorf schools (which are also private), probably tend to self-regulate their emotional states unconsciously since they are used to reflect on them (Samayoa, 2013).

Therefore, the results obtained in this category show that the development of socio-emotional competencies of teachers from the public school is comparatively higher when compared to the Waldorf school despite their differences on their educational contexts and what is reported by the authors previously mentioned. In the following sections, a more detailed discussion of the results per school will be provided.

4.2.2 Public school results.

The results obtained from the TMMS-24 test regarding the public school, indicate that the whole sample from this school scored highly, as in each dimension of the test, that is to say, Attention, Clarity, and Reparation, the average score stood above 32 points ($SD= 13$), belonging to the higher spectrum of possible scores in the TMMS-24 test. These results suggest that the teachers who participated in our study have high levels of socio-emotional skills, which as mentioned before, is a positive characteristic as it enhances the capacity to adapt to different types of environment, increases the level of emotional intelligence, and a better understanding of their emotions (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005). This also agrees with Palomero (2009) who states that the development of socio-emotional competencies is considerably important for teachers as it enables them to establish good relationships with their students.

Our results differ from those obtained in the studies carried out by Samayoa (2013), Gómez-Díaz et al. (2016), and Ponce and Aguaded (2017), as the average points of said studies scored almost 15 points below the public school in the same test ($SD = 3.25$). Nevertheless, and as mentioned before, the higher marks scored from the public school regarding our sample, indicate that they have a good development of their socio-emotional competencies.

It is interesting to notice that according to the literature, public schools teachers are not conscious about their emotional modulation (i.e. cognitive strategies to control our emotions caused by stimuli perceived continuously during our lives), nor the socio-emotional development of their students (Samayoa, 2013). Furthermore, it is not expected for teachers from public education to have high scores in their socio-emotional skills due to the different factors that affect their psychological well being, such as excessive working hours linked with the increase of the amount of work, lack of support outside schools, and inequality in terms of resources and infrastructure, among others (Cornejo, 2009). Those factors promote the existence of burnout according to what was concluded by Cornejo (2009) for the Chilean context. Therefore it can be presumed that said factors can influence as they can present obstacles for establishing a positive classroom climate. Nevertheless, the public school studied in this paper differs from the studies aforementioned, as our school was expected to have low socio-emotional skills, but the results obtained through this study prove otherwise.

Accordingly, the results obtained in our study show that the public school we researched has higher levels of socio-emotional competencies regarding the TMMS-24 test, which differs from other studies about public schools. The teachers from the public school we studied have a high socio-emotional development, involving personal emotional development, awareness of self and other people's emotions, and knowing how to act regarding emotions and feelings, which consequently influences the development of their profession and the climate of the classroom among students and other teachers. These results can be associated with a nutritious classroom climate and classroom working environment (Milicic & Arón, 2011), as the coping mechanisms developed by the teachers due to their high levels of socio-emotional skills lead to a well-managed relation with their students.

4.2.3 Waldorf school results.

Regarding our Waldorf school, the results gathered from the application of TMMS-24 test found that teachers' perceived emotional competencies in the three components of the test show adequate levels. However, these results are 6.7 points lower than the public school in terms of teachers' socio-emotional competencies and the difference, according to Mann-Whitney U

test, is significant, $p = 0.0226$. Despite the difference, our private institution still has appropriate levels of perceived emotional competencies, however, in relation to each component of the test, the Reparation levels stand out of the test components.

As proposed by Gohm and Clore (2002) these high scores on the TMMS-24 test indicate that teachers from this school also have an adequate development of emotional strategies including coping mechanisms and increased search for social and emotional support. Considering Waldorf curricular basis, Waldorf education programmes focus on cognition and emotionality since early education stages (Edwards, 2002). Additionally, teachers stay with the same group of students for eight years, building community from a socio-emotional experience (Mitchell, 2009; Fainsilber & Ortony, 1987) that develop group learning experiences (Shilling, 1997; Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Frijda & Mesquita, 1994). This curricular feature is helpful to work continuously in both students' and teachers' socio-emotional competencies (Petrasch, 2002).

These results are in agreement with Samayoa (2013), whose results in private schools suggest that a lack of awareness in personal socio-emotional competencies may be related to unconscious emotional self-regulation. In this line, this can be related to psychological perspectives in which teachers' emotional responses seem influenced by the classroom environment (Schutz et al., 2009). Therefore, as Waldorf education provides a socio-emotional educational focus (Mitchel, 2009) and it works as a private institution, we can suggest that teachers from this private Waldorf school self-regulate their emotions unconsciously, as they are surrounded by this socio-emotional dimension. Hence, the difference in scores from these public and private establishments may be attributed to the school environment, which affects the development of socio-emotional competencies in every participant belonging to the school.

Additionally, it is noticeable how the Waldorf School scored higher in the Reparation category than in the rest of the TMMS-24 components. These results imply that teachers from the Waldorf school have the ability to transform negative emotions into positive ones, in order to preserve good mental health for them and their students, as well as to improve their wellness (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005). However, as the Attention and Clarity results are lower, it also suggests that this group has reduced regulation of emotional states (Extremera &

Fernández-Berrocal, 2006). In the same line, the dissimilarity on the components of the test implies that teachers with this pattern can process emotional information in an adequate level while having better levels of adjustment (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2006).

Thus, considering teachers' results on TMMS-24 in our private Waldorf school, their level of socio-emotional competencies can be associated with Waldorf educational project, which promotes emotional intelligence by focusing on building positive student-teacher bonding from initial educational stages. Therefore, these slightly lower scores can be explained by the influence of the Waldorf curriculum on teachers' socio-emotional competencies due to their own personal experiences regarding the emotional process given the school context.

Finally, it may be concluded that after the discussion of the results of the present study given the literature reviewed in Section 1, the main outcomes of this second section concerning the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies in teachers and its relation with the type of school in which they work are the following:

The results of this study show that the development of socio-emotional competencies of teachers from both schools is adequate. However, comparatively, the public school is slightly higher than the results obtained by the private school. These findings endorsed the idea of positive coping mechanisms (Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005), suggesting that teachers from public education are able to face the context where they work, which researchers in the area (Guerrero et al., 2009; Ruffinelli, 2016) have been described as extremely demanding to teachers, as the main focus of public education is grades and standardised test scores. These results differ from those obtained by Samayoa (2013), who observed that private schools tend to pay more attention to emotional skills, while public schools are usually unaware of said competencies, as the former unconsciously regulate and reflect in their emotional states, whereas the latter are continuously learning about their emotional intelligence. Hence, our results suggest that even when both schools have an adequate development of socio-emotional competencies, there is a slight difference between them, where the level of socio-emotional skills of the public schools is faintly higher than the Waldorf school, notwithstanding their different educational contexts.

Taking into consideration only the results of the public school we studied, they indicate that the average score of the entire sample of teachers stood in the higher spectrum of possible scores of the TMMS-24 test, which implies that they have proper development of socio-emotional competencies. These results differ from those obtained by other researchers in the area (Samayoa, 2013; Cornejo, 2009), since it was expected for them to have poor socio-emotional skills, a lack of emotional modulation, and unawareness of the socio-emotional development of their students. However, these findings support those conclusions made by Fernández-Berrocal and Extremera (2005), and Palomero (2009), as teachers having high levels of socio-emotional skills increase the ability to adapt to different environments and to understand their emotions. This factor is crucial in order to deliver positive attitudes in class. All in all, our results show that the public school we researched had higher levels of socio-emotional competencies according to the TMMS-24 test, differing from other studies on public schools and socio-emotional skills. Our results can be linked with a nutritious classroom climate (Milicic & Arón, 2012), as developed socio-emotional skills lead to a well-managed relation with their students.

Regarding the private school, this institution also obtained high results in the TMMS-24 test, but lower than those of the public school. As already mentioned, this indicates an appropriate development of socio-emotional competencies and a wide variety of emotional mechanisms available for everyday situations (Gohm & Clore, 2002). This can be explained as the Waldorf model of education has a humanist basis which creates instances to the socio-emotional development of the members of the community, which potentially could impact the development of said competencies. However, in order to demonstrate the growth of socio-emotional competencies in Waldorf schools, it is necessary to conduct further studies. Furthermore, as the private school we researched follows the Waldorf model of education, teachers have the opportunity of teaching their classes focusing on the students and not only the content. They receive support from the school, and the amount of work they have is not as hefty as in the public school, due to that teachers from the Waldorf school do not have to follow a specific and rigid line of content for each class. Therefore, there is less pressure and teachers can have more flexibility in order to focus not only on the content class, but also in how their

students feel. All in all, teachers of this private school have high levels of socio-emotional competencies, although they may be unaware of them as the emotional regulation process happens unconsciously, which explains the difference between the scores of the TMMS-24 between the public and private school.

