

**Emotional Intelligence among teachers and future  
teachers in a sample of Spanish educators**

Marta Valle Romeu

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Department of Education

University of Jyväskylä

## **ABSTRACT**

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Emotional Intelligence (EI), defined by Salovey and Mayer (1990, p. 189) as “the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately, and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behaviour”, would appear to be necessary for those who work with and educate children, adolescents, and, ultimately, individuals who are still developing their cognitive abilities and personal traits.

This quantitative study investigated emotional intelligence using the answers to a self-report Emotional Intelligence questionnaire developed by Petrides (2009). The questionnaire yielded scores on four different constructs of Emotional Intelligence as well as an overall score. A sample of 77 Spanish educators, 42 of whom were future teachers and 35 experienced teachers, participated in the research.

The analysis indicated that the levels of Emotional Intelligence (EI) of the sample of educators were relatively high. It also showed a little, but statistically significant difference between the levels of Emotional Intelligence of teachers and future teachers, being the means always higher for teachers. The analysis showed no statistically significant difference in gender or teachers' experience. It was also observed that participants' high scores in some factors of the test were correlated to high results in other factors.

Overall, the results reveal that the levels of EI of the sample who participated in the study are relatively high, but the differences between experienced and future teachers were small. Future research could aim at develop programs targeted at developing the emotional intelligence of teachers in Spain.

Keywords: emotional intelligence; teachers; Spanish educators

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# 1 INTRODUCTION

The concept of Emotional Intelligence (EI), understood as the “ability to recognize and label emotions in others and self, to monitor one's and other people's emotions, and to use that emotional information to guide thinking and behaviour” (Mayer & Salovey, 1990, p. 189), falls within an emerging field gaining popularity speedily. Nowadays, most professionals agree on the importance of learning and mastering emotional skills, in addition to the development of academic skills, for the comprehensive training of the student. Yet there are very few educational institutions in which the learning of emotional competences is regarded as essential (Parker et al., 2016) or included in the curriculum. Teachers, may be due to the extensive duties they are entrusted with, barely have the time to pay attention to the cognitive development of the students, blinded by the need, urgency and pressure to have the best learning results and climb up in rankings (Lam & Hui, 2010).

There are some pioneering studies that have been implemented in certain schools (Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006; Herrera Torres et al., 2017; Parker et al., 2016; Poropat, 2013) but the area still has to go a long way to incorporate emotional intelligence (EI) learning in the school curriculum. In fact, Fernández-Berrocal & Ruiza Aranda (2008b) already raised alarm on the very few socio-emotional programs implemented in Spain designed to promote the emotional intelligence of teachers and teaching practice and, therefore, indirectly that of the students.

The importance of investigating this phenomenon is reinforced by the fact that today's most significant outcome of education is assumed to be educators' ability to educate their pupils for society and real life, rather than mere academic success. Del Rosal Sánchez et al. (2016) commented that identifying the emotional competencies of active teachers and those who will join the profession will allow the community to work on those skills. Thus, this study aims at exploring the emotional intelligence of a sample of Spanish educators and discover if both future teachers and those who have been teaching for long time are indeed

masters in the art of control their emotions and dealing appropriately with those of others. Additionally, whether gender or years of teaching experience vary the level of emotional intelligence. Finally, it is also the objective of this research to find if correlations exist between the four different factors (Sociability, Well-Being, Emotionality and Self-Control) that make up for the total level of Emotional Intelligence. The outcomes of this investigation could shed light into various elements that would be interesting to consider for future endeavours. For instance, do future teachers graduate with high emotional intelligence competences, or on the contrary, it is experience in teaching what gives those competences to teachers?

The emotional intelligence theory and research (Billings et al., 2014; (Brouzos et al., 2014; Cabello et al., 2009; Valente et al., 2018) leads us to expect that having high emotional intelligence is associated with high quality of teaching performance. Multiple studies (Barchard, 2003; Ciarrochi & Mayer, 2007; Valente et al., 2018) have looked into the impact of Emotional Intelligence in education and teachers' abilities to operate in an emotionally rich setting where feelings and emotions are deemed important. There are, however, few studies focusing on future teachers' emotional intelligence (Corcoran & Tormey, 2013; del Rosal Sánchez et al., 2016; Karaman ÖZlü et al., 2016) or in the different levels of teachers and future teachers (Cabello et al., 2009; Kostić-Bobanović, 2020).

As there is little research on that, it is intriguing and the goal of this study, to discover whether future and those who are already teachers possess such qualities. The purpose of the research lies in discovering if future teachers graduate with high emotional intelligence competences, or if, on the contrary, it is experience in teaching what gives those competences to teachers. Or if teachers, both future and active, have at all those emotional capabilities. Additionally, whether gender or years of teaching experience vary the level of emotional intelligence.

## 2 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE (EI)

The concept of Emotional Intelligence has received numerous definitions throughout the years and by many authors. However, there is still a huge lack of consensus on what emotional intelligence is, what abilities does it cover and which ones are left behind. Various authors and approaches (Bar-On, 1997a,b; Fernandez et al., 2012; Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1997; Schutte et al., 1998; Petrides & Furnham, 2000) have attempted to give a definition of the concept. In this chapter I will focus on presenting two of the most influential, employed and accepted definitions – Trait and Ability EI.

Before moving on, I would like to note that is important to keep in mind that Emotional intelligence is not just a theoretical static concept for which there is one specific definition. It is something that each individual may or may not possess and that differs across each person. It is a construct that can provide a reference for the most beneficial or appropriate conduct in certain scenarios in order to maximize benefit, but it is far from comprehensive, as a mathematical calculation can be, and so is not superior or better than other behaviours. Thousands of elements impact and converge on people's emotions, decisions, and reasons for acting in certain ways. The idea that there is some perfect emotional intelligent person who can flawlessly answer EI tests and whom all educators, employees and leaders ought to endeavour to copy is nothing more than a myth. Feelings are known to misshape human judgment and choice-making (Shafir & LeBoeuf, 2002), they are instinctive, automatic, with low logical sense, as opposed to more deliberately systematic reasoning but maybe more emotionally intelligent (Petrides, 2013).

### 2.1 Main approaches to Emotional Intelligence

John Mayer together with Peter Salovey (1990) are known to be the first formulators of the theory of emotional intelligence. Influenced by Gardner's (1983) concept of multiple intelligences (visual-spatial, linguistic-verbal,

intrapersonal, logical-mathematical, musical, bodily-kinesthetic and naturalistic), the pioneer definition they gave was “the ability to monitor one's own and other people's emotions, to discriminate between different emotions and label them appropriately, and to use emotional information to guide thinking and behaviour” (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 189).

Some years later, they redefined their considering about EI and gave a more detailed explanation, publishing a four-branch model which characterized EI as the capacity to (a) precisely perceive emotions in others, (b) use emotions to accurately facilitate thought, (c) understand emotions and its implications, and (d) manage emotions in oneself and others (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

In other words, the term Emotional Intelligence (EI) is utilized to allude to the psychological procedures associated with the acknowledgment, use, comprehension, and the board of one's own and others' emotional states to tackle issues and control the conduct (Mayer & Salovey, 1990; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). From this tradition, Emotional Intelligence refers to a person's ability to reason about feelings and challenging emotional circumstances and to process emotional data so as to enhance intellectual procedures (Salovey & Brackett, 2006).

Daniel Goleman (1995) also attempted to give a definition of the concept and increased its popularity among the general public by giving one of its most complete definitions to this day, along with and a decent framework to describe it. Goleman presented his own definition of emotional intelligence comprehending (a) emotional self-awareness, (b) managing emotions, (c) harnessing emotions productively, (d) empathy, which many claim is the keystone of emotional intelligence; and finally, (e) the ability to handle relationships.

Within each of these five branches, the following characteristics and behaviour patterns are found (Goleman, 1995): (1) in emotional self-awareness, the ability to knowing one's emotions, to recognise an emotion or a feeling in the exact moment that is happening, to perceive and name own feelings and emotions, to comprehend the reasons for emotions and to perceive the distinction

between emotions and actions; (2) managing emotions includes the ability to manage the emotions after they have been recognised, a better resistance to disappointment and irritation reduction, less verbal aggressions, fights, and disturbances in the classroom context, better readiness to communicate disappointments properly, less reckless conduct, more positive emotions about one-self, school, friends, family and society as a whole and the capability of dealing adequately with pressure and less social anxiety; (3) the facet of harnessing emotions productively includes the ability to motivate oneself, to delay momentary joy in the interest of long-term goals, to be more responsible, less impulsive and show more poise, as well as the ability to concentrate on tasks and not procrastinate them; to recognize emotions in others, a.k.a., (4) empathy includes having a better understanding of others' points of view, improved compassion and empathy to others' emotions, and high listening skills; (5) on the handling relationships facet, we can find an expanded capacity to examine and understand relationships, the capacity to solve disagreements and handling conflicts, a good extent of empathy, communication of emotions and solving problems skills, extroverted attitudes and likeability.

Goleman (1995) doesn't fail to remark that people's skills in each of these categories vary. For example, some of us may be fairly excellent at dealing with our own stress but rather poor at calming someone else's.

## **2.2 Ability and Trait approaches to Emotional Intelligence**

Petrides and Furnham (2000) initially suggested a theoretical underpinning of how EI is understood: as an ability or as a trait. Researchers employ different measures in researching the phenomena whether it is considered an ability or a trait. When the measure employed to determine the Emotional Intelligence score is a test of maximal performance, the intention is to measure EI as an ability, whereas when using or a self-report questionnaire the intention is to measure trait EI. According to this method of classification, two different Emotional Intelligence constructs can be differentiated on the basis of the method of

measurement used to operationalize them: self-report (trait EI), as in personality questionnaires, or maximum performance (ability EI), as in IQ tests.

### 2.2.1 Ability EI

Ability Emotional Intelligence is the “ability to perceive and express emotion, assimilate emotion in thought, understand and reason with emotion, and regulate emotion in the self and others” (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 210). Ability EI tests measure compounds related with a person's theoretical comprehension of feelings, emotions and their functioning (O'Connor et al., 2019). The ability model assumes that the way in which people understand, perceive and cognitively process emotions varies. Therefore, high emotional intelligent people have better abilities to perceive and understand emotions in themselves and others.

Ability EI can be measured with tests that use questions comparable to those found in classic intelligence tests (Austin, 2010; O'Connor et al., 2019) that have answers that are esteemed to be right or wrong (e.g., *what emotion might someone feel prior to a job interview? (a) sadness, (b) excitement, (c) nervousness, (d) all of the above*).

A widely used measure of Ability Emotional Intelligence is the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT, 2002), the most employed test of Ability Emotional Intelligence. Other measures to test Ability Emotional Intelligence include The Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale, LEAS, (Lane et al., 1990) and the Situational Test of Emotional Understanding and Management (STEU and STEM) (MacCann & Roberts, 2008).

Each of these tests has been created by various researchers for distinct investigations and purposes. Because EI is such a broad concept with no single definition, the measures developed to evaluate it are all different, but all the following have one thing in common: they are ability tests.

The updated process-oriented model of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) takes into account cognitive development phases, Emotional Intelligence growth potential and the role of emotions in

intellectual development. The MSCEIT assesses the four-branch model of Emotional Intelligence proposed by its authors: Perceiving Emotions, Facilitating Thought, Understanding Emotions and Managing Emotions. Perceiving Emotions is defined as the capacity to efficiently perceive and recognise how oneself and others feel; Facilitating Thought is the power to build emotions that influence thinking processes; Understanding Emotions denotes the ability to comprehend the underlying causes of emotions; and finally, Managing Emotions indicates the capacity to develop successful methods that make use of emotions to achieve a certain goal.