5. Conclusions

The present study explored the socio-emotional competencies of teachers from both a public and a Waldorf school in Santiago. With this purpose, a descriptive quantitative study was conducted of data consisting of the results of the TMMS-24 test applied to a group of 11 teachers working at either a public or a Waldorf school. After taking the tests, the information was digitised, tabulated, and analysed according to psycho-social criteria. The results were consequently discussed in light of the reviewed literature in order to identify associations between our findings and those of other researchers.

This section presents the conclusions drawn from the study, along with its limitations and suggestions for future research. In order to do so, the present section will group the conclusions by the research questions outlined in Section 1.

5.1 Findings For Research Question 1

The first research question posed for this study is the following:

Are there any differences between the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies amongst the participants?

In relation to research question 1, the overall results obtained indicate that teachers do not present significant differences in their degree of development of socio-emotional competencies. This conclusion can be drawn from the fact that the results in the total test and each of its particular dimensions (Attention, Clarity, and Reparation), as well as the categories of age and gender, correspond to an adequate or above level of competencies.

In this respect, the results suggest that teachers have elevated levels of socio-emotional competencies. This leads them to recognise, process and show their emotions appropriately, adapt to different contexts, and have positive coping mechanisms in order to develop their roles as teachers in favourable classroom climates for themselves, their students and their coworkers (Palomero, 2009; Extremera & Fernández-Berrocal, 2005).

Secondly, when divided by age, our results showed no significant differences between the age groups (20 to 45 and 46 to 60). This differs from the findings of other authors (Extremera et al., 2003, as cited in Samayoa, 2013, p. 323, 327; and Samayoa, 2013) who suggest that age might play a role in the development of socio-emotional competencies since it either provides individuals with higher degrees of socio-emotional competencies when they are younger, or gives them higher socio-emotional skills when older. Therefore age is considered to be a context-dependent factor that needs to be studied in more depth to reach more conclusive inferences. Similarly, there are no noticeable disparities concerning gender, it is proposed that women take into consideration their emotions in their practice, whereas men prevent themselves from showing their emotions, as proposed by Eisenberg et al. (2006).

Finally, from an overall perspective, it is noticeable that, on average, the participants' scores were in the higher spectrum of possible results in each dimension. The Attention results suggest that teachers are more connected with their emotions which, as explained above, potentially allows them to be more adaptive in the school context. Similarly, due to the high scores in the Clarity dimension, our participants are conscious of any modifications they may make to their behaviour to respond to the emotional needs of the people around them. Finally, the high scores on the Reparation behaviour indicate that teachers are able to regulate their emotions, which is a positive trait that can be applied in case of the appearance of negative emotional states. These findings are in agreement with the postulates of Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2005), Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2006), Palomero (2009), Moreno et al. (2011) and Sutton et al. (2009).

5.2 Findings For Research Question 2

The second research question posed for this study is the following:

Is there a relation between the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies in teachers and the type of school in which they work?

The results regarding the degree of development of socio-emotional competencies in teachers working at a public and a Waldorf school indicate that both groups of teachers have adequate levels of emotional competencies. However, there are small but significant differences between the individuals when grouped according to the type of school which can be observed in the comparatively higher overall TMMS-24 scores of the teachers belonging to the public school.

In this respect, the test results suggest that public school teachers have a variety of coping mechanisms, a higher capacity to adapt to different environments and situations and better understanding of their emotions when compared with those of the private Waldorf school; this in spite of the challenging working conditions in public schools (see Section 1, p. 38)

As for the Waldorf school, even though this school obtained lower scores as compared with the public school, the Waldorf school teachers showed, at a particular level, slightly higher results on the Reparation category than Attention and Clarity categories. Said dissimilarity is related to unconscious self-regulation (Samayoa, 2013) as teachers' ability to reduce negative emotions and maximise positive ones is already incorporated in their daily teaching practice determined by the Waldorf community atmosphere.

These findings show that socio-emotional competencies are not only associated with resources or specific types of curriculum, as one may think, but it can rather be associated with contextual demands that make teachers develop personal resources to meet the needs of their schools and students. These results are representative of this particular sample and so further studies with larger populations should be carried out.

As a conclusion, the general results obtained in this study suggest that, from an overall perspective, the teachers of our sample have adequate and more than adequate levels of socioemotional competencies as demonstrated by the scores of the TMMS-24 test. This implies that our participants have good recognition and processing of their emotions, including positive coping mechanisms which can potentially be transferred to the creation of favourable classroom and school climates.

Similarly, from a comparative perspective, the participants do not present significant individual differences in their degree of socio-emotional competencies, or in the relationship between these variables and the age and gender factor. This makes our sample quite homogeneous, which implies that other variables might be at play when attempting to explain individual differences.

In terms of school groups, it is possible to observe significant differences between the public and the Waldorf schools. On the one hand, public school teachers have adequate emotional identification strategies and coping mechanisms regarding the diverse educational environments and situations that can come across during their teaching experience; while on the other hand, Waldorf school teachers report better self-regulation and emotional expression abilities which can be linked to the Waldorf educational approach which fosters emotional co-regulation among its community members.

Finally, it is important to emphasise that even when the public school presents slightly higher results than the Waldorf school, both institutions are quite similar in the socio-emotional aspect. This subtle difference suggests that the type of educational project is not a determinant factor in the development of socio-emotional competencies for our sample and it highlights, on the one hand, the individual characteristics of teachers from a personality perspective and, on the other, the relevance of the type of community that works in every school, which may hinder or foster the development of specific competencies according to the needs of the context. Furthermore, and as proposed earlier, it is worth mentioning that the different levels of socio-emotional competencies in our sample have no relation with age, gender, nor institution variables. This lack of relation makes us question if there is a real connection of said factors to people's degree of socio-emotional skills, or if it has to do with their personal history of an individual and their own untold story.

5.3 Limitations To The Study

The findings of the present study should be interpreted against several limitations that are here accounted for.

Firstly, the study accounted for here benefitted from a quantitative descriptive design, which implies that our source of information corresponded to quantitative data (TMMS-24 test results) that were statistically analysed. This implies that the inferences we have drawn are based on the indicators provided by the test measures and their relationship with other variables, and their possible interpretations according to the empirical literature reviewed. However, little information about the subjective experience of the participants is available, as we did not have access to their explicit discourse about their emotional experience. Therefore, the conclusions that are presented in this study should only be interpreted from a quantitative perspective, which, in turn, is beneficial in providing objective indicators of the phenomenon under study.

In this line, our study was initially conceived as a mixed-method study, in which a qualitative stage aiming at exploring the subjective dimension of the emotional experience of the participants was included. To do so, in-depth interviews were going to be used as a data collection instrument, and the data collected was planned to be analysed using a content analysis methodology. Said design aimed at obtaining a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon by combining the contributions of both qualitative and quantitative data. This mixed information was to later be triangulated in order to reach the conclusions.

Nevertheless, due to the Chilean social wave of protests that occurred in October of 2019, we had to change the design of our study. In this context, we made the methodological decision to keep the quantitative phase of the study, because collecting qualitative data was not feasible at that point due both participant schools being occupied by the community as a form of protest as of October of 2019. Therefore, there were no optimal conditions to have meetings with the participants in order to conduct the data collection procedure. Additionally, the social tension could have affected the teachers' emotional experience; hence, the data would have been

compromised by a difficult to isolate variable and would not have been valid from a content perspective.

On the other hand, the standardised quantitative test conducted here (TMMS-24) was taken before the social wave of protests, so the data is free from the social unrest variable discussed above. Additionally, the test has been validated by Gohm and Clore (2002), Salovey et al. (2002), Extremera and Fernández-Berrocal (2005), Samayoa (2013), Gómez-Díaz et al. (2016), and Ponce and Aguaded (2017), from a construct and instrument perspective. Moreover, a second validation stage was undertaken in order to ensure the contextual validity of the instrument. This latter validation was carried out by means of an expert judgment validation process (see Appendix D) in which two evaluators assessed the appropriacy of the instrument for the context and population under study. Consequently, the information gathered with this quantitative test is scientifically rigorous.