The MSCEIT consists of eight activities and the total number of questions in the test is 141. Two objective tests are used to assess each of the four constructs and there are several answer styles. Some activities, like the image task, utilize 5-point rating scales, whilst others, like the blends task, use a multiple-choice answer. Answers to all questions can be deemed right or wrong, based on consensus or expert scoring (Salovey & Brackett, 2006), in the same manner as IQ tests do. People with greater MSCEIT scores have better social skills, more meaningful and deeper connections, and are seen to be more empathic than those with lower scores (Brackett et al., 2006).

The LEAS (Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale) is a performance-based assessment of a person's capacity to be aware of their emotions. Emotional awareness, according to the authors, is viewed as a cognitive ability that differs from person to person. Physical Sensations; Action Tendencies; Single Emotions; Blends of Emotions; and Blends of Blends of Emotions are the five levels of emotional awareness in this ability measure. The scale uses emotive personal scenarios to generate open-ended descriptions of one's own and others' emotional responses, which are then evaluated using criteria applied to the terms used in the replies.

For the STEU and STEM, MacCann and Roberts (2008) based their questionnaires on two of Mayer et al. (2000)'s four branches of emotion-related abilities: Understanding and Managing Emotions. The STEM was created to be answered with multiple-choice and rate-the-extent formats. Specifically, instead

of choosing a correct, proper choice, test takers assess the appropriateness or strength of each possibility. It consists of 44 questions divided on 3 emotions (anger, sadness and fear). On the other hand, the STEU was developed in such a way that options would be regarded as right or wrong (*e.g. a supervisor who is unpleasant to work for leaves Alfonso's work. Alfonso is most likely to feel? a) joy, b) hope, c) regret, d) relief, e) sadness*) and comprises 42 questions that assess emotions in contexts in which there are little hints concerning the meaning of the communication other than the words themselves, personal life and workplace contexts.

Problems with ability based measures include, for a start, doubts on its mere existence. MacCann et al., (2014) and Petrides (2013) have suggested that ability Emotional Intelligence is nothing more than mere intelligence. This allegation is upheld by high correlations between ability Emotional Intelligence and IQ, albeit some have given proof to the opposite (MacCann & Roberts, 2008). Secondly, most frequent measures of ability Emotional Intelligence have had moderately poor psychometric properties (Austin, 2010; O'Connor et al., 2019). Thirdly, given they test maximal abilities, these measures will not in general foresee results that they hypothetically should anticipate (O'Connor et al., 2019).

In sum, a scope of different worries has been featured, addressing on conceptual, psychometric, and empirical impediments of ability Emotional Intelligence tests. Important problems include weak predictive validities, unstable factor structures, and logical and conceptual inconsistencies (Newsome et al., 2000; O'Connor et al., 2019). The principle challenge that ability EI tests need to handle is the innate subjectivity of emotions (Watson, 2000). Not like standard IQ tests, questionnaires of ability EI cannot be impartially scored, since by far, most of feeling related areas have no obvious measures for what may establish a correct answer (O'Connor et al., 2019).

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) (Mayer et al., 2002) has been criticised for not measuring intelligence of any kind, and that it does not gauge any logical element of psychological interest (Petrides, 2013). This is the reason it is scientifically infertile to endure in the endeavours to

improve its psychometric properties and feeble nomological net; for, regardless these were to arrive at adequate standards, the resultant scores would in any case be uninterpretable due to the nature of the underlying scoring system (O'Connor et al., 2019). Other researchers, however, state that the MSCEIT seems to demonstrate appropriate discriminant validity from measures of analytic intelligence and numerous personality compounds (Barchard, 2003; Brackett & Mayer, 2003; Salovey & Brackett, 2006; O'Connor et al., 2019).

The advantages of ability based tests is their impossibility to be faked. Since answers are esteemed to be right or wrong, participants will try to choose the correct answer, but not what they would actually do or what they think, which is not the purpose of the test (O'Connor et al., 2019). Another advantage of these measures is that they are regularly more attractive tests. As opposed just agreeing or disagreeing on questions like in trait based measures, ability test-takers endeavour to tackle emotion-related issues, figure out riddles, and identify feelings in facial expressions (O'Connor et al., 2019).

In conclusion, ability based measures give considerable proof of people's capacity to understand emotions, but they will not, in general, foresee common and predictable conduct (O'Connor et al., 2019). They are legitimate, but frail, indicators of a scope of results including job satisfaction (O'Boyle et al., 2010; Romanelli, 2006) academic performance, self-esteem (Miao et al., 2017) or job performance (O'Boyle et al., 2010; O'Connor et al., 2019; Romanelli, 2006).

### **2.2.2 Trait EI**

Quoting Petrides (2013, p. 657), "trait EI is characterised as a system of self-perceptions located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies". Trait EI measures Emotional Intelligence by using self-report questionnaires that participants fill according to self-perceptions of their own emotions in different settings. Basically, Trait EI tests individuals' point of view of their own emotional capacities (Petrides, 2013). The Trait EI questionnaires, therefore, do not have wrong or right answers, but rather what the participants subjectively think it is how they feel emotions or how they would react to a specific situation, not which

would be the best way (Petrides, 2013). Trait EI questionnaires are intended to test the real emotions, feelings and reactions of a person rather than their theoretical understanding. Most self report measures used in Trait Emotional Intelligence questionnaires use a Likert scale and ask respondents in what part of the spectrum they fall on a specific statement. For example, the TEIQue-SF (Petrides, 2009), says as follows:

Answer by putting a circle around the number that best shows how much you agree or disagree with each sentence below. If you strongly disagree with a sentence, circle a number close to 1. If you strongly agree with a sentence, circle a number close to 7: (16): I often find it difficult to show my affection to those close to me"; (2) "I often find it hard to see things from someone else's point of view".

The most common measures of Trait EI include the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SREIT) (Schutte et al., 1998), the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) (Bar-On, 1997a, b) and the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) (Petrides, 2009).

The Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test, SREIT (Schutte et al., 1998), was developed based on the fourth-branch model of Salovey and Mayer (2002). On the questionnaire, test-takers answer to 33 self-report questions (e.g. "*I am aware of my emotions as I experience them*") on a 5-point Likert-scale going from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The model has been regarded as of poor quality for mixing ability and trait types of Emotional Intelligence, yet this can be said of most trait tests (O'Connor et al., 2019).

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) (Bar-On, 1997a, b) calculates abilities and the potential for execution of acts in certain moments as opposed to how the person would act in every circumstance as a whole. It was also created as a mix model of cognitive ability and personality traits. Since the creation of the first EQ-i, Bar-On and others scholars have updated the scale, consequently developing the EQ-I 2.0, used in EI research nowadays. This final version consists of 125 self-report items (e.g. "*I like helping people*") scattered in 15 facets and 5 factors (Self-perception, Interpersonal, Decision-making, Self-expression and Stress-management).

The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue) (Petrides, 2009) is, unlike other trait measures such the SREIT, only based on trait EI and therefore

considers EI as a personality trait. There are various forms developed, for adults, adolescents and children, and they all have short and long versions. The last version of the adult's full form comprises 153 self-report items (e.g. *"Understanding the needs and desires of others is not a problem for me"*) that are answered on a scale from 0 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The 153 items shed light on 15 facets and 4 factors (Well-Being, Sociability, Emotionality, and Self-control).

Disadvantages of the exposed trait based measures are confusion of ability and trait EI with the SREIT and the EQ-i. Also, individuals are not in every case great appointed authorities to rate their emotional abilities (Brackett et al., 2006; Sheldon et al., 2014; Boyatzis, 2018). Another challenge of these tests is that they are more easy to fake than ability measures. Test takers can without much difficulty appear to be high in EI by responding the questions in a socially acceptable way. Notwithstanding, this is generally just an issue when test takers doubt that somebody of significance (e.g., their boss) will know about the results. Respondents are more inclined to give an honest answer when questionnaires are filled only for research purposes, self-development or a desire to improve. (O'Connor et al., 2019).

The advantages of EI trait measures are that they have better psychometric properties in terms of reliability and validity, do not have hypothetical foundations, and they correspond moderately and meaningfully with wider variables (Newsome et al., 200; O'Connor et al., 2019). All in all, researchers agree that trait based measures are more fitting for most purposes, especially for educational ones, than ability measures (O'Connor et al., 2019).

### **2.2.3 Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form**

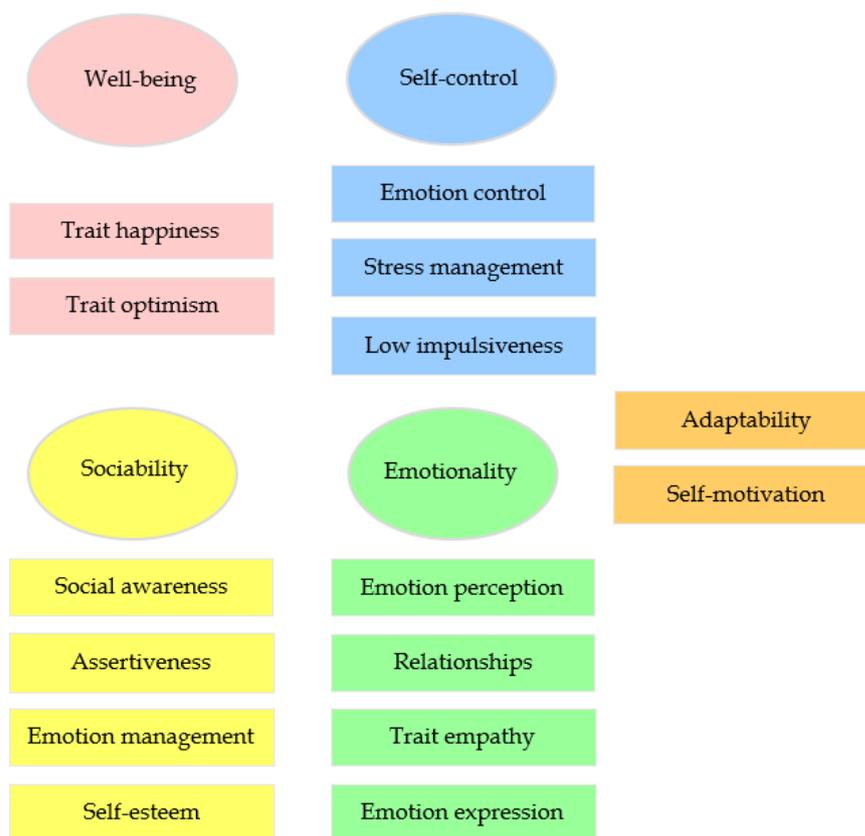
Among all the measures reviewed, the one ought to be used in this study is the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire Short Form (TEIQue-SF) by Petrides (2009). Cited in more than 2.000 articles, items and questions were created by carrying a substantia examination of all the literature already existing in

Emotional Intelligence, ready-to-use tests and previous research (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Goleman, 1995; Bar-On, 1997a, b).

The author developed this short-form questionnaire (TEIQue-SF) that contains 30 questions, giving scores on 15 facets and four factors of broader importance (Well-Being, Self-Control, Emotionality, and Sociability), as well as a global emotional intelligence score of a person's perception of their trait emotional intelligence (Figure 1). Two items from each of the 15 facets were selected from the long form questionnaire for inclusion in the short form when this was being created.

### Figure 1

*The 15 facets and 4 factors of the TEIQue-SF*



*Note.* Adaptability and Self-motivation facets contribute only to the global trait EI score without belonging to a specific factor (Petrides, 2009; Zampetakis, 2011).