Secondly, another limitation is the number of participants that became part of the sample of this investigation, which consisted of 11 subjects. This limitation suggests that the results should be interpreted as only representative of the sample under study, and not of the entire universe of teachers. It is relevant to bear in mind that no previous studies in the area have been conducted in Chile, so this investigation has a critical exploratory component. Therefore, the use of a smaller sample is beneficial in order to control other intervening variables that might be more difficult to neutralise using more significant populations.

Thirdly, and related to the previous point, the type of analysis conducted in this research was one of descriptive statistical analysis. Due to its quantitative nature, we can account for variables that stay in the quantitative perspective as our results are hard data; therefore, we do not present qualitative interpretations. It is essential to take into account that as no previous research in the area has been carried out in the Chilean context, the mere fact of starting with a detailed statistical study is beneficial, as future qualitative researches can have a solid base to be developed from. Likewise, further qualitative or mixed-method research on the area of teachers' socio-emotional development should be conducted in order to have a better understanding of the degree of socio-emotional competencies of Chilean teachers.

Furthermore, the data collection instrument used in this study corresponds to a self-reported test, therefore, the level of socio-affective competencies accounted for in this study corresponds to a self-perceived measure. In order to neutralize the influence of self-reported bias, we conducted an instrument validation procedure based on expert judgement. This action was taken as an additional validation procedure, considering that internal and external validity were tested during the instrument design process (see section 2.2.1.2.3.1). Thus, self-reporting bias was neutralised in a two-stage process and both internally and externally, which reduces the intervention of other variables.

Moreover, the method used to collect data was the TMMS-24 test along with an information sheet which had to be completed by the teachers who participated in the study. This sheet required both personal information and data of their work as a teacher, such as subjects that they teach and years of working experience. The information gathered fulfilled its purpose as they were aiming to answer the research questions. The focus of our study were the variables of age, gender, and working years, which from our perspective is a good start given this research being the first one on teachers' socio-emotional competencies in Chile. We suggest carrying further studies with more variables related to working environments and such as there were no differences present regarding the factors we mentioned in our sample.

Finally, it should be noticed that the scientific rigour of this study was maintained despite the social waves of protests and a worldwide pandemic that, unavoidably, had a significant impact on the design and procedures undertaken in our study. Despite these circumstances, the research team was able to readjust the quantitative design in order to carry out the research following scientific rigour standards, which provides our results with trustworthiness.

5.4 Further Studies

Further research in the field of Chilean teachers' socio-emotional competencies could shed light on several topics in order to provide us with insight on the influence of these competencies in the learning-teaching environment and school climate in general.

Firstly, similar studies could be conducted using data from a larger population of teachers who work in different types of schools in Chile so as to identify whether the results obtained in this investigation are replicable. As mentioned in Section 1, the literature in this topic provides little information about Chilean teachers' competencies; therefore, the information obtained from these studies would be relevant in the educational field.

Secondly, further studies could benefit from incorporating qualitative methods in their designs in order to have personal insights on the emotional experience of teachers concerning their competencies as well as their beliefs associated with this phenomenon. In this regard, it would be interesting to research the same dimensions measured by the TMMS-24 test (Attention, Clarity and Reparation) so as to explore the subjective experience of teachers, and, at the same time, identify how each dimension impacts on the educational process.

Thirdly, similar studies considering and focusing on aspects such as teachers' working hours, could provide a more comprehensive perspective about the influence of teachers' socio-emotional competencies and their impact on teachers' working conditions and school climate. Additionally, it would be interesting to investigate how different the working conditions are in the Chilean context and how they affect the degree and development of socio-emotional competencies on teachers from different social contexts.

Finally, since the TMMS-24 test is a self-reported test, it would be relevant to incorporate participant observation items, as the possibility of participating in the group could help to gather information from both a subjective and objective point of view. This type of item is recommended since other variables might be intervening in the variability of the test scores, such as personality and social factors.

5.5 Implications Of This Study

This thesis has intended to account for socio-emotional research in education that had not been addressed in the Chilean context. The results here obtained indicate that the public and the Waldorf school behave similarly regarding their socio-emotional competencies, as no

significant differences were identified in terms of their educational projects, or in gender and age. These results differ to those identified by other authors, suggesting that teachers' socio-emotional competencies could vary according to other aspects such as school community or working conditions.

This study aims to contribute to the fields of emotional and pedagogical studies. In this regard, the identification of socio-emotional competencies in teachers from public and Waldorf schools provides a greater understanding about how teachers process their own emotions, and about how this impacts on their mental health and the variety of coping mechanisms they have. At the same time, this information contributes to the development of useful regulation strategies when interacting with their students, generating nutritious relationships amongst the group. This matter might also be helpful for school environment teams, management and communities to start creating new strategies and support programmes that improve classroom and school climate.

Similarly, the findings of this study provide evidence that allows us to reconsider the role of teachers' emotionality in education starting from the teacher-training process, as this information might contribute to creating different competencies development programmes in teacher-training institutions and, in the same way, to develop educational policies oriented to this subject at a national level.

References

Atoofi, S. (2013). Classroom has a heart: Teachers and students affective alignment in a Persian heritage language classroom. *Linguistics and Education, 24*(2), 215-236.

Basabe, N., Paez, D., Valencia, J., Rimé, B., Pennebaker, J., Diener, E., & González, J. L. (2000) Sociocultural factors predicting subjective experience of emotion: a collective level analysis 1. *Psicothema, 12*(Suppl. 1), 55-69.

Bisquerra, R. (2003). *Educación emocional y competencias básicas para la vida* [Emotional education and basic life competencies]. *Revista de Investigación Educativa, 21* (1), 7-43.

Bisquerra, R. (2010) *Psicopedagogía de las emociones* [Psychopedagogy of emotions]. Madrid: Editorial Síntesis

Bisquerra, R., & Pérez, N. (2007). Las competencias emocionales [Emotional competencies]. *Educación XXI, 10*, 61-82.

Bloom, L. (1998). Language development and emotional expression. *Pediatrics 102* (suppl. E1) 1272-1277.

Brackett, M. Palomera, M. Mojsa-Kaja, J. Reyes, M. R., & Salovey, P. (2010). Emotion-regulation ability, burnout, and job satisfaction among British secondary-school teachers. *Psychology in the Schools, 47*(4), 406-417. doi: 10.1002/pits.20478

Casassus, J. (2007). *La educación del ser emocional* [The education of being emotional] (2nd ed.). Santiago: Cuarto Propio

Chan, D. (2002). Emotional intelligence: Implications for educational practice in schools. *Educational Research Journal, 17*(2), 183-196.

Chóliz, M. (2005). *Psicología de la emoción: El proceso emocional* [Emotional psychology: The emotional process]. Retrieved from: <https://www.uv.es/=choliz/>

Cohen, J., McCabe, E.M., Michelli, N. M., & Pickeral, T. (2009). School climate: Research, policy, practice, and teacher education. *Teachers College Record* 111(1), 180-213.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education* (Sixth Ed.). New York: Routledge.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). The Nature of Enquiry: Setting the Field. In *Research Methods in Education* (Seventh Ed., pp. 3–30). London and New York: Routledge.

Cornejo, R. (2009). Condiciones de trabajo y bienestar/malestar docente en profesores de enseñanza media de Santiago de Chile [Working conditions and teaching well-being/discomfort in upper secondary education teachers from Santiago, Chile]. *Educação & Sociedade*, 30 (107), 409-426.

Creswell, J. (2003). *Research Design, Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches* (Second Ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. (2007). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design Choosing Among Five Approaches* (Second Ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.

De Boer, R. J., & Badke-Schaub, P. (2008, May). *Emotional alignment in teams: How emotions support the design process*. Paper presented at the International design conference - design 2008. Dubrovnik, Croatia.

De Souza, D. L. (2012). Learning and human development in Waldorf pedagogy and curriculum. *ENCOUNTER: Education for Meaning and Social Justice*. 25(4), 50-62.

Edwards, C. (2002). Three approaches from Europe: Waldorf, Montessori, and Reggio Emilia. *Early Childhood Research & Practice*, 4(1), 1-14.

Extremera, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2005) Inteligencia emocional percibida y diferencias individuales en el meta-conocimiento de los estados emocionales: Una revisión de los estudios con el TMMS [Perceived emotional intelligence and individual differences in the meta-knowledge of emotional states: A review of the studies with the Trait Meta-Mood Scale]. *Ansiedad y Estrés*, 11(2-3), 101-122.

Extremera, N., & Fernández-Berrocal, P. (2006) Emotional intelligence as predictor of mental, social, and physical health in university students. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 9(1), 45-51.

Extremera, N., Fernández-Berrocal, P., & Durán, A. (2003) Inteligencia emocional y burnout en profesores [Emotional intelligence and burnout in teachers]. *Encuentros en Psicología Social*, 1(1), 260-265.

Fainsilber, L & Ortony, A. (1987). Metaphorical uses of language in the expression of emotions. *Metaphor and symbolic activity*, 2(4), 239-250.

Fernández-Berrocal, P., & Extremera, N. (2005). La inteligencia emocional y la educación de las emociones desde el modelo de Mayer y Salovey. [Emotional intelligence and emotional education from Mayer and Salovey's model] *Revista Interuniversitaria de Formación del Profesorado*, 19(3), 63-93.

Fernández-Berrocal, P. Extremera, N. & Ramos, N. (2004). Validity and reliability of the spanish modified version of the Trait Meta Mood Scale 1, 2. *Psychological Reports*, 94, 751 - 755.

Frijda, N. H. (2008) The psychologists' point of view. In M. Lewis, J.M. Haviland-Jones, & L. Feldman Barret (Eds.), *Handbook of Emotions* (3rd ed., pp. 68-87). New York: Guilford.

Frijda, N. H., & Mesquita, B. (1994). The social roles and functions of emotions. In, S. Kitayama, & H. R. Markus (Eds.), *Emotion and culture: Empirical studies of mutual influence* (pp. 51-87). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Giménez-Espert, M., & Prado-Gascó, V. (2017). Emotional intelligence in nurses: the Trait Meta-Mood Scale. *Acta Paulista de Enfermagem*, 30(2), 204-209. doi: [10.1590/1982-0194201700031](https://doi.org/10.1590/1982-0194201700031).

Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. London: Bantam Books, Inc.

Gohm, C. L., & Clore, G. L. (2002) Four latent traits of emotional experience and their involvement in well-being, coping, and attributional style. *Cognition and Emotion*, 16(4), 495-518.

Gómez-Díaz, M., Delgado-Gómez, M. S., & Gómez-Sánchez, R. (2017) Education, emotions and health: Emotional education in Nursing. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 237(1), 492-498.

Guerrero, P., Balboa, M., & Miranda, G. (2017). Sufrimiento y reconocimiento en el trabajo: Un estudio de caso [Suffering and recognition at work: A case study]. *Teuken Bidikay*, 8(11), 175-190.

Guerrero, P. & De Gaulejac, V. (2017) in Zabala, X., Guerrero, P., & Besoain, C. (Eds.). (2017). *Clínicas del Trabajo: Teorías e intervenciones*. Santiago: Ediciones Universidad Alberto Hurtado.

Hargreaves, A. (1998a). The emotional politics of teaching and teacher development: with implications for educational leadership. *International Journal Of Leadership In Education*, 1(4), 315-336. doi: 10.1080/1360312980010401

Hargreaves, A. (1998b). The emotional practice of teaching. *Teaching And Teacher Education*, 14(8), 835-854. doi: 10.1016/s0742-051x(98)00025-0

Hargreaves, A. (2000). Mixed emotions: teachers' perceptions of their interactions with students. *Teaching And Teacher Education*, 16(8), 811-826. doi: 10.1016/s0742-051x(00)00028-7

Hernández, R., Fernández, C., & Baptista, P. (2014) *Metodología de la investigación*. México DF: McGraw-Hill.

Izard, C. E. (2007) Basic emotions, natural kinds, emotion schemas, and a new paradigm. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 2(3), 260-280.

Jaacks, P. & Hielscher-Fastabend, M. (2008, May). *Emotional alignment in communication*. Paper presented at the 38th Clinical Aphasiology Conference, Wyoming, USA. Retrieved from <http://aphasiology.pitt.edu/1933/1/viewpaper.pdf>

Karstedt, S. (2002). Emotions and criminal justice. *Theoretical Criminology* 6(3), 299-317. doi: 10.1177/136248060200600304.

Keltner, D. & Haidt, J. (1999). Social functions of emotions at four levels of analysis. *Cognition & Emotion*, 13(5), 505-521.

Kemper, T. D. (2002). Predicting emotions in groups: some lessons from September 11. *The Sociological Review*, 50(1), 53-68. doi:10.1111/j.1467-954X.2002.tb03591.x

King, G., Keohane, R., & Verba, S. (1994). The science in social science. In G. King, R. Keohane, & S. Verba (Eds.), *Designing Social Inquiry*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9781400821211-002>

Kleinginna, P. R., & Kleinginna, A. M. (1981) A categorized list of emotion definitions, with suggestions for a consensual definition. *Motivation and Emotion*, 5(4), 345-379.

Kubicek, L. F., & Emde, R. N. (2012). Emotional expression and language: A longitudinal study of typically developing earlier and later talkers from 15 to 30 months. *Infant Mental Health Journal*, 33(6), 553–584.

Larson, R. W., & Almeida, D. M. (1999) Emotional transmission in the daily lives of families: A new paradigm for studying family. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 61(1), 5-20.

Larson, R. W., Gillman, S. A., & Richards, M. H. (1997) Divergent experiences of family leisure: Fathers, mothers, and young adolescents. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 29(1), 78-97.

Lawler, E. J. (2001). An affect theory of social exchange. *American Journal of Sociology* 107(2), 321-352.

Lyons, M. (1980). *Cambridge studies in philosophy. Emotion*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mayer, J. D., & Gaschke, Y. N. (1988). The experience and meta-experience of mood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 55(1), 102-111

Milicic, N., & Arón, A. (2011). Climas sociales tóxicos y climas sociales nutritivos para el desarrollo personal en el contexto escolar [Toxic and nutritious social school climates and personal development in school contexts]. *Psykhé*, 9(2).

Ministerio de Educación (2008). *Marco para la buena enseñanza* [Framework for Good Teaching]. Retrieved from <https://www.cpeip.cl/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/Marco-buena-ensenanza.pdf>

Ministerio de Educación (2009). *Objetivos fundamentales y contenidos mínimos obligatorios de la educación básica y media* [Fundamental objectives and minimum compulsory content for primary and secondary education]. Retrieved from https://www.curriculumnacional.cl/614/articles-34641_bases.pdf

Ministerio de Educación (2018) *Compromiso con la sana convivencia escolar. Manual de distinción* [Commitment to healthy school environment. Distinction Manual]. Retrieved from https://www.mineduc.cl/wp-content/uploads/sites/19/2018/11/Manual_SanaConvivencia.pdf

Ministerio de Educación (2019) *Política nacional de convivencia escolar* [National policy on school environment]. Retrieved from <http://convivenciaescolar.mineduc.cl/wp-content/uploads/2019/04/Politica-Nacional-de-Convivencia-Escolar.pdf>

Ministerio de Educación & Universidad de Chile (2017) *Set metodológico para equipos de convivencia escolar* [Methodological set for school environment teams]. Retrieved from <http://convivenciaescolar.mineduc.cl/wp-content/uploads/2019/04/1.Herramienta-Metodol%C3%B3gica-Liderando-la-Convivencia-Escolar.pdf>

Mitchell, D. S. (2009). Social-emotional education and Waldorf education. *The Online Waldorf Library*, 14(2), 35-42

Moreno, C., Díaz, A., Cuevas, C., Nova, C., & Bravo, I. (2011). Clima social escolar en el aula y vínculo profesor-alumno: Alcances, herramientas de evaluación, y programas de intervención [Social school climate in the classroom and the link professor-student: Scopes, evaluation tools, and intervention programs]. *Revista Electrónica de Psicología Iztacala*. 14(3). 70-84

Molina de Colmenares, N, & Pérez de Maldonado, I. (2006). El clima de relaciones interpersonales en el aula un caso de estudio [Interpersonal relationships climate in the classroom a case study]. *Paradigma*, 27(2), 193-219. Retrieved from http://ve.scielo.org/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S1011-22512006000200010&lng=es&tlng=es

Novin, S. Banerjee, R. Dadkhah, A., & Rieffe, C. (2009). Self-reported use of emotional display rules in the Netherlands and Iran: Evidence for sociocultural influence. *Social Development*, 18(2), 397 - 411.