Petrides (2001), present and describe the 15 facets as follows (Figure 1): (1) Emotion Expression: people with high scores on this sub-scale are good at conveying their feelings to others. They are aware of the ideal terms for correctly

and plainly conveying their feelings and emotions. A difficulty conveying emotions, even when required, is indicative of low scorers. They also find it challenging to express their feelings to others. Inability to communicate emotion may be a symptom of a larger issue of lack of personal self-esteem and social assertiveness.

(2) Empathy: this scale assesses the ability of viewing the world through the eyes of another person. In other terms, it refers to one's ability to comprehend the wishes and needs of others. High scorer respondents are skilled in discussions and negotiations because they consider and evaluate the perspectives of the people they are interacting with. They can put themselves in the shoes of someone else and understand how things look to them. People who score low have a tough time accepting other people's points of view. They are typically arrogant and may appear aggressive and Self-centred.

(3) self-motivation: people that score well in this facet are motivated by the desire to create high-quality work. They are usually tenacious, determined and stubborn. They don't need to be recognized nor rewarded for their efforts, as they have a strong desire to succeed and are able to encourage themselves. People with low scores sometimes require a great deal of motivation and encouragement to complete tasks. They require regular reinforcement to keep going and are more prone to give up when faced with difficulties. They also have lower levels of motivation and tenacity.

(4) Emotion Regulation: this scale assesses one's ability to manage one's own feelings and emotional states in the short, medium, and long term. High scorers have a good emotional control and can modify or maintain good feelings using commitment and work. They are psychologically balanced and know how to recover from emotional losses or disappointments. Low scorers are prone to emotional outbursts as well as periods of continuous anxiety or even depression. They can have a tough time dealing with their emotions and are frequently gloomy and angry.

(5) Happiness: this scale assesses positive emotional states that are primarily focused on the present instead of the past or the future. High scores are

optimistic and confident in their abilities. Low scores frequently feel down and might be too pessimistic. People that score low on this scale are typically dissatisfied with their current situation.

(6) Social Awareness: high-scoring individuals in this facet think they have great social skills and are socially aware, flexible, and observant. They are skilled in negotiating and persuading people. Furthermore, they likely have control over their emotions as well as how they show them, allowing them to work efficiently in a variety of social situations, such as gatherings or networking events. Low scores believe they have poor social skills and frequently experience anxiety in unexpected situations because they are confused about how to act. They have a narrow network of friends and find it tough to express themselves adequately.

(7) Low Impulsiveness: this scale assesses dysfunctional ('unhealthy') impulsivity instead of functional ('healthy') impulsivity. Low impulsivity comprises thinking before acting and thoroughly pondering the circumstances before making decisions. High scores on this scale examine all of the facts before making a decision, yet without being exceedingly cautious. Low scorers are impulsive and give in to their desires. They, like children, crave instant satisfaction and have poor Self-Control. They regularly talk without thinking, and they frequently change their minds.

(8) Emotion Perception: this scale assesses emotion perception in both oneself and others. Top markers in this measure are able to decipher other people's facial and corporal expressions and are straightforward about how they feel. People with poor emotion perception scores, on the other hand, are frequently uncertain about what they feel and pay little attention to the emotional cues that others present.

(9) Self-Esteem: the self-esteem facet assesses one's overall opinion of oneself. Respondents who score high have a positive idea about themselves and their successes. They are self-assured, optimistic, and pleased with most areas of their lives. Low scores have low self-esteem and do not place a high value on themselves.

(10) Assertiveness: respondents with high scores on this facet are honest and straightforward. They know how to ask for what they want, how to offer and receive compliments, and how to challenge people when required. They possess leadership abilities and are capable of standing up for their interests and views. Low scorers tend to stay back even though they know they are correct, and they find it difficult to say "no". As a result, they frequently find themselves doing things they would rather prefer not to do. In most situations, they would much rather be a part of a group than lead it.

(11) Emotion Management: this scale assesses one's perceived capacity to regulate the emotions of others. High scorers have the ability to affect the feelings of others and help people feel better. Low scorers do the opposite and have little ability to affect or influence the feelings of others. When they have to handle other people's emotional outbursts they get burdened, and prefer staying alone than socializing.

(12) Optimism: top markers in this facet are optimistic and expect good things to happen in their lives. Low scorers are cynical and see things in a negative way. They are risk-averse and less likely to be able to recognize and explore new possibilities.

(13) Relationships: this scale is mostly focused with one's close relationships. It assesses the ability of individuals to form and sustain emotional connections with people. High-scoring individuals typically have meaningful personal relationships. They are good listeners and responsive to those close to them. Low scorers have a tough time intimating with people and tend to underestimate the importance of their personal relationships. They frequently act in ways that cause harm to those close to them.

(14) Adaptability: high-scoring individuals are versatile in their work and life. They are open to and capable of adapting to new situations and circumstances – in fact, they may even love variety and changes. Low scores are reluctant to change and find it tough to adjust their career and lifestyle. They are typically rigid and have firm beliefs and points of view.

(15) Stress Management: people scoring high in this scale demonstrate fruitful coping mechanisms, which allows them to manage pressure efficiently. They are usually skilled at controlling their emotions, which helps them deal with stress. Low score participants are less prone to have developed coping methods for stress. They may choose to entirely avoid potentially stressful events rather than cope with its associated stress. Their susceptibility to stress is an issue since it causes them to reject valuable but time-consuming tasks.

These 15 facets are grouped on a smaller category made up of four factors. These are, as presented by Petrides (2001): (1) Well-Being: high scores on the Well-Being factor indicate a general sense of satisfaction which comes from previous accomplishments and extends to future prospects. Individuals with high scores are often cheerful, joyful, and pleased. Individuals with low scores, on the other hand, have poor self-esteem and are dissatisfied with their current situation.

(2) Self-Control: when scoring high, respondents have a fair amount of control over their impulses and drives. They are excellent at controlling external influences and stress in addition to resisting urges. They aren't inhibited, nor are they exceedingly open. Low scorers, on the other hand, are prone to impulsive and more irrational behaviour and appear incapable of controlling stress.

(3) Emotionality: individuals who score high on this factor consider they have a broad variety of emotion-related abilities. They have the ability to detect and express emotions, and they use these talents to form and maintain strong connections with significant others such as friends, family or partners. Individuals with low scores struggle to understand their internal emotional states and to convey their feeling to others, which frequently leads to less satisfying personal interactions.

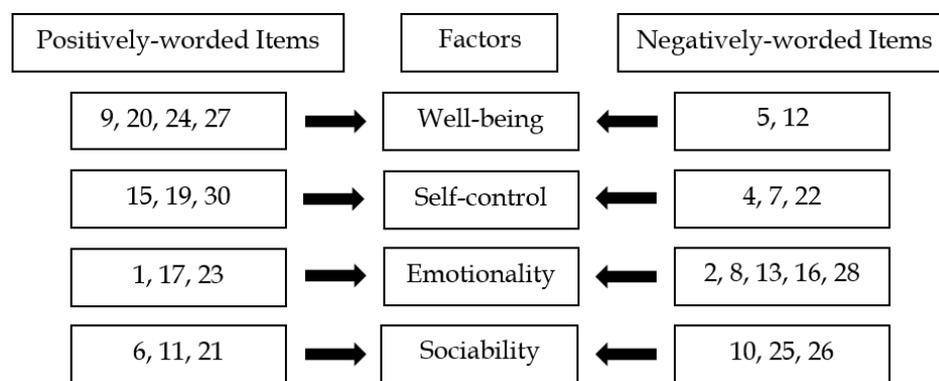
(4) Sociability: this factor is distinct from the Emotionality factor in that it places an emphasis on social interactions and influence. Rather than personal connections, the emphasis is on the individual in social situations. Individuals with high Sociability scores are great at social interaction. They feel they can speak effectively and confidently with individuals from a wide range of

backgrounds because they have strong listening abilities. Those with low scores feel they are unable to influence the emotions of others and are thus less likely to be effective negotiators or networkers. They are confused of what to do or say in social situations, thus they might look shy and introverted.

Figure 2, developed from Petrides (2009) scoring instructions illustrates how the main Trait EI questions are generated from the 15 facets, as well as how the TEIQue is scored to determine the Trait EI.

## Figure 2

*How the 15 facets are generated from the TEIQue-SF questions.*



*Note.* Items 3, 18, 14, and 29 contribute only to the global trait EI score without belonging to a specific factor (Petrides, 2009; Zampetakis, 2011).

The global EI score has in general lower inner consistencies (around .69) than the full form (Petrides, 2013). Due to its conciseness and shortness (it can be completed in 10 minutes), substantial proof of predictive validity, and great psychometric properties drawn from studies completed in different countries with large participant samples, both students and non-students, the scale offers a promising research tool for evaluating Emotional Intelligence (Austin, 2010; Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

### 3 EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN EDUCATIONAL CONTEXTS

It is important to justify that this research has some sense of being. It would be useless to analyse Emotional Intelligence if it had no impact on the lives of both teachers and students. This is the reason it is essential to accentuate that emotional intelligence benefits students, teachers and academic staff, and only then would it be legitimate to analyse whether active teachers and future educators have high levels.

Previous research has focused its attention on various viewpoints that are prevalent in studying emotional intelligence in the field of education. Emotional intelligence has been studied in relation to learning outcomes (Barchard, 2003; Billings et al., 2014; Brouzos et al., 2014; Dacre Pool & Qualter, 2012), teacher-student relationship (Battistich et al., 2000; Valente et al., 2018) and teachers' performance (Ciarrochi & Mayer, 2007; Fernández-Berrocal & Extremera, 2006; Fernández-Berrocal & Ruiz Aranda, 2008; Gibbs, 2003). In this chapter, some of these studies are going to be presented.

### **3.1 Emotional Intelligence and learning outcomes in education**

Research on the connection between trait EI and scholastic accomplishment has shed inconsistent conclusions. A few investigations have upheld the relationship, others have reported no association, while other research has indicated that the link exists only in specific trait EI dimensions but not in others or overall.

Mavroveli and Sánchez-Ruiz (2011) investigated whether the EI trait would predict pro-social and anti-social activity at school. Their findings found that high-trait EI children aged 7 to 12 years were perceived by their peers as more kind, socially confident and less hostile towards their peers than children with low-trait EI. Eastabrook et al., (2005) split a cohort of primary school children into three categories: above average, average, and below average, based on the Grade Average Scores (GPA). The above average group scored higher relative to the other two groups on an overall EI scale and two of its subscales. Likewise, Zins and Elias (2007) found that emotional learning in classroom is connected with an extent of improved academic outcomes in maths, language skills, better basic

reasoning as well as increasing critical thinking and problem solving abilities. Qualter et al., (2007) found that, compared with a group of children with lower EI ratings, high and moderate EI students received slightly higher grades at the end of the school year, and using the TEIQue-Adolescents Short Form (TEIQue-ASF) for a study of 11- to 12-year-olds, Ferrando et al. (2011) reported that not only intelligence and other variables of personality predicted academic success, but also trait emotional intelligence did. Battistich et al. (2000) conducted a research which proved that schools that had followed a program aiming to constructing warm and solid social relationships exhibited diminishes in anti-social conducts, drug consumption, alongside a lift in sociable attitudes. They moreover report increments in pupils' academic motivation, interest, and conduct.

Numerous studies have also proved that negative emotions are an obstacle in the process of both teaching and learning a myriad of subjects (Del Rosal Sánchez et al., 2016). If teachers and students relate certain subjects with negative emotions, that will impede a good performance in conveying the interestingness of the material and the eagerness to study it.