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, (2017). Education in Chile. *Reviews of National Policies for Education*. Paris: OECD Publishings. doi: <https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264284425-en>

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, (2017), OECD Reviews of School Resources: Chile 2017. *OECD Reviews of School Resources*. Paris: OECD Publishings, doi: <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264285637-en>.

Palomero, P. (2009). Desarrollo de la competencia social y emocional del profesorado: Una aproximación desde la psicología humanista [Developing teachers' social and emotional competence: A humanistic psychology perspective]. *Revista Electrónica Interuniversitaria de Formación del Profesorado*, 12(2), 145-153.

Parkinson, B. Fischer, A. H. & Manstead, A. S. (2005) *Emotion in social relations*. New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Petrash, J. (2002). *Understanding Waldorf education: Teaching from the inside out*. Beltsville, MD: Gryphon House, Inc.

Ponce, N., & Aguaded, E. (2017) Evaluación de un programa de intervención educativa en inteligencia emocional [Assessment of an educational intervention program in emotional intelligence]. *Revista Dilemas Contemporáneos: Educación, Política y Valores*, 18(2), 1-34

Reisenzein, R. (1992). A structuralist reconstruction of Wundt's three-dimensional theory of emotion. In H. Westmeyer (Ed.), *The structuralist program in psychology: Foundations and applications*. 141-189. Toronto: Hogrefe & Huber Publishers.

Ruffinelli, A. (2016) Ley de desarrollo profesional docente en Chile: de la precarización sistemática a los logros, avances y desafíos pendientes para la profesionalización [Law on teacher professional development: From systematic precariousness to the achievements, advances and remaining challenges for professionalization]. *Estudios Pedagógicos* 42(4), 261-279

Russell, J. A. (2003). Core affect and the psychological construction of emotion. *Psychological Review*. 110(1), 145–172

Russell, J. A., & Barrett, L. F. (1999) Core affect, prototypical emotional episodes, and other things called *emotion*: Dissecting the elephant. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 76(5), 805-819.

Salovey, P., Mayer, J. D., Goldman, S. L., Turvey, C., & Palfai, T. P. (1995). Emotional attention, clarity, and repair: Exploring emotional intelligence using the Trait Meta-Mood Scale. In J. W. Pennebaker (Ed.), *Emotion, disclosure, & health* (pp. 125-154). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Salovey, P., Stroud, L. R., Woolery, A., & Epel, E. S. (2002) Perceived emotional intelligence, stress reactivity, and symptom reports: Further explorations using the Trait Meta-Mood Scale. *Psychology and Health*, 17(5), 611-627.

Samayoa, M. (2013) *La inteligencia emocional y el trabajo docente en educación básica*. (Doctoral dissertation, Universidad Nacional de Educación a Distancia, Madrid). Retrieved from <http://e-spacio.uned.es/fez/view/tesisuned:Educacion-MIsamayoa>

Schachter, S. & Singer, J. E. (1962) Cognitive, social, and physiological determinants of emotional state. *Psychological Review*, 69(5), 379 - 399.

Schutz, P. Aultman, L. & Williams-Johnson, M. (2009). Educational psychology perspectives on Teacher's emotions. In P. A. Schutz, & M. Zembylas (Eds.), *Advances in Teacher Emotion Research* (pp. 195 - 212) New York: Springer Science+Business Media

Shilling, C. (1997). Emotions, embodiment and the sensation of society. *The Sociological Review*, 45(2), 195 - 219 <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-954X.00061>

Smith, C. A. (1991) The self, appraisal, and coping. In C. R. Snyder, & D. R. Forsyth (Eds.), *Handbook of Social and Clinical Psychology* (pp. 116-130). New York: Pergamon Press.

Sutton, R. E., Mudrey-Camino, R., & Knight, C.C. (2009) Teachers' emotion regulation and classroom management. *Theory into Practice*, 48(2), 130-137.

Taramuel, J. A., & Zapata, V. H. (2017) Aplicación del test TMMS-24 para el análisis y descripción de la inteligencia emocional considerando la influencia del sexo [Application of the TMMS-24 test for the analysis and description of emotional intelligence considering the influence of sex]. *Revista Publicando*, 4(11). (1). 162-181.

Tellez, F. (2016) *Identificación de temáticas no abordadas por la investigación educacional/Principales desafíos del sistema educativo para la formación de profesores* [Identification of uncovered topics in educational research/Main challenges of the educational system for teacher training]. Unpublished manuscript.

Teruel, P., Salavera, C., Usán, P., & Antoñanzas, J. L. (2019) Inteligencia emocional centrada en uno mismo y en el otro: Escala Rotterdam de Inteligencia Emocional (REIS) [Emotional intelligence centred on oneself and others: Rotterdam Scale of Emotional Intelligence (REIS)]. *Universitas Psychologica*, 18(4). 1-12.

Tiedens, L. Z., & Leach, C. W. (Eds.). (2004). *Studies in emotion and social interaction. The social life of emotions*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511819568>

VandenBos, G. R. (2nd Ed). (2015). *APA dictionary of psychology*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Wang, M.-T. & Degol, J. L. (2015, June) School climate: a review of the construct, measurement, and impact on student outcome. *Educational Psychology Review*, 28(2), 315 - 352.

Wilson, B. (Ed.) (1996). *Constructivist learning environments: Case studies in instructional design*. New Jersey: Educational Technology Publications.

Witt, P. L., Wheelless, L. R., & Allen, M. (2004). A meta-analytical review of the relationship between teacher immediacy and student learning. *Communication Monographs*, 71(2), 184-207.

Zembylas, M. (2003). Emotions and teacher identity: A poststructural perspective *Teachers and Teaching: theory and practice*, 9(3), 213-238 doi: 10.1080/13540600309378

Zembylas, M. (2005) Discursive practices, genealogies, and emotional rules: A poststructuralist view on emotion and identity in teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 21(1), 935–948.

Zembylas, M. (2007) Emotional ecology: The intersection of emotional knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge in teaching. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23(1), 355–367.

Appendixes

Appendix A: Liceo Multicultural Data Sheet



Liceo Portal De La Cisterna

Dirección	Esmeralda 6305
Comuna	La Cisterna
Teléfono	25252715
E-mail contacto	jcgonzalez56@gmail.com
Página web	
Director(a)	Juan Claudio González Poblete
Sostenedor	Ilustre Municipalidad De La Cisterna

Información institucional

RBD	9722
Reconocimiento Oficial	Según Resolución Exenta 831 De Fecha 08/08/1986
Dependencia	Municipal
Nivel de enseñanza	Enseñanza Media Humanista-Científica niños y jóvenes
Matrícula total alumnos	180
Promedio alumnos por curso	45

Información de costos

Pago matrícula	Gratuito
Pago mensual por alumno	Gratuito
Número de becas disponibles	2
Establecimiento con convenio de subvención escolar preferencial	SI

Proceso de postulación

Curso de ingreso principal	1º Medio
Número de vacantes para el curso de ingreso principal	45
Inicio de proceso de postulación	27 - Julio
Cierre de proceso de postulación	30 - Octubre
Requisitos para postular al primer curso de ingreso al establecimiento	Cumplir con edad estipulada Certificado de notas del año anterior Informe de personalidad Firma de aceptación del proyecto educativo Firma de aceptación del reglamento de disciplina Certificado de nacimiento
Alumnos con prioridad de ingreso al establecimiento	Hermano(a) en el establecimiento Apoderado(a) es ex alumno(a) Condición de vulnerabilidad socio-económica

Características de formación del establecimiento

Énfasis del proyecto educativo:	Desarrollo integral Enfoque inclusivo Convivencia
Orientación religiosa:	Laica
Programa de formación en:	Programa de orientación Convivencia escolar

Apoyo al aprendizaje:	Prevención de drogas y alcohol Educación de la sexualidad Promoción de la vida sana Reforzamiento en materias específicas Psicopedagogo(a) Psicólogo(a) Orientador(a) Profesor(a) de educación especial / diferencial Asistente Social Fonoaudiólogo
Educación especial:	Visual Intelectual Trastornos motores Trastornos del espectro Autista Trastornos de comunicación y relación con el medio Dificultad Específica del Aprendizaje Trastorno Específico del Lenguaje Rango Límitrofe
Encargado de Convivencia Escolar:	Nombre: Janeth Adriana Frau Ortega Correo electrónico: jfrau@hotmail.com Teléfono móvil: 74241061 Teléfono: 22-25252715

Oportunidades educativas

Idiomas:	Educación Preescolar y Básica - Inglés : Nivel básico Educación Media - Inglés : Nivel básico
Infraestructura educativa:	Biblioteca Laboratorio de ciencias Sala de computación con internet Tecnología en el aula (proyector, computador, telón) Cancha de deportes
Conexión a internet:	Tipo de Conexión: Fibra Óptica Velocidad de Conexión: Entre 20481 y 30720
Incorporación de tecnología educativa	
Deportes:	Fútbol Baby Fútbol Vóleibol Tenis de mesa Ajedrez
Actividades extraprogramáticas para alumnos:	Taller de teatro-actuación Taller de música Aereóbica damas

Participación de padres, apoderados y alumnos

Programa y actividades para padres y apoderados:	Actividades de integración, recreación y esparcimiento Actividades de desarrollo y perfeccionamiento para los padres (taller de baile, taller de música, taller de deporte, etc.)
Medios de comunicación y de participación:	Reuniones Informativas Generales Reuniones periódicas individuales
Centro de padres:	Nombre: Correo electrónico:
Centro de alumnos:	Nombre: Camilo Antonio Muñoz Marquéz Correo electrónico: liceoportal@cisterna.cl Teléfono móvil:

Resultados SIMCE

Resultado 2° básico			
Prueba SIMCE	Puntaje Año 2012	Tendencia respecto al año anterior	Comparación Nivel Socioeconómico (NSE)
Comprensión de Lectura	8	No aplica, primer año de evaluación	Resultado menor que el de establecimientos similares

Resultado 4° básico					
Prueba SIMCE	Puntaje Año 2010	Puntaje Año 2011	Puntaje Año 2012	Tendencia respecto resultado del año anterior	Comparación Nivel Socioeconómico (NSE)
Comprensión de Lectura	242	238	280	Más alto que sus resultados en las últimas evaluaciones	Resultados más alto que el de establecimientos similares
Matemática	216	246	287	Más alto que sus resultados en las últimas evaluaciones	Resultados más alto que el de establecimientos similares
Historia y Geografía y Ciencias Sociales	219	No existe resultado en dicha medición	271	Más alto que sus resultados en las últimas evaluaciones	Resultados más alto que el de establecimientos similares
Ciencias Naturales	No existe resultado en dicha medición	230	No existe resultado en dicha medición	No existe resultado en dicha medición	No existe resultado en dicha medición

Resultado 8° básico					
Prueba SIMCE	Puntaje Año 2007	Puntaje Año 2009	Puntaje Año 2011	Tendencia respecto resultado del año anterior	Comparación Nivel Socioeconómico (NSE)
Comprensión de Lectura	241	210	208	Similar que sus resultados en las últimas evaluaciones	Resultado menor que el de establecimientos similares
Matemática	234	223	221	Similar que sus resultados en las últimas evaluaciones	Resultado menor que el de establecimientos similares
Historia y Geografía y Ciencias Sociales	233	214	227	Similar que sus resultados en las últimas evaluaciones	Resultado menor que el de establecimientos similares
Ciencias Naturales	242	215	222	Similar que sus resultados en las últimas evaluaciones	Resultado menor que el de establecimientos similares

Resultado 2° medio					
Prueba SIMCE	Puntaje Año 2008	Puntaje Año 2010	Puntaje Año 2012	Tendencia respecto resultado del año anterior	Comparación Nivel Socioeconómico (NSE)
Comprensión de Lectura	234	243	196	Menor que sus resultados en las últimas evaluaciones	Resultado menor que el de establecimientos similares
Matemática	201	217	212	Similar que sus resultados en las últimas evaluaciones	Resultado menor que el de establecimientos similares

Resultado 3° medio				
Prueba SIMCE	Puntaje Año 2010	Puntaje Año 2012	Certificación	Comparación Nivel Socioeconómico (NSE)
Inglés	37	87	0 % de los alumnos del establecimiento obtienen certificación	Resultado menor que el de establecimientos similares

Tasa de alumnos por computador	9.89
Horas de uso semanal del laboratorio para clases	0
Subíndice de Infraestructura	71.02
Subíndice de Gestión Informática	78.63
Subíndice de Uso	13,67

Resultados PSU

	2011	2012	2013
Promedio PSU en lenguaje y matemática en las últimas 3 evaluaciones	408	472	447
Porcentaje de alumnos que rindieron PSU en las últimas 3 evaluaciones	34%	85%	68%
De los 2.945 establecimientos de educación media que rindieron la PSU, este establecimiento ocupa el lugar	2327	2312	1660

Indicadores de Desempeño Docente

Evaluación docente

Nivel	Cantidad de Profesores	%
Insatisfactorio	0	0
Básico	8	32
Competente	8	32
Destacado	1	4
Total	17	100

Número de Docentes con Asignación de Excelencia Pedagógica (AEP)

Año	Cantidad	% respecto al total de profesores del establecimiento
2012	2	-
2011	1	-

Sistema Nacional de Evaluación de Desempeño (SNED)

Año	Descripción
2007	No recibe subvención por desempeño de excelencia
2009	No recibe subvención por desempeño de excelencia
2011	No recibe subvención por desempeño de excelencia

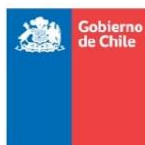
Listado de Docentes

Nº	Nombres	Apellido Paterno	Apellido Materno
1	ACHARYA DEVA	DÍAZ	PAINÉN
2	JANETH ADRIANA	FRAU	ORTEGA
3	JUAN CLAUDIO	GONZÁLEZ	POBLETE
4	IRIS DEL CARMEN	GONZÁLEZ	REYES
5	CRISTIAN PATRICIO	GUTIÉRREZ	SAN MARTÍN
6	RUTH DEL CARMEN	LAGOS	CID
7	PAULA ANDREA	LÓPEZ	SOTO
8	ABELARDO VALENTÍN	MONTENEGRO	MERCADO
9	ENRIQUETA GRICELDA	MORA	RAMÍREZ
10	KATHERINE CAROLINA	MUÑOZ	VARGAS
11	BRUNILDA RAQUEL	PEÑA	RIVEROS
12	MACARENA IGNACIA	SANHUEZA	VÉLIZ
13	MARIELA LUISA	SANZANA	FERNÁNDEZ

Listado de Docentes			
Nº	Nombres	Apellido Paterno	Apellido Materno
14	CAROLINA ELVIRA	SEPÚLVEDA	VALDÉS
15	JOSÉ MIGUEL	SOTO	POZO
16	LUIS ANTONIO	VALENZUELA	BECERRA
17	DANIELA NAYIBE	VARGAS	TIZNADO
18	DAGOBERTO ANTONIO	VÁSQUEZ	MATURANA

Reconstrucción terremoto 2010				
Estado de participación	Plan	Aporte Mineduc (\$)	Estado Obras	Fecha Finalización
Establecimientos atendido con fondos Mineduc	Plan de Reparaciones Menores Etapa 1	79.198.502	Obras terminadas	-
Establecimientos atendido con fondos Mineduc	Plan de Reparaciones Menores Etapa 3	33.615.039	Obras terminadas	-

Appendix B: Waldorf School Data Sheet



Colegio Waldorf De Santiago

Dirección	Los Tres Antonios 402
Comuna	Ñuñoa
Teléfono	22259396
E-mail contacto	colegio.waldorf@yahoo.com
Página web	
Director(a)	Albert Ernst Becks Beltramín
Sostenedor	-

Información institucional

RBD	31258
Reconocimiento Oficial	Según Resolución Exenta 9091 De Fecha 05/09/2011
Dependencia	Particular No Subvencionado
Nivel de enseñanza	Enseñanza Media Humanista-Científica niños y jóvenes
Matrícula total alumnos	70
Promedio alumnos por curso	17

Información de costos

Pago matrícula	Más de \$100.000
Pago mensual por alumno	Más de \$100.000
Número de becas disponibles	0
Establecimiento con convenio de subvención escolar preferencial	NO