In line with what Brouzos et al. (2014) propose, advances in the social awareness and values of children regarding emotional capacities go hand in hand with changes in their capacity to control their actions in the context of their education. Similarly, progress in self-assessment judgments are often related to positive changes in school results (Brouzos et al., 2014). Several developmental research has shown that learning emotion-related abilities, including the ability to regulate impulses, empathize with the feelings of others, and use emotions successfully to solve issues, helps children deal with primary school demands and difficulties, and is correlated with greater Well-Being and improved academic performance. Deficits in the production of these competencies, on the other hand, are correlated with personal, social and academic challenges (Brouzos et al., 2014).

Opposed to the positive connections between trait EI and good academic performance reported in the research mentioned above, some other studies have

found that such relationship does not exist. One study (Hansenne & Legrand, 2012) found that trait EI did not predict academic achievement in a group of 8- to 12-year-old children. Brouzos et al. (2014) found that results were divergent in various age groups with respect to the association between trait EI and academic performance. Total EI did not correlate substantially with children's success in Maths and Greek in an 8 to 10-year-old group. And from the four subscales of the EI measure used, only Adaptability anticipated the academic success of children. Contrarily, the findings in the 11 to 13-year-old category revealed that in both school subjects, children's total scores predicted good performance. Significant positive correlations between Stress-management, Intrapersonal EI, Adaptability Skills and children's Average Score were also identified at the subscale level. The authors (Brouzos et al., 2014) mentioned that these conclusions should be interpreted in the light of some methodological weaknesses. Firstly, children's trait EI was measured using a self-report scale. Matthew et al., (2007) have protested against the use of child self-report interventions because of the necessity for children to portray themselves in a socially acceptable way. Second, children as young as 8 years of age were part of the sample for this study. These young participants' capacity to understand and correctly explain their subjective perceptions may not have been established completely, which may lead to confusing outcomes such the presented. What this study revealed was the correlations between trait EI with adaptive functioning in school, and on the other, between trait EI and academic success change as a function of age. Older students with advanced levels in these competencies seemed to be able to deal best with the demands of the school climate and succeed better in academic activities than younger students.

### **3.2 Teachers' emotional intelligence and its relation with students**

Despite the research against the relationship between both variables (Emotional Intelligence and Academic Success), it seems that most research and studies have shown that high levels of emotional intelligence – both assessed with trait or

ability methods – are linked with a great range of positive academic outcomes. The next section will present another series of studies focused on the emotional intelligence of teachers and how this contributes to that of students.

Teachers need to build up the ability to rule over their feelings and emotions, convictions, thoughts and beliefs so as to improve their teaching performance (Gibbs, 2003). It has been proved that a positive relationship with an emotional intelligent educator decreases the danger of a pupil defying his classmates and other educational staff, just as the chance of scholarly and social deficiencies (Barchard, 2003; Fallahzadeh, 2011).

Pena and Extremera (2010) concluded that enjoying emotional competencies will favour a positive and persistent motivational state in teachers, favouring what is known as engagement. For this reason, authors such as Cruz et al. (2013) and Pérez-Escoda et al. (2013), share the need to promote emotional intervention programs in the teacher training and more specifically in initial training of future teachers.

Odaci, Değerli and Bolat (2017) found that there is a significant correlation between higher levels of emotional intelligence and higher levels of counselling skills, which enabled prospector counsellors to be more successful in their counselling careers than those whose emotional intelligence levels were not as high. This study is interesting in the sense of showing that those professionals with higher levels of emotional intelligence are more successful in their counselling careers than whose levels are lower. This study would demonstrate, therefore, that those teachers who possess in themselves high emotional competences could be better at conveying emotional intelligence.

Brackett et al. (2006) worked on a socio-emotional learning project consisting of two workshops for teachers and educational staff. After the second workshop and subsequent evaluation, the teachers reported that the relationship they had with the students was more positive and that they felt more willing and relaxed sharing their emotions with them. They also demonstrated a greater ability to recognize, understand, and respond appropriately to students' emotions, as well as to promote a healthier classroom environment.

Del Rosal Sánchez et al. (2016) carried out an investigation to find if there were differences in the level of Emotional Intelligence of students of different university degrees. Specifically, first-year students from Sciences university degrees and Primary Education degrees were evaluated. Students of the Degree in Primary Education obtained the highest scores in Attention, Clarity and Emotional Repair.

Pertegal-Felices et al. (2011) defined, through the opinion of a sample of practicing teachers, the emotional and personality professional competencies of teachers. Subsequently, they evaluated the competences that a sample of final year students of a university degree in Education possessed, and compared the students' emotional profile with the opinion of the working teachers. Some of the questions asked to teachers follow as such: *"how much attention should teachers' pay to their mood, personal problems, concerns, etc.?"*, *"to what degree should they know their emotions, be able to express what they feel and communicate their needs to others?"*. Different instruments that test Emotional Intelligence were used with teachers and students. Of all the variables examined, only in the variables Attention and Extraversion no significant differences existed between the groups; while in the variables Clarity, Repair, Intrapersonal Intelligence, Interpersonal Intelligence, Adaptation, Stress Management, Mood, Emotional Stability, Openness, Kindness and Responsibility, statistically significant differences appeared between the groups; in all of them the professionals showed a higher average than the students. According to the findings of this study, there is a substantial difference between the means of students and teachers integrated in the job market, being professionals' average scores generally higher than students' abilities. The results of this research showed that those students participating in the research were not prepared for a successful job integration in terms of socio-emotional competencies: they did not have enough skills to work in a team, to manage people, to adapt to continuous changes, or to control their emotions (Pertegal-Felices et al., 2011).

## 4 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE STUDY

For all of the reasons and theoretical background stated in the preceding sections, the importance of educators enjoying great levels of emotional intelligence is crystal clear.

Concept defined in this study, in a summarized way, as various emotional capacities such as: flexibility and willingness to adapt to new circumstances, to stand up for one's rights, to be aware of one's own and other people's feelings, to be capable of communicating those feelings to others and influencing the ones of others, to be less likely to give in to urges, of having fulfilling personal relationships, to be successful and confident, driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity, to have good social skills, of withstanding pressure and regulating stress, and overall, to be cheerful and satisfied with one's own life. Of the two most common understandings of emotional intelligence (Trait and Ability EI), this study worked with the concept of Trait EI, understood as an individuals' point of view of their own emotional capacities.

The sections that follow explains the collection and analyse data procedures of the Emotional Intelligence of participants from various Spanish schools, as well as the differences in those results with students who are still in education faculties and will be incorporated in the classrooms in the following years.

### 4.1 Research questions

Despite the importance given to emotional intelligence for the development of the professional activity of teachers, there are few programs aimed at teacher training (Pertegal-Felices et al., 2011), which is why it is important to know if it is really necessary or if, on the contrary, future and active teachers already have sufficient emotional capacities in the exercise of their profession. Would this be the case; it could mean saving resources especially aimed at promoting emotional intelligence. If it is shown that teachers do not have sufficient emotional competencies, it would be a support to promote such programs.

This research is aimed, therefore, at answering the following questions:

1. What are the levels of Emotional Intelligence among a sample of Spanish educators?
2. Do the levels of Emotional Intelligence differ according to teachers and future teachers, gender or age?
3. Are the different factors (Sociability, Well-Being, Emotionality and Self-Control) of Emotional Intelligence related to each other?

## 4.2 Teacher system in Spain

This study's initial geographical context was intended to be set in Finland and Spain, but due to problems surrounding the start of the coronavirus pandemic on March 2020, the final version has only been located in Spain, namely the Autonomous Regions of Catalonia and the Canary Islands. Before diving into the methodological approach and how the data was gathered and analysed, a quick and short overview of the Spanish educational system will be presented, with a focus on what it takes to be a professor in Spain and what are the requirements to teach.

According to the Spanish *Ley Orgánica 2/2006, de 3 de mayo, de Educación*, it is required to have a university degree in Early Childhood Education or a Degree in Primary Education to work as a primary teacher in Spain. The degree consists of four academic years and comprises 240 ECTS. In case the candidate wants to work in the public sector, they must pass a competition, but that is not the case if they opt for the private sector. The competition to be a primary school teacher consists of two eliminatory tests in which to demonstrate theoretical and practical knowledge. The grade is complemented by a contest phase in which aspects such as experience, academic training and other merits are assessed.

There is no university degree as such to be a Secondary Education teacher, as there is for Early Childhood or Primary, but it is still necessary to have a bachelor's degree. This can be in Biology, Physics, Chemistry, Spanish Language and Literature, Mathematics, Geography, Philosophy or in English Studies,

among others. In short, one of the subjects taught during Compulsory Secondary Education.

Before the implementation of the Bologna Plan, to work as a secondary education teacher one had to have a Certificate of Pedagogical Aptitude (CAP). Nowadays, as it has become a regulated profession, it is necessary to have an enabling Master's Degree in Teacher Training. In order to practice, the requirements are the same as those for primary or early childhood teachers. Candidates must pass a competition to work in the public sector, but that is not the case if they opt for the private sector.

The competition to become a Secondary Education teacher comprises two parts: a first theoretical part consisting of two tests, one being questions on the general syllabus and another of written development of two topics randomly chosen; and a second part consisting of developing and presenting a didactic program on an area or theme, along a second oral presentation of a didactic unit. If all the tests are passed, it follows the competition phase, in which points are added proving merits (academics, professional experience, languages, etc.).

Aside from that, teachers must be able to master the official languages of the Autonomous Community where they will teach (Spain is divided in 19 autonomous regions and a few of them have co-official languages), in addition to showing correct pronunciation and linguistic understanding of that language.

### **4.3 Data collection**

The tests with the strongest current evidence for construct and predicative validity are the self-report/trait EI measures (TEIQue, EQ-I and SREIT). These questionnaires measure typical behaviours in emotional relevant circumstances, and so they are good predictors of what the behaviours will be like in different contexts (Petrides & Furnham, 2000).

Of all the measures reviewed, the TEIQue Short Form (TEIQue-SF) seemed to be the best option to use in this research (Appendix 3). The TEIQue-SF uses a Likert-style scale, ranging from 1 (*Completely Disagree*) to 7 (*Completely Agree*). The

latest version of the TEIQue-SF (v. 1.50) is available, free of charge for students and research purposes, from [www.psychometriclab.com](http://www.psychometriclab.com). Various studies have examined the TEIQue SF's reliability and validity in a different number of contexts and situations. The TEIQue ought to be favoured over other EI tests, as every investigation that has contrasted the TEIQue with other EI surveys has inferred it has superior predictive validity and psychometric properties (Petrides, 2013; O'Connor et al., 2016). In research from Mvududu, (2020), the TEIQue short form Cronbach's alpha score from the sample of 260 was .96. Zampetakis (2011) reliability was also high, as the Cronbach alphas ranged from .66 for the factors of Self-Control and Emotionality to .88 for the total trait EI.

Before the questionnaires were handed to the participants, a pilot test was conducted in order to receive some feedback and to test the operationality of the test. Four different pilot questionnaires were created. Two in the English version of the TEIQue-SF, and two in the Spanish version.

Since the final questionnaire for the real participants was in Spanish, I thought that it would be a great idea to test the exact same questionnaire with the same language with pilot participants who understood Spanish. However, only a couple of the respondents were acquainted with educational issues. Notwithstanding, the important part of the questionnaire are the Emotional Intelligence questions, which do not differ according to groups and should not affect the aim of the pilot test.