Proceso de postulación

Curso de ingreso principal	1º Medio
Número de vacantes para el curso de ingreso principal	22
Inicio de proceso de postulación	1 - Marzo
Cierre de proceso de postulación	24 - Septiembre
Requisitos para postular al primer curso de ingreso al establecimiento	Cumplir con edad estipulada Certificado de notas del año anterior Informe de personalidad Firma de aceptación del proyecto educativo Firma de aceptación del reglamento de disciplina Entrevista con los padres Certificado de nacimiento

Alumnos con prioridad de ingreso al establecimiento

Características de formación del establecimiento

Énfasis del proyecto educativo:	Desarrollo integral
Orientación religiosa:	Laica
Programa de formación en:	Convivencia escolar Prevención de drogas y alcohol Cuidado del Medio Ambiente Promoción de la vida sana Actividades de acción social

Apoyo al aprendizaje: Reforzamiento en materias específicas
Psicólogo(a)

Educación especial: ---

Encargado de Convivencia Escolar: Nombre: Catalina Alviña
Correo electrónico: catalina.alvina@gmail.com
Teléfono móvil: 84795194
Teléfono: 02-22259396

Oportunidades educativas

Idiomas: Sin información
Educación Media - Inglés : Nivel intermedio

Infraestructura educativa: Biblioteca
Laboratorio de ciencias
Sala de usos múltiples
Cancha de deportes
Artes

Conexión a internet: Tipo de Conexión: Adsl/Coaxial
Velocidad de Conexión: Entre 15361 y 30720

Incorporación de tecnología educativa

Deportes: Baby Fútbol
Vóleibol
Básquetbol
Gimnasia artística-rítmica
circo

Actividades extraprogramáticas para alumnos: Taller de teatro-actuación
Taller de manualidades
Taller de música
Taller de artes plásticas

Participación de padres, apoderados y alumnos

Programa y actividades para padres y apoderados: Actividades de desarrollo y perfeccionamiento para los padres (taller de baile, taller de música, taller de deporte, etc.)

Medios de comunicación y de participación: Página web / redes sociales
Consejo escolar
Reuniones Informativas Generales
Reuniones periódicas individuales
comunicación telefónica

Centro de padres: Sin información
Nombre:
Correo electrónico:

Centro de alumnos: Sin información
Teléfono móvil:

Resultados SIMCE

Resultado 2º medio					
Prueba SIMCE	Puntaje Año 2008	Puntaje Año 2010	Puntaje Año 2012	Tendencia respecto resultado del año anterior	Comparación Nivel Socioeconómico (NSE)
Comprensión de Lectura	No existe resultado en dicha medición	No existe resultado en dicha medición	258	∅	Resultado menor que el de establecimientos similares

Resultado 2º medio					
Matemática	No existe resultado en dicha medición	No existe resultado en dicha medición	250	∅	Resultado menor que el de establecimientos similares

Resultado 3º medio				
Prueba SIMCE	Puntaje Año 2010	Puntaje Año 2012	Certificación	Comparación Nivel Socioeconómico (NSE)
Inglés	59	No existe resultado en dicha medición	0,364 % de los alumnos del establecimiento obtienen certificación	Resultado similar que el de establecimientos similares

Resultados Censo Digital 2012

Total de PC para los alumnos	Sin información
Tasa de alumnos por computador	0
Horas de uso semanal del laboratorio para clases	0
Subíndice de Infraestructura	0
Subíndice de Gestión Informática	0
Subíndice de Uso	0

Resultados PSU

	2011	2012	2013
Promedio PSU en lenguaje y matemática en las últimas 3 evaluaciones	0	530	512
Porcentaje de alumnos que rindieron PSU en las últimas 3 evaluaciones	0%	69%	71%
De los 2.945 establecimientos de educación media que rindieron la PSU, este establecimiento ocupa el lugar	0	1053	928

Indicadores de Desempeño Docente

Evaluación docente

Nivel	Cantidad de Profesores	%
Insatisfactorio	0	0
Básico	0	0
Competente	0	0
Destacado	0	0
Total	0	100

Número de Docentes con Asignación de Excelencia Pedagógica (AEP)

Año	Cantidad	% respecto al total de profesores del establecimiento
2011	0	-

Sistema Nacional de Evaluación de Desempeño (SNED)

Año	Descripción
-----	-------------

Listado de Docentes

Nº	Nombres	Apellido Paterno	Apellido Materno
1	VIVIANA ANDREA	BASOALTO	FLORES
2	ALBERT ERNST	BECKS	BELTRAMÍN

Listado de Docentes			
Nº	Nombres	Apellido Paterno	Apellido Materno
3	ALEX SEBASTIÁN	CARREÑO	DOÑAS
4	JOSÉ ADOLFO	LÉNIZ	SQUELLA
5	VALERIA SOLEDAD	LODEIRO	ENCINA
6	ESTHER MARÍA	MENESES	FUENTESECA
7	ÁLVARO DOMINGO	ORTEGA	VERA
8	MARÍA ELISA	PÉREZ	MORALES
9	ESTEFANY CAROLINA DEL ROSARIO	RUIZ	ASTORGA
10	CHERIE CAROLINA	VELOSO	RAMÍREZ

Appendix C: TMMS-24 test

Fernández-Berrocal, P., & Extremera, N. (2005). La inteligencia emocional y la educación de las emociones desde el modelo de Mayer y Salovey. [Emotional intelligence and emotional education from Mayer and Salovey's model] *Revista Interuniversitaria de Formación del Profesorado*, 19(3), 63-93.

TMMS-24

“Role of emotions in the classroom”

Valentina Flores - María Isabel Vega - Matías del Valle
Licenciatura en Educación con mención en Inglés y Pedagogía en Inglés
Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación

Datos Personales:

Código: _____

Edad: _____ Género: _____

Asignatura: _____

Tiempo trabajando como profesor/a: _____

TMMS-24. INSTRUCCIONES: A continuación encontrará algunas afirmaciones sobre sus emociones y sentimientos. Lea atentamente cada frase e indique por favor el grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con respecto a las mismas. Señale con una "X" la respuesta que más se aproxime a sus preferencias. No hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas, ni buenas o malas. No emplee mucho tiempo en cada respuesta.

1	2	3	4	5
Nada de Acuerdo	Algo de Acuerdo	Bastante de Acuerdo	Muy de Acuerdo	Totalmente de Acuerdo

	1	2	3	4	5
1 Presto mucha atención a los sentimientos.					
2 Normalmente me preocupo mucho por lo que siento.					
3 Normalmente dedico tiempo a pensar en mis emociones.					
4 Pienso que merece la pena prestar atención a mis emociones y estado de ánimo					
5 Dejo que mis sentimientos afecten a mis pensamientos.					
6 Pienso en mi estado de ánimo constantemente.					
7 A menudo pienso en mis sentimientos.					
8 Presto mucha atención a cómo me siento.					
9 Tengo claros mis sentimientos.					
10 Frecuentemente puedo definir mis sentimientos.					
11 Casi siempre sé cómo me siento.					
12 Normalmente conozco mis sentimientos sobre las personas.					
13 A menudo me doy cuenta de mis sentimientos en diferentes situaciones.					
14 Siempre puedo decir cómo me siento.					
15 A veces puedo decir cuáles son mis emociones.					
16 Puedo llegar a comprender mis sentimientos.					
17 Aunque a veces me siento triste, suelo tener una visión optimista.					
18 Aunque me sienta mal, procuro pensar en cosas agradables.					
19 Cuando estoy triste, pienso en todos los placeres de la vida.					
20 Intento tener pensamientos positivos aunque me sienta mal.					
21 Si doy demasiadas vueltas a las cosas, complicándolas, trato de calmarme.					
22 Me preocupo por tener un buen estado de ánimo.					
23 Tengo mucha energía cuando me siento feliz.					
24 Cuando estoy enfadado intento cambiar mi estado de ánimo.					

Appendix D: Validation instrument



UNIVERSIDAD METROPOLITANA DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN
FACULTAD DE HISTORIA, GEOGRAFÍA Y LETRAS
DEPARTAMENTO DE INGLÉS

VALIDEZ DE CONTENIDO DEL INSTRUMENTO PERTENECIENTE A LA
INVESTIGACIÓN TITULADA:

**Competencias Socio-emocionales de profesores de un Colegio Público y un Colegio
Waldorf.**

REALIZADO POR:

Valentina Flores Seguel

María Isabel Vega Alarcón

FACILITADOR:

Leandro Silva Bravo

Santiago, Noviembre 2019

Estimada/o

Presente

Nos dirigimos a usted, con el objetivo de solicitar su colaboración, como experto en el área de investigación, con el propósito de que pueda revisar, evaluar y validar la concordancia de cada una de las variables presentes en el instrumento que será implementado para llevar a cabo nuestro seminario titulado **“Competencias Socio-emocionales de Profesores de un Colegio Público y un Colegio Waldorf”**.