The official English version was handed to friends more acquainted with education and the role of Emotional Intelligence in it. 19 people participated on the pilot. On average, the questionnaire was responded in about 10 to 15 minutes. Following the comments and recommendations, small and light changes were applied to the questionnaires, and a brief description of what Emotional Intelligence is, and its role in Education was added in the final Spanish version of the questionnaires. Nothing like the wording of questions or the order was changed, since that would have altered the questionnaire created by Petrides (2009). The main point of the pilot was to point out typos and small mistakes, as well as to gather opinions on the ease or difficulty of answering the questions.

Apart from the specific questions that are part of the TEIQue-SF, other questions to understand the background of the participants were part of the test and were aimed to be responded before moving onto the Emotional Intelligence questions (Appendix 5 & 6). All of the questions included in the final version were designed to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' backgrounds. The intention behind every question was also to better evaluate the data and offer conclusions that took into consideration gender, age, educational level and background, as well as some workplace context. Additional purpose was to learn about the overall environment of the schools that participated in the research. The majority of variables were included to get a better understanding of the overall context and differences between participants, rather than for use in the analysis or the presentation of results. Analysing class sizes or the workplace and attempting to establish a relationship with EI would be outside the scope of this study. Furthermore, the sample size is insufficient to ensure that these variables have an impact on EI outcomes, and this is not the purpose of this study. Finally, the process of writing and carrying out a research project undergoes numerous ongoing changes, and while designing and distributing the questionnaire, I chose to include more variables than necessary in case there was a modification or change to be made in a research question.

On the final stages of the questionnaire preparation, the Spanish short-form of the TEIQue along the questions to better know the background of the participants were transferred to an online google forms questionnaire for the participants to answer. Two different questionnaires were prepared, one for the teachers and one for the future teachers, and answers were provided and received from February 2021 to May 2021. By responding to the TEIQue-SF, which draws its results using a Likert scale from 1 to 7, participants indicated how they perceived themselves emotionally in relation to each question of the test.

To score the TEIQue-SF, the answers, data and scores of each participant were transferred from the two different Excel sheets to the statistical program IBM SPSS 26, in just one data set that would combine both groups (teachers and

future teachers) together. Some TEIQue's variables were negatively reversed and had to be recoded. Once that was done, the score of each construct and the Global EI one were calculated using the scoring key (Appendix 6) provided by the creators of the measure (Petrides, 2009).

#### **4.4 Ethical considerations**

This study followed all legal procedures regarding data collection, possession and analysis. The permission to conduct the study was obtained from different sources. The consent from some future teacher participants was obtained from different university professors from Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona and Universitat de Barcelona that I was in contact with and uploaded the questionnaire in the Moodle of their courses and encouraged the students to answer. Permission from teachers was obtained through four different schools that had online meetings with the researcher and accepted to distribute the questionnaire among the teachers.

As the questionnaires were online, and since there was no possibility to meet the participants face-to-face, they were not provided with an individual consent form to sign. Responding to the online survey was regarded as consent. In the description of the questionnaires this statement was found: *“La participación en este estudio es voluntaria. Puede interrumpir su participación en cualquier momento. Los datos de la encuesta recopilados se anonimizarán. Los datos anonimizados se pueden publicar en publicaciones académicas. Los datos personales o identificables no se compartirán y la investigadora será la única persona con acceso a ellos. Contestando este cuestionario acepto que los datos recopilados con esta encuesta se utilizarán para el estudio.”* (Appendix 4 & 5).

A link to a privacy notice (Appendix 1) and a research notification (Appendix 2) were also part of the description and they were standing out in bold and easy to notice. Those had detailed information about the main researcher of the study, the request to participate, the voluntarily of the participation, its background and purpose, the duration, the practical implementation of the research, the legal grounds for processing of personal data for

research/archiving purposes, the protection of personal data, the prevention of identifiability and the rights of the subjects. Both documents were built based on the templates and the guidelines of the University of Jyväskylä and with the help of my thesis supervisor. The translation of these documents to Spanish was carried out by me.

The personal information of the participants was kept only for the purpose of carrying the analysis process. There was no identifiable data such as names, but only age and gender. Identification numbers were randomly assigned from 1 to 77 for each group (teachers, future teachers). There was no potential physical, emotional or psychological harm for the participants throughout the process of the study.

## **4.5 Participants**

A large sample of students in Educational Sciences of different Catalan universities were reached through their university teachers, and received the questionnaire through a link in their Moodle. The participation of teachers was obtained through the collaboration with four different schools that had online meetings with the researcher and accepted to distribute the questionnaire among the teachers. The target group were primary and secondary teachers. Finally, some last minute teacher participants were contacted using snowball sampling through the researcher acquaintances. Most of the questionnaires were completed in participants' own time, although some were completed during supervised lecture sessions.

A total of 291 people received the questionnaire, of whom 77 responded (response rate of 26.46%). 66 (85.71%) were women and 11 (14.29%) men. The participants ranged from 18 to 65 years old, with a mean age of 29.86.

Altogether 158 students received the questionnaire and 42 answered (response rate of 26.58%), of whom 35 (83.33%) were women and 7 (16.66%) were men (Table 1). Their age ranged from 18 to 35 years old, with a mean age of 21.43. All the respondents were studying the bachelors in primary education, except 1

who reported studying Childhood and Primary Education. 16.7% of them were on their first year, 49.5% on the third and 23.8% on the fourth and last year.

Altogether 133 teachers received the questionnaire and 35 answered (response rate of 26.31%). 31 (88.57%) of these participants were women and 4 (11.43%) were men. Their age ranged from 22 to 65 (Table 1), with a mean age of 39.97. All the respondents had at least an undergraduate degree, 8 of them a Master's (including 5 Master's in Teacher Training). 12 teachers held a bachelor's in Primary and Childhood Education, 14 in Primary Education, 3 in Social Education, 3 in Childhood Education and 4 in Pedagogy. Apart from those, 7 respondents had other Bachelor's or Master's not related to Education, such as a Bachelor's Degree in Physical Activity and Sports, a Bachelor's Degree in Translation and Interpretation or a Bachelor's Degree in Physics. 10 respondents had more than one University Diploma, some having a Bachelor's and a Master's and some others holding multiple bachelor's degrees (Table 1).

In their job, 13 of them were *Funcionario De Carrera*, 11 *Personal Laboral Docente*, 8 *Funcionario Docente Interino*, and 3 *Contrato Temporal*. In Spanish terms, the following are the definitions of each category: (1) *Funcionario de Carrera* includes those professionals who have obtained a permanent position in a public body and are linked to the Public Administration by a statutory relationship; (2): *Personal Laboral* are professionals who provide services to Public Administrations through an employment contract; (3) *Funcionarios Interinos* are professionals who, having approved an entrance examination competition, did not obtain a fixed position and occupy one temporarily; (4) finally, *Personal Temporal* are public employees who are appointed on a non-permanent basis.

The years of experience ranged from four months to 37 years, with a mean of 13.05. Of all the respondents, 23 worked in a Primary Public School, 1 in a Secondary Public School, 2 in a Charter Secondary School and 9 in a Charter Primary and Secondary School (Table 2). The teachers that answered the questionnaire went from teaching to 1<sup>st</sup> grade until 12<sup>th</sup>, most of them teaching more than one (Table 2). The average student cohort was from 21 to 25 students

and 51.43% of the respondents had some other role in the school apart from teaching (Table 2).

**Table 1**

*Participants' Demographics*

	Students n=42		Teachers n=35	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Gender				
Female	35	83.33	31	88.57
Male	7	16.66	4	11.43
Age				
18	5	11.90	0	0
20	15	35.71	0	0
21-25	20	47.62	6	17.14
26-30	1	2.38	4	11.43
31-35	1	2.38	4	11.43
36-40	0	0	5	14.29
41-45	0	0	4	11.43
46-55	0	0	8	22.86
56-65	0	0	4	11.43
Education				
Primary Education	41	97.62	14	40
Childhood and Primary Education	1	2.38	12	34.29
Childhood Education	0	0	3	8.57
Social Education	0	0	3	8.57
Pedagogy	0	0	4	11.43
Master in Teacher Training	0	0	5	14.29
Other Education	0	0	7	20

**Table 2**

*Teachers Background*

	Teachers n=35	
	<i>n</i>	%
Experience		
0-5	15	42.86
6-10	4	11.43
+10	16	45.71
Workplace		
Primary Public School	23	65.71

Secondary Public School	1	2.86
Charter Secondary School	2	5.71
Charter Primary and Secondary school	9	25.72
Grade		
Primary	51	
Secondary	15	
Hours of Work		
0-10	3	8.57
11-20	5	14.29
21-30	10	28.57
31-40	10	28.57
+40	7	20
Class Size		
10-15	6	18.20
16-20	7	21.20
21-25	17	51.50
26-30	3	9.10
Other job in the School		
Yes	18	51.43
No	17	48.57

## 4.6 Data analysis

A quantitative analysis of the data was conducted once the questionnaires were answered. The data was coded from the answers received in the questionnaires and the statistical program IBM SPSS 26 was used to perform the analysis.

In this study, the Cronbach Alphas for Well-Being, Self-Control, Emotionality and Sociability for both groups were .85, .74, .72 and .67, whereas the total Trait EI was of .85 (Table 3). Sociability's Alpha was a bit low (Table 3), but still satisfactory (.67).

**Table 3**

*The Cronbach alphas of the 4 factors and the Global trait EI*

Factor	Teachers	Future Teachers	Total
Well-Being	.80	.84	.85

Self-Control	.61	.74	.74
Emotionality	.76	.72	.72
Sociability	.69	.55	.67
Global	.89	.84	.85

Group differences between gender, and professional group (teachers and university students) were tested by independent sampling t-tests. The differences between teacher experiences (0 to 5 years of experience, 6 to 10 and more than 10 groups) were analysed with an ANOVA analysis. To investigate the relationships between the mean scores of each emotional intelligence factors (i.e. Self-Control and Sociability; Emotionality and Sociability; Emotionality and Well-Being; Emotionality and Self-Control; Well-Being and Self-Control; Sociability and Well-Being) the Pearson correlation was used. This was done in order to discover if those participants who would score high (or low) on a specific construct would also score high (or low) in another, and therefore to check the correlation of all constructs and the way they impact each other.

For all participants and facets, the skewness and kurtosis values for the items ranged from -1.09 to -.53 and 1.61 to -.31, respectively. According to George and Mallery (2010), for univariate normality, skewness, and kurtosis values  $\pm 2$  for both can be taken as demonstrating sufficient normality, even though the cutoff values are still debated among researchers.

## 5 RESULTS

In this section, results answering each of the research questions will be provided and explained thoroughly and meticulously. For the research questions, three different groups were created by: (1) Professional Group (teachers and future teachers); (2) gender; (3) teachers' experience. The first two groups combined teachers and future teachers' data, while the third only used the teachers' data.

## 5.1 Emotional Intelligence among teachers and future teachers

The first research question was to find out what is the level of Emotional Intelligence among a sample of Spanish educators, in order to assess and identify if the educational system makes a good job in delivering good emotional instruction.

Once each score was calculated, the Means and Standard Deviations were determined for each independent samples test. The results of the Group Statistics tell that all scores are statistically satisfactory and relevant. The Mean Global EI for university students was 4.97 ( $SD=.65$ ) and the one for teachers, a bit higher, 5.27 ( $SD=.69$ ) (Table 4). In all factors, teachers also scored a bit higher than university students (Table 4).

The higher mean scores were in the construct of Emotionality for both groups and the lower in Self-Control, again for both groups. Out of the 42 participants, the lowest score for the teachers' group was (2.5) in the constructs of Sociability and Self-Control, and the highest (7) in the construct of Well-Being. In the students' group, the lower was (1.67) in the constructs of Well-Being and Self-Control and the highest (7) in the construct of Emotionality. For the Global Trait EI, the lowest score for the teachers' group was a (3.33) and the highest a (6.5). In the future teachers group, the lower was (3.27) and the highest (5.8).

Five independent sample t-tests were conducted to determine if there was a difference in those mean scores of teachers ( $n = 35$ ) and future teachers' ( $n = 42$ ) scores on global trait EI and the four factors (i.e., Well-Being, Self-Control, Emotionality and Sociability). Before that, and because this is a parametric test, a normality test was carried to check the normal distribution. According to George and Mallery (2010), skewness and kurtosis cutoff values  $\pm 2$  for both can be taken as demonstrating sufficient univariate normality. The skewness and kurtosis values for the constructs and global TEIQue-SF can be seen in table 4.

**Table 4***Skewness and Kurtosis Values*

Factor	Skewness	Kurtosis
Well-Being	-1.09	1.61
Self-Control	-.67	.92
Emotionality	-.59	-.31
Sociability	-.53	.41
Total	-.79	.77

The teachers group had higher global EI ( $M = 5.27$ ,  $SD = 0.69$ ) than the future teachers group ( $M = 4.97$ ,  $SD = 0.65$ ) (Table 4) at the time of the survey. The difference was statistically significant ( $t(75) = 2.00$ ,  $p < .05$  ( $p = .05$ ) (Table 5). For all the other constructs, the teachers group also had slightly higher scores, but there was no significant difference ( $p > .05$ ) in Well-Being scores for teachers and future teachers ( $t(75) = 1.17$ ,  $p > .05$  ( $p = .24$ ), in Self-Control ( $t(75) = 1.65$ ,  $p > .05$  ( $p = .10$ ), Emotionality ( $t(75) = 1.30$ ,  $p > .05$  ( $p = .20$ ), or Sociability ( $t(75) = .66$ ,  $p > .05$  ( $p = .51$ ) (table 5).

**Table 5***Sample Descriptives Using t-test for Equality of Means*

Factor	Teachers		Future Teachers		t(75)	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Well-Being	5.53	.88	5.26	1.13	-1.17	.24
Self-Control	4.73	.92	4.35	1.09	-1.65	.10
Emotionality	5.73	.82	5.48	.86	-1.30	.20
Sociability	4.81	.87	4.68	.87	-.66	.51
Global	5.27	.69	4.97	.65	-2.00	.05

Table 5 shows the mean and standard deviation values for the factors and global score of the TEIQue-SF, separately by the Professional Group.

## 5.2 Emotional Intelligence among females and males

In this case, unlike the results of the Professional Group, in which teachers had higher means in all constructs, scores according to the gender differed depending on the construct.

The female group had slightly lower scores than the male group for Well-Being ( $M = 5.36$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ), ( $M = 5.55$ ,  $SD = .85$ ), and Self-Control ( $M = 4.50$ ,  $SD = 1.06$ ), ( $M = 4.65$ ,  $SD = .83$ ). On the other side, the female group's scores were a bit higher ( $M = 5.68$ ,  $SD = .76$ ) than the male's scores ( $M = 5.08$ ,  $SD = 1.15$ ) on Emotionality and Sociability ( $M = 4.76$ ,  $SD = .89$ ), ( $M = 4.65$ ,  $SD = .78$ ) (Table 6).

Out of the 42 participants, the lowest score for the female group was (1.67) in the construct of Well-Being and the highest (7) also in the construct of Well-Being. In the male group, the lower was (3.33) in the construct of Sociability and the highest (7) in the construct of Emotionality. For the Global Trait EI, the lowest score for the female group was a (3.27) and the highest a (6.5). In the male group, the lower was (4.07) and the highest (5.8).

Five more independent sample t-tests were conducted to determine if there was a difference in the mean scores of women ( $n = 66$ ) and men ( $n = 11$ ) scores on global trait EI and the four factors (i.e., Well-Being, Self-Control, Emotionality and Sociability). The difference between the two groups in Global Trait EI was not statistically significant ( $t(75) = .47$ ,  $p > .05$  ( $p = .64$ )). For all the other constructs, there wasn't either a significant difference ( $p > .05$ ) in Well-Being scores ( $t(75) = .56$ ,  $p > .05$  ( $p = .58$ )), Self-Control ( $t(75) = .46$ ,  $p > .05$  ( $p = .65$ )), Emotionality ( $t(75) = 2.23$ ,  $p > .05$  ( $p = .12$ )), or Sociability ( $t(75) = .37$ ,  $p > .05$  ( $p = .71$ )) (Table 6).

**Table 6**

*Sample Descriptives Using t-test for Equality of Means*

Factor	Female		Male		t(75)	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Well-Being	5.36	1.05	5.55	.85	-.56	.58
Self-Control	4.50	1.06	4.65	.83	-.46	.65
Emotionality	5.68	.76	5.08	1.15	2.23	.12

Sociability	4.76	.89	4.65	.78	.37	.71
Global	5.12	.70	5.02	.58	.47	.64

### 5.3 Emotional Intelligence according to teachers' experience

To test if there was any difference in the teachers group by experience, 5 one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to explore the years of experience on Emotional Intelligence score and its facets. Participants were divided into three groups according to their experience (Group1: 0 to 5 years of experience; Group2: 6 to 10 years of experience; Group3: more than 10 years of experience). There was no statistically significant difference at the  $p < .05$  level in Global Trait EI scores for the three groups:  $F(2, 32) = 1.83, p = .18$ ; in Well-Being scores:  $F(2, 32) = .84, p = .44$ ; in Self-Control scores:  $F(2, 32) = 1.86, p = .17$ ; in Emotionality scores for the three groups:  $F(2, 32) = .07, p = .94$ ; and finally, there was also no statistically significant difference at the  $p < .05$  level in Sociability scores for the three groups:  $F(2, 32) = 1.30, p = .29$ .

### 5.4 Correlations between the EI constructs

The correlations between the mean scores of each construct were investigated using Pearson's correlation coefficient. According to Cohen (1988, p.114) when  $r \geq .10$ , the correlation is small, when  $r \geq .30$  it's medium, and  $r \geq .50$  it's a large correlation. Correlation should also be statistically significant at the  $p$  level (i.e.  $p < .05$ ). Taking these parameters into account, there wasn't a statistically significant relationship between Self-Control and Sociability ( $r = .21, n = 77, p = 0.07$ ). There was a small, positive statistically significant correlation between Emotionality and Sociability ( $r = .23, n = 77, p = 0.04$ ). There was a medium, positive, statistically significant correlation between Emotionality and Well-Being ( $r = 0.31, n = 77, p = 0.01$ ). There was a medium, positive, statistically significant correlation between Emotionality and Self-Control ( $r = 0.38, n = 77, p < 0.001$ ). There was a medium, positive, statistically significant correlation between Well-Being and Self-Control ( $r = 0.44, n = 77, p < 0.001$ ). There was a

large, positive statistically significant correlation between the mean scores of Sociability and Well-Being ( $r = 0.52$ ,  $n = 77$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

There was a large, positive, statistically significant correlation between Global EI and Well-Being ( $r = .82$ ,  $n = 77$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ); a large, positive statistically significant correlation between Global EI and Self-Control ( $r = 0.68$ ,  $n = 77$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ); a large, positive statistically significant correlation between Global EI and Emotionality ( $r = .65$ ,  $n = 77$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ); and a large, positive statistically significant correlation between Global EI and Sociability ( $r = .68$ ,  $n = 77$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) (Table 7).

**Table 7**

*Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study Variables*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Well-Being	—				
2. Self-Control	.44**	—			
3. Emotionality	.31**	.38**	—		
4. Sociability	.52**	.21	.23*	—	
5. Total	.82**	.68**	.65**	.68**	—

Notes: \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$

## 6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This research examined the Emotional Intelligence of a sample of Spanish educators and the differences among those levels based on the professional group, the gender and the experience, as well as the correlation between the different factors that comprise that score.

As aforementioned, the experienced teachers mean in EI was always to some degree higher than the future teachers mean in all constructs and Global Trait EI. There was only a statistically significant difference between the two groups in the Global Trait EI, although the difference was minimal, and no statistically significant differences were found in any of the constructs.

The means in female and male groups differed a bit depending on the construct. The female group scored higher in Emotionality and Sociability, and the male group did so in Well-Being and Self-Control. The female group had a slightly higher mean in Global Trait EI than the male group, but the difference was not statistically significant, nor were the means in the other constructs.

No statistically significant difference was found either in the years of experience of the teachers. All three groups (teachers that had worked from 0 to 5 years, from 6 to 10 and over 10) had similar means in all constructs and Global Trait EI.

Finally, some correlations were found between the constructs. Only in the constructs of Self-Control and Sociability no statistically significant relationship was found. All the other constructs had some positive correlations. In Emotionality and Sociability there was a small correlation; a medium correlation between Emotionality and Well-Being; between Emotionality and Self-Control; and between Well-Being and Self-Control; a large correlation between the mean scores of Sociability and Well-Being; and finally, there was a large correlation between Global EI and all the other constructs.

## **6.1 Contrast with other studies**

Based on the results obtained in this study, it seems that the Emotional Intelligence Scores of the participants in this study are relatively high, which is excellent given the educational contexts in which the individuals perform their professional duties.

This goes in line with the findings by Dacre Pool and Qualter (2012), Del Rosal Sánchez et al. (2016), Karaman Özlü et al., (2016), Kyriazopoulou, (2020), studies in which educators also had high scores in Emotional Intelligence. On the other side, the means in the present study are relatively higher in all constructs than those in Kostić-Bobanović (2020), in which the higher mean was (3.87) in the construct of Self-Control by experienced teachers.

Similar to Pertegal-Felices et al. (2011), statistically significant differences appeared between the groups of teachers and university students; in the first, professionals showed a higher average than the students. In this study, the difference is not that substantial and it is only present in the Global Trait EI, not in any factor, while in Pertegal-Felices et al. (2011), even though the questionnaire used to assess the EI was not the TEIQue-SF, statistically significant differences appeared between the means of future teachers and teachers integrated in the job market, being teachers' average scores generally higher than students' abilities. Kostić-Bobanović (2020) also found statistically significant differences between novice and experienced foreign language teachers for the constructs of Self-Control and Sociability. On the other side, this research it is not consistent with Valente et al. (2018), whose study showed that teachers with more teaching experience had lower EI scores.

As aforementioned, such difference also exists in the present study, but only in the scores of teachers and future teachers Global Trait EI. In addition, this difference is minimal, since the result of the analysis is only a few hundredths away from a value according to which such a difference would not exist. The fact that people who have never worked as teachers and those who have been doing so for years have virtually similar levels of emotional intelligence indicates that something isn't quite right in the context of emotional education training in Spanish faculties and schools. As a matter of fact, there isn't either a statistically significant difference between teachers who have five years or less of experience, those who have between 5 and 10, and teachers who have been teaching for more than 10 years, nor in the total trait EI or in any of the factors. However, the sample size is certainly small ( $n=35$ ) and therefore cannot be generalised to other populations.

There were also no differences in genders, supporting therefore, studies that have also not found differences on the levels of EI depending on the gender (Cooper & Petrides, 2010; Salavera et al., 2017). Some studies, however, contradict the present results, as they have found statistically significant differences between males and females on the scores of EI (Austin, 2010; Valente et al., 2018).

Other studies are similar to the present one in the sense that women score higher in some categories but men do in others. Brouzos et al. (2014) findings, using a different measurement tool than the TEIQue-SF, reported that girls scored higher in categories such as: behaving appropriately, working hard and total adaptive functioning, while boys scores were higher on social problems, rule-breaking behaviour, aggressive behaviour and hyperactivity-impulsivity. In Herrera Torres et al. (2017), also using a different measurement tool than the TEIQue-SF, girls outperformed boys in the areas of empathy, social responsibility, and extroversion. Boys, on the other hand, scored higher in the areas of overlapping with reality, flexibility, and problem-solving.