Su valiosa ayuda será fundamental para la obtención de nuestro título de Pedagogía en inglés de la Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación.

Apreciamos y agradecemos profundamente su colaboración. Se despiden atentamente,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Valentina Flores Seguel". The signature is written in a cursive style with some overlapping letters.

Valentina Paz Flores Seguel

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Maria Isabel Vega Alarcón". The signature is written in a cursive style with some overlapping letters.

Maria Isabel Vega Alarcón

D) Objetivos

1. **Objetivo general:** Analizar el nivel de desarrollo de competencias socio-emocionales en una muestra de profesores que trabajan en un colegio público y un colegio privado Waldorf mediante la implementación del test TMMS-24.

1.1 **Objetivo específico:** Determinar el nivel de desarrollo de competencias socio-emocionales en una muestra de profesores que trabajan en dos escuelas mediante la implementación del test TMMS-24.

1.2 **Objetivo específico:** Analizar los resultados obtenidos en el test usando criterios psicosociales.

1.3 **Objetivo específico:** Comparar a los participantes usando criterios psicosociales y pedagógicos.

Validador A:

I) Instrumento de validación

1. Pertinencia de las preguntas demográficas con los objetivos:

Suficiente: X Medianamente suficiente: ___ Insuficiente: ___

Observaciones:

2. Pertinencia de la escala Likert con los objetivos:

Suficiente: X Medianamente suficiente: ___ Insuficiente: ___

Observaciones:

3. Pertinencia de las preguntas con la(s) variable(s):

Suficiente: X Medianamente suficiente: ___ Insuficiente: ___

-

Observaciones:

Se aprueba el instrumento sin observaciones.

Nombre completo: Maria Eugenia Hernández Vásquez

C.I: 7.997.709-8



Firma:

Validador B:

I) Instrumento de validación

1. Pertinencia de las preguntas demográficas con los objetivos:
Suficiente: Medianamente suficiente: Insuficiente:

Observaciones:

2. Pertinencia de la escala Likert con los objetivos:
Suficiente: Medianamente suficiente: Insuficiente:

Observaciones:

3. Pertinencia de las preguntas con la(s) variable(s):
Suficiente: Medianamente suficiente: Insuficiente:

Observaciones:

Nombre completo: Lery Verónica Mejías García

C.I.: 10.380.590-2



Appendix E: DEM permission letter



Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación
Facultad de Historia, Geografía y Letras
Departamento de Inglés

Santiago, 23 de Septiembre, 2019

Señora

Irene Montaña
Departamento Educación Municipal (DEM)

PRESENTE

Somos estudiantes de quinto año de la carrera de Licenciatura en Educación con mención en Inglés y Pedagogía en Inglés, provenientes de la Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación. Actualmente nos encontramos desarrollando nuestra Memoria de Título que lleva por nombre “The role of emotions in the classroom”, (El rol de las emociones en la sala de clases). Este proyecto tiene como finalidad analizar las perspectivas de un grupo de docentes respecto al rol y abordaje de la emocionalidad dentro del aula en un grupo de docentes de educación media trabajando en colegios públicos de enseñanza media en Santiago de Chile.


Por medio de la presente, y para fines del desarrollo de nuestra memoria de título, es que solicitamos a usted el permiso correspondiente para realizar una entrevista a los docentes; aplicando nuestros instrumentos de evaluación (Test TMMS-24), el que fue debidamente revisado con nuestro tutor de memoria de la UMCE con antelación a ser empleado en el aula.

Agradecemos de antemano su tiempo y colaboración.

Saludan atentamente,



Valentina Flores, M^a Isabel Vega, Matías del Valle
“El rol de las emociones en la sala de clases”
Licenciatura en Educación con mención en Inglés y Pedagogía en Inglés

Appendix F: DEM permission approval


I Municipalidad La Cisterna
DEPARTAMENTO DE EDUCACIÓN

La Cisterna, septiembre 24 del 2019

AUTORIZACION



IRENE MONTAÑO ESPINOZA, Jefe (S) Departamento de Educación de la
Municipalidad de la Cisterna autoriza a:

MATIAS FELIPE DEL VALLE ULLOA	Rut. 19.228.687-5
VALENTINA PAZ FLORES SEGUEL	Rut. 19.361.300-4
MARIA ISABEL VEGA ALARCÓN	Rut. 18.189.557-8

Estudiante de quinto año de la Carrera de Licenciatura en Educación con Mención en Inglés y Pedagogía en Inglés de la Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación, el alumno se encuentra desarrollando su Memoria de Título y tiene como finalidad analizar las perspectivas de un grupo de docentes de la emocionalidad dentro del aula por lo que requiere ingresar a los establecimientos educacionales, precedentemente no debe alterar el normal desarrollo de las actividades, de igual manera es importante señalar, que será potestad del Director(a) autorizar el ingreso.

Appendix G: Information and consent form



UNIVERSIDAD METROPOLITANA
DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN

VICERRECTORÍA ACADÉMICA
DIRECCIÓN DE INVESTIGACIÓN

CONSENTIMIENTO INFORMADO PARA PROFESORES Test TMMS-24

Usted ha sido invitado(a) a participar en el estudio "Role of Emotions in the Classroom (Rol de las emociones en la sala de clases)", a cargo de los investigadores Valentina Paz Flores Seguel, María Isabel Vega Alarcón y Matías Felipe Del Valle Ulloa, estudiantes de la Universidad Metropolitana de Ciencias de la Educación.

El objetivo principal de este trabajo es analizar las perspectivas respecto al rol y abordaje de la emocionalidad dentro del aula en un grupo de docentes trabajando en colegios públicos de enseñanza media en Santiago de Chile.

Si acepta participar en este estudio requerirá responder el test *Trait Meta-Mood Scale (Escala Rasgo de Metaconocimientos sobre Estados Emocionales) TMMS-24* que tiene por objetivo evaluar el metaconocimiento de los estados emocionales mediante 24 ítems. Esta actividad se efectuará de manera personal y el tiempo estipulado para su aplicación es de veinte minutos aproximadamente.

Su participación es totalmente voluntaria y podrá abandonar la investigación sin necesidad de dar ningún tipo de explicación o excusas y sin que ello signifique algún perjuicio o consecuencia para usted.

La totalidad de la información obtenida será de carácter confidencial, para lo cual los informantes serán identificados con código, sin que la identidad de los participantes sea requerida o escrita en el test a responder.

Los datos recogidos serán analizados en el marco de la presente investigación, su presentación y difusión científica será efectuada de manera que los usuarios no puedan ser individualizados. Sus datos estarán protegidos y resguardados bajo la custodia de los investigadores, de manera que solo ellos puedan acceder a la información. Los investigadores guardarán los datos personales relacionados por 5 años una vez terminada la investigación, posterior se destruirá.

Su participación en este estudio no le reportará beneficios personales, no obstante, los resultados del trabajo constituirán un aporte al conocimiento en torno a la importancia de la emocionalidad en la educación de nuestro país.

Si tiene consultas respecto de esta investigación, puede contactarse con la investigadora María Isabel Vega al teléfono +56999987316 o a su correo electrónico m_isabel.vega2015@umce.cl

Para cualquier duda que se presente o si se vulneran sus derechos puede contactarse con el Dr. Claudio Martínez Presidente del Comité de Ética de la Universidad de Santiago de Chile, CEI-USACH, al teléfono 2-2-7180293 o al correo electrónico comitedeetica@usach.cl. También puede solicitar más información sobre la ética del proyecto con la Dra. Beatriz Figueroa, representante del Comité UMCE en el teléfono 22-322-9193 y en el correo electrónico evaluacion.etica@umce.cl

Por medio del presente documento declaro haber sido informado de lo antes indicado, y estar en conocimiento del objetivo del estudio.

Manifiesto mi interés de participar en este estudio y declaro que he recibido un duplicado firmado de este documento que reitera este hecho.

Acepto participar en el presente estudio:

Nombre: _____

Firma: _____

Fecha: _____ / _____ / _____
 Ciudad Día Mes Año

Nombre y Firma Investigador (a) Principal