## **6.2 Discussion on the correlation between factors**

This is one of the first studies that analyses the correlations of the TEIQue constructs. When analysing the correlations, the study has arrived to the following conclusions: (1) Self-Control and Well-Being, Emotionality and Well-Being, Emotionality and Self-Control factors have a medium, positive correlation, with high levels of one construct associated with higher levels of the others; (2) Sociability and Well-Being have a strong, positive correlation, with high levels of Sociability associated with higher levels of Well-Being; (3), there was no statistically significant relationships between the constructs of Sociability and Self-Control; (6) Sociability and Emotionality have a small, positive correlation; (7) and finally all the constructs have a high correlation with the Total Global Trait EI, the correlation between Well-Being and total EI being especially strong.

This indicates that all of the constructs influence each other to some extent, and that great results in one construct will indicate good results in others. These findings are coherent. All four constructs make up the Global Trait EI, and it seems reasonable that they all have a positive relationship. It would be odd if any negative correlation was found and therefore, excellent performance in one construct were to be linked to bad performance in another.

It is interesting to see how much they influence each other and which constructs have a weak and a high correlation. It's also worth noting that the constructs of Sociability and Self-Control have no relationship at all. At first glance, it appears that they would be affected, as scholars (Brouzos et al., 2014; Doikou & Diamandidou, 2011; Kaplowitz et al., 2011; Rajkamal & Prema, 2019) have given proof that suppressing our emotions and not learning to control our impulses can have a detrimental impact on our personal relationships. However, it appears that the individuals in this study did not demonstrate any link in this regard. I would also want to point out that the only constructs that have a strong correlation (not medium or small) are Sociability and Well-Being. This would imply that people with high Sociability scores also have high Well-Being scores, and that Sociability influences Well-Being more than Self-Control or Emotionality. Finally, all the constructs have a strong correlation with the Global Trait Emotional Intelligence. Once again, it is the Well-Being construct that has the strongest correlation ( $r = .82$ ) with the Global Trait EI.

This is a pioneering study examining the correlations of those factors. Usually, studies examine the correlation of the factors with other variables such as burnout or self-efficacy, but never, or at least I have not found one, between the constructs themselves.

### **6.3 Possible explanation and discussion of the results**

All the presented results might be attributed to a variety of factors. The small difference in teachers' and future teachers' means, for example, could be attributed to the fact that socio-emotional education is now more generally acknowledged in education faculties and therefore, young people these days have more social-emotional capacities and knowledge at the start of their professional careers than educators who started their educational journeys years ago. Therefore, we could argue that teachers do develop emotional intelligence skills over the years, but those are at similar levels as the ones young people already have. It might also be because educators, given the nature of the

profession, have always had high levels of emotional intelligence, even when it wasn't thought to be essential, and new teachers follow in their footsteps. However, if this was to be proven, it would provide additional incentives for these skills to be taught and cultivated in educational faculties and along the educational journeys of teachers in educational institutions.

I do not want to overlook that the differences in the means are, indeed, always higher in the teachers group, but it should also be noted that these differences are always minimal and that they could be more attributed to the years lived and the emotional maturity acquired than to the fact that their emotional intelligence has been developed in the exercise of their profession. In fact, EI abilities have been seen to improve with age (Billings et al., 2014), which makes sense given that they are described as the capacity to process complex emotional information and utilize that knowledge to guide thought and behaviour (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008).

When the difference between the groups of teachers and future teachers was assessed, the higher scores were in the construct of Emotionality: (5.73) for teachers and (5.48) for future teachers, and the lower in Self-Control: (4.73) for teachers and (4.35) for future teachers, being the difference of a whole entire one point. Taking into account the definition of each factor and facet provided in Petrides (2001), participants who score highly on the Emotionality factor consider they have a broad variety of emotional skills. They have the ability to recognize others' emotions and feelings and express their own, and they utilize these qualities to form and sustain deep and intimate relationships with those who are important to them. People who score low on this factor have a hard time identifying their inner emotions and communicating their thoughts and appreciation to others, which leads to less satisfying personal interactions.

The Self-Control factor gives an idea on the amount of control individuals have over their emotions. When an individual has a high score, it means that do not bend to their wishes and urges and that they excel at controlling external demanding influences and stress. They aren't inhibited individuals nor are they exceedingly open. Low scorers appear less able of regulating stress and are

susceptible to impetuous, spontaneous and illogical behaviour. Given the significance of regulating stress and impulsive emotions when teaching, it needs to be noted how unfortunate it is that both groups of professionals had the lower scores in this area. On the other hand, the best scores in the Emotionality factor are also an excellent sign, since they have high scores in being empathetic and recognizing their students' emotions and feelings, which is a key quality for developing deep and genuine relationships with their students.

#### **6.4 Limitations of the study and future research**

As with all research and as a general truth in life, there are some limitations to this study. To begin with, the research sample (N=77) was small, which has a negative impact on the data's reliability and the results of the study. Therefore, none of the findings can be generalized to other populations of educators in other parts of Spain or the world. If future research in the field were to be conducted, it should be expanded to include more schools and faculties in Spain, if not educational institutions worldwide, to ensure that the findings are consistent among all education professionals.

Another flaw in this study is that it relies solely on data collected from one source: the participants. Using a variety of data collection methods would have certainly resulted in more accurate results. Another drawback is that the I was not present, either fact-to-face or remotely, at any point throughout the data collection procedure. The participants were only informed about the study and their potential participation by listing emails or Moodle courses, and the only information they received was a brief explanation of the form they completed. Despite the knowledge that contacting me was available, no participant did so.

Limits of trait measurements and self-report measures in general are another limitation of this study. Participants may have wanted to present their emotional intelligence levels in a way that they felt would be more advantageous to them and to the institutions in which they work or study, knowing that their results would be used for a research paper. Nonetheless, research (O'Connor et

al., 2019) examining the limits of trait measurements has found that participants rarely lie in situations where no one will know of their involvement or won't face consequences. However, given the little information provided to the participants, they may have felt compelled to lie or score better than their colleagues.

Furthermore, while this research has permitted me to determine the levels of Emotional Intelligence among a sample of Spanish educators, it was not a longitudinal study. Instead of a within-groups analysis, this was a between-groups analysis. That is, the findings of this study are based on a comparison of two completely distinct groups, rather than a comparison of the same groups across time. What would have provided greater insight and more accurate results would have been to test the same people over time to determine if their levels remained constant or changed over time. For that reason, it would be interesting if, in the future, a study looked at two groups of teachers and a group of students before starting their careers, subjecting one to an emotional intelligence learning program and not the other, to see if there any differences appeared over time or if the levels remained the same.

A fifth limitation is that several variables that were addressed in the questionnaires to get a deeper understanding of the participants' backgrounds were not examined or taken into account in the final examination, due to a variety of reasons. The first and most important reason is that the study's aim was to investigate the emotional intelligence among a sample of Spanish educators and compare it by professional group, age, and experience. In respect of the age variable, it might be argued that age was examined indirectly through the analysis of teachers and future teachers, because the latter are already younger, and secondly, by the analysis of experience, which also classified younger teachers as those with less experience. For various reasons, the variables of class size, educational level, teaching grade, workplace, workday length, professional status, and whether or not they work at the school in another role have not been studied. In terms of research relevance, time, and practicality, the variables that have indeed been investigated in this study are considerably more relevant. The

other variables, as previously stated, were inconsistent and non-constant. The teachers who took part in the study have taught about different numbers of pupils and grades, have worked for varying lengths of time, have changed their professional status or have or have not had jobs aside from their main teaching job throughout the years. For all that, the findings would have been inconclusive if they had been evaluated and reported in this research.

One last limitation of this research is the absence of qualitative data that can provide a reason or explanation for the presented outcomes. The study was solely quantitative, thus it just answers questions about EI levels and differences, but it doesn't explain the reasons behind those results. Future studies may wish to use both quantitative and qualitative approaches, as well as increase contact with participants so that they can explain their responses.

Future research might explore statistically significant differences not only in the overall correlations, but also between and within the groups. The results suggest that within the same group, the means for the constructs vary quite a bit and it would be interesting to see if the correlations yielded for all the participants remain the same when separated by groups. Further investigation might also analyse the levels and differences not just in the overall aspects of factors, but also in the facets, to see how the results are in that sense.

## **6.5 Final thoughts**

Despite the good and encouraging initial results, emotional competences should not be overlooked or taken for granted in the training of future educators nor in the training of those teachers who have years of experience. Several research (Ciarrochi & Mayer; 2007; Dacre & Qualter, 2012; Doikou & Diamandidou, 2011, Nelis et al., 2009; Pérez-Escoda et al., 2013) have shown that when participants are exposed to emotional intelligence training, their scores increase, implying that these levels might be much higher if additional social-emotional development programs for Spanish teachers were implemented.

Teachers' Emotional Intelligence clearly plays a key role in providing a satisfactory and adequate education, supporting students' learning in a variety of ways (Barchard, 2013; Battistich et al., 2000; Billings et al., 2014; Brouzos et al., 2014), and preventing burnout in teachers (Pena Garrido & Extremera Pacheco, 2010). As a result, teachers worldwide need support when dealing with the complexities of students' social and behavioral conducts, as well as training to be emotionally able to manage all the demands set upon them and the failures when they do not meet those.

All the contextualisation, findings and results shown above offer previously unknown information on the emotional intelligence of a sample of Spanish educators, and might lead to a better understanding of the current situation regarding Emotional intelligence in the Spanish educational context. The scarcity of socio-emotional programs in Spain targeted at increasing teachers' emotional intelligence was already a source of concern for Fernández-Berrocal and Ruiz Aranda (2008), and the situation has not changed much since then. This study can act as a starting point and a testing ground for more of those socio-emotional programs to be developed. If the future of Spanish education is to be consistent with what research has shown to date, with what educational laws require, and with the model of European society that Spanish education should be pursuing, teacher training must incorporate emotional intelligence instruction (Palomera, et al., 2017).

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## APPENDIX 1.

### PRIVACY NOTICE IN SPANISH FOR PARTICIPANTS

UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ

FACULTY OF EDUCATION  
AND PSYCHOLOGY

19.11.2020



***Una descripción del procesamiento de datos personales con fines de investigación científica (aviso de privacidad; artículos 13, 14 y 30 del Reglamento (UE) 2016/679)***

#### 1. Responsable (s) e investigador (es)

La responsable de este estudio es: Marta Valle Romeu, +34 691 84 55 99, mavaller@student.jyu.fi

#### 2. Datos personales tratados en la tesis

Como parte del programa de Master en Ciencias de la Educación en la Universidad de Jyväskylä, Marta Valle Romeu está realizando una investigación para su tesis de master sobre Inteligencia Emocional en profesores y estudiantes de docencia. La investigación comenzó en la primavera de 2020 y se espera que se complete en la primavera de 2021.

#### 3. Motivos legales para el procesamiento de datos personales con fines de investigación / archivo

La base legal para procesar sus datos personales es el consentimiento del sujeto de la investigación (Artículo 6.1 (a), GDPR).

Se recogerán los siguientes datos personales de los estudiantes: título universitario, año de asistencia, universidad de asistencia (lugar de estudio), sexo, edad y respuestas a la encuesta.

Se recogerán los siguientes datos personales de los profesores: sexo, edad, años de experiencia, lugar de trabajo, nivel máximo de estudios y respuestas a la encuesta.

**Profesores:** Este aviso de privacidad se ha enviado por correo electrónico a los participantes junto con el enlace para responder el cuestionario.

**Estudiantes universitarios:** El cuestionario electrónico incluye un enlace directo a esta información.

#### 4. Antecedentes y propósito de la investigación

El objetivo del estudio es conocer mejor el papel de la inteligencia emocional entre los expertos en educación españoles y dentro del ámbito educativo.

Los datos se recopilarán a través de un cuestionario electrónico y, se centrarán en las autoevaluaciones de los participantes.

Tel:  
(014) 260 1211  
Fax:  
(014) 260 1021

University of Jyväskylä  
P.O.Box 35  
FI-40014 University of Jyväskylä  
www.jyu.fi

## APPENDIX 2.

### RESEARCH NOTIFICATION IN SPANISH FOR PARTICIPANTS



UNIVERSITY OF JYVÄSKYLÄ

FACULTY OF EDUCATION  
AND PSYCHOLOGY

17.11.2020

#### NOTIFICACIÓN DE INVESTIGACIÓN

##### **Nombre del estudio y controlador**

*Tesis de Master en Inteligencia Emocional. La investigadora y responsable del estudio es Marta Valle Romeu. La investigación se realiza en la Universidad de Jyväskylä, Finlandia, como parte de un programa de Master.*

##### **Solicitud para participar en un estudio**

*Se le solicita la participación en un estudio que quiere examinar la Inteligencia Emocional de profesores y futuros docentes. El objetivo del estudio es tener una mejor comprensión del papel de la Inteligencia Emocional en la educación.*

*Se le solicita que participe en el estudio porque es un futuro profesor o un profesor experimentado en España.*

*En total, se solicitará la participación de alrededor de 70 sujetos.*

##### **Voluntariedad**

*La participación en este estudio es voluntaria. Puede negarse a participar en este estudio o cancelar su participación en cualquier momento.*

##### **Avance del estudio**

*Este estudio tiene como objetivo estudiar la inteligencia emocional en el campo de la educación. Se espera que al participante le tome alrededor de 20 minutos contestar el cuestionario. No se espera nada más de los participantes.*

##### **Costos de investigación**

*No se pagará ninguna tarifa por participar en el estudio.*

*El investigador no recibirá fondos ni pagos de este estudio.*

##### **Resultados de la investigación y su anuncio**

*Los resultados de la investigación se publicarán en la Universidad de Jyväskylä. Los sujetos de investigación pueden acceder a los resultados a través de la*

## APPENDIX 3.

## TEIQUE-SF SPANISH VERSION

## TEIQUE-SF

*Instrucciones:* Por favor, responda cada una de las afirmaciones expuestas más abajo poniendo un círculo alrededor del número que mejor refleja su grado de acuerdo o desacuerdo con cada afirmación. Lea cada afirmación y escoja la respuesta que se corresponda mejor con su manera más frecuente de ser, pensar o actuar. NO piense demasiado sobre el significado exacto de la afirmación. Responda con sinceridad. NO hay respuestas correctas o incorrectas. Hay siete posibles respuestas a cada afirmación, variando desde "Completamente en Desacuerdo" (nº 1) hasta "Completamente de Acuerdo" (nº 7).

1 . . . . . 2 . . . . . 3 . . . . . 4 . . . . . 5 . . . . . 6 . . . . . 7  
**Completamente en** **Completamente**  
**Desacuerdo** **de Acuerdo**

1. No tengo dificultad para expresar mis emociones con palabras.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. A menudo me resulta difícil ver las cosas desde el punto de vista de otra persona.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. En general soy una persona con alta motivación.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Me cuesta controlar mis emociones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. En general no encuentro la vida agradable.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Puedo relacionarme fácilmente con la gente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Tiendo a cambiar de opinión frecuentemente.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Muchas veces no consigo tener claro qué emoción estoy sintiendo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Creo que poseo buenas cualidades.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. En muchas ocasiones me resulta difícil defender mis derechos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Soy capaz de influir en los sentimientos de los demás.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Soy pesimista en la mayoría de las cosas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Las personas de mi entorno más cercano se quejan de que no les trato bien.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Me cuesta trabajo adaptarme a los cambios.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. En general soy capaz de afrontar situaciones estresantes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. A menudo siento dificultad para mostrar mi afecto a las personas más allegadas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Soy capaz de "poneme en la piel" de los demás y sentir sus emociones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Me cuesta motivarme por lo que hago.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Puedo encontrar diferentes maneras de controlar mis emociones cuando lo deseo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. En general estoy encantado/a con mi vida.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Me considero un/a buen/a negociador/a.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Me implico, sin pensar lo suficiente, en cosas que más tarde desearía poder dejar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. A menudo me detengo a pensar sobre mis sentimientos.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Creo que estoy lleno/a de virtudes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. En una discusión tiendo a ceder incluso cuando sé que estoy en lo cierto.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. No creo tener ningún poder sobre los sentimientos de los demás.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. En general creo que las cosas me irán bien en la vida.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Me cuesta conectar con las personas, incluso con aquellas más cercanas a mí.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. Por lo general soy capaz de adaptarme a nuevas situaciones.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Algunas personas me admiran por ser tan tranquilo/a.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

## APPENDIX 4.

### QUESTIONNAIRE HANDED TO TEACHERS

#### CUESTIONARIO PARA PROFESORES

La Inteligencia emocional (IE) es un constructo que se refiere a la capacidad de los individuos para reconocer sus propias emociones y las de los demás, discriminar entre diferentes sentimientos y etiquetarlos apropiadamente, utilizar información emocional para guiar el pensamiento y la conducta, y administrar o ajustar las emociones para adaptarse al ambiente o conseguir objetivos.

---

Esta encuesta es parte de una Tesis de Máster, realizada en la Universidad de Jyväskylä. El objetivo del estudio es tener una mejor comprensión del papel de la Inteligencia Emocional en la educación. La investigadora principal es Marta Valle Romeu (mavaller@student.jyu.fi), estudiante del Máster en Ciencias de la Educación en dicha Universidad.

La participación en este estudio es voluntaria. Puede interrumpir su participación en cualquier momento. Los datos de la encuesta recopilados se anonimizarán. Los datos anonimizados se pueden publicar en publicaciones académicas. Los datos personales o identificables no se compartirán y la investigadora será la única persona con acceso a ellos.

**Contestando este cuestionario acepto que los datos recopilados con esta encuesta se utilizarán en la investigación.**

Para más información:

Notificación de privacidad:

[https://docs.google.com/document/d/1Vtf8L0I9bE9LKrHkZ80nvkBOaqU3wp7BzYv5xM\\_b3D8/edit?usp=sharing](https://docs.google.com/document/d/1Vtf8L0I9bE9LKrHkZ80nvkBOaqU3wp7BzYv5xM_b3D8/edit?usp=sharing)

Notificación de investigación:

[https://docs.google.com/document/d/1dZSVk71Iip\\_VJ834zzbV4mduh9Jb38HhBoPVU3C1fjU/edit?usp=sharing](https://docs.google.com/document/d/1dZSVk71Iip_VJ834zzbV4mduh9Jb38HhBoPVU3C1fjU/edit?usp=sharing)

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El cuestionario consta de 2 secciones.

En la primera hay algunas preguntas de carácter general sobre usted y su profesión.

La segunda es un cuestionario sobre Inteligencia Emocional. Va a encontrar más instrucciones sobre cómo contestarla en la correspondiente sección.

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## APPENDIX 5.

### QUESTIONNAIRE HANDED TO STUDENTS

#### CUESTIONARIO PARA ESTUDIANTES DE UNIVERSIDAD

La Inteligencia emocional (IE) es un constructo que se refiere a la capacidad de los individuos para reconocer sus propias emociones y las de los demás, discriminar entre diferentes sentimientos y etiquetarlos apropiadamente, utilizar información emocional para guiar el pensamiento y la conducta, y administrar o ajustar las emociones para adaptarse al ambiente o conseguir objetivos.

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Notificación de privacidad:

[https://docs.google.com/document/d/1Vtf8L0I9bE9LKrHkZ80nvkBOaqU3wp7BzYv5xM\\_b3D8/edit?usp=sharing](https://docs.google.com/document/d/1Vtf8L0I9bE9LKrHkZ80nvkBOaqU3wp7BzYv5xM_b3D8/edit?usp=sharing)

Notificación de investigación:

[https://docs.google.com/document/d/1dZSVk71Iip\\_VJ834zzbV4mduh9Jb38HhBoPVU3C1fjU/edit?usp=sharing](https://docs.google.com/document/d/1dZSVk71Iip_VJ834zzbV4mduh9Jb38HhBoPVU3C1fjU/edit?usp=sharing)

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El cuestionario consta de 2 secciones.

En la primera hay algunas preguntas de carácter general sobre usted y su profesión.

La segunda es un cuestionario sobre Inteligencia Emocional. Va a encontrar más instrucciones sobre cómo contestarla en la correspondiente sección.

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## APPENDIX 6.

### TEIQUE-SF SCORING KEY

#### Scoring Key for the TEIQUE-SF (Petrides, 2001, 2009)

RECODE

te\_i\_16 te\_i\_2 te\_i\_18 te\_i\_4 te\_i\_5 te\_i\_7 te\_i\_22 te\_i\_8 te\_i\_10 te\_i\_25 te\_i\_26 te\_i\_12 te\_i\_13 te\_i\_28 te\_i\_14  
(7=1) (6=2) (5=3)

(3=5) (2=6) (1=7) (4=4)

EXECUTE .

COMPUTE tot\_tei = (te\_i\_1 + te\_i\_2 + te\_i\_3 + te\_i\_4 + te\_i\_5 + te\_i\_6 + te\_i\_7 + te\_i\_8 + te\_i\_9 + te\_i\_10 +  
te\_i\_11 + te\_i\_12 + te\_i\_13 + te\_i\_14 + te\_i\_15 + te\_i\_16 + te\_i\_17 + te\_i\_18 + te\_i\_19 + te\_i\_20 + te\_i\_21 +  
te\_i\_22 + te\_i\_23 + te\_i\_24 + te\_i\_25 + te\_i\_26 + te\_i\_27 + te\_i\_28 + te\_i\_29 + te\_i\_30) / 30 .

EXECUTE

\*Factor scores .

COMPUTE well\_being = (te\_i\_5 + te\_i\_20 + te\_i\_9 + te\_i\_24 + te\_i\_12 + te\_i\_27) / 6 .

EXECUTE .

COMPUTE self\_control = (te\_i\_4 + te\_i\_19 + te\_i\_7 + te\_i\_22 + te\_i\_15 + te\_i\_30) / 6 .

EXECUTE .

COMPUTE emotionality = (te\_i\_1 + te\_i\_16 + te\_i\_2 + te\_i\_17 + te\_i\_8 + te\_i\_23 + te\_i\_13 + te\_i\_28) / 8 .

EXECUTE .

COMPUTE sociability = (te\_i\_6 + te\_i\_21 + te\_i\_10 + te\_i\_25 + te\_i\_11 + te\_i\_26) / 6 .

EXECUTE .

var lab tot\_tei 'global trait emotional intelligence' .

TITLE 'well\_being' .

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES= te\_i\_5 te\_i\_20 te\_i\_9 te\_i\_24 te\_i\_12 te\_i\_27

/FORMAT=NOLABELS

/SCALE(ALPHA)=ALL/MODEL=ALPHA

/SUMMARY=TOTAL .

TITLE 'self-control' .

RELIABILITY

/VARIABLES= te\_i\_4 te\_i\_19 te\_i\_7 te\_i\_22 te\_i\_15 te\_i\_30